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## TYPICAL SURFACES AND RANDOM GRAPHS

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In this talk, we describe an approach to the problem: What does a typical Riemann surface of large genus look like geometrically? In large part, this is joint work with Eran Makover.

As various parts of this program have been described elsewhere ([PS], [SGB], [LFE], [RCRS]), we will take the present occasion to describe some of the motivating ideas behind the program. See [FERS] for an announcement of results in this direction.

A central problem, which we have attacked from a number of points of view, is to come to some geometrical understanding of the following theorem, due to Selberg:

**THEOREM 1 ([Sel]).** — *Let  $\Gamma = PSL(2, \mathbb{Z})$ , and let*

$$\Gamma_k = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \equiv \pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{k} \right\}.$$

*Then the first eigenvalue  $\lambda_1(\mathbb{H}^2/\Gamma_k)$  satisfies*

$$\lambda_1(\mathbb{H}^2/\Gamma_k) \geq 3/16.$$

The number 3/16 has been improved by Luo, Rudnick, and Sarnak [LRS], but we will not be interested here in precise constants. Rather, we will say that  $\lambda_1$  of a Riemann surface is large if it is bounded below by a positive constant independent of the genus.

A natural question arising from Selberg's Theorem is whether the phenomenon of large first eigenvalue is something which is special for arithmetically defined surfaces, or whether it is a property enjoyed by “typical” Riemann surfaces, of which such arithmetically defined surfaces just happen to be good examples.

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To understand this question, we may perform the following thought experiment: let  $R_g$  be a Riemann surface whose geometric description is like our usual picture of a Riemann surface:

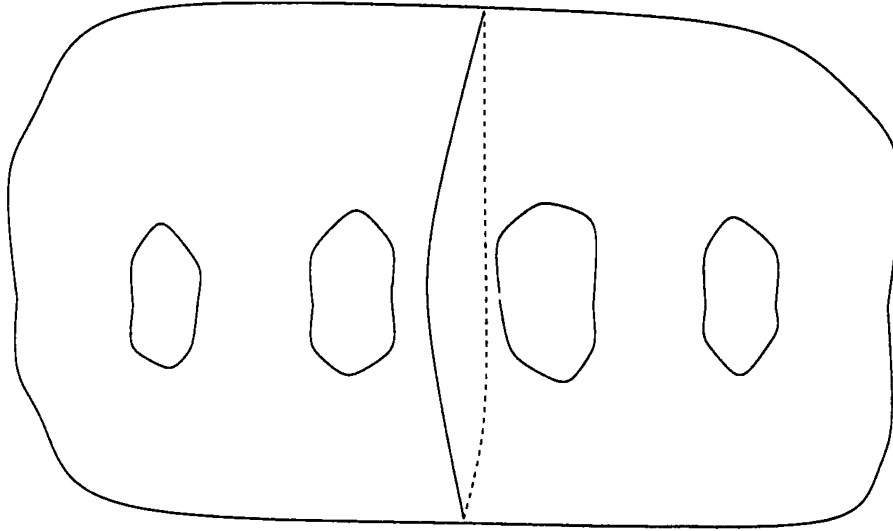


Figure 1: The surface  $R_g$

We have drawn on  $R_g$  a curve which divides it into two pieces.

Instead of trying to visualize the first eigenvalue, we instead consider the Cheeger constant

$$h(R) = \inf_C \frac{\text{length}(C)}{\min(\text{area}(A), \text{area}(B))},$$

where  $C$  is a (possibly disconnected) curve which splits  $R$  into two parts  $A$  and  $B$ .

It is then easy to see that as  $g$  gets large, the Cheeger constant  $h(R_g)$  tends to 0, as the surface is divided into two pieces of equal size by a curve such as the curve in Figure 1, whose length is fixed independent of the genus.

Now let us divide the surface in half, as in Figure 2 below, and then glue the legs of the top half randomly to legs in the bottom half. It is easy to convince oneself that for a suitably random gluing of the legs, there is no longer any convenient way to divide the surface in half by a relatively short curve.

One would like to believe that a typical Riemann surface looks more like one of the random gluings than like  $R_g$  itself. The problem in making this precise is two-fold:

- (i) First of all, it would seem to be difficult to describe processes such as the random gluings in terms of, say, Fenchel-Nielsen coordinates. In general, it would seem to be difficult to use Fenchel-Nielsen coordinates to control the spectral geometry of a surface of large genus.

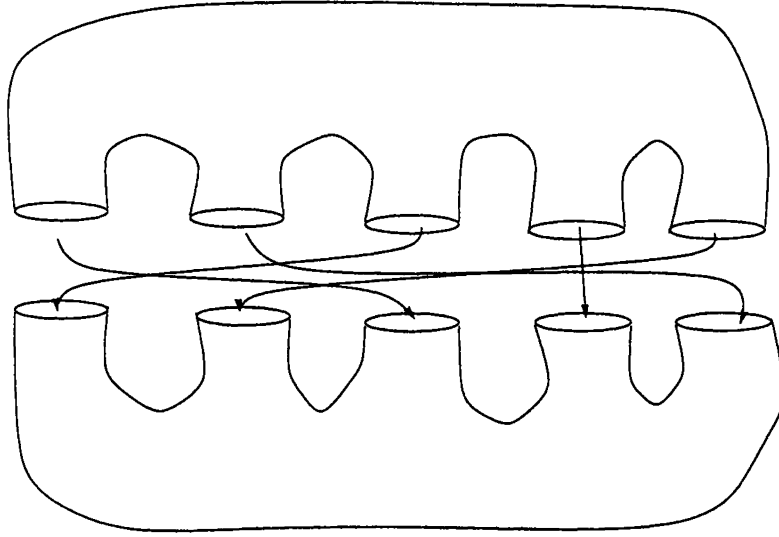


Figure 2: A random gluing

- (ii) Secondly, the gluing process described above seems to rest on a combinatorial structure which would seem to be absent in a typical Riemann surface. How can one describe a typical Riemann surface in a way which reflects a combinatorial structure analogous to this?

Both of these difficulties are met by the following construction: let  $G$  be a finite trivalent graph, and  $\mathcal{O}$  an orientation of  $G$ —i.e., for each vertex  $v$  of  $G$ ,  $\mathcal{O}$  gives a cyclic ordering of the vertices emanating from  $v$ .

We may then associate to the pair  $(G, \mathcal{O})$  two Riemann surfaces  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  and  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$ , as follows:  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  is constructed from  $G$  by pasting one hyperbolic ideal triangle for each vertex, and gluing triangles together according to the graph and orientation, see [TS] for details.  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  is then a finite-area Riemann surface, whose geometry is well-controlled by the pair  $(G, \mathcal{O})$ .  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  is then the conformal compactification of  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$ .

The two problems mentioned above can be rephrased in the following way:

QUESTION 1. — *To what extent can we transfer the good geometric control that we have on the surfaces  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  to the surfaces  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$ ?*

QUESTION 2. — *To what extent are the surfaces  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  typical Riemann surfaces?*

Question 2 is answered by the following theorem, which is an easy consequence of the Belyi Theorem [Be]:

THEOREM 2. — *If  $S$  is any compact Riemann surface, then for any  $\varepsilon$ , there is a surface of the form  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  is  $\varepsilon$ -close to  $S$ .*

Here, “ $\varepsilon$ -close” may be taken in any convenient metric on moduli space, for instance the Teichmüller metric. Thus, the surfaces  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  are a dense set of surfaces in the moduli space of all surfaces.

The answer to Question 1 is somewhat more complicated. It is not hard to see that the surfaces  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  and  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  might be quite different geometrically. For instance,  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  always carries a complete hyperbolic metric, but  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  might be a sphere. However, the theorem of [PS] guarantees that this cannot happen when the cusps are large:

**THEOREM 3 ([PS]).** — *For any  $\varepsilon$ , there exists an  $L$  with the following property: if  $S^O$  is a finite-area Riemann surface, all of whose cusps have length  $\geq L$ , then outside of cusp neighborhoods, depending only on  $L$ , the hyperbolic metrics  $ds_O^2$  on  $S^O$  and  $ds_C^2$  on its conformal compactification  $S^C$  satisfy:*

$$\frac{1}{(1 + \varepsilon)} ds_O^2 \leq ds_C^2 \leq (1 + \varepsilon) ds_O^2.$$

The proof is an application of the Ahlfors-Schwarz Lemma [A], together with playing with differential inequalities.

When the condition of large cusps is satisfied, Theorem 3 can be used to show that the geometric control one has over  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  transfers to control over  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$ . Furthermore, the large cusps condition has a simple graph-theoretic interpretation which is easily studied.

In [SGB] and [RCRS], we use the Bollobas model of random regular graphs [Bo1], [Bo2] to study the large cusps condition. Let  $\mathcal{G}_k$  denote the finite set of 3-regular graphs on  $2k$  vertices, and  $\mathcal{G}_k^*$  the finite set of oriented 3-regular graphs on  $2k$  vertices. Then:

**THEOREM 4 ([SGB]).** — *With probability  $\rightarrow 1$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , a graph selected randomly from  $\mathcal{G}_k$  carries an orientation  $\mathcal{O}$  such that all the cusps of  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  are large.*

**THEOREM 5 ([RCRS]).** — *There is a positive constant  $C_1$  independent of  $k$  such that, for a pair  $(G, \mathcal{O})$  randomly chosen from  $\mathcal{G}_k^*$ ,  $S^O(G, \mathcal{O})$  has large cusps with probability at least  $C_1$ .*

Theorems 4 and 5 can be used to construct compact surfaces which enjoy properties enjoyed by random 3-regular graphs. In particular, Theorem 5 shows that there is a constants  $C_2$  such that a randomly chosen surface  $S^C(G, \mathcal{O})$  satisfies

$$\lambda_1(S^C(G, \mathcal{O})) \geq C_2$$

with probability at least  $C_1$ .

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