# SYMBOLIC DYNAMICS FOR GEODESIC FLOWS 

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## Introduction

By the classical result of Hopf [12], the geodesic flow on a surface of constant negative curvature and finite area is ergodic. In the case of a compact surface the flow has subsequently been shown to be Anosov [2], $K$ [17], and Bernoulli [15]. By the work of Bowen and Ruelle [5] any Anosov flow on a compact manifold can be represented as a special flow over a Markov shift of finite type, with a Hölder continuous height function. Ratner [16] showed that any such special flow which is $K$ is also Bernoulli.

In this paper we make an explicit geometrical construction of a symbolic dynamics for the geodesic flow on a surface of constant negative curvature and finite area. The construction involves the geometry of the surface and the structure of its fundamental group. The geodesic flow is shown to be a quotient of a special flow over a Markov shift, by a continuous map which is one-one except on a set of the first category. For a compact surface the height function is Hölder.

The states for the Markov shift are generators of the fundamental group $\Gamma$, and the admissible sequences are determined by the relations among the generators. If we lift the surface to its universal covering space the unit disc $D$, then admissible sequences correspond to geodesics in $D$ which pass close to a fixed central fundamental region for $\Gamma$, in a sense made precise in § 3. The height function $h$ corresponds to the time a geodesic takes to cross $R$, with a suitable convention if the geodesic is close to $R$ but does not cut $R$.

The idea of our construction comes from three different sources. In [3] Artin obtained a representation of geodesics in the Poincaré upper half plane $H$ (these geodesics are of course semi-circles centred on and orthogonal to the real axis) as doubly infinite sequences of positive integers, by juxtaposing the continued fraction expansions of their endpoints; two geodesics are then conjugate under the action of GL $(2, \mathbf{Z})$ on $H$ if and only if the corresponding sequences are shift equivalent.

The second source is Hedlund's paper [11]. In [14] Nielsen gave a symbolic representa-
tion of points on $S^{1}$ as semi-infinite sequences of generators of the fundamental group $\Gamma_{1}$ for a surface whose fundamental region $R_{1}$ is a symmetrical $4 g$-sided polygon; in [11] Hedlund represented geodesics in $D$ by juxtaposing the Nielsen expansions of their endpoints, showed geodesics are conjugate under $\Gamma_{1}$ if and only if the corresponding sequences are shift equivalent, and used this to prove ergodicity of the geodesic flow on $D / \Gamma_{1}$. In [10] he showed that Artin's coding could be used to obtain similar results for $H / S L(2, Z)$.

Finally in [13] Morse coded geodesics $\gamma$ in $D$ as sequences of generators in $\Gamma_{1}$ by an entirely different method: he observed that to each side of the net $\boldsymbol{n}_{1}$ of images of sides of $R_{1}$ under $\Gamma_{1}$ is associated a unique generator of $\Gamma_{1}$, and assigned to $\gamma$ the sequence of generators which label the successive sides of $\eta_{1}$ crossed by $\gamma$. In order to obtain a one-one correspondence between sequences with certain well-defined admissibility rules and geodesics this coding needs to be slightly modified when $\gamma$ passes too near to a vertex of $\eta_{1}$ and this point occupies a large part of [13]. The admissibility rules which are obtained are more or less identical with those of Hedlund.

In view of these results, and the facts about representing a general Anosov flow as a special flow over a Markov shift, it is natural to ask whether the ideas of Morse and Hedlund can be combined to give a representation of the geodesic flow as a special flow over some Markov shift whose symbols are generators of $\Gamma$ and where the height function measures the time to cross the fundamental region $R$. This is precisely what we have done in this paper. Adler and Flatto (private communication) have obtained similar results in the SL (2, Z ) and $\Gamma_{1}$ cases above.

The symbolic dynamics we use derives from the results of [6], in which the action of the fundamental group on $S^{1}$ is shown to be orbit equivalent to a certain Markov map $f_{\Gamma}$ of finite type acting on $S^{1}$; that is, $x=g y, x, y \in S^{\mathbf{1}}, g \in \Gamma \Leftrightarrow f_{\Gamma}^{n}(x)=f_{\Gamma}^{m}(y)$ for some $n, m \geqslant 0$. We copy Artin and Hedlund in representing geodesics in $D$ by juxtaposing the $f$-expansions of their endpoints, and then show that these sequences have a geometrical interpretation analogous to Morse's idea of listing successive crossings of the fundamental region $R$. Finally we derive the representation of the geodesic flow on $D / \Gamma$ as a quotient of a special flow over the natural extension of $f_{\Gamma}$.

To understand the constructions the reader will need to be familiar with the maps $f_{\Gamma}$ of [6]. In [6] we first constructed $f_{\Gamma}$ for groups $\Gamma$ whose fundamental region $R$ could be chosen to satisfy a certain symmetry condition $\left(^{*}\right)$, and then showed that any $\Gamma$ could be deformed by a quasi-conformal deformation to a group $\Gamma^{\prime}$ satisfying ( ${ }^{*}$ ). We then carried over the definition of $t_{\Gamma^{\prime}}$ using the boundary homeomorphism and constructed the general $f_{\Gamma}$. We shall adopt the same procedure here, so that in the main part of the work, § $1-\S 4$, we shall only be concerned with groups whose fundamental region satisfies (*).

In § 1 we review briefly the definition and properties of $f_{\Gamma}$ and then determine which sequences of generators correspond to admissible $f$-expansions. In $\S 2$ we describe the $\Gamma$ action on $S^{1}$ in terms of sequences and show how to juxtapose sequences to represent certain pairs of points on $\mathcal{S}^{1}$. In fact geodesics are conjugate under $\Gamma$ if and only if the corresponding sequences are shift equivalent.

In § 3 we discuss the relation of this representation to the listing of successive crossings of $R$ and in $\S 4$ derive the symbolic representation of the flow. Finally in $\S 5$ we show how to carry these results over to the general case using quasi-conformal maps.

We shall keep to the notation of [6]. In particular, when describing arcs on $S^{1}$, we always label in an anti-clockwise direction, so that $P Q$ means the points lying between $P$ and $Q$ moving anti-clockwise from $P$ to $Q$. We write ( $P Q$ ), $[P Q]$, etc., to distinguish open and closed arcs on $S^{1}$.

Throughout, $\Gamma$ is a finitely generated Fuchsian group of the first kind acting in the unit disc $D$; that is, a discrete group of linear fractional transformations $z \dashv(a z+b) /(c z+d)$, $a d-b c=1$, which map $D$ to itself and such that there are points on $S^{1}$ with dense orbits. The corresponding surface $D / \Gamma$ is a Riemann surface of constant negative curvature and finite area; we are concerned with the geodesic flow on the unit tangent bundle $M$ of $D / \Gamma$. $\Gamma$ has a fundamental region $R$ in $D$ which can be taken to be a polygon bounded by a finite number of circular ares orthogonal to $S^{1}$. A vertex of $R$ lying on $S^{\mathbf{1}}$ is called a cusp. $D / \Gamma$ is compact if and only if $R$ has no cusps. Geodesics on $D / \Gamma$ are the projections of circular arcs in $D$ orthogonal to $S^{1}$.

If $g \in \Gamma, g(z)=(a z+b) /(c z+d)$, then the circle $|c z+d|=1$ is called the isometric circle of $g$, because $\left|g^{\prime}(z)\right|>1$ inside this circle and $\left|g^{\prime}(z)\right|<1$ outside. The isometric circle is always a circle orthogonal to $S^{1}$.

I suspect the idea that something like the ideas of this paper might work has occurred to a number of people. In particular, see the remark at the end of [10]. Certainly it had to both Adler and Moser, and I would like to thank both for the benefit of useful conversations.

## § 1. Symbolic representation of points on $\boldsymbol{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$

Let us recall briefly the constructions made in [6]. As explained in the introduction, $\Gamma$ is a finitely generated Fuchsian group of the first kind acting in the unit disc $D$. $\Gamma$ has a fundamental region $R$ which consists of a polygon with a finite number of sides $\left\{s_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$; these sides extend to circular arcs $C\left(s_{i}\right)$ orthogonal to $S^{1}$. Each side $s_{i}$ of $R$ is identified with another side $A\left(s_{i}\right)$ by an element $g_{i}=g\left(s_{i}\right) \in \Gamma$; the set $\Gamma_{0}=\left\{g_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is a symmetrical set of generators for $\Gamma$. The images of the sides $\left\{s_{i}\right\}$ under $\Gamma$ form a net $\eta$ in $D$. We will say $R$ satisfies property ( ${ }^{*}$ ) if:
(i) $C(s)$ is the isometric circle of $s$, and
(ii) $C(s)$ lies completely in $n$.

Throughout § 1-§4, we shall assume $R$ satisfies $\left(^{*}\right)$ and moreover that $R$ is not a triangle and does not have elliptic vertices of order 2. (See [6].)

A typical fundamental region is shown in Fig. 1. (See also Fig. 1 of [6].)
We label the sides of $R, s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{n}$ in anti-clockwise order; the vertex $v_{i}$ is the intersection of $s_{i-1}$ and $s_{i}$ (with $s_{0}=s_{n}$ ). $C\left(s_{i}\right)$ meets $S^{1}$ in $P_{i}, Q_{i+1}$, so that the order of points along $C\left(s_{i}\right)$ is $P_{i}, v_{i}, v_{i+1}, Q_{i+1}$.
$f=f_{\Gamma}: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ is defined by $f_{\Gamma}(x)=g_{i}(x), x \in\left[P_{i} P_{i+1}\right)$. In [6] we showed that $f_{\Gamma}$ has the following properties:
(a) Except for a finite number of pairs of points $x, y \in S^{1}$ :

$$
x=g y, \quad x, y \in S^{1}, \quad g \in \Gamma \Leftrightarrow \exists n, m \geqslant 0 \quad \text { such that } f^{n}(x)=f^{m}(y) .
$$

(b) $f$ is Markov in the following sense:

There is a finite or countable partition of $S^{1}$ into intervals $\left\{I_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ such that
(Mi) $f$ is strictly monotonic on each $I_{i}$ and extends to a $C^{2}$ function $\bar{f}_{i}$ on $\bar{I}_{i}$,
(Mii) $f\left(I_{k}\right) \cap I_{j} \neq \varnothing \Rightarrow f\left(I_{k}\right) \supseteq I_{j}, \forall j, k$,
(Miii) $\bigcup_{r=0}^{\infty} f^{\tau}\left(I_{j}\right) \supseteq I_{k}, \forall j, k$,
(Miv) If $\bar{I}_{i}=\left[a_{i}, b_{i}\right]$ then $\left\{\bar{f}_{i}\left(a_{i}\right), \bar{f}_{i}\left(b_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is finite.

Moreover the partition $\left\{I_{i}\right\}$ is finite if and only if $D / \Gamma$ is compact, or equivalently if $R$ has no cusps.
(c) (Ei) If there are no cusps, then $\exists N>0$ such that

$$
\inf _{x \in S^{1}}\left|\left(f^{N}\right)^{\prime}(x)\right|>\gamma>1
$$

(Eii) A cusp of $R$ is a periodic point for $f$ with derivative one. There is a subset $K \subseteq S^{1}$, consisting of a union of intervals $I_{i}$, so that if $f_{K}(x)=f^{n(x)}(x), n(x)=$ $\min \left\{n>0: f^{n}(x) \in K\right\}, x \in K$, is the first return map induced on $K$, then $\exists N$ such that $\inf _{x \in K}\left|\left(f_{K}^{N}\right)^{\prime}(x)\right|>\gamma>1$.

To each point $x \in S^{1}$ we can associate a so-called $f$-expansion (cf. [1]). The usual way to do this is to write $x=i_{0} i_{1} i_{2} \ldots$ if $f^{n}(x) \in \bar{I}_{i_{n}}, n=0,1,2, \ldots$. (There is a slight ambiguity at the endpoints which we shall clarify below.) By (Mii) the rule determining which sequences $i_{0} i_{1} i_{2} \ldots$ can occur is of finite type [8]; namely $i_{r} i_{s}$ occurs iff $f\left(\bar{I}_{r}\right) \supset \bar{I}_{s}$.

For our purposes it is better to label points using the generators $\Gamma_{0}$ of $\Gamma$, so we replace the partition $\left\{\bar{I}_{i}\right\}$ by $\left\{\left[P_{i} P_{i+1}\right]=\left[g_{i}\right]\right\}$. The rules determining which sequences are admis-
sible is no longer of finite type. We say a sequence $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots e_{n} \in \Gamma_{0}^{n}$ is admissible if $\mathrm{U}_{r=1}^{n} f^{-r}\left(\left[e_{i}^{-1}\right]\right) \neq \varnothing$. Let $\Sigma^{+}=\left\{e_{1} e_{2} \ldots \in \Gamma_{0}^{N}: e_{k} e_{k+1} \ldots e_{k+l}\right.$ is admissible $\left.\forall k, l \in \mathbf{N}\right\}$. Define $\pi: \Sigma^{+} \rightarrow S^{1}$ by $\pi\left(e_{1} e_{2} \ldots\right) \rightarrow \bigcap_{r=1}^{\infty} f^{-r}\left(\left[e_{i}^{-1}\right]\right)$. The intersection is non-empty since this is true of all finite intersections and it contains at most one point because of the expanding condition (c). We discuss the topology of $\Sigma^{+}$and continuity of $\pi$ in $\S 4$.

To see which sequences $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ belong to $\Sigma^{+}$, it is enough to find those sequences $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots e_{m}$ for which $\bigcap_{r=1}^{m} f^{-r}\left(\left(e_{r}^{-1}\right)\right) \neq \varnothing$, where $\left(e_{r}\right)=\operatorname{Int}\left[e_{r}\right]$.

To state the rules we need some more terminology. Starting at a vertex $v_{i}$ with the side $s_{i}$ and generator $g_{i}$, we get a cycle of vertices $v_{i}=w_{1}, \ldots, w_{p}$ and corresponding generators $g_{i}=h_{1}, \ldots, h_{p}$. ([9]Sec. 26 and [6]Lemma 2.4.) We say the anti-clockwise sequence $h_{1}^{-1} h_{2}^{-1} \ldots h_{p}^{-1}$ is in left-hand ( $L$ ) cyclic order. Similarly, starting at $v_{i+1}$ with side $s_{i}$ and generator $g_{i}$ we get a cycle $v_{i+1}=z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{q}$ and generators $g_{i}=j_{1}, j_{2}, \ldots, j_{q}$. We say the clockwise sequence $j_{1}^{-1} j_{2}^{-1} \ldots$ is in right-hand $(R)$ cyclic order. There exist integers $\mu, \nu$ such that $\left(h_{1}^{-1} h_{2}^{-1} \ldots h_{p}^{-1}\right)^{\mu}=\left(j_{1}^{-1} j_{2}^{-1} \ldots j_{q}^{-1}\right)^{\nu}=1 . p \mu$ and $q \nu$ represent the number of sides of $\eta$ which meet at the vertices $v_{i}, v_{i+1}$ respectively, and therefore by ( ${ }^{*}$ ), $p \mu=2 l, q v=2 k$ are even (see Fig. 1). We call $L$ cycles of lengths $l-1, l, l+1, D$-(deficient), $H$-(half), and $S$-(superfluous) $L$ cycles respectively, and similarly for $R$ cycles of lengths $k-1, k$ and $k+1$. A cycle of length $2 l$ or $2 k$ is called full. Notice that a full cycle is equal to the identity in $\Gamma$. If $h=g_{i}$, write $h^{+}=g_{i+1}$ and $h^{-}=g_{i-1}$. If $B=b_{1} \ldots b_{r}, B^{1}=b_{1} \ldots b_{r+1}, C=c_{1} \ldots c_{s}$ are $L$ cycles with $c_{1}^{-1}=\left(b_{r+1}^{-1}\right)^{+}$, we say $B$ and $C$ are adjacent or consecutive $L$ cycles; similarly if $B, B^{1}$ and $C$ are $R$ cycles and $c_{1}^{-1}=\left(b_{r+1}^{-1}\right)^{-}$we say $B, C$ are consecutive $R$ cycles (see Fig. 2). A sequence $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{r}$ of consecutive $L$ cycles, where $B_{1}, B_{r}$ are $H$-cycles and $B_{2}, \ldots, B_{r-1}$ are $D$-cycles, will be called a $L H$-chain; such a sequence with $B_{1}$ a $L D$-cycle is a $L D$-chain. Often we represent a chain symbolically by $D D \ldots D H$.

In Figs. 1 and 2 we indicate that the side $s_{i}$ of $R$ is associated to $g_{i} \in \Gamma_{0}$ by an arrow pointing into $R$. We write $\left\langle g_{i}^{-\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle$ for the interval $\left[P_{i} P_{i+1}\right)$ (the inverse is to make subsequent computations work properly) and write $x=g_{i_{1}} g_{i_{2}} \ldots$ if $f^{n-1}(x) \in\left\langle g_{i_{n}}\right\rangle, n=1,2, \ldots$.

Proposition 1.1. A sequence $e_{1} \ldots e_{p}, e_{i} \in \Gamma_{0}$, is admissible if and only if
(1) $g g^{-1}, g \in \Gamma_{0}$, does not occur.
(2) No $R$ H-cycles occur.
(3) No L S-cycles occur.
(4) No L H-chains occur.

Proof. Referring to Fig. 1, let $P_{i}=C_{k}, P_{i+1}=C_{1}, Q_{i}=D_{1}, Q_{i+1}=D_{l}$. The arcs $z_{1} C_{1}$, $z_{1} C_{2}, \ldots, z_{1} C_{k}$ are the arcs of the net $n$ emanating from $z_{1}$ and lying within the isometric


Fig. 1
circle $C\left(s_{i}\right)$ of $g_{i}$; similarly the arcs $w_{1} D_{1}, \ldots, w_{1} D_{l}$ are the arcs of $\eta$ emanating from $w_{1}$ and lying within $C\left(s_{i}\right)$. By [6] Lemma 2.2, $w_{1} D_{l-1}$ and $z_{1} C_{k-1}$ do not intersect. $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{p}$ is the vertex cycle starting at $w_{1}$ with side $s_{i}$ and $h_{1}, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{p}$ is the corresponding cycle of generators. Similarly $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{q}$ is the vertex cycle starting at $z_{1}$ with side $s_{i}$, with corresponding generators $j_{1}, j_{2}, \ldots, j_{q} . w_{1} H_{1}, \ldots, w_{1} H_{l} ; z_{1} L_{1}, \ldots, z_{1} L_{k} ; z_{2} A_{0}, z_{2} A_{1}, \ldots, z_{2} A_{k}$; and $w_{2} B_{0}, w_{2} B_{1}, \ldots, w_{2} B_{l}$ are all the arcs of $\eta$ lying inside the isometric circles of $h_{p}^{-1}, j_{q}^{-1}, j_{2}$ and $h_{2}$ respectively. $G, F$ and $K$ are the endpoints of $C\left(h_{2}^{+}\right), C\left(j_{2}^{-}\right), C\left(\left(h_{p}^{-1}\right)^{-}\right)$lying inside $C\left(h_{2}\right), C\left(j_{2}\right), C\left(h_{p}^{-1}\right)$ respectively and $J$ is the endpoint of the arc of $\boldsymbol{n}$ through $v_{i-1}$ adjacent to but outside $C\left(h_{p}^{-1}\right)$.


Fig. 2(b). Consecutive $R$ cycles
(At a parabolic vertex, $l=\infty$ and we label points as $H_{\infty}, H_{\infty-1}, H_{\infty-2}, \ldots$ etc. and in computations treat $\infty$ exactly as any other integer.)

Notice that the map $g_{i}$ carries $D_{l}, z_{1}, w_{1}, C_{k}$ onto $A_{1}, z_{2}, w_{2}, B_{1}$ respectively; $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k-1}$ onto $A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}$ and $D_{1}, \ldots, D_{l-1}$ onto $B_{2}, \ldots, B_{l}$.

Now $\left.f\right|_{\left[C_{k}, c_{1}\right)}=h_{1}=j_{1} . f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)\right)$ covers all intervals $\langle h\rangle$ except $\left\langle j_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle,\left\langle h_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\left\langle h_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle$. Since $f\left(\left\langle h_{1}^{-1}\right\rangle\right) \cap\left\langle h_{1}\right\rangle=\varnothing$, we get (1). $f\left(\left[C_{c_{k}} C_{r}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle j_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle=\left[A_{k} A_{r+1}\right), 1 \leqslant r \leqslant k-2$ and $f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{k-1}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle j_{2}^{-\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle=\varnothing$. Moreover $f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{r}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle=f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle$ for $1 \leqslant r \leqslant k-1$ and $h \neq j_{2}^{-\mathbf{1}}$. Therefore the sequence $j_{1}^{-1} j_{2}^{-1} \ldots j_{k}^{-1}$ is not admissible, but otherwise the restrictions following the symbols $j_{1}^{-1} \ldots j_{r}^{-1}, r \leqslant k-1$, are the same as those following $j_{r}^{-1}$ alone. Rule (2) above follows.

Similarly we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle h_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle=\left[B_{1} G\right), \\
& f\left(\left[D_{r} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle h_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle=\left[B_{r+1} G\right), \quad 1 \leqslant r \leqslant l-\mathbf{2}, \\
& f\left(\left[D_{l-1} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle h_{2}^{-1}\right\rangle=\varnothing
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(\left[D_{r} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle=f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle \quad \text { for } \quad 1 \leqslant r \leqslant l-2, \quad h \neq h_{2}^{-1}, \\
& f\left(\left[D_{l-1} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle=f\left(\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\langle h\rangle \quad \text { for } \quad h \neq h_{2}^{-1},\left(h_{2}^{+}\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
f\left(\left[D_{l-1} C_{1}\right)\right) \cap\left\langle\left(h_{2}^{+}\right)^{-1}\right\rangle=\left\langle\left(h_{2}^{+}\right)^{-1}\right\rangle-\left[G B_{l}\right) .
$$

Therefore the sequence $h_{1}^{-1} h_{2}^{-1} \ldots h_{l+1}^{-1}$ is not admissible, which is rule (3).
The only restrictions following $h_{1}^{-1} \ldots h_{r}^{-1}, r<l$, are the same as those following $h_{r}^{-1}$ alone. Following $h_{1}^{-1} \ldots h_{l}^{-1} h$, where $h \neq h_{l+1}^{-1}$, are the same restrictions as after $h$ alone.

After $h_{1}^{-1} \ldots h_{l}^{-1}\left(h_{l+1}^{+}\right)^{-1}$ is the same restriction as after $k^{-1}\left(h_{l+1}^{+}\right)^{-1}$, where $k^{-1}$ is the element preceding $\left(h_{l+1}^{+}\right)^{-1}$ in the $L$ order. Thus $\left(h_{l+1}^{+}\right)^{-1}$ is not the first element in a $L$ $H$-cycle; also if $\left(h_{l+1}^{+}\right)^{-1}$ is the first element of a $L D$-cycle which ends in $s^{-1}$, followed by $\left(t^{+}\right)^{-1}$ where $s^{-1} t^{-1}$ are in $L$ order, then $\left(t^{+}\right)^{-1}$ is not the first element of a $L H$-cycle.

Repetition of this argument gives rule (4), and we have examined all the possibilities for finite sequences $e_{1} \ldots e_{p} . \Sigma^{+}$therefore consists of all sequences $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ in which each finite block satisfies (1)-(4) above.

The map $\pi: \Sigma^{+} \rightarrow S^{1}$ is of course not bijective. More precisely $x \in S^{1}$ has two representations in $\Sigma^{+}$whenever $f^{k}(x) \in\left\{P_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ for some $k \geqslant 0 . P_{i}$ can be written either as $D D D \ldots$, an infinite string of consecutive $R$-cycles, or as $H D D \ldots$, an infinite string of consecutive $L$ cycles.

Convention. In order to keep track of what is happening we shall in future adopt the following rule:

Whenever $x \in S^{1}$ has two symbolic expressions in $\Sigma^{+}$, we write $x=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ where $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ is the expression for $x$ ending in $L$ cycles.

This is equivalent to attaching $P_{i}$ to the interval ( $P_{i} P_{i+1}$ ) rather than ( $P_{i-1} P_{i}$ ).
Also notice $\pi \sigma(e)=f \pi(e), e \in \Sigma^{+}$, provided $e$ does not end in an infinite string of $R$ $D$-cycles, where $\sigma$ is the left shift on $\Sigma^{+}$.

Remark 1.2. In the case where $R$ is a symmetric $4 g$-sided polygon, our rules are identical with those of [13] p. 77 and closely related to those in [11] p. 791.

## § 2. Representation of geodesics in $\boldsymbol{D}$

We would now like to represent a geodesic $\gamma$ in $D$ by taking the $f$-expansions of its endpoints $P, Q$, say $P=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots, Q=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots$ and writing $\gamma=\ldots f_{2} f_{1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ Unfortunately, the sequence so obtained may not be admissible according to the rules of § 1 . There are
two problems: (i) Is the reversed sequence $\ldots f_{2} f_{1}$ always admissible? And if so: (ii) When is $\ldots f_{2} f_{1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ admissible? The answer to (i) is no. It is perhaps more natural to consider the inverse sequence $\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1}$. This is however still in general inadmissible. To circumvent this difficulty we use the following trick:
$f$-expansions. Recall that in defining $f$ we made an arbitrary choice that $\left.f\right|_{\left(P_{i} P_{i+1}\right)}=g_{i}$. We could equally well have taken $\left.f\right|_{\left.Q_{i-1} Q_{i}\right]}=g_{i}$; let us call this map $\tilde{f} . \bar{f}$ obviously has exactly the same properties as $f$, and the admissibility rules are obtained by interchanging ' $R$ ' and ' $L$ ' in Proposition 1.1 above.

Lemma 2.1. Let $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ be an admissible sequence for $f$. Then the inverse sequence ... $e_{2}^{-1} e_{1}^{-1}$ is admissible for $\bar{f}$, and vice versa.

Proof. This follows easily from the remarks above, since an $R$ cycle in $e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ becomes an $L$ cycle in ... $e_{2}^{-1} e_{1}^{-1}$; and consecutive $R$ cycles become consecutive $L$ cycles.

Let $P, Q \in S^{1}$ and let $P=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots, Q=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots$ be the $f$ - and $f$-expansions of $P, Q$ respectively. We shall call the directed geodesic $\gamma$ joining $Q$ to $P$ admissible if $Q^{-1} . P=\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ is admissible, and we shall also write $\gamma=\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$. Below in $\S 3$ we shall see that admissible geodesics pass 'close' in a certain sense to the fundamental region $R$. This will deal with problem (ii) above.

Let $\Sigma$ be the space of doubly infinite admissible sequences (i.e. all finite blocks satisfying (1)-(4) of Proposition 1.1) with left shift map $\sigma$.

To proceed we need to know something about the action of $\Gamma_{0}$ (the set of generators of $\Gamma$ ) on $S^{1}$ in terms of the symbolic representation of § 1 .

Proposition 2.2. Let $x=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots \in \Sigma^{+}, g \in \Gamma_{0}$. Then
(1) $g(x)=g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ whenever $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots \in \Sigma^{+}$and
(2) $g(x)=e_{2} e_{3} \ldots$ if $g=e_{1}^{-1}$.

Proof. We refer again to Fig. 1 with $g=h_{1}$.
(1) Suppose $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ is admissible. Then
(a) $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ does not begin with a $R H$-cycle.
(b) $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ does not begin with a $L H$-chain.
(c) $e_{1} \neq g^{-1}$.

Observe that $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ begins with a $R H$-cycle iff $x=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots \in\left[H_{2} H_{1}\right) ; g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ begins with a $L H$-chain iff $x \in\left[C_{1} D_{l}\right)$. Therefore (a), (b), (c) together imply $x \notin\left[H_{2} D_{l}\right.$ ).

Since $x \notin C(g)$, the isometric circle of $g, g(x) \in C\left(g^{-1}\right) \cap S^{\mathbf{1}}=\langle g\rangle \cup\left[B_{0} B_{1}\right)$ (cf. [9] Sec. 11).

But $g(x) \ddagger\left[B_{0} B_{1}\right)$ since $x \notin\left[H_{2} H_{1}\right)$. Therefore $g(x) \in\langle g\rangle$, so $f(g(x))=g^{-1}(g(x))=x=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ and $g(x)=g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$
(2) Suppose $g=e_{1}^{-1}$. Then $x \in\left\langle g^{-1}\right\rangle$ and so $f(x)=g(x)$ and $g(x)=e_{2} e_{3} \ldots$.

It is possible to derive rules for the action of $\Gamma_{0}$ on $\Sigma^{+}$in general. As this is not necessary for our development and the details become rather involved, we state without proof:

Proposition 2.3. Suppose $x \in S^{1}$, and $g \in \Gamma$. Let $x=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots, g(x)=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots$ be the $f$-expansions of $x, g(x)$. Then $\exists s, t>0$ so that $g e_{1} e_{2} \ldots e_{t}=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots f_{s}$ in $\Gamma$ and $e_{t+r}=f_{s+r}, r>0$.

Of course we have already proved the second part of this statement in [6], see property (a) of $f_{\Gamma}$ in § 1 .

This proposition is of interest because it enables us to prove the analogue of the results of Hedlund and Artin mentioned in the Introduction, that admissible geodesics are conjugate under $\Gamma$ iff the corresponding sequences are shift equivalent. The proof is an easy consequence of Proposition 2.3:

Proposition 2.4. Let $(P, Q),\left(R, S^{\prime}\right) \in S^{1} \times S^{1}$ be such that $Q^{-1} \cdot P, R^{-1} \cdot S \in \Sigma$. Then $\exists g \in \Gamma$ with $g P=R, g Q=S$ iff $\exists n \in S$ with $\sigma^{n}\left(Q^{-1} \cdot P\right)=S^{-1} . R$.

Proof. Let $P=e_{1} e_{2} \ldots, Q=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots$ be the $f$ - and $f$-expansions of $P, Q$ respectively. We have $\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots \in \Sigma$. By Proposition 2.2,

$$
e_{1}^{-1}(P)=e_{2} e_{3} \ldots \quad \text { and } \quad e_{1}^{-1}(Q)=e_{1}^{-1} f_{1} f_{2} \ldots
$$

Hence $\sigma\left(Q^{-1} \cdot P\right)=\left(e_{1}^{-1} Q\right)^{-1} \cdot\left(e_{1}^{-1} P\right)$.
Conversely, suppose $P, Q \in S^{1}$ and $g \in \Gamma$ are such that $Q^{-1} P,(g Q)^{-1} .(g P) \in \Sigma$. By Proposition 2.3, we have

$$
P=e_{1} \ldots e_{n} e_{n+1} \ldots \quad \text { and } \quad g P=u_{1} \ldots u_{m} e_{n+1} \ldots
$$

where $g e_{1} \ldots e_{n}=u_{1} \ldots u_{m}$.
Similarly, $Q=f_{1} \ldots f_{p} f_{p+1} \ldots, g Q=v_{1} \ldots v_{q} f_{p+1} \ldots$ and $g f_{1} \ldots f_{p}=v_{1} \ldots v_{q}$.
Thus $u_{1} \ldots u_{m} e_{n}^{-1} \ldots e_{1}^{-1}=v_{1} \ldots v_{q} f_{p}^{-1} \ldots f_{1}^{1}$ and so

$$
Q^{-1} P=\ldots f_{p+1}^{-1} f_{p}^{-1} \ldots f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} \ldots e_{n} e_{n+1} \ldots \quad \text { and } \quad(g Q)^{-1} .(g P)=\ldots f_{p+1}^{-1} v_{q}^{-1} \ldots v_{1}^{-1} u_{1} \ldots u_{m} e_{n+1} \ldots
$$

are shift conjugate.
This result is sufficient to show that the geodesic flow on $D / \Gamma$ is ergodic, by the method used by Hedlund in [11]. Notice that the restriction to admissible geodesics with $Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$ corresponds to the restriction in [3] that the endpoints of geodesics lie in ( $-1,0$ ) and $(0, \infty)$. For a discussion of the relevant measures, see Remark 4.4 below.

We shall instead follow the method of Morse to obtain a representation of the geodesic flow itself.

## §. 3 Crossings of the fundamental region $R$

We now want to investigate in detail the relationship between the symbolic expansion $\gamma=\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$ of an admissible geodesic and the order in which $\gamma$ cuts successive sides of the net $\eta$. Recall that each side of $R$ is labelled by a unique element $g \in \Gamma_{0}$. This label can be translated by an element of $\Gamma$ to assign a unique element of $\Gamma_{0}$ to each (oriented) side of $n$. The idea that $\gamma$ should cut successively sides $\ldots, f_{2}^{-1}, f_{1}^{-1}, e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots$ may unfortunately fail when $\gamma$ passes too close to vertices in $\eta$. What we shall show is

Theorem 3.1. For any $e \in \Sigma$, with corresponding directed geodesic $\gamma$, there is a distinguished copy $R(\gamma)$ of $R$ such that
(1) $\gamma \cap \overline{R(\gamma)} \neq \varnothing$
(2) $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing \Rightarrow R(\gamma)=R$
(3) $\gamma$ cuts in succession $\overline{R(\gamma)}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R(\sigma \gamma)}, \ldots$ where $\sigma^{-n}=e_{1} \ldots e_{n}$ for $e=\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots$

Throughout this section, by $R$ we shall mean the open region bounded by the sides $s_{i}$.
Statement (3) needs a little interpretation when $\gamma$ is a geodesic which goes through a vertex $v$ of $\eta$. Let $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{2 k}$ be the copies of $R$ meeting at $v$, in anti-clockwise order round $v$. If $\gamma$ passes from $R_{1}$ to $R_{k+1}$ we say $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}_{1}, \bar{R}_{2 k}, \ldots, \bar{R}_{k+1}$ in order. If $\gamma$ coincides with the side of $\eta$ between $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$, we say $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}_{1}, \bar{R}_{2 k}, \ldots, \bar{R}_{k+2}$ in order and if $\gamma$ coincides with the side between $R_{1}$ and $R_{2 k}, \gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}_{2 k}, \ldots, \bar{R}_{k+1}$.

The idea of Theorem 3.1 is that if $\gamma \cap \bar{R}=\varnothing, \gamma$ can be deformed by a sequence of 'small deformations' to a curve $\tilde{\gamma}$ such that $\tilde{\gamma} \cap R \neq \varnothing$ which cuts $R, \sigma^{-1} R$ in order. This sequence of deformations will determine $R(\gamma)$.

Let us make this more precise. As above, let $v$ be a vertex of $\eta$ where copies $R_{1}, \ldots, R_{2 k}$ of $R$ meet, in anti-clockwise order round $v$. Let $w_{r}, \mathbf{l} \leqslant r \leqslant 2 k$, be the vertex of $\eta$ adjacent to $v$, along the side between $R_{r}$ and $R_{r+1}$ (see Fig. 3), and let $A_{r}$ be the endpoint of this side on $S^{1}$.

A directed curve $\beta$ will be said to pass near $v$ if it passes from $R_{1}$ to $R_{k+1}$ cutting the $\operatorname{arcs}\left[v w_{r}\right), \mathbf{l} \leqslant r \leqslant k$, or $\left[v w_{r}\right), 2 k \geqslant r \geqslant k+1$, in order, see Fig. 3. If $\beta$ cuts $\left[v w_{r}\right), 1 \leqslant r \leqslant k$, let $\tilde{\beta}$ be a curve which coincides with $\beta$ everywhere except near $v$, where it cuts instead the $\operatorname{arcs}\left(v w_{r}\right), 2 k \geqslant r \geqslant k+1$. $\tilde{\beta}$ is 'a small deformation of $\beta$ round $v^{\prime}$ '. $R_{2 k-r+2}, 2 \leqslant r \leqslant k$, is called the conjugate region to $R_{r}, R_{2 k-r+2}=R_{r}^{*(\beta, v)}$. If $\beta$ cuts [ $\left.v w_{r}\right), 2 k \geqslant r \geqslant k+1$, we write $R_{r}=$ $R_{r}^{*(\beta, v)}, 2 k \geqslant r \geqslant k+2$ and call $R_{r}$ self-conjugate. We write $*(\beta, v)=*$ where there is no ambiguity.


Fig. 3

We shall call a curve obtained from $\beta$ by a sequence of small deformations a deformation of $\beta$. We make the same conventions about the order of regions cut by a deformed curve $\tilde{\gamma}$ through a vertex, as for geodesics $\gamma$.

Notice that the conjugate of a region $S$ is a locally constant function of $\gamma$.
Lemma 3.2. If the fundamental region $R$ constructed in [6] § 3 has four sides, then at least eight sides meet at a vertex.

Proof. It is straightforward to check all the cases in [6] to verify that $R$ always has more than four sides, unless the signature of $\Gamma$ is $\left\{1 ; 1 ; v_{1}\right\}$. But since $\nu_{1} \geqslant 2$, and the corresponding $R$ has interior angle $\pi / 2 \nu_{1}$, we see that in this case at least eight sides meet at a vertex.

Corollary 3.3. There are no triangles formed by $\boldsymbol{n}$. If for edges of $\boldsymbol{n}$ form a quadrilateral, then at least eight sides meet at a vertex.

Proof. Suppose the triangle or quadrilateral is not already a fundamental region. Then there is a vertex $v$ of $n$ on the interior of one of the sides of the region. Any other edge of
$n$ through $v$ forms a smaller triangle or quadrilateral. Proceeding in this way we eventually reach a region of minimal size which must be a copy of $R$.

Lemma 3.4. In a sequence of small deformations of a geodesic $\gamma$, a region $S$ is associated to at most one conjugate region $S^{*}$, across a unique vertex $v$. Likewise $S^{*}$ is the conjugate of at most one region $\mathbb{S}$.

Proof. If $s$ is a side of $S$, let $B(s) \subseteq S^{1}$ be the arc of $S^{1}$ interior to the circle $C(s)$. Notice that if $\tilde{\gamma}$ is obtained from $\gamma$ by a sequence of small deformations, and if $S^{*} \neq S$ is obtained by a deformation of $\tilde{\gamma}$ across the vertex $v$ of $S$, and if $s, s^{\prime}$ are the sides of $S$ meeting at $v$, then $\gamma$ has one endpoint in $B(s)-B\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ and the other in $B\left(s^{\prime}\right)-B(s)$.

Similarly, if $\hat{\gamma}$ is a deformation of $\gamma$ across a vertex $w$, at which meet sides $t, t^{\prime}$ of $S$, with conjugate region $S^{* \prime}=S$, then $\gamma$ has its endpoints in $B(t)-B\left(t^{\prime}\right), B\left(t^{\prime}\right)-B(t)$.

If $u, u^{\prime}$ are sides of $S$ then since extensions of non-adjacent sides of $S$ do not meet ([6] Lemma 2.2), we have $B(s) \cap B(t)=\varnothing$ unless $s=t$ or $s, t$ are adjacent. After interchanging $s$ with $s^{\prime}$ and $t$ with $t^{\prime}$ if necessary, there are three cases:

Case 1. $s=t, s^{\prime}=t^{\prime}$. Then $v=w$ and clearly $S^{*}=S^{* \prime}$.
Case 2. $s=t$, $s^{\prime} \neq t^{\prime} . B\left(t^{\prime}\right)-B(t)$ is disjoint from $B(s)-B\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, so $B\left(t^{\prime}\right) \cap B\left(s^{\prime}\right) \neq \varnothing$ since it contains an endpoint of $\gamma$. Then $t^{\prime}, s^{\prime}$ are adjacent. But this means $R$ has only three sides, $s, t^{\prime}, s^{\prime}$, which is impossible.

Case 3. $s \neq t, s^{\prime} \neq t^{\prime}$. Without loss of generality, we may suppose $\left(B(t)-B\left(t^{\prime}\right)\right) \cap$ $\left(B(s)-B\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right) \neq \varnothing$. Then $s, t$ are adjacent. In this case we also have $B\left(t^{\prime}\right) \cap B\left(s^{\prime}\right) \neq \varnothing$, since this set contains an endpoint of $\gamma$. Hence $s^{\prime}, t^{\prime}$ are adjacent. Then $R$ has four sides, $s, s^{\prime}, t$ and $t^{\prime}$. Since non-adjacent sides of $R$ do not meet, $\gamma$ has its endpoints in sectors of the vertex star at $v$ separated by one sector only, namely that containing $S$. But since by Lemma 3.2 at least eight copies of $R$ meet at $v$, the endpoints of $\gamma$ do not then lie in diametrically opposite sectors at $v$. Then $\gamma$ does not pass near $v$, which is contrary to assumption.

The final statement is proved by exactly the same argument.
Thus we may write $S^{*}=S^{*}(\gamma)$, independent of $v$ and the deformation $\tilde{\gamma}$.
Lemma 3.5. Let $\gamma$ be a geodesic. Then $\gamma$ cuts a region $\bar{S}$ at most once, and if $\gamma \cap \bar{S} \neq \varnothing$ and $S \neq S^{*}$, then $\gamma \cap S^{*}=\varnothing$.

Proof. If $\gamma$ cut $\bar{S}$ more than once, then $\#(\gamma \cap \partial S)>2$. But $\#(\gamma \cap \partial S) \leqslant 2$, since $S$ is geodesically convex. (This uses the fact that the interior angles of $S$ are all less than $\pi$, and the formula $A=\pi(n-2)-\sum \alpha_{i}$ for the area of a geodesic polygon.)

Suppose $\gamma$ passes near the vertex $v$ of $S$ and sides $s, s^{\prime}$ meet at $v$. If $\gamma \cap S^{*} \neq \varnothing$ then $\gamma$ would have to cross the extensions $C(s), C\left(s^{\prime}\right)$ of $s, s^{\prime}$ twice, which is impossible.

Lemma 3.6. Let $\tilde{\gamma}$ be a deformation of a geodesic $\gamma$. Suppose $\gamma$ cuts in order $\bar{R}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{R}_{n}$ (with the above conventions if $\gamma$ passes through a vertex of $n$ ). Then $\tilde{\gamma}$ cuts in order $\overline{\tilde{R}}_{1}, \ldots, \overline{\tilde{R}}_{n}$ where $\widetilde{R}_{i}$ is one of $R_{i}, R_{i}^{*}$.

Proof. This follows easily by induction on the number of small deformations. For one deformation it is clear from the definitions.

Corollary 3.7. Let $\tilde{\gamma}$ be a deformation of a geodesic $\gamma$ and suppose $\tilde{\gamma} \cap S \neq \varnothing$. Then either $\gamma \cap \bar{S} \neq \varnothing$ or there is a unique region $S_{1}$ with $\gamma \cap \bar{S}_{1} \neq \varnothing$ and $S=S_{1}^{*}$.

Proof. Let ..., $\bar{R}_{1}, \bar{R}_{2}, \ldots$ be the sequence of regions cut by $\gamma$. By Lemma 3.6, $S=R_{i}$ or $R_{i}^{*}$ for some $i$. If $S=R_{i}$ we are done. If $S=R_{i}^{*}$ and $R_{i}=R_{i}^{*}$ then $\gamma \cap \bar{R}_{i} \neq \varnothing$. Suppose $\gamma \cap \bar{S} \neq \varnothing$ and there is a region $T \neq R_{i}$ with $\gamma \cap \bar{T} \neq \varnothing, T^{*}=S$. Then $T=R_{j}$ for some $j$ and $R_{i}^{*}=R_{j}^{*}$. By Lemma 3.4, $R_{i}=R_{j}$.

Lemma 3.8. Let $v, R_{1}, \ldots, R_{2 k}$ be as in Fig. 3. Let $\alpha$ be a geodesic with endpoints in $\left(A_{2 k} A_{1}\right),\left(A_{k} A_{k+1}\right)$, cutting in order $R_{2}, R_{3}, \ldots, R_{k}$. Then there is a deformation $\tilde{\alpha}$ of $\alpha$ which cuts in order $R_{1}, R_{2 k}, \ldots, R_{k+1}$.

Proof. Let $x_{0}=v, x_{1}=w_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots ; y_{0}=v, y_{1}=w_{k}, y_{2}, \ldots$ be the vertices of $n$ along $\left[v A_{1}\right)$, [v $A_{k}$ ) and suppose $\alpha$ cuts $\left[v A_{1}\right.$ ) on $\left[x_{p} x_{p+1}\right)$ and $\left[v A_{k}\right)$ on $\left[y_{q} y_{q+1}\right)$. Let $l$ be any edge of $n$ through $u \in\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{0}^{p}$, other than $A_{1} v A_{k+1}$ or $A_{k} v A_{2 k}$. $l$ has an endpoint $L$ in ( $A_{1} A_{k}$ ), otherwise $l, A_{1} v A_{k+1}$ and $A_{k} v A_{2 k}$ would form a triangle. Let $z$ be the vertex of $\eta$ adjacent to $u$ on [uL). Let $m$ be a side of $n$ distinct from $l$ through $z$. We can suppose $m$ has one endpoint in ( $L A_{k}$ ), for otherwise $l, m, A_{k} v A_{2 k}$ and $A_{1} v A_{k+1}$ form a quadrilateral. In this case pick $m^{1} \neq m, l$ through $z$ (possible since $\geqslant 8$ sides meet at $z$ ). Then either $m^{1}, m, v A_{k}$ form a triangle, which is impossible, or $m^{1}$ has an endpoint in $\left(L A_{k}\right)$. The other endpoint of $m^{1}$ lies in ( $A_{1} L$ ), otherwise $m^{1}, l$ and $v A_{1}$ form a triangle.

Then either $\alpha \cap l \in[u z)$, or $m^{1}$ cuts $\alpha$ twice or touches $\alpha$, both of which are impossible. So $\alpha \cap l \in[u z)$.

We now see $\alpha$ passes near $x_{p}$. For by the above, $\alpha$ cuts every side of $n$ through $x_{p}$ between $x_{p}$ and the adjacent vertex of $\eta$ in the direction of $\left(A_{1} A_{k}\right)$. Deforming round $x_{k}$, we see repeating the argument $\tilde{\alpha}$ passes near $x_{p-1}$, etc.

Similarly $\alpha$ can be deformed round $y_{q}, y_{q-1}, \ldots$. Let $\bar{\alpha}$ be the curve obtained by deform-
ing successively round $x_{p}, \ldots, x_{1}, y_{q}, \ldots, y_{1}$. Then $\bar{\alpha}$ passes near $x_{0}=v$, and deforming round $v$ we get the required result.

Let $W=\left\{P \in S^{1}: P\right.$ is the endpoint of a geodesic in $n$ through a vertex of $\left.R\right\}$.
Proposition 3.9. Suppose $\gamma=Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$. Then $\gamma$ can always be deformed to a curve $\gamma^{*}$ which cuts $R, \gamma^{-1} R$ in succession, unless possibly $P \in W$ or $Q \in W$. In this case either $\gamma$ is a side of $\eta$ and cuts $\bar{R}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R}$ in succession or $\gamma$ is not a side of $\eta$ and there are geodesics $\gamma^{\prime}=$ $Q^{\prime-1} \cdot P^{\prime} \in \Sigma$ arbitrarily close to $\gamma$, with $P^{\prime}, Q^{\prime} \notin W$.

Proof. We refer throughout to Fig. 1. Without loss of generality we may assume $P \in\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)$. This means $\sigma^{-1}=g_{i}^{-1} . g_{i}^{-1} R$ is the copy of $R$ adjacent to $R$ along $s_{i}$.

If $Q$ lies outside all the circles $C\left(s_{i-2}\right), C\left(s_{i-1}\right), C\left(s_{i}\right), C\left(s_{i+1}\right)$ it is clear that $\gamma \cap R \neq \varnothing$, and that either $\gamma \cap\left(s_{i}\right) \neq \varnothing$, or $\gamma \cap\left(s_{i-1}\right] \neq \varnothing$. $\left(\left(s_{i-1}\right]=\left(v_{i-1} v_{i}\right].\right)$ In the first case $\gamma$ cuts in succession $R, \sigma^{-1} R$. Otherwise $P \in\left[C_{k} D_{1}\right)$. If $P \in\left(C_{k} D_{1}\right)$, we are in the situation of Lemma 3.8 relative to $v_{i}$, so $\gamma$ can be deformed to cut $R, \sigma^{-1} R$ in order.

If $P=C_{k}$ then $\gamma^{\prime}=Q^{-1} P^{1}$ where $P^{1} \in\left(C_{k} D_{1}\right)$ is admissible. If $Q \in\left(C_{k} D_{l}\right]$ then $Q^{-1} P \oplus \Sigma$.
Suppose $Q \in\left(L_{r} L_{r+1}\right] 1 \leqslant r \leqslant k-1$. Then the $f$-expansion of $Q$ begins with an $L$ cycle of length $k-r$. Since $Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma, P$ begins with an $R$ cycle of length at most $r-1$, so that $P \in\left[C_{k} C_{k-r+1}\right)$. This means $\gamma$ lies outside the circle $L_{r} v_{i+1} C_{k-r+1}$, so $\gamma \cap R \neq \varnothing$, and $\gamma$ cuts $\sigma^{-1} R$ after $R$.

Suppose $Q \in\left(H_{s+1} H_{3}\right], 1 \leqslant s \leqslant l-2$, or $Q \in\left(K H_{l-1}\right]$ and $s=l-1$. The $f$-expansion of $Q$ begins with an $R$ cycle $A_{1}$. If $A_{1}$ is followed by consecutive $R$ cycles $A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ of lengths $D, \ldots, D, H$ respectively then $A_{1}$ has length $l-s-1$, otherwise $A_{1}$ has length $l-s$. Therefore since $Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$, if $P$ begins with an $L$ cycle $B_{1}$, and $B_{1}$ is followed by consecutive $L$ cycles $B_{2}, \ldots, B_{m}$ of lengths $D, \ldots, D, H$ then $B_{1}$ has length at most $s-1$; otherwise $B_{1}$ has length at most $s$. This means that $P \in\left[D_{l-s} C_{1}\right)$.

Now if $\gamma \cap R \neq \varnothing$ the result is obvious. Otherwise unless $P=D_{l-s}$ or $Q=H_{s}$, or $\gamma$ is a side of $n$, we are in the situation of Lemma 3.8, with $Q, P$ in the diametrically opposite sectors $\left(H_{s+1} H_{s}\right),\left(D_{l-s} D_{l-s+1}\right)$ at $v$. Applying Lemma 3.8 we get the required deformation. If $P=D_{l-s}$ or $Q=H_{s}$, and $P^{\prime} \in\left(D_{l-s} C_{1}\right), Q^{\prime} \in\left(H_{s+1} H_{s}\right)$ then $\gamma^{\prime}=Q^{\prime-1} P^{\prime} \in \Sigma$. If $\gamma$ is a side of $\boldsymbol{n}$ $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R}$ in order.

If $Q \in C\left(S_{i-2}\right)-\left(H_{l} K\right]$, either $\gamma$ already cuts $R, \sigma^{-1} R$ or $\gamma$ has endpoints in the diametrically opposite sectors ( $\left.D_{l} H_{l}\right],\left[H_{1} D_{1}\right.$ ) at $v_{i}$ and so can be deformed as required, or if $P=H_{1}$ or $Q=H_{l}$, replace by $P^{\prime} \in\left(H_{1} D_{1}\right), Q^{\prime} \in\left(D_{l} H_{l}\right)$.

Finally if $Q \in\left(H_{l} K\right]$ the $\bar{f}$-expansion of $Q$ begins with a sequence of consecutive $R$ cycles of lengths $D, \ldots, D, H$ beginning with $g_{i-2}^{-1}$. Hence $P$ does not begin with an $L$ chain $D D \ldots D H$, i.e. $P \uplus\left[C_{k} D_{1}\right)$. But then either $\gamma$ cuts $R, \sigma^{-1} R$; or $\gamma$ has endpoints in the dia-
metrically opposite segments $\left(H_{l} H_{l-1}\right),\left(D_{1} D_{2}\right)$ and we apply Lemma 3.8; or $\gamma$ is not a side of $n$ and there are curves $\gamma^{\prime}$ close to $\gamma$ with endpoints in $\left(H_{l} H_{l-1}\right),\left(D_{1} D_{2}\right)$; or $\gamma=H_{l}^{-1} D_{1}$ and $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R}$.

Now let $\gamma=Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$ and suppose we can find a deformation $\gamma^{*}$ with $\gamma^{*} \cap R \neq \varnothing$. By Corollary 3.7 either $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$ or there is a unique region $R_{1}$ with $\gamma \cap \bar{R}_{1} \neq \varnothing$ and $R=R_{1}^{*}$. If $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$ set $R(\gamma)=R$; otherwise set $R(\gamma)=R_{1}$. It is clear from Lemma 3.4 that $R(\gamma)$ is independent of the deformation $\gamma^{*}$.

Suppose $\gamma=Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$ with no deformation $\gamma^{*}$ with $\gamma^{*} \cap R \neq \varnothing$, and that $\gamma$ is not a geodesic in $\eta$. By Proposition 3.9 we see there are geodesics $\gamma^{\prime}=Q^{\prime-1} \cdot P^{\prime} \in \Sigma$ arbitrarily close to $\gamma$, with $\gamma^{* *} \cap R \neq \varnothing$. We observed above that for any region $S$, $S^{*}$ is a locally constant func. tion of $S$. Therefore we may define $R(\gamma)=R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$ for $\gamma^{\prime}$ close to $\gamma$.

If $\gamma \in \Sigma$ is a side of $\eta$, set $R(\gamma)=R$. By Proposition 3.9, $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R}$ in succession. In this case $\sigma \gamma$ is also a side of $\eta$ and so $R(\sigma \gamma)=R$. Thus $\gamma$ cuts $\overline{R(\gamma)}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R(\sigma \gamma)}$ in succession.

Suppose $\gamma \in \Sigma$ is not a side of $\eta$ and let $\gamma^{*}$ be a deformation which cuts $R, \sigma^{-1} R$ in succession. By Lemma 3.6 there are regions $R_{1}, R_{2}$ so that $\gamma$ cuts $\bar{R}_{1}, \bar{R}_{2}$ in succession and $R=R_{1}$ or $R_{1}^{*(\gamma)}, \sigma^{-1} R=R_{2}$ or $R_{2}^{*(\gamma)} . R(\gamma)=R_{1}$ by definition.

Now $\sigma \gamma^{*}$ cuts $R$. If $\sigma \gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing, R(\sigma \gamma)=R$. Then $\gamma$ cuts $\overline{R(\gamma)}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R(\sigma \gamma)}$ in succession.
Otherwise $\sigma \gamma \cap \bar{R}=\varnothing$ but $\sigma \gamma^{*} \cap R \neq \varnothing$ and $\sigma \gamma \cap \sigma \bar{R}_{2} \neq \varnothing$. Thus $R \neq \sigma R_{2}$ and so $R=$ $\sigma\left(R_{2}^{*(\gamma)}\right)$. Since $\sigma$ is an automorphism, $\sigma\left(R_{2}^{*(\gamma)}\right)=\left(\sigma R_{2}\right)^{*(\sigma \gamma)}$, and thus $\sigma \gamma \cap \bar{\sigma} \bar{R}_{2} \neq \varnothing$ and $\left(\sigma R_{2}\right)^{*(\sigma \gamma)}=R$, which implies $R(\sigma \gamma)=\sigma R_{2}$. Thus $\gamma$ cuts $\overline{R(\gamma)}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R(\sigma \gamma)}$ in succession.

Finally suppose $\gamma \in \Sigma$ is not a side of $\boldsymbol{n}$ and is close to a curve $\gamma^{\prime}$ which cuts $\overline{R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)}$, $\overline{\sigma^{-1} R\left(\sigma \gamma^{\prime}\right)}$ in order. Taking $\gamma^{\prime}$ sufficiently close to $\gamma$ we have $R(\gamma)=R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$ and $R\left(\sigma \gamma^{\prime}\right)=R\left(\sigma \gamma^{\prime}\right)$. Moreover we may assume $\gamma^{\prime}$ cuts $R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right), \sigma^{-1} R\left(\sigma \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ and so $\gamma \operatorname{cuts} \overline{R(\gamma)}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R(\sigma \gamma)}$.

Now applying Proposition 3.9 to $\sigma^{-1} \gamma$, we may find a deformation of $\sigma^{-1} \gamma$ which cuts $\bar{R}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} R}$ in succession, and hence a deformation of $\gamma$ which cuts $\sigma R, \bar{R}$ in succession. Applying similar reasoning to the above, we see $\gamma$ cuts $\overline{\sigma R\left(\sigma^{-1} \gamma\right)}, \overline{R(\gamma)}$ in succession. A simple inductive argument and repeated application of Lemma 3.5 completes the proof of Theorem 3.1.

It is obvious that, for any $\gamma \in \Sigma$, there is a unique $g \in \Sigma$ with $g R(\gamma)=R$. We shall need a converse to this:

Proposition 3.10. Let $\gamma$ be any geodesic with $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$. Then there exists a unique $g \in \Gamma$ so that $g \gamma \in \Sigma$ and $R(g \gamma)=g R$.

Proof. Suppose $g \in \Gamma$ is such that $g \gamma \in \Sigma$ and $R(g \gamma)=g R$. If $R(g \gamma)=R$, then $g=\mathrm{id}$. Otherwise, $R(g \gamma)^{*(g \gamma)}=R=g^{-1} R(g \gamma)$. Since $g$ is an automorphism, $g^{-1}\left(R(g \gamma)^{*(g \gamma)}\right)=$ $\left[g^{-1} R(g \gamma)\right]^{*(\gamma)}$, i.e. $R^{*(\gamma)}=g^{-1} R$. Therefore $g$, if it exists, is unique.

If $\gamma \in \Sigma$ then $R(\gamma)=R$ and we may take $g=$ id.
So suppose $\gamma=Q^{-1} \cdot P \notin \Sigma$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $P \in\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)$. If $Q^{-1} P \oplus \Sigma$ we must have $Q \in\left(H_{t} L_{k}\right]$ (see the proof of Proposition 3.9). Clearly $Q \notin\left(C_{k} L_{1}\right]$, for then $\gamma \cap \bar{R}=\varnothing$.

Suppose that $Q \in\left(L_{r} L_{r+1}\right], 1 \leqslant r \leqslant k-1$. Arguing as in Proposition 3.9, we see $P$ begins with an $R$ cycle of length at least $r$, so $P \in\left[C_{k-r+1} C_{1}\right)$. Since $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$, we must have $P \in$ [ $C_{k-r+1} C_{k-r}$ ), the sector at $v_{i+1}$ diametrically opposite ( $\left.L_{r} L_{r+1}\right]$. Suppose $Q \neq L_{r+1}, P \neq C_{k-r+1}$. Then by Lemma 3.8 we see we can deform $\gamma$ to obtain a conjugate $R^{*(\gamma)} \neq R$. Pick $g$ so that $g R^{*}=R$. Now relabel the vertices so that $g P \in\left[C_{k} C_{1}\right)$. Then $g \gamma$ passes to the right of $g v_{i+1}$ and $g P, g Q$ are in diametrically opposite sectors at $g v$. Moreover $g v_{i+1}$ is a vertex of $R$, and since $\gamma \cap R^{*}=\varnothing, g \gamma \cap R=\varnothing$. This forces (with the new labelling), $g v_{i+1}=v_{i}, g P \in\left(D_{1} C_{1}\right)$ and $g Q \in\left(H_{l} H_{1}\right)$. Now as in the proof of Proposition 3.9, $(g Q)^{-1} . g P \in \Sigma$. Clearly $g \gamma \cap \bar{R}=\varnothing$, so as in Proposition 3.9 there is a unique region $R_{1}$ with $R_{1}^{*(g \gamma)}=R$ and $g \gamma \cap R_{1} \neq \varnothing$, and $R_{1}=$ $R(g \gamma)$. Now $R_{1}^{*(g \gamma)}=g\left(\left(g^{-1} R_{1}\right)^{*(\gamma)}\right)$, since $g$ is an automorphism and thus $g^{-1} R=\left(g^{-1} R_{1}\right)^{*(\gamma)}$. But $g^{-1} R=R^{*(\gamma)}$, therefore by Lemma 3.4, $g^{-1} R_{1}=R$. Since $R_{1}=R(g \gamma), g$ is as required.

If either $Q=L_{r+1}$ or $P=C_{k-r+1}$ we apply the same $g$ as for nearby $\gamma^{\prime}$ and use obvious continuity arguments.

Now if $Q=L_{\mathbf{1}}, P \in\left[C_{k} C_{\mathbf{1}}\right)$ and $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$, we must have $P=C_{k}$. Then we may take $g=\mathrm{id}$.
Finally suppose $Q \in\left(H_{s+1} H_{s}\right], \mathbf{1} \leqslant s \leqslant l-2$, or $Q \in\left(K H_{l-1}\right]$ and $s=l-1$. Since $\gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$ we see $P \in\left[D_{l-s} C_{1}\right)$. Just as in the proof of Proposition 3.9, this shows $Q^{-1} P \in \Sigma$. Thus we may take $g=$ id.

## § 4. Symbolic representation of the geodesic flow

In this section we show that the geodesic flow on $T_{1}(D / \Gamma)$ can be represented as a quotient of a special flow over $\Sigma, \sigma$; where the height function is the time taken to cross the region $R(\gamma)$. We keep the notation and conventions of § 1-§ 3 .

If $\gamma$ is an admissible geodesic, let $h(\gamma)$ be the hyperbolic length of $\gamma \cap R(\gamma) . h$ is infinite if an endpoint of $\gamma$ is a cusp. $h$ lifts to a function also denoted by $h$ on $\Sigma$. Let $\Lambda=\{(e, t): e \in \Sigma, 0 \leqslant t<h(e)\}$ and let $\varphi_{\tau}$ be the special flow on $\Lambda$ defined by $\varphi_{\tau}(e, t)=$ ( $\left.\sigma^{n} e, t+\tau-S_{n} h(e)\right)$ when $\tau>0$ and $0 \leqslant t+\tau-S_{n} h(e)<h\left(\sigma^{n} e\right)$ with a similar definition for $\tau<0$, where $S_{n} h(e)=\sum_{0}^{n-1} h \sigma^{\tau}(e)$.
(Notice that $\sum_{0}^{\infty} h\left(\sigma^{\pi} \gamma\right)$ diverges because an arc of $\gamma$ of finite length can cut only finitely many copies of $R$.)

Let $\psi_{\iota}$ be the geodesic flow on the unit tangent bundle $M$ of $D / \Gamma$, let $\tilde{M}$ be the unit tangent bundle of $D$ and let $p: \tilde{M} \rightarrow M$ be projection. $\tilde{\psi}_{t}$ is geodesic flow on $\tilde{M}$.

For an admissible geodesic $\gamma$, let $b(\gamma) \in \tilde{M}$ be the unit tangent vector pointing along $\gamma$ based at the point where $\gamma$ enters $R(\gamma)$.

Define $\Pi: \Lambda \rightarrow M$ by

$$
\Pi((e, t))=\psi_{t}(p b(e)),
$$

where $\pi(e)$ is the geodesic associated to $e$. In what follows we shall frequently identify $e$ and $\pi(e)$.

Proposition 4.1. $\Pi$ is surjective, $\Pi \varphi_{t}=\psi_{t} \Pi$ and $\# \Pi^{-1}(\Pi(e, t))=\# \pi^{-1}(\pi(e))$ for $e \in \Sigma$ (i.e. П is 1-1 except on a set of the first category).

Proof. Take $u \in M$. Lift $u$ to $\tilde{u} \in \tilde{M}$ with the property that $\tilde{u}$ has its endpoint $U$ in $\bar{R}$. If $\gamma$ is the geodesic through $U$ in the direction $\tilde{u}, \gamma \cap \bar{R} \neq \varnothing$.

By Proposition 3.10, there is a unique $g \in \Gamma$ with $g \gamma \in \Sigma$ and $R(g \gamma)=g R$. $g \tilde{u}$ is also a lifting of $u$, and $g \gamma \cap \overline{R(g \gamma)} \neq \varnothing$. Let $\tau$ be the hyperbolic distance along $g \gamma$ from the point $V$ where $g \gamma$ enters $\overline{R(g \gamma)}$ to $g U$. Since $U \in \bar{R}, g U \in g \bar{R}=\overline{R(g \gamma)}$. Then $0 \leqslant \tau<h(g \gamma)$ (or $h(g \gamma)=0)$, and $g \tilde{u}=\tilde{\psi}_{\tau} b(g \gamma)$. Also $\Pi(g \gamma, \tau)=\psi_{\tau}(p b(g \gamma))=p \tilde{\psi}_{\tau} b(g \gamma)=p(g \tilde{u})=u$. Therefore $\Pi$ is surjective.

Suppose also $\Pi(e, t)=u, e \in \Sigma$. Let $\pi(e)=\beta$. Then $u=\psi_{t} p(b(\beta))=p \tilde{\psi}_{t}(b(\beta))$. Thus there is an $h \in \Gamma$ so that $h g \tilde{u}=\tilde{\psi}_{t} b(\beta)$, and so $h^{-1} b(g \gamma)=b(\beta)$. Thus $b(\beta)$ is the unit tangent vector along $h^{-1} g \gamma$ based at the point where $h^{-1} g \gamma$ enters $h^{-1} R(g \gamma)$. This means $h^{-1} g \gamma=\beta$ and $h^{-1} R(g \gamma)=R(\beta)$, i.e. $h^{-1} g R=R(\beta)$. According to Proposition 3.10, $h^{-1} g$ is unique and $h=\mathrm{id}$, $\beta=g \gamma$ certainly works. Therefore $\Pi(e, t)=u$ iff $\pi(e)=g \gamma$. Observe $\pi$ is one, two or four-to-one depending on whether $g \gamma$ has neither, one or both its endpoints in $\bigcup_{r=0}^{\infty} \sigma^{-r} W$.

Suppose $(e, t) \in \Lambda, e=\ldots f_{2}^{-1} f_{1}^{-1} e_{1} e_{2} \ldots, \tau>0$ and $S_{n} h(e) \leqslant t+\tau<S_{n+1} h(e)$.
Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{\psi}_{n(e)} b(e)=\sigma^{-1} b(\sigma e) \tag{4.1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

by Theorem 3.1 (3).
Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
& \tilde{\psi}_{S_{n} h(e)}\left(\sigma^{n} b(e)\right)  \tag{4.1.2}\\
= & \tilde{\psi}_{S_{n} h(e)}\left(\sigma^{n} \tilde{\psi}_{h(e)} b(e)\right) \\
= & \tilde{\psi}_{S_{n} h(e)}\left(\sigma^{n-1} b(\sigma e)\right) \quad \text { by (4.1.1) } \\
= & \ldots=b\left(\sigma^{n} e\right)
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Pi\left(\varphi_{\tau}(e, t)\right) & =\psi_{t+\tau-s_{n} n(e)}\left(p b\left(\sigma^{n} e\right)\right) \\
& =\psi_{t+\tau} p \tilde{\psi}_{-s_{n} h(e)}\left(b\left(\sigma^{n} e\right)\right) \\
& =\psi_{t+\tau} p\left(\sigma^{n} b(e)\right) \\
& =\psi_{t+\tau} p(b(e)) \\
& =\psi_{\tau}(e, t) .
\end{aligned}
$$

A similar computation works for $\tau<0$.
We now want to investigate the continuity of $\Pi$ and $h$. Put on $\Sigma$ the usual product topology and metric

$$
d\left(\left(e_{i}\right),\left(e_{i}^{\prime}\right)\right)=2^{-n}, \quad n=\sup \left\{m: e_{i}=e_{i}^{\prime},|i| \leqslant m\right\} .
$$

Proposition 4.2. $\pi: \Sigma^{+}=S^{1}$ is continuous.

Proof. In the no cusp case this follows easily from Property (Ei) of $f$ in $\S 1$, see also the last line of the proof below.

Suppose $C$ is a cusp of $R$. Suppose the $L$ cycle of generators at $C$ is $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{l}$. Let $H=h_{1} \ldots h_{1}$. Then $H(C)=C$ and $H^{\prime}(C)=1$. By Lemma 2.8 of [6], $H$ acting on $S^{1}$ with fixed point $C$ is conjugate by a Möbius transformation to

$$
S=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
y & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

acting on $\mathbf{R}$ with fixed point 0 , with $y>0$. Let $J\left(H^{m}\right)=\left\{P \in S^{1}: P=H^{-m} \ldots\right\}$. One sees easily $J\left(H^{m}\right)$ corresponds to $\left(\alpha(m y+1)^{-1}, 0\right]$ for some $\alpha<0$. Therefore $P, Q \in J\left(H^{m}\right) \Rightarrow|P-Q|=$ $O\left(m^{-1}\right)$ on $S^{1}$.

Now pick $P \in S^{1}$ and suppose $P$ corresponds to $e=H_{1}^{m_{1}} B_{1} H_{2}^{m_{2}} B_{2} \ldots \in \Sigma^{+}$where $H_{i}$ is a cycle corresponding to a parabolic vertex and $B_{i}$ is a block containing no such cycles. Suppose given $\varepsilon>0$.

Say $\exists m_{r}$ so that $1 / m_{r}<\varepsilon$. Let the length of the sequence $H_{1}^{m_{1}} B_{1} H_{2}^{m_{2}} \ldots B_{r-1}$ be $N$. Then $d\left(e^{\prime}, e\right)<2^{-N} \Rightarrow \sigma^{N} Q, \sigma^{N} P \in J\left(H_{r}^{m_{r}}\right)$ where $Q=\pi\left(e^{\prime}\right)$. Also $\sigma_{e^{\prime}}^{r}=\sigma_{e}^{r}$ for $1 \leqslant r \leqslant N$ and $\left|\sigma^{\prime}\right| \geqslant 1$ on $S^{1}$. Therefore $|P-Q|<K \varepsilon$, for some $K$ depending only on $\Gamma$.

Otherwise, $\exists L$ such that $m_{r} \leqslant L, \forall r$. Thus $P \notin J\left(H^{L}\right)$ for any parabolic vertex, so $\sigma^{k} P$ is a bounded distance a way from all the parabolic vertices for each $k$. Since $\sigma^{\prime}(x)=1$ only at parabolic vertices, this means $\exists \lambda>1$ such that $\left(\sigma_{e}^{k}\right)^{\prime} \geqslant \lambda$ for all $k$. Choose $N$ so that $\lambda^{-N}<\varepsilon$. If $d\left(e^{\prime}, e\right)<2^{-N}$ then $\sigma_{e^{\prime}}^{k}=\sigma_{e}^{k}, k \leqslant N$ and so $|P-Q|<\lambda^{-N}$.

Corollary 4.3. $\pi$ : $\Sigma \rightarrow S^{1} \times S^{1}$ is continuous.
Let $\Sigma^{*}=\left\{e \in \Sigma\right.$ : neither endpoint of $e$ on $S^{1}$ is a cusp $\}$.
Proposition 4.4. $h$ is continuous on $\Sigma^{*}$. In the no cusp case, $h$ is Hölder on $\Sigma$.
Proof. We take the no cusp case first.
Let $\lambda$ be an admissible geodesic in $D$ with endpoints $P=e^{i \theta}, Q=e^{i \varphi}$. Suppose $C_{1}, C_{2}$ are disjoint geodesies which are cut within bounded arcs by $\gamma$. The hyperbolic distance between $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ along $\gamma$ is a smooth function of $\theta, \varphi$. Hence if $\gamma^{\prime}$ is a geodesic with endpoints $P^{\prime}=e^{i \theta^{\prime}}, Q^{\prime}=e^{i \varphi^{\prime}}$, then $\left|d-d^{\prime}\right| \leqslant K\left(\left|\theta-\theta^{\prime}\right|+\left|\varphi-\varphi^{\prime}\right|\right)$ where $K$ depends only on $C_{1}, C_{2}$.

Let $\lambda>1$ be the expansive constant for $\sigma$. Suppose $d\left(\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}\right)<2^{-n}$. Then $\left|\theta-\theta^{\prime}\right| \leqslant \lambda^{-n}$, $\left|\varphi-\varphi^{\prime}\right| \leqslant \lambda^{-n}$.
$R(\gamma)$ always has a vertex in common with $R$ and so is one of a finite number of regions. Thus $h(\gamma)$ is the distance along $\gamma$ between a finite number of possible pairs of sides of $\boldsymbol{n}$. Provided $\gamma$ does not pass through a vertex of $R(\gamma),\left|h(\gamma)-h\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)\right| \leqslant K \gamma^{-n}$ for $K$ independent of $\gamma$.

Suppose $\gamma$ enters $R(\gamma)$ across a geodesic $C_{1}$ and leaves across the intersection of $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$. $h\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$ for $\gamma^{\prime}$ near $\gamma$ is the distance along $\gamma^{\prime}$ from $C_{1}$ to one of $C_{2}, C_{3}$. Both these function are Hölder and their values coincide at $\gamma$. Likewise, if $\gamma$ coincides with a side of $\boldsymbol{\eta}$, $R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$ is one of a finite number of regions meeting $R(\gamma)$ and we see $h\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$ is one of a finite number of Hölder functions all of whose values agree at $\gamma$.

Now suppose $R$ has cusps. Let $K_{r}$ be the part of $D$ outside small discs of (Euclidean) radius $r$ round each of the cusps of $R$.

The above argument shows that $h$ is continuous on geodesics $\gamma$ which lie completely inside $K_{r}$. (Use continuity of the map $\Sigma \rightarrow S^{\mathbf{1}} \times S^{\mathbf{1}}$ to replace the constant expansiveness of $\sigma$.) Now let $r \rightarrow 0$.

Now there is a natural topology on $\Lambda$ as the suspension of $\Sigma$ by $h$.
Proposition 4.3. $\Pi: \Lambda \rightarrow M$ is continuous.
Proof. It is enough to see that $p b(e)$ varies continuously with $e \in \Sigma$, and that $\psi_{t} p b(\gamma) \rightarrow$ $p b(\sigma \gamma)$ as $t \rightarrow h(\gamma)^{-}$.

Now $b(\gamma)$ is the unit tangent vector to $\gamma$ based at the first intersection $S$ of $\gamma$ with the continuous curve $\partial R(\gamma)$. Moreover $R(\gamma)$ is locally constant as a function of $\gamma$ except when $\gamma$ is a side of $n$. In this last case, the appropriate side of $R\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$, for $\gamma^{\prime}$ close to $\gamma$, is one of a finite number of continuous curves all of which pass through $S$.

By Corollary 4.3, the endpoints $P, Q$ of $\gamma$ vary continuously with $e \in \Sigma$ and clearly $\gamma$ varies continuously with $P, Q$. Hence $b(\gamma)$ is a continuous function of $e \in \Sigma$.

If we lift the path $\psi_{t} p b(\gamma)$ to $\widetilde{\psi_{t} p b(\gamma)} \in \tilde{M}$ starting at $b(\gamma)$ when $t=0$, then as $t \rightarrow h(\gamma)^{-}$ the base point of $\widetilde{\psi_{t} p b(\gamma)}$ approaches the point $T$ where $\gamma$ crosses from $R(\gamma)$ to $R(\sigma \gamma)$. Therefore $\lim _{t \rightarrow h(\gamma)} \widetilde{\psi_{t} b(\gamma)}=\sigma^{-1} b(\sigma \gamma)$. Hence $\psi_{t} p b(\gamma) \rightarrow p\left(\sigma^{-1} b(\sigma \gamma)\right)=p b(\sigma \gamma)$ as required.

Remark 4.4. We have not said anything about measures on $\Lambda$ and $M$. In [6] we showed there is an ergodic $f_{\Gamma}$-invariant measure $\bar{\mu}$ on $S^{\mathbf{1}}$, equivalent to Lebesgue measure, finite in the no cusp case and infinite otherwise. $\bar{\mu}$ defines a unique $\sigma$-invariant measure $\mu$ on $\Sigma$ which projects to $\mu$, by

$$
\mu\left(Z_{a_{-n} \ldots a_{n}}\right)=\mu\left(\varrho\left(\sigma^{-n}\left(Z_{a_{-n} \ldots a_{n}}\right)\right)\right),
$$

where $Z_{a_{-n} \ldots a_{n}}=\left\{e \in \Sigma: e_{r}=a_{r},|r| \leqslant n\right\}$ and $\varrho: \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma^{+}$is projection.
Define a measure $\nu$ on $\Lambda$ by

$$
\nu(E)=\int_{\Sigma} \int_{0}^{h(e)} \chi_{E_{e}}(t) d t d \mu(e)
$$

where $E_{e}=\{(e, t) \in E: 0 \leqslant t<h(e)\}$.
Proposition 4.5. $\Pi_{*} \nu$ is the natural flow invariant measure on $M$.
Proof. One verifies easily that the measure $\left|e^{i \theta}-e^{i \varphi}\right|^{-2} d \theta d \varphi$ on $S^{1} \times S^{1}$-diagonal is invariant under the natural $\Gamma$ action. Since any geodesic in $D$ is uniquely determined by its endpoints on $S^{1}$, we can identify $T_{1} D$, the unit tangent bundle to $D$, with ( $S^{1} \times S^{1}-$ diag.) $\times$ R. The measure $\lambda=\left|e^{i \theta}-e^{\ell \varphi}\right|^{-2} d \theta d \varphi d t$ is invariant under $\Gamma$ acting on the left and the geodesic flow on the right.

Now by Proposition 3.10, any $u \in M$ has a unique lifting $\tilde{u}$ in $T_{1} D$ so that the geodesic $\gamma$ defined by $\tilde{u}$ is admissible and $\tilde{u}$ has its endpoint in $\overline{R(\gamma)}$ (see Proposition 4.1). Let $A \subseteq T_{1} D$ be the set of these liftings. It is clear that $\left.\lambda\right|_{A}$ (with suitable normalisation) is the natural flow invariant measure on $M$. Moreover if $q: A \rightarrow S^{1} \times S^{1}-$ diag., $q^{-1}(\gamma)$ has length $h(\gamma)$.
$\Pi$ identifies $q(A) \subseteq S^{\mathbf{1}} \times S^{1}-$ diag. with $\Sigma$. Therefore to see $\Pi_{*} \nu=\left.\lambda\right|_{A}$, it is enough to see that $w=\left.\left|e^{i \theta}-e^{i \varphi}\right|^{-2} d \theta d \varphi\right|_{q(A)}$ and $\mu$ on $\Sigma$ are the same. (We can safely ignore the sets on which $\Pi, \pi$ are not bijective since they are null for all relevant measures.)
$w$ is $\Gamma$ invariant and hence $\sigma$ invariant on $q(A)$. It is clear that $w$ projects to a measure $\bar{w}$ equivalent to Lebesgue on $\Sigma^{+}\left(=S^{1}\right)$, moreover $\bar{w}$ must be shift invariant on $\Sigma^{+}$.

Therefore $\bar{w}$ and $\bar{\mu}$ are shift invariant equivalent measures on $\Sigma^{+}$, and $\bar{\mu}$ is ergodic for the shift. It follows that $\bar{w}=\bar{\mu}$ (if we normalise properly), and since $\bar{w}$ determines $w$ uniquely (just as $\bar{\mu}$ determines $\mu$ ), we are done.

Notice that $\tilde{\mu}$ is the Gibbs measure corresponding to the function $-\log \left|f^{\prime}(x)\right|$ on $S^{\mathbf{1}}$.

It now follows from the symbolic representation that the geodesic flow is ergodic (since the shift $\sigma$ on $\Sigma$ is). In the compact case we can deduce the flow is Bernoulli. One needs to know the flow is $K$; this is a general fact, see for example [17]. The result follows from Theorem 4.3 of [16], (a $K$-flow which is the special flow over a shift under a Hölder continuous function is Bernoulli). (One makes an obvious modification to deal with the fact the height function may vanish, since $\exists N$ such that $h(e)+\ldots+h\left(\sigma^{N} e\right) \geqslant c>0, \forall e \in \Sigma$.)

We hope to investigate the non-compact case elsewhere. (The flow is known to be Bernoulli in this case also, see [7].)

## § 5. Quasi-conformal deformations

Throughout § 1-§4, we assumed that $\Gamma$ had a fundamental region $R$ which satisfied the property ( ${ }^{*}$ ). In [6] we showed that if $\Gamma^{\prime}$ is any Fuchsian group of the first kind, then there is a group $\Gamma$ satisfying ( ${ }^{*}$ ), such that there is a quasi-conformal deformation $j: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma^{\prime}$. We now show how to use this deformation to carry over the results above to the general case.

We first summarize the facts we need about quasi-conformal maps. For details, see [4].
(1) There is an isomorphism $j: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma^{\prime}$, and a diffeomorphism $\omega^{\mu}: D \rightarrow D^{\prime}=D$ so that

$$
j(g)=\omega^{\mu} g\left(\omega^{\mu}\right)^{-1}, \quad g \in \Gamma .
$$

(2) $\omega^{\mu}$ restricts to a homeomorphism $h: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$ so that $h(g x)=j(g) h(x), x \in S^{1}, g \in \Gamma$. $h$ is the so-called boundary map of $\omega^{\mu}$.
(3) If $\gamma$ is a geodesic in $D$, then $\gamma^{\prime}=\omega^{\mu}(\gamma)$ is a so-called quasi-geodesic in $D^{\prime}$. There is a unique geodesic $\bar{\gamma}$ in $D^{\prime}$ with the same endpoints as $\omega^{\mu}(\gamma), \bar{\gamma}$ is a bounded hyperbolic distance from $\omega^{\mu}(\gamma)$ (with bound depending only on $\omega^{\mu}$ ), [13].

Notice that if $\alpha, \beta$ are geodesics in $D$ then $\alpha \cap \beta \neq \varnothing$ if and only if $\bar{\alpha} \cap \bar{\beta} \neq \varnothing$.
Let $\alpha$ be a geodesic in $D$ which is an edge of $\eta$, and let $v$ be a vertex of $\eta$ on $\alpha$. Let $\beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{r}$ be the other edges of $\eta$ through $v$. Then $\bar{\alpha} \cap \bar{\beta}_{i} \neq \varnothing, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, but these intersections may all be distinct points. Let $\alpha(v)=\left\{\bar{\alpha} \cap \bar{\beta}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{r}$. Let $w$ be a vertex of $\eta$ adjacent to $v$ along $\alpha$. Then if $\gamma$ is any other edge of $\eta$ through $w, \bar{\gamma} \cap \bar{\beta}_{i}=\varnothing, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, and so we can find disjoint closed intervals $I_{\alpha}(v), I_{\alpha}(w)$ on $\alpha$ so that $\alpha(v) \subseteq \operatorname{Int} I_{\alpha}(v), \alpha(w) \subseteq \operatorname{Int} I_{\alpha}(w)$. More generally if $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=-\infty}^{\infty}$ are the vertices of $\boldsymbol{n}$ along $\alpha$ in order then there are disjoint closed intervals $\left\{I_{\alpha}\left(v_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=-\infty}^{\infty}$ along $\bar{\alpha}$ in the same order as $\left\{v_{i}\right\}, \alpha\left(v_{i}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{Int} I_{\alpha}\left(v_{i}\right)$.

Let $Q(v)$ be the open convex hull in $D^{\prime}$ of the set $\left\{I_{\alpha}(v): \alpha\right.$ is an edge of $\boldsymbol{n}$ through $\left.v\right\}$.
Now let $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ be the sides of a copy $S$ of $R$ in $D$. Since non-adjacent sides of $S$ do
not meet, the same is true of $\bar{i}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{I}_{n}$ and thus $\bar{i}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{t}_{n}$ bound a closed polygonal region $\hat{S}$ in $D^{\prime}$. Let $Q(S)=\hat{S}-U\{Q(v): v$ is a vertex of $S\}$ and let $Q(D)=D^{\prime}-U\{Q(v): v$ is a vertex of $n\}$.

If we collapse each of the regions $Q(v)$ to a point we obtain a net $Q(\boldsymbol{n})$ whose sides are the portions of the edges $\bar{\alpha}$ outside the regions $Q(v)$ and which is topologically identical with the net $\eta$.

Now let $\bar{\gamma}$ be a geodesic in $D^{\prime}$. We say $\bar{\gamma}$ passes across $Q(v)$ if $\bar{\gamma} \cap Q(v) \neq \varnothing$. Let the sides of $n$ meeting at $v$ be $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{2 k}$, going in clockwise order round $v$. Moving clockwise round $Q(v)$ one cuts successively $\tilde{t}_{1}, \ldots, \bar{t}_{2 k}$. Let $\bar{\gamma}$ cut $\partial Q(v)$ in points $P, Q$. Let $\beta(v)$ be the arc of $\partial Q(v)$ joining $P$ to $Q$ which cuts the smaller number of sides $\bar{t}_{i}$. (If both ares cut $k$ or $k+1$ sides choose $\beta$ to be the arc passing to the left of $Q(v)$.)

Now let $\hat{\gamma}$ be the curve obtained from $\bar{\gamma}$ by replacing $\bar{\gamma}$ with $[\bar{\gamma}-Q(v)] \cup \beta(v)$ in a neighbourhood of $Q(v)$, for every vertex $v$. In the collapsed net $Q(\boldsymbol{\eta}), \hat{\gamma}$ becomes a curve $Q(\gamma)$ which passes through a vertex $v$ whenever $\bar{\gamma} \cap \overline{Q(v)} \neq \varnothing$.

Theorem 5.1. Let $\bar{\gamma}$ be a geodesic in $D^{\prime}$ corresponding to an admissible geodesic $\gamma$ in $D$. We can find a distinguished region $Q(S(\gamma))$ such that
(1) $\hat{\gamma} \cap \overline{Q(S(\gamma))} \neq \varnothing$
(2) $\hat{\gamma} \cap \overline{Q(S(\gamma))} \neq \varnothing \Rightarrow S(\gamma)=R$
(3) $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts in succession $\overline{Q(S(\gamma))}, \overline{\sigma^{-1} Q(S(\sigma \gamma))}, \ldots$.

Proof. The idea is obviously to imitate $\S 3$. We define what is meant by a curve in $Q(D)$ passing near a vertex of $Q(\mathcal{H})$ just as in § 3. Lemma 3.4 depends only on the topology of $n$ and the position of the endpoints of $\gamma$ relative to $n$; and thus carries over to $Q(\eta)$ and $\hat{\gamma}$. To prove Lemma 3.5, it is enough to see that $\hat{S}$ is geodesically convex, or equivalently that the interior angles of $\hat{S}$ are less than $\pi$. But a vertex of $\hat{S}$ is formed by the intersection of two geodesics with distinct endpoints, and therefore the angle between any adjacent pair of sides is less than $\pi$.

The proofs of Lemma 3.6 and Corollary 3.7 are unchanged. Lemma 3.8 and Proposition 3.9 again depend only on topological properties of $n$ and the position of the endpoints of $\gamma$. The rest of the proof is as in $\S 3$.

We shall say a permutation $\pi$ of $\mathbf{Z}$ 'acts on finite blocks' if there are integers $\ldots<n_{1}<n_{2}<\ldots$ such that $\pi$ maps each interval $n_{i} \leqslant r<n_{i+1}$ onto itself. The importance of this will be that we can keep track of a 'base point' on a sequence, by choosing the left endpoint of some fixed block to be the base point. If we require permutations to preserve a base point, the sequence $n_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, n_{\pi^{-1}(2)}, \ldots$ uniquely determines $\pi$.

Proposition 5.2. Suppose ..., $l_{1}, l_{2}, l_{3}, \ldots$ are geodesics in $n$ arranged so that $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts $\ldots, \bar{l}_{1}, \bar{l}_{2}, \ldots$ in order (with the usual clockwise convention if $\hat{\gamma}$ passes through the intersection of two or more $\bar{l}_{i}$ ). Then $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts in order $\ldots, \bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, \bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(2)}, \ldots$ where $\pi$ is a permutation of $\mathbf{Z}$ which acts on finite blocks.

Proof. Define an equivalence relation on $\left\{l_{i}\right\}$ by $l_{i} \sim l_{j}$ iff $l_{i}, l_{j}$ meet at a vertex $v$ of $\boldsymbol{n}$ and $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts $\bar{l}_{i}, \bar{l}_{j}$ on $\partial Q(v)$. This is transitive since $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts each $\bar{l}_{i}$ exactly once and $\partial Q(v) \cap$ $\partial Q(w)=\varnothing$ if $v \neq w$. Notice that the equivalence classes are either singletons or blocks of consecutive sides all associated to the same $Q(v) . \bar{\gamma}$ cuts the same sides as $\hat{\gamma}$ in the same order except possibly near $Q(v)$. If $\bar{l}_{r}, \ldots, \bar{l}_{s}$ is the block associated to $Q(v)$, then $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts in order $\bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(r)}, \ldots, \bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(s)}$ for some permutation $\pi$. (This means that if $\pi(1)=i$, where 1 is the base point of the sequence, $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts $\bar{l}_{1}$ on the $i$ th cut after the base.)

Suppose $s$ is the first side of $Q(S(\gamma))$ cut by $\hat{\gamma}$ and let $\bar{l}_{r}$ be the geodesic extending $s$. Define $s(\gamma)=\bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(r)}$.

Theorem 5.3. The geodesic $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts the geodesics ..., $s(\gamma), \sigma^{-1} s(\sigma \gamma), \ldots$ in order.
Proof. Let $\hat{\gamma}$ cut $\ldots, \bar{l}_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots$ in order, and let $\sigma \hat{\gamma}$ cut $\ldots, \bar{m}_{1}, \bar{m}_{2}, \ldots$. By definition $s(\gamma)=$ $\bar{\eta}_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r)}$ and $s(\sigma \gamma)=\bar{m}_{\pi(\sigma \gamma)^{-1}(t)}$ where $\bar{l}_{r}, \bar{m}_{t}$ are the first sides of $Q(S(\gamma)), Q(S(\sigma \gamma))$ cut by $\hat{\gamma}$, $\widehat{\sigma \gamma}$ respectively. $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts $Q(S(\gamma)), \sigma^{-1} Q(S(\sigma \gamma))$ in order, so $\bar{l}_{r+1}$ is the first side of $\sigma^{-1} Q(S(\sigma \gamma))$ cut by $\hat{\gamma}$. Then $\sigma \bar{l}_{r+1}$ is the first side of $Q(S(\sigma \gamma))$ cut by $(\sigma \hat{\gamma})=\widehat{\sigma \gamma}$. Therefore $\sigma \bar{l}_{r+1}=\bar{m}_{t}$. Since $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts $\ldots, \bar{l}_{1}, \bar{l}_{2}, \ldots$ in order, $\sigma \hat{\gamma}$ cuts $\ldots, \sigma \bar{l}_{1}, \sigma \bar{l}_{2}, \ldots, \bar{m}_{j}=\sigma \bar{l}_{r+1+j-t}$ for all $j \in \mathbf{Z}$. Then $\sigma \bar{\gamma}$ cuts $\ldots$, $\sigma \bar{l}_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(\mathbf{1})}, \sigma \bar{l}_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(2)} \ldots$ in order where $\sigma \bar{l}_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r+1+j-t)}$ occurs in the jth place. Thus $\bar{m}_{\pi(\sigma \gamma)^{-1}(t)}=$ $\sigma l_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r+1)}$. We have shown $s(\sigma \gamma)=\sigma l_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r+1)}$. Since $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts $l_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r)}, l_{\pi(\gamma)^{-1}(r+1)}$ in order, we are done.

We now want to imitate $\S 4$, to represent the geodesic flow on $\widetilde{M}$, the unit tangent bundle to $D / \Gamma$, as a special flow on a space $\Lambda$.

Let $h(\bar{\gamma})$ be the hyperbolic distance along $\bar{\gamma}$ between $s(\gamma)$ and $\sigma^{-1} s(\sigma \gamma)$. Let $\Lambda=$ $\{(e, t): e \in \Sigma, 0 \leqslant t<h(e)\}$. Let $b(\gamma)$ be the unit tangent vector along $\bar{\gamma}$ at the point where $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts $s(\gamma)$. Define

$$
\Pi: \Lambda \rightarrow \tilde{M}, \quad \Pi(e, t)=\tilde{\psi}_{t} p(e)
$$

Proposition 5.4. $\Pi$ is surjective, $\Pi \varphi_{t}=\psi_{t} \Pi$ and $\# \Pi^{-1}(\Pi(e, t))=\# \pi^{-1}(\pi(e))$ for $e \in \Sigma$.
Proof. Since $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts in order $s(\gamma), \sigma^{-1} s(\sigma \gamma)$ the method of Proposition 4.1 shows that $\Pi \varphi_{t}=\psi_{t} \Pi$.

Using exactly the same method as in Proposition 3.10 one shows that whenever $\bar{\gamma}$ is a geodesic with $\hat{\gamma} \cap \overline{Q(R)} \neq \varnothing$, there exists a unique $g \in \Gamma$ with $g \bar{\gamma} \in \Sigma$ and $Q(S(g \bar{\gamma}))=g Q(R)$.

Take $u \in M$ and let $\tilde{u}$ be any lifting in $\tilde{M}$, with base point $U$. Let $\bar{\gamma}$ be the geodesic through $U$ in the direction of $\tilde{u}$, and let $\hat{\gamma}$ be the curve obtained by deforming round $Q(v)$ for each vertex $v$.

Suppose, as in Proposition 5.2, that $\hat{\gamma}$ cuts geodesics $\ldots, \bar{l}_{1}, \bar{\eta}_{2}, \ldots$ in order. Then $\bar{\gamma}$ cuts $l_{\pi^{-1}(1)}, l_{\pi^{-1}(2)}, \ldots$ at points $\ldots, M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots$ say. Suppose $U \in\left[M_{i} M_{i+1}\right)$. Let $Q(S)$ be the region between $\bar{l}_{i}$ and $\bar{l}_{i+1}$ with $\overline{Q(S)} \cap \hat{\gamma} \neq \varnothing$. (It is not hard to see there is a unique such region, because the boundary between $Q(S)$ and $Q\left(S^{\prime}\right)$ is either a side $\bar{l}$ of $Q(\boldsymbol{H})$ or a region $Q(v)$, and there are no sides of $Q(\mathcal{H})$ cutting $\hat{\gamma}$ between $\bar{l}_{i}$ and $\tilde{l}_{i+1}$.) Applying $k \in \Gamma$ with $k S=R$, we may assume $\overline{Q(R)} \cap \hat{\gamma} \neq \varnothing$.

Now we use the analogue of Proposition 3.10 above to find $g \in \Gamma$ with $g \bar{\gamma} \in \Sigma$ and $Q(S(g \bar{\gamma}))=g Q(R)$. The first side of $Q(S(g \bar{\gamma}))$ cut by $g \hat{\gamma}$ is $g \bar{l}_{i}$. Therefore $s(g \gamma)=\bar{l}_{\pi^{-1}(i)}$. Hence $g U$ lies on $g \bar{\gamma}$ between the intersection with $s(g \gamma)$ and the next side of $\bar{n}$, so

$$
g \hat{a}=\hat{\psi}_{\tau} b(g \gamma) \quad \text { where } \quad 0 \leqslant \tau<h(g \gamma) .
$$

Then $\Pi(g \bar{\gamma}, \tau)=u$, as in Proposition 4.1.
Finally, it is not hard to see that Proposition 4.1 is easily modified to prove $\Pi(e, t)=u$ iff $\pi(e)=g \bar{\gamma}$.

The facts about the continuity of $h$ and $\Pi$ now follow exactly as in $\S 4$, and we again see that in the compact case the flow is Bernoulli.

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