# TREES AND ULTRAMETRIC SPACES: A CATEGORICAL EQUIVALENCE 

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#### Abstract

There is a well-known correspondence between infinite trees and ultrametric spaces that comes from considering the end space of the tree. The correspondence is interpreted here as an equivalence between two categories, one of which encodes the geometry of trees at infinity and the other encodes the micro-geometry of complete ultrametric spaces.


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## 1. Introduction

A close relationship between trees and ultrametric spaces has been observed for a long time. Trees model branching processes; the branching occurs as one moves away from the root of the tree towards its ends. Ultrametric spaces are those metric spaces with the unusual property that one of any two intersecting balls will contain the other. Thus, if one starts with the family of all balls of a given diameter and starts shrinking the diameter, the resulting parameterized family of balls forms a hierarchical system completely analogous to the branching in a tree. In trees the branching occurs towards infinity, whereas in ultrametric spaces the branching occurs near points.

This paper establishes a categorical equivalence, thus making the correspondence between trees and ultrametric spaces precise. Categories are introduced that capture the geometry of trees at infinity and the micro-geometry of ultrametric spaces. Thus, an important aspect of this work is to reveal the appropriate morphisms for these geometries. For trees we use isometries that need be defined only away from the root. For ultrametric spaces we use maps that change scale locally.

Since metric balls may be of any diameter, the splitting of balls in an ultrametric space may occur at any diameter. Therefore, we work in the context of so-called real trees, or $\mathbb{R}$-trees, that allow branching at all points, not just at a discrete set of points as with classical trees.

Main Theorem. There is an equivalence from the category of geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and equivalence classes of isometries at infinity, to the category of complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter and local similarity equivalences.

Complete definitions and proofs are in the body of the paper (the proof is completed in §6). An isometry at infinity between two rooted trees is just an isometry that only need be defined away from the roots; two such are equivalent if they agree sufficiently far from the root. A local similarity equivalence between metric spaces is a homeomorphism that is a similarity, or scale change, near each point (the modulus of similarity is allowed to vary from point to point).

The functor from trees to ultrametric spaces comes from end theory. The end space of a classical, locally finite simplicial tree is simply its end point, or Freudenthal, compactification with a natural metric. In general, the end space of a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree is the set of geodesic rays emanating from the root, and the set is given a natural metric.

A specialization of the morphisms in the two categories leads to an important corollary (see $\S 7$ ). For isometries at infinity between rooted trees, "uniform" indicates that the isometry must be defined on the complement of a metric ball centered at the root. For local similarities, "uniform" means that the modulus of similarity does not vary from point to point.

Corollary 1. There is an equivalence from the category of geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity, to the category of complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter and uniform local similarity equivalences.

It might seem more appropriate to study the large scale structure of trees in the context of Gromov's asymptotic geometry in which case the morphisms would be the quasi-isometries (see [Gr2], [Gr3]). Quasi-isometries of trees are indeed quite
interesting, but they do not capture the geometry discussed here. Consider the following example (see $\S 9$ ).
Example (Cantor v. Fibonacci). The Cantor tree $C$ and the Fibonacci tree $F$ are quasi-isometric (specifically, bi-Lipschitz homeomorphic), but not isometric at infinity. Their end spaces end $(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ are homeomorphic (via a Hölder continuous homeomorphism), but not isometric. In fact, there is no homeomorphism between end $(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ that is a local similarity (i.e., there is no local similarity equivalence). Thus, from the point of view of asymptotic geometry, $C$ and $F$ are the same, but from the point of view of this paper, they are quite different.

Isometries of rooted trees induce isometries on their end spaces, and the techniques used in proving the Main Theorem and its Corollary are used in $\S 8$ to establish the following result.

Corollary 2. There is an equivalence from the category of geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and rooted isometries, to the category of complete ultrametric spaces of diameter less than or equal to one and isometries.

Also in $\S 8$, a category of complete ultrametric spaces of diameter $\leq 1$ and local isometry equivalences is shown to be equivalent to a category of $\mathbb{R}$-trees. The relationship among the four pairs of categories studied in this paper is summarized in $\S 8$.

There are many related results in the literature. It is well-known that the end space of a classical tree is usually homeomorphic to a Cantor set (if it contains no isolated points), and a good reference for this is Baues and Quintero [BaQ], where the passage from trees to end spaces is also made into a categorical equivalence. They restrict attention to classical trees (as opposed to $\mathbb{R}$-trees) and the morphisms that they use, namely (proper homotopy classes of) proper homotopy equivalences, are much weaker than isometries at infinity (or quasi-isometries). As a consequence, they capture the topology, rather than the geometry, of trees at infinity, and the natural metric on the end spaces plays no role in their work.

Ghys and de la Harpe $[\mathrm{GdH}]$ did emphasize the natural metric on end spaces and showed that a quasi-isometry of trees induces a Hölder continuous and quasiconformal homeomorphism on end spaces. However, they worked in the context of classical trees and did not establish a categorical equivalence.

Choucroun [Cho] used end spaces to illuminate the connection between trees and ultrametric spaces, but did not work in the full generality of $\mathbb{R}$-trees, nor establish a categorical equivalence. Grigorchuk, Nekrashevich and Sushchanskii [GNS] discussed some of the folklore in this area. Berestovskii [Ber] has established some connections between ultrametric spaces and $\mathbb{R}$-trees from a different perspective. Lemin [Lem] has recently studied categorical aspects of ultrametric spaces.

An alternative approach to investigating the phenomena studied here is provided by Terhalle [Ter] (see also Dress and Terhalle [DT1]). Terhalle established a one-to-one correspondence between geodesically complete $\mathbb{R}$-trees and complete ultrametric spaces (a result close to Theorem 8.5 in this paper), but did not take a categorical approach.

Trees occur in the study of evolutionary branching processes, and ultrametrics occur in the theory of phylogenetic tree reconstruction. To date the emphasis has been on finite processes and finite data sets. In the finite case, the correspondence implied by the Main Theorem is well-known. For information about this active area, see Dress, Huber and Moulton [DHM], Dress and Terhalle [DT2], Durbin, Eddy, Krogh and Mitchison [DEKM], Klein and Takahata [KIT] and Rammal, Toulouse and Virasoro [RTV]. Böcker and Dress [BöD] is especially relevant to the ideas here.

The $p$-adic numbers with the $p$-adic norm provide natural examples of ultrametric spaces. Holly [Hol] constructs trees associated with the $p$-adics in order to visualize them. In this special case, this construction essentially illustrates the categorical equivalence of the Main Theorem.

As illustrated above, this paper is closely related to many others in the literature. However, this paper is unique because of the combination of the following three
elements:
(1) Not only are the objects of two categories in one-to-one correspondence, but the categories themselves are shown to be equivalent.
(2) When passing from trees to an ideal space at infinity using end theory, the natural metric on the end space is emphasized; therefore, we are studying the geometry of the tree rather than its topology.
(3) The results are set in $\mathbb{R}$-trees rather than more classical types of trees.

How noncommutative geometry can be used to study the micro-geometry of ultrametric spaces and the geometry of trees at infinity constitutes the theme of this paper and others. With the categorical equivalence in the Main Theorem and its Corollary now established, the projected papers will turn to the study of isometries of trees at infinity and to local similarities of ultrametric spaces. The new ingredient will be noncommutative geometry as developed by Connes [Con] and Renault [Ren]. An ultimate goal is to make progress on the following problem.
Problem. Classify complete ultrametric spaces up to local similarity equivalence, and uniform local similarity equivalence.

Note that, up to a scaling factor, uniform local similarity equivalence is the same as local isometry equivalence. The groupoid of local isometries on a compact ultrametric space is the subject of $[\mathrm{Hug}]$. Further comments can be found in $\S 9$.

My own interest in end theory comes from high dimensional geometric topology (see $[\mathrm{HuR}]$ ). It is expected that an analysis of the one-dimensional case (trees) will lead to new insights in higher dimensions.

This paper is organized as follows. The basic definitions related to $\mathbb{R}$-trees are recalled in $\S 2$ along with the notion of cut set. Cut sets are used in $\S 3$ to define isometries at infinity for $\mathbb{R}$-trees and their equivalence classes. The category $\mathbf{T}$ of trees appearing in the Main Theorem is defined in $\S 3$ as is the group $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}(T, v)$ of automorphisms of the object $(T, v)$. Facts about ultrametric spaces are recalled in $\S 4$ along with the definition of local similarity equivalence. Also, the second category $\mathbf{U}$ in the Main Theorem of ultrametric spaces is introduced along with the group $L S E(X)$ of automorphisms of the object $X$. The functorial passage from trees to ultrametric spaces is described in $\S 5$ along with a proof that the functor $\mathcal{E}$ of the Main Theorem is full and faithful. The rest of the proof of that $\mathcal{E}$ is an equivalence is given in $\S 6$ by showing how to naturally construct a tree from an ultrametric space. Corollary 1 is established in $\S 7$ where the categories $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ and the groups $I s o m{ }_{\infty}^{u}(T, v)$ and $L S E^{u}(X)$ are introduced. Corollary 2 is established in $\S 8$ and the Cantor and Fibonacci trees are examined in $\S 9$.

## 2. Trees

In this section we recall the definition of an $\mathbb{R}$-tree and establish some terminology and facts. We introduce the notion of a cut set for a tree, a concept that will be used in the next section for defining isometries at infinity between trees.

See Bestvina [Bes] and Chiswell [Chi] for more information about $\mathbb{R}$-trees.
Definition 2.1. A real tree, or $\mathbb{R}$-tree, is a metric space $(T, d)$ that is uniquely arcwise connected, and for any two points $x, y \in T$ the unique arc from $x$ to $y$, denoted $[x, y]$, is isometric to the subinterval $[0, d(x, y)]$ of $\mathbb{R}$.

This is not the original definition of an $\mathbb{R}$-tree, but is a characterization provided by Morgan and Shalen $[\mathrm{MoS}]$.

Classical trees are one-dimensional, simply connected simplicial complexes. Such a tree when endowed with its natural metric (a length metric with every 1-simplex isometric to the unit interval $[0,1]$ ) is an example of an $\mathbb{R}$-tree.

Lemma 2.2. If $T$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $v, w, t \in T$, then there exists $x \in T$ such that $[v, w] \cap[w, t]=[w, x]$.

Proof. Let $t_{0}=d(w, t)$ and let $f:\left[0, t_{0}\right] \rightarrow T$ be the unique isometric embedding such that $f(0)=w$ and $f\left(t_{0}\right)=t$. Let $x_{0}=\sup \left\{s \in\left[0, t_{0}\right] \mid f(s) \in[v, w]\right\}$ and let $x=f\left(x_{0}\right)$. Then $[w, x]=f\left(\left[0, x_{0}\right]\right)$. One may easily verify that $[w, x]=$ $[v, w] \cap[w, t]$.
Definition 2.3. A rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$ consists of an $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, d)$ and a point $v \in T$, called the root.

This paper is concerned with rooted trees that are purely infinite. That is, not only are the trees non-finite, but they also have no finite ends. The following definition reflects this.

Definition 2.4. A rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$ is geodesically complete if every isometric embedding $f:[0, t] \rightarrow T, t>0$, with $f(0)=v$, extends to an isometric embedding $\tilde{f}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$. In this case, we say $[v, f(t)]$ can be extended to a geodesic ray.
Lemma 2.5. If $(T, v)$ is a geodesically complete rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $g: T \rightarrow T$ is an isometry, then $(T, g(v))$ is also a geodesically complete rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree.
Proof. If $f:[0, t] \rightarrow T, t>0$, is an isometric embedding with $f(0)=g(v)$, then $g^{-1} f$ extends to an isometric embedding $h:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ and $\tilde{f}=g h$ is the desired extension of $f$.

Because roots in geodesically complete rooted trees may be "dead ends," it need not be the case that $(T, v)$ is geodesically complete implies that $(T, w)$ is geodesically complete (e.g., compare $([0, \infty), 0)$ and $([0, \infty), 1))$.

Notation 2.6. If $(T, v)$ is a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $x \in T$, let $\|x\|=d(v, x)$. Sometimes $\|x\|_{v}$ is used if the root is not clear from the context. If $r>0$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
B(v, r) & =\{x \in T \mid\|x\|<r\}, \\
\bar{B}(v, r) & =\{x \in T \mid\|x\| \leq r\}, \\
\partial B(v, r) & =\{x \in T \mid\|x\|=r\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Cut sets are the next topic of discussion. They will be needed in the definition of isometries at infinity. The idea is that cut sets allow us to talk about "at infinity" in rooted trees.

Definition 2.7. A cut set $C$ for a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$ is a subset $C$ of $T$ such that $v \notin C$ and for every isometric embedding $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ with $\alpha(0)=v$ there exists a unique $t_{0}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right) \in C$.

In other words, to go to infinity from $v$ you must pass through a unique point of $C$ (the point is unique once the path to infinity is chosen). ${ }^{1}$

[^1]Example 2.8. If $(T, v)$ is a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $r>0$, then $\partial B(v, r)$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$.
Definition 2.9. If $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ are cut sets for $(T, v)$, then $C^{\prime}$ is larger than $C$ if for every $c \in C,[v, c] \cap C^{\prime} \subseteq\{c\}$. $C^{\prime}$ is strictly larger than $C$ if for every $c \in C$, $[v, c] \cap C^{\prime}=\emptyset$.

Definition 2.10. If $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are cut sets for the geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$, then define

$$
\max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}=\left\{c \in C_{1} \mid[v, c] \cap C_{2} \neq \emptyset\right\} \cup\left\{c \in C_{2} \mid[v, c] \cap C_{1} \neq \emptyset\right\} .
$$

Lemma 2.11. $\max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$ larger than both $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$.
Proof. Let $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ be an isometric embedding such that $f(0)=v$. Then there exist unique $t_{1}, t_{2}>0$ such that $f\left(t_{1}\right) \in C_{1}$ and $f\left(t_{2}\right) \in C_{2}$. Assume without loss of generality that $t_{1} \leq t_{2}$. Then $f\left(t_{1}\right) \in\left[v, f\left(t_{2}\right)\right]$ and so $f\left(t_{2}\right) \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$. If $f\left(t_{1}\right) \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$ and $t_{1} \neq t_{2}$, then $f\left(t_{1}\right) \in C_{1} \backslash C_{2}$ and so $\left[v, f\left(t_{1}\right)\right] \cap C_{2} \neq \emptyset$, contradicting the uniqueness of $t_{2}$. Since $\max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\} \subseteq C_{1} \cup C_{2}$, we have shown that there exists a unique $t_{0}>0$ such that $f\left(t_{0}\right) \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}\left(t_{0}\right.$ is $t_{1}$ or $\left.t_{2}\right)$. Hence, $\max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$ is a cut set. To see that it is larger than $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$, it suffices to show that it is larger than $C_{1}$ (by symmetry). So suppose $c \in C_{1}$ and show $[v, c] \cap \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\} \subseteq\{c\}$. If not, then there exists $p \neq c, p \in[v, c]$ and $p \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$. It follows that $p \notin C_{1}$ (because $C_{1}$ is a cut set) so $p \in C_{2}$. Thus, $c \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$. Since also $p \in \max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$, this is a contradiction to $\max \left\{C_{1}, C_{2}\right\}$ being a cut set.

Definition 2.12. If $c$ is any point of the rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$, the subtree of $(T, v)$ determined by $c$ is

$$
T_{c}=\{x \in T \mid c \in[v, x]\}
$$

Note that $T_{c}$ is indeed a subtree of $T$ (that is to say, as a metric subspace of $T$, $T_{c}$ is a tree).

Definition 2.13. If $c$ is a point of a rooted $\mathbb{R}$ - $\operatorname{tree}(T, v)$, then $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray if $T_{c}$ is isometric to $[0, \infty)$.

Lemma 2.14. If $T$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-tree, $f_{1}:\left[0, t_{0}\right] \rightarrow T$ and $f_{2}:\left[t_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow T$ are isometric embeddings such that $f_{1}(s)=f_{2}(t)$ if and only if $s=t=t_{0}$, then $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ defined by

$$
f(t)= \begin{cases}f_{1}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq t_{0} \\ f_{2}(t) & \text { if } t_{0} \leq t\end{cases}
$$

is an isometric embedding.
Proof. It suffices to show that if $0 \leq a \leq t_{0}$ and $t_{0} \leq b$, then $d(f(a), f(b))=$ $b-a$. To this end, let $d_{0}=d(f(a), f(b))$ and let $g:\left[0, d_{0}\right] \rightarrow[f(a), f(b)]$ be the unique isometry such that $g(0)=f(a)$ and $g\left(d_{0}\right)=f(b)$. Since $T$ is uniquely arcwise connected, there exists $t_{1} \in\left[0, d_{0}\right]$ such that $g\left(t_{1}\right)=f_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)$. Then $t_{1}=$ $d\left(g(0), g\left(t_{1}\right)\right)=d\left(f_{1}(a), f_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)\right)=t_{0}-a$. Likewise, $d_{0}-t_{1}=d\left(g\left(t_{1}\right), g\left(d_{0}\right)\right)=$ $d\left(f_{2}\left(t_{0}\right), f_{2}(b)\right)=b-t_{0}$. Adding these two together gives $d_{0}=b-a$.

Lemma 2.15. If $T$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-tree, $\alpha, \beta:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ are two isometric embeddings such that $\alpha(0)=\beta(0)$ and there exist $t_{0}, t_{1}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=\beta\left(t_{1}\right)$, then $t_{0}=t_{1}$ and $\alpha(t)=\beta(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$.
Proof. First $t_{0}=d\left(v, \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right)=d\left(v, \beta\left(t_{1}\right)\right)=t_{1}$. Next, since $T$ is uniquely arcwise connected, if $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$, then there exists $t^{\prime}, 0 \leq t^{\prime} \leq t_{0}$, such that $\alpha(t)=\beta\left(t^{\prime}\right)$. The first part of the proof implies $t=t^{\prime}$.
Example 2.16. A geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree need not be complete. For example, let
$T=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid 0 \leq x<1\right.$ and $y=0$, or $x=\frac{i}{i+1}$ and $y \geq 0$ for $\left.i=1,2,3, \ldots\right\}$ with the length metric induced from the restriction of the standard metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

Figure 2

## 3. Isometries at infinity

In this section we introduce isometries at infinity between trees, define an equivalence relation on them, and prove that the resulting equivalence classes (which are essentially germs at infinity) form the morphisms in a category $\mathbf{T}$ whose objects are geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees. This is one of the two categories in the Main Theorem.

If we were considering only locally compact trees (e.g., locally finite, 1-dimensional simply connected simplicial complexes), then it would be much easier to talk about isometries at infinity (and their germs at infinity); they would be isometries defined on the complement of a compact subset of the tree (and two isometries would be equivalent if they agreed on the complement of a larger compact subset). The complement of a compact subset of a locally compact subset of a locally compact space is usually thought of as a neighborhood of infinity. In the absence of local compactness, we can use cut sets to talk about neighborhoods of infinity.

For basic information about, and terminology from, category theory, see Mac Lane [MaL].

Definition 3.1. Let $(T, v)$ and $(S, w)$ be geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees. An isometry at infinity from $(T, v)$ to $(S, w)$ is a triple $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right)$ where $C_{T}$ and $C_{S}$ are cut sets of $T$ and $S$, respectively, and $f: \cup\left\{T_{c} \mid c \in C_{T}\right\} \rightarrow \cup\left\{S_{c} \mid c \in C_{S}\right\}$ is a homeomorphism such that
(1) $f\left(C_{T}\right)=C_{S}$, and
(2) for every $c \in C_{T}, f \mid: T_{c} \rightarrow S_{f(c)}$ is an isometry.

We use the notation $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ to denote an isometry at infinity. Of course, $C_{S}$ is completely determined by $C_{T}$ so there is a bit of redundancy in the notation.

Example 3.2. Let $T$ be an $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $v, w \in T$ such that $(T, v)$ and $(T, w)$ are geodesically complete. Then there exists a subset $C$ of $T$ that is a cut set of both $(T, v)$ and $(T, w)$ and $\left(\mathrm{id}_{T}, C, C\right)$ is an isometry at infinity. For example, we can take $C=\partial B(v, 1+d(v, w))$.
Example 3.3. Let $(T, v)$ be a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and let $C$ be a cut set of $(T, v)$. If $f: T \rightarrow T$ is any isometry, then $f(C)$ is a cut set for $(T, f(v))$ and $(f, C, f(C))$ is an isometry at infinity from $(T, v)$ to $(T, f(v))$.

We need several facts about isometries at infinity and cut sets. The first is obvious and needs no further proof.
Lemma 3.4. If $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ is an isometry at infinity, then $\left(f^{-1}, C_{S}, C_{T}\right):(S, w) \rightarrow(T, v)$ is an isometry at infinity.

Lemma 3.5. If $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ is an isometry at infinity and $C$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$ larger than $C_{T}$, then $f(C)$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$ larger than $C_{S}$.

Proof. We first show that $f(C)$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$. Let $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow S$ be an isometric embedding such that $\alpha(0)=w$ and show that the image of $\alpha$ meets $f(C)$ in a unique point. Since $C_{S}=f\left(C_{T}\right)$ meets the image of $\alpha$ in a unique point, there exists a unique $c \in C_{T}$ such that $f(c) \in \alpha([0, \infty))$. Say $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=f(c)$. Since $f \mid: T_{c} \rightarrow S_{f(c)}$ is an isometry and $\alpha\left(\left[t_{0}, \infty\right)\right) \subseteq S_{f(c)}, \beta=(f \mid)^{-1} \circ \alpha \mid:\left[t_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow T_{c}$ is an isometric embedding. Let $d_{0}=d(v, c)$ and let $\gamma:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ be the isometric embedding such that $\gamma(0)=v, \gamma\left(\left[0, d_{0}\right]\right)=[v, c]$ and $\gamma(t)=\beta\left(t-d_{0}+t_{0}\right)$ if $t \geq d_{0}(\gamma$ is an isometric embedding by Lemma 2.14). Since $C$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$, there exists a unique $t_{1}>0$ such that $\gamma\left(t_{1}\right) \in C . C$ is larger than $C_{T}$ implies that $[v, c] \cap C \subseteq\{c\}$. Thus, $\gamma\left(t_{1}\right) \in T_{c}$ and $f \gamma\left(t_{1}\right) \in S_{f(c)}$. In fact, $f \gamma\left(t_{1}\right) \in$ $\alpha\left(\left[t_{0}, \infty\right)\right)$ and hence, the image of $\alpha$ meets $f(C)$ in $f \gamma\left(t_{1}\right)$. Since $\alpha([0, \infty)) \cap f(C) \subseteq$ $f\left(\gamma\left(\left[d_{0}, \infty\right)\right) \cap C\right)$, the point is unique.

To show that $f(C)$ is larger than $C_{S}$, let $p \in C_{S}$ and show $[w, p] \cap f(C) \subseteq\{p\}$. Say $p=f(a)$ with $a \in C_{T}$ ( $a$ exists because $C_{S}=f\left(C_{T}\right)$ ). Suppose $q \in[w, p] \cap f(C)$. Say $q=f(b)$ with $b \in C$. Let $x \in C_{T}$ such that $b \in T_{x}$. Then $q=f(b) \in f\left(T_{x}\right)=$ $S_{f(x)}$ and so $f(x) \in[w, q]$. Since $q \in[w, p],[w, q] \subseteq[w, p]$. Thus, $f(x) \in[w, p]$ and $p \in S_{f(x)}=f\left(T_{x}\right)$. But $p \in S_{p}=S_{f(a)}=f\left(T_{a}\right)$. Hence, $T_{x}=T_{a}, x=a$ and $p=q$.

The following result follows immediately from the previous two lemmas.
Corollary 3.6. If $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ is an isometry at infinity and $C$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$ larger than $C_{S}$, then $f^{-1}(C)$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$ larger than $C_{T}$.

Definition 3.7. Two isometries at infinity $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right)$ and $\left(f^{\prime}, C_{T}^{\prime}, C_{S}^{\prime}\right)$ from $(T, v)$ to $(S, w)$ are said to be equivalent if there exists a cut set $C_{T}^{\prime \prime}$ for $(T, v)$ larger than $C_{T}$ and $C_{T}^{\prime}$ such that for every $c \in C_{T}^{\prime \prime}$ :
(1) if $T_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then $f\left|T_{c}=f^{\prime}\right| T_{c}$,
(2) if $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray, then $f\left(T_{c}\right) \cap f^{\prime}\left(T_{c}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

The second condition in Definition 3.7 is rather technical, but necessary. Consider the tree $T=[0, \infty)$ with root 0 . Without condition (2) there would be infinitely many inequivalent isometries at infinity of $T$ to itself; however, with condition (2) there is just one equivalence class.

The equivalence class of an isometry at infinity $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right)$ is denoted by any of

$$
\left[f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right]=\left[f, C_{T}\right]=[f],
$$

the middle notation justified by the fact that $C_{S}$ is determined by $C_{T}$ and $f$; the notation $[f]$ being used only when the cut set $C_{T}$ is clear from (or irrelevant to) the context.

The next result follows from the definitions.
Lemma 3.8. If $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ is an isometry at infinity and $C$ is a cut set for $(T, v)$ larger than $C_{T}$, then $\left[f, C_{T}\right]=[f \mid, C]$ where $f \mid: \cup\left\{T_{c} \mid c \in C\right\} \rightarrow$ $\cup\left\{S_{f(c)} \mid c \in C\right\}$.

We now discuss composition of equivalence classes of isometries at infinity. Let $(R, v),(S, w)$ and $(T, x)$ be geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and let $\left[f, C_{R}\right]$ : $(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right]:(S, w) \rightarrow(T, x)$ be equivalence classes of isometries at infinity. Let $C_{S}^{\prime}=\max \left\{f\left(C_{R}\right), C_{S}\right\}, C_{R}^{\prime}=f^{-1}\left(C_{S}^{\prime}\right)$ and $C_{T}=g\left(C_{S}^{\prime}\right)$. Finally, consider the restrictions $f \mid: \cup\left\{R_{c} \mid c \in C_{R}^{\prime}\right\} \rightarrow \cup\left\{S_{c} \mid c \in C_{S}^{\prime}\right\}$ and $g \mid: \cup\left\{S_{c} \mid c \in\right.$ $\left.C_{S}^{\prime}\right\} \rightarrow\left\{T_{c} \mid c \in C_{T}\right\}$.
Lemma 3.9. With the notation just established, we have:
(1) $\left(f \mid, C_{R}^{\prime}, C_{S}^{\prime}\right):(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w),\left(g \mid, C_{S}^{\prime}, C_{T}\right):(S, w) \rightarrow(T, x)$, and $(g \mid \circ$ $\left.f \mid, C_{R}^{\prime}, C_{T}\right):(R, v) \rightarrow(T, x)$ are isometries at infinity,
(2) $\left[f, C_{R}\right]=\left[f \mid, C_{R}^{\prime}\right]$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right]=\left[g \mid, C_{S}^{\prime}\right]$,
(3) $\left[g|\circ f|, C_{R}^{\prime}\right]$ is well-defined in the sense that it depends only on $\left[f, C_{R}\right]$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right]$.

Proof. For item (1) note that Lemma 2.11 implies that $C_{S}^{\prime}$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$, and Lemmas 3.4 and 3.5 imply that $C_{R}^{\prime}$ is a cut set for $(R, v)$ (and it is larger than $C_{R}$ ). The rest of the conditions are easy to check. Items (2) and (3) follow from Lemma 3.8.

It follows from Lemma 3.9 that we may define the composition of $\left[f, C_{R}\right]$ and [ $g, C_{S}$ ] by

$$
\left[g, C_{S}\right] \circ\left[f, C_{R}\right]=\left[g|\circ f|, C_{R}^{\prime}\right]
$$

Definition 3.10. If $(T, v)$ is a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, let $I s o m_{\infty}(T, v)$ denote the group of equivalence classes of isometries at infinity from $(T, v)$ to itself.
Proposition 3.11. $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}(T, v)$ is a group.
Proof. The identity is given by $\left[\mathrm{id}_{T}, C\right]$ where $C$ is any cut set for $(T, v)$. Multiplication is given by composition as defined above. If $[f, C] \in \operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}(T, v)$, then Lemma 3.4 implies that we may define $[f, C]^{-1}=\left[f^{-1}, f(C)\right]$.

Definition 3.12. Let $\mathbf{T}$ be the category of geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and equivalence classes of isometries at infinity. The objects of $\mathbf{T}$ are geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and the morphisms are equivalence classes of isometries at infinity.

Theorem 3.13. $\mathbf{T}$ is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism.
Proof. Identities, compositions and inverses are like those given in the proof of Proposition 3.11. In fact, for each object $(T, v)$ of $\mathbf{T}, \operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}(T, v)$ is a subcategory of $\mathbf{T}$.

## 4. Ultrametric spaces and local similarity equivalences

In this section we recall the definition of an ultrametric and some of its elementary properties. Then we introduce local similarity equivalences between ultrametric spaces and prove that these form the morphisms in a category $\mathbf{U}$ whose objects are complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter. This is the second category in the Main Theorem.

Definition 4.1. If $(X, d)$ is a metric space and $d(x, y) \leq \max \{d(x, z), d(z, y)\}$ for all $x, y, z \in X$, then $d$ is an ultrametric and $(X, d)$ is an ultrametric space.

If $(X, d)$ is a metric space, $x \in X$ and $\epsilon>0$, then we use the notation $B(x, \epsilon)=$ $\{y \in X \mid d(x, y)<\epsilon\}$ for the open ball about $x$ of radius $\epsilon$, and $\bar{B}(x, \epsilon)=\{y \in$ $X \mid d(x, y) \leq \epsilon\}$ for the closed ball about $x$ of radius $\epsilon$.

The following proposition lists some well-known properties of ultrametric spaces. They are readily verified.

Proposition 4.2 (Elementary properties of ultrametric spaces). The following properties hold in any ultrametric space $(X, d)$.
(1) If two open balls in $X$ intersect, then one contains the other.
(2) If two closed balls in $X$ intersect, then one contains the other.
(3) (Egocentricity) Every point in an open ball is a center of the ball.
(4) (Closed egocentricity) Every point in a closed ball is a center of the ball.
(5) Every open ball is closed, and every closed ball is open.
(6) (ISB) Every triangle in $X$ is isosceles with a short base (i.e., if $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3} \in$ $X$, then there exists an $i$ such that $d\left(x_{j}, x_{k}\right) \leq d\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)=d\left(x_{i}, x_{k}\right)$ whenever $j \neq i \neq k$ ).

Definition 4.3. A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ between metric spaces $\left(X, d_{X}\right)$ and $\left(Y, d_{Y}\right)$ is a similarity if there exists $\lambda>0$ such that $d_{Y}(f(x), f(y))=\lambda d_{X}(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$. In this case, $\lambda$ is the similarity constant of $f$ and $f$ is a $\lambda$-similarity. A similarity equivalence is a similarity that is also a homeomorphism.

Definition 4.4. A homeomorphism $h: X \rightarrow Y$ between metric spaces is a local similarity equivalence if for every $x \in X$ there exist $\epsilon>0$ and $\lambda>0$ such that the restriction $h \mid: B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B(h(x), \lambda \epsilon)$ is a surjective $\lambda$-similarity.

Note that the similarity constants of the restrictions may vary from ball to ball.
Lemma 4.5. The inverse of a local similarity equivalence is a local similarity equivalence. The composition of two local similarity equivalences is a local similarity equivalence.

Proof. Let $h: X \rightarrow Y$ be a local similarity equivalence. If $y \in Y$, then there exist $\epsilon>0$ and $\lambda>0$ such that $h \mid: B\left(h^{-1}(y), \epsilon\right) \rightarrow B(y, \lambda \epsilon)$ is a surjective $\lambda$-similarity. It follows that $h^{-1} \mid: B(y, \lambda \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(h^{-1}(y), \epsilon\right)$ is a surjective (1/ג)-similarity, showing that inverses of local similarity equivalences are local similarity equivalences.

If, in addition, $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ is a local similarity equivalence and $x \in X$, let $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}>0$ and $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}>0$ be such that $h \mid: B\left(x, \epsilon_{1}\right) \rightarrow B\left(h(x), \lambda_{1} \epsilon_{1}\right)$ and $g \mid:$ $B\left(h(x), \epsilon_{2}\right) \rightarrow B\left(g h(x), \lambda_{2} \epsilon_{2}\right)$ are surjective $\lambda_{1}$ - and $\lambda_{2}$-similarities, respectively. Let $\epsilon=\min \left\{\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2} / \lambda_{1}\right\}$. Then $g h \mid: B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(g h(x), \lambda_{2} \lambda_{1} \epsilon\right)$ is a surjective $\left(\lambda_{2} \lambda_{1}\right)$-similarity, showing that compositions of local similarity equivalences are local similarity equivalences.

Definition 4.6. If $(X, d)$ is a metric space, let $\operatorname{LSE}(X)$ denote the group of local similarity equivalences from $X$ to itself.

The following result follows immediately from Lemma 4.5.
Proposition 4.7. $L S E(X)$ is a group.
Definition 4.8. Let $\mathbf{U}$ be the category of complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter and local similarity equivalences. The objects of $\mathbf{U}$ are complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter and the morphisms are local similarity equivalences.

Just as Proposition 4.7 follows from Lemma 4.5, so does the following result. In fact, for each object $X$ of $\mathbf{U}, \operatorname{LSE}(X)$ is a subcategory of $\mathbf{U}$.

Theorem 4.9. $\mathbf{U}$ is a category in which every morphism is an isomorphism.
Lemma 4.10. Let $h: X \rightarrow Y$ be a local similarity equivalence between two ultrametric spaces of finite diameter. Then there exist a subset $E \subset X$ and positive numbers $\lambda_{x}>0, r_{x}>0$ for each $x \in E$ such that
(1) $h \mid: \bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \rightarrow \bar{B}\left(h x, \lambda_{x} r_{x}\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda_{x}$-similarity for each $x \in E$,
(2) if $x, y \in E, x \neq y$, then $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right)=\emptyset$,
(3) $X=\cup_{x \in E} \bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)$.

Moreover, given $r_{0}>0$, we may additionally require $r_{x} \leq r_{0}$ for each $x \in E$.
Proof. For each $x \in X$ choose $\lambda_{x}>0$ for which there exists $\epsilon>0$ so that $h \mid:$ $B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(h x, \lambda_{x} \epsilon\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda_{x}$-similarity. For each $x \in X$, let

$$
\begin{gathered}
r_{x}=\frac{1}{2} \sup \left\{\epsilon>0|h|: B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(h x, \lambda_{x} \epsilon\right) \text { is a surjective } \lambda_{x}\right. \text {-similarity } \\
\text { and } \epsilon \leq \operatorname{diam} X\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that $h \mid: \bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \rightarrow \bar{B}\left(h x, \lambda_{x} r_{x}\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda_{x}$-similarity for each $x \in X$. If $x, y \in X$ and $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right) \neq \emptyset$, then one of these balls contains the other (by 4.2); say, $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \subseteq \bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right)$. In this case it follows that $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)=\bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right)$. Define an equivalence relation on $X$ by declaring $x$ and $y$ related if and only if $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)=\bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right)$. Finally, let $E$ be a set containing exactly one representative from each equivalence class. Now, if $r_{0}>0$ is given, simply replace each $r_{x}$ by $\min \left\{r_{x}, r_{0}\right\}$ in the argument above.

## 5. The end space of a tree

In this section we define the functor $\mathcal{E}$ from trees to ultrametric spaces that will be the equivalence in the Main Theorem. On objects the functor takes a rooted tree to the end space of the tree, so we begin by defining the end space of a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and its natural metric. After establishing that the end space functor $\mathcal{E}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ is indeed a functor, we prove that it is full and faithful (it is proved to be an equivalence in $\S 6$ ).

The following concept is quite well-known.
Definition 5.1. The end space of a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree $(T, v)$ is given by
$\operatorname{end}(T, v)=\{f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T \mid f(0)=v$ and $f$ is an isometric embedding $\}$.
For $f, g \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$, define

$$
d_{e}(f, g)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } f=g \\ 1 / e^{t_{0}} & \text { if } f \neq g \text { and } t_{0}=\sup \{t \geq 0 \mid f(t)=g(t)\} .\end{cases}
$$

Note that since $T$ is uniquely arcwise connected,

$$
\{t \geq 0 \mid f(t)=g(t)\}= \begin{cases}{[0, \infty)} & \text { if } f=g \\ {\left[0, t_{0}\right]} & \text { if } f \neq g\end{cases}
$$

Proposition 5.2. If $(T, v)$ is a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, then $\left(\operatorname{end}(T, v), d_{e}\right)$ is a complete ultrametric space of diameter $\leq 1$.

Proof. To check the ultrametric inequality, let $f, g, h \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$ and show that $d_{e}(f, g) \leq \max \left\{d_{e}(f, h), d_{e}(h, g)\right\}$. Without loss of generality suppose $d_{e}(f, h)=$ $e^{-t_{1}} \geq d_{e}(h, g)=e^{-t_{2}}$. Then $t_{1} \leq t_{2}, f=h$ on $\left[0, t_{1}\right]$ and $h=g$ on $\left[0, t_{2}\right]$. Thus, $f=g$ on $\left[0, t_{1}\right]$ and $d_{e}(f, g) \leq e^{-t_{1}}$. The statement about diameter is obvious.

To verify that $\left(\operatorname{end}(T, v), d_{e}\right)$ is complete, let $\left\{f_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a Cauchy sequence in end $(T, v)$. By passing to a subsequence we may assume that there is a nondecreasing sequence of integers $1 \leq i_{1} \leq i_{2} \leq i_{3} \leq \cdots$ so that $f_{i}=f_{j}$ on $[0, n]$ whenever $i, j \geq i_{n}$. Define $f:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ by setting $f\left|[0, n]=f_{i_{n}}\right|[0, n]$ for each $n$. Then $f$ is a well-defined isometric embedding and $\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} f_{i}=f$.
Proposition 5.3. Let $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ be an isometry at infinity between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees. Then there is an induced local similarity equivalence $f_{*}: \operatorname{end}(T, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. Moreover, if $\left(g, C_{T}^{\prime}, C_{S}^{\prime}\right)$ is another such isometry at infinity and $[f]=[g]$, then $f_{*}=g_{*}$.
Proof. In order to define $f_{*}$, let $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ be an element of $\operatorname{end}(T, v)$. Since $C_{T}$ is a cut set, there exists a unique $t_{0}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right) \in C_{T}$. Moreover, $\alpha\left(\left[t_{0}, \infty\right)\right) \subseteq T_{\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}$. Let $\hat{\alpha}:\left[0,\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right] \rightarrow S$ be the unique isometric embedding such that $\hat{\alpha}(0)=w$ and $\hat{\alpha}\left(\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right)=f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)$. Define

$$
f_{*}(\alpha)(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \\ f \alpha\left(t-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|+t_{0}\right) & \text { if }\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \leq t .\end{cases}
$$

It follows from Lemma 2.14 that $f_{*}(\alpha) \in \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. To see that $f_{*}$ is a local similarity equivalence, we will first show, given $\alpha$ as above, that there exist $\epsilon>0$
and $\lambda>0$ such that $f_{*} \mid: B(\alpha, \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(f_{*}(\alpha), \lambda \epsilon\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda$-similarity. Let $\epsilon=e^{-t_{0}}$ and $\lambda=e^{t_{0}-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|}$. If $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$ with $\alpha \neq \beta$ and $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)<\epsilon$, then

$$
t_{\beta}=\sup \{t \geq 0 \mid \alpha(t)=\beta(t)\}>-\ln \epsilon=t_{0} .
$$

In particular, $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)=e^{-t_{\beta}}, \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=\beta\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=f \beta\left(t_{0}\right)$. It follows that

$$
\begin{gathered}
f_{*}(\beta)(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|f \beta\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \\
f \beta\left(t-\left\|f \beta\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|+t_{0}\right) & \text { if }\left\|f \beta\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \leq t\end{cases} \\
= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \\
f \alpha\left(t-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|+t_{0}\right) & \text { if }\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \leq t \leq t_{\beta}-t_{0}+\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \\
f \beta\left(t-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|+t_{0}\right) & \text { if } t_{\beta}-t_{0}+\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \leq t .\end{cases}
\end{gathered}
$$

Hence, $\sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid f_{*} \alpha(t)=f_{*} \beta(t)\right\}=t_{\beta}-t_{0}+\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|$ and $d_{e}\left(f_{*} \alpha, f_{*} \beta\right)=$ $e^{-t_{\beta}+t_{0}-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|}=e^{t_{0}-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|} d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)=\lambda d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)$.

To see that $f_{*} \mid: B(\alpha, \epsilon) \rightarrow B\left(f_{*} \alpha, \lambda \epsilon\right)$ is surjective, let $\gamma \in B\left(f_{*} \alpha, \lambda \epsilon\right)$. Then $d_{e}\left(\gamma, f_{*} \alpha\right)<\lambda \epsilon=e^{-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|}$. It follows that $\gamma\left(\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right)=f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)$ and

$$
\gamma\left(\left[\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|, \infty\right)\right) \subseteq S_{f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}
$$

Since $f \mid: T_{\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)} \rightarrow S_{f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}$ is an isometry, we can define $\beta:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ by

$$
\beta(t)= \begin{cases}\alpha(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq t_{0} \\ \left(f \mid T_{\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}\right)^{-1} \gamma\left(t+\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|-t_{0}\right) & \text { if } t_{0} \leq t\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 2.14 implies that $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$. One can check that $\beta \in B(\alpha, \epsilon)$ and $f_{*} \beta=\gamma$ (to see that $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)<\epsilon$, as opposed to just $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta) \leq \epsilon$, use the fact that $\left.d_{e}\left(\gamma, f_{*} \alpha\right)<\lambda \epsilon\right)$.

A similar construction shows $f_{*}: \operatorname{end}(T, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$ to be surjective. Here are the details. If $\gamma \in \operatorname{end}(S, w)$, then there exists a unique $t_{\gamma}>0$ such that $\gamma\left(t_{\gamma}\right) \in$ $C_{S}$, and there exists a unique $c \in C_{T}$ such that $f(c)=\gamma\left(t_{\gamma}\right)$. Let $\hat{\gamma}:[0,\|c\|] \rightarrow T$ be the unique isometric embedding such that $\hat{\gamma}(0)=v$ and $\hat{\gamma}(\|c\|)=c$. Define $\beta:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ by

$$
\beta(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\gamma}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\|c\| \\ \left(f \mid T_{c}\right)^{-1} \gamma\left(t+\left\|\gamma\left(t_{\gamma}\right)\right\|-\|c\|\right) & \text { if }\|c\| \leq t\end{cases}
$$

To see that $f_{*}$ is injective, suppose $f_{*} \alpha=f_{*} \beta$ for some $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$. Then there eixsts $t_{1}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right) \cup \beta\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right)$ is in the domain of $f$ and $f \alpha\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right)=f \beta\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right)$. Since $f$ is a homeomorphism, it follows that $\alpha\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right)=\beta\left(\left[t_{1}, \infty\right)\right)$ and Lemma 2.15 implies that $\alpha=\beta$.

To show that $f_{*}$ is independent of the representation of $[f]$, we need the following lemma:

Lemma 5.3.1. If $c \in C_{T}$ and $x \in T_{c}$, then $\|x\|-\|c\|=\|f(x)\|-\|f(c)\|$.
Proof. $\|x \mid-\| c \|$ is the lenght of $[c, x]$ (because $[c, x] \subseteq[v, x]$ ) and $\|f(x)\|-\|f(c)\|$ is the length of $[f(c), f(x)]$. Since $[c, x] \subseteq T_{c}$, these two lengths are the same.

Returning to the proof of 5.3 , it suffices to show that the definition of $f_{*}(\alpha)$ will not change if another cut set $C_{T}^{\prime}$ for $(T, v)$ larger than $C_{T}$ is used in place of $C_{T}$. For such a cut set, there exists a unique $t_{1}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{1}\right) \in C_{T}^{\prime}$. It follows that $t_{1} \geq t_{0}, \alpha\left(t_{1}\right) \in T_{\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}$ and $f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right) \in T_{f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)}$. Let $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}:\left[0,\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|\right] \rightarrow S$ be the unique isometric embedding such that $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}(0)=w$ and $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|\right)=f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)$. The the map $f_{*}^{\prime}(\alpha):[0, \infty) \rightarrow S$ given by

$$
f_{*}^{\prime}(\alpha)(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\| \\ f \alpha\left(t-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|+t_{1}\right) & \text { if }\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\| \leq t\end{cases}
$$

is how $f_{*}(\alpha)$ would be defined if $C_{T}^{\prime}$ were used in place of $C_{T}$. However, since $S$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right)=f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)$, it follows that $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime} \mid\left[0,\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right]=\hat{\alpha}$. Moreover, Lemma 5.3.1 implies that

$$
t_{1}-t_{0}=\left\|\alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|-\left\|\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|=\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|
$$

and, hence, $t_{1}-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{1}\right)\right\|=t_{0}-\left\|f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|$. It follows that $f_{*}^{\prime}(\alpha)=f_{*}(\alpha)$ and $f_{*}^{\prime}=f_{*}$.
Definition 5.4. Define $\mathcal{E}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ by $\mathcal{E}(T, v)=\operatorname{end}(T, v)$ for every geodesically complete rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, and $\mathcal{E}([f])=f_{*}$ for every equivalence class of an isometry at infinity.

Proposition 5.5. $\mathcal{E}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ is a full and faithful functor.
Proof. We begin with the functorial properties. Clearly $\mathcal{E}\left(\mathrm{id}_{(T, v)}\right)=\mathrm{id}_{\text {end }(T, v)}$. Now suppose $\left[f, C_{R}\right]:(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right]:(S, w) \rightarrow(T, x)$ are equivalence classes of isometries at infinity. By passing to larger cut sets, we may assume that $f\left(C_{R}\right)=C_{S}$. Thus, $g \circ f$ is defined and we need to show that $g_{*} f_{*}=(g f)_{*}: \operatorname{end}(R, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(T, x)$. Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ be given. Let $t_{0}$ be the unique number such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right) \in C_{R}$. Let $\beta:\left[0,\left\|g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|\right] \rightarrow T$ be the unique isometric embedding such that $\beta(0)=x$ and $\beta\left(\left\|g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|=g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right.$. Then one may check that

$$
g_{*} f_{*}(\alpha)(t)=(g f)_{*}(\alpha)(t)= \begin{cases}\beta(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \\ g f \alpha\left(t-\left\|g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\|+t_{0}\right) & \text { if }\left\|g f \alpha\left(t_{0}\right)\right\| \leq t,\end{cases}
$$

concluding the proof that $\mathcal{E}$ is a functor.
To show that $\mathcal{E}$ is full, suppose $(R, v)$ and $(S, w)$ are two geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees for which there exists a local similarity equivalence

$$
h: \operatorname{end}(R, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w) .
$$

We need to find an isometry at infinity $\left(f, C_{R}, C_{S}\right):(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ such that $f_{*}=h$. If $\operatorname{end}(R, v)$ and $\operatorname{end}(S, w)$ each consist of a single point, then $R$ and $S$ are each isolated rays, and the desired result is immediate. Hence, we assume that $\operatorname{end}(R, v)$ and $\operatorname{end}(S, w)$ each contain more than a single point. By Lemma 4.10 there exist a subset $E \subseteq e n d(R, v)$ and positive numbers $\lambda_{\alpha}>0, r_{\alpha}>0$ for each $\alpha \in E$ such that
(1) $h \mid \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right) \rightarrow \bar{B}\left(h \alpha, \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda_{\alpha}$-similarity for every $\alpha \in E$,
(2) if $\alpha, \beta \in E, \alpha \neq \beta$, then $\bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(\beta, r_{\beta}\right)=\emptyset$,
(3) $\operatorname{end}(R, v)=\cup_{\alpha \in E} \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right)$,
(4) $r_{\alpha}<\operatorname{diam} \operatorname{end}(R, v) \leq 1$ for each $\alpha \in E$.

Note that since $\operatorname{end}(R, v)$ and $(S, w)$ each contain more than a single point and $r_{\alpha}<\operatorname{diam} \operatorname{end}(R, v)$, it follows that $\lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}<\operatorname{diam} \operatorname{end}(S, w) \leq 1$. Thus, $\lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}<1$ for each $\alpha \in E$.

Let $C_{R}=\left\{\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right) \mid \alpha \in E\right\}$. We claim that $C_{R}$ is a cut set for $(R, v)$. To prove this, let $\beta:[0, \infty) \rightarrow R$ be an isometric embedding for which $\beta(0)=v$. Then $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ so there exists $\alpha \in E$ such that $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta) \leq r_{\alpha}$, which is to say $\alpha(t)=\beta(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq-\ln r_{\alpha}$. In particular, $\beta\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)=\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right) \in C_{R}$. To show uniqueness, suppose $t_{0}>0$ and $\beta\left(t_{0}\right) \in C_{R}$. Then $\beta\left(t_{0}\right)=\alpha^{\prime}\left(-\ln r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)$ for some $\alpha^{\prime} \in E$; hence, $t_{0}=-\ln r_{\alpha^{\prime}}$ and $\alpha^{\prime}(t)=\beta(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$ (by Lemma 2.15). If $t_{0} \neq-\ln r_{\alpha}$, then either $t_{0}<-\ln r_{\alpha}$ or $-\ln r_{\alpha}<t_{0}$. In the first case, $\alpha \in \bar{B}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)$ and, in the second case, $\alpha^{\prime} \in \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right)$. In either case, $\bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \neq \emptyset$ implying $\alpha=\alpha^{\prime}$ and $t_{0}=-\ln r_{\alpha}$. This completes the proof that $C_{R}$ is a cut set for $(R, v)$.

Let $C_{S}=\left\{(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right) \mid \alpha \in E\right\}$. We claim that $C_{S}$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$. First note that, under our assumptions, $0<\lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}<1$ so that $-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha} \geq 0$ for each $\alpha \in E$. Now suppose $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. Then $h^{-1} \beta \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ and so there exists a unique $\alpha \in E$ such that $h^{-1} \beta \in \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right)$. Thus, $d_{e}\left(\alpha, h^{-1} \beta\right) \leq r_{\alpha}$ and $d_{e}(h \alpha, \beta)=\lambda_{\alpha} d_{e}\left(\alpha, h^{-1} \beta\right) \leq \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$, which is to say $(h \alpha)(t)=\beta(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$. In particular, $\beta\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)=(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right) \in C_{S}$. To show uniqueness, suppose $t_{0}>0$ and $\beta\left(t_{0}\right) \in C_{S}$. Then $\beta\left(t_{0}\right)=\left(h \alpha^{\prime}\right)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha^{\prime}} r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)$ for some $\alpha^{\prime} \in E$; hence, $t_{0}=-\ln \lambda_{\alpha^{\prime}} r_{\alpha^{\prime}}$ and $\left(h \alpha^{\prime}\right)(t)=\beta(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$ (by Lemma 2.15). If $t_{0} \neq-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$, then either $t_{0}<-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$ or $-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}<t_{0}$. In the first case, $h \alpha \in \bar{B}\left(h \alpha^{\prime}, \lambda_{\alpha^{\prime}} r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right)$ and, in the second case, $h \alpha^{\prime} \in \bar{B}\left(h \alpha, \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)$. In either case, $\bar{B}\left(h \alpha, \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(h \alpha^{\prime}, \lambda_{\alpha^{\prime}} r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \neq \emptyset$ implying that $\bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(\alpha^{\prime}, r_{\alpha^{\prime}}\right) \neq \emptyset$ and, thus, $\alpha=\alpha^{\prime}$ and $t_{0}=-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$. This completes the proof that $C_{S}$ is a cut set for $(S, w)$.

Now note that there is a bijection $C_{R} \rightarrow C_{S}$ given by

$$
\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right) \mapsto(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)
$$

for $\alpha \in E$; in fact, only injectivity needs to be checked. So suppose $\alpha, \beta \in E$ and $(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)=(h \beta)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\beta} r_{\beta}\right)$. Then Lemma 2.15 implies $-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}=$ $-\ln \lambda_{\beta} r_{\beta}$ and $(h \alpha)(t)=(h \beta)(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$. Thus, $d_{e}(h \alpha, h \beta) \leq$ $\lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}$ and, hence, $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta) \leq r_{\alpha}$. Thus, $\beta \in \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\alpha=\beta$.

Now define $f: \cup\left\{R_{c} \mid c \in C_{R}\right\} \rightarrow \cup\left\{S_{c} \mid c \in C_{S}\right\}$ by first defining, for $\alpha \in E$, $f \mid: R_{\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)} \rightarrow S_{(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)}$ as follows. If $x \in R_{\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)}$, then there exists $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ such that $\beta\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)=\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\beta(\|x\|)=x$. Set $f(x)=$ $(h \beta)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)$. Note that $f(x)=(h \beta)\left(\|x\|+\ln r_{\alpha}-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)$. We need to show that $f \mid: R_{\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)} \rightarrow S_{(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)}$ is (1) well-defined (i.e., does not depend on $\beta),(2)$ an isometric embedding, and (3) a surjection.

For (1), suppose $\beta^{\prime} \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ such that $\beta^{\prime}\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)=\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\beta^{\prime}(\|x\|)=$ $x$. Then $d_{e}\left(\alpha, \beta^{\prime}\right) \leq r_{\alpha}$ and $d_{e}\left(\beta, \beta^{\prime}\right) \leq e^{-\|x\|}$. Thus, $d_{e}\left(h \beta, h \beta^{\prime}\right)=\lambda_{\alpha} d_{e}\left(\beta, \beta^{\prime}\right) \leq$ $\lambda_{\alpha} e^{-\|x\|}$. It follows that $(h \beta)(t)=\left(h \beta^{\prime}\right)(t)$ whenever $0 \leq t \leq-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} e^{-\|x\|}=$ $-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}+\|x\|$. In particular, $(h \beta)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)=\left(h \beta^{\prime}\right)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)$.
 $\beta\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)=\gamma\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)=\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right), \beta(\|x\|)=x$ and $\gamma(\|y\|)=y$. If it so happens that $y=\beta(\|y\|)$, then $d(x, y)=\| \| x\|-\| y \|, f(x)=(h \beta)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)$ and $f(y)=$ $(h \beta)\left(\|y\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)$; this implies $d(f x, f y)=\left|\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}-\|y\|+\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right|=d(x, y)$. Likewise, if it so happens that $x=\gamma(\|x\|)$, we have $d(f x, f y)=d(x, y)$. So we
suppose that $x \neq \gamma(\|x\|)$ and $y \neq \beta(\|y\|)$. It follows that $t_{0} \leq\|x\|, t_{0} \leq\|y\|$ and $d(x, y)=\|x\|+\|y\|-2 t_{0}$. Note that $d_{e}(h \beta, h \gamma)=\lambda_{\alpha} e^{-t_{0}},-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha} \leq$ $-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}+t_{0}, t_{0}-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} \leq\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}$ and $t_{0}-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} \leq\|y\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}$. Thus, $d(f x, f y)=d\left((h \beta)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right),(h \gamma)\left(\|y\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)\right)=\left\|(h \beta)\left(\|x\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)\right\|+$ $\left\|(h \gamma)\left(\|y\|-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)\right\|-2\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha}+t_{0}\right)=\|x\|+\|y\|-2 t_{0}=d(x, y)$. This completes the proof that $f \mid$ is an isometric embedding.

For (3), suppose $z \in S_{(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)}$. Then there exists $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(S, w)$ such that $\beta\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)=(h \alpha)\left(-\ln \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\beta(\|z\|)=z$. It follows that $\beta \in \bar{B}\left(h \alpha, \lambda_{\alpha} r_{\alpha}\right)$ so $h^{-1} \beta \in \bar{B}\left(\alpha, r_{\alpha}\right)$ and $\left(h^{-1} \beta\right)\left(\|z\|+\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right) \in R_{\alpha\left(-\ln r_{\alpha}\right)}$. Finally, note that

$$
f\left(\left(h^{-1} \beta\right)\left(\|z\|+\ln \lambda_{\alpha}\right)\right)=\beta(\|z\|)=z .
$$

To show that $\mathcal{E}$ is faithful, suppose $\left(f, C_{R}, C_{S}\right),\left(f^{\prime}, C_{R}^{\prime}, C_{S}^{\prime}\right):(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ are two isometries at infinity between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees such that $f_{*}=f_{*}^{\prime}: \operatorname{end}(R, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. We need to show that $\left[f, C_{R}, C_{S}\right]=\left[f^{\prime}, C_{R}^{\prime}, C_{S}^{\prime}\right]$. By passing to larger cut sets, we may assume that $C_{R}=C_{R}^{\prime}$. Thus, we need to show that given $c \in C_{R}$,
(1) if $R_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then $f\left|R_{c}=f^{\prime}\right| R_{c}$,
(2) if $R_{c}$ is an isolated ray, then $f\left(R_{c}\right) \cap f^{\prime}\left(R_{c}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

Let $\alpha \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ be such that $\alpha(\|c\|)=c$. Let $\hat{\alpha}:[0,\|f c\|] \rightarrow S$ and $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}:$ $\left[0,\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|\right] \rightarrow S$ be the unique isometric embeddings such that $\hat{\alpha}(0)=w=\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}(0)$, $\hat{\alpha}(\|f c\|)=f c$ and $\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|\right)=f^{\prime} c$. Then

$$
f_{*}(\alpha)(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\|f c\| \\ f \alpha(t-\|f c\|+\|c\|) & \text { if }\|f c\| \leq t\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
f_{*}^{\prime}(\alpha)(t)= \begin{cases}\hat{\alpha}^{\prime}(t) & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\| \\ f^{\prime} \alpha\left(t-\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|+\|c\|\right) & \text { if }\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\| \leq t\end{cases}
$$

Since $f_{*}(\alpha)=f_{*}^{\prime}(\alpha)$, it follows that $f \alpha(t-\|f c\|+\|c\|)=f^{\prime} \alpha\left(t-\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|+\|c\|\right)$ for all $t \geq \max \left\{\|f c\|,\left\|f^{\prime} c \mid\right\|\right\}$. In particular, $f\left(R_{c}\right) \cap f^{\prime}\left(R_{c}\right) \neq \emptyset$, so we are left with the case that $R_{c}$ is not an isolated ray. In this case, there exists $\beta \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ such that $\alpha \neq \beta$ and $\beta(\|c\|)=c$. Let $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)=e^{-t_{0}}$ where $t_{0} \geq\|c\|$. Now $d_{e}\left(f_{*} \alpha, f_{*} \beta\right)=e^{-t_{0}+\|c| |-\| f c \|}$ and $d_{e}\left(f_{*}^{\prime} \alpha, f_{*}^{\prime} \beta\right)=e^{-t_{0}+\|c\|--\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|}$. since $f_{*}=f_{*}^{\prime}$, it follows that $\|f c\|=\left\|f^{\prime} c\right\|$. From this it follows that $f\left|R_{c}=f^{\prime}\right| R_{c}$.

## 6. The tree of an ultrametric space

## AND THE CATEGORICAL EQUIVALENCE

In this section we complete the proof of the Main Theorem by showing how an $\mathbb{R}$-tree $T_{X}$ may be associated with any ultrametric space $X$ of finite diameter. The construction is, in fact, quite well-known. Proposition 6.4 shows that the end space of $T_{X}$ is similar to the metric completion of $X$.

Let $(X, d)$ be an ultrametric space of finite diameter $d_{0}>0$. Define an equivalence relation $\sim$ on $X \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)$ by

$$
(x, t) \sim(y, s) \text { if } t=s \text { and } d(x, y) \leq 1 / e^{t} .
$$

Definition 6.1. The tree associated to $(X, d)$ is $T_{X}=\left(X \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)\right) / \sim$.
A point in $T_{X}$ is denoted by its equivalence class $[x, t]$ where $(x, t) \in X \times$ $\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)$. If $[x, t],[y, s] \in T_{X}$, define

$$
D([x, t],[y, s])= \begin{cases}|t-s| & \text { if } x=y \\ t+s-2 \min \{-\ln d(x, y), t, s\} & \text { if } x \neq y .\end{cases}
$$

Note that with the convention $-\ln 0=\infty$,

$$
D([x, t],[y, s])=t+s-2 \min \{-\ln d(x, y), t, s\} \text { for all } x, y, s, t .
$$

Proposition 6.2. $D$ is a metric on $T_{X}$. Moreover, the function $q: X \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow$ $T_{X},(x, t) \mapsto[x, t]$, is continuous. ${ }^{2}$

Proof. The first step is to show that $D$ is well-defined. Suppose $[x, s]=\left[x^{\prime}, s\right]$; i.e., $d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \leq e^{-s}$, and show that

$$
2 s-2 \min \{s,-\ln d(x, y)\}=2 s-2 \min \left\{s,-\ln d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right\} .
$$

It suffices to show that for all $y \in X$,

$$
\max \left\{e^{-s}, d(x, y)\right\}=\max \left\{e^{-s}, d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right\} .
$$

This can be accomplished by considering two cases:
(1) Assume $d(x, y) \geq e^{-s}$ and show that $d(x, y)=\max \left\{e^{-s}, d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right\}$. Proposition 4.2(6) implies that either $d(x, y)=d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$, or $d(x, y)=d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=e^{-s}$ and $d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right) \leq e^{-s}$. It is easy to see that either of these situations implies the desired conclusion.
(2) Assume $d(x, y) \leq e^{-s}$ and show that $e^{-s}=\max \left\{e^{-s}, d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right\}$. If $d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)>$ $e^{-s}$, then $d\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)<d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ and $d(x, y)<d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$, contradicting Proposition 4.2(6). Thus, $d\left(x^{\prime}, y\right) \leq e^{-s}$ and the desired conclusion follows.
This completes the proof that $D$ is well-defined.
The next step is to show that $D$ is a metric. To see that $D \geq 0$, let $[x, s],[y, t] \in$ $T_{X}$. If $s=\min \{s, t,-\ln d(x, y)\}$, then $D([x, s],[y, t])=s+t-2 s=t-s \geq 0$. A similar statement can be made if $t$ is the minimum. If the minimum is $-\ln d(x, y)$, then $D([x, s],[y, t])=s+t-2(-\ln d(x, y)) \geq s+t-s-t=0$.

To see that $D([x, s],[y, t])=0$ if and only if $[x, s]=[y, t]$, first note that $D([x, s],[x, s])=0$. Conversely, suppose $D([x, s],[y, t])=0$ (i.e., $s+t=$ $2 \min \{s, t,-\ln d(x, y)\})$ and show $s=t$ and $d(x, y) \leq e^{-s}$. On the contrary, assume that $s \neq t$. Without loss of generality assume $s<t$. Then $2 s<s+$ $t=2 \min \{s,-\ln d(x, y\}$ and $s<s$, a contradiction. Thus, $s=t$ and $2 s=$ $2 \min \{s,-\ln d(x, y)\}$. Hence, $s \leq \ln d(x, y)$, which is to say $d(x, y) \leq e^{-s}$.

It is clear that $D$ is symmetric. In order to verify the triangle inequality ${ }^{3}$

$$
D([x, s],[y, t]) \leq D([x, s],[z, u])+D([y, t],[z, u])
$$

[^2]for $x, y, z \in X$ and $s, t, u \in\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)$, let $a=-\ln d(x, z), b=-\ln d(y, z), c=$ $-\ln d(x, y)$. We need to show that $\min \{s, u, a\}+\min \{t, u, b\} \leq \min \{s, t, c\}+u$. The ultrametric inequality $d(x, y) \leq \max \{d(x, z), d(z, y)\}$ becomes $e^{-c} \leq \max \left\{e^{-a}, e^{-b}\right\}$, which is equivalent to $\min \{a, b\} \leq c$. Without loss of generality assume that $a \leq b$ so that $a=\min \{a, b, c\}$. There are three cases to consider:
(1) $u=\min \{s, u, a\}$ and show $u+\min \{t, u\} \leq \min \{t, u\}+u$. This is clear.
(2) $s=\min \{s, u, a\}$ and show $s+\min \{t, u, b\} \leq \min \{s, t\}+u$. This becomes clear upon considering the two subcases: $s=\min \{s, t\}$ and $t=\min \{s, t\}$.
(3) $a=\min \{s, u, a\}$ and show $a+\min \{t, u, b\} \leq \min \{a, t\}+u$. This becomes clear upon considering the two subcases: $a=\min \{a, t\}$ and $t=\min \{a, t\}$.
It remains to show that $q: X \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow T_{X}$ is continuous. First observe that for each $x \in X, q \mid:\{x\} \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow T_{X}$ is an isometric embedding. Now suppose $x_{n} \rightarrow x$ in $X$ and $t_{n} \rightarrow t$ in $\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)$. Choose a positive integer $N$ such that $n \geq N$ implies $\left|1 / e^{t}-1 / e^{t_{n}}\right|<1 / 2 e^{t}$ and $d\left(x, x_{n}\right)<1 / 2 e^{t}$. Then $n \geq N$ implies $d\left(x_{n}, x\right)<1 / e^{t_{n}}$; hence, $\left[x_{n}, t_{n}\right]=\left[x, t_{n}\right]$. Thus, for $n \geq N$, $q\left(x_{n}, t_{n}\right)=\left[x_{n}, t_{n}\right]=\left[x, t_{n}\right] \rightarrow[x, t]=q(x, t)$.

We have to make a special definition if $X$ consists of a single point (i.e., if $X$ has diameter 0 ). In this case, let $T_{X}=[0, \infty)$ with the usual metric and root 0 .

Theorem 6.3. If $(X, d)$ is an ultrametric space of finite diameter, then $\left(T_{X}, D\right)$ is a geodesically complete $\mathbb{R}$-tree.

Proof. To see that $T_{X}$ is an $\mathbb{R}$-tree, it suffices to show that $T_{X}$ is connected and is 0 -hyperbolic in the sense of Gromov [Gr1] (e.g., see [Chi, Lemma 4.13]). Since $T_{X}$ is obviously connected (by Proposition 6.2 every point is in the path component of the root $r_{X}$ ), we proceed to show that $T_{X}$ is 0-hyperbolic. Recall that if $[x, t],[y, s] \in$ $T_{X}$, then the Gromov product of $[x, t]$ and $[y, s]$ with respect to the root $r_{X}$ is given by

$$
([x, t] \cdot[y, s]) r_{X}=\frac{1}{2}\left\{D\left([x, t], r_{X}\right)+D\left([y, s], r_{X}\right)-D([x, t],[y, s])\right\}
$$

Using the fact that $D\left([x, t], r_{X}\right)=t+\ln d_{0}$ for all $[x, t] \in T_{X}$ where $d_{0}=\operatorname{diam} X$ (we may assume that $d_{0}>0$ because the $d_{0}=0$ case is trivial), it is easy to calculate

$$
\begin{equation*}
([x, t] \cdot[y, s])_{r_{X}}=\ln d_{0}+\min \{-\ln d(x, y), t, s\} \tag{6.3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Given $[z, u] \in T_{X}$, formula (6.3.1) is to be compared with

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min \left\{([x, t] \cdot[z, u])_{r_{X}},([y, s] \cdot[z, u])_{r_{X}}\right\}=  \tag{6.3.2}\\
& \min \left\{\ln d_{0}+\min \{-\ln d(x, z), t, u\}, \ln d_{0}+\min \{-\ln d(y, z), s, u\}\right\}= \\
& \ln d_{0}+\min \{-\ln d(x, z),-\ln d(y, z), t, s, u\}
\end{align*}
$$

To verify 0-hyperbolicity, we need to conclude that (6.3.1) is greater than or equal to (6.3.2). This amounts to checking that

$$
-\ln d(x, y) \geq \min \{-\ln d(x, z),-\ln d(y, z)\}
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
\ln d(x, y) \leq \max \{\ln d(x, z), \ln d(y, z)\}
$$

which comes from the ultrametric inequality for $(X, d)$.
To see that $T_{X}$ is geodesically complete, let $\alpha:\left[0, t_{0}\right] \rightarrow T_{X}$ be an isometric embedding such that $\alpha(0)=r_{X}$. Then $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right)=\left[x_{0}, t_{0}-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for some $x_{0} \in X$, and uniqueness of arcs in $T_{X}$ implies that $\alpha(t)=\left[x_{0}, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$. The same formula, but now for all $t \geq 0$, gives an extension of $\alpha$ to a geodesic ray.

The tree $T_{X}$ comes with a natural root $r_{X}$. If the diameter of $X$ is $d_{0}>0$, then $r_{X}=\left[x,-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for any $x \in X$. If $d_{0}=0$, then $r_{X}=0$.
Proposition 6.4. If $(X, d)$ is an ultrametric space of finite diameter, then the metric completion of $X$ is similar to end $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$.
Proof. We may assume that $d_{0}=\operatorname{diam} X>0$. Define $h: X \rightarrow \operatorname{end}\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ by $h(x)(t)=\left[x, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for $0 \leq t<\infty$. If $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$, then $h(x) \neq h(y)$ and $d_{e}(h(x), h(y))=e^{-t_{0}}$ where

$$
\begin{aligned}
t_{0} & =\sup \{t \geq 0 \mid h(x)(t)=h(y)(t)\} \\
& =\sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid\left[x, t-\ln d_{0}\right]=\left[y, t-\ln d_{0}\right]\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid d(x, y) \leq e^{\ln d_{0}-t}\right\} \\
& =\sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid t \leq \ln d_{0}-\ln d(x, y)\right\} \\
& =\ln \frac{d_{0}}{d(x, y)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $d_{e}(h(x), h(y))=\frac{1}{d_{0}} d(x, y)$, which is to say $h$ is a $\left(1 / d_{0}\right)$-similarity.
Since $\operatorname{end}\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ is complete with respect to the metric $d_{e}$ (Prop. 5.2), we must now show that $h(X)$ is dense in $\operatorname{end}\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$. For this, let $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T_{X}$ be an isometric embedding such that $\alpha(0)=r_{X}$ and let $\epsilon>0$ be given. Choose $t_{0}>0$ such that $e^{-t_{0}}<\epsilon$. As stated at the end of the proof of Proposition 6.3, there exists $x_{0} \in X$ such that $\alpha(t)=\left[x_{0}, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$. It follows that $h\left(x_{0}\right)(t)=\alpha(t)$ for $0 \leq t \leq t_{0}$ and, therefore, $d_{e}\left(\alpha, h\left(x_{0}\right)\right) \leq e^{-t_{0}}<\epsilon$.
Proposition 6.5. If $h: X \rightarrow Y$ is a local similarity equivalence between complete ultrametric spaces of finite diameter, then there is an induced isometry at infinity $\left(\tilde{h}, C_{X}, C_{Y}\right):\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$.

Proof. Let $d_{0}$ and $d_{1}$ be the diameters of $X$ and $Y$, respectively. We may assume that $d_{0}, d_{1}>0$. By Lemma 4.10 there exist a subset $E \subset X$ and positive numbers $\lambda_{x}>0, r_{x}>0$ for each $x \in E$ such that
(1) $h \mid: \bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \rightarrow \bar{B}\left(h x, \lambda_{x} r_{x}\right)$ is a surjective $\lambda_{x}$-similarity for each $x \in E$,
(2) if $x, y \in E, x \neq y$, then $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right) \cap \bar{B}\left(y, r_{y}\right)=\emptyset$,
(3) $X=\cup_{x \in E} \bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)$,
(4) for each $x \in E, r_{x}<d_{0}$,
(5) if $x \in E$ is an isolated point of $X$, then $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)=\{x\}$ and $\lambda_{x}=1$,
(6) if $x \in E$ is not an isolated point of $X$, then $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)$ is the closure of $B\left(x, r_{x}\right)$.

The first four items follow immediately from Lemma 4.10. We may assume item (5) simply by redefining $r_{x}$ and $\lambda_{x}$ for the isolated points. Likewise item (6) can be achieved by defining a new $r_{x}$ for $x$ non-isolated to be $\sup \left\{d(x, y) \mid y \in B\left(x, r_{x}\right)\right\}$.

For each $x \in E$, let $c_{x}=\left[x,-\ln r_{x}\right] \in T_{X}$. We verify that $C_{X}=\left\{c_{x} \mid x \in E\right\}$ is a cut set for $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$. First note that the root $r_{X} \notin C_{X}$ because of item (4).

Next, we make use of the following fact about the special form ends in ( $T_{X}, r_{X}$ ) must take.

Claim 6.5.1. If $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T_{X}$ is any isometric embedding with $\alpha(0)=r_{X}$, then there exists $x_{0} \in X$ such that $\alpha(t)=\left[x_{0}, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for every $t \geq 0$.
Proof. As in the end of the proof of Proposition 6.3, for each $n=1,2,3, \ldots$ there exists $x_{n} \in X$ such that $\alpha(t)=\left[x_{n}, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for $0 \leq t \leq n$. In particular, $\left[x_{n}, n-\ln d_{0}\right]=\left[x_{m}, n-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for each $m \geq n$. Thus, $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $X$; let $x_{0}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n}$. Hence, $\alpha(t)=\left[x_{0}, t-\ln d_{0}\right]$ for all $t \geq 0$.

Continuing with the proof that $C_{X}$ is a cut set, we must show that there exists a unique $t_{0}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right) \in C_{X}$. Choose $x \in E$ such that $d\left(x, x_{0}\right) \leq r_{x}$. It follows that $\alpha\left(\ln d_{0}-\ln r_{x}\right)=c_{x}$, thereby establishing existence of $t_{0}$. For uniqueness, suppose $y \in E$ and $t \geq 0$ such that $\alpha(t)=\left[y,-\ln r_{y}\right]$. Then $\left[x_{0}, t-\right.$ $\left.\ln d_{0}\right]=\left[y,-\ln r_{y}\right]$, implying $t=\ln d_{0}-\ln r_{y}$ and $d\left(x_{0}, y\right) \leq 1 / e^{-\ln r_{y}}=r_{y}$; that is, $y=x$. This completes the proof that $C_{X}$ is a cut set for $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$.

Note now that for each $x \in E, \lambda_{x} r_{x}<d_{1}$. For suppose that $\lambda_{x} r_{x} \geq d_{1}$ for some $x \in E$. Then $\bar{B}\left(h(x), \lambda_{x} r_{x}\right)=Y$ and so $\bar{B}\left(x, r_{x}\right)=X$. Since $d_{0}>0$, it follows that $x$ is not an isolated point of $X$. Thus, item (7) implies that $r_{x}=d_{0}$, a contradiction to item (4).

Let $F=h(E)$ and for each $y=h(x)$ with $x \in E$, let $c_{y}=\left[h(x),-\ln \left(\lambda_{x} r_{x}\right)\right]$. The fact just established that for each $x \in E, \lambda_{x} r_{x}<d_{1}$, implies that each $c_{y} \in T_{Y}$ and $c_{y} \neq r_{Y}$. We claim that $C_{Y}=\left\{c_{y} \mid y \in F\right\}$ is a cut set for $\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$. The proof mirrors the proof above that $C_{X}$ is a cut set. The main fact needed is that if $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow Y$ is an isometric embedding such that $\alpha(0)=r_{Y}$, then there exists $y_{0} \in Y$ such that $\alpha(t)=\left[y_{0}, t-\ln d_{1}\right]$ for all $t \geq 0$. This follows from the completeness of $Y$.

Define an isometry at infinity $\left(\tilde{h}, C_{X}, C_{Y}\right):\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$ as follows. If $[z, t] \in \cup\left\{\left(T_{X}\right)_{c_{x}} \mid x \in E\right\}$, then let $x(z)$ be the unique point of $E$ such that $[z, t] \in\left(T_{X}\right)_{c_{x(z)}}$. It follows that $d(z, x(z)) \leq 1 / e^{-\ln r_{x(z)}}=r_{x(z)}$ and $t \geq-\ln r_{x(z)}$. In particular, $x(z)$ is the unique point of $E$ such that $z \in \bar{B}\left(x(z), r_{x(z)}\right)$. Define

$$
\tilde{h}([z, t])=\left[h(z), t-\ln \lambda_{x(z)}\right] \in T_{Y} .
$$

Note that $d(h(z), h(x(z))) \leq \lambda_{x(z)} r_{x(z)}$ and $t-\ln \lambda_{x(z)} \geq-\ln \left(\lambda_{x(z)} r_{x(z)}\right)$. Hence, $\tilde{h}([z, t]) \in\left(T_{Y}\right)_{c_{h(x(z))}}$. It can be checked that
(1) $\tilde{h}\left(C_{X}\right)=C_{Y}$, and
(2) for any $c_{x} \in C_{X}, \tilde{h} \mid:\left(T_{X}\right)_{c_{x}} \rightarrow\left(T_{Y}\right)_{h\left(c_{x}\right)}=\left(T_{Y}\right)_{c_{h(x)}}$ is an isometry.

Definition 6.6. Define $\mathcal{T}: \mathbf{U} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ by $\mathcal{T}(X, d)=\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ for every complete ultrametric space $X$ of finite diameter, and $\mathcal{T}(h)=h_{*}$ for every local similarity equivalence $h$, where $h_{*}$ is the equivalence class of the isometry at infinity $\tilde{h}$ defined in Proposition 6.5.

Theorem 6.7. $\mathcal{T}: \mathbf{U} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}$ is a functor.
Proof. The functorial properties are easy to verify given the explicit construction in the proof of Proposition 6.5. Perhaps the only ambiguity lies in the local similarity constant $\lambda_{x}$ at an isolated point $x$. But the isolated points in the ultrametric space $X$ lead to isolated rays in the tree $T_{X}$; therefore, the ambiguity is eliminated by Definition 3.7(2).

The following proposition follows immediately from Proposition 6.4.

Proposition 6.8. The composition of functors $\mathbf{U} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} \mathbf{T} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{E}} \mathbf{U}$ takes every object in $\mathbf{U}$ to a similar copy of itself.

The following result is a restatement of the Main Theorem in the introduction.
Theorem 6.9. The functor $\mathcal{E}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ is an equivalence of categories.
Proof. It is enough to know that $\mathcal{E}$ is a full and faithful functor, and that, given any object $(X, d)$ in $\mathbf{U}$, there exists an object $(T, v)$ in $\mathbf{T}$ such that there is a local similarity equivalence $\operatorname{end}(T, v) \rightarrow X$ (see [MaL]). Thus, the theorem follows from Propositions 5.5 and 6.8.

Example 6.10. It need not be the case that $(T, v)$ and $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ are isometric, where $X=\operatorname{end}(T, v)$. For example, let $T=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid x \geq-1\right.$ and $y=$ 0 , or $x=0$ and $y \geq 0\}$ with the length metric induced from the restriction of the standard metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Let $v=(-1,0)$. Then $X=\{\alpha, \beta\}$ with $d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)=e^{-1}$ and $T_{X}$ is isometric to $\mathbb{R}$.

## 7. UNIFORM ISOMETRIES AT INFINITY AND UNIFORM LOCAL SIMILARITY EQUIVALENCES

This section contains a proof of Corollary 1 to the Main Theorem. For the category $\mathbf{T}$ of trees and equivalence classes of isometries at infinity considered above, a subcategory $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is defined by allowing only those isometries with domain the complement of a metric ball about the root. These are the so-called uniform isometries at infinity, where "uniform" refers to the fact that the roots of the subtrees making up the domain of the isometry are all a constant distance from the root of the original tree.

Likewise for the category $\mathbf{U}$ of ultrametric spaces and local similarity equivalences, a subcategory $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is defined by allowing only those local similarities with constant moduli of similarity.

Theorem 7.13 shows that the functor $\mathcal{E}: \mathbf{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$ restricts to an equivalence of categories $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$.

Definition 7.1. An isometry at infinity $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees is an uniform isometry at infinity provided there exist $\epsilon, \delta>0$ such that $C_{T}=\partial B(v, \epsilon)$ and $C_{S}=\partial B(w, \delta)$.

Definition 7.2. Two uniform isometries at infinity from $(T, v)$ to $(S, w)$ are equivalent provided they are equivalent as isometries at infinity.

Example 7.3. Let $(T, v)$ be a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and $\epsilon>0$. If $f: T \rightarrow T$ is any isometry, then $(f, \partial B(v, \epsilon), \partial B(f(v), \epsilon)):(T, v) \rightarrow(T, f(v))$ is a uniform isometry at infinity.

Following the discussion in $\S 3$ we know that two equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity can be composed to get the equivalence class of an isometry at infinity. We now observe that this is, in fact, the equivalence class of an uniform isometry at infinity. To this end, let $\left[f, C_{R}\right]:(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right]:(S, w) \rightarrow(T, x)$ be equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees. Thus, there exist $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}, \delta_{1}, \delta_{2}>0$ such that $C_{R}=\partial B\left(v, \epsilon_{1}\right), f\left(C_{R}\right)=\partial B\left(w, \delta_{1}\right), C_{S}=\partial B\left(w, \epsilon_{2}\right)$ and $g\left(C_{S}\right)=\partial B\left(x, \delta_{2}\right)$. Let $\max \left\{\delta_{1}, \epsilon_{2}\right\}=\delta_{1}+\lambda_{1}=\epsilon_{2}+\lambda_{2}$ where one of $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ is 0 . Then (using notation
consistent with $\S 3)$ one may check that $C_{S}^{\prime}=\max \left\{f\left(C_{R}\right), C_{S}\right\}=\partial B\left(w, \delta_{1}+\lambda_{1}\right)$, $C_{R}^{\prime}=f^{-1}\left(C_{S}^{\prime}\right)=\partial B\left(\epsilon_{1}+\lambda_{1}\right)$ and $C_{T}=g\left(C_{S}^{\prime}\right)=\partial B\left(x, \delta_{2}+\lambda_{2}\right)$. Thus, $g f\left(C_{R}^{\prime}\right)=$ $C_{T}$ is the boundary of a ball centered at $x \in T$ and $\left[g, C_{S}\right] \circ\left[f, C_{R}\right]=\left[g|\circ f|, C_{R}^{\prime}\right]$ is the equivalence class of a uniform isometry at infinity.

Definition 7.4. If $(T, v)$ is a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, let $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}^{u}(T, v)$ denote the group of equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity from ( $T, v$ ) to itself.
Proposition 7.5. $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}^{u}(T, v)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}(T, v)$
Proof. $\operatorname{Isom}_{\infty}^{u}(T, v)$ is closed under inverses by Lemma 3.4, and is closed under composition by the preceding discussion.

Definition 7.6. Let $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ be the subcategory of $\mathbf{T}$ having the same objects, but whose morphisms are the equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity.

Definition 7.7. A homeomorphism $h: X \rightarrow Y$ between metric spaces is a uniform local similarity equivalence if there exist $\epsilon>0$ and $\lambda>0$ such that for every $x \in X$ the restriction $h \mid: B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B(h(x), \lambda \epsilon)$ is a surjective $\lambda$-similarity.

Lemma 7.8. The inverse of a uniform local similarity equivalence is a uniform local similarity equivalence. The composition of two uniform local similarity equivalences is a uniform local similarity equivalence.

Proof. The proof of Lemma 4.5 for the corresponding facts about local similarity equivalences specializes to give a proof for the uniform case.

Definition 7.9. If $(X, d)$ is a metric space, let $L S E^{u}(X)$ denote the group of uniform local similarity equivalences from $X$ to itself.

The following result follows immediately from Lemma 7.8.
Proposition 7.10. $L S E^{u}(X)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{LSE}(X)$.
Definition 7.11. Let $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ be the subcategory of $\mathbf{U}$ having the same objects as $\mathbf{U}$, but whose morphisms are uniform local similarity equivalences.

Proposition 7.12. Let $(T, v)$ be a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree with metric $d, X=\operatorname{end}(T, v)$ with metric $d_{e}$, and $T_{X}=T_{\text {end }(T, v)}$ with metric $D$ and root $r_{X}$. Then $(T, v)$ and $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ are uniformly isometric at infinity.

Proof. Let $d_{0}=\operatorname{diam} X$. If $d_{0}=0$, then $T$ and $T_{X}$ are both single isolated rays; hence, isometric. Thus, we may assume $d_{0}>0$. Let $r>-\ln d_{0}$ (of course, $d_{0} \leq 1$ by Proposition 5.2 so $r>0$ ). Define $h: T \backslash B(v, r) \rightarrow T_{X}$ as follows. If $z \in T \backslash B(v, r)$, let $\alpha_{z}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ be an isometric embedding such that $\alpha_{z}(0)=v$ and $z$ is in the image of $\alpha$. Then $\alpha_{z}(d(v, z))=z$. Let

$$
h(z)=\left[\alpha_{z}, d(v, z)\right] \in T_{X} .
$$

(Since $d(v, z)>-\ln d_{0}, h(z) \in T_{X}$.) To see that $h$ is well-defined, suppose that $\beta:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ is another isometric embedding with $\beta(0)=v \operatorname{and} \beta(d(v, z))=z$. To show that $\left[\alpha_{z}, d(v, z)\right]=[\beta, d(v, z)]$ we are required to show that $d_{e}\left(\alpha_{z}, \beta\right) \leq$ $e^{-d(v, z)}$. Since $\alpha_{z}(t)=\beta(t)$ for $0 \leq t \leq d(v, z)$, it follows that $d_{e}\left(\alpha_{z}, \beta\right) \leq e^{-d(v, z)}$ as required.

Now let $c \in \partial B(v, r)$ and show that $h \mid: T_{c} \rightarrow T_{X}$ is an isometric embedding. Thus, let $z, w \in T_{c}$ and show $D(h(z), h(w))=d(z, w)$. To this end, let $\alpha_{z}, \alpha_{w}$ : $[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ be isometric embeddings such that $\alpha_{z}(0)=v=\alpha_{w}(0), \alpha_{z}(r)=c=$ $\alpha_{w}(r)$, and $\alpha_{z}(d(v, z))=z, \alpha_{w}(d(v, w))=w$. If there exist such $\alpha_{z}$ and $\alpha_{w}$ such that $\alpha_{z}=\alpha_{w}$, then assume that we have chosen $\alpha_{z}$ and $\alpha_{w}$ such that $\alpha_{z}=\alpha_{w}$. Thus, $h(z)=\left[\alpha_{z}, d(v, z)\right], h(w)=\left[\alpha_{w}, d(v, w)\right]$ and

$$
D(h(z), h(w))=d(v, z)+d(v, w)-2 \min \left\{-\ln d_{e}\left(\alpha_{z}, \alpha_{w}\right), d(v, z), d(v, w)\right\}
$$

(we are using the convention $-\ln 0=\infty$ here and below). Recall the Gromov product [Gr1] (as in the proof of Theorem 6.3):

$$
(z \cdot w)_{v}=\frac{1}{2}\{d(v, z)+d(v, w)-d(z, w)\} .
$$

Thus,

$$
d(z, w)=d(v, z)+d(v, w)-2(z \cdot w)_{v} .
$$

Moreover, it is easy to verify (using the $\mathbb{R}$-tree properties) that

$$
(z \cdot w)_{v}= \begin{cases}\min \{d(v, z), d(v, w)\} & \text { if } \alpha_{z}=\alpha_{w} \\ \sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid \alpha_{z}(t)=\alpha_{w}(t)\right\} & \text { if } \alpha_{z} \neq \alpha_{w}\end{cases}
$$

(this uses the fact $\alpha_{z} \neq \alpha_{w}$ if and only if it is not possible to choose $\alpha_{z}$ and $\alpha_{w}$ such that $\alpha_{z}=\alpha_{w}$ ). Of course, $-\ln d_{e}\left(\alpha_{z}, \alpha_{w}\right)=\sup \left\{t \geq 0 \mid \alpha_{z}(t)=\alpha_{w}(t)\right\}$. It follows that $\min \left\{-\ln d_{e}\left(\alpha_{z}, \alpha_{w}\right), d(v, z), d(v, w)\right\}=(z \cdot w)_{v}$. Hence, $D(h(z), h(w))=$ $d(v, z)+d(v, w)-2(z \cdot w)_{v}=d(z, w)$, completing the proof that $h \mid T_{c}$ is an isometric embedding.

Next we need to show that for every $c \in \partial B(v, r), h \mid: T_{c} \rightarrow\left(T_{X}\right)_{h(c)}$ is onto. If $[\alpha, t] \in\left(T_{X}\right)_{h(c)}$, then $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow T$ is an isometric embedding with $\alpha(0)=v$, $\alpha(r)=c$ and $t \geq r$. Then $h(\alpha(t))=[\alpha, d(v, \alpha(t))]=[\alpha, t]$. Note that $\alpha(t) \in T_{c}$ so that $h \mid$ is onto.

Finally, we show that $h(\partial B(v, r))=\partial B\left(r_{X}, \delta\right)$ where $\delta=r+\ln d_{0}$. (Note that $r+\ln d_{0}>\max \left\{\ln d_{0}, 0\right\} \geq 0$.) If $z \in \partial B(v, r)$, then $h(z)=\left[\alpha_{z}, r\right]$ and $D\left(\left[\alpha_{z}, r\right], r_{X}\right)=D\left(\left[\alpha_{z}, r\right],\left[\alpha_{z},-\ln d_{0}\right]\right)=r+\ln d_{0}$ as required. On the other hand, if $[\alpha, t] \in \partial B\left(r_{X}, \delta\right)$, then $D\left([\alpha, t], r_{X}\right)=\delta$, so $D\left([\alpha, t],\left[\alpha,-\ln d_{0}\right]\right)=\delta$. Thus, (using the fact that $t \geq-\ln d_{0}$ so that $t+\ln d_{0} \geq 0$ ), we have $t+\ln d_{0}=\left|t+\ln d_{0}\right|=r+\ln d_{0}$ so that $t=r$ as required.

We have shown that $\left(h, \partial B(v, r), \partial B\left(r_{X}, r+\ln d_{0}\right)\right):(T, v) \rightarrow\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ is a uniform isometry at infinity.

Theorem 7.13. The functor $\mathcal{E}$ restricts to an equivalence of categories

$$
\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}
$$

Proof. In order to show that $\mathcal{E}$ restricts to a functor $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ on $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ with image in $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ we need to show that $\mathcal{E}$ takes equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity to uniform local similarity equivalences. Let $\left(f, \partial B\left(v, r_{1}\right), \partial B\left(w, r_{2}\right)\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ be a uniform isometry at infinity between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees for some $r_{1}, r_{2}>0$, and let $f_{*}: \operatorname{end}(T, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$ be the induced local similarity
equivalence given in the proof of Proposition 5.3. Given $\alpha \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$ the unique $t_{0}>0$ such that $\alpha\left(t_{0}\right) \in \partial B\left(v, r_{1}\right)$ is, of course, $r_{1}=t_{0}$ and is independent of $\alpha$. Thus, the $\epsilon=e^{-r_{1}}$ of 5.3 is also independent of $\alpha$. Moreover, $f \alpha\left(r_{1}\right) \in \partial B\left(w, r_{2}\right)$ so $\left\|f \alpha\left(r_{1}\right)\right\|=r_{2}$ and the $\lambda=e^{r_{1}-r_{2}}$ of 5.3 is also independent of $\alpha$. Thus, $f_{*}$ is indeed a uniform local similarity equivalence.

Likewise we need to show that $\mathcal{T}$ restricts to a functor $\mathcal{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ on $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ with image in $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$. For this we need to observe that $\mathcal{T}$ takes a uniform local similarity equivalence to the equivalence class of a uniform isometry at infinity. Let $h: X \rightarrow Y$ be a uniform local similarity equivalence between complete ultrametric spaces with finite diameters $d_{0}$ and $d_{1}$, respectively (which we assume positive). Suppose $\epsilon>0$ and $\lambda>0$ are the constants associated with $h$ as in Definition 7.7. We need to show that the isometry at infinity $\left(\tilde{h}, C_{X}, C_{Y}\right):\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$ constructed in the proof of Proposition 6.5 is equivalent to a uniform isometry at infinity. For this observe that the $r_{x}$ 's in 6.5 (which, in turn, come from Lemma 4.10) may be chosen so that $\frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq r_{x}$ for all $x \in E$, the important fact being that the $r_{x}$ 's are uniformly bounded below by a positive constant. Thus, $\partial B\left(r_{X}, \ln d_{0}-\ln \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)$ is a cut set for $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ larger than $C_{X}$. Now for the $\lambda_{x}$ 's appearing in 6.5, for each $x \in E$ that is not an isolated point of $X$, we necessarily have $\lambda_{x}=\lambda$. It follows that $\partial B\left(r_{Y}, \ln d_{1}-\ln \lambda \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)$ is a cut set for $\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$ and $\left(\hat{h}, \partial B\left(r_{X}, \ln d_{0}-\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.\ln \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right), \partial B\left(r_{Y}, \ln d_{1}-\ln \lambda \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)\right):\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right) \rightarrow\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$ given by $\hat{h}([z, t])=[h(z), t-\ln \lambda]$ for each $[z, t] \in T_{X} \backslash B\left(r_{X}, \ln d_{0}-\ln \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)$, is a uniform isometry at infinity equivalent to $\tilde{h}$.

Hence, we have a commuting diagram of functors

where the vertical arrows are inclusion functors.
To verify that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is full, follow the proof of Proposition 5.5 that $\mathcal{E}$ is full. Suppose $(R, v)$ and $(S, w)$ are geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees for which there exists a uniform local similarity equivalence $h: \operatorname{end}(R, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. In the proof of 5.5 there is constructed an isometry at infinity $\left(f, C_{R}, C_{S}\right):(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ such that $f_{*}=h$. What we now need to observe is that $f$ can be constructed to be a uniform isometry at infinity. The key to this is when using Lemma 4.10 in the case of a uniform local similarity equivalence, the positive numbers $\lambda_{\alpha}, r_{\alpha}$ may be chosen to be constants; say, $\lambda_{\alpha}=\lambda$ and $r_{\alpha}=r<1$ for each $\alpha \in E$. Then $C_{R}=\{\alpha(-\ln r) \mid \alpha \in E\} \subseteq \partial B(v,-\ln r)$. Since $C_{R}$ is a cut set, it must be that $C_{R}=\partial B(v,-\ln r)$. Likewise, $C_{S}=\partial B(w,-\ln \lambda r)$ and, thus, $\left(f, C_{R}, C_{S}\right)$ is a uniform isometry at infinity.

The diagram above and the faithfulness of $\mathcal{E}$ imply that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is faithful. Finally, since a similarity is, in particular, a uniform local similarity equivalence, the completion of the proof that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is an equivalence follows as in the proof of Theorem 6.9 .

To close this section, we point out in the next result that the obvious notion of "uniform equivalence" is no different from the notion of equivalence that we are using.

Proposition 7.14. Suppose

$$
\left(f, \partial B\left(v, \epsilon_{1}\right), \partial B\left(w, \delta_{1}\right)\right),\left(f^{\prime}, \partial B\left(v, \epsilon_{2}\right), \partial B\left(w, \delta_{2}\right)\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)
$$

are two uniform isometries at infinity between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees such that $\left[f, \partial B\left(v, \epsilon_{1}\right)\right]=\left[f^{\prime}, \partial B\left(v, \epsilon_{2}\right)\right]$. Let $\epsilon=\max \left\{\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}\right\}$. Then for every $c \in \partial B(v, \epsilon)$ :
(1) if $T_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then $f\left|T_{c}=f^{\prime}\right| T_{c}$,
(2) if $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray, then $f\left(T_{c}\right) \cap f^{\prime}\left(T_{c}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. Let $C$ be a cut set for $(T, v)$ so that (1) and (2) hold for every $c \in C$ (such a $C$ exists because $\left.[f]=\left[f^{\prime}\right]\right)$. We may assume that $C$ is larger than $\partial B(v, \epsilon)$. If $c \in \partial B(v, \epsilon)$, then $T_{c}=\cup\left\{T_{x} \cup[c, x] \mid x \in T_{c} \cap C\right\}$. If $T_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then $f(x)=f^{\prime}(x)$ for each $x \in T_{c} \cap C$. It follows that $f\left|[c, x]=f^{\prime}\right|[c, x]$ (otherwise $[w, f(c)] \cup f[c, x]$ and $\left[w, f^{\prime}(c)\right] \cup f^{\prime}[c, x]$ would be two different arcs between $w$ and $f(x)$ ). Hence, (1) holds. (2) holds because it holds with respect to $C$.

## 8. Isometries and local isometries

In this section we introduce two more pairs of equivalent categories and summarize the relationship among the four pairs of categories studied in this paper.

As with the other pairs of categories, each new pair consists of one category whose objects are certain $\mathbb{R}$-trees and another category whose objects are certain ultrametric spaces. The first pair of equivalent categories is more standard than the others in that the morphisms are globally defined. The morphisms are rooted isometries of $\mathbb{R}$-trees in one of the categories, and isometries of ultrametric spaces in the other. I suspect that the equivalence of these two categories is known to experts, but I am unaware of a reference.

The second pair of categories is more in line with the other two pairs already defined. The morphisms for the $\mathbb{R}$-tree category are a specialization of equivalence classes of uniform isometries at infinity, namely, equivalence classes of strong uniform isometries at infinity. For the category of ultrametric spaces, the morphisms are local isometry equivalences, which lie between isometries and uniform local similarity equivalences.

A commuting diagram involving the four pairs of categories is given in Corollary 8.15. The corresponding diagram involving the groups of automorphisms of objects is given in Corollary 8.16.

We begin with rooted isometries of $\mathbb{R}$-trees and isometries of ultrametric spaces.
Recall that a homeomorphism between metric spaces is an isometry if it preserves distances. An isometry $h: T \rightarrow S$ between rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees $(T, v)$ and $(S, w)$ is a rooted isometry provided $h(v)=w$.

Definition 8.1. Let $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ be the category of geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and rooted isometries. The objects of $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ are geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and the morphisms are rooted isometries.

If $h:(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ is a rooted isometry, then $(h, \partial B(v, \epsilon), \partial B(w, \epsilon))$ is a uniform isometry at infinity for every $\epsilon>0$. Hence, the morphism $[h]$ in $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is well-defined and there is an induced functor $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ which is the identity on objects.

Example 8.2. The functor $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is not full. For example, let $T=$ $\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2} \mid x \geq-1\right.$ and $y=0$, or $x=0$ and $\left.y \geq 0\right\}$ and let $S=\{(x, y) \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{2} \mid x \geq 0$ and $y=0$, or $x=0$ and $\left.y \geq 0\right\}$. Give $T$ and $S$ the length metrics induced from the restriction of the standard metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then there exists a uniform isometry at infinity between $(T,(-1,0))$ and $(S,(0,0))$, but no rooted isometry.

Proposition 8.3. The functor $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ is faithful.
Proof. Suppose $g, h:(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ are two rooted isometries between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees. Further suppose that $[g]=[h]$ in $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$. In order to show that $g=h$, let $C_{T}$ be a cut set for $(T, v)$ such that for every $c \in C_{T}$ :
(1) if $T_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then $g\left|T_{c}=h\right| T_{c}$,
(2) if $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray, then $g\left(T_{c}\right) \cap h\left(T_{c}\right) \neq \emptyset$.

It suffices to show that $g\left|[v, c] \cup T_{c}=h\right|[v, c] \cup T_{c}$ for every $c \in C_{T}$. If $T_{c}$ is not an isolated ray, then this is clear because $g(v)=h(v)$ and $g(c)=h(c)$. If $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray, then there exist $x, y \in T_{c}$ such that $g(x)=h(y)$. It follows that $g([v, x])=h([v, y])$ and so $x=y$. From this we have $g(c)=h(c)$ and $g \mid[v, c]=$ $h \mid[v, c]$. Thus, $g\left(T_{c}\right)=h\left(T_{c}\right)$. This, together with the fact that $T_{c}$ is an isolated ray, implies $g\left|T_{c}=h\right| T_{c}$.
Definition 8.4. Let $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{I}}$ be the subcategory of $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ with objects complete ultrametric spaces of diameter $\leq 1$, and isometries for morphisms.
Theorem 8.5. The composition of functors $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \xrightarrow{i} \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ has image in $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{I}}$. Moreover, the induced functor

$$
\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{E}_{\mathrm{RI}}} \mathrm{U}_{\mathrm{I}}
$$

is an equivalence of categories.
Proof. To see that the image is in $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{I}}$, it is enough to observe that if $h:(T, v) \rightarrow$ $(S, w)$ is a morphism in $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}}$, then $h_{*}: \operatorname{end}(T, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$ (as defined in the proof of Proposition 5.3) is an isometry. For this note that $h_{*}(\alpha)=h \circ \alpha$ for every $\alpha \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$. From this it follows immediately that $d_{e}\left(h_{*}(\alpha), h_{*}(\beta)\right)=d_{e}(\alpha, \beta)$ for every $\alpha, \beta \in \operatorname{end}(T, v)$.

That $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ is faithful follows from Proposition 8.3 and Theorem 7.13.
To verify that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ is full, follow the proofs of Proposition 5.5 and Theorem 7.13 that $\mathcal{E}$ and $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ are full. Suppose $(R, v)$ and $(S, w)$ are geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees for which there exists an isometry $h: \operatorname{end}(R, v) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(S, w)$. In the proof of 7.13 (which is based on the proof of 5.5) there is constructed a uniform isometry at infinity $(f, \partial B(v,-\ln r), \partial B(w,-\ln \lambda r)):(R, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ where $r<1$ such that $f_{*}=h$. Since, in the present setting, $h$ is an isometry, we may take $\lambda=1$ and $r$ arbitrarily close to 1 . Thus, the balls whose boundaries are serving as cut sets may be taken to be of arbitrarily small radius. Now note that the formula for $f$ in the proof of 5.5 is independent of $r$. In other words, we may define $f: R \rightarrow S$ by $f(x)=(h \alpha)(\|x\|)$ where $\alpha \in \operatorname{end}(R, v)$ has the property that $\alpha(\|x\|)=x$. The point is that the proof of 5.5 shows that $f$ is an isometry and $f_{*}=h$.

Finally, let $X$ be an object of $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{I}}$, that is, $X$ is a complete ultrametric space of diameter $d_{0} \leq 1$. We need an object $(T, v)$ of $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ such that $\operatorname{end}(T, v)$ is isometric to $X$. If $d_{0}=0$, then we may take $(T, v)=([0, \infty), 0)$. Thus, assume $0<d_{0} \leq$ 1 and let $T_{X}=\left(X \times\left[-\ln d_{0}, \infty\right)\right) / \sim$ be the tree of Definition 6.1 with root
$r_{X}=\left[x,-\ln d_{0}\right]$ (for each $x \in X$ ). Attach the interval $I=\left[0,-\ln d_{0}\right]$ to $T_{X}$ by identifying $-\ln d_{0} \in I$ with $r_{X} \in T_{X}$ to form the tree $T=I \cup T_{X}$ with root 0 and the natural metric so that $I$ and $T_{X}$ are isometrically embedded in $T$. An isometry $h: X \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(T, 0)$ may be defined by

$$
h(x)(t)= \begin{cases}t & \text { if } 0 \leq t \leq-\ln d_{0} \\ {[x, t]} & \text { if }-\ln d_{0} \leq t<\infty\end{cases}
$$

An argument similar to that given for Proposition 6.4 shows that $h$ is an isometry.

## Definition 8.6.

(1) If $(X, d)$ is a metric space, let $\operatorname{Isom}(X)$ denote the group of all isometries from $X$ to itself.
(2) If $(T, v)$ is a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, let $\operatorname{Isom}(T, v)$ denote the group of all rooted isometries from $(T, v)$ to itself.

Note that if $(T, v)$ is a rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, then $\operatorname{Isom}(T, v)$ is a subgroup of $\operatorname{Isom}(T)$.
Of the results and ideas in this paper that are already known, perhaps the following is the most well-known.
Corollary 8.7. Let $(T, v),(S, w)$ be geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees and let $X, Y$ be ultrametric spaces of diameter $\leq 1$.
(1) $\operatorname{Isom}(T, v)$ is isomorphic to $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(T, v))$.
(2) $(T, v)$ and $(S, w)$ are rooted isometric if and only if end $(T, v)$ and end $(S, w)$ are isometric.
(3) If $X$ and $Y$ are isometric, then $\left(T_{X}, r_{X}\right)$ and $\left(T_{Y}, r_{Y}\right)$ are rooted isometric.

Proof. (1) and (2) follow from the fact that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{R I}}$ is an equivalence. (3) follows immediately from Definition 6.1.

The converse of $8.7(3)$ is not true. For example, if $X=\{a, b\}$ has any metric, then $T_{X}$ is isometric to $\mathbb{R}$.

The discussion now turns to strong uniform isometries at infinity of $\mathbb{R}$-trees and local isometries of ultrametric spaces.
Definition 8.8. A homeomorphism $h: X \rightarrow Y$ between metric spaces is a local isometry equivalence if there exist $\epsilon>0$ such that for every $x \in X$ the restriction $h \mid: B(x, \epsilon) \rightarrow B(h(x), \epsilon)$ is an isometry.

Definition 8.9. If $(X, d)$ is a metric space, let $L I(X)$ denote the group of local isometry equivalences from $X$ to itself.
Proposition 8.10. $L I(X)$ is a subgroup of $L S E^{u}(X)$.
Proof. The proof of Lemma 4.5 shows that inverses and compositions of local isometry equivalences are local isometry equivalences.

Note that for any metric space $(X, d)$, there are the following group inclusions:

$$
\operatorname{Isom}(X) \subseteq L I(X) \subseteq L S E^{u}(X) \subseteq L S E(X)
$$

The second inclusion is often an equality, but none of the others need be. The situation is clarified by the next result and the examples below.

Proposition 8.11. If $(X, d)$ is a compact metric space, then $L I(X)=\operatorname{LSE} E^{u}(X)$.
Proof. If $X$ is finite, then every self-homeomorphism of $X$ is both a local isometry equivalence and a uniform local similarity equivalence. Hence, we assume, by way of contradiction, that $X$ is infinite and $h: X \rightarrow X$ is a uniform local similarity equivalence that is not a local isometry equivalence. Let $\epsilon>0$ and $\lambda>0$ be given as in Definition 7.7. We may assume $\lambda<1$ (otherwise consider $h^{-1}$ ). Choose distinct points $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{N} \in X$ such that $\left\{B\left(x_{i}, \epsilon\right) \mid i=1, \ldots, N\right\}$ covers $X$. It follows that for each $n=1,2,3, \ldots,\left\{B\left(h^{n}\left(x_{i}\right), \lambda^{n} \epsilon\right) \mid i=1, \ldots, N\right\}$ also covers $X$. It follows from this that the cardinality of $X$ is at most $N$. For suppose $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{N+1} \in X$ are distinct and let $\delta=\min \left\{d\left(y_{j}, y_{k}\right) \mid j \neq k\right\}$. Choose $n$ such that $\lambda^{n}<\delta / 2$. Then there exist $i \in\{1, \ldots, N\}$ and $j, k \in\{1, \ldots, N+1\}, j \neq k$, such that $y_{j}, y_{k} \in B\left(h^{n}\left(x_{i}\right), \lambda^{n} \epsilon\right)$. Thus, $d\left(y_{j}, y_{k}\right)<2 \lambda^{n} \epsilon<\delta$, a contradiction.

## Examples 8.12.

(1) There is a compact ultrametric space $(X, d)$ such that $\operatorname{Isom}(X) \neq L I(X)$. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$ with metric $d$ satisfying $d(a, b)=d(a, c)=2$ and $d(b, c)=1$. Then every bijection of $X$ is a local isometry equivalence, but not all are isometries.
(2) There is a (non-compact) ultrametric space $(X, d)$ such that $L I(X) \neq L S E^{u}(X)$. Let $X=\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i=0}^{\infty} \cup\left\{y_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ and define $d$ by
(i) $d\left(y_{i}, z\right)=1$ whenever $i \geq 1$ and $z \neq y_{i}$.
(ii) $d\left(x_{m}, x_{n}\right)=e^{-n}$ whenever $m \geq n \geq 1$.
(iii) $d\left(x_{0}, x_{n}\right)=e^{-n}$ whenever $n \geq 1$.

In particular, $x_{0}$ is the only non-isolated point of $X$. Define $h: X \rightarrow X$ by
(i) $h\left(x_{0}\right)=x_{0}$
(ii) $h\left(y_{i}\right)=y_{i+1}$ for all $i \geq 1$
(iii) $h\left(x_{i}\right)=x_{i-1}$ for all $i \geq 2$
(iv) $h\left(x_{1}\right)=y_{1}$.

Then $h \in L S E^{u}(X)$ but $h \notin L I(X)$.
(3) There is a compact ultrametric space $(X, d)$ such that $L S E^{u}(X) \neq \operatorname{LSE}(X)$. Let $X$ be the end space of the Fibonacci tree as defined in $\S 9$. Then Proposition 9.10 below shows that $L I(X)$ does not equal $L S E(X)$.

Figure 3

## Definition 8.13.

(1) An isometry at infinity $\left(f, C_{T}, C_{S}\right):(T, v) \rightarrow(S, w)$ between geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-trees is a strong uniform isometry at infinity provided there exist $r>0$ such that $C_{T}=\partial B(v, r)$ and $C_{S}=\partial B(w, r)$.
(2) Two strong uniform isometries at infinity are equivalent provided they are equivalent as isometries at infinity.
(3) If $(T, v)$ is a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree, let $I s o m s u(T, v)$ denote the group of equivalence classes of strong uniform isometries at infinity from $(T, v)$ to itself.
(4) Let $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{s u}}$ be the subcategory of $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ having the same objects, but whose morphisms are the equivalence classes of strong uniform isometries at infinity.
(5) Let $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L I}}$ be the subcategory of $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ with objects complete ultrametric spaces of diameter $\leq 1$, and local isometry equivalences for morphisms.

The facts that are implicitly assumed in this definition about compositions of various morphisms are readily verified.

## Proposition 8.14.

(1) The functor $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ factors as $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \xrightarrow{j} \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{s u}} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$.
(2) The functor $j: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{s u}}$ is faithful, but not full.
(3) The composition of functors $\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{s u}} \hookrightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{u}}$ has image in $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L I}}$. Moreover, the induced functor

$$
\mathbf{T}_{\mathrm{su}} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{E}_{\mathrm{su}}} \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{L I}}
$$

is an equivalence of categories.
Proof. It is clear that the functor $i: \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{R I}} \rightarrow \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{u}}$ defined immediately after Definition 8.1 takes rooted isometries to equivalence classes of strong uniform isometries at infinity; thus, (1) holds. Example 8.2 shows that $j$ is not full, and the faithfulness of $j$ follows from (1) and Proposition 8.3; thus, (2) holds. For the first part of (3), the first paragraph of the proof of Theorem 7.13 shows that $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ takes the equivalence class of a strong uniform isometry at infinity to a local isometry (because $r_{1}=r_{2}$ implies $\lambda=1$ ). The faithfulness of $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{s u}}$ follows from the faithfulness of $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$. The fullness of $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{s u}}$ follows from the proof of the fullness of $\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{u}}$ in 7.13 (because $\lambda=1$ ).

We can now give a commuting diagram that summarizes the various categories and functors studied in this paper.

Corollary 8.15. There is a commuting diagram of categories and functors in which all vertical arrows are equivalences of categories:


There is a corresponding diagram involving the automorphism groups of objects given in the next and final result of this section.

Corollary 8.16. Let $(T, v)$ be a geodesically complete, rooted $\mathbb{R}$-tree and let $X=$ end $(T, v)$. Then the following diagram of natural homomorphisms is commutative and the vertical arrows are isomorphisms:


## Moreover:

(1) All of the horizontal arrows are injective (on the bottom row, they are inclusions).
(2) None of the horizontal arrows need be surjective.
(3) If $X$ is compact, then the only horizontal inclusions that need be equalities are the middle ones.

Proof. The commutativity of the diagram and the fact that the vertical arrows are isomorphisms follow directly from Corollary 8.15. That the horizontal arrows are injective then follows from the fact that the arrows on the bottom row are inclusions of subgroups. The statements about surjectivity follow from Proposition 8.11 and Examples 8.12.

## 9. The Cantor tree, the Fibonacci tree and final comments

In this final section we examine the Cantor tree $C$, the Fibonacci tree $F$ and their end spaces. The trees $C$ and $F$ are bi-Lipschitz homeomorphic, but not isometric at infinity.

The group $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(C))$ acts transitively on $\operatorname{end}(C)$; thus, we think of the groups $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(C)), L I(\operatorname{end}(C))$ and $L S E(\operatorname{end}(C))$ as being rather large in the sense that the quotient of $\operatorname{end}(C)$ by any of these groups reduces to a single point.

On the other hand, the corresponding groups for $\operatorname{end}(F)$ are rather small. In fact, $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(F))$ is trivial. The groups $L I(\operatorname{end}(F))$ and $L S E(\operatorname{end}(F))$ are nontrivial and the quotients of $\operatorname{end}(F)$ by these groups are determined (and found to be non-trivial).
Definition 9.1. The Cantor tree $C$ and its end space $\operatorname{end}(C)$. The Cantor tree $C$, also called the infinite binary tree, is a locally finite, simply connected onedimensional simplicial complex (with the natural length metric $d$ so that every edge is of length 1). It has a root $r$ of valency two (i.e., there exists exactly two edges containing $r$ ) and every other vertex is of valency three. If $v$ is a vertex different from $r$, then the two edges that contain $v$ and are separated from $r$ by $v$ are not labelled identically. Each edge is labelled 0 or 1 so that for every vertex $v$, at least one edge containing $v$ is labelled 0 and at least one is labelled 1.

Let $\operatorname{end}(C)=\operatorname{end}(C, r)$ since the root $r$ is understood. An element of $\operatorname{end}(C)$, being an infinite sequence of successively adjacent edges in $C$ beginning at $r$, can be labelled uniquely by an infinite sequence of 0 's and 1 's. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{end}(C)=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right) \mid x_{i} \in\{0,1\} \text { for each } i\right\}
$$

and

$$
d_{e}\left(\left(x_{i}\right),\left(y_{i}\right)\right)= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if }\left(x_{i}\right)=\left(y_{i}\right) \\ 1 / e^{n} & \text { if }\left(x_{i}\right) \neq\left(y_{i}\right) \text { and } n=\inf \left\{i \geq 0 \mid x_{i} \neq y_{i}\right\} .\end{cases}
$$

Definition 9.2. The Fibonacci tree $F$ and its end space $\operatorname{end}(F)$. The Fibonacci tree $F$ is a subtree of $C$ with the same root $r$ and labelling scheme. In $F$, only edges labelled 0 are allowed to follow edges labelled 1 as one moves away from the root. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{end}(F)=\left\{\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right) \in \operatorname{end}(C) \mid x_{i}=1 \text { implies } x_{i+1}=0\right\} .
$$

Recall the following definitions.
Definition 9.3. A homeomorphism $h: X \rightarrow Y$ between metric spaces $\left(X, d_{X}\right)$ and $\left(Y, d_{Y}\right)$ is:
(1) a bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism if there exist constants $c_{1}, c_{2}>0$ such that for every $x, y \in X$,

$$
c_{1} d_{X}(x, y) \leq d_{Y}(h(x), h(y)) \leq c_{2} d_{X}(x, y) .
$$

(2) a bi-Hölder homeomorphism if there exist constants $c_{1}, c_{2}, \alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}>0$ such that for every $x, y \in X$,

$$
c_{1}\left[d_{X}(x, y)\right]^{\alpha_{1}} \leq d_{Y}(h(x), h(y)) \leq c_{2}\left[d_{X}(x, y)\right]^{\alpha_{2}} .
$$

(3) quasi-conformal if there exists a constant $k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every $x \in X,{ }^{4}$

$$
\limsup _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sup \left\{d_{Y}\left(h(x), h(y) \mid d_{X}(x, y)=r\right\}\right.}{\inf \left\{d_{Y}\left(h(x), h(y) \mid d_{X}(x, y)=r\right\}\right.} \leq k .
$$

(4) conformal if for every $x \in X$,

$$
\limsup _{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sup \left\{d_{Y}\left(h(x), h(y) \mid d_{X}(x, y)=r\right\}\right.}{\inf \left\{d_{Y}\left(h(x), h(y) \mid d_{X}(x, y)=r\right\}\right.}=1 .
$$

Proposition 9.4. There exists a bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism $h: C \rightarrow F$ that induces a conformal bi-Hölder homeomorphism $\hat{h}: \operatorname{end}(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$.

Since a bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism is a special case of a quasi-isometry, the fact that $\hat{h}: \operatorname{end}(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$ in the proposition is a quasi-conformal bi-Hölder homeomorphism follows from the general theory of Ghys and de la Harpe [GdH], but I include an explicit proof for purposes of illustration (and because of the slightly stronger conclusion of conformality instead of quasi-conformality in this special case).
Proof of 9.4. The homeomorphism $h: C \rightarrow F$ is defined by introducing a vertex at the midpoint of each edge $e$ of $C$ that is labelled 1 . The new edge created from $e$ that is closest to the root is labelled 1 ; the other new edge is labelled 0 . This new tree created from $C$ can be naturally identified with $F$ and $h$ is the resulting homeomorphism. In particular, if $e$ is an edge of $C$ labelled 0 , then $h \mid e$ is an

[^3]isometric embedding; if $e$ is an edge of $C$ labelled 1 , then $h \mid e$ multiplies distances by 2 . Thus,
$$
d(x, y) \leq d(h(x), h(y)) \leq 2 d(x, y)
$$
for every $x, y \in C$, showing that $h$ is bi-Lipschitz.
The induced map $\hat{h}: \operatorname{end}(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$ is given by
$$
\hat{h}\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)=\left(x_{0}, \epsilon_{0}, x_{1}, \epsilon_{1}, x_{2}, \epsilon_{2}, \ldots\right)
$$
where
\[

$$
\begin{cases}\epsilon_{i}=0 & \text { if } x_{i}=1 \\ \epsilon_{i} \text { is the empty symbol } & \text { if } x_{i}=0\end{cases}
$$
\]

It is clear that $\hat{h}$ is bijective. To check the other properties, suppose $x, y \in C$ and $d(x, y)=1 / e^{n}$. Then $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for $0 \leq i \leq n-1$ and $x_{n} \neq y_{n}$. It follows that

$$
1 / e^{2 n} \leq d_{e}(h(x), h(y)) \leq 1 / e^{n} .
$$

Moreover, $d_{e}(h(x), h(y))$ depends only on the number of 1 's in $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots x_{n-1}\right)$. This implies

$$
\left[d_{e}(x, y)\right]^{2} \leq d_{e}(h(x), h(y)) \leq d_{e}(x, y)
$$

for all $x, y \in C$, so $h$ is a bi-Hölder homeomorphism. Moreover, $d(h(x), h(y))=$ $d(h(x), h(z))$ if $d(x, y)=d(x, z)$, which implies that

$$
\sup \left\{d(h(x), h(z)) \mid d(x, z)=1 / e^{n}\right\}=\inf \left\{d(h(x), h(z)) \mid d(x, z)=1 / e^{n}\right\}
$$

and $h$ is conformal.
In contrast to Proposition 9.4, the next result points out a difference between $\operatorname{end}(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ by comparing their groups of isometries.

## Proposition 9.5.

(1) $\operatorname{end}(C)$ is isometrically homogeneous; i.e., $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(C))$ acts transitively on end $(C)$.
(2) $\operatorname{end}(F)$ is rigid; i.e., $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(F))=\{1\}$.

Proof. We begin by showing that if $x, y \in C$, then there exists an isometry $h: C \rightarrow$ $C$ such that $h(x)=y$. For $z \in C$, define $h(z)$ by

$$
(h(z))_{i}= \begin{cases}z_{i} & \text { if } x_{i}=y_{i} \\ 1-z_{i} & \text { if } x_{i} \neq y_{i}\end{cases}
$$

To show that $F$ is rigid, we need a lemma. First note that if $x \in F$ and $n \geq 0$, then

$$
B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right)=\left\{z \in F \mid z_{i}=x_{i} \text { for all } i \leq n\right\} .
$$

Lemma 9.5.1. If $x, y \in F, n \geq 0$ and $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ is an isometry such that $f(x)=y$, then $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for all $i \geq n$.

Proof of 9.5.1. Suppose on the contrary that there exists $i \geq n$ such that $x_{i} \neq y_{i}$. Without loss of generality, assume that $x_{i}=0$ and $y_{i}=1$. Let

$$
z=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i}, 0,0,0, \ldots\right)
$$

and $w=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i}, 1,0,0, \ldots\right)$. Note that $z, w \in F, d(z, w)=1 / e^{(i+1)}$, $d(x, z) \leq 1 / e^{(i+1)}$ and $d(x, w) \leq 1 / e^{(i+1)}$. In particular, $z, w \in B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ (because $\left.1 / e^{(i+1)}<1 / e^{n}\right)$. Since $f(z), f(w) \in B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right) \subseteq F, d(y, f(z))=d(f(x), f(z)) \leq$ $1 / e^{(i+1)}$ and $d(y, f(w))=d(f(x), f(z)) \leq 1 / e^{(i+1)}$, we must have

$$
f(z)=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{i}, 0, z_{i+2}^{\prime}, z_{i+3}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)
$$

and $f(w)=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{i}, 0, w_{i+2}^{\prime}, w_{i+3}^{\prime}, \ldots\right)$. Thus, $d(f(z), f(w)) \leq 1 / e^{(i+2)}$, contradicting the fact that $f$ is an isometry (since $d(z, w)=1 / e^{(i+1)}$ ).

To see how the lemma implies that $F$ is rigid, suppose $h: F \rightarrow F$ is a isometry and $x \in F$. Then $h \mid: B\left(x, 1 / e^{0}\right) \rightarrow B\left(h(x), 1 / e^{0}\right)$ is an isometry, so 9.5 .1 implies $x_{i}=h(x)_{i}$ for all $i \geq 0$; that is, $x=h(x)$.

Since $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(C))$ acts transitively on $\operatorname{end}(C)$, so do the larger groups $L I(\operatorname{end}(C))$ and $\operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(C))$. The situation is different for $\operatorname{end}(F)$ as we now begin to describe.

Lemma 9.6. If $x \in F$ and $m \geq 0$, then there exists a similarity equivalence $h: F \rightarrow B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right)$.
Proof. Define $h$ by

$$
h(z)= \begin{cases}\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m}, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots\right) & \text { if } x_{m}=0 \\ \left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m}, 0, z_{0}, z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots\right) & \text { if } x_{m}=1 .\end{cases}
$$

One can check that $h$ is a $\lambda$-similarity equivalence with

$$
\lambda= \begin{cases}e^{-m} & \text { if } x_{m}=0 \\ e^{-m-1} & \text { if } x_{m}=1\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 9.7. Let $x, y \in F$ and $m, n \geq 0$. Then there exists a unique similarity equivalence $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$. Moreover, the similarity constant of any such similarity equivalence is given by

$$
\lambda= \begin{cases}e^{m-n} & \text { if } x_{m}=y_{n} \\ e^{m-n-1} & \text { if } x_{m}=0, y_{n}=1 \\ e^{m-n+1} & \text { if } x_{m}=1, y_{n}=0 .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. We first show how to define the similarities in the three cases:
(1) $x_{m}=y_{n}$. If $z \in B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right)$, then $z=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m}, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right)$ Define $f(z)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right)$. The condition $x_{m}=y_{n}$ guarantees that $f(z) \in F$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (2) } x_{m}=0, y_{n}=1 \text {. If } z \in B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right) \text {, then } z=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m}, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right)= \\
& \left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m-1}, 0, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right) \text {. Define } \\
& f(z)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}, 0, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n-2}, 0,1,0, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right) . \\
& \text { (3) } x_{m}=1, y_{n}=0 \text {. If } z \in B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right) \text {, then } z=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m}, z_{m+1}, z_{m+2}, \ldots\right)= \\
& \\
& \left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{m-2}, 0,1,0, z_{m+2}, z_{m+3}, \ldots\right) \text { Define } \\
& f(z)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}, z_{m+2}, z_{m+3}, \ldots\right)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n-1}, 0, z_{m+2}, z_{m+3}, \ldots\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is easy to see that the similarities just defined have similarity constants as in the statement above. But we must now observe that any similarity homeomorphism will have such a constant. In general, note that if $h: X \rightarrow Y$ is any $\lambda$-similarity equivalence between metric spaces of finite diameter, then $\lambda=\operatorname{diam} X / \operatorname{diam} Y$. It follows that, in the finite diameter case, the similarity constant is uniquely determined. Thus, the similarity constants must be given as in the statement of the lemma.

It remains to show that $f$ is unique. Suppose $g: B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{n}\right)$ is another similarity homeomorphism. Since $f$ and $g$ must have the same similarity constants, it follows that $g^{-1} f$ is an isometry of $B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right)$. By Lemma 9.6 there is a similarity homeomorphism $h: F \rightarrow B\left(x, 1 / \mathrm{e}^{m}\right)$. Hence, $h^{-1} g^{-1} f h: F \rightarrow F$ is an isometry. Rigidity of $F$ (Proposition 9.5(2)) implies that $h^{-1} g^{-1} f h=\mathrm{id}_{F}$. Hence $g=f$.

Lemma 9.8. Let $x, y \in F$ and $m, n \geq 0$ There exists a similarity equivalence $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ with $f(x)=y$ if and only if

$$
\begin{cases}x_{m+k}=y_{n+k} \text { for all } k \geq 1 & \text { if } x_{m}=y_{n} \\ x_{m+k-1}=y_{n+k} \text { for all } k \geq 1 & \text { if } x_{m}=0, y_{n}=1 \\ x_{m+k}=y_{n+k-1} \text { for all } k \geq 1 & \text { if } x_{m}=1, y_{n}=0\end{cases}
$$

Proof. If such a similarity $f$ exists, then it is unique by Lemma 9.7. The explicit description given in the proof of 9.7 allows a comparison of $f(x)$ and $y$ in each of the three cases:
(1) $x_{m}=y_{n} \Rightarrow f(x)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}, x_{m+1}, x_{m+2} \ldots\right)=y \Rightarrow y_{n+k}=x_{m+k}$ for all $k \geq 1$.
(2) $x_{m}=0, y_{n}=1 \Rightarrow f(x)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n}, y_{n+1}=x_{m}, x_{m+1}, x_{m+2} \ldots\right)=y \Rightarrow$ $y_{n+k}=x_{m+k-1}$ for all $k \geq 1$.
(3) $x_{m}=1, y_{n}=0 \Rightarrow f(x)=\left(y_{0}, \ldots, y_{n-1}, y_{n}=x_{m+1}, x_{m+2} \ldots\right)=y \Rightarrow$ $y_{n+k-1}=x_{m+k}$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Conversely, in each of these three cases the proof of 9.7 gives an explicit unique similarity equivalence $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$. By examination of these three cases, the given relations betweeen $x$ and $y$ and the definition of $f$ show that $f(x)=y$.
Definition 9.9. Two sequences $\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots\right)$ and $\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots\right)$ are eventually equal (or tail equivalent) if there exists an integer $n \geq 0$ such that $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for all $i \geq n$. They are eventually equal with lag (or eventually shift equivalent) if there exist integers $m, n \geq 0$ such that $x_{m+j}=y_{n+j}$ for all $j \geq 0$.

## Proposition 9.10.

(1) If $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$, then there exists $h \in \operatorname{LI}(\operatorname{end}(F))$ such that $h(x)=y$ if and only if $x$ and $y$ are eventually equal.
(2) If $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$, then there exists $h \in \operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(F))$ such that $h(x)=y$ if and only if $x$ and $y$ are eventually equal with lag.

Proof. (1) If $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$ and there exists a local isometry equivalence $h$ : $\operatorname{end}(F) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$ such that $h(x)=y$, then Lemma 9.5.1 shows that $x$ and $y$ are eventually equal.

Conversely, suppose $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$ and $x_{i}=y_{i}$ for all $i \geq n$. Then we can write $x=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_{n}, x_{n+1}, \ldots\right)$ and $y=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n-1}, x_{n}, x_{n+1}, \ldots\right)$. Let $z \in B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right)$. Then $d(x, z) \leq 1 / e^{(n+1)}$ and $z=\left(x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_{n}, z_{n+1}, z_{n+2}, \ldots\right)$. Define $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ by $f(z)=\left(y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n-1}, x_{n}, z_{n+1}, z_{n+2}, \ldots\right)$. Then define $h: \operatorname{end}(F) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$ by

$$
h(w)= \begin{cases}f(w) & \text { if } w \in B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \\ f^{-1}(w) & \text { if } w \in B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right) \backslash B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \\ w & \text { if } w \notin B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \cup B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right) .\end{cases}
$$

It can be checked that $h$ is a local isometry equivalence with $h(x)=y$. For this it is helpful to recall that $B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right)=B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ or $B\left(x, 1 / e^{n}\right) \cap B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)=\emptyset$ (Proposition 4.2).
(2) If $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$ and there exists a local similarity equivalence $h: \operatorname{end}(F) \rightarrow$ $\operatorname{end}(F)$ such that $h(x)=y$, then Lemma 9.8 shows that $x$ and $y$ are eventually equal with lag.

Conversely, suppose $x, y \in \operatorname{end}(F)$ and there exist integers $m, n \geq 0$ such that $x_{m+j}=y_{n+j}$ for all $j \geq 0$. We may assume that $x \neq y$ (otherwise the result is trivial) and that $m, n$ are so large that $B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \cap B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)=\emptyset$. Lemma 9.8 implies that there exists a similarity equivalence $f: B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \rightarrow B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right)$ with $f(x)=y$. Then define $h: \operatorname{end}(F) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$ by

$$
h(w)= \begin{cases}f(w) & \text { if } w \in B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \\ f^{-1}(w) & \text { if } w \in B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right) \\ w & \text { if } w \notin B\left(x, 1 / e^{m}\right) \cup B\left(y, 1 / e^{n}\right) .\end{cases}
$$

It can be checked that $h$ is a local similarity equivalence and $h(x)=y$.
The consequence of the difference between local similarity equivalnce for $\operatorname{end}(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ is summarized in the following final result. The point is that $C$ and $F$ have different geometry at infinity even though they have the same asymptotic (or, large-scale) geometry.

Corollary 9.11. There exists no local similarity equivalence end $(C) \rightarrow \operatorname{end}(F)$, and there exists no isometry at infinity $C \rightarrow F$.

Proof. The first part follows from the fact that, on the one hand, $\operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(C))$ contains $\operatorname{Isom}(\operatorname{end}(C))$, and so $\operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(C))$ acts transitively on $\operatorname{end}(C)$ (Proposition 9.5), but, on the other hand, $\operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(F))$ does not act transitively on $\operatorname{end}(F)$ (Prposition 9.10). The second part follows from the first part and the Main Theorem.

Of course, this corollary also follows from the fact that $\operatorname{end}(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ are not bi-Lipschitz equivalent. This is because every local isometry equivalence between compact metric spaces is easily seen to be a bi-Lipschitz homeomorphism. An elementary calculation of Hausdorff dimension shows that end $(C)$ and $\operatorname{end}(F)$ are not bi-Lipschitz equivalent (Hausdorff dimension being a bi-Lipschitz invariant).

If one looks at the treatment of the space of Penrose tilings in Connes [Con], then one sees why noncommutative geometry is relevant here. The quotient

$$
\operatorname{end}(F) / L I(\operatorname{end}(F))
$$

is exactly the same as the space of Penrose tilings and Connes uses it as a motivating example. The basic idea is that the quotients $\operatorname{end}(F) / L I(\operatorname{end}(F))$ and $\operatorname{end}(F) / L S E(\operatorname{end}(F))$ are too pathological to study by classical topological methods; they should be viewed as noncommutative spaces.

The theory of groupoids is relevant because what we are detecting in $\operatorname{LI}(\operatorname{end}(T))$ and $\operatorname{LSE}(\operatorname{end}(T))$ are non-global symmetries of a tree $T$. Groupoids are to nonglobal symmetries as groups are to symmetries (see Weinstein [Wei]).

See [Hug] for more information about how to use noncommutative geometry and groupoids to analyze local isometries.

## Acknowledgments

The author wishes to thank Manuel Moron and Werner Terhalle for several helpful comments.

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[^0]:    1991 Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 57M99; Secondary 05C05, 46L89, 53C23, 54E35.

    Key words and phrases. Tree, ultrametric, end space, isometry at infinity, local similarity, local isometry, Cantor tree, Fibonacci tree.

    This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. DMS-9971367.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is possible to define cut sets in not necessarily geodesically complete trees by first defining endpoints of trees and then deciding how endpoints should behave with respect to cut sets.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ It need not be the case that $q$ is a quotient map.
    ${ }^{3}$ The proof of the triangle inequality for $D$ requires the ultrametric property of $d$. For example, if $X=\{x, y, z\}$ with metric $d$ given by $d(x, y)=3, d(x, z)=1, d(z, y)=2$, then $D$ will not satisfy the triangle inequality.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ In taking these limsup's, we assume that no point of $X$ is isolated and that we only consider those $r$ 's for which $\left\{y \in X \mid d_{X}(x, y)=r\right\} \neq \emptyset$. This consideration applies to the definition of conformal as well. See [GdH].

