

# Projective Geometry

## Lecture 6

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## Duality on projective planes

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Recall **abstract projective plane**  $\Pi = \{\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{I}\}$

- $\mathcal{P}$  is the set of points;
- $\mathcal{L}$  is the set of lines;
- $\mathcal{I} \subset \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{L}$  is the incidence relation between points and lines;
- subject to some axioms.

**Duality:** Following Hilbert, we can think instead of  $\mathcal{L}$  is the set of points;  $\mathcal{P}$  is the set of lines; axioms will remain the same!

This allows us to deduce new theorems from old, dualizing an earlier statement.  
Example: Desargues' Theorem.

To extend duality to higher dimensions, linear algebra will again be very helpful.

## A little bit of Part A Linear Algebra

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We recall that to any vector space  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  we can associate the **dual space**

$$V^* = \{f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{F} \text{ linear}\}.$$

If  $\dim V = n$ , then  $V$  and  $V^*$  are isomorphic, since  $V^*$  also has dimension  $n$ . However, this isomorphism depends on a choice of basis.

Recall that if  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is a basis of  $V$ , then a basis of  $V^*$  is given by the **dual basis**  $\{E_1, \dots, E_n\}$ , defined by

$$E_i(e_j) = \delta_{ij}$$

and extended linearly.

The double dual  $V^{**}$ , that is, the dual of  $V^*$ , **is canonically** isomorphic to  $V$ . Explicitly, the map

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi : V &\rightarrow V^{**} \\ v &\mapsto (f \mapsto f(v) \text{ for } f \in V^*) \end{aligned}$$

defines an isomorphism between  $V$  and  $V^{**}$ .

## A little bit more Part A Linear Algebra

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Further, given a linear subspace  $U \leq V$ , we have its annihilator

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

**Proposition** For subspaces  $U, U_1, U_2$  of a finite-dimensional vector space  $V$

- (i) if  $U_1 \leq U_2$ , then  $U_2^\circ \leq U_1^\circ$ ; that is, taking the annihilator reverses inclusion;
- (ii)  $(U_1 + U_2)^\circ = U_1^\circ \cap U_2^\circ$ ;
- (iii)  $(U_1 \cap U_2)^\circ = U_1^\circ + U_2^\circ$ ;
- (iv)  $\dim U + \dim U^\circ = \dim V$ ;
- (v)  $(U^\circ)^\circ = \varphi(U)$ .

**Conclusion:** get an inclusion-reversing one-to-one correspondence  $U \leftrightarrow U^\circ$  between linear subspaces of  $V$  and linear subspaces of  $V^*$ .

**Note:** We shall use the canonical isomorphism  $\varphi$  to identify spaces with their double duals, and subspaces with their double annihilators, without further comment.

## Duality of projective subspaces

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Let now  $\dim V = n + 1$  and consider  $n$ -dimensional projective spaces  $\mathbb{P}(V)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$ .

We obtain an inclusion-reversing **duality correspondence**

$$\{\text{linear subspaces } \mathbb{P}(U) \subset \mathbb{P}(V)\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{linear subspaces } \mathbb{P}(U^\circ) \subset \mathbb{P}(V^*)\}.$$

By the dimension formula, if  $\mathbb{P}(U)$  is an  $m$ -dimensional linear subspace of  $\mathbb{P}^n = \mathbb{P}(V)$ , then...

... $U$  has dimension  $m + 1$

...so  $U^\circ$  has dimension  $(n + 1) - (m + 1) = n - m$

...and hence  $\mathbb{P}(U^\circ)$  is a linear subspace of  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  of dimension  $n - m - 1$ .

From the Proposition above, we also get

$$\langle \mathbb{P}(U_1), \mathbb{P}(U_2) \rangle^\circ = \mathbb{P}(U_1^\circ) \cap \mathbb{P}(U_2^\circ)$$

$$(\mathbb{P}(U_1) \cap \mathbb{P}(U_2))^\circ = \langle \mathbb{P}(U_1^\circ), \mathbb{P}(U_2^\circ) \rangle.$$

## Duality of points and hyperplanes

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Points of  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  represent 1-dimensional subspaces of  $V^*$ . These correspond to hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$ , which represent  $n$ -dimensional subspaces of  $V$ .

The correspondence assigns to  $\langle f \rangle$ , where  $f \in V^* - \{0\}$ , the hyperplane  $\mathbb{P}(\ker(f))$  in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$ .

In homogeneous coordinates, the point  $[a_0 : \dots : a_n]$  in the dual projective space  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  corresponds to the hyperplane

$$\{a_0x_0 + \dots + a_nx_n = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}(V).$$

Note that scaling all the  $a_i$  does not alter the hyperplane.

Conversely, hyperplanes in  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  correspond to points in  $\mathbb{P}(V^{**})$  and thus to points in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$ .

## Duality of points and lines in the projective plane

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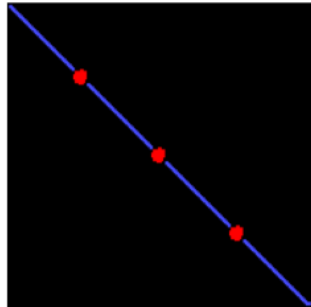
Assume  $\dim V = 3$  so  $\dim \mathbb{P}(V) = 2$ .

Duality interchanges points of  $\mathbb{P}(V) = \mathbb{FP}^2$  and lines in  $\mathbb{P}(V^*) = \mathbb{FP}^2$ .

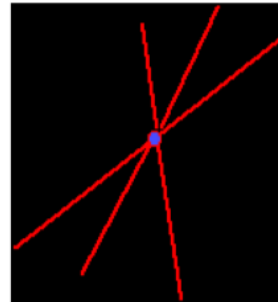
If  $P = [p], Q = [q]$  are two distinct points on the line  $L = \mathbb{P}U \subset \mathbb{P}(V)$  with  $U = \langle p, q \rangle$ , then the lines  $\mathbb{P}\langle p \rangle^\circ, \mathbb{P}\langle q \rangle^\circ$  meet at the point  $\mathbb{P}U^\circ$  of  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$ .

More generally, a set of collinear points in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$  corresponds under duality to a set of **concurrent** lines in  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  (lines passing through a common point).

*three collinear points*



*three concurrent lines*



## Points and lines in general position in the projective plane

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On a projective plane  $\mathbb{P}(V) = \mathbb{F}\mathbb{P}^2$  we can define four **lines** to be in general position if no three of them are concurrent.

This is equivalent to the four points they represent in  $\mathbb{P}(V^*)$  being in general position.

Under duality, a line

$$\{\alpha_0 x_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 = 0\} \subset \mathbb{P}(V)$$

corresponds to the point

$$[\alpha_0 : \alpha_1 : \alpha_2] \in \mathbb{P}(V^*).$$

So by the General Position Theorem, four lines in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$  which are in general position can be assumed to have the equations

$$x_0 = 0, \quad x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 0, \quad x_0 + x_1 + x_2 = 0.$$

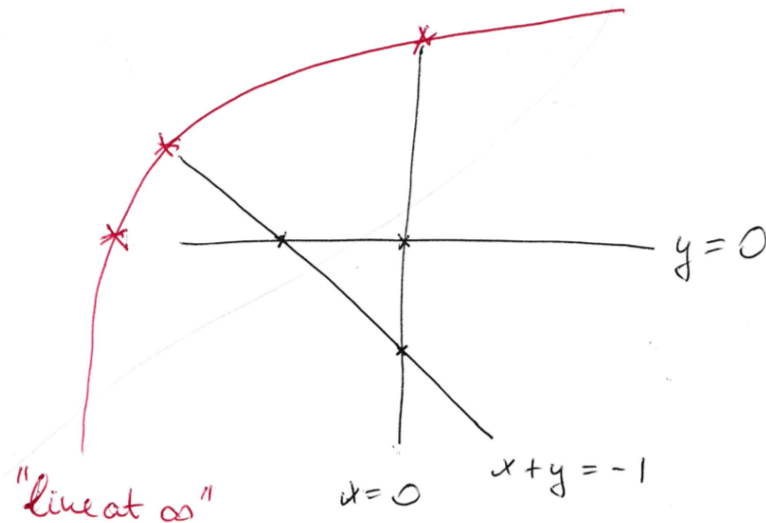
## Lines in general position in the projective plane

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Four lines in  $\mathbb{P}(V)$  which are in general position can be assumed to have the equations

$$x_0 = 0, \quad x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 0, \quad x_0 + x_1 + x_2 = 0.$$

In affine coordinates  $x = x_1/x_0$ ,  $y = x_2/x_0$ , we get the following picture.



## Real conics in the plane $\mathbb{R}^2$

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A **conic** is a plane curve given by a quadratic equation.

A real (affine) conic is a curve  $C \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  given by a quadratic equation of the form

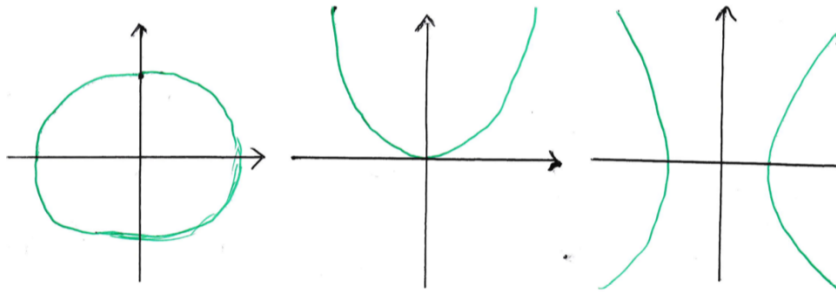
$$ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0.$$

Three types of conics: **ellipse, parabola, hyperbola**

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

$$y = ax^2$$

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

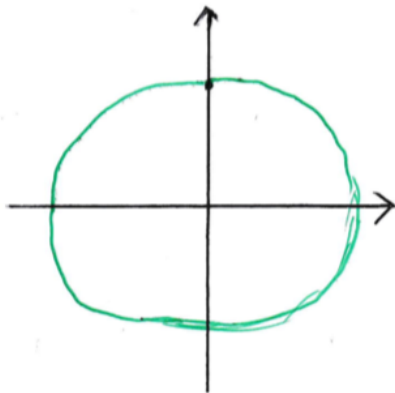


## Real conics in the plane $\mathbb{R}^2$ and their asymptotes

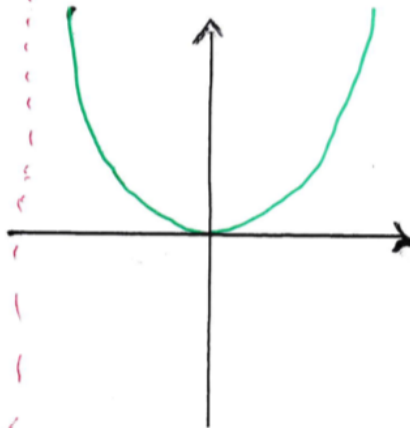
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Where do these conics meet the **ideal line**?

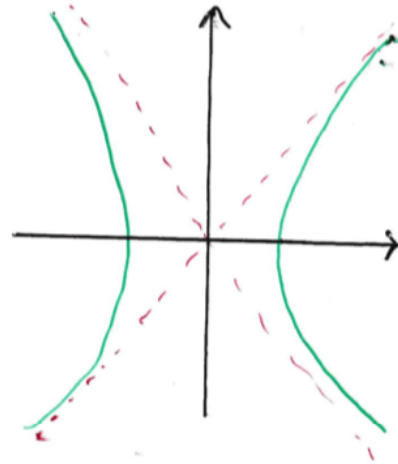
no ideal pt



\* one ideal pt



\* two ideal pts \*



## Real conics: extending to the projective plane

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Recall that the transformation between projective and affine coordinates is  $x = x_1/x_0$ ,  $y = y_1/y_0$ .

We get the projective plane  $\mathbb{RP}^2$  with coordinates  $[x_0 : x_1 : x_2]$ , its ideal line  $L_\infty = [0 : x_1 : x_2]$  and the ordinary plane  $\mathbb{R}^2 = [1 : x : y]$ .

We get the projective equations

$$\frac{x_1^2}{a^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{b^2} = x_0^2 \qquad x_0 x_2 = a x_1^2 \qquad \frac{x_1^2}{a^2} - \frac{x_2^2}{b^2} = x_0^2$$

The real projective solutions with  $x_0 = 0$  (ideal points) are

$$\emptyset \qquad [0 : 0 : 1] \qquad [0 : a : \pm b]$$

Note that, after a linear change coordinates, all three equations have the form

$$-y_0^2 + y_1^2 + y_2^2 = 0.$$

## Bilinear forms over arbitrary fields

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A **symmetric bilinear form** on a vector space  $V$  over  $\mathbb{F}$  is a map

$$B : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$$

such that

- (i)  $B(v, w) = B(w, v)$ ;
- (ii)  $B$  is linear in  $v$  (and hence, by (i), in  $w$ ).

If in addition we have that

- (iii) if  $B(v, w) = 0$  for all  $w$ , then  $v = 0$ ,

then we say the form is **nondegenerate** or **nonsingular**.

**Remark** Note that the conditions are different from those seen in other contexts. Over  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ , we could require positive definiteness instead of (iii). Over  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ , we could require sesquilinearity instead of (i)-(ii). Our conditions make sense for any field.

## Bilinear forms over arbitrary fields

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If we choose a basis  $\{e_0, \dots, e_n\}$  of  $V$ , then a bilinear form is given by

$$B(v, w) = v^t X w$$

for a symmetric matrix  $X$  given by

$$X_{ij} = B(e_i, e_j).$$

Nondegeneracy of the form is equivalent to nonsingularity (invertibility) of the matrix  $X$ .

A bilinear form is determined (if the characteristic of  $\mathbb{F}$  is  $\neq 2$ ), by the associated **quadratic form**

$$Q(v) = B(v, v),$$

for we can recover  $B$  via the polarisation identity

$$B(v, w) = \frac{1}{4}(B(v + w, v + w) - B(v - w, v - w)) = \frac{1}{4}(Q(v + w) - Q(v - w))$$

## Projective quadrics and conics over arbitrary fields

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A **projective quadric** is the locus of points in a projective space  $\mathbb{P}(V)$  defined by an equation  $Q(v) = 0$ , where  $v \mapsto Q(v) = B(v, v)$  is a (not identically zero) quadratic form on  $V$ .

A **projective conic** is a projective quadric in a projective plane  $\mathbb{P}(V) = \mathbb{F}\mathbb{P}^2$ .

Projective transformations send quadrics to quadrics. If we write the quadratic form in terms of a symmetric matrix  $X$ , then its image under a projective transformation is the form defined by the symmetric matrix  $M^t X M$ , where  $M$  defines the projective transformation.

Note also that if  $Q$  and  $Q'$  are proportional, that is  $Q'(v) = \lambda Q(v)$  for all  $v$ , then they define the same quadric.

**Definition** We say a quadric is **nonsingular**, if the associated symmetric bilinear form is nondegenerate.