# Every point is critical 

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#### Abstract

We show that, for any compact Alexandrov surface $S$ and any point $y$ in $S$, there exists a point $x$ in $S$ for which $y$ is a critical point. Moreover, we prove that uniqueness characterizes the surfaces homeomorphic to the sphere among smooth orientable surfaces.


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Introduction. In this paper, by surface we always mean a compact Alexandrov surface with curvature bounded below and without boundary, as defined for example in [1]. It is known that our surfaces are topological manifolds. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the space of all surfaces.

For any surface $S$, denote by $\rho$ its intrinsic metric, and by $\rho_{x}$ the distance function from $x$, given by $\rho_{x}(y)=\rho(x, y)$. A point $y \in S$ is called critical with respect to $\rho_{x}$ (or to $x$ ), if for any direction $v$ of $S$ at $y$ there exists a segment (i.e., a shortest path) from $y$ to $x$ whose direction at $y$ makes an angle $\alpha \leq \pi / 2$ with $v$. For the definition of a direction in Alexandrov surfaces, see again [1].

The survey [2] by K. Grove presents the principles, as well as applications, of the critical point theory for distance functions.

For any point $x$ in $S$, denote by $Q_{x}$ the set of all critical points with respect to $x$, and by $Q_{x}^{-1}$ the set of all points $y \in S$ with $x \in Q_{y}$. Let $M_{x}, F_{x}$ be the sets of all relative, respectively absolute, maxima of $\rho_{x}$. For properties of $Q_{x}$ and its subsets $M_{x}$ and $F_{x}$ in Alexandrov spaces, see [3], [7], and the survey [5].

Our Theorem 1 establishes that $\operatorname{card} Q_{y}^{-1} \geq 1$ for any point $y$ on any surface $S$. This lower bound is sharp, as Theorem 2 shows. We apply it to prove a Corollary, which characterizes the smooth orientable surfaces homeomorphic to the sphere.

In a forthcoming paper [4], we provide for orientable surfaces an upper bound for $\operatorname{card} Q_{y}^{-1}$ depending on the genus, and use it to estimate the cardinality of diametrally opposite sets on $S$. The case of points $y$ in orientable Alexandrov surfaces, which are common maxima of several distance functions, is treated in [6].

We denote by $T_{x}$ the space of directions at $x \in S$; the length $\lambda T_{x}$ of $T_{x}$ satisfies $\lambda T_{x} \leq 2 \pi$. If $\lambda T_{x}=2 \pi$ then $x$ is called smooth, otherwise a conical point of $S$.

There might exist a direction $\tau \in T_{x}$ such that no segment starts at $x$ in direction $\tau$. On most convex surfaces, the set of such directions $\tau$, called singular, is even residual in $T_{x}$, for each $x$ (see Theorem 2 in [8]). However, the set of non-singular directions is always dense in $T_{x}$. For those $\tau$, for which there is a geodesic $\Gamma$ with
direction $\tau$ at $x$, a so-called cut point $c(\tau)$ is associated, defined by the requirement that the arc $x c(\tau) \subset \Gamma$ is a segment which cannot be extended further beyond $c(\tau)$. The set of all these cut points is the cut locus $C(x)$ of the point $x$.

It is known that $C(x)$, if it is not a single point, is a local tree (i.e., each of its points $z$ has a neighbourhood $V$ in $S$ such that the component $K_{z}(V)$ of $z$ in $C(x) \cap V$ is a tree), even a tree if $S$ is homeomorphic to the sphere. Theorem 4 in [9] and Theorem 1 in [8] yield the existence of surfaces $S$ on which the set of all extremities of any cut locus is residual in $S$. It is, however, known that $C(x)$ has an at most countable set $C_{3}(x)$ of ramification points.

If $S$ is not a topological sphere, the cyclic part of $C(x)$ is the minimal (with respect to inclusion) subset $C^{c p}(x)$ of $C(x)$, whose removal from $S$ produces a topological (open) disk. It is easily seen that $C^{c p}(x)$ is a local tree with finitely many ramification points and no extremities. Let $C_{3}^{c p}(x)$ be the set of points of degree at least 3 in $C^{c p}(x)$. We stress that the degree is not taken in $C(x)$, but in $C^{c p}(x)$.

Recall that a tree is a set $T$ any two points of which can be joined by a unique Jordan arc included in $T$. The degree of a point $y$ of a local tree is the number of components of $K_{y}(V) \backslash\{y\}$ if the neighbourhood $V$ of $y$ is chosen such that $K_{y}(V)$ is a tree. A point $y$ of the local tree $T$ is called an extremity of $T$ if it has degree 1, and a ramification point of $T$ if it has degree at least 3 .

Results. Every point on a surface admits a critical point. It suffices, indeed, to take a point farthest from it. Conversely, is it true that every point is a critical point of some other point? Certainly, not every point on every surface is a farthest point from some other point!

Theorem 1 Every point on every surface is critical with respect to some point of the surface.

Proof. Let $S \in \mathcal{A}$ and $y \in S$. We will identify here $T_{y}$ with a Euclidean circle of centre $\mathbf{0}$ and length $\lambda T_{y} \leq 2 \pi$.

Case 1. $S$ is homeomorphic to $\mathrm{S}^{2}$.
If $C(y)$ is a single point, the conclusion is true. Suppose $C(y)$ is not a point, but remember it is a tree.

Let $x \in C(y)$. If all components of $T_{y} \backslash c^{-1}(x)$ have length at most $\pi$, then $y \in Q_{x}$. Suppose one component, $A$, has length $\lambda A>\pi$. For any non-singular $\tau \in A, c^{-1}(c(\tau)) \subset A$; let $B_{\tau}$ be the shortest subarc of $A$ including $c^{-1}(c(\tau))$ (possibly reduced to $\{\tau\}$ ). Take the midpoint $\tau_{0}$ of $A$. Then $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{conv} c^{-1}\left(c\left(\tau_{0}\right)\right)$, or $B_{\tau_{0}}=\left\{\tau_{0}\right\}$ (and $c\left(\tau_{0}\right)$ is an extremity of $\left.C(y)\right)$, or $0<\lambda B_{\tau_{0}}<\pi$, or else $c\left(\tau_{0}\right)$ is not defined.

In the first three cases, let $x^{\prime}=c\left(\tau_{0}\right)$. In the fourth case, there is a point $x^{\prime} \in C(y)$ close to $y$ with the whole set $c^{-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ close to $\tau_{0}$ and containing points on both sides of $\tau_{0}$.

In the first case, $y \in Q_{x^{\prime}}$. In the last three cases, there is a single Jordan arc $J \subset C(y)$ from $x$ to $x^{\prime}$. The multivalued mapping $z \mapsto c^{-1}(z)$ defined on $J$ is upper semicontinuous. Since, for $z \in J \backslash C_{3}(y)$ close to $x$ and $\tau \in c^{-1}(z), \lambda B_{\tau}>\pi$, and,
for $z \in J \backslash C_{3}(y)$ close to $x^{\prime}$, and $\tau \in c^{-1}(z), \lambda B_{\tau}<\pi$, there is a point $z_{0} \in J$ for which $\mathbf{0} \in \operatorname{conv}^{-1}\left(z_{0}\right)$. Hence $y \in Q_{z_{0}}$.

Case 2. $S$ is not homeomorphic to $\mathrm{S}^{2}$.
Consider a point $x \in C_{3}^{c p}(y)$, and a direction $\alpha \in c^{-1}(x)$.
Let $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+} \subset T_{y}$ be the maximal arc containing $\alpha$ such that, for each non-singular $\tau \in \alpha_{-} \alpha_{+}$, either $c(\tau) \notin C^{c p}(y)$ or $c(\tau)=x$. (The indices,-+ are taken according to a certain orientation of $T_{y}$.) Of course, $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+}$may be reduced to the singleton $\{\alpha\}$. For each $x$ we have finitely many arcs of type $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+}$.

Let $\tau \in c^{-1}\left(C^{c p}(y)\right) \backslash c^{-1}\left(C_{3}^{c p}(y)\right)$ converge to $\alpha_{-}-\left(\right.$resp. $\alpha_{+}+$). Then the point $g(\tau)$ of $c^{-1}(c(\tau))$ different from $\tau$ converges to some point $\alpha^{-}$(resp. $\alpha^{+}$), both in $c^{-1}(x)$.

Join by line-segments $\alpha^{-}$to $\alpha_{-}, \alpha_{-}$to $\alpha_{+}$, and $\alpha_{+}$to $\alpha^{+}$. Repeating this for all directions in $c^{-1}(x)$, we obtain a cycle whose edges are the line-segments $\overline{\alpha^{-} \alpha_{-}}$, $\overline{\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+}}, \overline{\alpha_{+} \alpha^{+}}$and all their analogs. And repeating the procedure for all $x \in C_{3}^{c p}(y)$, we obtain a graph, which is finite because $S$, being compact, has finite genus.

Let $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+} \subset T_{y}$ be as defined above, and $\beta_{-} \beta_{+}$an analogous arc, the two graph vertices $\alpha_{+}, \beta_{-}$being consecutive on $T_{y}$. Then $\alpha^{+}$and $\beta^{-}$are consecutive too, and we consider the cycle $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-} \beta^{-} \alpha^{+}$, with edges $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-}, \overline{\beta_{-} \beta^{-}}, \beta^{-} \alpha^{+}, \overline{\alpha^{+} \alpha_{+}}$, and all analogous cycles, in addition to the previous ones.

Moreover, consider the cycle formed by the arc $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+}$and the line-segment $\overline{\alpha_{+} \alpha_{-}}$, plus all analogous cycles.

Let $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{n}$ be all these cycles.
If $\mathbf{0} \in \cup_{j=1}^{n} C_{j}$, then $\mathbf{0}$ belongs to one of the line-segments, whence $c^{-1}(x)$ contains, for some $x \in C_{3}^{c p}(y)$, two diametrally opposite points of $T_{y}$, and we are done.

If not, consider the winding number $w\left(C_{j}\right)=w\left(\mathbf{0}, C_{j}\right)$ of every cycle $C_{j}$ with respect to $\mathbf{0}$. We have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} w\left(C_{i}\right)=w\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} C_{i}\right)=w\left(T_{y}\right)=1 \quad(\bmod 2)
$$

irrespective of the orientations, because each edge not in $T_{y}$ is used exactly twice. This shows that $w\left(C_{i}\right) \neq 0$ for some cycle $C_{i}$.

If this cycle $C_{i}$ is a cycle $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-} \beta^{-} \alpha^{+}$with $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-}$and $\beta^{-} \alpha^{+}$of the same orientation on $T_{y}$, then the proof parallels that of Case $1\left(\tau \in \alpha_{+} \beta_{-}\right.$and $g(\tau) \in \alpha^{+} \beta^{-}$move in contrary directions).

If $C_{i}$ is a cycle $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-} \beta^{-} \alpha^{+}$with $\alpha_{+} \beta_{-}$and $\beta^{-} \alpha^{+}$of contrary orientations on $T_{y}$, then $\tau$ and $g(\tau)$ move in the same direction, but $\mathbf{0}$ lies on different sides of $\tau g(\tau)$ for $\tau=\alpha_{+}$and $\tau=\beta_{-}$; this and the argument of Case 1 yield the conclusion.

If $C_{i}$ is a cycle $\alpha_{-} \alpha_{+} \cup \overline{\alpha_{+} \alpha_{-}}$, then the proof again parallels that of Case 1.
Finally, if $C_{i}$ is ones of the other cycles (with all edges line-segments), $w\left(C_{i}\right) \neq 0$ means that $\mathbf{0}$ is surrounded by $C_{i}$, which is impossible if $\mathbf{0} \notin \operatorname{conv} C_{i}$. By construction, $\operatorname{conv} C_{i}=\operatorname{conv} c^{-1}(x)$ for some $x \in C_{3}^{c p}(y)$. The proof is complete.

The following result shows that in general one cannot hope for a better lower bound. It extends Theorem 3 in [7] and admits a similar proof, which will therefore be omitted.

Theorem 2 Assume $S \in \mathcal{A}, y \in S$ is smooth, and $x \in Q_{y}^{-1}$ is such that the union $U$ of two segments from $x$ to $y$ separates $S$. If a component $S^{\prime \prime}$ of $S \backslash U$ contains no segment from $x$ to $y$ then $Q_{y}^{-1} \cap S^{\prime}=\emptyset$. In particular, if the union of any two segments from $x$ to $y$ separates $S$ then $Q_{y}^{-1}=\{x\}$.

Corollary A smooth orientable surface $S$ is homeomorphic to the sphere $S^{2}$ if and only if each point in $S$ is critical with respect to precisely one other point of $S$.

Proof. If $S$ is homeomorphic to the sphere $\mathrm{S}^{2}$ then $\operatorname{card} Q_{y}^{-1}=1$ for any point $y$ in $S$, by Theorems 1 and 2 .

Next we show that every orientable surface non-homeomorphic to $S^{2}$ contains a point $y$ with $\operatorname{card} Q_{y}^{-1}>1$.

To see this, let $\Omega$ denote a shortest simple closed curve which does not separate $S$. Then $\Omega$ is a closed geodesic. Moreover, for any of its points $z, \Omega$ is the union of two segments of length $\lambda \Omega / 2$ starting at $z$ and ending at $z_{\Omega}$. Consider the family $\mathcal{C}$ of all simple closed not contractible curves $C$ which cut $\Omega$ at precisely one point, such that $\Omega$ separates $C$ locally at $\Omega \cap C$. Then clearly $\mathcal{C} \neq \emptyset$, by the choice of $\Omega$. Let $\Omega^{\prime}$ be a shortest curve in $\mathcal{C}$; it is a closed geodesic too. Moreover, by the definition of $\mathcal{C}$ and by the choice of $\Omega^{\prime}$, the latter is the union of two segments starting at $\{y\}=\Omega \cap \Omega^{\prime}$ and ending at $y_{\Omega^{\prime}}$. It follows that $Q_{y}^{-1}$ contains at least two points, $y_{\Omega}$ and $y_{\Omega^{\prime}}$.

Open question. Every orientable surface of genus $g>0$ possesses points $x, y$ such that $y$ is critical with respect to $x$ and two segments from $y$ to $x$ have opposite directions at $y$ (see the proof of the Corollary). Is the same true for all surfaces homeomorphic to the sphere? Or, at least, if $\mathcal{A}_{0}$ denotes the space of all Alexandrov surfaces homeomorphic to the sphere, endowed with the Hausdorff-Gromov metric, is there a dense set in $\mathcal{A}_{0}$ with the above property? For a similar - still open problem concerning convex surfaces, see [10].

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