## 19. Projective geometry

Definition 19.1. Let $S \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ be a set of points.
We say that $S$ is in linear general position if any subset of $k \leq n$ points spana a $(k-1)$-plane $\Lambda$.

Remark 19.2. Note that if $S$ has at least $n+1$ points then $S$ is in linear general position if every subset of $n+1$ points spans $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Lemma 19.3. Any two sequences $p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n+1}$ and $q_{0}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n+2}$ of $n+2$ points in linear general position in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ are projectively equivalent, that is, there is an element $\phi \in \operatorname{Aut}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)=\operatorname{PGL}(n+1)$ such that $\phi\left(p_{i}\right)=q_{i}$. Furthermore, $\phi$ is unique .

Proof. Since we are just saying there is one orbit on the set of $n+2$ points in linear general position, we might as well take
$p_{0}=[1: 0: \cdots: 0], p_{1}=[0: 1: \cdots: 0], \ldots, p_{n}=[0: 0: \cdots: 1], p_{n+1}=[1: 1: \cdots: 1]$.
In terms of existence, note that $\phi$ corresponds to an $(n+1) \times(n+1)$ matrix with entries in $K$. The first $n+1$ points correspond to $n+1$ linearly independent vectors in $K^{n+1}$. There is a unique matrix $A$ sending one set of vectors to the others. At this point $p_{i}=q_{i}, 0 \leq i \leq n$ and $q_{i}=\left[a_{0}: a_{1}: \cdots: a_{n}\right]$. Since $q_{0}, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{n+2}$ are in linear general position, it follows that $a_{i} \neq 0$ for all $i$. But then the diagonal matrix with $1 / a_{i}$ in the $i$ th spot fixes $p_{j}, 0 \leq j \leq n$ and takes $q_{n+1}$ to $p_{n+1}$.

As for uniqueness, it is enough to show that the only $\phi$ which fixes the sequence $p_{0}, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n+1}$ is the identity. The fact that the corresponding matrix fixes the first $n+1$ vectors, implies that the matrix is diagonal. The fact it fixes $p_{n+1}$ means the matrix is a scalar multiple of the identity; but then $\phi$ is the identity.

In the case $n=1$, the three standard points $p_{0}, p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ correspond to $0, \infty$ and 1 .

A little bit of notation. We will say that a curve $C \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ is a rational normal curve if it is projectively equivalent to the curve

$$
[S: T] \longrightarrow\left[S^{n}: S^{n-1} T: \cdots: T^{n}\right] .
$$

Lemma 19.4. Let $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n+3}$ be $n+3$ points in linear general position in $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

Then there is a unique rational normal curve $C \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ containing $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n+3}$.

Proof. We only prove existence. This will follow from the following way to construct rational normal curves.

Let $G(S, T)$ be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $n+1$. Then $G(S, T)$ factors,

$$
G(S, T)=\prod_{i=0}^{n}\left(\mu_{i} S_{i}-\lambda_{i} T_{i}\right)
$$

Assume that $G(S, T)$ has distinct roots, meaning that $\left[\lambda_{i}: \mu_{i}\right] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ are $n+1$ different points of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. Consider the $n+1$ polynomials

$$
G_{i}(S, T)=\frac{G(S, T)}{\mu_{i} S_{i}-\lambda_{i} T_{i}},
$$

of degree $n$. Note that $G_{0}, G_{1}, \ldots, G_{n}$ are independent in the space of polynomials of degree $n$; indeed if

$$
\sum a_{i} G_{i}(S, T)=0
$$

then we see that $a_{i}=0$ after plugging in $\left[\lambda_{i}: \mu_{i}\right] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$.
It follows that the curve $C$ given parametrically by

$$
[S: T] \longrightarrow\left[G_{0}: G_{1}: \cdots: G_{n}\right]
$$

is a rational normal curve.
We may rewrite this parametrisation as

$$
[S: T] \longrightarrow\left[\frac{1}{\mu_{0} S_{0}-\lambda_{0} T_{0}}: \frac{1}{\mu_{1} S_{1}-\lambda_{1} T_{1}}: \cdots: \frac{1}{\mu_{n} S_{n}-\lambda_{n} T_{n}}\right]
$$

Written this way, we see that $C$ passes through the $n+1$ coordinate points. Parametrically we send the zeroes of $G$ to these points.

Now given any set of $n+3$ points in linear general position we have already seen that we can choose the first $n+1$ points to be the coordinate points. This leaves two more points, $p_{n+2}$ and $p_{n+3}$. The image of $[1: 0]$ is

$$
\left[\frac{1}{\mu_{0}}: \frac{1}{\mu_{1}}: \cdots: \frac{1}{\mu_{n}}\right]
$$

and the image of $[0: 1]$ is

$$
\left[\frac{1}{\lambda_{0}}: \frac{1}{\lambda_{1}}: \cdots: \frac{1}{\lambda_{n}}\right] .
$$

Now we can always choose $p_{n+2}$ to be the point $[1: 1: \cdots: 1]$, in which case we choose $\mu_{i}=1$ for all $i$. Finally the fact that the points are in linear general position implies that the coordinates of $p_{n+3}$ are distinct and non-zero and we can choose $\lambda_{0}, \lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ accordingly.
Example 19.5. There is a simple proof of (19.4) in the case when $n=2$. All rational normal curves are projectively equivalent, so in this case a rational normal curve is the same as a conic.

In this case we want to prove that there is a unique smooth conic through any five points of $\mathbb{P}^{2}$, no three of which are collinear.

A conic is given by

$$
a X^{2}+b Y^{2}+c Z^{2}+d Y Z+e X Z+f X Y
$$

and the space of all conics is naturally a copy of $\mathbb{P}^{5}$. The set of conics passing through a fixed point $p$ corresponds to a hyperplane $H_{p} \subset \mathbb{P}^{5}$.

The set of conics through five points is then the intersection of five hyperplanes, which is always non-empty, so that there is always at least one conic through any five points.

If the conic is not smooth then it is either a pair of lines or a double line. A pair of lines can contain at most four points, if no three are collinear and a double line can only contain two points. So there must be a smooth conic containing the five points.

Suppose that there is more than one conic. Suppose that $F$ and $G$ are the defining polynomials. Then the pencil of conics given by

$$
\lambda F+\mu G=0
$$

where $[\lambda: \mu] \in \mathbb{P}^{1}$ also contains all five points. But any pencil of conics must contain a singular conic, and we have just seen that this is impossible.

The next natural thing to look at are quadrics $X \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$, the zero sets of quadratic polynomials $F$. The rank of $X$ is the rank of $F$, that is, the rank of the associated symmetric form.

Proposition 19.6. (1) Two quadrics are projectively equivalent if and only if they have the same rank.
(2) If $X$ has maximal rank $n+1$ and $n>1$ then $X$ is rational.
(3) If $X$ has rank less than $n+1$ and $n>1$ then $X$ is the cone over a quadric in $\mathbb{P}^{n-1}$.

Proof. (1) follows from the classification of symmetric bilinear forms over an algebraically closed field.

By (1) every quadric is projectively equivalent to a quadric

$$
X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}+\cdots+X_{k}^{2}
$$

where $r=k+1$ is the rank. If $k=n>1$ then $X$ is irreducible. If we pick a point $p$ of $X$ and project from that point then the resulting rational map

$$
\pi: X \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}^{n-1}
$$

is birational. Geometrically, we pick an auxiliary hyperplane $H \simeq$ $\mathbb{P}^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{P}^{n}$ and we send a point $q \in X$ to the point $r \in \mathbb{P}^{n-1}$ where the
line $\langle p, q\rangle$ meets $H$. Any line through $p$ only meets $X$ in one further point $q$ and so $\pi$ is generically one to one, and so has to be birational.

Algebraically, if $H=\left(X_{r}=0\right)$ and $p=[0: 0: \cdots: 0: 1]$ and we change coordinates to that $F$ is

$$
X_{0}^{2}+X_{1}^{2}+\cdots+X_{n-2}^{2}+X_{n-1} X_{n}
$$

then $\pi$ is the map

$$
\left[X_{0}: X_{1}: \cdots: X_{n}\right] \longrightarrow\left[X_{0}: X_{1}: \cdots: X_{n-1}\right]
$$

The inverse rational map is the map
$\left[Y_{0}: Y_{1}: \cdots: Y_{n-1}\right] \longrightarrow\left[Y_{0}: Y_{1}: \cdots: Y_{n-1}: 1 / Y_{n-1}\left(Y_{0}^{2}+Y_{1}^{2}+\cdots+Y_{n-2}^{2}\right)\right]$.
If $k<n$ then $X$ is visibly a cone over quadric in the first $n-1$ variables.

The next thing to consider is cubics, that is, varieties defined by a single cubic polynomial.

We start with cubic curves $C$ in $\mathbb{P}^{2}$. We already know that if $C$ is smooth then $C$ is not rational, since the genus is 1 . If $C$ is irreducible but not smooth then projection from the singular point show that $C$ is rational, that is, birational to $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. In fact with a little bit more work, one can show that $C$ is projectively equivalent either to

$$
Y^{2} Z=X^{2}+X^{3} \quad \text { or } \quad Y^{2} Z=X^{3}
$$

a nodal cubic or a cuspidal cubic.
It is interesting to consider what happens if one projects from a point $p$ of a smooth cubic. A general line passes through two more points $q$ and $r$ of the cubic and we get a double cover of $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. If we only get one point $q=r$ then the line through $q$ is tangent to the curve.

It is a fact that if we choose $p \in C$ general then there are only finitely many lines through $p$ which are tangent to $C$. For the cubic there are four such lines, and this gives four points in $\mathbb{P}^{1}$. We can always choose the first three points to to be 0,1 and $\infty$ but the last point $\lambda$ gives moduli.

In fact the space of all cubics is nine dimensional,

$$
\binom{3+2}{2}-1=9
$$

PGL(3) has dimension $3 \times 3-1=8$. So we expect a one dimensional family of non-projectively equivalent cubics.

The next thing to consider are cubic surfaces in $\mathbb{P}^{3}$.

