

# Euclidean and non-Euclidean Geometry (MA3101)

## Lecture 13: Geodesics in the Hyperbolic Plane

Dr Rachel Quinlan

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# The hyperbolic plane

Exactly as  $S^2 : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  is obtained by rotating the unit circle in the  $XZ$ -plane about the  $Z$ -axis, we obtain the upper sheet of the hyperboloid  $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = -1$  by rotating  $\mathcal{H}^1$  about the  $Z$ -axis.

The Lorentz inner product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is defined by

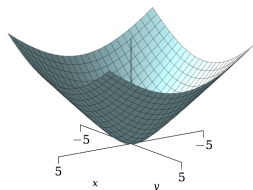
$$(x_1, y_1, z_1) \cdot_L (x_2, y_2, z_2) = x_1x_2 + y_1y_2 - z_1z_2$$

$\mathcal{H}^2$ , equipped with the Lorentz pseudometric in which the squared length of a vector  $v$  is  $v \cdot_L v$ , is (the [hyperboloid model](#) of) the [hyperbolic plane](#).  $\mathcal{H}$  is the intersection of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  with the  $XZ$ -plane.

We have a concept of [distance](#) in  $\mathcal{H}$ , defined by

$$d_{\mathcal{H}}(P, Q) = \cosh^{-1}(-P \cdot_L Q).$$

This will extend to  $\mathcal{H}^2$ .



# $\mathcal{H}^2$ is homogeneous and isotropic

- 1 Rotation  $R_\theta$  through any  $\theta$  about the  $Z$ -axis preserves  $\mathcal{H}^2$  and  $\cdot_L$ .

The matrix of this rotation is  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Exercise** Check directly that  $R_\theta(u) \cdot_L R_\theta(v) = u \cdot_L v$  for all  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$ .

- 2 For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the translation by  $\alpha$  along  $\mathcal{H}$  extends to an isometry

$T_\alpha$  of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ , with matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} \cosh \alpha & 0 & \sinh \alpha \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sinh \alpha & 0 & \cosh \alpha \end{pmatrix}$ .

**Exercise** Check that  $T_\alpha$  preserves  $\mathcal{H}^2$  and  $\cdot_L$ . Note  $T_\alpha$  sends  $(\sinh(-\alpha), 0, \cosh(-\alpha))$  to  $(0, 0, 1)$ .

**Consequence 1** For any point  $P$  of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ , there is an isometry  $\tau$  of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  with  $\tau(P) = (0, 0, 1)$ . We can apply a rotation about the  $Z$ -axis to take  $P$  to the  $XZ$ -plane, then apply the appropriate  $T_\alpha$ .

**Consequence 2** All points of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  are images of each other under isometries. Like  $S^2$ ,  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is **homogeneous**. All points “look the same”.

**Consequence 3** All directions from  $(0, 0, 1)$  are equivalent under the rotation about the  $Z$ -axis. So all directions “look the same”.

# Geodesics in $\mathcal{H}^2$

Geodesics in  $S^2$  are intersections of  $S^2$  with planes through the origin  $O$ .

The same is true in the hyperboloid model of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ .

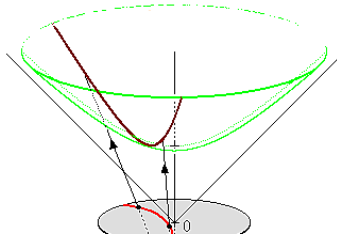
**Theorem** Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be points of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . The shortest path (in the hyperbolic distance) from  $P$  to  $Q$  in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is along the intersection of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  with the unique plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  through  $P$ ,  $Q$  and  $O$ .

A plane that contains the points  $(0, 0, 1)$  and  $O$  intersects  $\mathcal{H}^2$  in a rotated copy of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

Other planes intersect  $\mathcal{H}^2$  in curves like the dark red one in this picture.

As for  $S^2$ , we apply isometries to move  $P$  to  $(0, 0, 1)$  and  $Q$  to a point in the  $XZ$ -plane.

As linear transformations of the ambient space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , these moves take the plane  $OPQ$  to the plane  $Y = 0$ , and take the relevant path from  $P$  to  $Q$  to a segment of  $\mathcal{H}$ .



# Geodesics are intersections with planes

**Theorem** Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be points of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . The shortest path (in the hyperbolic distance) from  $P$  to  $Q$  in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is along the intersection of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  with the unique plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  through  $P$ ,  $Q$  and  $O$ .

The proof is analogous to the one for  $S^2$  (see Lecture 7).

1. We can assume that  $P = (0, 0, 1)$  and  $Q = (\sinh \alpha, 0, \cosh \alpha)$ .
2. Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be any path in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  from  $P$  to  $Q$ , parametrized by  $t$ .

$$\mathcal{C} : t \rightarrow (f_1(t), f_2(t), f_3(t)), a \leq t \leq b.$$

The hyperbolic length of  $\mathcal{C}$  is

$$\int_{t=a}^{t=b} \sqrt{(f_1'(t))^2 + (f_2'(t))^2 - (f_3'(t))^2} dt$$

3. To relate  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  to the surface  $\mathcal{H}^2$ , we note that  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is the set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  of the form

$$(\sinh s \cos \theta, \sinh s \sin \theta, \cosh s).$$

(Reached by rotating  $(\sinh s, 0, \cosh s)$  through  $\theta$  about the  $Z$ -axis.)

# Geodesics are intersections with planes

**Theorem** Let  $P$  and  $Q$  be points of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . The shortest path (in the hyperbolic distance) from  $P$  to  $Q$  in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is along the intersection of  $\mathcal{H}^2$  with the unique plane in  $R^2$  through  $P$ ,  $Q$  and  $O$ .

The proof is analogous to the one for  $S^2$  (see Lecture 7).

## 4. Rewriting in terms of $s$ and $\theta$

$$\begin{aligned}f_1(t) = \sinh s(t) \cos \theta(t) &\implies f_1'(t) = \cosh s(t) \cos \theta(t) \dot{s} - \sinh s(t) \sin \theta(t) \dot{\theta} \\f_2(t) = \sinh s(t) \sin \theta(t) &\implies f_2'(t) = \cosh s(t) \sin \theta(t) \dot{s} + \sinh s(t) \cos \theta(t) \dot{\theta} \\f_3(t) = \cosh s(t) &\implies f_3'(t) = \sinh s(t) \dot{s}.\end{aligned}$$

$$5. (f_1'(t))^2 + (f_2'(t))^2 - (f_3'(t))^2 = \cosh^2 s(t) \dot{s}^2 + \sinh^2 s(t) \dot{\theta}^2 - \sinh^2 s(t) \dot{s}^2 = \dot{s}^2 + \sinh^2 s(t) \dot{\theta}^2$$

6. Now the hyperbolic length of  $\mathcal{C}$  is  $\int_{t=a}^{t=b} \sqrt{\dot{s}^2 + \sinh^2 s \dot{\theta}^2} dt$ .

This is minimized if  $\dot{\theta} = 0$  along  $\mathcal{C}$ , that is if  $\mathcal{C}$  is a segment of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

# Intersections of lines in $\mathcal{H}^2$

A **line** in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  is the intersection of  $\mathbb{H}^2$  with a plane  $\Pi$  through  $O$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Not all planes in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  intersect  $\mathcal{H}^2$ , only those with a normal vector that points into the region  $z^2 < x^2 + y^2$ . These determine the lines of  $\mathcal{H}^2$ .

Let  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  be two lines in  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . Then

$$H_1 = \Pi_1 \cap \mathcal{H}^2, \quad H_2 = \Pi_2 \cap \mathcal{H}^2,$$

where  $\Pi_1$  and  $\Pi_2$  are planes through  $O$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

The planes  $\Pi_1$  and  $\Pi_2$  intersect in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  in a (Euclidean) line  $L$  through  $O$ .

There are two possibilities:

- $L$  intersects  $\mathcal{H}^2$  in exactly one point. Then the lines  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  intersect in  $\mathcal{H}^2$  in one point. This occurs if a vector in the direction of  $L$  points into the region  $z^2 - (x^2 + y^2) > 0$ .
- $L$  does not intersect  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . This means that a vector at  $O$  in the direction of  $L$  points into the region  $z^2 - (x^2 + y^2) \leq 0$ .

# Non-intersecting lines in $\mathcal{H}^2$ .

Let  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  be two lines in  $\mathcal{H}^2$ . Then

$$H_1 = \Pi_1 \cap \mathcal{H}^2, \quad H_2 = \Pi_2 \cap \mathcal{H}^2,$$

where  $\Pi_1$  and  $\Pi_2$  are planes through  $O$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

The planes  $\Pi_1$  and  $\Pi_2$  intersect in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  in a (Euclidean) line  $L$  through  $O$ .

If  $L$  does not intersect  $\mathcal{H}^2$ , there are two cases:

- 1 If  $L$  is contained in the cone  $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$  (red in the picture), then  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  approach each other at infinity along the “upper part” of  $L$ . In this case,  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are said to be **ultraparallel**.
- 2 Otherwise, if  $L$  does not intersect  $\mathcal{H}^2$ ,  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are said to **diverge**

