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The Geometry and Topology of Three-Manifolds

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Numbers on the right margin correspond to the original edition's page numbers.

Thurston's *Three-Dimensional Geometry and Topology*, Vol. 1 (Princeton University Press, 1997) is a considerable expansion of the first few chapters of these notes. Later chapters have not yet appeared in book form.

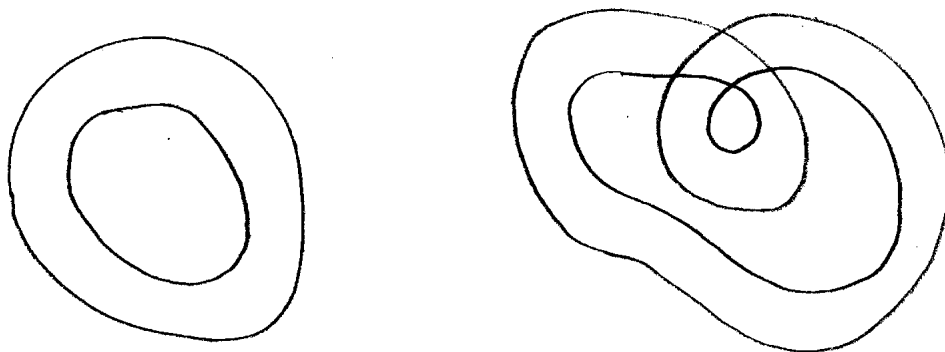
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CHAPTER 5

Flexibility and rigidity of geometric structures

In this chapter we will consider deformations of hyperbolic structures and of geometric structures in general. By a geometric structure on M , we mean, as usual, a local modelling of M on a space X acted on by a Lie group G . Suppose M is compact, possibly with boundary. In the case where the boundary is non-empty we do not make special restrictions on the boundary behavior.

If M is modelled on (X, G) then the developing map $\tilde{M} \xrightarrow{D} X$ defines the holonomy representation $H : \pi_1 M \longrightarrow G$. In general, H does not determine the structure on M . For example, the two immersions of an annulus shown below define Euclidean structures on the annulus which both have trivial holonomy but are not equivalent in any reasonable sense.



However, the holonomy is a complete invariant for (G, X) -structures on M near a given structure M_0 , up to an appropriate equivalence relation: two structures M_1 and M_2 near M_0 are equivalent deformations of M_0 if there are submanifolds M'_1 and M'_2 , containing all but small neighborhoods of the boundary of M_1 and M_2 , with a (G, X) homeomorphism between them which is near the identity. 5.2

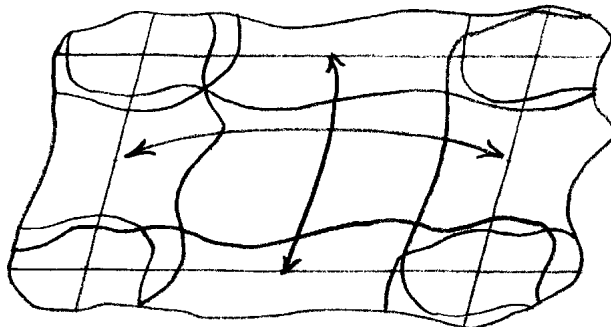
Let M_0 denote a fixed structure on M , with holonomy H_0 .

PROPOSITION 5.1. *Geometric structures on M near M_0 are determined up to equivalency by holonomy representations of $\pi_1 M$ in G which are near H_0 , up to conjugacy by small elements of G .*

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PROOF. Any manifold M can be represented as the image of a disk D with reasonably nice overlapping near ∂D . Any structure on M is obtained from the structure induced on D , by gluing via the holonomy of certain elements of $\pi_1(M)$.

Any representation of $\pi_1 M$ near H_0 gives a new structure, by perturbing the identifications on D . The new identifications are still finite-to-one giving a new manifold homeomorphic to M_0 .



5.3

If two structures near M_0 have holonomy conjugate by a small element of G , one can make a small change of coordinates so that the holonomy is identical. The two structures then yield nearby immersions of D into X , with the same identifications; restricting to slightly smaller disks gives the desired (G, X) -homeomorphism. \square

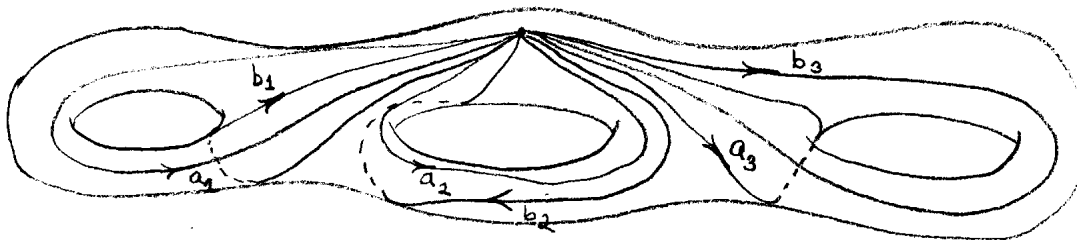
5.2.

As a first approximation to the understanding of small deformations we can describe $\pi_1 M$ in terms of a set of generators $\mathcal{G} = \{g_1, \dots, g_n\}$ and a set of relators $\mathcal{R} = \{r_1, \dots, r_l\}$. [Each r_i is a word in the g_i 's which equals 1 in $\pi_1 M$.] Any representation $\rho : \pi_1 M \rightarrow G$ assigns each generator g_i an element in G , $\rho(g_i)$. This embeds the space of representations R in $G^{\mathcal{G}}$. Since any representation of $\pi_1 M$ must respect the relations in $\pi_1 M$, the image under ρ of a relator r_j must be the identity in G . If $p : G^{\mathcal{G}} \rightarrow G^{\mathcal{R}}$ sends a set of elements in G to the $|\mathcal{R}|$ relators written with these elements, then D is just $p^{-1}(1, \dots, 1)$. If p is generic near H_0 , (i.e., if the derivative dp is surjective), the implicit function theorem implies that \mathcal{R} is just a manifold of dimension $(|\mathcal{G}| - |\mathcal{R}|) \cdot (\dim G)$. One might reasonably expect this to be the case, provided the generators and relations are chosen in an efficient way. If the action of G on itself by conjugation is effective (as for the group of isometries of hyperbolic space) then generally one would also expect that the action of G on $G^{\mathcal{G}}$ by conjugation, near H_0 , has orbits of the same dimension as G . If so, then the space of deformations of M_0 would be a manifold of dimension

5.4

$$\dim G \cdot (|\mathcal{G}| - |\mathcal{R}| - 1).$$

EXAMPLE. Let's apply the above analysis to the case of hyperbolic structures on closed, oriented two-manifolds of genus at least two. G in this case can be taken to be $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ acting on the upper half-plane by linear fractional transformations. $\pi_1(M_g)$ can be presented with $2g$ generators $a_1, b_1, \dots, a_g, b_g$ (see below) together with the single relator $\prod_{i=1}^g [a_i, b_i]$.



Since $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$ is a real three-dimensional Lie group the expected dimension of the deformation space is $3(2g - 1 - 1) = 6g - 6$. This can be made rigorous by showing directly that the derivative of the map $p : G^g \rightarrow G^{\mathbb{R}}$ is surjective, but since we will have need for more global information about the deformation space, we won't make the computation here.

5.5

EXAMPLE. The initial calculation for hyperbolic structures on an oriented three-manifold is less satisfactory. The group of isometries on H^3 preserves planes which, in the upper half-space model, are hemispheres perpendicular to $\mathbb{C} \cup \infty$ (denoted $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$). Thus the group G can be identified with the group of circle preserving maps of $\hat{\mathbb{C}}$. This is the group of all linear fractional transformations with complex coefficients $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. (All transformations are assumed to be orientation preserving). $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, is a *complex* Lie group with real dimensions 6. M^3 can be built from one zero-cell, a number of one- and two-cells, and (if M is closed), one 3-cell.

If M is closed, then $\chi(M) = 0$, so the number k of one-cells equals the number of two-cells. This gives us a presentation of $\pi_1 M$ with k generators and k relators. The expected (real) dimension of the deformation space is $6(k - k - 1) = -6$.

If $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, with all boundary components of positive genus, this estimate of the dimension gives

$$5.2.1. \quad 6 \cdot (-\chi(M)) = 12(-\chi(\partial M)).$$

This calculation would tend to indicate that the existence of *any* hyperbolic structure on a closed three-manifold would be unusual. However, subgroups of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ have many special algebraic properties, so that certain relations can follow from other relations in ways which do not follow in a general group.

5.6

The crude estimate 5.2.1 actually gives some substantive information when $\chi(M) < 0$.

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PROPOSITION 5.2.2. *If M^3 possesses a hyperbolic structure M_0 , then the space of small deformations of M_0 has dimension at least $6 \cdot (-\chi(M))$.*

PROOF. $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})^g$ is a complex algebraic variety, and the map

$$p : \mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})^g \rightarrow \mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})^R$$

is a polynomial map (defined by matrix multiplication). Hence the dimension of the subvariety $p = (1, \dots, 1)$ is at least as great as the number of variables minus the number of defining equations. \square

We will later give an improved version of 5.2.2 whenever M has boundary components which are tori.

5.3.

In this section we will derive some information about the global structure of the space of hyperbolic structures on a closed, oriented surface M . This space is called the *Teichmüller space* of M and is defined to be the set of hyperbolic structures on M where two are equivalent if there is an isometry homotopic to the identity between them.

In order to understand hyperbolic structures on a surface we will cut the surface up into simple pieces, analyze structures on these pieces, and study the ways they can be put together. Before doing this we need some information about closed geodesics in M .

PROPOSITION 5.3.1. *On any closed hyperbolic n -manifold M there is a unique, closed geodesic in any non-trivial free homotopy class.*

PROOF. For any $\alpha \in \pi_1 M$ consider the covering transformation T_α on the universal cover H^n of M . It is an isometry of H^n . Therefore it either fixes some interior point of H^n (elliptic), fixes a point at infinity (parabolic) or acts as a translation on some unique geodesic (hyperbolic). That all isometries of H^2 are of one of these types was proved in Proposition 4.9.3; the proof for H^n is similar.

NOTE. A distinction is often made between “loxodromic” and “hyperbolic” transformations in dimension 3. In this usage a loxodromic transformation means an isometry which is a pure translation along a geodesic followed by a non-trivial twist, while a hyperbolic transformation means a pure translation. This is usually not a useful distinction from the point of view of geometry and topology, so *we will use the term “hyperbolic” to cover either case.*

Since T_α is a covering translation it can't have an interior fixed point so it can't be elliptic. For any parabolic transformation there are points moved arbitrarily small distances. This would imply that there are non-trivial simple closed curves of arbitrarily small length in M . Since M is closed this is impossible. Therefore T_α translates a unique geodesic, which projects to a closed geodesic in M . Two geodesics corresponding to the translations T_α and T'_α project to the same geodesic in M if and only if there is a covering translation taking one to the other. In other words, $\alpha' = g\alpha g^{-1}$ for some $g \in \pi_1 M$, or equivalently, α is free homotopic to α' . 5.8 \square

PROPOSITION 5.3.2. *Two distinct geodesics in the universal cover H^n of M which are invariant by two covering translations have distinct endpoints at ∞ .*

PROOF. If two such geodesics had the same endpoint, they would be arbitrarily close near the common endpoint. This would imply the distance between the two closed geodesics is uniformly $\geq \epsilon$ for all ϵ , a contradiction. \square

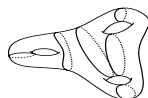
PROPOSITION 5.3.3. *In a hyperbolic two-manifold M^2 a collection of homotopically distinct and disjoint nontrivial simple closed curves is represented by disjoint, simple closed geodesics.*

PROOF. Suppose the geodesics corresponding to two disjoint curves intersect. Then there are lifts of the geodesics in the universal cover H^2 which intersect. Since the endpoints are distinct, the pairs of endpoints for the two geodesics must link each other on the circle at infinity. Consider any homotopy of the closed geodesics in M^2 . It lifts to a homotopy of the geodesics in H^2 . However, no homotopy of the geodesics moving points only a finite hyperbolic distance can move their endpoints; thus the images of the geodesics under such a homotopy will still intersect, and this intersection projects to one in M^2 . 5.9

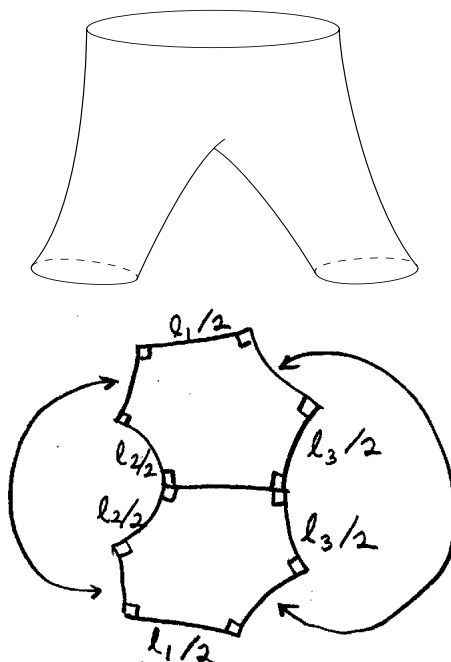
The proof that the closed geodesic corresponding to a simple closed curve is simple is similar. The argument above is applied to two different lifts of the same geodesic. \square

Now we are in a position to describe the Teichmüller space for a closed surface. The coordinates given below are due to Nielsen and Fenchel.

Pick $3g - 3$ disjoint, non-parallel simple closed curves on M^2 . (This is the maximum number of such curves on a surface of genus g .) Take the corresponding geodesics and cut along them. This divides M^2 into $2g - 2$ surfaces homeomorphic to S^2 —three disks (called “pairs of pants” from now on) with geodesic boundary.



5.9a



5.10

On each pair of pants P there is a unique arc connecting each pair of boundary components, perpendicular to both. To see this, note that there is a unique homotopy class for each connecting arc. Now double P along the boundary geodesics to form a surface of genus two. The union of the two copies of the arcs connecting a pair of boundary components in P defines a simple closed curve in the closed surface. There is a unique geodesic in its free homotopy class and it is invariant under the reflection which interchanges the two copies of P . Hence it must be perpendicular to the geodesics which were in the boundary of P .

This information leads to an easy computation of the Teichmüller space of P .

PROPOSITION 5.3.4. $\mathcal{T}(P)$ is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^3 with coordinates

$$(\log l_1, \log l_2, \log l_3),$$

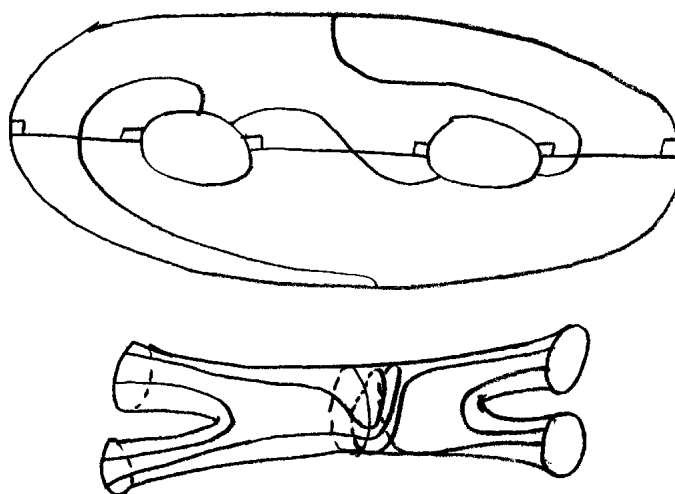
where l_i = length of the i -th boundary component.

PROOF. The perpendicular arcs between boundary components divide P into two right-angled hexagons. The hyperbolic structure of an all-right hexagon is determined by the lengths of three alternating sides. (See page 2.19.) The lengths of the connecting arcs therefore determine both hexagons so the two hexagons are isometric. Reflection in these arcs is an isometry of the hexagons and shows that the boundary curves are divided in half. The lengths $l_i/2$ determine the hexagons; hence they also determine P . Any positive real values for the l_i are possible so we are done. \square

5.11

In order to determine the hyperbolic structure of the closed two-manifold from that of the pairs of pants, some measurement of the twist with which the boundary geodesics are attached is necessary. Find $3g - 3$ more curves in the closed manifold which, together with the first set of curves, divides the surface into hexagons.

In the pairs of pants the geodesics corresponding to these curves are arcs connecting the boundary components. However, they may wrap around the components. In P it is possible to isotope these arcs to the perpendicular connecting arcs discussed above. Let $2d_i$ denote the total number of degrees which this isotopy moves the feet of arcs which lie on the i -th boundary component of p .



5.12

Of course there is another copy of this curve in another pair of pants which has a twisting coefficient d'_i . When the two copies of the geodesic are glued together they cannot be twisted independently by an isotopy of the *closed* surface. Therefore $(d_i - d'_i) = \tau_i$ is an isotopy invariant.

REMARK. If a hyperbolic surface is cut along a closed geodesic and glued back together with a twist of $2\pi n$ degrees (n an integer), then the resulting surface is isometric to the original one. However, the isometry is not isotopic to the identity so the two surfaces represent distinct points in Teichmüller space. Another way to say this is that they are isometric as surfaces but not as *marked* surfaces. It follows that τ_i is a well-defined real number, not just defined up to integral multiples of 2π .

THEOREM 5.3.5. *The Teichmüller space $\mathcal{T}(M)$ of a closed surface of genus g is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^{6g-6} . There are explicit coordinates for $\mathcal{T}(M)$, namely*

$$(\log l_1, \tau_1, \log l_2, \tau_2, \dots, \log l_{3g-3}, \tau_{3g-3}),$$

where l_i is the length and τ_i the twist coefficient for a system of $3g - 3$ simple closed geodesics. 5.13

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In order to see that it takes precisely $3g - 3$ simple closed curves to cut a surface of genus g into pairs of pants P_i notice that $\chi(P_i) = -1$. Therefore the number of P_i 's is equal to $-\chi(M_g) = 2g - 2$. Each P_i has three curves, but each curve appears in two P_i 's. Therefore the number of curves is $\frac{3}{2}(2g - 2) = 3g - 3$. We can rephrase Theorem 5.3.5 as

$$\mathcal{T}(M) \approx \mathbb{R}^{-3\chi(M)}.$$

It is in this form that the theorem extends to a surface with boundary.

The *Fricke space* $\mathcal{F}(M)$ of a surface M with boundary is defined to be the space of hyperbolic structures on M such that the boundary curves are geodesics, modulo isometries isotopic to the identity. A surface with boundary can also be cut into pairs of pants with geodesic boundary. In this case the curves that were boundary curves in M have no twist parameter. On the other hand these curves appear in only one pair of pants. The following theorem is then immediate from the gluing procedures above.

THEOREM 5.3.6. *$\mathcal{F}(M)$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{-3\chi(M)}$.*

5.14

The definition of Teichmüller space can be extended to general surfaces as the space of all metrics of constant curvature up to isotopy and change of scale. In the case of the torus T^2 , this space is the set of all Euclidean structures (i.e., metrics with constant curvature zero) on T^2 with area one. There is still a closed geodesic in each free homotopy class although it is not unique. Take some simple, closed geodesic on T^2 and cut along it. The Euclidean structure on the resulting annulus is completely determined by the length of its boundary geodesic. Again there is a real twist parameter that determines how the annulus is glued to get T^2 . Therefore there are two real parameters which determine the flat structures on T^2 , the length l of a simple, closed geodesic in a fixed free homotopy class and a twist parameter τ along that geodesic.

THEOREM 5.3.7. *The Teichmüller space of the torus is homeomorphic to \mathbb{R}^2 with coordinates $(\log l, \tau)$, where l, τ are as above.*

5.4. Special algebraic properties of groups of isometries of H^3 .

On large open subsets of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})^g$, the space of representations of a generating set \mathcal{G} into $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, certain relations imply other relations. This fact was anticipated in the previous section from the computation of the expected dimension of small deformations of hyperbolic structures on closed three manifolds. The phenomenon that dp is not surjective (see 5.3) suggests that, to determine the structure of $\pi_1 M^3$ as a discrete subgroup of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, not all the relations in $\pi_1 M^3$ as an abstract group are needed. Below are some examples.

5.15

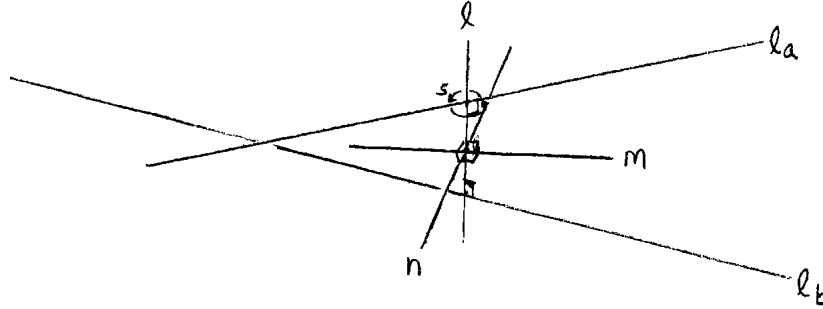
5.4. SPECIAL ALGEBRAIC PROPERTIES OF GROUPS OF ISOMETRIES OF H^3 .

PROPOSITION 5.4.1 (Jørgensen). *Let a, b be two isometries of H^3 with no common fixed point at infinity. If $w(a, b)$ is any word such that $w(a, b) = 1$ then $w(a^{-1}, b^{-1}) = 1$. If a and b are conjugate (i.e., if $\text{Trace}(a) = \pm \text{Trace}(b)$ in $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$) then also $w(b, a) = 1$.*

PROOF. If a and b are hyperbolic or elliptic, let l be the unique common perpendicular for the invariant geodesics l_a, l_b of a and b . (If the geodesics intersect in a point x , l is taken to be the geodesic through x perpendicular to the plane spanned by l_a and l_b). If one of a and b is parabolic, (say b is) l should be perpendicular to l_a and pass through b 's fixed point at ∞ . If both are parabolic, l should connect the two fixed points at infinity. In all cases rotation by 180° in l takes a to a^{-1} and b and b^{-1} , hence the first assertion.

If a and b are conjugate hyperbolic elements of $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ with invariant geodesics l_a and l_b , take the two lines m and n which are perpendicular to l and to each other and which intersect l at the midpoint between g_b and l_a . Also, if g_b is at an angle of θ to l_b along l then m should be at an angle of $\theta/2$ and n at an angle of $\theta + \pi/2$.

5.16



Rotations of 180° through m or n take l_a to l_b and vice versa. Since a and b are conjugate they act the same with respect to their respective fixed geodesics. It follows that the rotations about m and n conjugate a to b (and b to a) or a to b^{-1} (and b to a^{-1}).

If one of a and b is parabolic then they both are, since they are conjugate. In this case take m and n to be perpendicular to l and to each other and to pass through the unique point x on l such that $d(x, ax) = d(x, bx)$. Again rotation by 180° in m and n takes a to b or a to b^{-1} . \square

REMARKS. 1. This theorem fails when a and b are allowed to have a common fixed point. For example, consider

$$a = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda^{-1} \end{bmatrix},$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}^*$. Then

$$(b^{-k}ab^k)^l = b^{-k}a^lb^k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & l\lambda^{2k} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

5.17

If λ is chosen so that λ^2 is a root of a polynomial over \mathbb{Z} , say $1 + 2\lambda^2 = 0$, then a relation is obtained: in this case

$$w(a, b) = (a)(bab^{-1})^2 = I.$$

However, $w(a^{-1}, b^{-1}) = I$ only if λ^{-2} is a root of the same polynomial. This is not the case in the current example.

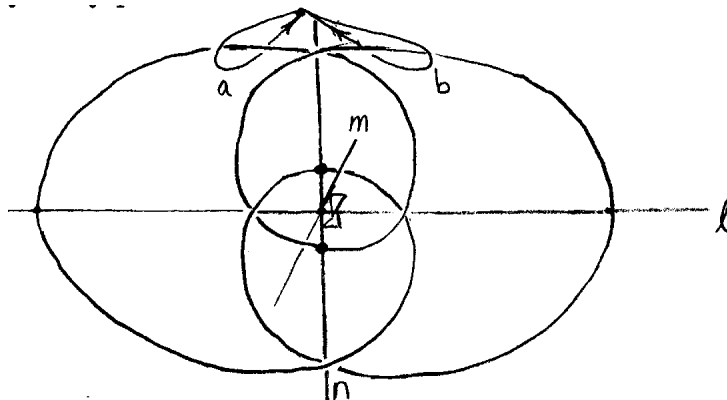
2. The geometric condition that a and b have a common fixed point at infinity implies the algebraic condition that a and b generate a solvable group. (In fact, the commutator subgroup is abelian.)

GEOMETRIC COROLLARY 5.4.2. *Any complete hyperbolic manifold M^3 whose fundamental group is generated by two elements a and b admits an involution s (an isometry of order 2) which takes a to a^{-1} and b to b^{-1} . If the generators are conjugate, there is a $\mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$ action on M generated by s together with an involution t which interchanges a and b unless a and b have a common fixed point at infinity.*

PROOF. Apply the rotation of 180° about l to the universal cover H^3 . This conjugates the group to itself so it induces an isometry on the quotient space M^3 . The same is true for rotation around m and n in the case when a and b are conjugate. It can happen that a and b have a common fixed point x at infinity, but since the group is discrete they must both be parabolic. A 180° rotation about any line through x sends a to a^{-1} and b to b^{-1} . There is not generally a symmetry group of order four in this case. \square

5.18

As an example, the complete hyperbolic structure on the complement of the figure-eight knot has symmetry implied by this corollary. (In fact the group of symmetries extends to S^3 itself, since for homological reasons such a symmetry preserves the meridian direction.)



Here is another illustration of how certain relations in subgroups of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ can imply others:

PROPOSITION 5.4.3. *Suppose a and b are not elliptic. If $a^n = b^m$ for some $n, m \neq 0$, then a and b commute.*

PROOF. If $a^n = b^m$ is hyperbolic, then so are a and b . In fact they fix the same geodesic, acting as translations (perhaps with twists) so they commute. If $a^n = b^m$ is parabolic then so are a and b . They must fix the same point at infinity so they act as Euclidean transformations of any horosphere based there. It follows that a and b commute. \square 5.19

PROPOSITION 5.4.3. *If a is hyperbolic and a^k is conjugate to a^l then $k = \pm l$.*

PROOF. Since translation distance along the fixed line is a conjugacy invariant and $\rho(a^k) = \pm k\rho(a)$ (where $\rho(\)$ denotes translation distance), the proposition is easy to see. \square

Finally, along the same vein, it is sometimes possible to derive some nontrivial topological information about a hyperbolic three-manifold from its fundamental group.

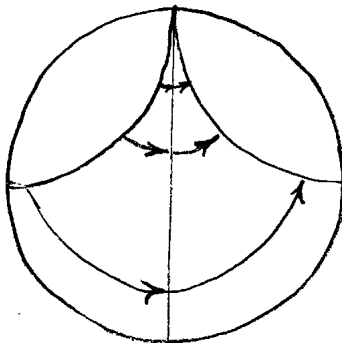
PROPOSITION 5.4.4. *If M^3 is a complete, hyperbolic three-manifold, $a, b \in \pi_1 M^3$ and $[a, b] = 1$, then either*

- (i) *a and b belong to an infinite cyclic subgroup generated by x and $x^l = a$, $x^k = b$,*
or
- (ii) *M has an end, E , homeomorphic to $T^2 \times [0, \infty)$ such that the group generated by a and b is conjugate in $\pi_1 M^3$ to a subgroup of finite index in $\pi_1 E$.*

PROOF. If a and b are hyperbolic then they translate the same geodesic. Since $\pi_1 M^3$ acts as a discrete group on H^3 , a and b must act discretely on the fixed geodesic. Thus, (i) holds. 5.20

5. FLEXIBILITY AND RIGIDITY OF GEOMETRIC STRUCTURES

If a and b are not both hyperbolic, they must both be parabolic, since they commute. Therefore they can be thought of as Euclidean transformations on a set of horospheres. If the translation vectors are not linearly independent, a and b generate a group of translations of \mathbb{R} and (i) is again true. If the vectors are linearly independent, a and b generate a lattice group $L_{a,b}$ on \mathbb{R}^2 . Moreover as one approaches the fixed point at infinity, the hyperbolic distance a point x is moved by a and b goes to zero.



Recall that the subgroup $G_\epsilon(X)$ of $\pi_1 M^3$ generated by transformations that moves a point x less than ϵ is abelian. (See pages 4.34-4.35). Therefore all the elements of $G_\epsilon(X)$ commute with a and b and fix the same point p at infinity. By discreteness $G_\epsilon(X)$ acts as a lattice group on the horosphere through x and contains $L_{a,b}$ as a subgroup of finite index.

5.21

Consider a fundamental domain of $G_\epsilon(X)$ acting on the set of horocycles at p which are “contained” in the horocycle H_x through x . It is homeomorphic to the product of a fundamental domain of the lattice group acting on H_x with $[0, \infty)$ and is moved away from itself by all elements in $\pi_1 M^3$ not in $G_\epsilon(X)$. Therefore it is projected down into M^3 as an end homeomorphic to $T^2 \times [0, 1]$. This is case (ii). \square

5.22

5.5. The dimension of the deformation space of a hyperbolic three-manifold.

Consider a hyperbolic structure M_0 on $T^2 \times I$. Let α and β be generators for $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z} = \pi_1(T^2 \times I)$; they satisfy the relation $[\alpha, \beta] = 1$, or equivalently $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. The representation space for $\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ is defined by the equation

$$H(\alpha) H(\beta) = H(\beta) H(\alpha),$$

where $H(\alpha), H(\beta) \in \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. But we have the identity

$$\text{Tr}(H(\alpha) H(\beta)) = \text{Tr}(H(\beta) H(\alpha)),$$

as well as $\det(H(\alpha) H(\beta)) = \det(H(\beta) H(\alpha)) = 1$, so this matrix equation is equivalent to two ordinary equations, at least in a neighborhood of a particular non-trivial

5.5. DEFORMATION SPACE OF THE HYPERBOLIC THREE-MANIFOLD

solution. Consequently, the solution space has a complex dimension four, and the deformation space of M_0 has complex dimension two. This can easily be seen directly: $H(\alpha)$ has one complex degree of freedom to conjugacy, and given $H(\alpha) \neq \text{id}$, there is a one complex-parameter family of transformations $H(\beta)$ commuting with it. This example shows that 5.2.2 is not sharp. More generally, we will improve 5.2.2 for any compact oriented hyperbolic three-manifold M_0 whose boundary contains toruses, under a mild nondegeneracy condition on the holonomy of M_0 :

THEOREM 5.6. *Let M_0 be a compact oriented hyperbolic three-manifold whose holonomy satisfies*

- (a) *the holonomy around any component of ∂M homeomorphic with T^2 is not trivial, and*
- (b) *the holonomy has no fixed point on the sphere at ∞ .*

Under these hypotheses, the space of small deformations of M_0 has dimension at least as great as the total dimension of the Teichmüller space of ∂M , that is,

$$\dim_{\mathbb{C}}(\text{Def}(M)) \geq \sum_i \begin{cases} +3|\chi((\partial M)_i)| & \text{if } \chi((\partial M)_i) < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } \chi((\partial M)_i) = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } \chi((\partial M)_i) > 0. \end{cases}$$

REMARK. Condition (b) is equivalent to the statement that the holonomy representation in $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is irreducible. It is also equivalent to the condition that the holonomy group (the image of the holonomy) be solvable.

EXAMPLES. If N is any surface with nonempty boundary then, by the immersion theorem [Hirsch] there is an immersion ϕ of $N \times S^1$ in $N \times I$ so that ϕ sends $\pi_1(N)$ to $\pi_1(N \times I) = \pi_1(N)$ by the identity map. Any hyperbolic structure on $N \times I$ has a $-6\chi(N)$ complex parameter family of deformations. This induces a $(-6\chi(N))$ -parameter family of deformations of hyperbolic structures on $N \times S^1$, showing that the inequality of 5.6 is not sharp in general.

Another example is supplied by the complement M_k of k unknotted unlinked solid tori in S^3 . Since $\pi_1(M_k)$ is a free group on k generators, every hyperbolic structure on M_k has at least $3k - 3$ degrees of freedom, while 5.6 guarantees only k degrees of freedom. Other examples are obtained on more interesting manifolds by considering hyperbolic structures whose holonomy factors through a free group.

PROOF OF 5.6. We will actually prove that for any compact oriented manifold M , the complex dimension of the representation space of $\pi_1 M$, near a representation satisfying (a) and (b), is at least 3 greater than the number given in 5.6; this suffices, by 5.1. For this stronger assertion, we need only consider manifolds which have no boundary component homeomorphic to a sphere, since any three-manifold M has the

same fundamental group as the manifold \hat{M} obtained by gluing a copy of D^3 to each spherical boundary component of M .

REMARK. Actually, it can be shown that when $\partial M \neq \emptyset$, a representation

$$\rho : \pi_1 M \rightarrow \mathrm{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$$

is the holonomy of some hyperbolic structure for M if and only if it lifts to a representation in $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. (The obstruction to lifting is the second Stiefel–Whitney class ω_2 of the associated H^3 -bundle over M .) It follows that if H_0 is the holonomy of a hyperbolic structure on M , it is also the holonomy of a hyperbolic structure on \hat{M} , provided $\partial \hat{M} \neq \emptyset$. Since we are mainly concerned with structures which have more geometric significance, we will not discuss this further.

Let H_0 denote any representation of $\pi_1 M$ satisfying (a) and (b) of 5.6. Let T_1, \dots, T_k be the components of ∂M which are toruses.

LEMMA 5.6.1. *For each i , $1 \leq i \leq k$, there is an element $\alpha_i \in \pi_1(M)$ such that the group generated by $H_0(\alpha_i)$ and $H_0(\pi_1(T_i))$ has no fixed point at ∞ . One can choose α_i so $H_0(\alpha_i)$ is not parabolic.*

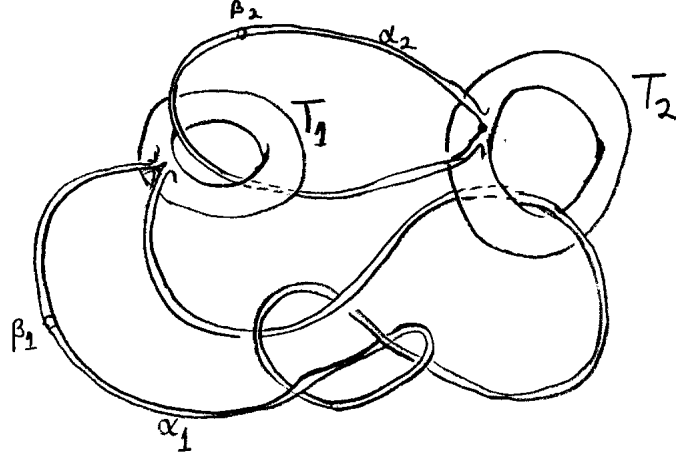
PROOF OF 5.6.1. If $H_0(\pi_1 T_i)$ is parabolic, it has a unique fixed point x at ∞ and the existence of an α'_i not fixing x is immediate from condition (b). If $H_0(\pi_1 T_i)$ has two fixed points x_1 and x_2 , there is $H_0(\beta_1)$ not fixing x_1 and $H_0(\beta_2)$ not fixing x_2 . If $H_0(\beta_1)$ and $H_0(\beta_2)$ each have common fixed points with $H_0(\pi_1 T_i)$, $\alpha'_i = \beta_1 \beta_2$ does not.

If $H_0(\alpha'_i)$ is parabolic, consider the commutators $\gamma_n = [\alpha_i'^n, \beta]$ where $\beta \in \pi_1 T_i$ is some element such that $H_0(\beta) \neq 1$. If $H_0[\alpha_i'^n, \beta]$ has a common fixed point x with $H_0(\beta)$ then also $\alpha_i'^n \beta \alpha_i'^{-n}$ fixes x so β fixes $\alpha_i'^{-n} x$; this happens for at most three values of n . We can, after conjugation, take $H_0(\alpha'_i) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Write

$$H_0(\beta \alpha_i'^{-1} \beta^{-1}) = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix},$$

where $a + d = 2$ and $c \neq 0$ since $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is not an eigenvector of β . We compute $\mathrm{Tr}(\gamma_n) = 2 + n^2 c$; it follows that γ_n can be parabolic ($\Leftrightarrow \mathrm{Tr}(\gamma_n) = \pm 2$) for at most 3 values of n . This concludes the proof of Lemma 5.6.1. \square

Let $\{\alpha_i, 1 \leq i \leq k\}$ be a collection of simple disjoint curves based on T_i and representing the homotopy classes of the same names. Let $N \subset M$ be the manifold obtained by hollowing out nice neighborhoods of the α_i . Each boundary component of N is a surface of genus ≥ 2 , and M is obtained by attaching k two-handles along non-separating curves on genus two surfaces $S_1, \dots, S_k \subset \partial N$. 5.26



Let α_i also be represented by a curve of the same name on S_i , and let β_i be a curve on S_i describing the attaching map for the i -th two-handle. Generators γ_i, δ_i can be chosen for $\pi_1 T_i$ so that $\alpha_i, \beta_i, \gamma_i$, and δ_i generate $\pi_1 B_i$ and $[\alpha_i, \beta_i] \cdot [\gamma_i, \delta_i] = 1$. $\pi_1 M$ is obtained from $\pi_1 M$ by adding the relations $\beta_i = 1$.

LEMMA 5.6.2. *A representation ρ of $\pi_1 N$ near H_0 gives a representation of $\pi_1 M$ if and only if the equations*

5.27

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\rho(\beta_i)) &= 2 \\ \text{and } \text{Tr}(\rho[\alpha_i, \beta_i]) &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

are satisfied.

PROOF OF 5.6.2. Certainly if ρ gives a representation of $\pi_1 M$, then $\rho(\beta_i)$ and $\rho[\alpha_i, \beta_i]$ are the identity, so they have trace 2.

To prove the converse, consider the equation

$$\text{Tr}[A, B] = 2$$

in $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. If A is diagonalizable, conjugate so that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda^{-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Write

$$BA^{-1}B^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have the equations

$$\begin{aligned} a + d &= \lambda + \lambda^{-1} \\ \text{Tr}[A, B] &= \lambda a + \lambda^{-1} d = 2 \end{aligned}$$

which imply that

$$a = \lambda^{-1}, d = \lambda.$$

Since $ad - bc = 1$ we have $bc = 0$. This means B has at least one common eigenvector $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ or $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ with A ; if $[A, B] \neq 1$, this common eigenvector is the unique eigenvector of $[A, B]$ (up to scalars). As in the proof of 5.6.1, a similar statement holds if A is parabolic. (Observe that $[A, B] = [-A, B]$, so the sign of $\text{Tr } A$ is not important). 5.28

It follows that if $\text{Tr } \rho[\alpha_i, \beta_i] = 2$, then since $[\gamma_i, \delta_i] = [\alpha_i, \beta_i]$, either $\rho(\alpha_i)$, $\rho(\beta_i)$, $\rho(\gamma_i)$ and $\rho(\delta_i)$ all have a common fixed point on the sphere at infinity, or $\rho[\alpha_i, \beta_i] = 1$.

By construction $H_0, \pi_1 S_i$ has no fixed point at infinity, so for ρ near $H_0 \rho \pi_1 S_i$ cannot have a fixed point either; hence $\rho[\alpha_i, \beta_i] = 1$.

The equation $\text{Tr } \rho(\beta_i) = 2$ implies $\rho(\beta_i)$ is parabolic; but it commutes with $\rho(\beta_i)$, which is hyperbolic for ρ near H_0 . Hence $\rho(\beta_i) = 1$. This concludes the proof of Lemma 5.6.2. \square

To conclude the proof of 5.6, we consider a handle structure for N with one zero-handle, m one-handles, p two-handles and no three-handles (provided $\partial M \neq \emptyset$). This gives a presentation for $\pi_1 N$ with m generators and p relations, where

$$1 - m + p = \chi(N) = \chi(M) - k.$$

The representation space $R \subset \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})^m$ for $\pi_1 M$, in a neighborhood of H_0 , is defined by the p matrix equations

$$r_i = 1, \quad (1 \leq i \leq p),$$

where the r_i are products representing the relators, together with $2k$ equations 5.29

$$\text{Tr } \rho(\beta_i) = 2$$

$$\text{Tr } \rho([\alpha_i, \beta_i]) = 2 \quad [1 \leq i \leq k]$$

The number of equations minus the number of unknowns (where a matrix variable is counted as three complex variables) is

$$3m - 3p - 2k = -3\chi(M) + k + 3.$$

\square

REMARK. If M is a closed hyperbolic manifold, this proof gives the estimate of 0 for $\dim_{\mathbb{C}} \text{def}(M)$: simply remove a non-trivial solid torus from M , apply 5.6, and fill in the solid torus by an equation $\text{Tr}(\gamma) = 2$.

5.7.

There is a remarkable, precise description for the global deformation space of hyperbolic structures on closed manifolds in dimensions bigger than two:

THEOREM 5.7.1 (Mostow's Theorem [algebraic version]). *Suppose Γ_1 and Γ_2 are two discrete subgroups of the group of isometries of H^n , $n \geq 3$ such that H^n/Γ_i has finite volume and suppose $\phi : \Gamma_1 \rightarrow \Gamma_2$ is a group isomorphism. Then Γ_1 and Γ_2 are conjugate subgroups.*

This theorem can be restated in terms of hyperbolic manifolds since a hyperbolic manifold has universal cover H^n with fundamental group acting as a discrete group of isometries.

5.30

THEOREM 5.7.2 (Mostow's Theorem [geometric version]). *If M_1^n and M_2^n are complete hyperbolic manifolds with finite total volume, any isomorphism of fundamental groups $\phi : \pi_1 M_1 \rightarrow \pi_1 M_2$ is realized by a unique isometry.*

REMARK. Multiplication by an element in either fundamental group induces the identity map on the manifolds themselves so that ϕ needs only to be defined up to composition with inner automorphisms to determine the isometry from M_1 to M_2 .

Since the universal cover of a hyperbolic manifold is H^n , it is a $K(\pi, 1)$. Two such manifolds are homotopy equivalent if and only if there is an isomorphism between their fundamental groups.

COROLLARY 5.7.3. *If M_1 and M_2 are hyperbolic manifolds which are complete with finite volume, then they are homeomorphic if and only if they are homotopy equivalent. (The case of dimension two is well known.)*

For any manifold M , there is a homomorphism $\text{Diff } M \rightarrow \text{Out}(\pi_1 M)$, where $\text{Out}(\pi_1 M) = \text{Aut}(\pi_1 M)/\text{Inn}(\pi_1 M)$ is the group of outer automorphisms. Mostow's Theorem implies this homomorphism splits, if M is a hyperbolic manifold of dimension $n \geq 3$. It is unknown whether the homomorphism splits when M is a surface. When $n = 2$ the kernel $\text{Diff}_0(M)$ is contractible, provided $\chi(M) \leq 0$. If M is a Haken three-manifold which is not a Seifert fiber space, Hatcher has shown that $\text{Diff}_0 M$ is contractible.

5.31

COROLLARY 5.7.4. *If M^n is hyperbolic (complete, with finite total volume) and $n \geq 3$, then $\text{Out}(\pi_1 M)$ is a finite group, isomorphic to the group of isometries of M^n .*

PROOF. By Mostow's Theorem any automorphism of $\pi_1 M$ induces a unique isometry of M . Since any inner automorphism induces the identity on M , it follows that the group of isometries is isomorphic to $\text{Out}(\pi_1 M)$. That $\text{Out}(\pi_1 M)$ is finite is immediate from the fact that the group of isometries, $\text{Isom}(M^n)$, is finite.

To see that $\text{Isom}(M^n)$ is finite, choose a base point and frame at that point and suppose first that M is compact. Any isometry is completely determined by the image of this frame (essentially by “analytic continuation”). If there were an infinite sequence of isometries there would exist two image frames close to each other. Since M is compact, the isometries, ϕ_1, ϕ_2 , corresponding to these frames would be close on all of M . Therefore ϕ_1 is homotopic to ϕ_2 . Since the isometry $\phi_2^{-1}\phi_1$ induces the trivial outer automorphism on $\pi_1 M$, it is the identity; i.e., $\phi_2 = \phi_1$.

If M is not compact, consider the submanifold $M_\epsilon \subset M$ which consists of points which are contained in an embedded hyperbolic disk of radius ϵ . Since M has finite total volume, M_ϵ is compact. Moreover, it is taken to itself under any isometry. The argument above applied to M_ϵ implies that the group of isometries of M is finite even in the non-compact case. 5.32 \square

REMARK. This result contrasts with the case $n = 2$ where $\text{Out}(\pi_1 M^2)$ is infinite and quite interesting.

The proof of Mostow’s Theorem in the case that H^n/Γ is not compact was completed by Prasad. Otherwise, 5.7.1 and 5.7.2 (as well as generalizations to other homogeneous spaces) are proved in Mostow. We shall discuss Mostow’s proof of this theorem in 5.10, giving details as far as they can be made geometric. Later, we will give another proof due to Gromov, valid at least for $n = 3$.

5.8. Generalized Dehn surgery and hyperbolic structures.

Let M be a non-compact, hyperbolic three-manifold, and suppose that M has a finite number of ends E_1, \dots, E_k , each homeomorphic to $T^2 \times [0, \infty)$ and isometric to the quotient space of the region in H^3 (in the upper half-space model) above an interior Euclidean plane by a group generated by two parabolic transformations which fix the point at infinity. Topologically M is the interior of a compact manifold \bar{M} whose boundary is a union of T_1, \dots, T_k tori.

Recall the operation of generalized Dehn surgery on M (§4.5); it is parametrized by an ordered pair of real numbers (a_i, b_i) for each end which describes how to glue a solid torus to each boundary component. If nothing is glued in, this is denoted by ∞ so that the parameters can be thought of as belonging to S^2 (i.e., the one point compactification of $\mathbb{R}^2 \approx H_1(T^2, \mathbb{R})$). The resulting space is denoted by M_{d_1, \dots, d_k} where $d_i = (a_i, b_i)$ or ∞ . 5.33

In this section we see that the new spaces often admit hyperbolic structures. Since M_{d_1, \dots, d_k} is a closed manifold when $d_i = (a_i, b_i)$ are primitive elements of $H_1(T^2, \mathbb{Z})$, this produces many closed hyperbolic manifolds. First it is necessary to see that small deformations of the complete structure on M induce a hyperbolic structure on *some* space M_{d_1, \dots, d_k} .

LEMMA 5.8.1. *Any small deformation of a “standard” hyperbolic structure on $T^2 \times [0, 1]$ extends to some $(D^2 \times S^1)_d$. $d = (a, b)$ is determined up to sign by the traces of the matrices representing generators α, β of $\pi_1 T^2$.*

PROOF. A “standard” structure on $T^2 \times [0, 1]$ means a structure as described on an end of M truncated by a Euclidean plane. The universal cover of $T^2 \times [0, 1]$ is the region between two horizontal Euclidean planes (or horospheres), modulo a group of translations. If the structure is deformed slightly the holonomy determines the new structure and the images of α and β under the holonomy map H are slightly perturbed. 5.34

If $H(\alpha)$ is still parabolic then so is $H(\beta)$ and the structure is equivalent to the standard one. Otherwise $H(\alpha)$ and $H(\beta)$ have a common axis l in H^3 . Moreover since $H(\alpha)$ and $H(\beta)$ are close to the original parabolic elements, the endpoints of l are near the common fixed point of the parabolic elements. If $T^2 \times [0, 1]$ is thought to be embedded in the end, $T^2 \times [0, \infty)$, this means that the line lies far out towards ∞ and does not intersect $T^2 \times [0, 1]$. Thus the developing image of $T^2 \times [0, 1]$ in H^3 for new structure misses l and can be lifted to the universal cover

$$\widetilde{H^3 - l}$$

of $H^3 - l$.

This is the geometric situation necessary for generalized Dehn surgery. The extension to $(D^2 \times S^1)_d$ is just the completion of

$$\widetilde{H^3 - l} / \{\tilde{H}(\alpha), \tilde{H}(\beta)\}$$

where \tilde{H} is the lift of H to the cover

$$\widetilde{H^3 - l}.$$

Recall that the completion depends only on the behavior of $\widetilde{H(\alpha)}$ and $\widetilde{H(\beta)}$ along l . In particular, if $\tilde{H}()$ denotes the complex number determined by the pair (translation distance along l , rotation about l), then the Dehn surgery coefficients $d = (a, b)$ are determined by the formula:

$$a \tilde{H}(\alpha) + b \tilde{H}(\beta) = \pm 2\pi i.$$

The translation distance and amount of rotation of an isometry along its fixed line is determined by the trace of its matrix in $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. This is easy to see since trace is a conjugacy invariant and the fact is clearly true for a diagonal matrix. In particular the complex number corresponding to the holonomy of a matrix acting on H^3 is $\log \lambda$ where $\lambda + \lambda^{-1}$ is its trace. 5.35 \square

The main result concerning deformations of M is