Notes

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Chapter 1

Anosov representations

1.1 Motivation

We study Anosov representations because they give a flexible generalisation of the theory of convex cocompact representations of hyperbolic groups into rank 1 Lie groups into the setting of representations of hyperbolic groups into semisimple Lie groups. They now serve as an organizing principle for the geometric and dynamical approach to the so-called Higher Teichmüller theory.

1.1.1 Convex-cocompact representations

Definition 1.1.1. Let Γ be a finitely generated discrete subgroup of $SO_0(n, 1)$. We say that Γ is convex-cocompact if any of the two following equivalent conditions hold:

- (i) There exists a Γ -invariant convex subset $C \subseteq \mathbb{H}^n$ such that $\Gamma \setminus C$ is compact.
- (ii) For some $x_0 \in \mathbb{H}^n$, the orbit map $\tau : \Gamma \to \mathbb{H}^n$ given by $\gamma \mapsto \gamma x_0$ is a quasi-isometric embedding.

A representation $\rho: \Gamma \to SO_0(2,1)$ of a discrete group Γ is convex-cocompact if $\rho(\Gamma)$ is convex-cocompact.

Example 1.1.1. The holonomy representation of a hyperbolic surface group $\pi_1(S)$ into $SO_0(2,1)$ is convex-cocompact.

Under certain conditions, the set of convex-cocompact representations is a union of connected components, which implies that the Teichmüller space is in fact a union of connected components. However, this is not always the case, for instance with hom(\mathbb{F}_2 , SO₀(2, 1)). A goal of Anosov representations is to generalize convex-cocompact representations. In particular, we will be interested in representations into higher rank Lie groups that satisfy the following two properties:

- 1. The induced orbit maps are quasi-isometric embeddings.
- 2. The representations should form an open subset of the representation variety.

Remark 1.1.1. For $n \geq 3$, any two discrete faithful representations convex-cocompact representations of a group Γ into $SO_0(n,1)$ are conjugate, by a theorem of Mostow.

1.1.2 Anosov representations

Definition 1.1.2. Let Γ be a finitely generated group. A representation $\rho: \Gamma \to \mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ is P_k Anosov if the logarithm of the k-th singular value gap is linearly controlled, i.e. there exist C, c > 0 such that for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$:

$$\frac{1}{C}|\gamma| - c \le \log \frac{\sigma_k(\rho(\gamma))}{\sigma_{k+1}(\rho(\gamma))} \le C|\gamma| + c.$$

If ρ is P_k Anosov, then there exists a limit map $\xi: \partial\Gamma \to \mathcal{F}_{k,d-k}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ that is transverse and dynamics-preserving.

Example 1.1.2. Typical examples of Anosov representations include:

- (i) Convex-cocompact representations of finitely generated groups into rank 1 Lie groups.
- (ii) Holonomy representations of strictly convex (real) projective closed manifolds.
- (iii) Hitchin representations.

1.2 Hyperbolic groups

1.2.1 The Gromov boundary

Here X will be assumed to be a proper geodesic metric space.

Definition 1.2.1. Let X be a δ -hyperbolic space. Recall that a geodesic in X is an isometric embedding $\alpha: \mathbb{R} \to X$, while a geodesic ray is an isometric embedding $\alpha: [0, \infty) \to X$. We denote with $\alpha(\infty)$ the equivalence class of α , i.e. the set of geodesic rays that stay at bounded distance from α . A generalized geodesic is a geodesic segment or a geodesic ray, i.e. an isometric embedding $\alpha: I \to X$ where $I = [0, \infty]$ or I = [0, R]. In the second case we consider the extension $\alpha: [0, \infty) \to X$ given by $\alpha(t) = \alpha(R)$ for $t \geq R$. We define its Gromov boundary ∂X in one of the following equivalent ways:

- (i) ∂X is the set of equivalence classes of geodesic rays in X, where two rays are equivalent if they stay at bounded distance from each other.
- (ii) ∂X is the set of equivalence classes of geodesic rays starting from a specific point $x_0 \in X$, where two rays are equivalent if they stay at bounded distance from each other.

Note that with the above definition, $X \cup \partial X = \{c(\infty) : c \text{ generalized geodesic ray}\}$. To topologize $X \cup \partial X$ we consider the following notion of convergence:

Definition 1.2.2. A sequence $x_n \in X \cup \partial X$ converges to $x \in \partial X$ if there exist generalized geodesic rays c_n, c such that $c(\infty) = x, c_n(\infty) = x_n$ and $c_n \to c$ uniformly on compact sets.

Proposition 1.2.1 (Visibility of ∂X). Let X be a δ -hyperbolic proper geodesic space. Then for each pair of distinct points on the boundary, there exists a geodesic joining them.

Lemma 1.2.1. Let X be a geodesic δ -hyperbolic space. For $x_n, y_n \in X$ at (uniformly in n) bounded distance and $z \in \partial X$, we have that $x_n \to z$ implies $y_n \to z$.

1.2.2 Hyperbolic groups

Proposition 1.2.2 (North-South dynamics). Let Γ be a δ -hyperbolic group. For every infinite order element $\gamma \in \Gamma$, there exists a quasi-isometric embedding $c_{\gamma} : \mathbb{R} \to \Gamma$ and R > 0 such that $\gamma^n(c_{\gamma}(t)) = c_{\gamma}(t+n)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\gamma^{\pm} \in \partial \Gamma$ such that for all $x \in \Gamma$:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \gamma^n x = \gamma^+, \lim_{n \to -\infty} \gamma^n x = \gamma^-,$$

and γ fixes both γ^+ and γ^- .

1.2.3 Dynamics on the Gromov boundary

Proposition 1.2.3. Let Γ be a δ -hyperbolic group and $\gamma \in \Gamma$ an infinite order element. Then γ has exactly two fixed points $\gamma^{\pm} = \lim_{n \to \pm \infty} \gamma^n$ in $\partial \Gamma$, and $\gamma^n z \to \gamma^+$ for all $z \in \partial \Gamma - \{\gamma^-\}$.

1.3 Convex cocompact representations

Key takeaways:

- 1. The Teichmüller space can be realized as the moduli space of marked hyperbolic structures modulo homotopy, or as representations of the fundamental group into $PSL(2, \mathbb{R})$ modulo conjugation.
- 2. Convex cocompact representations of finitely generated groups into $SO_0(n, 1)$ are exactly the P_1 -Anosov representations (Theorem 1) Then the image of the representation acts cocompactly on the convex hull of the limit set (Proposition 1.3.1)
- 3. Convex cocompact representations of a finitely generated group is stable.
- 4. The set of convex cocompact representations is closed for finitely generated torsion-free groups that are not virtually cyclic.

1.3.1 Teichmüller theory

Here S will be a closed surface with finitely many punctures of genus at least 2.

Definition 1.3.1. A complete orientable Riemmannian surface X is hyperbolic if it is locally isometric to the hyperbolic plane \mathbb{H}^2 .

To every hyperbolic surface X we can associate a conjugacy class of a discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R})$ by $X \mapsto \pi_1(X)$. Recall that a marked hyperbolic structure on S is a pair (X,ϕ) , where X is a hyperbolic surface and $\phi: S \to X$ is a diffeomorphism.

Definition 1.3.2 (Marked hyperbolic structures model for $\mathcal{T}(S)$). A marked hyperbolic structure on S is the moduli space of marked hyperbolic structures on S:

$$\mathcal{T}(S) = \{ \text{ marked hyperbolic structures on } S \} / \sim,$$

where $(X, \phi) \sim (X', \phi')$ if there exists an isometry $f: X \to X'$ such that $\phi' = f \circ \phi$ up to isotopy.

To provide another model for $\mathcal{T}(S)$, we consider a marked hyperbolic structure (X, ϕ) on S. Since X is a hyperbolic surface, \tilde{X} is isometric to the hyperbolic plane \mathbb{H}^2 . Moreover, the fundamental group $\pi_1(X)$ acts isometrically and properly discontinuously on \tilde{X} . Using the marking ϕ , we identify $\pi_1(S)$ with $\pi_1(X)$, which in turn is identified with a subgroup of isometries of \tilde{X} and hence with a subgroup of $\mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R}) = \mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}^2)$. In this way we obtain a representation $\rho: \pi_1(S) \to \mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R})$ that is discrete and faithful, but well-defined only up to conjugation in $\mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R})$. This motivates the following definition:

Definition 1.3.3 (Representation model for $\mathcal{T}(S)$). The Teichmüller space of S is defined as the space of conjugacy classes of discrete faithful representations of $\pi_1(S)$ into $PSL(2,\mathbb{R})$:

$$\mathcal{T}(S) = \text{hom}(\pi_1(S), \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})) / \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R}).$$

Recall that an isotopy is a continuous map $H: S \times [0,1] \to S$ such that for each $t \in [0,1]$, $H_t: S \to S$ is a homeomorphism.

Definition 1.3.4. The mapping class group MCG(S) is the group of isotopy classes of orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of S:

 $MCG(S) = \{ \text{orientation-preserving homeomorphisms of } S \} / \{ \text{ isotopy } \}.$

1.3.2 Convex cocompact representations into $SO_0(n, 1)$

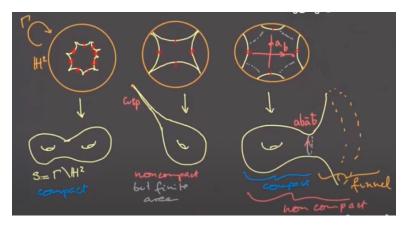


Figure 1.1: Proper actions on hyperbolic disk

Convex cocompactness and Anosovness

Recall that a representation is almost faithful if the kernel is finite. The following proposition tells us that for $SO_0(n, 1)$ convex cocompactness and P_1 -Anosov are equivalent and shows how we can obtain the limit map from the convex cocompactness condition.

Theorem 1. Let $\rho: \Gamma \to SO_0(n,1)$ be a representation of a finitely generated group Γ . Then ρ is convex cocompact if and only if it is P_1 -Anosov. In that case:

- (i) Γ is Gromov hyperbolic.
- (ii) ρ is discrete and almost faithful.

(iii) There exists a continuous, injective, ρ -equivariant map $\xi: \partial\Gamma \to \partial\mathbb{H}^n$ that is dynamics-preserving, i.e. we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \rho(\gamma_n) x = \xi(z)$$

for sequences $\gamma_n \in \Gamma$ such that $\gamma_n \to z \in \partial \Gamma$ and points $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$. Moreover, for elements $\gamma \in \Gamma$ of infinite order, $\rho(\gamma)$ fixes $\xi(\gamma^+)$ and $\xi(\gamma^-)$.

Proof. We fix throughout the proof an element $x_0 \in \mathbb{H}^n$ and consider the orbit map corresponding to it. The hyperbolicity of Γ follows from the lemma of Milnor-Svarc. To prove that ρ is discrete, we proceed by contradiction. If this were not the case, then there would exist a sequence $\gamma_n \in \Gamma$ with no repeated elements such that $\rho(\gamma_n) \to e$. In particular, $\rho(\gamma_n)x_0$ is bounded. Since the orbit map is a quasi-isometric embedding, this implies that $|\gamma_n|$ is bounded, which is a contradiction, since this would imply that $\{\gamma_n\}$ is finite. Similarly, to show that ρ is almost faithful, we can show that the kernel is bounded, and hence finite.

For the second point, the lemma of Milnor-Svarc implies that the orbit map is a quasiisometry, and the theory of Gromov hyperbolic spaces, we know that it must extend to a homeomorphism $\xi:\partial\Gamma\to\partial\mathbb{H}^n$ between the Gromov boundaries. Let $\gamma_n\in\Gamma$ converge to $z\in\partial\Gamma$. By Milnor-Svarc, we have that $\rho(\gamma_n)^nx_0\to\xi(z)$ as $n\to\infty$. But for any $x\in\mathbb{H}^n$, we have that $d(\rho(\gamma_n)x_0,\rho(\gamma_n)x)=d(x_0,x)$ is bounded, and $\rho(\gamma_n)x_0\to\xi(z)$ as $n\to infty$, so $\rho(\gamma_n)x\to\xi(z)$ by Lemma 1.2.1. In particular, for an infinite order element $\gamma\in\Gamma$, we have that $\gamma^{\pm n}\to\gamma^{\pm}$ as $n\to\infty$, so $\rho(\gamma^n)x_0\to\xi(\gamma^{\pm})$. Since $\xi(\gamma^{\pm})$ is the limit of a sequence fixed by $\rho(\gamma)$, it will be fixed as well.

Limit set

Definition 1.3.5. Let H be a discrete subgroup of $SO_0(n,1)$. Then the limit set Λ of H is the set of accumulation points of an orbit of H that are contained in $\partial \mathbb{H}^n$:

$$\Lambda = \overline{Hx_0} - Hx_0 \subseteq \partial \mathbb{H}^n,$$

where $x_0 \in \mathbb{H}^n$ is fixed.

Remark 1.3.1. In the above definition, there have been made a few subtle assertions:

- (i) The limit set $\Lambda(\rho)$ is independent of the choice of x_0 . This can be seen by using Lemma 1.2.1.
- (ii) The set of accumulation points in $\partial \mathbb{H}^n$ of an orbit is equal to $\overline{Hx_0} Hx_0$. Clearly the set of accumulation points is contained in $\overline{Hx_0}$. To see that it is disjoint from Hx_0 , we can use the fact that it is contained in $\partial \mathbb{H}^n$. On the other hand, every element in $\overline{Hx_0} Hx_0$ is the limit of a sequence of discrete elements in H, so it is an accumulation point.
- (iii) If one assumes that H is a discrete subgroup that acts properly discontinuously on \mathbb{H}^n , then the accumulation points of any orbit lie on the boundary of \mathbb{H}^n . To see this, assume for the sake of contradiction that there exists an accumulation point $z \in \mathbb{H}^n$ of an orbit Hx_0 . Then there exists a sequence of pairwise different elements $h_n \in H$ such that $h_n x_0 \to z$. In particular $h_n x_0$ is bounded, so there exists some ball $B_R(x_0)$ that contains all $h_n x_0$ and x_0 . This however implies that $h_n x_0 \in h_n B_R(x_0) \cap B_R(x_0)$ for all n, which contradicts thes proper discontinuity of the action.

Now we are ready to make the link between the geometric definition of convex cocompactness and the notion of convex cocompact representation (i.e. a representation whose orbit map is a quasi-isometric embedding).

Proposition 1.3.1. Let $\rho: \Gamma \to SO_0(n,1)$ be a discrete and faithful representation. Then ρ is convex cocompact if and only if $\rho(\Gamma)$ preserves a convex subset of \mathbb{H}^n , on which it acts cocompactly. In that case, the convex hull of the limit set $\Lambda(\rho)$ of $\rho(\Gamma)$ is such a subset.

Stability and closedness

Two of the basic features of the space of convex cocompact representations that we look for when generalizing are their stability and closedness. To fix our notation, for a group Γ we denote with $\mathrm{CC}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))\subseteq \mathrm{hom}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))$ the set of convex cocompact representations of Γ in $\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1)$, with $\mathrm{X}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))=\mathrm{hom}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))/\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1)$ the character variety of Γ in $\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1)$, and with $\mathrm{CC}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))\subseteq \mathrm{X}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))$ the set of conjugacy classes of convex cocompact representations. We will also denote with $\mathrm{DF}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))\subseteq \mathrm{hom}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))$ the set of discrete and faithful representations and with $\mathrm{DF}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))\subseteq \mathrm{X}(\Gamma,\mathrm{SO}_0(n,1))$ the set of conjugacy classes of discrete and faithful representations. Then we have:

Theorem 2. ?? Let Γ be a finitely generated group.

(i) The convex cocompact representations of Γ are open in the space of representations and in the character variety, i.e.

$$CC(\Gamma,SO_0(n,1))\subseteq hom(\Gamma,SO_0(n,1)) \ \text{and} \ \hat{CC}(\Gamma,SO_0(n,1))\subseteq X(\Gamma,SO_0(n,1))$$
 are open.

(ii) If we assume that Γ is torsion-free and not virtually cyclic, then the convex cocompact representations are closed in the space of representations and in the character variety, i.e.

$$CC(\Gamma, SO_0(n,1)) \subseteq hom(\Gamma, SO_0(n,1)) \ \ and \ \ \hat{CC}(\Gamma, SO_0(n,1)) \subseteq X(\Gamma, SO_0(n,1))$$
 are closed.

Chapter 2

Lorentzian spaces

Here we recall some basic facts on Lorentzian spaces. We will introduce Lorentzian manifolds of constant sectional curvature and we will see that, as in the Riemannian case, two Lorentzian manifolds of constant sectional curvature K are locally isometric. Generally, we will focus on those with maximal isometry group, as they provide models of manifolds of constant sectional curvature: if M is a Lorentzian manifold with constant sectional curvature K and maximal isometry group, then any Lorentzian manifold with constant sectional curvature K carries a natural (Isom(M), M)-atlas made of local isometries. Simply connected space forms have maximal isometry group, but in general there are manifolds with maximal isometry group which are not simply connected. In particular, we will focus on the case K = -1 and in that case it will be convenient to use models which are not simply connected.

2.1 Basic definitions

- **Definition 2.1.1.** (i) A Lorentzian metric on a manifold of dimension n + 1 is a non-degenerate symmetric 2-tensor g of signature (n, 1).
 - (ii) A Lorentzian manifold is a connected manifold M equipped with a Lorentzian metric g.
- (iii) In a Lorentzian manifold M we say that a non-zero vector $v \in TM$ is spacelike, lightlike, timelike if g(v,v) is respectively positive, zero or negative. More generally, we say that a linear subspace $V \subset T_xM$ is spacelike, lightlike, timelike if the restriction of g_x to V is positive definite, degenerate or indefinite.
- (iv) A differentiable curve is *spacelike*, *lightlike*, *timelike* if its tangent vector is spacelike (resp. lightlike, timelike) at every point. It is *causal* if the tangent vector is either timelike or lightlike.
- (v) The set of lightlike vectors of T_xM is also known as the light cone at x.

Assuming dim $M \geq 3$, the light cone disconnects $T_x M$ into three regions: two convex open cones formed by timelike vectors, one opposite to the other, and the region of spacelike vectors.

Definition 2.1.2. Let M be a Lorentzian manifold.

(i) A continuous choice (in the sense of a continuous timelike vector field) of one of the two cones of time-like vectors for each point $x \in M$ is called a *time orientation* of M.

- (ii) If a time-orientation of M exists, then M is said to be time-orientable. Timelike vectors in the same component as the time-orientation are said future-directed, while the rest are said past-directed.
- (iii) Given a point x in a time-oriented Lorentzian manifold M, the future of x is the set $I^+(x)$ of points which are connected to x by a future-directed causal curve. The past of x, denoted $I^-(x)$, is defined similarly, for past-directed causal curves.

An orthonormal basis of T_xM is a basis $v_1, \ldots v_{n+1}$ such that $|g(v_i, v_j)| = \delta_{ij}$, with $v_1, \ldots v_n$ spacelike, and v_{n+1} timelike. As in the Riemannian setting, on a Lorentzian manifold M there is a unique linear connection ∇ which is symmetric and compatible with the Lorentzian metric g. We refer to it as the Levi-Civita connection of M. The Levi-Civita connection determines the Riemann curvature tensor defined by

$$R(u, v)w = \nabla_u \nabla_v w - \nabla_v \nabla_u w - \nabla_{[u, v]} w.$$

We then say that a Lorentzian manifold M has constant sectional curvature K if

$$g(R(u,v)v,u) = K(g(u,u)g(v,v) - g(u,v)^{2})$$
(2.1)

for every pair of vectors $u, v \in T_xM$ and every $x \in M$. This definition is strictly analogous to the definition given in the Riemannian realm. However in this setting the sectional curvature can be defined only for planes in T_xM where g is non-degenerate.

Example 2.1.1. The Minkowski space $\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$ the Levi-Civita connection given by the Euclidean connection:

$$\nabla_X Y = (XY^i)\partial_i,$$

so the Riemann curvature tensor is zero, and the same is true for the sectional curvature.

Finally, we say that M is geodesically complete if every geodesic is defined for all times, or in other words, the exponential map is defined everywhere.

2.2 Maximal isometry groups and geodesic completeness

Constant curvature of manifolds allows us to extend isometries of tangent spaces to isometries of the whole manifold. As a result, two Lorentzian manifolds M and N of constant curvature K are locally isometric, a fact which is well-known in the Riemannian setting. More precisely, the following holds:

Lemma 2.2.1. Let M and N be Lorentzian manifolds of constant curvature K.

- 1. Then every linear isometry $L: T_xM \to T_yN$ extends to an isometry $f: U \to V$, where U and V are neighbourhoods of x and y respectively, and two extensions $f: U \to V$ and $f: U' \to V'$ of L coincide on $U \cap U'$.
- 2. If M is simply connected and N is geodesically complete, then any isometry $L: T_xM \to T_yN$ extends to a unique local isometry $f: M \to N$.
- 3. If M and N are both simply connected and geodesically complete, then any isometry $L: T_xM \to T_yN$ extends to a unique global isometry $f: M \to N$.

Proof. For the last statement, recall that a local isometry from a simply connected manifold to a uniquely geodesic manifold is a global isometry. \Box

Exactly as in the Riemannian case the proof is a simple consequence of the classical Cartan–Ambrose–Hicks Theorem. Note that this implies in particular that there is a unique simply connected geodesically complete Lorentzian manifold of constant curvature K up to isometries. For instance for K=0 a model is the Minkowski space $\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$.

Another consequence of Lemma 2.2.1 is that, fixing a point $x_0 \in M$, the set of isometries of M, which we will denote by Isom(M), can be realized as a subset of $\text{ISO}(T_{x_0}M, TM)$, namely the fiber bundle over M whose fiber over $x \in M$ is the space of linear isometries of $T_{x_0}M$ into T_xM .

It can be proved that Isom(M) has the structure of a Lie group with respect to composition so that the inclusion $\text{Isom}(M) \hookrightarrow \text{ISO}(T_{x_0}M, TM)$ is a differentiable proper embedding. It follows that the maximal dimension of Isom(M) is $\dim O(n,1) + n + 1 = (n+1)(n+2)/2$.

Definition 2.2.1. A Lorentzian manifold M has maximal isometry group if the action of Isom(M) is transitive and, for every point $x \in M$, every linear isometry $L: T_xM \to T_xM$ extends to an isometry of M.

Equivalently M has maximal isometry group if the above inclusion of $\operatorname{Isom}(M)$ into the bundle $\operatorname{ISO}(T_{x_0}M,TM)$ is a bijection. Hence, if M has maximal isometry group, then the dimension of the isometry group is maximal.

From Lemma 2.2.1, every simply connected Lorentzian manifold M has maximal isometry group if it has constant sectional curvature and is geodesically complete. The converse holds even without the simply connectedness assumption:

Lemma 2.2.2. Let M be a Lorentzian manifold.

- (i) If M has a maximal isometry group then M has constant sectional curvature and is geodesically complete.
- (ii) If M is simply connected, then M has maximal isometry group if and only if M has constant sectional curvature and is geodesically complete.

Chapter 3

Pseudoriemannian hyperbolic spaces

Definition 3.0.1. Let V be a real vector space of dimension n = p + q + 1, equipped with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ of signature (p, q + 1). We define the pseudoriemannian hyperbolic space

$$\mathbb{H}^{p,q} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{P}(V) : \langle x, x \rangle < 0 \right\},\,$$

whose double cover is given by

$$\hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q} = \{ x \in V : \langle x, x \rangle = -1 \}$$

3.1 Second fundamental form

A reference for the material of this section is Chapter 4 of [One83]. When we say submanifold, we mean embedded (the inclusion is an emersive topological embedding).

Definition 3.1.1. Let M be a pseudoriemannian submanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold \tilde{M} . Then the orthogonal decomposition of the tangent bundle TM with respect to the ambient metric defines two vector bundle homomorphisms:

$$\nabla : \Gamma(M) \times \Gamma(M) \to \Gamma(TM), \quad \mathbb{I} : \Gamma(TM) \to \Gamma(NM),$$

that satisfy

$$\tilde{\nabla}_X Y = \nabla_X Y + \mathbb{I}(X, Y), \text{ for } X, Y \in \Gamma(TM),$$

where $\tilde{n}abla$ is the Levi-Civita connection of \tilde{M} and $\tilde{n}abla_XY$ is evaluated for any smooth extensions of X,Y to \tilde{M} . The first is called the induced connection on M and the second is called the second fundamental form of M in \tilde{M} .

The notation ∇ is understood in the light of the following proposition.

Proposition 3.1.1. Let M be a pseudoriemannian submanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold \tilde{M} . Then the induced connection ∇ is the Levi-Civita connection of M with respect to the induced metric.

The second fundamental form has a few basic properties:

Proposition 3.1.2. Let M be a pseudoriemannian submanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold \tilde{M} . Then the second fundamental form \mathbb{I} satisfies the following properties:

- (i) Symmetry: $\mathbb{I}(X,Y) = \mathbb{I}(Y,X)$ for all $X,Y \in \Gamma(TM)$.
- (ii) Biliniearity: II is bilinear in $C^{\infty}(M)$.
- (iii) The value of II(X,Y) at $p \in M$ for $X,Y \in \Gamma(TM)$ depends only on the values of X_p,Y_p at p.

Hence, to compute the Levi-Civita connection of a pseudoriemannian submanifold, it suffices to project the Levi-Civita connection of the ambient space onto the tangent space of the submanifold, or equivalently, compute the second fundamental form of M. Similarly, there exists an analog of the Gauss formula for vector fields over curves:

Proposition 3.1.3. Let M be a pseudoriemannian submanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold \tilde{M} , $\gamma: I \to M$ a smooth curve in M and $X \in \Gamma(\gamma)$ a smooth vector field along γ (with values in TM). Then

$$\tilde{D}_t X = D_t X + \mathbb{I}(\gamma', X),$$

where $\tilde{D}_t X$ is the covariant derivative along γ in M of an extension of X on M, D_t is the covariant derivative along γ in the submanifold.

Remark 3.1.1. The Gauss formula for vector fields and curves give us two ways of interpreting the second fundamental form. If (M, g) is a pseudoriemannian submanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold (\tilde{M}, \tilde{g}) , then

- 1. The second fundamental form measures the difference between differentiation in the ambient space \tilde{M} and differentiation in the submanifold M for given vector fields in M.
- 2. $\mathbb{I}(v,v)$ is the \tilde{g} -acceleration $\tilde{D}_t\tilde{\gamma}$ of the g-geodesic γ in M, with initial veolicity $v \in T_pM$.

The second fundamental form can give us the curvature of a submanifold:

Proposition 3.1.4. Let M be a pseudoriemannian subbmanifold of a pseudoriemannian manifold M. Then for every $v, w \in T_pM$ that generate a nondegenerate plane, the sectional curvature of M is given by

$$K(v,w) = \tilde{K}(v,w) + \frac{\langle \mathbb{I}(v,v), \mathbb{I}(w,w) \rangle - \langle \mathbb{I}(v,w), \mathbb{I}(v,w) \rangle^2}{\langle v,v \rangle \langle w,w \rangle - \langle v,w \rangle^2}.$$

3.1.1 Pseudoriemannian hypersurfaces

Let M be a pseudoriemannian hypersurface of a pseudoriemannian manifold M. Around every point, we can define a unit normal vector field N that is orthogonal to the tangent space of M.

Definition 3.1.2. Let M be a pseudoriemannian hypersurface of a pseudoriemannian manifold \tilde{M} , and let N be a unit normal vector field. We define the shape operator $s: \Gamma(TM) \to \Gamma(TM)$ with respect to N by

$$\langle sX, Y \rangle = \langle \mathbb{I}(X, Y), N \rangle$$
, for $X, Y \in \Gamma(TM)$.

It can often by computed using the formula

$$sX = \tilde{\nabla}_X N.$$

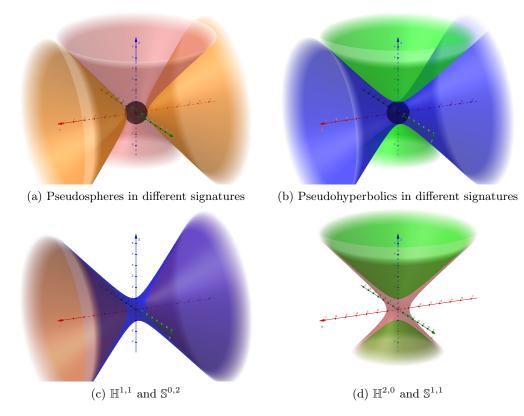


Figure 3.1: Visualizations of pseudospheres and pseudohyperbolics in different signatures, $\mathbb{S}^{2,0}$: black, $\mathbb{S}^{1,1}$: red, $\mathbb{S}^{0,2}$: orange, $\mathbb{H}^{2,0}$: green, $\mathbb{H}^{1,1}$: blue, $\mathbb{H}^{0,2}$: black, Geogebra applet.

The shape operator captures the second fundamental form of the hypersurface in the following sense:

$$\mathbb{I}(X,Y) = \langle N, N \rangle \langle sX, Y \rangle N.$$

Analogously to Proposition 3.1.4, the shape operator can give us the curvature of a hypersurface:

Proposition 3.1.5. Let M be a pseudoriemannian hypersurface of a pseudoriemannian manifold M. Then for every $v, w \in T_pM$ that generate a nondegenerate plane, the sectional curvature of M is given by

$$K(v,w) = \tilde{K}(v,w) + \langle N,N \rangle \frac{\langle Sv,v \rangle \langle Sw,w \rangle - \langle Sv,w \rangle^2}{\langle v,v \rangle \langle w,w \rangle - \langle v,w \rangle^2},$$

where N is the unit normal vector field, and S is the shape operator with respect to N.

Hyperquadrics

We give the analogue of the sphere and the hyperbolic space for the pseudoriemannian case, i.e. the pseudoriemannian hypersurfaces of constant sectional curvature (see Example 3.1.1). The notation $\mathbb{S}^{p,q}$, $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ hints to the signature of the induced metric.

Definition 3.1.3. Let $0 \le \nu \le n$, with $n \ge 2$. We define the pseudosphere of radius r > 0 as

$$\mathbb{S}^n_{\nu}(r) = \mathbb{S}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r) = \left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_{\nu} = \mathbb{R}^{n+1-\nu,\nu} : \langle x,x \rangle = r^2\right\},$$

and the pseudohyperbolic space of radius r > 0 as

$$\mathbb{H}^{n}_{\nu}(r) = \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}_{\nu} = \mathbb{R}^{n-\nu,\nu+1} : \langle x, x \rangle = -r^{2} \right\}.$$

Example 3.1.1. The shape operator for the pseudospheres $\mathbb{S}^{p,q}$ and on the pseudohyperbolic spaces is given $Sv = -\frac{1}{r}v$. In particular, the pseudosphere $\mathbb{S}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is of constant sectional curvature $K = \frac{1}{r^2}$, and the pseudohyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is of constant sectional curvature $K = -\frac{1}{r^2}$.

As one can suspect, the pseudospheres and the pseudohyperbolics are related to each other:

Proposition 3.1.6. The pseudospheres are anti-isometric to the pseudohyperbolic spaces. More precisely, the map

$$\sigma: \mathbb{S}^{n}_{\nu}(r) = \mathbb{S}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r) \to \mathbb{H}^{n}_{n-\nu}(r) = \mathbb{H}^{\nu,n-\nu}(r)$$
$$(x_{1}, \dots x_{\nu}, x_{\nu+1}, \dots x_{n+1}) \mapsto (x_{\nu+1}, \dots x_{n+1}, x_{1}, \dots x_{\nu})$$

is an anti-isometry, i.e. a diffeomorphism that satisfies $d_x \sigma(u), d_x \sigma(v) = -\langle u, v \rangle$ for all $u, v \in T_x \mathbb{S}^n_{\nu}(r)$.

We have also a simple diffeomorphic model for the pseudospheres and pseudohyperbolics:

Proposition 3.1.7. Each $\mathbb{S}^n_{\nu}(r) = \mathbb{S}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is diffeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{\nu} \times \mathbb{S}^{n-\nu}$, and each $\mathbb{H}^n_{\nu}(r) = \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is diffeomorphic to $\mathbb{S}^{\nu} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-\nu}$.

The following proposition gives the geodesics of the pseudospheres and the pseudohyperbolics.

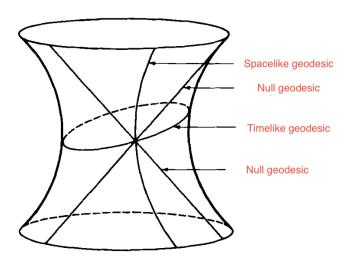


Figure 3.2: Geodesics in the $\mathbb{H}^{1,1} \subseteq R^{1,2}$

Proposition 3.1.8. Let $q(\cdot, \cdot)$ be the metric defining the pseudohyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$, $p \in \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$, and Π be a plane passing from p and the origin. Then the intersection $\Pi \cap \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is a geodesic in $\mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$, and we distinguish the following three cases:

- (i) If $\operatorname{sgn}(q_{|\Pi}) = (0,0,2)$, then the intersection is an ellipse, and a timelike geodesic.
- (ii) If $sgn(q_{|\Pi}) = (0, 1, 1)$, then the intersection is a pair of parallel lines, and null geodesics.
- (iii) If $sgn(q_{|\Pi}) = (1,0,1)$, then the intersection is a hyperbola, whose branches are spacelike geodesics.

Any geodesic in $\mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$ is obtained as such, and in particular, the pseudohyperbolics are complete.

Proof. (i) Let e_1, e_2 be an orthonormal basis for q on Π , and consider the coordinates $y = (y_1, y_2)$ on $\Pi \cap \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}$ such that $s = y^1(s)e_1 + y^2(s)e_2$ for $s \in \Pi \cap \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$. Then

$$\Pi \cap \mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r) = \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{n-\nu,\nu+1} : q(y,y) = -r^2 \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ y^1 e_1 + y^2 e_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-\nu,\nu+1} : -(y^1)^2 - (y^2)^2 = -r^2 \right\},$$

which is clearly an ellipse. It can be parametrised by $\alpha(t)=r\cos(t)e_1+r\sin(t)e_2$ for $t\in[0,2\pi)$, for which $\alpha'(t)=-r\sin(t)\frac{\partial}{\partial y^1}+r\cos(t)\frac{\partial}{\partial y^2}$. Then $\langle\alpha'(t),\alpha'(t)\rangle=-r^2$, so α is timelike. Moreover, $\tilde{D}_t\alpha'=-P_{\alpha(t)}$ is the opposite of the position vector, so it is normal to $\mathbb{H}^{n-\nu,\nu}(r)$, and hence a geodesic.

3.2 Pseudoriemannian structure

3.2.1 Pseudoriemannian structure on $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$

Since $\hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q}$ is the unit sphere in V with respect to the inner product chosen, it is a manfield whose tangent space at $x \in \hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q}$ can be identified with the orthogonal complement of x in V:

$$T_x \hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q} = x^{\perp} = \{ v \in V : \langle v, x \rangle = 0 \}.$$

Since every $x \in \hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q}$ is a negative vector, the metric restricted on the tangent space is of signature (p,q), which makes $\hat{\mathbb{H}}^{p,q}$ a pseudoriemannian manifold of signature (p,q).

To define a pseudoriemannian structure on

Chapter 4

Linear algebra

4.1 Symplectic forms

Recall that for a bilinear form ω on a vector space V, we can define the matrix $M_B(\omega)$ of ω with respect to a basis $B = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ of V by

$$M_B(\omega)_{ij} = \omega(v_i, v_j).$$

In that case, the form is given by

$$\omega\left(\sum_{i} x_{i} v_{i}, \sum_{j} y_{j} v_{j}\right) = \sum_{i,j} x_{i} y_{j} M_{B}(\omega)_{ij} = x^{t} M_{B}(\omega) y,$$

where the vectors x, y in the right hand side are represented by their coordinates in the basis B.

Definition 4.1.1. Let V be a complex or real vector space. A symplectic form $\omega: V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$ is a non-degenerate, skew-symmetric (i.e. $\omega(x,y) = -\omega(y,x)$) bilinear form. Equivalently, the associated matrix $M_B(\omega)$ is skew-symmetric and nonsingular.

Proposition 4.1.1. Every symplectic form on a finite-dimensional vector space V can be written as

$$\omega = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_n \\ -I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

with respect to some basis of V.

Proof. We proceed by induction on dim V. If dim V=2, then we let e_1 be some non-zero vector and using non-degeneracy, we let e_2 be such that $\omega(e_1,e_2)=1$. Then $\omega=\begin{pmatrix}0&1\\-1&0\end{pmatrix}$. Supposing the statement holds for dim V=2n, we consider dim V=2n+2, and using the same arguments we can find $e_1,e_2\in V$ such that $\omega(e_1,e_2)=1$. In particular, $W=\text{span}\{e_1,e_2\}$ is a non-degenerate subspace, so the same will be true for W^{\perp} . By the inductive hypothesis, we can find a basis of W^{\perp} such that ω is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_n \\ -I_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we can extend this basis to V by adding e_1, e_2 , and after rearranging the order of the basis elements, we obtain the desired form.

Definition 4.1.2. Let V be a symplectic vector space. A subspace $W \subseteq V$ is called *Lagrangian* if $W = W^{\perp}$, while a subspace $W \subseteq V$ is called *isotropic* if $W \subseteq W^{\perp}$.

Proposition 4.1.2. Let V be a symplectic vector space. Then:

- (i) A subspace is lagrangian subspace if and only if it is maximally isotropic.
- (ii) Every isotropic subspace is contained in a lagrangian subspace.
- (iii) Symplectic vector spaces have even-dimension.
- Proof. 1. Let W be a Lagrangian subspace and W' be an isotropic subspace containing W. If $W \neq W'$, then there exists $v \in W' \setminus W$. Then $v \in W^{\perp} = W$, a contradiction. Letting W be maximal isotropic, we have that $W \subseteq W^{\perp}$. But for every $v \in W^{\perp}$, we have that $\mathbb{C}v + W$ is isotropic (here we use skew-symmetry of ω to obtain that v is isotropic), so $v \in W$. That is $W = W^{\perp}$ and W is Lagrangian.
 - 2. Let W' be isotropic and not Lagrangian. Then W is not maximal isotropic, that is, there exists $v \notin W$ such that $W + \mathbb{C}v$ is isotropic. Repeating this process, we obtain an increasing chain of isotropic subspaces containing W, which will terminate at a Lagrangian subspace.
 - 3. Using the identity

$$\dim W + \dim W^{\perp} = \dim V$$

that holds for all subspaces W, we obtain that $2\dim W=\dim V$ for any lagrangian subspace V.

Proposition 4.1.3. Let ω, ω' be symplectic forms on V. Then there exists a subspace $W \subseteq V$ that is Lagrangian with respect to both forms.

Proof. Let $A = M_B(\omega')M_B(\omega)^{-1}$ with respect to some basis B of V. This is exactly the matrix for which

$$\omega'(v, w) = \omega(Av, w)$$

Using skew-symmetry, it is easy to see that $A^* = A$ with respect to ω' (where the * denotes the adjoint with respect to ω). Then we can similarly show that it is also symmetric with respect to ω' , that is:

$$\omega(Av, w) = \omega(v, Aw), \omega'(Av, w) = \omega'(v, Aw).$$

Consider the generalized eigenvalue decomposition with respect to A:

$$V = \bigoplus_{\lambda} V_{\lambda},$$

where $V_{\lambda} = \ker ((A - \lambda I)^{k_{\lambda}})$ and the sum is taken over all generalized eigenvalues of A. Moreover, the following lemma implies that the decomposition is orthogonal with respect to ω, ω' .

By counting dimensions, we see that if W_{λ} is a lagrangian subspace of V_{λ} , then $W=\bigoplus_{\lambda}W_{\lambda}$ is a lagrangian subspace of V. Hence it suffices to consider each V_{λ} separately. There, we may take $W_{\lambda}=\ker(A-\lambda I)^{k_{\lambda}-1}$ and check that it is isotropic with respect to both forms. To do this, we proceed inductively on $\dim V_{\lambda}$. If $\dim V_{\lambda}=2$, then every isotropic subspace is lagrangian, so we can take W_{λ} to be the span of any vector in V_{λ} . In particular, W_{λ} is lagrangian. If $\dim V_{\lambda}=2n$, then the quotient space $W_{\lambda}^{\perp}/W_{\lambda}$ is symplectic and by the inductive hypothesis, there exist $v_1, \dots, v_r \in W^{\perp}-W$ such that $W+\mathbb{C}v_1\oplus \dots \oplus W+\mathbb{C}v_r$ is lagrangian. Then $W\oplus \mathbb{C}v_1+\dots\oplus \mathbb{C}v_r$ is isotropic and by dimension counting, we see it is lagrangian as well. \square

Lemma 4.1.1. Let V be a vector space with bilinear form ω . Then every matrix A that is self-adjoint with respect to ω has orthogonal generalized eigenspaces.

Proof. Let $u \in V_{\lambda}, v \in V_{\mu}$ and consider polynomials $P(x) = (x - \lambda)^{k_{\lambda}}, Q(x) = (x - \mu)^{k_{\mu}}$. Then P, Q are prime with each other, so there exist polynomials U, V such that UP + VQ = 1. Then $\omega(u, v) = \omega((UP + VQ)(A)u, v) = \omega(VQ(A)u, v) = \omega(u, VQ(A)v) = 0$, where we use that since P(A), Q(A) are polynomials of A, they are self-adjoint as well.

4.2 Proximal elements in $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$

Here we will talk about basic definitions and dynamics of proximal elements in $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ and its subgroups.

Definition 4.2.1. We say that $g \in \operatorname{PGL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ is $\operatorname{proximal}$ (in $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$) if it admits an attractive fixed point in $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, i.e. there exists a line $x_g^+ \in \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and a compact neighborhood $b^+ \subseteq \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ of $x + g^+$ such that $g^n x \to x$ as $n \to \infty$ uniformly for $x \in b^+$. We say that g is biproximal if both g and g^{-1} are proximal.

To better understand the dynamics of proximal elements, we will recall the Jordan decomposition of a matrix. Let $A \in GL(d, \mathbb{R})$. Then A admits a Jordan canonical form $A = BJB^{-1}$, where $B \in GL(d, \mathbb{R})$ and J is a block diagonal matrix with Jordan blocks J_1, \ldots, J_k :

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} J_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & J_m \end{pmatrix},$$

where each J_i is either a single real entry j_i , or a (real) Jordan block of the form

$$J_i = \begin{pmatrix} C_i & 1 & & \\ & C_i & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & C_i \end{pmatrix},$$

with C_i being a 2×2 matrix of the form

$$C_i = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & -b_i \\ b_i & a_i \end{pmatrix},$$

and $b_i \neq 0$. In the latter case, we let j_i be one of the complex eigenvalues $j_i = \sqrt{\det C_i} e^{i \arccos(a_i)}$ of C_i .

Remark 4.2.1. Each C_i is merely a similitude (in case C_i is not a single entry) by $|j_i| = \sqrt{\det C_i}$ of a rotation by $\arccos a_i$, so J_i rotates and multiplies the plane corresponding to its first two collumns.

We call each j_i a generalised eigenvalue of A and the subspace E_i preserved by each J_i the generalised eigenspace of j_i . By changing B we may assume that $|j_1| \geq \ldots \geq |j_m|$.

We are now ready to describe the dynamics of a Jordan block, which is the same as the dynamics of A in the respective generalised eigenspace.

Lemma 4.2.1 (Dynamics of a Jordan block). Let J_i be a Jordan block, and let j_i, E_i be its generalised eigenvalue and eigenspace respectively. We denote with e_1, \dots, e_k part of the standard basis that spans E_i .

(i) There exists vectors $v \in E_i$ such that

$$|J_i^n v| = |j_i|^n |v|.$$

When C_i is a real entry, this holds for $v \in \mathbb{R}v_1$, while when C_i is a 2×2 matrix, this holds for $v \in \mathbb{R}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}e_2$.

(ii) If J_i is upper-triangular but not a single entry, then E_i contains an actual eigenvector (namely e_1) such that for $v \in E_i$ we have $J_i^n \mathbb{R} v \to \mathbb{R} e_1$.

Proof. While we will not give a concrete proof of this fact, we can consider examples.

- (i) This follows by the fact that for v in the respective subspaces, J_i is a similitude by j_i and perhaps a rotation.
- (ii) Suppose J is 2×2 , so

$$J_i = \begin{pmatrix} a_i & 1 \\ 0 & a_i \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then for $w = w_1e_1 + w_2e_2 \in E_i$ we have

$$J_i \mathbb{R} w = \mathbb{R}(w + a_i w_2 e_1).$$

Then it is clear to see that $J_i^n \mathbb{R}w \to \mathbb{R}e_1$ and that J_i moves lines clockwise when $a_1 > 0$ and counterclockwise when $a_1 < 0$. (see Figure 4.1).

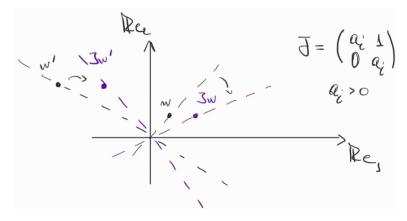


Figure 4.1: Dynamics of a Jordan block

Remark 4.2.2. Even when a Jordan block upper triangular and is not a single entry, the eigenline may not be an attracting fixed point since the convergence is not uniform. Take for example

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } v_n = (n, -1).$$

Then $J^n v_n = (0, -1)$, even though $v_n \to e_1, J^n \mathbb{R} v_{n_0} \to \mathbb{R} e_1$ as $n \to \infty$.

We now consider the Jordan matrix (see Figure 4.2):

Proposition 4.2.1 (Dynamics of a Jordan matrix). Let J be a Jordan matrix with Jordan blocks J_1, \dots, J_m . Then J is proximal if and only if $|j_1| > |j_2|$ and J_1 is a real entry. In that case, for any $x \in \text{span}\{e_2, \dots, e_d\}^c$ we have

$$J^n x \to \mathbb{R}e_1$$
.

and the convergence is uniform in compact neighborhoods of span $\{e_2, \dots, e_d\}^c$. Similarly, J is biproximal if and only if $|j_1| > |j_2|, |j_{m-1}| > |j_m|$ and J_1, J_m are real entries. In that case, for any $x \in \text{span}\{e_1, \dots, e_{d-1}\}^c$ we have

$$J^{-n}x \to \mathbb{R}e_d$$

and the convergence is uniform in compact neighborhoods of span $\{e_1, \dots, e_{d-1}\}^c$.

Proof. Note that if $|j_1| > |j_2|$ and J_1 is a real entry, then for $w \notin \operatorname{span} e_2, \dots, e_d$, we can write $w = w_1 + \dots + w_m$ with each $w_i \in E_i$. Then

$$J^{n}\mathbb{R}w = \mathbb{R}(J_{1}^{n}w_{1} + \dots + J_{m}^{n}w_{m}) = \mathbb{R}(w_{1} + \frac{J_{2}^{n}}{j_{1}^{n}}w_{2} + \dots + \frac{J_{m}^{n}}{j_{1}^{n}}w_{m}) \to \mathbb{R}e_{1},$$

where the last convergence holds since each of the eigenvalues j_i are less than j_1 .

If on the other hand J is proximal, we have seen that in the remark above, that J_1 needs to be a single entry, otherwise the convergence is not uniform. On the other hand, if $|j_1| = |j_2|$, then J will rotate the plane spanned by e_2 , e_3 , like for instance when

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}, v = (1, x, y), J^n v = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \cos n\theta & -\sin n\theta \\ \sin n\theta & \cos n\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

Noting that being proximal is invariant under conjugation, we can now describe the dynamics of a proximal element in $GL(d, \mathbb{R})$:

Corollary 4.2.1. Let $g \in PGL(d, \mathbb{R})$ and denote with g any of its representatives. Then the following are equivalent:

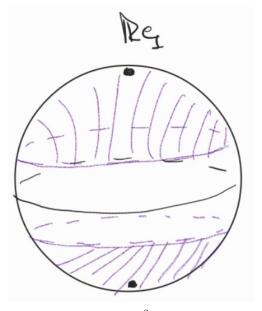
- (i) g is proximal if and only if g has a Jordan decomposition $g = BJB^{-1}$ with J being proximal.
- (ii) Denoting with $\lambda_1(g), \dots \lambda_d(g)$ the (possibly complex) eigenvalues of g in decreasing order of their modulus, g is proximal if and only if $|\lambda_1(g)| > |\lambda_2(g)|$.

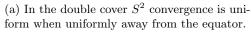
and similarly for biproximal elements:

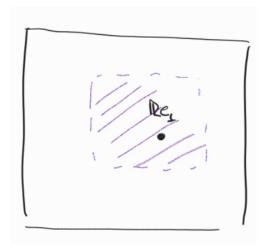
- (i) g is biproximal if and only if g has a Jordan decomposition $g = BJB^{-1}$ with J being biproximal.
- (ii) Denoting with $\lambda_1(g), \dots, \lambda_d(g)$ the (possibly complex) eigenvalues of g in decreasing order of their modulus, g is proximal if and only if $|\lambda_1(g)| > |\lambda_2(g)|$ and $|\lambda_{d-1}(g)| > |\lambda_d(g)|$.

If this is the case, the attracting fixed point of g is the line spanned by the eigenvector Be_1 and the convergence is uniform in compact neighborhoods of span $\{Be_2, \dots, Be_d\}^c$.

Considering the case of PO(p,q) for $p,q \geq 0$, we have that every proximal element is biproximal:







(b) In the affine chart $\mathbb{R}^2 \simeq \{[1, x, y]\}$, convergence is uniform when uniformly away from the circle at infinity.

Figure 4.2: Dynamics of Jordan matrix on $\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^3)$

Proposition 4.2.2. In PO(p,q), proximality and biproximality are equivalent.

Proof. Let $g \in PO(p,q)$ be proximal. Then the eigenvalues of g are stable under taking inverse: $\lambda(g) = \lambda(g^{-1})$. Indeed, $g \in O(p,q)$ implies that $g^t I_{p,q} g = I_{p,q}$, so for an eigenvector v of g with eigenvalue λ , we multiply $gv = \lambda v$ by $I_{p,q}$ to obtain that

$$\lambda I_{p,q}v=I_{p,q}gv=(g^t)^{-1}I_{p,q}v,$$
 so $\sigma(g)\subseteq\sigma((g^t)^{-1})=\sigma(g^{-1}).$

4.3 Complexification of vector spaces

Definition 4.3.1. Let V be a real vector space and $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ a representation of a real Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} .

- (i) The complexification $V^{\mathbb{C}}$ of V is the complex vector space defined setwise by $V \times V$, with the addition structure of $V \oplus V$ and the scalar multiplication rule $(x+iy)(v_1,v_2) = (xv_1 yv_2, xv_2 + yv_1)$. We write (v_1, v_2) as $v_1 + iv_2$.
- (ii) If W is a complex vector space isomorphic to the complexification of V, then we say that V is a real form of W.

Recall that a map $f: V \to V$ on a complex vector space V is called *antilinear* if it it satisfies f(u+v) = f(u) + f(v) and $f(\lambda v) = \overline{\lambda}f(v)$.

Definition 4.3.2. Let V be a complex vector space. A conjugation on V is an antilinear map $C:V\to V$ such that $C^2=\mathrm{id}$.

Example 4.3.1. If E is a real vector space and $V = E^{\mathbb{C}}$, then we can define the conjugation $C: V \to V$ by $C(v) = \overline{v}$, where $\overline{u + iv} = u - iv$.

Proposition 4.3.1. Let V be a complex vector space. Then real forms of V are in bijective correspondence with conjugations on V.

Proof. To each real form E of V, we can associate the conjugation C(u+iv)=u-iv, for $u,v\in E$. Conversely, for each conjugation C on V, we consider the real vector space $E=\{v\in V\mid C(v)=v\}$, which turns out to be a real form of V.

Proposition 4.3.2. If \mathfrak{E} is a representation of \mathfrak{g} that is not of real type, then there exists an irreducible complex representation $V \subseteq E^{\mathbb{C}}$ of $\mathfrak{g}^{\mathbb{C}}$, such that

$$E^{\mathbb{C}} = V \oplus \overline{V},$$

whre \overline{V} is the conjugate representation of V, i.e. $\overline{V} = \{\overline{v} \mid v \in V\}$ and the action of \mathfrak{g} on \overline{V} is given by $\rho(X)(\overline{v}) = \overline{\rho(X)v}$.

Proof. Let V be a complex subspace of $E^{\mathbb{C}}$ that is invariant under $\mathfrak{g}^{\mathbb{C}}$. Then \overline{V} is also invariant under $\mathfrak{g}^{\mathbb{C}}$, so the same is true for $V \cap \overline{V}$ and $V + \overline{V}$. Since these are invariant under the conjugation of $E^{\mathbb{C}}$, we have that $V + \overline{V}, V \cap \overline{V}$ admit real forms. Moreover, because the action of $\mathfrak{g}^{\mathbb{C}}$ commutes with conjugation,the real forms are invariant under the action of \mathfrak{g} . By irreducibility of E, we obtain that $V \oplus \overline{V} = E^{\mathbb{C}}$.

Chapter 5

Logbook

2025-02-19

• Consider the irreducible subrepresentation of the symmetric square of the standard representation of SO(p, 1). It takes values in $SO\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2}, p\right)$:

$$\rho = \operatorname{Sym}^2 \operatorname{std} : \operatorname{SO}(p, 1) \to \operatorname{SO}\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2}, p\right)$$

Proof. Denoting with $\omega(u,v)=u_1v_1+\cdots+u_pv_p-u_{p+1}v_{p+1}$ the form preserved by $\mathrm{SO}(p,1)$, we can use it to identify $\mathrm{Sym}^2(\mathbb{R}^{p+1})$ with the space of symmetric forms on \mathbb{R}^{p+1} . Then the fact that the standard representation preserves ω is equivalent to the symmetric square preserving ω as an element of $\mathrm{Sym}^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1}$. Moreover, the symmetric square preserves $\mathrm{Sym}^2\omega$, so it preserves the orthogonal complement of $\mathbb{R}\omega$ with respect to $\mathrm{Sym}^2\omega$, which we denote with $\mathrm{Sym}_0^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1}$. Using the Weyl character formula, one can show that $\rho:\mathrm{SO}(p,1)\to\mathrm{SO}(\mathrm{Sym}_0^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1})$ is irreducible. Also, the signature of $\mathrm{Sym}^2\omega$ on $\mathrm{Sym}^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1}$ is $\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2}+1,p\right)$, and ω is positive for $\mathrm{Sym}^2\omega$.

• Let $\Gamma \subseteq SO(p,1)$ be a uniform lattice. Then $\rho : \Gamma \to SL(\operatorname{Sym}_0^2(\mathbb{R}^{p+1}))$ is P_1 -Anosov.

Proof. Consider the compact subgroup $K = \mathrm{SO}(p)$ of $\mathrm{SO}(p,1)$ (block diagonal matrices with a matrix of $\mathrm{SO}(p)$ for the first block and 1 for the second block). Then $\rho(K) \subseteq K'$ for some compact subgroup K' of $\mathrm{SL}(\mathrm{Sym}_0^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1})$. For A and A' being the diagonal matrices of $\mathrm{SO}(p,1)$ and $\mathrm{SL}(\mathrm{Sym}_0^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1})$ respectively, we have $\rho(A) \subseteq A'$. Writing the Cartan decomposition $g = ke^{\mu(g)}l$ of some $g \in \mathrm{SO}(p,1)$, we have that $\rho(g) = \rho(k)e^{\rho_*\mu(g)}\rho(l)$, so $\mu(\rho(g)) = \rho_*(\mu(g))$. Since $\rho: \mathrm{SO}(p,1) \to \mathrm{GL}(\mathrm{Sym}_0^2\mathbb{R}^{p+1})$ is the irreducible representation of $\mathrm{SO}(p,1)$ whose complexification is the one having the highest weight $2L_1$, we know that $\rho_*(\mu(g))$ is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the weights of ρ evaluated at $\mu(g)$. In particular, the two highest weights are $2L_1$ and $L_1 + L_2$ (the latter being equal to L_1 for $g \in \mathrm{SO}(p,1)$). Hence $\alpha_{12}(\rho_*(\mu(g))) = L_1(\mu(g))$. Since $\mathrm{SO}(p,1) = \mathrm{Isom}(H^p)$ is of rank 1, there exists a constant C such that $L_1 = d(-\cdot o, o)\mathfrak{a}^*$, where $o = e^{p+1}$ is the basepoint of H^p for which $K = \mathrm{Stab}(o)$.

On the other hand Γ is a uniform lattice of Isom(\mathbb{H}^p), so the action of Γ on \mathbb{H}^p is cocompact and properly discontinuous. By the lemma of Milnor-Svarc, the map $\gamma \mapsto \gamma \cdot o$ is a quasi-isometry, meaning that $\mu(\rho(g)) = Cd(\gamma \cdot o, o) \geq C|\gamma| - c$ for some C, c > 0.

• Calculation of the limit map $\xi : \partial \mathbb{H}^p \to \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Here we use the following description of the algebra $\mathfrak{so}(p,1) = \{x \in \mathfrak{sl}(p+1,\mathbb{R}) : x^tM + Mx = 0\}$, where

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ \vdots & I_{p-1} & \vdots \\ 1 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

In matrix form:

$$\mathfrak{so}(p,1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & 0 \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & -X_{12}^t \\ 0 & -X_{21}^t & -X_{11}^t \end{pmatrix} : \quad X_{11} \in \mathbb{R}, X_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times 1}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, \\ X_{22}^t = -X_{22} \end{pmatrix} : \quad X_{11} \in \mathbb{R}, X_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times 1}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{23} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{24} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{25} \in \mathbb$$

Fixing $x_0 = [e_{p+1}] \in \partial \mathbb{H}^p_{\infty}$, we have

$$\mathfrak{p}_0 = \mathrm{St}_{\mathfrak{so}(p,1)}(\mathbb{R}e_{p+1}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -t & 0 & 0 \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & -X_{21}^t & t \end{pmatrix} : \quad t \in \mathbb{R}, X_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times 1}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, \\ X_{22}^t = -X_{22} \end{pmatrix} : \quad t \in \mathbb{R}, X_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times 1}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{23} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p-1) \times (p-1)}, X_{24} \in \mathbb{R}^{$$

2025-02-21

• $PSL(2, \mathbb{R})$ is isomorphic to the group of orientation-preserving isometries of the hyperbolic plane:

$$PSL(2,\mathbb{R}) \simeq SO_0(2,1)$$

In fact, the isomorphism is given by the symmetric square of the standard representation of $SL(2,\mathbb{R})$.

Proof. Consider the symmetric square $\rho = \operatorname{Sym}^2 \operatorname{std} : \operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \operatorname{GL}(\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{R}))$ of the standard representation of $\operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R})$. Since the standard representation preserves the determinant, the symmetric square preserves the form $\omega = -\operatorname{Sym}^2 \operatorname{det}$, which can be found to be of signature (2,1). We have thus a representation $\rho : \operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \operatorname{SO}(2,1)$. Since $\operatorname{SO}(2,\mathbb{R})$ is connected, we have that $\rho(\operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R})) \subseteq \operatorname{SO}_0(2,1)$. Moreover, looking at the action of $\operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R})$ on the space of symmetric 2-tensors, we see that ρ factors through $\operatorname{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R})$. Since $\operatorname{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R})$ is simple, $\rho : \operatorname{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \operatorname{SO}_0(2,1)$ is injective. This implies that it is surjective as well, because $\operatorname{SO}_0(2,1)$ is connected (injectivity implies that the image contains a neighborhood of the identity, which will generate all of $\operatorname{SO}_0(2,1)$). \square

2025-02-27

• Let $\zeta_0 = e_{p+1}^2 \in \operatorname{Sym}_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1}$. Then P_0 stabilizes $\mathbb{R}\eta_0$ when acting through $\rho : \operatorname{SO}(p,1) \to \operatorname{SO}(\operatorname{Sym}_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1})$.

Proof. Indeed, this is equivalent to the fact that $\mathfrak{p}_0 = \operatorname{Lie}(P_0)$ stabilizes $\mathbb{R}\eta$ when acting by ρ_* , which boils down to the calculation $\rho_*(x)\eta_0 = -2e_{p+1}^2 = -2\eta_0$.

• The limit map $\xi: \partial\Gamma \to \mathbb{P}(\operatorname{Sym}_0\mathbb{R}^{p,1})$ is given by

$$\xi(\gamma \cdot P_0) = \rho(\gamma)\eta_0$$

under the identification $\partial\Gamma \simeq SO(p,1)/P_0$, obtained by the Milnor-Svarc lemma, and the image of the differential over $\mathbb{R}\eta_0$ is

$$T_{\mathbb{R}\eta_0}\xi(\partial\Gamma) = d_{P_0}\xi(T_{P_0}\partial\Gamma) = \pi\left(\rho_*(\mathfrak{so}(p,1))\eta_0\right)$$

while in the general case we have for $\mathbb{R}\eta \in \xi(\partial\Gamma)$ that

$$T_{\mathbb{R}\eta}\xi(\partial\Gamma) = (\rho_*(\mathfrak{so}(p,1))\eta)/\mathbb{R}\eta.$$

Proof. Let $\eta \in \operatorname{Sym}_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1}$ and $h \in \operatorname{SO}(p,1)$ be such that $\xi(hP_0) = \mathbb{R}\eta$. We know that the limit map is ρ -equivariant, meaning that the diagram

$$SO(p,1) \xrightarrow{\rho(-)\eta} Sym_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1}$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$SO(p,1)/P_0 \simeq \partial \Gamma \xrightarrow{\xi} \mathbb{P}(Sym_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1})$$

commutes, where the left vertical arrow is the map $g \mapsto gh \cdot P_0$, the right vertical arrow is the projection and SO(p,1) acts on $\partial \Gamma \simeq SO(p,1)/P_0$ by left multiplication. Differentiating the above diagram, we obtain the following commuting diagram:

where π is the projection.

• SO(p, 1) acts transitively on pairs of distinct elements of $\partial \Gamma$, i.e. for every pair of discrete maximal parabolic subgroups P, P' of SO(p, 1), there exists $g \in SO(p, 1)$ such that $g \cdot P = P_0$ and $g \cdot P' = P_0^t$, where $P_0 = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)} \mathbb{R}e_{p+1}$ and $P_0^t = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)} \mathbb{R}e_1$. Moreover, $g \cdot P_0 = P_0^t$ for

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & I_{p-1} & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in SO(p, 1).$$

Proof. Recall that the maximal parabolic subgroups of SO(p,1) are exactly the stabilizers of elements in the boundary $\partial_{\infty}\mathbb{H}^p$ of the symmetric space. In particular, for any maximal parabolic subgroup $P = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)} x$ with $x \in \partial_{\infty}\mathbb{H}^p$, we have that SO(p,1) acts on maximal parabolic subgroups by conjugation: $g \cdot P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} gPg^{-1} = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)}(gx)$. In the case of $P_0 = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)}\mathbb{R}e_{p+1}$ and $P_0^t = \operatorname{Stab}_{SO(p,1)}\mathbb{R}e_1$, we have that $g \cdot e_{p+1} = e_1$ for the element $g \in SO(p,1)$ in the statement, so $gP_0g^{-1} = P_0^t$.

Let now $P = \operatorname{Stab}_{\operatorname{SO}(p,1)} x$ and $P' = \operatorname{Stab}_{\operatorname{SO}(p,1)} x'$ be two distinct maximal parabolic subgroups. Then $\langle x, x' \rangle \neq 0$, since otherwise, $\mathbb{R} x \oplus \mathbb{R} x'$ would be a two-dimensional totally isotropic subspace, which is not possible for a form of signature (p,1). Thus we may assume that $\langle x, x' \rangle = 1$, i.e. the restriction of the form on $\mathbb{R} x \oplus \mathbb{R} x'$ has the following matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
.

In particular $\mathbb{R}x \oplus \mathbb{R}x'$ is non-degenerate, so there exists a transformation $g \in SO(p, 1)$ that sends x to e_{p+1} and x' to e_1 . For such a transformation, we have $g \cdot P = P_0$ and $g \cdot P' = P_0^t$.

• Consider the section

$$\zeta : \partial \Gamma \to \mathcal{F}_{1,q}(\operatorname{Sym}_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1})$$
$$\zeta(x) = (\xi(x), \pi^{-1}(T_{\mathcal{E}(x)}\xi(\partial \Gamma))\xi(x))$$

where we recall that $\pi^{-1}(T_{\xi(x)}\xi(\partial\Gamma))\xi(x) \subseteq \text{hom}(\xi(x), \text{Sym}_0 \mathbb{R}^{p,1})$. Then for any two points $x, y \in \partial\Gamma$, we have that $\zeta^q(x) \cap \zeta^q(y) \neq 0$.

2025-02-08

• For $x_0 = \xi(P_0) = \eta_0 = e_1^2$, we have that

$$\zeta^q(x_0) = \rho_*(\mathfrak{so}(p,1))\eta_0 = \mathbb{R}e_2 e_{p+1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{R}e_{p+1}^2,$$

and $\rho(g)\rho_*(\mathfrak{so}(p,1))\eta_0 = \mathbb{R}e_1e_2 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{R}e_1^2$. In particular

$$\zeta^q(x_0) \cap \zeta^q(gx_0) = \zeta^q(x_0) \cap \rho(g)\zeta(x_0) = 0.$$

2025-03-12

• Let G be a group and P be a subgroup of G. If P is self-normalizing (its normalizer is itself), then G/P is in bijective correspondence with the conjugacy classes of P:

$$G/P \simeq \{gPg^{-1} \mid g \in G\}$$
$$gP \mapsto gPg^{-1}$$

Recall that the normalizer of P in G is the subgroup $N_G(P)$ of elements $g \in G$ such that $gPg^{-1} = P$.

• Let G be a semisimple Lie group, and P be a minimal parabolic subgroup of G. Equivalently, $P = \operatorname{Stab}_G(x_0)$ is the stabilizer of a point $x_0 \in \partial_{\infty} S$ in the boundary of the symmetric space S = G/K. We denote with \mathfrak{p} the Lie algebra of P. Then we have the following identification:

In the above, we implicitly use the fact that the minimal parabolic subgroups of G are the conjugacy classes of minimal parabolic subgroups of one fixed minimal parabolic subgroup P

• Let $G \subseteq PO_0(p,q)$ be a subgroup of the identity component of projective orthogonal group, and denote with $q: O(p,q) \to PO(p,q)$ the quotient map. If G does not preserve a proper subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{p,q}$, then $q^{-1}(G) \cap SO_0(n,1)$ does not preserve one either.

• The connected components of PO(p,q) are:

$$PO(p,q) =$$

$$\begin{cases} P(SO_0(p,q)) \sqcup P(O^+(p,q)) \sqcup P(O^{(1,-1)}(p,q)) \sqcup P(O^{(-1,+1)}(p,q)) & \text{if } p,q \text{ even} \\ P(SO_0(p,q)) \sqcup P(O^+(p,q)) & \text{if } p \neq q \text{ mod } Z_2 \\ P(SO_0(p,q)) \sqcup P(O^{(1,-1)}(p,q)) & \text{if } p,q \text{ uneven} \end{cases}$$

where P denotes the identification via the action of $\{\pm \mathrm{Id}\}$.

• For a semisimple Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , the sum of the positive root spaces is denoted with \mathfrak{n}^+ :

$$\mathfrak{n}^+ = \bigoplus_{\alpha > 0} \mathfrak{g}_{\alpha}.$$

Definition 5.0.1. Let G be a semisimple Lie group and fix a Weyl chamber \mathfrak{a}^+ . We define the minimal parabolic subgroup of G as

$$B^+ = Z_K(\mathfrak{a})AN^+,$$

where $A = e^{\mathfrak{a}}$, $N^+ = e^{\mathfrak{n}^+}$ and $Z_K(\mathfrak{a})$ is the centralizer of \mathfrak{a} in K. Its opposite parabolic subgroup is defined similarly and denoted with B^- . Any subgroup of G containing (up to conjugation) B^+ is called a parabolic subgroup.

- The parabolic subgroups are exactly the stabilizers of (potentially partial) flags.
- In the case of $G = \mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$, we have

 $Z_K(\mathfrak{a}) = \{ \text{ diagonal matrices with entries } \pm 1 \text{ with an even number of ones } \}$

 $A = \{ \text{ diagonal matrices with positive entries and determinant } 1 \}$

 $N^+ = \{ \text{ upper triangular matrices with 1 on the diagonal } \}.$

so that

$$B^+ = \{ \text{ upper triangular matrices with determinant } 1 \},$$

which is also the stabilizer of the full standard flag $\mathbb{R}e_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathbb{R}e_d$. In general, denoting the stabilizer of the flag $\mathbb{R}e_1 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq \mathbb{R}e_k$ as P_k , we have that all parabolic subgroups are conjugate to P_k for some k.

• Let $\Theta \subseteq \Pi$ be a subset of simple (positive) roots. We define

$$\mathfrak{a}_{\Theta} = \bigcap_{\alpha \notin \Theta} \ker \alpha.$$

Then $P_k = Z_K(\mathfrak{a}_{\Theta})AN^+$.

2025-03-13

- Let S be the set of maximal isotropic subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^{d,d}$, topologized via O(d). If d is even, then:
 - (i) For every $V, W \in \mathcal{S}$ in different connected components:

$$qV \cap W \neq 0$$
, for all $q \in SO(d, d)$.

(ii) For any $V_0 \in \mathcal{S}$, there exist infinitely many $g \in SO(d, d)$ such that

$$gV_0 \cap V_0 = 0.$$

2025-03-14

• Let X be a topological space and Γ a group acting continuously on X. If Γ acts cocompactly on X, then there exists a compact set $K \subseteq X$ that covers X under the action of Γ . If moreover X is locally compact, then the converse holds as well.

Proof. If Γ acts cocompactly on a locally compact X, we consider for each $x \in X$ a neighborhood U_x of x and a compact subset K_x such that $U_x \subseteq K_x$. Denoting with $q: X \to X/\Gamma$ the quotient map, we have that $q(U_x)$ is an open covering of X (here we use that quotients of continuous group actions give rise to open quotient maps), so there exist x_1, \dots, x_n such that $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^n q(U_{x_i})$. Then $K = \bigcup_{i=1}^n K_{x_i}$ is a compact set that covers X under the action of Γ .

If $\Gamma \cdot K = X$ for some compact set K, and $\{U_i\}$ is an open covering of X/Γ , then $q^{-1}(U_i)$ is an open covering of K, so it admits a finite subcovering $q^{-1}(U_{i_1}), \dots, q^{-1}(U_{i_n})$. Then U_{i_1}, \dots, U_{i_n} is a finite subcovering of X/Γ .

• Let $\Gamma' \leq \Gamma$ be a subgroup of a group Γ . If Γ acts cocompactly on X, then Γ' acts cocompactly on X as well. Assuming moreover that Γ' is of finite index in Γ , then the converse holds as well. In particular, if $\Gamma \leq SO(p,q)$ is $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ convex-cocompact, then any finite-index subgroup of Γ is as well.

Proof. If Γ' acts cocompactly on X, then there exists some compact set $K \subseteq X$ that covers X under the action of Γ' . Clearly K also covers X under the action of Γ , so Γ acts cocompactly on X.

If Γ acts cocompactly on X, then there exists a compact set $K \subseteq X$ that covers X under the action of Γ . Since Γ' is of finite index in Γ , there exists a finite set of elements $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n \in \Gamma$ such that $\Gamma = \Gamma \gamma_1 \sqcup \dots \sqcup \Gamma \gamma_n$. Then $K' = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \gamma_i K$ is a compact set that covers X under the action of Γ' .

• The following is Corollary 1.3 from [GW12]:

Let Γ be a discrete subgroup, Γ' be a finite-index subgroup of Γ , and $\rho: \Gamma \to G$ be a representation. Then ρ is P_1 -Anosov if and only if the restriction of ρ to Γ' is P_1 -Anosov.

Proof. For details see Corollary 1.3 of [GW12]. The idea is that being Anosov is equivalent to admiting limit maps that are continuous and equivariant with certain properties. Since Γ' is of finite index, the limit sets of Γ and Γ' are the same (homeomorphic because the inclusion of Γ' into Γ is a quasi-isometry). Hence we can use the limit maps for both groups.

2025 - 03 - 15

• The realification of the standard representation of SU(1, 1) is not irreducible.

Proof. One can show that

$$SU(1,1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -\overline{b} & \overline{a} \end{pmatrix} : |a|^2 - |b|^2 = 1 \right\},\,$$

and check that the real subspace

$$V = \mathbb{R} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \oplus \mathbb{R}i \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is preserved by SU(1,1).

• SU(1,1) and $SL(2,\mathbb{R})$ are conjugate in $GL(2,\mathbb{C})$. In particular, they are isomorphic groups.

Proof. We use the fact that $SL(2,\mathbb{C})$ and SU(1,1) are the subsets of $GL(2,\mathbb{C})$ (which acts by Möbius transformations on \mathbb{C}^2) that preserve the upper half-plane and the unit disk respectively. By the Riemann mapping theorem, there exists a biholomorphism $f \in GL(2,\mathbb{C})$ such that $f(\mathbb{D}^2) = \mathbb{H}^2$. Then for every $g \in SU(1,1)$, we have $fgf^{-1} \in SL(2,\mathbb{R})$, so conjugation by f gives an isomorphism $SU(1,1) \simeq SL(2,\mathbb{R})$.

• $PSL(2,\mathbb{R}) \times PSL(2,\mathbb{R})$ and $PO_0(2,2)$ are isomorphic groups, and are the identity component of the isometry group of the Anti-de Sitter space AdS^3 .

$$PO_0(2,2) \simeq PSL(2,\mathbb{R}) \times PSL(2,\mathbb{R}).$$

Proof. Recall that the quadric $\mathcal{H}^{2,1}$ is given by

$$\mathcal{H}^{2,1} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{2,2} : q_{2,2}(x,x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - x_3^2 - x_4^2 = -1 \},$$

and the isometry group of $\mathcal{H}^{2,1}$ is (2,2). We begin by identifying the Minkowski space $\mathbb{R}^{2,2}$ with $(\mathcal{M}_2(\mathbb{R}), -det)$: We begin in the obvious way by identifying the vector $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$ with the matrix

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ x_3 & x_4 \end{pmatrix},$$

To see that this is an isometry, we note that the determinant is a (2,2)-quadratic form given by

$$det(X,Y) = x_1y_4 - x_2y_3 - x_3y_2 + x_4y_1.$$

Hence we have an identification $O(2,2) \simeq \operatorname{Isom}(\mathcal{H}^{2,1}, -\det)$. Notice that $\operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \times \operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R})$ acts isometrically on $\mathcal{H}^{2,1}$ by $(A,B) \cdot X = AXB^{-1}$, giving us a homomorphism $\operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \times \operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \operatorname{Isom}(\mathcal{H}^{2,1}, -\det) \simeq \operatorname{O}(2,2) \to \operatorname{PO}(2,2)$. Since it is a Lie group homomorphism from a connected Lie group, its image is equal to $\operatorname{PO}_0(2,2)$ On the other hand, using that $\operatorname{PO}(2,2)$ is centerless, we see that the kernel is equal to $\{(\pm \operatorname{Id}, \pm \operatorname{Id})\}$, which gives us the isomorphism

$$\mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \times \mathrm{PSL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \simeq \left(\mathrm{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \times \mathrm{SL}(2,\mathbb{R})\right) / \{(\pm \mathrm{Id}, \pm \mathrm{Id})\} \simeq \mathrm{PO}_0(2,2).$$

For a proof that this is the isometry group of AdS^3 , see Section 3.1 of [BS20].

2025-03-18

- A quaternionic vector is a complex vector space V equipped with a quaternionic structure, i.e. a conjugate-linear map $J:V\to V$ such that $J^2=-\mathrm{Id}$. For instance, the quaternions $\mathbb H$ are a quaternionic vector space, with $J:\mathbb H\to\mathbb H$ given by J(x)=jx.
- We consider $\mathbb{H}^n = \mathbb{C} \oplus j\mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}e_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{C}e_n \oplus \mathbb{C}je_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{C}je_n$ as a complex vector space. Then multiplication by j gives a quaternionic structure on \mathbb{H}^n : $jz = \overline{z}j$ and satisfies $\overline{jz} = -jz$.

2025-03-19

- Recall that for $p, q \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} : (pq)^* = q^*p^*$.
- Quaternionic vector spaces:

Definition 5.0.2. A quaternionic vector space is a set with an addition and a scalar multiplication to the right by quaternions. The linear maps $\hom_{\mathbb{H}}(V, W)$ between quaternionic vector spaces V, W are the maps that commute with multiplication by quaternions on the right.

In general, the space of linear maps between quaternionic vector spaces "acts on the left", just in the following two standard examples:

Example 5.0.1. Let $V = \mathbb{H}$, where scalar multiplication is defined as the usual multiplication of quaternions. Then the space endhomorphisms is the space of left multiplication by quaternions: $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathbb{H}) = \{\phi_q : q \in \mathbb{H}\}$, where $\phi_q(x) = qx$.

Note that in the above example, multiplication by quaternions to the right, is not an endomorhism, since $(vq)\lambda \neq (v\lambda)q$ for $q,\lambda \in \mathbb{H}$.

• Quaternionic hermitian forms:

Definition 5.0.3. A quaternionic hermitian form on a quaternionic vector space V is an \mathbb{H} -conjugate symmetric map $K: V \times V \to \mathbb{H}$ that is \mathbb{H} -conjugate linear in the first variable and \mathbb{H} -linear in the second:

$$K(v\lambda, w\mu) = \overline{\lambda}K(v, w)\mu, \quad K(w, v) = \overline{K(v, w)}.$$

A quaternionic hermitian form is positive definite if K(v,v) > 0 for all $v \neq 0$. A quaternionic antihermitian form is an \mathbb{H} -cojugate antisymmetric map $K': V \times V \to \mathbb{H}$ that is \mathbb{H} -conjugate linear in the first variable and \mathbb{H} -linear in the second:

$$K'(v\lambda,w\mu)=\overline{\lambda}K'(v,w)\mu,\quad K'(w,v)=-\overline{K(v,w)}.$$

We denote the space of quaternionic hermitian and antihermitian forms with $\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ and $\operatorname{AntiHerm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ respectively.

We can identify the spaces of quaternionic hermitian and antihermitian forms with subspaces of the quaternionic matrices, by fixing a base for the vector space and identifying it with the standard space \mathbb{H}^n .

Proposition 5.0.1. Let V be a quaternionic vector space with a basis e_1, \dots, e_n . Then we have the following bijection:

$$\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) \simeq \left\{ S \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} : S^* = -S \right\}$$

$$K \mapsto \left(K(e_i, e_j) \right)_{ij}$$

$$K\left(\sum v_i e_i, \sum w_j e_j \right) = \sum_{i,j} \overline{v}_i S_{ij} w_j \leftrightarrow S$$

and similarly for the antihermitian forms:

$$\operatorname{AntiHerm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) \simeq \left\{ S \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} : S^* = -S \right\}$$

$$K \mapsto \left(K(e_i, e_j) \right)_{ij}$$

$$K \left(\sum v_i e_i, \sum w_j e_j \right) = \sum_{i,j} \overline{v}_i S_{ij} w_j \leftrightarrow S$$

In both cases, identifying V with \mathbb{H}^n via the basis e_1, \dots, e_n , we have that the sum on the left hand side is equal to v^*Sw .

- From the above proposition it is clear that the space of quaternionic hermitian and antihermitian forms is a real vector space and not a quaternionic one.
- Hermitian \neq antihermitian for quaternions: While for the field of complex numbers the hermitian forms and antihermitian forms are essentially the same (multiplying a hermitian matrix by i gives an antihermitian one), this is not the case for the quaternions. This is because the imaginary part of the complex numbers is one-dimensional, while the imaginary part of the quaternions is three-dimensional. In particular:

$$\dim_{\mathbb{R}} \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) = 4 \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + n, \quad \dim_{\mathbb{R}} \operatorname{AntiHerm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) = 4 \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + 3n.$$

• We can define the action of $GL_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ on $Herm_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ and $AntiHerm_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ by

$$(g \cdot B)(v, w) = B(g^{-1}v, g^{-1}w),$$

and we call the automorphism group of K the stabilizer of K in $GL_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$:

$$Aut(K) = \{ g \in GL_{\mathbb{H}}(V) : K(g^{-1}u, g^{-1}v) = K(u, v) \},$$

$$Lie(Aut(K)) = \{ X \in \mathfrak{gl}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) : K(Xu, v) + K(u, Xv) = 0 \}.$$

Then Aut(K) acts on Lie(Aut(K)) by conjugation:

$$Ad: Aut(K) \to GL(Lie(Aut)(K)), \quad g \mapsto Ad_g$$

where $\operatorname{Ad}_g(X) = gXg^{-1}$.

• If we fix a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form K, then we can identify the antihermitian forms with the Lie algebra of the automorphism group of K. Note that the same works for the other fields \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{R} . This is how we obtain that the adjoint representation of $\mathrm{SU}(p,1)$ is in fact its action on the space of antihermitian forms.

Proposition 5.0.2. Let K be a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form on a quaternionic vector space V. We have the following isomorphism of representations:

$$\operatorname{Lie}(\operatorname{Aut}(K)) \simeq \operatorname{AntiHerm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$$

 $X \mapsto K_X,$

where $K_X(u,v) = K(Xu,v)$, and whose inverse is the map that assigns to a quaternionic antihermitian form ω the unique $X \in GL(\mathbb{H}^n)$ such that $K_X = \omega$.

2025-03-20

• K-conjugates:

Definition 5.0.4. Let V be a quaternionic vector space and K a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form on V. We define the conjugation with respect to K as the quaternionic isomorphism $GL(\mathbb{H}^n) \to GL(\mathbb{H}^n)$ given by $q \mapsto q^{*_K}$, where $K(qu, v) = K(u, q^{*_K}v)$.

• With the above definition, the Lie algebra of automorphism group of K is the space of anti-conjugate transformations, while the space of automorphisms is given as the transformations that are "unitary" with respect to K:

Lie(Aut(K)) =
$$\{X \in \text{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathbb{H}^n) : X^{*_K} = -X\}$$

Aut(K) = $\{g \in GL(V) : g^{*_K} = g^{-1}\}.$

If we fix a basis e_1, \dots, e_n for V and use it to identify $\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ with $\mathbb{H}^{n \times n}$, then the conjugation with respect to K is given by

$$\mathbb{H}^{n\times n}\ni g\mapsto S^{-1}g^*S\in\mathbb{H}^{n\times n},$$

where $S \in GL(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is the matrix corresponding to K, i.e. $K(u,v) = u^*Sv$ for $u,v \in \mathbb{H}^n \simeq V$, and * denotes the standard conjugate transpose for \mathbb{H}^n and $\mathbb{H}^{n \times n}$.

• Proceeding as in Proposition 5.0.2, we can identify the space of anti-conjugate transformations with the space of hermitian forms:

Proposition 5.0.3. Let K be a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form on a quaternionic vector space V. We have the following isomorphism of representations:

$$\{X \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) : X^{*_K} = X\} \simeq \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$$

 $X \mapsto K_X,$

where $K_X(u,v) = K(Xu,v)$, the action of Aut(K) on $End_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ is by conjugation, and on Hermitian forms by $g \cdot K(u,v) = K(g^{-1}u,g^{-1}v)$.

• Trace operator:

Definition 5.0.5. We define the trace of a quaternionic matrix $A \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n}$ as the sum of its diagonal entries:

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}.$$

For other fields (notably \mathbb{C} and \mathbb{R}), the trace satisfies the commutativity property $\operatorname{tr}(AB) = \operatorname{tr}(BA)$. In particular, $\operatorname{tr}(PAP^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr}(A)$. Because of that, letting the trace of an operator of a complex vector space be the trace of its matrix in a basis, we have that it is well-defined in the sense that it is independent of the basis.

However, this is not true for quaternions, that satisfy

$$\operatorname{tr}(BA) = \overline{\operatorname{tr}(B^*A^*)}.$$

For this reason, for a quaternionic matrix $X \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n}$, we consider its realification $X_{\mathbb{R}} \in \mathbb{R}^{4n \times 4n}$. If we denote its trace by $\operatorname{tr}_{\mathbb{R}}(X_{\mathbb{R}})$, then we have that

$$\operatorname{tr}_{\mathbb{R}} X_{\mathbb{R}} = 4\operatorname{Re}(\operatorname{tr}_{\mathbb{H}} X).$$

Denoting with $\Phi: \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{R}^{4n \times 4n}$ be the realification of a quaternionic matrix, we can see that it is a group morphism by the following commuting diagram.

$$\mathbb{H}^{n\times n} \stackrel{\Phi}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathbb{R}^{4n\times 4n}$$

$$\simeq \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \simeq$$

$$\operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathbb{H}^{n\times n}) \stackrel{}{\longleftrightarrow} \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{R}}\mathbb{R}^{4n}$$

In particular, we have that $(AB)_{\mathbb{R}} = A_{\mathbb{R}}B_{\mathbb{R}}$, $(PAP^{-1})_{\mathbb{R}} = P_{\mathbb{R}}A_{\mathbb{R}}P_{\mathbb{R}}^{-1}$. Hence the real part of the trace is well-defined, i.e. invariant under conjugation by $GL(\mathbb{H}^n)$, and we may define the trace of a quaternionic transformation as the real part of its trace in any basis.

Definition 5.0.6. Let V be a quaternionic vector space and $X \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ be a quaternionic transformation. The trace of a quaternionic transformation $X \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ is the real part of the trace of its realification:

$$\operatorname{tr}(X) = \operatorname{Re}(\operatorname{tr}(X)) = \operatorname{Re}\left(\sum_{i} X_{ii}\right),$$

where X_{ij} are the entries of the matrix of X in a basis of V: $Xe_j = \sum_i X_{ij}e_i$.

2025-03-23

• Inner product on quaternionic transformations:

Definition 5.0.7. Let V be a quaternionic vector space and K be a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form on V. We define the inner product of two quaternionic transformations $X, Y \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$ as the real part of the trace of their product:

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr}(X^{*_K} Y),$$

where the trace on the right hand side can be taken in any basis of V. It is symmetric, \mathbb{R} -linear and non-degenerate.

- Invariance under change of basis follows from the fact that the real part of the trace is invariant under conjugation by $GL(\mathbb{H}^n)$: $Re \operatorname{tr}((PX^{*_K}P^{-1})(PYP^{-1})) = Re \operatorname{tr}(X^{*_K}Y)$.
- Symmetry follows from the fact that every quaternionic transformation K can be written as matrix multiplication with a quaternionic matrix S: $K(u,v) = u^*Sv$, where $S^* = S$. Then the matrix form of the K-conjugate is given by $X^{*\kappa} = S^{-1}X^*S$, so $\operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(X^{*\kappa}Y) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(S^{-1}X^*SY) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(X^*SYS^{-1}) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(X^*SYS^{-1}) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(S^{-1}Y^*SX) = \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(Y^{*\kappa}X)$.
- \mathbb{R} -linearity follows from the fact that for $\lambda \in \mathbb{H}$, we have $(\lambda X)^{*_{\kappa}} = X^{*_{\kappa}}\overline{\lambda}$ and that \mathbb{H} is the center of $\mathrm{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$.
- If K is a nondegerate quaternionic hermitian form, with corresponding matrix S, we have a commutative diagram of isomorphisms of representations:

$$\{T \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V) : T^{*_K} = T\} \longrightarrow \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(V)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\{X \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} : X^*S = SX\} \longrightarrow \{H \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n} : H^* = H\}$$

• Let $K = K_{p,q}$ be the nondegerate form on \mathbb{H}^n corresponding to the matrix $I_{p,q}$, i.e. $K_{p,q}(u,v) = \sum_{i=0}^p \overline{u}_i v_i - \sum_{i=p+1}^{p+q} \overline{u}_i v_i$. Then

$$\begin{split} &\{T\in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(V): T^{*\kappa} = T\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ -B^* & D \end{pmatrix}: A\in \mathbb{H}^{p\times p}, B\in \mathbb{H}^{p\times q}, D\in \mathbb{H}^{q\times q}, A^* = A, D^* = D \right\} \\ &= \mathfrak{k} \overset{\perp}{\oplus} \mathfrak{p}, \end{split}$$

where \mathfrak{k} and \mathfrak{p} are given

$$\mathfrak{k} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} : A \in \mathbb{H}^{p \times p}, D \in \mathbb{H}^{q \times q}, A^* = A, D^* = D \right\}$$

$$\mathfrak{p} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ -B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix} : B \in \mathbb{H}^{p \times q} \right\}.$$

• \mathfrak{k} is positive definite, \mathfrak{p} is negative definite and they are orthogonal to each other. Given that $\dim \mathfrak{k} = 4\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2} + \frac{q(q-1)}{2} + p + q\right)$ and $\dim \mathfrak{p} = 4pq$, we have that

$$\operatorname{Sp}(p,q) = \operatorname{Aut}(K_{p,q}) \subseteq \operatorname{SO}\left(4\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2} + \frac{q(q-1)}{2}\right) + p + q, 4pq\right).$$

- Under the isomorphism of representations from Chapter 5, $K_{p,q} \in \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ corresponds to the identity transformation $\operatorname{Id} \in \operatorname{End}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ and the identity matrix $I_n \in \mathbb{H}^{n \times n}$. Clearly, the latter is invariant under the action of $\operatorname{Aut}(K_{p,q}) = \operatorname{Sp}(p,q) : g^{-1}I_ng = I_n$.
- Since $I_n \in \mathfrak{k}$, we have that $\langle I_n, I_n \rangle > 0$, so in fact $\mathrm{Sp}(p,q)$ preserves its orthogonal complement I_n^{\perp} , and:

$$\operatorname{Sp}(p,q) = \operatorname{Aut}(K_{p,q}) \subseteq \operatorname{SO}\left(4\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2} + \frac{q(q-1)}{2}\right) - 1, 4pq\right).$$

• We have

$$\mathfrak{sp}(p,q) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^* & D \end{pmatrix} : A \in \mathbb{H}^{p \times p}, B \in \mathbb{H}^{p \times q}, D \in \mathbb{H}^{q \times q}, A^* = -A, D^* = -D \right\},$$

where we use the form $K_{p,q}$ to define Sp(p,q).

2025-03-24

• Identification between \mathcal{H}^n and \mathbb{C}^{2n} : Identifying $\mathcal{H} \simeq \mathbb{C} \oplus j\mathbb{C}$, we have the following identification between \mathcal{H}^n and \mathbb{C}^{2n} :

$$\mathcal{H}^n \simeq \mathbb{C}^{2n}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 + jb_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + jb_n \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

• Identification between $\mathcal{H}^{n\times n} \simeq \mathbb{C}^{2n\times 2n}$: Keeping up with the above definition, we have the following:

$$\mathcal{H}^{n \times n} \simeq \mathbb{C}^{2n \times 2n}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} z_{11} + jw_{11} & \cdots & z_{1n} + jw_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n1} + jw_{n1} & \cdots & z_{nn} + jw_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} z_{11} & \cdots & z_{1n} & -\overline{w}_{11} & \cdots & -\overline{w}_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n1} & \cdots & z_{nn} & -\overline{w}_{n1} & \cdots & -\overline{w}_{nn} \\ w_{11} & \cdots & w_{1n} & \overline{z}_{11} & \cdots & \overline{z}_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{n1} & \cdots & w_{nn} & \overline{z}_{n1} & \cdots & \overline{z}_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z + jW \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} Z & -\overline{W} \\ W & \overline{Z} \end{pmatrix}.$$

• Calculation of $\mathfrak{sp}(p,1)$, for n=p+1:

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{sp}(p,1) &= \{X \in \mathfrak{gl}(n,\mathcal{H}) : -JX^*J = X\} \\ &= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & -X_{12}^* \\ X_{31} & -X_{21}^* & -\overline{X}_{11} \end{pmatrix} : \begin{array}{c} X_{11}, X_{13}, X_{31} \in \mathcal{H}, X_{12} \in \mathcal{H}^{1 \times p}, X_{21} \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times 1}, X_{22} \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times p}, \\ X_{13} &= -\overline{X}_{13}, X_{22} &= -X_{22}^*, X_{31} &= -\overline{X}_{31} \end{pmatrix} . \end{split}$$

• The Cartan involution is given by $\theta(X) = -X^*$, so

$$\mathfrak{p} = \{X \in \mathfrak{sp}(p,1) : X^* = X\} =$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & X_{13} \\ X_{12}^* & 0 & -X_{12}^* \\ X_{13}^* & -X_{12} & -X_{11} \end{pmatrix} : \begin{array}{c} X_{11} \in \mathbb{R}, X_{13} \in \mathcal{H}, X_{12} \in \mathcal{H}^{1 \times p}, \\ X_{13} = -\overline{X}_{13} \end{array} \right\}.$$

• Cartan subalgebra of $\mathfrak{sp}(p,1)$:

$$\mathfrak{a} = \mathbb{R} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \simeq \mathbb{R} \mathrm{diag}(1, 0, \dots, 0, -1, 1, 0, \dots, 0, -1),$$

where on the right hand side the we have a the corresponding complex matrix under the indentification $\mathcal{H}^{n\times n}\simeq\mathbb{C}^{2n\times 2n}$.

- From the above, it is clear that the first and second largest eigenvalue of the adjoint representation are equal, so the adjoint representation of $\mathfrak{sp}(p,1)$ is not proximal. Considering that the latter is isomorphic to the action of $\mathfrak{sp}(p,1)$ on the space of antihermitian forms $\operatorname{AntiHerm}_{\mathbb{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1})$, we see that it would not give us a proximal representation of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1)$. This is why we consider hermitian forms.
- Identifying $\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1})$ with the subset of $\mathcal{H}^{p+1\times p+1}$ given by $A^{*_K} = J^{-1}AJ = A$, we have that

$$\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1}) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{12}^* \\ A_{31} & A_{21}^* & \overline{A}_{11} \end{pmatrix} : A_{11} \in \mathcal{H}, A_{13}, A_{31} \in \mathbb{R}, A_{12} \in \mathcal{H}^{1 \times p}, A_{22} \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times p}, \\ A_{22} = A_{22}^* \end{pmatrix} \right\}.$$

• Let $H_0 = \operatorname{diag}(1,0,-1) \in a, A \in \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1})$. Then

$$\rho_*(H_0) = [H_0, A] = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & A_{12} & 2A_{13} \\ -A_{21} & 0 & A_{12} \\ -2A_{31} & -A_{21}^* & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $\rho: \operatorname{Sp}(p,1) \to \operatorname{GL}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1})$. Hence the two largest eigenvalues of $\rho_*(H_0)$ are $2L_1, L_1$, where $L_1(H_0) = 1$.

2025-03-25

- Let Γ be a discrete subgroup of the isometry group of a symmetric space X. If Γ acts properly discontinuously on X, then the set of accumulation points of Γ lies in the boundary $\partial_{\infty} X$ of X (see Item (iii)).
- Another way of looking at the action of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)$ on $\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+q})$. Fix a nondegenerate quaternionic hermitian form K, and denote with S the matrix that transforms the standard inner product on \mathcal{H}^n to K, i.e. $K(u,v) = \langle Su,v \rangle_0$. Then the following to involutions of $\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H})$ commute:

$$\theta(X) = -X^*, \quad \sigma(X) = X^{*K} = S^{-1}X^*S.$$

Each of these two involutions gives a decomposition of the Lie algebra:

$$\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H}) = \mathfrak{k} \oplus \mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{h} \oplus \mathfrak{q},$$

where k, h are the eigenspaces of θ, σ with eigenvalue 1, and p, q are the eigenspaces with eigenvalue -1. By their definition, we can see that \mathfrak{k} is the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sp}(n)$ of the compact symplectic group. If K is of signature (p,q), then \mathfrak{h} is the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sp}(p,q)$, which can be identified with the Antihermitian quaternionic forms of \mathcal{H}^{p+q} . Similarly \mathfrak{q} can be identified with the Hermitian quaternionic forms of \mathcal{H}^{p+q} . Since the two involutions commute, they preserve each others eigenspaces and we have the decomposition:

$$\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H}) = (\mathfrak{k} \cap \mathfrak{h}) \oplus (\mathfrak{k} \cap \mathfrak{q}) \oplus (\mathfrak{p} \cap \mathfrak{h}) \oplus (\mathfrak{p} \cap \mathfrak{q}).$$

Then the representation considered as the action of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)$ on Hermitian forms is the same as the restriction of the adjoint representation of $\operatorname{SL}(n,\mathcal{H})$ to $\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)$ and the Hermitian forms:

$$\rho = \operatorname{Ad}|_{\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)} : \operatorname{Sp}(p,q) \to \operatorname{GL}(\mathfrak{q}).$$

Now, we know that the adjoint representation of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)$ preserves the Killing form of $\mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H})$, which is nondegenerate and usually given by $(X,Y) \mapsto \operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(XY)$. Thus it will preserve the inner product

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = -\operatorname{Re}\operatorname{tr}(XY), \quad X, Y \in \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathcal{H}).$$

Since θ is a Cartan involution, \mathfrak{k} is positive definite, \mathfrak{p} is negative definite, and they are orthogonal to each other with respect to this product. The same properties carry on to ρ , being a restriction:

$$\rho: \operatorname{Sp}(p,q) \to \operatorname{SO}((\mathfrak{q} \cap \mathfrak{k}) \overset{\perp}{\oplus} (\mathfrak{q} \cap \mathfrak{p}), \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle).$$

Following the definitions:

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{k} \cap \mathfrak{q} &= \left\{ T \in \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H}) : T^* = T = T^{*_K} \right\} \simeq \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ -B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix} : B \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times q} \right\} \\ \mathfrak{p} \cap \mathfrak{q} &= \left\{ T \in \mathfrak{sl}(n,\mathcal{H}) : T^* = -T, T = T^{*_K} \right\} \simeq \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} : \begin{array}{c} A \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times p}, D \in \mathcal{H}^{q \times q}, \\ A^* = A, D^* = D, \operatorname{tr}(A) = -\operatorname{tr}(D) \end{array} \right\} \end{split}$$

We can now calculate the dimsensions and see that

$$\rho: \operatorname{Sp}(p,q) \to \operatorname{SO}\left(4pq, 4\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2} + \frac{q(q-1)}{2}\right) + p + q - 1\right)$$

2025-03-26

• Consider $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1) = \{g \in \operatorname{SL}(p+1,\mathcal{H}) : g^{*_{I_p,1}} = g^{-1}\} \simeq \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^* & D \end{pmatrix} : A^* = -A, D^* = -D \right\}$, where we use the identification of $\operatorname{SL}(p+1,\mathcal{H})$ as a subset of $\mathcal{H}^{p+1\times p+1}$ via the standard basis. Then we have that the maximal compact subgroup of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1)$ is

$$Sp(p,1) \cap Sp(p+1) = \left\{ g \in Sp(p,1) : g^* = g^{-1} \right\}$$
$$= \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} : A^* = A^{-1}, |D|^2 = 1 \right\} \simeq Sp(p) \times Sp(1).$$

 $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1) \cap \operatorname{Sp}(p+1)$, which has Lie algebra:

$$\begin{split} \mathfrak{k} &= \mathfrak{sp}(p,1) \cap \mathfrak{sp}(p+1) \\ &= \{X \in \mathfrak{sp}(p,1) : X^* = -X\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{pmatrix} : A^* = -A, D^* = -D \right\}. \end{split}$$

On the other hand, the tangent space of the symmetric space $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1)/K$ is identified with the Lie algebra

$$\mathfrak{p} = \{X \in \mathfrak{sp}(p,1): X^* = X\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}: B \in \mathcal{H}^{p \times 1} \right\}.$$

• Using the form $I_{p,1}$, we can identify the space of quaternionic hermitian forms with a subspace of endomorphisms of \mathcal{H}^{p+1} , which can be again identified with a matrix subspace of $\mathcal{H}^{p+1\times p+1}$ using the standard basis:

$$\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1}) = \{ X \in \mathfrak{gl}(p+1,\mathcal{H}) : X^{*_{I_{p,1}}} = X \} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ -B^* & D \end{pmatrix} : A^* = A, D^* = D \right\},$$

which is equipped with the inner product $\langle X, Y \rangle = -\text{Re} \operatorname{tr}(XY)$.

• In particular, we fix the following form, that satisfies $\langle x_0, x_0 \rangle = -1$:

$$x_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• In the following, we will consider the pseudohyperbolic space

$$\mathbb{H}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p} = \left\{ l \in \mathbb{P}(\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1})) : \langle l, l \rangle < 0 \right\},\,$$

with double cover

$$\hat{\mathbb{H}}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p} = \left\{ X \in \operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}(\mathcal{H}^{p+1}) : \langle X, X \rangle = -1 \right\}.$$

• We would like to find a map

$$f: \mathrm{Sp}(p,1)/K \to \mathbb{H}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p}$$

that is ρ -equivariant and it pulls back the metric of $\mathbb{H}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p}$ to a positive definite metric on $\operatorname{Sp}(p,1)/K$.

- It suffices for us to find a ρ -equivariant map $\tilde{f}: \operatorname{Sp}(p,1) \to \hat{\mathbb{H}}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p}$ to the double cover with the same properties.
- ρ -equivariance is equivalent to finding some $v \in \hat{\mathbb{H}}^{4p,2p(p-1)+p}$ that is invariant under the action of K through ρ , since then we can define $\tilde{f}(gK) = \rho(g) \cdot v$.
- This is the case for $v = x_0$, since:

$$\rho(k) \cdot x_0 = kx_0k^{-1} = x_0$$
, for all $k \in \text{Sp}(p) \times \text{Sp}(1)$,

so $\rho(k) \cdot \mathbb{R} x_0 = \mathbb{R} x_0$.

• We calculate the derivative of f over the tangent space $d_K(\operatorname{Sp}(p,1)/K) \simeq \mathfrak{sp}(p,1)/\mathfrak{k} \simeq \mathfrak{p}$:

$$d_K f(X + \mathfrak{k}) = \rho_*(X) \cdot \mathbb{R} x_0 = \mathbb{R}[X, x_0] = \mathbb{R} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ -B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ for } X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ B^* & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathfrak{p}.$$

In particular $\langle d_K f(X + \mathfrak{k}), d_K f(X + \mathfrak{k}) \rangle = 2 \operatorname{Re} \operatorname{tr}(BB^*) > 0.$

2025-03-27

• Characterisation of properness.

Lemma 5.0.1. Let $f: X \to Y$ be a continuous map between topological spaces. Then f is proper if and only if it maps sequences that escape to infinity to sequences that escape to infinity.

2025-03-31

• The adjoint action of $\operatorname{Sp}(p,q)$ on $\operatorname{Herm}_{\mathcal{H}}^0(\mathcal{H}^{p+q})$ is proximal and takes values in $\operatorname{SO}(p',q')$:

$$\rho: \mathrm{Sp}(p,q) \to \mathrm{SO}\left(4pq, 4\left(\frac{p(p-1)}{2} + \frac{q(q-1)}{2}\right) + p + q - 1\right)$$

2025-04-04

• There exist no groups of Beyrer-Kassel in $SL(d, \mathbb{R})$

Lemma 5.0.2. Let $\rho : \mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathrm{SO}(p,q)$ be irreducible with p > q. Then there exists no $\Gamma \leq \mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ discrete such that $\rho_{|\Gamma}$ is $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ -convex cocompact of maximal dimension.

Proof. Assume for the sake of contradiction the contrary, and denote with V the vector space on which ρ acts irreducibly. Since ρ is irreducible, we know that it is a subrepresentation of

$$\bigotimes_{i=1}^{d-1} \operatorname{Sym}^{a_i} \bigwedge^i \operatorname{std} : \operatorname{SL}(d,\mathbb{R}) \to \operatorname{GL}\left(\bigotimes_{i=1}^{d-1} \operatorname{Sym}^{a_i} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^d\right)$$

Since it is self-dual, we know that $a_i = a_{d-i}$ for i = 1, ..., d-1.

We denote with \mathfrak{a}_0 the Cartan subalgebra of $\mathfrak{sl}(d,\mathbb{R})$ consisting of traceless real diagonal matrices. Let \mathcal{P}_+ be the set of positive weights of ρ . Fix some i for which $a_i > 0$ and let \mathcal{P}_+^i be the set of weights of $\operatorname{Sym}^{a_i} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^d$.

The weights of $\operatorname{Sym}^{a_i} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^d \otimes \operatorname{Sym}^{a_{d-i}} \bigwedge^{d-i} \mathbb{R}^d$ are the differences of the weights of $\operatorname{Sym}^{a_i} \bigwedge^i \mathbb{R}^d$.

2025-04-05

• Real representations in $\mathfrak{so}(p,q)$ come from complex representations in $\mathfrak{so}(p+q,\mathbb{C})$.

Lemma 5.0.3. Let \mathfrak{g}_0 be a real simple Lie algebra that complexifies to \mathfrak{g} and $\rho_0: \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0)$ be an irreducible real representation of \mathfrak{g}_0 . Then there exists an irreducible complex subrepresentation $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ of the complexification $\rho_0(\mathbb{C}): \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0(\mathbb{C}))$ such that ρ_0 is either $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}: \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_{\mathbb{R}})$, or a subrepresentation of $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}$.

If moreover $\rho_0(\mathfrak{g}_0) \subseteq \mathfrak{so}(p,q)$, then $\rho(\mathfrak{g}) \subseteq \mathfrak{so}(p+q,\mathbb{C})$.

Proof. We know that either the complexification $(\rho_0)(\mathbb{C}): \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0(\mathbb{C}))$ is irreducible, or there exists a complex structure $J:V_0\to V_0$ on V_0 , and an irreducible complex representation $\rho':\mathfrak{g}\to\mathfrak{gl}(V_0,J)$ such that $\rho_0=\left(\rho'_{|\mathfrak{g}_0}\right)_{\mathbb{R}}$. In the first case, letting $\rho=\rho_0(\mathbb{C})$, we have that ρ_0 is the subrepresentation of $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}$ in the real form V_0 of $V_0(\mathbb{C})$. Note that in this case, ρ is exactly the complexification of ρ_0 . In the second case, we can take $\rho=\rho'$, and we have that ρ_0 is $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}$. Moreover, we have that $\rho^{\mathbb{C}}=((\rho'_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}})^{\mathbb{C}}=\rho'+\overline{\rho}'$. In particular, $\rho'_{|\mathfrak{g}_0}$ is a subrepresentation of $\rho^{\mathbb{C}}_0:\mathfrak{g}_0\to\mathfrak{gl}(V_0(\mathbb{C}))$, and hence ρ' is a subrepresentation of $\rho_0(\mathbb{C})$.

Assuming now that ρ_0 preserves a form ω , we can consider ω as a complex form on $V_0(\mathbb{C})$, and we have that the complexification $\rho_0(\mathbb{C})$ preserves this complex form. In particular, ρ will also preserve it, since it is a subrepresentation of $\rho_0(\mathbb{C})$.

Bound on positive weights

Lemma 5.0.4. Let \mathfrak{g}_0 be a real simple Lie algebra that complexifies to \mathfrak{g} . We denote with \mathfrak{a} the Cartan subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} and define

$$\mathfrak{a}_0 = \{ H \in \mathfrak{a} : \alpha(H) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Delta \}.$$

We assume that $\mathfrak{g}_0 \cap \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}_0$. We consider a connected component D of the set

$$\mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{g}_0 - \bigcup_{\substack{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}(V) \\ \alpha_{\mid \alpha \cap \mathfrak{g}_0} \not\equiv 0}} \ker \alpha,$$

and consider the set of weights that are positive on D:

$$\mathcal{P}_{++} = \left\{ \alpha \in \mathcal{P}(V) : \alpha_{|D} > 0 \right\}.$$

Let $\rho: \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{so}(p,q) \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V_0)$ be an irreducible real representation of \mathfrak{g}_0 . Then there exists a complex irreducible representation $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{so}(p+q,\mathbb{C}) \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ such that ρ_0 is a (possibly nonstrict) subrepresentation of its realification $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}$.

$$p, q \geq \sharp \mathcal{P}_{++}$$

Proof. The existence of the representation $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{so}(p+q,\mathbb{C})$ follows from Lemma 5.0.3. For every positive weight $\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_+$, we denote with V_α the corresponding weight space. As in Lemma 5.0.3, we consider two cases for the representation ρ_0 :

The first case is when the complexification $\rho = \rho_0(\mathbb{C}) : \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0(\mathbb{C}))$ is irreducible. We denote with Re, Im : $V_0(\mathbb{C}) = V_0 \oplus iV_0 \to V_0$ the projections that satisfy v = Rev + iImv for $v \in V_0(\mathbb{C})$. Then we have that

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} \operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha}$$

is a totally isotropic subspace of V_0 .

We begin by showing

$$\operatorname{Re}V_{\alpha} \subseteq V_{\alpha} \cap V_{0}.$$

For this, it suffices that $\rho(H_0)v_{\alpha} = \langle \alpha, H_0 \rangle v_{\alpha}$ for $H_0 \in \mathfrak{a}_0$, because \mathfrak{a}_0 is a real form of \mathfrak{a} . Let $H \in \mathfrak{a}_0$ and $v_{\alpha} \in V_{\alpha}$. Then $\text{Re}v_{\alpha} \in V_{\alpha}$, since

$$\rho(H)\operatorname{Re}v_{\alpha} = \rho(H)\left(\frac{v_{\alpha} + \sigma v_{\alpha}}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\langle \alpha, H \rangle + \langle \overline{\alpha}, H \rangle\right)v_{\alpha} = \operatorname{Re}v_{\alpha}$$

On the other hand we have that $\operatorname{Im} V_{\alpha} = \operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha}$. Thus we have that $V_{\alpha} = (\operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha})^{\mathbb{C}}$. In particular, since $\operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha} \subseteq V_{\alpha}$, and the weight spaces are linearly independent, the real parts $\operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha}$ are linearly independent as well and their real dimension is the same as the complex dimension of the weight spaces:

$$\dim_{\mathbb{R}} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} \operatorname{Re} V_{\alpha} = \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} V_{\alpha} \ge \sharp \mathcal{P}_{++}.$$

To see that they are isotropic, consider To see that they are isotropic, take for instance $v_{\alpha} \in V_{\alpha}, v_{\beta} \in V_{\beta}$ be two weight vectors for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{P}_{++}$. Fix some $H_0 \in D$, in which case $\langle \alpha, H_0 \rangle, \langle \beta, H_0 \rangle > 0$ and Then we have that

$$e^{\langle \alpha+\beta,H_0\rangle}\langle \operatorname{Re}v_{\alpha},\operatorname{Re}v_{\beta}\rangle = \langle e^{\rho_0(H_0)}\operatorname{Re}v_{\alpha},e^{\rho_0(H_0)}\operatorname{Re}v_{\beta}\rangle = \langle \operatorname{Re}v_{\alpha},\operatorname{Re}v_{\beta}\rangle.$$

But
$$\langle \alpha + \beta, H_0 \rangle > 0$$
, so $e^{\langle \alpha + \beta, H_0 \rangle} > 1$, and $\langle \text{Re}v_{\alpha}, \text{Re}v_{\beta} \rangle = 0$.

The second case is when $\rho(\mathbb{C})$ is not irreducible, and we have that there exists a complex structure $J: V_0 \to V_0$ which commutes with ρ_0 and renders its extension $\rho: \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0, J)$ to \mathfrak{g} an irreducible complex representation. Denoting with $(V_0, J) = \bigoplus_{\alpha} V_{\alpha}$ the weight decomposition of ρ , we have that the (real) vector space

$$\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} (V_{\alpha})_{\mathbb{R}}$$

is a totally isotropic subspace of V_0 . Indeed, the same arguments as before show that it is isotropic. In that case, the bound on the dimension is given by

$$\dim_{\mathbb{R}} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} (V_{\alpha})_{\mathbb{R}} = 2 \dim_{\mathbb{C}} \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}_{++}} V_{\alpha} \ge 2 \sharp \mathcal{P}_{++}.$$

2025-04-06

•

Lemma 5.0.5. Let $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ be an irreducible complex representation of a real simple Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . Let $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$ be a Cartan subalgebra. Then for every weight vector $v_{\alpha} \in V_{\alpha}$, there exists some $H \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that $\langle \alpha, H \rangle > 0$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{P}(V)$ be a weight and v_{α} be a weight vector. Clearly there exists some $H \in \mathfrak{a}$ such that $\langle \alpha, H \rangle \neq 0$. Then there exists some $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ such that $e^{i\theta} \langle \alpha, H \rangle = \langle \alpha, e^{i\theta} H \rangle > 0$.

2025-04-07

• The weights of a complex representation of a complex semisimple Lie algebra are real valued on the split Cartan subalgebra.

Lemma 5.0.6. Let \mathfrak{g} be a complex semisimple Lie algebra and \mathfrak{a} be a Cartan subalgebra. We define the subalgebra \mathfrak{a}_0 as the set of elements of \mathfrak{a} that will be real valued on the roots:

$$\mathfrak{a}_0 = \{ H \in \mathfrak{a} : \alpha(H) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Delta \}.$$

Then the weights of any complex representation $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ are real valued on \mathfrak{a}_0 .

Proof. Denoting with B the Killing form of \mathfrak{g} , we define for each root α a corresponding element $H_{\alpha} \in \mathfrak{a}$ through the isomorphism $\mathfrak{a} \simeq \mathfrak{a}^*$ given by the Killing form (possible since B is nondegenerate on $\mathfrak{h} \times \mathfrak{h}$).

Let $X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}$ be root vectors corresponding to α and $-\alpha$, scaled so that $B(X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}) = 1$. Then we have that

$$H_{\alpha} = [X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}].$$

Indeed, we have $B([X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}], H) = -B(X_{-\alpha}, [X_{\alpha}, H]) = +B(X_{-\alpha}, \langle \alpha, H \rangle X_{\alpha}) = \langle \alpha, H \rangle$, for $H \in \mathfrak{a}$. Renormalizing

$$H_{\alpha}' = \frac{2}{\langle \alpha, H_{\alpha} \rangle} H_{\alpha}, \quad X_{\alpha}' = \frac{2}{\langle \alpha, H_{\alpha} \rangle} X_{\alpha}, \quad X_{-\alpha'} = X_{-\alpha},$$

we have that

$$[H'_{\alpha}, X'_{\alpha}] = 2X'_{\alpha},$$
 $[h, e] = 2e,$ $[H'_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha'}] = -2X_{-\alpha'},$ $[h, f] = -2f,$ $[X'_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha'}] = H'_{\alpha},$ $[e, f] = h.$

Thus we have that the subalgebra $\mathfrak{sl}_{\alpha}(2,\mathbb{C}) = \mathbb{C}\{H_{\alpha}, X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}\}$ is isomorphic to $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$, via the map taking $H'_{\alpha}, X'_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha'}$ to H, e, f. Restricting ρ to $\mathfrak{sl}_{\alpha}(2,\mathbb{C})$, we obtain a representation ρ_{α} of $\mathfrak{sl}(2,\mathbb{C})$, for which it is known that the eigenvalues of $\rho(H'_{\alpha})$ are integers. In particular, we have that the eigenvalues of $\rho(H_{\alpha})$ are real. Since for any weight $\beta \in \mathcal{P}$, with a weight vector $v_{\beta} \in V_{\beta}$, we have $\rho(H_{\alpha})v_{\beta} = \langle \beta, H_{\alpha} \rangle v_{\beta}$, we have that $\langle \beta, H_{\alpha} \rangle$ is real. But

$$\mathfrak{a}_0 = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \Delta} \mathbb{R} H_{\alpha},$$

so β will be real valued on \mathfrak{a}_0 .

• Weight decomposition for real representations:

Lemma 5.0.7. Let \mathfrak{g}_0 be a real simple Lie algebra that complexifies to \mathfrak{g} . We denote with \mathfrak{a} the Cartan subalgebra of \mathfrak{g} and define

$$\mathfrak{a}_0 = \{ H \in \mathfrak{a} : \alpha(H) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for all } \alpha \in \Delta \}.$$

We assume that $\mathfrak{g}_0 \cap \mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{a}_0$.

Let $\rho: \mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{so}(p,q) \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V_0)$ be an irreducible real representation of \mathfrak{g}_0 . Then there exists a complex irreducible representation $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{so}(p+q,\mathbb{C}) \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(V)$ such that ρ_0 is a (possibly nonstrict) subrepresentation of its realification $(\rho_{|\mathfrak{g}_0})_{\mathbb{R}}$. If we denote with \mathcal{P} the weights of ρ and V_{α} its weight spaces, then we have the following weight decomposition for ρ_0 :

$$V_0 = \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{P}} V_\alpha \cap V_0,$$

in the sense that for all $H \in \mathfrak{a} \cap \mathfrak{g}_0$, we have $\rho_0(H) = \langle \alpha, H \rangle \mathrm{Id}$ over $V_\alpha \cap V_0$.

Proof. We distinguish two cases. The first case is when the complexification $\rho = \rho_0(\mathbb{C})$: $\mathfrak{g}_0 \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0(\mathbb{C}))$ is irreducible. In Lemma 5.0.4 we saw that $\operatorname{Re}V_\alpha = V_\alpha \cap V_0$. In particular $\operatorname{Re}V_\alpha \subseteq V_\alpha$, so $\operatorname{Re}V_\alpha$ is a weight space of ρ_0 . To see that V_0 is the sum of the $\operatorname{Re}V_\alpha$, we consider the weight decopmosition of some $v = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha v_\alpha \in V_0$ and apply the projection $\operatorname{Re} V_0 = V_0 = V_0$.

In the second case where $\rho(\mathbb{C})$ is not irreducible, we have that there exists a complex structure $J: V_0 \to V_0$ which commutes with ρ_0 and renders its extension $\rho: \mathfrak{g} \to \mathfrak{gl}(V_0, J)$ to \mathfrak{g} an irreduble complex representation. Then the weight decomposition of ρ_0 is the same as the one of ρ .

2025-04-10

Spacelike cocompact groups

Definition 5.0.8. A representation $\rho: \Gamma \to SO(p,q)$ of a discrete group Γ is spacelike cocompact if it is injective and $\rho(\Gamma)$ acts properly discontinuously and cocompactly on a surface-like submanifold \tilde{M} of $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ with dimension $\dim \tilde{M} = p$. In that case $\Gamma = \pi_1(M)$, where $M = \tilde{M}/\rho(\Gamma)$.

• Criteria for $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ -convex cocompactness

Lemma 5.0.8. Let $\rho: \Gamma \to SO(p,q)$ be a spacelike cocompact representation of a discrete group Γ . The following are equivalent:

- (i) Γ is Gromov hyperbolic.
- (ii) ρ is $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ -convex cocompact.
- (iii) ρ is $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ -convex cocompact of maximal dimension.
- (iv) ρ is Anosov.
- (v) $\partial_{\infty}\tilde{M}$ contains no segments.

In that case, if q = 1, then \tilde{M} can be taken to be convex.

• Proper embeddings in $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ (see Seppi, Smith, Toulisse).

Lemma 5.0.9. Let $f: M^p \to \mathbb{H}^{p,q}$ be a spacelike immersion of a manifold M^p into $\mathbb{H}^{p,q}$, i.e. $f^*g_{p,q}$ is a Riemannian metric on M^p . If one of the following two conditions holds:

- (i) $f^*g_{p,q}$ is complete
- (ii) f is proper

then $M \simeq \mathbb{D}^p$ is diffeomorphic to a disk, and f is a proper embedding.

• Criterion for spacelike cocompact.

Lemma 5.0.10. Let G be a real semisimple Lie group with maximal compact subgroup K and $\Gamma \leq G$ a discrete subgroup acting cocompactly on G/K, admitting an injective representation $\rho : \Gamma \to SO(p,q)$. If there exists a ρ -equivariant spacelike immersion $f: G/K \to \mathbb{H}^{p,q}$, then ρ is spacelike cocompact.

Proof. Denote with $\tilde{M} = f(G/K)$ the image of G/K under f. By equivariance, f factors through the quotient $\Gamma \backslash G/K$, as in the following commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} G/K & \stackrel{f}{\longrightarrow} \tilde{M} \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ \Gamma \backslash G/K & \dashrightarrow & M \end{array}$$

Since Γ acts cocompactly, $\Gamma \backslash G/K$ is compact, so f is proper. By the previous lemma, we have that f is a proper embedding, so \tilde{M} is a spacelike submanifold. To see that $\rho(\Gamma)$ acts properly discontinuously, we argue by absurd and consider an injective sequence $\{g_n\} \subseteq \Gamma$ such that $\rho(\gamma_n)K \cap K \neq \emptyset$, for some $K \subseteq \tilde{M}$ compact. The set $K' = f^{-1}(K)$ is compact, because f is proper, and there exist $k'_n \in K'$ such that $f(k'_n) = k_n$. Then $f(\gamma_n k'_n) = \rho(\gamma_n)k_n \in K$, so the sequence γ_n satisfies also that $\gamma_n K' \cap K' \neq \emptyset$, so γ_n is not properly discontinuous, which is absurd. Finally, $M = f(\Gamma \backslash G/K)$ is compact, because $\Gamma \backslash G/K$ is compact.

2025-05-06

Proposition 5.0.4. Let $\rho: \Gamma \to \operatorname{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ be a proximal irreducible representation of a discrete subgroup Γ of some semisimple Lie group G. Then ρ is P_1 -Anosov if and only if Γ is Θ -Anosov with $\Theta = \{\alpha \in \Pi : \langle \alpha, \lambda \rangle \neq 0\}$.

In particular, if ρ is P_1 -Anosov, then Γ is P_i -Anosov for some i.

Proof. Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m$ be the weights of ρ with λ_1 being the highest weight. Then for every $H \in \mathfrak{a}^+$, we have that $\lambda_1(H) \geq \lambda_i(H)$ for $i = 1, \dots, m$. Fix some $v \in \mathfrak{a}^+$. Then we have that for $\alpha \in \Pi$

$$\lambda_1 - \alpha$$
 is a weight of ρ if and only if $\langle \alpha, \lambda_1 \rangle \neq 0$.

To see this, we let $s_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{W}$ be the reflection with respect to $\ker \alpha$. Then $s_{\alpha}(\lambda_1)$ is a weight of ρ and is among the extremal points on the set of weights of ρ . Moreover, there exists $k \geq 0$ such that $\lambda_1, \lambda_1 - \alpha, \dots, \lambda_1 - k\alpha$ are all weights of ρ and k = 0 if and only if $\langle \alpha, \lambda_1 \rangle = 0$, i.e. λ lies on a wall of the Weyl chamber of α . Thus $\langle \alpha, \lambda_1 \rangle \neq 0$ if and only if $\lambda_1 - \alpha$ is a weight of ρ .

Before continuing, we note that we can pick the Cartan subalgebras $\mathfrak{a} \subseteq \mathfrak{g}$, $\mathfrak{h} \subseteq \mathfrak{sl}(d,\mathbb{R})$ such that $\rho_*(\mathfrak{a}^+) = \mathfrak{h}^+$, where \mathfrak{g} is the Lie algebra of G. Then, using the Cartan decompositions of G and $\mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ we can show that

$$\mu(\rho(\gamma)) = \rho_*(\gamma)$$

Recall that ρ is P_1 -Anosov if and only if there exist C, c > 0 such that for every $\gamma \in \Gamma$, $\alpha_{12}(\mu(\rho(\gamma))) \geq C|\gamma| - c$. However, we know that $\alpha_{12}(\mu(\rho(\gamma))) = \alpha_{12}(\rho_*(\mu(\gamma)))$ is the difference between the first two largest eigenvalues of $\rho_*(\mu(\gamma)) \in \mathfrak{h}^+$. Clearly, the first largest eigenvalue of $\rho_*(\mu(\gamma))$ is given by the highest weight $\lambda_1(\rho_*(\mu(\gamma)))$. Since the representation ρ is assumed to be proximal, the second largest eigenvalue is given by another weight of ρ . Hence we have that:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{12}(\mu(\rho(\gamma))) &= \alpha_{12}(\rho_*(\mu(\gamma))) \\ &= \lambda_1(\mu(\rho(\gamma))) - \max_{\alpha \in \Theta} (\lambda_1 - \alpha)(\mu(\rho(\gamma))) \\ &= \min_{\alpha \in \Theta} \alpha(\mu(\rho(\gamma))), \end{aligned}$$

where $\Theta = \{\alpha \in \Pi : \langle \alpha, \lambda_1 \rangle \neq 0\}$. Here we make use of the fact that any other weight of ρ is obtained by substracting a positive integral combination of the simple roots, so the weight with the second largest value in $\mu(\rho(\gamma))$ is the one that is obtained by substracting a simple root $\alpha \in \Theta$.

Clearly, this quantity grows linearly with respect to the length of γ , if and only if $\alpha(\mu(\rho(\gamma)))$ does for all $\alpha \in \Theta$, which is equivalent to ρ being Θ -Anosov.

2025-05-12

• Let \mathfrak{g} be a real semisimple Lie algebra and fix a Cartan subalgebra \mathfrak{a} . Then for any two roots $\alpha, \beta \in \Delta$, we have that

$$n_{\alpha\beta} = 2\frac{(\beta, \alpha)}{(\alpha, \alpha)} \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Proof. Consider the subalgebra $\mathfrak{sl}_{\alpha} = \mathbb{C}\{H_{\alpha}, X_{\alpha}, X_{-\alpha}\} \simeq \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$. Then the subspace

$$W = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} V_{\beta + k\alpha}$$

is a representation of \mathfrak{sl}_{α} , where we consider $V = \mathfrak{g}$ as the adjoint representation of \mathfrak{g} In particular, up to substituting β by some $\beta + k\alpha$, we have that $W = V_{\beta} \oplus \cdots \oplus V_{\beta+m\alpha}$, where m is a positive integer. But being a representation of \mathfrak{sl}_{α} , we have that the eigenvalues of $\mathrm{Ad}(H_{\alpha})$ is a string of integers that is symmetric arround zero. But these are exactly $\beta(H_{\alpha}), \beta(H_{\alpha}) + 2, \cdots, \beta(H_{\alpha}) + 2m$, so $2(\beta, \alpha)/(\alpha, \alpha) = \beta(H_{\alpha}) = -m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

2025-05-13

• The irreducible representation of $2n + 1, \mathbb{C}$) with highest weight $2L_1$ is the kernel of the representation morphism:

$$\phi: \operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1}) \to \mathbb{C}, \quad vw \mapsto \langle v, w \rangle$$

Proof. We have that $(\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1}))_{2L_1} = e_1^2$, which lies in the kernel of ϕ (here we do not use the standard form on \mathbb{C}^{2n+1}), so the kernel of ϕ contains the irreducible representation Γ_{2L_1} with highest weight $2L_1$. On the other hand, due to dimensional reasons, $\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1}) = \ker \phi \oplus \mathbb{C}$, where \mathbb{C} is the trivial representation, and $\Gamma_{2L_1} \subseteq \ker \phi$. Since $\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1})$ has weights $0, \pm 2L_i, \pm L_i$ for $i = 1, \cdots, n$ and $2(\pm L_i \pm L_j)$ for $i \neq j$, with all but 0 being simple, we have that the kernel of ϕ is either Γ_{2L_1} or Γ_{2L_1} along with trivial factors. However, since $\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1}) \simeq \operatorname{Sym}^2((\mathbb{C}^{2n+1})^*)$, we have that invariant bilinear forms of the standard representation are equivalent to trivial summands of $\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1})$. Since every irreducible representation admits at most one (up to scalar multiplication) invariant bilinear form, we have that $\operatorname{Sym}^2(\mathbb{C}^{2n+1})$ contains exactly one trivial summand. Hence $\Gamma_{2L_1} = \ker \phi$.

2025-06-05: Patterson-Sullivan in rank 1

Assumption 1. Throughout, X will be a complete, connected Riemannian manifold with sectional curvature bounded below by a negative constant.

Definition 5.0.9. We define the Busemann function $b: \overline{X} \times X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ as follows:

$$b_z(x,y) = d(x,z) - d(y,z), b_{\xi}(x,y) = \lim_{X \ni z \to \xi} b_z(x,y).$$

For each $x \in X$, we define the Gromov product as seen from x by

$$(\xi|\eta)_x = \frac{1}{2} (b_{\xi}(x,y) + b_{\eta}(x,y)),$$

where $y \in X$ is a point on the geodesic joining ξ and η . We may now equip the boundary $\partial_{\infty}X$ with the distance $d_x : \partial X \times \partial X \to \mathbb{R}$ as seen from x:

$$d_x(\xi,\eta) = e^{-(\xi|\eta)_x}.$$

It turns out that for any two points $x, y \in X$, the respective distances on the boundary are conformally equivalent:

Lemma 5.0.11. Let $x \in X, \xi, \eta \in \partial_{\infty} X$ and $g \in \text{Isom}(X)$.

(i) For $y \in X$:

$$d_y(\xi, \eta) = e^{\frac{1}{2}(b_{\xi}(x,y) + b_{\eta}(x,y))} d_x(\xi, \eta).$$

(ii)
$$d_{qx}(\xi, \eta) = e^{d(x, gx)} d_x(\xi, \eta)$$
.

Proof. (i) One can show that for $z \in X$ a point on the geodesic joining ξ and η , we have

$$\begin{split} (\xi|\eta)_y &= (\xi|\eta)_x + \frac{1}{2} \left(b_\xi(x,z) - b_\eta(x,z) \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(b_\xi(y,z) - b_\eta(y,z) \right) \\ &= (\xi|\eta)_x + \frac{1}{2} \left(b_\xi(x,y) + b_\eta(x,y) \right), \end{split}$$

where we used that $b_{\xi}(y,z) - b_{\xi}(x,z) = -b_{\xi}(x,y)$.

(ii) First we show that $d_{gx}(\xi,\eta) \leq e^{d(x,gx)}d_x(\xi,\eta)$ by using the previous point and that $b_{\xi}(gx,x) \leq d(gx,x)$. Using this relation we establish the reverse inequality: $d_x(\xi,\eta) = d_{g^{-1}gx}(\xi,\eta) \leq e^{d(gx,g^{-1}gx)}d_{gx}(\xi,\eta) = e^{d(x,gx)}d_{gx}(\xi,\eta)$.

We begin by recalling the definition of a conformal density:

Definition 5.0.10. Let Γ be a nonelementary discrete group of isometries of X and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$. A Γ-conformal density is a family of Radon measures $\{\nu_x\}_{x\in X}$ on ∂X such that

- (i) It is Γ -equivariant, i.e. for all $g \in \Gamma$ and $x \in X$, we have that $\nu_{qx} = g_*\nu_x$.
- (ii) For all $x, y \in X$, we have that ν_x, ν_y are equivalent with density

$$\frac{d\nu_y}{d\nu_x}(\xi) = e^{-\beta b_{\xi}(y,x)}.$$

Since the distances on the boundary are conformally equivalent, the corresponding Hausdorff measures \mathcal{H}_x are equivalent as well. In particular, the Hausdorff dimension of ∂X is well-defined.

Lemma 5.0.12. Denote with \mathcal{H}_x^s to be the s-dimensional Hausdorff measure on ∂X that is induced by the distance d_x , for $x \in X$:

$$H_x^s(A) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \inf \left\{ \sum_i \operatorname{diam}(U_i)^s : A \subseteq \bigcup_i U_i, \operatorname{diam}(U_i) < \delta \right\}.$$

Then the Hausdorff measures \mathcal{H}_x are equivalent under the action of Isom(X) by

$$\mathcal{H}_y^s(A) = e^{\frac{s}{2}(b_{\xi}(x,y) + b_{\eta}(x,y))} \mathcal{H}_x^s(A),$$

and in particular, for $g \in \text{Isom}(X)$, we have that

$$\mathcal{H}_{gx}^{s}(A) = e^{sd(x,gx)}\mathcal{H}_{x}^{s}(A),$$

In particular, the Hausdorff dimension of ∂X is the same for every distance, and we will refer to it as the Hausdorff dimension of ∂X .

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• Let $\mathfrak{g}_0 = \mathfrak{su}(2,1)$ and $\mathfrak{h}_0 = \mathbb{R} \cdot \operatorname{diag}(1,0,-1)$ be a Cartan subalgebra for \mathfrak{g}_0 and $\mathfrak{a}_0 = \{\operatorname{diag}(a,b,-a-b): a,b \in \mathbb{R}\}$. Then the functionals of \mathfrak{a}_0^* that vanish when restricted to \mathfrak{h}_0 are in duality with the orthogonal complement \mathfrak{h}_0^{\perp} with respect to the Killing form, here given by

$$\mathfrak{h}_0^{\perp} = \{ \operatorname{diag}(a, -2a, a) : a \in \mathbb{R} \} \simeq \mathbb{R}(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) = \mathbb{R}(L_2 + \mathbb{R}(L_1 + L_2 + L_3)).$$

• The only spacelike cocompact representation of $\mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ with $p=\dim(G/K)$ is the symmetric cube

$$\rho: \mathrm{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathrm{Sym}^3(\mathbb{R}^2) \to \mathrm{SO}(2,2).$$

Proof. To see this, recall that for $G = SL(d, \mathbb{R})$, we have

$$\dim(G/K) = \frac{d(d+1)}{2} - 1.$$

We know that if $\rho: G \to \mathrm{SO}(p,q)$ gives rise to a spacelike cocompact representation, then the number of positive weights is at most $\min\{p,q\}=p$. Since in our case this is equal to $\dim(G/K)$, we need to show that p>d(d+1)/2-1. Indeed, the fundamental weights of self-dual representations of $\mathrm{SL}(d,\mathbb{R})$ are given by $\omega_i+\omega_{d-i}$ for i< d/2 and $\omega_{d/2}$ for d even. Assuming that $2\leq i\neq d/2$, half of the orbit of $\Lambda=\omega_i+\omega_{d-i}$ under the action of the Weyl group \mathcal{W} has cardinality

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d!}{i!(d-2i)!} \ge \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{d!}{2!(d-4)!} > \frac{d(d+1)}{2} - 1, \text{ for } d \ge 4.$$

On the other hand, if i = d/2, then half of the orbit of $\Lambda = \omega_{d/2}$ has cardinality

$$\frac{1}{2}(2k)!/(k!) > \frac{2k(2k+1)}{2} - 1, \text{ for } k \ge 3$$

Hence it suffices to check the case d=2,3, i=1 and (i,d)=(1,2),(2,4). The case (i,d)=(2,4) corresponds to the isomorphism $\mathrm{SL}(4,\mathbb{R})\to\mathrm{SO}(3,3)$, which is not spacelike cocompact. The case i=1 corresponds to the adjoint representation

$$Ad: SL(d, \mathbb{R}) \to SO(\frac{d(d+1)}{2} - 1, \frac{d(d-1)}{2}),$$

which is not spacelike cocompact becase there exists no element of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(d,\mathbb{R})$ that is commutes with all elements of $K=\mathrm{SO}(d)$. This handles also the case of d=3. Finally, for the case d=2, we have that only the symmetric cube $\mathrm{Sym}^3(\mathbb{R}^2)$ which is in $\mathrm{SO}(2,2)$. More concretely, we have that $\mathrm{Sym}^3(\mathbb{R}^2) \simeq \mathrm{Sp}(4,\mathbb{R})$, but composing with the exceptional isomorphism $\mathrm{Sp}(4,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathrm{SO}(2,2)$, we obtain a representation $\rho: \mathrm{SL}(2,\mathbb{R}) \to \mathrm{SO}(2,2)$. This is a Hitchin representation (and thus maximal), which is known to be spacelike cocompact, since maximal representations are spacelike cocompact.

2025-06-24

Volume entropy for complex hyperbolic spaces

Definition 5.0.11. The complex hyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$ is defined as

$$\mathbb{H}^n_{\mathbb{C}} = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{C}^{n,1}) : \langle z, z \rangle < 0 \right\},\,$$

where the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the standard Hermitian inner product on $\mathbb{C}^{n,1}$:

$$\langle z, w \rangle = z_1 \overline{w_1} + z_2 \overline{w_2} + \dots + z_n \overline{w_n} - z_{n+1} \overline{w_{n+1}}.$$

The induced metric on $\mathbb{H}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$ is the Bergman metric, given by the relation

$$\cosh^{2}(\frac{d(z,w)}{2}) = \frac{\langle z, w \rangle \langle w, z \rangle}{\langle z, z \rangle \langle w, w \rangle}.$$

We can identify $\mathbb{H}^n_{\mathbb{C}}$ with the unit ball in $\mathbb{C}^{n,1}$:

$$\mathbb{H}^n_{\mathbb{C}} \to \mathbb{B}^n_{\mathbb{C}} = \left\{ z \in \mathbb{C}^n : |z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2 < 1 \right\}, \quad z = (z_1, \dots, z_n, z_{n+1}) \mapsto (z_1/z_{n+1}, \dots, z_n/z_{n+1}).$$

In these coordinates, the ball of radius R is given by the $z \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that

$$\frac{1}{((1-|z|^2)^2)(-1)} < \cosh^2(R/2) \text{ or equivalently } |z|^2 < 1 - \cosh^{-2}(R/2).$$

and the volume element is given by

$$dvol = \frac{c}{(1-|z|^2)^{2n-1}} dx_1 \wedge dy_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_n \wedge dy_n,$$

where c is a positive constant, which does not matter when computing the volume entropy. Thus we calculate (up to a constant factor)

$$VolB_R([0:\cdots:0:1]) \simeq \int_{|z|^2 < 1-\cosh^{-2}(R/2)} \frac{1}{(1-|z|^2)^{2n-1}} dx_1 dy_1 \cdots dx_n dy_n$$

Then the volume of a ball is given by

$$VolB_R([0:\cdots:0:1]) = c \sinh^4(R/2)$$

which exponentially behaves like e^{2R} . So the volume entropy is given by

$$\lim_{R \to \infty} \frac{\log \operatorname{Vol} B_R([0:\dots:0:1])}{R} = 2.$$

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