

HYPERBOLIC GEOMETRY & DISCRETE GROUPS

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1 The hyperbolic plane and its geometry

1.1 The upper half-plane model

Definition 1.1 (Upper half-plane). *The **upper half-plane** is the set $\mathcal{H} = \{z \in \mathbb{C}, \Im(z) > 0\}$.*

*Given $z \in \mathcal{H}$, the **hyperbolic norm** at z of a vector $v \in \mathbb{C}$ is $\|v\|_z^{\text{hyp}} = \frac{\|v\|^{\text{eucl}}}{\Im(z)}$.*

*Given a \mathcal{C}^1 path $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, its **hyperbolic length** is*

$$\ell_{\text{hyp}}(c) = \int_a^b \|c'(t)\|_{c(t)}^{\text{hyp}} dt.$$

The subscripts and superscripts hyp will be dropped from the notation.

Example 1.2. *Consider the path $c : t \in [y_1, y_2] \mapsto it$, with $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. Then $\ell(c) = \left| \log \left(\frac{y_2}{y_1} \right) \right|$.*

Proposition 1.3. *The hyperbolic length of a path is invariant under (increasing) reparametrisation, i.e. if $\varphi : [a', b'] \rightarrow [a, b]$ is \mathcal{C}^1 and increasing, then $\ell_{\text{hyp}}(c \circ \varphi) = \ell_{\text{hyp}}(c)$.*

Definition 1.4 (Hyperbolic distance). *Given $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{H}$, the **hyperbolic distance** between z_1 and z_2 is*

$$d_{\text{hyp}}(z_1, z_2) = \inf \left\{ \ell_{\text{hyp}}(c), c \text{ is a continuous piecewise } \mathcal{C}^1 \text{ path from } z_1 \text{ to } z_2 \text{ in } \mathcal{H} \right\}.$$

Proposition 1.5. *d_{hyp} is a metric on \mathcal{H} , and it induces the Euclidean topology.*

Proof. The only nonobvious fact is the separation property, namely $d(z_1, z_2) > 0$ for $z_1 \neq z_2$. Consider a piecewise \mathcal{C}^1 curve $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ from z_1 to z_2 . Write $c(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$.

- If $y(t) \leq 2y(a) = 2\Im(z_1)$ for all t , then we have

$$\ell_{\text{hyp}}(c) = \int_a^b \frac{\sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2}}{y(t)} dt \geq \int_a^b \frac{\sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2}}{2y(a)} dt \geq \frac{\ell_{\text{eucl}}(c)}{2y(a)} \geq \frac{d_{\text{eucl}}(z_1, z_2)}{2\Im(z_1)}.$$

- Otherwise, there exists t_0 (chosen minimal) s.t. $y(t_0) = 2y(a)$. Let $c' = c|_{[a, t_0]}$. Then $\ell_{\text{eucl}}(c')$ is at least the Euclidean distance between z_1 and the line $\{y = 2y(a)\}$, i.e. $\ell_{\text{eucl}}(c') \geq y(a)$. Therefore

$$\ell_{\text{hyp}}(c) \geq \ell_{\text{hyp}}(c') \geq \frac{\ell_{\text{eucl}}(c')}{2y(a)} \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

This proves that $d_{\text{hyp}}(z_1, z_2) \geq \min\left\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d_{\text{eucl}}(z_1, z_2)}{2\Im(z_1)}\right\} > 0$ if $z_1 \neq z_2$. \square

Proposition 1.6. *Let $p : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ be the orthogonal projection on $i\mathbb{R}_{>0}$: $z \mapsto \Im(z)i$. Then p does not increase the length of paths, i.e. $\ell(p \circ c) \leq \ell(c)$, with equality iff c is vertical.*

Proof. Let $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, $c(t) = x(t) + iy(t)$. Then

$$\ell_{\text{hyp}}(p \circ c) = \int_a^b \frac{|y'(t)|}{y(t)} dt \leq \int_a^b \frac{\sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2}}{y(t)} dt = \ell_{\text{hyp}}(c). \quad \square$$

Corollary 1.7. (i) *Given $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{H}$, we have $d_{\text{hyp}}(z_1, z_2) \geq \left| \log\left(\frac{\Im(z_2)}{\Im(z_1)}\right) \right|$.*

(ii) *If $z_1, z_2 \in i\mathbb{R}_{>0}$, then the vertical segment is the unique shortest path between z_1 and z_2 .*

Definition 1.8 (Isometries). *Let $f : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ be a bijection.*

- f is an **isometry of metric spaces** if $d(f(z_1), f(z_2)) = d(z_1, z_2)$ for all $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{H}$.
- f is a **Riemannian isometry** if it is \mathcal{C}^1 and df_z preserves the hyperbolic norm for all $z \in \mathcal{H}$.

Riemannian isometries preserve the lengths of curves and therefore they are isometries of metric spaces.

Example 1.9. *Horizontal translations, reflections along a vertical line, and homotheties, are all examples of Riemannian isometries.*

Corollary 1.10. \mathcal{H} is homogeneous, i.e. the action $\text{Isom}(\mathcal{H}) \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$ is transitive.

1.2 Inversions and the Möbius group

Definition 1.11 (Inversion). *The **standard inversion** in \mathbb{R}^n is the map $f : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ given by $x \mapsto \frac{x}{\|x\|^2}$. It extends to a map $\hat{\mathbb{R}}^n \rightarrow \hat{\mathbb{R}}^n$, where $\hat{\mathbb{R}}^n = \mathbb{R}^n \cup \{\infty\}$.*

The standard inversion is an involution fixing \mathbb{S}^{n-1} pointwise.

*In general, given $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $r > 0$, the **inversion across** $S(a, r)$ is given by*

$$x \mapsto a + \left(\frac{r}{\|x - a\|} \right)^2 (x - a).$$

Definition 1.12 (Möbius group). *The **Möbius group** of $\hat{\mathbb{R}}^n$ is the group $\text{Möb}(\hat{\mathbb{R}}^n)$ generated by all inversions. We denote by $\text{Möb}^+(\hat{\mathbb{R}}^n)$ its index-2 subgroup consisting of orientation-preserving maps.*

Proposition 1.13. *All inversions (and therefore all Möbius transforms) send spheres to spheres (hyperplanes are seen as spheres containing ∞).*

Proof. It is enough to prove it for the standard inversion. Use the cartesian equation of a sphere and a hyperplane. \square

Remark 1.14. *In dimension 2, the standard inversion is given by $z \mapsto \frac{1}{\bar{z}}$ in complex coordinates. In particular, it is conformal.*

Proposition 1.15. *All inversions (and therefore all Möbius transforms) are conformal.*

Remark 1.16. *The group $\text{Möb}(\hat{\mathbb{C}})$ contains (Euclidean) reflections along a line, and therefore translations and rotations. It also contains homotheties (which can be decomposed as a product of two inversions). Therefore, $\text{Möb}(\hat{\mathbb{C}})$ contains all maps of the form $z \mapsto \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$, with $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$. Those maps are called **homographies** or **linear fractional maps**.*

Theorem 1.17. *$\text{Möb}(\hat{\mathbb{C}})$ is the group of linear and antilinear fractional maps, namely $z \mapsto \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$ and $z \mapsto \frac{\bar{a}z+b}{\bar{c}z+d}$, for $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}$.*

1.3 Projective geometry and the projective linear group

Definition 1.18 (Projective spaces). *Given a \mathbb{K} -vector space V , $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is the set of lines of V . When V has a topology (for instance if \mathbb{K} is \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}), $\mathbb{P}(V) = V/\mathbb{K}^*$ is endowed with the quotient topology.*

*A map $\mathbb{P}(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(W)$ is called **projective** if it is induced by an injective linear map $V \rightarrow W$.*

In particular, $GL(V) \curvearrowright \mathbb{P}(V)$. The kernel of this action is $\mathbb{K}^ \text{id}$; we set $PGL(V) = GL(V)/\mathbb{K}^* \text{id}$. More generally, if $G \leq GL(V)$, we set $PG = G/G \cap \mathbb{K}^* \text{id}$.*

We write $\mathbb{P}^n \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}^{n+1})$, $PGL_n \mathbb{K} = PGL(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $PSL_n \mathbb{K} = PGL(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

Remark 1.19. *There is a homeomorphism $\psi : \mathbb{K} \cup \{\infty\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{K}$ given by $\psi(x) = (x : 1)$ and $\psi(\infty) = (1 : 0)$ (where \mathbb{K} is \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}).*

Under this identification, linear fractional maps correspond to the action $PGL_2 \mathbb{K} \curvearrowright \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{K}$: the matrix $g = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in GL_2 \mathbb{K}$ induces a map $\mathbb{K} \cup \{\infty\} \rightarrow \mathbb{K} \cup \{\infty\}$ given by $z \mapsto \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$.

Notation 1.20. *From now on, we assume that $\dim V = 2$, i.e. $\mathbb{P}(V)$ is a **projective line**.*

Proposition 1.21. *$PGL(V)$ acts simply transitively on the set $\mathbb{P}(V)^{3*}$ of triples of distinct points of $\mathbb{P}(V)$, i.e. for all $x, y \in \mathbb{P}(V)^{3*}$, there is a unique $g \in PGL(V)$ s.t. $gx = y$.*

Proof. Assume $V = \mathbb{K}^2$ with its canonical basis (e_1, e_2) . Given distinct points p_1, p_2, p_3 in $\mathbb{P}(V)$, we want to find $g \in PGL(V)$ s.t. $g(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (0, 1, \infty)$. Let $p_i = [v_i]$, $v_i \in V$. Note that there exists $g \in GL(V)$ s.t. $gv_1 = e_2$ and $gv_3 = e_1$. Write $w_2 = gv_2 = ae_1 + be_2$. Composing with $h = \begin{pmatrix} a^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & b^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$, we obtain $hgp_1 = 0$, $hgp_2 = 1$ and $hgp_3 = \infty$. \square

Definition 1.22 (Cross-ratio). *Let p, x, y, q be four distinct points in $\mathbb{P}(V)$. The **cross-ratio** $[p, x, y, q]$ is the unique $a \in \mathbb{K}$ s.t. (p, x, y, q) can be sent to $(0, 1, a, \infty)$ by a projective isomorphism $\mathbb{P}(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1 \mathbb{K}$.*

Equivalently, we have the formula

$$[p, x, y, q] = \frac{y-p}{x-p} \cdot \frac{x-q}{y-q}.$$

Proof. To see that the two definitions are equivalent, consider the linear fractional map

$$t \mapsto \frac{t-p}{x-p} \cdot \frac{x-q}{t-q}. \quad \square$$

Proposition 1.23. *Let p, x, y, q be four distinct points in $\mathbb{P}(V)$.*

- (i) $[p, y, x, q] = [p, x, y, q]^{-1}$,
- (ii) $[q, x, y, p] = [p, x, y, q]^{-1}$,
- (iii) $[x, p, y, q] = 1 - [p, x, y, q]$.

Proposition 1.24. *If V, W are two \mathbb{K} -vector spaces of dimension 2, then projective maps $\mathbb{P}(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}(W)$ preserve the cross-ratio.*

In particular, the action $PGL(V) \curvearrowright \mathbb{P}(V)$ preserves the cross-ratio.

Proposition 1.25. *Assume that $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{C}$ and $\mathbb{P}(V) = \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{C}$.*

- (i) *Three distinct points $z, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ are aligned iff $[z, \alpha, \infty, \beta] \in \mathbb{R}$.*
- (ii) *Four distinct points $z, \alpha, \omega, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ are cocyclic iff $[z, \alpha, \omega, \beta] \in \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof. For the first assertion, note that z, α, β are aligned iff the angle at z is in $\pi\mathbb{Z}$, iff $\frac{z-\alpha}{z-\beta} \in \mathbb{R}$. For the second one, use an element of $PGL(V)$ sending ω to ∞ . \square

1.4 The Poincaré disk model

Definition 1.26 (Poincaré disk). *The **Poincaré disk** is the set $\mathcal{B} = \{z \in \mathbb{C}, |z| < 1\}$.*

*Given $z \in \mathcal{B}$, the **hyperbolic norm** at z of a vector $v \in \mathbb{C}$ is $\|v\|_z^{\text{hyp}} = \frac{2}{1-|z|^2} \|v\|^{\text{eucl}}$.*

*Given a \mathcal{C}^1 path $c : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, its **hyperbolic length** is*

$$\ell_{\text{hyp}}(c) = \int_a^b \|c'(t)\|_{c(t)}^{\text{hyp}} dt.$$

Definition 1.27 (Hyperbolic distance). *Given $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{B}$, the **hyperbolic distance** between z_1 and z_2 is*

$$d_{\text{hyp}}(z_1, z_2) = \inf \left\{ \ell_{\text{hyp}}(c), c \text{ is a continuous piecewise } \mathcal{C}^1 \text{ path from } z_1 \text{ to } z_2 \text{ in } \mathcal{H} \right\}.$$

Proposition 1.28. *d_{hyp} is a metric on \mathcal{B} .*

Proof. For separation, note that $d_{\text{hyp}} \geq 2d_{\text{eucl}}$. \square

Example 1.29. *Rotations centred at 0 and reflections along diameters are Riemannian isometries of \mathcal{B} .*

Theorem 1.30. *The map*

$$\phi : z \in \mathcal{H} \mapsto \frac{z-i}{z+i} \in \mathcal{B}$$

*is an isometry sending $(0, 1, \infty)$ to $(-1, -i, 1)$. The map ϕ is called the **Cayley transform**.*

Therefore, \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{H} are equivalent models of the hyperbolic plane.

1.5 Geodesics

Definition 1.31 (Geodesics). *A **unit speed geodesic path** of \mathcal{H} is a path $c : I \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ (where I is an interval) which locally minimises the distance: for all $t \in I$, there is an open interval $J \subseteq I$ s.t. $c|_J$ is an isometric embedding.*

*A geodesic path defined on \mathbb{R} will be called a **geodesic**.*

Proposition 1.32. *Isom(\mathcal{H}) acts transitively on pairs of points of \mathcal{H} at a given distance.*

Proof. We show this in \mathcal{B} . Let $z_1 \neq z_2$ in \mathcal{B} . Since \mathcal{B} is homogeneous (as \mathcal{H}), there exists $g \in \text{Isom}(\mathcal{B})$ s.t. $gz_1 = 0$. Now choose a rotation ρ centred at 0 s.t. $\rho gz_2 \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. Therefore, ρg sends (z_1, z_2) to $(0, d)$ with $d = d(z_1, z_2)$. \square

Proposition 1.33. *For all $z_1, z_2 \in \mathcal{H}$, there exists a unique shortest path between z_1 and z_2 .*

Proof. By Proposition 1.32, we may assume that z_1 and z_2 lie on the y -axis. But then the result is known (c.f. Corollary 1.7). \square

Theorem 1.34. *The geodesics of \mathcal{H} are the circular arcs orthogonal to the boundary and the straight vertical rays.*

Moreover, all geodesics in \mathcal{H} are globally minimising, i.e. they are shortest paths.

Proof. We know that the y -axis is a shortest path (c.f. Corollary 1.7). It follows that its image under the isometry $\phi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ of Theorem 1.30 is a shortest path of \mathcal{B} . Its image is the diameter $[-1, 1]$ of \mathcal{B} . Since rotations centred at 0 are isometries of \mathcal{B} , all diameters are shortest paths of \mathcal{B} . Applying ϕ^{-1} , we see that all circular arcs through i and orthogonal to the boundary are shortest paths of \mathcal{H} . We then use horizontal translations and homotheties in \mathcal{H} and obtain that all straight vertical rays and all circular arcs orthogonal to the boundary are shortest paths (and therefore geodesics).

Conversely, those are the only shortest paths of \mathcal{H} by Proposition 1.33.

Moreover, geodesics and shortest paths coincide: if $\sigma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is a geodesic, we may assume (using Proposition 1.32) that $i = \sigma(t_0) \in \sigma(\mathbb{R})$ and there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $\sigma|_{]t_0-\varepsilon, t_0+\varepsilon[}$ is vertical. Let $\eta(t) = ie^{(t-t_0)}$ be the unit speed parametrisation of the vertical line and assume for contradiction that $\eta \neq \sigma$. Let $t_1 = \max\{t \geq 0, \sigma(t) = \eta(t)\}$. Hence $\sigma = \eta$ on $[t_0, t_1]$ and the geodesic σ forks at t_1 ; this contradicts Proposition 1.33. \square

Corollary 1.35. *The geodesics of \mathcal{B} are the arcs of circles (and line segments) orthogonal to the boundary.*

1.6 The full isometry group

Proposition 1.36. *We have an action $PGL_2\mathbb{C} \curvearrowright \hat{\mathbb{C}}$ by homographies. Under this action,*

(i) $\text{Stab}(\hat{\mathbb{R}}) = PGL_2\mathbb{R},$

(ii) $\text{Stab}(\mathcal{H}) = PSL_2\mathbb{R}.$

In particular, $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$.

Proof. If $g \in \text{Stab}(\hat{\mathbb{R}})$, then by Proposition 1.21, there exists $h \in PGL_2\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $g(0, 1, \infty) = h(0, 1, \infty)$, and the uniqueness in the context of $PGL_2\mathbb{C}$ implies that $g = h$, so $g \in PGL_2\mathbb{R}$. The reverse inclusion is clear.

The stabiliser of \mathcal{H} is the stabiliser of the oriented circle $\hat{\mathbb{R}}$. We show that $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \subseteq \text{Stab}(\mathcal{H})$ (for instance because $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \cdot i \subseteq \mathcal{H}$), and since $[\text{Stab}(\hat{\mathbb{R}}) : \text{Stab}(\mathcal{H})] = 2 = [PGL_2\mathbb{R} : PSL_2\mathbb{R}]$, we conclude that $\text{Stab}(\mathcal{H}) = PSL_2\mathbb{R}$. \square

Proposition 1.37. *The action $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$ is by isometries.*

Proof. Note that $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is generated by inversions in circles containing i (which correspond to reflections in line through 0 in \mathcal{B} , so they are isometries) and the translation $z \mapsto z + 1$, which is also an isometry. \square

Lemma 1.38. *The stabiliser of i under the action $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$ acts transitively on hyperbolic geodesics through i .*

Proof. Given a hyperbolic geodesic c through i that meets $\partial\mathcal{H}$ at ω_1 and ω_2 , find $g \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $g\omega_1 = 0$ and $g\omega_2 = \infty$, and compose with a homothety so that $gi = i$. This sends c to the y -axis. \square

Proposition 1.39. *Hyperbolic circles are Euclidean circles (but generally not of the same centre!) in the upper half-plane and in the Poincaré disk.*

Proof. This is clear for hyperbolic circles centred at 0 in \mathcal{B} . But by transitivity of the action $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \curvearrowright \mathcal{B}$, any hyperbolic circle can be sent to a hyperbolic (and therefore Euclidean) circle centred at 0. Now the result follows from the fact that $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ sends (Euclidean) circles to (Euclidean) circles. \square

Theorem 1.40. $\text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{H}) = PSL_2\mathbb{R}$.

Proof. We have seen that $PSL_2\mathbb{R} \subseteq \text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{H})$. Conversely, let $f \in \text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{H})$. We may compose f with an element of $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ to assume that f fixes i and ∞ . It follows that f fixes $i\mathbb{R}_{>0}$ pointwise. Now use the Cayley transform to get a corresponding isometry $\tilde{f} \in \text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{B})$ fixing the horizontal diameter. Therefore, given $z \in \mathcal{B}$, we have

$$d(0, \tilde{f}(z)) = d(\tilde{f}(0), \tilde{f}(z)) = d(0, z).$$

Therefore, \tilde{f} stabilises all hyperbolic circles centred at 0 in \mathcal{B} . This remains true when 0 is replaced by any point on the horizontal diameter, so \tilde{f} stabilises all hyperbolic circles centred on the horizontal diameter.

Now let $z \in \mathcal{B}$. Consider the hyperbolic circle \mathcal{C} through z with centre 0, and choose a point $w \neq 0$ on the horizontal diameter and the hyperbolic circle \mathcal{C}' through z with centre w . Then \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{C}' are both stabilised by \tilde{f} , and they are Euclidean circles by Proposition 1.39. Hence $\mathcal{C} \cap \mathcal{C}' = \{z, \bar{z}\}$, so $\tilde{f}(z) \in \{z, \bar{z}\}$. By continuity, we see that $\tilde{f} \in \{\text{id}, \bar{\cdot}\}$; but \tilde{f} is orientation-preserving, so $\tilde{f} = \text{id}$. \square

Corollary 1.41. $\text{Isom}^-(\mathcal{H}) = \{\varphi \circ \sigma, \varphi \in \text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{H})\}$, where $\sigma : z \mapsto -\bar{z}$ is the reflection along the y -axis.

Proposition 1.42. (i) $\text{Stab}_{PSL_2\mathbb{R}}(i) = PSO_2\mathbb{R}$.

(ii) \mathcal{H} is in bijection with $PSL_2\mathbb{R}/PSO_2\mathbb{R}$ via $g \mapsto gi$.

1.7 Isometries in the Poincaré disk model

Proposition 1.43. The orientation-preserving isometries of \mathcal{B} are the linear fractional maps $z \mapsto \frac{\alpha z + \beta}{\bar{\beta}z + \bar{\alpha}}$, with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $1 = |\alpha|^2 - |\beta|^2$.

Proof. $\text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{B}) = \phi \text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{H}) \phi^{-1} = \phi PSL_2\mathbb{R} \phi^{-1}$, where $\phi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ is the Cayley transform (recall that its matrix is $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix}$). \square

Notation 1.44. We define:

- $U(1, 1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \theta\beta \\ \bar{\beta} & \theta\bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}, 1 = |\alpha|^2 - |\beta|^2 \text{ and } |\theta| = 1 \right\} \subseteq GL_2\mathbb{C}$ the subgroup preserving the standard hermitian form $h(z, w) = z_1\bar{w}_1 - z_2\bar{w}_2$ of signature $(1, 1)$.
- $SU(1, 1) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \bar{\beta} & \bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}, 1 = |\alpha|^2 - |\beta|^2 \right\} = U(1, 1) \cap SL_2\mathbb{C}$.

Note that $PU(1, 1) = PSU(1, 1)$.

Corollary 1.45. $\text{Isom}^+(\mathcal{B}) = PU(1, 1)$.

Remark 1.46. Let $h(z, w) = z_1\bar{w}_1 - z_2\bar{w}_2$ be the standard hermitian form of signature $(1, 1)$. Then $U(1, 1)$ preserves the negative cone $V_- = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^2, h(z, z) < 0\}$ of h . Hence, $PU(1, 1)$ preserves $\mathbb{P}(V_-)$; but in the standard affine chart $z_2 = 1$, $\mathbb{P}(V_-)$ identifies to \mathcal{B} ; this gives a direct proof of the fact that $PU(1, 1)$ preserves \mathcal{B} .

1.8 Classification of isometries

Definition 1.47 (Boundary at infinity). The **boundary** $\partial\mathcal{H}$ (resp. $\partial\mathcal{B}$) of \mathcal{H} (resp. \mathcal{B}) is defined by $\partial\mathcal{H} = \hat{\mathbb{R}} \subseteq \hat{\mathbb{C}}$ (resp. by $\partial\mathcal{B} = \mathbb{S}^1 \subseteq \hat{\mathbb{C}}$). We denote the **closure** $\overline{\mathcal{H}} = \mathcal{H} \cup \partial\mathcal{H}$ (resp. $\overline{\mathcal{B}} = \mathcal{B} \cup \partial\mathcal{B}$). Points on the boundary are called **ideal points**.

Note that isometries of \mathcal{H} (resp. of \mathcal{B}) extend to the boundary.

Definition 1.48 (Classification of isometries). Let $g \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$.

- (i) We say that g is **elliptic** if g has a fixed point in \mathcal{H} (or $g = e$).
- (ii) We say that g is **parabolic** if g has no fixed point in \mathcal{H} and exactly one in $\partial\mathcal{H}$.
- (iii) We say that g is **hyperbolic** if g has no fixed point in \mathcal{H} and exactly two in $\partial\mathcal{H}$.

In this case, the geodesic c joining the two fixed points of g is called the **axis** of g ; g acts on c by translation. The positive real number $\ell(g) = d(z, gz)$ for $z \in c$ is called the **translation length** of g .

Example 1.49. The homothety $z \mapsto \lambda z$ (for $\lambda > 0$) is hyperbolic with axis $i\mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and translation length $|\log \lambda|$.

Proposition 1.50. Let $g \in PSL_2\mathbb{R} \setminus \{e\}$. Then $\text{tr } g$ is well-defined up to a sign, and we have:

- (i) g is elliptic iff $(\text{tr } g)^2 < 4$. In this case, g is conjugated in $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ to $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$ for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 2\pi\mathbb{Z}$.
- (ii) g is parabolic iff $(\text{tr } g)^2 = 4$. In this case, g is conjugated in $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ to $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ or $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.
- (iii) g is hyperbolic iff $(\text{tr } g)^2 > 4$. In this case, g is conjugated in $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ to $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \setminus \{1\}$.

Proof. Write $g = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in PSL_2\mathbb{R} \setminus \{e\}$. Then g fixes a point $[v] \in \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{C}$, i.e. v is an eigenvector for g in \mathbb{C}^2 . But the characteristic polynomial of g is

$$\chi_g = X^2 - (\text{tr } g)X + 1;$$

so its discriminant is $\Delta = (\text{tr } g)^2 - 4$. Looking at the sign of Δ yields the three cases. Then use the reduction of endomorphisms over \mathbb{R} to find the conjugacy classes. \square

1.9 Some geometric properties

Proposition 1.51. Let $x \neq y \in \mathcal{H}$ and denote by c the geodesic through x and y . If $p, q \in \partial\mathcal{H} \cap c$, in such a way that p, x, y, q occur on c in this order, then

$$d(x, y) = \log [p, x, y, q].$$

Proof. Let $g \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $g(p, q) = (0, \infty)$. Then $g(x, y) = (i\lambda, i\mu)$ for some $0 < \lambda < \mu$ in \mathbb{R} . Now

$$d(\lambda, \mu) = \log \left(\frac{\mu}{\lambda} \right) = \log [0, i\lambda, i\mu, \infty] = \log [gp, gx, gy, gq] = \log [p, x, y, q],$$

because $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ preserves the cross-ratio. \square

Remark 1.52. The upper half-plane model and the Poincaré model are conformal, i.e. hyperbolic angles are equal to Euclidean angles in those models.

Proof. This is because the Riemannian metrics of \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{B} are rescalings of the Euclidean metric. \square

Definition 1.53 (Hyperbolic area). *The **hyperbolic area** of a region $D \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is given by*

$$\text{Area}(D) = \iint_D \frac{1}{y^2} dx dy.$$

Likewise, the hyperbolic area of $D \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ is given by

$$\text{Area}(D) = \iint_D \left(\frac{2}{1-r^2} \right)^2 r dr d\theta.$$

Note that isometries preserve the area.

Definition 1.54 (Hyperbolic triangle). *A **hyperbolic triangle** consists of three noncolinear points in $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$. A vertex in $\partial\mathcal{H}$ is called an **ideal vertex**.*

Note that all ideal triangles are congruent.

Theorem 1.55 (Gauß-Bonnet). *If Δ is a hyperbolic triangle with interior angles α, β, γ , then*

$$\text{Area}(\Delta) = \pi - (\alpha + \beta + \gamma).$$

In particular, $\alpha + \beta + \gamma < \pi$.

Proof. First case: there is at least one ideal vertex, say c . Using $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$, we may assume that $c = \infty$ in \mathcal{H} and that the other two vertices a, b are on the geodesic from -1 to 1 . Writing $a_1 = \Re(a) = \cos(\pi - \alpha)$ and $b_1 = \Re(b) = \cos \beta$, we get

$$\text{Area}(\Delta) = \iint_{\Delta} \frac{dx dy}{y^2} = \int_{x=a_1}^{b_1} dx \int_{y=\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{y^2} = \int_{a_1}^{b_1} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \int_{\pi-\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{-\sin \theta d\theta}{\sin \theta} = \pi - (\alpha + \beta).$$

General case. Using $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ we may assume that a, b are on the geodesic from -1 to 1 and that c is on the geodesic from a to ∞ . Consider the triangle Δ' with vertices c, b, ∞ , and with interior angles $\pi - \gamma, \beta', 0$. Then $\Delta \cup \Delta'$ is a triangle with vertices a, b, ∞ and with interior angles $\alpha, \beta + \beta', 0$. Therefore, by the first case,

$$\text{Area}(\Delta) = \text{Area}(\Delta \cup \Delta') - \text{Area}(\Delta') = \pi - (\alpha + \beta + \beta') - \pi + (\pi - \gamma + \beta') = \pi - (\alpha + \beta + \gamma). \quad \square$$

Proposition 1.56. *Given $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \geq 0$ with $\alpha + \beta + \gamma < \pi$, there is a hyperbolic triangle with interior angles α, β, γ . Moreover, this triangle is unique up to isometry.*

Proposition 1.57 (Orthogonal projection). (i) *Let c be a geodesic in \mathcal{H} and let $p \in \mathcal{H}$. Then there is a unique $q \in c$ s.t.*

$$d(p, q) = d(p, c).$$

Equivalently, q is the unique point of c satisfying $(qp) \perp c$.

This defines a map $\pi_c : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow c$ given by $p \mapsto q$.

(ii) *Given two geodesics c_1, c_2 in \mathcal{H} which are disjoint in $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$, there exists a unique couple $(x_1, x_2) \in c_1 \times c_2$ s.t.*

$$d(x_1, x_2) = \min_{(y_1, y_2) \in c_1 \times c_2} d(y_1, y_2).$$

Moreover, the geodesic through x_1 and x_2 is the unique common perpendicular to c_1 and c_2 .

(iii) *The map $\pi_c : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow c$ is 1-Lipschitz.*

Proof. (i) Use $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ to reduce to the case where c is the geodesic from -1 to 1 in \mathcal{H} and $p \in i\mathbb{R}_{\geq 1}$.

- (ii) Reduce to the case where c_1 is the y -axis in the upper half-plane and use Euclidean geometry to construct a common perpendicular to c_1 and c_2 . Use Gauß-Bonnet to show that the common perpendicular is unique, and then show that its intersection points with c_1 and c_2 realise the minimal distance.
- (iii) Use (ii). □

Proposition 1.58 (Composition of inversions). *Let $c_1 \neq c_2$ be two geodesics in \mathcal{H} and let σ_i be the inversion through c_i .*

- (i) *If c_1, c_2 intersect in \mathcal{H} , then $\sigma_2 \circ \sigma_1$ is elliptic.*
- (ii) *If c_1, c_2 intersect in $\partial\mathcal{H}$, then $\sigma_2 \circ \sigma_1$ is parabolic.*
- (iii) *If c_1, c_2 do not intersect in $\overline{\mathcal{H}}$, then $\sigma_2 \circ \sigma_1$ is hyperbolic.*

1.10 Other models

Definition 1.59 (Hyperboloid). *Consider the **lorentzian form**, i.e. the standard quadratic form in \mathbb{R}^3 of signature $(2, 1)$:*

$$q(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - x_3^2.$$

*The **hyperboloid** is the set $\mathbb{H} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3, q(x) = -1 \text{ and } x_3 > 0\}$. For $x \in \mathbb{H}$, we have $T_x\mathbb{H} = x^\perp$ (in the sense of q); the Riemannian metric on \mathbb{H} is given by the restriction of q to $T_x\mathbb{H}$, which is positive definite.*

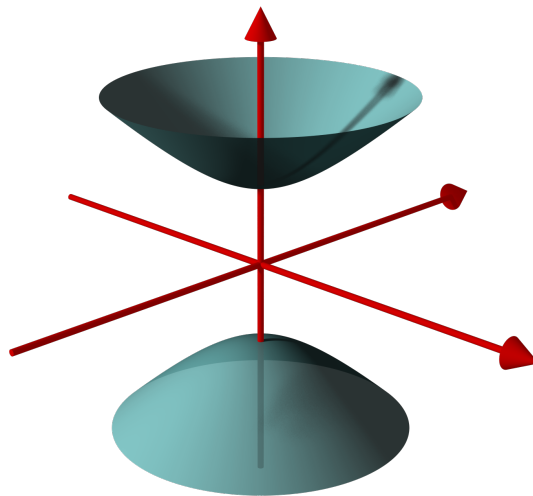


Figure 1: The hyperboloid of two sheets

Proposition 1.60. *Isom (\mathbb{H}) is the index-2 subgroup $O^+(q)$ of $O(q)$ preserving the upper sheet of $\{q(x) = -1\}$. Elements of $O^+(q)$ are called **positive lorentzian transformations**.*

Remark 1.61. (i) *Isometries of \mathbb{H} are linear automorphisms of \mathbb{R}^3 , so they preserve linear subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 .*

(ii) *The action Isom $(\mathbb{H}) \curvearrowright \mathbb{H}$ is transitive.*

(iii) *Isom $(\mathbb{H}) = O^+(q)$ contains some orientation-reversing isometries, for instance all reflections in planes containing the x_3 -axis.*

Proposition 1.62. *Geodesics of \mathbb{H} are intersections of \mathbb{H} with linear planes. Moreover, the unit speed parametrisation of the geodesics $c_{x,v}$ starting at x and with initial speed v is*

$$c_{x,v}(t) = (\cosh t) x + (\sinh t) v.$$

Proof. Let $c : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$ be a geodesic. Since \mathbb{H} is homogeneous, we may assume that $c(0) = x_0 = (0, 0, 1)$; moreover, $\text{Stab}(x_0)$ acts transitively on directions at x_0 so we may assume that $c'(0) = e_1 = (1, 0, 0)$.

Now consider the reflection $\sigma \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H})$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}e_3$. Then $\sigma \circ c$ is a geodesic starting at x_0 and with initial speed $d\sigma_{x_0} \cdot c'(0) = \sigma(e_1) = e_1$. By uniqueness of geodesics through a point with a given initial speed, it follows that $\sigma \circ c = c$. In particular, $c \subseteq \mathbb{H} \cap (\mathbb{R}e_1 \oplus \mathbb{R}e_3)$.

For the parametrisation, it suffices to check that $c_{x,v}(t) \in \mathbb{H}$, $c'_{x,v}(0) = v$ and $q(c'_{x,v}(t)) = 1$. \square

Proposition 1.63. *The stereographic projection π on the plane $\{x_3 = 0\}$ centred at $(0, 0, -1)$ induces an isometry $\mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}$.*

Lemma 1.64. *Let $\alpha \leq \alpha' \leq x \leq y \leq \beta' \leq \beta$ be points on a projective line $\mathbb{P}(V)$. Then*

$$[\alpha', x, y, \beta'] \geq [\alpha, x, y, \beta].$$

Proof. It suffices to prove the result in the two special cases $\alpha = \alpha'$ and $\beta = \beta'$.

Let us prove it when $\beta = \beta'$. If $a = [\alpha, x, y, \beta]$, then by definition of the cross-ratio, there is a projective isomorphism $g : \mathbb{P}(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^1\mathbb{K}$ s.t. $g(\alpha, x, y, \beta) = (0, 1, a, \infty)$. Therefore

$$[\alpha', x, y, \beta] = [g\alpha', gx, gy, g\beta] = [u, 1, a, \infty] = \frac{a-u}{1-u},$$

for some $0 < u < 1$. But $a > 1$, so $a - u > a(1 - u)$, i.e. $\frac{a-u}{1-u} > a$. \square

Definition 1.65 (Projective disk). *The **projective disk** (or **Klein disk**) is the set*

$$\mathbb{D} = \left\{ [x_1 : x_2 : x_3] \in \mathbb{P}^2\mathbb{R}, x_1^2 + x_2^2 - x_3^2 < 0 \right\} = p(\mathbb{H}) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^2\mathbb{R},$$

where $p : \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2\mathbb{R}$ is the projection. Note that, in the affine chart $x_3 = 1$, \mathbb{D} identifies with the unit disk.

The metric on \mathbb{D} is defined as follows: given $x, y \in \mathbb{D}$, consider the unique projective line through x, y . This line intersects $\partial\mathbb{D}$ at α, β s.t. α, x, y, β occur in that order. Then

$$d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \log [\alpha, x, y, \beta].$$

Proof. Let us prove that $d_{\mathbb{D}}$ satisfies the triangle inequality.

First note that, if $y \in [x, z]$, then $d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, z) = d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y) + d_{\mathbb{D}}(y, z)$ because

$$[\alpha, x, z, \beta] = [\alpha, x, y, \beta] [\alpha, y, z, \beta].$$

Now let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{D}$. Let α, β be the boundary points of the line through x, z . Consider the lines tangent to $\partial\mathbb{D}$ through α, β respectively. These lines meet at some point $q \in \mathbb{P}^2\mathbb{R}$. Let α_1, β_1 be the boundary points of the line through x, y . Consider the lines (α_1, q) and (β_1, q) . They meet the line (α, β) at points α'_1, β'_1 respectively. Likewise, the line (y, q) meets (α, β) at some point y' . Hence (using Lemma 1.64),

$$d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \log [\alpha_1, x, y, \beta_1] = \frac{1}{2} \log [\alpha'_1, x, y', \beta'_1] \geq \frac{1}{2} \log [\alpha, x, y', \beta] = d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y').$$

Similarly, $d_{\mathbb{D}}(y, z) \geq d_{\mathbb{D}}(y', z)$. Since $y' \in [x, z]$, we have

$$d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y) + d_{\mathbb{D}}(y, z) \geq d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y') + d_{\mathbb{D}}(y', z) = d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, z). \quad \square$$

Corollary 1.66. *The fact that $d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, z) = d_{\mathbb{D}}(x, y) + d_{\mathbb{D}}(y, z)$ if $y \in [x, z]$ implies that geodesics of \mathbb{D} are projective lines, and hence affine lines in the standard affine chart.*

Remark 1.67. *The construction of the projective disk generalises to **Hilbert geometry**: the unit disk can be replaced by any open bounded convex subset Ω of \mathbb{R}^2 , and we can still define a metric on Ω using the cross-ratio.*

Proposition 1.68. *The projection $p : \mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{P}^2\mathbb{R}$ induces an isometry $\mathbb{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$.*

In particular, $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{D})$ is the projective group $PO^+(2, 1)$ of matrices preserving the standard quadratic form of signature $(2, 1)$.

2 Fuchsian groups

2.1 Discrete subgroups

Definition 2.1 (Discrete group). *A topological group Γ is called **discrete** if it satisfies one of the following equivalent conditions:*

- (i) *The topology of Γ is discrete.*
- (ii) *$\{\gamma\}$ is open in Γ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$.*
- (iii) *$\{e\}$ is open in Γ .*

If Γ is metrisable, then it is discrete if and only if every convergent sequence in Γ is eventually constant.

Example 2.2. (i) $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{R}$ is discrete.

(ii) $\mathbb{Z}[i] \leq \mathbb{C}$ is discrete.

(iii) $\Gamma \leq \mathbb{R}^n$ is discrete iff $\Gamma = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k \mathbb{Z}v_i$, where v_1, \dots, v_k are linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .
If $k = n$, we say that Γ is a **lattice**.

(iv) $\langle k \rangle \leq \mathbb{C}^\times$ is discrete iff $k \in \exp(2i\pi\mathbb{Q})$ or $|k| \neq 1$.

(v) $GL_n\mathbb{Z} \leq GL_n\mathbb{R}$ is discrete.

(vi) $GL_n\mathbb{Z}[i] \leq GL_n\mathbb{C}$ is discrete.

Proposition 2.3. *Let G be a metrisable topological group. Then any discrete subgroup $\Gamma \subseteq G$ is closed in G .*

Proof. Let $(\gamma_n)_{n \geq 0} \in \Gamma$ s.t. $\gamma_n \rightarrow g \in G$. Then $\gamma_{n+1}\gamma_n^{-1} \rightarrow 1 \in \Gamma$. But $\{1\}$ is open in Γ , so there exists $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $\gamma_{n+1}\gamma_n^{-1} = 1$ for all $n \geq n_0$. In other words, $(\gamma_n)_{n \geq 0}$ is eventually constant, so $g \in \Gamma$. \square

Remark 2.4. *It is false in general that a discrete subspace of a topological space is closed.*

2.2 Discrete subgroups of matrix groups

Proposition 2.5. *Let X be Hausdorff and locally compact. Then $Y \subseteq X$ is closed and discrete iff for all $K \sqsubseteq X$ compact, $Y \cap K$ is finite.*

Proof. (\Rightarrow) This is a consequence of the fact that a discrete compact space is finite. (\Leftarrow) Let $y \in X$ and let U be a relatively compact neighbourhood of y in X (i.e. \bar{U} is compact). Then $Y \cap U$ is finite by assumption. Therefore, $U' = U \setminus \{u \in Y \cap U, u \neq y\}$ is a neighbourhood of y in X , and $Y \cap U'$ is $\{y\}$ or \emptyset . \square

Corollary 2.6. *Let $\widehat{SL}_n\mathbb{C} = \{g \in GL_n\mathbb{C}, \det g \in \{\pm 1\}\}$. Then a subgroup $\Gamma \leq \widehat{SL}_n\mathbb{C}$ is discrete iff the set $\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \|\gamma\| \leq R\}$ is finite for all $R > 0$.*

In particular, discrete subgroups of $\widehat{SL}_n\mathbb{C}$ are countable.

Proof. The sets $\{g \in \widehat{SL}_n\mathbb{C}, \|g\| \leq R\}$ for $R > 0$ form a basis of compact subsets of $\widehat{SL}_n\mathbb{C}$. \square

Remark 2.7. *The argument of Corollary 2.6 would not work with $GL_n\mathbb{C}$ since $\{g \in GL_n\mathbb{C}, \|g\| \leq R\}$ is not compact. However, we can use Corollary 2.6 to find discrete subgroups of $GL_n\mathbb{C}$ by noting that $GL_n\mathbb{C}$ can be embedded as a closed subgroup of $SL_{n+1}\mathbb{C}$ via*

$$A \in GL_n\mathbb{C} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & (\det A)^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \in SL_{n+1}\mathbb{C}.$$

Definition 2.8 (Fuchsian group). A **Fuchsian group** is a discrete subgroup of $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$.

Remark 2.9. $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is $SL_2\mathbb{R}/\{\pm I\}$ equipped with the quotient topology. The associated projection $p : SL_2\mathbb{R} \rightarrow PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is continuous and proper, so a subgroup $\Gamma \leq SL_2\mathbb{R}$ is discrete iff $p(\Gamma) \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is discrete.

Corollary 2.10. $PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$ is a Fuchsian group.

Remark 2.11. Let X be a proper metric space (i.e. closed balls are compact). Then $\text{Isom}(X)$ can be endowed with the topology of uniform convergence on compact subsets. The topology induced by that of $\text{Isom}(\mathcal{H})$ on $PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is the same as the quotient topology.

Proposition 2.12. Let X be a proper metric space. Given $x \in X$ and $K \subseteq X$ compact, the set $\{g \in \text{Isom}(X), gx \in K\}$ is compact in $\text{Isom}(X)$.

Proof. Use the Arzelà-Ascoli Theorem. □

2.3 Proper discontinuous actions

Definition 2.13 (Proper discontinuous action). Let $\Gamma \curvearrowright X$ be an action by isometries of a group on a proper metric space. The following assertions are equivalent:

- (i) Every point $x \in X$ has a neighbourhood U s.t. $\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma U \cap U \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite.
- (ii) For all $x \in X$, the orbit Γx is closed and discrete and the stabiliser Γ_x is finite.
- (iii) For all $x \in X$ and for all $K \subseteq X$ compact, the set $\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma x \in K\}$ is finite.
- (iv) For all $K \subseteq X$ compact, the set $\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma K \cap K \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite.

We then say that the action $\Gamma \curvearrowright X$ is **properly discontinuous**.

Proof. (iv) \Rightarrow (i) and (ii) \Leftrightarrow (iii) can be proven using arguments from point-set topology, i.e. the proof remains valid for an action by homeomorphisms of a group on a Hausdorff locally compact topological space.

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) can be proven using the sequential characterisation of closedness for metric spaces.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iv) can be proven using the sequential characterisation of compactness, using moreover the fact that the action is by isometries. □

Lemma 2.14. Let $\Gamma \curvearrowright X$ be a continuous action of a Hausdorff topological group on a topological space. If there is a point $x \in X$ s.t. Γx is discrete and Γ_x is finite, then Γ is discrete.

Proof. We have a continuous map $\theta_x : \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma x$ given by $\gamma \mapsto \gamma x$. Therefore, the subgroup $\Gamma_x = \theta_x^{-1}(\{x\})$ is open in Γ , and finite by assumption. It follows that $\{e\} \subseteq \Gamma_x$ is open in Γ . □

Theorem 2.15. A subgroup $\Gamma \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ is discrete iff Γ acts properly discontinuously on \mathcal{H} .

Proof. (\Leftarrow) Let $x \in \mathcal{H}$. Since Γ acts properly discontinuously, the orbit Γx is discrete and Γ_x is finite. Lemma 2.14 implies that Γ is discrete. (\Rightarrow) Let $x \in \mathcal{H}$ and $K \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ compact. Then

$$\Gamma_K = \{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma x \in K\} = \Gamma \cap G_K,$$

where $G = \text{Isom}(\mathcal{H})$. But Γ is discrete (and therefore closed by Proposition 2.3), and G_K is compact by Proposition 2.12. Therefore, Γ_K is finite, proving that Γ acts properly discontinuously. □

2.4 Fundamental domains

Definition 2.16 (Fundamental domain). Let $\Gamma \curvearrowright X$ be a continuous action of a topological group on a topological space. A **fundamental domain** for Γ in X is a subset $D \subseteq X$ s.t.

- (i) $\bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \gamma \bar{D} = \mathcal{H}$,
- (ii) $\gamma \overset{\circ}{D} \cap \overset{\circ}{D} = \emptyset$ for all $\gamma \neq e$.

Hence, $\{\gamma D, \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ is a **tessellation** of X under Γ .

Example 2.17. (i) $[0, 1]^2$ is a fundamental domain for the action $\mathbb{Z}^2 \curvearrowright \mathbb{R}^2$ by translations.

(ii) Let $\gamma \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$.

- If γ is hyperbolic with axis σ , then for fixed $x \in \sigma$, the set $\{y \in \mathcal{H}, \pi_\sigma(y) \in [x, \gamma x]\}$ is a fundamental domain for the action $\langle \gamma \rangle \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$, where $\pi_\sigma : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \sigma$ is the orthogonal projection (c.f. Proposition 1.57).
- If γ is parabolic with fixed point $\xi \in \partial\mathcal{H}$, then for fixed $x \in \mathcal{H}$, the convex hull of the geodesics (x, ξ) and $(\gamma x, \xi)$ is a fundamental domain for the action $\langle \gamma \rangle \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$.
- If γ is elliptic with centre x and angle θ , then $\langle \gamma \rangle$ is discrete iff γ is torsion iff $\theta \in 2\pi\mathbb{Q}$. In this case, the sector of angle $\frac{2\pi}{q}$ at x , with $q = |\langle \gamma \rangle|$, is a fundamental domain for the action $\langle \gamma \rangle \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$.

Proposition 2.18. Consider

$$D = \left\{ z \in \mathcal{H}, |z| > 1 \text{ and } |\Re(z)| < \frac{1}{2} \right\}.$$

In other words, D is the hyperbolic triangle with one ideal vertex at ∞ and two vertices at $e^{i\frac{\pi}{3}}$ and $e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}}$.

Then D is a fundamental domain for $\Gamma = PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$.

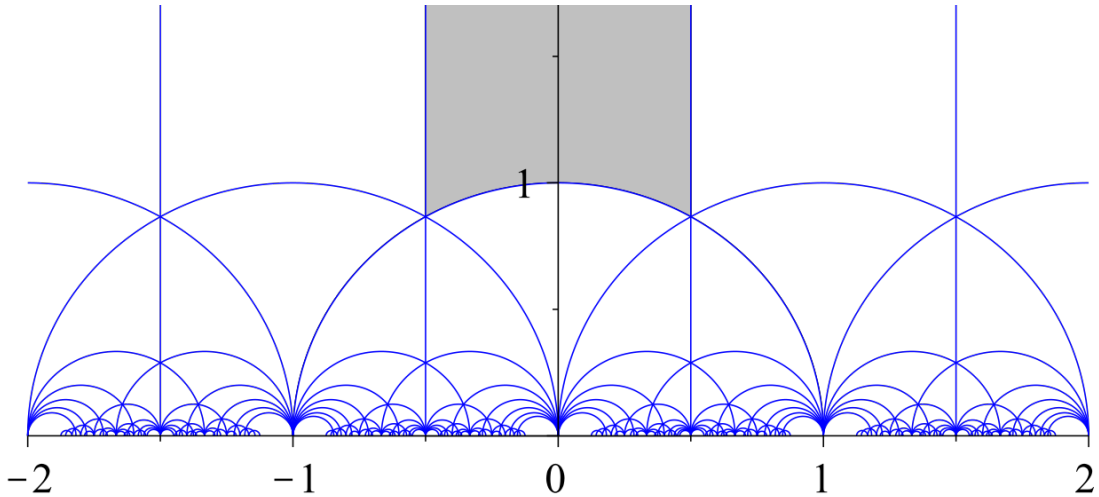


Figure 2: Tessellation of \mathcal{H} by $PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$ with fundamental domain D

Proof. Let $z \in D$ and $\gamma \in \Gamma$. If $\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$, then

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

Now assume that $z, \gamma z \in D$.

- Assume first that $c = 0$, so $ad = \det \gamma = 1$. Therefore $a = d = \pm 1$. We may assume that $a = d = 1$ by multiplying by $-I$. Hence $\gamma z = z + b$ with $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. But $|\Re(\gamma z)|, |\Re(z)| < \frac{1}{2}$, so we must have $b = 0$ and therefore $\gamma = 1$.
- If $c \neq 0$, then

$$|cz + d|^2 = |c|^2 |z|^2 + |d|^2 + 2cd\Re(z) > |c|^2 + |d|^2 - |cd| = (|c| - |d|)^2 + |cd| \geq 1,$$

so that $\Im(\gamma z) < \Im(z)$. But the same argument shows that $\Im(z) = \Im(\gamma^{-1}(\gamma z)) < \Im(\gamma z)$; this is a contradiction.

This proves that, if $\gamma D \cap D \neq \emptyset$, then $\gamma = 1$.

Now let $z \in \mathcal{H}$; we want to show that Γz meets \overline{D} . If $\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \in PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$, then we have $\Im(\gamma z) = \frac{\Im(z)}{|cz+d|^2}$. But $z\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$ is a discrete subgroup of \mathbb{Z}^2 , so the set $\{|cz+d|^2, c, d \text{ coprime}\}$ has a minimum and therefore $\{\Im(\gamma z), \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ has a maximum, i.e. we may choose $\gamma_0 \in \Gamma$ s.t.

$$\Im(\gamma_0 z) = \max_{\gamma \in \Gamma} \Im(\gamma z).$$

Write $z_0 = \gamma_0 z$. After applying some power of $z \mapsto z+1$, we may assume that $|\Re(z_0)| \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Moreover, if $|z_0| < 1$, then apply $z \mapsto -\frac{1}{z}$; we have $\Im\left(-\frac{1}{z_0}\right) = \frac{\Im(z_0)}{|z_0|^2} > \Im(z_0)$, contradicting the choice of z_0 . Therefore, $|z_0| \geq 1$, so $z_0 \in \overline{D} \cap \Gamma z$. \square

2.5 Existence of fundamental domains

Proposition 2.19. *If $\Gamma \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ has an open fundamental domain D , then Γ is discrete.*

Proof. Let $x \in D$. Then $D \cap \Gamma x = \{x\}$ is open in Γx because D is open in \mathcal{H} , so Γx is discrete, and $\Gamma_x = \{e\}$. By Lemma 2.14, Γ is discrete. \square

Definition 2.20 (Locally finite fundamental domain). *A fundamental domain D for an action $\Gamma \curvearrowright X$ is called **locally finite** if the set $\{\gamma D, \gamma \in \Gamma\}$ is locally finite, i.e. for all compact $K \subseteq X$, the set $\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma D \cap K \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite.*

Theorem 2.21. *Let Γ be a Fuchsian group. Let $x \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\Gamma_x = \{e\}$. Then the set*

$$D(x) = \{y \in \mathcal{H}, \forall \gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{e\}, d(y, x) < d(y, \gamma x)\}$$

*is an open, convex and locally finite fundamental domain for Γ in \mathcal{H} . It is called the **Dirichlet domain** of Γ at x .*

Proof. Note first that

$$D(x) = \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{e\}} D_\gamma,$$

where $D_\gamma = \{y \in \mathcal{H}, d(y, x) < d(y, \gamma x)\}$. This set D_γ is a half-plane bounded by the perpendicular bisector σ_γ of $[x, \gamma x]$ (which is well-defined because $\gamma x \neq x$ since $\Gamma_x = \{e\}$). In particular, D_γ is convex for all γ , and therefore $D(x)$ is convex.

If $\gamma \in \Gamma$, note that $\gamma D(x) = D(\gamma x)$; it follows that $D(x) \cap \gamma D(x) = D(x) \cap D(\gamma x) = \emptyset$ if $\gamma \neq e$.

Now given $y \in \mathcal{H}$, since the orbit Γx is locally finite, there exists $\gamma \in \Gamma$ s.t. $d(y, \Gamma x) = d(y, \gamma x)$, so $y \in \widetilde{D}(\gamma x) = \gamma \widetilde{D}(x)$, with

$$\widetilde{D}(x) = \{z \in \mathcal{H}, d(z, x) = d(z, \Gamma x)\}.$$

The set $\widetilde{D}(\gamma x)$ is closed (it can be written as an intersection of closed half-planes) and contains $D(x)$, so $\overline{D(x)} \subseteq \widetilde{D}(x)$. Conversely, if $y \in \widetilde{D}(x)$, then $[x, y] \subseteq \widetilde{D}(x)$ and $[x, y] \subseteq D(x)$, so $y \in [x, y] \subseteq \overline{D(x)}$. This proves that $\widetilde{D}(x) = \overline{D(x)}$, so the translates of $\overline{D(x)}$ cover \mathcal{H} .

Let us now prove that $D(x)$ is a locally finite fundamental domain. Let $R > 0$ and consider the finite set

$$\Gamma_R = \{\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{e\}, d(x, \gamma x) \leq 2R\}.$$

If $\gamma D(x) \cap B(x, R) \neq \emptyset$ then, taking $y \in \gamma D(x) \cap B(x, R)$, we have $d(x, y) < R$, and $y \in D(\gamma x)$, so $d(y, \gamma x) < d(y, x) < R$. Hence $d(x, \gamma x) < 2R$, so $\gamma \in \Gamma_R$. This proves that

$$\{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma D(x) \cap B(x, R) \neq \emptyset\} \subseteq \Gamma_R,$$

so $D(x)$ is locally finite.

The above also proves that, for all $R > 0$,

$$D(x) \cap B(x, R) = B(x, R) \cap \bigcap_{\gamma \in \Gamma_R \setminus \{e\}} D_\gamma.$$

Therefore, $D(x) \cap B(x, R)$ is open as a finite intersection of open half-spaces, from which it follows that $D(x) = \bigcup_{R>0} (D(x) \cap B(x, R))$ is open. \square

Example 2.22. If $\Gamma = PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$, then the Dirichlet domain $D(2i)$ is the fundamental domain given by Proposition 2.18.

Proposition 2.23. If Γ is a Fuchsian group, then the set E of fixed points of elliptic elements of Γ is closed and discrete.

In particular, $\{x \in \mathcal{H}, \Gamma_x = \{e\}\}$ is open and dense.

Proof. Let $(x_n)_{n \geq 0} \in E$ with $x_n \rightarrow x \in \mathcal{H}$. For $n \geq 0$, there exists $\gamma_n \in \Gamma$ fixing x_n . By discreteness of Γ , let U be a neighbourhood of x s.t. $S_U = \{\gamma \in \Gamma, \gamma U \cap U \neq \emptyset\}$ is finite. There is a rank $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $x_n \in U$ for $n \geq n_0$. Therefore $x_n \in \gamma_n U \cap U$, so $\gamma_n \in S_U$. It follows that $\{\gamma_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a finite subset of Γ , so the sequence $(\gamma_n)_{n \geq 0}$ has a constant subsequence. Since each elliptic isometry has exactly one fixed point, $(x_n)_{n \geq 0}$ also has a constant subsequence. This proves that E is closed and discrete. \square

Corollary 2.24. Every Fuchsian group has an open, convex and locally finite fundamental domain.

2.6 Convex fundamental polygons and side-pairings

Definition 2.25 (Convex fundamental polygon). If Γ is a Fuchsian group, then a **convex fundamental polygon** for Γ is a convex locally finite fundamental domain P for the action $\Gamma \curvearrowright \mathcal{H}$.

A **side** of P is a nontrivial geodesic segment of the form $\overline{P} \cap \gamma \overline{P}$ (with $\gamma \neq e$). A **vertex** of P is a point of the form $\overline{P} \cap \gamma_1 \overline{P} \cap \gamma_2 \overline{P}$ (with e, γ_1, γ_2 all distinct).

Proposition 2.26. Let P be a convex fundamental polygon for some Fuchsian group Γ .

- (i) ∂P is the union of all sides and vertices of P .
- (ii) The collections of sides and vertices of P are locally finite.
- (iii) Every vertex of P lies on exactly two sides of P and is the common endpoint of those two sides.
- (iv) If s, s' are nondisjoint sides of P , then $s \cap s' = \{v\}$, where v is the common endpoint of s, s' .

Remark 2.27. Some vertices of convex fundamental polygons may have interior angle π .

Definition 2.28 (Side-pairing). Let P be a convex fundamental polygon for some Fuchsian group Γ . If S is the set of sides of P , then for each $s \in S$, there is a unique $\gamma_s \in \Gamma$ s.t. $s = \overline{P} \cap \gamma_s \overline{P}$. Therefore, $\gamma_s^{-1}(s)$ is a side $\sigma(s)$ of P .

This defines an involution $\sigma : S \rightarrow S$ with the property that $\gamma_{\sigma(s)} = \gamma_s^{-1}$. This involution is called a **side-pairing**.

Remark 2.29. Note that a side-pairing may have fixed points (e.g. for $PSL_2\mathbb{Z}$). In fact, $\sigma(s) = s$ iff γ_s is the half-turn around the middle of s . We may therefore add the middle of s as a vertex if we want to ensure that σ is fixed-point free.

Proposition 2.30. With the notations of Definition 2.28, Γ is generated by $\{\gamma_s, s \in S\}$.

Proof. Let $h \in \Gamma$ and $x \in \mathring{P}$. Choose a \mathcal{C}^1 path c from x to hx avoiding the vertices of the translates of P and transverse to all sides. Then there is a sequence of adjacent tiles $P = P_0, \dots, P_n$, with $P_k = h_k P$. Since $hx \in P_n$, we must have $h_n = h$. Such a sequence of translates of P is called a **gallery**.

Now, $P_k = h_k P$ is adjacent to $P_{k+1} = h_{k+1} P$, so $P = h_k^{-1} P_k$ is adjacent to $h_k^{-1} h_{k+1} P$. Hence, there exists $s_{k+1} \in S$ s.t.

$$h_k^{-1} h_{k+1} = \gamma_{s_{k+1}}.$$

Therefore $h = h_n = (h_0^{-1} h_1) (h_1^{-1} h_2) \cdots (h_{n-1}^{-1} h_n) = \gamma_{s_1} \cdots \gamma_{s_n}$. \square

Definition 2.31 (Vertex cycles). Let P be a convex fundamental polygon for some Fuchsian group Γ , and let v be a vertex of P . Let $P = P_0, \dots, P_n = P$ be the gallery of tiles obtained by turning counter-clockwise around v . For all k , there exists $h_k \in \Gamma$ s.t. $P_k = h_k P$. By the argument used in the proof of Proposition 2.30, we see that $h_{k+1} = h_k \gamma_{s_{k+1}}$ for some side s_{k+1} of P ; hence $h_k = \gamma_{s_1} \cdots \gamma_{s_k}$ for all k .

Another way to construct the **edge cycle** $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$ is to note that s_{k+1} is the side preceding $\sigma(s_k)$ when ∂P is endowed with the counter-clockwise orientation.

Now consider the vertex $v_k = h_k^{-1} v$ of P (this is the initial endpoint of $\sigma(s_k)$), and denote by α_k the angle at v_k of P (or equivalently, the angle at v of $P_k = h_k P$). The set $C_v = \{v_0, \dots, v_n\}$ is called the **vertex cycle** of v . Note that

$$C_v = \Gamma v \cap \overline{P}.$$

The **angle sum** of C_v is the sum of the angles of P at each vertex in the cycle.

Let $m = \min \{k \geq 1, h_k \in \Gamma_v\} = \min \{k \geq 1, v_k = v\}$. Then $n = qm$, where $q = |\Gamma_v|$, and h_m is a generator of Γ_v . It follows that $C_v = \{v_0, \dots, v_{m-1}\}$, so the angle sum is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \alpha_k = \frac{2\pi}{q}.$$

Moreover, we have the following **vertex cycle relation**:

$$\left(\gamma_{s_1} \cdots \gamma_{s_{m-1}} \right)^q = 1.$$

2.7 Poincaré's Theorem

Theorem 2.32 (Poincaré). Let $P \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ be a compact, convex, finitely-sided polygon. We consider a fixed-point free involution $\sigma : S \rightarrow S$ s.t. the sides s and $\sigma(s)$ have the same length. For each $s \in S$, we consider the unique $\gamma_s \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\gamma_s^{-1} s = \sigma(s)$, and γ_s reverses the orientation of s (with sides oriented s.t. P lies to the left).

We suppose that the angle sum of each vertex cycle is of the form $\frac{2\pi}{q}$ for some $q \geq 1$.

Then, if $\Gamma = \langle \gamma_s, s \in S \rangle \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$, we have:

- (i) P is a fundamental domain for Γ ,
- (ii) Γ is discrete,
- (iii) Γ has the presentation $\langle \gamma_s, s \in S \mid R \rangle$, where R is the set of vertex cycle relations, together with the relations $\gamma_{\sigma(s)} = \gamma_s^{-1}$ for $s \in S$.

Proof. See [3] or [1]. \square

Example 2.33. Consider a hyperbolic quadrilateral with opposite sides of the same length, and with angles $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_3$ such that $\sum_{i=0}^3 \alpha_i = \frac{2\pi}{q}$ for $q \geq 2$. Note that such a quadrilateral can be constructed as soon as $\alpha_0 = \alpha_2$ and $\alpha_1 = \alpha_3$, using Proposition 1.56. Pairing each side with the opposite one, Poincaré's Theorem yields a subgroup $\Gamma \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ with presentation

$$\Gamma = \langle \gamma_1, \gamma_2 \mid [\gamma_1, \gamma_2]^q = 1 \rangle.$$

Note that, by changing the values of α_0 and α_1 , we get different Fuchsian groups with the same isomorphism type. This phenomenon is specific to dimension 2.

Example 2.34. Let P be a regular hyperbolic octagon, with angles α such that $\alpha = \frac{\pi}{4q}$ for some $q \geq 1$, with side-pairing given by Figure 3. Then Poincaré's Theorem yields a subgroup $\Gamma \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ with presentation

$$\Gamma = \langle a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \mid ([a_1, a_2][b_1, b_2])^q = 1 \rangle.$$

The quotient \mathcal{H}/Γ is the genus 2 surface when $q = 1$.

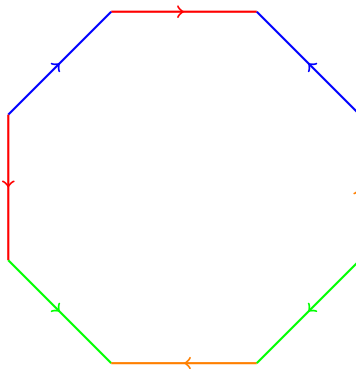


Figure 3: A genus 2 surface obtained as a quotient of an octagon

Theorem 2.35. Let $P \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ be a compact, convex, finitely-sided polygon. For each side s of P , let σ_s be the reflection along s .

Suppose that the angle at each vertex v of P is of the form $\frac{\pi}{q_v}$ for some $q_v \geq 1$.

Then, if $\Gamma = \langle \gamma_s, s \in S \rangle \leq \text{Isom}(\mathcal{H})$, we have:

- (i) P is a fundamental domain for Γ ,
- (ii) Γ is discrete,
- (iii) Γ has the presentation $\langle \gamma_s, s \in S \mid \sigma_s^2 = 1, (\sigma_s \sigma_{s'})^{q_v} = 1, s \cap s' = \{v\} \rangle$.

The group Γ is a **Coxeter group** (or **triangle group** if P is a triangle).

2.8 Quotients and hyperbolic surfaces

Definition 2.36 (Quotient space). Given a Fuchsian group $\Gamma \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$, the **quotient space** (or **orbit space**) \mathcal{H}/Γ is the quotient of \mathcal{H} by the equivalence relation associated to the action of Γ . It is endowed with the quotient topology. We have a projection $p : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}/\Gamma$ that is continuous, surjective and open.

Definition 2.37 (Quotient metric). Given a Fuchsian group Γ , we define a map $\bar{d} : \mathcal{H}/\Gamma \times \mathcal{H}/\Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ by $\bar{d}(px, py) = d(\Gamma x, \Gamma y)$. Then

- (i) $\bar{d}(px, py) = d(x, \Gamma y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathcal{H}$,
- (ii) \bar{d} is a metric on \mathcal{H}/Γ and induces the quotient topology.

Proof. (i) This comes from the fact that Γ acts by isometries. (ii) The only nontrivial fact is the separation property, which is a consequence of (i), together with the fact that Γy is closed in \mathcal{H} . \square

Proposition 2.38. *Let Γ be a Fuchsian group. For all $x \in \mathcal{H}$, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t., if $\gamma B(x, \varepsilon) \cap B(x, \varepsilon) \neq \emptyset$, then $\gamma \in \Gamma_x$.*

It follows that

$$p^{-1}(B(px, \varepsilon)) = \coprod_{\bar{\gamma} \in \Gamma/\Gamma_x} B(\gamma x, \varepsilon),$$

where $p : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}/\Gamma$ is the projection.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}d(x, \Gamma x \setminus \{x\}) > 0$. If $y \in \gamma B(x, \varepsilon) \cap B(x, \varepsilon)$, then $d(x, \gamma x) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, \gamma x) < 2\varepsilon$, so $\gamma \in \Gamma_x$ by definition of ε . \square

Proposition 2.39. *Let Γ be a Fuchsian group. Given $x \in \mathcal{H}$, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. the projection $p : B(x, \varepsilon) \rightarrow B(px, \varepsilon)$ induces an isometry*

$$\bar{p} : B(x, \varepsilon) / \Gamma_x \xrightarrow{\cong} B(px, \varepsilon).$$

Proof. Take $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}d(x, \Gamma x \setminus \{x\}) > 0$. Given $y, z \in B(x, \varepsilon)$, we have $\bar{d}(py, pz) = d(y, \Gamma z)$. If $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and $d(y, \gamma z) < d(y, z) < 2\varepsilon$, then we show that $d(x, \gamma x) < 4\varepsilon$, so $\gamma \in \Gamma_x$. It follows that $d(y, \Gamma z) = d(y, \Gamma_x z)$, proving that \bar{p} is an isometry. \square

Corollary 2.40. *If a Fuchsian group Γ acts freely on \mathcal{H} , then the projection $p : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}/\Gamma$ is a covering map and a local isometry. The quotient \mathcal{H}/Γ is a **hyperbolic surface** (i.e. a metric space that is locally isometric to \mathcal{H}); p is its universal cover and Γ is its fundamental group.*

Conversely, if S is a complete oriented hyperbolic surface, then its universal cover \tilde{S} is isometric to \mathcal{H} , and the action $\pi_1 S \curvearrowright \tilde{S}$ by isometries induces an embedding $\pi_1 S \hookrightarrow \text{Isom}(\mathcal{H})$, whose image is a Fuchsian group s.t. $S \cong \mathcal{H}/\pi_1 S$

Proposition 2.41. *If D is a locally finite convex fundamental domain for a Fuchsian group Γ , then*

$$\mathcal{H}/\Gamma \cong \bar{D}/\Gamma.$$

Remark 2.42. *Proposition 2.41 need not hold if D is not locally finite. For instance, consider $\gamma : z \in \mathbb{C}^* \mapsto 2z \in \mathbb{C}^*$. Then the annulus $\{z \in \mathbb{C}^*, 1 \leq |z| \leq 2\}$ is a locally finite fundamental domain for the action $\langle \gamma \rangle \curvearrowright \mathbb{C}^*$, from which we see that $\mathbb{C}^*/\langle \gamma \rangle$ is, topologically, a torus. However, if we consider*

$$D' = \{z \in \mathbb{C}^*, 1 \leq |z| \leq 2 \text{ and } (\Re(z) \leq 0 \text{ or } \Im(z) \leq 0)\} \cup \{x + iy, x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \text{ and } e^{-x} \leq y \leq 2e^{-x}\},$$

then D' is a non-locally finite fundamental domain for $\langle \gamma \rangle \curvearrowright \mathbb{C}^$, but $\bar{D}'/\langle \gamma \rangle$ is a cylinder that is infinite on one side, so it is not homeomorphic to $\mathbb{C}^*/\langle \gamma \rangle$.*

Definition 2.43 (Hyperbolic cone). *Given $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$, the **hyperbolic cone** $C(\theta, r)$ of angle θ and radius r is defined by glueing the edges of a hyperbolic disk sector S of radius r and angle θ .*

For instance, if $r_{2\pi/q}$ is the rotation around 0 of angle $\frac{2\pi}{q}$ in the Poincaré disk, then

$$B(0, \varepsilon) / \langle r_{2\pi/q} \rangle \cong C\left(\frac{2\pi}{q}, \varepsilon\right).$$

Proposition 2.44. *If Γ is a Fuchsian group, then \mathcal{H}/Γ is a hyperbolic surface with conical singularities at points $v \in \mathcal{H}/\Gamma$ of angle $\frac{2\pi}{q_v}$, with $q_v \geq 1$. Moreover, the conical singularities of \mathcal{H}/Γ correspond to the vertex cycles with angle sum less than 2π in the fundamental domain.*

2.9 Glueing constructions

Definition 2.45 (Glueing constructions). Let $(P_j)_{j \in J}$ be a finite collection of finitely-sided convex hyperbolic polygons. Assume we have a **glueing data** ϕ , i.e. an involution $\sigma : S \rightarrow S$, with $S \subseteq \bigcup_{j \in J} \text{Sides}(P_j)$, and orientation-reversing isometries $\gamma'_s : s \rightarrow \sigma(s)$ (note that this γ'_s corresponds to γ_s^{-1} with the convention used for Poincaré's Theorem). Let \sim_ϕ be the equivalence relation on $X = \bigsqcup_{j \in J} \bar{P}_j$ generated by $x \sim_\phi \gamma'_s(x)$ for $x \in s$, $s \in S$.

Then the surface obtained by glueing the $(P_j)_{j \in J}$ along ϕ is $\bar{X} = X / \sim_\phi$, endowed with the quotient topology. The surface \bar{X} can be equipped with a metric \bar{d} defined as follows: a **chain** $w : x \rightsquigarrow y$ is a sequence $x = x_0, y_0, x_1, y_1, \dots, x_n, y_n = y$ of points in X s.t. $y_k \sim_\phi x_{k+1}$; its length is

$$\ell(w) = \sum_{k=0}^n d(x_k, y_k),$$

and we set $\bar{d}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = \inf_{w: x \rightsquigarrow y} \ell(w)$. Then \bar{d} defines a metric on \bar{X} .

Proof. See [3] for the fact that \bar{d} is a metric. □

Proposition 2.46. Let \bar{X} be a surface obtained by a glueing construction as in Definition 2.45. Then \bar{X} is a hyperbolic surface with conical singularities of angles given by the angle sums of vertex cycles (note that those sums may be more than 2π).

2.10 Hyperbolic genus 2 surfaces

Definition 2.47 (Pair of pants). A **pair of pants** is the topological surface with boundary obtained by removing three disjoint open disks from a sphere.

Lemma 2.48. Given $(\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3) \in (\mathbb{R}_{>0})^3$, there exists a unique (up to isometry) hyperbolic right-angled hexagon with side lengths $\ell_1, k_1, \ell_2, k_2, \ell_3, k_3$, in that order, for some $(k_1, k_2, k_3) \in (\mathbb{R}_{>0})^3$.

Proof. Start with a segment $[x, y]$ of length ℓ_1 . Let α (resp. η) be the geodesic orthogonal to $[x, y]$ at x (resp. y), oriented s.t. $[x, y]$ lies to the right (resp. left). Let z_t be the point on η at distance t from y ; let β_t be the geodesic orthogonal to η at z_t . Let w_t be the point on β_t at distance ℓ_2 from z_t ; let γ_t be the geodesic orthogonal to β_t at w_t . It suffices to show that there is a unique value of t for which $d_t = d(\alpha, \gamma_t) = \ell_3$. First note that there exists $t_0 > 0$ (chosen minimal) s.t. α and γ_t do not intersect in \bar{H} for $t > t_0$. Then show that $\lim_{t_0} d_t = 0$, $\lim_{\infty} d_t = \infty$, and d_t increases with t . The result follows. □

Proposition 2.49. Given $(\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3) \in (\mathbb{R}_{>0})^3$, there exists a unique (up to isometry) hyperbolic pair of pants whose boundary components have respective lengths ℓ_1, ℓ_2, ℓ_3 .

Proof. Take two hyperbolic right-angled hexagons with side lengths $\frac{1}{2}\ell_1, k_1, \frac{1}{2}\ell_2, k_2, \frac{1}{2}\ell_3, k_3$ and glue them along the sides of lengths k_1, k_2, k_3 . □

Corollary 2.50. Given $(\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3) \in (\mathbb{R}_{>0})^3$ and $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3) \in (\mathbb{R}/2\pi\mathbb{Z})^3$, there is a unique (up to isometry) genus 2 surface with handlebodies of diameter ℓ_1, ℓ_3 and central curve of diameter ℓ_2 , and with twists $\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3$.

Proof. Glue two hyperbolic pairs of pants, one with boundary components of lengths ℓ_1, ℓ_1, ℓ_2 , and the other with boundary components of lengths ℓ_3, ℓ_3, ℓ_2 . The glueing isometries between the boundary components are determined by the twist parameters. □

Definition 2.51 (Teichmüller space). The **Teichmüller space** $\mathcal{T}(S)$ of a surface S is the set of all discrete embeddings $\pi_1(S) \hookrightarrow PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ up to conjugacy.

Example 2.52. If S is the genus 2 surface, then $\mathcal{T}(S)$ has dimension 6, with parameters ℓ_i, θ_i as in Corollary 2.50. Those parameters are called **Fenchel-Nielsen parameters**.

2.11 Poincaré's Theorem for noncompact polygons

Theorem 2.53 (Poincaré). *Let $P \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ be a finitely-sided polygon. We consider a fixed-point free involution $\sigma : S \rightarrow S$ together with elements $\gamma_s \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\gamma_s^{-1}s = \sigma(s)$, and γ_s reverses the orientation of s (with sides oriented s.t. P lies to the left).*

We suppose:

(VCC) *Vertex cycle condition: the angle sum of each ordinary vertex cycle is of the form $\frac{2\pi}{q}$ for some $q \geq 1$.*

(PCC) *Parabolic cycle condition: if $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n = v_0$ is a cycle of ideal vertices, then the corresponding return map $\gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_n$ is parabolic.*

Then, if $\Gamma = \langle \gamma_s, s \in S \rangle \leq PSL_2\mathbb{R}$, we have:

- (i) *P is a fundamental domain for Γ ,*
- (ii) *Γ is discrete,*
- (iii) *Γ has the presentation $\langle \gamma_s, s \in S \mid R \rangle$, where R is the set of ordinary vertex cycle relations, together with the relations $\gamma_{\sigma(s)} = \gamma_s^{-1}$ for $s \in S$.*

Remark 2.54. *In Poincaré's Theorem for noncompact polygons, condition (PCC) is necessary. Indeed, let P be a locally finite fundamental domain for Γ . Take a cycle $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n = v_0$ of ideal vertices of P . We may assume for instance that $v_0 = \infty$ in the upper half-plane model. This gives a gallery $P = P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n$ of adjacent polygons, with $P_k = \gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_k P$. The associated first return map is $\gamma_{v_0} = \gamma_1 \cdots \gamma_n$; it fixes ∞ . Therefore, if γ_{v_0} is not parabolic, then it is hyperbolic, with axis (ω, ∞) for some $\omega \in \partial\mathcal{H} \setminus \{\infty\}$. In this case, copies of P will accumulate near the geodesic (ω, ∞) , contradicting the local finiteness of P .*

3 The hyperbolic n -space

3.1 The hyperboloid model

Definition 3.1 ($\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$). *Equip \mathbb{R}^{n+1} with the **standard Lorentzian form**:*

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n - x_{n+1} y_{n+1}.$$

The matrix of $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ in the canonical basis is

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} I_n & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We denote by $\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$ the vector space \mathbb{R}^{n+1} together with $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$.

Definition 3.2 (Hyperboloid model). *The **hyperboloid model** of the hyperbolic n -space is*

$$\mathbb{H}^n = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}, \langle x, x \rangle = -1 \text{ and } x_{n+1} > 0 \right\}.$$

Remark 3.3. *The quadratic form $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ divides $\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$ into three cones:*

- *Elements of $V^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}, \langle x, x \rangle > 0\}$ are called **space-like**.*
- *Elements of $V^- = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}, \langle x, x \rangle < 0\}$ are called **time-like**.*
- *Elements of $V^0 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}, \langle x, x \rangle = 0\}$ are called **light-like**.*

Proposition 3.4. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}$ be two non-space elements (i.e. x, y are time-like or light-like) with $x_{n+1}, y_{n+1} > 0$. Then $\langle x, y \rangle \leq 0$ with equality iff x, y are colinear light-like vectors.

Proof. Note that, if (\cdot, \cdot) is the Euclidean inner product on \mathbb{R}^{n+1} , then for any two vectors $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}$, we have

$$\langle u, v \rangle = (u, v) - 2u_{n+1}v_{n+1}.$$

In particular, the assumption that x, y are non-space means that $(x, x) \leq 2x_{n+1}^2$ and $(y, y) \leq 2y_{n+1}^2$. Hence, using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$\langle x, y \rangle = (x, y) - 2x_{n+1}y_{n+1} \leq \sqrt{(x, x)}\sqrt{(y, y)} - 2x_{n+1}y_{n+1} \leq \sqrt{2x_{n+1}^2}\sqrt{2y_{n+1}^2} - 2x_{n+1}y_{n+1} = 0. \quad \square$$

Proposition 3.5 (Coordinates in \mathbb{H}^n). Let $x \in \mathbb{H}^n \setminus \{e_{n+1}\}$. Then there is a unique $(\ell, u) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ s.t.

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} (\sinh \ell) u \\ \cosh \ell \end{bmatrix}.$$

Proof. Write $x = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ x_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$ with $X \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Because $x \in \mathbb{H}$, we have $\|X\|^2 - x_{n+1}^2 = -1$, so there exists $\ell > 0$ s.t. $\|X\| = \sinh \ell$ and $x_{n+1} = \cosh \ell$. Then set $u = \frac{X}{\|X\|}$. \square

Proposition 3.6. Let $x \in \mathbb{H}$.

- (i) The tangent space of \mathbb{H}^n at x is given by $T_x\mathbb{H}^n = \text{Ker} \langle x, \cdot \rangle$.
- (ii) The restriction of $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ to $T_x\mathbb{H}^n$ is positive definite.

Hence, we can endow \mathbb{H}^n with a Riemannian metric given by the restriction of $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ to tangent spaces.

3.2 Isometries of \mathbb{H}^n

Definition 3.7 ($O(n, 1)$). We denote by $O(n, 1)$ the group of linear transformations preserving $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. Equivalently,

$$O(n, 1) = \left\{ A \in GL_{n+1}\mathbb{R}, {}^tAJA = J \right\}.$$

In particular, if $A \in O(n, 1)$, then $\det A \in \{\pm 1\}$.

We also define:

- $SO(n, 1) = \{A \in O(n, 1), \det A = 1\}$,
- $O^+(n, 1) = \{A \in O(n, 1), A(\mathbb{H}^n) = \mathbb{H}^n\}$,
- $SO^+(n, 1) = O^+(n, 1) \cap SO(n, 1)$.

Note that $O^+(n, 1)$ acts on \mathbb{H}^n by Riemannian isometries.

Theorem 3.8. $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n) = O^+(n, 1)$ and $\text{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}^n) = SO^+(n, 1)$.

Proof. See [2]. \square

Proposition 3.9. (i) \mathbb{H}^n is **homogeneous**, i.e. $O^+(n, 1)$ (and also $SO^+(n, 1)$) acts on \mathbb{H}^n transitively.

(ii) For $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$, $\text{Stab}(x) \cong O(n)$.

(iii) \mathbb{H}^n is **isotropic**, i.e. for all $x, y \in \mathbb{H}^n$ and for all $u \in T_x\mathbb{H}^n$ and $v \in T_y\mathbb{H}^n$ s.t. $\langle u, u \rangle = \langle v, v \rangle$, there exists $g \in O^+(n, 1)$ s.t. $gx = y$ and $dg_x u = v$.

- (iv) \mathbb{H}^n is a **Riemannian symmetric space**, i.e. for all $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$, there exists $\iota_x \in O^+(n, 1)$ s.t. $\iota_x(x) = x$ and $(d\iota_x)_x = -\text{id}_{T_x\mathbb{H}^n}$.

Proof. (ii) By homogeneity of \mathbb{H}^n , the stabilisers of different points are conjugate, so it suffices to prove the result for $x = e_{n+1}$. But note that

$$\text{Stab}(e_{n+1}) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} A' & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, A' \in O(n) \right\}.$$

- (iii) Using (i) and (ii), this amounts to proving that $O(n)$ acts transitively on the unit sphere of $T_{e_{n+1}}\mathbb{H}^n$.

- (iv) Using homogeneity, we may assume that $x = e_{n+1}$. Then it suffices to take

$$\iota_{e_{n+1}} = \begin{bmatrix} -I_n & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad \square$$

Remark 3.10. Since $SO^+(n, 1)$ acts transitively on \mathbb{H}^n with point stabilisers isomorphic to $SO(n)$, it follows that

$$\mathbb{H}^n \cong SO^+(n, 1)/SO(n).$$

This is a bijection, but also a homeomorphism. Likewise, we have seen (in Proposition 1.42) that the upper half-plane is homeomorphic to $PSL_2\mathbb{R}/PSO_2\mathbb{R}$.

These are special cases of the following: if G is a Lie group and K is a maximal compact subgroup of G , then G/K is a Riemannian symmetric space, called the **symmetric space** of G . Moreover, $G = \text{Isom}^+(G/K)$.

3.3 Geodesics and totally geodesic subspaces

Definition 3.11 (Hyperbolic linear subspace). A $(k+1)$ -dimensional linear subspace $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n,1}$ is called **hyperbolic** (resp. **elliptic**) if the restriction of $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ to V has signature $(k, 1)$ (resp. $(k+1, 0)$).

Theorem 3.12. The geodesics of \mathbb{H}^n are the intersections $\mathbb{H}^n \cap V$, where V is a hyperbolic 2-plane.

Proposition 3.13. (i) For all $x \neq y \in \mathbb{H}^n$, there is a unique geodesic through x and y , namely $\mathbb{H}^n \cap \text{Span}(x, y)$.

- (ii) For all $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$ and $u \in T_x\mathbb{H}^n$ with $\langle u, u \rangle = 1$, the geodesic starting at x and directed by u is given by

$$\gamma(t) = (\cosh t)x + (\sinh t)u.$$

Proof. (i) The 2-plane $V = \text{Span}(x, y)$ is hyperbolic since $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ has signature $(n, 1)$ and V contains at least one vector of negative type, so $\mathbb{H}^n \cap V$ is a geodesic by Theorem 3.12. Uniqueness is clear.

- (ii) Let $\gamma(t) = (\cosh t)x + (\sinh t)y$. Then $\langle \gamma(t), \gamma(t) \rangle = -1$ and $\langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t) \rangle = 1$, so γ is a parametrisation of $\mathbb{H}^n \cap \text{Span}(x, y)$ by arc length. \square

Corollary 3.14. Let $x \neq y \in \mathbb{H}^n$.

- (i) $\langle x, y \rangle < -1$,
(ii) $\cosh(d(x, y)) = -\langle x, y \rangle$.

Proof. (i) The restriction of $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ to $V = \text{Span}(x, y)$ has matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x, x \rangle & \langle x, y \rangle \\ \langle x, y \rangle & \langle y, y \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \langle x, y \rangle \\ \langle x, y \rangle & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

But V is hyperbolic, so $0 > \det M = 1 - \langle x, y \rangle^2$. It follows that $\langle x, y \rangle^2 > 1$, so $\langle x, y \rangle < -1$ by Proposition 3.4.

(ii) Using Proposition 3.13, we may write

$$y = (\cosh \ell) x + (\sinh \ell) u$$

with $\ell = d(x, y)$, for some $u \in T_x \mathbb{H}^n$. It follows that $\langle x, y \rangle = -\cosh \ell$. \square

Remark 3.15. *To complete the above arguments, one should prove that geodesics are distance-minimising. One way to do this is to define the distance d on \mathbb{H}^n via the formula $\cosh(d(x, y)) = -\langle x, y \rangle$ and to prove that the geodesics of (\mathbb{H}^n, d) coincide with the Riemannian geodesics. For more details, see [12, 3.2].*

Definition 3.16 (Totally geodesic subspace). *Let $N \subseteq \mathbb{H}^n$ be a submanifold. We say that N is **totally geodesic** if it satisfies the following condition:*

(i) *For any geodesic $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^n$ s.t. $\gamma(0) \in N$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0) \in T_{\gamma(0)}N$, then $\gamma(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq N$.*

*Since \mathbb{H}^n is **uniquely geodesic** (i.e. any two points are joined by a unique geodesic segment), this is equivalent to:*

(ii) *For all $x, y \in N$, the unique complete geodesic through x and y is contained in N .*

Proposition 3.17. *The totally geodesic subspaces of \mathbb{H}^n are the sets $\mathbb{H}^n \cap W$, where W is a hyperbolic linear subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n,1}$.*

In particular, all totally geodesic subspaces of \mathbb{H}^n are isometrically embedded copies of \mathbb{H}^k for some $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Example 3.18. *If $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$ and $u, v \in T_x \mathbb{H}^n$, then $\text{Span}_{\mathbb{R}}(x, u, v) \cap \mathbb{H}^n$ is an embedded copy of \mathbb{H}^2 containing x and tangent to u, v .*

Proposition 3.19. *$\text{Isom}^+(\mathbb{H}^n)$ acts transitively on the set of k -dimensional totally geodesic subspaces of \mathbb{H}^n .*

3.4 Boundary at infinity

Remark 3.20. *Consider a geodesic $\gamma(t) = x(\cosh t) + u(\sinh t)$ in \mathbb{H}^n . We may rewrite the expression of γ as*

$$\gamma(t) = e^t(x + u) + \underbrace{e^{-t}(x - u)}_{\rightarrow 0}.$$

*Therefore, we would like to view $x + u$ as the point of $\partial \mathbb{H}^n$ that is the limit of γ at infinity. We say that $x + u$ is the **point at infinity** of γ .*

Definition 3.21 (Boundary at infinity of \mathbb{H}^n). *We denote by S the set of geodesic rays $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^n$ parametrised by arc-length. Two geodesic rays $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in S$ are said to be equivalent (which we denote $\gamma_1 \sim \gamma_2$) if one of the following two equivalent conditions is satisfied:*

(i) γ_1, γ_2 have the same point at infinity, i.e. $\gamma_1(0) + \dot{\gamma}_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) + \dot{\gamma}_2(0)$.

(ii) $\sup_{t \geq 0} d(\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t)) < +\infty$.

Hence, \sim is an equivalence relation on S , and the **boundary at infinity** of \mathbb{H}^n , denoted by $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$, is the set S/\sim .

Remark 3.22. (i) Definition 3.21 is a good definition because it works for negatively curved manifolds and Gromov-hyperbolic spaces.

(ii) Fix $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$. Given a unitary tangent vector $u \in UT_x\mathbb{H}^n$, set $\gamma_u(t) = x(\cos t) + u(\sinh t)$. Then $u \mapsto \gamma_u$ gives an identification between the boundary at infinity (seen from x) and the unit sphere in $T_x\mathbb{H}^n$. Therefore, $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$ is a $(n-1)$ -sphere.

3.5 Projective models and conformal models

Definition 3.23 (Projective models). Consider a quadratic form q of signature $(n, 1)$ on \mathbb{R}^{n+1} . Then q induces a partition of \mathbb{R}^{n+1} into three cones: V_q^+, V_q^0, V_q^- . The **projective model** of \mathbb{H}^n associated with q is the subset $\mathbb{P}(V_q^-) \subseteq \mathbb{P}^n\mathbb{R}$, equipped with the distance given by

$$\cosh^2(d([x], [y])) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle_q^2}{\langle x, x \rangle_q \langle y, y \rangle_q}.$$

This is well-defined because the above formula is invariant under $x \mapsto \lambda x$ and $y \mapsto \mu y$.

Remark 3.24. The classification of quadratic forms on \mathbb{R}^{n+1} says that two quadratic forms q_1, q_2 have the same signature if and only if there exists $A \in GL_{n+1}\mathbb{R}$ s.t. $q_2 = q_1 \circ A$. This implies that $AV_{q_2}^- = V_{q_1}^-$, and therefore, if $[A] \in PGL_{n+1}\mathbb{R}$ is the projective linear transformation associated to A ,

$$[A]\mathbb{P}(V_{q_2}^-) = \mathbb{P}(V_{q_1}^-).$$

Hence, if q_1, q_2 are two quadratic forms of signature $(n, 1)$, then their projective models are projectively equivalent.

Example 3.25. (i) Let $q_1(x) = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 - x_{n+1}^2$. In the affine chart $\{x_{n+1} = 1\}$, the set $\mathbb{P}(V_{q_1}^-)$ is the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n . This is the **Klein model**.

(ii) Let $q_2(x) = 2x_1x_{n+1} + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2$. In the affine chart $\{x_{n+1} = 1\}$, the set $\mathbb{P}(V_{q_2}^-)$ is the paraboloid $\{2v_1 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2 < 0\}$. This is the **paraboloid model** or **Siegel model**.

Definition 3.26 (Poincaré ball). Consider the central projection π onto $\mathbb{R}^n \times \{0\}$ centred at $-e_{n+1}$:

$$\pi : (x_1, \dots, x_{n+1}) \mapsto \frac{1}{1 + x_{n+1}}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0).$$

Then π induces a diffeomorphism $\mathbb{H}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{B}^n$, where \mathcal{B}^n is the unit ball of $\mathbb{R}^n \times \{0\}$.

The metric on \mathcal{B}^n is obtained by pushing forward the metric on \mathbb{H}^n :

$$ds^2 = \frac{4dx^2}{(1 - |x|^2)^2}.$$

Since this Riemannian metric on \mathcal{B}^n is a rescaling of the Euclidean metric, the Poincaré ball model is **conformal**, i.e. it preserves angles.

Definition 3.27 (Poincaré upper half-space). Consider the inversion ι with respect to the sphere centred at $-e_n$ and with radius $\sqrt{2}$ in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$\iota : x \mapsto 2\frac{x + e_n}{\|x + e_n\|^2} - e_n.$$

Then ι induces a diffeomorphism $\mathcal{B}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^n$, where $\mathcal{H}^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x_n > 0\}$.

The metric on \mathcal{H}^n is obtained by pushing forward the metric on \mathcal{B}^n :

$$ds^2 = \frac{dx^2}{x_n^2}.$$

The Poincaré upper half-space model is also conformal.

4 Hyperbolic manifolds

4.1 (X, G) -manifolds

Definition 4.1 ((X, G) -manifold). Let X be a connected and simply connected, oriented differentiable n -manifold and let G be a group of diffeomorphisms of X . An (X, G) -**manifold** is a differentiable manifold M equipped with an atlas $\{\varphi : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow X\}$ with transition maps that are restrictions of elements of G .

Namely, there is an open cover $(\mathcal{U}_i)_{i \in I}$ of M together with charts $(\varphi_i : \mathcal{U}_i \rightarrow X)_{i \in I}$ that are diffeomorphisms onto their image, and such that, if $\mathcal{U}_i \cap \mathcal{U}_j \neq \emptyset$, then $\varphi_i \circ \varphi_j^{-1}$ is the restriction of some element $g_{ij} \in G$.

The set $\{\varphi_i : \mathcal{U}_i \rightarrow X, i \in I\}$ is called an (X, G) -**atlas**. We say that M has an (X, G) -**structure**, or a **geometric structure in the sense of Ehresmann and Thurston**.

Example 4.2. Consider the topological torus \mathbb{T}^2 .

- (i) \mathbb{T}^2 can be constructed as the quotient of a rectangle with opposite sides identified. This is an (X, G) -structure, with $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ (seen as a Euclidean space) and $G = \mathbb{R}^2$ is the group of translations of \mathbb{R}^2 . This is a **Euclidean structure**.
- (ii) \mathbb{T}^2 can also be constructed as the quotient of any quadrilateral, glueing each side to the opposite side by the unique similarity between them. This is an (X, G) -structure, with $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ (seen as an affine space) and $G = \text{Aff}(X)$. This is an **affine structure**.

These two examples are very different: in the first case, we get a tessellation of \mathbb{R}^2 and a covering map $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{T}^2$, but not in the second case.

4.2 A drop of Riemannian geometry

Definition 4.3 (Riemannian manifold). A **Riemannian manifold** is the data of a differentiable manifold M together with a **metric tensor** g , i.e. a scalar product on each tangent space $T_x M$ that varies smoothly with x . For $v \in T_x M$, we write $|v|_x = \sqrt{g_x(v, v)}$

Definition 4.4 (Lengths of curves). A **curve** on a Riemannian manifold (M, g) is a differentiable map $\gamma : I \rightarrow M$; its **length** is

$$\ell(\gamma) = \int_I |\dot{\gamma}(t)|_{\gamma(t)} dt.$$

This is invariant under reparametrisation. The **Riemannian distance** between two points $p, q \in M$ is given by

$$d(p, q) = \inf_{\gamma: p \rightsquigarrow q} \ell(\gamma).$$

This is a distance on M inducing the topology of M .

Definition 4.5 (Geodesics). A **geodesic** is a curve $\gamma : I \rightarrow M$ having constant speed (i.e. $|\dot{\gamma}(t)|_{\gamma(t)} = k$ for all t), and such that γ locally realises the distance, i.e. for all $t \in I$, there exist $t_0 < t < t_1$ s.t. for all $s, s' \in [t_0, t_1]$,

$$d(\gamma(s), \gamma(s')) = \ell(\gamma|_{[s, s']}) = k |s - s'|.$$

Remark 4.6. We give Definition 4.5 to avoid introducing the technical language of tensors; however, in Riemannian geometry, a geodesic is normally defined as satisfying a certain differential equation (which says roughly that γ has no acceleration), which implies in turn that γ locally realises the distance.

Theorem 4.7. Let $p \in M$ and $u \in T_p M$. Then there exists a unique maximal geodesic $\gamma : I_u \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0) = u$. The interval I_u is the longest interval containing 0 on which such a geodesic can be defined.

Lemma 4.8. Let $p \in M$. Then there exists a neighbourhood N_p of p in M , positive real numbers $\varepsilon, \delta > 0$, and a smooth map $\gamma : D \rightarrow M$, where

$$D = \left\{ (t, q, v) \in (-\delta, \delta) \times N_p \times TM, v \in T_q M \text{ and } |v|_q < \varepsilon \right\},$$

and s.t. $\gamma(t, q, v)$ is the point of parameter t on the geodesic γ defined by $\gamma(0) = q$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0) = v$.

Definition 4.9 (Exponential map). Let $p \in M$. Consider $U_p = \{u \in T_p M, 1 \in I_u\}$. The **exponential map** at p is the smooth map

$$\exp_p : U_p \subseteq T_p M \longrightarrow M$$

defined by $\exp_p(u) = \gamma(1, p, u)$.

Example 4.10. (i) Let $\mathbb{R}_{\text{aff}}^n$ be the affine space \mathbb{R}^n together with the Euclidean metric. Then for all $A \in \mathbb{R}_{\text{aff}}^n$ and $\vec{u} \in T_A \mathbb{R}_{\text{aff}}^n = \mathbb{R}_{\text{eucl}}^n$, we have $\exp_A(\vec{u}) = A + \vec{u}$.

(ii) Consider the manifold \mathbb{R}_+^* together with the metric $\frac{dx}{x}$. Then $\exp_1(u) = e^u$.

(iii) Consider the Riemannian manifold \mathbb{H}^n . If $p = e_{n+1}$ in the hyperboloid model and $u \in T_p \mathbb{H}^n = p^\perp$, then $\gamma(t, p, u) = (\cosh t)p + (\sinh t)u$.

Proposition 4.11. If $p \in M$, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. $\exp_p : B(0, \varepsilon) \rightarrow M$ is a diffeomorphism onto its image.

Proof. Prove that

$$d(\exp_p)_0 = \text{id}_{T_p M},$$

and conclude using the Inverse Function Theorem. □

Definition 4.12 (Normal neighbourhoods and normal balls). Let $p \in M$.

- A **normal neighbourhood** of p in M is a neighbourhood of the form $\exp_p(V)$ s.t. $\exp_p : V \rightarrow M$ is a diffeomorphism onto its image.
- A **normal ball** at p is a ball $B_p(\varepsilon) = \exp_p(B(0, \varepsilon))$, where $\exp_p : B(0, \varepsilon) \rightarrow M$ is a diffeomorphism onto its image.

Remark 4.13. If B is a normal ball at p in M and $q \in B$, then there exists a unique geodesic $\sigma : [0, 1] \rightarrow B$ s.t. $\sigma(0) = p$ and $\sigma(1) = q$. Such a geodesic is called **radial**.

Proposition 4.14 (Local length minimisation). Let B be a normal ball at p in M . Let $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow B$ be a geodesic with $\gamma(0) = p$. Then for any curve c on M s.t. $\gamma(0) = c(0)$ and $\gamma(1) = c(1)$, we have

$$\ell(\gamma) \leq \ell(c),$$

with equality iff $\gamma([0, 1]) = c([0, 1])$.

Proof. See [5, 3.6]. □

Proposition 4.15 (Global length minimisation). If $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow M$ is a piecewise differentiable curve with parameter proportional to arc length and s.t. $\ell(\gamma) \leq \ell(c)$ for any curve c s.t. $\gamma(a) = c(a)$ and $\gamma(b) = c(b)$, then γ is a geodesic.

4.3 The Hopf-Rinow Theorem

Definition 4.16 (Geodesically complete). *A Riemannian manifold is called **geodesically complete** if all its geodesics are defined over \mathbb{R} .*

Example 4.17. (i) *The Riemannian manifolds $\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{H}^n, \mathbb{S}^n$ (with their usual Riemannian metrics) are geodesically complete.*

(ii) $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ (with the Euclidean Riemannian metric) is not geodesically complete.

(iii) *Consider an ideal square S in \mathbb{H}^2 with torus-like side-pairings given by two isometries $a, b \in PSL_2\mathbb{R}$. If the commutator $[a, b]$ is not parabolic, then it must be hyperbolic (one can check that it fixes one of the ideal vertices of S), so it has an axis α . It follows that, for all $\gamma \in \Gamma = \langle a, b \rangle$, the tiles γS remain on the same side of α . Hence ΓS tessellates a proper convex subset \mathcal{R} of \mathbb{H}^2 delimited by some geodesics; the quotient \mathcal{R}/Γ is a non-complete Riemannian manifold.*

Lemma 4.18. *Given $p \in M$, there exists an $\eta > 0$ and a neighbourhood V of p s.t. for all $q \in V$, $\exp_q : B(0, \eta) \subseteq T_q M \rightarrow M$ is a diffeomorphism onto its image. We say that V is a **totally normal neighbourhood** of p .*

Proof. See [5, 3.7]. □

Theorem 4.19 (Hopf-Rinow, 1931). *Let M be a Riemannian manifold and $p \in M$. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (i) \exp_p is defined on $T_p M$.
- (ii) Closed and bounded subsets of M are compact.
- (iii) M is Cauchy-complete.
- (iv) M is geodesically complete.

Moreover, conditions (i)-(iv) imply:

- (v) For all $q \in M$, there is a geodesic γ on M from p to q with $\ell(\gamma) = d(p, q)$.

Proof. (i) \Rightarrow (v) Let $q \in M$ and write $r = d(p, q)$. Consider a closed normal sphere $\partial B_p(\varepsilon)$; it is compact, and $d(\cdot, q)$ is continuous, so there exists $x_0 \in \partial B_p(\varepsilon)$ with

$$d(x_0, q) = \min_{x \in \partial B_p(\varepsilon)} d(x, q).$$

We can write $x_0 = \exp_p(\varepsilon v)$ with $v \in T_p M$ and $\|v\| = 1$. Consider the geodesic $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\dot{\gamma}(0) = v$. Our goal is to prove that $\gamma(r) = q$.

Consider the set

$$\mathcal{E} = \{t \in \mathbb{R}, d(\gamma(t), q) = r - t\}.$$

It is clear that $\mathcal{E} \ni 0$ and \mathcal{E} is closed; if we prove that \mathcal{E} is open, then it will follow by connectedness that $\mathcal{E} = \mathbb{R}$, and in particular $r \in \mathcal{E}$, so $\gamma(r) = q$.

Let $t_0 \in \mathcal{E}$. Let $\alpha > 0$ be small enough so that the ball $B_{\gamma(t_0)}(\alpha)$ is normal. We want to show that $t_0 + \alpha \in \mathcal{E}$. Let $x'_0 \in \partial B_{\gamma(t_0)}(\alpha)$ s.t.

$$d(x'_0, q) = \min_{x \in \partial B_{\gamma(t_0)}(\alpha)} d(x, q).$$

First note that

$$d(\gamma(t_0), q) \leq d(\gamma(t_0), x'_0) + d(x'_0, q) = \alpha + d(x'_0, q).$$

Moreover, given a curve $c : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$ from $\gamma(t_0)$ to q , if $t_1 = \min \{t \in [0, 1], c(t) \in \partial B_{\gamma(t_0)}(\alpha)\}$, then

$$\ell(c) = \ell(c|_{[0, t_1]}) + \ell(c|_{[t_1, 1]}) \geq \alpha + d(c(t_1), q) \geq \alpha + d(x'_0, q).$$

It follows that

$$r - t_0 = d(\gamma(t_0), q) = \alpha + d(x'_0, q),$$

and therefore $d(x'_0, q) = r - t_0 - \alpha$. Now we have

$$d(p, x'_0) \geq d(p, q) - d(x'_0, q) = r - (r - t_0 - \alpha) = t_0 + \alpha,$$

and the piecewise geodesic curve $c = [p, \gamma(t_0)] \cup [\gamma(t_0), x'_0]$ has length $t_0 + \alpha$, so $d(p, x'_0) = t_0 + \alpha$ and c is a geodesic by Proposition 4.15. By uniqueness, $c = \gamma$, so $\gamma(t_0 + \alpha) = x'_0$ and therefore $t_0 + \alpha \in \mathcal{E}$.

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) Let $E \subseteq M$ be closed and bounded. Then E is contained in a ball B of radius r for the Riemannian distance d . Any point in B is related to p by a geodesic realising the distance (by (v), which is implied by (i)), so that

$$\exp_p(B(0, r)) \supseteq B \supseteq E.$$

Hence E is compact as a closed subset of a compact set.

(ii) \Rightarrow (iii) OK.

(iii) \Rightarrow (iv) If M is not geodesically complete, then there is a geodesic γ which is defined on $[0, t_0)$ but not beyond. Now pick $t_n \rightarrow t_0$ with $0 \leq t_n < t_0$. The sequence $(\gamma(t_n))_{n \geq 1}$ is Cauchy; use Lemma 4.18 to prove that this sequence does not converge. Therefore, M is not Cauchy complete.

(iv) \Rightarrow (i) OK. □

4.4 Complete hyperbolic manifolds

Remark 4.20. A hyperbolic manifold in the sense of Thurston is in particular a Riemannian manifold that is locally isometric to \mathbb{H}^n .

Definition 4.21 (Local isometry). A map $\varphi : M \rightarrow N$ between Riemannian manifolds is called a **local isometry** if every point $x \in M$ has a neighbourhood $U_x \subseteq M$ s.t. $\varphi|_{U_x} : U_x \rightarrow \varphi(U_x)$ is an isometry.

Lemma 4.22. Let M, N be two connected Riemannian n -manifolds. Let $\phi_1, \phi_2 : M \rightarrow N$ be two local isometries s.t. there is a point $p \in M$ with

$$\phi_1(p) = \phi_2(p) \quad \text{and} \quad (d\phi_1)_p = (d\phi_2)_p.$$

Then $\phi_1 = \phi_2$.

Proof. Consider

$$E = \{p \in M, \phi_1(p) = \phi_2(p) \text{ and } (d\phi_1)_p = (d\phi_2)_p\}.$$

Then E is nonempty and closed. Let us prove that E is open; by connectedness, this will imply that $E = M$. Let $m \in E$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. the ball $B_\varepsilon(m) \subseteq M$ is normal. Then

$$\exp_m : B(0, \varepsilon) \subseteq T_m M \longrightarrow B_\varepsilon(m) \subseteq M$$

is a diffeomorphism. Now note that, since ϕ_1, ϕ_2 are local isometries, they map geodesics to geodesics. Hence, since $\phi_1(m) = \phi_2(m)$ and $(d\phi_1)_m = (d\phi_2)_m$, the image of $t \mapsto \exp_m(tu)$ is the same under ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 , namely it is the geodesic starting at $\phi_1(m)$ and with initial tangent vector $(d\phi_1)_m \cdot u$. Hence, if $q \in B_\varepsilon(m)$, then $q = \exp_m(u)$ for some $u \in B(0, \varepsilon) \subseteq T_m M$ and therefore $\phi_1(q) = \phi_2(q)$. This proves that $(\phi_1)|_{B_\varepsilon(m)} = (\phi_2)|_{B_\varepsilon(m)}$, so $B_\varepsilon(m) \subseteq E$ (using the fact that $B_\varepsilon(m)$ is open). Therefore, E is open, and hence $E = M$. □

Notation 4.23. From now on, we consider a Riemannian manifold X together with a group $G \leq \text{Isom}(X)$. In this case, any (X, G) -manifold is also a Riemannian manifold and its (X, G) -atlas is composed of isometries.

Lemma 4.24 (Lebesgue's Number Lemma). *Given a compact metric space (X, d) together with an open covering, there exists some $\delta > 0$ s.t. every subset $A \subseteq X$ with $\text{diam}(A) < \delta$ is contained in one of the open subsets covering X .*

Proposition 4.25. *Let M be a connected and simply connected (X, G) -manifold. Consider an isometric embedding $\phi : U_0 \subseteq M \rightarrow X$, where U_0 is open in M . Then ϕ extends uniquely to a local isometry $D : M \rightarrow X$ with $D|_{U_0} = \phi$. We say that D is a **developing map**.*

Proof. Uniqueness is a consequence of Lemma 4.22. To construct D , fix $p_0 \in U_0$ and choose $p \in M$ together with a curve $c : p_0 \rightsquigarrow p$ defined on $[0, 1]$. Since $\mathcal{C} = c([0, 1])$ is compact, we can cover it by a finite number of (X, G) -open charts $(\phi_k : U_k \rightarrow X)_{1 \leq k \leq m}$. We may assume that

- $c^{-1}(U_k)$ is an interval denoted by I_k ,
- I_k only intersects I_{k-1} and I_{k+1} ,
- $U_k \cap U_\ell$ is connected if nonempty.

For all k , there is some $g_k \in G$ s.t. $\phi_k \circ \phi_{k-1}^{-1} = g_k$. Now define D by “following the curve”:

$$D|_{U_k \cap \mathcal{C}} = g_1^{-1} \circ g_2^{-1} \circ \cdots \circ g_k^{-1} \circ (\phi_k)|_{c(I_k)}.$$

Check that this works on the intersections, i.e. D is well-defined on $U_k \cap U_{k-1}$.

We need to prove that (i) $D(p)$ is independent of the choice of the covering of c , and (ii) $D(p)$ is independent of the choice of the path c . It will then be clear that $D : M \rightarrow X$ is a local isometry.

(i) We prove that $D(p)$ does not change when U_1 is replaced by some U'_1 . Indeed, we have

$$D|_{U_1 \cap U'_1 \cap \mathcal{C}} = g_1^{-1} \circ \phi_1 \quad \text{and} \quad D'|_{U_1 \cap U'_1 \cap \mathcal{C}} = g'_1{}^{-1} \circ \phi'_1.$$

But on $U_0 \cap U_1 \cap U'_1$, we have

$$\phi_1 \circ \phi'_1{}^{-1} = (\phi_1 \circ \phi_0^{-1}) \circ (\phi_0 \circ \phi'_1{}^{-1}) = g_1 \circ g'_1{}^{-1};$$

it follows (using Lemma 4.22) that $D|_{U_1 \cap U'_1 \cap \mathcal{C}} = D'|_{U_1 \cap U'_1 \cap \mathcal{C}}$. Similarly, one can change all the open sets U_k .

(ii) Let c_0, c_1 be two choices of paths from p_0 to p . Assume first that $c_0 = c_1$ except on one of the U_k s, and define D_0, D_1 using c_0, c_1 respectively. In that situation, the transition maps used to define D_0, D_1 are the same along c_0 and c_1 , which implies that $D_0(p) = D_1(p)$. In the general case, recall that M is simply connected, so there is a homotopy c_\bullet from c_0 to c_1 . Using Lemma 4.24, there is a subdivision $[0, 1]^2 = \bigcup_{i,j} [t_i, t_{i+1}] \times [s_j, s_{j+1}]$ s.t. each rectangle is contained in some U_k . Now moving along rectangles in this grid, and using the first case, we see that $D_0(p) = D_1(p)$. \square

Remark 4.26. *If X is not Riemannian, then Proposition 4.25 can remain true with the same proof if we assume for instance that G acts analytically on X (and any $g \in G$ is determined by its restriction to any open subset of X).*

Corollary 4.27. *If M is a connected and simply connected (X, G) -manifold, and D, D' are two developing maps, then there exists $g \in G$ s.t. $D' = g \circ D$.*

Proof. Assume that D (resp. D') is a developing map on $U_0 \ni p$ (resp. on $U'_0 \ni p'$) and pick a path $c : p \rightsquigarrow p'$. Take a finite covering of c by (X, G) -charts; if g_1, \dots, g_n are the transition maps, then check that $g_1^{-1} \cdots g_n^{-1} D'$ is a developing map on U'_0 which coincides with D on U_0 , so $D = g_1^{-1} \cdots g_n^{-1} D'$. \square

Theorem 4.28 (Ambrose). *Let $\phi : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ be a local isometry between two Riemannian manifolds with M_1 complete. Then M_2 is complete and ϕ is a covering map.*

Theorem 4.29. *Every complete, connected and simply connected hyperbolic manifold is isometric to \mathbb{H}^n .*

Proof. A hyperbolic manifold is a (X, G) -manifold with $X = \mathbb{H}^n$ and $G = \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$. Hence, given M a complete, connected and simply connected hyperbolic manifold, applying Proposition 4.25 to a chart of M yields a developing map $D : M \rightarrow X$. In particular, D is a local isometry, so Ambrose's Theorem (Theorem 4.28) implies that D is a covering. But M, X are both simply connected, so D must be bijective. Hence, D is a bijective local isometry. This implies that D preserves the length of curves, and so D is 1-Lipschitz. The same is true for D^{-1} , so D is an isometry. \square

Definition 4.30 (Free and properly discontinuous actions). *An action $G \curvearrowright X$ by homeomorphisms is said to be*

- **Free** if $gx \neq x$ for all $x \in X$ and $g \in G \setminus \{e\}$,
- **Properly discontinuous** if every $x \in X$ has a neighbourhood U_x s.t. $gU_x \cap U_x \neq \emptyset$ for all $g \in G \setminus \{e\}$.

Theorem 4.31. *If M is a complete connected hyperbolic (resp. flat, spherical) manifold, then there exists a discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ (resp. $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{E}^n)$, $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{S}^n)$) such that there is an isometry*

$$\Gamma \cong \mathbb{H}^n / \Gamma$$

(resp. \mathbb{E}^n / Γ , \mathbb{S}^n / Γ).

Proof. The universal cover \widetilde{M} of M is simply connected, so Theorem 4.29 implies that $\widetilde{M} \cong \mathbb{H}^n$. Now $\pi_1 M$ acts properly discontinuously by isometries on \widetilde{M} , so it is isomorphic to a discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$, in such a way that

$$M \cong \widetilde{M} / \pi_1 M \cong \mathbb{H}^n / \Gamma. \quad \square$$

5 Discrete groups of hyperbolic isometries

Theorem 5.1. *Let M be a Riemannian manifold. Then a subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(M)$ is discrete iff it acts properly discontinuously on M .*

Proof. The Myers-Steenrod Theorem implies that $\text{Isom}(M)$ is a Lie group (note that if $M = \mathbb{H}^n$, then $\text{Isom}(M)$ is a Lie group because it is isomorphic to $O^+(n, 1)$ by Theorem 3.8). This allows one to do the same proof as for Theorem 2.15. \square

5.1 Classification of hyperbolic isometries

Proposition 5.2 (Classification of isometries). *If $f \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$, then exactly one of the following holds:*

- (i) f has exactly two fixed points in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$ and none in \mathbb{H}^n . We then say that f is **hyperbolic**.
- (ii) f has exactly one fixed point in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$ and none in \mathbb{H}^n . We then say that f is **parabolic**.

(iii) f has at least one fixed point in \mathbb{H}^n . We then say that f is **elliptic**.

Remark 5.3. In a projective model for \mathbb{H}^n , types of isometries correspond to different possible Jordan forms for elements of $SO^+(n, 1)$.

Lemma 5.4 (Normalised forms for isometries). Any element of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is conjugate to one of the following:

(i) A hyperbolic isometry fixing 0 and ∞ in the upper half-space $\mathcal{H}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, given by

$$(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{>0} \mapsto (\lambda Ax, \lambda t),$$

with $A \in O(n-1)$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \setminus \{1\}$.

If $A = I$, we say that f is **pure hyperbolic** (or a **translation**); otherwise, we say that f is **loxodromic**.

(ii) A parabolic isometry fixing ∞ in the upper half-space $\mathcal{H}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, given by

$$(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \times \mathbb{R}_{>0} \mapsto (Ax + b, t),$$

with $A \in O(n-1)$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \setminus \{0\}$.

(iii) An elliptic isometry fixing 0 in the Poincaré ball \mathcal{B}^n , given by

$$x \in \mathcal{B}^n \mapsto Ax,$$

with $A \in O(n)$.

Remark 5.5. If $a, b \in \mathbb{H}^n$, then there exists a unique translation $\tau_{a,b} \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ s.t. $\tau_{a,b}(a) = b$.

Hence, we get a homeomorphism $O(n) \times \mathbb{H}^n \xrightarrow{\cong} \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ given by $(A, a) \mapsto \tau_{0,a} \circ A$.

Remark 5.6 (Stable subsets for isometries). Let $f \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$.

(i) If f is hyperbolic with axis \mathcal{A} , then f preserves \mathcal{A} as well as all equidistant hypersurfaces $\{d(x, \mathcal{A}) = k\}$ for $k \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$.

(ii) If f is parabolic with fixed point $p \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$, then f preserves all horospheres centred at p .

(iii) If f is elliptic with fixed-point set F , then f preserves all spheres with centre in F .

5.2 Examples of hyperbolic manifolds: tubes and cusps

Remark 5.7. If $f \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is hyperbolic, then the group $\langle f \rangle \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is discrete.

Definition 5.8 (Tube). A **tube** is a quotient $\mathbb{H}^n / \langle f \rangle$, where $f \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is hyperbolic.

Remark 5.9. The restriction of the hyperbolic metric to any horosphere is Euclidean, and parabolic maps act on them as Euclidean isometries. Thus, any discrete subgroup of $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ can be realised as a discrete subgroup of some parabolic stabiliser of $p \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$.

Note however that horospheres are not totally geodesic.

Definition 5.10 (Cusp). A **cusp** is a quotient \mathbb{H}^n / Γ , where Γ is a discrete subgroup of some parabolic stabiliser $\text{Stab}(p)$ with $p \in \partial\mathbb{H}^n$.

Cusps look like $M \times \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, where M is a Euclidean manifold.

Example 5.11. In dimension 3, in the upper half-space \mathcal{H}^3 , if $\Gamma \leq \text{Stab}(\infty)$ is discrete and torsion-free, then Γ is generated by one or two parabolic isometries. We say that the cusp \mathcal{H}^3 / Γ is of rank 1 (resp. 2).

5.3 Nilpotent groups and commutators

Notation 5.12. Given two elements g, h in a group G , we denote $[g, h] = ghg^{-1}h^{-1}$.

Definition 5.13 (Commutator subgroup). Let $H, K \trianglelefteq G$. The **commutator subgroup** is defined by

$$[H, K] = \langle [h, k], h \in H, k \in K \rangle.$$

$[H, K]$ is a normal subgroup of G and is contained in $H \cap K$.

Definition 5.14 (Nilpotent group). Let G be a group. The **lower central series** $(G_n)_{n \geq 0}$ of G is defined by $G_0 = G$ and $G_{n+1} = [G_n, G]$ for $n \geq 0$.

We say that G is **nilpotent** if $G_n = 1$ for some $n \geq 0$.

Example 5.15. • Abelian groups are nilpotent.

• The Heisenberg group $\text{Heis}_3 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 1 & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \leq GL_3\mathbb{R}$ is nilpotent.

Proposition 5.16. If a nontrivial group G is nilpotent, then $Z(G) \neq 1$.

Proof. There exists $n \geq 0$ s.t. $G_n \neq 1$ but $G_{n+1} = 1$. In other words, $[G_n, G] = 1$, so $G_n \subseteq Z(G)$. \square

Lemma 5.17. Let G be a group with generating set S . Denote by $(G_n)_{n \geq 0}$ the lower central series of G . Then

$$G_n = \langle [a_1, [a_2, [\dots, [a_n, b]]]] \rangle, a_1, \dots, a_n \in S, b \in G \rangle.$$

Proof. Apply inductively the formula $[a, bc] = [a, b] \cdot [b, [a, c]] \cdot [a, c]$. \square

5.4 The Zassenhaus Lemma

Lemma 5.18 (Zassenhaus). If G is a Lie group, then there exists a neighbourhood U_Z of e in G s.t. any discrete group Γ generated by elements of U_Z is nilpotent.

We say that U_Z is a **Zassenhaus neighbourhood**.

Proof. We prove the lemma in the special case where G is a matrix group.

Consider $\phi = [\cdot, \cdot] : G \times G \rightarrow G$. We first compute $d\phi_{(I, I)}$:

$$\phi(I + H, I + K) = (I + H)(I + K)(I + H)^{-1}(I + K)^{-1} = I + HK - KH + o(\|H\|^2 + \|K\|^2);$$

it follows that $d\phi_{(I, I)} = 0$. Therefore, by the Mean Value Inequality, there must exist a neighbourhood U of I in G on which ϕ is a strict contraction, i.e.

$$\|\phi(A_1, B_1) - \phi(A_2, B_2)\| \leq \frac{1}{2}(\|A_1 - A_2\| + \|B_1 - B_2\|),$$

for $A_1, B_1, A_2, B_2 \in U$. It follows that $\|\phi(A, B) - I\| = \|\phi(A, B) - \phi(A, I)\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\|B - I\|$, and by symmetry,

$$\|\phi(A, B) - I\| \leq \frac{1}{2} \min\{\|A - I\|, \|B - I\|\}, \quad (*)$$

for $A, B \in U$.

Now let V be any neighbourhood of I . Then $(*)$ implies the existence of $k \geq 0$ s.t. for any $A_1, \dots, A_k \in U$, we have

$$[A_1, [A_2, [\dots, [A_{k-1}, A_k]]]] \in V. \quad (**)$$

Finally, assume that Γ is discrete and generated by some subset $S \subseteq U$. By discreteness, there is a neighbourhood V of I s.t. $\Gamma \cap V = 1$. By Lemma 5.17, if Γ_k is the k -th term of the lower central series of Γ , then

$$\Gamma_k = \langle [A_1, [A_2, [\dots, [A_k, B]]]] \rangle, A_1, \dots, A_k \in S, B \in \Gamma \rangle.$$

Hence, $(**)$ implies that Γ_k is generated by elements of $\Gamma \cap V = 1$, so $\Gamma_k = 1$ and Γ is nilpotent. \square

Remark 5.19. *The morale of the Zassenhaus Lemma is that, if you generate a discrete group with elements that are all close to e , then you have no choice but to generate a nilpotent group, i.e. in some sense an algebraically simple group.*

5.5 The Kazhdan-Margulis Lemma

Lemma 5.20 (Kazhdan-Margulis). *For any $n \geq 2$, there exists $\mu_n > 0$ s.t. for any discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ and for any $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$, the group*

$$\Gamma_{\mu_n}(x) = \langle \gamma \in \Gamma, d(x, \gamma x) < \mu_n \rangle$$

is virtually nilpotent.

Proof. Write $G = \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$, and $K = \text{Stab}(x)$. Note that K is conjugate to $\text{Stab}(0) \cong O(n)$ in the Poincaré ball model, so K is compact. We also fix a Zassenhaus neighbourhood U_Z (c.f. Lemma 5.18). We make the following choices independently of Γ :

- Let $W \subseteq U_Z$ be a neighbourhood of e s.t. $W = W^{-1}$ and $W^2 = \{w_1 w_2, w_1, w_2 \in W\} \subseteq U_Z$.
- Since K is compact, we may choose $V = \{g \in G, d(x, gx) < \alpha\}$ a relatively compact neighbourhood of K .
- Since V is relatively compact, there are $N_W \geq 1$ and $g_1, \dots, g_{N_W} \in G$ s.t.

$$V \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{N_W} g_i W.$$

- We set $V' = \{g \in G, d(x, gx) < \mu_n\}$. Hence, $V'^{N_W} \subseteq V$ if $\mu_n < \frac{\alpha}{N_W}$.

Now take a discrete group $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ and set

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{\mu_n} &= \langle \gamma \in \Gamma, d(x, \gamma x) < \mu_n \rangle = \langle \Gamma \cap V' \rangle, \\ \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0 &= \langle \Gamma_{\mu_n} \cap U_Z \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Note that Γ_{μ_n} is discrete (as a subgroup of Γ), so the Zassenhaus Lemma (Lemma 5.18) implies that $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ is nilpotent. We will prove that

$$[\Gamma_{\mu_n} : \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0] \leq N_W.$$

To do this, consider the set S_k of elements of Γ_{μ_n} that are products of at most k generators in $\Gamma \cap V'$ and write $\varphi(k) = |S_k / \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0|$. Remark the following:

- For $k \geq 1$, $\varphi(k) \leq \varphi(k+1)$ since $S_k \subseteq S_{k+1}$.
- If $\varphi(k_0) = \varphi(k_0+1)$ for some $k_0 \geq 1$, then $\varphi(k) = \varphi(k_0)$ for all $k \geq k_0$.
Indeed, if $\varphi(k_0) = \varphi(k_0+1)$, then any coset of the form $v_1 \cdots v_{k_0+1} \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ can be written as $v'_1 \cdots v'_{k_0} \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$, so any coset of the form $v_1 \cdots v_{k_0+2} \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ can be written as $v_1 v'_2 \cdots v'_{k_0+1} \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ and therefore $\varphi(k_0+1) = \varphi(k_0+2)$; it follows by induction that $\varphi(k) = \varphi(k_0)$ for $k \geq k_0$.
- If $(\varphi(k))_{k \geq 1}$ is constant from rank k_0 , then any $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ -coset in Γ_{μ_n} is represented by a product of at most k_0 generators, and there are at most $\varphi(k_0)$ such cosets. In particular, $[\Gamma_{\mu_n} : \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0] \leq \varphi(k_0)$.

The above arguments imply that it suffices to find some $k \leq N_W$ s.t. $\varphi(k) = \varphi(k+1)$. We may assume that $\Gamma_{\mu_n} \neq \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$. In this case, we have:

- $\varphi(1) \geq 2$.

Indeed, if $\varphi(1) = 1$, then $S_1 / \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0 = \{\Gamma_{\mu_n}^0\}$, so $\Gamma \cap V' \subseteq \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ and therefore $\Gamma_{\mu_n} = \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$.

- $\varphi(N_W) \leq N_W$.

Indeed, let $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k$ be representatives of distinct $\Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$ -cosets in Γ_{μ_n} , with each γ_i a product of a most N_W generators. Then we have

$$\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k \in V^{N_W} \subseteq V \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{N_W} g_i W.$$

If $k > N_W$, then (by the pigeon-hole principle) there must exist $i \neq j$ s.t. $\gamma_i, \gamma_j \in g_\ell W$. Therefore,

$$\gamma_j^{-1} \gamma_i \in W^2 \cap \Gamma_{\mu_n} \subseteq U_Z \cap \Gamma_{\mu_n} \subseteq \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0,$$

contradicting the fact that $\gamma_i \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0 \neq \gamma_j \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0$.

- We have $2 \leq \varphi(1) \leq \varphi(2) \leq \dots \leq \varphi(N_W) \leq N_W$. By the pigeon-hole principle, there must be some $k \leq N_W$ s.t. $\varphi(k) = \varphi(k+1)$.

This proves that φ is constant from rank N_W , so $[\Gamma_{\mu_n} : \Gamma_{\mu_n}^0] \leq \varphi(N_W) \leq N_W$. \square

Remark 5.21. (i) *In fact, we have proved the existence of a constant N depending only on n s.t. Γ_{μ_n} has a nilpotent subgroup of index at most N .*

(ii) *The Kazhdan-Margulis Lemma remains true with the same proof if $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is replaced by any Lie group.*

5.6 Elementary groups

Definition 5.22 (Elementary group). *A nontrivial discrete group $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ is called **elementary** if it has a finite orbit in $\overline{\mathbb{H}^n}$.*

Proposition 5.23. *Let $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ be discrete.*

(i) *If Γ is elementary and acts freely on \mathbb{H}^n , then we are in one of the following situations:*

- $\Gamma = \langle g \rangle$, where g is hyperbolic,
- $\Gamma = \langle g_i, i \in I \rangle$, where the g_i s are parabolic with a common fixed point in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$.

(ii) *If Γ is virtually elementary, then Γ is elementary.*

(iii) *If Γ is discrete, acts freely on \mathbb{H}^n , and is virtually nilpotent, then Γ is elementary.*

Proof. (i) First show that, if Γ has a finite orbit in \mathbb{H}^n , then Γ has a fixed point in \mathbb{H}^n (this fixed point can be constructed by considering the barycentre of a finite orbit in the hyperboloid model); this is impossible because Γ acts freely. Therefore, Γ has a finite orbit F in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$. If Γ has a unique global fixed point in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$, prove that we are in the second situation. Otherwise, show that the union of all finite orbits of Γ contains exactly two points in $\partial\mathbb{H}^n$, and these two points are the endpoints of the axis of a hyperbolic map generating Γ , so we are in the first situation.

(ii) Let $H \leq_{f_i} \Gamma$ be a finite index elementary subgroup of Γ . By definition, there is a point $p \in \overline{\mathbb{H}^n}$ s.t. $H \cdot p$ is finite. Now $|\Gamma \cdot p| \leq [\Gamma : H] \cdot |H \cdot p|$, so $\Gamma \cdot p$ is finite.

(iii) Let $H \leq_{f_i} \Gamma$ be a finite index nilpotent subgroup of Γ . Since Γ acts freely, it is infinite and therefore $H \neq 1$. Therefore, by Proposition 5.16, $Z(H) \neq 1$. Now if $\gamma_1 \in Z(H) \setminus \{1\}$ and $\gamma_2 \in H \setminus \{1\}$, then the fact that $\gamma_1 \gamma_2 = \gamma_2 \gamma_1$ implies that γ_1 preserves the fixed points of γ_2 . But γ_2 has one or two fixed points, and γ_1 cannot swap them (because it acts freely on \mathbb{H}^n), so it must fix them. By symmetry, γ_2 fixes the fixed points of γ_1 , so γ_1, γ_2 have the same fixed points. Since $Z(H) \neq 1$, this implies that all elements of $H \setminus \{1\}$ have the same fixed points, so H is elementary. Therefore, Γ is virtually elementary and hence elementary by (ii). \square

Theorem 5.24. For any $n \geq 2$, there exists $\mu_n > 0$ s.t. for any discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ acting freely on \mathbb{H}^n , and for any $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$, the group

$$\Gamma_{\mu_n}(x) = \langle \gamma \in \Gamma, d(x, \gamma x) < \mu_n \rangle$$

is elementary.

5.7 Injectivity radius

Definition 5.25 (Injectivity radius). Let M be a Riemannian manifold.

- The **injectivity radius at p** is

$$\text{inj}_p(M) = \sup \left\{ r > 0, \exp_p : B(0, r) \subseteq T_p M \rightarrow M \text{ is a diffeomorphism onto its image} \right\}.$$

Note that $\text{inj}_p(M) > 0$ by Proposition 4.11.

- The **injectivity radius of M** is

$$\text{inj}(M) = \inf_{p \in M} \text{inj}_p(M).$$

Proposition 5.26. The map $p \mapsto \text{inj}_p(M)$ is continuous.

In particular, if M is compact, then $\text{inj}(M) > 0$.

Lemma 5.27. Let γ be a geodesic loop based at p on M . Then

$$\text{inj}_p(M) \leq \frac{\ell(\gamma)}{2}.$$

Proof. We have $\gamma(t) = \exp_p(tu)$ for some $u \in T_p M$ with $\|u\| = \ell(\gamma)$. Since $\gamma(0) = \gamma(1)$, we have $\exp_p\left(\frac{u}{2}\right) = \exp_p\left(-\frac{u}{2}\right)$, so \exp_p is not injective on $B\left(0, \frac{\ell(\gamma)}{2}\right)$. \square

Example 5.28. (i) $\text{inj}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \text{inj}(\mathbb{H}^n) = +\infty$.

(ii) $\text{inj}(\mathbb{S}^n) = \pi$.

(iii) If $T = \mathbb{H}^n / \langle f \rangle$ is a tube, where f is a hyperbolic map with translation length ℓ , then $\text{inj}(T) = \ell$.

(iv) If C is a cusp, then $\text{inj}(C) = 0$.

Proposition 5.29. Let M be a Riemannian manifold with $r = \text{inj}(M) > 0$. Then any loop c with $\ell(c) < 2r$ is contractible.

Proof. Fix $\ell(c) < 2\rho < 2r$. First note that, if c is a loop based at p and not contained in $B_p(\rho) \subseteq M$, then c has a subpath c' contained in $B_p(\rho)$ and intersecting $\partial B_p(\rho)$ at two points q_1, q_2 , therefore

$$\ell(c) \geq \ell(c') \geq d(q_1, p) + d(p, q_2) = 2\rho.$$

Hence, any loop c based at p of length $< 2\rho$ must be contained in $B_p(\rho)$. But $\rho < r = \text{inj}(M) \leq \text{inj}_p(M)$, so $B_p(\rho)$ is diffeomorphic to an open ball in \mathbb{R}^n ; in particular, $B_p(\rho)$ is simply connected so c is contractible. \square

Proposition 5.30. Let M be a complete hyperbolic manifold and $x \in M$. Write $\Gamma = \pi_1 M \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ and fix a lift \tilde{x} of x in \mathbb{H}^n . Then

$$\text{inj}_x(M) = \frac{1}{2} \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}} d(\tilde{x}, \gamma \tilde{x}).$$

Proof. (\leq) If $\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}$, then the geodesic segment $[\tilde{x}, \gamma\tilde{x}]$ projects to a closed geodesic of length $d(\tilde{x}, \gamma\tilde{x})$, so $\text{inj}_x(M) \leq \frac{1}{2}d(\tilde{x}, \gamma\tilde{x})$ by Lemma 5.27.

(\geq) If $r < \frac{1}{2} \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}} d(\tilde{x}, \gamma\tilde{x})$, then the open balls $\{\gamma B_{\tilde{x}}(r)\}_{\gamma \in \Gamma}$ in \mathbb{H}^n are pairwise disjoint, so $B_x(r) \subseteq M$ is isometric to $B_{\tilde{x}}(r)$ and therefore $\text{inj}_x(M) \geq r$. \square

Definition 5.31 (Minimum displacement). *Given $f \in \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$, the **minimum displacement** of f is*

$$d(f) = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{H}^n} d(x, f(x)).$$

(i) *If f is hyperbolic, then $d(f)$ is the translation length of f , and the points realising $d(f)$ are exactly the points of the axis of f .*

(ii) *If f is parabolic, then $d(f) = 0$ and the infimum is not attained.*

(iii) *if f is elliptic, then $d(f) = 0$, and the points realising $d(f)$ are exactly the fixed points of f .*

Corollary 5.32. *If M is a compact hyperbolic manifold, then $\Gamma = \pi_1 M \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ does not contain any parabolic element.*

Proof. Since M is compact, we have $\text{inj}(M) > 0$. But

$$\text{inj}(M) = \frac{1}{2} \inf_{\gamma \in \Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}} d(\gamma)$$

by Proposition 5.30, so all elements of $\Gamma \setminus \{\text{id}\}$ are hyperbolic. \square

5.8 Thin-thick decompositions

Definition 5.33 (Thin-thick decomposition). *Let M be a Riemannian manifold and $\varepsilon > 0$.*

- *The ε -thin part of M if $M_{(0, \varepsilon]} = \{x \in M, \text{inj}_x(M) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\}$.*
- *The ε -thick part of M if $M_{[\varepsilon, \infty)} = \{x \in M, \text{inj}_x(M) \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}\}$.*

*The **thin-thick decomposition** of M is*

$$M = M_{(0, \mu_n]} \cup M_{[\mu_n, \infty)},$$

where μ_n is the constant of the Kazhdan-Margulis Lemma (Lemma 5.20).

Proposition 5.34. *Let M be a complete orientable hyperbolic n -manifold with $n \leq 3$. Then the μ_n -thin part of M is a disjoint union of truncated cusps and tubes.*

In fact, this result remains mostly true in higher dimensions, but the shapes of cusps become more complicated.

Proof. $M_{(0, \mu_n]}$ is the image under the covering map $\mathbb{H}^n \rightarrow M$ of $S = \bigcup_{\gamma \in \Gamma} S_\gamma(\mu_n)$ with $\Gamma = \pi_1 M \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$ and $S_\gamma(\mu_n) = \{x \in \mathbb{H}^n, d(x, \gamma x) \leq \mu_n\}$. Note that if $S_{\gamma_1}(x) \cap S_{\gamma_2}(x) \neq \emptyset$, then there exists $x \in \mathbb{H}^n$ s.t. $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \Gamma_{\mu_n}$ with the notations of the Kazhdan-Margulis Lemma (Lemma 5.20). Therefore, the group $\langle \gamma_1, \gamma_2 \rangle$ is elementary by Theorem 5.24. Hence, if p is the image of x under $\mathbb{H}^n \rightarrow M$, then the connected component of p in M is a tube in the hyperbolic case, or a cusp in the parabolic case. \square

6 What next?

Definition 6.1 (Curvature of a surface). *If (Σ, g) is a Riemannian surface and $p \in \Sigma$, then the curvature of Σ at p is*

$$k_p = 3 \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{2\pi r - \ell(C_p(r))}{\pi r^3} \right),$$

where $C_p(r)$ is the circle of centre p and radius r in Σ .

Example 6.2. (i) *If $\Sigma = \mathbb{R}^2$, then $\ell(C_p(r)) = 2\pi r$ and $k_p = 0$ for all $p \in \Sigma$.*

(ii) *If $\Sigma = \mathbb{H}^2$, then $\ell(C_p(r)) = 2\pi \sinh r$ and $k_p = -1$ for all $p \in \Sigma$.*

(iii) *If $\Sigma = \mathbb{S}^2$, then $\ell(C_p(r)) = 2\pi \sin r$ and $k_p = +1$ for all $p \in \Sigma$.*

Theorem 6.3 (Gauß-Bonnet). *Let (Σ, g) be a Riemannian surface. Then*

$$\int_{\Sigma} k_p = 2\pi\chi(\Sigma).$$

This formula relates the geometry of Σ to its topology. Conversely, given a surface Σ with appropriate topology, can we endow Σ with a nice geometric structure?

Theorem 6.4. *If Σ is a closed surface with $\chi(\Sigma) < 0$ (i.e. with genus at least 2), then there exists a discrete subgroup $\Gamma \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^2)$ s.t. Σ is homeomorphic to \mathbb{H}^2/Γ .*

Proof. Let $g = 1 - \frac{1}{2}\chi(\Sigma)$ be the genus of Σ . Construct Γ using the Poincaré Theorem as a discrete group whose fundamental domain is a regular $4g$ -gon with interior angles $\frac{\pi}{2g}$, with usual side-pairings. □

Theorem 6.5 (Thurston's Hyperbolisation Theorem). *Let M be a closed 3-manifold. Assume that M is*

- *Irreducible: any 2-sphere bounds a 3-ball,*
- *Atoroidal: $\pi_1 M$ does not contain an embedded copy of \mathbb{Z}^2 ,*
- *Large enough: c.f. [11] for a complete definition.*

Then M has a complete hyperbolic metric of finite volume.

Proof. See [11] or [7]. □

Theorem 6.6 (Mostow's Rigidity Theorem). *Let M_1, M_2 be two n -dimensional ($n \geq 3$) compact connected oriented hyperbolic manifolds. Write $\Gamma_i = \pi_1(M_i) \leq \text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$. If $\Gamma_1 \cong \Gamma_2$, then M_1, M_2 are isometric (and in fact, Γ_1, Γ_2 are conjugate in $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^n)$).*

Proof. See [9]. □

Remark 6.7. *Note that Mostow's Rigidity Theorem contrasts with the situation in dimension 2: the fundamental group of a hyperbolic surface may have many (non-conjugate) embeddings into $\text{Isom}(\mathbb{H}^2)$, see for example Section 2.10.*

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