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# Fuchsian convex bodies: basics of Brunn-Minkowski theory 

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#### Abstract

The hyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ can be defined as a pseudo-sphere in the $(d+1)$ Minkowski space-time. In this paper, a Fuchsian group $\Gamma$ is a group of linear isometries of the Minkowski space such that $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ is a compact manifold. We introduce Fuchsian convex bodies, which are closed convex sets in Minkowski space, globally invariant for the action of a Fuchsian group. A volume can be defined, and, if the group is fixed, Minkowski addition behaves well. Then Fuchsian convex bodies can be studied in the same manner as convex bodies of Euclidean space in the classical Brunn-Minkowski theory. For example, support functions can be defined, as functions on a compact hyperbolic manifold instead of the sphere.

The main result is the convexity of the volume (it is log concave in the classical setting). This implies analogs of Alexandrov-Fenchel and Brunn-Minkowski inequalities. Here the inequalities are reversed.


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## 1 Introduction

There are two main motivations behind the definitions and results presented here. See next section for a precise definition of Fuchsian convex bodies, the main object of this paper, and Fuchsian convex surfaces (boundaries of Fuchsian convex bodies).

The first motivation is to show that the geometry of Fuchsian convex surfaces in the Minkowski space is the right analogue of the classical geometry of convex compact hypersurfaces in the Euclidean space. In the present paper, we show the analogue of the basics results what is called Brunn-Minkowski theory. Roughly speaking, the matter is to study the relations between the sum and the volume of the bodies under consideration. This generalization is as natural as, for example, going from the round sphere to compact hyperbolic surfaces. To strengthen this idea, existing results can be put into perspective. Indeed, Fuchsian convex surfaces are not new objects. As far I know, smooth Fuchsian hypersurfaces appeared in [Oliker and Simon, 1983], see Subsection 3.3. The simplest examples of convex Fuchsian surfaces are convex hulls of the orbit of one point for the action of the Fuchsian group. They were considered in [Näätänen and Penner, 1991], in relation with the seminal papers [Penner, 1987, Epstein and Penner, 1988]. See also [Charney et al., 1997]. The idea is to study hyperbolic problems via the extrinsic structure given by the Minkowski space. For a recent illustration see [Espinar et al., 2009]. The first study of Fuchsian surfaces for their own is probably [Labourie and Schlenker, 2000]. The authors proved that for any Riemannian metric on a compact surface of genus $\geqslant 2$ with negative curvature, there exists an isometric convex Fuchsian surface in the $2+1$-Minkowski space, up to a quotient. In the Euclidean case, the analog problem is known as Weyl problem. A uniqueness result is also given. This kind of results about realization of abstract metrics by (hyper)surfaces invariant under a group action seem to go back to former papers of F. Labourie and to [Gromov, 1986]. The polyhedral analog of [Labourie and Schlenker, 2000] is considered in [Fillastre, 2011a]. An important intermediate result, about polyhedral infinitesimal rigidity in $d=2$, was proved in [Schlenker, 2007] (Fuchsian analogue of Dehn theorem). More recently, a Fuchsian analogue of the "Alexandrov prescribed curvature problem" (a kind of "dual" of the Minkowski problem) was proved in [Bertrand, 2010]. The proof uses optimal mass transport. A refinement of this result in the polyhedral $d=2$ case was obtained in [Iskhakov, 2000]. There exists a solution for an analogue of the Christoffel problem (prescribed sum of the radii of curvature in the regular case) for objects very similar to ours but without group action (the curvature is prescribed on the hyperbolic space rather than on a compact hyperbolic manifold) [Lopes de Lima and Soares de Lira, 2006].

The second motivation is that, up to a quotient, the results presented here are about the volume defined by convex Cauchy surfaces in the simplest case of flat Lorentzian manifolds, namely the quotient of the interior of the future cone by a Fuchsian group. It is relevant to consider them in a larger class of flat Lorentzian manifolds, known as maximal globally hyperbolic Cauchy-compact flat spacetimes. They were considered in the seminal paper [Mess, 2007], see [Andersson et al., 2007] and [Barbot, 2005, Bonsante, 2005]. Roughly speaking, one could consider hypersurfaces in the Minkowski space invariant under a group of isometries whose set of linear isometries forms a Fuchsian group (translations are added). In $d=2$, for such smooth strictly convex surfaces, a Minkowski theorem (generalizing Theorem 3.8 in this dimension) was proved recently in [Béguin et al., 2011]. Maybe some of the basic objects introduced in the present paper could be extended to the point to these manifolds.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces, among main definitions, the tool to study (Fuchsian) convex bodies, the support functions. The case of regular Fuchsian convex bodies is treated in Section 3 and the one of polyhedral Fuchsian convex bodies in Section 4. These two sections are independent. In Section 5 the general results are obtained by polyhedral approximation. It appears that the proofs of the main results, even though very analogous to the classical ones, are simpler than in the Euclidean case.

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## 2 Definitions

### 2.1 Fuchsian convex bodies

The Minkowski space-time of dimension $(d+1), d \geqslant 1$, is $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ endowed with the symmetric bilinear form

$$
\langle x, y\rangle_{-}=x_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+x_{d} y_{d}-x_{d+1} y_{d+1} .
$$

We will denote by $\mathcal{F}$ the interior of the future cone of the origin. It is the set of future time-like vectors: the set of $x$ such that $\langle x, x\rangle_{-}<0$ (time-like) and the last coordinate of $x$ for the standard basis is positive (future). The pseudo-sphere contained in $\mathcal{F}$ at distance $t$ from the origin of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is

$$
\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, x\rangle_{-}=-t^{2}, x_{d+1}>0\right\} .
$$

All along the paper we identify $\mathbb{H}_{1}^{d}$ with the hyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. Note that for any point $x \in \mathcal{F}$, there exists $t$ such that $x \in \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$.

Definition 2.1. A Fuchsian group is a subgroup of the linear isometries group of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, fixing setwise $\mathcal{F}$ and acting freely cocompactly on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ (i.e. $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ is a compact manifold).

A Fuchsian convex body is the data of a convex closed proper subset $K$ of $\mathcal{F}$, together with a Fuchsian group $\Gamma$, such that $\Gamma K=K$. А $\Gamma$-convex body is a Fuchsian convex body with Fuchsian group $\Gamma$.

A Fuchsian convex surface is the boundary of a Fuchsian convex body.
The simplest examples of Fuchsian convex surfaces are the $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ (note that all Fuchsian groups act freely and cocompactly on $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ ). Their convex sides are Fuchsian convex bodies, denoted by $B_{t}^{d}$, and $B_{1}^{d}$ is sometimes denoted by $B^{d}$ or $B$. This example shows that a given convex set can be a Fuchsian convex body for many Fuchsian groups.

A Fuchsian convex body could be defined in the future or past cone of any point of the Minkowski space, but up to a global isometry there is no loss of generality in considering the future cone of the origin.

A Fuchsian convex body has to be thought as the analogue of a convex body (compact convex set), with the compactness condition replaced by a "cocompactness" condition (we will see that a Fuchsian convex body is never bounded).

We will adapt the classical theory to the Fuchsian case. For that one we mainly follow [Schneider, 1993].

### 2.2 Support planes

For a subset $A$ of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, a support plane of $A$ at $x$ is an hyperplane $\mathcal{H}$ with $x \in A \cap \mathcal{H}$ and $A$ entirely contained in one side of $\mathcal{H}$.

Lemma 2.2. Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body. Then
(i) $K$ is not contained in a codimension $>0$ plane.
(ii) $K$ is future convex:
(a) through each boundary point there is a support plane;
(b) all support planes are space-like;
(c) $K$ is contained in the future of its support planes.

Proof. By definition $K$ is not empty. Let $x \in K$. As $K \subset \mathcal{F}$, there exists a $t$ such that $x \in \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$, and by definition, all the elements of the orbit $\Gamma x$ of $x$ belong to $K \cap \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$. Suppose that $K$ is contained in a codimension $>0$ hyperplane $\mathcal{H}$. Then there would exist a codimension 1 hyperplane $\mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ with $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{H}^{\prime}$, and $\Gamma x \in \mathcal{H}^{\prime} \cap \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$. This means that on $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ (who is homothetic to the hyperbolic space for the induced metric), $\Gamma x$ is contained in a totally geodesic hyperplane, a hypersphere or a horosphere (depending on $\mathcal{H}^{\prime}$ to be time-like, space-like or light-like), that is clearly impossible. (i) is proved.
(ii) $(a)$ is a general property of convex closed subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ [Schneider, 1993, 1.3.2].

Let $x \in K$ and let $\mathcal{H}$ be the support plane of $K$ at $x$. There exists $t$ such that $\Gamma x \subset \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$, and all elements of $\Gamma x$ must be on one side of $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ on $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$. Clearly $\mathcal{H} \cap \mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ can't be a totally geodesic hyperplane (of $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ ), and it can't either be a horosphere by Sublemma 2.3. Hence $\mathcal{H}$ must be space-like, that gives (ii)(b). The fact that all elements of $\Gamma x$ belong to $\mathbb{H}_{t}^{d}$ implies that $K$ is in the future side of its support planes, hence (ii)(c).

Sublemma 2.3. Let $\Gamma$ be a group of isometries acting cocompactly on the hyperbolic space $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. For any $x \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$, the orbit $\Gamma x$ meets the interior of any horoball.

Proof. As the action of $\Gamma$ on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ is cocompact, it is well-known that the orbit $\Gamma x$ is discrete and that the Dirichlet regions for $\Gamma x$

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{a}(\Gamma)=\left\{p \in \mathbb{H}^{d} \mid d(a, p) \leqslant d(\gamma a, p), \forall \gamma \in \Gamma \backslash\{I d\}\right\}, a \in \Gamma x \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d$ is the hyperbolic distance, are bounded [Ratcliffe, 2006]. The sublemma is a characteristic property of discrete sets with bounded Dirichlet regions [Charney et al., 1997, Lemma 3].

Lemma 2.4. Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body and $x \in K$. For any $\lambda \geqslant 1, \lambda x \in K$.
Proof. From the definition of $K$, it is not hard to see that it has non empty interior. And as $K$ is closed, if the lemma was false, there would exist a point on the boundary of $K$ and a support plane at this point such that $x$ in its past, that is impossible because of Lemma 2.2.

Let us recall the following elementary results, see e.g. [Ratcliffe, 2006, 3.1.1,3.1.2].
Sublemma 2.5. (i) If $x$ and y are nonzero non space-like vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, both past or future, then $\langle x, y\rangle_{-} \leqslant 0$ with equality if and only if $x$ and $y$ are linearly dependent light-like vectors.
(ii) If $x$ and $y$ are nonzero non space-like vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, both past (resp. future), then the vector $x+y$ is past (resp. future) non space-like. Moreover $x+y$ is light-like if and only if $x$ and $y$ are linearly dependent light-like vectors.
A future time-like vector $\eta$ orthogonal to a support plane at $x$ of a future convex set $A$ is called an inward normal of $A$ at $x$. This means that $\forall y \in A, y-x$ and $\eta$ are two future time-like vectors at the point $x$, then by Sublemma 2.5,

$$
\forall y \in A,\langle\eta, y-x\rangle_{-} \leqslant 0, \text { i.e. }\langle\eta, y\rangle_{-} \leqslant\langle\eta, x\rangle_{-}
$$

or equivalently the $\sup$ on all $y \in A$ of $\langle\eta, y\rangle_{-}$is attained at $x$. Notice that the set

$$
\left\{y \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle y, \eta\rangle_{-}=\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-}\right\}
$$

is the support hyperplane of $A$ at $x$ with inward normal $\eta$.
Lemma 2.6. Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body. For any future time-like vector $\eta, \sup \{\langle x, \eta\rangle-\mid x \in K\}$ exists, is attained at a point of $K$ and is negative. In particular any future time-like vector $\eta$ is an inward normal of $K$.

A future time-like vector $\eta$ is the inward normal of a single support hyperplane of $K$.
Proof. From (i) of Lemma 2.5, $\left\{\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \mid x \in K\right\}$ is bounded from above by zero hence the sup exists. The sup is a negative number, as a sufficiently small translation of the vector hyperplane $\mathcal{H}$ orthogonal to $\eta$ in direction of $\mathcal{F}$ does not meet $K$. This follows from the separation theorem [Schneider, 1993, 1.3.4], because the origin is the only common point between $\mathcal{H}$ and the boundary of $\mathcal{F}$. As $K$ is closed, the sup is attained when the parallel displacement of $\mathcal{H}$ meets $K$.

Suppose that two different support hyperplanes of $K$ have the same inward normal. Hence one is contained in the past of the other, that is impossible.

### 2.3 Support functions

Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body. The extended support function $H$ of $K$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \eta \in \mathcal{F}, H(\eta)=\sup \left\{\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \mid x \in K\right\} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know from Lemma 2.6 that it is a negative function on $\mathcal{F}$. As an example the extended support function of $B_{t}^{d}$ is equal to $-t \sqrt{-\langle\eta, \eta\rangle_{-}}$.

Definition 2.7. A function $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on a convex subset $A$ of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is sublinear (on $A$ ) if it is positively homogeneous of degree one:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \eta \in A, f(\lambda \eta)=\lambda f(\eta) \forall \lambda>0, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and subadditive:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \eta, \mu \in A, f(\eta+\mu) \leqslant f(\eta)+f(\mu) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

A sublinear function is convex, in particular it is continuous (by assumptions it takes only finite values in $A$ ). It is straightforward from the definition that an extended support function is sublinear and $\Gamma$-invariant. It is useful to expand the definition of extended support function to the whole space. The total support function of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall \eta \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \tilde{H}(\eta)=\sup \{\langle x, \eta\rangle-\mid x \in K\} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will consider the total support function for any convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. The infinite value is allowed. We have the following important property, see [Hörmander, 2007, Theorem 2.2.8].

Proposition 2.8. Let $f$ be a lower semi-continuous, convex and positively homogeneous of degree one function on $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ (the infinite value is allowed). The set

$$
F=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle-\leqslant f(\eta) \forall \eta \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}\right\}
$$

is a closed convex set with total support function $f$.
From the definition we get:
Lemma 2.9. A convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is a point if and only if its total support function is a linear form. (If the point is $p$, the linear form is $\langle\cdot, p\rangle_{-}$.)

In particular, the total support function of a Fuchsian convex body is never a linear form.
The relation between the extended support function and the total support function is as follows.
Lemma 2.10. The total support function $\tilde{H}$ of $a \Gamma$-convex body with extended support function $H$ is equal to:

- Hon $\mathcal{F}$
- 0 on the future light-like vectors
- $+\infty$ elsewhere.

Moreover $\tilde{H}$ is a $\Gamma$ invariant sublinear function.
Proof. We have the following cases

- If $\eta$ is future time-like then $\tilde{H}(\eta)=H(\eta)$.
- If $\eta$ is past time-like or past light-like, then by (i) of Sublemma 2.5 for $x \in K,\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-}>0$, and by Lemma 2.4, $\tilde{H}(\eta)=+\infty$.
- If $\eta$ is space-like, as seen in the proof of (ii) $(b)$ of Lemma 2.2, there exists points of $K$ on both side of the orthogonal (for $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{-}$) of $\eta$. Hence there exists $x \in K$ with $\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-}>0$, and by the preceding argument, $\tilde{H}(\eta)=+\infty$.
- If $\eta$ is future light-like, then $\tilde{H}(\eta)=0$. Let us prove it. As $\tilde{H}$ is lower semi-continuous (as supremum of a family of continuous functions) and as $\tilde{H}=+\infty$ outside of the future cone, the restriction of $\tilde{H}$ to the future light cone is obtained as the prolongation by continuity of the restriction of $\tilde{H}$ to $\mathcal{F}$. Let $\ell$ be a future light-like vector. As $\Gamma$ acts cocompactly on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$, there exists a sequence of $\gamma_{k} \in \Gamma$ such that for any future time-like ray $r$, the sequence $\gamma_{n} r$ converges to the ray containing $\ell$ [Ratcliffe, 2006, Example 2, 12.2]. From this sequence we take a sequence $\gamma_{k} \eta$ for a future time-like vector $\eta$. We have $\tilde{H}\left(\gamma_{k} \eta\right)=\tilde{H}(\eta)$. From this sequence we take a sequence of vectors $\eta_{k}^{\prime}$ which all have the same $(d+1)$ th coordinate $\left(\eta_{k}^{\prime}\right)_{d+1}$ as $\ell$, say $\ell_{d+1}$ (hence $\eta_{k}^{\prime} \rightarrow \ell$ ). We have $\eta_{k}^{\prime}=\ell_{d+1} /\left(\gamma_{k} \eta\right)_{d+1} \gamma_{k} \eta$, and by homogeneity $\tilde{H}\left(\eta_{k}^{\prime}\right)=\tilde{H}\left(\ell_{d+1} \eta\right) /\left(\gamma_{k} \eta\right)_{d+1}$ that goes to 0 as $k$ goes to infinity $\left(\left(\gamma_{k} \eta\right)_{d+1}\right.$ goes to infinity).
That $\tilde{H}$ is a $\Gamma$ invariant sublinear function follows easily.
Lemma 2.11. Let $H$ be a negative sublinear $\Gamma$-invariant function on $\mathcal{F}$. The set

$$
K=\left\{x \in \mathcal{F} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant H(\eta) \forall \eta \in \mathcal{F}\right\}
$$

is a $\Gamma$-convex body with extended support function $H$.
Proof. Let $\tilde{H}$ be the extension of $H$ on $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ (i.e. $\tilde{H}=H$ on $\mathcal{F}, 0$ on the future light-like vectors and $+\infty$ elsewhere). From Proposition 2.8, the set

$$
\tilde{K}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant \tilde{H}(\eta) \forall \eta \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}\right\}
$$

is a closed convex set, with total support function $\tilde{H}$. Let us see that $\tilde{K}=K$.
As $\tilde{H}(\eta)=+\infty$ outside the closure $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$ of the future cone we have

$$
\tilde{K}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant \tilde{H}(\eta) \forall \eta \in \overline{\mathcal{F}}\right\} .
$$

For $\eta \in \mathcal{F}, \tilde{H}(\eta) \leqslant 0$, it follows that $\tilde{K}$ is contained in $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$ :

$$
\tilde{K}=\left\{x \in \overline{\mathcal{F}} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant \tilde{H}(\eta) \forall \eta \in \overline{\mathcal{F}}\right\} .
$$

As $H$ is $\Gamma$-invariant, $\tilde{H}$ and $\tilde{K}$ are $\Gamma$-invariant too. For $x \in \tilde{K} \cap(\overline{\mathcal{F}} \backslash \mathcal{F})$, the origin is an accumulating point of $\Gamma x$ from Sublemma 2.12. So for any $\eta \in \mathcal{F}, \tilde{H}(\eta)$, which is the sup of $\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-}$for $x \in \tilde{K}$, should be zero, that is false. Hence

$$
\tilde{K}=\left\{x \in \mathcal{F} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant \tilde{H}(\eta) \forall \eta \in \overline{\mathcal{F}}\right\}
$$

and as $\tilde{H}(\eta)=0$ on $\overline{\mathcal{F}} \backslash \mathcal{F}$ we get

$$
\tilde{K}=\left\{x \in \mathcal{F} \mid\langle x, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant \tilde{H}(\eta) \forall \eta \in \mathcal{F}\right\}=K .
$$

The remainder is easy.
Sublemma 2.12. Let $\Gamma$ be a Fuchsian group and let $x$ be a future light-like vector. Then the origin is an accumulating point of $\Gamma x$.

Proof. Suppose it is false. As $\Gamma$ acts cocompactly on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$, there exists an horizontal space-like hyperplane $S$ such that a fundamental domain on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ for the action of $\Gamma$ lies below $S$. If the origin is not an accumulating point, then there exists $\lambda>0$ such that the horoball

$$
\left\{y \in \mathbb{H}^{d} \mid-1 \leqslant\langle\lambda x, y\rangle_{-}<0\right\}
$$

and its images for the action of $\Gamma$ remain above $S$. This contradicts the definition of fundamental domain.

The polar dual $K^{*}$ of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is, if $H$ is the extended support function of $K$ :

$$
K^{*}=\{x \in \mathcal{F} \mid H(x) \leqslant-1\} .
$$

For example, $\left(B_{t}^{d}\right)^{*}=B_{1 / t}^{d}$. It is not hard to see that $K^{*}$ is a $\Gamma$-convex body, and that $K^{* *}=K$ (see the convex bodies case [Schneider, 1993, 1.6.1]). Moreover the points of the boundary of $K^{*}$ are the $\frac{-1}{H(\eta)} \eta$ for $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$. The inverse of this map is the projection $f(x)=\frac{x}{\sqrt{-\langle x, x\rangle_{-}}}$. Hence, exchanging the roles of $K$ and $K^{*}$, we get that the projection of a Fuchsian convex body along rays from the origin gives is a homeomorphism between $\partial K$ and $\mathbb{H}^{d}$.

### 2.4 Minkowski sum and volume

The (Minkowski) addition of two sets $A, B \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is defined as

$$
A+B:=\{a+b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}
$$

It is well-known that the addition of two convex sets is a convex set. Moreover the sum of two future time-like vectors is a future time-like vector, in particular it is never zero. So the sum of two $\Gamma$-convex bodies is contained in $\mathcal{F}$ and closed [Rockafellar and Wets, 1998, 3.12]. As a Fuchsian group $\Gamma$ acts by linear isometries, the sum is a $\Gamma$-convex body, and the space $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ of $\Gamma$-convex bodies is invariant under the addition. Note also that $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ is invariant under multiplication by positive scalars. It is straightforward to check that extended support functions behave well under these operations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{K+L} & =H_{K}+H_{L}, K, L \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma) \\
H_{\lambda K} & =\lambda H_{K}, \lambda>0, K \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note also that from the definition of the extended support function,

$$
K \subset L \Leftrightarrow H_{K} \leqslant H_{L}
$$

Identifying $\Gamma$-convex bodies with their support functions, $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ is a cone in the vector space of homogeneous of degree 1 , continuous, real, $\Gamma$-invariant, functions on $\mathcal{F}$. By homogeneity this corresponds to a cone in the vector space of continuous real $\Gamma$-invariant functions on $\mathbb{H}^{d} \subset \mathcal{F}$, and to a cone in the vector space of continuous real functions on the compact hyperbolic manifold $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$. A function in one of this two last cones is called a support function.

Let $K \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$. Its volume $V(K)$ is the volume of $(\mathcal{F} \backslash K) / \Gamma$ (for the Lebesgue measure of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ ). It is a finite positive number and

$$
V(\lambda K)=\lambda^{d+1} V(K)
$$

Note that

$$
K \subset L \Rightarrow V(K) \geqslant V(L)
$$

As defined above, the volume of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is the volume of a compact set of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, namely the volume of the intersection of $\mathcal{F} \backslash K$ with a fundamental cone for the action of $\Gamma$. For such compact (non-convex) sets there is a Brunn-Minkowski theory, see for example [Gardner, 2002]. See also [Bahn and Ehrlich, 1999]. But this does not give results about volume of $\Gamma$-convex bodies. The reason is that, for two $\Gamma$-convex bodies $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}, \mathcal{F} \backslash\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)$ (from which we define the volume of $K_{1}+K_{2}$ ) is not equal to $\left(\mathcal{F} \backslash K_{1}\right)+\left(\mathcal{F} \backslash K_{2}\right)$. For example in $d=1,\binom{0}{1 / 2}+\binom{5 / 8}{9 / 8} \in(\mathcal{F} \backslash B+\mathcal{F} \backslash B)$ but does not belong to $\mathcal{F} \backslash(B+B)$.

## 3 Regular case

The first subsection is an adaptation of the classical case [Schneider, 1993]. The remainder is the analog of [Alexandrov, 1938] (in [Alexandrov, 1996]). See also [Bonnesen and Fenchel, 1987], [Leichtweiß, 1993], [Hörmander, 2007], [Busemann, 2008], and [Guan et al., 2010] for a kind of extension.

The objects and results in this section which can be defined intrinsically on a hyperbolic manifold are already known in more generality, see [Oliker and Simon, 1983] and the references therein. See also Subsection 3.3.

### 3.1 Regularity of the support function

Differentiability Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body with extended support function $H$, and let $\eta \in \mathcal{F}$. From Lemma 2.6 there exists a unique support hyperplane $\mathcal{H}$ of $K$ with inward normal $\eta$.
Lemma 3.1. The intersection $F$ of $\mathcal{H}$ and $K$ is reduced to a single point $p$ if and only if $H$ is differentiable at $\eta \in \mathcal{F}$. In this case $p=\nabla_{\eta} H$ (the gradient for $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{-}$of $H$ at $\eta$ ).
Proof. As $H$ is convex all one-sided directional derivatives exist [Schneider, 1993, p. 25]. Let us denote such derivative in the direction of $u \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ at the point $\eta$ by $d_{\eta} H(u)$. The proof of the lemma is based on the following fact:

The function $\mathbb{R}^{d+1} \ni u \mapsto d_{\eta} H(u)$ is the total support function of $F$.
Indeed, if $H$ is differentiable at $\eta$, the fact says that the total support function of $F$ is a linear form, and from Lemma 2.9, $F$ is a point. Conversely, if $F$ is a point $p$, from Lemma 2.9 its total support function is a linear form, hence partial derivatives of $H$ exist and as $H$ is convex, this implies differentiability [Schneider, 1993, 1.5.6]. Moreover for all $u \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1},\langle p, u\rangle_{-}=d_{\eta} H(u)$.

Now we prove the fact. The function $d_{\eta} H$ is sublinear on $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ [Schneider, 1993, 1.5.4], Proposition 2.8 applies and $d_{\eta} H$ is the total support function of

$$
F^{\prime}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, u\rangle_{-} \leqslant d_{\eta} H(u) \forall u \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}\right\} .
$$

We have to prove that $F^{\prime}=F$. Let $\tilde{H}$ be the extension of $H$ to $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. By definition of directional derivative, the sublinearity of $\tilde{H}$ gives $d_{\eta} H \leqslant \tilde{H}$. From the proof of Lemma 2.11, this implies that $F^{\prime} \subset K$. In particular, for $y \in F^{\prime},\langle y, \eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant H(\eta)$. On the other hand $y \in F^{\prime}$ implies $\langle y,-\eta\rangle_{-} \leqslant d_{\eta} H(-\eta)=-H(\eta)$ (the last equality follows from the definition of directional derivative, using the homogeneity of $H$ ). Then $\langle y, \eta\rangle_{-}=H(\eta)$ so $y \in \mathcal{H}$, hence $F^{\prime} \subset F=\mathcal{H} \cap K$.

Let $y \in F$. By definition $\langle y, \eta\rangle_{-}=H(\eta)$ and for any $w \in \mathcal{F},\langle y, w\rangle_{-} \leqslant H(w)$. For sufficiently small positive $\lambda$ and any $u \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}, w=\eta+\lambda u$ is future time-like and

$$
\langle y, u\rangle_{-} \leqslant \frac{H(\eta+\lambda u)-H(\eta)}{\lambda}
$$

so when $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ we have $\langle y, u\rangle_{-} \leqslant d_{\eta} H(u)$ hence $F \subset F^{\prime}$. The fact is proved.
If the extended support function $H$ of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is differentiable, the above lemma allows to define the map

$$
\tilde{G}(\eta)=\nabla_{\eta} H
$$

from $\mathcal{F}$ to $\partial K \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. This can be expressed in term of $h$, the restriction of $H$ to $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. We use "hyperbolic coordinates" on $\mathcal{F}$ : an orthonormal frame on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ extended to an orthonormal frame of $\mathcal{F}$ with the decomposition $r^{2} g_{\mathbb{H}^{d}}-\mathrm{d} r^{2}$ of the metric on $\mathcal{F} . \nabla_{\eta} H$ has $d+1$ entries, and, at $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$, the $d$ first ones are the coordinates of $\nabla_{\eta} h$ (here $\nabla$ is the gradient on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ ). We identify $\nabla_{\eta} h \in T_{\eta} \mathbb{H}^{d} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ with a vector of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. The last component of $\nabla_{\eta} H$ is $-\partial H / \partial r(\eta)$, and, using the homogeneity of $H$, it is equal to $-h(\eta)$ when $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$. Note that at such a point, $T_{\eta} \mathcal{F}$ is the direct sum of $T_{\eta} \mathbb{H}^{d}$ and $\eta$. It follows that, for $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla_{\eta} H=\nabla_{\eta} h-h(\eta) \eta \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

This has a clear geometric interpretation, see Figure 1.


Figure 1: Recovering the convex body from its support function in the Minkowski space.
$C^{2}$ support function If the extended support function $H$ is $C^{2}, \tilde{G}$ is $C^{1}$, and its differential $\tilde{W}$ satisfies

$$
\left\langle\tilde{W}_{\eta}(X), Y\right\rangle_{-}=D_{\eta}^{2} H(X, Y)
$$

We denote by $G$ the restriction of $\tilde{G}$ to $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ and by $W$ its differential (the reversed shape operator). If $T_{v}$ is the hyperplane of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ orthogonal to $v \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$ for $\langle\cdot, \cdot,\rangle_{-}, W$ is considered as a map from $T_{v}$ to $T_{v}$. We get from (6), or from the equation above, the Gauss formula and the 1 -homogeneity of $H$, using again hyperbolic coordinates on $\mathcal{F}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{i j}=\left(\nabla^{2} h\right)_{i j}-h \delta_{i j} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\nabla^{2}$ the second covariant derivative (the Hessian) on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$, $\delta_{i j}$ the Kronecker symbol and $h$ the restriction of $H$ to $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. In particular $W$ is symmetric, and its real eigenvalues $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{d}$ are the radii of curvature of $K$. Taking the trace on both part of the equation above leads to

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{1}+\cdots+r_{d}=\Delta_{\mathbb{H}^{d}} h-d h \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta_{\mathbb{H}^{d}}$ is the Laplacian on the hyperbolic space.

Regular body Let $K$ be a $\Gamma$-convex body. The Gauss map $N$ is a multivalued map which associates to each $x$ in the boundary of $K$ the set of unit inward normals of $K$ at $x$, which are considered as elements of $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. If the boundary of $K$ is a $C^{2}$ hypersurface and if the Gauss map is a $C^{1}$-homeomorphism from the boundary of $K$ to $\mathbb{H}^{d}, K$ is regular. In this case we can define the shape operator $B=\nabla N$, which is a self-adjoint operator. Its eigenvalues are the principal curvatures $\kappa_{i}$ of $K$, and they are never zero as $B$ has maximal rank by assumption. As $K$ is convex, it is well-known that its principal curvature are non-negative, hence they are positive. (This implies that $K$ is actually strictly convex.)

Lemma 3.2. Under the identification of a $\Gamma$-convex body with its support function, the set of regular $\Gamma$-convex body is $C_{+}^{2}(\Gamma)$, the set of negative $C^{2}$ functions $h$ on $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\left(\nabla^{2} h\right)_{i j}-h \delta_{i j}\right)>0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

(positive definite) for any orthonormal frame on $M$.

$$
\text { It follows that in the regular case } G=N^{-1}, W=B^{-1} \text {, and } r_{i}=\frac{1}{\kappa_{i} \circ N^{-1}} \text {. }
$$

Proof. Let $K$ be a regular $\Gamma$-convex body, $h$ its support function and $H$ its extended support function ( $h$ is the restriction of $H$ to $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ ). For any $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(\eta)=\left\langle N^{-1}(\eta), \eta\right\rangle_{-}, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

and for $\eta \in \mathcal{F}$, introducing the 0 -homogeneous extension $\tilde{N}^{-1}$ of $N^{-1}$ we obtain

$$
D_{\eta} H(X)=\left\langle\tilde{N}^{-1}(\eta), X\right\rangle_{-}+\left\langle D_{\eta} \tilde{N}^{-1}(X), \eta\right\rangle_{-},
$$

but $D_{\eta} \tilde{N}^{-1}(X)$ belongs to the support hyperplane of $K$ with inward normal $\eta$ so $D_{\eta} H(X)=\left\langle\tilde{N}^{-1}(\eta), X\right\rangle_{-}$. Hence $D_{\eta}^{2} H(X, Y)=\left\langle B^{-1}(X), Y\right\rangle_{-}$, in particular $H$ is $C^{2}$, so $h$ is $C^{2}$ and (9) is known. As $h$ is $\Gamma$-invariant, we get a function of $C_{+}^{2}(\Gamma)$.

Now let $h \in C_{+}^{2}(\Gamma)$. We also denote by $h$ the $\Gamma$-invariant map on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ which projects on $h$, and by $H$ the 1-homogeneous extension of $h$ to $\mathcal{F}$. The 1-homogeneity and (9) imply that $H$ is convex (in the hyperbolic coordinates, row and column of the Hessian of $H$ corresponding to the radial direction $r$ are zero), hence negative sublinear $\Gamma$-invariant, so it is the support function of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ by Lemma 2.11. As $h$ is $C^{2}$, we get a map $G$ from $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ to $\partial K \subset \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ which is $C^{1}$, and regular from (7) and (9). Moreover $G$ is surjective by Lemma 2.6. It follows that $\partial K$ is $C^{1}$. This implies that each point of $\partial K$ has a unique support plane [Schneider, 1993, p. 104], i.e that the map $G$ is injective. Finally it is a $C^{1}$ homeomorphism.

Let $K^{*}$ be the polar dual of $K$. We know that the points on the boundary of $K^{*}$ are graphs above $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ as they have the form $\eta /(-h(\eta))$ for $\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d}$. Hence $\partial K^{*}$ is $C^{2}$ as $h$ is. Moreover the Gauss map image of the point $\eta /(-h(\eta))$ of $\partial K^{*}$ is $G(\eta) / \sqrt{-\langle G(\eta), G(\eta)\rangle-}$ : the Gauss map of $K^{*}$ is a $C^{1}$ homeomorphism. It follows that $K^{*}$ is regular. In particular its support function is $C^{2}$. Repeating the argument, it follows that the boundary of $K^{* *}=K$ is $C^{2}$.

To simplify the matter in the following, we will restrict ourselves to smooth $\left(C^{\infty}\right)$ support functions, although this restriction will be relevant only in Subsection 3.4.

Lemma 3.3. The subset $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ of smooth elements of $C_{+}^{2}(\Gamma)$ is a convex cone and

$$
C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)-C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)=C^{\infty}(\Gamma)
$$

(any smooth function on $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ is the difference of two functions of $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ ).
Proof. It is clear that $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ is a convex cone. Let $h_{1} \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ and $Z \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$. As $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ is compact, for $t$ sufficiently large, $Z+t h_{1}$ satisfies (9) and is a negative function, hence there exists $h_{2} \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ such that $Z+t h_{1}=h_{2}$.

### 3.2 Volume and Gaussian curvature operator

Let $K$ be a regular $\Gamma$-convex body and let $P(K)$ be $\mathcal{F}$ minus the interior of $K$. As $P(K) / \Gamma$ is compact, the divergence theorem gives

$$
\int_{P(K) / \Gamma} \operatorname{div} X \mathrm{~d} P(K)=-\int_{\partial K / \Gamma}\langle X, \eta\rangle-\mathrm{d} \partial K,
$$

where $\eta$ is the unit outward normal of $\partial K / \Gamma$ in $P(K) / \Gamma$ (hence it corresponds in the universal cover to the unit inward normal of $K$ ). If $X$ is the position vector in $\mathcal{F}$ we get

$$
(d+1) V(K)=-\int_{\partial K / \Gamma} h \circ N \mathrm{~d} \partial K
$$

with $h$ the support function of $K$ and $N$ the Gauss map.
The Gaussian curvature (or Gauss-Kronecker curvature) $\kappa$ of $K$ is the product of the principal curvatures. We will consider the map $\kappa^{-1}$ which associates to each $h \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ the inverse of the Gaussian curvature of the convex body supported by $h$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa^{-1}(h)=\prod_{i=1}^{d} r_{i}(h) \stackrel{(7)}{=} \operatorname{det}\left(\left(\nabla^{2} h\right)_{i j}-h \delta_{i j}\right) . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

As the curvature is the Jacobian of the Gauss map, we get

$$
(d+1) V(K)=-\int_{M} h \kappa^{-1}(h) \mathrm{d} M
$$

where $\mathrm{d} M$ is the volume form on $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$. Finally let us consider the volume as a functional on $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, which extension to the whole $C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ is immediate:

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(X)=-\frac{1}{d+1}\left(X, \kappa^{-1}(X)\right), X \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $(\cdot, \cdot)$ the scalar product on $L^{2}(M)$.
We will consider $C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ as a Fréchet space with the usual seminorms

$$
\|f\|_{n}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sup _{x \in M}\left|\nabla^{i} f(x)\right|
$$

with $\nabla^{i}$ the $i$-th covariant derivative and $|\cdot|$ the norm, both given by the Riemannian metric of $M$. All derivatives will be directional (or Gâteaux) derivatives in Fréchet spaces as in [Hamilton, 1982]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{Y} V(X)=\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{V(Y+t X)-V(Y)}{t}, X, Y \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 3.4. The function $V$ is $C^{\infty}$ on $C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, and for $h \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma), X, Y \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, we have:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
D_{h} V(X)=-\left(X, \kappa^{-1}(h)\right) \\
D_{h}^{2} V(X, Y)=-\left(X, D_{h} \kappa^{-1}(Y)\right) \tag{15}
\end{array}
$$

Moreover (14) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(X, D_{h} K^{-1}(Y)\right)=\left(Y, D_{h} K^{-1}(X)\right) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. The second order differential operator $\kappa^{-1}$ is smooth as the determinant is smooth [Hamilton, 1982, 3.6.6]. Differentiating (12) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{h} V(X)=-\frac{1}{d+1}\left(\left(X, \kappa^{-1}(h)\right)+\left(h, D_{h} K^{-1}(X)\right)\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

but the bilinear form $(\cdot, \cdot)$ is continuous for the seminorms $\|\cdot\|_{n}$ (recall that it suffices to check continuity in each variable [Rudin, 1991, 2.17]). It follows that $V$ is $C^{1}$, and by iteration that it is $C^{\infty}$.

If (14) is true we get (15), and this expression is symmetric as $V$ is $C^{2}$, so (16) holds.
Let us suppose that (16) is true. From (11), $\kappa^{-1}$ is homogeneous of degree $d$, that gives $D_{h} \kappa^{-1}(h)=d \kappa^{-1}(h)$. Using this in (16) with $Y=h$ gives

$$
d\left(X, \kappa^{-1}(h)\right)=\left(h, D_{h} \kappa^{-1}(X)\right)
$$

Inserting this equation in (17) leads to (14).
A proof of (16) is done in [Cheng and Yau, 1976] (for the case of $C^{2}$ functions on the sphere). See also [Oliker and Simon, 1983] and reference therein for more generality. We will prove (14) following [Hörmander, 2007]. From the definition of $\kappa^{-1}$, the map $D_{h} K^{-1}(\cdot)$ is linear, hence from (17) $D_{h} V(\cdot)$ is also linear, so by Lemma 3.3 it suffices to prove (14) for $X=h^{\prime} \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$. We denote by $K$ (resp. $K^{\prime}$ ) the $\Gamma$-convex body supported by $h$ (resp. $h^{\prime}$ ) and by $N\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.N^{\prime}\right)$ its Gauss map. We have, for $\eta \in \mathcal{F}, \varepsilon>0$,

$$
h(\eta)+\varepsilon h^{\prime}(\eta)=\left\langle\eta, N^{-1}(\eta)+\varepsilon\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(\eta)\right\rangle_{-}
$$

i.e $h+\varepsilon h^{\prime}$ supports the hypersurface with position vector $N^{-1}(\eta)+\varepsilon\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(\eta)$.

For a compact $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$, if $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ is a local parametrization of $\partial K$, let us introduce

$$
F: U \times[0, \varepsilon] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d+1},(y, t) \mapsto f(y)+t\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(N(f(y)))
$$

It is a local parametrization of the set between the boundary of $K$ and the boundary of $K+\varepsilon K^{\prime}$. Locally, its volume (which corresponds to $\left.V\left(h+\varepsilon h^{\prime}\right)-V(h)\right)$ is computed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{F(U \times[0, \varepsilon])} \mathrm{dvol}=\int_{0}^{\varepsilon} \int_{U}|\mathrm{Jac} F| \mathrm{d} y \mathrm{~d} t \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Jacobian of $F$ is equal to $\left(\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(N(f(y))), \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{d}}\right)+t R$ where $R$ is a remaining term, and its determinant is equal to the determinant of $\left(\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(N(f(y))), \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{d}}\right)$ plus $t$ times remaining terms. As $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{1}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y_{d}}\right)$ form a basis of the tangent hyperplane of $\partial K$, and as $N$ is normal to this hyperplane, the determinant is equal to $\left\langle\left(N^{\prime}\right)^{-1}(N(f(y))), N(f(y))\right\rangle_{-}=h^{\prime}(N(f(y)))$ times $|\operatorname{Jac} f|$, plus $t$ times remaining terms. The limit of (18) divided by $\varepsilon$ when $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ gives

$$
\int_{U} h^{\prime}\left(N(f(y))|\operatorname{Jac} f| \mathrm{d} y=\int_{f(U)} h^{\prime}(N) \mathrm{d} \partial K\right.
$$

The result follows by decomposing the boundary of $K$ with suitable coordinate patches.
The main result of this section is the following.
Theorem 3.5. The second derivative of $V: C^{\infty}(\Gamma) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is positive definite. In particular the volume of $C^{\infty}$ regular $\Gamma$-convex bodies is strictly convex.

Let us have a look at the case $d=1$. In this case $\kappa^{-1}=r$, the unique radius of curvature. We parametrize the branch of the hyperbola by $(\sinh t, \cosh t)$, and $h$ becomes a function from $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{R}_{-}$. Then (8) reads

$$
\kappa^{-1}(h)(t)=-h(t)+h^{\prime \prime}(t)
$$

and, as $h$ is $\Gamma$-invariant, we can consider $\kappa^{-1}$ as a linear operator on the set of $C^{\infty}$ functions on $[0, \ell]$, if $\ell$ is the length of the circle $\mathbb{H}^{1} / \Gamma$. Using integration by parts and the fact that $h$ is $\ell$-periodic, we get

$$
D_{h}^{2} V(h, h)=-\left(h, \kappa^{-1}(h)\right)=-\int_{0}^{\ell} h \kappa^{-1}(h)=\int_{0}^{\ell}\left(h^{2}+h^{2}\right)
$$

We will prove a more general version of Theorem 3.5 in the next section, using the theory of mixed-volume. The proof is based on the following particular case.
Lemma 3.6. Let $h_{0}$ be the support function of $B^{d}$ (i.e. $h_{0}(\eta)=-1$ ). Then $D_{h_{0}}^{2} V$ is positive definite.
Proof. Let $X \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$. From the definition (11) of $\kappa^{-1}$

$$
D_{h} \kappa^{-1}(X)=\kappa^{-1}(h) \sum_{i=1}^{d} r_{i}^{-1}(h) D_{h} r_{i}^{-1}(X)
$$

and as $r_{i}\left(h_{0}\right)=1$,

$$
D_{h_{0}} \kappa^{-1}(X)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} D_{h_{0}} r_{i}^{-1}(X)
$$

Differentiating (8) on both side at $h_{0}$ and passing to the quotient, the equation above gives

$$
D_{h_{0}} \kappa^{-1}(X)=-d X+\Delta_{M} X
$$

where $\Delta_{M}$ is the Laplacian on $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$. From (15),

$$
D_{h_{0}}^{2} V(X, X)=d(X, X)-\left(\Delta_{M} X, X\right)
$$

which is positive by property of the Laplacian, as $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ is compact.

### 3.3 Regular Minkowski Theorem

One can ask if, given a positive function $f$ on a hyperbolic compact manifold $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$, it is the Gauss curvature of a regular convex Fuchsian surface and if the former one is unique. By Lemma 3.2 and definition of the Gauss curvature, the question reduces to know if there exists a (unique) function $h$ on $M$ such that, in an orthogonal frame on $M$,

$$
f=\operatorname{det}\left(\left(\nabla^{2} h\right)_{i j}-h \delta_{i j}\right)
$$

and

$$
\left(\left(\nabla^{2} h\right)_{i j}-h \delta_{i j}\right)>0
$$

This PDE problem is solved in [Oliker and Simon, 1983] in the smooth case. Their main result (Theorem 3.4) can be written as follows.

Theorem 3.7. Let $\Gamma$ be a Fuchsian group, $f: \mathbb{H}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$be a positive $C^{\infty} \Gamma$-invariant function.
There exists a unique regular $\Gamma$-convex body with $C^{\infty}$ support function with Gauss curvature $f$.

### 3.4 Mixed curvature and mixed volume

The determinant is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d$, and we denote by $\operatorname{det}(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$ its polar form, that is the unique symmetric $d$-linear form such that

$$
\operatorname{det}(A, \ldots, A)=\operatorname{det}(A)
$$

for any $d \times d$ symmetric matrix $A$ (see for example Appendix A in [Hörmander, 2007]). We will need the following key result.

Theorem 3.8 ([Alexandrov, 1996, p. 125]). Let $A, A_{3} \ldots, A_{d}$ be positive definite $d \times d$ matrices and $Z$ be a symmetric matrix. Then

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(Z, A, A_{3}, \ldots, A_{d}\right)=0 \Rightarrow \operatorname{det}\left(Z, Z, A_{3}, \ldots, A_{d}\right) \leqslant 0,
$$

and equality holds if and only if $Z$ is identically zero.
For any orthonormal frame on $M=\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$ and for $X_{k} \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, let us denote

$$
X_{k}^{\prime \prime}:=\left(\nabla^{2} X_{k}\right)_{i j}-X_{k} \delta_{i j}
$$

and let us introduce the mixed curvature

$$
\kappa^{-1}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d}\right):=\operatorname{det}\left(X_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, X_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right) .
$$

As $V(X)=-\frac{1}{d+1}\left(X, \kappa^{-1}(X)\right], V$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $d+1$. Its polar form $V(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$ $((d+1)$ entries) is the mixed-volume.

Lemma 3.9. We have the following equalities, for $X_{i} \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$.
(i) $D_{X_{2}}^{d} \kappa^{-1}\left(X_{3}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)=d!\kappa^{-1}\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)$,
(ii) $D_{X_{1}} V\left(X_{2}\right)=(d+1) V\left(X_{2}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)$,
(iii) $D_{X_{1}}^{2} V\left(X_{2}, X_{3}\right)=(d+1) d V\left(X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)$,
(iv) $D_{X_{1}}^{d+1} V\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)=(d+1)!V\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)$,
(v) $V\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d+1}\right)=-\frac{1}{d+1}\left(X_{1}, \kappa^{-1}\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d+1}\right)\right)$.

Proof. (i) and (iv) are proved by induction on the order of the derivative, using the definition of directional derivative and the expansion of the multilinear forms. (ii) and (iii) are obtained by the way. (v) follows from (14), (i) and (iv).

Corollary 3.10. For $h_{i} \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma), V\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d+1}\right)$ is positive.
Proof. As $h_{i} \in C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma), h_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ is positive definite, hence $\kappa^{-1}\left(h_{2}, \ldots, h_{d+1}\right)>0$ [Alexandrov, 1996, (5) p. 122]. The result follows from (v) because $h_{1}<0$.

Due to (iii) of the preceding lemma, the following result implies Theorem 3.5.
Theorem 3.11. For any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}$ in $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, the symmetric bilinear form on $\left(C^{\infty}(\Gamma)\right)^{2}$

$$
V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)
$$

is positive definite.
Proof. We use a continuity method. We consider the paths $h_{i}(t)=t h_{i}+(1-t) h_{0}, i=1, \ldots, d-1, t \in[0,1]$, where $h_{0}$ is the (quotient of the) support function of $B^{d}$ and we denote

$$
V_{t}(\cdot, \cdot):=V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}(t), \ldots, h_{d-1}(t)\right) .
$$

The result follows from the facts:
(i) $V_{0}$ is positive definite,
(ii) if, for each $t_{0} \in[0,1], V_{t_{0}}$ is positive definite, then $V_{t}$ is positive definite for $t$ near $t_{0}$,
(iii) if $t_{n} \in[0,1]$ with $t_{n} \rightarrow t_{0}$ and $V_{t_{n}}$ is positive definite, then $V_{t_{0}}$ is positive definite.
(i) is Lemma 3.6. Let $t_{0}$ as in (ii). By Lemma 3.12, each $\kappa^{-1}\left(\cdot, h_{1}(t), \ldots, h_{d-1}(t)\right)$ inherits standard properties of elliptic self-adjoint operators on compact manifolds (see for example [Nicolaescu, 2007]), and we can apply [Kato, 1995, Theorem 3.9 p. 392]: as the deformation of the operators is polynomial in $t$, the eigenvalues change analytically with $t$, for $t$ near $t_{0}$. In particular if $t$ is sufficiently close to $t_{0}$, the eigenvalues remain positive and (ii) holds.

Let $t_{n}$ be as in (iii). For any non zero $X \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$ we have $V_{t_{n}}(X, X)>0$ with

$$
V_{t_{n}}(X, X)=\int_{M} X \kappa^{-1}\left(X,\left(1-t_{n}\right) h_{0}+t_{n} h_{1}, \ldots,\left(1-t_{n}\right) h_{0}+t_{n} h_{d-1}\right) \mathrm{d} M
$$

As $\kappa^{-1}$ is multilinear and as $t_{n}<1$, it is easy to see that the function in the integrand above is bounded by a function (of the kind $X \sum\left|\kappa^{-1}(X, *, \ldots, *)\right|$ where each $*$ is $h_{0}$ or a $h_{i}$ ) which does not depend on $n$ and is continuous on the compact $M$. By Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem, $V_{t_{0}}(X, X) \geqslant 0$, and by Lemma 3.13 $V_{t_{0}}(X, X)>0$, and (iii) is proved.

Lemma 3.12. For any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}$ in $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, the operator $\kappa^{-1}\left(\cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)$ is formally self-adjoint linear second order elliptic.

Proof. It is formally self-adjoint because of the symmetry of the mixed-volume. It is clearly second order linear. Let $Z \in C^{\infty}(\Gamma)$. From properties of the mixed determinant [Alexandrov, 1996, p. 121], $\kappa^{-1}\left(Z, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)$ can be written, for an orthonormal frame on $M$,

$$
\sum_{i, j=1}^{d} \operatorname{det}\left(h_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)_{i j}\left(\left(\nabla^{2} Z\right)_{i j}-Z \delta_{i j}\right)
$$

where $\operatorname{det}\left(h_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)_{i j}$ is, up to a constant factor, the mixed determinant of the matrices obtained from the $h_{k}^{\prime \prime}$ by deleting the $i$ th row and the $j$ th column. Let us consider local coordinates on $M$ around a point $p$ such that at $p, \kappa^{-1}\left(Z, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)$ has the expression above. By definition of $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma), h_{k}^{\prime \prime}$ are positive definite at $p$ and then at $p$

$$
\sum_{i, j=1}^{d} \operatorname{det}\left(h_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)_{i j} x_{i} x_{j}
$$

is positive definite [Alexandrov, 1996, Lemma II p. 124].

Lemma 3.13. For any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}$ in $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, the symmetric bilinear form

$$
V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)
$$

has trivial kernel.
Proof. Suppose that $Z$ belongs to the kernel of $V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)$. As $(\cdot, \cdot)$ is an inner product, $Z$ belongs to the kernel of $\kappa^{-1}\left(\cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)$ :

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(Z^{\prime \prime}, h_{1}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=0
$$

As $h_{i}^{\prime \prime}$ are positive definite matrices, by definition of $C_{+}^{\infty}(\Gamma)$, Theorem 3.8 implies that

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(Z^{\prime \prime}, Z^{\prime \prime}, h_{2}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right) \leqslant 0
$$

so

$$
0=V\left(Z, Z, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)=-\int_{M} h_{1} \kappa^{-1}\left(Z, Z, h_{2}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right) \leqslant 0
$$

but $h_{1}<0$ hence

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(Z^{\prime \prime}, Z^{\prime \prime}, h_{2}^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, h_{d-1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=0
$$

and Theorem 3.8 says that $Z^{\prime \prime}=0$. Consider the 1 -homogeneous extension $\tilde{Z}$ of the $\Gamma$ invariant map on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ defined by $Z$. From Subsection 3.1 it follows that the Hessian of $\tilde{Z}$ in $\mathcal{F}$ is zero, hence that $\tilde{Z}$ is affine. By invariance $\tilde{Z}$ must be constant, and by homogeneity $\tilde{Z}=0$ hence $Z=0$.

Remark on Fuchsian Hedgehogs If we apply Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to the inner product of Theorem 3.11, we get a "reversed Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality" (see Theorem 5.5) for smooth regular convex bodies, but also for any smooth function $h$ on the hyperbolic manifold $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$. From Lemma 3.3 there exists two support functions $h_{1}, h_{2}$ of $C^{\infty}$ regular Fuchsian convex bodies with $h=h_{1}-h_{2}$. Hence $h$ can be seen as the "support function" of the (maybe non convex) hypersurface made of the points $\nabla_{\eta}\left(H_{1}-H_{2}\right), \eta \in \mathcal{F}$. For example if $h_{1}$ and $h_{2}$ are the support functions of respectively $B_{t_{1}}$ and $B_{t_{2}}$, then $h$ is the support function of a pseudo-sphere in $\mathcal{F}$ if $t_{1}-t_{2}>0$, of a point (the origin) if $t_{1}-t_{2}=0$ and of a pseudo-sphere in the past cone if $t_{1}-t_{2}<0$.

More generally, we could introduce "Fuchsian hedgehogs", whose "support functions" are difference of support functions of two $\Gamma$-convex bodies. They form the vector space in which the support functions of $\Gamma$ convex bodies naturally live. In the Euclidean space, they were introduced in [Langevin et al., 1988]. An Euclidean analog of the reversed Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality for smooth Fuchsian hedgehogs described above is done in [Martinez-Maure, 1999], among other results. It would be interesting to know if other results about hedgehogs have a Fuchsian analogue.

## 4 Polyhedral case

The classical analogue of this section comes from [Alexandrov, 1937] (see [Alexandrov, 1996]). See also [Schneider, 1993] and [Alexandrov, 2005]. The toy example $d=1$ is considered in the note [Fillastre, 2011b].

### 4.1 Support vectors

Definition of Fuchsian convex polyhedron The notation $a^{\perp}$ will represent the affine hyperplane over the vector hyperplane orthogonal to the vector $a$ and passing through $a$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{\perp}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\langle x, a\rangle_{-}=\langle a, a\rangle_{-}\right\} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 2: A piece of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron in $d=2$ seen from the bottom. It is made with the orbit of $(0,0,1)$ for the Fuchsian group having a regular octagon as fundamental domain in $\mathbb{H}^{2}$.

Definition 4.1. Let $R=\left(\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{n}\right), n \geqslant 1$, with $\eta_{i}$ (pairwise non-collinear) vectors in the future cone $\mathcal{F}$, and let $\Gamma$ be a Fuchsian group. A $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron is the boundary of the intersection of the half-spaces bounded by the hyperplanes

$$
\left(\gamma \eta_{i}\right)^{\perp}, \forall \gamma \in \Gamma, \forall i=1, \ldots, n,
$$

such that the vectors $\eta_{i}$ are inward pointing.
See Figure 2 for a simple example.
Lemma 4.2. A $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $P$
(i) is a $\Gamma$-convex body,
(ii) has a countable number of facets,
(iii) is locally finite,
(iv) each face is a convex Euclidean polytope.

Proof. We denote by $P_{i}$ the $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron made from the vector $\eta_{i}$ and the group $\Gamma$. We will prove the lemma for $P_{i}$. The general case follows because $P$ is the intersection of a finite number of $P_{i}$. All the elements of $\Gamma \eta_{i}$ belong to $\mathbb{H}_{t_{i}}^{d}$, on which $\Gamma$ acts cocompactly. Up to a homothety, it is more suitable to consider that $\mathbb{H}_{t_{i}}^{d}$ is $\mathbb{H}_{1}^{d}=\mathbb{H}^{d}$.

Let $a \in \Gamma \eta_{i}$ and $D_{a}(\Gamma)$ be the Dirichlet region (see (1)). Recall that $D_{a}(\Gamma)$ are convex compact polyhedra in $\mathbb{H}^{d}$, and that the set of the Dirichlet regions $D_{a}$, for all $a \in \Gamma \eta_{i}$, is a locally finite tessellation of $\mathbb{H}^{d}$. Using (20), the Dirichlet region can be written

$$
D_{a}(\Gamma)=\left\{p \in \mathbb{H}^{d} \mid\langle a, p\rangle_{-} \geqslant\langle\gamma a, p\rangle_{-}, \forall \gamma \in \Gamma \backslash\{I d\}\right\} .
$$

Let $a_{1}, a_{2} \in \Gamma \eta_{i}$ such that $D_{a_{1}}(\Gamma)$ and $D_{a_{2}}(\Gamma)$ have a common facet. This facet is contained in the intersection of $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ with the hyperplane

$$
\left\{p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid\left\langle a_{1}, p\right\rangle_{-}=\left\langle a_{2}, p\right\rangle_{-}\right\},
$$

and this hyperplane also contains $a_{1}^{\perp} \cap a_{2}^{\perp}$ by (19). It follows that vertices of $P_{i}$ (codimension $(d+1)$ faces) project along rays from the origin onto the vertices of the Dirichlet tessellation. In particular the vertices are in
$\mathcal{F}$, so $P_{i} \subset \mathcal{F}$, because it is the convex hull of its vertices [Schneider, 1993, 1.4.3] and $\mathcal{F}$ is convex. In particular $P_{i}$ is a $\Gamma$-convex body due to Definition 2.1. And codimension $k$ faces of $P_{i}$ projects onto codimension $k$ faces of the Dirichlet tessellation, so $P_{i}$ is locally finite with a countable number of facets.

Facets of $P_{i}$ are closed, as they project onto compact sets. In particular they are bounded as contained in $\mathcal{F}$ hence compact. They are convex polytopes by construction, and Euclidean as contained in space-like planes. Higher codimension faces are convex Euclidean polytopes as intersections of convex Euclidean polytopes.

Support numbers The extended support function of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $P$ is piecewise linear (it is linear on each solid angle determined by the normals of the support planes at a vertex), it is why the data of the extended support function on each inward unit normal of the facets suffices to determines it. If $\eta_{i}$ is such a vector and $h$ is the support function of $P$, we call the positive number

$$
h(i):=-h\left(\eta_{i}\right)
$$

the ith support number of $P$.
The facet with normal $\eta_{i}$ is denoted by $F_{i}$. Two adjacent facets $F_{i}$ and $F_{j}$ meet at a codimension 2 face $F_{i j}$. If three facets $F_{i}, F_{j}, F_{k}$ meet at a codimension 3 face, then this face is denoted by $F_{i j k}$. We denote by $\varphi_{i j}$ the hyperbolic distance between $\eta_{i}$ and $\eta_{j}$, given by (see for example [Ratcliffe, 2006, (3.2.2)])

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\cosh \varphi_{i j}=\left\langle\eta_{i}, \eta_{j}\right\rangle_{-} . \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $p_{i}$ be the foot of the perpendicular from the origin to the hyperplane $\mathcal{H}_{i}$ containing the facet $F_{i}$. In $\mathcal{H}_{i}$, let $p_{i j}$ be the foot of the perpendicular from $p_{i}$ to $F_{i j}$. We denote by $h_{i j}$ the signed distance from $p_{i}$ to $p_{i j}$ : it is non negative if $p_{i}$ is in the same side of $F_{j}$ than $P$. See Figure 3.


Figure 3: Supports numbers of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron.
For each $i, h_{i j}$ are the support numbers of the convex Euclidean polytope $F_{i} .\left(\mathcal{H}_{i}\right.$ is identified with the Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, with $p_{i}$ as the origin.) If we denote by $\omega_{i j k}$ the angle between $p_{i} p_{i j}$ and $p_{i} p_{i k}$, it is wellknown that [Schneider, 1993, (5.1.3)]

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{i k j}=\frac{h_{i j}-h_{i k} \cos \omega_{i j k}}{\sin \omega_{i j k}} . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

We have a similar formula in Minkowski space [Fillastre, 2011b, Lemma 2.2]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{i j}=-\frac{h(j)-h(i) \cosh \varphi_{i j}}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}} . \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial h_{i j}}{\partial h(j)} & =-\frac{1}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}},  \tag{23}\\
\frac{\partial h_{i j}}{\partial h(i)} & =\frac{\cosh \varphi_{i j}}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}} . \tag{24}
\end{align*}
$$

If $h(i)=h(j)$ and if the quadrilateral is deformed under this condition, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial h_{i j}}{\partial h(i)}=\frac{\cosh \varphi_{i j}-1}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Space of polyhedra with parallel facets Let $P$ be a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron. We label the facets of $P$ in a fundamental domain for the action of $\Gamma$. This set of label is denoted by $\mathcal{I}$, and $\Gamma \mathcal{I}$ labels all the facets of $P$. Let $R=\left(\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{n}\right)$ be the inward unit normals of the facets of $P$ labeled by $I$.

We denote by $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ the set of $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra with inward unit normals belonging to the set $R$. By identifying a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron with its support numbers labeled by $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. (The corresponding vector of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is the support vector of the polyhedron.) Note that this identification does not commute with the sum. Because the sum of two piecewise linear functions is a piecewise linear function, the Minkowski sum of two $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra is a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron. But even if the two polyhedra have parallel facets, new facets can appear in the sum. Later we will introduce a class of polyhedra such that the support vector of the Minkowski sum is the sum of the support vectors.

Lemma 4.3. The set $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ is a non-empty open convex cone of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
Proof. The condition that the hyperplane supported by $\eta_{j}$ contains a facet of the polyhedron with support vector $h$ can be written as

$$
\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \forall i \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}, i \neq j,\left\langle\eta_{i}, x\right\rangle_{-}<-h(i) \text { and }\left\langle\eta_{j}, x\right\rangle_{-}=-h(j) .
$$

By (20) $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ always contains the vector $(1, \ldots, 1)$. The set is clearly open as a facet can't disappear for any sufficiently small deformation. It is also clearly invariant under homotheties of positive scale factor. So to prove that $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ is a convex cone it suffices to check that if $h$ and $h^{\prime}$ belongs to $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ then $h+h^{\prime}$ belongs to $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$. It is immediate from the above characterization.

### 4.2 Volume of convex Fuchsian polyhedra

Let $F$ be a facet of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $P$, contained in a space-like hyperplane $\mathcal{H}$, with support number $h$. For the induced metric, $\mathcal{H}$ is isometric to the Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, in which $F$ is a convex polytope, with volume $A(F)$. We call $A(F)$ the area of the facet. Let $C$ be the cone in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ over $P$ with apex the origin. Its volume $V(C)$ is invariant under the action of an orientation and time-orientation preserving linear isometry (they have determinant 1), hence to compute $V(C)$ we can suppose that $\mathcal{H}$ is an horizontal hyperplane (constant last coordinate). For horizontal hyperplanes, the induced metric is the same if the ambient space is endowed with the standard Lorentzian metric or with the standard Euclidean metric. So the well-known formula applies:

$$
V(C)=\frac{1}{d+1} h A(F),
$$

and then

$$
V(P)=\frac{1}{d+1} \sum_{i \in I} h(i) A\left(F_{i}\right) .
$$

Identifying $P$ with its support vector $h$, if $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ is the usual inner product of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(h)=\frac{1}{d+1}\langle h, A(h)\rangle \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A(h)$ is the vector formed by the area of the facets $A\left(F_{i}\right)$.

Lemma 4.4. The function $V$ is $C^{2}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and for $h \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R), X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we have:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
D_{h} V(X)=\langle X, A(h)\rangle, \\
D_{h}^{2} V(X, Y)=\left\langle X, D_{h} A(Y)\right\rangle . \tag{28}
\end{array}
$$

Moreover (27) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle X, D_{h} A(Y)\right\rangle=\left\langle Y, D_{h} A(X)\right\rangle . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $P$ be the polyhedron with support function $h \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$. Let $F_{i}$ be a facet of $P$, with support numbers $h_{i 1}, \ldots, h_{i m}$. If $V_{E}$ is the $d$ Euclidean volume, it is well-known that [Alexandrov, 2005, 8.2.3]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial V_{E}\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h_{i k}}=L_{i k} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $L_{i k}$ is the area of the facet of $F_{i}$ with support number $h_{i k}$ (for $d=1$, one has1 instead of $L_{i k}$ ). A( $F_{i}$ ) is not exactly as $V_{E}\left(F_{i}\right)$, because it is a function of $h$, and, when varying a $h(j)$, a new facet of $F_{i}$ can appear, as well as a new support number $h_{i j}$ of $F_{i}$. Actually many new facets can appear, as many as hyperplanes with normals $\Gamma \eta_{j}$ meeting $F_{i}$. One has to consider $F_{i}$ as also supported by $h_{i j}$ (and eventually some orbits). In this case, $L_{i j}=0$, and the variation of the volume is still given by formula (30). So even if the combinatorics of $P$ changes under small change of a support number, there is no contribution to the change of the volume of the facets. So (30) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h_{i k}}=L_{i k} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

We denote by $E_{i}^{j} \subset \Gamma I$ is the set of indices $k \in \Gamma j$ such that $F_{k}$ is adjacent to $F_{i}$ along a codimension 2 face. It can be empty. But for example if $I$ is reduced to a single element $i, E_{i}^{i}$ is the set of facets adjacent to $F_{i}$ along a codimension 2 face. If $j \in \mathcal{I} \backslash\{i\}$ we get

$$
\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h(j)}=\sum_{k \in E_{i}^{j}} \frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h_{i k}} \frac{\partial h_{i k}}{\partial h(j)}
$$

From (23) and (31) it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h(j)}=-\sum_{k \in E_{i}^{j}} \frac{L_{i k}}{\sinh \varphi_{i k}} . \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the diagonal terms:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h(i)} & =\sum_{j \in \mathcal{T}\{i\}} \sum_{k \in E_{i}^{j}} \frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h_{i k}} \frac{\partial h_{i k}}{\partial h(i)}+\sum_{k \in E_{i}^{i}} \frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h_{i k}} \frac{\partial h_{i k}}{\partial h(i)} \\
(31,24,25) & \sum_{j \in \mathbb{\}\{i\}} \sum_{k \in E_{i}^{j}} \cosh \varphi_{i k} \frac{L_{i k}}{\sinh \varphi_{i k}}+\sum_{k \in E_{i}^{i}} L_{i k} \frac{\cosh \varphi_{i k}-1}{\sinh \varphi_{i k}} . \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

These expressions are continuous with respect to $h$, even if the combinatorics changes. So $A$ is $C^{1}$ and from (26) $V$ is $C^{2}$.

If (27) is true, we get (28), and this expression is symmetric as $V$ is $C^{2}$, so (29) holds. Let us suppose that (29) is true. As made of volumes of convex polytope of $\mathbb{R}^{d}, A$ is homogeneous of degree $d$ so by Euler homogeneous theorem $D_{h} A(h)=d A(h)$. Using this in (29) with $Y=h$ gives $d\langle X, A(h)\rangle=\left\langle h, D_{h} A(X)\right\rangle$. Now differentiating (26) gives $D_{h} V(X)=\frac{1}{d+1}\langle X, A(h)\rangle+\frac{1}{d+1}\left\langle h, D_{h} A(X)\right\rangle$. Inserting the preceding equation leads to (27).

Let us prove (29). If $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ is the standard basis of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, it suffices to prove (29) for $X=e_{i}$ and $Y=e_{j}$, $i \neq j$ i.e that the gradient of $A$ is symmetric. The sum in (32) means that, in $\partial P / \Gamma$, each times the $i$ th polytope meets the $j$ th polytope along a codimension 2 face, we add the quantity $\frac{L_{i k}}{\sinh \varphi_{i k}}$, which is symmetric in its arguments. Hence the gradient of $A$ is symmetric.

Let us consider the simplest case of $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra in the Minkowski plane, with only one support number $h \in \mathbb{R}$. Then by (22) $V(h)$ is equal to $h^{2}$ times a positive number, in particular it is a strictly convex function. This is always true.

Theorem 4.5. The Hessian of $V: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is positive definite.
Recall that we are looking at the volume on a space of support vectors, and not on a space of polyhedra (the sum is not the same).

Proof. Due to (28) it suffices to study the Jacobian of $A$. The elements off the diagonal are non-positive due to (32). Note that the formula is also correct if $E_{i}^{j}$ is empty. The diagonal terms (33) are positive, as any facet $F_{i}$ has an adjacent facet. As $\cosh x>1$ for $x \neq 0$, (33) and (32) lead to

$$
\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h(i)}>\sum_{j \in \mathcal{I} \backslash i\}}\left|\frac{\partial A\left(F_{i}\right)}{\partial h(j)}\right|>0
$$

that means that the Jacobian is strictly diagonally dominant with positive diagonal entries, hence positive definite, see for example [Varga, 2000, 1.22].

### 4.3 Polyhedral Minkowski Theorem

We use a classical continuity method, although its Euclidean analog is more often proved using a variational method.

Theorem 4.6 (Minkowski Theorem). Let $\Gamma$ be a Fuchsian group, $R=\left(\eta_{1}, \ldots, \eta_{n}\right)$ be a set of pairwise non collinear unit future time-like vectors in Minkowski space and let $\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ be positive real numbers.

There exists a unique $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron with inward unit normals $\eta_{i}$ such that the facet orthogonal to $\eta_{i}$ has area $f_{i}$.

Theorem 4.6 is equivalent to say that the map $\Phi$ from $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ to $\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)^{n}$ which associates to each $\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n}\right) \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ the facet areas $\left(A\left(F_{1}\right), \ldots, A\left(F_{n}\right)\right)$ is a bijection. By Lemma 4.4, Theorem 4.5 and local inverse theorem, $\Phi$ is locally invertible. So $\Phi$ is a local homeomorphism by the invariance of domain theorem. Lemma 4.7 below says that $\Phi$ is proper. As $\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)^{n}$ is connected, it follows that $\Phi$ is surjective, hence a covering map. But the target space $\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)^{n}$ is simply connected and $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ is connected (Lemma 4.3), so $\Phi$ is a homeomorphism, in particular bijective, and Theorem 4.6 is proved.

Lemma 4.7. The map $\Phi$ is proper: Let $\left(a_{\alpha}\right)_{\alpha \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a converging sequence of $\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)^{n}$ such that for all $\alpha$, there exists $h_{\alpha}=\left(h_{\alpha}(1), \ldots, h_{\alpha}(n)\right) \in \mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ with $\Phi\left(h_{\alpha}\right)=a_{\alpha}$. Then a subsequence of $\left(h_{\alpha}\right)_{\alpha}$ converges in $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$.

Proof. Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$ and suppose that $h_{\alpha}(i)$ is the largest component of $h_{\alpha}$. For any support number $h_{\alpha}(j), j \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}$, of a facet adjacent to the one supported by $h_{\alpha}(i)$, as $h_{\alpha}(i) \geqslant h_{\alpha}(j)$, (22) gives:

$$
h_{i j}^{\alpha}=\frac{h_{\alpha}(i) \cosh \varphi_{i j}-h_{\alpha}(j)}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}} \geqslant h_{\alpha}(i) \frac{\cosh \varphi_{i j}-1}{\sinh \varphi_{i j}} .
$$

As $\Gamma$ acts cocompactly on $\mathbb{H}^{d}$, for any $j \in \Gamma \mathcal{I}, \varphi_{i j}$ is bounded from below by a positive constant. Moreover the function $x \mapsto \frac{\cosh x-1}{\sinh x}$ is increasing, then there exists a positive number $\lambda_{i}$, depending only on $i$, such that

$$
h_{i j}^{\alpha} \geqslant h_{\alpha}(i) \lambda_{i}
$$

As the sequence of areas of the facets is supposed to converge, there exists positive numbers $A_{i}^{+}$and $A_{i}^{-}$ such that $A_{i}^{+} \geqslant A\left(F_{i}^{\alpha}\right) \geqslant A_{i}^{-}$, where $A\left(F_{i}^{\alpha}\right)$ is the area of the facet $F_{i}^{\alpha}$ supported by $h_{\alpha}(i)$. If $\operatorname{Per}_{i}^{\alpha}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.\operatorname{Per}_{i}\right)$
is the Euclidean $(d-1)$ volume of the hypersphere bounding the ball with Euclidean $d$ volume $A\left(F_{i}^{\alpha}\right)$ (resp. $A_{i}^{-}$), the isoperimetric inequality gives [Burago and Zalgaller, 1988, 10.1]

$$
\sum_{j} L_{i j}^{\alpha} \geqslant \operatorname{Per}_{i}^{\alpha} \geqslant \operatorname{Per}_{i}
$$

where the sum is on the facets adjacent to $F_{i}^{\alpha}$ and $L_{i j}^{\alpha}$ is the $(d-1)$ volume of the codimension 2 face between $F_{i}^{\alpha}$ and $F_{j}^{\alpha}$. We get

$$
A_{i}^{+} \geqslant A\left(F_{i}^{\alpha}\right)=\frac{1}{d} \sum_{j} h_{i j}^{\alpha} L_{i j}^{\alpha} \geqslant h_{\alpha}(i) \lambda_{i} \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j} L_{i j}^{\alpha} \geqslant h_{\alpha}(i) \frac{\lambda_{i} \operatorname{Per}_{i}}{d}
$$

As $h_{\alpha}(i)$ is the largest component of $h_{\alpha}$, all the support numbers are bounded from above by a constant which does not depend on $\alpha$. Moreover each component of $h_{\alpha}$ is positive, hence all the components of the elements of the sequence $\left(h_{\alpha}\right)_{\alpha}$ are bounded from above and below, so there exists a subsequence $\left(h_{\varphi(\alpha)}\right)_{\varphi(\alpha)}$ converging to $(h(1), \ldots, h(n))$, where $h(i)$ is a non-negative number.

Suppose that the limit of $\left(h_{\varphi(\alpha)}(i)\right)_{\varphi(\alpha)}$ is zero. Let $h_{\varphi(\alpha)}(j)$ be the support number of a facet adjacent to $F_{i}^{\varphi(\alpha)}$. If $\varphi(\alpha)$ is sufficiently large, $h_{\varphi(\alpha)}(j)$ is arbitrary close to $h(j)$, which is a non-negative number, and $h_{\varphi(\alpha)}(i)$ is arbitrary close to 0 . By (22), $h_{i j}^{\alpha}$ is a non-positive number. So all the support numbers of $F_{i}^{\varphi(\alpha)}$ are non-positive, hence the $d$ volume of $F_{i}^{\varphi(\alpha)}$ is non-positive, that is impossible. It follows easily that $\left(h_{\varphi(\alpha)}(i)\right)_{\varphi(\alpha)}$ converges in $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$.

### 4.4 Mixed face area and mixed volume

Let us recall some basic facts about convex polytopes in Euclidean space (with non empty interior). A convex polytope of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ is simple if each vertex is contained in exactly $d$ facets. Each face of a simple convex polytope is a simple convex polytope. The normal fan of a convex polytope is the decomposition of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ by convex cones defined by the outward unit normals to the facets of the polytope (each cone corresponds to one vertex). Two convex polytopes are strongly isomorphic if they have the same normal fan. The Minkowski sum of two strongly isomorphic simple polytopes is a simple polytope strongly isomorphic to the previous ones. Moreover the support vector of the Minkowski sum is the sum of the support vectors.

Let $Q$ be a simple convex polytope in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ with $n$ facets. The set of convex polytopes of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ strongly isomorphic to $Q$ is a convex open cone in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. The Euclidean volume $V_{E}$ is a polynomial of degree $d$ on this set, and its polarization $V_{E}(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$ is the mixed volume. The coefficients of the volume depend on the combinatorics, it's why we have to restrict ourselves to simple strongly isomorphic polytopes. The following result is an equivalent formulation of the Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality.

Theorem 4.8 ([Alexandrov, 1996, Schneider, 1993]). Let $Q, Q_{3}, \ldots, Q_{d}$ be strongly isomorphic simple convex polytopes of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ with $n$ facets and $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Then

$$
V_{E}\left(Z, Q, Q_{3}, \ldots, Q_{d}\right)=0 \Rightarrow V_{E}\left(Z, Z, Q_{3}, \ldots, Q_{d}\right) \leqslant 0
$$

and equality holds if and only if $Z$ is the support vector of a point.
We identify a support hyperplane of an element of $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ with the Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ by performing a translation along the ray from the origin orthogonal to the hyperplane. In this way we consider all facets of elements of $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ lying in parallel hyperplanes as convex polytopes in the same Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$.

The definition of strong isomorphy and simplicity extend to $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra, considering them as polyhedral hypersurface in the ambient vector space. Note that the simplest examples of Euclidean convex polytopes, the simplices, are simple, but the simplest examples of $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra, those defined by only one orbit, are not simple (if $d>1$ ). Let us formalize the definition of strong isomorphy. The normal cone $N(P)$ of a convex $\Gamma$-polyhedron $P$ is the decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$ by convex cones defined by the inward normals to the facets
of $P$. It is the minimal decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$ such that the extended support functions of $P$ is the restriction of a linear form on each part. If the normal fan $N(Q)$ subdivides $N(P)$, then we write $N(Q)>N(P)$. Note that

$$
N(P+Q)>N(P)
$$

Two convex $\Gamma$-polyhedron $P$ and $Q$ are strongly isomorphic if $N(P)=N(Q)$. If $P$ is simple, we denote by $[P]$ the subset of $\mathcal{P}(\Gamma, R)$ made of polyhedra strongly isomorphic to $P$.

Lemma 4.9. All elements of $[P]$ are simple and $[P]$ is an open convex cone of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.
Proof. The fact that all elements of $[P]$ are simple and that $[P]$ is open are classical, see for example [Alexandrov, 1937]. The only difference with the Euclidean convex polytopes case is that, around a vertex, two facets can belong to the same orbit for the action of $\Gamma$, hence when one wants to slightly move a facet adjacent to a vertex, one actually moves two (or more) facets. But this does not break the simplicity, nor the strong isomorphy class. Moreover $[P]$ is a cone as the sum of two functions piecewise linear on the same decomposition of $\mathcal{F}$ gives a piecewise linear function on the same decomposition.

Suppose that $P$ is simple, has $n$ facets (in a fundamental domain), and let $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d+1} \in[P]$ (support vectors of polyhedra strongly isomorphic to $P$ ). Let us denote by $F_{k}(i)$ the $i$ th facet of the polyhedron with support vector $h_{k}$, and let $h\left(F_{k}(i)\right)$ be its support vector $\left(F_{k}(i)\right.$ is seen as a convex polytope in $\left.\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$. The entries of $h\left(F_{k}(i)\right)$ have the form (22) so the map $h_{k} \mapsto h\left(F_{k}(i)\right)$ is linear. This map can be defined formally for all $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ using (22). The mixed face area $A\left(h_{2}, \ldots, h_{d+1}\right)$ is the vector formed by the entries $V_{E}\left(h\left(F_{2}(i)\right), \ldots, h\left(F_{d+1}(i)\right)\right)$, $i=1, \ldots, n$. Together with (26), this implies that $V$ is a $(d+1)$-homogeneous polynomial, and we call mixed-volume its polarization $V(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$. Note that $V$ is $C^{\infty}$ on $[P]$.
Lemma 4.10. We have the following equalities, for $X_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$.
(i) $D_{X_{2}}^{d} A\left(X_{3}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)=d!A\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)$,
(ii) $D_{X_{1}} V\left(X_{2}\right)=(d+1) V\left(X_{2}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)$,
(iii) $D_{X_{1}}^{2} V\left(X_{2}, X_{3}\right)=(d+1) d V\left(X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{1}, \ldots, X_{1}\right)$,
(iv) $D_{X_{1}}^{d+1} V\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)=(d+1)!V\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d}\right)$,
(v) $V\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{d+1}\right)=\frac{1}{d+1}\left\langle X_{1}, A\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d+1}\right)\right\rangle$.

Proof. The proof is analogous to the one of Lemma 3.9.
Corollary 4.11. For $h_{i} \in[P], V\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d+1}\right)$ is non-negative.
Proof. As $h_{i}$ are support vectors of strongly isomorphic simple polyhedra, the entries of $A\left(X_{2}, \ldots, X_{d+1}\right)$ are mixed-volume of simple strongly isomorphic Euclidean convex polytopes, hence are non-negative (see Theorem 5.1.6 in [Schneider, 1993]). The result follows from $(\mathbf{v})$ because the entries of $h_{1}$ are positive.

Lemma 4.12. For any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1} \in[P]$, the symmetric bilinear form

$$
V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)
$$

has trivial kernel.
Proof. The analog of the proof of Lemma 3.13, using Theorem 4.8 instead of Theorem 3.8, gives that in each support hyperplane, the "support vectors" of $Z$ (formally given by (22)) are the ones of a point of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Let us denote by $Z_{i}$ the support vector of $Z$ in the hyperplane with normal $\eta_{i}$.

If $\varepsilon$ is sufficiently small then $h_{1}+\varepsilon Z$ is the support vector of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $P_{1}^{\varepsilon}$ strongly isomorphic to $P_{1}$, the one with support vector $h_{1}$. Moreover the support numbers of the $i$ th facet $F_{i}$ of $P_{1}^{\varepsilon}$ are the sum of the support numbers of the facet $F_{i}^{1}$ of $P_{1}$ with the coefficients of $\varepsilon Z_{i}$. As $Z_{i}$ is the support vector of a point in $\mathbb{R}^{d}, F_{i}$ is obtained form $F_{i}^{1}$ by a translation. It follows that each facet of $P_{1}^{\varepsilon}$ is obtained by a translation of the corresponding facet of $P_{1}$, hence $P_{1}^{\varepsilon}$ is a translate of $h_{1}$ (the translations of each facet have to coincide on each codimension 2 face). As $h_{1}+\varepsilon Z$ is supposed to be a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron for $\varepsilon$ sufficiently small, and as the translation of a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron is not a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron, it follows that $Z=0$.

Theorem 4.13. For any $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1} \in[P]$, the symmetric bilinear form

$$
V\left(\cdot, \cdot, h_{1}, \ldots, h_{d-1}\right)
$$

is positive definite.
Proof. The proof is analogous to the one of Theorem 3.11.
Remark on spherical polyhedra The sets of strongly isomorphic simple $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra form convex cones in vector spaces (Lemma 4.9). The mixed volume allow to endow these vector spaces with an inner product. Hence, if we restrict to polyhedra of volume 1, those sets are isometric to convex spherical polyhedra. For $d=1$ we get simplices named orthoschemes [Fillastre, 2011b]. In $d=2$, if we look at the metric induced on the boundary of the Fuchsian polyhedra, we get spherical metrics on subsets of the spaces of flat metrics with cone-singularities of negative curvature on the compact surfaces of genus $>1$. It could be interesting to investigate the shape of these subsets.

## 5 General case

### 5.1 Convexity of the volume

Hausdorff metric Recall that $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ is the set of $\Gamma$-convex bodies for a given $\Gamma$. For $K$, $K^{\prime}$ we define the Hausdorff metric by

$$
d\left(K, K^{\prime}\right)=\min \left\{\lambda \geqslant 0 \mid K^{\prime}+\lambda B \subset K, K+\lambda B \subset K^{\prime}\right\} .
$$

It is not hard to check that this is a distance and that Minkowski sum and multiplication by a positive scalar are continuous for this distance. If we identify $\Gamma$-convex bodies with their support functions, then $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ is isometric to a convex cone in $C^{0}\left(\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma\right)$ endowed with the maximum norm, i.e.:

$$
d\left(K, K^{\prime}\right)=\sup _{\eta \in \mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma}\left|h(\eta)-h^{\prime}(\eta)\right| .
$$

The proofs is easy and formally the same as in the Euclidean case [Schneider, 1993, 1.8.11].
Lemma 5.1. The volume is a continuous function.
Proof. Let $K$ be in $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ with support function $h$. For a given $\varepsilon>0$, choose $\lambda>1$ such that $\left(\lambda^{d+1}-1\right) \lambda^{d+1} V(K)<\varepsilon$. Let $\rho<0$ such that $h>\rho$, and let $\bar{\alpha}>0$ be the minimum of $h-\rho$. Let $\alpha=\min (\bar{\alpha},(1-\lambda) \rho)>0$. In particular,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho \leqslant h-\alpha . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, let $\bar{K}$ with support function $\bar{h}$ be such that $d(K, \bar{K})<\alpha$. In particular, $h-\alpha<\bar{h}$, that, inserted in (34), gives that $\rho<\bar{h}$. This and the definition of $\alpha$ give

$$
\bar{h} \leqslant h+\alpha \leqslant h+(1-\lambda) \rho \leqslant h+(1-\lambda) \bar{h},
$$

i.e. $\lambda \bar{h} \leqslant h$, i.e. $\lambda \bar{K} \subset K$, in particular $V(K) \leqslant \lambda^{d+1} V(\bar{K})$. In a similar way we get $V(\bar{K}) \leqslant \lambda^{d+1} V(K)$. This allows to write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V(K)-V(\bar{K}) \leqslant\left(\lambda^{d+1}-1\right) V(\bar{K}) \leqslant\left(\lambda^{d+1}-1\right) \lambda^{d+1} V(K)<\varepsilon \\
& V(\bar{K})-V(K) \leqslant\left(\lambda^{d+1}-1\right) V(K) \leqslant\left(\lambda^{d+1}-1\right) \lambda^{d+1} V(K)<\varepsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

i.e. $|V(K)-V(\bar{K})|<\varepsilon$.

The general results are based on polyhedral approximation.

Lemma 5.2. Let $K_{1}, \ldots, K_{p} \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$. There exists a sequence $\left(P_{k}^{1}, \ldots, P_{k}^{p}\right)_{k}$ of strongly isomorphic simple $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra converging to ( $K_{1}, \ldots, K_{p}$ ).

Proof. First, any $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is arbitrarily close to a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $Q$. Consider a finite number of points on $K$ and let $Q$ be the polyhedron made by the hyperplanes orthogonal to the orbits of these points, and passing through these points. We get $K \subset Q$. For any $\varepsilon>0$, if $Q+\varepsilon B$ is not included in $K$ then add facets to $Q$. The process ends by cocompactness.

Let $Q^{i}$ be a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron arbitrary close to $K_{i}$, and let $P$ be the $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron $Q^{1}+\cdots+Q^{p}$. Let us suppose that around a vertex $x$ of $P$, two facets belong to the same orbit for the action of $\Gamma$. We perform a little translation in direction of $P$ of a support hyperplane at $x$, which is not a support hyperplane of a face containing $x$. A new facet appears, the vertex $x$ disappears, and the two facets in the same orbit share one less vertex. Repeating this operation a finite number of times, we get a polyhedron $P^{\prime}$ with $N\left(P^{\prime}\right)>N(P)$ and such that around each vertex, no facets belong to the same orbit. If $P^{\prime}$ is not simple, there exists a vertex $x$ of $P^{\prime}$ such that more than $d+1$ facets meet at this vertex. We perform a small little parallel move of one of this facets. In this case the number of facets meeting at the vertex $x^{\prime}$ corresponding to $x$ decreases, and new vertices can appear, but the number of facets meeting at each of those vertices is strictly less than the number of facets meeting at $x$. If the move is sufficiently small, the number of facets meeting at the other vertices is not greater than it was on $P^{\prime}$. Repeating this operation a finite number of times leads to the simple polyhedra $P^{\prime \prime}$, and $N\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)>N\left(P^{\prime}\right)$.

Now we define $P^{i}=Q^{i}+\alpha P^{\prime \prime}$, with $\alpha>0$ sufficiently small such that $P^{i}$ remains close to $Q^{i}$ and hence close to $K_{i}$. By definition of $P, N(P)>N\left(Q^{i}\right)$ and finally $N\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)>N\left(Q^{i}\right)$ hence $N\left(P^{i}\right)=N\left(P^{\prime \prime}\right)$ : all the $P^{i}$ are strongly isomorphic to $P^{\prime \prime}$, which is simple.

Theorem 5.3. The volume is a convex function on the space of $\Gamma$-convex bodies: for any $K_{1}, K_{2} \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$, $\forall t \in[0,1]$,

$$
V\left((1-t) K_{1}+t K_{2}\right) \leqslant t V\left(K_{1}\right)+(1-t) V\left(K_{2}\right) .
$$

Proof. By Lemma 5.2, there exist strongly isomorphic simple $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ arbitrary close to respectively $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$. As for simple strongly isomorphic $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra, the addition of support vectors is the same as Minkowski addition, Theorem 4.5 gives that

$$
V\left((1-t) P_{1}+t P_{2}\right) \leqslant t V\left(P_{1}\right)+(1-t) V\left(P_{2}\right)
$$

and the theorem follows by continuity of the volume.

### 5.2 Mixed volume and standard inequalities

Lemma 5.4. The volume on $\mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ is a homogeneous polynomial of degree $(d+1)$. Its polar form is the mixed volume $V(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$, a continuous non-negative symmetric map on $(\mathcal{K}(\Gamma))^{d+1}$ such that

$$
V(K, \ldots, K)=V(K) .
$$

Moreover if we restrict to a space of strongly isomorphic simple $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra, or to the space of regular $\Gamma$-convex bodies, then $V(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$ is the same map as the one previously considered.

Proof. Let us define

$$
\begin{equation*}
V\left(K_{1}, \ldots, K_{d+1}\right)=\frac{1}{(d+1)!} \sum_{i=1}^{d+1}(-1)^{d+1+k} \sum_{i_{1}<\cdots<i_{d+1}} V\left(K_{i_{1}}+\cdots+K_{i_{d+1}}\right) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is a symmetric map. From the continuity of the volume and of the Minkowski addition, it is a continuous map. In the case when $K_{i}$ are strongly isomorphic simple polyhedra, the right-hand side of (35) to the mixed volumes previously introduced [Schneider, 1993, 5.1.3] (we also could have used another polarization formula
[Hörmander, 2007, (A.5)]). Let us consider a sequence of strongly isomorphic simple $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra $P_{1}(k), \ldots, P_{d+1}(k)$ converging to $K_{1}, \ldots, K_{d+1}$ (Lemma 5.2). From the definition of the mixed volume we have

$$
V\left(\lambda_{1} P_{1}(k)+\cdots+\lambda_{d+1} P_{d+1}(k)\right)=\sum_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{d+1}=1}^{d+1} \lambda_{i_{1}} \cdots \lambda_{i_{d+1}} V\left(P(k)_{i_{1}}, \ldots, P(k)_{i_{d+1}}\right)
$$

and by continuity, passing to the limit,

$$
V\left(\lambda_{1} K_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{d+1} K_{d+1}\right)=\sum_{i_{1}, \ldots, i_{d+1}=1}^{d+1} \lambda_{i_{1}} \cdots \lambda_{i_{d+1}} V\left(K_{i_{1}}, \ldots, K_{i_{d+1}}\right)
$$

so the volume is a polynomial, and $V(\cdot, \ldots, \cdot)$ introduced at the beginning of the proof is its polarization. It is non-negative due to Corollary 4.11.

In the case of regular $\Gamma$-convex bodies, both notions of mixed-volume satisfy (35).
Theorem 5.5. Let $K_{i} \in \mathcal{K}(\Gamma)$ and $0<t<1$. We have the following inequalities.
Reversed Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality:
$V\left(K_{1}, K_{2}, K_{3}, \ldots, K_{d+1}\right)^{2} \leqslant V\left(K_{1}, K_{1}, K_{3}, \ldots, K_{d+1}\right) V\left(K_{2}, K_{2}, K_{3}, \ldots, K_{d+1}\right)$
First reversed Minkowski inequality:
$V\left(K_{1}, K_{2}, \ldots, K_{2}\right)^{d+1} \leqslant V\left(K_{2}\right)^{d} V\left(K_{1}\right)$
Second or quadratic reversed Minkowski inequality:
$V\left(K_{1}, K_{2}, \ldots, K_{2}\right)^{2} \leqslant V\left(K_{2}\right) V\left(K_{1}, K_{1}, K_{2}, \ldots, K_{2}\right)$
Reversed Brunn-Minkowski inequality:
$V\left((1-t) K_{1}+t K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}} \leqslant(1-t) V\left(K_{1}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}+t V\left(K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}$
Reversed linearized first Minkowski inequality:
$(d+1) V\left(K_{1}, K_{2}, \ldots, K_{2}\right) \leqslant d V\left(K_{2}\right)+V\left(K_{1}\right)$
If all the $K_{i}$ are $C^{\infty}$ regular or strongly isomorphic simple polyhedra, then equality holds in reversed AlexandrovFenchel and second reversed Minkowski inequalities if and only if $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are homothetic.

In the classical case of Euclidean convex bodies, the linearized first Minkowski inequality is valid only on particular subsets of the space of convex bodies, see [Schneider, 1993, (6.7.11)].

Proof. Let $P_{1}(k), \ldots, P_{d+1}(k)$ be a sequence of simple strongly isomorphic $\Gamma$-convex polyhedra converging to $K_{1}, \ldots, K_{d+1}$ (Lemma 5.2). Applying Cauchy-Schwarz inequality to the inner product $V\left(\cdot, \cdot, P_{3}(k), \ldots, P_{d+1}(k)\right)$ (Theorem 4.13) at $\left(P_{1}(k), P_{2}(k)\right)$ and passing to the limit gives reversed Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality. Equalities cases follow from Theorem 3.11 and 4.13. The second reversed Minkowski inequality and its equality case follows from Alexandrov-Fenchel inequality.

As the volume is convex (Theorem 5.3), for $\bar{K}_{1}$ and $\bar{K}_{2}$ of unit volume, for $\bar{t} \in[0,1]$ we get

$$
V\left((1-\bar{t}) \bar{K}_{1}+\bar{t} \bar{K}_{2}\right) \leqslant 1 .
$$

Taking $\bar{K}_{i}=K_{i} / V\left(K_{i}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}$ and

$$
\bar{t}=\frac{t V\left(K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}}{(1-t) V\left(K_{1}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}+t V\left(K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}}
$$

leads to the reversed Brunn-Minkowski inequality.
As $V(\cdot)$ is convex, the map

$$
f(\lambda)=V\left((1-\lambda) K_{1}+\lambda K_{2}\right)-(1-\lambda) V\left(K_{1}\right)-\lambda V\left(K_{2}\right), 0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1,
$$

is convex. As $f(0)=f(1)=0$, we have $f^{\prime}(0) \leqslant 0$, that is the reversed linearized first Minkowski inequality. (Remember that

$$
\left.V\left((1-\lambda) K_{1}+\lambda K_{2}\right)=(1-\lambda)^{d+1} V\left(K_{1}\right)+(d+1)(1-\lambda)^{d} \lambda V\left(K_{1}, \ldots, K_{1}, K_{2}\right)+\lambda^{2}[\ldots] .\right)
$$

Reversed Brunn-Minkowski says that the map $V(\cdot)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}$ is convex. Doing the same as above with the convex map

$$
g(\lambda)=V\left((1-\lambda) K_{1}+\lambda K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}-(1-\lambda) V\left(K_{1}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}-\lambda V\left(K_{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{d+1}}, 0 \leqslant \lambda \leqslant 1,
$$

leads to the first reversed Minkowski inequality.
The (Minkowski) area $S(K)$ of a $\Gamma$-convex body $K$ is $(d+1) V(B, K, \ldots, K)$. Note that it can be defined from the volume:

$$
S(K)=\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{V(K+\varepsilon B)-V(K)}{\varepsilon} .
$$

The following inequality says that, among $\Gamma$-convex bodies of area $1, B$ has smaller volume, or equivalently that among $\Gamma$-convex bodies of volume $1, B$ has larger area.

Corollary 5.6 (Isoperimetric inequality). Let $K$ be $a \Gamma$-convex body. Then

$$
\left(\frac{S(K)}{S(B)}\right)^{d+1} \leqslant\left(\frac{V(K)}{V(B)}\right)^{d} .
$$

Proof. It follows from the first reversed Minkowski with $K_{1}=B, K_{2}=K$, divided by $S(B)^{d+1}$, with $(d+1) V(B)=S(B)$.

Lemma 5.7. If $K$ is a regular $\Gamma$-convex body, then $S(K)$ is the volume of the Riemannian manifold $\partial K / \Gamma$.
If $K$ is a $\Gamma$-convex polyhedron, then $S(K)$ is the total face area of $K$ (the sum of the area of the facets of $K$ in a fundamental domain).

In particular $S(B)$ is the volume of the compact hyperbolic manifold $\mathbb{H}^{d} / \Gamma$.
Proof. The regular case follows from the formulas in Section 3, because $B$ is a regular convex body.
Let $K$ be polyhedral. Let $\left(P_{k}\right)_{k}$ be a sequence of polyhedra converging to $B$ and such that all the support numbers of $P_{k}$ are equal to 1 (i.e. all facets are tangent to $\mathbb{H}^{d}$ ). Up to add facets, we can construct $P_{k}$ such that $N\left(P_{k}\right)>N(K)$ and $P_{k}$ is simple. Let $\alpha$ be a small positive number. The polyhedron $K+\alpha P_{k}$ is strongly isomorphic to $P_{k}$. It follows from formulas of Section 4 than $(d+1) V\left(P_{k}, K+\alpha P_{k}, \ldots, K+\alpha P_{k}\right)$ is equal to the total face area of $K+\alpha P_{k}$. By continuity of the mixed-volume, $(d+1) V\left(P_{k}, K+\alpha P_{k}, \ldots, K+\alpha P_{k}\right)$ converges to $(d+1) V\left(P_{k}, K, \ldots, K\right)$ when $\alpha$ goes to 0 .

We associate to $K$ a support vector $h(K)$ whose entries are support numbers of facets of $K$, but also to support hyperplanes of $K$ parallel to facets of $P_{k}$. We also consider "false faces" of larger codimension, such that the resulting normal fan is the same as the one of $P_{k}$. This is possible as the normal fan of $P_{k}$ is finer than the one of $K$. The support numbers of the false faces can be computed using (21) and (22) (i.e. $K$ is seen as an element of the closure of $\left[P_{k}\right]$ ). In particular $h\left(K+\alpha P_{k}\right)=h(K)+\alpha h\left(P_{k}\right)$ and as the map $s$ giving the support numbers of a facet in terms of the support numbers of the polyhedron is linear, the area of this facet is $V_{E}\left(s(h(K))+\alpha s\left(h\left(P_{k}\right)\right)\right)$. By continuity of the Euclidean volume, when $\alpha$ goes to 0 this area goes to the area of the facet of $K$ (it is 0 if the facet was a "false facet" of $K$ ). Hence $(d+1) V\left(P_{k}, K, \ldots, K\right)$ is equal to the total face area of $K$, and on the other hand it goes to $S(K)$ when $k$ goes to infinity.

Let us end with an example. Let $K$ be a polyhedral $\Gamma$-convex body with support numbers equal to 1 . In this case $S(K)=(d+1) V(K)$, and as $S(B)=(d+1) V(B)$, the isoperimetric inequality becomes

$$
\frac{S(K)}{S(B)} \leqslant 1 .
$$

Let $d=2$ and $\Gamma$ be the Fuchsian group which has a regular octagon as a fundamental domain in the Klein model of $\mathbb{H}^{2}$. Then by the Gauss-Bonnet theorem $S(B)=4 \pi$. The total face area of $K$ is the area of only one facet, which is eight times the area of a Euclidean triangle of height $h^{\prime}=\frac{\cosh \varphi-1}{\sinh \varphi}$ and with edge length two times $h^{\prime} \frac{1-\cos \pi / 4}{\sin \pi / 4}$ (see (21) and (22)). $\varphi$ is the distance between a point of $\mathbb{H}^{2}$ and its image by a generator of $\Gamma$, and $\cosh \varphi=2+2 \sqrt{2}$ (compare Example C p. 95 in [Katok, 1992] with Lemma 12.1.2 in [Maclachlan and Reid, 2003]). By a direct computation the isoperimetric inequality becomes

$$
0,27 \approx 13-9 \sqrt{2} \leqslant \frac{\pi}{2} \approx 1,57 .
$$

Remarks on equality cases and general Minkowski theorem Brunn-Minkowski inequality for non-degenerated (convex) bodies in the Euclidean space comes with a description of the equality case. Namely, the equality occurs for a $t$ if and only if the bodies are homothetic (the part "if" is trivial). At a first sigh it is not possible to adapt the standard proof of the equality case to the Fuchsian case, as it heavily lies on translations [Bonnesen and Fenchel, 1987, Schneider, 1993, Alexandrov, 2005].

If such a result was known, it should imply, in a way formally equivalent to the classical one, the characterization of the equality case in the reversed first Minkowski inequality, as well as the uniqueness part in the Minkowski theorem and the equality case in the isoperimetric equality (see below).

The Minkowski problem in the classical case is to find a convex Fuchsian body having a prescribed measure as "area measure" (see notes of Section 5.1 in [Schneider, 1993]). It can be solved by approximation (by smooth regular or polyhedral convex bodies), see [Schneider, 1993], or by a variational argument using the volume, see [Alexandrov, 1996]. Both methods require a compactness result, which is known as the Blaschke selection Theorem. Another classical question about Minkowski problem in the regular case, is to know the regularity of the hypersurface with respect to the regularity of the curvature function, see the survey [Trudinger and Wang, 2008]. All those questions can be transposed in the setting of Fuchsian convex bodies.

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