Steiner's "Algebra of Throws" MTH437 — Introduction to Schemes

Kapil Hari Paranjape

IISER Mohali

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Kapil Hari Paranjape (IISER Mohali)

Recall

The projective space $\mathbb{P}^{p}(k)$ was introduced as the collection of equivalence classes of points $[x_0 : x_1 : \cdots : x_p]$ where:

- The vector (x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_p) is a non-zero vector in k^{p+1} .
- Two vectors which are multiples of each other give the same point.

Projective linear subspaces of $\mathbb{P}^{p}(k)$ are of the form $\mathbb{P}(W)$ which consists of those points which are associated with vectors in a vector subspace W of k^{p+1} .

When W is a d + 1-dimensional space, $\mathbb{P}(W)$ is d-dimensional and vice versa.

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There is a natural "dictionary" between linear algebra and the study of projective linear subspaces. The important properties are as follows.

- Given a point P(L) of P^P(k) and a linear subspace P(W) of P^P(k) that does not contain P(L), the join (or span) P(L + W) is a linear subspace of P^P(k) that has dimension 1 more than that of P(W) and it contains P(L) and P(W).
- Given two subspaces P(V) and P(W) of P^p(k) of dimensions a and b respectively; note that this means that dimensions of V and W are a + 1 and b + 1 respectively. If a + b ≥ p, then since the dimension V ∩ W is at least (a + 1) + (b + 1) (p + 1) ≥ 1. Hence, P(V) ∩ P(W) = P(V ∩ W) is a linear space of dimension at least a + b p; in particular, it is non-empty.

Such observations allow us to answer a number of simple questions about linear spaces in projective space.

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In particular, we were able to solve the following:

Question: Given three lines $\mathbb{P}(A)$, $\mathbb{P}(B)$ and $\mathbb{P}(C)$ in projective space $\mathbb{P}^{3}(k)$, is there a line that meets all three lines?

A similar looking problem turns out to be rather more complicated.

Question: Given four lines A, B, C and D in projective space $\mathbb{P}^{3}(k)$, is there a line that meets all four lines?

This apparently linear question leads to non-linear (quadratic) equations in terms of coordinates.

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Algebra is emergent!

Solving questions involving configurations of linear spaces *forces* us to consider equations of higher degree.

This can be seen as a consequence of the fact that addition and multiplication of coordinates *arises* out of configurations of lines as explained below.

In other words, to do geometry, we must do algebra!

Addition

Given the points p = (1 : 0 : a) and q = (1 : 0 : b) on the line A given by $x_1 = 0$. We will show that (1 : 0 : a + b) arises when we examine the point of intersection of this line with another naturally arising line. To do this we also need the "origin" o = (1 : 0 : 0) which represents the identity element for addition. Note that r = (0 : 0 : 1) is the "point at infinity" on the line A since the line B given by $x_0 = 0$ is the line at infinity on the plane.

- Consider the line C given by x₁ = x₀. The lines A, B and C meet in the point r = (0 : 0 : 1). Since B is the line at infinity, we may think of A and C as parallel lines.
- Consider the point s = (0 : 1 : 0) which is on B but not on A or C. Since B is the line at infinity we can think of s as a "direction" different from that of A and C (which are parallel).
- We have the line D which joins p and s. This is a line through p "in the direction" given by s. This meets C in some point t.
- We have the line E which joins o and t. This meets B in some point u. Then u represents the direction of the line E.
- We have the line F which joins q and u. This is the line through q which is in the direction given by u. In other words, it is through q and parallel to E. This meets C in some point v.
- We have the line G which joins v and s. This is the line through v which is parallel to D. This meets A in some point w.

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The claim is that the coordinate of w is (1:0:a+b). Let us work this out!

- 1. The line D is given by $x_2 = ax_0$ since p and s satisfy this equation.
- 2. This means that the point t is given by (1:1:a).
- 3. Thus the line *E* is given by $x_2 = ax_1$ since *o* and *t* satisfy this equation.
- 4. This means that the point u is given by (0:1:a).
- 5. Thus the line F is given by $x_2 = ax_1 + bx_0$ since u and q satisfy this equation.
- 6. This means that the point v is given by (1:1:a+b).
- 7. Thus the line G is given by $x_2 = (a + b)x_0$ since s and v satisfy this equation.
- 8. This means that the point w is given by (1:0:a+b) as required.

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- Note that C could have been any line passing through the point r other than A. In other words, it could be any line parallel to A.
- Note that s could have been any point on B other than r. In other words, it could be any direction other than that of A.

Multiplication

Given the points p = (1 : 0 : a) and q = (1 : 0 : b) on the line A given by $x_1 = 0$. We will show that $(1 : 0 : a \cdot b)$ arises when we examine the point of intersection of this line with another naturally arising line. To do this we also need the "origin" o = (1 : 0 : 0) and the point i = (1 : 0 : 1 which represents the identity element for multiplication. Note that r = (0 : 0 : 1) is the "point at infinity" on the line A since the line B given by $x_0 = 0$ is the line at infinity on the plane.

As before, we need to choose some additional lines and points.

- Consider the line C given by x₂ = 0. The lines B and C meet in the point s = (0 : 1 : 0).
- Consider the point t = (1 : 1 : 0) which is on C but not on A or B.
- We have the line D that joins i and t. This meets the line B at a point u.
- We have the line E that joins p and u. This meets the line C at a point v.
- ► We have the line F that joins q and t. This meets the line B at the point w.
- ► We have the line G that joins v and w. This meets the line A at the point x.

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The claim is that this point x is $(1:0:a \cdot b)$. Let us verify this.

- 1. Note that the line D is given by $x_1 + x_2 = x_0$ since both i and t lie on this line. This means that u = (0 : 1 : -1).
- 2. Note that the line *E* is given by $x_1 + x_2 = ax_0$ since both *u* and *p* lie on this line. This means hat v = (1 : a : 0).
- 3. Note that the line F is given by $bx_1 + x_2 = bx_0$ since both q and t lie on this line. This means hat w = (0:1:-b).
- 4. Note that the line G is given by $bx_1 + x_2 = abx_0$ since both v and w lie on this line. This means that x = (1 : 0 : ab) as required.

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Conclusion

- In order to study linear geometry, it is convenient to work with projective spaces so that rank is the only thing that determines consistence.
- The geometry of linear projective varieties is closely related to the corresponding vector subspaces.
- The intersection and join of linear projective varieties can be easily understood in terms of geometric ideas based on two notions:
 - Every pair of distinct points determines a line.
 - Every pair of linear projective subspaces of dimensions a and b in P^p(k) intersects in a linear projective space of dimension a + b − p provided a + b ≥ p.
- One can pose problems of finding certain configurations of linear projective varieties. Such problems *naturally* lead to problems in algebra that require the solutions of polynomial equations of all degrees.

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