THE DISTANCE IN COMPACT RIEMANNIAN MANIFOLDS

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ABSTRACT. In a connected Riemannian manifold one has a natural distance. A subset of the manifold is called basic if every point in M is uniquely determined by its distances to the points in the subset. We prove that every compact Riemannian manifold has a finite basic set and obtain some consequences.

1. INTRODUCTION.

Let (M,g) be a connected Riemannian manifold. Let d be the distance associated to g.

A set $B \subset M$ is called basic if every point in M is uniquely determined by its distances to the points in B.

We see (Theorem (2.1)) that every compact Riemannian manifold has a finite basic set. As a consequence a "metric number" can be associated to M. We compute some of these numbers.

2. THE DISTANCE IN A RIEMANNIAN MANIFOLD.

In what follows (M,g) will be a connected complete Riemannian manifold with metric g and d(x,y), $x,y \in M$ will be the distance function naturally associated to g.

(2.1) THEOREM. Let (M,g) be a compact Riemannian manifold. Then there exists in M a finite set of points $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$ such that if x,y are in M and $d(x, x_i) = d(y, x_i)$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, N$, then x = y.

Proof. Let p_0 be a point in M and consider $Br(p_0)$ a convex, normal, minimizing ball arround p_0 . Let X_1, \ldots, X_n (n = dim M) be a basis of M_{p_0} such that $exp_{p_0} X_i = p_i \in Br(p_0)$ and consider the functions

$$f_i(x) = (d(x,p_i))^2$$
 $i = 0,1,...,n$

We can start with r small enough in order to assure that

 d^2 : Br(p₀) × Br(p₀) \rightarrow R be C^{∞} .

With the f_i 's we form the function F: $Br(p_0) \rightarrow R^{n+1}, F = (f_0, ..., f_n)$ then we clearly have $dF|_{p_0}$ has rank n since gr $f_{i|p_0} = 2 X_i$ i = 1, 2, ..., n. By the rank theorem we have that there exists a neighborhood $B_{\varepsilon}(p_0), \varepsilon \leq r$, such that $F|B_{\varepsilon}(p_0)$ is one to one. Now we can do this for each point $p_0 \in M$ obtaining an open covering by balls $B_{\varepsilon p_0}(p_0)$ and obtain by compactness a finite number of points $\{p_0^1, p_0^2, ..., p_0^k\}$ such that $\bigcup_{u=1}^k B_{\varepsilon p_0}(p_0^j) = M$. For each of the points we have the corresponding balls $B_{r_{p_0^j}}(p_0^j)$ and in each one of them the n points $p_1^j, ..., p_n^j$ determined by the basis. We have then k(n+1) points in M.

Now take two points x,y in M such that

 $d(x,p_{i}^{j}) = d(y,p_{i}^{j})$ j = 1,...,k , i = 0,1,...,n.

Since the balls form a covering we have, for some j, $x \in B_{\epsilon_{p_0^j}}(p_0^j)$ i.e. $d(x,p_0^j) < \epsilon_{p_0^j}$ and therefore also $y \in B_{\epsilon_{p_0^j}}$. Now the function

$$F^{j}: B_{r_{p_{0}^{j}}}(p_{0}^{j}) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$$

is one to one in $B_{e_{p_0^j}}(p_0^j)$ and since $F^j(x) = F^j(y)$ we must have x=y and the theorem is proven.

An arbitrary subset $B \subset M$ with the property of the previous theorem will be called basic in M i.e. B is basic in M if for each pair $x, y \in M$

 $d(x,b) = d(y,b) \quad \forall \ b \in B \Rightarrow x = y.$

If there exists in (M,g) a finite set which is basic in (M,g) we define N(M,g) as the minimum of the cardinalities of such sets. Otherwise we write $N(M,g) = \infty$.

If a given manifold M admits a Riemannian metric g such that $N(M,g) < \infty$ we may consider all such metrics and define LN(M) = Min N(M,g).

We can make now the simple but important

(2.2) OBSERVATION. If (M,g) has a basic set A \subset M then there is a one to one continuos function $\phi: M \longrightarrow R^A$ defined by

$$[\phi(\mathbf{x})]$$
 (a) = $[\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{x})]^2$ for each $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{A}$.

In particular if M is compact and we write IN(M) for the minimum of the dimensions of the euclidean spaces in which M can be topologically imbedded (3. $\phi: M \rightarrow E^k$ one to one continuous) we have

(2.3) COROLLARY. If M is compact $IN(M) \leq N(M,g)$ for each Riemannian metric g on M. In particular $IN(M) \leq LN(M)$. We also have the following

(2.4) COROLLARY. If (M,g) is a Riemannian manifold and dim M = n then N(M,g) > n.

Proof. If $N(M,g) \leq n$ then we can find a set $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ which is basic in M and consider the one to one continuous function $\phi: M \to R^n$. Let (U,f) be a coordinate neighborhood arround a_1 . Then $R^n \supset f(U) \xrightarrow{f^{-1}} M \xrightarrow{\phi} R^n$ is one to one continuous. By invariance of domain $\phi(U)$ is open in R^n but $\phi(a_1) = (0, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$ $(r_i = d(a_1, a_i))$ is the limit in R^n of the sequence $(-\frac{1}{k}, r_2, \ldots, r_n)$ which is a contradiction.

We have now

(2.5) THEOREM. $LN(R^{n}) = LN(S^{n}) = LN(H^{n}) = n+1$.

Proof. This follows from the last corollary and the following lemma which can be proven via the cosine theorem of the corresponding trigonometry.

(2.6) LEMMA. For the usual constant curvature metrics in \mathbb{R}^n , \mathbb{S}^n and \mathbb{H}^n we have $N(\mathbb{R}^n) = N(\mathbb{S}^n) = N(\mathbb{H}^n) = n+1$.

We also have the following

(2.7) THEOREM. For the n-dimensional torus T^n we have $LN(T^n) = n+1$.

Proof. It is enough to show that for some metric g on T^n $N(T^n,g) = n + 1$.

For simplicity we shall consider only the case n=2. On T^2 we can consider several flat metrics; we shall take the one of the square i.e. $T^2 = R^2/\sim$ with the lattice generated by (1,0) and (0,1).



Let us consider the points p_0, p_1, p_2 in the torus such that the corresponding points in the plane (also denoted p_0 , p_1 and p_2) be as in Fig.1, p_0 in the center, p_1 in the parallel to the x-axis at a distance $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ from p_0 and the same p_2 on the parallel to the y-axis. We want to prove that each point in the torus is uniquely determined by its distance to these three points.

For each p_i we have its "lattice".

$$L_{p_i} = \{p_i + k_1(1,0) + k_2(0,1)\}$$

and for each p in the square we have

$$d_{T^2}(p,p_i) = d_{R^2}(p,L_{p_i})$$

where d_{T^2} and d_{R^2} mean distances in the torus and plane respectively.

Let us consider now the four regions A,B,C and D in the torus (Fig.2).



Fig.2

determined by the lines $y=\varepsilon$ and $x=\varepsilon$.

Let us take now a point p in the square and consider the following cases:

 $p \in A$. In this case we have

$$d_{p2}(p,p_i) = d_{p2}(p,p_i)$$
 $i = 0,1,2$

then the point p is uniquely determined by these three numbers, in other words, if p and q are in A and $d_{T^2}(p,p_i) = d_{T^2}(q,p_i)$ i = 0,1,2 then p = q.

Let us take now a point $\mathbf{p}\in B.$ In this case we have the following situation

$$d_{T^2}(p,p_i) = d_{R^2}(p,p_i)$$
 $i = 0,2$
 $d_{T^2}(p,p_1) = d_{R^2}(p,p_1')$ (see Fig.3)

 p'_1 is the first point to the left on L_{p_1} . There exists one and only one point q in the square such that

$$d_{R^2}(p,p_i) = d_{R^2}(q,p_i)$$
 $i = 0,2$

and clearly $q \in A$. We have to see that $d_{R^2}(p,p_1') \neq d_{R^2}(q,p_1)$. This situation is represented in Fig.3.

$$d_1^2 = d_0^2 + \varepsilon^2 - 2 d_0 \varepsilon \cos \alpha$$

$$d_1^2 = d^2 + (1 - \varepsilon)^2 - 2 d_0 (1 - \varepsilon) \cos \alpha$$

since $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ the two equations can hold simultaneously if and only if 2 d₀ cos $\alpha = 1$.



This is the equation of the vertical line $x' = \frac{1}{2}$ or of x = 1 in the system indicated in Fig.1 so the point q lies on the right boundary of the square and so p = q in the torus.

If we take a point in C the situation is clearly analogous with p'_2

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(Fig.1).

Let us take now a point p in D. We have

$$d_{T^{2}}(p,p_{0}) = d_{R^{2}}(p,p_{0})$$
$$d_{T^{2}}(p,p_{1}) = d_{R^{2}}(p,p_{1}')$$
$$d_{T^{2}}(p,p_{2}) = d_{R^{2}}(p,p_{2}')$$

It is therefore clear that in D can not exist two points with the same three numbers since the points $p_0^{}$, $p_1^{}$ and $p_2^{}$ determine uniquely every point in the plane.

Now it remains to be proven that no other point in the torus could have the same three numbers that the point p in D.

There is clearly one (and only one) point q in B such that

$$d_{R^{2}}(p,p_{1}') = d_{R^{2}}(q,p_{1}')$$
$$d_{P^{2}}(p,p_{0}) = d_{P^{2}}(q,p_{0})$$

but clearly $d_{R^2}(q,p_2) < d_{R^2}(p,p'_2)$ except when p is on the lower border of D and in this case p=q in T^2 . There is also one (and only one) point q' in C with the same distances to p_0 and p_2' but its distance to p_1 is smaller unless p is on the left border of D and in this case p = q' in T^2 .

The theorem is then proven.

The results we have seen may mislead us to think that for any Riemannian manifold M admitting a constant curvature metric LN(M) = = n+1 but in fact we have the following

(2.8) THEOREM. Let \mathbb{RP}^m be the m-dimensional real projective space. Then for $m = 2^{r} + j$, j = 0, 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, r > 3 we have

$$2m - k \leq LN(RP^m) \leq \frac{m}{2} (m+3)$$

where k is a function of j given by the following table

j	0	1	2	5	6	7
k	1	2	4	4	6	8

Proof. We need to recall the following remarkable result due to Haefliger [2] (see also [1]).

(2.9) LEMMA (Haefliger [2]). If M^m and N^n are two differentiable manifolds such that:

i) $M^{\mathbf{m}}$ imbeds topologically in $N^{\mathbf{n}}$ (i.e. there is $f: M^{\mathbf{n}} \rightarrow N^{\mathbf{n}}$ one to one which is a homeomorphism onto its image with the induced topology).

ii) $n \ge \frac{3}{2} (m+1)$.

Then there exists a differentiable imbedding of M^m into N^n .

Now there are several well known results due to various authors concerning the impossibility of imbedding \mathbb{RP}^m for $m = 2^r + j$ into \mathbb{R}^n n = 2m-k (k and j as above) see [1] p.91 for the corresponding table. These results and our observation (2.2) yield the left hand side inequality since r > 3 implies $n \ge \frac{3}{2}$ (m+1) in each case. Now the right hand side inequality can be obtained for the usual constant curvature metric by using the well-known cell structure of \mathbb{RP}^m .

In the topological category, on the other hand, the situation is much simpler as the following fact shows

(2.10) THEOREM. Let M be a compact connected topological space. Then M can be imbedded in a finite dimensional euclidean space if and only if M is metrizable and admits a distance with a finite basic set.

Proof. If M is metrizable and admits a distance with a finite basic set we obtain the imbedding as in (2.2).

On the other hand if M can be imbedded in \mathbb{R}^{N} we may assume that it is substantial now consider on M the induced distance then M is metrizable and clearly there is a basic set with N+1 points on M.

FINAL REMARK. If M is a differentiable manifold the induced distance from \mathbb{R}^{N} considered in (2.10) cannot be the distance of a Riemman nian metric on M. It seems, in fact, very hard to determine N(M,g) for the distance of the induced metric of a differentiable imbedding of M in \mathbb{R}^{N} .

It is clear however that N(M,g) must be closely related to the geometry of (M,g) being small for more "regular" metrics and larger for more complicated ones.

Clearly LN(M) has a more "topological" nature but we suspect it is

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more related to the differentiable structure of M.

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