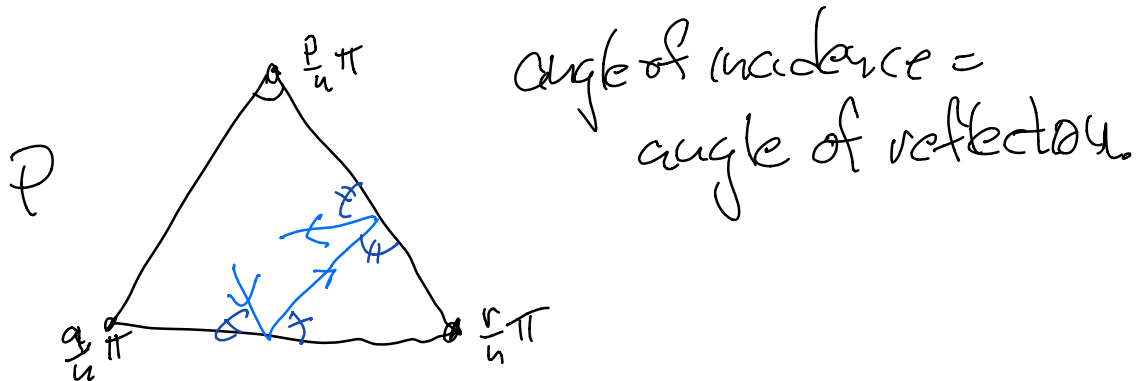


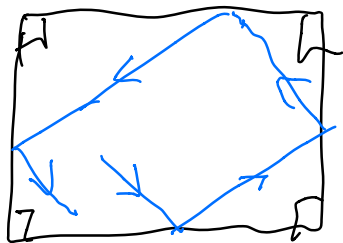
# ① Polygonal billiards.

Billiard trajectories in polygons



A polygon  $P$  is rational if all the angles are rational multiples of  $\pi$ .

Example 1: Classic billiard table



Questions: What is the long term behaviour of trajectories? How does it depend on the polygon  $P$ ? The direction  $\theta$ ? The initial point?

What sequences of sides is hit by a given trajectory?

(This question is related to the coding sequences discussed by Pascal & Sasha.)

What sequences of sides can be hit by some trajectory in some direction?

(This is important when you have to call your shot.)

For which  $\theta$ 's are all trajectories  
dense?  
uniformly distributed?

In which directions do we have  
periodic trajectories?

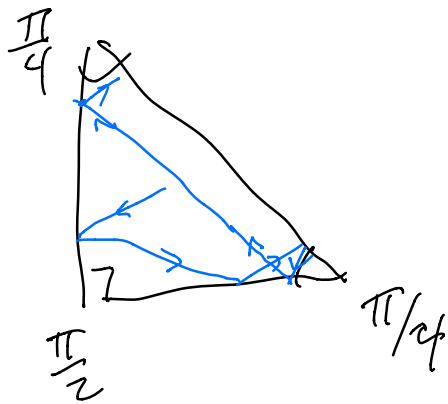
Do periodic trajectories always exist  
and if so how many are there?

In these<sup>4</sup> lectures we will consider the  
question of the asymptotic behavior  
of the number of trajectories of  
length at most  $L$ .

Connection between rational  
billiards and translation surfaces

In a rational polygon  $P$  each billiard trajectory travels in only finitely many directions.

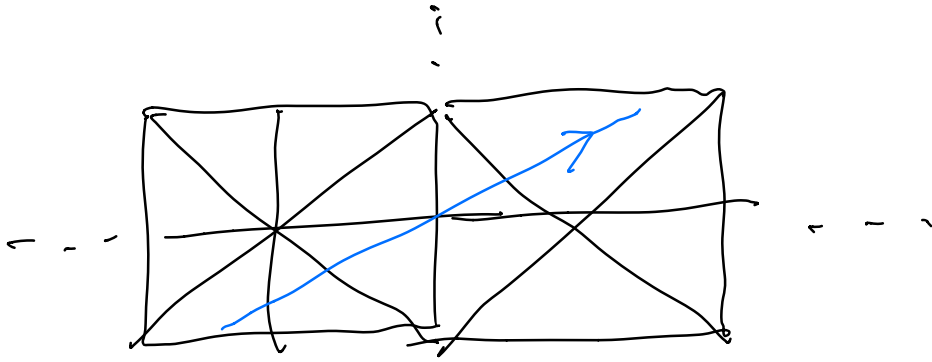
Example 2:



8 directions

Unfolding construction converts billiard trajectories to straight lines - Euclidean geodesics.

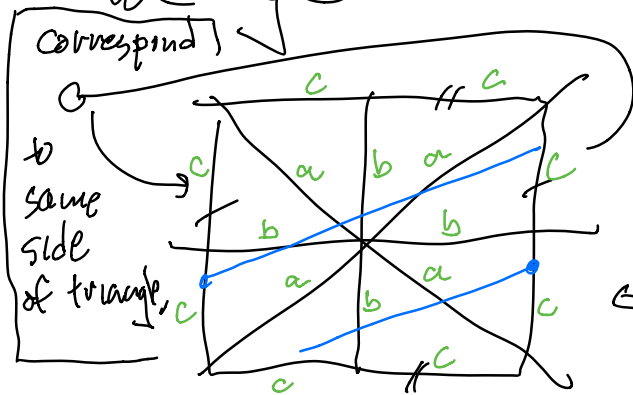
In this case unfolding <sup>the triangle</sup> gives a tiling of the plane.



We can thus relate billiard trajectories to straight lines in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

If we only unfold 8 times

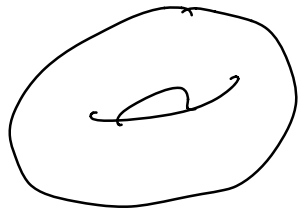
we get:



We have exactly one triangle for each possible direction of a fixed trajectory.

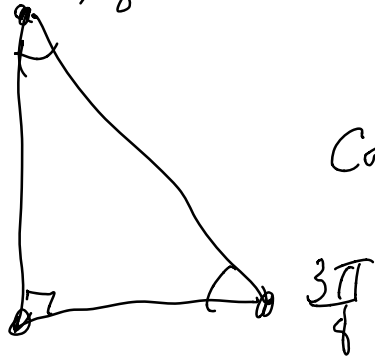
← fundamental domain for a lattice acting by translations

Identify opposite sides by translations:



This construction gives a useful relation between billiard traj and geodesics in  $T^2 = \frac{\mathbb{R}^2}{\Lambda}$ .

Example 3  
 $\pi/8$



This triangle <sup>does</sup> not tile

the plane.

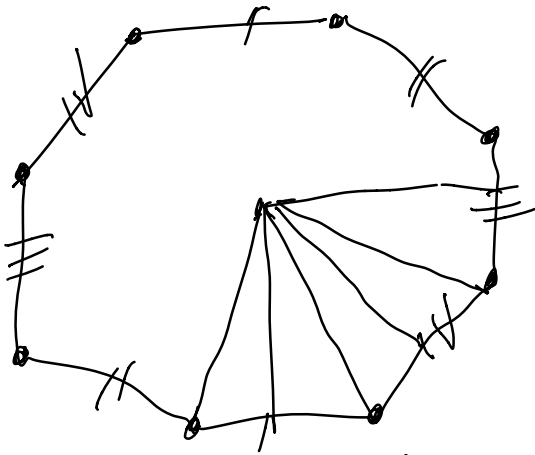
Can see that by unrolling around

$\frac{3\pi}{8}$  vertex.

However there

is still an

analog of the previous <sup>torus</sup> construction,  
Octagon built from 16 triangles.



In this case

we get a

translation

surface of

genus 2 with a sing. pt. of

cone angle  $6\pi$ . (Check this!)

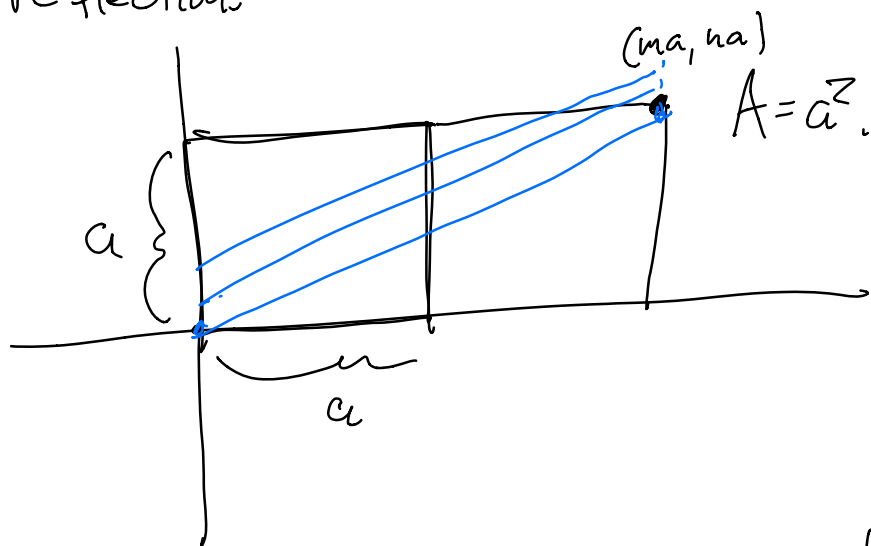
If  $P$  is a rational polygon we can associate a translation surface  $M_P$ . This construction was described by Zemlyakov-Katok and earlier by Fox-Karshner. Let  $\Gamma$  be the subgroup of  $O(2)$  generated by reflections in the sides of  $P$ . For each  $x \in \Gamma$  construct a disjoint polygon  $xP \in \mathbb{R}^2$ . Glue appropriate parallel sides together.

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Let's return to the counting problem.

Example: Torus of area  $A$   
 or a poly gon that tiles the plane by  
 reflection



A closed geodesic corresponds to  
 a point  $\begin{pmatrix} ma \\ na \end{pmatrix}$  with  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

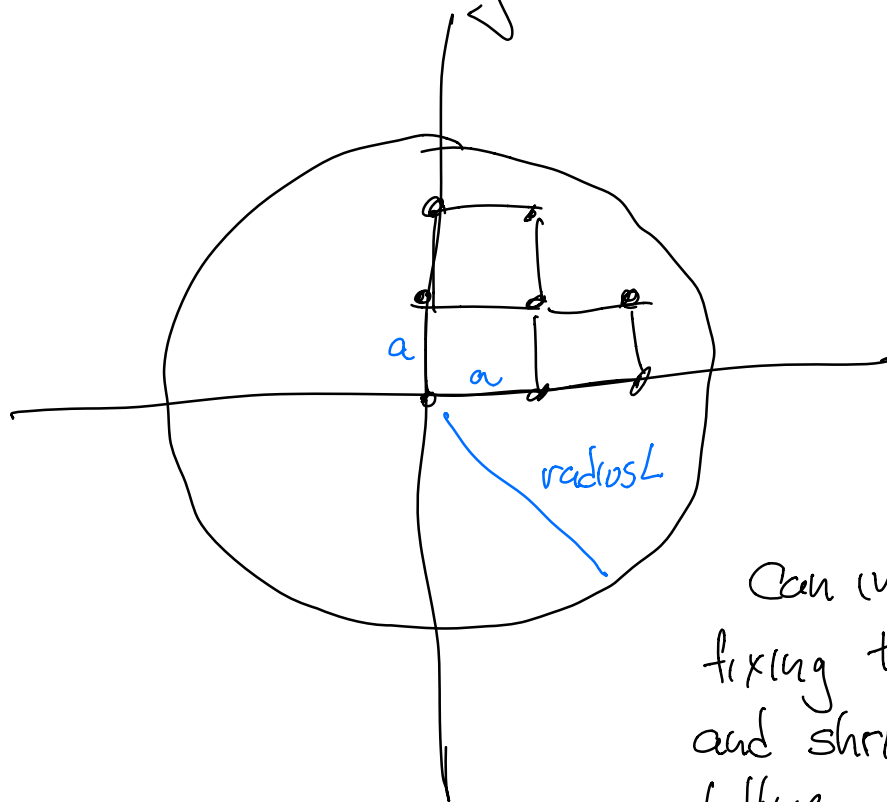
Conversely such a pair gives



rise to a family of closed geodesics all of the same

length.  $l = \sqrt{m^2 a^2 + n^2 a^2} = a \sqrt{m^2 + n^2}$

How many such families are there of length  $\leq L$ ?



Can imagine fixing the disk and shrinking the lattice.

$$\# \sim \frac{\pi L^2}{A}$$

This overcounts by considering the same good multiple times. To correct the count we consider only pairs  $\binom{m}{n}$  which are relatively prime.

We are also considering each good twice due to orientation.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Chance that } m, n \text{ rel. prime} \\ &= \frac{1}{\zeta(2)} \text{ where } \zeta(2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Get } N_p(L) \sim \frac{\pi L^2}{A} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{S(2)}$$

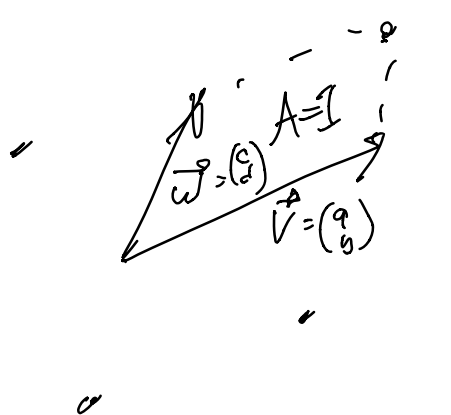
$$= C \cdot \frac{L^2}{A} \quad C = \frac{\pi}{2 \cdot S(2)}$$

Problem with this technique is that it relies on the structure of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\tilde{M}$ . For the general rational polygon this is not available.

Let's use a "renormalization technique" in the case of the torus and see what we get.

(structure) We can identify the "moduli space" of tori  $(\mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z})$  of area 1 with the space of unimodular lattices.

Recall that the space of unimodular marked lattices can be identified with  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$



The diagram shows a parallelogram with vertices at the origin,  $\vec{w}$ ,  $\vec{v}$ , and  $\vec{w} + \vec{v}$ . The vectors  $\vec{w} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ c \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ d \end{pmatrix}$  are drawn from the origin. A dashed line represents the identity transformation  $A = I$ .

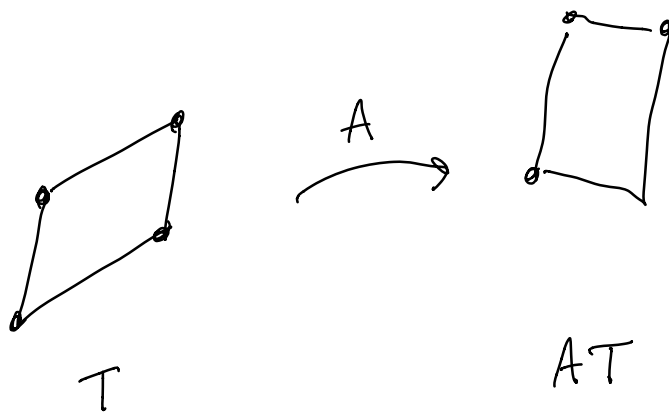
$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v} & \vec{w} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} \in SL(2, \mathbb{R})$$

Changing the basis to a new oriented basis corresponds to the right action of  $SL(2, \mathbb{Z})$  on  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ .

stratum of tori with 1 marked point:

$$\mathcal{H}_1(1) = SL(2, \mathbb{R}) / SL(2, \mathbb{Z}).$$

Deforming the lattice  
 by a linear transf. corresp-  
 onds to left mult by  
 an element of  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ .



We call this the geometric action  
 of  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  on the space of tri.  $(\mathbb{H}, 1, 0)$

Recall that Pascal considered

the one parameter family

$$g_t = \begin{pmatrix} e^{t/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t/2} \end{pmatrix} \quad (?) \quad (\text{Conformal} \\ \text{distortion } e^t)$$

Chris considered  $\begin{pmatrix} e^t & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-t} \end{pmatrix}$  in defining  
Teichmüller distance. (conformal distortion  $e^{2t}$ ).

First normalization is more closely related  
to hyperbolic geometry and we will use  
that. (Gives geod. flow param. at  
unit speed.)

We can think of  $g_t$  as rescaling  
the vertical flow on  $T = \mathbb{R}^2/\Lambda$ .

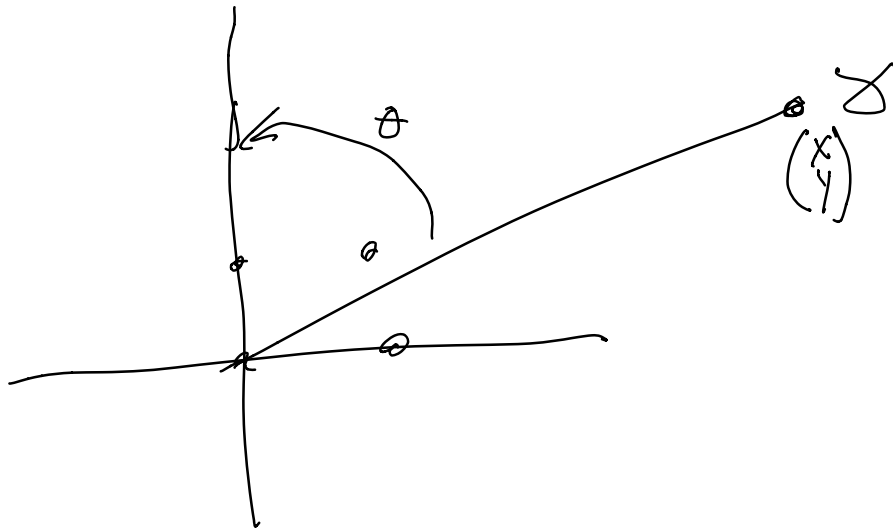
The problem with counting  
geodesics in general is  
that geodesics are long.

We want to use  $g_t$  to make closed  
geodesics shorter.

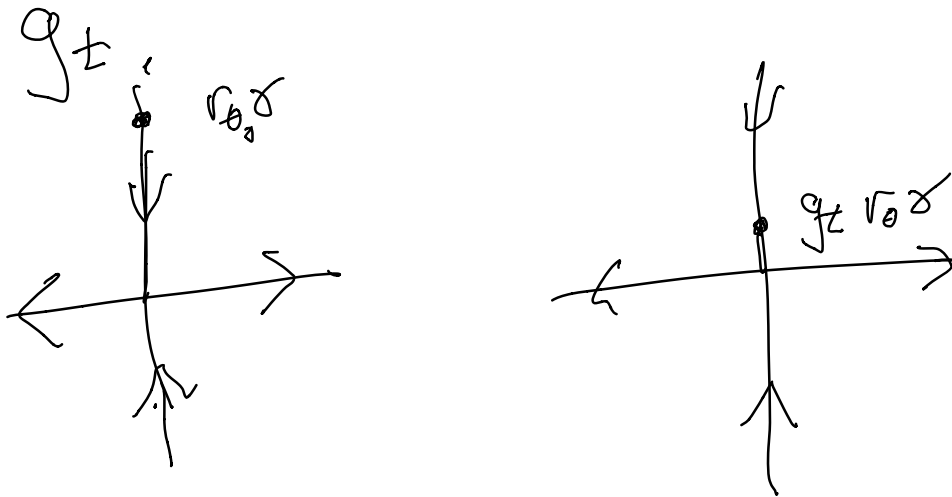
$$\text{Let } R_\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let  $\gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a^m \\ a^n \end{pmatrix}$  be a geodesic  
of length  $L_\gamma$ . Pick  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Let's deform the torus  $T = \mathbb{R}^2/\Lambda$  to  
create a new torus  $T' = \mathbb{R}^2/\Lambda'$  in which  
 $\gamma$  has length  $\varepsilon$ .



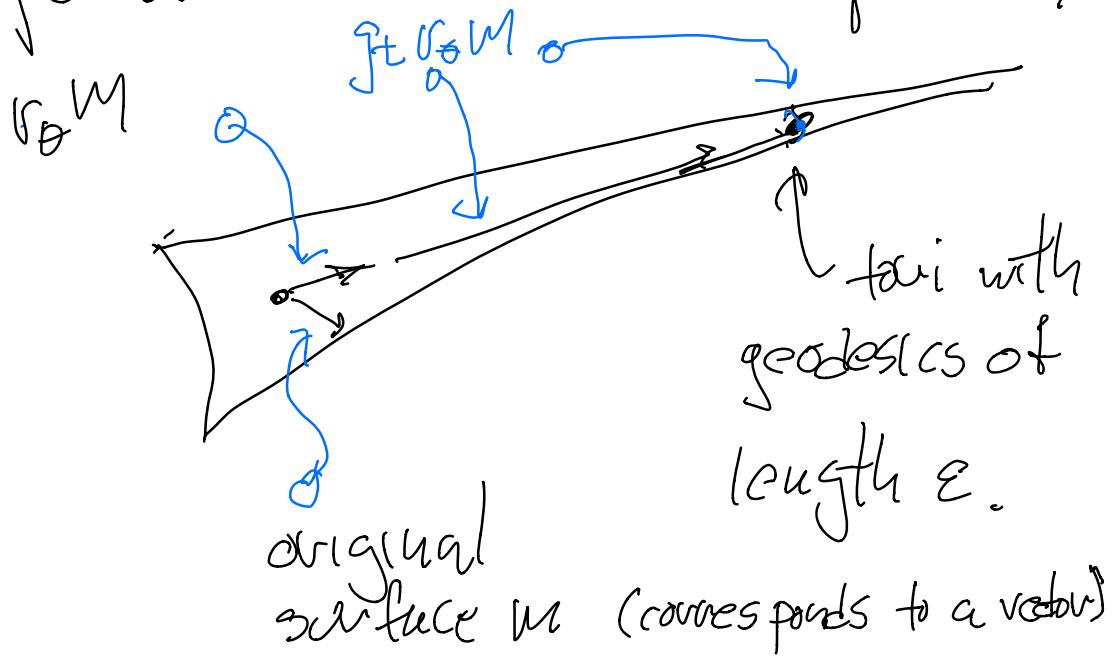
Rotate by  $r_{\theta}$  and apply



In order to do this we choose  $\pm = 2 \log\left(\frac{L}{\epsilon}\right)$ .

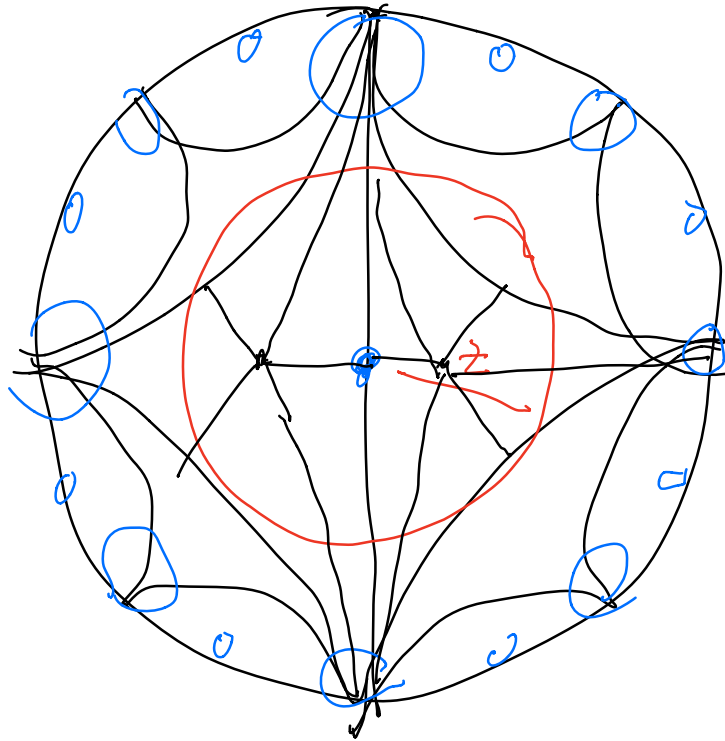


What is the effect of this operation on moduli-space?

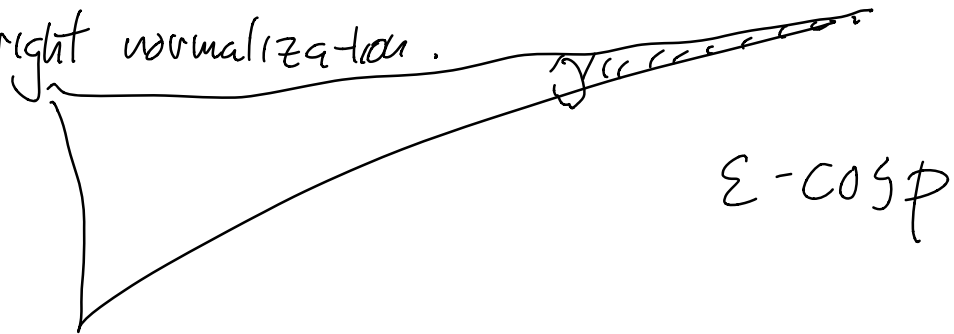


Let  $C_\epsilon$  be the set of  $\tau_\epsilon$  with geodesics of length  $\leq \epsilon$ .

Alternate picture:



The set  $\{g_{\pm r_{\theta}} : \theta \in [0, 2\pi)\}$  corresponds to the circle of radius  $r$  since we chose the right normalization.



Think of ripples in a pond spreading out from a point.

Geodesics of length  $L$  less than  $L$  correspond to visits of the circle of radius  $t$  to the  $\varepsilon$ -cusp.

Quadratic growth comes from the fact that the hyperbolic length of this circle is

$$\begin{aligned} 2\pi \sinh(t) &\approx 2\pi \frac{e^t}{2} \\ &= \pi \cdot e^{2 \log(4/\varepsilon)} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{\varepsilon} \cdot L^2 \quad \text{as } L \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

The assertion that circles become uniformly distributed as  $L \rightarrow \infty$  implies that the proportion of time that the circle spends in the cusp is:

$$\frac{\text{vol}(C_\varepsilon)}{\text{vol}(\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})/\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))}$$

as  $L \rightarrow \infty$ ,

Assume that each excursion to the cusp intersects the circle in an interval of a fixed length:  $l_\varepsilon$

Assuming that each excursion to the cusp corresponds to a  $\theta$  interval of  $l_\varepsilon$  implies

that the number of geodesics

$$\text{is } \frac{\pi}{\varepsilon} \cdot L^2 \cdot \frac{\text{vol}(C_\varepsilon)}{\text{vol}(\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R}) / \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z}))} \cdot \frac{1}{L_\varepsilon}$$

More careful analysis shows  
that the answer is independent  
of  $\varepsilon$ .

Remark: Can calculate  
these vols. using Gauss-Bonnet  
and conclude

$$\text{that } \zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

How do we apply these ideas to other polygons?

Start with a translation surface  $M$ ,  $\mathcal{H}(g) = \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{R}) / \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{Z})$

$M$  is in a "moduli space"  $\mathcal{H}(g)$ .

We have some analog of the  $\varepsilon$ -cusp,  $C_\varepsilon \subset \mathcal{H}(g)$ .

We want to know that circles become uniformly distributed in  $\mathcal{H}(g)$  with respect to Haar measure?

In fact circles are  
all contained in  $SL(2, \mathbb{R}) \cdot M$   
 $\subset \mathcal{H}(\alpha)$  so we want to  
apply these ideas to  
 $\overline{SL(2, \mathbb{R}) \cdot M} \subset \mathcal{H}(\alpha)$ .

Are these orbit closures  
nice submanifolds?

Do they have  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$   
invariant measures which  
are easy to calculate  
with?

Thm. (Eskin-Mirzakhani  
- Mohammadi) Yes,  
 $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  orbit closures  
in strata have all the  
properties you need to  
make these arguments  
work.

More specifically:  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$   
orbit closures are submanifolds  
and have unique smooth  
 $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  invariant probability



measures.

Question to discuss in next 3 lectures:

Problem. Do large  
circles equidistribute  
in orbit closures?

If the answer is yes  
then we can attack  
the problem by finding  
orbit closures and  
computing the appropriate  
constants.

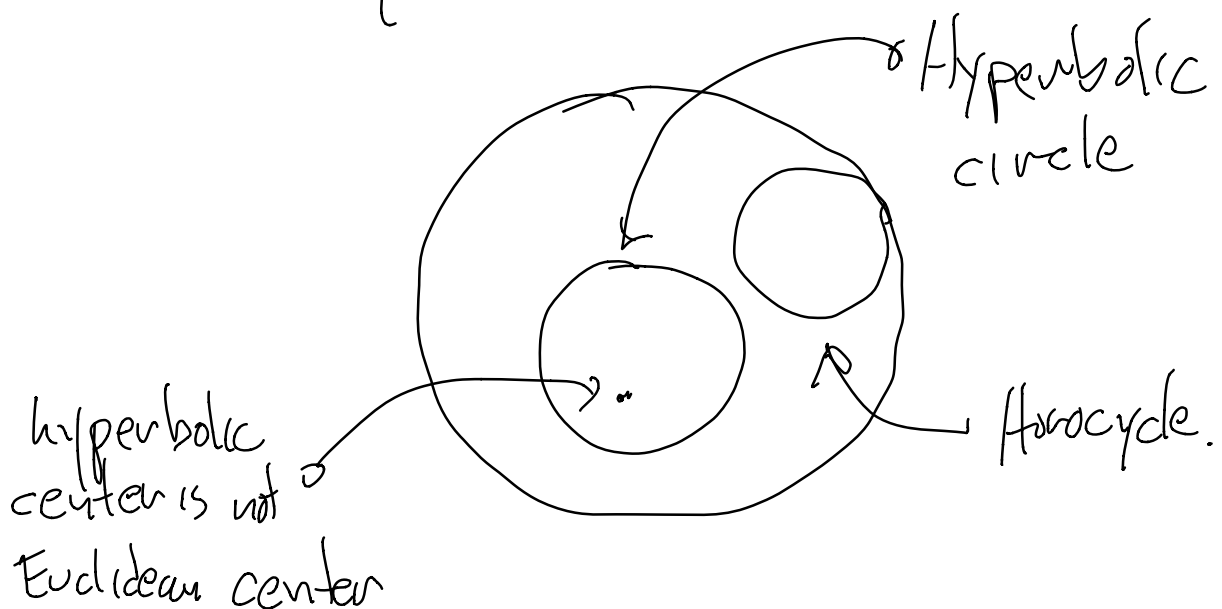
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Large circles in the  
hyperbolic plane:

Unlike large Euclidean  
circles the curvature of

large hyperbolic circles  
tends to 1 rather than  
0. Curves of curvature  
1 are called horocycles.

key to analyzing limits  
of large circle measures  
is analyzing the  
horocycle flow.



Curvature of the circle of radius  $r$

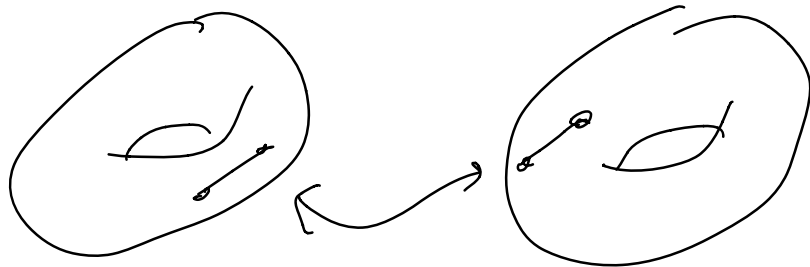
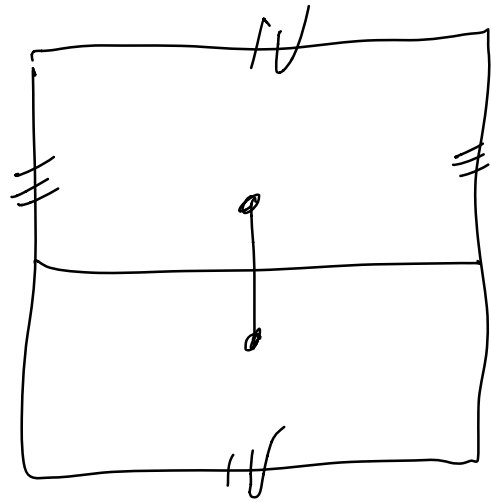
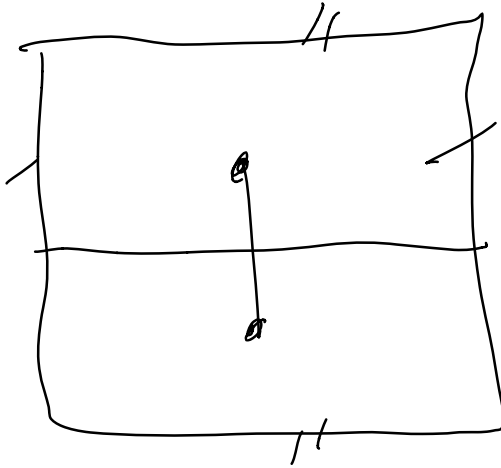
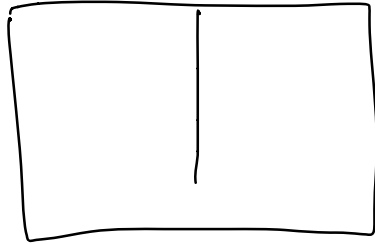
is  $\tanh r = \frac{e^r - e^{-r}}{e^r + e^{-r}} \rightarrow 1$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ .







②



Consider the set of surfaces  $M$  with maps  $\pi: M \rightarrow T$  which branch over 2 points.

Call the set of such surfaces  $\mathcal{E}_4$ .



The set of such surfaces  
is locally determined by  
5 parameters: 3 describe  
the shape of the torus  
and 2 describe the  
relative positions of the  
branch points.