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#### Abstract

We provide a proof of a Guth-Katz-type lower bound for the distinct distances problem in the hyperbolic plane. Our construction follows the framework of Guth and Katz to deal with $\operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ and the corresponding incidence structure in projective geometry. In addition, we deduce a new sum-product estimate in the form of a hyperbolic metric formula based on this lower bound.


## 1. Introduction

The distinct distances problem was first proposed by Erdős [3] in the Euclidean plane. He conjectured the lower bound $\gtrsim N / \sqrt{\log N}$ for the number of distinct distances between pairs of points among $N$ points in the plane. (Here $A \gtrsim B$ means $A \geq c B$ for some absolute constant $c>0$.) After a half-century of progression with partial results, there came the major breakthrough by Guth and Katz [4] who proved the nearly optimal bound $\gtrsim N / \log N$. Foremostly they invented the tool of polynomial partitioning and promoted profound applications in incidence geometry and other areas, later developed by themselves and many other authors; for instances, see $[1 ; 6]$.

In this paper, we deal with the distinct distances problem in the hyperbolic plane $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ and prove the nearly optimal bound in equivalent strength with [4]. Following an idea of Tao's blog [11], Rudnev and Selig [9] described a proof using the Klein quadric in Plüker coordinates without exploiting symmetries in the hyperbolic plane. By contrast, following the framework of Elekes and Sharir, as in [4], we give an independent proof by carefully studying isometries of $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ in a more Guth-Katz ethnic language. More specifically, we prove:

Theorem 1.1. For any set $P \subset \mathbb{H}^{2}$ of $N$ points, we have

$$
\left|\left\{d_{\mathbb{H}^{2}}(p, q), p, q \in P\right\}\right| \gtrsim N / \log N,
$$

where $|A|$ denotes the cardinality of a set $A$ and $d_{\mathbb{H}^{2}}$ denotes the hyperbolic metric on $\mathbb{H}^{2}$.

[^0]In the case of the Euclidean plane, Guth and Katz [4] used the framework of Elekes and Sharir [2] to reduce the distinct distances problem to an incidence problems of lines, then derived the lower bound resorting to ruled surface theory and polynomial partitioning. Elekes and Sharir's framework serves as a realization of the Erlangen program (see [7] for historical background) for the distinct distances problem in the Euclidean plane. However, this framework cannot apply directly to the case of the hyperbolic plane. For the hyperbolic plane $\mathbb{H}^{2}$, we consider its isometry group $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$. Distinguished from Guth and Katz's coordinate of lines, our lines lie in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ rather than $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. We need further linearizations to reduce our coordinate of lines to $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Subsequently we need to overcome the difficulty of constructing vector fields in order to use ruled surface theory. See Section 2 for details.

In addition, we deduce a new sum-product-type result using Theorem 1.1. For any finite sets $A \subset \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}, B \subset \mathbb{R}$, define $P=\{b+i|a|: a \in A, b \in B\}$, and $P^{\prime}=\{-b+i|a|: a \in A, b \in B\}$. Note that explicitly we have the hyperbolic distance formula

$$
2 \cosh d_{\mathbb{H}^{2}}\left(x_{1}+i y_{1}, x_{2}+i y_{2}\right)=\frac{\left(x_{1}-x_{2}\right)^{2}+y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}}{y_{1} y_{2}}
$$

and $|\{|x|: x \in E\}| \geq \frac{1}{2}|E|$ for any finite set $E \subset \mathbb{R}$. By applying Theorem 1.1 to $P$ and $P^{\prime}$, we get:

Theorem 1.2. Let $A \subset \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}, B \subset \mathbb{R}$ be finite sets. Then we have

$$
\left|\left\{\frac{a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}+\left(b_{1}-b_{2}\right)^{2}}{a_{1} a_{2}}: a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, b_{1}, b_{2} \in B\right\}\right| \gtrsim \frac{|A||B|}{\log (|A|)+\log (|B|)},
$$

and

$$
\left|\left\{\frac{a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}+\left(b_{1}+b_{2}\right)^{2}}{a_{1} a_{2}}: a_{1}, a_{2} \in A, b_{1}, b_{2} \in B\right\}\right| \gtrsim \frac{|A||B|}{\log (|A|)+\log (|B|)} .
$$

By adding or subtracting 2 on the elements in the above sets, the factor $a_{1}^{2}+a_{2}^{2}$ can be replaced by $\left(a_{1}+a_{2}\right)^{2}$ or $\left(a_{1}-a_{2}\right)^{2}$.

Remark 1. In particular, if $|A|$ and $|B|$ are all about the size $\asymp N$, the above lower bounds become $\gtrsim N^{2} / \log N$.

A variant of the distinct distances problem has been previously used by RocheNewton and Rudnev [8] to study sum-product-type estimates. See also the work of Jones [5] for estimates of other sum-product-types using incidence geometry. Very recently, Sheffer and Zahl [10] derived a sum-product-type estimate for complex numbers.

## 2. Proof of Theorem 1.1

We use Elekes and Sharir's framework to reduce the counting of distinct distances to an incidence problem of lines in the real projective space $\mathbb{P}^{3}$. To overcome the difficulty of linearizing projective lines in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$, we turn the incidence of lines in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$ into that of lines in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ by certain conjugation. Then fulfilling the requirements for our lines in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ as Guth and Katz in Proposition 2.8 of [4] amounts to a more concrete proof of the lower bound $\gtrsim N / \log N$ of distinct distances among $N$ points in $\mathbb{H}^{2}$.

Framework. Let $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ be the hyperbolic plane and $G=\operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ be its isometry group which acts on $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ by Möbius transformation:

$$
z \mapsto \gamma \cdot z=\frac{a z+b}{c z+d} \quad \text { for } \gamma=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right) \in \operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R}), z \in \mathbb{H}^{2} .
$$

Let $P \subset \mathbb{H}^{2}$ be a set of $N$ points and define the set of distance quadruples

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(P):=\left\{\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}\right) \in P^{4}: d\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right)=d\left(p_{3}, p_{4}\right) \neq 0\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ denotes the hyperbolic metric. Denote the distance set by

$$
d(P):=\left\{d\left(p_{1}, p_{2}\right): p_{1} \neq p_{2} \in P\right\} .
$$

Then we have a close relation between $d(P)$ and $Q(P)$ as follows. Suppose $d(P)=\left\{d_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq m\right\}$ and $n_{i}$ is the number of pairs of points in $P$ with distance $d_{i}$. So $|Q(P)|=\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}$. Since $\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}=2\binom{N}{2}=N^{2}-N$, by Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we get

$$
\left(N^{2}-N\right)^{2}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}\right)^{2} \leq\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} n_{i}^{2}\right) m=|Q(P)||d(P)| .
$$

Rearranging the inequality gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
|d(P)| \geq \frac{N^{4}-2 N^{3}}{|Q(P)|} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Any quadruple $\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}\right) \in Q(P)$ uniquely determines an isometry $g \in G$ such that $g\left(p_{1}\right)=p_{3}, g\left(p_{2}\right)=p_{4}$. Suppose $p_{1}=x+i y, p_{3}=x^{\prime}+i y^{\prime} \in \mathbb{H}^{2}$ $\left(y, y^{\prime}>0\right)$ and there is some $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right) \in G$ such that

$$
A \cdot(x+i y)=\frac{a(x+i y)+b}{c(x+i y)+d}=x^{\prime}+i y^{\prime},
$$

for $i=\sqrt{-1}$. Rearranging terms we get

$$
a x+b+i a y=c x x^{\prime}+d x^{\prime}-c y y^{\prime}+i\left(c x y^{\prime}+d y^{\prime}+c x^{\prime} y\right)
$$

or equivalently the system of linear equations

$$
\begin{align*}
x a+b+\left(y y^{\prime}-x x^{\prime}\right) c-x^{\prime} d & =0, \\
y a-\left(x y^{\prime}+x^{\prime} y\right) c-y^{\prime} d & =0 . \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Its solution set in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ is the intersection of two distinct hyperplanes, which turns out to be a two-dimensional plane passing through the origin. If, in addition, $A \cdot p_{2}=p_{4}$, the point $(a, b, c, d)$ also lies in another distinct two-dimensional plane intersecting the above plane at a line since $p_{1} \neq p_{2}, p_{3} \neq p_{4}$ as follows.

Lemma 2.1. The equations of (3) determine a unique dimension- 2 hyperplane in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ for each distinct pair of points in $\mathbb{H}^{2}$. In particular, any quadruple $\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}\right) \in$ $Q(P)$ determines a unique isometry.

Proof. A fairly complicated elementary computation on $4 \times 4$ matrices derived from (3) allows us to see this, but here we prove it by geometric arguments.

First, a nonidentity real Möbius transformation can have at most one fixed point in $\mathbb{H}^{2}$, since $\frac{a z+b}{c z+d}=z$ implies $c z^{2}+(d-a) z-b=0$ which has 1 or no roots in $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ for real coefficients. If two isometries $\gamma_{1}, \gamma_{2} \in \operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ satisfy $\gamma_{i} \cdot p_{1}=p_{3}$ and $\gamma_{i} \cdot p_{2}=p_{4}$, then $\gamma_{1}^{-1} \gamma_{2}$ fixes both $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$, a contradiction $\left(p_{1} \neq p_{2}\right)$. This is to say a quadruple in $Q(P)$ determines at most one isometry, or equivalently, two systems of equations for two pairs of points as in (3) define different planes that intersect on at most one line.

Then we verify the existence of solution. Since $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ acts on $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ transitively (which can also be seen from (3)), let $\gamma_{j} \cdot i=p_{j}, j=1, \ldots, 4$. Then

$$
\gamma \cdot p_{1}=p_{3}, \quad \gamma \cdot p_{2}=p_{4} \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \gamma_{3}^{-1} \gamma \gamma_{1} \cdot i=i, \quad \gamma_{4}^{-1} \gamma \gamma_{2} \cdot i=i .
$$

For $i=(0,1),(3)$ simply becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b+c=0, \\
& a-d=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let its solution plane be $\pi$; then the desired solution set of $\gamma$ is $\gamma_{3} \pi \gamma_{1}^{-1} \cap \gamma_{4} \pi \gamma_{2}^{-1}=$ $\gamma_{3}\left(\pi \cap \gamma_{3}^{-1} \gamma_{4} \pi \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1}\right) \gamma_{1}^{-1}$. Note that $d\left(i, \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1} \cdot i\right)=d\left(\gamma_{2} \cdot i, \gamma_{1} \cdot i\right)=d\left(p_{2}, p_{1}\right)=$ $d\left(p_{4}, p_{3}\right)=d\left(\gamma_{4} \cdot i, \gamma_{3} \cdot i\right)=d\left(i, \gamma_{4}^{-1} \gamma_{3} \cdot i\right)$. Hence there exists a rotation $\gamma \in \pi$ about $i$ that transfers $\gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1} \cdot i$ to $\gamma_{4}^{-1} \gamma_{3} \cdot i$, that is, $\gamma \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1} \cdot i=\gamma_{4}^{-1} \gamma_{3} \cdot i$, or $\gamma_{3}^{-1} \gamma_{4} \gamma \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1} \cdot i=i$. This is to say

$$
\gamma \in \pi \cap \gamma_{3}^{-1} \gamma_{4} \pi \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1},
$$

so that $\gamma_{3}^{-1} \gamma_{4} \pi \gamma_{2}^{-1} \gamma_{1} \neq \varnothing$ and then the desired solution set $\gamma_{3} \pi \gamma_{1}^{-1} \cap \gamma_{4} \pi \gamma_{2}^{-1}$ is not empty.

Thus all $(a, b, c, d)$ lying in the intersection line of two planes defined by (3) in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$ project to a single point as $[a: b: c: d] \in \mathbb{P}^{3}$. This gives a map $E: Q(P) \rightarrow G$. Define, for any $p, q \in \mathbb{H}^{2}$,

$$
S_{p q}:=\{g \in G: g(p)=q\}
$$

which are one-dimensional curves in $G$. Similar to [4, Lemmas 2.4 and 2.6], we have
(i) if $|P \cap g P|=k$, then $\left|E^{-1}(g)\right|=2\binom{k}{2}$;
(ii) and $|P \cap g P| \geq k$ if and only if $g$ lies in at least $k$ of the curves $\left\{S_{p q}\right\}_{p, q \in P}$.

Thus we derive that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|Q(P)|=\sum_{k=2}^{N} 2\binom{k}{2}|\{g:|P \cap g P|=k\}| \lesssim \sum_{k=2}^{N} k\left|G_{k}(P)\right| \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G_{k}(P) \subset G$ consists of $g \in G$ with $|P \cap g P| \geq k$. Henceforth we focus on estimating $\left|G_{k}(P)\right|$ for $k=2$ and $k \geq 3$ as in Sections 3 and 4 of [4].

Incidence of projective lines in $\mathbb{P}^{\mathbf{3}}$. For any $g \in G$, we have $d(g p, g q)=d(p, q)$ so that shifting $P$ to $g P$ does not affect counting of distinct distances. Now for a quadruple $\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}\right) \in Q(P)$, suppose $E\left(\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}, p_{4}\right)\right)=h$, i.e., $h p_{1}=p_{3}$, $h p_{3}=p_{4}$. After shifting we get

$$
E\left(\left(g p_{1}, g p_{2}, g p_{3}, g p_{4}\right)\right)=g h g^{-1}
$$

In the matrix form of $G$, we manage to reshape the distance quadruples as follows.
Proposition 2.2. For any finite set of points $P \subset \mathbb{H}^{2}$, there is an isometry $g \in$ $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ such that all matrices in $E(Q(g P))$ have nonvanishing upper-left corners. Proof. We use translations $T_{x}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & x \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ with $x \in \mathbb{R}$. For any $h=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right) \in \operatorname{GL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$ we calculate that

$$
T_{x} h T_{x}^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & x \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & -x \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a+c x & -c x^{2}+(d-a) x+b \\
c & d-c x
\end{array}\right)
$$

Suppose $E(Q(P))$ consists of $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a_{i} & b_{i} \\ c_{i} & d_{i}\end{array}\right) \in \mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R}), 1 \leq i \leq K$. Note that $a_{i}$ and $c_{i}$ cannot be both zero, we choose nonzero $x$ such that $a_{i}+c_{i} x \neq 0$ for all $i=1, \ldots, K$. For such $x$ we have $E\left(Q\left(T_{x} P\right)\right)=T_{x} E(Q(P)) T_{x}^{-1}$ consisting of matrices with nonvanishing upper-left corners.

Remark 2. For any finite set of points in the upper-half plane, we may also dilate points by hyperbolic isometries so that they all have sufficiently large absolute values. Note that a Möbius transformation $\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right) \cdot z=\frac{b}{c z+d}$ basically inverts the absolute value of $z$, so that it cannot map $z$ with large absolute values to points with large absolute values. Thus after dilation, Möbius transformations with vanishing upper-left corners do not occur as isometries in consideration.

Hence without loss of generality, we assume $p_{x}, p_{y}, q_{x}, q_{y} \gg 1$ for points $p=p x+i p_{y}, q=q_{x}+q_{y}$ in consideration, that is, far away in the first quadrant. We have the following observation through (3). First, each $S_{p q}$ is a projective line in $\mathbb{P}^{3} \supset G=\mathrm{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R})$. We use the natural manifold atlas

$$
\mathbb{P}^{3}=\mathbb{R}_{1}^{3} \cup \mathbb{R}_{2}^{3} \cup \mathbb{R}_{3}^{3} \cup \mathbb{R}_{4}^{3},
$$

with $\mathbb{R}_{1}^{3}=\{[1: b: c: d] \mid b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{3}$ and $\mathbb{R}_{i}^{3} \simeq \mathbb{R}^{3}, i=2,3,4$, similarly defined with $i$-th entry equal to 1 in the projective coordinate. Analogously we use

$$
G=\bigcup_{i=1}^{4} G_{i}, \quad G_{i}=\operatorname{PSL}_{2}(\mathbb{R}) \cap \mathbb{R}_{i}^{3} .
$$

In particular, $G_{1}$ consists of matrices with nonvanishing upper-left corners. Then the restriction $S_{p q} \cap G_{i}$ becomes a real line in $\mathbb{R}_{i}^{3}$, and by Proposition 2.2, there exists $g \in G$ such that $G_{k}(g P) \subset G_{1}$ for each $k \geq 2$. Abusing notation, we always denote by $L_{p q}$ the real line $S_{(g p)(g q)} \cap \mathbb{R}_{1}^{3}$ in the manifold atlas of $\mathbb{P}^{3}$. The incidences among curves $S_{p q}$ are now equivalent to that of lines $L_{p q}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}\left(\mathbb{R}_{1}^{3}\right)$. Explicitly $L_{p q}$ has the following linear parametrization.
Proposition 2.3. For any $p=p_{x}+i p_{y}, q=q_{x}+i q_{y} \in \mathbb{H}^{2}$, the line $L_{p q}$ can be parametrized as

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(-\frac{q_{y}\left(p_{x}^{2}+p_{y}^{2}\right)+p_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}},\right. & \left.\frac{p_{y}+q_{y}}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}}, 0\right)  \tag{5}\\
& +t\left(\frac{p_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}},-\frac{q_{y}}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}}, 1\right)
\end{align*}
$$

for $t \in \mathbb{R}$.
Proof. For any $\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right) \cdot p=q$ with $a=1$ and $t=d+1$ as parameter, we get from (3),

$$
\begin{align*}
b & =-\frac{q_{y}\left(p_{x}^{2}+p_{y}^{2}\right)+p_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}}+\frac{p_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}} t,  \tag{6}\\
c & =\frac{p_{y}+q_{y}}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}}-\frac{q_{y}}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}} t,
\end{align*}
$$

which gives us the parametrization of points $(b, c, t) \in L_{p q}$.
Remark 3. There are other parametrizations of $L_{p q}$, say for $b=t$ as the parameter. Here the roles of $p$ and $q$ are symmetric in that the intersection of $L_{p q}$ and $L_{q p}$ is on the plane $t=0$.

Since there are nonlinear terms in our parametrization, which is not a problem for Guth and Katz [4], we have to consider different families of lines that rule surfaces and the vector fields on reguli to get the following.

Proposition 2.4. For any set of $N$ points $P \subset \mathbb{H}_{>0}^{2}:=\{x+i y: x, y>0\}$ and $\mathcal{L}=\left\{L_{p q}: p, q \in P\right\}$, no more than $N$ lines of $\mathcal{L}$ lie in a common plane and no more than $O(N)$ lines of $\mathcal{L}$ lie in a common regulus.

Proof. We consider the families $L_{q}:=\left\{L_{p q}\right\}_{p \in \mathbb{H}_{\geq 0}^{2}}$ of lines targeting at $q$. First, for any $p^{\prime} \neq p$, the line $L_{p^{\prime} q}$ does not intersect $\hat{L}_{p q}$. Note that $L_{p q} \subset S_{p q}$, and suppose $L_{p q} \cap L_{p^{\prime} q} \neq \varnothing$. Then there would be some $g \in G$ such that $g p^{\prime}=g p=q$, a contradiction. Moreover by (5), the directions of $L_{p q}$ and $L_{p^{\prime} q}$ are different:

$$
\left(\frac{p_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}},-\frac{q_{y}}{p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}}, 1\right)=\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, 1\right)
$$

has a unique solution for fixed $q$ and $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$. Thus different $L_{q}$ 's have no lines in common and belong to different rulings of a ruled surface if any. Note that $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$ cannot be zero since $p_{x}, p_{y}, q_{x}, q_{y}>0$. Indeed, equivalently we have

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-\xi_{1} q_{y} & q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}-q_{x} \xi_{1} \\
\xi_{2} q_{y} & \xi_{2} q_{x}
\end{array}\right)\binom{p_{x}}{p_{y}}=\binom{0}{-q_{y}},
$$

whose associate matrix has determinant $-\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right) \xi_{2} q_{y} \neq 0$. Hence lines of $L_{q}$ are pairwise skew and no two of its lines lie in a common plane. Therefore any plane intersects each $L_{q}$ at most one line and intersects $\mathcal{L}$ at most $N$ lines.

To prove the second part, we construct a vector field $V=\left(V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}\right)$ on $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ tangent to lines of $L_{q}$ for any fixed $q=q_{x}+i q_{y} \in \mathbb{H}_{>0}^{2}$. By (3) we locate $p$ such that $L_{p q}$ passes through any given $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ as follows $\left(a=1, x_{1}=b\right.$, $x_{2}=c, x_{3}=d$ ):

$$
\begin{array}{r}
p_{x}+x_{1}+\left(p_{y} q_{y}-p_{x} q_{x}\right) x_{2}-q_{x} x_{3}=0, \\
p_{y}-\left(p_{x} q_{y}+q_{x} p_{y}\right) x_{2}-q_{y} x_{3}=0,
\end{array}
$$

or equivalently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(1-q_{x} x_{2}\right) p_{x}+\left(q_{y} x_{2}\right) p_{y} & =q_{x} x_{3}-x_{1}, \\
\left(-q_{y} x_{2}\right) p_{x}+\left(1-q_{x} x_{2}\right) p_{y} & =q_{y} x_{3},
\end{aligned}
$$

which has solution

$$
\binom{p_{x}}{p_{y}}=\frac{1}{\left(1-q_{x} x_{2}\right)^{2}+q_{y}^{2} x_{2}^{2}}\binom{q_{x} x_{1} x_{2}-\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right) x_{2} x_{3}-x_{1}+q_{x} x_{3}}{-q_{y} x_{1} x_{2}+q_{y} x_{3}} .
$$

By (5), we set the direction of $L_{p q}$ as

$$
\left(\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right) p_{y},-q_{y}, q_{y} p_{x}+q_{x} p_{y}\right)=\frac{1}{\left(1-q_{x} x_{2}\right)^{2}+q_{y}^{2} x_{2}^{2}}\left(V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}\right),
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V_{1}=-q_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right)\left(x_{1} x_{2}-x_{3}\right) \\
& V_{2}=-q_{y}\left[\left(1-q_{x} x_{2}\right)^{2}+q_{y}^{2} x_{2}^{2}\right] \\
& V_{3}=-q_{y}\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right) x_{2} x_{3}-q_{y} x_{1}+2 q_{x} q_{y} x_{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $V=\left(V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}\right)$; then $V$ has degree 2. Note that $p \in \mathbb{H}_{>0}^{2}$, the vector field is defined over the open subset
$U_{q}:=\left\{\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{3} \mid q_{x} x_{1} x_{2}-\left(q_{x}^{2}+q_{y}^{2}\right) x_{2} x_{3}-x_{1}+q_{x} x_{3}>0,-q_{y} x_{1} x_{2}+q_{y} x_{3}>0\right\}$,
and we always consider the pieces of reguli restricted in $U_{q}$.
Now suppose a line $L_{p q}$ lies in a regulus $R$ defined by a degree- 2 irreducible polynomial $f$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Then at any point $x \in L_{p q}$ we have the Taylor expansion

$$
f(x+t V(x))=f(x)+\nabla(f) \cdot V(x) t+\frac{1}{2} V^{T} H(f) V t^{2},
$$

where $\nabla(f)$ is the gradient of $f$ and $H(f)$ is the Hessian matrix of $f$.
By Bezout's lemma (Lemma 3.1 of [4]), if more than 9 lines of $L_{q}$ are contained in $R, f$ would have a common factor with both $\nabla(f) \cdot V$ and $V^{T} H(f) V$, which have degree 3 and 4, respectively. By irreducibility, $f$ must be the common factor so that $f$ vanishes on each line of $L_{q}$ with direction $V(x)$ for any $x \in R$ by the Taylor expansion above, that is, $L_{q}$ is a ruling of $R$. Since a regulus has only two rulings, $R$ can only contain at most 8 lines from $N-2$ families $L_{q}$ which are not rulings of $R$ and $2 N$ lines of $L_{q_{1}}, L_{q_{2}}$ if they are rulings of $R$. In total, there are at most $2 N+8(N-1)=10 N-8$ lines of $\mathcal{L}$ lying in $R$.

Now we already reduced the problem to incidence geometry in the Euclidean space. Applying ruled surface theory and polynomial partitioning to reproduce Guth and Katz's Theorem 2.10 and 2.11 of [4], we get the following lower bound for the distinct distances problem in the hyperbolic plane. It has the same strength as the result of Guth and Katz for the Euclidean plane.

Theorem 2.5. For $P \subset \mathbb{H}^{2}$ any set of $N$ points and $\mathcal{L}=\left\{L_{p q} \mid p, q \in P\right\}$, let $G_{k}$ be the set of points where at least $k$ lines of $\mathcal{L}$ meet for $2 \leq k \leq N$. Then

$$
\left|G_{k}\right| \lesssim N^{3} k^{-2}
$$

Consequently, by (4), $|Q(P)| \lesssim N^{3} \log N$, and by (2), we have $|d(p)| \gtrsim N / \log N$.

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