# Spherical CR Geometry and Dehn Surgery, Richard Evan Schwartz, Annals of Mathematics Studies 165, 2007 

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## 1 Complex hyperbolic space

There are several ways to generalise the hyperbolic plane and its isometry group to objects in higher dimensions. Perhaps the most familiar is (real) hyperbolic three space, popularised by the work of Thurston [14]. The Poincaré disc and half plane models of the hyperbolic plane naturally come with a complex structure and it is natural to generalise them to complex hyperbolic space in higher complex dimensions; see [4] or [8] for further details. A useful model for complex hyperbolic space is the unit ball in $\mathbb{C}^{n}$ equipped with the Bergman metric. When $n=1$ this is just the Poincaré metric on the unit disc in $\mathbb{C}$. When $n \geq 2$ complex hyperbolic space does not have constant curvature, but has pinched negative curvature, which we normalise to lie between -1 and $-1 / 4$.

From now on we concentrate on the case $n=2$. The hyperbolic plane is isometrically embedded into complex hyperbolic two-space $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ in two geometrically distinct ways. First, the intersection of the unit ball in $\mathbb{C}^{2}$ with a complex line (for example one of the complex coordinate axes) is a totally geodesic disc. The restriction of the Bergman metric to this disc is the Poincaré metric with constant curvature -1 . On the other hand, the intersection of $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ with a Lagrangian plane (for example the collection of points with real coordinates) is also a totally geodesic disc. In this case, the restriction of the Bergman metric is the Klein metric on the hyperbolic plane with constant curvature $-1 / 4$.

The group of holomorphic isometries of $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ is the projective unitary group $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$. It s often useful to lift to the matrix group $\operatorname{SU}(2,1)$, which is a threefold cover of $\operatorname{PU}(2,1)$. Non-trivial elements of $\operatorname{PU}(2,1)$ fall into the three classes familiar from real hyperbolic geometry. Namely, $A \in \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is loxodromic if it fixes exactly two points of $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$, one of which is attractive and the other repulsive; $A$ is parabolic if it fixes exactly one point of $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ and is elliptic if it fixes at least one point of $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$. Elliptic isometries are either a complex reflection fixing a point or a complex line, or else are called regular. Complex reflections correspond to matrices in $\mathrm{SU}(2,1)$ with a repeated eigenvalue and regular elliptic maps correspond to matrices with distinct eigenvalues. The full group of complex hyperbolic isometries $\widehat{\mathrm{PU}}(2,1)$ is generated by $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ and an antiholomorphic reflection fixing a Lagrangian plane. An example of such an involution is complex conjugation
of both coordinates, which fixes the Lagrangian plane with real coordinates. Furthermore, any element of $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ may be written as the product of two reflections in Lagrangian planes [3].

The natural geometry associated to the boundary of real hyperbolic space is conformal geometry. Thus the boundary of a hyperbolic three-manifold or orbifold naturally carries a conformal structure. In just the same way, the natural geometry associated to $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ is spherical $C R$ geometry and the boundary of a complex hyperbolic two-manifold or orbifold carries a spherical CR structure. For example, Schwartz has constructed a complex hyperbolic orbifold whose boundary is the Whitehead link complement, which therefore carries a spherical CR structure; see Theorem 3.3 below

Three points of $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ are completely determined up to $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ equivalence by Cartan's angular invariant $\mathbb{A}=\mathbb{A}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right) \in[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$. This invariant measures how the triple $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ is aligned relative to the complex structure in the following sense. Denote the complex line spanned by $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$ by $L_{12}$. Let $\Pi_{12}$ be orthogonal projection onto $L_{12}$. Consider the triangle in $L_{12}$ with vertices $z_{1}, z_{2}, \Pi_{12}\left(z_{3}\right)$. The angular invariant $\mathbb{A}=\mathbb{A}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right)$ is half the signed area of this triangle with respect to the natural Poincaré metric on $L_{12}$. Hence if $z_{3} \in L_{12}$ this triangle is ideal and has area $\pm \pi$, the sign depending on whether moving around the boundary from $z_{1}$ we meet the vertices in the order $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ or in the order $z_{1}, z_{3}, z_{2}$. Thus, in this case the angular invariant is $\mathbb{A}= \pm \pi / 2$. On the other hand, if $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ lie in a Lagrangian plane then $\Pi_{12}\left(z_{3}\right)$ lies on the geodesic with endpoints $z_{1}$ and $z_{2}$. In this case the triangle is degenerate and has area 0 . Thus the angular invariant is also $\mathbb{A}=0$.

## 2 Triangle groups

A triangle group $\Delta$ is the group generated by reflections in the side of a triangle. If the internal angles of the triangle are $\pi / p, \pi / q, \pi / r$ then $\Delta=\Delta(p, q, r)$ has the presentation

$$
\Delta=\left\langle\iota_{1}, \iota_{2}, \iota_{3},: \iota_{1}^{2}=\iota_{2}^{2}=\iota_{3}^{2}=\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right)^{p}=\left(\iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)^{q}=\left(\iota_{3} \iota_{1}\right)^{r}=1\right\rangle
$$

It is often useful to speak of the index two subgroup of $\Delta$ comprising products of even numbers of reflections, which we denote by $\Delta^{+}$. Writing $\iota_{1} \iota_{2}=\alpha$ and $\iota_{2} \iota_{3}=\beta$, the group $\Delta^{+}=\Delta^{+}(p, q, r)$ has presentation

$$
\Delta^{+}=\left\langle\alpha, \beta: \alpha^{p}=\beta^{q}=(\alpha \beta)^{r}=1\right\rangle
$$

The groups $\Delta$ and $\Delta^{+}$have faithful representations to the isometry group of the sphere, the Euclidean plane or the hyperbolic plane depending on whether $1 / p+1 / q+1 / r-1$ is positive, zero or negative respectively. In the hyperbolic case the internal angles of the triangle may be zero. In which case we allow $p, q$ or $r$ to be infinity and we remove the corresponding relation from each of the above presentations. In particular, $\Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty)$ is the free product of three groups of order 2 and $\Delta^{+}(\infty, \infty, \infty)$ is a free group on two generators.

In what follows we restrict our attention to the hyperbolic case, that is we suppose $1 / p+1 / q+1 / r<1$. For such $p, q, r$ there is a triangle in the hyperbolic plane with internal angles $\pi / p, \pi / q, \pi / r$. Moreover, up to applying hyperbolic isometries, this triangle is unique. The group generated by reflections in the sides of this triangle is a faithful representation of $\Delta(p, q, r)$. This representation $\rho$ is unique up to conjugacy. In higher dimensional (real) hyperbolic spaces, since there is a totally geodesic copy of the hyperbolic plane containing the three vertices of the triangle, the representation $\rho$ is again unique up to conjugation. In contrast, this is not true for in complex hyperbolic space.

Consider three complex lines $L_{1}, L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$ in $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ for which the complex angle between $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ is $\pi / p$, the complex angle between $L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$ is $\pi / q$ and the complex angle between $L_{3}$ and $L_{1}$ is $\pi / r$. If $I_{j}$ for $j=1,2,3$ denotes the complex reflection of order 2 fixing $L_{j}$ then $\left\langle I_{1}, I_{2}, I_{3}\right\rangle$ is a representation of $\Delta(p, q, r)$. In contrast to the real hyperbolic case, the lines $L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}$ are not specified up to conjugation by the three angles $\pi / p, \pi / q, \pi / r$. In fact there is one more degree of freedom. This means that there is a one parameter family of representations of $\Delta(p, q, r)$.

In the special case when $p=q=r$ we can define an automorphism of $\Delta(p, p, p)$ that cyclically permutes $\iota_{1}, \iota_{2}$ and $\iota_{3}$. A representation $\rho: \Delta(p, p, p) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is called symmetric if this automorphism is represented by an isometry $J$. Such a $J \in \operatorname{PU}(2,1)$ must have order 3 and, satisfies $L_{2}=J\left(L_{1}\right)$ and $L_{3}=J^{-1}\left(L_{1}\right)$. This means that $I_{2}=J I_{1} J^{-1}$ and $I_{3}=J^{-1} I_{1} J$ and so $\left\langle I_{1}, I_{2}, I_{3}\right\rangle$ is an index 3 normal subgroup of $\left\langle I_{1}, J\right\rangle$.

## 3 Ideal triangle groups

An ideal triangle is one where all the interior angles are 0 . The corresponding group is $\Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty)$. In this case a representation of to $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is generated by reflections of order 2 fixing complex lines $L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}$ which are pairwise asymptotic. Let $z_{j}=\partial L_{j-1} \cap \partial L_{j+1} \in \partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ with indices taken $\bmod 3$. The triple $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ is determined up to $\operatorname{PU}(2,1)$ equivalence by the angular invariant $\mathbb{A}=\mathbb{A}\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}\right)$. Furthermore, we claim that $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is determined up to conjugation by $\mathbb{A}$. In order to see this, choose three points $z_{1}, z_{2}$ and $z_{3}$ in $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ with angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$. Each pair of these points lie on a unique complex line, and so the $z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}$ completely determines three complex lines $L_{1}, L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$, and also determines the group $\left\langle I_{1}, I_{2}, I_{2}\right\rangle$ generated by order two complex reflections fixing these complex lines. Moreover, for any triple of points $z_{1}, z_{2}$, $z_{3}$ in $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ there exists $J$ in $\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ of order 3 satisfying $z_{2}=J\left(z_{1}\right)$ and $z_{3}=J^{-1}\left(z_{1}\right)$. Therefore the representation $\rho$ is automatically symmetric.

We may then ask for which values of $\mathbb{A}$ the representation $\rho$ is discrete and faithful. For example, when $\mathbb{A}=0$ all three points lie on a Lagrangian plane. The intersection of $L_{1}, L_{2}$ and $L_{3}$ with this plane are geodesics and $\rho$ is a Fuchsian representation preserving this Lagrangian plane. Hence $\rho$ is discrete and faithful. On the other hand, when $\mathbb{A}= \pm \pi / 2$ all three points lie on the same complex line and so $I_{1}=I_{2}=I_{3}$ and the image of $\rho$ is a group of order 2 . This is certainly not faithful!

This question was investigated by Goldman and Parker [5] who proved the following theorem.
Theorem 3.1 (Goldman and Parker [5]) Let $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ be a representation of an deal triangle group. Suppose the three vertices have angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$.
(i) If $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A}) \leq 35$ then $\rho_{\mathbb{A}}$ is discrete and faithful.
(ii) If $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})>125 / 3$ then $\rho_{\mathbb{A}}$ is either not discrete or not faithful. In particular, if $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=\infty$ then $\rho_{\mathbb{A}}$ is not faithful.

Furthermore, Goldman and Parker conjectured that the condition in Theorem 3.1 (ii) is necessary and sufficient. In [9] Schwartz gave a proof of this conjecture that depended on numerical analysis. Later, he gave a more conceptual proof in [12]. The main result of these papers may be summarised by:

Theorem 3.2 (Schwartz [9], [12]) Let $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ be a representation for which all three generators are represented by complex involutions fixing complex lines. Then $\rho$ is discrete and faithful if and only if $\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ is loxodromic or parabolic. In particular, suppose that the three vertices have angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$.
(i) If $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A}) \leq 125 / 3$ then $\rho$ is discrete and faithful.
(ii) If $125 / 3<\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})<\infty$ then $\rho$ is not discrete.
(iii) If $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=\infty$ then $\rho$ is not faithful.

Schwartz went on to investigate the geometry of the representation with $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=125 / 3$, the last representation that is discrete and faithful. This group is sometimes called the last ideal triangle group or the golden triangle group. The geometry of this group is discussed in [10] and in Chapters 20 and 21 of the book under review.

Theorem 3.3 (Schwartz [10]) Let $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ be a representation of an deal triangle group for which $\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ is parabolic (that is the three vertices have angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$ where $\left.\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=125 / 3\right)$. Let $J \in \operatorname{PU}(2,1)$ be the order three symmetry cyclically permuting the vertices. Then $\rho(\Delta)$ is discrete and faithful; the parabolic elements of $\rho(\Delta)$ are conjugate to powers of $I_{j} I_{j+1}$ or $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}$ and every other non-trivial element of $\rho(\Delta)$ is loxodromic.

Moreover, if $\Omega$ is the domain of discontinuity of $\rho(\Delta)$ then $\Omega /\left\langle J, I_{1} J I_{1}\right\rangle$ is the complement of the Whitehead link, the two components of the link corresponding to the parabolic conjugacy classes $\left(I_{1} J I_{1}\right) J^{-1}$ and $\left(I_{1} J I_{1}\right) J$ (that is to $I_{1} I_{2}$ and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\left(I_{1} J\right)^{3}$ respectively).

This construction is the first example of a spherical CR structure being put onto a hyperbolic 3 -manifold. It provides a bridge between complex hyperbolic Kleinian groups and the classical theory in hyperbolic 3 -space. This bridge is the main philosophical starting point for the book under review. The hyperbolic Dehn surgery theorem of Thurston [14] is the main inspiration behind this book. The starting point of the hyperbolic Dehn surgery theorem is a cusped hyperbolic 3manifold, such as a knot or link complement. A Dehn surgery is a recipe for capping off one of the cusps by gluing in a solid torus. Of course there are many ways to do this. The hyperbolic Dehn surgery theorem says that for all but finitely many Dehn surgeries, the resulting manifold is still hyperbolic.

Schwartz's goal is to take a cusped hyperbolic 3-manifold with a spherical CR structure and to then perform a Dehn surgery on one or more cusps to obtain new hyperbolic 3-manifolds with spherical CR structures. Before we discuss this result, we give a connection to other types of triangle groups.

## 4 Lagrangian triangle groups

In addition to the complex triangle groups discussed in the previous section, there is another type of representation of $\Delta(p, q, r)$ to the isometry group of complex hyperbolic space. Namely, we suppose that $\rho(\Delta) \in \widehat{\mathrm{PU}}(2,1)$ and each of the generators is represented by an anti-holomorphic involution fixing a Lagrangian plane. In this case the product of two of the generators is represented by an elliptic or parabolic element of $\operatorname{PU}(2,1)$. Since any element of $\operatorname{PU}(2,1)$ can be written as the product of reflections in a pair of Lagrangian planes that intersect in $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$ (see [3]), there are no restrictions on the type of elliptic or parabolic map that can occur in such a representation. This leads to more possible types of representation.

The only triangle group for which the Lagrangian representation space has been completely described is $\Delta(2,3, \infty)$, the reflection subgroup of the classical modular group. This was done by Falbel and Parker in [2] and uses earlier work of Gusevskii and Parker [6] and Falbel and Koseleff [1]. There are different components of this representation space depending on whether
the order 2 and order 3 generators of $\Delta^{+}(2,3, \infty)$ are represented by complex reflections in points or lines or by regular elliptic maps. In particular, for the order 2 generator $\alpha=\iota_{1} \iota_{2}$ we see that $A=\rho(\alpha) \in \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ satisfies $A^{2}=I$. The only possibilities are that $A$ is a complex reflection fixing a point or a complex line. On the other hand, the order three generator $\beta=\iota_{2} \iota_{3}$ may be represented by a complex reflection in a point, a complex reflection in a line or a regular elliptic map.

There is a copy of $\Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty)$ lying in $\Delta(2,3, \infty)$ as an index 6 subgroup. Once again we let $\mathbb{A}$ denote the angular invariant of the three parabolic fixed points of these generators. The main may be summarised as:

Theorem 4.1 (Falbel and Parker [2]) Let $\rho: \Delta(2,3, \infty) \longrightarrow \widehat{\mathrm{PU}}(2,1)$ be a representation for which all three generators are represented by antiholomorphic involutions fixing Lagrangian planes. Then $\rho$ is discrete and faithful if and only if $\rho\left(\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)^{2}\right)$ is loxodromic or parabolic. In particular, suppose that $A=\rho(\alpha)=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right)$ and $B=\rho(\beta)=\rho\left(\iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ are the holomorphic elliptic maps of orders 2 and 3 respectively. Then
(i) If $B$ is a complex reflection then $\rho$ is unique up to conjugacy and preserves a complex line. There are four such representations depending on whether $A$ and $B$ fix a point or a complex line.
(ii) If $A$ fixes a point and $B$ is regular elliptic then the representation is parametrised up to conjugacy by the angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$ of the three parabolic fixed points corresponding to $A B$, $B A$ and $B^{-1} A B^{-1}$. The representation is discrete and faithful for all $\mathbb{A} \in[-\pi / 2, \pi / 2]$.
(iii) If $A$ fixes a complex line and $B$ is regular elliptic then the representation is parametrised up to conjugacy by the angular invariant $\mathbb{A}$ of the three parabolic fixed points corresponding to $A B$, $B A$ and $B^{-1} A B^{-1}$. The representation is discrete and faithful if and only if $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A}) \geq 15$.

In the group from Theorem 4.1 (iii) with $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=15$ the element $\rho\left(\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)^{2}\right)$ is parabolic. We can write this in terms of $A$ and $B$ as follows:

$$
\rho\left(\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)^{2}\right)=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right) \rho\left(\iota_{3} \iota_{2}\right) \rho\left(\iota_{2} \iota_{1}\right) \rho\left(\iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)=A B^{-1} A B=\left[A, B^{-1}\right]=(A B)^{-1}[A, B](A B)
$$

A most remarkable fact is that the group from Theorem 4.1 (iii) with $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=15$ is commensurable with the golden triangle group, that is the group from Theorem 3.2 with $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=125 / 3$. We now explain this. Let $G_{0}=\left\langle I_{1}, J\right\rangle$ be the index 3 normal extension of the golden triangle group. Hence, $I_{1}$ has order 2 and fixes a complex line and $J$ has order 3 . Then $I_{2}=J I_{1} J^{-1}$ and $I_{3}=J^{-1} I_{1} J$. The parabolic elements of $G_{0}$ are conjugate to powers of $I_{1} I_{2}=\left[I_{1}, J\right]$ and powers of $I_{1} J$ (observe that $\left.I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\left(I_{1} J\right)^{3}\right)$. Let $G_{1}=\langle A, B\rangle$ be the group of words of even length in the group from Theorem 4.1 (iii) with $\tan ^{2}(\mathbb{A})=15$. Then $A$ has order 2 and fixes a complex line and $B$ has order 3. The parabolic elements of $G_{1}$ are conjugate to powers of $A B$ and powers of $[A, B]$. Thus we identify them by the map $\phi: G_{0} \longrightarrow G_{1}$ by $\phi\left(I_{1}\right)=A$ and $\phi(J)=B$.

We may extend this identification to the other groups in Theorem 4.1 (iii). For such groups $A B=\phi^{-1}\left(I_{1} J\right)$ is parabolic for all $\mathbb{A}$ but $[A, B]=\phi^{-1}\left(I_{1} I_{2}\right)$ may be elliptic, parabolic or loxodromic. The representation is discrete and faithful when $[A, B]$ is parabolic or loxodromic. Passing to the index 3 subgroup, this is the same as saying $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\left(I_{1} J\right)^{3}$ is parabolic and $I_{1} I_{2}, I_{2} I_{3}$ and $I_{3} I_{1}$ are all parabolic or loxodromic. The statement is:

Theorem 4.2 (Falbel and Parker [2]) Suppose that $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is a representation so that $I_{j}=\rho\left(\iota_{j}\right)$ fixes a complex line and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ is parabolic. Suppose that there exists a symmetry map $J$ of order 3 so that $I_{2}=J I_{1} J^{-1}$ and $I_{3}=J^{-1} I_{1} J$. Then $\rho$ is discrete and faithful if and only if $I_{1} I_{2}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right)$ (and so also $I_{2} I_{3}$ and $I_{3} I_{1}$ ) is loxodromic or parabolic.

## 5 The horotube surgery theorem

I will now describe the main result of Schwartz's book, the horotube surgery theorem. We give a precise statement in Theorem 5.1 below. Roughly speaking, the idea behind this theorem is that one begins with a cusped three-manifold or orbifold with a spherical CR structure and then by performing certain Dehn surgeries, one constructs new manifolds or orbifolds which have spherical CR structures.

To be more precise, the class of groups to which the horotube surgery theorem applies are what Schwartz calls horotube representations of an abstract group $\Gamma$. We will now discuss the properties of a horotube representation. Consider a representation $\rho_{0}: \Gamma \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$. Suppose that $P \in \rho_{0}(\Gamma)$ is a parabolic map with fixed point $p \in \partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$. A horotube is a $P$-invariant open set $T$ of $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}-\{p\}$ so that $T /\langle P\rangle$ has a compact complement in $\left(\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}-\{p\}\right) /\langle P\rangle$. Schwartz calls the quotient $T /\langle P\rangle$ a horocusp. Suppose that $\rho_{0}(\Gamma)$ is discrete and write $\Lambda$ for its limit set and $\Omega$ for its domain of discontinuity in $\partial \mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$. Then $\Omega$ is porous if there exists $\epsilon_{0}>0$ so that $A(\Omega)$ contains a ball of spherical diameter $\epsilon_{0}$ for all $A \in \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$. This condition should be equivalent to $\Gamma$ being geometrically finite with no maximal rank cusps (see page 28 of [13]). A discrete representation $\rho_{0}: \Gamma \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is a horotube representation if: every elliptic element of $\rho_{0}(\Gamma)$ has a unique fixed point in $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$, the domain of discontinuity $\Omega$ is porous and its quotient $\Omega / \rho_{0}(\Gamma)$ is the union of a compact set together with a finite collection of disjoint horocusps. In particular, if $\rho_{0}$ is a horotube representation then every parabolic subgroup of $\rho_{0}(\Gamma)$ is cyclic.

The horotube surgery theorem concerns families of representations of $\Gamma$ that converge to $\rho_{0}$. Suppose that $\rho_{0}$ is a horotube representation of $\Gamma$. An infinite cyclic subgroup $\Upsilon$ of $\Gamma$ is peripheral if $\rho_{0}(\Upsilon)$ is a parabolic subgroup. Such groups are in one to one correspondence with the horocusps. Schwartz says that a sequence of representations $\rho_{n}: \Gamma \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ converge nicely to $\rho_{0}$ if for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and all peripheral subgroups $\Upsilon<\Gamma$

- $\rho_{n}(\gamma) \longrightarrow \rho_{0}(\gamma)$ geometrically for each $\gamma \in \Gamma$;
- $\rho_{n}(\Upsilon) \longrightarrow \rho_{0}(\Upsilon)$ setwise with respect to the Hausdorff topology;
- if $\rho_{n}(\Upsilon)$ is finite then each of its elements has a unique fixed point in $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbb{C}}^{2}$.

Theorem 5.1 (Horotube surgery, Theorem 1.2 of [13]) Suppose that $\rho_{0}: \Gamma \longrightarrow G_{0}<\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is a horotube representation. Let $\rho_{n}: \Gamma \longrightarrow G_{n}<\mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ be a sequence of representations that converge nicely to $\rho_{0}$. Then there exists $N$ so that if $n \geq N$ the group $G_{n}=\rho_{n}(\Gamma)$ is discrete and $\Omega_{n} / G_{n}$ is obtained from $\Omega_{0} / G_{0}$ by performing a Dehn filling on each horocusp of $\Omega_{0} / G_{0}$ corresponding to a peripheral subgroup $\Upsilon$ for which $H_{n}=\rho_{n}(\Upsilon)$ is not parabolic. If at least one cusp is not filled then $\rho_{n}$ is a horotube representation of $\Gamma / \operatorname{ker}\left(\rho_{n}\right)$.

Furthermore Schwartz gives precise details about which Dehn surgeries arise in terms of $\rho_{0}(\Upsilon)$ and $\rho_{n}(\Upsilon)$.

## 6 Application of the HST to triangle groups

We now discuss how the horotube surgery theorem may be applied to triangle groups. The starting point is the golden triangle group. Schwartz proves that this is a horotube representation with four (conjugacy classes of) peripheral subgroups, namely $\Upsilon_{12}=\left\langle\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right\rangle, \Upsilon_{23}=\left\langle\iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right\rangle, \Upsilon_{31}=\left\langle\iota_{3} \iota_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\Upsilon_{123}=\left\langle\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right\rangle$. Suppose that $\rho_{n}(\Delta)$ is a sequence of representations of $\Delta=\Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty)$ converging nicely to the golden triangle group. Then there are several possible scenarios depending on whether the generator of each of these subgroups is loxodromic, elliptic or parabolic.

For example, suppose that the three peripheral subgroups $\Upsilon_{j k}$ are all parabolic and $\Upsilon_{123}$ is loxodromic. Such representations are covered by Theorem 3.2, which indicates that they are all horotube representations. Likewise, suppose that $\Upsilon_{j k}$ are all loxodromic and $\Upsilon_{123}$ is parabolic. If, in addition, there is a symmetry map $J$ that cyclically conjugates $\rho\left(\Upsilon_{12}\right)$, $\rho\left(\Upsilon_{23}\right)$, and $\rho\left(\Upsilon_{31}\right)$ then such representations are covered by Theorem 4.2, which indicates that they are all horotube representations.

The more interesting case arises when at least one of the peripheral subgroups is elliptic. In the symmetric case, there are only finitely many discrete representations where all the peripheral subgroups are elliptic and so we cannot use the horotube surgery theorem in this case.

Theorem 6.1 (Parker [7]) There are only finitely many conjugacy classes of symmetric, discrete representations $\rho: \Delta(p, p, p) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ for which $\rho\left(\iota_{j}\right)=I_{j}$ fixes a complex line and for which $I_{1} I_{2}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2}\right)$ and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ are both elliptic.

Of course, we could ask about asymmetric groups where all the peripheral subgroups of the golden triangle group are elliptic.

Therefore, it is natural to ask about groups for which one family of peripheral triangle groups is elliptic and the other loxodromic. This is one of the applications of the horotube surgery theorem given by Schwartz. Consider one of the groups from Theorem 3.2 for which $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ is loxodromic and $I_{j} I_{k}=\rho\left(\iota_{j} \iota_{k}\right)$ is parabolic for each pair $j \neq k$ in $\{1,2,3\}$. This group is the limit of a sequence of representations with $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}$ loxodromic and at least one of the $I_{j} I_{k}$ elliptic, the orders tending to infinity. Now suppose that $\rho$ is sufficiently far along this sequence. By applying the horotube surgery theorem, Schwartz is able to prove the following result.

Theorem 6.2 (Theorem 1.10 of [13]) Suppose that $\rho: \Delta(p, q, r) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ be a representation of so that $I_{j}=\rho\left(\iota_{j}\right)$ fixes a complex line and $I_{j} I_{k}=\rho\left(\iota_{j} \iota_{k}\right)$ has the same order as $\iota_{j} \iota_{k}(p, q$ and $r$ may also be $\infty)$. Suppose also that $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}=\rho\left(\iota_{1} \iota_{2} \iota_{3}\right)$ is loxodromic. Then for $\min \{p, q, r\}$ sufficiently large, $\rho$ is a horotube representation and hence is discrete.

We can give a further application of the horotube surgery theorem by swapping the roles of $I_{j} I_{k}$ and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}$ in the previous theorem. Namely, consider one of the symmetric representations in Theorem 4.2 where $I_{1} I_{2}, I_{2} I_{3}$ and $I_{3} I_{1}$ are each loxodromic and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}$ is parabolic. This group is the limit of a sequence of groups for which $I_{1} I_{2}, I_{2} I_{3}$ and $I_{3} I_{1}$ are loxodromic and $I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}$ is regular elliptic. Since our original group is a horotube representation, by taking $\rho$ sufficiently far along this sequence we can apply the horotube surgery theorem. This leads to the following result:

Theorem 6.3 Suppose that $\rho: \Delta(\infty, \infty, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathrm{PU}(2,1)$ is a symmetric representation for which $I_{j}=\rho\left(\iota_{j}\right)$ fixes a complex line and $I_{j} I_{k}=\rho\left(\iota_{j} \iota_{k}\right)$ is loxodromic. If $\rho\left(I_{1} I_{2} I_{3}\right)$ is regular elliptic of sufficiently high order then $\rho$ is a horotube representation and hence is discrete.

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