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Some remarks on Caratheodory construction of measures in metric spaces

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If we have a metric space $\boldsymbol{X}=(X, \rho)$ and AcX, then by Halmos [2] p .53 is called the $p$-dimensional Hausdorff measure of $A$, where $p \in R_{+} \mathcal{T} O \mathcal{R}(X)$ is the set of all.subsets of $X$ and $\delta(B)$ denotes the diameter of BCX. General considerations on such a definition are given in the book of Federer [1] 169-171. I will start with these considerations.
Let $\mathcal{F}$ be a family of subsets of $X$ and $5: \mathcal{F} \longrightarrow \vec{R}_{+}\left(=R_{+} \cup f(0 j)\right.$ a function on 5 . A sequence $\left(F_{i}\right)_{i \in N}$ is called an allowed C-covering of A with respect to 5 ,ff

1. $F_{i} \in \mathcal{F}$ for all iN
2. $\mathrm{F}_{i}>A$
3. $\left.\mathrm{ol}_{1}\right) \leq \varepsilon$.

If we define

$$
i_{C}(A)=\inf \left\{\sum_{m}^{\infty} \zeta\left(F_{i}\right) /\left(F_{i}\right)_{i \in N} \begin{array}{l}
\text { is allowed } C \text {-covering of } \\
A \text { with respect to } \mathcal{F}\}
\end{array}\right.
$$

so we obtain
a) $i_{g}(A) \geq i_{c^{\prime}}(A)$ for $<\leqslant c^{\prime}$
b) $i_{\varepsilon}(A \cup B)=i_{c}(A)+i_{d}(B)$ whenever $\rho(A, B)>2 \varepsilon>0$ The validity of af is obviously. To by: Let $\left(F_{i}^{A}\right)_{i \in N}$ and $\left(F_{i}^{8}\right)_{i \in N}$ be allowed $\varepsilon$-coverings of $A, B$ respectively, then $F_{1}^{1}, F_{1}^{P}, F_{2}^{A}, F_{2}^{8}, \ldots$ is an allowed $\varepsilon$-covering of AUB. Hence it holds

$$
(*) i_{\varepsilon}(A \cup B) \leqslant i_{\varepsilon}(A) \notin i_{c}(B)
$$

On the other hand let be $\rho(A, B)>2 \varepsilon$, then every allowed $\varepsilon$-covering $\left(F_{i}^{A \nu B}\right)_{i \in N}$ of $A \cup B$ consists of tow disjoint allowed $\varepsilon$-coverings $\left(F_{i}^{A}\right)_{i \in N}$ and $\left(F_{i}^{2}\right)_{i \in N}$ of $A, B$ respectively, that means
$(x \times) i_{c}(A \cup B) \geqslant i_{c}(A)+i_{c}(B)$ whenever $\rho(A, B)>2 c$. (x) and (ax) is the proof for by.
a) implies

$$
\psi(A)=\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^{+}} i_{\varepsilon}(A)=\sup _{\varepsilon>0} i_{\varepsilon}(A) \text { for all AcX }
$$

$\psi: R(X) \rightarrow \bar{R}_{+}$is an outer measure (i.e. $0 \leq \psi(A) \leq \infty$,
$\psi(\phi)=0, \psi(A) \leq \psi(B)$ for $\left.A \in B, \psi\left(\bigcup_{\infty}^{\infty} A_{i}\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \psi\left(A_{i}\right)\right)$
c) $\psi: f(X) \longrightarrow \bar{R}_{4}$ is a metric outer measure,
i.e. $\psi(A \cup B)=\psi(A)+\psi(B)$ whenever $\rho(A, B)>0$

The proof of $c$ ) is a conclusion of $b$ ), namely $\rho(A, B)>0$ implies the existence of $\epsilon_{0}>0$ such that $\rho(A, B)>\epsilon_{0}$. Then we get $i_{\ell}(f u B)-i_{\varepsilon}(A)+i_{c}(B)$ for all $\varepsilon<\mathcal{C}_{2}$, and that means $\psi(A \cup B)=\psi(A)+\psi(B)$ by definition of 4 . Let us denote by $\mathcal{A}_{4}$ the $\quad$-field of $\psi$-measurable sets (AeX is called $\psi$-measurable, iff $\psi(E)=\psi(E n A)+\psi\left(E n A^{\prime}\right)$
for all EeX). For every metric outer measure $\phi: R(X) \rightarrow \vec{R}_{+}$ holds the following
Lemma: (Federer [1] p.75, Halmos [2] p.48)
Het $\phi: k(X) \rightarrow \bar{R}_{6}$ be an outer measure on $X$, then $\mathscr{C}_{\phi}>\boldsymbol{P}(X)$ Iff $\phi$ is a metric outer measure, where 3 (X) denotes the G-field of Borelsets of $X$.
By this 1 emma it holds $\mathcal{A}_{\psi}>\boldsymbol{P}(X)$. $\psi$ id $\rightarrow \bar{R}_{4}$ is called the Caratheodory measure on $X$ with respect to $F$ and $5: F-\bar{R}_{+}$. Examples for Caratheodory measures:

1) $\zeta(F):=\delta(F)$ for all $F \in \mathcal{J}^{\sigma}$
a) $\{-\{X\}$

If $|X|=1$, then $\psi=0$. In the case $|X|\rangle 1$ it holds $\psi(A)=\infty$ for all $A<X$
b) $J=\{F / \mathrm{FCXA}|F|=1\}$, then

$$
\psi(A)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { for }|A| \leq \lambda \\ \infty & \text { for }|A|>x_{0}\end{cases}
$$

c\} $X=\left\{x / X=0 \vee X=\frac{1}{n}, n \in N\right\}, \rho(a, b)=|a-b|, \bar{F}=\{F / F a X a|F| 22\}$
then $\quad \psi(A)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { for } A=\{0\} \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$
d) $(X, \rho)=(R, \rho), F=\left\{F / F=\left\{a, b C_{A} A, b \in R\right\}\right.$, then 4 is the Lebesgue measure on $R$.
2) $\zeta(F)=\delta^{P}(F)$ For all $F \in F$ and $p \in R_{4}$ 人
a) $\bar{F}=\mathbb{R}(X)$, then $\psi$ corresponds to the $p-d i m$. Hausdorff measure $H^{p}$.
b) $\bar{J}=\{\mathrm{F} / \mathrm{F}$ is a closed ball in $X\}$, in this case $\}$ is called the $p$-dim. spherical measure over $X$.

The 1 -dim. Hausdorff measure, the 1 -dim. spherical measure
and the set of between points
Let uss start with the definition of betneen points
$x \in X$ is called between $a, b \in X, a \neq x, b \neq x$, iff

$$
\rho(a, b)=\rho(a, x)+\rho(x, b) \text {. }
$$

Let $B(a, b)$ be the set if all between points of $a, b \in X$ and $B^{x}(a, b)=B(a, b) \cup\{a, b\}$, then it holds for the reals $\rho(a, b)=\delta\left(B^{x}(a, b)\right)=\Omega\left(B^{x}(a, b)\right)=H^{1}(B(a, b))=S^{1}(B(a, b))$, where $a, b \in R, \rho$ denotes the euclidian metric on the reals, $\lambda$ the 1 -dim. Lebesgue measure and $\mathrm{S}^{1}$ the 1 -dim. spherical measure. In my lecture in Warneminde (in autumn 1977) "A special property of 1-dimensional Hausdorff measure". I asked for the validity of the equation

$$
\rho(a, b)=\delta(B(a, b))=H^{1}(B(a, b)) \text { in an arbitrary }
$$

metric space $X$. The main result was the following
1 Theorem.
Let ( $X, \rho$ ) be a complete and convex metric space (convex in he sense of Menger) and $a, b \quad X$, hen the following conditionsa e quivalent:
$1 \rho(a, b)-\delta\left(B^{x}(a, b)\right)=H^{1}(B(, b))$
is posile to connec a $d$ wi $u i$ hort $t$ rc.
$3 B$ ( $a$ b) is $n$ arc, i.e ho eo orphic to 0 1]

- nere is a unique metric segm nt $(a b)_{s} c$ nne ting a and $b$.

5 If $p, q \in B^{x}(, b)$ with $p \neq q$, then $p \in B^{x}(a q) \circ$ $\quad B^{x}(q, b)$

## Remarks:

1) An arc connecing $a, b \in X$ is a homeomorphism $f:[0,1] \overrightarrow{\text { into }} X$ such that $f(0)=a$ and $f(1)=b$.
A shortest arc connecting $a, b \in X$ is an arc $f:[0,1] \xrightarrow[\text { into }]{ } X$ connecting $a, b$ such that $l(f) \leqslant l(g)$ for all arcs $g:[0,1] \underset{\text { into }}{ } X$ connecting $a, b$, where $I(f)$ denotes the length of the arc $f$.
2) $(a, b)_{s i s}$ called a metric segm nt connecting $a, b$ iff 1. $(a, b)_{s} \subset X$ and $a, b \in(a, b)_{s}$
2. $(a, b)_{s}$ is congruent to an interval $[x, y] \in R$, i.e. there is an intervall $[x, y]$ and a metrical isomorphism $f:[x, y] \longrightarrow(a, b)_{g}$, such that $f(x)=a$ and $f(y)=b$.
Now let $(X,\| \|)$ be a n-dimensional normed vector space and

$$
K_{r}(x):=\{y / y \in X \wedge\|x-y\| \leq r\}
$$

the r-ball with the centre $x \in \mathbb{X}$, then $K_{r}(x)$ is a convex and symmetrical set. $\AA$ point $y<K_{r}(x)$ is called an extreme point of $K_{r}(x)$, iff there is not a finite line $g<K_{r}(x)$, containing $y$ in the relative interior of $g$. For example let us consider $R^{2}$ having the following two norms

1) | $x \|=\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, where $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$

In this case every point $y \in \operatorname{FrK}_{r}(x)$ is an extreme point.
2) $|x|:=\sup \left\{\left|x_{1}\right|,\left|x_{2}\right|\right\}$

Then $\mathrm{Fr}_{\mathrm{r}}(\mathrm{x})$ contains exactly four extreme points.
We obtain the following theorem as a conclusion of the theorem above.
2. Theorem:

Let ( $x, \mid \|$ ) be a n-dimensional normed vector space, then the following two conditions are equivalent:

1. $\rho(x, y)=\delta\left(B^{*}(x, y)\right)=H^{1}\left(B^{x}(x, y)\right)$ for each $x, y \in X$
2. Every point $y$ belonging to $\mathrm{Frk}_{\mathrm{r}}(\mathrm{x})$ is an extreme point of $K_{r}(x)$ for each $x \in X$ and $r>0$.
Proof: $1 \rightarrow 2$
We suppose $y_{0} \in \operatorname{PrK}_{1}(0)$ and $y_{0}$ is not extreme point of $K_{1}(0)$, hence there is a finite line $[a, b] \subset K_{1}(0)$, such that $y_{0}$ is the centre of $[a, b]$,i.e. $y_{0}=\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$. The definition $c:=a-y_{0}$ implies the following equations

$$
\|a\|=\left\|y_{0}+c\right\|=1
$$

$\|b\|=\left\|y_{0}-c\right\|=1$

$$
\left\|2 y_{0}-a\right\|=\left\|2 y_{0}-y_{0}-c\right\|=\left\|y_{0}-c\right\|=1 .
$$

On the other hand it holds: $12 y_{0} \|=2\left|y_{0}\right|=2$. Hence the $\operatorname{arcs}\left[0,2 y_{0}\right]$ and $[0, a] \cup\left[a, 2 y_{0}\right]$ are two shortest arcs connecting 0 and $2 y_{0}$. That is a contradiction to theorem 1 condition 2. (If $y_{0} \in \operatorname{PrK}_{r}(x)$ and $y_{0}$ is not extreme point, so we get a contradiction in the same way)

$$
2 \rightarrow 1
$$

- On the supposition that 1. does not hold there are two points $x, y \in X$ and tow shortest arcs $f:[0,1] \longrightarrow X, g:[0,1] \longrightarrow X$ connecting $x$ and $y$, such that $f \neq g$ and $l(f)=l(g)=\rho(x, y)$. It is possible to find $a, b \in \mathbb{X}$, such that

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a \in g([0,1]) \wedge & a \notin f([0,1]) \\
b \& g([0,1]) \wedge & b \in f([0,1]) \\
0<\tilde{r}:=l\left([x, a]_{g}\right)=l\left([x, b]_{f}\right)<\rho(x, y),
\end{array}
$$


where $l\left([x, a]_{g}\right)$ denotes the length of $g$ from $x$ to $a$ and
$\left.l([x, b]]_{f}\right)$ denotes the length of from $x$ to $b$. We ask for the distance $\rho\left(x, y_{0}\right)$ and $\rho\left(y, y_{0}\right)$, where $y_{0}=\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$. $\rho\left(x, y_{0}\right)=|x-y| \leqslant \frac{1}{2}(|x-a|+|x-b|)=\frac{1}{2}(\rho(x, a)+\rho(x, b))=\frac{1}{2}(\hat{r}+\tilde{r})=\tilde{r}$ $\rho\left(y, y_{0}\right)=\left\lvert\, y-y_{0} d \leqslant \frac{1}{2}(\rho(y, a)+\rho(y, b))=\frac{1}{2}(\rho(x, y)-\tilde{r}+\rho(x, y)-\tilde{r})=\right.$ $=\rho(x, y)-\Psi$
In the case $\rho\left(x, y_{0}\right)<\hat{r}$ we obtain for the length of the arc $\left[x, y_{0}\right] \cup\left[y_{0}, y\right]$ connecting $x$ and $y$

$$
\begin{gathered}
1\left([x, y] \cup\left[y_{0}, y\right]\right)=I\left(\left[x, y_{0}\right]\right)+I\left(\left[y_{0}, y\right]\right)=\rho\left(x, y_{0}\right)+\rho\left(y_{0}, y\right) \\
<\tilde{r}+\rho(x, y)-\underset{r}{ }=\rho(x, y), \text { i.e. } \\
I\left([x, y] \cup\left[y_{0}, y\right]\right)<\rho(x, y) .
\end{gathered}
$$

That is impossible, hence $\rho\left(x, y_{0}\right)=\tilde{r}_{0}$. That means $y_{0}$ belongs to $\mathrm{Fr}_{\mathcal{F}}(x)$ and so we get a contradiction to 2. (because $y_{0}$ is not extreme point).
Now we consider some relations between the Hausdorff measure and the spherical measure on a metric space $\boldsymbol{X}$. The following properties are well known (see Federer [1])

1. $H^{p}(A) \leq S^{p}(A)$ for all $A \subset X$ and $p \in R \checkmark\{0\}$
2. If there is a real $c \geqslant 1$ for every subset $A \subset X$, such that A is contained in a closed ball having the diameter smaller or equal $c \cdot \delta(A)$, then $S^{p}(A) \in c^{p} H^{p}(A)$. ( $c$ must be independent of $A$ )
$c=2$ fulfils the condition above. We obtain such
a real number $c$ in the $n$-dim. Euclidian space $R^{n}$ by Jungs theorem: ( Federer 2.10.41)
If $A \subset R^{n}$ and $0<\delta(A)<\infty$, then $A$ is contained in a unique closed ball with minimal diameter, which does not exceed

$$
(2 n / n+1)^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \delta(A)
$$

For example if we consider a equilateral triangle $\Delta$ in $\mathrm{m}^{2}$, then the smallest closed ball containing $\Delta$ has the diameter $2 \dot{r}$, where $r=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \delta(\Delta)$
3. If $A \subset X$ is congruent to a closed interval $[X, Y]$,
 then $S^{1}(A)=|x-y|$.
Now it is easy to prove the following theorem. 3. Theorem

For every complete and convex metric space $X$ holds:

$$
H^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=\rho(a, b) \Leftrightarrow S^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=\rho(a, b)
$$

for arbitrary $a, b \in X$.
Proof: $\Rightarrow$ "
By theorem $1 \mathrm{H}^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=\rho(a, b)$ implies: $B^{*}(a, b)$ is
congruent to a closed interval $[x, y]$ such that $\rho(a, b)=|x-y|$. Now we use property 3. and obtain $S^{1}\left(B^{x}(a, b)\right)=|x-y|=\rho(a, b)$ $\rightleftarrows^{n}$
By property 1. we have $H^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right) \leq S^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=\rho(a, b)$. On the other hand it holds $\rho(a, b) \leqslant H^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)$ in every complete and convex metric space.

## Remarks:

1) This theorem implies the validity of theoram 1 for the 1-dim. spherical measure.
2) By theorem 3 it holds $H^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=\rho(a, b)$ impliee $H^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)=S^{1}\left(B^{*}(a, b)\right)$ for every complete and convex metric space. But in general it does not hold $H^{1}(A)=S^{1}(A)$ for $A \subset X$ and ( $X, \rho$ ) complete and convex metric space. For example:
Let $\left(X, \rho\right.$ ) be the Euclidian plain $R^{2}$. We define

```
set of all points beloncing
``` to the equilateral triangle
set of all points belonging to the smaller three eqilateral triangle
\(: \quad: \quad:\)
Then it iolds: \(H^{1}(A)=1\) and \(S^{1}(A)=2 / \sqrt{3}\)

\section*{References:}
[1] H. Federer : Geometric Measure Theory, Berlin 1969
[2] P. R. Halmos : Measure Theory, New York 1950
[3] W. Rinow : Die inner Geometrie der metrischen Räume, Berlin 1961```

