

# Euclidean and non-Euclidean Geometry (MA3101)

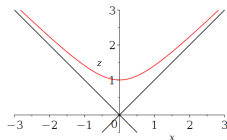
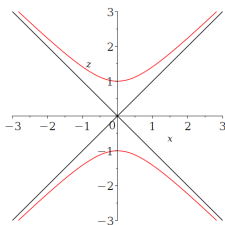
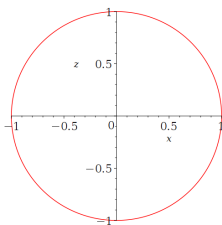
## Lecture 11: Introduction to Hyperbolic Geometry

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# The hyperbola $-x^2 + z^2 = 1$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$

The picture below show the unit circle  $x^2 + z^2 = 1$ , the hyperbola  $-x^2 + z^2 = 1$  (along with its asymptotes  $y = \pm x$ ) and the upper branch  $\mathcal{H}$ :  $z = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$  of the hyperbola (this is the part that we will care about).



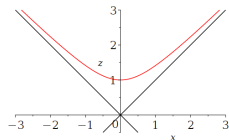
How to parametrize the (upper branch of the) hyperbola?

Its points all have positive  $z$ -coordinate. For any positive  $a$ ,

$$-\left(a - \frac{1}{a}\right)^2 + \left(a + \frac{1}{a}\right)^2 = 4,$$

so  $\left(\frac{1}{2}\left(a - \frac{1}{a}\right)\right), \left(\frac{1}{2}\left(a + \frac{1}{a}\right)\right)$  is a point of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

# Parametrization of $\mathcal{H}$



For  $a > 0$ , the point with coordinates

$$\left( \frac{1}{2} \left( a - \frac{1}{a} \right), \frac{1}{2} \left( a + \frac{1}{a} \right) \right)$$

belongs to  $\mathcal{H}$ .

$a - \frac{1}{a}$  is a continuous increasing function of  $a$  for  $a > 0$  (check this).

$$a - \frac{1}{a} \rightarrow -\infty \text{ as } a \rightarrow 0^+, \text{ and } a - \frac{1}{a} \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } a \rightarrow \infty.$$

It follows that every point of  $\mathcal{H}$  has these coordinates for some  $a$ .

Now write  $a = e^s$  (we can do this since  $a$  is positive). Then  $\mathcal{H}$  consists of all points of the form

$$\left( \frac{e^s - e^{-s}}{2}, \frac{e^s + e^{-s}}{2} \right) = (\sinh s, \cosh s), s \in \mathbb{R}.$$

# The Hyperbolic Trigonometric Functions

**Definition** The **hyperbolic sine and cosine** functions (usually pronounced “sinch” and “cosh”) are defined for  $s \in \mathbb{R}$  by

$$\sinh s = \frac{1}{2}(e^s - e^{-s}), \quad \cosh s = \frac{1}{2}(e^s + e^{-s}).$$

## Properties

- 1  $\sinh$  and  $\cosh$  describe coordinates of points of the unit hyperbola, the way that  $\sin$  and  $\cos$  describe points on the circle.
- 2  $\cosh(-s) = \cosh(s)$  and  $\sinh(-s) = -\sinh(s)$ , for  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- 3  $\sinh^2 s - \cosh^2 s = -1$  (or  $\cosh^2 s - \sinh^2 s = 1$ ), for all  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- 4  $\frac{d}{ds}(\sinh s) = \cosh s$  and  $\frac{d}{ds}(\cosh s) = \sinh s$ .  
This is one rationale for using coordinates  $\cosh$  and  $\sinh$  instead of the previously suggested  $\frac{1}{2}(a \pm \frac{1}{a})$  for  $a > 0$ .
- 5 For  $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\cosh s \cosh t - \sinh s \sinh t = \cosh(t - s)$ .
- 6 And many more analogues of trigonometric identities, that we don't need too urgently.

All of these can be proved directly from the definitions.

## $\mathcal{H}$ and $S^1$ (the unit circle) in the $xz$ -plane

The **unit circle**  $S^1$  has equation  $x^2 + z^2 = 1$  or  $z^2 = 1 - x^2$ . Its ambient space is  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with the Euclidean metric and ordinary scalar product:

$$(x_1, z_1) \cdot (x_2, z_2) = x_1 x_2 + z_1 z_2, \quad \|(x, z)\|^2 = (x, z) \cdot (x, z), \quad \text{distance}(u, v) = \|u - v\|.$$

$S^1$  is parametrized by the trigonometric functions:  $x = \cos t$  and  $z = \sin t$ . The distance along  $S^1$  from  $P(\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha)$  to  $Q(\cos(\alpha \pm t), \sin(\alpha \pm t))$  is  $t = \cos^{-1}(P \cdot Q)$  (provided  $t < \pi$ ).

$\mathcal{H}$  is analogous to  $S^1$ , with equation  $z^2 = 1 + x^2$  (and  $z > 0$ ). The expression  $x^2 - z^2$  determines the **Lorentz pseudometric** and the **Lorentz scalar product** defined by

$$(x_1, z_1) \cdot_L (x_2, z_2) = x_1 x_2 - z_1 z_2, \quad \|(x, z)\|_L^2 = (x, z) \cdot_L (x, z) = x^2 - z^2.$$

The **hyperbolic trig functions** parametrize  $\mathcal{H}$ :  $x = \sinh s$ ,  $z = \cosh s$ . When  $s = 0$ , this gives the point  $(0, 1)$ , when  $s = \ln 2$  it gives  $(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4})$ .

The ambient space of  $\mathcal{H}$  is **Lorentz space**, which is  $\mathbb{R}^2$  equipped with the **Lorentz pseudometric**, in which the squared length of the vector  $(x, z)$  is  $x^2 - z^2$ . This is positive only if  $|x| > |z|$ . If  $P$  and  $Q$  are points of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then the vector  $\vec{PQ}$  has positive squared length.

- $(\sinh s, \cosh s)$  is the point that is reached by travelling a distance  $s$  in the Lorentz pseudometric from  $(1, 0)$  along  $\mathcal{H}$  in the direction of increasing  $x$ . (In the other direction it's  $(-\sinh s, \cosh s)$ ).
- $(\cos t, \sin t)$  is the point reached by travelling a distance  $t$  in the Euclidean metric counter-clockwise along  $S^1$  from  $(1, 0)$ .

**Hyperbolic Distance** The (Lorentz) distance in  $\mathcal{H}$  from  $P(\sinh s_1, \cosh s_1)$  to  $Q(\sinh s_2, \cosh s_2)$  is  $|s_2 - s_1|$ . In terms of the coordinates of  $P$  and  $Q$ , this is  $\cosh^{-1}(-P \cdot_L Q)$  since

$$-P \cdot_L Q = \cosh s_1 \cosh s_2 - \sinh s_1 \sinh s_2 = \cosh(s_2 - s_1).$$

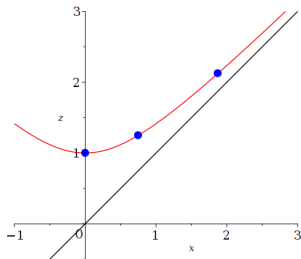
# Hyperbolic Distance

For points  $P$  and  $Q$  of  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $\text{distance}_L(P, Q) = \cosh^{-1}(-P \cdot_L Q)$ .

For points  $R$  and  $S$  of  $S^1$ , their distance apart in  $S^1$  is  $\cos^{-1}(R \cdot S)$ , where  $\cdot$  is the ordinary (Euclidean) scalar product.

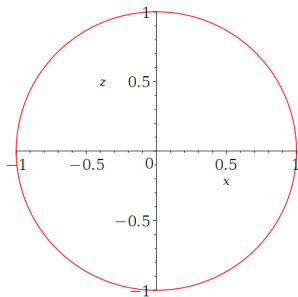
**Warning** Our picture of  $\mathcal{H}$  does not represent hyperbolic distance accurately. The representation of  $\mathcal{H}$  as the set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  satisfying  $z^2 = x^2 + 1$  is not an **isometric embedding** of  $\mathcal{H}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Pairs of points that are the same distance apart in  $\mathcal{H}$  do not appear so in the picture.

**Example** As  $s$  increases from  $0 (= \ln 1)$  to  $\ln 2$ ,  $(\sinh s, \cosh s)$  goes from  $(0, 1)$  to  $(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4})$ . As  $s$  increases from  $\ln 2$  to  $2 \ln 2 = \ln 4$ ,  $(\sinh s, \cosh s)$  goes from  $(\frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4})$  to  $(\frac{15}{8}, \frac{17}{8})$ . Both of these arcs of  $\mathcal{H}$  have (hyperbolic) length equal to  $\ln 2$ .



# Isometries of $S^1$

**Definition** An **isometry** of  $S^1$  is a function from  $S^1$  to  $S^1$  that preserves distance along arcs. This means: if  $a, b$  are points of  $S^1$  with images  $a', b'$ , then  $\text{distance}_{S^1}(a, b) = \text{distance}_{S^1}(a', b')$ . Equivalently  $a \cdot b = a' \cdot b'$ , if points of  $S^1$  are considered as unit vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .



There are two types of isometries of  $S^1$ : rotations about the origin through any angle, and reflections in any diameter. Both arise from linear transformations of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with standard matrices as follows:

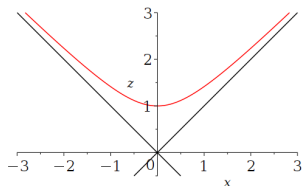
- **Rotation**  $R_\alpha$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $(\cos t, \sin t) \rightarrow (\cos(t + \alpha), \sin(t + \alpha))$
- **Reflection**  $M_\alpha$  in the diameter through  $(\cos \frac{\alpha}{2}, \sin \frac{\alpha}{2})$ :  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $(\cos t, \sin t) \rightarrow (\cos(\alpha - t), \sin(\alpha - t))$

All these matrices comprise the **orthogonal group**  $O(2)$ .



# Isometries of $\mathcal{H}$

**Definition** An **isometry** of  $\mathcal{H}$  is a function from  $S^1$  to  $S^1$  that preserves Lorentz distance along arcs. This means: if  $a, b$  are points of  $S^1$  with images  $a', b'$ , then  $\text{distance}_{\mathcal{H}}(a, b) = \text{distance}_{\mathcal{H}}(a', b')$ . Equivalently  $a \cdot_L b = a' \cdot_L b'$ .



One isometry of  $\mathcal{H}$  is the **Lorentz translation**  $T_\alpha$ , which maps  $(\sinh s, \cosh s)$  to  $(\sinh(s + \alpha), \cosh(s + \alpha))$  for a fixed  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

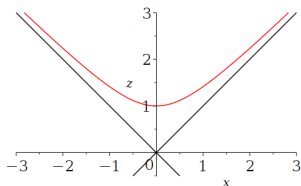
The distance in  $\mathcal{H}$  between  $(\sinh s_1, \cosh s_1)$  and  $(\sinh s_2, \cosh s_2)$  is  $|s_1 - s_2|$ , the same as  $|(s_1 + \alpha) - (s_2 + \alpha)|$ .

The  $T_\alpha$  are analogous to rotations in  $S^1$ , and also arise from linear transformations of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

The standard matrix of  $T_\alpha : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is  $\begin{pmatrix} \cosh \alpha & \sinh \alpha \\ \sinh \alpha & \cosh \alpha \end{pmatrix}$

# Isometries of $\mathcal{H}$

**Definition** An **isometry** of  $\mathcal{H}$  is a function from  $S^1$  to  $S^1$  that preserves Lorentz distance along arcs. This means: if  $a, b$  are points of  $S^1$  with images  $a', b'$ , then  $\text{distance}_{\mathcal{H}}(a, b) = \text{distance}_{\mathcal{H}}(a', b')$ . Equivalently  $a \cdot_L b = a' \cdot_L b'$ .



The **reflection**  $M_0$  in  $(0, 1)$  mapping  $\mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$  via  $(\sinh s, \cosh s) \rightarrow (-\sinh s, \cosh s)$ .

This restricts the reflection of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  in the  $z$ -axis, with matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

For  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the reflection  $M_\alpha$  of  $\mathcal{H}$  fixes  $(\sinh \frac{\alpha}{2}, \cosh \frac{\alpha}{2})$  and maps

$$(\sinh s, \cosh s) \rightarrow (\sinh(\alpha - s), \cosh(\alpha - s)).$$

$M_\alpha$  preserves distance in  $\mathcal{H}$  and has matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} -\cosh \alpha & \sinh \alpha \\ -\sinh \alpha & \cosh \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ .

# Linear Algebra and/or Group Theory Interpretation

The set of matrices  $T_\alpha$  and  $M_\alpha$  describing isometries of  $\mathcal{H}$  also forms a group, known as the **Lorentz group**. For a pair of vectors  $u = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$  and  $v = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  their ordinary and Lorentz inner products are respectively given by the matrix products

$$\blacksquare u \cdot v = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = u^T I_2 v = u^T v.$$

$$\blacksquare u \cdot_L v = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}}_{L_2} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = u^T L_2 v.$$

Suppose that  $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  preserves the ordinary scalar product. Then for any vectors  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $T(u) \cdot T(v) = u \cdot v$ .

If  $M_T$  is the matrix of  $T$ , this means for all  $u$  and  $v$  that

$$(Mu)^T I_2 (Mv) = u^T I_2 v \implies u^T M^T M v = u^T v,$$

for all  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . This means  $M^T M = I_2$ , so  $M^{-1} = M^T$ .