

# 104114 Lecture Notes

Roy Meshulam

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## 1 Euclidean Geometry

An *Euclidean Space* is an  $n$ -dimensional linear space  $V$  over the field  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers, together with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . Recall that this means that  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is symmetric bilinear form such that  $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$ , where equality implies that  $u = 0$ . The form  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  induces a norm  $\| \cdot \|$  on  $V$  given by  $\|u\| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$ . Any  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space  $V$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with its standard inner product defined on  $u = (a_1, \dots, a_n), v = (b_1, \dots, b_n)$  by  $\langle u, v \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$ . The angle  $\alpha$  between two nonzero vectors  $u, v \in V$  is given by  $\alpha = \arccos \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}$ . An *affine combination* of  $u_0, \dots, u_k \in V$  is a vector of the form  $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i u_i$  where  $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 1$ . The *affine span* of  $A \subset V$  is

$$\text{aff}(A) = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i u_i : u_i \in A, \sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 1 \right\}.$$

The vectors  $u_0, \dots, u_k \in V$  are *affinely independent* if  $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i u_i = 0$  together with  $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 0$ , imply that  $\lambda_i = 0$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . An equivalent condition (check!) is that  $u_j \notin \text{aff}(\{u_i\}_{i \neq j})$  for all  $0 \leq j \leq k$ . A subset  $F \subset V$  is a *flat* if  $\text{aff}(F) = F$ . Check that  $F$  is a flat iff  $F = v + U$ , for some  $v \in V$  a linear subspace  $U$  of  $V$ . The subspace  $U$  is uniquely determined by  $F$  (check!), and is called the *direction* of  $F$ . We define  $\dim F = \dim U$ .

A set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is *convex* if for any  $u, v \in K$ , the segment  $[u, v] := \{tu + (1-t)v : 0 \leq t \leq 1\}$  is contained in  $K$ . The standard  $k$ -simplex in  $\mathbb{R}^{k+1}$  is the set

$$\Delta_k = \left\{ \lambda = (\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_k) \in \mathbb{R}^{k+1} : \lambda_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i = 1 \right\}.$$

A convex combination of  $u_0, \dots, u_k$  is a vector of the form  $\sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i u_i$  where  $(\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_k) \in \Delta_k$ . The *convex hull* of a set  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$\text{conv}(A) = \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^k \lambda_i u_i : u_0, \dots, u_k \in A, (\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_k) \in \Delta_k \right\}.$$

$\text{conv}(A)$  is the inclusion-wise minimal convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that contains  $A$  (check!).

In the following sections we will recall some classical results from plane Euclidean geometry, and discuss their higher dimensional counterparts.

### 1.1 Ceva's Theorem in $n$ -Space

A *Cevian* in a triangle is a segment that connects a vertex to a point in the opposite edge. In plane geometry we encounter several results that assert that certain three Cevians from the three vertices are concurrent (i.e. intersect in a point). For example:

**Theorem 1.1.** In a triangle  $\Delta = ABC$

- (i) The three medians are concurrent.
- (ii) The three altitudes are concurrent.
- (iii) The three angle bisectors are concurrent.

It turns out that Theorem 1.1 and similar results can be proved as a consequence of the following

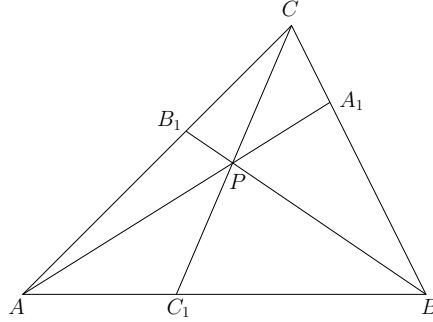


Figure 1: Three collinear Cevians

**Theorem 1.2** (Ceva). Let  $\Delta ABC$  be a triangle in the plane and consider three points  $C_1 \in \overline{AB}$ ,  $A_1 \in \overline{BC}$ , and  $B_1 \in \overline{CA}$ . Then the segments  $\overline{AA_1}$ ,  $\overline{BB_1}$ ,  $\overline{CC_1}$  intersect in a point  $P$  iff

$$\frac{|AC_1| \cdot |BA_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|BC_1| \cdot |CA_1| \cdot |AB_1|} = 1. \quad (1)$$

**Proof of Theorem 1.1.** Let  $\alpha = \angle BAC$ ,  $\beta = \angle ABC$  and  $\gamma = \angle ACB$ . Let  $a = |BC|$ ,  $b = |AC|$  and  $c = |AB|$ .

- (i) Let  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  be the three medians of  $\Delta$ . Then  $|AC_1| = |BC_1| = \frac{c}{2}$ ,  $|BA_1| = |CA_1| = \frac{a}{2}$  and  $|CB_1| = |AB_1| = \frac{b}{2}$ . It follows that (1) is satisfied and hence  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  are concurrent.

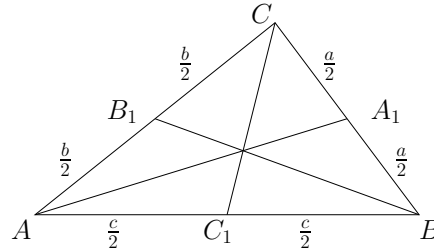


Figure 2: Medians

- (ii) Let  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  be the three altitudes of  $\Delta$ . Then  $|BA_1| = c \cos \beta$ ,  $|CB_1| = a \cos \gamma$  and  $|AC_1| = b \cos \alpha$ . Similarly  $|CA_1| = b \cos \gamma$ ,  $|AB_1| = c \cos \alpha$  and  $|BC_1| = a \cos \beta$ . It follows that

$$\frac{|AC_1| \cdot |BA_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|BC_1| \cdot |CA_1| \cdot |AB_1|} = \frac{b \cos \alpha \cdot c \cos \beta \cdot a \cos \gamma}{a \cos \beta \cdot b \cos \gamma \cdot c \cos \alpha} = 1,$$

and hence  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  are concurrent.

- (iii) Let  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  be the three angle bisectors of  $\Delta$ . By the sines theorem

$$\frac{|BA_1|}{\sin \frac{\alpha}{2}} = \frac{c}{\sin \angle AA_1B}$$

and

$$\frac{|CA_1|}{\sin \frac{\alpha}{2}} = \frac{b}{\sin \angle AA_1C}.$$

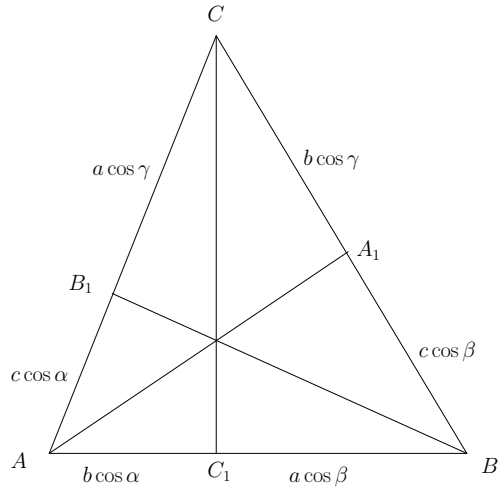


Figure 3: Altitudes

It follows that  $\frac{|BA_1|}{|CA_1|} = \frac{c}{b}$ . Similarly  $\frac{|AC_1|}{|BC_1|} = \frac{b}{a}$  and  $\frac{|CB_1|}{|AB_1|} = \frac{a}{c}$ . Therefore

$$\frac{|AC_1| \cdot |BA_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|BC_1| \cdot |CA_1| \cdot |AB_1|} = \frac{b}{a} \cdot \frac{a}{c} \cdot \frac{c}{b} = 1,$$

and hence  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  are concurrent.

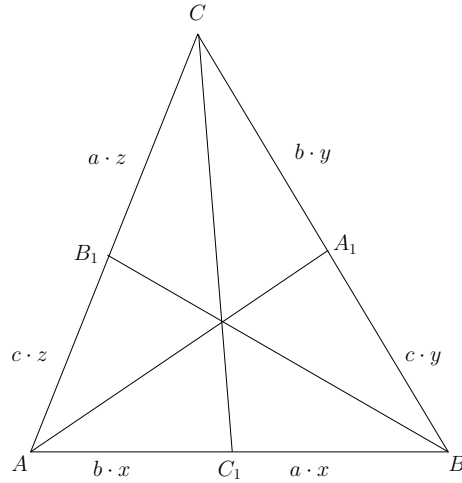


Figure 4: Angle Bisectors

□

For the sequel it will be useful to formulate Ceva's theorem in a different but equivalent form. Fix an arbitrary origin  $O$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $u_A = \overrightarrow{OA}$ ,  $u_B = \overrightarrow{OB}$  and  $u_C = \overrightarrow{OC}$ . Let  $v_A = \overrightarrow{OA_1}$ ,  $v_B = \overrightarrow{OB_1}$  and  $v_C = \overrightarrow{OC_1}$ .

**Claim 1.3.** *The Cevians  $AA_1, BB_1, CC_1$  satisfy (1) iff there exist  $(\lambda_A, \lambda_B, \lambda_C) \in \Delta_2$  such that*

$$\begin{aligned} v_A &= \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_A} (\lambda_B u_B + \lambda_C u_C), \\ v_B &= \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_B} (\lambda_A u_A + \lambda_C u_C), \\ v_C &= \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_C} (\lambda_A u_A + \lambda_B u_B). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

**Proof.** If (2) holds then

$$\frac{|AC_1|}{|BC_1|} = \frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_A}, \quad \frac{|BA_1|}{|CA_1|} = \frac{\lambda_C}{\lambda_B}, \quad \frac{|CB_1|}{|AB_1|} = \frac{\lambda_A}{\lambda_C}.$$

Hence

$$\frac{|AC_1| \cdot |BA_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|BC_1| \cdot |CA_1| \cdot |AB_1|} = \frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_A} \cdot \frac{\lambda_C}{\lambda_B} \cdot \frac{\lambda_A}{\lambda_C} = 1.$$

Conversely, suppose that (1) holds. Let

$$S = |CB_1| \cdot |BC_1| + |AC_1| \cdot |CB_1| + |AB_1| \cdot |BC_1|$$

and let

$$\lambda_A = \frac{|CB_1| \cdot |BC_1|}{S}, \quad \lambda_B = \frac{|AC_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{S}, \quad \lambda_C = \frac{|AB_1| \cdot |BC_1|}{S}.$$

Then

$$\frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_A} = \frac{|AC_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|CB_1| \cdot |BC_1|} = \frac{|AC_1|}{|BC_1|}$$

and

$$\frac{\lambda_C}{\lambda_A} = \frac{|AB_1| \cdot |BC_1|}{|CB_1| \cdot |BC_1|} = \frac{|AB_1|}{|CB_1|}.$$

Moreover, by (1)

$$\frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_C} = \frac{|AC_1| \cdot |CB_1|}{|AB_1| \cdot |BC_1|} = \frac{|CA_1|}{|BA_1|}.$$

hence (2) holds. □

In view of Claim 1.3, Ceva's Theorem 1.2 is equivalent to the following

**Theorem 1.4.** *The Cevians  $\overline{AA_1}$ ,  $\overline{BB_1}$ ,  $\overline{CC_1}$  are concurrent iff there exists a point  $(\lambda_A, \lambda_B, \lambda_C) \in \Delta_2$  such that (2) holds.* □

This version of Ceva's theorem admits a straightforward high dimensional extension. As in the planar case, define a Cevian in a simplex  $\sigma = \text{conv}\{u_i : 0 \leq i \leq k\}$  as a segment  $[u_j, v_j]$  where  $0 \leq j \leq k$  and  $v_j \in \text{conv}\{u_i : 0 \leq i \leq k, i \neq j\}$ .

**Theorem 1.5** (Landy). *Let  $\sigma = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$  be a nondegenerate  $n$ -simplex in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and for  $0 \leq i \leq n$  let  $v_i \in \text{conv}\{u_j : 0 \leq j \leq n, j \neq i\}$ . Then*

$$\bigcap_{i=0}^n [u_i, v_i] \neq \emptyset \tag{3}$$

iff there exist  $\lambda = (\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_n) \in \Delta_n$  such that for all  $0 \leq i \leq n$

$$v_i = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_i} \sum_{j \neq i} \lambda_j u_j. \tag{4}$$

**Proof.** For the direction (4)  $\Rightarrow$  (3), note that if (4) holds then for all  $0 \leq i \leq n$

$$\begin{aligned} p &:= \sum_{j=0}^n \lambda_j u_j = \lambda_i u_i + (1 - \lambda_i) \left( \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_i} \sum_{j \neq i} \lambda_j u_j \right) \\ &= \lambda_i u_i + (1 - \lambda_i) v_i \in [u_i, v_i]. \end{aligned}$$

For the other direction, suppose  $\{[u_i, v_i]\}_{i=0}^n$  are Cevians such that  $\{p\} = \cap_{i=0}^n [u_i, v_i]$ . For  $0 \leq i \leq n$  let  $v_i = \sum_{j=0}^n \lambda_{ij} u_j$  where  $\lambda_{ij} \geq 0$ ,  $\sum_{j=0}^n \lambda_{ij} = 1$  and  $\lambda_{ii} = 0$ , and let  $p = \theta_i u_i + (1 - \theta_i) v_i$ . Let  $p = \sum_{j=0}^n \mu_j u_j$  where  $\mu_i \geq 0$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^n \mu_i = 1$ . Fix  $0 \leq i \leq n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^n \mu_j u_j &= p = \theta_i u_i + (1 - \theta_i) v_i \\ &= \theta_i u_i + (1 - \theta_i) \sum_{j=0}^n \lambda_{ij} u_j \\ &= \theta_i u_i + \sum_{j \neq i} (1 - \theta_i) \lambda_{ij} u_j. \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

It follows that  $\theta_i = \mu_i$  and  $(1 - \theta_i) \lambda_{ij} = \mu_j$  for  $j \neq i$ . Thus

$$v_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \lambda_{ij} u_j = \frac{1}{1 - \mu_i} \sum_{j \neq i} \mu_j u_j.$$

□

The *barycenter* of a simplex  $S = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_k\}$  is  $\frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{i=0}^k u_i$ . The median from  $u_i$  is the Cevian connecting  $u_i$  to the barycenter  $v_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j \neq i} u_j$  of the face  $\text{conv}\{u_j : 0 \leq j \leq k, j \neq i\}$ . Taking  $(\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_n) = (\frac{1}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1})$  in Theorem 1.5 we obtain the following

**Claim 1.6.**

$$\bigcap_{i=0}^n [u_i, v_i] = p = \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i=0}^n u_i.$$

An  $n$ -simplex  $S = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$  is *orthocentric* if all altitudes in  $S$  intersect in a point, called the *orthocenter*. For  $n > 2$ , not every  $n$ -simplex is orthocentric.

**Proposition 1.7.**  $S$  is orthocentric iff there exists a constant  $c$  such that  $(u_i - u_0, u_j - u_0) = c$  for all  $i \neq j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

**Proof.** Suppose  $S$  is orthocentric with orthocenter  $p$ . then for any distinct nonzero  $i, j$

$$0 = (p - u_0, u_i - u_j) = (p - u_0, (u_i - u_0) - (u_j - u_0)).$$

Therefore  $(p - u_0, u_i - u_0) = c$  for all  $i \neq 0$ . Hence

$$(u_i - u_0, u_j - u_0) = ((p - u_0) - (p - u_i), u_j - u_0) = (p - u_0, u_j - u_0) = c.$$

Conversely, suppose  $(u_i - u_0, u_j - u_0) = c$  for all distinct nonzero  $i, j$ . Let  $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^n$  be a basis dual to the basis  $\{u_i - u_0\}_{i=1}^n$ , i.e.  $(v_i, u_j - u_0) = \delta_{ij}$ . We claim that  $p = u_0 + c \sum_{i=1}^n v_i$  is the orthocenter of  $S$ . Indeed, if  $k \neq \ell$  are nonzero, then

$$(p - u_0, u_k - u_\ell) = c \left( \sum_{i=1}^n v_i, u_k - u_\ell \right) = c(1 - 1) = 0.$$

On the other hand

$$\begin{aligned} (p - u_k, u_0 - u_\ell) &= \left( (u_0 - u_k) + c \sum_{i=1}^n v_i, u_0 - u_\ell \right) \\ &= (u_0 - u_k, u_0 - u_\ell) - c \left( \sum_{i=1}^n v_i, u_\ell - u_0 \right) \\ &= c - c = 0. \end{aligned}$$

□

## 1.2 Heron's Formula in $n$ -Space

We start with some remarks on volumes in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $A$  be a bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $1_A$  be the indicator function of  $A$ , i.e.  $1_A(u) = 1$  if  $u \in A$  and  $1_A(u) = 0$  otherwise. Assume that the boundary  $\partial A$  has measure 0. Then  $1_A$  is Riemann integrable and we define  $\text{vol}(A) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} 1_A(x) dx$ . For  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  let

$$P(u_1, \dots, u_n) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i u_i : 0 \leq x_i \leq 1 \right\}$$

denote the parallelogram generated by  $u_1, \dots, u_n$ . The volume of  $P(u_1, \dots, u_n)$  is given by

$$\text{vol}(P(u_1, \dots, u_n)) = |\det(u_1, \dots, u_n)|. \quad (6)$$

Let  $S = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{vol}(S) &= \frac{1}{n!} \text{vol}(P(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0)) \\ &= \frac{1}{n!} |\det(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0)|. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

As an example of volume computation, let us evaluate the volume of a ball  $B(0, r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| \leq r\}$ . First note that by homogeneity,  $\text{vol}(B(0, r)) = \text{vol}(B(0, 1)) := w_n$ . The gamma function defined on  $x > 0$  is given by  $\Gamma(x) = \int_{t=0}^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$ . The beta function defined on  $x > 0, y > 0$  is given by  $B(x, y) = \int_{t=0}^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$ .

### Claim 1.8.

- (i)  $B(x, y) = \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}$  For all  $x, y > 0$
- (ii)  $\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) = \sqrt{\pi}$ .
- (iii)  $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$
- (iv)  $w_n = \frac{\pi^{\frac{n}{2}}}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2}+1)}$ .

Let  $\triangle ABC$  be a triangle in the plane with sides  $a = |BC|, b = |AC|, c = |AB|$ , and let  $s = \frac{a+b+c}{2}$  be its semiperimeter. Heron's formula for the area of the triangle is the following

**Theorem 1.9** (Heron, Archimedes).

$$\text{area}(\triangle ABC) = \sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}. \quad (8)$$

Let  $S = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$  be a  $n$ -simplex in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . For  $0 \leq i, j \leq n$ , let  $d_{ij} = |v_i - v_j|$ . define a symmetric  $(n+2) \times (n+2)$  matrix

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d_{0,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{0,n-1}^2 & d_{0,n}^2 & 1 \\ d_{1,0}^2 & 0 & \cdots & d_{1,n-1}^2 & d_{1,n}^2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ d_{n-1,0}^2 & d_{n-1,1}^2 & \cdots & 0 & d_{n-1,n}^2 & 1 \\ d_{n,0}^2 & d_{n,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{n,n-1}^2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (9)$$

The following high dimensional extension of Heron's formula expresses the volume of  $S$  in terms of the pairwise distances of its vertices.

**Theorem 1.10** (Cayley-Menger).

$$\text{vol}(S) = \left( \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^n (n!)^2} \det D \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (10)$$

**Proof.** Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} & \text{---} & u_0^T & \text{---} & \text{---} & 1 & 0 \\ \text{---} & \text{---} & u_1^T & \text{---} & \text{---} & 1 & 0 \\ & & \vdots & & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \text{---} & \text{---} & u_n^T & \text{---} & \text{---} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (11)$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \cdots & | & | \\ u_0 & u_1 & \cdots & u_n & 0 \\ | & | & \cdots & | & | \\ | & | & \cdots & | & | \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (12)$$

**Claim 1.11.**

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= (-1)^n \det(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0), \\ \det B &= (-1)^{n+1} \det(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} (u_0, u_0) & (u_0, u_1) & \cdots & (u_0, u_{n-1}) & (u_0, u_n) & 1 \\ (u_1, u_0) & (u_1, u_1) & \cdots & (u_1, u_{n-1}) & (u_1, u_n) & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ (u_{n-1}, u_0) & (u_{n-1}, u_1) & \cdots & (u_{n-1}, u_{n-1}) & (u_{n-1}, u_n) & 1 \\ (u_n, u_0) & (u_n, u_1) & \cdots & (u_n, u_{n-1}) & (u_n, u_n) & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (13)$$

Now,

$$(u_i, u_j) = \frac{1}{2} (|u_i|^2 + |u_j|^2 - d_{ij}^2).$$

Thus, by subtracting  $\frac{|u_j|^2}{2}$  times of the last column from the  $j$ -th column, and then subtracting  $\frac{|u_i|^2}{2}$  times of the last row from the  $i$ -th row, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \det(AB) &= \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{d_{0,1}^2}{2} & \cdots & -\frac{d_{0,n-1}^2}{2} & -\frac{d_{0,n}^2}{2} & 1 \\ -\frac{d_{1,0}^2}{2} & 0 & \cdots & -\frac{d_{1,n-1}^2}{2} & -\frac{d_{1,n}^2}{2} & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ -\frac{d_{n-1,0}^2}{2} & -\frac{d_{n-1,1}^2}{2} & \cdots & 0 & -\frac{d_{n-1,n}^2}{2} & 1 \\ -\frac{d_{n,0}^2}{2} & -\frac{d_{n,1}^2}{2} & \cdots & -\frac{d_{n,n-1}^2}{2} & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 4 \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+2} \det D = \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} \det D. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} (n!)^2 \text{vol}(S)^2 &= \text{vol}(P(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0))^2 \\ &= \det(u_1 - u_0, \dots, u_n - u_0)^2 \\ &= -\det(AB) = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^n} \det D. \end{aligned}$$

□

The radius of the circumscribed circle of a triangle is given by

$$\frac{abc}{4\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}}.$$

The high dimensional extension is as follows. Let  $R$  be the radius of the sphere circumscribing the simplex  $S = \text{conv}\{u_0, \dots, u_n\}$  and let

$$D_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d_{0,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{0,n-1}^2 & d_{0,n}^2 \\ d_{1,0}^2 & 0 & \cdots & d_{1,n-1}^2 & d_{1,n}^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ d_{n-1,0}^2 & d_{n-1,1}^2 & \cdots & 0 & d_{n-1,n}^2 \\ d_{n,0}^2 & d_{n,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{n,n-1}^2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (14)$$

**Theorem 1.12.**  $R^2 = -\frac{\det(D_0)}{2\det(D)}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $u_{n+1}$  denote the center of the circumscribing sphere of  $S$ . By adding an  $(n+1)$  fixed coordinate, we may view  $\{u_i\}_{i=0}^{n+1}$  as points in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . Let

$$\tilde{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d_{0,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{0,n-1}^2 & d_{0,n}^2 & R^2 & 1 \\ d_{1,0}^2 & 0 & \cdots & d_{1,n-1}^2 & d_{1,n}^2 & R^2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ d_{n-1,0}^2 & d_{n-1,1}^2 & \cdots & 0 & d_{n-1,n}^2 & R^2 & 1 \\ d_{n,0}^2 & d_{n,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{n,n-1}^2 & 0 & R^2 & 1 \\ R^2 & R^2 & \cdots & R^2 & R^2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (15)$$

The simplex  $\tilde{S} = \text{conv}\{u_i\}_{i=0}^{n+1}$  is degenerate and thus has volume 0. Noting that  $d_{i,n+1}^2 = R^2$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq n$ , it follows from Theorem 1.10 that  $\det \tilde{D} = 0$ . Subtracting  $R^2$  times the  $(n+3)$ -rd column from the  $(n+2)$ -nd column, and then subtracting  $R^2$  times the  $(n+3)$ -rd row from the  $(n+2)$ -nd row, it follows that  $0 = \det \tilde{D} = \det E$ , where

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & d_{0,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{0,n-1}^2 & d_{0,n}^2 & 0 & 1 \\ d_{1,0}^2 & 0 & \cdots & d_{1,n-1}^2 & d_{1,n}^2 & 0 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ d_{n-1,0}^2 & d_{n-1,1}^2 & \cdots & 0 & d_{n-1,n}^2 & 0 & 1 \\ d_{n,0}^2 & d_{n,1}^2 & \cdots & d_{n,n-1}^2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & -2R^2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (16)$$

Expanding  $\det E$  by the  $(n+2)$ -nd row we obtain

$$0 = \det \tilde{D} = \det E = -\det D_0 - 2R^2 \det D,$$

hence  $R^2 = -\frac{\det D_0}{2\det D}$ .

□



### 1.3 Touching Spheres

Let  $C_1 = S(a_1, r_1), \dots, C_{n+2} = S(a_{n+2}, r_{n+2})$  be pairwise touching (i.e. tangent) spheres in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The following result was proved by Descartes for  $n = 2$  and by Gosset for general  $n$ .

**Theorem 1.13** (Descartes, Gosset).

(i) If all  $C_i$ 's touch externally then

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} r_i^{-1} \right)^2 = n \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} r_i^{-2}. \quad (17)$$

(ii) If  $C_1, \dots, C_{n+1}$  touch externally among themselves, and all touch  $C_{n+2}$  internally, then

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} r_i^{-1} - r_{n+2}^{-1} \right)^2 = n \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} r_i^{-2} \quad (18)$$

**Proof.** (i) The assumption that the  $C_i$ 's are externally touching implies that for all  $1 \leq i, j \leq n+2$

$$|a_i - a_j|^2 = (r_i + r_j)^2 - 4\delta_{ij}r_i r_j. \quad (19)$$

The  $a_1, \dots, a_{n+2} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are affinely dependent, i.e. there exists a  $0 \neq (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{n+2}) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+2}$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i = 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i a_i = 0$ . Multiplying (19) by  $\beta_i$  and over all  $i$ 's we obtain

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i |a_i|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i r_i^2 + 2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i r_i \right) r_j - 4\beta_j r_j^2. \quad (20)$$

Let

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i r_i, \quad B = \sum_{i=1}^{n+2} \beta_i (r_i^2 - |a_i|^2).$$

Then (20) implies that for all  $1 \leq j \leq n$

$$4r_j^2 \beta_j = 2Ar_j + B. \quad (21)$$

Dividing (21) by  $r_j$  and summing over all  $j$ 's we obtain

$$4A = 2(n+2)A + B \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j}, \quad (22)$$

i.e.

$$A = -\frac{B}{2n} \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j}. \quad (23)$$

Dividing (21) by  $r_j^2$  and summing over all  $j$ 's we obtain

$$0 = 4 \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \beta_j = 2A \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j} + B \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j^2}. \quad (24)$$

If  $B = 0$  then  $A = 0$  and hence  $\beta_j = 0$  for all  $j$ 's, a contradiction. Hence  $B \neq 0$ . Substituting (23) in (24) we obtain

$$0 = -\frac{B}{n} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j} \right)^2 + B \sum_{j=1}^{n+2} \frac{1}{r_j^2}. \quad (25)$$

Dividing by  $B$  we obtain (17).

□

## 1.4 Inversion

Inversion is the map  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$  given by  $\phi(x) = \frac{x}{|x|^2}$ . Clearly,  $\phi$  is an involution, i.e.  $\phi^2 = I$ . In this section we will study some properties of this map. For  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $r > 0$ , let  $S(a, r) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x - a| = r\}$  be the sphere of radius  $r$  and center  $a$ . For  $0 \neq u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  let  $H_{u,\alpha} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : (x, u) = \alpha\}$  be the hyperplane orthogonal to  $u$  that passes through the point  $\frac{\alpha u}{|u|^2}$ .

### Claim 1.14.

(i)  $\phi$  maps  $H_{u,0} \setminus \{0\}$  bijectively onto itself.

(ii) If  $\alpha \neq 0$  then  $\phi$  maps  $H_{u,\alpha}$  bijectively onto  $S\left(\frac{u}{2\alpha}, \frac{|u|}{2|\alpha|}\right) \setminus \{0\}$ .

(iii) Let  $S(a, r)$  be a sphere that contains 0. Then  $\phi$  maps  $S(a, r) \setminus \{0\}$  onto the hyperplane  $H_{\frac{a}{2|a|^2}, \frac{1}{4|a|^2}}$ .

(iv) Let  $S(a, r)$  be a sphere with  $|a| > r$ . Then  $\phi$  maps  $S(a, r)$  bijectively onto the sphere  $S\left(\frac{a}{|a|^2 - r^2}, \frac{r}{|a|^2 - r^2}\right)$ .

(v) Let  $S(a, r)$  be a sphere with  $|a| < r$ . Then  $\phi$  maps  $S(a, r)$  bijectively onto the sphere  $S\left(\frac{a}{|a|^2 - r^2}, \frac{r}{r^2 - |a|^2}\right)$ .

**Proof.** (i) is clear. (ii) Let  $v \in H_{u,\alpha}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \phi(v) - \frac{u}{2\alpha} \right|^2 &= \left| \frac{v}{|v|^2} - \frac{u}{2\alpha} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{|v|^2} + \frac{|u|^2}{4\alpha^2} - 2 \left( \frac{v}{|v|^2}, \frac{u}{2\alpha} \right) \\ &= \frac{|u|^2}{4\alpha^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

(iii) follows from (ii). To show (iv), suppose that  $|a| > r$  and  $x \in S(a, r)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \phi(x) - \frac{a}{|a|^2 - r^2} \right|^2 &= \left| \frac{x}{|x|^2} - \frac{a}{|a|^2 - r^2} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{|x|^2} + \frac{|a|^2}{(|a|^2 - r^2)^2} - \frac{2(x, a)}{|x|^2 (|a|^2 - r^2)} \\ &= \frac{|a|^2 - r^2 - 2(x, a)}{|x|^2 (|a|^2 - r^2)} + \frac{|a|^2}{(|a|^2 - r^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{|a|^2}{(|a|^2 - r^2)^2} - \frac{|a|^2 - r^2}{(|a|^2 - r^2)^2} \\ &= \left( \frac{r}{|a|^2 - r^2} \right)^2. \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

The proof of (v) is essentially the same. □

## 2 Projective Geometry

### 2.1 The $n$ -Dimensional Projective Space

Let  $V$  be an  $(n + 1)$ -dimensional vector space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ . The projective space  $P(V)$  associated with  $V$  is defined as follows. The *points* of  $P(V)$  are the 1-dimensional linear subspaces of  $V$ . Given a nonzero  $u \in V$ , let  $[u] = \text{span}\{u\}$  denote the line spanned by  $u$ . A *projective subspace* (or flat) of  $P(V)$  is the set  $[U] = \{[u] : 0 \neq u \in U\}$ , where  $U$  is a linear subspace of  $V$ . The *dimension* of  $[U]$  is  $\dim[U] = \dim U - 1$ . When  $V = \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$  and  $0 \neq u = (a_0, \dots, a_n) \in V$ , we denote  $[u]$  by its *homogenous coordinates*  $[a_0, \dots, a_n]$ . The projective space  $P(\mathbb{F}^{n+1})$  is denoted by  $\mathbb{F}P^n$ . Let  $V^*$  denote the dual space of  $V$ . This is the space of linear functionals of  $V$ . The *dual* of  $P(V)$  is  $P(V^*)$ . The *duality map*  $\Phi$  is the bijective map from the

set of projective subspaces of  $P(V)$  to projective subspaces of  $P(V^*)$ , that assigns to a subspace  $P(U)$  of  $P(V)$ , the subspace  $P(U^\circ)$ , where

$$U^\circ = \{\phi \in V^* : \phi(u) = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U\}$$

is the *annihilator* of  $U$ . Note that  $\Phi^2 = \text{Identity}$ , and  $\dim \Phi P(U) = \dim P(V) - \dim P(U)$ . For example, if  $\dim V = 3$  then  $\Phi$  maps points to lines, and lines to points. Furthermore,  $P(U_1) \subset P(U_2)$  iff  $\Phi P(U_1) \supset \Phi P(U_2)$ . This leads to the following

**Duality Principle:** Any true statement concerning incidence in  $P(V)$  gives rise to a true statement in  $P(V^*)$  obtain by replacing any  $P(U)$  by its dual  $\Phi P(U)$ . Consider, for example, the statement: any two distinct points in  $\mathbb{F}P^2$  are contained in a unique line. The dual statement is: Any two distinct lines in  $\mathbb{F}P^2$  intersect in a single point.

Let  $GL(V)$  denote the *general linear group* of  $V$ , i.e. all invertible linear transformations of  $V$ . Let  $Z(V) = \{cI : c \neq 0\}$  be the normal subgroup consisting of all nonzero multiples of the identity. The *projective linear group* is defined as  $PGL(V) = GL(V)/Z(V)$ . The action of  $PGL(V)$  on  $P(V)$  is given as follows. Let  $g \in GL(V)$  and let  $\bar{g}$  be its image in  $PGL(V)$ . Let  $0 \neq u \in V$ . Then  $\bar{g}[v] = [gv]$ . Clearly, if  $[U]$  is a projective subspace of  $P(V)$ , then  $T[U]$  is a projective subspace and  $\dim T[U] = \dim[U]$  for any  $T \in PGL(V)$ . A set  $A \subset P(V)$  is in *general position* such that  $C$  is linearly independent for any  $C \subset A$  of cardinality  $|C| \leq n + 1$ .

**Claim 2.1.** Let  $A = \{p_1, \dots, p_{n+2}\}$  and  $B = \{q_1, \dots, q_{n+2}\}$  be two sets in general position in  $P(V)$ . Then there exists a unique projective transformation  $T \in PGL(V)$  such that  $Tp_i = q_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n + 2$ .

**Proof.** For  $1 \leq i \leq n + 2$  write  $p_i = [u_i]$  and  $q_i = [v_i]$ , where  $u_i, v_i \in V$ . Then both  $u_1, \dots, u_{n+1}$  and  $v_1, \dots, v_{n+2}$  are bases of  $V$ . There exist unique  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{n+1}), (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{n+1}) \in \mathbb{F}^{n+1}$  such that  $u_{n+2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \alpha_i u_i$  and  $v_{n+2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \beta_i v_i$ . By general position,  $\alpha_i \neq 0$  and  $\beta_i \neq 0$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$ . Let  $g \in GL(V)$  be given by  $g(\alpha_i u_i) = \beta_i v_i$ . Then  $T = \bar{g}$  satisfies  $Tp_i = q_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$ . Furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} Tp_{n+2} &= [gu_{n+2}] = \left[ g \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \alpha_i u_i \right] = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} g(\alpha_i u_i) \right] \\ &= \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \beta_i v_i \right] = [v_{n+2}] = q_{n+2}. \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

For the uniqueness, assume that  $Sp_i = q_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n + 2$ , for some  $S = \bar{h}$ . Then there exists nonzero  $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_{n+2}$  such that  $h(\alpha_i u_i) = \gamma_i v_i$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \beta_i v_i \right] &= q_{n+2} = Sp_{n+2} = [hu_{n+2}] \\ &= \left[ h \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \alpha_i u_i \right) \right] = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} h(\alpha_i u_i) \right] = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \gamma_i v_i \right]. \end{aligned} \tag{29}$$

It follows that there exists a  $\theta \neq 0$  such that  $\gamma_i = \theta \beta_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$ . Therefore

$$h(\alpha_i u_i) = \gamma_i u_i = \theta \beta_i v_i = \theta g(\alpha_i u_i).$$

Thus  $S = \bar{h} = \bar{g} = T$ .

□

## 2.2 Desargue and Pappus Theorems

**Theorem 2.2** (Desargue). *Let  $L_1, L_2, L_3$  be three distinct lines in  $\mathbb{F}P^2$  that intersect in a point  $p$ . Consider three pairs of distinct points  $a_1, a_2 \in L_1 \setminus \{p\}$ ,  $b_1, b_2 \in L_2 \setminus \{p\}$  and  $c_1, c_2 \in L_3 \setminus \{p\}$ . Let  $q_1 = \overline{b_1c_1} \cap \overline{b_2c_2}$ ,  $q_2 = \overline{a_1c_1} \cap \overline{a_2c_2}$  and  $q_3 = \overline{a_1b_1} \cap \overline{a_2b_2}$ . Then  $q_1, q_2, q_3$  are collinear.*

**Proof.** We identify a projective point with any of its representatives in  $\mathbb{F}^3 \setminus \{0\}$ . There exist  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \mathbb{F}$  such that

$$p = \alpha_1 a_1 + \alpha_2 a_2 = \beta_1 b_1 + \beta_2 b_2 = \gamma_1 c_1 + \gamma_2 c_2.$$

It follows that  $\alpha_1 a_1 - \beta_1 b_1 = \beta_2 b_2 - \alpha_2 a_2$ . As  $\alpha_1 a_1 - \beta_1 b_1 \in \overline{a_1 b_1}$  and  $\beta_2 b_2 - \alpha_2 a_2 \in \overline{a_2 b_2}$ , it follows that  $q_3 = \alpha_1 a_1 - \beta_1 b_1$ . Similarly  $q_1 = \beta_1 b_1 - \gamma_1 c_1$  and  $q_2 = \gamma_1 c_1 - \alpha_1 a_1$ . Summing the three equalities, we obtain that  $q_1 + q_2 + q_3 = 0$ . Hence  $q_1, q_2, q_3$  are collinear. □

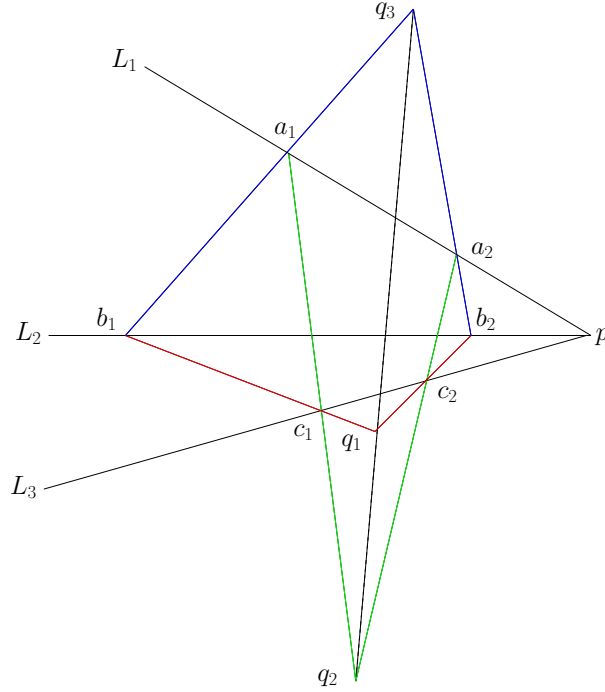


Figure 5: Desargue Theorem

**Remark:** It turns out that the dual to Desargue theorem is the converse to Desargue theorem (check!).

**Theorem 2.3** (Pappus). *Let  $L_1, L_2$  be two distinct lines in  $\mathbb{F}P^2$  and let  $q = L_1 \cap L_2$ . Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  be distinct points in  $L_1 \setminus \{q\}$ , and let  $b_1, b_2, b_3$  be distinct points in  $L_2 \setminus \{q\}$ . Let  $c_1 = \overline{a_2 b_3} \cap \overline{a_3 b_2}$ ,  $c_2 = \overline{a_1 b_3} \cap \overline{a_3 b_1}$  and  $c_3 = \overline{a_1 b_2} \cap \overline{a_2 b_1}$ . Then  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are collinear.*

**Proof.** Without loss of generality, the points  $a_1, b_1, c_1, a_3$  are in general position. We may therefore assume that  $a_1 = [1, 0, 0]$ ,  $b_1 = [0, 1, 0]$ ,  $c_1 = [0, 0, 1]$  and  $a_3 = [1, 1, 1]$ . It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\overline{a_2 c_1}) &= [1, -p, 0], \\ \Phi(\overline{a_1 c_2}) &= [0, 1, -q], \\ \Phi(\overline{b_1 b_2}) &= [-r, 0, 1]. \end{aligned} \tag{30}$$

As

$$\overline{a_2 c_1} \cap \overline{a_1 c_2} \cap \overline{b_1 b_2} = b_3,$$

it follows that

$$0 = \det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -p & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -q \\ -r & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 - pqr.$$

Therefore  $pqr = 1$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\overline{a_2 b_1}) &= [1, 0, -p], \\ \Phi(\overline{a_1 b_2}) &= [0, -r, 1], \\ \Phi(\overline{c_1 c_2}) &= [-q, 1, 0]. \end{aligned} \tag{31}$$

Now

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -p \\ 0 & -r & 1 \\ -q & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -1 + pqr = 0.$$

It follows that

$$\{c_3\} \cap \overline{c_1 c_2} = (\overline{a_2 b_1} \cap \overline{a_1 b_2}) \cap \overline{c_1 c_2}.$$

Thus  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are collinear. □

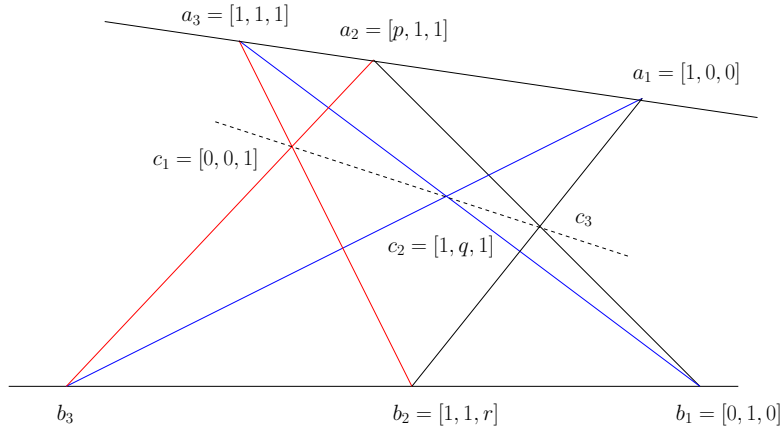


Figure 6: Pappus Theorem: first proof

We next give a different proof of Pappus theorem. We need some preliminaries. Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ . For subsets  $I = \{i_1 < \dots < i_k\}, J = \{j_1 < \dots < j_k\} \subset [n]$ , let  $B = A[I, J] \in M_k(\mathbb{F})$  be given by  $B_{st} = A_{i_s j_t}$ . For a subset  $K \subset [n]$ , let  $\overline{K} = [n] \setminus K$ . For a partition  $[n] = I \cup \overline{I}$  where  $I = \{i_1 < \dots < i_k\}, \overline{I} = \{j_1 < \dots < j_{n-k}\}$ , let

$$\sigma_{I, \overline{I}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & k & k+1 & \dots & n \\ i_1 & \dots & i_k & j_1 & \dots & j_{n-k} \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Proposition 2.4** (Laplace Expansion). *Let  $K \cup \overline{K}$  be a partition of  $[n]$  with  $|K| = k$ , and let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{F})$ . Then*

$$\det A = \sum_{I \in \binom{[n]}{k}} \text{sgn}(\sigma_{I, \overline{I}}) \det A[K, I] \cdot \det A[\overline{K}, \overline{I}]. \tag{32}$$

For vectors  $u_1, \dots, u_n \in \mathbb{F}^n$  we abbreviate  $[u_1, \dots, u_n] = \det(u_1, \dots, u_n)$ .

**Proposition 2.5** (Plücker relation). *Let  $u_1, \dots, u_4 \in \mathbb{F}^2$ . Then*

$$[u_1, u_2] \cdot [u_3, u_4] - [u_1, u_3] \cdot [u_2, u_4] + [u_1, u_4] \cdot [u_2, u_3] = 0. \tag{33}$$

**Proof.** Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & u_4 \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & u_4 \end{bmatrix} \in M_4(\mathbb{F}).$$

Then  $\text{rk}(A) \leq 2$ , so in particular  $\det A = 0$ . On the other hand, by Proposition 2.4:

$$\det A = 2([u_1, u_2] \cdot [u_3, u_4] - [u_1, u_3] \cdot [u_2, u_4] + [u_1, u_4] \cdot [u_2, u_3]).$$

□

**Corollary 2.6.** *Let  $u_0, \dots, u_4 \in \mathbb{F}^3$ . Then:*

$$[u_0, u_1, u_2] \cdot [u_0, u_3, u_4] - [u_0, u_1, u_3] \cdot [u_0, u_2, u_4] + [u_0, u_1, u_4] \cdot [u_0, u_2, u_3] = 0. \quad (34)$$

**Proof.** For  $u_0 = e_1$ , Eq. (34) follows from (33). In general, Let  $T \in GL_3(\mathbb{F})$  such that  $Tu_0 = e_1$ . Then

$$0 = [Tu_0, Tu_1, Tu_2] \cdot [Tu_0, Tu_3, Tu_4] - [Tu_0, Tu_1, Tu_3] \cdot [Tu_0, Tu_2, Tu_4] + [Tu_0, Tu_1, Tu_4] \cdot [Tu_0, Tu_2, Tu_3]$$

$$= \det(T)^2 ([u_0, u_1, u_2] \cdot [u_0, u_3, u_4] - [u_0, u_1, u_3] \cdot [u_0, u_2, u_4] + [u_0, u_1, u_4] \cdot [u_0, u_2, u_3]).$$

□

**Another proof of Pappus Theorem.**

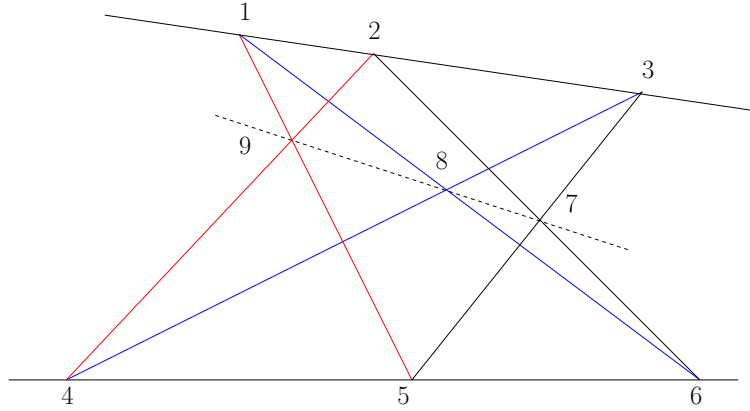


Figure 7: Pappus Theorem: second proof

Using the Plücker relation for each of the 8 lines in the configuration we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} [147] \cdot [123] - [142] \cdot [173] + [143] \cdot [172] &= 0 \Rightarrow [142] \cdot [173] = [143] \cdot [172], \\ [147] \cdot [159] - [145] \cdot [179] + [149] \cdot [175] &= 0 \Rightarrow [145] \cdot [179] = [149] \cdot [175], \\ [147] \cdot [186] - [148] \cdot [176] + [146] \cdot [178] &= 0 \Rightarrow [148] \cdot [176] = [146] \cdot [178], \\ [471] \cdot [456] - [475] \cdot [416] + [476] \cdot [415] &= 0 \Rightarrow [475] \cdot [416] = [476] \cdot [415], \\ [471] \cdot [483] - [478] \cdot [413] + [473] \cdot [418] &= 0 \Rightarrow [478] \cdot [413] = [473] \cdot [418], \\ [471] \cdot [429] - [472] \cdot [419] + [479] \cdot [412] &= 0 \Rightarrow [472] \cdot [419] = [479] \cdot [412], \\ [714] \cdot [726] - [712] \cdot [746] + [716] \cdot [742] &= 0 \Rightarrow [712] \cdot [746] = [716] \cdot [742], \\ [714] \cdot [753] - [715] \cdot [743] + [713] \cdot [745] &= 0 \Rightarrow [715] \cdot [743] = [713] \cdot [745]. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying the columns and cancelling equal terms, we obtain

$$[719] \cdot [748] = [718] \cdot [749].$$

On the other hand

$$[714] \cdot [789] - [719] \cdot [748] + [718] \cdot [749] = 0.$$

Hence  $[789] = 0$  and therefore 7, 8, 9 are collinear.

□

## 2.3 Conic Sections and Quadratic Forms

Consider the cone  $C = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : z^2 = x^2 + y^2\}$ . A *conic section* is the intersection of  $C$  with a plane  $H$ . There are several possibilities.

1.  $H = e_3^\perp$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the single point  $\{0\}$ .
2.  $H = e_2^\perp$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the two intersecting lines  $\text{span}(e_1 - e_3) \cup \text{span}(e_1 + e_3)$ .
3.  $H = (e_1 - e_3)^\perp$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the line  $\text{span}\{e_1 + e_3\}$ .
4.  $H = H_{e_1, 1}$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the hyperbola  $\{(1, y, z) : 1 + y^2 = z^2\}$ .
5.  $H = H_{e_1+e_3, -1}$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the parabola  $\{\frac{y^2-1}{2}, y, -\frac{y^2+1}{2}\} : y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
6.  $H = H_{e_3, 1}$ . Then  $H \cap C$  is the circle  $\{(x, y, 1) : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$ .

Let  $A$  be a real symmetric matrix in  $M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . The associated quadratic form is  $q_A(x) = x^T A x$ . Two symmetric matrices  $A$  and  $B$  are *congruent* if there exists a matrix  $P \in GL_n(\mathbb{R})$  such that  $B = PAP^T$ . Let  $n_+$  ( $n_-$ ) be the number of positive (negative) eigenvalues of  $A$ . The *signature* of  $A$  is  $(n_+, n_-)$ .

**Proposition 2.7** (Sylvester's Inertia Theorem). *Let  $A, B \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$  be symmetric. Then:*

(i)  *$A$  is congruent to a diagonal matrix  $D_{n_+, n_-} = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$  where*

$$d_i = \begin{cases} +1 & 1 \leq i \leq n_+ \\ -1 & n_+ + 1 \leq i \leq n_+ + n_- \\ 0 & n_+ + n_- + 1 \leq i \leq n. \end{cases}$$

(ii)  *$A$  and  $B$  are congruent iff they have the same rank and the same signature.*

**Proof.** (i) Let  $n_+, n_-$  denote respectively the number of positive and negative eigenvalues of  $A$ . Let  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^n$  denote the eigenvalues of  $A$ . We may assume that  $\lambda_i > 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n_+$  and  $\lambda_i < 0$  for  $n_+ + 1 \leq i \leq n_+ + n_-$ . Let  $S \in O(n)$  such that  $SAS^{-1} = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ . Let

$$\mu_i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}} & 1 \leq i \leq n_+ \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\lambda_i}} & n_+ + 1 \leq i \leq n_+ + n_- \\ 1 & n_+ + n_- + 1 \leq i \leq n. \end{cases}$$

and let  $T = \text{diag}(\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n)S$ . Then  $TAT^t$  is of the required form. (ii) It suffices to show that if  $A = D_{n_+, n_-}$  is congruent to  $B = D_{m_+, m_-}$  then  $(n_+, n_-) = (m_+, m_-)$ . Clearly,  $n_+ + n_- = \text{rk}(A) = \text{rk}(B) = m_+ + m_-$ . Write  $B = TAT^t$ , and let  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  be the rows of  $T$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m_+} x_i^2 - \sum_{i=m_++1}^{m_++m_-} x_i^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n_+} (u_j \cdot x)^2 - \sum_{j=n_++1}^{n_++n_-} (u_j \cdot x)^2. \quad (35)$$

Suppose for contradiction that  $(n_+, n_-) \neq (m_+, m_-)$ . We may assume that  $n_+ > m_+$ . As  $m_+ + (n - n_+) < n$ , there exists a nonzero  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\theta_i = 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m_+$  and  $u_j \cdot \theta = 0$  for  $j > n_+$ . It follows that the left hand side of (35) is negative, while the right hand side of (35) is non-negative, a contradiction.

□

Let  $A \in M_{n+1}(\mathbb{R})$  be a symmetric matrix with a quadratic form  $q_A(x)$ . The corresponding quadratic  $(n - 1)$ -dimensional surface is  $Q_A = \{[x] \in \mathbb{R}P^n : q_A(x) = 0\}$ . Sets  $S_1, S_2 \subset \mathbb{P}(V)$  are *projectively equivalent* if there exists a projective transformation  $T \in PGL(V)$  such that  $TS_1 = S_2$ .

**Claim 2.8.**  *$Q_A$  and  $Q_B$  are projectively equivalent iff  $A$  is congruent to either  $B$  or to  $-B$ .*

**Proof.** If  $B = P^T A P$  for  $P \in GL_{n+1}(\mathbb{R})$  then

$$[x] \in Q_B \Leftrightarrow x^T B x = 0 \Leftrightarrow (P x)^T A (P x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow P x \in Q_A \Leftrightarrow [x] \in P^{-1} Q_A.$$

Hence  $Q_B = P^{-1} Q_A$ . If  $-B = P^T A P$  then  $Q_B = Q_{-B} = P^{-1} Q_A$ . Conversely, suppose  $Q_B = T Q_A$  for some  $T \in PGL_{n+1}(\mathbb{R})$ . It follows that there exist two bases  $u_1, \dots, u_{n+1}$  and  $v_1, \dots, v_{n+1}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k (u_i x)^2 - \sum_{i=k+1}^{k+\ell} (u_i x)^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{k'} (v_i x)^2 - \sum_{i=k'+1}^{k'+\ell'} (v_i x)^2 = 0. \quad (36)$$

By replacing  $B$  with  $-B$  if necessary, we may assume that  $k \geq \ell$  and  $k' \geq \ell'$ . We claim that  $k = k'$  and  $\ell = \ell'$  and therefore  $A$  is congruent to  $B$ . Indeed, suppose to the contrary that  $k > k'$ . Then there exists a nonzero  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  such that

- $v_i x = v_{i+k'} x$  for  $1 \leq i \leq \ell'$ .
- $v_i x = 0$  for  $\ell' + 1 \leq i \leq k'$ .
- $u_i x = 0$  for  $k + 1 \leq i \leq n + 1$ .

It follows that there exists an  $1 \leq i_0 \leq k$  such that  $u_{i_0} x \neq 0$ , and then the right hand side of (36) is zero, while the left hand side is positive, a contradiction. Thus  $k = k'$ . The proof that  $\ell = \ell'$  is similar. □

Using Proposition 2.7 and Claim 2.8, quadrics in  $\mathbb{P}^2 \mathbb{R}$  are classified as follows:

$n_+$	$n_-$	equation	quadric
1	0	$x^2 = 0$	double line: $x = 0$
1	1	$x^2 - y^2 = 0$	two lines: $x = y$ and $x = -y$
3	0	$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 0$	$\emptyset$
2	1	$x^2 + y^2 = z^2$	ellipse



**Proposition 2.9.** *Let  $S = \{p_1, \dots, p_5\}$  be 5 points in general position in  $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{R})$ . Then there exists a unique quadric  $Q_A$  that contains  $S$ .*

**Proof.** By Claim 2.1 we may assume that  $p_i = [e_i]$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3$  and  $p_4 = [1, 1, 1]$ . Let  $p_5 = [\alpha, \beta, \gamma]$ . Then  $\alpha\beta\gamma \neq 0$  and the unique quadric containing  $S$  is

$$f(x, y, z) = (\beta - \gamma)\alpha yz + (\gamma - \alpha)\beta xz + (\alpha - \beta)\gamma xy.$$

□

## 2.4 Cross-Ratios and Pascal's Theorem

Let  $U$  be 2-dimensional space over  $\mathbb{F}$ , and let  $p, q, r, s \in P(U)$  such that  $p, q, r$  are distinct. The *cross-ratio*  $(p, q; r, s)$  is defined as follows. Write  $p = [u], q = [v], r = [w], s = [w']$ . Let  $w = \alpha u + \beta v$  and  $w' = \alpha' u + \beta' v$ . Note that  $\alpha, \beta \neq 0$ , and if  $\beta' = 0$  then  $\alpha' \neq 0$ . Then

$$(p, q; r, s) = \frac{\alpha' \cdot \beta}{\alpha \cdot \beta'} \in \mathbb{F} \cup \{\infty\}. \quad (37)$$

It is straightforward to check that  $(p, q; r, s)$  is well defined and that if  $T \in PGL(V)$  then  $(Tp, Tq; Tr, Ts) = (p, q; r, s)$ . Pick an arbitrary basis  $z_1, z_2$  for  $U$ . For an element  $u = \lambda_1 z_1 + \lambda_2 z_2$ , let  $\varphi(u) = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \in \mathbb{F} \cup \{\infty\}$ .

**Claim 2.10.**

$$(p, q; r, s) = \frac{(\varphi(p) - \varphi(r)) \cdot (\varphi(q) - \varphi(s))}{(\varphi(p) - \varphi(s))(\varphi(q) - \varphi(r))}. \quad (38)$$

**Proof.** Let  $p = [u], q = [v], r = [w], s = [w']$ . Write  $u = a_1 z_1 + a_2 z_2$ ,  $v = b_1 z_1 + b_2 z_2$ ,  $w = c_1 z_1 + c_2 z_2$ , and  $w' = d_1 z_1 + d_2 z_2$ . Let  $r = \alpha u + \beta v$  and  $s = \alpha' u + \beta' v$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 z_1 + c_2 z_2 = w = \alpha u + \beta v &= \alpha(a_1 z_1 + a_2 z_2) + \beta(b_1 z_1 + b_2 z_2) \\ &= (a_1 \alpha + b_1 \beta) z_1 + (a_2 \alpha + b_2 \beta) z_2. \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} d_1 z_1 + d_2 z_2 = w' = \alpha' u + \beta' v &= \alpha'(a_1 z_1 + a_2 z_2) + \beta'(b_1 z_1 + b_2 z_2) \\ &= (a_1 \alpha' + b_1 \beta') z_1 + (a_2 \alpha' + b_2 \beta') z_2. \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

It follows that

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha' \\ \beta' \end{bmatrix}. \quad (41)$$

Using Cramer's rule it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\alpha}{\beta} &= \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & b_1 \\ c_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & c_2 \end{bmatrix}} = \frac{c_1 b_2 - c_2 b_1}{a_1 c_2 - a_2 c_1}, \\ \frac{\alpha'}{\beta'} &= \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & b_1 \\ d_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & d_2 \end{bmatrix}} = \frac{d_1 b_2 - d_2 b_1}{a_1 d_2 - a_2 d_1}. \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{(\varphi(p) - \varphi(r)) \cdot (\varphi(q) - \varphi(s))}{(\varphi(p) - \varphi(s))(\varphi(q) - \varphi(r))} &= \frac{\left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} - \frac{c_1}{c_2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b_1}{b_2} - \frac{d_1}{d_2}\right)}{\left(\frac{a_1}{a_2} - \frac{d_1}{d_2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b_1}{b_2} - \frac{c_1}{c_2}\right)} \\
&= \frac{(a_1c_2 - a_2c_1) \cdot (b_1d_2 - b_2d_1)}{(a_1d_2 - a_2d_1) \cdot (b_1c_2 - b_2c_1)} \\
&= \frac{(a_1c_2 - a_2c_1) \cdot (b_1d_2 - b_2d_1)}{(a_1d_2 - a_2d_1) \cdot (b_1c_2 - b_2c_1)} \\
&= \frac{\alpha'\beta}{\alpha\beta'} = (p, q; r, s).
\end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

□

**Proposition 2.11.** *Let  $a, b, c, d$  distinct points on a line  $\ell$ , and let  $p \notin \ell$ , all in the projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{F})$ . Let  $\overline{pa}, \overline{pb}, \overline{pc}, \overline{pd}$  be the four lines through  $p$ , and let  $a_1, b_1, c_1, d_1$  be their dual points. Then  $(a_1, b_1; c_1, d_1) = (a, b; c, d)$ . In particular, if  $\ell'$  is another line that does not contain  $p$ , and  $\ell' \cap \overline{pa} = a'$ ,  $\ell' \cap \overline{pb} = b'$ ,  $\ell' \cap \overline{pc} = c'$ ,  $\ell' \cap \overline{pd} = d'$ , then  $(a, b; c, d) = (a', b'; c', d')$ .*

**Proof.** Write  $p = [w]$ ,  $a = [u]$ ,  $b = [v]$ ,  $c = [\alpha u + \beta v]$ ,  $d = [\alpha' u + \beta' v]$ . Let  $a_1 = [u_1]$ ,  $b_1 = [v_1]$ . Thus  $u_1 \perp u, w$  and  $v_1 \perp v, w$ . It follows that  $c_1 = \alpha_1 u_1 + \beta_1 v_1$  and  $d_1 = \alpha'_1 u_1 + \beta'_1 v_1$ , where  $\alpha_1 = \alpha(v_1 \cdot u)$ ,  $\beta_1 = -\beta(u_1 \cdot v)$ , and  $\alpha'_1 = \alpha'(v_1 \cdot u)$ ,  $\beta'_1 = -\beta'(u_1 \cdot v)$  (check!). It follows that

$$(a_1, b_1; c_1, d_1) = \frac{\alpha'_1 \beta_1}{\alpha_1 \beta'_1} = \frac{\alpha' \beta}{\alpha \beta'} = (a, b; c, d).$$

□

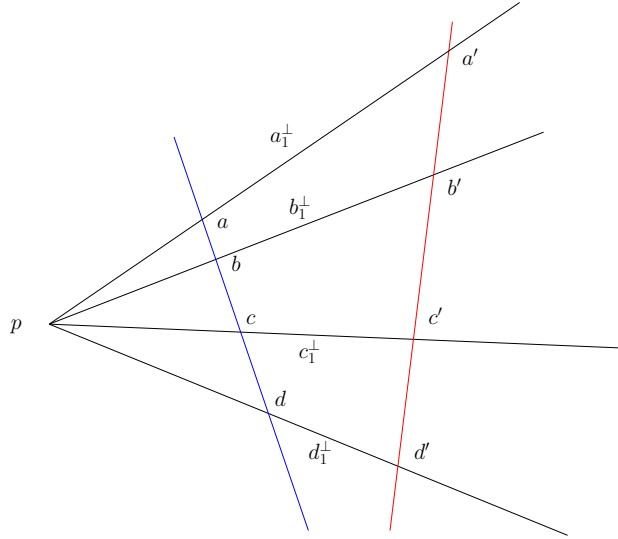


Figure 8:  $(a, b; c, d) = (a_1, b_1; c_1, d_1) = (a', b'; c', d')$

For four intersecting lines  $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{F})$ , define

$$(\ell_1, \ell_2; \ell_3, \ell_4) = (\Phi(\ell_1), \Phi(\ell_2); \Phi(\ell_3), \Phi(\ell_4)).$$

The dual form of Proposition 2.11 is the following

**Proposition 2.12.** *Let  $a, b, c, d$  be points on a line  $\ell$  and let  $p, q \notin \ell$ . Then*

$$(\overline{pa}, \overline{pb}; \overline{pc}, \overline{pd}) = (a, b; c, d) = (\overline{qa}, \overline{qb}; \overline{qc}, \overline{qd}).$$

The following result is a version of Proposition 2.12, where the degenerate conic  $\ell$  is replaced by a nonsingular conic.

**Proposition 2.13.** *Let  $p, q, a, b, c, d$  be distinct points on a nonsingular conic  $C$ . Then*

$$(\overline{pa}, \overline{pb}; \overline{pc}, \overline{pd}) = (\overline{qa}, \overline{qb}; \overline{qc}, \overline{qd}). \quad (44)$$

**Proof.** Let  $\overline{pa} = u_a^\perp$ ,  $\overline{pb} = u_b^\perp$ ,  $\overline{pc} = (u_a + u_b)^\perp$ ,  $\overline{qa} = v_a^\perp$ ,  $\overline{qb} = v_b^\perp$ ,  $\overline{qc} = (v_a + v_b)^\perp$ . It follows that  $C = \{[x] \in \mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{R}) : f(x) = 0\}$  where

$$f(x) = (u_a x) \cdot (v_b x) - (u_b x) \cdot (v_a x).$$

Let  $\overline{pd} = (\alpha u_a + \beta u_b)^\perp$  and  $\overline{qd} = (\alpha' v_a + \beta' v_b)^\perp$ . Then  $\alpha(u_a d) + \beta(u_b d) = 0$  and  $\alpha'(v_a d) + \beta'(v_b d) = 0$ . On the other hand  $(u_a d) \cdot (v_b d) = (u_b d)(v_a d)$ . Therefore

$$(\overline{pa}, \overline{pb}; \overline{pc}, \overline{pd}) = \frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \frac{\alpha'}{\beta'} = (\overline{qa}, \overline{qb}; \overline{qc}, \overline{qd}).$$

□

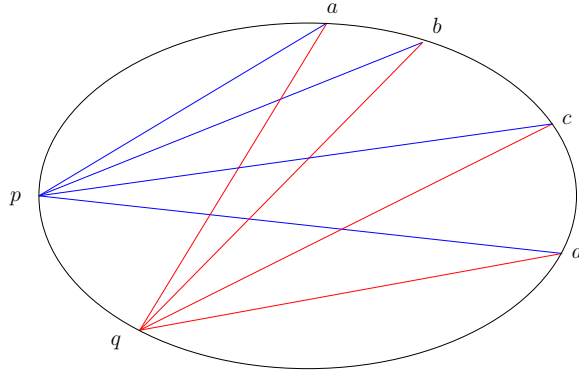


Figure 9:  $(\overline{pa}, \overline{pb}; \overline{pc}, \overline{pd}) = (\overline{qa}, \overline{qb}; \overline{qc}, \overline{qd})$

**Theorem 2.14** (Pascal). *Let  $C$  be a nonsingular quadric in  $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{R})$ , and let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3$  be distinct points on  $C$ . Then the points  $c_1 = a_3b_2 \cap a_2b_3$ ,  $c_2 = a_1b_3 \cap a_3b_1$  and  $c_3 = a_1b_2 \cap a_2b_1$  are collinear.*

**Proof.** Let  $s = a_3b_2 \cap a_1b_3$ ,  $t = a_3b_1 \cap a_1b_2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (a_3, c_1; s, b_2) &= (b_3a_3, b_3c_1; b_3s, b_3b_2) = (b_3a_3, b_3a_2; b_3a_1, b_3b_2) \\ &= (b_1a_3, b_1a_2; b_1a_1, b_1b_2) = (b_1t, b_1c_3; b_1a_1, b_1b_2) \\ &= (t, c_3; a_1, b_2). \end{aligned} \tag{45}$$

Therefore

$$(c_2a_3, c_2c_1; c_2s, c_2b_2) = (c_2t, c_2c_3; c_2a_1, c_2b_2) = (c_2a_3, c_2c_3; c_2s, c_2b_2). \tag{46}$$

It follows that  $c_2c_1 = c_2c_3$ , i.e.  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are collinear. □

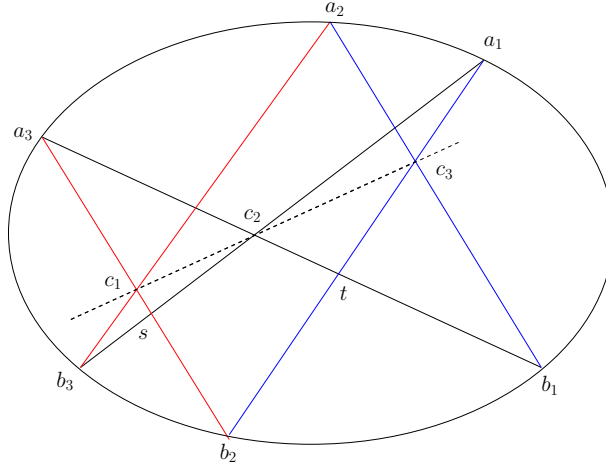


Figure 10: Pascal Theorem:  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are collinear

## 2.5 Metric Aspects of $\mathbb{P}^2(\mathbb{R})$

Let  $L(\gamma)$  denote the length of a path  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ . Define a metric on the unit sphere  $S^2$  by  $d(u, v) = \min L(\gamma)$  where  $\gamma$  ranges over all  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow S^2$  such that  $\gamma(0) = u, \gamma(1) = v$ .

**Claim 2.15.**  $d(u, v) = \arccos(u \cdot v)$ .

**Proof.** We may assume that  $u = (0, 0, 1)$  and  $v = (\sin \alpha, 0, \cos \alpha)$ . Let  $\gamma$  be a path in  $S^2$  between  $u$  and  $v$ , and write

$$\gamma(t) = (\sin(\phi(t)) \cos(\theta(t)), \sin(\phi(t)) \sin(\theta(t)), \cos(\phi(t))),$$

where  $\phi(0) = 0, \phi(1) = \alpha, \theta(0) = \theta(1) = 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(\gamma) &= \int_{t=0}^1 |\dot{\gamma}(t)| dt = \int_{t=0}^1 \sqrt{\dot{\phi}(t)^2 + \theta(t)^2 \sin^2 \phi(t)} dt \\ &\geq \int_{t=0}^1 |\dot{\phi}(t)| dt \geq \int_{t=0}^1 \dot{\phi}(t) dt = \phi(1) - \phi(0) = \alpha. \end{aligned} \tag{47}$$

□

For a point  $u \in S^2$ , let  $A_u^+ = \{v \in S^2 : u \cdot v > 0\}$ ,  $A_u^- = \{v \in S^2 : u \cdot v < 0\}$ . Let  $u_1, u_2, u_3$  be distinct points in  $S^2$ , and consider the interior  $B = \cap_{i=1}^3 A_{u_i}^+$  of the spherical triangle determined by  $u_1, u_2, u_3$ . Let  $\alpha_i$  be the angle between  $u_j, u_k$  where  $\{i, j, k\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

**Claim 2.16.**  $\mu(B) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i - \pi$ .

**Proof.** Let  $B_{ij} = A_{u_i}^+ \cap A_{u_j}^+$ . Then  $\mu(B_{ij}) = 2\alpha_k$  where  $\{i, j, k\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Let  $C = \cup_{1 \leq i < j \leq 3} B_{ij}$ . Then  $C \cup (-C) = S^2 \setminus \partial B$  is a partition. It follows that  $\mu(C) = 2\pi$ . On the other hand,

$$\mu(C) = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq 3} \mu(B_{ij}) - 2\mu(B) = 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i - 2\mu(B).$$

It follows that  $2\pi = 2 \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i - 2\mu(B)$ . □

We recall the cross product in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . For  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$ , let  $u \times v$  be the unique element of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that for  $\det(u, v, x) = (u \times v) \cdot x$  for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . Then  $u \times v \perp u, v$  and  $|u \times v| = |u| \cdot |v| \cdot \sin \alpha$  where  $\alpha$  is the angle between  $u$  and  $v$ .

**Claim 2.17.**

(i)  $(u_1 \times u_2) \times v = -(v \cdot u_2)u_1 + (v \cdot u_1)u_2$ .

(ii)  $(u_1 \times u_2) \cdot (v_1 \times v_2) = (u_1 \cdot v_1) \cdot (u_2 \cdot v_2) - (u_1 \cdot v_2) \cdot (u_2 \cdot v_1)$ .

Let  $T$  be a spherical triangle with vertices  $u, v, w \in S^2$ . Let  $d(v, w) = a, d(u, w) = b, d(u, v) = c$  and let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be the angles at  $u, v, w$  respectively.

**Proposition 2.18** (Spherical Cosine Formula).

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{\cos c - \cos a \cos b}{\sin a \sin b}. \quad (48)$$

**Proof.** We have  $|v \times w| = \sin a, |u \times w| = \sin b$ . It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \cos c - \cos a \cos b &= u \cdot v - (u \cdot w)(w \cdot v) \\ &= (u \times w) \cdot (v \times w) = |u \times w| \cdot |v \times w| \cdot \cos \gamma \\ &= \sin a \sin b \cos \gamma. \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

□

**Corollary 2.19** (Spherical Pythagoras Theorem). *If  $\gamma = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then  $\cos c = \cos a \cos b$ .*

**Proposition 2.20** (Spherical Sine Formula). *Let  $V$  be the volume of the parallelepiped spanned by  $u, v, w$ . Then*

$$\frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 a} = \frac{\sin^2 \beta}{\sin^2 b} = \frac{\sin^2 \gamma}{\sin^2 c} = \frac{V^2}{\sin^2 a \cdot \sin^2 b \cdot \sin^2 c}. \quad (50)$$

**Proof.** We may assume that  $u = (0, 0, 1)$  and  $v = (\sin c, 0, \cos c)$ . Then  $w = (\sin b \cos \alpha, \sin b \sin \alpha, \cos b)$ . It follows that

$$V^2 = \det(u, v, w)^2 = \det \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \sin c & 0 & \cos c \\ \sin b \cos \alpha & \sin b \sin \alpha & \cos b \end{bmatrix}^2 = \sin^2 c \cdot \sin^2 b \cdot \sin^2 \alpha.$$

Similarly

$$V^2 = \sin^2 a \cdot \sin^2 b \cdot \sin^2 \gamma = \sin^2 a \cdot \sin^2 c \cdot \sin^2 \beta.$$

This implies (50). □

Define a function on  $d : \mathbb{P}^2 \times \mathbb{P}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$d([u], [v]) = \arccos \left( \frac{|u \cdot v|}{|u| \cdot |v|} \right).$$

**Proposition 2.21.**  $d(\cdot, \cdot)$  defines a metric on  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .

### 3 The Hyperbolic Plane

We first recall the following (abridged) definition of Riemannian metrics. Let  $U$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $S(x) = (s_{ij}(x))_{i,j=1}^n$  be a positive definite symmetric matrix, where the  $s_{ij} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are smooth functions. For a smooth curve  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow U$ , define the length of  $\gamma$  with respect to  $S$  by

$$L(\gamma) = \int_a^b (\dot{\gamma}(t)^T S(\gamma(t)) \dot{\gamma}(t))^{\frac{1}{2}} dt. \quad (51)$$

It can be checked that  $L(\gamma)$  is independent of the parametrization of  $\gamma$ . The Riemannian distance determined by  $S(x)$  is given by  $d(p, q) = \inf_{\gamma} L(\gamma)$ , where  $\gamma$  ranges over all smooth paths  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow U$  with  $\gamma(0) = p, \gamma(1) = q$ . The Riemannian volume of  $A \subset U$  is given by

$$\text{vol}(A) = \int_A \sqrt{\det S(x)} dx.$$

In this section we will study two models of the hyperbolic plane using the relevant Riemannian metrics.

#### 3.1 The Upper Half Plane Model

The points of the *Hyperbolic Plane* is the set  $\mathbb{H} = \{(x, y) : y > 0\}$ . The hyperbolic lines are of two types:

- $\ell = \{(x_0, y) : y > 0\}$  for some  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- $\ell = \{(x, y) : (x - x_0)^2 + y^2 = r_0^2, y > 0\}$  for some  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < r_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Claim 3.1.** *Any two distinct points in  $\mathbb{H}$  are contained in a unique line. For any line  $\ell$  and  $p \notin \ell$  there exist infinitely many lines through  $p$  that are disjoint from  $\ell$ .*

The metric of the hyperbolic plane is defined by the matrix  $S(x, y) = \frac{1}{y^2} I$ . Thus the hyperbolic length of  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  where  $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$  is given by

$$L_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma) = \int_a^b \frac{\sqrt{\dot{x}(t)^2 + \dot{y}(t)^2}}{y(t)} dt.$$

The hyperbolic area of  $A \subset \mathbb{H}$  is given by

$$\text{area}_{\mathbb{H}}(A) = \int_{(x,y) \in A} \frac{dx dy}{y^2}.$$

We will show that the shortest path between  $p, q \in \mathbb{H}$  is attained by the hyperbolic segment connecting these two points. For example, if  $0 < a < b$  and  $p = (x_0, a), q = (x_0, b)$  and  $\gamma(t) = (x_0, t)$  for  $0 < a \leq t \leq b$ , then

$$d_{\mathbb{H}}(p, q) = L_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma) = \int_a^b \frac{dt}{t} = \ln \frac{b}{a}.$$

In the sequel, we identify  $\mathbb{H}$  with  $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Im } z > 0\}$ . Let  $SL_2(\mathbb{R}) = \{A \in GL_2(\mathbb{R}) : \det A = 1\}$  and let  $PSL_2(\mathbb{R}) = SL_2(\mathbb{R})/\pm I$ .  $g = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \in PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$  acts on  $\mathbb{H}$  by fractional linear transformation  $g(z) = \frac{az+b}{cz+d}$ .

**Claim 3.2.**  *$PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$  transforms lines into lines.*

**Claim 3.3.** *Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{H}$  be a smooth path and let  $g \in PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$ . Then  $L_{\mathbb{H}}(g(\gamma)) = L_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma)$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $\Gamma(t) = g(\gamma(t))$ . Then

$$\Gamma'(t) = \frac{(ad - bc)\gamma'(t)}{(c\gamma(t) + d)^2} = \frac{\gamma'(t)}{(c\gamma(t) + d)^2}.$$

On the other hand

$$\operatorname{Im} \Gamma(t) = \frac{(ad - bc)}{|c\gamma(t) + d|^2} \cdot \operatorname{Im} \gamma(t) = \frac{\operatorname{Im} \gamma(t)}{|c\gamma(t) + d|^2}.$$

It follows that

$$\frac{|\Gamma'(t)|}{\operatorname{Im} \Gamma(t)} = \frac{|\gamma'(t)|}{\operatorname{Im} \gamma(t)}.$$

□

The *hyperbolic distance*  $d_{\mathbb{H}}(p, q)$  between two point  $p, q \in \mathbb{H}$  is defined as  $d_{\mathbb{H}}(z, w) = \inf L_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma)$  where the infimum is taken over all paths  $\gamma$  in  $\mathbb{H}$  with endpoints  $z, w$ .

**Proposition 3.4.**

$$d_{\mathbb{H}}(z, w) = \ln \frac{|z - \bar{w}| + |z - w|}{|z - \bar{w}| - |z - w|}. \quad (52)$$

**Proof.** Note that both sides are invariant under the action of  $PSL_2(\mathbb{R})$ . If  $z = ip$  and  $w = iq$  then (52) can be checked directly. Indeed, suppose  $\gamma(t) = x(t) + iy(t) \in \mathbb{H}$  such that  $\gamma(0) = ip$  and  $\gamma(1) = iq$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\mathbb{H}}(\gamma) &= \int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{\dot{x}(t)^2 + \dot{y}(t)^2}}{y(t)} dt \\ &\geq \int_0^1 \frac{|\dot{y}(t)|}{y(t)} dt = \left| \ln \frac{p}{q} \right|. \end{aligned} \quad (53)$$

Suppose now that  $z$  and  $w$  are not on the same vertical line. There is a unique Euclidean semicircle  $C$  with radius  $R$  and center  $\alpha + R$  that contains  $z$  and  $w$ . Let  $g(z) = 1 - \frac{2R}{z - \alpha}$ . Then  $g(z)$  and  $g(w)$  are on the line  $it$  and the result follows.

□

**Proposition 3.5.** *Let  $T$  be a hyperbolic triangle with angles  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . Then*

$$\operatorname{area}_{\mathbb{H}}(T) = \pi - (\alpha + \beta + \gamma). \quad (54)$$

□

We next discuss some aspects of hyperbolic trigonometry. Recall the hyperbolic trigonometric functions  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$  and  $\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$ .

**Claim 3.6.** *Let  $z, w \in \mathbb{H}$ . Then*

$$\cosh d_{\mathbb{H}}(z, w) = 1 + \frac{|z - w|^2}{2 \operatorname{Im} z \operatorname{Im} w}.$$

**Proof.** By (52)

$$\begin{aligned} \cosh d_{\mathbb{H}}(z, w) &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{|z - \bar{w}| + |z - w|}{|z - \bar{w}| - |z - w|} + \frac{|z - \bar{w}| - |z - w|}{|z - \bar{w}| + |z - w|} \right) \\ \frac{|z - \bar{w}|^2 + |z - w|^2}{|z - \bar{w}|^2 - |z - w|^2} &= 1 + \frac{2(|z - w|^2)}{|z - \bar{w}|^2 - |z - w|^2} \\ &= 1 + \frac{|z - w|^2}{\operatorname{Re}(z\bar{w}) - \operatorname{Re}(zw)} = 1 + \frac{|z - w|^2}{2 \operatorname{Im} z \operatorname{Im} w}. \end{aligned} \quad (55)$$

□

### 3.2 The Hyperboloid Model

Define the Lorentz bilinear form in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  as follows. For  $x = (x_0, x_1, x_2), y = (y_0, y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^3$  let

$$Q(x, y) = -x_0y_0 + x_1y_1 + x_2y_2.$$

Let

$$\tilde{\mathbb{H}} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 : Q(x, x) = -1, x_0 > 0\}.$$

The points of the hyperboloid model are the elements of  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ , and the lines are nonempty intersections of  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  with 2-dimensional linear subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

**Claim 3.7.** *Any two distinct points in  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  are contained in a unique line. For any line  $\ell$  and  $p \notin \ell$  there exist infinitely many lines through  $p$  that are disjoint from  $\ell$ .*

**Claim 3.8.** *If  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  is a differentiable curve then  $Q(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t)) \geq 0$ .*

**Proof.** Write  $\gamma(t) = (x_0(t), x_1(t), x_2(t)) \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ . Then  $x_0(t) \geq 1$  and  $x_0(t)^2 = 1 + x_1(t)^2 + x_2(t)^2$ . Differentiating we obtain  $x_0(t)\dot{x}_0(t) = x_1(t)\dot{x}_1(t) + x_2(t)\dot{x}_2(t)$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_0(t)^2 &= \frac{(x_1(t)\dot{x}_1(t) + x_2(t)\dot{x}_2(t))^2}{x_0(t)^2} \\ &\leq \frac{x_1(t)^2 + x_2(t)^2}{x_0(t)^2} \cdot (\dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2) \\ &= \frac{x_0(t)^2 - 1}{x_0(t)^2} \cdot (\dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2) \\ &\leq \dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

Define the length of  $\gamma$  by

$$L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma) = \int_a^b \sqrt{Q(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))} dt.$$

Let

$$\eta = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Lorentz group  $L = O(1, 2)$  is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \{g \in GL_3(\mathbb{R}) : Q(gx, gx) = Q(x, x) \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^3\} \\ &= \{g \in GL_3(\mathbb{R}) : g^T \eta g = \eta\}. \end{aligned} \tag{56}$$

The Proper Lorentz Group is the connected component of  $I \in L$ :

$$L^0 = \{g = (g_{ij})_{i,j=0}^2 \in L : g_{00} > 0, \det g = 1\}.$$

**Claim 3.9.** *All elements of  $L^0$  are bijective self-maps of  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $u = (u_0, u_1, u_2) \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  and let  $g = (g_{ij}) \in L^0$ . Note that  $g^T \in L^0$ , hence  $-g_{00}^2 + g_{10}^2 + g_{20}^2 = -1$ . Write  $gu = v = (v_0, v_1, v_2)$ . Then  $g_{00} > 0$  and  $-u_0^2 + u_1^2 + u_2^2 = -1$ . Hence, by Cauchy-Schwartz

$$\begin{aligned} v_0 &= g_{00}u_0 + g_{10}u_1 + g_{20}u_2 = \sqrt{1 + g_{10}^2 + g_{20}^2} \sqrt{1 + u_1^2 + u_2^2} + g_{10}u_1 + g_{20}u_2 \\ &\geq \sqrt{1 + g_{10}^2 + g_{20}^2} \sqrt{1 + u_1^2 + u_2^2} - \sqrt{g_{10}^2 + g_{20}^2} \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} > 0. \end{aligned} \tag{57}$$



□

We single out two families of elements in  $L^0$ . For  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$  let

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \in O(2) \quad , \quad \tilde{R}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R_\theta \end{bmatrix} \in L^0$$

For  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  let

$$L(\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} \cosh \lambda & -\sinh \lambda \\ -\sinh \lambda & \cosh \lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \tilde{L}(\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} L(\lambda) & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in L^0$$

**Claim 3.10.**  $L^0$  acts transitively on  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $u \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ . We will show that there exists a  $g \in L^0$  such that  $gu = (1, 0, 0)$ . Write  $u = (\sqrt{r^2 + 1}, r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ . Then  $\tilde{R}(-\theta)u = (\sqrt{r^2 + 1}, r, 0)$ . Now let  $\lambda = \ln(\sqrt{1 + r^2} + r)$ . Then  $\tilde{L}(\lambda)(\sqrt{r^2 + 1}, r, 0)^T = (1, 0, 0)^T$ .

□

**Corollary 3.11.** For any  $u, v \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  there exists a  $g \in L^0$  such that  $gu = (1, 0, 0)$  and  $gv = (\sqrt{1 + \alpha^2}, \alpha, 0)$  for some  $\alpha$ .

**Proof.** By Claim 3.10 there exists a  $g_1 \in L^0$  such that  $g_1u = (1, 0, 0)^T$ . Write  $g_1v = (\sqrt{1 + r^2}, r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)^T$ . Then  $g = \tilde{R}(-\theta)g_1$  satisfies the required conditions.

□

**Claim 3.12.** Let  $\gamma : [a, b] \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  be a smooth path and let  $g \in L^0$ . Then  $L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(g(\gamma)) = L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma)$ .

**Proof.** Let  $\gamma(t) = (x_0(t), x_1(t), x_2(t))$  and  $\Gamma(t) = g(\gamma(t))$ . Then  $\dot{\Gamma}(t) = g\dot{\gamma}(t)$  and hence

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\Gamma) &= \int_a^b \sqrt{Q(\dot{\Gamma}(t), \dot{\Gamma}(t))} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{Q(g\dot{\gamma}(t), g\dot{\gamma}(t))} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{Q(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))} dt = L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma). \end{aligned} \tag{58}$$

**Proposition 3.13.** For  $u, v \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$

$$\cosh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v) = -Q(u, v).$$

**Proof.** In view of Claim 3.12 and Corollary 3.11, it suffices to consider the case  $u = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $v = (\sqrt{1 + \alpha^2}, \alpha, 0)$ . Let  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  such that  $\gamma(0) = u$ ,  $\gamma(1) = v$ . Write  $\gamma(t) = (x_0(t), x_1(t), x_2(t))$ . Let  $w(t) = \sqrt{x_1(t)^2 + x_2(t)^2}$ . Then  $w(t)^2 = x_1(t)^2 + x_2(t)^2 = x_0(t)^2 - 1$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} w(t)|\dot{w}(t)| &= |\dot{x}_1(t)x_1(t) + \dot{x}_2(t)x_2(t)| \\ &\leq \sqrt{\dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2} \cdot \sqrt{x_1(t)^2 + x_2(t)^2} \\ &= w(t)\sqrt{\dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{59}$$

Hence

$$\dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2 \geq \dot{w}(t)^2. \tag{60}$$

Moreover  $x_0(t)\dot{x}_0(t) = w(t)\dot{w}(t)$ , and hence

$$\dot{x}_0(t)^2 = \frac{w(t)^2\dot{w}(t)^2}{x_0(t)^2} = \frac{w(t)^2\dot{w}(t)^2}{w(t)^2 + 1}. \tag{61}$$

Combining (60) and (60) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma) &= \int_0^1 (-\dot{x}_0(t)^2 + \dot{x}_1(t)^2 + \dot{x}_2(t)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\
&\geq \int_0^1 (\dot{w}(t)^2 - \dot{x}_0(t)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\
&= \int_0^1 \left( \dot{w}(t)^2 - \frac{w(t)^2 \dot{w}(t)^2}{w(t)^2 + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} dt \\
&= \int_0^1 \frac{\dot{w}(t) dt}{\sqrt{w(t)^2 + 1}} \\
&= \ln \left( w(t) + \sqrt{w(t)^2 + 1} \right) \Big|_{t=0}^{t=1} \\
&= \ln(\alpha + \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1}).
\end{aligned} \tag{62}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
\cosh L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma) &\geq \frac{1}{2} \left( \alpha + \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1} + \frac{1}{\alpha + \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1}} \right) \\
&= \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1} = -Q(u, v).
\end{aligned} \tag{63}$$

On the other hand, taking  $\gamma(t) = (\sqrt{1+t^2}, t, 0)$  for  $0 \leq t \leq \alpha$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\cosh L_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(\gamma) &= \cosh \left( \int_0^\alpha \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} \right) = \cosh \left( \ln(\alpha + \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1}) \right) \\
&= \sqrt{\alpha^2 + 1} = -Q(u, v).
\end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 3.14.** *Let  $u, v \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  and let  $d = d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v)$ . Let  $z = \frac{v - \cosh(d)u}{\sinh(d)}$ . Then  $\gamma : [0, d] \rightarrow \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  given by  $\gamma(t) = \cosh(t)u + \sinh(t)z$  is a geodesic between  $u$  and  $v$ .*

**Proof.** First note that

$$\begin{aligned}
Q(z, z) &= \left( \frac{v - \cosh(d)u}{\sinh(d)}, \frac{v - \cosh(d)u}{\sinh(d)} \right) \\
&= \frac{Q(v - \cosh(d)u, v - \cosh(d)u)}{\sinh^2(d)} \\
&= \frac{Q(u, u) + \cosh^2(d)Q(u, u) - 2 \cosh(d)Q(u, v)}{\sinh^2(d)} \\
&= \frac{-1 - \cosh^2 d + 2 \cosh^2 d}{\sinh^2(d)} = \frac{\sinh^2(d)}{\sinh^2(d)} = 1.
\end{aligned} \tag{64}$$

Next observe that  $\dot{\gamma}(t) = \sinh(t)u + \cosh(t)z$ , and that

$$\begin{aligned}
Q(u, z) &= Q \left( u, \frac{v - \cosh(d)u}{\sinh(d)} \right) = \frac{Q(u, v) - \cosh(d)Q(u, u)}{\sinh^2(d)} \\
&= \frac{-\cosh(d) + \cosh(d)}{\sinh^2(d)} = 0.
\end{aligned} \tag{65}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}
Q(\gamma(t), \gamma(t)) &= Q(\cosh(t)u + \sinh(t)z, \cosh(t)u + \sinh(t)z) \\
&= \cosh^2(t)Q(u, u) + \sinh^2(t)Q(z, z) + \cosh(t)\sinh(t)Q(u, z) \\
&= -\cosh^2(t) + \sinh^2(t) = -1.
\end{aligned} \tag{66}$$

It follows that  $\gamma(t) \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ . Furthermore

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t)) &= Q(\sinh(t)u + \cosh(t)z, \sinh(t)u + \cosh(t)z) \\ &= \sinh^2(t)Q(u, u) + \cosh^2(t)Q(z, z) \\ &= -\sinh^2(t) + \cosh^2(t) = 1. \end{aligned} \tag{67}$$

Therefore

$$\int_{t=0}^d \sqrt{Q(\dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t))} dt = d,$$

and hence  $\gamma$  is a geodesic between  $u$  and  $v$ . □

### 3.3 Hyperbolic Trigonometry

The *hyperbolic cross product*  $u \times_Q v$  of  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is defined as the unique element of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $\det(u, v, w) = Q(u \times_Q v, w)$ . Defining  $R : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  by  $R(u_1, u_2, u_3) = (-u_1, u_2, u_3)$ , we have  $Q(u, v) = (Ru) \cdot v$  and  $u \times_Q v = R(u \times v) = -(Ru_1) \times (Ru_2)$ . Define the hyperbolic norm of an element  $u \in \mathbb{R}^3$  by

$$|u|_Q = \begin{cases} \sqrt{Q(u, u)} & Q(u, u) \geq 0, \\ i\sqrt{-Q(u, u)} & Q(u, u) < 0. \end{cases}$$

For example, if  $u \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  then  $|u|_Q = i$ .

**Corollary 3.15.** *Let  $u, v \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ . Then*

$$|u \times_Q v|_Q = \sinh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v). \tag{68}$$

**Proof.**

$$Q(u \times_Q v, u \times_Q v) = Q(u, v)^2 - Q(u, u) \cdot Q(v, v) = \cosh^2 d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v) - 1 = \sinh^2 d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v).$$

As  $d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v) \geq 0$ , it follows that  $Q(u \times_Q v, u \times_Q v) \geq 0$  and  $\sinh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v) \geq 0$ . Hence

$$|u \times_Q v|_Q = \sqrt{Q(u \times_Q v, u \times_Q v)} = \sinh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v). \quad \square$$

The hyperbolic counterpart of Claim 2.17 is the following

**Claim 3.16.**

- (i)  $(u_1 \times_Q u_2) \times_Q v = Q(u_2, v)u_1 - Q(u_1, v)u_2$ .
- (ii)  $Q(u_1 \times_Q u_2, v_1 \times_Q v_2) = Q(u_1, v_2)Q(u_2, v_1) - Q(u_1, v_1)Q(u_2, v_2)$ .

**Proof.** (i)

$$\begin{aligned} (u_1 \times_Q u_2) \times_Q v &= -R(u_1 \times_Q u_2) \times Rv = -(u_1 \times u_2) \times Rv \\ &= (Rv \cdot u_2)u_1 - (Rv \cdot u_1)u_2 \\ &= Q(u_2, v)u_1 - Q(u_1, v)u_2. \end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} Q(u_1 \times_Q u_2, v_1 \times_Q v_2) &= R(u_1 \times_Q u_2) \cdot (v_1 \times_Q v_2) \\ &= (u_1 \times u_2) \cdot (v_1 \times_Q v_2) = -(u_1 \times u_2) \cdot (Rv_1 \times Rv_2) \\ &= -(u_1 \cdot Rv_1)(u_2 \cdot Rv_2) + (u_1 \cdot Rv_2)(u_2 \cdot Rv_1) \\ &= Q(u_1, v_2)Q(u_2, v_1) - Q(u_1, v_1)Q(u_2, v_2). \end{aligned}$$

□

Let  $T$  be a hyperbolic triangle with vertices  $u, v, w \in \tilde{\mathbb{H}}$ . Let  $d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(v, w) = a, d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, w) = b, d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, v) = c$  and let  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  be the angles at  $u, v, w$  respectively.

**Claim 3.17.**

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{Q(u \times_Q w, v \times_Q w)}{|u \times_Q w| \cdot |v \times_Q w|}. \quad (69)$$

**Proposition 3.18** (Hyperbolic Cosine Formula).

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{\cosh a \cosh b - \cosh c}{\sinh a \sinh b}. \quad (70)$$

**Proof.** By Proposition 3.13,  $\cosh a = -Q(v, w)$ ,  $\cosh b = -Q(u, w)$  and  $\cosh c = -Q(u, v)$ . By Corollary 3.15

$$|u \times_Q w|_Q = \sinh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u, w) = \sinh b$$

and

$$|v \times_Q w|_Q = \sinh d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(v, w) = \sinh a.$$

Substituting in (3.17) we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \gamma &= \frac{Q(u \times_Q w, v \times_Q w)}{|u \times_Q w| \cdot |v \times_Q w|} \\ &= \frac{Q(u, w)Q(v, w) - Q(u, v)Q(w, w)}{\sinh a \sinh b} \\ &= \frac{\cosh a \cosh b - \cosh c}{\sinh a \sinh b}. \end{aligned} \quad (71)$$

□

**Proposition 3.19.** For any  $0 < \alpha < \frac{(n-2)\pi}{n}$  there exists a regular  $n$ -gon in  $\tilde{\mathbb{H}}$  with all angles equal to  $\alpha$ .

**Proof.** For  $x > 0$  and  $0 \leq k \leq n-1$  let

$$u_{k,n}(x) = \left( \cosh x, \sinh x \cos \frac{2\pi k}{n}, \sinh x \sin \frac{2\pi k}{n} \right).$$

Let  $P_n(x)$  denote the  $n$ -gon with vertices  $\{u_{k,n}(x)\}_{k=0}^{n-1}$ . Let  $d_n(x)$  denote the edge length of  $P_n(x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \cosh d_n(x) &= -Q(u_{0,n}(x), u_{1,n}(x)) \\ &= -Q \left( (\cosh x, \sinh x, 0), (\cosh x, \sinh x \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}, \sinh x \sin \frac{2\pi}{n}) \right) \\ &= \cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \\ &= 1 + \sinh^2 x \left( 1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (72)$$

Let  $e_n(x) = d_{\tilde{\mathbb{H}}}(u_0(x), u_2(x))$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \cosh e_n(x) &= -Q(u_{0,n}(x), u_{2,n}(x)) \\ &= -Q \left( (\cosh x, \sinh x, 0), (\cosh x, \sinh x \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}, \sinh x \sin \frac{2\pi}{n}) \right) \\ &= \cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x \cos \frac{4\pi}{n} \\ &= 1 + \sinh^2 x \left( 1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (73)$$

Let  $\gamma_n(x)$  denote the angle of  $P_n(x)$ . By the hyperbolic cosine theorem

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \gamma_n(x) &= \frac{\cosh^2 d_n(x) - \cosh e_n(x)}{\sinh^2 d_n(x)} \\ &= \frac{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - (1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}))}{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - 1}.\end{aligned}\tag{74}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos \gamma_n(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - (1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}))}{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - 1} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + 2t(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n})) - (1 + t(1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}))}{(1 + 2t(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n})) - 1} \\ &= \frac{1 - 2 \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} + \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}}{2(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n})} \\ &= \frac{\cos^2 \frac{2\pi}{n} - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}}{1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}} \\ &= -\cos \frac{2\pi}{n} = \cos \frac{(n-2)\pi}{n}.\end{aligned}\tag{75}$$

It follows  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \gamma_n(x) = \frac{(n-2)\pi}{n}$ . On the other hand

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \cos \gamma_n(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - (1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}))}{(1 + \sinh^2 x(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - 1} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1 + t(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - (1 + t(1 - \cos \frac{4\pi}{n}))}{(1 + t(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi}{n}))^2 - 1} = 1.\end{aligned}\tag{76}$$

It follows  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_n(x) = 0$ . By continuity, for any  $0 < \alpha < \frac{(n-2)\pi}{n}$  there exists an  $x$  such that  $\gamma_n(x) = \alpha$ .

□