HG 101

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1   Lecture 1

1.1   Euclid's Postulates

1. A straight line segment can be drawn joining any two points.

2. Any straight line segment can be extended infinitely in a straight line.

3. Given any straight line segment a circle can be drawn having the segment as radius and one endpoint as center.

4. all right angles are congruent.

5. If two lines are drawn which intersect a third in such a way that the sum of the inner angles on one side is less than two right angles, then the two lines inevitably must intersect each other on that side if extended far enough.

Parallel Postulate : Given any straight line and a point not on it, there "exists one and only one straight line which passes" through that point and never intersects the first line.

This postulate is equivalent to the "Euclid's fifth postulate". It is also equivalent to the equidistance postulate, angle sum property and many more.

For the most time mathematicians thought that the 5th postulate is a consequence of the first four. They tried to prove it for 2000 years. The answer finally came around $1830's$ by Carl. F. Gauss, Janos Bolyai and N. I. Lobachevsky.

Lobachevsky was the first to publish about non-Euclidean geometry. Non-Euclidean geometry are models which satisfy Euclid's first four postulates but not the fifth.

The mathematics community did not take this discovery well and

Lobachevsky faced backlash. Gauss never published his findings fearing the same. Non-Euclidean geometry was not popularized until after 1862 when a private letter written by Gauss about "Hyperbolic Geometry" was published.
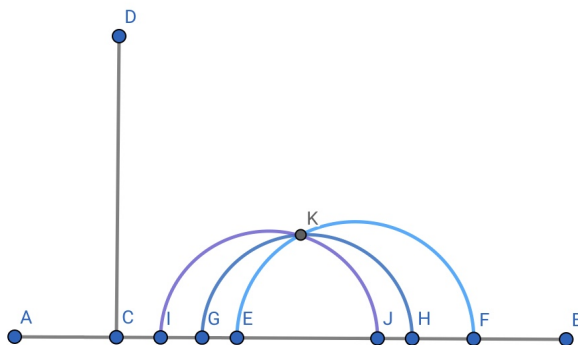
1.2   Non-Euclidean Geometry

To prove that the fifth postulate is independent of the first four, we have to construct an example satisfying the first four but not the fifth.

1.3   Upper Half-Space Model

Consider the upper half space $\mathbb{H} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{im}(z) > 0\}$.
Define "lines" in this space to be all vertical lines and all semicircles with center on the real line.

In this space for any vertical line and a point not on it we can find infinitely many semicircles through the point which doesn't intersect the vertical line.

So in "Modern Language" we need the following:

- It should be a surface.

- A metric to measure distance.

- A way to measure angles between curves.

- Orientation to talk about sides.

1.4   Riemannian Manifold(2D)

A 2-D Riemannian manifold is a smooth oriented surface with a smoothly varying inner product at each tangent space.

- Lines will be geodesics.

- Parallel will mean not intersecting

1.5   The Hyperbolic Path Element

$\gamma : [0, 2] \longrightarrow \mathbb{H}$ be a smooth path in $\mathbb{H}$, the *length* of γ is defined to be

$$\text{len}_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma) := \int_0^1 \frac{|\gamma'(t)|}{\text{Im}(\gamma(t))} \, dt$$

The path length element id $\frac{|dz|}{\text{Im}(z)}$.

2 Lecture 2

2.1 The Hyperbolic Metric

The Hyperbolic Metric on $\mathbb{H}$ is $ds_{hyp}^2 = \frac{dx^2+dy^2}{y^2}$.
We interpret this as an inner product at each tangent space.

Let $p = (x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{H}$. the Tangent Space at this point is $T_p\mathbb{H} = \mathbb{R}^2$.Thus to specify an inner product on it we only need to give the inner product on the basis $\{e_1, e_2\}$.

Now (x, y) are coordinate for $\mathbb{H}$ (it is covered by a single chart). If the metric is given to be $\frac{dx^2+dy^2}{y^2}$ at the point p, the inner product on $T_p\mathbb{H}$ is defined by:
$\langle e_1, e_1 \rangle = \text{coeff of } dx^2 = \frac{1}{y_0^2}$
$\langle e_2, e_2 \rangle = \text{coeff of } dy^2 = \frac{1}{y_0^2}$
$\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \text{ coeff of } dxdy = 0$
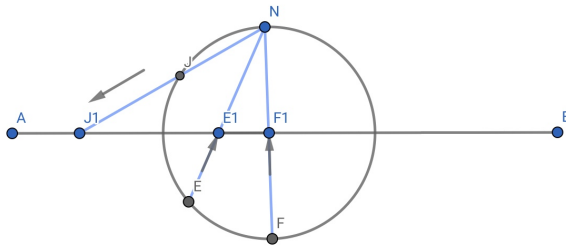
2.2 The Riemann Sphere $\mathbb{C}_\infty$

The Riemann Sphere is defined to be $\mathbb{C}_\infty := \mathbb{C} \bigcup \{\infty\}$
We give a topology on it by declaring the following sets as open in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$:

1. $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ open in $\mathbb{C}$

2. $(\mathbb{C} \setminus K) \cup \{\infty\}$ where K is compact in $\mathbb{C}$.
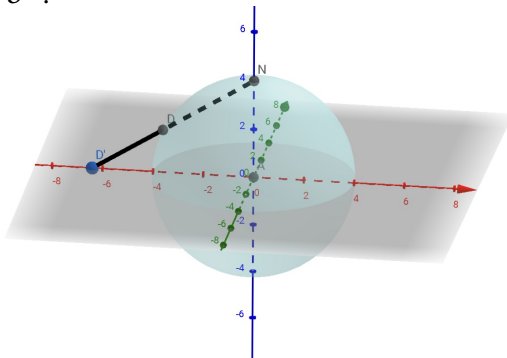
2.3   Stereographic Projection

For S^1 :

$$S^1 \setminus \{i\} \cong \mathbb{R} \text{ and } \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\} \cong S^1$$

For S^2 :

$$S^2 \setminus \{n\} \cong \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ and } \mathbb{R}^2 \cup \{\infty\} \cong S^2$$

Hence we have $\mathbb{C}_\infty \cong S^2$

2.4   Continuous functions on $\mathbb{C}_\infty$

- $f : \mathbb{C}_\infty \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$
  $z \longmapsto z^n$ when $z \in \mathbb{C}$
  $\infty \longmapsto \infty$

- $g : \mathbb{C}_\infty \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$
  $z \longmapsto \frac{1}{z}$ when $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$

$$\infty \longmapsto 0$$
$$0 \longmapsto \infty$$

- $h : \mathbb{C}_\infty \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$
  $z \longmapsto az + b$ when $z \in \mathbb{C}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$
  $\infty \longmapsto \infty$

2.5   Circles in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$

We call the following as circles in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$

1. All circles in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$

2. $\{$All lines in $\mathbb{C}\} \cup \infty$

Now all circles in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$ are homeomorphic to S^1.

Consider $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ a circle. It is S^1. By Jordan Brouwer Theorem $\mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ splits $\mathbb{C}_\infty$ into two disks. namely the upper and lower half plane. So $\mathbb{H}$ is homeomorphic to a disk and $\bar{\mathbb{H}} = \mathbb{H} \cup \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ is a closed disk.

2.6   Equation of Circles

The equation of an Euclidean Circle is $(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r^2$. Substitute $x = \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}$ and $y = \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2i}$ and by rearranging we get $\alpha z \bar{z} + \beta z + \bar{\beta}\bar{z} + \gamma = 0$ where $\alpha, \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$. Similarly the equation of an Euclidean line is $\beta z + \bar{\beta}\bar{z} + \gamma = 0$ where $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$.

2.7   Mobius Transformations

A Mobius transformation is a map of the form $m(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d}$ with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$ and $ad - bc \neq 0$

It can so happen that the denominator is zero for some point $z = \frac{-d}{c}$. In such a case the numerator is non zero *(hint:$ad - bc \neq 0$)*. So we define $m(\frac{-d}{c}) = \infty$

Remark. Algebra with ∞

- $\frac{1}{0} = \infty$

- $\frac{1}{\infty} = 0$

Definition 2.7.1 (Mobius Transformation). Let $m : \mathbb{C}_\infty \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$ be a function defined by:

$z \longmapsto \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$ when $z \in \mathbb{C}$

$\infty \longmapsto \frac{a}{c}$

where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$ and $ad - bc \neq 0$. Then m is called a *Mobius Transformation*

Proposition 2.7.1. $m(z)$ *is a homeomorphism.*

Proof. Composition rule:

Let $m_1(z) = \frac{a_1 z + a_2}{a_3 z + a_4}$, $m_2(z) = \frac{b_1 z + b_2}{b_3 z + b_4}$ be Mobius Transformations.

$$\begin{aligned} m_1 \circ m_2(z) &= \frac{a_1 \frac{b_1 z + b_2}{b_3 z + b_4} + a_2}{a_3 \frac{b_1 z + b_2}{b_3 z + b_4} + a_4} \\ &= \frac{a_1 b_1 z + a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_3 z + a_2 b_4}{a_3 b_1 z + a_3 b_2 + a_4 b_3 z + a_4 b_4} \\ &= \frac{(a_1 b_1 + a_4 b_3)z + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_4)}{(a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_3)z + (a_3 b_2 + a_4 b_4)} \end{aligned}$$

Consider the matrices

$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ a_3 & a_4 \end{pmatrix}$, $B = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ b_3 & b_4 \end{pmatrix}$ $AB = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_3 & a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_2 \\ a_3 b_1 + a_4 b_3 & a_3 b_2 + a_4 b_4 \end{pmatrix}$

Notice that the terms of $m_1 \circ m_2(z)$ and AB match. So the composition of Mobius Transformation can be thought of as matrix multiplication.

Now since $ad - bc \neq 0$, m becomes invertible and the inverse is also a Mobius Transformation. Hence $m : \mathbb{C}_\infty \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}_\infty$ is a homeomorphism.

$\square$

2.8 Generators of Mobius Transformations

Definition 2.8.1. Mob^+ is the set of all Mobius Transformations.

Proposition 2.8.1. f, g, J *generate* Mob^+

Proof. Using $f(z) = z + a$, $g(z) = bz$, $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ we can generate the elements of the form $az + b$.
Using $az + b$ and $J(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ we can generate any element of Mob^+ $\quad\square$

Equations of circles are of the form $\alpha z\bar{z} + \beta z + \bar{\beta}\bar{z} + \gamma = 0$

1. Circles are invariant under f:

$\alpha(z + a)(z \bar{+} a) + \beta(z + a) + \bar{\beta}(z \bar{+} a) + \gamma = 0$
$\alpha z\bar{z} + \alpha a\bar{a} + \alpha z\bar{a} + \alpha\bar{z}a + \beta z + \bar{\beta}\bar{z} + \beta a + \bar{\beta}\bar{a} + \gamma = 0$
$\alpha z\bar{z} + (\beta\alpha\bar{a})z + (\bar{\beta} + \bar{\alpha}\bar{z} + \alpha|a|^2 + \gamma = 0$

2. Circles are invariant under g:

$\alpha(bz)((\bar{b}z) + \beta(bz) + \bar{\beta}(\bar{b}z) + \gamma = 0$
$\alpha b\bar{b}z\bar{z} + \beta bz + \bar{\beta}\bar{b}\bar{z} + \gamma = 0$

3. Circles are invariant under J:

$\frac{\alpha}{z(\bar{z}} + \frac{\beta}{z} + \frac{\bar{\beta}}{\bar{z}} + \gamma = 0$
$\gamma z\bar{z} + \bar{\beta}z + \beta\bar{z} + \alpha = 0$

And these three map generates Mob^+. We proved:

Proposition 2.8.2. *Circles in* $\mathbb{C}_\infty$ *are invariant under* Mob^+

3   Lecture 3

3.1   Transitivity property of Möb$^+$

A set of maps from $X \to X$ is called *transitive* if for any two points $x, y \in X$, $\exists m$ in the set such that $m(x) = y$.

The Möb$^+$ group is *uniquely triply transitive*.

Proposition 3.1.1. *Given distinct points $z_1, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{C}_\infty$ and another triple of distinct points $w_1, w_2, w_3 \in \mathbb{C}_\infty$, $\exists! m \in$ Möb$^+$ st $m(z_i) = w_i$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$.*

Proof. If we prove that $(0, 1, \infty)$ can be taken to any (z_1, z_2, z_3) we are done with the existence part of the proof.

Consider $m(z) = \dfrac{z - z_1}{z - z_3} \times \dfrac{z_2 - z_3}{z_2 - z_1}$. We now have

$$m(z_1) = 0, m(z_2) = 1, m(z_3) = \infty$$

, so m^{-1} works.

For uniqueness it is enough to prove that there is a unique map taking $(0, 1, \infty)$ to itself which is the identity map.

Let $m = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$ be such that $m(0) = 0, m(1) = 1, m(\infty) = \infty$. Then we have $m(0) = \frac{b}{d} = 0$, $m(\infty) = \frac{a}{c} = \infty$ and $m(1) = \frac{a+b}{c+d}$ which gives $b = 0, c = 0, a = d$. Hence $m = \mathrm{Id}$. $\qquad\square$

Proposition 3.1.2. Mob$^+$ *acts transitively on the set of circles in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$*

Proof. Given any circle pick three points on it.

Now we get a Mobius Transformation taking the first set of points to the second. Since it preserves circles, the circle through the first three points must go to the circle through the second three points.

Since three points in $\mathbb{C}_\infty$ determines an unique circle, we are done.
$\qquad\square$

Proposition 3.1.3. Mob$^+$ *is transitive on disks*

Proof. WLOG let us assume that the boundary of the given disks is the unit circle S^1.

If both disks are the bounded or unbounded components of $\mathbb{C}_\infty$ we can use identity map.

If one is bounded and the other is unbounded we can use the $\frac{1}{z}$ map.   □

3.2   Matrices and Mobius Transformation

Every matrix in $\mathrm{GL}_2(\mathbb{C})$ gives a Mobius transformation, but this map is not *one-one*.

Eg : $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ give the same Mobius transformation.
More generally $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha a & \alpha b \\ \alpha c & \alpha d \end{pmatrix}$ give the same.

We will not distinguish between the matrices in Mob^+ as they give the same function.

3.3   Mobius Transforms preserving $\mathbb{H}$

Since our interest is in the upper half plane, we try to find which MObius maps take $\mathbb{H}$ to $\mathbb{H}$.

Look at the Monius transforms of the form $\frac{az+b}{cz+d}$ where $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ and $ad - bc > 0$

- Where does this take $\mathbb{R}$?

- Where does it map $\mathbb{H}$ to?

Proposition 3.3.1. *Mobius maps coming from $GL_2^+\mathbb{R}$ map $\bar{\mathbb{H}}$ to $\bar{\mathbb{H}}$.*

We can multiply our matrices by $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ but the Mobius map doesn't change. So we can restrict to $\mathrm{SL}_2(\mathbb{R})$.

But $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ and it gives the identity Mobius map. So we can quotient out by this too.

Definition 3.3.1. $\text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R}) := \text{SL}_2(\mathbb{R})/\langle \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \rangle$

Proposition 3.3.2. *$PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$ is triply transitive on $\partial\mathbb{H}$*

Proof. For any distinct $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \partial\mathbb{H}$ (taken in clockwise orientation) look at
$$z \longrightarrow \frac{z - a_1}{z - a_2} \cdot \frac{a_3 - a_2}{a_3 - a_1}$$
This takes (a_1, a_2, a_3) to $(0, \infty, 1)$. $\square$

3.4   Length and Distances in $\mathbb{H}$

We have a Riemannian metric $ds_{\text{hyp}}^2 = \frac{dx^2 + dy^2}{y^2}$ on $\mathbb{H}$ called the *Hyperbolic metric*.

Let γ be a smooth curve in $\mathbb{H}$ i.e. $\gamma : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{H}$, then the length of γ is defined by

$$l(\gamma) := \int_0^1 \|\gamma'(t)\|_{\text{hyp}} \, dt = \int_0^1 \frac{\|\gamma'(t)\|_{\text{euc}}}{\text{Im}(\gamma(t))} \, dt$$

If $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$, $l(\gamma) = \int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2}}{y(t)} \, dt$

4   Lecture 4

4.1   The Hyperbolic distance

For $z, w \in \mathbb{H}$ define the distance between them to be

$$d_h(z, w) = \inf\{l(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ is a curve between z and w}\}$$

Proposition 4.1.1. d_h *is a metric on* $\mathbb{H}$.

Definition 4.1.1. A curve γ between z and w is called a *geodesic* if $d_h(z, w) = l(\gamma)$.

   Warning: This is not the actual definition of geodesics, but in our case it is equivalent.

Proposition 4.1.2. *Vertical lines are geodesics*

Proof. Let $p_1 = (x_0, a)$ and $p_2 = (x_0, b)$ be two points on the line $x = x_0$ and WLOG $0 < a < b$. Let $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ be any path connecting them, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
l(\gamma) &= \int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2}}{y(t)} dt \\
&\geqslant \int_0^1 \frac{|y'(t)|}{y(t)} dt \\
&\geqslant \int_0^1 \frac{y'(t)}{y(t)} dt \\
&\geqslant \ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)
\end{aligned}
\tag{1}
$$

   Look at $\alpha : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{H}$ where $\alpha(t) = i((b - a)t + a)$, then $l(\alpha) = \ln(\frac{b}{a})$. But $d_h(p_1, p_2) = \inf\{l(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ connects } p_1 \text{ and } p_2\} \geqslant l(\frac{b}{a})$ and α achieves the equality. Hence $d_h(p_1, p_2) = \ln(\frac{b}{a})$ and α is a geodesic. $\square$

Corollary 4.1.0.1.

$$d(ia, ib) = \left|\ln\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)\right|$$

Proposition 4.1.3. *The hyperbolic metric* d_h *is complete.*

Remark: There is a proof using Hopf-Rinow theorem.

4.2   Isometries of the hyperbolic space

Definition 4.2.1. Any diffeorphism $T : \mathbb{H} \to \mathbb{H}$ such that

$$ds^2_{hyp} = \frac{|dz|^2}{Im(z)^2} = \frac{|dT(z)|^2}{Im(T(z))^2}$$

is an *isometry* of $\mathbb{H}$.

Example: $T(z) = z + a$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\frac{|dT(z)|^2}{Im(T(z))^2} = \frac{|dz|^2}{Im(z)^2}$$

so T is an isometry.
The following are isometries

- $T(z) = -\bar{z}$

- $T(z) = \frac{1}{z}$

- $T(z) = \lambda z, \lambda > 0$

Proposition 4.2.1.

$$PSL_2(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq Isom(\mathbb{H})$$

Proof. Let $T(z) = \dfrac{az + b}{cz + d}$ be an element of $PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$.

$$w = T(z) = \frac{az + b}{cz + d} = \frac{ac|z|^2 + adz + bc\bar{z} + bd}{|cz + d|^2}$$

$$Im(w) = \frac{Im(z)}{|cz + d|^2}$$

$$\frac{dT}{dz} = \frac{1}{(cz + d)^2}$$

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So
$$\frac{|dT(z)|^2}{\text{Im}(T(z))^2} = \frac{|dz|^2}{\text{Im}(z)^2}$$

Hence T is an isometry.   □

Ex: Prove that $l(T(\gamma)) = l(\gamma)$ for any curve γ.

We have proved that vertical lines are geodesics and Möbius maps (in $\text{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$) are isometries. This means that the images of these lines are geodesics. In particular we can find Möbius maps taking vertical lines to semicircles with center on the real line. Hence these are geodesics as well.

Proposition 4.2.2. *The vertical lines and the semicircles with center on $\mathbb{R}$ are the only geodesics of H.*

Proof. Comes from Riemannian geometry.   □

4.3   The Disk model

The disk model will be another model for hyplerbolic geometry $\mathbb{D} := \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < 1\}$. The hyperbolic metric on this will be $ds^2 = \frac{4(dx^2 + dy^2)}{(1 - |z|^2)^2} = \frac{4ds_{\text{euc}}^2}{(1 - |z|^2)^2}$

Ex: Verift that the map $\varphi : \mathbb{H} \to \mathbb{D}$, $\varphi(z) = \dfrac{z - i}{z + i}$ is an isometry. The geodesics in $\mathbb{D}$ will be circular arcs which are perpendicular to the boundary $\partial \bar{\mathbb{D}}$
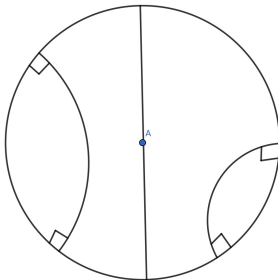
Ex: Verify that $d_h(0, r) = \ln\left(\frac{1+r}{1-r}\right)$ where $r \in (0, 1)$.

Notice that the metric ds_{hyp}^2 has rotational symmetry about the origin. Therefore, $d_h(0, re^{i\theta}) = d_h(0, r) = \ln\left(\frac{1+r}{1-r}\right)$.

Corollary 4.3.0.1. *The open ball* $B_0^h\left(\ln\left(\frac{1+r}{1-r}\right)\right)$ *is equal to the set* $S = \{z \in \mathbb{D} : |z| < r\}$*. The hyperbolic ball is a disk in* $\mathbb{D}$*.*

Ex: Prove that the topology induced by the metric d_h is the same as the standard topology.

We know that $\rho = d_h(0, r) = \ln\left(\frac{1+r}{1-r}\right)$ so $r = \tanh(\frac{\rho}{2})$. Hence if we want a ball of hyperbolic radius ρ centered at 0, it willl be the set

$$B_0^h(\rho) = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| < \tanh\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)\} = B_0^{euc}\left(\tanh\left(\frac{\rho}{2}\right)\right)$$

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5   Lecture 5

Lemma 5.0.1. *The orientation preserving isometries of H are given by* $\mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}) = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$.

Proof. We know that $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq \mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H})$. Now to prove $\mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}) \subseteq \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$. If $f \in \mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H})$ we can consider f as an isometry of $\mathbb{D}$. Isometries are conformal (angle preserving). It is enough now to prove that all conformal automorphisms of $\mathbb{D}$ are in $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$.

Fact: Conformal maps are also biholomorphisms and $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{D}) = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ (use Schwarz lemma). $\qquad\qquad\square$
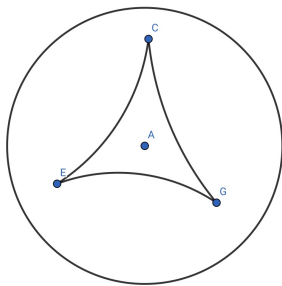
Lemma 5.0.2. *The hyperbolic metric is the unique metric (upto scaling) invariant under* $\mathrm{Aut}(\mathbb{D})$.
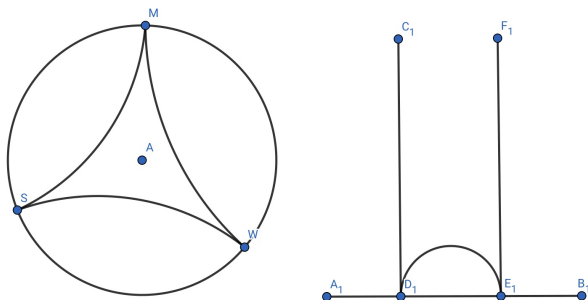
5.1   Area and Curvature

The area form on $\mathbb{H}$ is given by $\dfrac{dx.dy}{y^2}$. The area form on $\mathbb{D}$ is given by $\dfrac{4r\,dr.d\theta}{(1-r^2)^2}$. In general if the metric is $E\,dx^2 + 2F\,dx.dy + G\,dy^2$ the area form is $\sqrt{EG - F^2}\,dx.dy$.
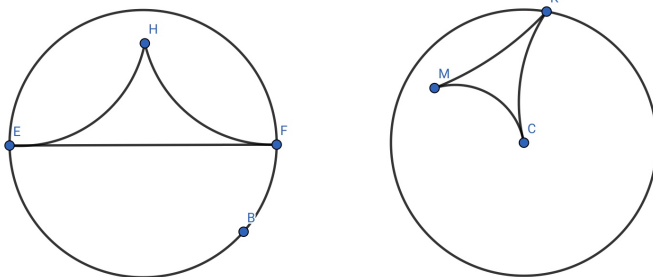
5.1.1   Triangles

Geodesic triangles are triangles with geodesic sides.

An ideal triangles is a triangles with "vertices" on the boundary $\partial\mathbb{D}$.

There are other triangles too

**Proposition 5.1.1.** *Ideal triangles are unique upto isometry.*

Proof. First note that given any two points on the boundary $\partial \mathbb{D}$ there is a unique geodesic such that the end points of the geodesics are the given points.

So given three points on $\partial \mathbb{D}$, there is a unique ideal triangle determined. Similarly every ideal triangle gives three boundary points. All ideal triangles can be identified by a triple of $\partial \mathbb{D}$ ($\cong \mathbb{H}$).

We know that $\mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}) = \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$ acts triply transitively on $\partial \mathbb{H}$. SO we can find a map in $\mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H})$ taking any triple to any triple. Hence any ideal triangle can be taken to any other by isometries. $\square$

Isometries preserve area, hence all ideal triangles have the same (hyperbolic) area.

Proposition 5.1.2. *Ideal triangles have are* π
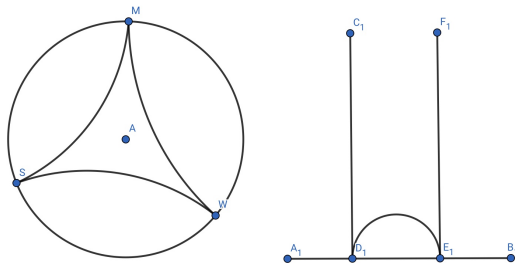
Proof. Area of an ideal triangle $=$

$$\iint_D \frac{dx.dy}{y^2} = \int_{-1}^{1} \int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{y^2} dx = \pi$$

$\square$

Theorem 5.1.1. *The area of a hyperbolic triangle with angles* $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$ *is* $\pi - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \alpha_3$.

   Note: We can take $\alpha_i = 0$ to make it an ideal triangle. Also for and triangle $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 < \pi$ (this is strongly related to the fifth postulate).

   Note: Any two similar triangles are congruent as they will have the same area.

Theorem 5.1.2. *For any conformal metric* $\rho(z)|dz|$ *or* $\rho^2(x,y)(dx^2 + dy^2)$ *the Gaussian curvature is given by*

$$K(z) = -\frac{\Delta \ln \rho}{\rho^2}(z)$$

where $\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$.

Lemma 5.1.3. *The hyperbolic metric has curvature -1 everywhere.*
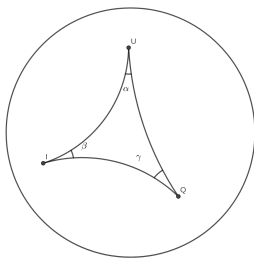
This is the defining property of hyperbolic geometry

Theorem 5.1.4. *Any simply connected Riemannian 2- manifold with -1 Gaussian curvature everywhere and which is complete with respect to the metric is isometric to* $\mathbb{H}$.

6   Lecture 6

6.1   Trigonometry

Theorem 6.1.1. *Consider the geodesic triangle with side lengths* a, b, c *and angles* α, β, γ *in hyperbolic space.*

Then the following hold

1. $\cosh(c) = \cosh(a)\cosh(b) - \sinh(a)\sinh(b)\cos(\gamma)$

2. $\cos(\gamma) = \sin(\alpha)\sin(\beta)\cosh(c) - \cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta)$

3. $\dfrac{\sinh(a)}{\sin(\alpha)} = \dfrac{\sinh(b}{\sin(\beta)} = \dfrac{\sinh(c}{\sin(\gamma)}$

6.2   Classification of isometries

Isometries of $\mathbb{H}$ can be considered as continuous maps between $\bar{\mathbb{D}} \to \bar{\mathbb{D}}$. By Brouwer's fixed point theorem there is at least one fixed point.

If there are at least two fixed points in $\mathbb{D}$ then by pre and post composing by some Möbius map we can take 0 to be the fixed point. Now by Schwarz lemma the map is the identity. Hence there can be at most one fixed point in the interior.

If there are no fixed points in the interior, there will be fixed points on $\partial\bar{\mathbb{D}}$, the boundary. Now if there are at least three fixed points the map has to be the identity as möb^+ acts uniquely triply transitively on $\mathbb{C}_\infty$.
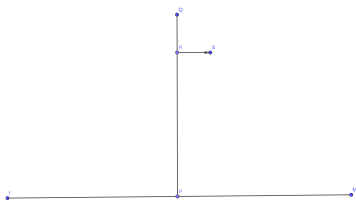
Definition 6.2.1. Every isometry of the hyperbolic space which is not the identity can be classified into the following

1. Elliptic: Exactly one fixed point in $\mathbb{D}$

2. Parabolic: No fixed points in $\mathbb{D}$, one in $\partial\mathbb{D}$

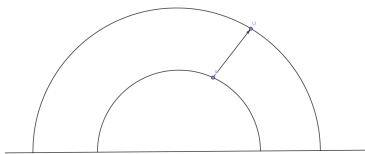3. Hyperbolic: No fixed points in $\mathbb{D}$, two in $\partial\mathbb{D}$

Examples:
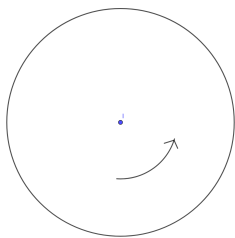
1. $z \rightarrow e^{i\theta}, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$ is Elliptic

2. $z \rightarrow z{+}a, a \in \mathbb{R}$ is Parabolic

3. $z \rightarrow \lambda z, \lambda > 0$ is Hyperbolic

For $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in \mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, solving for z in $\dfrac{az+b}{cz+d} = z$ will tell us the type of the isometry $\dfrac{az+b}{cz+d}$.

1. If $\dfrac{az+b}{cz+d}$ has no real solution, it is elliptic

2. If it has one real solution, parabolic

3. If it has two real solutions, hyperbolic

Note: $c = 0$ is a separate case.

Theorem 6.2.1. *If we tale a representative of* $A \in \mathrm{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H})$ *from* $\mathrm{PSL}_2(\mathbb{R})$, $|\mathrm{tr}(A)|$ *is well defined*

1. *If* $|\mathrm{tr}(A)| < 2$, A *is elliptic*

2. *If* $|\mathrm{tr}(A)| = 2$, A *is parabolic*

3. *If* $|\mathrm{tr}(A)| > 2$, A *is hyperbolic*

The terminology comes from the fact that these maps preserve ellipses, parabolas or hyperbolas respectively in the hyperbolloid model.

Definition 6.2.2. Axis of a hyperbolic isometry: Since two points on $\partial\mathbb{D}$ are fixed, the line through then is too. This is the axis.

Lemma 6.2.2. *The translation distance* d *of a hyperbolic isometry satisfies*

$$\mathrm{tr}^2(A) = 4\cosh^2\!\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)$$

Proof. Conjugate the isometry so that the axis is the imaginary axis in $\mathbb{H}$ so that the map looks like $\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{\lambda} \end{pmatrix}, \lambda \neq 1$. Then $\mathrm{tr}(A) = \sqrt{\lambda} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}}$ and i is mapped to λi. $\square$

Lemma 6.2.3. *Isometries commute if and only if they have the same fixed point set*

Proof. If S, T, isometries, satisfy $ST = TS$ and p is a fixed point of T, then $S(p) = TST^{-1}(p) = TS(p)$. Hence $S(p)$ is also a fixed point of T. The proof now follows by looking at different cases separately.

The other direction follows by dealing with the type of the isometry is separate cases. $\square$

Corollary 6.2.3.1. *Hyperbolic isometries commute if and only if they have the same axis*

7   Lecture 7

7.1   Group actions

Let G be a group and X be a set. Then G acts on X if there is a operation $'.'$ such that

$$. : G \times X \longrightarrow X$$

i) $\forall x \in X, \ e.x = x$ where $e \in G$ is the identity.
ii) $\forall g, h \in G, \ gh.x = g.(h.x) \ \forall x$
This is the left action.

Example: Let X be a topological space. $\mathrm{Homeo}(X)$ are all the homeomorphisms between $X \longrightarrow X$. This is a group under composition. It acts on X as well. Take $f \in \mathrm{Homeo}(X)$, then $f.x := f(x)$.
  Equivalently a group action on X by G can be given by a homeomorphism $G \longrightarrow \mathrm{Bij}(X)$.

More examples:

- X be a smooth manifold. Then $\mathrm{Diffeo}(X)$ acts on X. ($\mathrm{Diffeo}(X) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Homeo}(X) \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Bij}(X)$)

- X be a Riemannian manifold, then $\mathrm{Isom}(X)$ acts on X.

7.2   Orbits of an action

let G acts on X. Let $x \in X$. then the *orbit* of x is

$$\mathrm{orb}(x) := \{g.x \ : \ g \in G\}$$

the orbits of an action partition X.
  Define an equivalent relation $\sim$ on X such that $x \sim y \iff$ x&y are in the same orbit, i.e. $y = g.x$ for some $g \in G$. We now get the quotient $X/\sim$.If X was a topological space we can give $X/\sim$ the quotient topology. We will be interested in the space $X/\sim$ given by different group actions.

Examples: Consider $\mathbb{C}$ with the action given by the group $\{z + n :$ $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. This group is generated by $G := \langle z + 1 \rangle$. now consider $\mathbb{C}/G$. What is it topologically?

$\mathbb{C}/G$ has a unique representative from the set