# SOLUTIONS TO EXERCISES FOR 

## MATHEMATICS 133 - Part 8

Winter 2009

## V. 7 : Non-Euclidean geometry in modern mathematics

1. We first consider the special case where $\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{0}$. In this case we have

$$
T(\mathbf{v})=\frac{r^{2}}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2}} \cdot \mathbf{v}
$$

so that $T(\mathbf{v})$ is a positive multiple of $\mathbf{v}$ and $|T(\mathbf{v})| \cdot|\mathbf{v}|=r^{2}$.
We shall now use this to prove that $T(T(\mathbf{v}))=\mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v}$ : If $\mathbf{w}=T(\mathbf{v})$, then it follows that $T(\mathbf{w})$ is a positive multiple of $\mathbf{w}$, and since the latter is a positive multiple of $\mathbf{v}$, it follows that $T(T(\mathbf{v}))=\mathbf{v}=T(\mathbf{w})$ is a positive multiple of $\mathbf{v}$. Also, we have

$$
|T(\mathbf{w})|=\frac{r^{2}}{|\mathbf{w}|}=\frac{r^{2}}{r^{2} /|\mathbf{v}|}=|\mathbf{v}|
$$

and if we combine this with the observation in the preceding sentence we see that $T(T(\mathbf{v}))=\mathbf{v}$.
We can use this to prove $T$ is $1-1$ and onto as follows. If $T(\mathbf{x})=T(\mathbf{y})$, then if we apply $T$ to both sides we see that $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{y}$. Similarly, if we are given any vector $\mathbf{w}$, then the identity $T(T(\mathbf{w}))=\mathbf{w}$ shows that $\mathbf{w}=T(\mathbf{v})$ for some $\mathbf{v}($ namely, $T(\mathbf{w}))$. The identity at the end of the previous paragraph also shows that if $\mathbf{w}=T(\mathbf{v})$, then $T(\mathbf{w})=\mathbf{v}$, and conversely if $\mathbf{v}=T(\mathbf{w})$, then $T(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{w}$. These conditions show that $T$ is an inverse function to itself.

We now turn to the general case. If $T_{0}$ is the map $T_{0}(\mathbf{x})=r^{2}|\mathbf{x}|^{-2} \mathbf{x}$ considered in the previous paragraph, then we have

$$
T(\mathbf{v})=\mathbf{a}+T_{0}(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{a})
$$

and if we apply $T$ twice we then obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(T(\mathbf{v})) & =T\left(\mathbf{a}+T_{0}(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{a})\right)
\end{aligned}=\mathrm{a}=\mathbf{a}+T_{0}\left(T_{0}(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{a})\right)=\mathbf{a}+(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{a})=\mathbf{v} .
$$

Since applying $T$ twice again yields the identity, it follows as before that $T$ must be its own inverse.
2. By the definitions we have

$$
T\left(\mathbf{v}=\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}}, \quad S(\mathbf{v})=\frac{r^{2}}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}}\right.
$$

and therefore straightforward computation yields

$$
r T\left(r^{-1} \mathbf{v}\right)=r \cdot\left(\frac{1}{\left|r^{-1} \mathbf{v}\right|^{2}} \cdot r^{-1} \mathbf{v}\right)=r\left(\frac{1}{r^{-1}|\mathbf{v}|^{2}}\right) \mathbf{v}=\frac{r^{2}}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2}} \mathbf{v}=S(\mathbf{v})
$$

which is the identity we wanted to prove.
3. Following the hint, we split the argument into two cases.

CASE 1. The center of $\Gamma_{1}$ is the origin, and the radius is $k$. - Then $\mathbf{v} \in \Gamma_{1}$ implies that $|\mathbf{v}|=k$ and hence $|T(\mathbf{v})|=1 / k$, so that $T \operatorname{maps} \Gamma_{1}=\Gamma(k, \mathbf{0})$ to $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}=\Gamma(1 / k, \mathbf{0})$. It follows that $\Gamma_{2} \subset \Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$. Since

$$
k=\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)}
$$

it follows that $T$ also maps $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}=\Gamma(1 / k, \mathbf{0})$ to $\Gamma_{1}=\Gamma(k, \mathbf{0})$. To see that the image of $\Gamma_{1}$ under $T$ is all of $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$, note that the identity $T(T(\mathbf{w}))=\mathbf{w}$ shows that every $\mathbf{w} \in \Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$ is the image under $T$ of the point $T(\mathbf{w}) \in \Gamma_{1} . ■$

CASE 2. The center of $\Gamma_{1}$ is some point $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$. - Once again let $k$ be the radius of the circle. Since $\mathbf{0}$ does not lie on $\Gamma_{1}$ it follows that the radius $k$ is not equal to $k=|\mathbf{0}-\mathbf{a}|=|\mathbf{a}|$; this means that $q=|\mathbf{a}|^{2}-k^{2}$ is nonzero. If $\mathbf{v} \in \Gamma_{1}$ then we have

$$
k^{2}=|\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{a}|^{2}=|\mathbf{v}|^{2}-2 \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}+|\mathbf{a}|^{2}
$$

so that $2 \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}=|\mathbf{v}|^{2}+q$. It now follows that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|T(\mathbf{v})-q^{-1} \mathbf{a}\right|^{2}=\left|\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2} \mid} \mathbf{v}-q^{-1} \mathbf{a}\right|^{2}= \\
\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2}}+\frac{|\mathbf{a}|^{2}}{q^{2}}-\frac{2 \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2} q^{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

If we now put everything over a common denominator and use our previously derived formula for $2 \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{a}$, we find that the right hand side is equal to

$$
\frac{q^{2}+|\mathbf{v}|^{2}|\mathbf{a}|^{2}-|\mathbf{v}|^{2} q^{2}-q^{2}}{|\mathbf{v}|^{2} q^{2}}
$$

and if we simplify this we find that the quantity in question is equal to $k^{2} / q^{2}$. This means that the mapping $T$ sends $\Gamma_{1}$ to the circle $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$ whose center is $\mathbf{b}=q^{-1} \mathbf{a}$ and whose radius is $m=|q|^{-1} k$.

The vector $\mathbf{0}$ also does not lie on $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$ because

$$
m=|q|^{-1} k \neq|q|^{-1}|\mathbf{a}|=\left|q^{-1} \mathbf{a}\right|=|\mathbf{b}|
$$

and as in the preceding discussion $\mathbf{0}$ lies on a circle centered at $\mathbf{b}$ only if the circle's radius is $|\mathbf{b}|$. Therefore we can apply the reasoning of the preceding paragraph to conclude that $T$ maps $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$ into the circle whose center is $p^{-1} \mathbf{b}=p^{-1} q^{-1} \mathbf{a}$ and whose radius is $|p|^{-1} m=|p|^{-1}|q|^{-1} k$. If we can show that $p=1 / q$, then it will follow that $T \operatorname{maps} \Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$ into the original circle $\Gamma_{1}$, and as in Case 1 we can use $T(T(\mathbf{w}))=\mathbf{w}$ to conclude that the image of $\Gamma_{1}$ under $T$ is all of $\Gamma_{2}^{\prime}$.

But now we have

$$
p=|\mathbf{b}|^{2}-m^{2}=\frac{|\mathbf{a}|^{2}}{q^{2}}-\frac{k^{2}}{q^{2}}=\frac{|\mathbf{a}|^{2}-k^{2}}{q^{2}}=\frac{q}{q^{2}}
$$

and since the right hand side simplifies to $1 / q$, we have completed the remaining step in the argument.
4. We first show that $T$ maps the given circle to the given line. By definition, the circle $\Gamma_{1}$ is defined by the equation $x^{2}+(y-b)^{2}=b^{2}$ and if we expand the left hand side we obtain the equivalent formulation $x^{2}+y^{2}-2 b y+b^{2}=b^{2}$; subtacting $b^{2}-2 b y$ from both sides shows that the circle is also defined by the equation $x^{2}+y^{2}=2 b y$. Therefore, if $(u, v)=T(x, y)$, then by definition we have

$$
(u, v)=\left(\frac{x}{x^{2}+y^{2}}, \frac{y}{x^{2}+y^{2}}\right)
$$

and if $(x, y) \in \Gamma_{1}$ then we may apply the equation at the end of the previous sentence to rewrite the right hand side as

$$
\left(\frac{x}{2 b y}, \frac{y}{2 b y}\right)=\left(\frac{x}{2 b y}, \frac{1}{2 b}\right) .
$$

Therefore the image of $\Gamma_{1}$ lies on the horizontal line $L$ defined by $y=1 /(2 b)$.
Suppose now that we are given $(u, v) \in L$, so that $v=1 /(2 b)$. We need to show that $(x, y)=$ $T(u, v)$ lies on $\Gamma_{1}$, which translates to the algebraic equation $x^{2}+y^{2}=2 b y$. Since

$$
(x, y)=T(u, v)=\left(\frac{u}{u^{2}+v^{2}}, \frac{v}{u^{2}+v^{2}}\right)
$$

and the definition of $T$ implies that

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=\frac{1}{u^{2}+v^{2}}
$$

if $v=1 /(2 b)$ we obtain the following:

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}=\frac{1}{u^{2}+(1 / 2 b)^{2}}=\frac{4 b^{2}}{4 b^{2} u^{2}+1}, \quad y=\frac{v}{u^{2}+v^{2}}=\frac{1}{2 b} \cdot \frac{4 b^{2}}{4 b^{2} u^{2}+1}
$$

Comparing these results, we see that $x^{2}+y^{2}=2 b y$ and therefore $T(u, v)=(x, y) \in \Gamma_{1}$, so that $T$ sends points of $\Gamma_{1}$ to points of $L$ and vice versa. As in the proofs of preceding exercises, it follows that the images of $\Gamma_{1}$ and $L$ are $L$ and $\Gamma_{1}$ respectively.
5. The two circles meet at the two points $(1,0)$ and $(0,1)$. This seems obvious from the picture, and it follows algebraically by solving the simultaneous set of quadratic equations $x^{2}+y^{2}=1$ and $(x-1)^{2}+(y-1)^{2}=1$. The tangent lines to the first circle at the intersection points are $(1,0)+V$ and $(0,1)+H$, where $V$ and $H$ are the vertical and horizontal 1-dimensional vector subspaces spanned by $(0,1)$ and $(1,0)$ respectively. Similarly, the tangent lines to the second circle at the intersection points are $(1,0)+H$ and $(0,1)+V$. These follow because the tangent is perpendicular to the radius at the point of contact.

Next, let $C$ and $D$ be the two points where $\Gamma_{1}$ meets the line $y=x$. The first coordinates of these points satisfy the equation $2(x-1)^{2}=1$, so that $x-1= \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2}$ and hence $x=1 \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2}$. The second coordinates are then given by $y=x$.

Let $u$ and $v$ be the two values for $x=y$. We claim that the lengths of the two vectors ( $u, u$ ) and $(v, v)$ are reciprocals of each other. Since the length of an arbitrary vector of the form $(w, w)$ is $|w| \sqrt{2}$, it follows that the lengths of $(u, u)$ and $(v, v)$ are equal to

$$
\left(1 \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2}\right) \cdot \sqrt{2}=\sqrt{2} \pm 1
$$

so that the product of these two lengths is

$$
(\sqrt{2}+1) \cdot(\sqrt{2}-1)=1
$$

which is what we wanted to prove.
By the computations in the preceding discussion, we know that the points $C$ and $D$ are mapped to each other under the inversion map $T$. Since $\Gamma_{1}$ does not contain the origin (because $\left.(0-1)^{2}+(0-1)^{2}=2 \neq 1\right)$, by Exercises 3 and 4 it follows that $T$ maps $\Gamma_{1}$ into a circle which contains the points $A=T(A), B=T(B), C=T(D), D=T(C)$. Now there is a unique circle containing the noncollinear points $A, B, C$, and since both $\Gamma_{1}$ and its image contain all three of them it follows that $\Gamma_{1}$ and its image must be the same circle.
6. (i) Start off by following the hint. The center $(c, 0)$ of the circle $\Gamma_{1}$ must be the midpoint of the line segment joining $(a, 0)$ to $(b, 0)$, and by the formula for finding midpoints this is $\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$. On the other hand, the diameter $2 r$ of this circle is merely $b-a$, and hence $r=\frac{1}{2}(b-a)$. As noted in the statement at the end of the exercise, there are right angles at $B$ and $C$ if and only if $r^{2}+1=c^{2}$.

Since we have expressed $r$ and $c$ in terms of $a$ and $b$, we can also write $c^{2}$ and $r^{2}$ in terms of these variables:

$$
c^{2}=\frac{b^{2}+2 a b+a^{2}}{4}, \quad r^{2}=\frac{b^{2}-2 a b+a^{2}}{4}
$$

Therefore we obtain the following formula for $c^{2}-r^{2}-1$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
c^{2}-r^{2}-1= & \frac{b^{2}+2 a b+a^{2}}{4}-\frac{b^{2}-2 a b+a^{2}}{4}-1= \\
& \frac{4 a b}{4}-1=a b-1
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $r^{2}+1=c^{2}$, which is equivalent to $c^{2}-r^{2}-1=0$, is satisfied if and only if $a b=1$, or in other words if and only if $a$ and $b$ are reciprocals of each other.
(ii) If $Y=(y, 0)$ where $y>0$, then by the first part of the exercise the circle with center $(c, 0)$ and radius $r$, where

$$
c=\frac{1}{2}\left(y+\frac{1}{y}\right), \quad r=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{y}-y\right)
$$

will satisfy the specified conditions. More generally, if $Y$ is an arbitrary point, then we may write it as $y(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ for some $\theta$ and some $y$ satisfying $0<y<1$, and if we define $r$ and $c$ as before, then the circle with center $c(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ and radius $r$ will have the desired properties.
(iii) This is similar to the last part of the proof of the previous exercise. Let $Y$ be as before, and let $Z=T(Y)$. Then $T$ maps $B$ and $C$ to themselves and switches $Y$ and $Z$. Now the circle $\Gamma_{1}$ does not contain the origin because $r \neq c$ (the difference $c-r$ is equal to $y$ ), so it follows that the image of $\Gamma_{1}$ is also a circle which contains the given four points. Since there is only one such circle, it follows that $\Gamma_{1}$ and its image must be the same

