

A journey into Alexandrov geometry:  
curvature bounded below

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# Preface

This book is similar to our “Invitation to Alexandrov geometry” written jointly with Stephanie Alexander [4]. We try to demonstrate the beauty and power of Alexandrov geometry by reaching interesting applications and theorems with minimal preparation. This time we do spaces with curvature bounded below in the sense of Alexandrov. We extensively use another book of us with Stephanie Alexander [5].

This subject is more technical; it takes more preparation, and we had to jump over some proofs. Namely, we do not prove the existence part in generalized Picard’s theorem (5.3) and Perelman’s theorem about conic neighborhoods (9.1); the rest is nearly rigorous. Several times, proofs of important statements are left as exercises, but all of them are solved at the end of the book; in all these cases, the statement is more important than its proof.

In Lecture 1, we discuss necessary preliminaries and fix notations.

Lecture 2 introduces the main object of our study — spaces with curvature bounded below in the sense of Alexandrov.

In Lecture 3, we formulate and prove the globalization theorem that local Alexandrov condition implies global. To simplify the presentation we consider only the compact case, this case gives the main ideas of the proof but is less technical.

In Lecture 4, we do beginning of calculus — tangent space and space of directions, differential, and gradient.

Lecture 5 introduces gradient flow, which will be further used as the main technical tool.

Lecture 6 proves the line splitting theorem. Furthermore, we introduce and study linear subspaces of tangent spaces.

In Lecture 7, we introduce linear dimension and volume. Further, we prove the Bishop–Gromov inequality and the right-inverse theorem, introduce distance charts, and show that all reasonable types of dimension are the same for Alexandrov spaces.

In Lecture 8 we show that a lower curvature bound survives under Gromov–Hausdorff limits and prove Gromov’s selection theorem. Fur-

ther, we present Perelman's construction of strictly concave functions and apply it with Gromov's selection theorem to prove the homotopy finiteness theorem. This proof illustrates one of the main sources of applications of Alexandrov geometry.

In Lecture 9, we introduce the boundary of finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces and prove the doubling theorem.

In Lecture 10, we show that quotients of Alexandrov spaces by isometric group action are Alexandrov spaces. This gives another source of applications of Alexandrov geometry, several examples are given.

In Lecture 11, we show that the surface of a convex body in Euclidean space is an Alexandrov space. This theorem was proved by Alexandrov himself and provides third (historically first) source of applications of Alexandrov geometry.

Finally, Appendix A sketches Alexandrov's embedding theorem of convex polyhedra. This theorem is the first remarkable result in Alexandrov geometry, dating back to 1941. The proof is very well written by Alexandrov, but we decided to include its sketch here due to its beauty and importance. This appendix was written by Nina Lebedeva and the second author for a book about St. Petersburg mathematicians and their discoveries [58].

Let us give a list of available texts on Alexandrov spaces with curvature bounded below:

- ◊ The 2-dimensional theory is treated in the classical book of Alexandr Alexandrov [8].
- ◊ The first introduction to Alexandrov geometry of all dimensions is given in the original paper by Yuriy Burago, Michael Gromov, and Grigory Perelman [17] and its extension [73] written by Perelman.
- ◊ A brief and reader-friendly introduction was written by Katsuhiko Shiohama [93, Sections 1–8].
- ◊ Another reader-friendly introduction, written by Dmitri Burago, Yuriy Burago, and Sergei Ivanov [16, Chapter 10].
- ◊ Survey by Conrad Plaut [89].
- ◊ Survey by the second author [81].

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# Lecture 1

## Preliminaries

### A Prerequisites

Most importantly, the reader should know and love elementary geometry, including convexity.

We also assume that the reader is familiar with the following topics in metric geometry:

- ◇ Compactness and proper metric spaces; recall that a metric space is proper if all its closed balls (of finite radius) are compact.
- ◇ Complete metric spaces and completion.
- ◇ Curves, semicontinuity of length and rectifiability.
- ◇ Hausdorff and Gromov–Hausdorff convergence. These are discussed briefly in 1I–1M. The definitions are there, but some prior familiarity with these concepts will be very helpful

All these topics are treated in detail in [16] and [86]. Occasionally, we use the Baire category theorem and Rademacher’s theorem, but these could be used as black boxes.

We use some topology. An introductory text in algebraic topology should be sufficient most of the time. For some examples, we apply more advanced results, but these are used as black boxes.

Since most of the applications come from Riemannian geometry, it is beneficial to be familiar with the Toponogov comparison theorem and related topics. The classical book by Jeff Cheeger and David Ebin [19] contains more than one needs.

## B Notations

The distance between two points  $x$  and  $y$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  will be denoted by  $|x - y|$  or  $|x - y|_{\mathcal{X}}$ . The latter notation is used if we need to emphasize that the distance is taken in the space  $\mathcal{X}$ .

Given radius  $r \in [0, \infty]$  and center  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , the sets

$$\begin{aligned} B(x, r) &= \{y \in \mathcal{X} : |x - y| < r\}, \\ \bar{B}[x, r] &= \{y \in \mathcal{X} : |x - y| \leq r\} \end{aligned}$$

are called, respectively, the open and the closed balls. The notations  $B(x, r)_{\mathcal{X}}$  and  $\bar{B}[x, r]_{\mathcal{X}}$  might be used if we need to emphasize that these balls are taken in the metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ .

We will denote by  $\mathbb{S}^n$ ,  $\mathbb{E}^n$ , and  $\mathbb{H}^n$  the  $n$ -dimensional sphere (with angle metric), the Euclidean space, and the Lobachevsky space respectively. More generally,  $\mathbb{M}^n(\kappa)$  will denote the model  $n$ -space of curvature  $\kappa$ ; that is,

- ◇ if  $\kappa > 0$ , then  $\mathbb{M}^n(\kappa)$  is the  $n$ -sphere of radius  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\kappa}}$ , so  $\mathbb{S}^n = \mathbb{M}^n(1)$
- ◇  $\mathbb{M}^n(0) = \mathbb{E}^n$ ,
- ◇ if  $\kappa < 0$ , then  $\mathbb{M}^n(\kappa)$  is the Lobachevsky  $n$ -space  $\mathbb{H}^n$  rescaled by factor  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{-\kappa}}$ ; in particular  $\mathbb{M}^n(-1) = \mathbb{H}^n$ .

## C Length spaces

Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a metric space. If for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and any pair of points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ , there is a path  $\alpha$  connecting  $x$  to  $y$  such that

$$\text{length } \alpha < |x - y| + \varepsilon,$$

then  $\mathcal{X}$  is called a length space and the metric on  $\mathcal{X}$  is called a length metric.

**1.1. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a complete length space. Show that for any compact subset  $K \subset \mathcal{X}$  there is a compact path-connected subset  $K' \subset \mathcal{X}$  that contains  $K$ .*

**Induced length metric.** Directly from the definition, it follows that if  $\alpha: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is a path from  $x$  to  $y$  (that is,  $\alpha(0) = x$  and  $\alpha(1) = y$ ), then

$$\text{length } \alpha \geq |x - y|.$$

Set

$$\|x - y\| = \inf\{\text{length } \alpha\},$$



where the greatest lower bound is taken for all paths from  $x$  to  $y$ . It is straightforward to check that  $(x, y) \mapsto \|x - y\|$  is an  $\infty$ -metric; that is,  $(x, y) \mapsto \|x - y\|$  is a metric in the extended positive reals  $[0, \infty]$ . The metric  $\|* - *\|$  is called the induced length metric.

**1.2. Exercise.** *Suppose  $(\mathcal{X}, |* - *|)$  is a complete metric space. Show that  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$  is complete; that is, any Cauchy sequence of points in  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$  converges in  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$ .*

Let  $A$  be a subset of a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Given two points  $x, y \in A$ , consider the value

$$|x - y|_A = \inf_{\alpha} \{ \text{length } \alpha \},$$

where the greatest lower bound is taken for all paths  $\alpha$  from  $x$  to  $y$  in  $A$ . In other words,  $|* - *|_A$  denotes the induced length metric on the subspace  $A$ . (The notation  $|* - *|_A$  conflicts with the previously defined notation for distance  $|x - y|_{\mathcal{X}}$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . However, most of the time we will work with ambient length spaces where the meaning will be unambiguous.)

## D Geodesics

Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a metric space, and let  $\mathbb{I}$  be a real interval. A distance-preserving map  $\gamma: \mathbb{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is called a geodesic<sup>1</sup>; in other words,  $\gamma: \mathbb{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is a geodesic if

$$|\gamma(s) - \gamma(t)| = |s - t|$$

for any pair  $s, t \in \mathbb{I}$ .

If  $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is a geodesic such that  $p = \gamma(a)$ ,  $q = \gamma(b)$ , then we say that  $\gamma$  is a geodesic from  $p$  to  $q$ . In this case, the image of  $\gamma$  is denoted by  $[pq]$ , and, with abuse of notations, we also call it a geodesic. We may write  $[pq]_{\mathcal{X}}$  to emphasize that the geodesic  $[pq]$  lies in the space  $\mathcal{X}$ .

In general, a geodesic from  $p$  to  $q$  need not exist and if it exists, it need not be unique; for example, any meridian is a geodesic between poles on the sphere. However, once we write  $[pq]$  we assume that we have chosen such a geodesic.

A geodesic path is a geodesic with constant-speed parameterization by the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Other texts may refer to geodesics in our sense of the word as *shortest path* or *minimizing geodesic*. Also, our meaning of the term *geodesic* is closely related, but different from what is used in Riemannian geometry.

A metric space is called geodesic if any pair of its points can be joined by a geodesic. A metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  is called  $\ell$ -geodesic if any two points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|x - y| < \ell$  can be connected by a geodesic. For instance, any geodesic space is  $\infty$ -geodesic.

Evidently, any geodesic space is a length space.

**1.3. Exercise.** *Show that any proper length space is geodesic.*

## E Menger's lemma

**1.4. Lemma.** *Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a complete metric space. Assume that for any pair of points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ , there is a midpoint  $z$ . Then  $\mathcal{X}$  is a geodesic space.*

This lemma is due to Karl Menger [65, Section 6].

*Proof.* Choose  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ ; set  $\gamma(0) = x$ , and  $\gamma(1) = y$ .

$$x = \overset{\circ}{\gamma(0)} \quad \overset{\circ}{\gamma(\frac{1}{4})} \quad \overset{\circ}{\gamma(\frac{1}{2})} \quad \overset{\circ}{\gamma(\frac{3}{4})} \quad \overset{\circ}{\gamma(1)} = y$$

Let  $\gamma(\frac{1}{2})$  be a midpoint between  $\gamma(0)$  and  $\gamma(1)$ . Further, let  $\gamma(\frac{1}{4})$  and  $\gamma(\frac{3}{4})$  be midpoints between the pairs  $(\gamma(0), \gamma(\frac{1}{2}))$  and  $(\gamma(\frac{1}{2}), \gamma(1))$  respectively. Applying the above procedure recursively, on the  $n$ -th step we define  $\gamma(\frac{k}{2^n})$ , for every odd integer  $k$  such that  $0 < \frac{k}{2^n} < 1$ , as a midpoint of the already defined  $\gamma(\frac{k-1}{2^n})$  and  $\gamma(\frac{k+1}{2^n})$ .

This way we define  $\gamma(t)$  for all dyadic rationals  $t$  in  $[0, 1]$ . Moreover,  $\gamma$  has Lipschitz constant  $|x - y|$ . Since  $\mathcal{X}$  is complete, the map  $\gamma$  can be extended continuously to  $[0, 1]$ . Moreover,

$$\text{length } \gamma \leq |x - y|.$$

Therefore  $\gamma$  is a geodesic path from  $x$  to  $y$ . □

**1.5. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a complete metric space. Assume that for any pair of points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ , there is an almost midpoint; that is, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a point  $z$  such that*

$$|x - z| < \frac{1}{2} \cdot |x - y| + \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad |y - z| < \frac{1}{2} \cdot |x - y| + \varepsilon.$$

*Show that  $\mathcal{X}$  is a length space.*

## F Triangles and model triangles

**Triangles.** Given a triple of points  $p, q, r$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ , a choice of geodesics  $([qr], [rp], [pq])$  will be called a triangle; we will use the short notation  $[pqr] = [pqr]_{\mathcal{X}} = ([qr], [rp], [pq])$ .

Given a triple  $p, q, r \in \mathcal{X}$  there may be no triangle  $[pqr]$  simply because one of the pairs of these points cannot be joined by a geodesic. Also, many different triangles with these vertices may exist, any of which can be denoted by  $[pqr]$ . If we write  $[pqr]$ , it means that we have chosen such a triangle.

**Model triangles.** Given three points  $p, q, r$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ , let us define the model triangle  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{q}\tilde{r}]$  (briefly,  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{q}\tilde{r}] = \tilde{\Delta}(pqr)_{\mathbb{E}^2}$ ) to be a triangle in the Euclidean plane  $\mathbb{E}^2$  with the same sides; that is,

$$|\tilde{p} - \tilde{q}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} = |p - q|_{\mathcal{X}}, \quad |\tilde{q} - \tilde{r}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} = |q - r|_{\mathcal{X}}, \quad |\tilde{r} - \tilde{p}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} = |r - p|_{\mathcal{X}}.$$

In the same way, we can define the hyperbolic and the spherical model triangles  $\tilde{\Delta}(pqr)_{\mathbb{H}^2}$ ,  $\tilde{\Delta}(pqr)_{\mathbb{S}^2}$  in the Lobachevsky plane  $\mathbb{H}^2$  and the unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$ . In the latter case, the model triangle is said to be defined if in addition

$$|p - q| + |q - r| + |r - p| < 2 \cdot \pi.$$

In this case, the model triangle again exists and is unique up to an isometry of  $\mathbb{S}^2$ .

**Model angles.** If  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{q}\tilde{r}] = \tilde{\Delta}(pqr)_{\mathbb{E}^2}$  and  $|p - q|, |p - r| > 0$ , the angle measure of  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{q}\tilde{r}]$  at  $\tilde{p}$  will be called the model angle of the triple  $p, q, r$  and will be denoted by  $\tilde{\angle}(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{E}^2}$ .

For example, if  $|p - q| = |q - r| = |r - p|$ , then  $\tilde{\angle}(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{E}^2} = \frac{\pi}{3}$  regardless of existence and relative position of geodesics  $[pq]$  and  $[pr]$ .

The same way we define  $\tilde{\angle}(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)}$ ; in particular,  $\angle(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{H}^2}$  and  $\angle(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{S}^2}$ . We may use the notation  $\angle(p_r^q)$  if it is evident which of the model spaces is meant.

**1.6. Exercise.** Show that for any triple of point  $p, q$ , and  $r$ , the function

$$\kappa \mapsto \tilde{\angle}(p_r^q)_{\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)}$$

is nondecreasing in its domain of definition.

## G Hinges and their angle measure

**Hinges.** Let  $p, x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  be a triple of points such that  $p$  is distinct from  $x$  and  $y$ . A pair of geodesics  $([px], [py])$  will be called a hinge and will be denoted by  $[p_x^y] = ([px], [py])$ .

**Angles.** The angle measure of a hinge  $[p_y^x]$  is defined as the following limit

$$\angle[p_y^x] = \lim_{\bar{x}, \bar{y} \rightarrow p} \tilde{\angle}(p_{\bar{y}}^{\bar{x}}),$$

where  $\bar{x} \in ]px]$  and  $\bar{y} \in ]py]$  (The angle is only defined if this limit exists).

If  $\angle[p_y^x]$  is defined, then

$$0 \leq \angle[p_y^x] \leq \pi.$$

**1.7. Exercise.** Suppose that in the above definition, one uses spherical or hyperbolic model angles instead of Euclidean ones. Show that it does not change the value  $\angle[p_y^x]$ .

**1.8. Exercise.** Give an example of a hinge  $[p_y^x]$  in a metric space with an undefined angle measure  $\angle[p_y^x]$ .

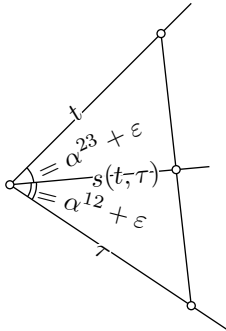
## H Triangle inequality for angles

**1.9. Proposition.** Let  $[px_1]$ ,  $[px_2]$ , and  $[px_3]$  be three geodesics in a metric space. Suppose all the angle measures  $\alpha_{i,j} = \angle[p_{x_j}^{x_i}]$  are defined. Then

$$\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3}.$$

*Proof.* Since  $\alpha_{1,3} \leq \pi$ , we can assume that  $\alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3} < \pi$ . Denote by  $\gamma_i$  the unit-speed parametrization of  $[px_i]$  from  $p$  to  $x_i$ . Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , for all sufficiently small  $t, \tau, s \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\gamma_1(t) - \gamma_3(\tau)| &\leq |\gamma_1(t) - \gamma_2(s)| + |\gamma_2(s) - \gamma_3(\tau)| < \\ &< \sqrt{t^2 + s^2 - 2 \cdot t \cdot s \cdot \cos(\alpha_{1,2} + \varepsilon)} + \\ &+ \sqrt{s^2 + \tau^2 - 2 \cdot s \cdot \tau \cdot \cos(\alpha_{2,3} + \varepsilon)} \leq \end{aligned}$$



Below we define  $s(t, \tau)$  so that for  $s = s(t, \tau)$ , this chain of inequalities can be continued as follows:

$$\leq \sqrt{t^2 + \tau^2 - 2 \cdot t \cdot \tau \cdot \cos(\alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3} + 2 \cdot \varepsilon)}.$$

Thus for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3} + 2 \cdot \varepsilon.$$

Hence the result follows.

To define  $s(t, \tau)$ , consider three half-lines  $\tilde{\gamma}_1, \tilde{\gamma}_2, \tilde{\gamma}_3$  on a Euclidean plane starting at one point, such that  $\angle(\tilde{\gamma}_1, \tilde{\gamma}_2) = \alpha_{1,2} + \varepsilon$ ,  $\angle(\tilde{\gamma}_2, \tilde{\gamma}_3) = \alpha_{2,3} + \varepsilon$ , and  $\angle(\tilde{\gamma}_1, \tilde{\gamma}_3) = \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3} + 2 \cdot \varepsilon$ . We parametrize each half-line by the distance from the starting point. Given two positive numbers  $t, \tau \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , let  $s = s(t, \tau)$  be the number such that  $\tilde{\gamma}_2(s) \in [\tilde{\gamma}_1(t), \tilde{\gamma}_3(\tau)]$ . Clearly,  $s \leq \max\{t, \tau\}$ , so  $t, \tau, s$  may be taken sufficiently small.  $\square$

**1.10. Exercise.** *Prove that the sum of adjacent angles is at least  $\pi$ .*

*More precisely: suppose two hinges  $[p_z^x]$  and  $[p_z^y]$  are adjacent; that is, they share side  $[pz]$ , and the union of two sides  $[px]$  and  $[py]$  forms a geodesic  $[xy]$ . Show that*

$$\angle[p_z^x] + \angle[p_z^y] \geq \pi$$

*whenever each angle on the left-hand side is defined.*

*Give an example showing that the inequality can be strict.*

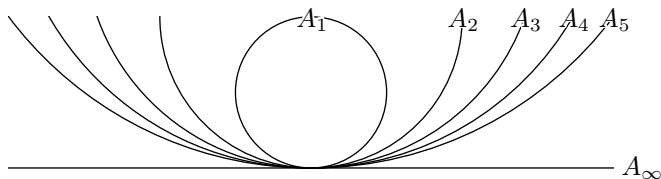
**1.11. Exercise.** *Assume that the angle measure of  $[q_x^p]$  is defined. Let  $\gamma$  be the unit speed parametrization of  $[qx]$  from  $q$  to  $x$ . Show that*

$$|p - \gamma(t)| \leq |q - p| - t \cdot \cos(\angle[q_x^p]) + o(t).$$

## I Hausdorff convergence

**1.12. Definition.** *Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a sequence of closed sets in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . We say that the sequence  $A_n$  converges to a closed set  $A_\infty$  in the sense of Hausdorff if, for any  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , we have  $\text{dist}_{A_n}(x) \rightarrow \text{dist}_{A_\infty}(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

For example, suppose  $\mathcal{X}$  is the Euclidean plane and  $A_n$  is the circle with radius  $n$  and center at the point  $(0, n)$ ; it converges to the  $x$ -axis.



Further, consider the sequence of one-point sets  $B_n = \{(n, 0)\}$  in the Euclidean plane. It converges to the empty set; indeed, for any

point  $x$  we have  $\text{dist}_{B_n}(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\text{dist}_{\mathcal{O}}(x) = \infty$  for any  $x$ .

The following exercise is an extension of the so-called Blaschke selection theorem to our version of Hausdorff convergence.

**1.13. Exercise.** *Show that any sequence of closed sets in a proper metric space has a convergent subsequence in the sense of Hausdorff.*

## J Hausdorff metric

**1.14. Definition.** *Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two non-empty compact subsets of a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Then the Hausdorff distance between  $A$  and  $B$  is defined as*

$$|A - B|_{\text{Haus } \mathcal{X}} := \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{ |\text{dist}_A(x) - \text{dist}_B(x)| \}.$$

The following observation gives a useful reformulation of the definition:

**1.15. Observation.** *Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  be two compact subsets of a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Then  $|A - B|_{\text{Haus } \mathcal{X}} < R$  if and only if and only if  $B$  lies in an  $R$ -neighborhood of  $A$ , and  $A$  lies in an  $R$ -neighborhood of  $B$ .*

The following exercise implies that Hausdorff convergence of compact subsets is the convergence in Hausdorff metric.

**1.16. Exercise.** *Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$ , and  $A_\infty$  be compact non-empty sets in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Show that  $|A_n - A_\infty|_{\text{Haus } \mathcal{X}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  if and only if  $A_n \rightarrow A_\infty$  in the sense of Hausdorff.*

## K Gromov–Hausdorff convergence

Let  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  be a sequence of complete metric spaces. Suppose that there is a metric on the disjoint union

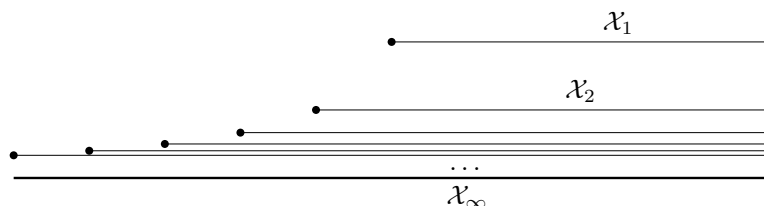
$$\mathbf{X} = \bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}} \mathcal{X}_n$$

that satisfies the following property:

**1.17. Property.** *The restriction of the metric on each  $\mathcal{X}_n$  and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  coincides with its original metric, and  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  as subsets in  $\mathbf{X}$  in the sense of Hausdorff.*

In this case we say that the metric on  $\mathbf{X}$  *defines* a convergence  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  in the sense of Gromov-Hausdorff. The metric on  $\bigsqcup \mathcal{X}_n$  makes it possible to talk about limits of sequences  $x_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , as well as weak limits of a sequence of Borel measures  $\mu_n$  on  $\mathcal{X}_n$  and so on.

The limit space is not uniquely defined by the sequence. For example, if each space  $\mathcal{X}_n$  in the sequence is isometric to the half-line, then its limit might be isometric to the half-line or the whole line. The first convergence is evident and the second could be guessed from the picture above.



Any sequence of spaces has an empty space as its limit in some Gromov-Hausdorff convergence. Exercise 1.23 states that if the limit is non-empty and compact, then it is unique up to isometry.

**1.18. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$  be a sequence of geodesic metric spaces. Suppose  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  is a convergence in the sense of Gromov-Hausdorff. Assume  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  is proper, show that it is geodesic.

**Pointed convergence.** Often the isometry class of the limit can be fixed by marking a point  $p_n$  in each space  $\mathcal{X}_n$ . We say that  $(\mathcal{X}_n, p_n)$  converges to  $(\mathcal{X}_\infty, p_\infty)$  if there is a metric on  $\mathbf{X}$  as in 1.17 such that  $p_n \rightarrow p_\infty$ . This is called pointed Gromov-Hausdorff convergence. For example, the sequence  $(\mathcal{X}_n, p_n) = (\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, 0)$  converges to  $(\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, 0)$ , while  $(\mathcal{X}_n, p_n) = (\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, n)$  converges to  $(\mathbb{R}, 0)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

## L Gromov-Hausdorff metric

In this section we cook up a metric space out of all compact non-empty metric spaces that defines Gromov-Hausdorff convergence. We want to define the metric on the set of *isometry classes* of compact metric spaces. Further, the term *metric space* might also stand for its *isometry class*.

The obtained metric is called the Gromov-Hausdorff metric; the corresponding metric space will be denoted by GH. This distance is defined as the maximal metric such that *the distance between subspaces*

in a metric space is not greater than the Hausdorff distance between them. Here is a formal definition.

**1.19. Definition.** The Gromov–Hausdorff distance  $|\mathcal{X} - \mathcal{Y}|_{\text{GH}}$  between compact metric spaces  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  is defined by the following relation.

Given  $r > 0$ , we have  $|\mathcal{X} - \mathcal{Y}|_{\text{GH}} < r$  if and only if there exists a metric space  $\mathcal{W}$  and subspaces  $\mathcal{X}'$  and  $\mathcal{Y}'$  in  $\mathcal{W}$  that are isometric to  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ , respectively, such that  $|\mathcal{X}' - \mathcal{Y}'|_{\text{Haus } \mathcal{W}} < r$ . (Here  $|\mathcal{X}' - \mathcal{Y}'|_{\text{Haus } \mathcal{W}}$  denotes the Hausdorff distance between sets  $\mathcal{X}'$  and  $\mathcal{Y}'$  in  $\mathcal{W}$ .)

Gromov–Hausdorff convergence of compact spaces has particularly nice properties, which follow from the next exercise.

**1.20. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a distance noncontracting map from a compact metric space  $\mathcal{K}$  to itself. Show that  $f$  is an isometry; that is, it is a distance-preserving bijection.

**1.21. Exercise.** Show that any surjective non-expanding map from a compact metric space to itself is an isometry.

For the proof of the following statements we refer to [16] and [86].

**1.22. Proposition.** GH is a complete metric space.

This means in particular that if  $|\mathcal{X} - \mathcal{Y}|_{\text{GH}} = 0$  for compact metric spaces  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ , then they are isometric.

**1.23. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$  be a sequence of metric spaces. Suppose  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  and  $\mathcal{X}'_\infty$  are non-empty limit spaces of  $\mathcal{X}_n$  for some Gromov–Hausdorff convergences. Assume  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  is compact, show that it is isometric to  $\mathcal{X}'_\infty$ .

## M Almost isometries

**1.24. Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  be metric spaces. A map  $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  is called an  $\varepsilon$ -isometry if the following two conditions hold:

- (a)  $f(\mathcal{X})$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net in  $\mathcal{Y}$ ; that is, for any  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  there is  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|f(x) - y|_{\mathcal{Y}} < \varepsilon$ .
- (b)  $||f(x) - f(x')|_{\mathcal{Y}} - |x - x'|_{\mathcal{X}}| \leq \varepsilon$  for any  $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$ .

When dealing with Gromov–Hausdorff convergence the following lemma allows to bypass constructing explicit metrics on the disjoint unions of  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$

**1.25. Lemma.** Let  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  be complete metric spaces, and let  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0+$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Suppose that either



- (a) for each  $n$  there is an  $\varepsilon_n$ -isometry  $f_n: \mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$ , or  
 (b) for each  $n$  there is an  $\varepsilon_n$ -isometry  $h_n: \mathcal{X}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_n$ .

Then there is a Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$ .

Furthermore, a partial converse also holds.

- (c) Suppose we have a Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  is compact. Then there exist  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0+$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\varepsilon_n$ -isometries  $f_n: \mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  (and  $h_n: \mathcal{X}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_n$ ) such that  $x_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$  converges to  $x_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$  with respect to the convergence  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  if and only if  $f_n(x_n) \rightarrow x_\infty$  (respectively,  $|h_n(x_\infty) - x_n|_{\mathcal{X}_n} \rightarrow 0$ ) as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Proof.* To prove part (a) let us construct a common space  $\mathbf{X}$  for the spaces  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  by taking the metric  $\rho$  on the disjoint union  $\mathcal{X}_\infty \sqcup \mathcal{X}_1 \sqcup \mathcal{X}_2 \sqcup \dots$  that is defined the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - y_n|_{\mathbf{X}} &= |x_n - y_n|_{\mathcal{X}_n}, \\ |x_\infty - y_\infty|_{\mathbf{X}} &= |x_\infty - y_\infty|_{\mathcal{X}_\infty}, \\ |x_n - x_\infty|_{\mathbf{X}} &= \inf \{ |x_n - y_n|_{\mathcal{X}_n} + \varepsilon_n + |x_\infty - f(y_n)|_{\mathcal{X}_\infty} : y_n \in \mathcal{X}_n \}, \\ |x_n - x_m|_{\mathbf{X}} &= \inf \{ |x_n - y_\infty|_{\mathbf{X}} + |x_m - y_\infty|_{\mathbf{X}} : y_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty \}, \end{aligned}$$

where we assume that  $x_\infty, y_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$ , and  $x_n, y_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$  for each  $n$ . It remains to observe that this indeed defines a metric on  $\mathbf{X}$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  in the sense of Hausdorff.

The proof of the second part is analogous; one only needs to change one line in the definition of the metric to the following:

$$|x_n - x_\infty|_{\mathbf{X}} = \inf \{ |x_n - h(y_\infty)|_{\mathcal{X}_n} + \varepsilon_n + |x_\infty - y_\infty|_{\mathcal{X}_\infty} : y_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty \}.$$

We leave part (c) as an exercise.  $\square$

For two metric spaces  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ , we write  $\mathcal{X} \leq \mathcal{Y} + \varepsilon$  if there is a map  $f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  such that

$$|x - x'|_{\mathcal{X}} \leq |f(x) - f(x')|_{\mathcal{Y}} + \varepsilon$$

for any  $x, x' \in \mathcal{X}$ .

**1.26. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{X}_1, \mathcal{X}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  be compact metric spaces. Show that there is a Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  if and only if for some sequence  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0$ , we have

$$\mathcal{X}_\infty \leq \mathcal{X}_n + \varepsilon_n \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{X}_n \leq \mathcal{X}_\infty + \varepsilon_n.$$

Lemma 1.25 has a natural analogue for pointed convergence. For simplicity we only state part (a) of the lemma. Parts (b) and (c) can

be rephrased similarly; in (c) we have to assume that the space is proper.

**1.27. Lemma.** *Let  $(\mathcal{X}_1, p_1), (\mathcal{X}_2, p_2), \dots$ , let  $(\mathcal{X}_\infty, p_\infty)$  be pointed metric spaces, and let  $\varepsilon(n, R) \rightarrow 0+$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for any fixed  $R > 0$ . Suppose that for each  $n$  there is a map  $f_n: \mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  such that*

- (a)  $f_n(p_n) \rightarrow p_\infty$
- (b)  $||f_n(x) - f_n(x')|_{\mathcal{X}_\infty} - |x - x'|_{\mathcal{X}_n}| \leq \varepsilon(n, R)$  for any  $x, x' \in B(p_n, R)$ .
- (c) For any  $x \in B(p_\infty, R)$  there is  $x_n \in B(p_n, R)$  such that  $|x - f_n(x_n)| \leq \varepsilon(n, R)$

*Then there is a pointed Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $(\mathcal{X}_n, p_n) \rightarrow (\mathcal{X}_\infty, p_\infty)$ .*

The proofs of 1.27 and 1.25 are analogous; we leave the former to the reader.

## N Remarks

In principle, our definition of Gromov–Hausdorff distance works for complete metric spaces that are not necessarily compact. However, according to the following exercise, it only defines a semimetric; that is, zero Gromov–Hausdorff distance does not imply that the spaces are isometric. For that reason it is not in use.

**1.28. Exercise.**

- (a) *Construct two nonisometric proper (noncompact) metric spaces with vanishing Gromov–Hausdorff distance.*
- (b) *Construct two nonisometric complete geodesic metric spaces of bounded diameter with vanishing Gromov–Hausdorff distance.*

# Lecture 2

## Definitions

In this lecture we discuss several definitions of Alexandrov space. Alexandrov's lemma works as the main tool.

### A Four-point comparison

Recall that  $\tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)$  denotes the model angle at  $p$ ; see page 9.

Let  $p, x, y, z$  be a quadruple of points in a metric space. If the inequality

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{E}^2} + \tilde{\angle}(p_z^y)_{\mathbb{E}^2} + \tilde{\angle}(p_x^z)_{\mathbb{E}^2} \leq 2 \cdot \pi$$

holds, then we say that the quadruple meets  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison.

If instead of  $\mathbb{E}^2$ , we use  $\mathbb{S}^2$  or  $\mathbb{H}^2$ , then we get the definition of  $\mathbb{S}^2$ - or  $\mathbb{H}^2$ -comparisons. Recall that  $\tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{E}^2}$  and  $\tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{H}^2}$  are defined if  $p \neq x$ ,  $p \neq y$ , but for  $\tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{S}^2}$  we require in addition that

$$|p - x| + |p - y| + |x - y| < 2 \cdot \pi;$$

if this does not hold for one of the angles, then we assume that  $\mathbb{S}^2$ -comparison holds for this quadruple.

More generally, one may apply this definition to  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$  and define  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison for any real  $\kappa$ . However, if you see  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison, it is safe to assume that  $\kappa = -1, 0$ , or  $1$  (applying rescaling, the  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison can be reduced to these three cases).

**2.1. Definition.** *A metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  has curvature  $\geq \kappa$  in the sense of Alexandrov if  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison holds for any quadruple of points in  $\mathcal{X}$ .*

While this definition can be applied to any metric space, we will use it mostly for geodesic spaces that are complete (and often compact or proper). If a complete geodesic space has curvature  $\geq \kappa$  in the sense of Alexandrov, then it will be called an  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  space; here  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  is an adjective. An  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  for some  $\kappa$ , then we say that  $\mathcal{X}$  is an Alexandrov space.

It is common practice in Alexandrov geometry to write proofs for nonnegative curvature and leave the general curvature bound as an exercise. These generalizations are usually straightforward. We will add notes when they are not. We will also often formulate statements just for  $\kappa = 0$  even when they admit straightforward generalizations to arbitrary curvature bounds; see [5] for a more formal treatment.

**2.2. Exercise.** Show that  $\mathbb{E}^n$  is  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ .

**2.3. Exercise.** Show that a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  has nonnegative curvature in the sense of Alexandrov if and only if for any quadruple of points  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathcal{X}$  there is a quadruple of points  $q, y_1, y_2, y_3 \in \mathbb{E}^3$  such that

$$|p - x_i|_{\mathcal{X}} \geq |q - y_i|_{\mathbb{E}^2} \quad \text{and} \quad |x_i - x_j|_{\mathcal{X}} \leq |y_i - y_j|_{\mathbb{E}^2}$$

for all  $i$  and  $j$ .

## B Alexandrov's lemma

Recall that  $[xy]$  denotes a geodesic from  $x$  to  $y$ ; set

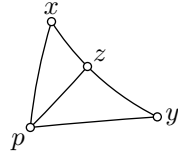
$$]xy[ = [xy] \setminus \{x\}, \quad [xy[ = [xy] \setminus \{y\}, \quad ]xy] = [xy] \setminus \{x, y\}.$$

**2.4. Lemma.** Let  $p, x, y, z$  be distinct points in a metric space such that  $z \in ]xy[$ . Then the following expressions have the same sign:

- (a)  $\tilde{\angle}(x_y^p) - \tilde{\angle}(x_z^p)$ ,
- (b)  $\tilde{\angle}(z_x^p) + \tilde{\angle}(z_y^p) - \pi$ .

The same holds for the hyperbolic and spherical model angles, but in the latter case, one has to assume in addition that

$$|p - x| + |p - y| + |x - y| < 2 \cdot \pi.$$



In the proof we will apply the following statement from elementary geometry.

**2.5. Angle monotonicity.** Increasing the opposite side in a plane triangle increases the corresponding angle, and the other way around.

Moreover, the same statement holds for spherical and hyperbolic triangles.

*Proof.* Consider the model triangle  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{p}\tilde{z}] = \tilde{\Delta}(xpz)$ . Take a point  $\tilde{y}$  on the extension of  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{z}]$  beyond  $\tilde{z}$  so that  $|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}| = |x - y|$  (and therefore  $|\tilde{x} - \tilde{z}| = |x - z|$ ).

By the angle monotonicity (2.5), the following expressions have the same sign:

- (i)  $\angle[\tilde{x}\tilde{y}\tilde{p}] - \tilde{\angle}(x_y^p)$ ,
- (ii)  $|\tilde{p} - \tilde{y}| - |p - y|$ ,
- (iii)  $\angle[\tilde{z}\tilde{y}\tilde{p}] - \tilde{\angle}(z_y^p)$ .

Since

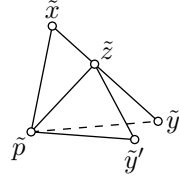
$$\angle[\tilde{x}\tilde{y}\tilde{p}] = \angle[\tilde{x}\tilde{z}\tilde{p}] = \tilde{\angle}(x_z^p)$$

and

$$\angle[\tilde{z}\tilde{y}\tilde{p}] = \pi - \angle[\tilde{z}\tilde{x}\tilde{p}] = \pi - \tilde{\angle}(z_p^x),$$

the statement follows.

The spherical and hyperbolic cases can be proved along the same lines.  $\square$



**2.6. Exercise.** Assume  $p, x, y, z$  are as in Alexandrov's lemma. Show that

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_y^x) \geq \tilde{\angle}(p_z^x) + \tilde{\angle}(p_y^z),$$

with equality if and only if the expressions in (a) and (b) in 2.4 vanish.

Note that

$$p \in ]xy[ \implies \tilde{\angle}(p_y^x) = \pi.$$

Applying it with Alexandrov's lemma and  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison, we get the following.

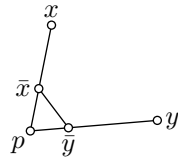
**2.7. Claim.** If  $p, x, y, z$  are points in an ALEX(0) space. Suppose  $p \in ]xy[$ , then

$$\tilde{\angle}(x_z^y) \leq \tilde{\angle}(x_z^p).$$

**2.8. Exercise.** Let  $[p_y^x]$  be a hinge in an ALEX(0) space. Consider the function

$$f: (|p - \bar{x}|, |p - \bar{y}|) \mapsto \tilde{\angle}(p_{\bar{y}}^{\bar{x}}),$$

where  $\bar{x} \in ]px]$  and  $\bar{y} \in ]py]$ . Show that  $f$  is nonincreasing in each argument.



This exercise implies the following.

**2.9. Claim.** *The angle measure of any hinge in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space is defined and is at least as large as the corresponding model angle; that is,*

$$\angle[p_y^x] \geq \tilde{\angle}(p_y^x)$$

for any hinge  $[p_y^x]$  in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ .

**2.10. Exercise.** *Let  $[p_y^x]$  be a hinge in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Suppose  $\angle[p_y^x] = 0$ ; show that  $[px] \subset [py]$  or  $[py] \subset [px]$ .*

*Conclude that geodesics in  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space cannot bifurcate; that is, if two geodesics  $[px]$  and  $[py]$  share a nontrivial arc with an end at  $p$ , then  $[px] \subset [py]$  or  $[py] \subset [px]$ .*

**2.11. Exercise.** *Let  $[xy]$  be a geodesic in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Suppose  $z \in ]xy[$ . Show that there is a unique geodesic  $[xz]$  and  $[xz] \subset [xy]$ .*

Recall that adjacent hinges are defined in 1.10.

**2.12. Exercise.** *Let  $[p_z^x]$  and  $[p_z^y]$  be adjacent hinges in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Show that*

$$\angle[p_z^x] + \angle[p_z^y] = \pi.$$

**2.13. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Show that*

$$\tilde{\angle}(x_p^y) = \tilde{\angle}(x_p^v) \iff \tilde{\angle}(x_p^y) = \tilde{\angle}(x_p^w)$$

for any points  $p, x, y, v, w$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $v, w \in ]xy[$ .

**2.14. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Suppose hinges  $[x_n y_n^{z_n}]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  converge to a hinge  $[x_\infty y_\infty^{z_\infty}]$ ; that is, geodesics  $[x_n y_n]$  and  $[x_n z_n]$  converge to the geodesics  $[x_\infty y_\infty]$  and  $[x_\infty z_\infty]$  in the Hausdorff sense. Show that*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \angle[x_n y_n^{z_n}] \geq \angle[x_\infty y_\infty^{z_\infty}].$$

The last inequality might be strict; for example, on the surface of convex polyhedron, which is a  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space by 11.10.

## C Hinge comparison

Let  $[p_y^x]$  be a hinge in an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space  $\mathcal{A}$ . By 2.8, the angle measure  $\angle[p_y^x]$  is defined and

$$\angle[p_y^x] \geq \tilde{\angle}(p_y^x).$$

Further, according to 2.12, we have

$$\angle[p_z^x] + \angle[p_z^y] = \pi$$

for adjacent hinges  $[p_z^x]$  and  $[p_z^y]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

The following theorem implies that a geodesic space has nonnegative curvature in the sense of Alexandrov if the above conditions hold for all its hinges.

**2.15. Theorem.** *A complete geodesic space  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX(0) if the following conditions hold.*

(a) *For any hinge  $[x_y^p]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , the angle  $\angle[x_y^p]$  is defined and*

$$\angle[x_y^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_y^p).$$

(b) *For any two adjacent hinges  $[p_z^x]$  and  $[p_z^y]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have*

$$\angle[p_z^x] + \angle[p_z^y] \leq \pi.$$

*Proof.* Consider a point  $w \in ]pz[$  close to  $p$ . From (b), it follows that

$$\angle[w_z^x] + \angle[w_p^x] \leq \pi \quad \text{and} \quad \angle[w_z^y] + \angle[w_p^y] \leq \pi.$$

Since  $\angle[w_y^x] \leq \angle[w_p^x] + \angle[w_y^p]$  (see 1.9), we get

$$\angle[w_z^x] + \angle[w_z^y] + \angle[w_y^x] \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

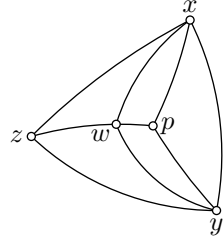
Applying (a),

$$\tilde{\angle}(w_z^x) + \tilde{\angle}(w_z^y) + \tilde{\angle}(w_y^x) \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

Passing to the limits as  $w \rightarrow p$ , we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_z^x) + \tilde{\angle}(p_z^y) + \tilde{\angle}(p_y^x) \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

□



## D Equivalent conditions

The following theorem summarizes 2.7, 2.9, 2.12, and 2.15.

**2.16. Theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a complete geodesic space. Then the following conditions are equivalent.*

(a)  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX(0).

(b) (adjacent angle comparison)

$$\tilde{\angle}(z_x^p) + \tilde{\angle}(z_y^p) \leq \pi$$

for any geodesic  $[xy]$  and point  $z \in ]xy[$ ,  $z \neq p$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

(c) (point-on-side comparison)

$$\tilde{\angle}(x_y^p) \leq \tilde{\angle}(x_z^p)$$

for any geodesic  $[xy]$  and  $z \in ]xy[$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

(d) (hinge comparison) the angle  $\angle[x_y^p]$  is defined for any hinge  $[x_y^p]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ . Moreover,

$$\angle[x_y^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_y^p)$$

for any hinge  $[x_y^p]$ , and

$$\angle[z_y^p] + \angle[z_x^p] \leq \pi$$

for any adjacent hinges  $[z_y^p]$  and  $[z_x^p]$ .

Moreover, the implications  $(a) \Rightarrow (b) \Rightarrow (c) \Rightarrow (d)$  hold in any space, not necessarily a geodesic one.

**2.17. Advanced Exercise.** Construct a complete geodesic space  $\mathcal{X}$  that is not  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ , but satisfies the following weaker version of the adjacent angle comparison 2.16b.

For any three points  $p, x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  there is a geodesic  $[xy]$  such that for any  $z \in ]xy[$

$$\tilde{\angle}(z_x^p) + \tilde{\angle}(z_y^p) \leq \pi.$$

**2.18. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{W}$  be  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the metric induced by a norm. Show that if  $\mathcal{W}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ , then  $\mathcal{W}$  is isometric to the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{E}^n$ .

## E Function comparison

**Real-to-real functions.** Choose  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $s: \mathbb{I} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a locally Lipschitz function defined on an interval  $\mathbb{I}$ . The following statement are equivalent; if one (and therefore any) of them holds for  $s$ , then we say that  $s$  is  $\lambda$ -concave.

- ◊ We have inequality  $s'' \leq \lambda$ , where the second derivative  $s''$  is understood in the sense of distributions.
- ◊ The function  $t \mapsto s(t) - \lambda \cdot \frac{t^2}{2}$  is concave.



◇ The Jensen inequality

$$s(a \cdot t_0 + (1-a) \cdot t_1) \geq a \cdot s(t_0) + (1-a) \cdot s(t_1) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot a \cdot (1-a) \cdot (t_1 - t_0)^2$$

holds for any  $t_0, t_1 \in \mathbb{I}$  and  $a \in [0, 1]$ .

◇ for any  $t_0 \in \mathbb{I}$  there is a quadratic polynomial  $\ell = \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot t^2 + a \cdot t + b$  (it is called a *barrier*) that supports (locally)  $s$  at  $t_0$  from above; that is,  $\ell(t_0) = s(t_0)$  and  $\ell(t) \geq s(t)$  for any  $t$  (in a neighborhood of  $t_0$ )

To prove equivalence, approximate  $f$  by smooth functions taking a convolutions  $f_n = f * k_n$  for a suitable sequence of kernels  $k_n$ . Note that all the conditions are equivalent for  $f_n$ ; passing to the limit we get the same for  $f$ .

We will also use that  *$\lambda$ -concave functions are one-sided differentiable*.

Also note that that since a concave function defined on an open interval is automatically locally Lipschitz, the requirement that a  $\lambda$ -concave function be locally Lipschitz is superfluous for open intervals.

**Functions on metric spaces.** A function on a metric space  $\mathcal{A}$  will usually mean a *locally Lipschitz real-valued function defined on an open subset of  $\mathcal{A}$* . The domain of a function  $f$  will be denoted by  $\text{Dom } f$ .

We say that  $f$  is  $\lambda$ -concave (briefly  $f'' \leq \lambda$ ) if for any unit-speed geodesic  $\gamma: \mathbb{I} \rightarrow \text{Dom } f$  the real-to-real function  $t \mapsto f \circ \gamma(t)$  is  $\lambda$ -concave.

The following proposition is simple but conceptual — it reformulates a global geometric condition into an infinitesimal condition on distance functions.

**2.19. Proposition.** *A complete geodesic space  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX(0) if and only if  $f'' \leq 1$  for any function  $f$  of the form*

$$f: x \mapsto \frac{1}{2} \cdot |p - x|^2.$$

*Proof.* Choose a unit-speed geodesic  $\gamma$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  and two points  $x = \gamma(t_0)$ ,  $y = \gamma(t_1)$  for some  $t_0 < t_1$ . Consider the model triangle  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{x}\tilde{y}] = \tilde{\Delta}(pxy)$ . Let  $\tilde{\gamma}: [t_0, t_1] \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^2$  be the unit-speed parametrization of  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{y}]$  from  $\tilde{x}$  to  $\tilde{y}$ .

Set

$$\tilde{r}(t) := |\tilde{p} - \tilde{\gamma}(t)|, \quad r(t) := |p - \gamma(t)|.$$

Clearly,  $\tilde{r}(t_0) = r(t_0)$  and  $\tilde{r}(t_1) = r(t_1)$ . Note that the point-on-side comparison (2.16c) is equivalent to

$$\textcircled{1} \quad t_0 \leq t \leq t_1 \quad \implies \quad \tilde{r}(t) \leq r(t)$$

for any  $\gamma$  and  $t_0 < t_1$ .

Jensen's inequality for the function  $h$  is equivalent to **1**. Hence the proposition follows.  $\square$

## F Remarks

Our 4-point comparison in Section 2A is closely related to the so-called CAT comparison, which defines an *upper* curvature bound in the sense of Alexandrov; this is the subject of our previous book [4].

In both comparisons we check certain conditions on the 6 distances between every pair of points in 4-point sets. Michael Gromov [35, Section 1.19<sub>+</sub>] suggested considering other conditions of that type for  $n$ -point subsets; see [28, 36, 54–57, 59, 61, 84, 99] for the development of this idea.

In this text we have chosen complete *geodesic* spaces with curvature at least  $\kappa$  as the main object of study (the  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces). Instead of the *geodesic* condition, we could assume that they are *length* spaces. This condition is more natural and general, but many statements can be reduced to the geodesic case. In particular, suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is a complete length space with curvature  $\geq \kappa$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  can be isometrically embedded into an  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  space — the ultrapower of  $\mathcal{A}$ ; see [5, 4.11+8.4]. Also, by Plaut's theorem, any point  $p$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  can be connected by geodesics to *most* of points in  $\mathcal{A}$  [5, 8.11]; compare to 6.18c.

All the discussed statements can be generalized to  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces. The proof are nearly the same, but the formulas are getting more complicated.

For example, the function comparison for  $\text{ALEX}(-1)$  spaces states that  $f'' \leq f$  for any function of the type  $f = \cosh \circ \text{dist}_p$ . (The inequality used here will be defined in Section 4C.)

Similarly, the function comparison for  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  states that for any point  $p$ , we have  $f'' \leq -f$  for the function  $f = -\cos \circ \text{dist}_p$  defined in  $B(p, \pi)$ . The geometric meaning of these inequalities remains the same: *distance functions are more concave than distance functions in  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ .*

# Lecture 3

## Globalization

The globalization theorem states that a locally Alexandrov space is globally Alexandrov. We prove it in the simplest meaningful case and indicate a way to extend the proof to the general case.

### A Globalization

A complete geodesic metric space  $\mathcal{A}$  is locally  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  if any point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  admits a neighborhood  $U \ni p$  such that the  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison holds for any quadruple of points in  $U$ .

**3.1. Globalization theorem.** *Any compact locally  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space is  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ .*

*Proof modulo the key lemma (3.2).* Note that condition 2.15b holds in  $\mathcal{A}$  (the proof is the same). It remains to check 2.15a; that is,

$$\textcircled{1} \qquad \angle[x_y^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_y^p)$$

for any hinge  $[x_y^p]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Inequality  $\textcircled{1}$  holds for hinges in a small neighborhood of any point; this can be proved the same way as 2.9 and 2.12, applying the local version of the  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison. Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is compact, there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $\textcircled{1}$  holds if  $|x - p| + |p - y| < \varepsilon$ . Applying the key lemma several times we get that  $\textcircled{1}$  holds for any given hinge.  $\square$

**3.2. Key lemma.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a locally  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Assume that the comparison*

$$\angle[x_q^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_q^p)$$

holds for any hinge  $[x_q^p]$  with  $|x - y| + |x - q| < \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell$ . Then the comparison

$$\angle[x_q^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_q^p)$$

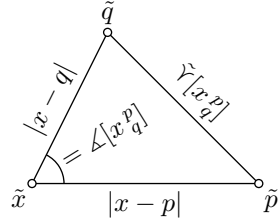
holds for any hinge  $[x_q^p]$  with  $|x - p| + |x - q| < \ell$ .

Let  $[x_q^p]$  be a hinge in  $\mathcal{A}$ . Denote by  $\tilde{\gamma}[x_q^p]$  its model side; this is the opposite side in a flat triangle with the same angle and two adjacent sides as in  $[x_q^p]$ .

More precisely, consider the model hinge  $[\tilde{x}_{\tilde{q}}^{\tilde{p}}]$  in  $\mathbb{E}^2$  that is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \angle[\tilde{x}_{\tilde{q}}^{\tilde{p}}]_{\mathbb{E}^2} &= \angle[x_q^p]_{\mathcal{A}}, \\ |\tilde{x} - \tilde{p}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} &= |x - p|_{\mathcal{A}}, \\ |\tilde{x} - \tilde{q}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} &= |x - q|_{\mathcal{A}}; \end{aligned}$$

then



$$\tilde{\gamma}[x_q^p]_{\mathcal{A}} := |\tilde{p} - \tilde{q}|_{\mathbb{E}^2}.$$

Note that

$$\tilde{\gamma}[x_q^p] \geq |p - q| \iff \angle[x_q^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_q^p).$$

We will use it in the following proof.

*Proof.* Consider a hinge  $[x_q^p]$  such that

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell \leq |p - x| + |x - q| < \ell.$$

It is sufficient to prove that

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \tilde{\gamma}[x_q^p] \geq |p - q|$$

First, let us construct a new hinge  $[x'^p_q]$  with

$$\textcircled{4} \quad |p - x| + |x - q| \geq |p - x'| + |x' - q|,$$

such that

$$\textcircled{5} \quad \tilde{\gamma}[x_q^p] \geq \tilde{\gamma}[x'^p_q].$$

*Construction.* Assume  $|x - q| \geq |x - p|$ ; otherwise, switch the roles of  $p$  and  $q$ . Take  $x' \in [xq]$  such that

$$\textcircled{6} \quad |p - x| + 3 \cdot |x - x'| = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell.$$

Choose a geodesic  $[x'p]$  and consider the hinge  $[x' \frac{p}{q}]$  formed by  $[x'p]$  and  $[x'q] \subset [xq]$ . The triangle inequality implies ④. Furthermore,

$$|p - x| + |x - x'| < \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell, \quad |p - x'| + |x' - x| < \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell.$$

In particular, the assumption of the lemma implies that

$$\textcircled{7} \quad \angle[x' \frac{p}{x'}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x' \frac{p}{x'}) \quad \text{and} \quad \angle[x' \frac{p}{x}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x' \frac{p}{x}).$$

Let  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{x}'\tilde{p}] = \tilde{\Delta}(xx'p)$ . Take  $\tilde{q}$  on the extension of  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{x}']$  beyond  $x'$  such that  $|\tilde{x} - \tilde{q}| = |x - q|$  (and therefore  $|\tilde{x}' - \tilde{q}| = |x' - q|$ ). By ⑦,

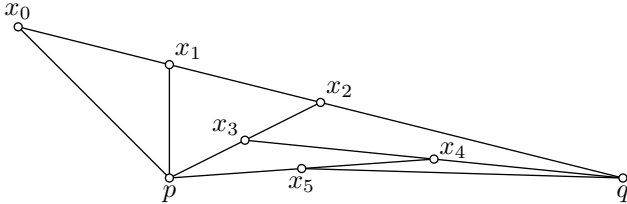
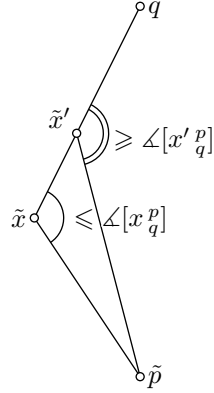
$$\angle[x' \frac{p}{q}] = \angle[x' \frac{p}{x'}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x' \frac{p}{x'}) \Rightarrow \tilde{\gamma}[x' \frac{p}{q}] \geq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{q}|.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \angle[\tilde{x}' \frac{\tilde{p}}{\tilde{q}}] &= \pi - \tilde{\angle}(x' \frac{p}{x}) \geq \\ &\geq \pi - \angle[x' \frac{p}{x}] = \\ &= \angle[x' \frac{p}{q}], \end{aligned}$$

and ⑤ follows.

Let us continue the proof. Set  $x_0 = x$ . Let us apply inductively the above construction to get a sequence of hinges  $[x_n \frac{p}{q}]$  with  $x_{n+1} = x'_n$ . From ⑤, we have that the sequence  $s_n = \tilde{\gamma}[x_n \frac{p}{q}]$  is nonincreasing.



The sequence  $x_n$  terminates at some  $n$  if  $|p - x_n| + |x_n - q| < \frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell$ . In this case, by the assumptions of the lemma,  $\tilde{\gamma}[x_n \frac{p}{q}] \geq |p - q|$ . Since the sequence  $s_n$  is nonincreasing, inequality ③ follows.

Now we can assume that the sequence  $x_n$  does not terminate. Let us prove the following claim.

⑧ *The distances  $|x_n - x_{n+1}|$ ,  $|x_n - p|$ , and  $|x_n - q|$  are bounded away from zero for all large  $n$ .*

Set

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \min\{|p - x_n|, |q - x_n|\}, \\ b_n &= \max\{|p - x_n|, |q - x_n|\}, \\ r_n &= |p - x_n| + |x_n - q| = a_n + b_n. \end{aligned}$$

By the triangle inequality,  $r_n$  is a nonincreasing sequence, and since  $x_n$  does not terminate, we have  $\frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell \leq r_n < \ell$  for all  $n$ .

By ⑥,  $|x_n - x_{n+1}| = \frac{1}{3} \cdot (\frac{2}{3} \cdot \ell - a_n)$ . Since  $a_n + b_n = r_n < \ell$  and  $a_n \leq b_n$  it holds that  $a_n \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \ell$ . Hence

$$\textcircled{9} \quad \frac{2}{9} \cdot \ell \geq |x_n - x_{n+1}| \geq \frac{1}{18} \cdot \ell,$$

which proves the claim for  $|x_n - x_{n+1}|$ .

Note that

$$a_{n+1} = b_n - |x_n - x_{n+1}| \quad \text{or} \quad b_{n+1} = b_n - |x_n - x_{n+1}|$$

In the latter case,

$$\begin{aligned} a_{n+1} &= r_{n+1} - b_{n+1} = \\ &= (r_{n+1} - r_n) + (r_n - b_n) + |x_n - x_{n+1}| \\ &= -(r_n - r_{n+1}) + a_n + |x_n - x_{n+1}|. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $r_n$  does not increase, it must converge; so,  $r_n - r_{n+1} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore,  $r_n - r_{n+1} \leq \frac{1}{100} \cdot \ell$  for all large  $n$ . Observe that  $b_n \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot r_n$ , and therefore  $b_n \geq \frac{1}{3} \cdot \ell$ . Taking ⑨ into account, we get that in both cases  $a_{n+1} \geq \frac{1}{100} \cdot \ell$  for all large  $n$ , which finishes the proof of the claim.  $\triangle$

Since  $r_n - r_{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ , ⑧ implies that  $\tilde{\angle}(x_n \overset{p_n}{x_{n+1}}) \rightarrow \pi$ , where  $p_n = p$  if  $x_{n+1} \in [x_n q]$ , and otherwise  $p_n = q$ . Since  $\angle[x_n \overset{p_n}{x_{n+1}}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_n \overset{p_n}{x_{n+1}})$ , we have  $\angle[x_n \overset{p_n}{x_{n+1}}] \rightarrow \pi$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

It follows that

$$r_n - s_n = |p - x_n| + |x_n - q| - \tilde{\gamma}[x_n \overset{p}{q}] \rightarrow 0.$$

By the triangle inequality  $r_n \geq |p - q|$ ; therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n \geq |p - q|.$$

Finally, the monotonicity of the sequence  $s_n = \tilde{\gamma}[x_n \overset{p}{q}]$  implies ③.  $\square$

## B General case

The globalization theorem can be generalized to any curvature bound  $\kappa$ . The case  $\kappa \leq 0$  is proved in the same way, but the case  $\kappa > 0$  requires modifications.

The compactness condition in our version of the theorem can be traded for completeness. The proof uses the following statement where

$r(x)$  measures the size of a neighborhood of  $x$  where the comparison holds.

**3.3. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be a complete metric space. Suppose  $r: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a positive continuous function. Show that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a point  $p \in \mathcal{X}$  such that

$$r(x) > (1 - \varepsilon) \cdot r(p)$$

for any  $x \in \overline{B}[p, \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot r(p)]$ .

Applying this exercise, one can prove the following general version of the globalization theorem.

**3.4. Theorem.** Any locally  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  space is  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$ .

By 1.6, we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(x_z^y)_{\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)} \leq \tilde{\angle}(x_z^y)_{\mathbb{M}^2(K)}$$

if  $\kappa \leq K$  and the right-hand side is defined. It follows that an  $\text{ALEX}(K)$  space is *locally*  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$ . Therefore, the globalization theorem implies the following.

**3.5. Claim.** If  $K > \kappa$ , then any  $\text{ALEX}(K)$  space is  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$ .

In other words the expression *curvature bounded below by  $\kappa$*  makes sense for geodesic spaces. However, by the following exercise, it does not make much sense in general.

**3.6. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be the set  $\{p, x_1, x_2, x_3\}$  with the metric defined by

$$|p - x_i| = \pi, \quad |x_i - x_j| = 2 \cdot \pi$$

for all  $i \neq j$ . Show that  $\mathcal{X}$  has curvature  $\geq 1$ , but does not have curvature  $\geq 0$ .

**3.7. Exercise.** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be points in an  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $|p - q| > \pi$ . Denote by  $m$  the midpoint of  $[pq]$ . Show that for any hinge  $[m_p^x]$  we have either  $\angle[m_p^x] = 0$  or  $\angle[m_p^x] = \pi$ .

Conclude that  $\mathcal{A}$  is isometric to a line interval or a circle.

**3.8. Exercise.** Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is an  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  and  $\text{diam } \mathcal{A} \leq \pi$ . Show that

$$|x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x| \leq 2 \cdot \pi$$

for any triple of points  $x, y, z \in \mathcal{A}$ .

## C Remarks

The condition (b) in 2.15 might be superfluous. This is a long-standing open problem possibly dating back to Alexandrov [16, footnote in 4.1.5]. Let us state it formally.

**3.9. Open question.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a complete geodesic space (you can also assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) such that for any hinge  $[x_y^p]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ , the angle  $\angle[x_y^p]$  is defined and*

$$\angle[x_y^p] \geq \tilde{\angle}(x_y^p).$$

*Is it true that  $\mathcal{A}$  is an Alexandrov space?*

The globalization theorem is also known as the *generalized Toponogov theorem*. Its two-dimensional case was proved by Paolo Pizzetti [87]; later it was reproved independently by Alexandr Alexandrov [9]. Victor Toponogov [98] proved it for Riemannian manifolds of all dimensions. For Alexandrov spaces of all dimensions, the theorem first appears in the paper of Michael Gromov, Yuriy Burago, and Grigory Perelman [17]. They prove globalization *complete length spaces*. Another version for *noncomplete, but geodesic spaces* was proved by the second author [79].

We took the proof from our book [5], but reduced generality. This proof is based on simplifications obtained by Conrad Plaut [88] and Dmitry Burago, Yuriy Burago, and Sergei Ivanov [16]. The same proof was rediscovered independently by Urs Lang and Viktor Schroeder [53]. Another simplified argument was found by Katsuhiko Shiohama [93].



# Lecture 4

## Calculus

This lecture defines several notions related to the first-order derivatives in Alexandrov spaces; this includes space of directions, tangent space, differential, and gradient.

### A Space of directions

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space. By 2.8, the angle measure of any hinge in is defined. Given  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , consider the set  $\mathfrak{S}_p$  of all nontrivial geodesics starting at  $p$ . By 1.9, the triangle inequality holds for  $\angle$  on  $\mathfrak{S}_p$ , that is,  $(\mathfrak{S}_p, \angle)$  forms a semimetric space; that is,  $\angle$  behaves like a metric, but might vanish for distinct directions.

The metric space corresponding to  $(\mathfrak{S}_p, \angle)$  is called the space of geodesic directions at  $p$ , denoted by  $\Sigma'_p$  or  $\Sigma'_p \mathcal{A}$ . The elements of  $\Sigma'_p$  are called geodesic directions at  $p$ . Each geodesic direction is formed by an equivalence class of geodesics starting from  $p$  for the equivalence relation

$$[px] \sim [py] \iff \angle[p^x_y] = 0;$$

the direction of  $[px]$  is denoted by  $\uparrow_{[px]}$ . By 2.10,

$$[px] \sim [py] \iff [px] \subset [py] \text{ or } [px] \supset [py].$$

The completion of  $\Sigma'_p$  is called the space of directions at  $p$  and is denoted by  $\Sigma_p$  or  $\Sigma_p \mathcal{A}$ . The elements of  $\Sigma_p$  are called directions at  $p$ .

**4.1. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space. Assume that a sequence of geodesics  $[px_n]$  converge to a geodesic  $[px_\infty]$  in the sense of Hausdorff, and  $x_\infty \neq p$ . Suppose  $\Sigma_p$  is compact. Show that  $\uparrow_{[px_n]} \rightarrow \uparrow_{[px_\infty]}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

## B Tangent space

The Euclidean cone  $\mathcal{V} = \text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  over a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  is defined as the metric space whose underlying set consists of equivalence classes in  $[0, \infty) \times \mathcal{X}$  with the equivalence relation “ $\sim$ ” given by  $(0, p) \sim (0, q)$  for any points  $p, q \in \mathcal{X}$ , and whose metric is given by the cosine rule

$$|(s, p) - (t, q)|_{\mathcal{V}} = \sqrt{s^2 + t^2 - 2 \cdot s \cdot t \cdot \cos \theta},$$

where  $\theta = \min\{\pi, |p - q|_{\mathcal{X}}\}$ .

The leading example is

$$\text{Cone } \mathbb{S}^n \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{E}^{n+1};$$

here “ $\stackrel{\text{iso}}{=}$ ” stands for “isometric to”. Now let us extend several notions from Euclidean space to Euclidean cones.

The point in  $\mathcal{V}$  that corresponds  $(t, x) \in [0, \infty) \times \mathcal{X}$  will be denoted by  $t \cdot x$ . The point in  $\mathcal{V}$  formed by the equivalence class of  $\{0\} \times \mathcal{X}$  is called the origin of the cone and is denoted by  $0$  or  $0_{\mathcal{V}}$ . For  $v \in \mathcal{V}$  the distance  $|0 - v|_{\mathcal{V}}$  is called the norm of  $v$  and is denoted by  $|v|$  or  $|v|_{\mathcal{V}}$ . The scalar product  $\langle v, w \rangle$  of  $v = s \cdot p$  and  $w = t \cdot q$  is defined by

$$\langle v, w \rangle := |v| \cdot |w| \cdot \cos \theta$$

where  $\theta = \min\{\pi, |p - q|_{\mathcal{X}}\}$ . The value  $\theta$  is undefined if  $v = 0$  or  $w = 0$ ; in these cases we set  $\langle v, w \rangle := 0$ .

**4.2. Exercise.** *Show that  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  is geodesic if and only if  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\pi$ -geodesic; that is, any two points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|x - y|_{\mathcal{X}} < \pi$  can be joined by a geodesic in  $\mathcal{X}$ .*

**Tangent space.** The Euclidean cone  $\text{Cone } \Sigma_p$  over the space of directions  $\Sigma_p$  is called the tangent space at  $p$  and is denoted by  $T_p$  or  $T_p \mathcal{A}$ . The elements of  $T_p \mathcal{A}$  will be called tangent vectors at  $p$  (despite that  $T_p$  is only a cone — not a vector space). The space of directions  $\Sigma_p$  can be (and will be) identified with the unit sphere in  $T_p$ ; that is, with the set  $\{v \in T_p : |v| = 1\}$ .

**4.3. Proposition.** *Any tangent space to an Alexandrov space has nonnegative curvature in the sense of Alexandrov.*

Halbeisen’s example [5] shows that the tangent space  $T_p$  at some point of Alexandrov space might fail to be geodesic; in this case  $T_p$  is not ALEX(0).

*Proof.* Consider the tangent space  $T_p = \text{Cone } \Sigma_p$  of an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  at a point  $p$ . We need to show that the  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison holds for a given quadruple  $v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3 \in T_p$ .

Recall that the space of geodesic directions  $\Sigma'_p$  is dense in  $\Sigma_p$ . It follows that the subcone  $T'_p = \text{Cone } \Sigma'_p$  is dense in  $T_p$ . Therefore, it is sufficient to consider the case  $v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3 \in T'_p$ .

For each  $i$ , choose a geodesic  $\gamma_i$  from  $p$  in the direction of  $v_i$ ; reparametrize each  $\gamma_i$  so that it has speed  $|v_i|$ . Since the angles are defined, we have

$$\bullet \quad |\gamma_i(\varepsilon) - \gamma_j(\varepsilon)|_{\mathcal{A}} = \varepsilon \cdot |v_i - v_j|_{T_p} + o(\varepsilon)$$

for  $\varepsilon > 0$ . The quadruple  $\gamma_0(\varepsilon), \gamma_1(\varepsilon), \gamma_2(\varepsilon), \gamma_3(\varepsilon)$  meets the  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison. After rescaling all the distances by  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ , it becomes the  $\mathbb{M}^2(\varepsilon^2 \cdot \kappa)$ -comparison. Passing to the limit as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$  and applying  $\bullet$ , we get the  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison for  $v_0, v_1, v_2, v_3$ .  $\square$

**4.4. Exercise.** Let  $p$  be a point in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , and let  $\lambda_n \rightarrow \infty$ . Suppose  $\Sigma_p$  is compact. Show that there is a pointed Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $(\lambda_n \cdot \mathcal{A}, p) \rightarrow (T_p, 0)$ . Moreover, the convergence can be choosen so that for any geodesic  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$ , we have

$$\iota_n \circ \gamma(t/\lambda_n) \rightarrow t \cdot \gamma^+(0),$$

where  $\iota_n$  sends a point in  $\mathcal{A}$  to the corresponding point in  $\lambda_n \cdot \mathcal{A}$ .

## C Semiconcave functions

Recall that  $\lambda$ -concave functions were defined in Section 2E, and when we say *function* we usually mean a *locally Lipschitz function defined on an open domain*.

Let  $f$  be a locally Lipschitz real-valued function defined in an open subset  $\text{Dom } f$  of an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $\varphi$  is a continuous function defined in  $\text{Dom } f$ . We will write  $f'' \leq \varphi$  if for any point  $x \in \text{Dom } f$  and any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a neighborhood  $U \ni x$  such that the restriction  $f|_U$  is  $(\varphi(x) + \varepsilon)$ -concave.

If  $f'' \leq \varphi$  for some continuous function  $\varphi$ , then  $f$  is called *semiconcave*.

**4.5. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a distance function on an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space  $\mathcal{A}$ ; that is,  $f(x) \equiv |p - x|$  for some  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . Show that  $f'' \leq \frac{1}{f}$ . In particular,  $f$  is semiconcave in  $\mathcal{A} \setminus \{p\}$ .

## D Differential

Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $p \in \text{Dom } f$ . Choose a unit-speed geodesic  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$ ; let  $\xi \in \Sigma_p$

be its direction. Define

$$(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi) := (f \circ \gamma)^+(0),$$

here  $(f \circ \gamma)^+$  denotes the right derivative of  $(f \circ \gamma)$ ; it is defined since  $f$  is semiconcave.

By the following exercise, the value  $(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi)$  is defined; that is, it does not depend on the choice of  $\gamma$ . Moreover,  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  is a Lipschitz function on  $\Sigma'_p$ . It follows that the function  $\mathbf{d}_p f: \Sigma'_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can be uniquely extended to a Lipschitz function  $\mathbf{d}_p f: \Sigma_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Further, we can extend it to the tangent space by setting

$$(\mathbf{d}_p f)(r \cdot \xi) := r \cdot (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi)$$

for any  $r \geq 0$  and  $\xi \in \Sigma_p$ . The obtained function  $\mathbf{d}_p f: T_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is Lipschitz; it is called the differential of  $f$  at  $p$ .

**4.6. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function on an Alexandrov space. Suppose  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are geodesics that start at  $p \in \text{Dom } f$ ; denote by  $\theta$  the angle between  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  at  $p$ . Show that

$$|(f \circ \gamma_1)^+(0) - (f \circ \gamma_2)^+(0)| \leq L \cdot \theta,$$

where  $L$  is the Lipschitz constant of  $f$  in a neighborhood of  $p$ .

**4.7. Exercise (First variation formula).** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct points in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Show the following.

- (a)  $\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_q(v) \leq -\langle \uparrow_{[pq]}, v \rangle$  for any  $v \in T_p$ .
- (b) Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is proper. Let  $\uparrow_p^q$  be the set of all direction of geodesics from  $p$  to  $q$ . Then

$$\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_q(v) = -\max_{\xi \in \uparrow_p^q} \langle \xi, v \rangle$$

for any  $v \in T_p$ .

## E Gradient

The following definition generalizes the gradient to semiconcave functions on Alexandrov space. This generalization is not trivial even for concave functions on Euclidean space; we suggest keeping this example in mind while reading further.

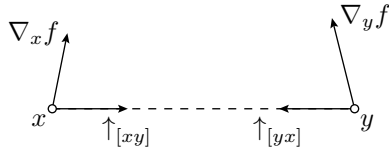
**4.8. Definition.** Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function on an Alexandrov space. A tangent vector  $g \in T_p$  is called a gradient of  $f$  at  $p$  (briefly,  $g = \nabla_p f$ ) if

- (a)  $(\mathbf{d}_p f)(w) \leq \langle g, w \rangle$  for any  $w \in T_p$ , and  
 (b)  $(\mathbf{d}_p f)(g) = \langle g, g \rangle$ .

The following exercise provides a property of gradients that will play a key role in the proof of the first distance estimate (5.6).

**4.9. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a  $\lambda$ -concave function on an Alexandrov space. Suppose that gradients  $\nabla_x f$  and  $\nabla_y f$  are defined. Show that

$$\langle \uparrow_{[xy]}, \nabla_x f \rangle + \langle \uparrow_{[yx]}, \nabla_y f \rangle + \lambda \cdot |x - y| \geq 0.$$



**4.10. Proposition.** Suppose that a semiconcave function  $f$  is defined in a neighborhood of a point  $p$  in an Alexandrov space. Then the gradient  $\nabla_p f$  is uniquely defined.

Moreover, if  $\mathbf{d}_p f \leq 0$ , then we have  $\nabla_p f = 0$ ; otherwise,  $\nabla_p f = s \cdot \bar{\xi}$ , where  $s = \mathbf{d}_p f(\bar{\xi})$  and  $\bar{\xi} \in \Sigma_p$  is the direction that maximize the value  $\mathbf{d}_p f(\xi)$  for  $\xi \in \Sigma_p$ .

**4.11. Key lemma.** Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function that is defined in a neighborhood of a point  $p$  in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then for any  $u, v \in T_p$ , we have

$$s \cdot \sqrt{|u|^2 + 2 \cdot \langle u, v \rangle + |v|^2} \geq (\mathbf{d}_p f)(u) + (\mathbf{d}_p f)(v),$$

where

$$s = \sup \{ (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi) : \xi \in \Sigma_p \}.$$

If  $T_p \stackrel{iso}{=} \mathbb{E}^m$  and  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  is a concave function, then

$$2 \cdot (\mathbf{d}_p f)\left(\frac{u+v}{2}\right) \geq (\mathbf{d}_p f)(u) + (\mathbf{d}_p f)(v).$$

The latter implies the statement since  $|u+v| = \sqrt{|u|^2 + 2 \cdot \langle u, v \rangle + |v|^2}$ . In general,  $T_p$  is not geodesic (and not even a length space), so concavity of  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  does not make sense. The key lemma however says that in a certain sense  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  behaves as a concave function.

Solving the following exercise should help to find an approach to the key lemma.

**4.12. Exercise.** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be distinct points in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose the geodesic  $[pq]$  can be extended beyond  $q$ .

Show that

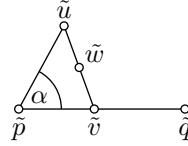
$$\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_q(v) = -\langle \uparrow_{[pq]}, v \rangle$$

for any  $v \in T_p$ .

*Proof of 4.11.* We will assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX(0) and  $f$  is concave; the general case requires only minor modifications. We can assume that  $v \neq 0$ ,  $w \neq 0$ , and  $\alpha = \angle(u, v) > 0$ ; otherwise, the statement is trivial.

Consider a model configuration of five points:  $\tilde{p}, \tilde{u}, \tilde{v}, \tilde{q}, \tilde{w} \in \mathbb{E}^2$  such that

- ◊  $\angle[\tilde{p}\tilde{u}] = \alpha$ ,
- ◊  $|\tilde{p} - \tilde{u}| = |u|$ ,
- ◊  $|\tilde{p} - \tilde{v}| = |v|$ ,
- ◊  $\tilde{q}$  lies on an extension of  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{v}]$  so that  $\tilde{v}$  is the midpoint of  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{q}]$ ,
- ◊  $\tilde{w}$  is the midpoint between  $\tilde{u}$  and  $\tilde{v}$ .



Note that

$$\textcircled{1} \quad |\tilde{p} - \tilde{w}| = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sqrt{|u|^2 + 2 \cdot \langle u, v \rangle + |v|^2}.$$

Since the geodesic space of directions  $\Sigma'_p$  is dense in  $\Sigma_p$ , we can assume that there are geodesics in the directions of  $u$  and  $v$ . Choose such geodesics  $\gamma_u$  and  $\gamma_v$  and assume that they are parametrized with speed  $|u|$  and  $|v|$  respectively. For all small  $t > 0$ , consider points  $u_t, v_t, q_t, w_t \in \mathcal{A}$  such that

- ◊  $v_t = \gamma_v(t), \quad q_t = \gamma_v(2 \cdot t)$
- ◊  $u_t = \gamma_u(t)$ .
- ◊  $w_t$  is the midpoint of  $[u_t v_t]$ .

Clearly

$$|p - u_t| = t \cdot |u|, \quad |p - v_t| = t \cdot |v|, \quad |p - q_t| = 2 \cdot t \cdot |v|.$$

Since  $\angle(u, v)$  is defined, we have

$$|u_t - v_t| = t \cdot |\tilde{u} - \tilde{v}| + o(t), \quad |u_t - q_t| = t \cdot |\tilde{u} - \tilde{q}| + o(t).$$

From the point-on-side and hinge comparisons (2.16c+2.16d), we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(v_t \overset{p}{w_t}) \geq \tilde{\angle}(v_t \overset{p}{u_t}) \geq \angle[\tilde{v} \overset{\tilde{p}}{\tilde{u}}] + \frac{o(t)}{t}$$

and

$$\tilde{\angle}(v_t \overset{q_t}{w_t}) \geq \tilde{\angle}(v_t \overset{q_t}{u_t}) \geq \angle[\tilde{v} \overset{\tilde{q}}{\tilde{u}}] + \frac{o(t)}{t}.$$

Clearly,  $\angle[\tilde{v}_{\tilde{u}}^{\tilde{p}}] + \angle[\tilde{v}_{\tilde{u}}^{\tilde{q}}] = \pi$ . From the adjacent angle comparison (2.16b),  $\tilde{\angle}(v_t^{\frac{p}{u_t}}) + \tilde{\angle}(v_t^{\frac{u_t}{q_t}}) \leq \pi$ . Hence  $\tilde{\angle}(v_t^{\frac{p}{w_t}}) \rightarrow \angle[\tilde{v}_{\tilde{w}}^{\tilde{p}}]$  as  $t \rightarrow 0+$  and thus

$$|p - w_t| = t \cdot |\tilde{p} - \tilde{w}| + o(t).$$

Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $f(p) = 0$ . Since  $f$  is concave, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \cdot f(w_t) &\geq f(u_t) + f(v_t) = \\ &= t \cdot [(\mathbf{d}_p f)(u) + (\mathbf{d}_p f)(v)] + o(t). \end{aligned}$$

Applying concavity of  $f$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\uparrow_{[pw_t]}) &\geq \frac{f(w_t)}{|p - w_t|} \geq \\ &\geq \frac{t \cdot [(\mathbf{d}_p f)(u) + (\mathbf{d}_p f)(v)] + o(t)}{2 \cdot t \cdot |\tilde{p} - \tilde{w}| + o(t)}. \end{aligned}$$

By ❶, the key lemma follows. □

*Proof of 4.10; uniqueness.* If  $g, g' \in T_p$  are two gradients of  $f$ , then

$$\langle g, g \rangle = (\mathbf{d}_p f)(g) \leq \langle g, g' \rangle, \quad \langle g', g' \rangle = (\mathbf{d}_p f)(g') \leq \langle g, g' \rangle.$$

Therefore,

$$|g - g'|^2 = \langle g, g \rangle - 2 \cdot \langle g, g' \rangle + \langle g', g' \rangle \leq 0.$$

It follows that  $g = g'$ .

*Existence.* If  $\mathbf{d}_p f \leq 0$ , then one can take  $\nabla_p f = 0$ .

Suppose  $s = \sup \{ (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi) : \xi \in \Sigma_p \} > 0$ , it is sufficient to show that there is  $\bar{\xi} \in \Sigma_p$  such that

$$\text{❷} \quad (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\bar{\xi}) = s.$$

Indeed, suppose  $\bar{\xi}$  exists. Applying 4.11 for  $u = \bar{\xi}$ ,  $v = \varepsilon \cdot w$  with  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+$ , we get

$$(\mathbf{d}_p f)(w) \leq \langle w, s \cdot \bar{\xi} \rangle$$

for any  $w \in T_p$ ; that is,  $s \cdot \bar{\xi}$  is the gradient at  $p$ .

Take a sequence of directions  $\xi_n \in \Sigma_p$ , such that  $(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi_n) \rightarrow s$ . Applying 4.11 for  $u = \xi_n$  and  $v = \xi_m$ , we get

$$s \geq \frac{(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi_n) + (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi_m)}{\sqrt{2 + 2 \cdot \cos \angle(\xi_n, \xi_m)}}.$$

Therefore  $\angle(\xi_n, \xi_m) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ ; that is,  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots$  is a Cauchy sequence. Clearly,  $\bar{\xi} = \lim_n \xi_n$  meets ②.  $\square$

**4.13. Exercise.** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be locally Lipschitz semiconcave functions defined in a neighborhood of a point  $p$  in an Alexandrov space. Show that

$$|\nabla_p f - \nabla_p g|_{T_p}^2 \leq s \cdot (|\nabla_p f| + |\nabla_p g|),$$

where

$$s = \sup \{ |(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\xi) - (\mathbf{d}_p g)(\xi)| : \xi \in \Sigma_p \}.$$

Conclude that if the sequence of restrictions  $\mathbf{d}_p f_n|_{\Sigma_p}$  converges uniformly, then  $\nabla_p f_n$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Here we assume that all functions  $f_1, f_2, \dots$  are semiconcave and locally Lipschitz.

**4.14. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a locally Lipschitz  $\lambda$ -concave function on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ .

(a) Suppose  $s \geq 0$ . Show that  $|\nabla_x f| > s$  if and only if for some point  $y$  we have

$$f(y) - f(x) > s \cdot \ell + \lambda \cdot \frac{\ell^2}{2},$$

where  $\ell = |x - y|$ .

(b) Show that  $x \mapsto |\nabla_x f|$  is lower semicontinuous; that is,

$$|\nabla_{x_\infty} f| \leq \varliminf_{x_n \rightarrow x_\infty} |\nabla_{x_n} f|.$$



# Lecture 5

## Gradient flow

Here we define the gradient flow of a semiconcave function and discuss its properties, most importantly the distance estimates.

### A Velocity of curve

Let  $\alpha$  be a curve in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . If for any choice of geodesics  $[p \alpha(t_0 + \varepsilon)]$  the vectors

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot |p - \alpha(t_0 + \varepsilon)| \cdot \uparrow_{[p\alpha(t_0+\varepsilon)]}$$

converge as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+$ , then their limit in  $T_p$  is called the right derivative of  $\alpha$  at  $t_0$ ; it will be denoted by  $\alpha^+(t_0)$ . In addition,  $\alpha^+(t_0) := 0$  if  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot |p - \alpha(t_0 + \varepsilon)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0+$ .

The tangent vector  $v = |p - x| \cdot \uparrow_{[px]}$  will be called the logarithm of  $x$  at  $p$  (briefly,  $v = \log_p x$ ). The logarithm is a multivalued function from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $T_p$ ; so,  $v = \log_p x$  and  $w = \log_p x$  does *not* mean  $v = w$ . Note that  $\gamma^+(0) = \log_p x$  for a geodesic path  $\gamma$  from  $p$  to  $x$ .

**5.1. Claim.** *Let  $\alpha$  be a curve in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $f$  is a semiconcave Lipschitz function defined in a neighborhood of  $p = \alpha(0)$ , and  $\alpha^+(0)$  is defined. Then  $(f \circ \alpha)^+(0)$  exists and*

$$(f \circ \alpha)^+(0) = (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\alpha^+(0)).$$

*Proof.* Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $f(p) = 0$ . Suppose  $f$  and therefore  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  are  $L$ -Lipschitz.

Let  $\gamma$  be a geodesic with a constant-speed reparametrization that starts from  $p$ , and such that the distance  $s = |\alpha^+(0) - \gamma^+(0)|_{T_p}$  is

small. By the definition of differential,

$$(f \circ \gamma)^+(0) = \mathbf{d}_p f(\gamma^+(0)).$$

By comparison and the definition of  $\alpha^+$ ,

$$|\alpha(\varepsilon) - \gamma(\varepsilon)|_{\mathcal{A}} \leq s \cdot \varepsilon + o(\varepsilon)$$

for  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Therefore,

$$|f \circ \alpha(\varepsilon) - f \circ \gamma(\varepsilon)| \leq L \cdot s \cdot \varepsilon + o(\varepsilon).$$

Suppose  $(f \circ \alpha)^+(0)$  is defined. Then

$$|(f \circ \alpha)^+(0) - (f \circ \gamma)^+(0)| \leq L \cdot s.$$

Since  $\mathbf{d}_p f$  is  $L$ -Lipschitz, we also get

$$|\mathbf{d}_p f(\alpha^+(0)) - \mathbf{d}_p f(\gamma^+(0))| \leq L \cdot s.$$

It follows that the needed identity holds up to error  $2 \cdot L \cdot s$ . The statement follows since  $s > 0$  can be chosen arbitrarily.

The same argument is applicable if place of  $(f \circ \alpha)^+(0)$  we use any limit of  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} \cdot [f \circ \alpha(\varepsilon_n) - f(p)]$  for a sequence  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0+$ . It proves that all such limits coincide; in particular,  $(f \circ \alpha)^+(0)$  is defined and equals to  $(\mathbf{d}_p f)(\alpha^+(0))$ .  $\square$

## B Gradient curves

**5.2. Definition.** *Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ .*

*A locally Lipschitz curve  $\alpha: [t_{\min}, t_{\max}) \rightarrow \text{Dom } f$  will be called an  $f$ -gradient curve if*

$$\alpha^+ = \nabla_{\alpha} f;$$

*that is, for any  $t \in [t_{\min}, t_{\max})$ ,  $\alpha^+(t)$  is defined and  $\alpha^+(t) = \nabla_{\alpha(t)} f$ .*

A complete proof of the following theorem is given in [5]; it mimics the proof of the standard Picard theorem on the existence and uniqueness of solutions of ordinary differential equations. The uniqueness will follow from the first distance estimate (5.6) proved in the next section. We omit the proof of existence as it is rather lengthy.

**5.3. Picard theorem.** *Let  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a locally Lipschitz and  $\lambda$ -concave function on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then for any  $p \in \text{Dom } f$ , there are unique  $t_{\max} \in (0, \infty]$  and  $f$ -gradient curve  $\alpha: [0, t_{\max}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$*

with  $\alpha(0) = p$  such that for any sequence  $t_n \rightarrow t_{\max}-$ , the sequence  $\alpha(t_n)$  does not have a limit point in  $\text{Dom } f$ .

This theorem says that the future of a gradient curve is determined by its present, but it says nothing about its past.

Here is an example showing that the past is not determined by the present. Consider the function  $f: x \mapsto -|x|$  on the real line  $\mathbb{R}$ . The tangent space  $T_x\mathbb{R}$  can be identified with  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\nabla_x f = -\text{sgn } x$ ; that is,

$$\nabla_x f = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$$

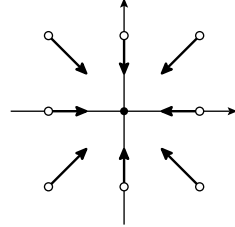
So, the  $f$ -gradient curves go to the origin with unit speed and then stand there forever. In particular, if  $\alpha$  is an  $f$ -gradient curve that starts at  $x$ , then  $\alpha(t) = 0$  for any  $t \geq |x|$ .

Here is a slightly more interesting example; it shows that gradient curves can merge even in the region where  $|\nabla f| \neq 0$ .

**5.4. Example.** Consider the function  $f: (x, y) \mapsto -|x| - |y|$  on the  $(x, y)$ -plane. It is concave, and its gradient field is sketched on the figure.

Let  $\alpha$  be an  $f$ -gradient curve that starts at  $(x, y)$  for  $x > y > 0$ . Then

$$\alpha(t) = \begin{cases} (x-t, y-t) & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq x-y, \\ (x-t, 0) & \text{for } x-y \leq t \leq x, \\ (0, 0) & \text{for } x \leq t. \end{cases}$$



## C Distance estimates

**5.5. Lemma.** Let  $\alpha$  be a gradient curve of a  $\lambda$ -concave function  $f$  defined on an Alexandrov space. Choose a point  $p$ ; let  $\ell(t) := \text{dist}_p \circ \alpha(t)$  and  $q = \alpha(t_0)$ . Then

$$\ell^+(t_0) \leq -\left(f(p) - f(q) - \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot \ell^2(t_0)\right) / \ell(t_0)$$

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma$  be the unit-speed parametrization of  $[qp]$  from  $q$  to  $p$ , so

$q = \gamma(0)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ell^+(t_0) &= (\mathbf{d}_q \text{dist}_p)(\nabla_q f) \leq && \text{(by 5.1)} \\
 &\leq -\langle \uparrow_{[qp]}, \nabla_q f \rangle \leq && \text{(by 4.7a)} \\
 &\leq -\mathbf{d}_q f(\uparrow_{[qp]}) = && \text{(by 4.8)} \\
 &= -(f \circ \gamma)^+(0) \leq \\
 &\leq -(f(p) - f(q) - \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot \ell^2(t_0)) / \ell(t_0)
 \end{aligned}$$

The last two lines follow by the definition of differential, and the concavity of  $t \mapsto f \circ \gamma(t) - \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot t^2$ .  $\square$

The following estimate implies uniqueness in the Picard theorem (5.3).

**5.6. First distance estimate.** *Let  $f$  be a  $\lambda$ -concave locally Lipschitz function defined on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then*

$$|\alpha(t) - \beta(t)| \leq e^{\lambda \cdot t} \cdot |\alpha(0) - \beta(0)|$$

for any  $t \geq 0$  and any two  $f$ -gradient curves  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

Moreover, the statement holds for a locally Lipschitz  $\lambda$ -concave function defined in an open domain if there is a geodesic  $[\alpha(t) \beta(t)]$  in  $\text{Dom } f$  for any  $t$ .

*Proof.* Fix a choice of geodesic  $[\alpha(t) \beta(t)]$  for each  $t$ . Let  $\ell(t) = |\alpha(t) - \beta(t)|$ . Note that

$$\ell^+(t) \leq -\langle \uparrow_{[\alpha(t)\beta(t)]}, \nabla_{\alpha(t)} f \rangle - \langle \uparrow_{[\beta(t)\alpha(t)]}, \nabla_{\beta(t)} f \rangle \leq \lambda \cdot \ell(t).$$

Here one has to apply 5.5 for distance to the midpoint  $m$  of  $[\alpha(t) \beta(t)]$ , then apply the triangle inequality and 4.9. Integrating, we get the result.  $\square$

The following exercise describes a global geometric property of a gradient curve without direct reference to its function. It is based on the notion of self-contracting curves introduced by Aris Daniilidis, Olivier Ley, and Stéphane Sabourau [23].

**5.7. Exercise.** *Let  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a concave function on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then*

$$|\alpha(t_1) - \alpha(t_3)|_{\mathcal{A}} \geq |\alpha(t_2) - \alpha(t_3)|_{\mathcal{A}}.$$

for any  $f$ -gradient curve  $\alpha$  and  $t_1 \leq t_2 \leq t_3$ .

**5.8. Exercise.** Let  $f$  be a locally Lipschitz concave function defined on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $\hat{\alpha}: [0, \ell] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  is an arc-length reparametrization of an  $f$ -gradient curve. Show that  $f \circ \hat{\alpha}$  is concave.

The following exercise implies that gradient curves for a uniformly converging sequence of  $\lambda$ -concave functions converge to the gradient curves of the limit function.

**5.9. Exercise.** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be  $\lambda$ -concave locally Lipschitz functions on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $\alpha, \beta: [0, t_{\max}) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  are respectively  $f$ - and  $g$ -gradient curves. Assume  $|f - g| < \varepsilon$ ; let  $\ell: t \mapsto |\alpha(t) - \beta(t)|$ . Show that

$$\ell^+ \leq \lambda \cdot \ell + \frac{2 \cdot \varepsilon}{\ell}.$$

Conclude that if  $\alpha(0) = \beta(0)$  and  $t_{\max} < \infty$ , then

$$|\alpha(t) - \beta(t)| \leq c \cdot \sqrt{\varepsilon} \cdot t$$

for some constant  $c = c(t_{\max}, \lambda)$ .

## D Gradient flow

Let  $f$  be a locally Lipschitz semiconcave function defined on an open subset of an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . If there is an  $f$ -gradient curve  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha(0) = x$  and  $\alpha(t) = y$ , then we will write

$$\text{Flow}_f^t(x) = y.$$

The partially defined map  $\text{Flow}_f^t$  from  $\mathcal{A}$  to itself is called the  $f$ -gradient flow for time  $t$ . Note that

$$\text{Flow}_f^{t_1+t_2} = \text{Flow}_f^{t_1} \circ \text{Flow}_f^{t_2}.$$

In other words, the gradient flow is a partial action of the *semigroup*  $(\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}, +)$  on the space.

From the first distance estimate 5.6, it follows that for any  $t \geq 0$ , the domain of definition of  $\text{Flow}_f^t$  is an open subset of  $\mathcal{A}$ . For sufficiently nice functions, the gradient flow is globally defined. For example, if  $f$  is a  $\lambda$ -concave function and it is defined on the whole space  $\mathcal{A}$ , then  $\text{Flow}_f^t(x)$  is defined for all  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $t \geq 0$ ; see [5, 16.19].

Now let us reformulate the statements about gradient curves obtained earlier using this new terminology. From the first distance estimate, we have the following.

**5.10. Proposition.** Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function defined on an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then the map  $x \mapsto \text{Flow}_f^t(x)$  is locally Lipschitz.

Moreover, if  $f$  is  $\lambda$ -concave, then  $\text{Flow}_f^t$  is  $e^{\lambda \cdot t}$ -Lipschitz.

The next proposition follows from 5.9.

**5.11. Proposition.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space. Suppose  $f_n: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a sequence of  $\lambda$ -concave functions that uniformly converges to  $f_\infty: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Then for any  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $t \geq 0$ , we have*

$$\text{Flow}_{f_n}^t(x) \rightarrow \text{Flow}_{f_\infty}^t(x)$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

There is a more general version of this proposition for a converging sequence  $\mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_\infty$  of spaces and a converging sequence of functions  $f_n: \mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ; see [5, 16.21].

## E Gradient exponent

One of the technical difficulties in Alexandrov geometry comes from nonextendability of geodesics. In particular, the exponential map,  $\exp_p: T_p \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ , if defined in the usual way, can be undefined in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of the origin.

Next we construct the gradient exponential map

$$\text{gexp}_p: T_p \rightarrow \mathcal{A},$$

which essentially solves this problem. It shares many properties with the ordinary exponential map and is even better in certain respects, even in the Riemannian universe.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space of curvature  $\geq 0$  and  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , consider the function  $f = \text{dist}_p^2/2$ . Recall that  $\Phi_f^t$  denotes the gradient flow. Let us define the *gradient exponential map* as the limit

$$\text{gexp}_p(v) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi_f^{t_n}(x_n),$$

where the sequences  $x_n \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $t_n \geq 0$  are chosen so that  $t_n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $e^{t_n} \cdot \log_p x_n \rightarrow v$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

More intuitively, suppose  $i_\lambda: \lambda \cdot \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  sends a point in the rescaled copy  $\lambda \cdot \mathcal{A}$  to the corresponding point in  $\mathcal{A}$ . By the first distance estimate (5.6), the map

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \Phi_f^t \circ i_{e^t}: e^t \cdot \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$$

is short for any  $t \geq 0$ . If we have a pointed Gromov–Hausdorff convergence  $(e^{t_n} \cdot \mathcal{A}, p) \rightarrow (T_p, o_p)$ , then  $\text{gexp}_p: T_p \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  is the limit of

$\Phi_f^{tn} \circ i_{e^{tn}}$ . This way we get that  $\text{gexp}_p$  is short as a limit of short maps. This observation is generalized in the following proposition.

**5.12. Proposition.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a proper ALEX(0) space. Then for any  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  the gradient exponent  $\text{gexp}_p: T_p \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  is uniquely defined. Moreover,  $\text{gexp}_p$  is a short map and*

$$\text{gexp}_p(\gamma^+(0)) = \gamma(1)$$

for any geodesic path  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$ .

The last statement implies that

$$\text{gexp}_p \circ \log_p = \text{id},$$

so it is appropriate to use term *exponent* for  $\text{gexp}$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $f'' \leq 1$ . Since the space is proper we can choose a limit in ❶.

Let  $\gamma$  be a geodesic that starts at  $p$ . Observe that  $t \mapsto \gamma \circ \ln(t)$  is an  $f$ -gradient curve. By the first distance estimate, we have that  $\Phi_f^t$  is an  $e^t$ -Lipschitz. This implies that any limit in ❶ has the same value; that is,  $\text{gexp}_p$  is uniquely defined.

Again, since  $\Phi_f^t$  is an  $e^t$ -Lipschitz, we get that  $\text{gexp}_p$  is short.  $\square$

## F Remarks

The idea to use gradient flows in Alexandrov geometry was inspired by the success of Sharafutdinov's retraction in comparison geometry [92]. Originally, the notion of gradient flows was developed to construct quasigeodesics with given initial data [72, 80, 81], but it turned out that gradient flow and gradient exponent are better tools than quasigeodesics. These tools quickly found applications in other types of singular spaces [10, 47, 63, 64, 69, 91].

For a general lower curvature bound  $\kappa$ , the construction of gradient exponent has to be modified; it is denoted by  $\text{gexp}_p^\kappa$  [5, 16.36]. It is done by taking limits of appropriately reparameterized gradient curves of the modified distance function.

For  $\kappa = -1$  we have that  $\text{gexp}_p(\gamma^+(0)) = \gamma(1)$  for any geodesic path  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$  and

$$|\text{gexp}_p^{-1} v - \text{gexp}_p^{-1} w|_{\mathcal{A}} \leq \tilde{\gamma}[0_w^v]_{\mathbb{H}^2}.$$

In other words  $\text{gexp}_p$  is short if we equip  $T_p$  with the hyperbolic cone metric.

Similarly, for  $\kappa = 1$  we have  $\text{gexp}_p(\gamma^+(0)) = \gamma(1)$  for any geodesic path  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$  and

$$|\text{gexp}_p^1 v - \text{gexp}_p^1 w|_{\mathcal{A}} \leq \tilde{\gamma}[0_w^v]_{\mathbb{S}^2},$$

but this time all this holds only if  $|v|, |w| \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $\text{length } \gamma \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

The gradient exponential map in a Riemannian manifold  $(M, g)$  coincides with the Riemannian exponential map before the cut locus of but *is different* from the Riemannian exponential after that. The following exercise is ment to show that this technique can prove something nontrivial even for Riemannian manifolds.

**5.13. Exercise.** *Let  $(M, g)$  be a complete  $m$ -dimensional Riemannian with sectional curvature at least 1. Assume  $M$  is not homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^m$ . Show that there is a short onto map  $\mathbb{S}^m \rightarrow (M, g)$ .*



# Lecture 6

## Line splitting

In this lecture, we prove the line splitting theorem and apply it to study tangent spaces of Alexandrov spaces.

### A Busemann function

A half-line is a distance-preserving map from  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} = [0, \infty)$  to a metric space. In other words, a half-line is a geodesic defined on the real half-line  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ .

If  $\gamma: [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  is a half-line, then the limit

$$\textbf{1} \quad \text{bus}_\gamma(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma(t) - x| - t$$

is called the Busemann function of  $\gamma$ . It mimics behavior of the distance function from the ideal point of  $\gamma$ .

**6.1. Proposition.** *For any half-line  $\gamma$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ , its Busemann function  $\text{bus}_\gamma: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined. Moreover,  $\text{bus}_\gamma$  is 1-Lipschitz and  $\text{bus}_\gamma(\gamma(t)) = -t$  for any  $t$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $t = |\gamma(0) - \gamma(t)|$ , the triangle inequality implies that

$$t \mapsto |\gamma(t) - x| - t$$

is a nonincreasing function, and

$$|\gamma(t) - x| - t \geq -|\gamma(0) - x|$$

for any  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ . Therefore, the limit in **1** is defined, and it has to be 1-Lipschitz as a limit of 1-Lipschitz functions. The last statement follows since  $|\gamma(t) - \gamma(t_0)| = t - t_0$  for all large  $t$ .  $\square$

**6.2. Exercise.** *Show that any Busemann function on an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space is concave.*

## B Splitting theorem

A line is a distance-preserving map from  $\mathbb{R}$  to a metric space. In other words, a line is a geodesic defined on the real line  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**6.3. Exercise.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a line in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Show that for any point  $x$  we have*

$$\text{bus}_+(x) + \text{bus}_-(x) \geq 0$$

where,  $\text{bus}_+$  and  $\text{bus}_-$ , are the Busemann functions associated with half-lines  $\gamma : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  and  $\gamma : (-\infty, 0] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  respectively.

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two subsets in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . We say that  $\mathcal{X}$  is a direct sum of  $A$  and  $B$ , or briefly,

$$\mathcal{X} = A \oplus B$$

if there are retractions  $\text{proj}_A : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow A$  and  $\text{proj}_B : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow B$  such that

$$|x - y|^2 = |\text{proj}_A(x) - \text{proj}_A(y)|^2 + |\text{proj}_B(x) - \text{proj}_B(y)|^2$$

for any two points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ .

Observe that if  $\mathcal{X} = A \oplus B$ , then

- ◊  $A$  intersects  $B$  at a single point,
- ◊ both sets  $A$  and  $B$  are convex sets in  $\mathcal{X}$ ; the latter means that any geodesic with the endpoints in  $A$  (or  $B$ ) lies in  $A$  (respectively  $B$ ).

**6.4. Line splitting theorem.** *Let  $\gamma$  be a line in a  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then*

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}' \oplus \gamma(\mathbb{R})$$

for some subset  $\mathcal{A}' \subset \mathcal{A}$ .

**6.5. Corollary.** *Any  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space  $\mathcal{A}$  splits isometrically as*

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}' \oplus H$$

where  $H \subset \mathcal{A}$  is a subset isometric to a Hilbert space, and  $\mathcal{A}' \subset \mathcal{A}$  is a convex subset that contains no lines.

The following lemma is closely related to the first distance estimate (5.6); it is also a limit case of 5.12. The proof follows similar lines.

**6.6. Lemma.** *Suppose  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a concave 1-Lipschitz function on an ALEX(0) space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Consider two  $f$ -gradient curves  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Then for any  $t, s \geq 0$  we have*

$$|\alpha(s) - \beta(t)|^2 \leq |p - q|^2 + 2 \cdot (f(p) - f(q)) \cdot (s - t) + (s - t)^2,$$

where  $p = \alpha(0)$  and  $q = \beta(0)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is 1-Lipschitz,  $|\nabla f| \leq 1$ . Therefore

$$f \circ \beta(t) \leq f(q) + t$$

for any  $t \geq 0$ .

Set  $\ell(t) = |p - \beta(t)|$ . Applying 5.5, we get

$$\begin{aligned} (\ell^2)^+(t) &\leq 2 \cdot (f \circ \beta(t) - f(p)) \leq \\ &\leq 2 \cdot (f(q) + t - f(p)). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\ell^2(t) - \ell^2(0) \leq 2 \cdot (f(q) - f(p)) \cdot t + t^2.$$

It proves the needed inequality in case  $s = 0$ . Combining it with the first distance estimate (5.6), we get the result in case  $s \leq t$ . The case  $s \geq t$  follows by switching the roles of  $s$  and  $t$ .  $\square$

*Proof of 6.4.* Consider two Busemann functions,  $\text{bus}_+$  and  $\text{bus}_-$ , associated with the half-lines  $\gamma : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  and  $\gamma : (-\infty, 0] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  respectively; that is,

$$\text{bus}_\pm(x) := \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} |\gamma(\pm t) - x| - t.$$

According to 6.2, both  $\text{bus}_+$  and  $\text{bus}_-$  are concave.

By 6.3,  $\text{bus}_+(x) + \text{bus}_-(x) \geq 0$  for any  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . On the other hand, by 2.19,  $f(t) = \text{dist}_x^2 \circ \gamma(t)$  is 2-concave. In particular,  $f(t) \leq t^2 + at + b$  for some constants  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore, for all large  $t$

$$|\gamma(t) - x| - t + |\gamma(-t) - x| - t \leq \sqrt{t^2 + at + b} - t + \sqrt{t^2 - at + b} - t$$

Passing to the limit as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , we get that  $\text{bus}_+(x) + \text{bus}_-(x) \leq 0$ . Hence

$$\text{bus}_+(x) + \text{bus}_-(x) = 0$$

for any  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . In particular, the functions  $\text{bus}_+$  and  $\text{bus}_-$  are affine; that is, they are convex and concave at the same time.

For any  $x$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |\nabla_x \text{bus}_\pm| &= \sup \{ \mathbf{d}_x \text{bus}_\pm(\xi) : \xi \in \Sigma_x \} = \\ &= \sup \{ -\mathbf{d}_x \text{bus}_\mp(\xi) : \xi \in \Sigma_x \} \equiv \\ &\equiv 1. \end{aligned}$$

A curve  $\alpha$  is a  $\text{bus}_\pm$ -gradient curve if and only if  $\alpha$  is a geodesic such that  $(\text{bus}_\pm \circ \alpha)^+ = 1$ . Indeed, if  $\alpha$  is a geodesic, then  $(\text{bus}_\pm \circ \alpha)^+ \leq 1$  and the equality holds only if  $\nabla_\alpha \text{bus}_\pm = \alpha^+$ . Now suppose  $\nabla_\alpha \text{bus}_\pm = \alpha^+$ . Then  $|\alpha^+| \leq 1$  and  $(\text{bus}_\pm \circ \alpha)^+ = 1$ ; therefore

$$\begin{aligned} |t_0 - t_1| &\geq |\alpha(t_0) - \alpha(t_1)| \geq \\ &\geq |\text{bus}_\pm \circ \alpha(t_0) - \text{bus}_\pm \circ \alpha(t_1)| = \\ &= |t_0 - t_1|. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that for any  $t > 0$ , the  $\text{bus}_\pm$ -gradient flows commute; that is,

$$\text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_+}^t \circ \text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_-}^t = \text{id}_{\mathcal{A}}.$$

Setting

$$\text{Flow}^t = \begin{cases} \text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_+}^t & \text{if } t \geq 0 \\ \text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_-}^{-t} & \text{if } t \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

defines an  $\mathbb{R}$ -action on  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Consider the level set  $\mathcal{A}' = \text{bus}_+^{-1}(0) = \text{bus}_-^{-1}(0)$ ; it is a closed convex subset of  $\mathcal{A}$ , and therefore forms an Alexandrov space. Consider the map  $h: \mathcal{A}' \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  defined by  $h: (x, t) \mapsto \text{Flow}^t(x)$ . Note that  $h$  is onto. Applying 6.6 for  $\text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_+}^t$  and  $\text{Flow}_{\text{bus}_-}^t$  shows that  $h$  is distance non-expanding and non-contracting at the same time; that is,  $h$  is an isometry.  $\square$

**6.7. Exercise.** Suppose  $\mathcal{X}$  is a complete geodesic space. Show that  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  if and only if  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  and  $\text{diam } \mathcal{X} \leq \pi$ .

Recall that according our definition any circle or closed real interval is  $\text{ALEX}(1)$ . Therefore, the condition  $\text{diam } \mathcal{X} \leq \pi$  is necessary. Nevertheless, according to 3.7, most of  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  spaces have diameter at most  $\pi$ .

## C Anti-sum

Here we give a corollary of 4.13. It will be used to prove basic properties of tangent spaces.

**6.8. Anti-sum lemma.** *Let  $p$  be a point in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Given two vectors  $u, v \in T_p$ , there is a unique vector  $w \in T_p$  such that*

$$\langle u, x \rangle + \langle v, x \rangle + \langle w, x \rangle \geq 0$$

*for any  $x \in T_p$ , and*

$$\langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle + \langle w, w \rangle = 0.$$

**6.9. Exercise.** *Suppose  $u, v, w \in T_p$  are as in 6.8. Show that*

$$|w|^2 \leq |u|^2 + |v|^2 + 2 \cdot \langle u, v \rangle.$$

If  $T_p$  were  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ , then the lemma would follow from the existence of the gradient, applied to the function  $T_p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $x \mapsto -(\langle u, x \rangle + \langle v, x \rangle)$ , which is concave by 6.2. As you will see, a revision of this idea works in the general case, but it cannot work as is since  $T_p$  might fail to be geodesic; see Halbeisen's example [5].

Applying the above lemma for  $u = v$ , we have the following statement.

**6.10. Existence of polar vector.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space and  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . Given a vector  $u \in T_p$ , there is a unique vector  $u^* \in T_p$  such that  $\langle u^*, u^* \rangle + \langle u, u^* \rangle = 0$  and  $u^*$  is polar to  $u$ ; that is,*

$$\langle u^*, x \rangle + \langle u, x \rangle \geq 0$$

*for any  $x \in T_p$ .*

*Proof of 6.8.* By 4.12, we can choose two sequences of points  $a_n, b_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_{a_n}(w) = -\langle \uparrow_{[pa_n]}, w \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_{b_n}(w) = -\langle \uparrow_{[pb_n]}, w \rangle$$

for any  $w \in T_p$ ; furthermore,  $\uparrow_{[pa_n]} \rightarrow u/|u|$  and  $\uparrow_{[pb_n]} \rightarrow v/|v|$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Consider a sequence of functions

$$f_n = |u| \cdot \text{dist}_{a_n} + |v| \cdot \text{dist}_{b_n}.$$

Note that

$$(\mathbf{d}_p f_n)(x) = -|u| \cdot \langle \uparrow_{[pa_n]}, x \rangle - |v| \cdot \langle \uparrow_{[pb_n]}, x \rangle.$$

Thus we have the following uniform convergence for  $x \in \Sigma_p$ :

$$(\mathbf{d}_p f_n)(x) \rightarrow -\langle u, x \rangle - \langle v, x \rangle$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , According to 4.13, the sequence  $\nabla_p f_n$  converges. Let

$$w = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \nabla_p f_n.$$

By the definition of gradient,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle w, w \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle \nabla_p f_n, \nabla_p f_n \rangle = & \langle w, x \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle \nabla_p f_n, x \rangle \geq \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\mathbf{d}_p f_n)(\nabla_p f_n) = & &\geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\mathbf{d}_p f_n)(x) = \\ &= -\langle u, w \rangle - \langle v, w \rangle, & &= -\langle u, x \rangle - \langle v, x \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The proof of uniqueness is very similar to the proof of uniqueness of gradients and is left to the reader.  $\square$

## D Linear subspace

**6.11. Definition.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space,  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $u, v \in \in T_p$ . We say that vectors  $u$  and  $v$  are opposite to each other, (briefly,  $u + v = 0$ ) if  $|u| = |v| = 0$  or  $\angle(u, v) = \pi$  and  $|u| = |v|$ .

The subcone

$$\text{Lin}_p = \{ v \in T_p : \exists w \in T_p \text{ such that } w + v = 0 \}$$

will be called the linear subspace of  $T_p$ .

Soon we will introduce a natural linear structure on  $\text{Lin}_p$ .

**6.12. Proposition.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space and  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . Given two vectors  $u, v \in T_p$ , the following statements are equivalent:

- (a)  $u + v = 0$ ;
- (b)  $\langle u, x \rangle + \langle v, x \rangle = 0$  for any  $x \in T_p$ ;
- (c)  $\langle u, \xi \rangle + \langle v, \xi \rangle = 0$  for any  $\xi \in \Sigma_p$ .

*Proof.* The equivalence  $(b) \Leftrightarrow (c)$  is trivial.

The condition  $u + v = 0$  is equivalent to  $\langle u, u \rangle = -\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, v \rangle$ ; thus,  $(b) \Rightarrow (a)$ .

Suppose (a) holds. Recall that  $T_p$  has nonnegative curvature. The hinges  $[0 \frac{u}{x}]$  and  $[0 \frac{v}{x}]$  are adjacent. By 2.12,  $\angle[0 \frac{u}{x}] + \angle[0 \frac{v}{x}] = \pi$ ; hence  $(a) \Rightarrow (b)$ .  $\square$

**6.13. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space and  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . Then for any three vectors  $u, v, w \in T_p$ , if  $u + v = 0$  and  $u + w = 0$  then  $v = w$ .

Let  $u \in \text{Lin}_p$ ; that is,  $u + v = 0$  for some  $v \in T_p$ . Given  $s < 0$ , let

$$s \cdot u := (-s) \cdot v.$$

So we can multiply any vector in  $\text{Lin}_p$  by any real number (positive and negative). By 6.13, this multiplication is uniquely defined. By 6.12, we have identity

$$\langle -v, x \rangle = -\langle v, x \rangle.$$

**6.14. Exercise.** Suppose  $u, v, w \in T_p$  are as in 6.8. Show that

$$\langle u, x \rangle + \langle v, x \rangle + \langle w, x \rangle = 0$$

for any  $x \in \text{Lin}_p$ .

**6.15. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space,  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $u \in T_p$ . Suppose  $u^* \in T_p$  is from 6.10; that is,

$$\langle u^*, u^* \rangle + \langle u, u^* \rangle = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \langle u^*, x \rangle + \langle u, x \rangle \geq 0$$

for any  $x \in T_p$ . Show that  $u = -u^*$  if and only if  $|u| = |u^*|$ .

**6.16. Theorem.** Let  $p$  be a point in an Alexandrov space. Then  $\text{Lin}_p$  is isometric to a Hilbert space.

*Proof.*  $\text{Lin}_p$  is a closed subset of  $T_p$ ; in particular, it is complete.

If any two vectors in  $\text{Lin}_p$  can be connected by a geodesic in  $\text{Lin}_p$ , then the statement follows from the splitting theorem (6.4). By Menger's lemma (1.4), it is sufficient to show that for any two vectors  $x, y \in \text{Lin}_p$  there is a midpoint  $w \in \text{Lin}_p$ .

Choose  $w \in T_p$  to be the anti-sum of  $u = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot x$  and  $v = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot y$ ; see 6.8. By 6.9 and 6.14,

$$\begin{aligned} |w|^2 &\leq \frac{1}{4} \cdot |x|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot |y|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle, \\ \langle w, x \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot |x|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle, \\ \langle w, y \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot |y|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |x - w|^2 &= |x|^2 + |w|^2 - 2 \cdot \langle w, x \rangle \leq \\ &\leq \frac{1}{4} \cdot |x|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot |y|^2 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle = \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \cdot |x - y|^2. \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $|x - w| \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot |x - y|$ . Similarly, we get  $|y - w| \leq \frac{1}{2} \cdot |x - y|$ . Therefore  $w$  is a midpoint of  $x$  and  $y$ . In addition, we get the equality

$$|w|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot |x|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot |y|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle.$$

It remains to show that  $w \in \text{Lin}_p$ . Let  $w^*$  be the polar vector provided by 6.10. Note that

$$|w^*| \leq |w|, \quad \langle w^*, x \rangle + \langle w, x \rangle = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \langle w^*, y \rangle + \langle w, y \rangle = 0.$$

The same calculation as above shows that  $w^*$  is a midpoint of  $-x$  and  $-y$  and

$$|w^*|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot |x|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot |y|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \langle x, y \rangle = |w|^2.$$

By 6.15,  $w = -w^*$ ; hence  $w \in \text{Lin}_p$ .  $\square$

**6.17. Lemma.** *Given a point  $p$  in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , let  $f = \text{dist}_p$ , and let  $S$  be the subset of points  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $|\nabla_x f| = 1$ . Then  $S$  is a dense  $G$ -delta set.*

*Proof.* Let  $S_n \subset \mathcal{A}$  be defined by inequality  $|\nabla_x f| > 1 - \frac{1}{n}$ . By 4.14a,  $S_n$  is open.

Choose a point  $q \neq p$ . Observe that  $|\nabla_x f| = 1$  for any point  $x \in ]pq[$ . It follows that  $S_n$  is dense in  $\mathcal{A}$ . Since  $S = \bigcap_n S_n$ , the lemma follows from the Baire category theorem.  $\square$

**6.18. Exercise.** *Let  $p, f$ , and  $S$  be as in 6.17.*

(a) *Show that*

$$\nabla_x f + \uparrow_{[xp]} = 0$$

*for any  $x \in S$ ; in particular,  $\uparrow_{[xp]} \in \text{Lin}_x$ .*

(b) *Show that if  $|\nabla_x f| = 1$ , then  $\mathbf{d}_x f(w) = \langle \nabla_x f, w \rangle$  for any  $w \in \text{T}_x$ .*

(c) *Show that for any  $x \in S$  there is a unique geodesic  $[px]$ .*

This exercise implies the following.

**6.19. Corollary.** *Given a countable set of points  $X$  in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  there is a  $G$ -delta dense set  $S \subset \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\uparrow_{[sx]} \in \text{Lin}_s$  for any  $s \in S$  and  $x \in X$ .*

## E Remarks

The history of the splitting theorem starts with Stefan Cohn-Vossen [21], who proved its 2-dimensional case. For Riemannian manifolds of higher dimensions, it was proved by Victor Toponogov [98]. Then it was generalized by Anatoliy Milka [66] to Alexandrov spaces; it was



the first result about Alexandrov spaces of dimension higher than 2. Nearly the same proof is used in [16, 1.5]. Generalizations to Riemannian manifolds with nonnegative Ricci curvature were obtained by Jeff Cheeger and Detlef Gromoll [20]. This was further generalized by Jeff Cheeger and Toby Colding for the limits of Riemannian manifolds with almost nonnegative Ricci curvature [18]. Nicola Gigli generalized it further to the so-called RCD spaces (spaces with synthetically defined Ricci-curvature bound) [30, 31]. Jost-Hinrich Eschenburg obtained an analogous result for Lorentzian manifolds [27]; that is, pseudo-Riemannian manifolds of signature  $(1, n)$ .

The presented proof is close in spirit to the proof given by Cheeger and Gromoll [20]; it is taken from our book [5].

**6.20. Open question.** *Let  $p$  be a point in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose that  $0 \neq v \in \text{Lin}_p$ . Is it true that the tangent space  $T_p$  splits in the direction of  $v$ ?*

Halbeisen's example [5, 41] shows that compactness of space of directions is essential in the proof that space of directions is  $\pi$ -geodesic (see 7.5).

**6.21. Open question.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a proper Alexandrov space. Is it true that for any  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , the tangent space  $T_p$  is a length space?*



# Lecture 7

## Dimension and volume

This lecture shows that several different notions of dimension are the same for Alexandrov spaces. Also, we introduce volume, prove the Bishop–Gromov inequality and the right-inverse theorem, and introduce distance charts.

### A Linear dimension

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an Alexandrov space. We define its linear dimension  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A}$  as the least upper bound on integers  $m$  such that the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{E}^m$  is isometric to a subspace of the tangent space  $T_p\mathcal{A}$  at some point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . If not stated otherwise, dimension of an Alexandrov space is its linear dimension.

In Section 7F, we will show that linear dimension of Alexandrov space coincides with all reasonable dimensions; after that, we will use  $\dim \mathcal{A}$  for  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A}$ .

**7.1.  $(n+1)$ -comparison.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Then for any finite set of points  $p, x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}$ , there exist an integer  $m > 0$  and a model configuration  $\tilde{p}, \tilde{x}_1, \dots, \tilde{x}_n \in \mathbb{E}^m$  such that*

$$|\tilde{p} - \tilde{x}_i|_{\mathbb{E}^m} = |p - x_i|_{\mathcal{A}} \quad \text{and} \quad |\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{x}_j|_{\mathbb{E}^m} \geq |x_i - x_j|_{\mathcal{A}}$$

*for any  $i$  and  $j$ . Moreover, we can assume that  $m \leq \text{LinDim } \mathcal{A}$ .*

*Proof.* By 6.19, we can choose a point  $p'$  arbitrarily close to  $p$  so that  $\text{Lin}_{p'} \ni \uparrow_{[p'x_i]}$  for any  $i$ . Let us identify  $\mathbb{E}^m$  with a subspace of  $\text{Lin}_{p'}$  spanned by  $\uparrow_{[p'x_1]}, \dots, \uparrow_{[p'x_n]}$ . Note that  $m \leq \text{LinDim } \mathcal{A}$ .

Set  $\tilde{p}' = 0 \in \mathbb{E}^m$  and  $\tilde{x}_i = |p' - x_n| \cdot \uparrow_{[p'x_n]} \in \mathbb{E}^m$  for every  $i$ . Note that

$$|\tilde{p}' - \tilde{x}_i|_{\mathbb{E}^m} = |p' - x_i|_{\mathcal{A}}$$

for every  $i$ . Applying the comparison  $\angle[p'_{x_j}^{x_i}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(p'_{x_j}^{x_i})$ , we get

$$|\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{x}_j|_{\mathbb{E}^m} \geq |x_i - x_j|_{\mathcal{A}}$$

for all  $i$  and  $j$ . Passing to a limit configuration as  $p' \rightarrow p$  we get the result.  $\square$

**7.2. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Suppose  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = m < \infty$ . Show that  $T_p \mathcal{A} \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{E}^m$  for a  $G$ -delta dense set of points  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**7.3. Exercise.** Show that a 1-dimensional Alexandrov space is homeomorphic to a 1-dimensional manifold, possibly with non-empty boundary.

**7.4. Exercise.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space. Show that  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} \geq m$  if and only if for some  $m+2$  points  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathcal{A}$  we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\pi}{2}$$

for any pair  $i \neq j$ .

## B Space of directions

Recall that a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\ell$ -geodesic if any two points  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|x - y| < \ell$  can be connected by a geodesic.

**7.5. Theorem.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space. Then for any point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , its space of directions  $\Sigma_p$  is a compact  $\pi$ -geodesic space.

By 4.4, this gives the following.

**7.6. Corollary.** Let  $p$  be a point in a finite dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , and let  $\lambda_n \rightarrow \infty$ . Then there is a pointed Gromov-Hausdorff convergence  $(\lambda_n \cdot \mathcal{A}, p) \rightarrow (T_p, 0)$ .

**7.7. Exercise.** Let  $p$  be a point in a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Prove the following.

- (a) The tangent space  $T_p$  is a proper  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space.
- (b)  $\text{LinDim } \Sigma_p = \text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} - 1$ .
- (c) If  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} > 1$ , then  $\Sigma_p$  is geodesic.

Applying 7.7b, one can prove results for all finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces via induction on dimension; for example, see 9.9.

*Proof of 7.5.* Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ ; suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $m$ -dimensional. Assume we can choose  $n$  directions  $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n \in \Sigma_p$  such that  $\angle(\xi_i, \xi_j) > \varepsilon$  for any  $i \neq j$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume that each direction is geodesic; that is, there is a point  $x_i \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\xi_i = \uparrow_{[px_i]}$ .

Choose  $y_i \in [px_i]$  such that  $|p - y_i| = r$  for each  $i$  and small fixed  $r > 0$ . Since  $r$  is small, we can assume that  $\tilde{\angle}(p_{y_j}^{y_i}) > \varepsilon$  if  $i \neq j$ . By 6.19, we can choose  $p'$  arbitrarily close to  $p$  such that  $\uparrow_{[p'y_i]} \in \text{Lin}_{p'}$  for any  $i$ . Since  $|p' - p|$  is small,  $\tilde{\angle}(p_{y_j}^{p'}) > \varepsilon$  if  $i \neq j$ . By comparison,

$$\angle[p_{y_j}^{p'}] > \varepsilon.$$

Therefore,  $n \leq \text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathbb{S}^{m-1}$ , where  $\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{X}$  is the exact upper bound on the number of points  $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|x_i - x_j| \geq \varepsilon$  if  $i \neq j$ .

Since  $\mathbb{S}^{m-1}$  is compact,  $\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathbb{S}^{m-1} < \infty$ . By the definition, the space of directions  $\Sigma_p$  is complete. Applying 8.5, we get that  $\Sigma_p$  is compact.

It remains to prove the following claim.

❶ *If  $\Sigma_p$  is compact, then it is  $\pi$ -geodesic*

Choose two geodesic directions  $\xi = \uparrow_{[px]}$  and  $\zeta = \uparrow_{[py]}$ ; let

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \angle[p_y^x] = \frac{1}{2} \cdot |\xi - \zeta|_{\Sigma_p}.$$

Suppose  $\alpha < \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

It is sufficient to construct an almost midpoint  $\mu = \uparrow_{[pz]}$  of  $\xi$  and  $\zeta$  in  $\Sigma_p$ ; that is, we need to show that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a geodesic  $[pz]$  such that

$$\angle[p_z^x] \leq \alpha + \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \angle[p_z^y] \leq \alpha + \varepsilon.$$

Indeed, once this is done, the compactness of  $\Sigma_p$  can be used to get an actual midpoint for any two directions in  $\Sigma_p$ , and Menger's lemma (1.4) finishes the proof.

Choose a sequence of small positive numbers  $r_n \rightarrow 0$ . Consider sequences  $x_n \in [px]$  and  $y_n \in [py]$  such that  $|p - x_n| = |p - y_n| = r_n$ . Let  $m_n$  be a midpoint of  $[x_n y_n]$ .

Since  $\Sigma_p$  is compact, we can pass to a subsequence of  $r_n$  such that  $\uparrow_{[pm_n]}$  converges; denote its limit by  $\mu$ . Choose a geodesic  $[pz]$  that runs at a small angle from  $\mu$ . Let us show that  $\uparrow_{[pz]}$  is the needed almost midpoint.

Evidently,  $\tilde{\angle}(p_{m_n}^{x_n}) = \tilde{\angle}(p_{m_n}^{y_n})$ . By 2.6, we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{m_n}^{x_n}) + \tilde{\angle}(p_{m_n}^{y_n}) \leq \tilde{\angle}(p_{y_n}^{x_n}).$$

Let  $z_n \in [pz]$  be the point such that  $|p - z_n| = |p - m_n|$ . By construction, for all large  $n$ , we have  $\angle[p_{m_n}^z] \approx 0$  with arbitrary small given error. By comparison, the value  $\frac{|z_n - m_n|}{|p - z_n|}$  can be assumed to be arbitrarily small for all large  $n$ . Applying this observation and the definition of angle measure, we also get that the following approximations

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\angle}(p_{y_n}^{x_n}) &\approx \angle[p_{y_n}^{x_n}], \\ \tilde{\angle}(p_{m_n}^{x_n}) &\approx \tilde{\angle}(p_{z_n}^{x_n}) \approx \angle[p_{z_n}^{x_n}], \\ \tilde{\angle}(p_{y_n}^{m_n}) &\approx \tilde{\angle}(p_{y_n}^{z_n}) \approx \angle[p_{y_n}^{z_n}],\end{aligned}$$

hold with arbitrary given error and all large  $n$ . It follows that  $\uparrow_{[pz]}$  is an almost midpoint of  $\uparrow_{[px]}$  and  $\uparrow_{[py]}$ , as required.  $\square$

*Remark.* In the above proof, the angles  $\angle[p_z^x]$  and  $\angle[p_z^y]$  have lower bounds by the comparison, but we needed upper bounds. These were extracted from the definition of angle measure and the compactness of the space of directions. Halbeisen's example [5] shows that it cannot be done without the compactness condition.

## C Right-inverse theorem

**7.8. Theorem.** *Suppose  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m$  be points in an Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  such*

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\pi}{2}$$

*for any  $i \neq j$ . Then the map  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  defined by*

$$f: x \mapsto (|a_1 - x|, \dots, |a_m - x|)$$

*has a continuous right inverse defined in a neighborhood of  $f(p)$ .*

In the proof we construct a local right inverse  $\Phi$  of  $f$  around  $f(p)$ . The construction uses gradient flow for a suitably chosen family of functions. The structure of the proof can be seen in the following exercise; more details are given in the hints.

**7.9. Exercise.** *Suppose  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are as in 7.8. Assume  $\varepsilon > 0$  is sufficiently small. Given  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , consider the function on  $\mathcal{A}$  defined by*

$$f_{\mathbf{y}}(x) = \min\{0, |a_1 - x| - y_1, \dots, |a_m - x| - y_m\} + \varepsilon \cdot |a_0 - x|.$$

(a) Show that for some fixed  $r > 0$  and  $\lambda$ , the function  $f_{\mathbf{y}}$  is  $\lambda$ -concave in  $B(p, r)$ ,

(i)  $(\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) < -\varepsilon^2$  if  $|a_i - x| > y_i$  and

(ii)  $(\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) > \varepsilon^2$  if

$$|a_i - x| - y_i = \min_j \{|a_j - x| - y_j\} < 0.$$

at any  $x \in B(p, r)$ .

(b) Let  $\alpha_{\mathbf{y}}$  be  $f_{\mathbf{y}}$ -gradient curve that starts at  $p$ . Use (a) to show that

$$\text{dist}_{\mathbf{a}}[\alpha_{\mathbf{y}}(t_0)] = \mathbf{y}$$

if  $\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \cdot |\text{dist}_{\mathbf{a}} p - \mathbf{y}| \leq t_0 \leq \frac{r}{2}$ .

(c) Let  $t_0(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \cdot |\mathbf{a} - p| - \mathbf{y}|$ . Use 5.9 to show that the map

$$\Phi: \mathbf{y} \mapsto \alpha_{\mathbf{y}} \circ t_0(\mathbf{y})$$

continuous (in fact Hölder) in  $\Omega = B(|\mathbf{a} - p|, \frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \cdot r) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $f \circ \Phi(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}$  for any  $\mathbf{y} \in \Omega$ . (This finishes the proof of 7.8.)

## D Distance chart

**7.10. Theorem.** Suppose  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m$  be points in an  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  such

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\pi}{2}$$

for any  $i \neq j$ . Then the map  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  defined by

$$f: x \mapsto (|a_1 - x|, \dots, |a_m - x|)$$

gives a bi-Lipschitz embedding of a neighborhood  $\Omega$  of  $p$ ; the restriction  $f|_{\Omega}$  is called a distance chart at  $p$ .

The following exercise guides you to prove the theorem.

**7.11. Exercise.** Suppose  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are as in 7.8. Show that there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that one of the inequalities holds in each of the following two strings of  $m$  inequalities

$$\begin{aligned} \angle[x_{a_1}^y] &< \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon, \dots, \angle[x_{a_m}^y] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon; \\ \angle[y_{a_1}^x] &< \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon, \dots, \angle[y_{a_m}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

for any two points  $x, y$  in a sufficiently small neighborhood of  $p$ .

Use this together with the right-inverse theorem (7.8) to prove 7.10.

## E Volume

Fix a positive integer  $m$ . The  $m$ -dimensional Hausdorff measure of a Borel set  $B$  in a metric space will be called its  $m$ -volume; it will be denoted by  $\text{vol}_m B$ . We assume that the Hausdorff measure is calibrated so that the unit cube in  $\mathbb{E}^m$  has unit volume.

This definition will be applied mostly to subsets in  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov spaces. In this case, we may write  $\text{vol } B$  instead of  $\text{vol}_m B$ .

**7.12. Bishop–Gromov inequality.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an ALEX(0) space. Suppose  $\dim \mathcal{A} = m < \infty$ . Then*

$$\text{vol } B(p, r) \leq \omega_m \cdot r^m,$$

where  $\omega_m$  denotes the volume of the unit ball in  $\mathbb{E}^m$ . Moreover, the function

$$r \mapsto \frac{\text{vol } B(p, r)}{r^m}$$

is nonincreasing.

*Proof.* Given  $x \in \mathcal{A}$  choose a geodesic path  $\gamma_x$  from  $p$  to  $x$ . Recall that  $\log_p : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow T_p$  can be defined by  $\log_p : x \mapsto \gamma_x^+(0)$ . By comparison,  $\log_p$  is distance-noncontracting. Note that  $\log_p$  maps  $B(p, r)_{\mathcal{A}}$  to  $B(0, r)_{T_p}$ .

If  $T_p \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{E}^m$ , then  $\text{vol } B(0, r)_{T_p} = \omega_m \cdot r^m$ , and the first statement follows.

If  $T_p$  is not isometric to  $\mathbb{E}^m$ , then by 7.2, we can find a point  $p'$  arbitrarily close to  $p$  such that  $T_{p'} \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{E}^m$ . If  $\varepsilon > |p - p'|$ , then  $B(p, r) \subset B(p', r + \varepsilon)$ . Therefore,

$$\text{vol } B(p, r) \leq \omega_m \cdot (r + \varepsilon)^m$$

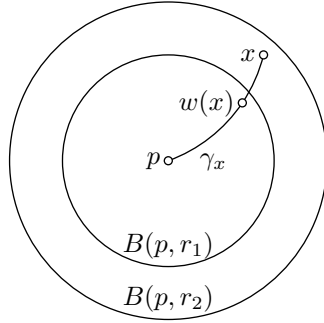
for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Hence the first statement follows.

Now, suppose  $0 < r_1 < r_2$ . Consider the map  $w : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  defined by  $w : x \mapsto \gamma_x(\frac{r_1}{r_2})$ . (The map  $w$  mimics the dilation with center at  $p$  and coefficient  $\frac{r_1}{r_2}$ .) By comparison,

$$|w(x) - w(y)| \geq \frac{r_1}{r_2} \cdot |x - y|.$$

Observe that  $B(p, r_1) \supset w[B(p, r_2)]$ . Therefore,

$$\text{vol } B(p, r_1) \geq \left(\frac{r_1}{r_2}\right)^m \cdot \text{vol } B(p, r_2).$$





□

The following exercise generalizes the Bishop–Gromov inequality to  $\text{ALEX}(-1)$  case. It is sufficient for most applications, but a more exact statement will be given in 7.17 which also includes the case of  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  spaces.

**7.13. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $\text{ALEX}(-1)$  space. Suppose  $\mathcal{A} = m < \infty$ . Show that*

$$\text{vol } B(p, r) \leq \omega_m \cdot (\sinh r)^m,$$

where  $\omega_m$  denotes the volume of the unit ball in  $\mathbb{E}^m$ . Moreover, the function

$$r \mapsto \frac{\text{vol } B(p, r)}{(\sinh r)^m}$$

is nonincreasing.

**7.14. Exercise.** *Show that any finite-dimensional Alexandrov space is proper.*

## F Other dimensions

Next we want to show that *all reasonable definitions of dimension give the same result for Alexandrov spaces*. More precisely, we have the following theorem; compare to [5, 15.16]. We refer to [46] for definitions of Lebesgue covering dimension and Hausdorff dimension, which will be denoted by  $\text{TopDim}$  and  $\text{HausDim}$ , respectively.

**7.15. Theorem.** *For any Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have*

$$\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = \text{TopDim } \mathcal{A} = \text{HausDim } \mathcal{A}.$$

*Proof.* Suppose  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = \infty$ . By the right-inverse theorem (7.8),  $\mathcal{A}$  contains a compact subset  $K$  with arbitrarily large  $\text{TopDim } K$ . In particular,

$$\text{TopDim } \mathcal{A} = \infty.$$

By Szpilrajn's theorem,  $\text{HausDim } K \geq \text{TopDim } K$ . Thus we also have

$$\text{HausDim } \mathcal{A} = \infty.$$

Now suppose  $\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = m < \infty$ . By the Bishop–Gromov inequality (7.12 and 7.13),

$$\text{HausDim } \mathcal{A} \leq m.$$

Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is proper (7.14), Szpilrajn's theorem, implies that

$$\text{TopDim } \mathcal{A} \leq \text{HausDim } \mathcal{A} \leq m.$$

Finally, the right-inverse theorem (7.8) implies that  $m \leq \text{TopDim } \mathcal{A}$ .  $\square$

**7.16. Exercise.** *Let  $\Omega$  be an open subset of Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Show that*

$$\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = \text{LinDim } \Omega = \text{TopDim } \Omega = \text{HausDim } \Omega.$$

## G Remarks

Let us state a version of the Bishop–Gromov inequality for  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces. Its proof requires additionally the so-called *coarea formula* for Alexandrov spaces. The weaker inequality from 7.13 is sufficient for the sequel.

**7.17. Bishop–Gromov inequality.** *Given a point  $p$  in an  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  space, consider the function  $v(r) = \text{vol}_m B(p, r)$ ; denote by  $\tilde{v}(r)$  the volume of  $r$  ball in  $\mathbb{M}^m(\kappa)$ . Then*

$$v(r) \leq \tilde{v}(r)$$

for  $r > 0$  and the function

$$r \mapsto \frac{v(r)}{\tilde{v}(r)}$$

is nonincreasing. If  $\kappa > 0$ , then one has to assume that  $r < \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{\kappa}}$ .

This inequality was originally proved for Riemannian manifolds with lower Ricci curvature. The first part is also called Bishop's inequality. It is due to Richard Bishop; see [14] and [13, Corollary 4, p. 256]. The second part is due to Michael Gromov [34].

Theorem 7.15, was essentially proved by Conrad Plaut [88]. At that time, it was not known whether

$$\text{LinDim } \mathcal{A} = \infty \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{TopDim } \mathcal{A} = \infty$$

for any Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . The latter implication was proved by Grigory Perelman and the second author [72].

# Lecture 8

## Limit spaces

In this lecture we show that lower curvature bound in the sense of Alexandrov survives under Gromov–Hausdorff limit and prove the Gromov selection theorem. This theorem is the main source of applications of Alexandrov geometry, as an illustration we prove the homotopy stability theorem (8.13) and deduce the homotopy finiteness theorem (8.14) from it.

### A Survival of curvature bounds

**8.1. Theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  be a convergence in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff. Suppose that for each  $n$ , the space  $\mathcal{X}_n$  has curvature  $\geq \kappa$  in the sense of Alexandrov. Then the same holds for  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$ .*

*Proof.* Choose a quadruple of points  $p_\infty, x_\infty, y_\infty, z_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$ .

By the definition of Gromov–Hausdorff convergence, we can choose points  $p_n, x_n, y_n, z_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$  for each  $n$  that converge to  $p_\infty, x_\infty, y_\infty, z_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$ , respectively. In particular, each of the 6 distances between pairs of  $p_n, x_n, y_n, z_n$  converge to the distance between the corresponding pairs of  $p_\infty, x_\infty, y_\infty, z_\infty$ .

Since  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison holds for  $p_n, x_n, y_n, z_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$ , passing to the limit, we get the  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$ -comparison for  $p_\infty, x_\infty, y_\infty, z_\infty$ .  $\square$

**8.2. Exercise.** *Suppose that a sequence  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots$  of  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces converges to  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff. Show that  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  is  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  and*

$$\dim \mathcal{A}_\infty \leq \varliminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \dim \mathcal{A}_n.$$

## B Gromov's selection theorem

**8.3. Theorem.** *Let  $D, \kappa \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $m$  be a positive integer. Then any sequence of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces with diameters at most  $D$  has a converging subsequence in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff.*

Let  $X$  be a subset of a metric space  $\mathcal{W}$ . Recall that a set  $Z \subset \mathcal{W}$  is called an  $\varepsilon$ -net of  $X$  if for any point  $x \in X$ , there is a point  $z \in Z$  such that  $|x - z| < \varepsilon$ .

We will use the following characterization of compact sets.

**8.4. Exercise.** *Let  $X$  be a closed subset in a complete metric space.*

- (a) *Show that  $X$  is compact if and only if it admits a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .*
- (b) *Show that  $X$  is compact if and only if it admits a compact  $\varepsilon$ -net for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .*

Recall that  $\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{X}$  is the exact upper bound on the number of points  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$  such that  $|x_i - x_j| \geq \varepsilon$  if  $i \neq j$ .

If  $n = \text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{X} < \infty$ , then the collection of points  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is called a maximal  $\varepsilon$ -packing.

**8.5. Exercise.** *Show that any maximal  $\varepsilon$ -packing  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net. Conclude that a complete metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  is compact if and only if  $\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{X} < \infty$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .*

*Proof of 8.3.* Denote by  $\mathbf{K}$  the set of isometry classes of  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  spaces with dimension  $\leq m$  and diameter  $\leq D$ . By 8.2,  $\mathbf{K}$  is a closed subset of GH.

Choose a space  $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbf{K}$ ; suppose  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}$  is a collection of points such that  $|x_i - x_j| \geq \varepsilon$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Note that the balls  $B_i = B(x_i, \frac{\varepsilon}{2})$  do not overlap.

By 7.8,  $\text{vol } \mathcal{A} > 0$ . By Bishop–Gromov inequality,  $\text{vol } \mathcal{A} < \infty$ , and if  $\varepsilon < D$ , then

$$\text{vol } B_i \geq \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{2 \cdot D}\right)^m \cdot \text{vol } \mathcal{A}$$

for any  $i$ . It follows that  $n \leq \left(\frac{2 \cdot D}{\varepsilon}\right)^m$ ; that is,

$$\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{A} \leq N(\varepsilon) := \left(\frac{2 \cdot D}{\varepsilon}\right)^m$$

for all small  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Choose a maximal  $\varepsilon$ -packing  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}$ . By 8.5,  $\mathcal{F}_\varepsilon := \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Observe that  $|\mathcal{F}_\varepsilon - \mathcal{A}|_{\text{GH}} \leq \varepsilon$ . Further, note that the set  $\mathbf{F}_\varepsilon$  of finite metric spaces with diameter  $\leq D$  and at most  $N(\varepsilon)$  points forms a compact subset in GH.

Summarizing, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  we can find a compact  $\varepsilon$ -net  $\mathbf{F}_\varepsilon \subset \text{GH}$  of  $\mathbf{K}$ . Since GH is complete (1.22), it remains to apply 8.4b.

Rescaling reduces  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  case to the  $\text{ALEX}(-1)$  case, which can be proved along the same lines, using 7.13 instead of 7.12.  $\square$

### 8.6. Exercise.

- (a) Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space with diameter  $\leq D$ . Suppose  $\text{vol } \mathcal{A} \geq v_0 > 0$ . Show that

$$\text{pack}_\varepsilon \mathcal{A} \geq \frac{c}{\varepsilon^m}$$

for some constant  $c = c(m, D, v_0) > 0$ .

- (b) Conclude that if  $\mathcal{A}_n$  is a sequence of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  spaces with diameter  $\leq D$ , and volume  $\geq v_0$ , then its Gromov-Hausdorff limit  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  (if it exists) has dimension  $m$ .

**8.7. Exercise.** Let  $(\mathcal{A}_1, p_1), (\mathcal{A}_2, p_2), \dots$  be a sequence of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces with marked points. Show that it contains a subsequence pointed-converging in the sense of Gromov-Hausdorff.

## C Controlled concavity

Alexandrov spaces have plenty of semiconcave functions; for instance, squared distance functions. The following theorem provides a source of strictly concave functions defined on small open sets of finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces.

**8.8. Theorem.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a complete finite-dimensional Alexandrov space. Then for any point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , there is a strictly concave function  $f$  defined in an open neighborhood of  $p$ .

Moreover, given  $0 \neq v \in T_p$ , the differential,  $\mathbf{d}_p f$ , can be chosen arbitrarily close to  $x \mapsto -\langle v, x \rangle$ .

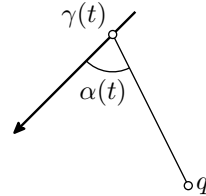
*Proof.* Fix small  $r > 0$  and large  $c$ ; consider the real-to-real function

$$\varphi_{r,c}(x) = (x - r) - c \cdot (x - r)^2 / r,$$

so we have  $\varphi_{r,c}(r) = 0$ ,  $\varphi'_{r,c}(r) = 1$ , and  $\varphi''_{r,c}(r) = -2c/r$ .

Let  $\gamma$  be a unit-speed geodesic, fix a point  $q$  and let

$$\alpha(t) = \angle(\gamma^+(t), \uparrow_{[\gamma(t)q]}).$$



Recall that  $r$  is small. If  $|q - \gamma(t)|$  is sufficiently close to  $r$ , then direct calculations show that

$$(\varphi_{r,c} \circ \text{dist}_q \circ \gamma)''(t) \leq \frac{3 - c \cdot \cos^2[\alpha(t)]}{r}.$$

(Since  $c$  is large, this inequality implies that  $\varphi_{r,c} \circ \text{dist}_q \circ \gamma$  is strictly concave at  $t$  unless  $\alpha(t) \approx \frac{\pi}{2}$ .)

Now, assume  $\{q_1, \dots, q_N\}$  is a finite set of points such that  $|p - q_i| = r$  for any  $i$ . For a geodesic  $\gamma$ , set  $\alpha_i(t) = \angle(\gamma^+(t), \uparrow_{[\gamma(t)q_i]})$ . Assume that

$$\max_i \{|\alpha_i(t) - \frac{\pi}{2}|\} \geq \varepsilon > 0$$

for any geodesic  $\gamma$  in  $B(p, \varepsilon)$ . We can assume that  $c > 3N/\cos^2 \varepsilon$ ; then the inequality above implies that the function

$$f = \sum_i \varphi_{r,c} \circ \text{dist}_{q_i}$$

is strictly concave in  $B(p, \varepsilon')$  for some positive  $\varepsilon' < \varepsilon$ .

The same argument as in 8.6 shows that for small  $r > 0$ , one can choose  $N \geq c/\delta^{m-1}$  points  $\{q_i\}$  such that  $|p - q_i| = r$  and  $\tilde{Z}(p_{q_i}^{q_i}) > \delta$  (here  $c = c(\Sigma_p) > 0$ ). On the other hand, suppose  $\gamma$  runs from  $x$  to  $y$ . If  $|\alpha_i(t) - \frac{\pi}{2}| < \varepsilon \ll \delta$ , then applying the  $(n+1)$ -point comparison to  $\gamma(t)$ ,  $x$ ,  $y$  and all  $\{q_i\}$  we get that  $N \leq c(m)/\delta^{m-2}$ . Therefore, for small  $\delta > 0$  and yet smaller  $\varepsilon > 0$ , the set  $\{q_i\}$  forms the needed collection.

If  $r$  is small, then points  $q_i$  can be chosen so that all directions  $\uparrow_{[pq_i]}$  will be  $\varepsilon$ -close to a given direction  $\xi$  and therefore the second property follows.  $\square$

The function  $f$  in 8.8 can be chosen to have maximum value 0 at  $p$ ,  $f(p) = 0$  and with  $\mathbf{d}_p f(x) \approx -|x|$ . It can be constructed by taking the minimum of the functions in the theorem. Then the set  $K = \{x \in \mathcal{A} : f(x) \geq -\varepsilon\}$  forms a closed convex neighborhood of  $p$  for any small  $\varepsilon > 0$ , so we get the following.

**8.9. Corollary.** *Any point  $p$  of a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space admits an arbitrarily small convex closed neighborhood  $K$  and a strictly concave function  $f$  defined in a neighborhood of  $K$  such that  $p$  is the maximum point of  $f$  and  $f|_{\partial K} = 0$ .*

**8.10. Exercise.** *Construct an Alexandrov space  $A$  such that there is no open set  $\Omega \subset A$  with strictly concave function  $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .*

## D Liftings

Suppose that the Gromov–Hausdorff distance  $|\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}'|_{\text{GH}}$  is sufficiently small, so we may think that both spaces  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}'$  lie at a small Hausdorff distance in an ambient metric space  $\mathcal{W}$ . In particular, we may choose a small  $\varepsilon > 0$ , so that for any point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , there is a point  $p' \in \mathcal{A}'$  such that  $|p - p'|_{\mathcal{W}} < \varepsilon$ ; the point  $p'$  will be called a *lifting* (or  $\varepsilon$ -*lifting*) of  $p$  in  $\mathcal{A}'$ . We may choose a lifting  $p' \in \mathcal{A}'$  for every point  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ , in this case the map  $p \mapsto p'$  is called a  $(\varepsilon)$ -*lifting map*.

Let us emphasise that liftings are not uniquely defined, and the lifting map is not assumed to be continuous. Also, to talk about liftings, we have to choose that  $\varepsilon > 0$ , the inclusions  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A}' \hookrightarrow \mathcal{W}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a compact  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space. Suppose  $\mathcal{A}'$  is another compact  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space such that  $|\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}'|_{\text{GH}}$  is sufficiently small — smaller than some  $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(\mathcal{A}) > 0$ . Then the construction in  $\mathcal{A}$  from the previous section can be repeated in  $\mathcal{A}'$  for the liftings of all points and the same function  $\varphi$ . It produces a strictly concave function defined in a controlled neighborhood of the lifting  $p'$  of  $p$ .

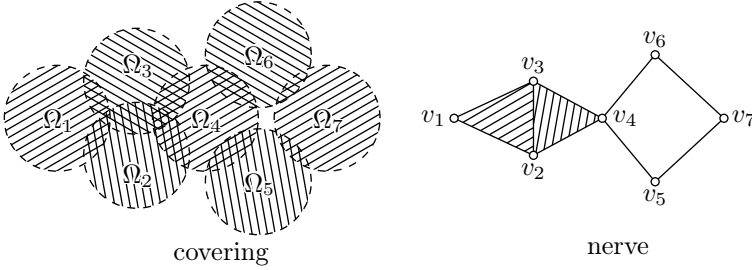
The results of this and related constructions will be also called liftings, say we can talk about a lifting from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathcal{A}'$  of a function provided by 8.8 (if the Gromov–Hausdorff distance  $|\mathcal{A} - \mathcal{A}'|_{\text{GH}}$  is small, then these liftings are strictly concave) and a lifting of a convex neighborhood from 8.9. Here one cannot use 8.8 and 8.9 as black boxes — one has to understand the construction, but it is straightforward.

**8.11. Exercise.** *Give an example of Gromov–Hausdorff convergence of spaces  $\mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_\infty$  such that all  $\mathcal{A}_n$  and  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  are compact finite-dimensional ALEX(0) and for any small  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is no continuous  $\varepsilon$ -lifting map  $\mathcal{A}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_n$  for any large  $n$ .*

## E Nerves

Let  $\{\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k\}$  be a finite open cover of a compact metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Consider an abstract simplicial complex  $\mathcal{N}$ , with one vertex  $v_i$  for each set  $\Omega_i$  such that a simplex with vertices  $v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_m}$  is included in  $\mathcal{N}$  if the intersection  $\Omega_{i_1} \cap \dots \cap \Omega_{i_m}$  is non-empty. The obtained simplicial complex  $\mathcal{N}$  is called the *nerve* of the covering  $\{\Omega_i\}$ . Evidently,  $\mathcal{N}$  is a finite simplicial complex — it is a subcomplex of a simplex with the vertices  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ . Recall that  $\text{Star}_{v_i}$  denotes the union of all simplices in  $\mathcal{N}$  that share the vertex  $v_i$ .

The next statement follows from [43, 4G.3].



**8.12. Nerve theorem.** Let  $\{\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k\}$  be an open cover of a compact metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  and let  $\mathcal{N}$  be the corresponding nerve with vertices  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ . Suppose that every non-empty finite intersection  $\Omega_{\alpha_1} \cap \dots \cap \Omega_{\alpha_k}$  is contractible. Then  $\mathcal{X}$  is homotopy equivalent to the nerve  $\mathcal{N}$  of the cover.

Moreover homotopy equivalences  $a: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$  and  $b: \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  can be chosen so that if  $x \in \Omega_i$ , then  $a(x) \in \text{Star}_{v_i}$ , and if  $y \in \mathcal{N}$  lies in the simplex with vertices  $v_{i_1}, \dots, v_{i_m}$ , then  $b(y) \in \Omega_{i_1} \cup \dots \cup \Omega_{i_m}$ .

## F Homotopy stability

**8.13. Theorem.** Let  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  be compact  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces, and  $m < \infty$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_\infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff. Then  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  is homotopy equivalent to  $\mathcal{A}_n$  for all large  $n$ .

Moreover, given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there are maps  $h_n: \mathcal{A}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_n$  that are homotopy equivalences and  $\varepsilon$ -liftings for all large  $n$ .

Applying this theorem with Gromov’s selection theorem (8.3) and Exercise 8.6, we get the following.

**8.14. Theorem.** Given  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}, D > 0, v_0 > 0$  and a positive integer  $m$ , there are only finitely many homotopy types of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces with diameter  $\leq D$ , and volume  $\geq v_0$ .

*Proof of 8.14 modulo 8.13.* Assume the contrary, then we can choose a sequence of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots$  that have different homotopy types and satisfy the assumptions of the theorem. By Gromov’s selection theorem, we can assume that  $\mathcal{A}_n$  converges to some spaces  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff.

By 8.6,  $\dim \mathcal{A}_\infty = m$ . It remains to apply 8.13. □

*Proof of 8.13.* Since  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  is compact, applying 8.9, we can find a finite open cover of  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  by convex open sets  $\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k$  such that for each  $\Omega_i$



there is a strictly concave function  $f_i$  that is defined in a neighborhood of the closure  $\bar{\Omega}_i$  and such that  $f_i|_{\partial\Omega_i} = 0$ .

Subtracting from functions  $f_i$  some small value  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we can ensure that  $\bigcap_{i \in S} \Omega_i \neq \emptyset$  if and only if  $\bigcap_{i \in S} \bar{\Omega}_i \neq \emptyset$ .

Suppose that  $W = \bigcap_{i \in S} \Omega_i \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $W$  is contractible. Indeed, the function

$$f_S := \min_{i \in S} f_i$$

is strictly concave and it vanishes on the boundary of  $W$ . The  $f_S$ -gradient flow  $(t, x) \mapsto \text{Flow}_{f_S}^t(x)$  defines a homotopy  $[0, \infty) \times W \rightarrow W$ . By the first distance estimate (5.6),  $\text{Flow}_{f_S}^t(x)$  converges to the (necessarily unique) maximum point of  $f_S$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore, in the obtained homotopy we can parametrize  $[0, \infty)$  by  $[0, 1)$  and extend the homotopy continuously to  $[0, 1]$ ; thus we get that  $W$  is contractible. In other words, the cover  $\{\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k\}$  meets the assumptions of the nerve theorem (8.12).

The functions  $f_i$  and sets  $\Omega_i$  can be lifted to  $\mathcal{A}_n$  keeping their properties for all large  $n$ . More precisely, there are liftings  $f_{i,n}$  of all  $f_i$  to  $\mathcal{A}_n$  which are strictly concave for all large  $n$  and such that  $\bar{\Omega}_{i,n} = \{x \in \mathcal{A}_n : f_{i,n}(x) \geq 0\}$  is a compact convex set and  $\Omega_{i,n} = \{x \in \mathcal{A}_n : f_{i,n}(x) > 0\}$  is an open convex set for each  $i$ .

Notice that  $\{\Omega_{1,n}, \dots, \Omega_{k,n}\}$  is an open cover of  $\mathcal{A}_n$  for all large  $n$ . Indeed suppose we have  $p_n \in \mathcal{A}_n \setminus (\Omega_{1,n} \cup \dots \cup \Omega_{k,n})$  for arbitrary large  $n$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  is compact, there is a limit point  $p_\infty \in \mathcal{A}_\infty$  for a subsequence of  $p_n$ . But  $p_\infty \in \Omega_i$  for some  $i$  and therefore  $p_n \in \Omega_{i,n}$  for arbitrary large  $n$  — a contradiction.

In a similar fashion, we can show that if  $n$  is large, then any collection  $\{\Omega_{i,n}\}_{i \in S}$  has a common point in  $\mathcal{A}_n$  if and only if  $\{\Omega_i\}_{i \in S}$  has a common point in  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$ . Here we have to use that  $\bigcap_{i \in S} \Omega_i \neq \emptyset$  if and only if  $\bigcap_{i \in S} \bar{\Omega}_i \neq \emptyset$ .

It follows that for any large  $n$  the covers

- ◇  $\{\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_k\}$  of  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  and
- ◇  $\{\Omega_{1,n}, \dots, \Omega_{k,n}\}$  of  $\mathcal{A}_n$ .

have the same nerve. By the nerve theorem (8.12),  $\mathcal{A}_n$  and  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  are homotopy equivalent for all large  $n$  — a contradiction.  $\square$

The proof above implies the following.

**8.15. Theorem.** *Any compact finite-dimensional Alexandrov space is homotopy equivalent to a finite simplicial complex.*

## G Remarks

Originally, Gromov's selection theorem was proved for Riemannian manifolds with a lower bound on Ricci curvature [34]. It motivates the study of limits of manifolds with lower Ricci curvature bounds and their synthetic generalizations, the so-called  $CD(K, m)$  spaces;  $CD$  stands for curvature-dimension condition. This theory has significant applications in Alexandrov geometry; in particular, it provides a version of the Liouville theorem about phase-space volume of geodesic flow in Alexandrov space [15].

The construction of a strictly concave function (8.8) is due to Grigory Perelman [71, 74].

The homotopy-type finiteness theorem (8.14) illustrates the main source of applications of Alexandrov spaces: to prove a statement about  $m$ -dimensional manifolds with lower sectional curvature bound we argue by contradiction and assume that there is a sequence of such manifolds that violates our assumption, then pass to the limit — the limit must be an Alexandrov space and this can be used to arrive at a contradiction.

In principle, the same strategy might work for a sequence of Riemannian manifolds with dimension approaching infinity, but no applications of this kind were found. The following question can be attacked by this type of argument.

**8.16. Question.** *Is it true that no simply connected closed manifold (of arbitrary large dimension) admits a Riemannian metric with sectional curvature and diameter bounded by a fixed positive sufficiently small value?*

If the dimension is bounded, then Gromov's theorem [33] implies that such a manifold can be covered by a compact nil-manifold; in particular, the manifold cannot be simply connected. However, if the dimension is unbounded, then Riemannian manifolds with these conditions may not be covered by compact nil-manifolds; such examples were found by Galina Guzhvina [40].

Let us finish with a list of results that can be proved by applying Gromov's selection theorem in the same fashion as in the proof of homotopy-type finiteness theorem (8.14).

**8.17. Betti-number theorem.** *For any  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $D > 0$  and a positive integer  $m$ , there is a constant  $c = c(m, D, \kappa)$  such that*

$$\beta_0(M) + \cdots + \beta_m(M) \leq c$$

*for any closed  $m$ -dimensional Riemannian manifold  $M$  with sectional*

curvature  $\geq \kappa$  and diameter  $\leq D$ . Here  $\beta_i(M)$  denotes  $i^{\text{th}}$  Betti number of  $M$ .

Gromov's original proof [32] of the Betti-number theorem did not use Alexandrov geometry directly; but it is quite natural to prove it via Gromov's selection theorem. The following result was proved by the second author [83], and it uses the same technique.

**8.18. Scalar curvature bound.** *Given  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $D > 0$  and a positive integer  $m$ , there is a constant  $c = c(m, D, \kappa)$  such that*

$$\int_M \text{Sc} \leq c$$

*for any closed  $m$ -dimensional Riemannian manifold  $M$  with sectional curvature  $\geq \kappa$  and diameter  $\leq D$ . Here  $\text{Sc}$  denotes the scalar curvature.*

The following theorem is a more exact version of 8.13. Its close relative (9.1) will play an important role in the following lecture.

**8.19. Stability theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots$ , and  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  be compact  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces, and  $m < \infty$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_\infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff. Then  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  is homeomorphic to  $\mathcal{A}_n$  for all large  $n$ .*

*Moreover, given  $\varepsilon > 0$  there are maps  $h_n: \mathcal{A}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_n$  that are homeomorphisms and  $\varepsilon$ -liftings for all large  $n$ .*

This theorem was proved by Grigory Perelman [73]; the proof was rewritten with more details by the first author [48]. In private conversations, Perelman claimed that the homeomorphisms in the theorem can be assumed to be bi-Lipschitz with constants that depend on  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$ . Since no proof has been written, this statement should be considered as a conjecture; partial results in this direction were obtained by Mohammad Alattar [2].

Theorem 8.14 was originally proved by Karsten Grove and Peter Petersen [37]. Perelman's stability theorem (8.19) implies the following stronger statement.

**8.20. Homeomorphism-type finiteness.** *For any  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $D > 0$ ,  $v > 0$  and a positive integer  $m$ , there are only finitely many homeomorphism types of closed  $m$ -dimensional manifolds that admit a Riemannian metric with sectional curvature  $\geq \kappa$ , volume  $\geq v$ , and diameter  $\leq D$ .*

This statement can be improved to diffeomorphism-type finiteness in all dimensions  $m \neq 4$ . Indeed, for  $m = 4$  a closed topological  $m$ -manifold admits only finitely many smooth structures; see [50] and [68, 97] for cases  $m \geq 5$  and  $m \leq 3$ , respectively.



# Lecture 9

## Boundary

This lecture defines the boundary of a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space. After discussing its properties, we prove the doubling theorem (9.9d).

### A Definition

Let us give an inductive definition of the boundary of finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces.

Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is a 1-dimensional Alexandrov space. By 7.3,  $\mathcal{A}$  is homeomorphic to a 1-dimensional manifold (possibly with non-empty boundary). This allows us to define the boundary  $\partial\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{A}$  as the boundary of the manifold.

Now assume that the notion of boundary is defined in dimensions  $1, \dots, m-1$ . Suppose  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space. We say that  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  belongs to the boundary (briefly  $p \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ ) if  $\partial\Sigma_p \neq \emptyset$ . By 7.5 and 7.7b,  $\Sigma_p$  is an  $(m-1)$ -dimensional Alexandrov space; therefore its boundary is already defined and hence this inductive definition makes sense.

It is instructive to check the following statements.

- ◇ For a closed convex set  $K \subset \mathbb{E}^m$  with non-empty interior, the topological boundary of  $K$  as a subset of  $\mathbb{E}^m$  coincides with the boundary  $K$  described above.
- ◇ If  $\mathcal{A} \stackrel{iso}{=} \mathcal{A}_1 \times \mathcal{A}_2$  is a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space, then

$$\partial\mathcal{A} = (\partial\mathcal{A}_1 \times \mathcal{A}_2) \cup (\mathcal{A}_1 \times \partial\mathcal{A}_2)$$

- ◇ If  $\text{Cone } \Sigma$  is an  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space of dimensions  $\geq 2$  (this implies that  $\Sigma$  is  $\text{ALEX}(1)$ ), then

$$\partial \text{Cone } \Sigma = \text{Cone } \partial\Sigma,$$

where  $\text{Cone } \partial\Sigma = \{s \cdot \xi \in \text{Cone } \Sigma : \xi \in \partial\Sigma\}$ .

## B Conic neighborhoods

The following statement is a close relative of Perelman's stability theorem 8.19. We are going to use this result without proof. A proof can be found in [74].

Recall that the logarithm  $\log_p x: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow T_p$  is defined on page 39.

**9.1. Theorem.** *For any point  $p$  in a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  and all sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a homeomorphism  $h_\varepsilon: B(p, \varepsilon)_{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow B(0, \varepsilon)_{T_p}$  such that  $0 = h_\varepsilon(p)$ .*

*Moreover, we may assume that*

$$\sup_{x \in B(p, \varepsilon)} \left\{ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot |\log_p x - h_\varepsilon(x)|_{T_p} \right\} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } \varepsilon \rightarrow 0.$$

Note that the last condition automatically implies that  $h_\varepsilon$  as an  $o(\varepsilon)$ -isometry.

The above theorem is often used together with the *uniqueness of conic neighborhoods* stated below.

Suppose that an open neighborhood  $U$  of a point  $x$  in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$  admits a homeomorphism to  $\text{Cone } \Sigma$  such that  $x$  is mapped to the origin of the cone. In this case, we say that  $U$  has a conic neighborhood of  $x$ .

**9.2. Uniqueness of conic neighborhoods.** *Any two conic neighborhoods of a given point in a metric space are pointed homeomorphic; that is, there is a homeomorphism between neighborhoods that maps the origin of one cone to the origin of the other.*

**9.3. Advanced exercise.** *Prove 9.2 or read the proof in [52].*

**9.4. Exercise.** *Suppose  $x \mapsto x'$  is a homeomorphism between finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}'$ . Show that*

- (a)  $T_x \cong T_{x'}$  (here and below  $\cong$  means homeomorphic)
- (b)  $\text{Susp } \Sigma_x \cong \text{Susp } \Sigma_{x'}$ .
- (c) but in general  $\Sigma_x \not\cong \Sigma_{x'}$ .

## C Topology

The following theorem states that boundary is a topological invariant, despite our definition having used geometry.

**9.5. Theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}'$  be homeomorphic finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces. Then  $\dim \mathcal{A} = \dim \mathcal{A}'$  and*

$$\partial \mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset \iff \partial \mathcal{A}' \neq \emptyset$$

While working on the proof, keep in mind that there are pairs of spaces  $\mathcal{K}_1$  and  $\mathcal{K}_2$  such that  $\mathcal{K}_1 \not\cong \mathcal{K}_2$ , but  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{K}_1 \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{K}_2$ . Suspension over the Poincaré homology sphere and  $\mathbb{S}^4$  gives an example of such a pair; compare to 9.4c.

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space and  $m < \infty$ . Define rank of  $\mathcal{A}$  (briefly,  $\text{rank } \mathcal{A}$ ) as the minimal value  $k$  such that  $\mathcal{A}$  splits isometrically as  $\mathbb{R}^{m-k} \times \mathcal{K}$ ; here  $\mathcal{K}$  is a  $k$ -dimensional Alexandrov space.

In the following proof we will apply induction on the rank of  $\mathcal{A}$ .

*Proof.* The first statement follows from 7.15.

Suppose we have a counterexample, say  $\partial \mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$ , but  $\partial \mathcal{A}' = \emptyset$ . Let  $k := \text{rank } \mathcal{A}$  and  $k' := \text{rank } \mathcal{A}'$ . We can assume that the pair  $(k, k')$  is minimal in lexicographic order; in particular,  $k$  is minimal. Let  $x \mapsto x'$  be a homeomorphism from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathcal{A}'$ .

Choose  $x \in \partial \mathcal{A}$ . Since  $\partial \mathcal{A}' = \emptyset$ , we have  $x' \notin \partial \mathcal{A}'$ . Note that

$$\text{rank } T_x \leq k \quad \text{and} \quad \text{rank } T_{x'} \leq k',$$

By 9.4a,  $T_x \cong T_{x'}$ . Note that  $\partial T_x \neq \emptyset$  and  $\partial T_{x'} = \emptyset$ . Therefore, we may assume that  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}'$  are Euclidean cones and the homeomorphism sends the origin to the origin. The remaining part of the proof is divided into three cases.

*Case 1.* Suppose  $k > 1$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{R}^{m-k} \times \mathcal{C}$ , where  $\mathcal{C}$  a  $k$ -dimensional ALEX(0) cone. Observe that  $\text{rank } T_y \leq \text{rank } \mathcal{A}$  for any  $y \in \mathcal{A}$  and the equality holds only if  $y$  projects to the origin of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

Since  $k > 1$ , we can choose  $z \neq 0$  that lies in  $\partial \mathcal{C}$ . Choose  $y$  that projects to  $z$ ; in particular,  $\text{rank } T_y < \text{rank } \mathcal{A}$ . By 9.4a,  $T_y \cong T_{y'}$ ,  $\partial T_y \neq \emptyset$  and  $\partial T_{y'} = \emptyset$ . The latter contradicts the minimality of  $k$ .

*Case 2.* Suppose  $k \leq 1$  and  $k' > 1$ . Since  $\partial \mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$ , we get that  $k = 1$ ; therefore,  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{R}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{A}' \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \mathbb{R}^{m-k'} \times \mathcal{C}'$ , where  $\mathcal{C}'$  a  $k'$ -dimensional ALEX(0) cone. Since  $\partial \mathcal{A} \cong \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$ , the image of  $\partial \mathcal{A}$  in  $\mathcal{A}'$  does not lie in  $\mathbb{R}^{m-k'} \times \{0\}$ . In other words, we can choose  $y \in \partial \mathcal{A}$  such that its image  $y' \in \mathcal{A}'$  has a nonzero projection in  $\mathcal{C}'$ . Observe that  $T_y \cong T_{y'}$ ,

$$\text{rank } T_y \leq k = 1, \quad \text{rank } T_{y'} < k', \quad \partial T_y = \emptyset, \quad \text{and} \quad \partial T_{y'} \neq \emptyset$$

— a contradiction.

*Case 3.* Suppose  $k \leq 1$  and  $k' \leq 1$ . Since  $\partial\mathcal{A} \neq \emptyset$ , we have  $k = 1$ . By 7.3,  $\mathcal{A} \cong \mathbb{R}^{m-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . Therefore,  $\mathcal{A}' \cong \mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $\mathcal{A} \not\cong \mathcal{A}'$  — a contradiction.  $\square$

**9.6. Exercise.** Let  $x \mapsto x'$  be a homeomorphism  $\Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$  between open subsets in finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{A}'$ . Show that  $x \in \partial\mathcal{A}$  if and only if  $x' \in \partial\mathcal{A}'$ .

**9.7. Exercise.** Show that boundary of a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space is a closed subset.

## D Tangent space

Spaces of directions and tangent spaces of an Alexandrov space have already been defined in Lecture 4. Let us extend these definitions to subsets of an Alexandrov space.

Let  $X$  be a subset in a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ . Choose  $p \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $\xi \in \Sigma_p$ . Suppose  $\xi$  is a limit of directions  $\uparrow_{[px_n]}$  for a sequence  $x_1, x_2, \dots \in X$  that converges to  $p$ . Then we say that  $\xi$  is in the space of directions from  $p$  to  $X$ ; briefly  $\xi \in \Sigma_p X$ .

Further,  $\text{Cone}(\Sigma_p X)$  will be called the tangent space to  $X$  at  $p$ ; it will be denoted by  $T_p X$ .

Note that  $\Sigma_p X$  is a subset of  $\Sigma_p$  and  $T_p X$  is a subcone in  $T_p$ .

**9.8. Theorem.** For any finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have

$$\partial(\Sigma_p \mathcal{A}) = \Sigma_p(\partial\mathcal{A}) \quad \text{and} \quad \partial(T_p \mathcal{A}) = T_p(\partial\mathcal{A}).$$

*Proof.* Choose a sequence  $x_n \in \partial\mathcal{A}$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow p$  and  $\uparrow_{[px_n]} \rightarrow \xi$ .

Let  $\varepsilon_n = 2 \cdot |p - x_n|$ , and let  $h_{\varepsilon_n} : B(p, \varepsilon_n)_{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow B(0, \varepsilon_n)_{T_p}$  be the homeomorphisms provided by 9.1; in particular,  $\frac{2}{\varepsilon_n} \cdot h_{\varepsilon_n}(x_n) \rightarrow \xi$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . By 9.6,  $h_{\varepsilon_n}(x_n) \in \partial T_p$ . By 9.7,  $\xi \in \partial T_p$ . Therefore,

$$\partial(\Sigma_p \mathcal{A}) \supset \Sigma_p(\partial\mathcal{A}) \quad \text{and} \quad \partial(T_p \mathcal{A}) \supset T_p(\partial\mathcal{A}).$$

Similarly, choose  $\xi \in \partial\Sigma_p$ . Let  $h_{\varepsilon_n} : B(p, \varepsilon_n)_{\mathcal{A}} \rightarrow B(0, \varepsilon_n)_{T_p}$  be the homeomorphisms provided by 9.1 for a sequence  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . By 9.6,  $x_n = h_{\varepsilon_n}^{-1}(\frac{\varepsilon_n}{2} \cdot \xi) \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ . By 9.1,  $\uparrow_{[px_n]} \rightarrow \xi$ . Hence

$$\partial(\Sigma_p \mathcal{A}) \subset \Sigma_p(\partial\mathcal{A}) \quad \text{and} \quad \partial(T_p \mathcal{A}) \subset T_p(\partial\mathcal{A}).$$

$\square$



## E Doubling

Let  $A$  be a closed subset in a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . The doubling  $\mathcal{W}$  of  $\mathcal{X}$  across  $A$  is two copies of  $\mathcal{X}$  glued along  $A$ ; more precisely, the underlying set of  $\mathcal{W}$  is the quotient  $\mathcal{X} \times \{0, 1\} / \sim$ , where  $(a, 0) \sim (a, 1)$  for any  $a \in A$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  is equipped with the minimal metric such that both maps  $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$  defined by  $x \mapsto (x, 0)$  and  $x \mapsto (x, 1)$  are distance-preserving.

Alternatively, one may say that  $\mathcal{W}$  is equipped with the maximal metric such that the projection  $\text{proj}: \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  defined by  $(x, i) \mapsto x$  is a short map. The metric on  $\mathcal{W}$  can also be defined as

$$|(x, i) - (y, j)|_{\mathcal{W}} = \begin{cases} |x - y|_{\mathcal{X}} & \text{if } i = j. \\ \inf \{ |x - a|_{\mathcal{X}} + |y - a|_{\mathcal{X}} : a \in A \} & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

**9.9. Theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space with non-empty boundary. Suppose  $f = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2$  for some  $p \in \mathcal{A}$ . Then*

- (a) *If  $\dim \mathcal{A} \geq 2$ , then  $\text{dist}_{\partial \Sigma_x}(\xi) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any  $x \in \partial \mathcal{A}$  and  $\xi \in \Sigma_x$ .  
Moreover, if  $\text{dist}_{\partial \Sigma_x}(\xi) = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $\angle(\xi, \zeta) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any  $\zeta \in \Sigma_x$ .*
- (b)  *$\nabla_x f \in \partial T_x$  for any  $x \in \partial \mathcal{A}$ .*
- (c) *If  $\alpha$  is an  $f$ -gradient curve that starts at  $x \in \partial \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\alpha(t) \in \partial \mathcal{A}$  for any  $t$ . Moreover, if  $p \in \partial \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\text{gexp}_p(v) \in \partial \mathcal{A}$  for any  $v \in \partial T_p$ .*
- (d) *The doubling  $\mathcal{W}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  across  $\partial \mathcal{A}$  is an Alexandrov space with the same curvature bound.*

Part (d) is called the doubling theorem.

*Proof.* We will denote by  $(a)_m, \dots, (d)_m$  the corresponding statement assuming  $m = \dim \mathcal{A}$ .

The proof goes by induction on  $m$ . Statement  $(d)_1$  follows from 7.3 — this is the base. The induction step is a combination of the implications below.

$(d)_{m-1} \Rightarrow (a)_m$ . Suppose  $m = 2$ , then  $\dim \Sigma_x = 1$ ; see 7.7b. By 7.3,  $\Sigma_x$  isometric to a line segment  $[0, \ell]$ ; we need to show that  $\ell \leq \pi$ .

Assume  $\ell > \pi$ , then the tangent space  $T_x = \text{Cone } \Sigma_x$  has several different lines thru the origin. Recall that  $T_x$  is an Alexandrov space; see 7.7. By 6.5,  $T_x$  is isometric to the Euclidean plane; the latter contradicts that  $\Sigma_x$  is a line segment.

Now suppose  $m > 2$ , so  $\dim \Sigma_x > 1$ . Assume  $\text{dist}_{\partial \Sigma_x}(\xi) > \frac{\pi}{2}$  for some  $\xi$ . By  $(d)_{m-1}$ , the doubling  $\Xi$  of  $\Sigma_x$  is ALEX(1). Denote by  $\xi_0$  and  $\xi_1$  the points in  $\Xi$  that correspond to  $\xi$ . Observe that  $|\xi_0 - \xi_1|_{\Xi} > \pi$ . The latter contradicts 3.7.

Finally, if  $\text{dist}_{\partial\Sigma_x}(\xi) = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $|\xi_0 - \xi_1|_{\Xi} = \pi$ . Therefore,  $\text{Cone } \Xi$  contains a line in the directions of  $\xi_0$  and  $\xi_1$ . By the splitting theorem (6.4)  $\text{Cone } \Xi$  is a direct product of the line with some subcone; in other words,  $\Xi$  is a spherical suspension with poles  $\xi_0$  and  $\xi_1$ . In particular, every point of  $\Xi$  lies on distance at most  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  from  $\xi_0$  or  $\xi_1$ . The natural projection  $\Xi \rightarrow \Sigma_x$  does not increase distances and sends both  $\xi_0$  and  $\xi_1$  to  $\xi$ . Therefore, the second statement of  $(a)_m$  follows.

$(d)_{m-1} + (a)_{m-1} + (a)_m \Rightarrow (b)_m$ . We can assume that  $s = \nabla_x f \neq 0$ . By 4.10,  $\nabla_x f = s \cdot \bar{\xi}$ , where  $s = \mathbf{d}_x f(\bar{\xi}) > 0$  and  $\bar{\xi} \in \Sigma_p$  is the direction that maximizes  $\mathbf{d}_x f(\bar{\xi})$ .

Let  $\zeta \in \partial\Sigma_x$  be a direction that minimizes the angle  $\angle(\bar{\xi}, \zeta)$ . It is sufficient to show that  $\zeta = \bar{\xi}$ .

Assume  $\zeta \neq \bar{\xi}$ ; let  $\eta = \uparrow_{[\zeta\bar{\xi}]_{\Sigma_x}}$ . By  $(a)_m$ ,  $\angle(\bar{\xi}, \zeta) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $(a)_{m-1}$  implies that

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \angle(\eta, \nu) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

for any  $\nu \in \Sigma_{\zeta}\Sigma_x$  (if  $m = 2$ , then the last statement is evident).

Let  $\varphi: \Sigma_x \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be restriction of  $\mathbf{d}_x f$  to  $\Sigma_x$ . Applying 4.7a and  $\textcircled{1}$ , we get that  $\mathbf{d}_{\bar{\xi}}\varphi(\eta) \leq 0$ . Since  $\mathbf{d}_x f$  is concave, we have that  $\varphi'' + \varphi \leq 0$ . If  $\varphi(\zeta) \leq 0$ , then it implies that  $\varphi(\bar{\xi}) \leq 0$  — a contradiction to the fact that  $s > 0$ . If  $\varphi(\zeta) > 0$ , then  $\varphi(\bar{\xi}) < \varphi(\zeta)$  — a contradiction again.

$(b)_m \Rightarrow (c)_m$ . Let  $\alpha$  be an  $f$ -gradient curve and  $\ell(t) = \text{dist}_{\partial\mathcal{A}}\alpha(t)$ .

Choose  $t$ ; let  $x = \alpha(t)$  and  $y \in \partial\mathcal{A}$  be a closest point to  $x$ . By  $(b)_m$ , we have that  $\nabla_y f \in \partial T_y$ . Since the distance  $|x - y|$  is minimal, we get  $\langle \uparrow_{[yx]}, v \rangle \leq 0$  for any  $v \in \partial T_y$ . In particular,

$$\langle \uparrow_{[yx]}, \nabla_y f \rangle \leq 0$$

Applying 4.9 to  $x$  and  $y$ , we get

$$\ell'(t) \leq \ell(t)$$

if the left-hand side is defined. Since  $\ell$  is Lipschitz,  $\ell'$  is defined almost everywhere. Integrating the inequality, we get

$$\ell(t) \leq e^t \cdot \ell(0)$$

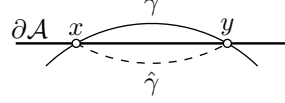
for any  $t \geq 0$ . In particular, if  $\ell(0) = 0$ , then  $\ell(t) = 0$  for any  $t \geq 0$ . Since  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  is closed (9.7), the statement follows.

$(c)_m + (d)_{m-1} \Rightarrow (d)_m$ . We will consider the case  $\kappa = 0$ ; other cases can be done in the same way, but formulas get more complicated.

Denote by  $\mathcal{A}_0$  and  $\mathcal{A}_1$  the two copies of  $\mathcal{A}$  in  $\mathcal{W}$ ; let us keep the notation  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  for the common boundary of  $\mathcal{A}_0$  and  $\mathcal{A}_1$ .

$\textcircled{2}$  Let  $\gamma$  be a geodesic in  $\mathcal{W}$ . Then either  $\gamma$  has at most one interior point in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  or  $\gamma \subset \partial\mathcal{A}$ .

Indeed, assume  $\gamma$  shares at least two points with  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ , say  $x = \gamma(t_1)$  and  $y = \gamma(t_2)$  and these are not endpoints of  $\gamma$ . Remove from  $\gamma$  the set  $\gamma \cap \mathcal{A}_1$  and exchange it to its reflection across  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ ; denote the obtained curve by  $\hat{\gamma}$ .



Any arc of  $\hat{\gamma}$  with one endpoint in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  is a geodesic in  $\mathcal{A}_0$ . Since  $x, y \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ , the arc of  $\hat{\gamma}$  behind  $y$  lies in the image of map  $t \mapsto \text{Flow}_{f_x}^t(y)$ , where  $f_x = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_x^2$ . By (c), this arc lies in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ .

Now choose a point  $z$  on this arc, so  $z \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ . Applying the same argument, we get that the arc of  $\hat{\gamma}$  before  $y$  lies in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . Hence the claim follows.  $\triangle$

Choose a point  $p$  in  $\mathcal{W}$ ; let  $f := \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2$ . It is sufficient to show that  $(f \circ \gamma)'' \leq 1$  for any  $t$ . If  $p \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ , then the statement follows from function comparison in  $\mathcal{A}_0$  and  $\mathcal{A}_1$ . So, we can assume that  $p \in \mathcal{A}_0 \setminus \partial\mathcal{A}$ . Also, we can assume that  $\gamma$  does not lie in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ ; otherwise, the inequality follows from the comparison in  $\mathcal{A}_0$ .

Choose  $y = \gamma(t_0)$ ; without loss of generality we can assume that  $t_0 = 0$ .

If  $y \in \mathcal{A}_0 \setminus \partial\mathcal{A}$ , then  $(f \circ \gamma)''(0) \leq 1$  in the barrier sense; it follows from the comparison in  $\mathcal{A}_0$ .

Assume  $y \in \mathcal{A}_1 \setminus \partial\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $[py]$  crosses  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  at  $x$ . Let  $\Sigma_x$  be the space of directions of  $\mathcal{A}$  at  $x$ , and let  $\Xi$  be its doubling. As before, we denote by  $\Sigma_0$  and  $\Sigma_1$  two copies of  $\Sigma_x$  in  $\Xi$  and keep notation  $\partial\Sigma_x$  for their common boundary. By  $(d)_{m-1}$ ,  $\Xi$  is ALEX(1).

The directions  $\uparrow_{[xy]}$  and  $\uparrow_{[xp]}$  lie on opposite sides from  $\Xi$  and

$$|\uparrow_{[xy]} - \uparrow_{[xp]}|_{\Xi} \geq \pi.$$

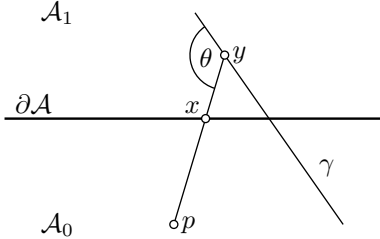
Otherwise, we could choose a direction  $\xi \in \partial\Sigma$  such that

$$|\uparrow_{[xy]} - \xi|_{\Xi} + |\xi - \uparrow_{[xp]}|_{\Xi} < \pi.$$

Furthermore, we could consider the radial curve  $\alpha(t) = \text{gexp}_x(t \cdot \xi)$ . By  $(c)_m$ ,  $\alpha$  lies in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . By 5.12

$$|p - \alpha(s)|_{\mathcal{A}_0} + |y - \alpha(s)|_{\mathcal{A}_1} < |p - y|_{\mathcal{W}}$$

for small values  $s > 0$  — a contradiction.



Cone  $\Xi$  contains a line with directions  $\uparrow_{[xy]}$  and  $\uparrow_{[xp]}$ . By the splitting theorem, Cone  $\Xi$  splits in these directions; in particular,

$$|\uparrow_{[xy]} - \xi| + |\xi - \uparrow_{[xp]}| = \pi.$$

for any  $\xi \in \Xi$ . It follows that for any  $\xi \in \Xi$  there is  $\xi' \in \partial\Sigma_x$  such that  $\xi$  and  $\xi'$  lie on some geodesic  $[\uparrow_{[xy]} \uparrow_{[xp]}]_\Xi$ .

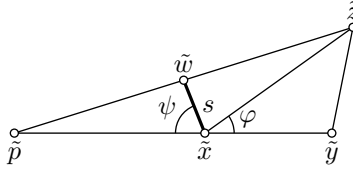
Fix  $t \approx 0$  such that  $t \neq 0$ ; let  $z = \gamma(t)$ . Choose such  $\xi'$  for  $\xi = \uparrow_{[xz]}$ . Consider the radial curve  $\alpha(s) := \text{gexp}_x(s \cdot \xi')$ . Let us show that

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{3} \quad |p - z|_{\mathcal{W}} &\leq |p - \alpha(s)|_{\mathcal{A}_0} + |\alpha(s) - z|_{\mathcal{A}_1} \leq \\ &\leq \tilde{\gamma}[y_z^p]. \end{aligned}$$

for suitable value  $s$ .

The first inequality in  $\textcircled{3}$  is evident. Set  $\varphi = \angle[x_z^y]$  and  $\psi = \angle(\uparrow_{[xp]}, \xi')$ . The choice of  $s$  comes from the model configuration  $\tilde{p}$ ,  $\tilde{x}$ ,  $\tilde{y}$ ,  $\tilde{w}$ ,  $\tilde{z} \in \mathbb{E}^2$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{x} &\in [\tilde{p}\tilde{y}], \quad |\tilde{p} - \tilde{x}| = |p - x|, \quad |\tilde{p} - \tilde{y}| = |p - y|, \quad |\tilde{x} - \tilde{z}| = |x - z|, \\ \tilde{w} &\in [\tilde{p}\tilde{z}], \quad \angle[\tilde{x}_z^{\tilde{y}}] = \varphi, \quad \angle[\tilde{x}_w^{\tilde{p}}] = \psi, \quad s = |\tilde{x} - \tilde{w}|. \end{aligned}$$



By 5.12, we get

$$\begin{aligned} |p - \alpha(s)|_{\mathcal{A}_0} &\leq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{w}|, \\ |\alpha(s) - z|_{\mathcal{A}_1} &\leq |\tilde{w} - \tilde{z}|; \end{aligned}$$

by the comparison,

$$|\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}| \leq \tilde{\gamma}[y_z^p].$$

**9.10. Exercise.** *Prove the last inequality.*

Hence we get  $(f \circ \gamma)''(0) \leq 1$  in the barrier sense.

Finally if  $\gamma(0) \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ , then splitting argument shows that

$$(f \circ \gamma)^+(0) + (f \circ \gamma)^-(0) \leq 0.$$

Summarizing, we get that  $(f \circ \gamma)'' \leq 1$  on every arc of  $\gamma$  that lies entirely in  $\mathcal{A}_0$  or  $\mathcal{A}_1$ . If  $\gamma$  crosses  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ , then we know that it

happens only once and at the crossing moment  $t_0$  we have  $f \circ \gamma^+(t_0) + f \circ \gamma^-(t_0) \leq 0$ . All this implies that  $(f \circ \gamma)'' \leq 1$ .  $\square$

**9.11. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite-dimensional ALEX(1) space of dimension  $\geq 2$  with non-empty boundary  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . Show that  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  is connected.*

**9.12. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an finite-dimensional ALEX(0) space with non-empty boundary  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ .*

- (a) *Suppose a geodesic  $\gamma$  in  $\mathcal{A}$  has its interior point in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . Show that  $\gamma$  lies in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ .*
- (b) *Show that the distance function to the boundary is concave.*

**9.13. Exercise.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite-dimensional ALEX(0) space with non-empty boundary  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . Suppose  $\gamma$  is a geodesic in  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  with the induced length metric. Show that the function  $t \mapsto \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2 \circ \gamma(t)$  is 1-concave for any point  $p$ .*

**9.14. Exercise.** *Let  $\text{proj}: \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  be the natural projection to a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  from its doubling  $\mathcal{W}$  across the boundary. Suppose  $f: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a  $\lambda$ -concave function. Show that  $f \circ \text{proj}: \mathcal{W} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is  $\lambda$ -concave if and only if  $\nabla_x f \in \partial T_x$  for any  $x \in \partial\mathcal{A}$ .*

## F Remarks

The doubling theorem has several generalizations [29, 82] that allow to glue nonidentical spaces.

It easily follows by induction on dimension that the doubling of a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space across its boundary results in an Alexandrov space without boundary. This observation can often be used to reduce a statement about general finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces to Alexandrov spaces without boundary.

For spaces without boundary the following tools become available.

**9.15. Fundamental-class lemma.** *Any compact finite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  without boundary has a fundamental class with  $\mathbb{Z}/2$  coefficients; that is, if  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $m$ -dimensional, then*

$$H^m(\mathcal{A}, \mathbb{Z}/2) = \mathbb{Z}/2.$$

This lemma was proved by Karsten Grove and Peter Petersen [38]. Originally it was stated for Alexander–Spanier cohomology. We do not

make this distinction because for compact Alexandrov spaces it is the same as singular cohomology. Indeed, both cohomology theories are homotopy invariant [94, Chapter 6], compact Alexandrov spaces are homotopy equivalent to finite simplicial complexes 8.15 and for para-compact CW complexes Alexander–Spanier cohomology is isomorphic to Čech and singular cohomology [94, Chapter 6].

This lemma implies, for example, that on finite-dimensional Alexandrov spaces without boundary the gradient flow for a  $\lambda$ -concave function is an onto map; in other words, gradient curves can be extended into the past. It is also used in the proof of the following version of the domain invariance theorem [49, Theorem 3.2].

**9.16. Domain invariance.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}_1$  and  $\mathcal{A}_2$  be two  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov spaces with empty boundary;  $m$  is finite. Suppose  $\Omega_1$  is an open subset in  $\mathcal{A}_1$  and  $f: \Omega_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{A}_2$  is an injective continuous map. Then  $f(\Omega_1)$  is open in  $\mathcal{A}_2$ .*

Theorem 9.1 can be used to prove the following.

**9.17. Topological stratification.** *Any  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space with  $m < \infty$  can be subdivided into topological manifolds  $S_0, \dots, S_m$  such that for every  $i$  we have  $\dim S_i = i$  or  $S_i = \emptyset$ . Moreover,*

- (a) *the closure of  $S_{m-1}$  is the boundary of the space, and*
- (b)  *$S_{m-2} = \emptyset$ .*

This statement implies that a compact finite-dimensional Alexandrov space has the homotopy type of a finite CW complex, but it seems to be unknown if it has to be homeomorphic to a CW complex.

The stratification theorem 9.17 can be sharpened as follows.

**9.18. Boundary characterization.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an  $m$ -dimensional Alexandrov space with  $m < \infty$ . Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (a)  $p \in \partial \mathcal{A}$ ;
- (b)  $\Sigma_p$  is contractible;
- (c)  $\tilde{H}_{m-1}(\Sigma_p, \mathbb{Z}/2) = 0$ ;
- (d)  $H_m(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A} \setminus \{p\}, \mathbb{Z}/2) = 0$ ;

Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function. A point  $p \in \text{Dom } f$  is called critical point of  $f$  if  $d_p f \leq 0$ ; otherwise it is called regular.

The following statement plays a technical role in the proof of stability theorem, but it is also a useful technical tool on its own.

**9.19. Morse lemma.** *Let  $f$  be a semiconcave function on a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space without boundary. Suppose  $K$  is a compact set of regular points of  $f$  in its level set  $f = a$ . Then an open*

neighborhood  $\Omega$  of  $K$  admits a homeomorphism  $x \mapsto (h(x), f(x))$  to a product space  $\Lambda \times (a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ .

Morse lemma was originally proved by Grigory Perelman in [74] for special kind of semiconcave functions made out of distance functions. For such functions it holds for all Alexandrov spaces without the requirement that they do not have boundary. For general semiconcave functions on spaces without boundary it follows from [75] where the technical tools from [74] (the notion of inner product between differentials of semiconcave functions and the notion of admissible maps) was generalized to include general semiconcave functions. With those definitions all the main Morse theory results of [74] follow by the same proof by using [75, 2.2] instead of [74, Lemma 1]. On Alexandrov spaces with boundary all the Morse theory results hold if one requires in addition that the semiconcave functions remain semiconcave when canonically extended to the doubling. This is automatic for the special type of semiconcave functions considered in [74] therefore this distinction is not made there.

Subsets in Alexandrov spaces that satisfy the condition in 9.9c are called extremal. More precisely, a subset  $E$  is extremal if for any  $x \in E$  and  $f$ -gradient curve that starts in  $E$  remains in  $E$ ; here  $f$  is arbitrary function of the form  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2$ .

Extremal subsets were introduced by Grigory Perelman and the second author [71]. They will pop up in the next lecture.

The following conjecture is one of the oldest questions in Alexandrov geometry that remains open.

**9.20. Conjecture.** *Let  $S$  be a component of the boundary of a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space. Then  $S$  equipped with the induced length metric is an Alexandrov space with the same curvature bound.*





# Lecture 10

## Quotients

This lecture gives several applications of Alexandrov geometry to isometric group actions.

### A Quotient space

Suppose that a group  $G$  acts isometrically on a metric space  $\mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$|G \cdot x - G \cdot y|_{\mathcal{X}/G} := \inf \{ |x - g \cdot y|_{\mathcal{X}} : g \in G \}$$

defines a semimetric on the orbit space  $\mathcal{X}/G$ . Moreover, if the orbits of the action are closed, then it is a genuine metric.

**10.1. Theorem.** *Suppose that a group  $G$  acts isometrically on a proper ALEX(0) space  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $G$  has closed orbits. Then the quotient space  $\mathcal{A}/G$  is ALEX(0).*

A more general formulation will be given in 10.5.

*Proof.* Denote by  $\sigma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}/G$  the quotient map.

Fix a quadruple of points  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathcal{A}/G$ . Choose  $\hat{p} \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\sigma(\hat{p}) = p$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}$  is proper, we can choose points  $\hat{x}_i \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\sigma(\hat{x}_i) = x_i$  and

$$|p - x_i|_{\mathcal{A}/G} = |\hat{p} - \hat{x}_i|_{\mathcal{A}}$$

for all  $i$ .

Note that

$$|x_i - x_j|_{\mathcal{A}/G} \leq |\hat{x}_i - \hat{x}_j|_{\mathcal{A}}$$

for all  $i$  and  $j$ . Therefore

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_{x_j}^{x_i}) \leq \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(\hat{p}_{\hat{x}_j}^{\hat{x}_i})$$

holds for all  $i$  and  $j$ .

By  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison in  $\mathcal{A}$ , we have

$$\tilde{L}(\hat{p}_{\hat{x}_1}) + \tilde{L}(\hat{p}_{\hat{x}_2}) + \tilde{L}(\hat{p}_{\hat{x}_3}) \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

Applying **1**, we get

$$\tilde{L}(p_{x_1}) + \tilde{L}(p_{x_2}) + \tilde{L}(p_{x_3}) \leq 2 \cdot \pi;$$

that is, the  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison holds for any quadruple in  $\mathcal{A}/G$ .  $\square$

**10.2. Very advanced exercise.** *Let  $G$  be a compact Lie group with a bi-invariant Riemannian metric. Show that  $G$  is isometric to a quotient of a Hilbert space by an isometric group action.*

*Conclude that  $G$  is ALEX(0).*

## B Submetries

A map  $\sigma: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  between the metric spaces  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$  is called a submetry if

$$\sigma(B(p, r)_{\mathcal{X}}) = B(\sigma(p), r)_{\mathcal{Y}}$$

for any  $p \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $r \geq 0$ .

Suppose  $G$  and  $\mathcal{A}$  are as in 10.1. Observe that the quotient map  $\sigma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}/G$  is a submetry. The following two exercises show that this is not the only source of submetries.

**10.3. Exercise.** *Construct submetries*

(a)  $\sigma_1: \mathbb{S}^2 \rightarrow [0, \pi],$

(b)  $\sigma_2: \mathbb{S}^2 \rightarrow [0, \frac{\pi}{2}],$

(c)  $\sigma_n: \mathbb{S}^2 \rightarrow [0, \frac{\pi}{n}]$  (for integer  $n \geq 1$ )

*such that the fibers  $\sigma_n^{-1}\{x\}$  are connected for any  $x$ .*

**10.4. Exercise.** *Let  $\sigma: \mathbb{E}^2 \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  be a submetry. Show that  $K = \sigma^{-1}\{0\}$  is a closed convex set without interior points and  $\sigma(x) = \text{dist}_K x$ .*

The proof of 10.1 works for submetries; that is, if  $\sigma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  is a submetry and  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX(0), then so is  $\mathcal{B}$ . Theorem 10.1 admits a straightforward generalization to ALEX(−1) case.

In the ALEX(1) case, the proof produces a slightly weaker statement —  $\mathbb{S}^2$ -comparison holds for a quartuple  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3$  in the quotient of ALEX(1) if  $|p - x_i| < \frac{\pi}{2}$  for each  $i$ . In particular, the quotient space is locally ALEX(1). But since ALEX(1) space is geodesic, then so is its quotient. Therefore, the globalization theorem implies that it is

globally ALEX(1). The same holds for the targets of submetries from an ALEX(1) space. With a bit of extra work, one can extend the statement to nonproper spaces; see [5, 8.34]. Thus, we have the following two statements.

**10.5. Theorem.** *Let  $\sigma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$  be a submetry. If  $\mathcal{A}$  is ALEX( $\kappa$ ) space, then so is  $\mathcal{B}$ .*

*In particular, if  $G$  acts isometrically on an ALEX( $\kappa$ ) space  $\mathcal{A}$ , and  $G$  has closed orbits. Then the quotient space  $\mathcal{A}/G$  is ALEX( $\kappa$ ).*

## C Hopf's conjecture

Does  $\mathbb{S}^2 \times \mathbb{S}^2$  admit a Riemannian metric with positive sectional curvature? Hopf's conjecture says that the answer should be negative. The following partial result towards the conjecture was obtained by Wu-Yi Hsiang and Bruce Kleiner [44]. The proof uses Alexandrov geometry and we present it here.

**10.6. Theorem.** *There is no Riemannian metric on  $\mathbb{S}^2 \times \mathbb{S}^2$  with sectional curvature  $\geq 1$  and a nontrivial isometric  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action.*

**10.7. Key lemma.** *Suppose  $\mathbb{S}^1 \curvearrowright \mathbb{S}^3$  is an effective isometric action without fixed points and  $\Sigma = \mathbb{S}^3/\mathbb{S}^1$  is its quotient space. Then there is a distance noncontracting map  $\Sigma \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbb{S}^2$ , where  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbb{S}^2$  is the standard 2-sphere rescaled with a factor  $\frac{1}{2}$ .*

The proof of the lemma is guided by the following exercise.

**10.8. Exercise.** *Suppose  $\mathbb{S}^1 \curvearrowright \mathbb{S}^3$  is an isometric action without fixed points. Let us think of  $\mathbb{S}^3$  as the unit sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .*

(a) *Show that one can identify  $\mathbb{R}^4$  with  $\mathbb{C}^2$  so that the action is given by matrix multiplication*

$$\begin{pmatrix} u^p & 0 \\ 0 & u^q \end{pmatrix},$$

*where  $(p, q)$  is a pair of relatively prime positive integers and  $u \in \mathbb{S}^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$ . In particular, our  $\mathbb{S}^1$  is a subgroup of the torus that acts by matrix multiplication*

$$\begin{pmatrix} v & 0 \\ 0 & w \end{pmatrix},$$

*where  $v, w \in \mathbb{S}^1$ .*

*Fix  $p$  and  $q$  as above. Let  $\Sigma_{p,q} = \mathbb{S}^3/\mathbb{S}^1$  be the quotient space.*

- (b) Show that the  $\Sigma_{p,q} = \mathbb{S}^3/\mathbb{S}^1$  is a topological sphere with  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -symmetry. This symmetry has two fixed points, north pole and south pole, that correspond to the orbits of  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$  in  $\mathbb{S}^3$ .

Denote by  $S(r)$  the circle of radius  $r$  with the center at the north pole of  $\Sigma_{p,q}$ .

- (c) Show that the inverse image  $T(r)$  of  $S(r)$  in  $\mathbb{S}^3$  is an orbit of the torus action. Conclude that  $a(r) = \pi^2 \cdot \sin r \cdot \cos r$  is the area  $T(r)$ .
- (d) Let  $b_{p,q}(r)$  be the length of the  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -orbit in  $\mathbb{S}^3$  that corresponds to a point on  $S(r)$ . Show that  $b_{p,q} = \pi \cdot \sqrt{(p \cdot \sin r)^2 + (q \cdot \cos r)^2}$ .
- (e) Let  $c_{p,q}(r)$  be the length of  $S(r)$ . Show that  $a(r) = c_{p,q}(r) \cdot b_{p,q}(r)$ .
- (f) Show that  $c_{p,q}(r) \leq c_{1,1}(r)$  for any pair  $(p, q)$  of relatively prime positive integers. Use it to construct a distance noncontracting map  $\Sigma_{p,q} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbb{S}^2 \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \Sigma_{1,1}$ .

*Proof of 10.6.* Assume  $\mathcal{B} = (\mathbb{S}^2 \times \mathbb{S}^2, g)$  is a counterexample. By the Toponogov theorem,  $\mathcal{B}$  is ALEX(1). By 10.1, the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{B}/\mathbb{S}^1$  is ALEX(1); evidently,  $\mathcal{A}$  is 3-dimensional.

Denote by  $F \subset \mathcal{B}$  the fixed point set of the  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action. Then  $\chi(\mathcal{B}) = \chi(F)$ . Each connected component of  $F$  is either an isolated point or a 2-dimensional geodesic submanifold in  $\mathcal{B}$ ; the latter has to have positive curvature, and therefore it is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^2$  or  $\mathbb{RP}^2$ . Notice that

- ◊ each isolated point contributes 1 to the Euler characteristic of  $\mathcal{B}$ ,
- ◊ each sphere contributes 2 to the Euler characteristic of  $\mathcal{B}$ , and
- ◊ each projective plane contributes 1 to the Euler characteristic of  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Since  $\chi(\mathcal{B}) = 4$ , we are in one of the following three cases:

- ◊  $F$  has exactly 4 isolated points,
- ◊  $F$  has one 2-dimensional submanifold and at least 2 isolated points,
- ◊  $F$  has at least two 2-dimensional submanifolds.

In each case we will arrive at a contradiction.

*Case 1.* Suppose  $F$  has exactly 4 isolated points  $x_1, x_2, x_3$ , and  $x_4$ . Denote by  $y_1, y_2, y_3$ , and  $y_4$  the corresponding points in  $\mathcal{A}$ . Note that  $\Sigma_{y_i} \mathcal{A}$  is isometric to a quotient of  $\mathbb{S}^3$  by an isometric  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action without fixed points.

By 10.8, each angle  $\angle [y_i y_j y_k] \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any three distinct points  $y_i, y_j, y_k$ . In particular, all four triangles  $[y_1 y_2 y_3]$ ,  $[y_1 y_2 y_4]$ ,  $[y_1 y_3 y_4]$ , and  $[y_2 y_3 y_4]$  are nondegenerate. By the comparison, the sum of angles in each triangle is strictly greater than  $\pi$ .

Denote by  $\omega$  the sum of all 12 angles in the 4 triangles  $[y_1y_2y_3]$ ,  $[y_1y_2y_4]$ ,  $[y_1y_3y_4]$ , and  $[y_2y_3y_4]$ . From above,

$$\omega > 4 \cdot \pi.$$

On the other hand, by 10.8 any triangle in  $\Sigma_{y_1}\mathcal{A}$  has perimeter at most  $\pi$ . In particular,

$$\angle[y_1 \frac{y_2}{y_3}] + \angle[y_1 \frac{y_3}{y_4}] + \angle[y_1 \frac{y_4}{y_2}] \leq \pi.$$

Apply the same argument in  $\Sigma_{y_2}\mathcal{A}$ ,  $\Sigma_{y_3}\mathcal{A}$ , and  $\Sigma_{y_4}\mathcal{A}$ ; adding the results, we get

$$\omega \leq 4 \cdot \pi$$

— a contradiction.

*Case 2.* Suppose  $F$  contains one surface  $S$ . Then the projection of  $S$  to  $\mathcal{A}$  forms its boundary  $\partial\mathcal{A}$ . The doubling  $\mathcal{W}$  of  $\mathcal{A}$  across its boundary has at least 4 singular points — each singular point of  $\mathcal{A}$  corresponds to two singular points of  $\mathcal{W}$ .

By the doubling theorem,  $\mathcal{W}$  is a ALEX(1) space. Therefore we arrive at a contradiction in the same way as in the first case.

*Case 3.* Impossible by 9.11. □

## D Erdős' problem rediscovered

A point  $p$  in an Alexandrov space is called extremal if  $\angle[p_y^x] \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any hinge  $[p_y^x]$  with the vertex at  $p$ ; equivalently,  $\text{diam } \Sigma_p \leq \pi/2$ .

**10.9. Theorem.** *Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a compact  $m$ -dimensional ALEX(0) space. Then it has at most  $2^m$  extremal points.*

The proof is a translation of the proof of the following classical problem in discrete geometry to Alexandrov's language.

**10.10. Problem.** *Let  $F$  be a set of points in  $\mathbb{E}^m$  such that any triangle formed by three distinct points in  $F$  has no obtuse angles. Then  $|F| \leq 2^m$ . Moreover, if  $|F| = 2^m$ , then  $F$  consists of the vertices of an  $m$ -dimensional rectangle.*

This problem was posed by Paul Erdős [26] and solved by Ludwig Danzer and Branko Grünbaum [24]. Grigory Perelman noticed that, after proper definitions, the same proof works in Alexandrov spaces [70]; thus, it proves 10.9.

*Proof of 10.9.* Let  $\{p_1, \dots, p_N\}$  be extremal points in  $\mathcal{A}$ . For each  $p_i$  consider its open Voronoi domain  $V_i$ ; that is,

$$V_i = \{x \in \mathcal{A} : |p_i - x| < |p_j - x| \text{ for any } j \neq i\}.$$

Clearly  $V_i \cap V_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ .

Suppose  $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ . Given a point  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ , choose a geodesic  $[p_i x]$  and denote by  $x_i$  the point on  $[p_i x]$  such that  $|p_i - x_i| = \alpha \cdot |p_i - x|$ ; let  $\Phi_i: x \rightarrow x_i$  be the corresponding map. By the comparison,

$$|x_i - y_i| \geq \alpha \cdot |x - y|$$

for any  $x, y$ , and  $i$ . Therefore

$$\text{vol}(\Phi_i \mathcal{A}) \geq \alpha^m \cdot \text{vol} \mathcal{A}.$$

Suppose  $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ . Then  $x_i \in V_i$  for any  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . Indeed, assume  $x_i \notin V_i$ , then there is  $p_j$  such that  $|p_i - x_i| \geq |p_j - x_i|$ . Then from the comparison, we have  $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_j \overset{p_i}{x})_{\mathbb{E}^2} > \frac{\pi}{2}$ ; that is,  $p_j$  is not an extremal point. It follows that  $\text{vol } V_i \geq \alpha^m \cdot \text{vol} \mathcal{A}$  for any  $0 < \alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ ; hence

$$\text{vol } V_i \geq \frac{1}{2^m} \cdot \text{vol} \mathcal{A} \quad \text{and} \quad N \leq 2^m.$$

□

*Remark.* Applying the above argument to the convex hull of  $F$  in 10.10 proves that  $|F| \leq 2^m$ ; the case of equality requires more work.

## E Crystallographic actions

An isometric action  $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathbb{E}^m$  is called crystallographic if it is properly discontinuous (that is, for any compact set  $K \subset \mathbb{E}^m$  and  $x \in \mathbb{E}^m$  there are only finitely many  $g \in \Gamma$  such that  $g \cdot x \in K$ ) and cocompact (that is, the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m / \Gamma$  is compact).

Let  $F$  be a maximal finite subgroup of  $\Gamma$ ; that is, if  $F < H < \Gamma$  for a finite group  $H$ , then  $F = H$ . Denote by  $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma)$  the number of maximal finite subgroups of  $\Gamma$  up to conjugation.

**10.11. Open question.** *Let  $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathbb{E}^m$  be a crystallographic action. Is it true that  $\mathfrak{M}(\Gamma) \leq 2^m$ ?*

Note that any finite subgroup  $F$  of  $\Gamma$  fixes an affine subspace  $A_F$  in  $\mathbb{E}^m$ . If  $F$  is maximal, then  $A_F$  completely describes  $F$ . Indeed, since the action is properly discontinuous, the subgroup of  $\Gamma$  that fix  $A_F$  has to be finite. This subgroup must contain  $F$ , but since  $F$  is maximal, it must coincide with  $F$ .

Denote by  $\mathfrak{M}_k(\Gamma)$  the number of maximal finite subgroups  $F < \Gamma$  (up to conjugation) such that  $\dim A_F = k$ .

Choose a finite subgroup  $F < \Gamma$ ; consider a conjugate subgroup  $F' = g \cdot F \cdot g^{-1}$ . Note that  $A_{F'} = g \cdot A_F$ . In particular, the subspaces  $A_F$  and  $A_{F'}$  have the same image in the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m / \Gamma$ . Therefore, to count subgroups up to conjugation, we need to count the images of their fixed sets. Therefore, by the lemma below (10.13),  $\mathfrak{M}_0(\Gamma)$  cannot exceed the number of extremal points in  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m / \Gamma$ . Combining this observation with 10.9, we get the following.

**10.12. Proposition.** *Let  $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathbb{E}^m$  be a crystallographic action. Then  $\mathfrak{M}_0(\Gamma) \leq 2^m$ .*

**10.13. Lemma.** *Let  $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathbb{E}^m$  be a crystallographic action and  $F$  be a maximal finite subgroup of  $\Gamma$  that fixes an isolated point  $p$ . Then the image of  $p$  in the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m / \Gamma$  is an extremal point.*

*Proof.* Let  $q$  be the image of  $p$ . Suppose  $q$  is not extremal; that is,  $\angle[q_{y_2}^{y_1}] > \frac{\pi}{2}$  for some hinge  $[q_{y_2}^{y_1}]$  in  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Choose the inverse images  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{E}^m$  of  $y_1, y_2 \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $|p - x_i|_{\mathbb{E}^m} = |q - y_i|_{\mathcal{A}}$ . Note that  $\angle[p_{x_2}^{x_1}] \geq \angle[q_{y_2}^{y_1}] > \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Moreover, since  $p$  is fixed by  $F$ , we have

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \angle[p_{g \cdot x_2}^{x_1}] > \frac{\pi}{2}$$

for any  $g \in F$ .

Denote by  $z$  the barycenter of the orbit  $F \cdot x_2$ . Note that  $z$  is a fixed point of  $F$ . By  $\textcircled{1}$ ,  $z \neq p$ ; so  $F$  must fix the line  $pz$ . But  $p$  is an isolated fixed point of  $F$  — a contradiction.  $\square$

**10.14. Exercise.** *Let  $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathbb{E}^m$  be a crystallographic action. Show that*

- (a)  $\mathfrak{M}_{m-1}(\Gamma) \leq 2$ , and
- (b) if  $\mathfrak{M}_{m-1}(\Gamma) = 1$ , then  $\mathfrak{M}_0(\Gamma) \leq 2^{m-1}$ .

*Construct crystallographic actions with equalities in (a) and (b).*

## F Remarks

Submetries were introduced by Valerii Berestovskii [11] and have attracted attention in various contexts of differential and metric geometry.

A more general form of Theorem 10.6 was found by Karsten Grove and Burkhard Wilking [39]; it classifies isometric  $\mathbb{S}^1$  actions on 4-dimensional manifolds with nonnegative sectional curvature. This

proof is as beautiful as the original work of Wu-Yi Hsiang and Bruce Kleiner.

It is expected that *no* ALEX(1) space with a nontrivial isometric  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action can be homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^2 \times \mathbb{S}^2$ ; so 10.6 holds for general ALEX(1) space. The proof of 10.6 would work if we had the following generalization of 10.7; see [42].

**10.15. Open question.** *Let  $\Sigma$  be an ALEX(1) space homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^3$ . Suppose  $\mathbb{S}^1$  acts on  $\Sigma$  isometrically and without fixed points. Is it true that any triangle in  $\Sigma/\mathbb{S}^1$  has perimeter at most  $\pi$ ? and, what about the existence of distance-noncontracting map  $\Sigma/\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{S}^2$ ?*

**10.16. Advanced exercise.** *Suppose  $\mathbb{S}^1$  acts isometrically on an ALEX(1) space  $\mathcal{A}$  that is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^3$ . Assume its fixed-point set is a closed local geodesic  $\gamma$ . Show that  $\text{length } \gamma \leq 2\pi$ .*

The same question for a  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ -action is open [76].

Compact  $m$ -dimensional ALEX(0) spaces with the maximal number of extremal points include  $m$ -dimensional rectangles and the quotients of flat tori by reflections across a point. (This action has  $2^m$  isolated fixed points; each corresponds to an extremal point in the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{T}^m/\mathbb{Z}_2$ .) Nina Lebedeva has proved [60] that *every  $m$ -dimensional ALEX(0) space with  $2^m$  extremal points is a quotient of Euclidean space by a crystallographic action.*

The extremal subsets of Alexandrov space were briefly discussed in 9F. The following definition is more relevant to isometric group actions.

A closed subset  $E$  in a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space is called extremal if  $\angle[p_y^x] \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any  $x \notin E$  and  $p \in E$  such that  $|x-p|$  takes a minimal value. An extremal set is called minimal if it contains no proper extremal subsets.

For example, the whole space and the empty set are extremal. Also, every vertex, edge, or face (as well as their unions) of the cube is an extremal subset of the cube. Vertices of the cube are its only minimal extremal subsets.

Counting maximal finite subgroups in a crystallographic group  $\Gamma$  (up to conjugation) is equivalent to counting the minimal extremal subsets in the quotient space  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m/\Gamma$ . So, 10.12 would follow from the next conjecture.

**10.17. Conjecture.** *Any  $m$ -dimensional compact ALEX(0) space has at most  $2^m$  minimal extremal subset.*

Let us mention another related conjecture. An extremal set is called primitive if it contains no proper extremal subsets with non-empty relative interior. For example, each face of  $m$ -dimensional cube



is its primitive extremal subset; therefore the cube has exactly  $3^m$  primitive extremal subset, including the empty set and the whole cube.

**10.18. Conjecture.** *Any  $m$ -dimensional compact  $\text{ALEX}(0)$  space has at most  $3^m$  minimal extremal subset.*

Crude estimates on number of extremal subsets follow from the idea in Gromov's Betti number theorem 8.17.



# Lecture 11

## Surface of convex body

In this lecture, we will prove that *surface of a convex body is*  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ , which is historically the first application of Alexandrov geometry.

### A Definitions

Let us define a convex body as a compact convex subset in  $\mathbb{E}^3$  with non-empty interior.

The surface of a convex body is defined as its boundary equipped with the induced length metric.

**11.1. Exercise.** *Show that the surface of a convex body is homeomorphic to  $\mathbb{S}^2$ .*

### B Surface of convex polyhedra

A convex polyhedron is a convex body with a finite number of extremal points, called its vertices.

The surface, say  $\Sigma$ , of a convex polyhedron  $P$  admits a finite triangulation such that each triangle is isometric to a plane triangle. In other words,  $\Sigma$  is a closed polyhedral surface; that is, it is a 2-dimensional manifold with a length metric that admits a finite triangulation such that each triangle is isometric to a solid plane triangle. A triangulation of a polyhedral surface will always be assumed to satisfy this condition.

The total angle around a vertex  $v$  in  $\Sigma$  is defined as the sum of angles at  $v$  of all triangles in the triangulation that contain  $v$ .

If a point  $p \in \Sigma$  is not a vertex of  $P$ , then

- ◇  $p$  lies in the interior of a face of  $P$ , and its neighborhood in  $\Sigma$  is a piece of plane, or
- ◇  $p$  lies on an edge, and its neighborhood is two half-planes glued along the boundary.

In both cases, a neighborhood of  $p$  in  $\Sigma$  (with the induced length metric) is isometric to an open domain of the plane. In this case, the total angle around  $p$  will be defined to be  $2\cdot\pi$ .

**11.2. Claim.** *Let  $\Sigma$  be the surface of a convex polyhedron  $P$ . Then, the total angle around any point in  $\Sigma$  cannot exceed  $2\cdot\pi$ .*

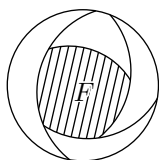
We will need the triangle inequality for angles (or the spherical triangle inequality). It follows from 1.9, but our proof of this statement is a straightforward generalization of the argument in the classical geometry textbook [51, § 47] that proves following statement.

**11.3. Spherical triangle inequality.** *Let  $w_1, w_2, w_3$  be unit vectors in  $\mathbb{E}^3$ . Denote by  $\alpha_{i,j}$  the angle between the vectors  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . Then*

$$\alpha_{1,3} \leq \alpha_{1,2} + \alpha_{2,3}$$

*and in case of equality, the vectors  $w_1, w_2, w_3$  lie in a plane.*

*Proof of 11.2.* Consider the intersection of  $P$  with a small sphere centered at  $p$ ; it is a convex spherical polygon, say  $F$ . Applying rescaling we may assume that the sphere has unit radius. Then we need to show that the perimeter of  $F$  does not exceed  $2\cdot\pi$ .



Note that  $F$  lies in a hemisphere, say  $H$ . Moreover, there is a decreasing sequence of convex spherical polygons

$$H = H_0 \supset \cdots \supset H_n = F,$$

such that  $H_{i+1}$  is obtained from  $H_i$  by cutting along a chord.

By the spherical triangle inequality (11.3), we have

$$2\cdot\pi = \text{perim } H = \text{perim } H_0 \geq \cdots \geq \text{perim } H_n = \text{perim } F$$

— hence the result. □

A vertex of a triangulation of a polyhedral surface is called essential if the total angle around it is not  $2\cdot\pi$ .

**11.4. Exercise.** *Let  $v$  be a point on the surface  $\Sigma$  of a convex polyhedron  $P$ . Show that  $v$  is a vertex of  $P$  if and only if  $v$  is an essential vertex of  $\Sigma$ .*

**11.5. Exercise.** *Show that geodesics on the surface of a convex polyhedron may have essential vertices only at their ends.*

## C Curvature

Let  $p$  be a point on the surface of a (possibly nonconvex) polyhedron, and  $\theta_p$  is the total angle around  $p$ . The value  $2\pi - \theta_p$  is called the curvature of the polyhedral surface at  $p$ . If  $p$  is not a vertex, then its curvature is defined to be zero.

**11.6. Exercise.** Assume that the surface of a nondegenerate tetrahedron  $T$  has curvature  $\pi$  at each of its vertices. Show that

- (a) all faces of  $T$  are congruent;
- (b) the line containing midpoints of opposite edges of  $T$  intersects these edges at right angles.

Claim 11.2 says that *surfaces of convex polyhedra have nonnegative curvature* in the sense of the above definition. Now we show that this definition agrees with the 4-point comparison.

**11.7. Proposition.** A polyhedral surface with nonnegative curvature at each vertex is ALEX(0).

*Proof.* Denote the surface by  $\Sigma$ . By 2.19, it is sufficient to check that  $\text{dist}_p^2 \circ \gamma$  is 1-concave for any geodesic  $\gamma$  and a point  $p$  in  $\Sigma$ .

We can assume that  $p$  is not a vertex; the vertex case can be done by approximation. Applying the same argument as in 11.5, we may assume that  $\gamma$  does not contain vertices.

Given a point  $x = \gamma(t_0)$ , choose a geodesic  $[px]$ . Again, by 11.5,  $[px]$  does not contain vertices. Therefore a small neighborhood of  $U \supset [px]$  can be unfolded on a plane; that is, there is an injective length-preserving map  $z \mapsto \tilde{z}$  of  $U$  into the Euclidean plane. This way we map part of  $\gamma$  in  $U$  to a line segment  $\tilde{\gamma}$ . Let

$$\tilde{f}(t) := \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2 \circ \tilde{\gamma}(t).$$

Since the geodesic  $[px]$  maps to a line segment, we have  $\tilde{f}(t_0) = f(t_0)$ . Furthermore, since the unfolding  $z \mapsto \tilde{z}$  preserves lengths of curves, we get  $\tilde{f}(t) \geq f(t)$  if  $t$  is sufficiently close to  $t_0$ . That is,  $\tilde{f}$  is a local upper barrier of  $f$  at  $t_0$ . Evidently,  $\tilde{f}'' \equiv 1$ ; therefore  $f'' \leq 1$ . It remains to apply 2.19.  $\square$

**11.8. Exercise.** Prove the converse to the proposition; that is, show that if a polyhedral surface is ALEX(0), then it has nonnegative curvature in the sense defined in this section.

## D Surface of convex body

**11.9. Advanced exercise.** Let  $K_1, K_2, \dots$ , and  $K_\infty$  be convex bodies in  $\mathbb{E}^m$ . Denote by  $S_n$  the surface of  $K_n$  with induced length metric. Suppose  $K_n \rightarrow K_\infty$  in the sense of Hausdorff. Show that  $S_n \rightarrow S_\infty$  in the sense of Gromov–Hausdorff.

Any convex body is a Hausdorff limit of a sequence of convex polyhedra. Therefore, the next proposition follows from 11.7, 11.9, and 8.1.

**11.10. Proposition.** *The surface of a convex body in  $\mathbb{E}^3$  is ALEX(0).*

## E Remarks

11.1 and 11.7 imply that the surface of a convex body is a sphere with nonnegative curvature in the sense of Alexandrov. A celebrated theorem of Alexandrov states that the converse also holds if we allow degeneration of convex bodies to plane figures; the surface of a plane figure is defined as its doubling across the boundary. In other words, any ALEX(0) metric on the two-sphere is isometric to a surface of a (possibly degenerate) convex body. Moreover this convex body is unique up to congruence. The last result is due to Alexei Pogorelov [90].

Originally, Alexandrov proved the statement for polyhedral metrics on the sphere; this proof is sketched in the appendix. Then he used 11.9 to extend the result to arbitrary ALEX(0) metrics on the sphere.

Proposition 11.10 generalizes to boundaries of convex bodies in  $\mathbb{E}^m$  for any  $m \geq 2$ . This can be proved using 11.9 by approximating a convex body by smooth ones. Boundaries of smooth convex bodies have nonnegative sectional curvature by the Gauss formula and hence are ALEX(0).

**11.11. Advanced exercise.** Let  $S$  be the surface of a nondegenerate convex body  $K \subset \mathbb{E}^3$ ; we assume that  $S$  is equipped with the induced length metric.

- (a) Show that any geodesic  $\gamma$  in  $S$  is one-sided differentiable as a curve in  $\mathbb{E}^3$
- (b) Let  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  be geodesic paths in  $S$  that start at one point  $p = \gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0)$ . Suppose  $x_i = \gamma_i(1)$ , and  $y_i = p + \gamma_i^+(0)$ . Show that

$$|x_1 - x_2|_S \leq |y_1 - y_2|_W,$$

where  $W$  is the complement to the interior of  $K$ .

# Appendix A

## Alexandrov's embedding theorem

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### A Introduction

Intrinsic distance between two points on the surface of a convex polyhedron is defined as the length of a shortest curve on the surface between these points.

Recall that the sum of angles at the tip of a convex polyhedral angle is less than  $2\cdot\pi$ ; this statement can be found in a school textbook [51, § 48].

It is easy to see that the surface of a convex polyhedron is homeomorphic to the sphere. Therefore the statements above imply that the surface of a convex polyhedron equipped with its intrinsic metric is an example of a *polyhedral metric on the sphere with the sum of angles around each vertex at most  $2\cdot\pi$* ; a metric is called polyhedral if the sphere admits a triangulation such that every triangle is congruent to a plane triangle.

Alexandrov's theorem states that the converse holds if one includes in the consideration *twice covered polygons*. In other words, we assume that a polyhedron can degenerate to a plane polygon; in this case, its surface is defined as two copies of the polygon glued along their boundary.

Further, we assume that a polyhedron can degenerate to a plane polygon.

### A.1. Alexandrov's theorem.

- I. A polyhedral metric on the sphere is isometric to the surface of a convex polyhedron if and only if the sum of angles around each of its vertex is not greater than  $2\pi$ .
- II. Moreover, a convex polyhedron is defined up to congruence by the intrinsic metric on its surface.

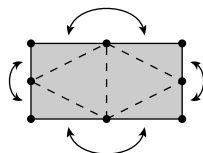
A. D. Alexandrov has many remarkable theorems, but in our opinion, this theorem is the most remarkable. At the same time, its proof is elementary; it could be explained to anyone familiar with basic topology.

This theorem has many applications. In particular, it is used in the proof of its generalization that gives a complete description of intrinsic metrics on the sphere that are isometric to convex surfaces in the Euclidean space (see [8], a gap in the proof was fixed in [22]).

The first part of theorem is central; it is called the *existence theorem*. The second part is called the *uniqueness theorem*; it is a slight variation of Cauchy's theorem about polyhedrons. (There is another uniqueness theorem of Alexandrov that generalizes Minkowski's theorem about polyhedrons.)

According to the theorem, a convex polyhedron is completely defined by the intrinsic metric of its surface. In particular, knowing the metric we could find the position of the edges. However, in practice, it is not easy to do. For example, the surface glued from a rectangle as shown on the diagram defines a tetrahedron. Some of the glued lines appear inside facets of the tetrahedron and some edges (dashed lines) do not follow the sides of the rectangle.

The theorem was proved by A. D. Alexandrov in 1941 [7]; we will present a sketch of his proof. A complete proof is nicely written by A. D. Alexandrov in his book [6]. Yet another proof was found by Yu. A. Volkov in his thesis [100]; it uses a deformation of three-dimensional polyhedral space.



## B Space of polyhedrons and metrics

**Space of polyhedrons.** Let us denote by  $\Phi$  the space of all convex polyhedrons in the Euclidean space, including polyhedrons that degenerate to a plane polygon. Polyhedra in  $\Phi$  will be considered up to a motion of the space, and the whole space  $\Phi$  will be considered with the natural topology (an intuitive meaning of closeness of two polyhedrons should be sufficient).



Further, denote by  $\Phi_n$  the polyhedrons in  $\Phi$  with exactly  $n$  vertices. Since any polyhedron has at least 3 vertices, the space  $\Phi$  admits a subdivision into a countable number of subsets  $\Phi_3, \Phi_4, \dots$

**Space of polyhedral metrics.** The space of polyhedral metrics on the sphere with the sum of angles around each point at most  $2\cdot\pi$  will be denoted by  $\Psi$ . The metrics in  $\Psi$  will be considered up to an isometry, and the whole space  $\Psi$  will be equipped with the natural topology (again, an intuitive meaning of closeness of two metrics is sufficient).

A point on the sphere with the sum of angles strictly less than  $2\cdot\pi$  will be called an essential vertex. The subset of  $\Psi$  of all metrics with exactly  $n$  essential vertices will be denoted by  $\Psi_n$ . It is easy to see that any metric in  $\Psi$  has at least 3 essential vertices. Therefore  $\Psi$  is subdivided into countably many subsets  $\Psi_3, \Psi_4, \dots$

**From a polyhedron to its surface.** Recall that the surface of a convex polyhedron is a sphere with a polyhedral metric such that the sum of angles around each point is at most  $2\cdot\pi$ . Therefore passing from a polyhedron to its surface defines a continuous map

$$\iota: \Phi \rightarrow \Psi.$$

The number of vertices of a polyhedron is equal to the number of essential vertices of its surface. In other words,  $\iota(\Phi_n) \subset \Psi_n$  for any  $n \geq 3$ .

## C About the proof

Using the notation introduced in the previous section, we can give the following more exact formulation of Alexandrov's theorem:

**A.2. Reformulation.** *For any integer  $n \geq 3$ , the map  $\iota$  is a bijection from  $\Phi_n$  to  $\Psi_n$ .*

We sketch the original proof of A. D. Alexandrov. It is based on the construction of a one-parameter family of polyhedrons that starts at arbitrary polyhedron and ends at a polyhedron with its surface isometric to the given one. This type of argument is called the continuity method; it is often used in the theory of differential equations.

The two parts of the first formulation will be proved separately.

*Part II.* Let us show that the map  $\iota: \Phi_n \rightarrow \Psi_n$  is injective; in other words, a convex polyhedron is defined by the intrinsic metric on its surface up to a motion of the space.

The last statement is analogous to the Cauchy theorem about polyhedrons, and the proof goes along the same lines.

The Cauchy theorem states that facets of a polyhedron together with the gluing rule completely describe a convex polyhedron; its proof is given in many classical popular texts [1, 25, 95].

*Part I.* Let us prove that  $\iota: \Phi_n \rightarrow \Psi_n$  is surjective. This part of the proof is subdivided into the following lemmas:

**A.3. Lemma.** *For any integer  $n \geq 3$ , the space  $\Psi_n$  is connected.*

The proof of this lemma is not complicated, but it requires ingenuity; it can be done by the direct construction of a one-parameter family of metrics in  $\Psi_n$  that connects two given metrics. Such a family can be obtained as a sequence of the following deformations (direct or reversed).

Start with a sphere  $M$  with a metric from  $\Psi_n$ . Suppose  $v$  and  $w$  are essential vertices in  $M$ . Let us cut  $M$  along a shortest path from  $v$  to  $w$ . This way we obtain a sphere with a hole. The hole can be patched by a disc so that the obtained metric remains in  $\Psi_n$ . (There is a three-parameter family of such patches, so we have something to choose from.) In particular, the obtained metric has exactly  $n$  essential vertices (after the patching, the vertices  $v$  and  $w$  may become inessential). Choosing a one-parameter family of such patches, we can get a deformation of  $M$ .

**A.4. Lemma.** *The map  $\iota: \Phi_n \rightarrow \Psi_n$  is open, that is, it maps any open set in  $\Phi_n$  to an open set in  $\Psi_n$ .*

*In particular, for any  $n \geq 3$ , the image  $\iota(\Phi_n)$  is open in  $\Psi_n$ .*

This statement is very close to the so-called invariance of domain theorem; the latter states that a continuous injective map between manifolds of the same dimension is open.

According to part II,  $\iota$  is injective. The proof of the invariance of domain theorem can be adapted to our case since both spaces  $\Phi_n$  and  $\Psi_n$  are  $(3 \cdot n - 6)$ -dimensional and both look like manifolds, but, formally speaking, they are *not* manifolds. In a more technical language,  $\Phi_n$  and  $\Psi_n$  have the natural structure of  $(3 \cdot n - 6)$ -dimensional orbifolds, and the map  $\iota$  respects the orbifold structure.

We will only show that both spaces  $\Phi_n$  and  $\Psi_n$  are  $(3 \cdot n - 6)$ -dimensional.

Choose a polyhedron  $P$  in  $\Phi_n$ . It is uniquely determined by the  $3 \cdot n$  coordinates of its  $n$  vertices. We can assume that the first vertex is the origin, the second has two vanishing coordinates and the third has one vanishing coordinate; therefore, all polyhedrons in  $\Phi_n$  that

lie sufficiently close to  $P$  can be described by  $3 \cdot n - 6$  parameters. If  $P$  has no symmetries then this description can be made one-to-one; in this case, a neighborhood of  $P$  in  $\Phi_n$  is a  $(3 \cdot n - 6)$ -dimensional manifold. If  $P$  has a nontrivial symmetry group, then this description is not one-to-one but it does not have an impact on the dimension of  $\Phi_n$ .

The case of polyhedral metrics is analogous. We need to construct a subdivision of the sphere into plane triangles using only essential vertices. By Euler's formula, there are exactly  $3 \cdot n - 6$  edges in this subdivision. The lengths of edges completely describe the metric, and slight changes of these lengths produce a metric with the same property.

**A.5. Lemma.** *The map  $\iota: \Phi_n \rightarrow \Psi_n$  is closed; that is, the image of a closed set in  $\Phi_n$  is closed in  $\Psi_n$ .*

*In particular, for any  $n \geq 3$ , the set  $\iota(\Phi_n)$  is closed in  $\Psi_n$ .*

Choose a closed subset  $Z \subset \Phi_n$  and a sequence of polyhedrons  $P_1, P_2, \dots$  in  $Z$ . Assume that the sequence  $\iota(P_n)$  converges in  $\Psi_n$ . Passing to a subsequence, we can assume that  $P_n$  converges in  $\Phi$ ; denote the limit polyhedron by  $P_\infty$ . Since  $\iota$  is continuous,  $\iota(P_n)$  converges to  $\iota(P_\infty)$  in  $\Psi$ . Recall that  $\iota(\Phi_i) \subset \Psi_i$  for each  $i$ ; therefore,  $P_\infty \in \Phi_n$ . That is, the limit of  $\iota(P_n)$  belongs to  $\iota(Z)$ , and hence  $\iota$  is closed.

Summarizing,  $\iota(\Phi_n)$  is a non-empty closed and open set in  $\Psi_n$ , and  $\Psi_n$  is connected for any  $n \geq 3$ . Therefore,  $\iota(\Phi_n) = \Psi_n$ ; that is,  $\iota: \Phi_n \rightarrow \Psi_n$  is surjective.  $\square$

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# Semisolutions

**1.1.** Choose a sequence of positive numbers  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  and a finite  $\varepsilon_n$ -net  $N_n$  of  $K$  for each  $n$ . We can assume that  $\varepsilon_0 > \text{diam } K$ , and  $N_0$  is a one-point set. If  $|x - y| < \varepsilon_k$  for some  $x \in N_{k+1}$  and  $y \in N_k$ , then connect them by a curve of length at most  $\varepsilon_k$ .

Let  $K'$  be the union of all these curves and  $K$ . Show that  $K'$  is compact and path-connected.

*Source:* This problem is due to Eugene Bilokopytov [12].

**1.2.** Choose a Cauchy sequence  $x_n$  in  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$ ; it is sufficient to show that a subsequence of  $x_n$  converges.

Observe that the sequence  $x_n$  is Cauchy in  $(\mathcal{X}, |* - *|)$ ; denote its limit by  $x_\infty$ .

Passing to a subsequence, we can assume that  $\|x_n - x_{n+1}\| < \frac{1}{2^n}$  for each  $n$ . It follows that there is a 1-Lipschitz path  $\gamma$  in  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$  such that  $x_n = \gamma(\frac{1}{2^n})$  for each  $n$  and  $x_\infty = \gamma(0)$ . Therefore,

$$\|x_\infty - x_n\| \leq \text{length } \gamma|_{[0, \frac{1}{2^n}]} \leq \frac{1}{2^n}.$$

In particular,  $x_n$  converges to  $x_\infty$  in  $(\mathcal{X}, \|* - *\|)$ .

*Source:* [45, Corollary]; see also [77, Lemma 2.3].

**1.3.** Given a pair of points  $p$  and  $q$ , choose a sequence of paths  $\gamma_n$  from  $p$  to  $q$  such that

$$\text{length } \gamma_n \rightarrow |p - q| \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

these paths exist since we are in a length space. We can assume that each  $\gamma_n$  is parametrized proportionally to the arc length; in particular,  $\gamma_n$  are equicontinuous. Show that paths  $\gamma_n$  lie in a closed ball, say  $\overline{B}[p, r]$  of some radius  $r < \infty$ . Since the space is proper,  $\overline{B}[p, r]$  is compact. By the Arzelà–Ascoli theorem, we can pass to a converging subsequence of  $\gamma_n$ . Show that its limit is a geodesic path from  $p$  to  $q$ .

**1.5.** Choose a sequence  $\varepsilon_n > 0$  that converges to zero very fast, say such that  $\sum_n 10^n \cdot \varepsilon_n$  is small. Follow the argument in the proof of Menger's lemma, taking  $\varepsilon_n$ -midpoints at the  $n^{\text{th}}$  stage.

**1.6.** Let us write the Riemannian metric on  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa)$  in polar coordinates  $(\theta, r)$ ; it has the form  $\begin{pmatrix} h^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ , where  $h = h(\kappa, r) \geq 0$ . Calculate  $h(\kappa, r)$ . Show that for fixed  $r$ , the function  $r \mapsto h(\kappa, r)$  is nonincreasing in the domain of definition. Suppose  $\kappa < K$ , consider the partially defined map  $\mathbb{M}^2(\kappa) \rightarrow \mathbb{M}^2(K)$  that sends a point to the point with the same polar coordinates. Show that this map is short in its domain of definition. Use it to prove the statement in the exercise.

**1.7.** Show and use that  $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{S}^2} - \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{E}^2} = O(|p-x|^2 + |p-y|^2)$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{E}^2} - \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_y^x)_{\mathbb{H}^2} = O(|p-x|^2 + |p-y|^2)$ .

**1.8.** Consider a hinge in the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with a metric defined by norm, say by the  $\ell^\infty$ -norm.

**1.10.** Assume  $\angle[p_z^x] + \angle[p_z^y] < \pi$ . By 1.9,  $\angle[p_y^x] < \pi$ . Therefore,  $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(p_{\bar{y}}^{\bar{x}}) < \pi$  for some  $\bar{x} \in [px]$  and  $\bar{y} \in [py]$ . Hence

$$|p - \bar{x}| + |\bar{y} - p| < |\bar{x} - \bar{y}|$$

— a contradiction.

**1.11.** Denote by  $\alpha$  the arc-length parametrization of  $[qp]$  from  $q$  to  $p$ . Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Observe that

$$|\gamma(t) - \alpha(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot t)|^2 \leq t^2 \cdot (1 - \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \cdot \cos \varphi + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2}) + o(t^2),$$

where  $\varphi = \angle[q \frac{p}{x}]$ . By the triangle inequality

$$|p - \gamma(t)| \leq |\gamma(t) - \alpha(\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot t)| + |q - p| - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot t.$$

Conclude that

$$|p - \gamma(t)| \leq |q - p| - t \cdot \cos \varphi + \delta(\varepsilon) \cdot t + o(t),$$

where  $\delta(\varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ . The statement follows since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary.

**1.13.** Since the space is proper, it is separable; that is, we can choose an countable everywhere dense set  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ .

Let  $A_1, A_2, \dots$  be a sequence of closed sets. Applying the diagonal procedure, we can pass to a subsequence such that for each  $i$  the sequence  $\text{dist}_{A_n} x_i$  converges as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; denote its limit by  $f(x_i)$ .

Since  $\text{dist}_{A_n}$  is 1-Lipschitz for any  $n$ , we have

$$|f(x_i) - f(x_j)| \leq |x_i - x_j|$$

for all  $i$  and  $j$ . Suppose  $f(x_i) < \infty$  for some  $i$ , then the same holds for any  $i$ . Therefore, the function  $f$  can be extended to a continuous function defined on the ambient space. Show that  $A_\infty = f^{-1}\{0\}$  is the limit of  $A_n$  in the sense of Hausdorff.

If  $f(x_i) = \infty$  for some  $i$ , then the same holds for any  $i$ . Show that in this case  $A_n \rightarrow \emptyset$  in the sense of Hausdorff.

**1.16.** Apply the definition of Hausdorff distance (1.14).

**1.18.** Given  $x_\infty, y_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$ , choose  $x_n, y_n \in \mathcal{X}_n$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x_\infty$  and  $y_n \rightarrow y_\infty$ . Let  $z_n$  be the midpoint of  $[x_n y_n]$ . Since  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$  is proper, we can choose a subsequence of  $z_m$  that converges to a point, say  $z_\infty \in \mathcal{X}_\infty$ . Note that  $z_\infty$  is a midpoint of  $x_\infty$  and  $y_\infty$ , then apply Menger's lemma (1.4).

**1.20.** Given a pair of points  $x_0, y_0 \in \mathcal{K}$ , consider two sequences  $x_0, x_1, \dots$  and  $y_0, y_1, \dots$  such that  $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$  and  $y_{n+1} = f(y_n)$  for each  $n$ .

Since  $\mathcal{K}$  is compact, we can choose an increasing sequence of integers  $n_k$  such that both sequences  $(x_{n_i})_{i=1}^\infty$  and  $(y_{n_i})_{i=1}^\infty$  converge. In particular, both are Cauchy; that is,

$$|x_{n_i} - x_{n_j}|_{\mathcal{K}} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{and} \quad |y_{n_i} - y_{n_j}|_{\mathcal{K}} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $\min\{i, j\} \rightarrow \infty$ .

Since  $f$  is distance-noncontracting,

$$|x_0 - x_{|n_i - n_j|}| \leq |x_{n_i} - x_{n_j}|$$

for any  $i$  and  $j$ . Therefore, there is a sequence  $m_i \rightarrow \infty$  such that

$$(*) \quad x_{m_i} \rightarrow x_0 \quad \text{and} \quad y_{m_i} \rightarrow y_0$$

as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ .

Since  $f$  is distance-noncontracting, the sequence  $\ell_n = |x_n - y_n|_{\mathcal{K}}$  is nondecreasing. By (\*),  $\ell_{m_i} \rightarrow \ell_0$  as  $m_i \rightarrow \infty$ . It follows that

$$\ell_0 = \ell_1 = \dots$$

In particular,

$$|x_0 - y_0|_{\mathcal{K}} = \ell_0 = \ell_1 = |f(x_0) - f(y_0)|_{\mathcal{K}}$$

for any pair of points  $(x_0, y_0)$  in  $\mathcal{K}$ . That is, the map  $f$  is distance-preserving and hence injective. From (\*), we also get that  $f(\mathcal{K})$  is everywhere dense. Since  $\mathcal{K}$  is compact,  $f$  is surjective — hence the result.

*Remarks.* This is a basic lemma in the introduction to Gromov–Hausdorff distance [see 7.3.30 in 16]. The presented proof was suggested by Travis Morrison.

**1.21.** Apply 1.20 to a left inverse of the map.

**1.23.** Show and use that  $|\mathcal{X}_\infty - \mathcal{X}'_\infty|_{\text{GH}} < \varepsilon$  for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

**1.26.** The only-if part is trivial. Let us prove the if part.

Let  $f_n: \mathcal{X}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_\infty$  and  $h_n: \mathcal{X}_\infty \rightarrow \mathcal{X}_n$  be the maps in the definition of the inequalities  $\mathcal{X}_n \leq \mathcal{X}_\infty + \varepsilon_n$  and  $\mathcal{X}_\infty \leq \mathcal{X}_n + \varepsilon_n$ , respectively. Apply 1.20, to show that any partial limit of  $f_n \circ h_n$  is an isometry of  $\mathcal{X}_\infty$ . Conclude that  $f_n$  is an  $\varepsilon'_n$ -isometry for some converging-to-zero sequence  $\varepsilon'_n$  and apply 1.25.

**1.28;** (a) Consider the graphs of the following functions with the induced metric from  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

$$x \mapsto \cos x + \cos \frac{x}{\pi} \quad \text{and} \quad x \mapsto \cos x + \sin \frac{x}{\pi}.$$

(b) For every rational number  $q \in [1, 2]$  consider an interval of length  $q$ . Let  $\mathcal{X}$  be obtained by identifying all endpoints of the intervals.

Let  $\mathcal{Y}$  be constructed in the same way but skipping the interval of length 1.5.

**2.2.** The 4-point comparison (2.1) reduces our question to the following. *Any spherical triangle has perimeter at most  $2 \cdot \pi$ .* Choose a spherical triangle  $[xyz]$ . Let  $x'$  be the antipode of  $x$ ; that is  $x' = -x$ . The spherical triangle inequality (1.9 or 11.3) implies that

$$|x - z|_{\mathbb{S}^2} \leq |y - x'|_{\mathbb{S}^2} + |x' - z|_{\mathbb{S}^2}.$$

Observe that

$$|x - y|_{\mathbb{S}^2} + |y - x'|_{\mathbb{S}^2} = \pi, \quad \text{and} \quad |x - z|_{\mathbb{S}^2} + |z - x'|_{\mathbb{S}^2} = \pi.$$

Hence

$$|x - y|_{\mathbb{S}^2} + |x - z|_{\mathbb{S}^2} + |y - z|_{\mathbb{S}^2} \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

**2.3.** For the only-if part consider the following two cases.

If  $\tilde{\angle}(p_{x_2}^{x_1}) + \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_3}^{x_2}) \geq \pi$ , then choose two model triangles  $[qy_1y_2] = \tilde{\Delta}(px_1x_2)$  and  $[qy_2y_3] = \tilde{\Delta}(px_2x_3)$  that lie on the opposite sides of  $[qy_2]$ . By the comparison,  $|y_1 - y_3| \geq |x_1 - x_3|$ . Therefore the obtained configuration meets all the conditions.

If  $\tilde{\angle}(p_{x_2}^{x_1}) + \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_3}^{x_2}) < \pi$ , then choose a model triangle  $[qy_1y_2] = \tilde{\Delta}(px_1x_2)$  and take  $y_3$  on the extension of  $[y_1q]$  behind  $q$  such that



$|q - y_3| = |p - x_3|$ . Then  $\angle[q \frac{y_2}{y_3}] \geq \tilde{\angle}(p \frac{x_2}{x_3})$ , therefore  $|y_2 - y_3| \geq |x_2 - x_3|$ . Further,  $|y_2 - y_3| = |x_2 - p| + |p - x_3| \geq |x_2 - x_3|$ , and again, the obtained configuration meets all the conditions.

To prove the if part, choose a configuration  $q, y_1, y_2, y_3$  that meets all the conditions and maximize the sum

$$|y_1 - y_2| + |y_2 - y_3| + |y_3 - y_1|.$$

Show that  $|q - y_i| = |p - x_i|$  for each  $i$  and  $q$  lies in the solid triangle  $y_1 y_2 y_3$ ; in particular

$$\angle[q \frac{y_1}{y_2}] + \angle[q \frac{y_2}{y_3}] + \angle[q \frac{y_3}{y_1}] = 2 \cdot \pi.$$

Applying the angle monotonicity (2.5), we get

$$\tilde{\angle}(p \frac{x_1}{x_2}) + \tilde{\angle}(p \frac{x_2}{x_3}) + \tilde{\angle}(p \frac{x_3}{x_1}) \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

**2.6.** Consider model triangles  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{x}\tilde{z}] = \tilde{\triangle}(pxz)$  and  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{y}\tilde{z}] = \tilde{\triangle}(pyz)$  that share side  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{z}]$  and lie on its opposite sides. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} |\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} &\geq |\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} + |\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}|_{\mathbb{E}^2} = \\ &= |x - z|_{\mathcal{X}} + |z - y|_{\mathcal{X}} = \\ &= |x - y|_{\mathcal{X}}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathcal{X}$  is our metric space. It remains to apply the angle monotonicity (2.5).

**2.8.** Apply 2.7.

**2.10.** Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $|p - x| \leq |p - y|$ . Choose  $\bar{x} \in [px]$ ; let  $\bar{y} \in [py]$  be such that  $|p - \bar{x}| = |p - \bar{y}|$ . Apply 2.7 to show that  $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$ . Conclude that  $[px] \subset [py]$ .

**2.11.** Assume that there are two distinct geodesics from  $z$  to  $x$ . Then we can choose distinct points  $p$  and  $q$  on these geodesics such that  $|z - p| = |z - q|$ . Observe that  $\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{p}{q}) > 0$ . By comparison,

$$\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{p}{q}) + \tilde{\angle}(z \frac{p}{y}) + \tilde{\angle}(z \frac{q}{y}) \leq 2 \cdot \pi.$$

Therefore, one of the angles  $\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{p}{y})$  or  $\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{q}{y})$  is strictly less than  $\pi$ . The latter contradicts the triangle inequality.

**2.12.** By 1.10, we have

$$\angle[p \frac{x}{z}] + \angle[p \frac{y}{z}] \geq \pi.$$

Since  $z \in ]xy[$  we have

$$\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{\bar{x}}{\bar{y}}) = \pi$$

for any  $\bar{x} \in [xz[$  and  $\bar{y} \in ]zy]$ . By comparison, we have that

$$\tilde{\angle}(z \frac{\bar{x}}{\bar{p}}) + \tilde{\angle}(z \frac{\bar{p}}{\bar{y}}) \leq \pi$$

for any  $\bar{p} \in ]zp]$ . Passing to the limit as  $|z - \bar{x}| \rightarrow 0$ ,  $|z - \bar{y}| \rightarrow 0$ , and  $|z - \bar{p}| \rightarrow 0$ , we get

$$\angle[p \frac{x}{z}] + \angle[p \frac{y}{z}] \leq \pi.$$

**2.13.** Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $x$ ,  $v$ ,  $w$ , and  $y$  appear on  $[xy]$  in this order. By 2.7,

$$\tilde{\angle}(x \frac{y}{p}) \geq \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{w}{p}) \geq \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{v}{p}).$$

Hence,  $\Rightarrow$  follows.

By Alexandrov's lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{y}{p}) = \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{v}{p}) &\iff \tilde{\angle}(y \frac{x}{p}) = \tilde{\angle}(y \frac{v}{p}), \\ \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{y}{p}) = \tilde{\angle}(x \frac{w}{p}) &\iff \tilde{\angle}(y \frac{x}{p}) = \tilde{\angle}(y \frac{w}{p}). \end{aligned}$$

Whence,  $\Leftarrow$  follows.

**2.14.** Suppose  $\angle[x_\infty \frac{y_\infty}{z_\infty}] > \alpha$ . Then we can choose  $\bar{y}_\infty \in ]x_\infty y_\infty]$  and  $\bar{z}_\infty \in ]x_\infty z_\infty]$  such that  $\tilde{\angle}(x_\infty \frac{\bar{y}_\infty}{\bar{z}_\infty}) > \alpha$ . Now choose  $\bar{y}_n \in ]x_n y_n]$  and  $\bar{z}_n \in ]x_n z_n]$  such that  $\bar{y}_n \rightarrow \bar{y}_\infty$  and  $\bar{z}_n \rightarrow \bar{z}_\infty$ . Observe that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \angle[x_n \frac{y_n}{z_n}] \geq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{\angle}(x_n \frac{\bar{y}_n}{\bar{z}_n}) = \tilde{\angle}(x_\infty \frac{\bar{y}_\infty}{\bar{z}_\infty}),$$

hence the result.

**2.17.** The Urysohn space provides an example; see, for example, [86, Lecture 2].

**2.18.** Choose a triangle  $[0vw]$ . Note that  $m = \frac{1}{2}(v+w)$  is the midpoint of  $[vw]$ .

Use comparison, to show that

$$2 \cdot |\frac{1}{2}(v+w)|^2 + 2 \cdot |\frac{1}{2}(v-w)|^2 \geq |v|^2 + |w|^2.$$

This inequality implies the opposite one; it follows if we rewrite it via  $x = \frac{1}{2}(v+w)$  and  $y = \frac{1}{2}(v-w)$ . Hence we have

$$2 \cdot |\frac{1}{2}(v+w)|^2 + 2 \cdot |\frac{1}{2}(v-w)|^2 = |v|^2 + |w|^2$$

for any  $v, w$ . That is, the norm meets the parallelogram identity. It is well known that all such norms are quadratic, and the statement follows.

**3.3.** Suppose such a point does not exist; that is, for any  $p \in \mathcal{X}$  there is a point  $p'$  such that  $r(p') \leq (1 - \varepsilon) \cdot r(p)$  and  $|p - p'| < \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot r(p)$ . Construct a sequence of points  $p_0, p_1, \dots$  such that  $p_n = p'_{n-1}$  for any  $n$ . Show that this sequence is Cauchy; denote its limit by  $p_\infty$ . Arrive at a contradiction by showing that  $r(p_\infty) \leq 0$ .

**3.6.** The space  $\mathcal{X}$  has no defined spherical model angles; therefore it has curvature  $\geq 1$ .

However,  $\mathcal{X}$  does not have curvature  $\geq 0$  since

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{x_2}^{x_1})_{\mathbb{E}^2} = \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_3}^{x_2})_{\mathbb{E}^2} = \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_3}^{x_1})_{\mathbb{E}^2} = \pi.$$

**3.7.** Suppose  $\angle[m_p^x] \neq 0$  and  $\angle[m_p^x] \neq \pi$ ; equivalently,  $\angle[m_p^x] \neq 0$  and  $\angle[m_q^x] \neq 0$ .

We can assume that  $|p - q|$  only slightly exceeds  $\pi$ , so  $|p - m| < \pi$  and  $|q - m| < \pi$ . We can also assume that  $|x - m| < \pi$ . Use the comparison to show that

$$|p - x| + |q - x| < |p - q|,$$

and arrive at a contradiction with the triangle inequality.

Extend  $[pq]$  to a maximal local geodesic  $\gamma$ . Argue as above to show that any point lies on  $\gamma$ . If  $\gamma$  is closed, then the space is isometric to a circle; otherwise, it is isometric to a line segment.

**3.8.** Arguing by contradiction, suppose

$$\textcircled{1} \quad |p - q| + |q - r| + |r - p| > 2 \cdot \pi$$

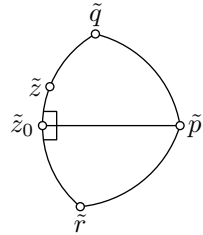
for  $p, q, r \in \mathcal{A}$ . Rescaling the space slightly, we can assume that  $\text{diam } \mathcal{A} < \pi$ , but the inequality  $\textcircled{1}$  still holds. By 3.5, after rescaling  $\mathcal{A}$  is still ALEX(1).

Take  $z_0 \in [qr]$  on maximal distance from  $p$ . Consider the following model configuration: two geodesics  $[\tilde{p}\tilde{z}_0]$ ,  $[\tilde{q}\tilde{r}]$  in  $\mathbb{S}^2$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} |\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}_0| &= |p - z_0|, & |\tilde{q} - \tilde{r}| &= |q - r|, \\ |\tilde{z}_0 - \tilde{q}| &= |z_0 - q|, & |\tilde{z}_0 - \tilde{r}| &= |z_0 - q|, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\angle[\tilde{z}_0 \tilde{q} \tilde{p}] = \angle[\tilde{z}_0 \tilde{r} \tilde{p}] = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$



Choose  $\tilde{z} \in [\tilde{q}\tilde{r}]$ , and let  $z \in [qr]$  be the corresponding point. By comparison,  $|p - z| \leq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}|$  if  $z$  lies near  $z_0$ . Moreover, this inequality holds as far as

$$|\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}_0| + |\tilde{z}_0 - \tilde{z}| + |\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}| < 2 \cdot \pi.$$

But this inequality holds for all  $\tilde{z}$  since  $|\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}_0| < \pi$ ,  $|\tilde{z}_0 - \tilde{q}| < \pi$ , and  $|\tilde{z}_0 - \tilde{r}| < \pi$ . Hence  $|p - q| \leq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{q}|$  and  $|p - r| \leq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{r}|$ . The latter contradicts **1**.

**4.1.** Suppose  $\uparrow_{[px_n]} \not\rightarrow \uparrow_{[px_\infty]}$ . Since  $\Sigma_p$  is compact, we may pass to a converging subsequence of  $\uparrow_{[px_n]}$ ; denote its limit by  $\xi$ . We may assume that  $\angle(\uparrow_{[px_\infty]}, \xi) > 0$ .

Denote by  $\gamma_n$  and  $\gamma_\infty$  the arc-length parametrization of  $[px_n]$  and  $[px_\infty]$  from  $p$ . For a geodesic  $\alpha$  that starts from  $p$  and goes in a direction sufficiently close to  $\xi$ , we have

$$|\alpha(t) - \gamma_n(t)| < \varepsilon \cdot t \quad \text{and} \quad |\alpha(t) - \gamma_\infty(t)| > a \cdot t$$

for some  $\varepsilon \ll a$ , all large  $n$  and all sufficiently small  $t$ . These two inequalities imply that

$$|\gamma_n(t) - \gamma_\infty(t)| > \frac{a}{2} \cdot t$$

for all small  $t$  and all large  $n$ . On the other hand, by assumption,  $|\gamma_n(t) - \gamma_\infty(t)| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  — a contradiction.

*Comments.* The compactness of  $\Sigma_p$  is necessary. A counterexample with noncompact  $\Sigma_p$  can be built using iterated warped product of line segments and applying [3, Theorem 1.2]. The space  $\mathcal{A}$  can be assumed to be compact.

**4.2.** Any point of Cone  $\mathcal{X}$  can be connected to the origin by a geodesic. Given a nonzero element  $v \in \text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ , denote by  $v'$  its projection in  $\mathcal{X}$ ; so,  $v = |v| \cdot v'$ .

Suppose  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\pi$ -geodesic. Choose two nonzero elements  $v, w \in \text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ ; let  $\alpha = \angle(v, w) = |v' - w'|_{\mathcal{X}}$ . If  $\alpha \geq \pi$ , then the product of geodesics  $[v0]$  and  $[0w]$  is a geodesic  $[vw]$ . If  $\alpha < \pi$ , there is a geodesic  $\gamma: [0, \alpha] \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$  from  $v'$  to  $w'$ . Consider hinge  $[\tilde{o} \frac{\tilde{v}}{w}]$  in the plane such that  $\angle[\tilde{o} \frac{\tilde{v}}{w}] = \alpha$ ,  $|\tilde{o} - \tilde{v}| = |v|$ , and  $|\tilde{o} - \tilde{w}| = |w|$ . Let  $t \mapsto (\varphi(t), r(t))$  be geodesic  $[\tilde{v}\tilde{w}]$  written in polar coordinates with origin at  $\tilde{o}$ , so that  $\varphi(0) = 0$ . Show that  $t \mapsto r(t) \cdot \gamma \circ \varphi(t)$  is a geodesic from  $v$  to  $w$ ; here we identify  $\mathcal{X}$  with the unit sphere in Cone  $\mathcal{X}$ .

To prove the converse, reverse the steps in the argument.

**4.4.** Let  $\mathcal{A}_n = \lambda_n \cdot \mathcal{A}$ . Note that for any  $n$  the space  $\Sigma_p \mathcal{A}$  is identical to  $\Sigma_{\iota_n(p)} \mathcal{A}_n$ . In particular, we can identify isometrically  $T_p \mathcal{A}$  with

$T_{\iota_n(p)}(\lambda \cdot \mathcal{A})$ . So for any geodesic  $\gamma$  that starts at  $p$ , the vector  $\gamma^+(0)$  corresponds to  $\frac{1}{\lambda_n} \cdot (\iota_n \circ \gamma)^+(0)$ .

Consider the logarithm maps  $f_n = \log_{\iota_n(p)}: \mathcal{A}_n \rightarrow T_p \mathcal{A}$ . We claim that this sequence of maps satisfies the assumptions in 1.27; the condition in (a) is evident.

It is sufficient to check the conditions in (b) and (c) only for  $R = 1$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By compactness of  $\Sigma_p$  we can find a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net  $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_N$  in  $\Sigma_p$ . Moreover, without loss of generality we can assume that these directions are geodesic; that is, there exist geodesics  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_N$  starting at  $p$  such that  $\xi_i = \gamma_i^+(0)$  for each  $i$ .

Choose  $T > 0$  such that all  $\gamma_i$  are defined on  $[0, T]$ . Show that for any  $\lambda_n > \frac{1}{T}$  the image under  $f_n$  of the union  $\bigcup_N \gamma_i([0, T])$  is an  $\varepsilon$ -net in  $B(0, 1)_{T_p}$ . This proves (c).

By comparison, we have that

$$|\xi_i - \xi_j|_{\Sigma_p} \geq \tilde{\angle}(p_{\gamma_i(t_i)}^{\gamma_i(t_i)})$$

for all  $i \neq j$  and any  $t_i, t_j \in (0, T]$ . By the definition of angle, we can assume that  $T$  has been chosen so that in addition

$$|\xi_i - \xi_j|_{\Sigma_p} \leq \tilde{\angle}(p_{\gamma_j(t)}^{\gamma_i(t)}) + \varepsilon$$

for all  $i \neq j$  and any  $t \in (0, T]$ .

By construction of the map  $f_n$  this implies that

$$\left| |x - x'|_{\mathcal{A}_n} - |f_n(x) - f_n(x')|_{T_p} \right| < \varepsilon$$

for all  $\lambda_n > \frac{1}{T}$  and all points  $x, x'$  in  $\bigcup_N \gamma_i([0, \frac{1}{\lambda_n}]) \subset B(p, 1)_{\mathcal{A}_n}$ .

Now hinge comparison and the triangle inequality imply that the same holds for arbitrary points  $x, x'$  in  $B(p, 1)_{\mathcal{A}_n}$  with  $\varepsilon$  replaced by  $3 \cdot \varepsilon$ . This verifies (b).

**4.5.** From 2.19, this inequality follows in the sense of distributions, and hence in any other sense.

**4.6.** Since angles are defined, it follows that

$$|\gamma_1(t) - \gamma_2(t)| \leq \theta \cdot t$$

for all small  $t > 0$ . Since  $f$  is  $L$ -Lipschitz, we get

$$|f(\gamma_1(t)) - f(\gamma_2(t))| \leq L \cdot \theta \cdot t,$$

and the statement follows.

**4.7;** (a) Show that we can assume there is a geodesic in the direction of  $v$ , and apply 1.11.

(b). By (a),  $\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_q(v) \leq -\max_{\xi \in \uparrow_p^q} \langle \xi, v \rangle$ . Suppose this inequality is strict for some  $v$ . We can assume that  $|v| = 1$  and there is a geodesic, say  $\gamma$  in the direction of  $v$ . Let  $\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_q(v) = -\cos \alpha_0$  for some  $\alpha_0 \in [0, \pi]$ . Note that any geodesic from  $p$  to  $q$  makes angle bigger than  $\alpha_0$  with  $\gamma$ .

The function  $f = \text{dist}_q \circ \gamma$  is Lipschitz. By Rademacher's theorem it is differentiable almost everywhere; moreover,

$$f(t) - f(0) = \int_0^t f'(t) \cdot dt.$$

Suppose  $f'(t)$  is defined. Use (a) to show that  $f'(t) = -\cos \alpha(t)$ , where  $\alpha(t)$  is the angle between  $\gamma$  and any geodesic from  $\gamma(t)$  to  $q$ . We can choose a sequence  $t_n \rightarrow 0$  such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha(t_n) \leq \alpha_0.$$

Consider a sequence of geodesics  $[p \gamma(t_n)]$ . Since the space is proper, we can pass to its convergent subsequence. Its limit is a geodesic from  $p$  to  $q$ , denote it by  $[pq]$ .

Use 2.14 to show that  $[pq]$  makes an angle at most  $\alpha_0$  with  $\gamma$  — a contradiction.

**4.9.** Let  $\gamma: [0, \ell] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  be the geodesic  $[xy]$  parametrized from  $x$  to  $y$ , and let  $\varphi = f \circ \gamma$ . Observe that

$$\varphi'(0) = \mathbf{d}_x f(\uparrow_{[xy]}) \leq \langle \uparrow_{[xy]}, \nabla_x f \rangle.$$

The same way we get  $-\varphi'(\ell) \leq \langle \uparrow_{[yx]}, \nabla_y f \rangle$ . Since  $f$  is  $\lambda$ -concave, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(y) &\leq f(x) + \varphi'(0) \cdot \ell + \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot \ell^2, \\ f(x) &\leq f(y) - \varphi'(\ell) \cdot \ell + \frac{\lambda}{2} \cdot \ell^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence the statement follows.

**4.12.** If the space is proper, then the statement follows from (b) and 2.11.

To do the general case, let us argue by contradiction. By the assumption, we can choose a point  $z$  on the extension of  $[pq]$  behind  $q$ . We can assume that  $|v| = 1$  and it is a direction of a geodesic, say  $[px]$ .

Show that there is a sequence  $x_n \in [px]$  such that  $|p - x_n| \rightarrow 0$  and  $\angle[q_p^{x_n}] > \varepsilon$  for each  $n$  and some fixed  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Observe that  $\angle[q_z^{x_n}] < \pi - \varepsilon$ ; therefore

$$|z - x_n| < |x_n - q| + |q - z| - \delta$$

for each  $n$  and some fixed  $\delta > 0$ . Pass to the limit as  $x_n \rightarrow p$  and arrive at a contradiction to the triangle inequality.

**4.13.** Note that  $|(\mathbf{d}_p f)(v) - (\mathbf{d}_p g)(v)| \leq s \cdot |v|$  for any  $v \in T_p$ . From the definition of gradient (4.8) we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\nabla_p g) &\leq \langle \nabla_p f, \nabla_p g \rangle, & (\mathbf{d}_p g)(\nabla_p f) &\leq \langle \nabla_p f, \nabla_p g \rangle, \\ (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\nabla_p f) &= \langle \nabla_p f, \nabla_p f \rangle, & (\mathbf{d}_p g)(\nabla_p g) &= \langle \nabla_p g, \nabla_p g \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |\nabla_p f - \nabla_p g|^2 &= \langle \nabla_p f, \nabla_p f \rangle + \langle \nabla_p g, \nabla_p g \rangle - 2 \cdot \langle \nabla_p f, \nabla_p g \rangle \leq \\ &\leq (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\nabla_p f) + (\mathbf{d}_p g)(\nabla_p g) - (\mathbf{d}_p f)(\nabla_p g) - (\mathbf{d}_p g)(\nabla_p f) \leq \\ &\leq s \cdot (|\nabla_p f| + |\nabla_p g|). \end{aligned}$$

**4.14.** Suppose  $|\nabla_x f| > s$ . Then we can choose a geodesic  $\gamma$  that starts at  $x$  such that  $(f \circ \gamma)^+(0) > s$ . In particular, there is  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that

$$f \circ \gamma(t) > (s + \varepsilon) \cdot t + o(t),$$

and the only-if part follows.

Now suppose  $f(y) - f(x) > s \cdot \ell + \lambda \cdot \frac{\ell^2}{2}$ , where  $\ell = |x - y|$ . Let  $\gamma: [0, \ell] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$  be a geodesic from  $x$  to  $y$ . Since  $f \circ \gamma$  is  $\lambda$ -concave, we have

$$f \circ \gamma(\ell) \leq f \circ \gamma(0) + (f \circ \gamma)^+(0) \cdot \ell + \lambda \cdot \frac{\ell^2}{2}.$$

It follows that

$$\mathbf{d}_x(\uparrow_{[xy]}) = (f \circ \gamma)^+(0) > s,$$

and by 4.10,  $|\nabla_x f| > s$ .

**5.7.** Note that  $f \circ \alpha$  is a nondecreasing function. Apply 4.7a and the definition of gradient to show that

$$-\mathbf{d}_{\alpha(t)} \text{dist}_{\alpha(t_3)}(\nabla_{\alpha(t)} f) \geq \langle \nabla_{\alpha(t)}, \uparrow_{[\alpha(t)\alpha(t_3)]} \rangle \geq \mathbf{d}_{\alpha(t)}(\uparrow_{[\alpha(t)\alpha(t_3)]}) \geq 0$$

for any  $t < t_3$ . Conclude that the function  $t \mapsto \text{dist}_{\alpha(t_3)} \circ \alpha(t)$  is noncreasing for  $t \leq t_3$ .

**5.8.** Suppose  $s > s_0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} (f \circ \hat{\alpha})^+(s_0) &= |\nabla_{\hat{\alpha}(s_0)} f| \geq \\ &\geq (d_{\hat{\alpha}(s_0)} f)(\uparrow_{[\hat{\alpha}(s_0)\hat{\alpha}(s)]}) \geq \\ &\geq \frac{f \circ \hat{\alpha}(s) - f \circ \hat{\alpha}(s_0)}{|\hat{\alpha}(s) - \hat{\alpha}(s_0)|}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $s - s_0 \geq |\hat{\alpha}(s) - \hat{\alpha}(s_0)|$ ,

$$(f \circ \hat{\alpha})^+(s_0) \geq \frac{f \circ \hat{\alpha}(s) - f \circ \hat{\alpha}(s_0)}{s - s_0},$$

which implies the statement.

**5.9.** Fix  $t$ , and let  $p = \alpha(t)$  and  $q = \beta(t)$ . Apply 5.5 to get

$$\begin{aligned} \ell^+ &\leq -\langle \uparrow_{[pq]}, \nabla_p f \rangle - \langle \uparrow_{[qp]}, \nabla_q g \rangle \leq \\ &\leq -\left(f(q) - f(p) - \lambda \cdot \frac{\ell^2}{2}\right)/\ell - \left(g(p) - g(q) - \lambda \cdot \frac{\ell^2}{2}\right)/\ell \leq \\ &\leq \lambda \cdot \ell + \frac{2 \cdot \varepsilon}{\ell}. \end{aligned}$$

Integrating this inequality, we get the second statement.

**5.13.** Choose a point  $p \in M$ . Observe that  $\text{gexp}_p^1$  provides a short map from the unit hemisphere  $\mathbb{S}_+^m$  to  $\text{diam}(M, g)$ . Composing this map with the quotient map  $\mathbb{S}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{S}_+^m$  brings us a short map  $s: \mathbb{S}^m \rightarrow \text{diam}(M, g)$ .

Since  $M$  is not homeomorphic to the sphere, the diameter sphere theorem,  $\text{diam}(M, g) \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Hence, the map  $s$  is onto.

**6.2.** Apply 4.5.

**6.3.** By the triangle inequality,

$$|\gamma(-t) - x| + |\gamma(t) - x| - 2 \cdot t \geq 0$$

for any  $t \geq 0$ . Passing to the limit as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , we get the result.

**6.7.** Suppose  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(0)$ . Observe that two half-lines in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  that start from the origin and go into directions  $x$  and  $y \in \mathcal{X}$  form a line if and only if  $|x - y|_{\mathcal{X}} \geq \pi$ . Apply the splitting theorem to show that for any  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  there is at most one point  $y$  such that  $|x - y|_{\mathcal{X}} \geq \pi$  and in this case we have equality. Conclude that  $\text{diam } \mathcal{X} \leq \pi$ .

Now choose a quadruple of points  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3 \in \mathcal{X}$ ; we will identify  $\mathcal{X}$  with the unit sphere in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ . Suppose  $|p - x_i| < \frac{\pi}{2}$  for any  $i$ . Consider the following points in the cone:  $y_i = \frac{1}{\cos |p - x_i|_{\mathcal{X}}} \cdot x_i$ , and  $q = p$ . Show that  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison for  $q, y_1, y_2, y_3$  in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$  implies  $\mathbb{S}^2$ -comparison for  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3$  in  $\mathcal{X}$ . Conclude that  $\mathcal{X}$  is locally  $\text{ALEX}(1)$ . Apply the globalization theorem (3.4).

Now assume  $\mathcal{X}$  is  $\text{ALEX}(1)$  and  $\text{diam } \mathcal{X} \leq \pi$ . By 3.8, the perimeter of any triangle in  $\mathcal{X}$  is at most  $2 \cdot \pi$ . We need to check  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison for a given quadruple of points  $q, y_1, y_2, y_3$  in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ . We can assume that none of these points is the origin; otherwise perturb them a bit.



Set  $x_i = y_i/|y_i|$  for each  $i$  and  $p = q/|q|$ ; we can assume that  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3$  are distinct in  $\mathcal{X}$ , which is the unit sphere in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ .

Assume the model triangles  $\hat{\triangle}(px_1x_2)$ ,  $\hat{\triangle}(px_2x_3)$ , and  $\hat{\triangle}(px_3x_1)$  are defined; that is, perimeters triangles  $[px_1x_2]$ ,  $[px_2x_3]$ , and  $[px_3x_1]$  are strictly less than  $2\cdot\pi$ . Note that  $\mathbb{E}^3 \stackrel{\text{iso}}{=} \text{Cone } \mathbb{S}^2$ . Use this together with the  $\mathbb{S}^2$ -comparison for  $p, x_1, x_2, x_3$  in  $\mathcal{X}$  to show that  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison holds for  $q, y_1, y_2, y_3$  in  $\text{Cone } \mathcal{X}$ .

Finally, if one of the model triangles is undefined, consider rescaling of  $\mathcal{X}$  with a coefficient  $\lambda$  slightly smaller than 1. Apply the argument above to show that the comparison holds for the corresponding points in  $\text{Cone}(\lambda\cdot\mathcal{X})$  and pass to the limit as  $\lambda \rightarrow 1$ .

*Comment.* The last part of the proof is close to the argument in 8.1.

**6.9.** Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u, u \rangle + \langle v, u \rangle + \langle w, u \rangle &\geq 0, \\ \langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, v \rangle + \langle w, v \rangle &\geq 0, \\ \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle + \langle w, w \rangle &\geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

Add the first two inequalities and subtract the last identity.

**6.13.** Apply 6.12 to show that  $\langle v, v \rangle = \langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, w \rangle$ , and use it.

**6.14.** Show and use that

$$\langle u, x \rangle + \langle v, x \rangle + \langle w, x \rangle \geq 0$$

and

$$\langle u, -x \rangle + \langle v, -x \rangle + \langle w, -x \rangle \geq 0.$$

**6.15.** Part  $\Rightarrow$  is evident. To prove part  $\Leftarrow$ , observe that

$$\langle u^*, u^* \rangle = -\langle u, u^* \rangle \leq \langle u, u \rangle$$

and since  $|u| = |u^*|$ , we have equality.

**6.18.** Apply 6.15.

**7.2.** By 7.14,  $\mathcal{A}$  is separable; that is, it contains a countable dense set of points. Apply 6.19 to this set.

**7.3.** Argue as in 3.7.

**7.4.** The only-if part is trivial. Suppose the configuration  $p, a_0, \dots, a_m \in \mathcal{A}$  meets the condition. By 6.18 the directions  $\uparrow_{[qa_0]}, \dots, \uparrow_{[qa_m]} \in \text{Lin}_q$  for G-delta dense set of points  $q \in \mathcal{A}$ . If  $q$  is sufficiently close to  $p$ , then  $\tilde{\angle}(q_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\pi}{2}$ , and therefore,  $\angle[q_{a_j}^{a_i}] > \frac{\pi}{2}$

for  $i \neq j$ . Conclude that  $\dim \text{Lin}_q \geq m$  in this case. To see this show and use that given  $m+1$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  making pairwise obtuse angles with each other any  $m$  of them must be linearly independent.

**7.7;** (a). Apply 4.2, 4.3, and 7.5.

(b). Apply 7.4 to show that  $\text{LinDim } T_p = \text{LinDim } \mathcal{A}$  (argue as in 4.3).

(c). By 7.5 for any two points  $\xi, \zeta \in \Sigma_p$  such that  $|\xi - \zeta|_{\Sigma_p} < \pi$  there is a geodesic  $[\xi\zeta]_{\Sigma_p}$ . Suppose  $|\xi - \zeta|_{\Sigma_p} \geq \pi$ , then  $T_p$  contains a line thru the origin in the directions  $\xi$  and  $\zeta$ . By (a) we can apply the splitting theorem (6.4) to  $T_p$ . We get that  $\Sigma_p$  is a spherical suspension with poles  $\xi$  and  $\zeta$ . Hence,  $|\xi - \zeta| = \pi$  and there is a geodesic  $[\xi\zeta]$ .

**7.9;** (a). By 4.5, each function  $\text{dist}_{a_i}$  is semiconcave in a small neighborhood of  $p$ . Therefore we can choose  $\lambda$  and  $r > 0$  so that  $f_{\mathbf{y}}$  is  $\lambda$ -concave in  $B(p, r)$ ; further we will assume that  $r$  is sufficiently small. Choose  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $\tilde{\angle}(x_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha$  for all  $i \neq j$ ; we may assume that  $\alpha < \frac{1}{10}$ ; in particular,

$$\textcircled{2} \quad (\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_j})(\uparrow_{[xa_i]}) \geq -\cos \tilde{\angle}(x_{a_j}^{a_i}) > \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

for  $j \neq i$ .

By the definition of gradient and 4.7a, we have

$$\begin{aligned} -(\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) &\geq \langle \uparrow_{[xa_i]}, \nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}} \rangle \geq \\ &\geq (\mathbf{d}_x f_{\mathbf{y}})(\uparrow_{[xa_i]}). \end{aligned}$$

If  $|a_i - x| > y_i$ , then

$$\mathbf{d}_x f_{\mathbf{y}} = \sigma + \varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_0},$$

where  $\sigma$  is a minimum of a subset of the following functions: 0, and  $\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_j}$  for  $0 \neq j \neq i$ . By  $\textcircled{2}$ ,

$$(\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) < -\frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \varepsilon.$$

Hence (i) holds for all sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Now assume that  $|a_i - x| - y_i = \min_j \{|a_j - x| - y_j\} < 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{d}_x f_{\mathbf{y}} &= \min_{i \in S} \{ \mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_j} \} + \varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_0} \leq \\ &\leq \mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i} + \varepsilon \cdot (\mathbf{d}_p \text{dist}_{a_0}), \end{aligned}$$

where  $j \in S$  if and only if  $|a_i - x| - y_i = |a_j - x| - y_j$ . Applying  $\textcircled{2}$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_i})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) &\geq \mathbf{d}_x f_{\mathbf{y}}(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) - \varepsilon \cdot (\mathbf{d}_x \text{dist}_{a_0})(\nabla_x f_{\mathbf{y}}) \geq \\ &\geq \left[ (\mathbf{d}_x f_{\mathbf{y}})(\uparrow_{[xa_0]}) \right]^2 - 2 \cdot \varepsilon \geq \\ &\geq \left[ \frac{\alpha}{2} - \varepsilon \right]^2 - 2 \cdot \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, (ii) holds for all sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

(b) Consider the following real-to-real functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(t) &:= \max_i \{|a_i - \alpha_{\mathbf{y}}(t)| - y_i\}, \\ \psi(t) &:= \min_i \{|a_i - \alpha_{\mathbf{y}}(t)| - y_i\}. \end{aligned}$$

Use (a), to show that for  $t \in [0, t_0]$ , we have  $\varphi^+(t) < -\frac{1}{10} \cdot \varepsilon^2$  if  $\varphi(t) > 0$  and  $\psi^+(t) > \frac{1}{10} \cdot \varepsilon^2$  if  $\psi(t) < 0$ . Conclude that  $\varphi(t_0) = \psi(t_0) = 0$ ; hence the result.

(c) A straightforward application of 5.9 and a reformulation of (b).

*Remarks.* By 5.9, that the constructed map  $\Phi$  is bi-Hölder with the exponent  $\frac{1}{2}$ . In particular, if an infinite-dimensional Alexandrov space  $\mathcal{A}$  contains a bi-Hölder copy of Euclidean ball of arbitrary dimension. It seems plausible that  $\mathcal{A}$  should contain a bi-Lipschitz copy of Euclidean ball of arbitrary dimension, but this question is open.

**7.11.** Apply the  $(n+1)$ -comparison (7.1) to show that at least one of the inequalities

$$\angle[x_{a_0}^y] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon, \dots, \angle[x_{a_m}^y] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon,$$

holds. Similarly, we get that at least one of the inequalities

$$\angle[y_{a_0}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon, \dots, \angle[y_{a_m}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon,$$

holds.

Suppose our statement does not hold for  $x$  and  $y$  in a sufficiently small neighborhood of  $p$ . It follows that

$$\angle[y_{a_0}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \angle[y_{a_0}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon.$$

Note that  $|x - y|$  is small compared to  $|a_0 - x|$  and  $|a_0 - y|$ . Therefore, the comparison contradicts 4.

By the construction,  $f$  is Lipschitz. From above, we can choose  $i > 0$  so that  $\angle[x_{a_i}^y] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon$  (if  $\angle[y_{a_i}^x] < \frac{\pi}{2} - \varepsilon$ , then swap  $x$  and  $y$ ). By comparison, there is  $c > 0$  such that  $|a_i - y| \leq |a_i - x| + c \cdot |x - y|$ . Hence  $f$  is bi-Lipschitz, and now 7.8 implies 7.10.

**7.14.** Reuse the argument from the first part of the proof of Bishop–Gromov inequality.

**7.13.** Follow the proof Bishop–Gromov inequality, plus prove the following two inequalities

$$\begin{aligned} \sinh r_2 \cdot |\log_p x - \log_p y|_{T_p} &\geq |x - y|_{\mathcal{A}} \\ \sinh r_2 \cdot |w(x) - w(y)|_{\mathcal{A}} &\geq \sinh r_1 \cdot |x - y|_{\mathcal{A}} \end{aligned}$$

for any  $x, y \in B(p, r)$ .

**7.16.** Suppose  $K$  is a compact set in  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\text{HausDim } K \geq m$ . Use the map  $w$  from the proof of the Bishop–Gromov inequality (7.12 and 7.13) to show that any open ball in  $\mathcal{A}$  contains a compact set  $K'$  such that  $\text{HausDim } K' \geq m$ .

Use this in addition to the arguments in 7.15.

**8.2.** Apply 7.4.

**8.4;** (a). Suppose  $X$  is compact. Then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  any cover of  $X$  by open  $\varepsilon$ -balls have a finite subcover. Note that the centers of these balls form an  $\varepsilon$ -net of  $X$ .

Now suppose  $X$  has a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net. Show that any sequence  $x_n$  of points in  $X$  has a subsequence such that all of its points lie in one  $\varepsilon$ -ball. Apply this statement for  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{n}$  together with the diagonal procedure.

(b). Let  $Z$  be a compact  $\varepsilon$ -net of  $X$ . By (a),  $Z$  has a finite  $\varepsilon$ -net, say  $F$ . Note that  $F$  is a  $2 \cdot \varepsilon$ -net of  $X$ . Since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, we get the result.

**8.5.** If  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is not an  $\varepsilon$ -net, then there is a point  $y$  such that  $|x_i - y| \geq \varepsilon$  for any  $i$ . Therefore  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  is not a maximal packing — a contradiction.

**8.6;** (a) Apply the Bishop–Gromov inequality (7.12).

(b) By 8.2,  $\dim \mathcal{A}_\infty \leq m$ . To show that  $\dim \mathcal{A}_\infty \geq m$ , apply 6.19 to a maximal packing and use the estimate in (a).

*Comment.* The following stronger statement holds

$$\text{vol}_m \mathcal{A}_\infty = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{vol}_m \mathcal{A}_n.$$

In other words, if  $\mathbf{K}_m \subset \text{GH}$  denotes the set of isometry classes of all compact  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces with dimension  $\leq m$ , then the function  $\text{vol}_m: \mathbf{K}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

**8.7.** Argue as in 8.3 to construct a Gromov–Hausdorff convergence of  $\bar{B}(p_n, R)_{\mathcal{A}_n}$  for given  $R > 0$ , then apply the diagonal procedure to construct the needed convergence.

**8.10.** Consider the infinite product  $\mathbb{S}^1 \times (\frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbb{S}^1) \times (\frac{1}{4} \cdot \mathbb{S}^1) \times \dots$

**8.11.** Consider the canonical metric  $g$  on the round unit sphere  $\mathbb{S}^3$  and the Hopf bundle  $\mathbb{S}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2$ . Let  $g_n$  be obtained from  $g$  by rescaling the Hopf fibers by  $\frac{1}{n}$ . Then all  $(\mathbb{S}^3, g_n)$  have nonnegative curvature and this sequence converges to the round metric on  $\mathbb{S}^2$  of radius  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Verify that this convergence provides the desired counterexample.

*Comments.*

**9.3.** Let  $V$  and  $W$  be two conic neighborhoods of a point  $p$ . Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $V \subseteq W$ ; that is, the closure of  $V$  lies in  $W$ .

Construct a sequence of embeddings  $f_n: V \rightarrow W$  such that

- ◊ For any compact set  $K \subset V$  there is a positive integer  $n = n_K$  such that  $f_n(k) = f_m(k)$  for any  $k \in K$  and  $m, n \geq n_K$ .
- ◊ For any point  $w \in W$  there is a point  $v \in V$  such that  $f_n(v) = w$  for all large  $n$ .

Once such a sequence is constructed,  $f: V \rightarrow W$  can be defined by  $f(v) = f_n(v)$  for all large values of  $n$  gives the needed homeomorphism.

The sequence  $f_n$  can be constructed recursively

$$f_{n+1} = \Psi_n \circ f_n \circ \Phi_n,$$

where  $\Phi_n: V \rightarrow V$  and  $\Psi_n: W \rightarrow W$  are homeomorphisms of the form

$$\Phi_n(x) = \varphi_n(x) * x \quad \text{and} \quad \Psi_n(x) = \psi_n(x) \star x,$$

where  $\varphi_n: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ ,  $\psi_n: W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  are suitable continuous functions; “ $*$ ” and “ $\star$ ” denote the multiplications in the cone structures of  $V$  and  $W$  respectively.

*Comment.* One may also read the original proof by Kyung Whan Kwun [52].

**9.4;** (a). Apply 9.1 and 9.2.

(b). Apply (a).

(c). Recall that the Poincaré homology sphere can be obtained as a quotient space  $\Sigma = \mathbb{S}^3/\Gamma$  by an isometric action of a finite group  $\Gamma$  — the so-called binary icosahedral group. By the double suspension theorem,  $\text{Susp}^2 \Sigma \cong \mathbb{S}^5$ . Note that  $\text{Susp}^2 \Sigma$  is an Alexandrov space and it has a point with space of directions isometric to  $\text{Susp} \Sigma$ . Observe that  $\text{Susp} \Sigma$  is not a manifold; in particular  $\text{Susp} \Sigma \not\cong \mathbb{S}^4$ . Therefore the pair  $\text{Susp}^2 \Sigma$  and  $\mathbb{S}^5$  provides the needed example.

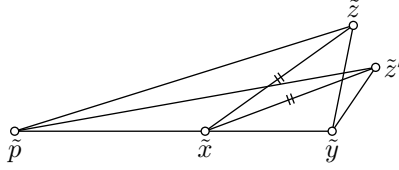
**9.6.** Apply 9.1, 9.2, and 9.5.

**9.7.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a finite-dimensional Alexandrov space. Choose  $x \in \mathcal{A}$ . By 9.1, a neighborhood  $U \ni x$  is homeomorphic to  $T_x$ . Therefore 9.6, implies that  $U \cap \partial \mathcal{A} = \emptyset \Leftrightarrow x \notin \partial \mathcal{A}$ ; that is, the complement  $\mathcal{A} \setminus \partial \mathcal{A}$  is open, and therefore,  $\mathcal{A}$  is closed.

**9.10.** Consider the model triangle  $[\tilde{x}\tilde{y}\tilde{z}'] = \tilde{\Delta}(xyz)$ .

Show that

$$|\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}| \leq |\tilde{p} - \tilde{z}'| \leq \tilde{\Upsilon}[y \stackrel{p}{z}].$$



**9.11.** Assume that  $\partial\mathcal{A}$  has at least two connected components, say  $A$  and  $B$ . Let  $\gamma$  be a geodesic that minimizes the distance from  $A$  to  $B$ .

Consider two-sided infinite sequence of copies of  $\mathcal{A}$

$$\dots, \mathcal{A}_{-1}, \mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1, \dots$$

Let us glue  $\mathcal{A}_i$  to  $\mathcal{A}_{i+1}$  along  $A$  if  $i$  is even and along  $B$  if  $i$  is odd.

By the doubling theorem, every point in the obtained space  $\mathcal{N}$  has a neighborhood that is isometric to a neighborhood of the corresponding point in  $\mathcal{A}$  or its doubling. By the globalization theorem,  $\mathcal{N}$  is ALEX(1).

The copies of  $\gamma$  in  $\mathcal{A}_i$  form a line in  $\mathcal{N}$ . By the splitting theorem,  $\mathcal{N}$  is isometric to a product  $\mathcal{N}' \oplus \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\dim \mathcal{N} > 1$ , Exercise 7.3 implies that  $\text{diam } \mathcal{N} \leq \pi$  — a contradiction.

**9.12;** (a) Apply the gradient flow as in the proof of 9.9 (part (c)<sub>m</sub> + (d)<sub>m-1</sub>  $\Rightarrow$  (d)<sub>m</sub>).

(b). We can assume that  $\dim \mathcal{A} \geq 2$ ; otherwise the statement is tivial.

Choose an interior point  $x$  on  $\gamma$ ; we can assume that  $x = \gamma(0)$ . Let  $y \in \partial\mathcal{A}$  be a closest point to  $x$ , and let  $\alpha = \angle(\uparrow_{[xy]}, \gamma^+(0))$ .

By (a), we can assume that  $x \notin \partial\mathcal{A}$ . Show that  $T_y = \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \times T_y \partial\mathcal{A}$  and  $\uparrow_{[yx]} \perp T_y \partial\mathcal{A}$ .

Given a vector  $v \in T_y$ , denote by  $\bar{v}$  its projection to  $T_y \partial\mathcal{A}$ . Apply the comparison and 5.12 to show that

$$|\gamma(t) - \text{gexp}_y(\overline{\log_x \gamma(t)})| \leq |x - y| + t \cdot \cos \alpha.$$

Conclude that  $(\text{dist}_{\partial\mathcal{A}} \circ \gamma)''(0) \leq 0$  in the barrier sense.

**9.13.** Suppose  $\gamma$  is defined on the interval  $[0, \ell]$ . Assume that the function  $\rho: t \mapsto \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2 \circ \gamma(t)$  is not 1-concave. Let  $\bar{\rho}: [0, \ell] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the minimal 1-concave function such that  $\bar{\rho} \geq \rho$ . Note that  $\bar{\rho} = \rho$  at the ends of  $[0, \ell]$ .

Consider the curve  $\bar{\gamma}(t) := \text{Flow}_f^{s(t)} \gamma(t)$ ; where  $f = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{dist}_p^2$  and  $s(t) = \ln \circ \bar{\rho}(t) - \ln \circ \rho(t)$ . Use the first distance estimate to show that  $\text{length } \bar{\gamma} < \text{length } \gamma$  and arrive at a contradiction.

*Comment.* This is the so-called Liberman's lemma; it was proved by Grigory Perelman and the second author [71] and generalizes a theorem of Joseph Liberman [62] about geodesics on convex surfaces.

**9.14.** Choose a geodesic  $\gamma$  in  $\mathcal{W}$ . Arguing as in the proof of 9.9d, we get that  $\gamma$  can cross the common boundary of two halves  $\mathcal{A}_0$  and  $\mathcal{A}_1$  of  $\mathcal{W}$  at most once, or it lies in the common boundary.

In the later case  $\lambda$ -concavity of  $f \circ \text{proj} \circ \gamma$  follows from  $\lambda$ -concavity of  $f$ . In the former case the convexity has to be checked only at the point of crossing; we may assume that it happens at  $x = \gamma(0)$ . Since  $\nabla_x f \in \partial T_x$  for any  $x \in \partial \mathcal{A}$  the  $f$ -gradient flows on  $\mathcal{A}_0$  and  $\mathcal{A}_1$  agree on the common boundary; so they induce a continuous flow on  $\mathcal{W}$ .

Assume  $f \circ \text{proj} \circ \gamma$  is not  $\lambda$ -concavity at 0. Apply the constructed flow on  $\mathcal{W}$  to shorten  $\gamma$  keeping its ends as in the proof of 9.13, and arrive at a contradiction.

**10.2.** Read [96, Section 4] and/or the solution for “Quotient of the Hilbert space” in [85].

**10.3;** (a). Choose an isometric  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action on  $\mathbb{S}^2$  that fixes the poles of the sphere. Consider the projection to the quotient space  $\sigma_1: \mathbb{S}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2/\mathbb{S}^1 = [0, \pi]$ .

(b). Take a half-circle  $\gamma$  on  $\mathbb{S}^2$  and define  $\sigma_2(x) := \text{dist}_\gamma(x)_{\mathbb{S}^2}$ .

(c). Consider the subdivision of  $\mathbb{S}^2$  into  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -orbits of the action from (a). Cut  $\mathbb{S}^2$  into two hemispheres by meridians rotate one hemisphere by an angle  $\alpha = \pi/n$  and glue it back. Observe that there is a submetry  $\sigma_n$  such that the inverse image  $\sigma_n^{-1}\{y\}$  is a union of the arcs from the original  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -orbits.

Note that for  $n = 2$  we get the solution in (b).

**10.4.** Show that for any  $x \in \mathbb{E}^2$  there is a half-line  $H \ni x$  such that the restriction  $\sigma|_H$  is an isometry. Suppose such a half-line  $H$  starts at  $p$  and passes thru  $q$ . Show that  $\langle x - p, q - p \rangle \leq 0$  for any  $x \in \sigma^{-1}\{0\}$ . Conclude that  $\sigma^{-1}\{0\}$  is a convex closed set. Use the definition of submetry to show that  $\sigma^{-1}\{0\}$  has no interior points. Make a conclusion.

**10.8;** (a). Our  $\mathbb{S}^1$  is a commutative subgroup of  $\text{SO}(3)$ . Therefore it is a subgroup of a maximal torus in  $\text{SO}(3)$ . Show that the described torus action is induced by a maximal torus in  $\text{SO}(3)$ . Use that maximal tori in  $\text{SO}(3)$  are conjugate.

(b). Cut  $\mathbb{S}^3$  into by the Clifford torus  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot (\mathbb{S}^1 \times \mathbb{S}^1)$ . Observe that the quotient of each half is a disc; conclude that  $\Sigma_{p,q}$  is a sphere. The torus action on  $\mathbb{S}^3$  induce the needed  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -action on  $\Sigma_{p,q}$ .

(c)+(d)+(e). Calculations.

(f). Consider the map  $\Sigma_{p,q} \rightarrow \Sigma_{1,1}$  that sends poles to poles, preserve the distance to the poles and respects the  $\mathbb{S}^1$ -actions.

**10.14;** (a). Suppose  $\mathfrak{M}_{m-1}(\Gamma) \geq 3$ ; that is,  $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{E}^m/\Gamma$  has at least 3 boundary components. Follow Case 3 in the proof 10.6 to glue a train-space from copies of  $\mathcal{A}$  using two of these components. Show that the obtained space splits and arrive at a contradiction.

(Alternatively, apply a similar construction to all components of the boundary. Show that the obtained space has exponential volume growth; that is, there is  $a > 1$  such that  $\text{vol } B(p, r) > a^r$  for all large  $r$ . Arrive at a contradiction with the Bishop–Gromov inequality.)

(b). Apply the doubling theorem as in Case 2 in the proof 10.6.

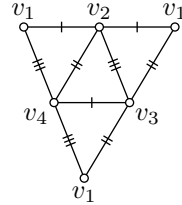
**10.16.** Show that the quotient space  $\Delta = \mathcal{A}/\mathbb{S}^1$  is an ALEX(1) disc and  $\gamma$  projects isometrically to its boundary  $\partial\Delta$ . It remains to show that the perimeter of  $\Delta$  cannot exceed  $2\pi$ . The latter follows from the Lytchak’s problem [81, 3.3.5]; it states that if  $\Delta$  is an  $m$ -dimensional ALEX(1) space, then  $\text{vol}_{m-1} \partial\Delta \leq \text{vol}_{m-1} \partial\mathbb{S}^{m-1}$ .

**11.1.** We can assume that the origin lies in the interior of the convex body. Consider the central projection from its surface, say  $\Sigma$ , to the sphere  $\mathbb{S}^2$  centered at the origin. Show that this projection  $\Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{S}^2$  is a homeomorphism.

**11.4.** Follow the argument in 11.2. Show that the inequality is strict if and only if  $F$  has opposite points.

**11.5.** Suppose a geodesic  $\gamma$  passes thru a vertex  $v$ . Denote by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  the angles that  $\gamma$  cuts at  $v$ . Since  $v$  is essential,  $\alpha + \beta < 2\pi$ . Therefore  $\alpha < \pi$  or  $\beta < \pi$ . Arrive at a contradiction by showing that  $\gamma$  is not length-minimizing.

**11.6;** (a). Cut the surface of  $T$  along three edges coming from one vertex  $v_1$  and unfold the obtained surface onto the plane. Show that this way we get a triangle, the three vertices correspond to  $v_1$  and the midpoints of sides correspond to the remaining three vertices. Make a conclusion.



(b). Let  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4 \in \mathbb{R}^3$  be the vertices of  $T$ . From (a), we have that

$$|v_1 - v_2| = |v_3 - v_4|, \quad |v_1 - v_3| = |v_2 - v_4|, \quad |v_1 - v_4| = |v_2 - v_3|.$$

Use it to show that  $\langle v_1 - v_2, v_1 + v_2 - v_3 - v_4 \rangle = 0$ . Make a conclusion.

**11.8.** We need to show that if a polyhedral surface is ALEX(0), then the total angle  $\theta$  at every vertex  $p$  is at most  $2\pi$ .

Assume that  $\theta > 2\pi$ , let  $\varphi = \max\{\pi, \frac{1}{3}\theta\}$ . We can choose three points  $x_1, x_2$ , and  $x_3$  close to  $p$  such that  $\angle[p_{x_j}^{x_i}] = \varphi$  for  $i \neq j$ . Since



the points  $x_i$  are close to  $p$ , we have  $\angle[p_{x_j}^{x_i}] = \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_j}^{x_i})$ . The latter contradicts  $\mathbb{E}^2$ -comparison.

**11.9.** We will use that the closest-point projection from the Euclidean space to a convex body is short; that is, distance-nonexpanding [78, 13.3].

Assume  $K_\infty$  is nondegenerate. Without loss of generality, we may assume that

$$\overline{B}(0, r) \subset K_\infty \subset \overline{B}(0, 1)$$

for some  $r > 0$ . Then there is a sequence  $\varepsilon_n \rightarrow 0$  such that

$$K_n \subset (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot K_\infty \quad \text{and} \quad K_\infty \subset (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot K_n$$

for each large  $n$ .

Given  $x \in K_n$ , denote by  $g_n(x)$  the closest-point projection of  $(1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot x$  to  $K_\infty$ . Similarly, given  $x \in K_\infty$ , denote by  $h_n(x)$  the closest point projection of  $(1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot x$  to  $K_n$ . Note that

$$|g_n(x) - g_n(y)| \leq (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot |x - y|$$

and

$$|h_n(x) - h_n(y)| \leq (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot |x - y|.$$

Denote by  $\Sigma_\infty$  and  $\Sigma_n$  the surface of  $K_\infty$  and  $K_n$  respectively. The above inequalities imply

$$|g_n(x) - g_n(y)|_{\Sigma_\infty} \leq (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot |x - y|_{\Sigma_n}$$

for any  $x, y \in \Sigma_n$ , and

$$|h_n(x) - h_n(y)|_{\Sigma_n} \leq (1 + \varepsilon_n) \cdot |x - y|_{\Sigma_\infty}.$$

for any  $x, y \in \Sigma_\infty$ .

By a degree argument the maps  $g_n$  and  $h_n$  are onto. Apply 1.26 and finish the proof.

Alternatively, since the closest-point projection cannot increase the length of curve, we also get

$$\begin{aligned} |x - h_n \circ g_n(x)|_{\Sigma_\infty} &\leq 10 \cdot \varepsilon_n \\ |y - g_n \circ h_n(y)|_{\Sigma_n} &\leq 10 \cdot \varepsilon_n. \end{aligned}$$

for all large  $n$ . Therefore,  $g_n$  is a  $\delta_n$ -isometry  $\Sigma_n \rightarrow \Sigma_\infty$  for a sequence  $\delta_n \rightarrow 0$ .

*Comments.* More generally, if a sequence of  $m$ -dimensional  $\text{ALEX}(\kappa)$  spaces  $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \dots$  converges to  $\mathcal{A}_\infty$  and  $\dim \mathcal{A}_\infty = m < \infty$ , then  $\partial \mathcal{A}_n$  equipped with the induced length metrics converge to  $\partial \mathcal{A}_\infty$ . This statement is a partial case of the theorem about extremal subsets proved by the second author [82, 1.2].

**11.11;** (a). By 9.13, the function  $f_p: t \mapsto \text{dist}_p \circ \gamma(t)$  is semiconcave for any  $p \in K$ . In particular, one-sided derivatives  $f_p^+(t)$  are defined for every  $t$ .

Given  $x = \gamma(t)$ , choose three points  $p_1, p_2, p_3 \in K$  in general position; that is, the four points  $x, p_1, p_2, p_3$  do not lie in one plane. Observe that the distance functions  $\text{dist}_{p_i}$  give smooth coordinates in a neighborhood of  $x$ . From above the functions  $f_{p_i}$  have one-sided derivatives at  $t$ . Since the coordinates are smooth we get that  $\gamma^+(t)$  is defined as well.

(b). If the plane  $py_1y_2$  supports  $K$ , then  $\angle[p_{y_1}^1]_{\mathbb{E}^3} = \angle[p_{x_2}^1]_S$ . In this case, the statement follows from 11.10.

Now suppose that the line segment  $[y_1y_2]_{\mathbb{E}^3}$  intersects  $K$ . Choose a geodesic  $[y_1y_2]_W$ ; note that it contains a point of  $K$ , say  $z$ . Now consider the one-parameter family of points

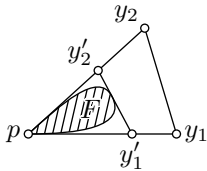
$$y_i(t) := \gamma_i(t) + \gamma_i^+(t) \cdot (1 - t).$$

This family is not necessarily continuous; note that  $y_i(0) = y_i$  and  $y_i(1) = x_i$ .

Show that for any point  $q \in K$ , the function  $t \mapsto |q - y_i(t)|_{\mathbb{E}^3}$  is nonincreasing. Conclude that the function  $t \mapsto |q - y_i(t)|_W$  is nonincreasing for any  $q \in S$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |y_1 - y_2|_W &= |y_1(0) - y_2(0)|_W = \\ &= |y_1(0) - z|_W + |y_2(0) - z|_W \geq \\ &\geq |y_1(1) - z|_W + |y_2(1) - z|_W \geq \\ &\geq |x_1 - x_2|_S. \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality follows since the closest point projection  $W \rightarrow S$  is short.



It remains to consider the case when the plane  $py_1y_2$  does not support  $K$ , and  $[y_1y_2]_{\mathbb{E}^3}$  does not intersect  $K$ . In this case the plane  $py_1y_2$  intersects  $K$  along a convex figure  $F$  that lies in the solid triangle  $py_1y_2$  and contains its vertex  $p$ .

Choose points  $y'_1 \in [py_1]_{\mathbb{E}^3}$  and  $y'_2 \in [py_2]_{\mathbb{E}^3}$  such that  $[y'_1y'_2]$  touches  $F$ . Denote by  $x'_1 \in [px_1]_S$  and  $x'_2 \in [px_2]_S$  the corresponding points; that is,  $|p - y'_1|_{\mathbb{E}^3} = |p - x'_1|_S$

and  $|p - y'_2|_{\mathbb{E}^3} = |p - x'_2|_S$ . From above, we have that  $|y'_1 - y'_2|_{\mathbb{E}^3} \geq |x'_1 - x'_2|_S$ ; in other words,

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{y'_2}^{y'_1}) \geq \tilde{\angle}(p_{x'_2}^{x'_1});$$

here we think of  $[py'_1y'_2]$  as a triangle in  $\mathbb{E}^3$ , but  $[px'_1x'_2]$  as a triangle in  $S$ . Note that

$$\tilde{\angle}(p_{y'_2}^{y'_1}) = \tilde{\angle}(p_{y_2}^{y_1}) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\angle}(p_{x_2}^{x_1}) \leq \tilde{\angle}(p_{x'_2}^{x'_1});$$

the second inequality follows from 2.8. Hence the remaining case follows.

*Comments.* Part (a) is the so-called Liberman lemma — a key tool in studying geodesics on convex surfaces. It was originally proved by Joseph Liberman [62]; the proof of 9.13 is its generalization.

Part (b) is a result of Anatolii Milka [67, Theorem 2].

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