

## Complex projective geometry

•  $\mathbb{CP}^1 = \mathbb{C} \cup \{0\}$ , •  $[x, y, z, t] := \frac{x-z}{x-t} \frac{y-t}{y-z}$  crossratio

•  $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$  acting by  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} z = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$  preserves the crossratio

• circles in  $\mathbb{C}$  passing through  $x, y, z$  is  $\{t \mid \text{Im}[x, y, z, t] = 0\}$

Corollary:  $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$  preserves circles

## Hypobolic plane and its geodesics

### 1. First definitions

If upper half plane model  $H^2 = \{z \mid \text{Im}(z) > 0\}$ , boundary at  $\infty$   $\partial H^2 = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$

the length of a curve  $c(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ :  $\ell(c) = \int \frac{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}}{y} dt$

$\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R}) \subset \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$  preserves  $H^2$ , acts on  $\partial_\infty H^2$

### 2. Geodesics

A geodesic in  $H^2$  is an arc length parametrized curve whose image is a circle (or line)  $\perp$  to  $\partial_\infty H^2$

prop:  $\exists$  unique geodesic between two points

◀ sketch: let  $a, b \in H^2$ ; then  $\text{Im}[a, \bar{a}, b, \bar{b}] = 0$

thus let  $C$  be the circle passing through  $a, b, \bar{b}$ . It passes through  $\bar{a}$ .  
hence is invariant under  $x \rightarrow \bar{x}$ , hence  $\perp$  to  $\partial_\infty H^2$ .

Thus  $C = \{z \mid \text{Im}[a, b, \bar{b}, z] = 0\}$ . Conversely if  $C \perp$  to  $\partial_\infty H^2$ , passes through  $a, b$   
It passes through  $\bar{a}, \bar{b}$ . If now  $a \in \partial_\infty H^2$ ,  $b \in H^2$  a similar argument works

the case  $a, b \in \partial_\infty H^2$  is trivial ▶

$$d_{H^2}(x, y) := \inf \{ \ell(c) \mid c(0) = x, c(1) = y \}$$


proposition  $\rightarrow \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$  preserves geodesics

$\Rightarrow$  If  $\gamma$  is a geodesic then  $d(\gamma(s), \gamma(t)) = |s - t|$

$\Rightarrow$  If  $c$  is a curve  $]a, b[ \rightarrow H^2$  is  $\ell(c) = d(c(a), c(b))$  then  $c$  is a geodesic

$\Rightarrow$  If  $\gamma: ]a, b[ \rightarrow H^2$ ; if  $\forall t \in ]a, b[$

$|a-b| = d(\gamma(a), c(t)) + d(c(t), \gamma(b))$  then  $\gamma$  is a geodesic

4)  $d_H(x, y) = \log [A, B, y, \infty]$  

### 3. Geodesics and the boundary at $\infty$

let  $\gamma: ]-\infty, +\infty[$  be an oriented geodesic. Then we define  $\partial H^2 \ni \gamma(-\infty) = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \gamma(t)$ ;  $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \gamma(t) = \gamma(+\infty) \in \partial H^2$

we say that  $\gamma$  and  $\eta$  are **asymptotic** if  $\exists K$  s.t  $\forall s > 0$ ;  $d(\gamma(s), \eta(s)) < K$  and we write  $\gamma \sim_{+\infty} \eta$

rk If  $\gamma \sim_{+\infty} \eta$  then  $\gamma \sim \eta_\alpha$  where  $\eta_\alpha(s) = \eta(s+\alpha)$   
being asymptot is an equivalence relation

Theorem :  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \gamma(+\infty) = \eta(+\infty) \\ \Leftrightarrow \gamma \sim \eta \end{array} \right.$   
Moreover,  $\exists \alpha$  so that  $d(\gamma(s), \eta_\alpha(s)) \leq K e^{-s}$  for  $K > 0$

◀ Assume  $\gamma(+\infty) = \eta(+\infty)$  we may as well assume that  $\gamma(+\infty) = \eta(+\infty) = \infty$

and  $lm(\gamma(0)) = lm(\eta(0))$ . then  $lm(\gamma(s)) = lm(\eta(s)) \forall s$ .

and  $d(\gamma(s), \eta(s)) \leq \frac{K}{lm(\gamma(s))} = K e^{-s}$

(see exercise) for  $\gamma(+\infty) \neq \eta(+\infty) \Rightarrow d(\gamma(s), \eta(s)) \rightarrow +\infty$  ▶

### 4. Angle between geodesics

the **angle**  $\sphericalangle(\gamma_1, \gamma_2)$  between two intersecting geodesics is the angle between the two corresponding circles in the upper half plane model

rk : the angle between two geodesics is invariant under homographies

$\sphericalangle(\gamma_1, \gamma_2) = \sphericalangle(f(\gamma_1), f(\gamma_2))$  if  $f \in PSL(2, \mathbb{R})$

Lemma: If  $\theta = \angle(\gamma_1, \gamma_2)$  with  $\gamma_i$  geodesics and  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0)$

$$\text{then } 1 - 2 \cos \theta = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t^2} d^2(\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t))$$

◀ proof in exercise ▶

A **local isometry** is a map  $\varphi: B(x, R) \subset \mathbb{H}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^2$ , so that

$$d(z, w) = d(\varphi(z), \varphi(w))$$

Def: a local isometry sends geodesic arcs to geodesic arcs, and preserves the angles between geodesics.

A local isometry  $\varphi$  **preserves the orientation** if  $(\dot{\gamma}_1(0), \dot{\gamma}_2(0))$  has the same orientation as  $(\varphi(\dot{\gamma}_1(0)), \varphi(\dot{\gamma}_2(0)))$  for  $\gamma_i$  geodesic arcs in  $B(x, R)$ , with  $\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0)$ .

Thm | let  $\varphi: B(x, R) \rightarrow \mathbb{H}^2$  be a local isometry preserving the orientation; then  $\exists \varphi \in \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$  s.t.  $\varphi|_{B(x, R)} = \varphi$

Corollary |  $\text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{R})$  is the group of isometry preserving orientation of  $\mathbb{H}^2$ .

## Polygons and convexity

### 1. Convexity

A set  $A \subset \mathbb{H}^2$  is **convex** if given  $x, y \in A$  the geodesic segment  $[x, y]$  is included in  $A$ .

#### Examples

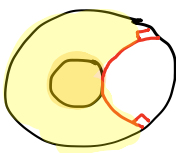
1) Hyperbolic half plane: by definition on of the connected component of  $\mathbb{H}^2 \setminus \gamma$  when  $\gamma$  is a geodesic. **proof of convexity**: using homographies, one may assume the  $\gamma$  is vertical



since for any geodesic arc  $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$  the function  $t \rightarrow x(t)$  is monotone (or constant) the result follows

2) **Convex polygons** : by definition, these are intersection of geodesic half planes  
 proof the intersection of convex sets is convex.

3) **Metric balls** :  $B(x, R) = \{y \mid d(x, y) < R\}$  proof of convexity : use that we may choose a Poincaré disk model so that  $x=0$ , then we see that  $B(x, R)$  is a ball and thus  $B(x, R) = \cap$  half planes associated to  $\partial p$



## 2. Area

let  $C$  be a (Borel measurable) set in  $H^2$ . let then

$$\text{Area}(C) = \int_C \frac{dx dy}{y^2} \quad (\text{in the hyperbolic upper half plane})$$

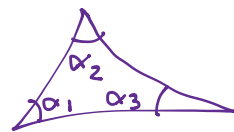
Exercise : show that if  $f \in \text{PGL}(2, \mathbb{R})$  then  $\text{Area}(f(C)) = \text{Area}(C)$

1) compute  $J(f)(z)$  and show that  $J(f) = \frac{|\text{Im}(f(z))|^2}{|\text{Im}(z)|^2}$

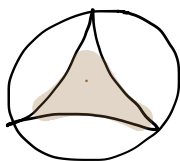
2) use the change of variables formula

### Theorem (Gours-Bonnet)

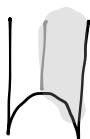
let  $T$  be a triangle, then  $\text{Area}(T) = \pi - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \alpha_3$



◀ a) calculons l'aire du « triangle idéal »



on se ramène au cas de  $(-1, 1, \infty)$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area}(\cdot) &= \int_0^1 \left[ \int_{\sqrt{1-x^2}}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{y^2} \right] dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{d(\sin(u))}{\cos u} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} du = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

thus  $\text{Area}(T) = \pi$



let  $T_\alpha$  as in the picture

$$\text{Area}(T_\alpha) + \text{Area}(T_\beta) = \text{Area}(T(\alpha+\beta)) + \pi$$



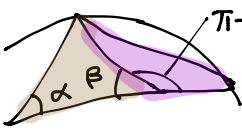
Thus:  $f(\alpha) := \pi - \text{Area}(T_\alpha)$  satisfies

$$f(\alpha) + f(\beta) = f(\beta + \alpha)$$

It follows since  $f$  is continuous that  $f(\alpha) = \lambda\alpha$ , since  $f(\pi) = \pi$

$$\lambda = 1$$

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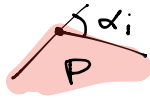
$$\text{Area}(T_{\alpha\beta}) = \text{Area}(T_\alpha) - \text{Area}(T_{\pi-\beta}) = \pi - \alpha - (\pi - (\pi - \beta)) = \pi - (\alpha + \beta)$$

④



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

Corollary [exercise] If  $P$  is a convex polygon then  $\text{Area}(P) = \sum \alpha_i - 2\pi$



$$3\pi - 2\pi = \pi$$

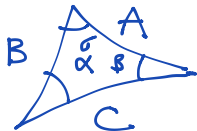


Example: the area of a right hexagon is  $\pi$

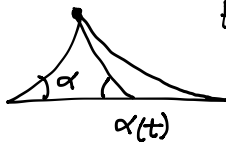
$$\blacktriangleleft 6\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) - 2\pi = 3\pi - 2\pi = \pi \blacktriangleright$$

### 3. Classification of triangles

Theorem let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in [0, \pi]$  so that  $\alpha + \beta + \gamma < \pi$ . Then there exists a unique triangle (up to isometries) with internal angles  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$



Construction:

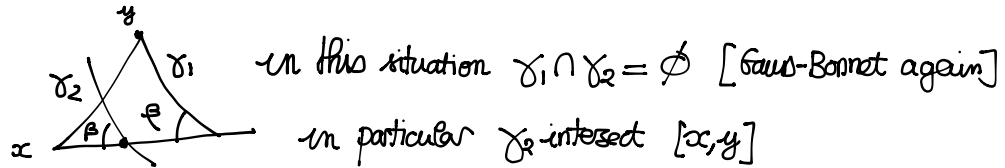


the function  $t \rightarrow \alpha(t)$  is injective from

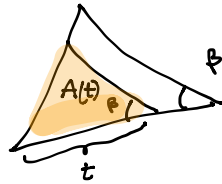
$$[0, \infty[ \rightarrow ]0, \pi - \alpha]$$

It follows that there exists a unique  $t_0$  so that  $\alpha(t_0) = \beta$

Observe now that:



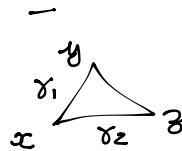
We may now consider the map



$t \rightarrow A(t)$ . we observe (Gauss-Bonnet) that this map is increasing from  $[0, t_0]$  to  $[0, \pi - \alpha - \beta]$ . Thus there exist a unique  $s_0$  so that  $A(s_0) = \pi - \alpha - \beta - \gamma$ .

By Gauss-Bonnet again, the angles will be  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ .

Using isometries we may assume



$(x, y) \in [0, \infty]$ ;  $x = i$  and  $\dot{\gamma}_1(0), \dot{\gamma}_2(0)$  is oriented then the previous construction shows the uniqueness of  $x, z, y$ : we can repeat it  $\blacktriangleright$