# On cell complexes generated by geodesics in the non-Euclidean elliptic plane 

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#### Abstract

In this paper we consider some properties of cell complexes in the nonEuclidean elliptic space, which are generated by $n$ geodesic lines. The cells are geodesically convex polygons and in non-degenerate case the number of cells equals $\binom{n}{2}+1$. Each cell-complex has at least one cell with maximal number of vertices. If we denote by $\xi_{n}$ this maximal number and $\alpha_{n}=\min \xi_{n}$, where the minimum is taken over all possible complexes, then we show that $\alpha_{3}=3, \alpha_{4}=4$ and $\alpha_{n}=5$ for all $n \geqq 5$.

Introduction. Consider the space $G$ of straight lines on the plane $R^{2}$. Let $O \in R^{2}$ be the origin and denote by $[O]$ the bundle of lines through $O$. For $g \in G \backslash[O]$ let $(p, \varphi)$ be the polar coordinates of the foot of perpendicular from the origin on $g$. It is usual to consider the pair $(p, \varphi)$ as coordinates of the line $g$, where $p \in] 0, \infty[$, $\varphi \in[0,2 \pi]$. Thus $G \backslash[O]$ is mapped onto semi-cylinder without rim, having ordinary cylindric coordinates. Note that diametrically opposite points on the rim correspond to the same line from the bundle [ $O$ ]. Hence for the space $G$ we obtain the model $C$ of a semi-cylinder with identified opposite points on the rim (see A. Baddeley in [2]). By means of central projection the manifold $C$ can be mapped onto the elliptic plane $E_{2}$ with punctured pole $N$ (see Fig. 1).

We shall denote the corresponding homeomorphism by $\Phi: G \rightarrow E_{2} \backslash N$. Especially important is that under $\Phi$ the bundles of lines on $R^{2}$ correspond to the geodesics in $E_{2}$ (see [1]).

Note that the inverse mapping $\Phi^{-1}$ is well-defined if an origin and a reference direction are chosen.

Denote by $\Gamma$ the space of geodesic lines $\gamma$ in $E_{2}$. One can easily see that $\Phi^{-1}(\gamma)$ is either a bundle of parallels (if $N \in \gamma$ ), or a bundle of lines, passing through a point $\mathscr{P} \in R^{2}$. Thus we have the mapping $\Psi: \Gamma \backslash[N] \rightarrow R^{2}$. A collection of geodesics




Figure 1. The points $\mathscr{P}$ and $\Phi(\mathscr{F})$ lie on a line through the centre of the circle.
$\left\{\gamma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is called non-degenerate, if no three $\dot{\gamma}_{i}$-s pass through a point. If we choose the pole $N \bar{\epsilon} \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{i}$, then $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}=\Psi\left(\gamma_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is a set of points in $R^{2}$. Note; that if $\left\{\gamma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is non-degenerate, then the corresponding set $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ consists of $n$ points in general position, i.e. no three lie on a line.

The application of mappings $\Phi^{-1}$ and $\Psi$ facilitates the analysis of many properties of cell-complexes by reducing the problem to the investigation of the corresponding sets in $G$. The efficiency of such approach was suggested to the author by R. V. Ambartzumian.

The main problem. We consider a cell-complex in $E_{2}$, generated by non-degenerate collections of geodesic lines $\left\{\gamma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$. Our problem is as follows. In non-degenerate case the number of cells equals $\binom{n}{2}+1$ and every cell-complex has at least one cell with maximal number of neighbours (the cells are polygons, they are regarded as neighbours, if they have a common side). If we denote this maximal number by $\xi_{n}$ then the problem is to find $\min \xi_{n}$, where the minimum is with respect to all possible non-degenerate collections $\left\{\gamma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$. Let us fix a non-degenerate $\left\{\gamma_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ and consider the corresponding set $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$. We call two lines $g_{1}, g_{2} \in G \quad\left(g_{1}, g_{2} \in \bigcup_{i=1}^{n}\left[\mathscr{P}_{i}\right]\right)$ equivalent if they produce the same separation of the set $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ into two subsets.

Further we shall call each class of equivalent lines an atom in $G$. Each atom corresponds (via $\Phi^{-1}$ ) to a cell in $E_{2}$ and there is exactly one unbounded atom, which corresponds to the cell in $E_{2}$ containing the pole $N$. We shall use the following algorithm to determine the number of neighbours of a cell $\alpha$ from a cell-complex on $E_{2}$.

Algorithm. Denote by $g_{i j}$ the straight line through the points $\mathscr{P}_{i}$ and $\mathscr{P}_{j}$. The number of neighbours of the atom $\alpha$ is equal to the number of lines from the
collection $g_{i j}$, which belong to the boundary of the atom $\Phi^{-1}(\alpha)$ (the latter lines will be termed "limiting" lines of the atom).

For example (see Fig. 2) the atom containing the line $g$ is a pentagon.


Figure 2. The limiting lines of the atom generated by $g$ are $g_{12}, g_{23}, g_{15}, g_{34}, g_{45}$.

We state (without proof) the following simple lemma.
Lemma. The number of sides of the minimal convex hull of the set $\left\{\mathscr{F}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is equal to the number of neighbours of the unbounded atom.

Let us make some remarks on the properties of cell-complexes. Here and below the term "cell-complex" (c.c.) will mean "partition of the non-Euclidean elliptic plane $E_{2}$ by a non-degenerate family of geodesics".

Remark I. Let $n \geqq 5$, and suppose that among the atoms of c.c. there is at least one $n$-gon. Then the c.c. consists of exactly one $n$-gon, $n$ triangles and $n(n-3) / 2$ quadrangles.

Proof. Let us denote the $n$-gon by $\alpha$. We choose the pole $N$ in $\alpha$ and construct the mapping $\Psi: \Gamma \backslash[N] \rightarrow R^{2}$. By the Lemma $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ forms a convex $n$-gon.

Applying the above algorithm one can easily show (Fig. 3), that the remaining atoms are either triangles or quadrangles. Namely, the atoms, which contain a line


Figure 3. The line $g_{1}$ belongs to a triangular atom and $g$, belongs to a quadrangular atom:
separating one vertex from the others, are triangles and their number is exactly $n$. All other atoms are quadrangles and their number is $\binom{n}{2}-n=n(n-3) / 2$.

Remark II. If $n>3$, then $\min \xi_{n}>3$.
Proof. Suppose, to the contrary, that there exists a c.c. consisting of triangles only. Then; by the Lemma, for any choice of $N$, the minimal convex hull of the set $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}=\Psi\left(\gamma_{i}\right)\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ is a triangle.

It is not difficult to see that the atom defined by the line shown in Fig. 4 is a $k$-gon, with $k \geqq 4$. This contradiction proves Remark II.


Figure 4. $\mathscr{P}_{s}$ is separated from all other points.

Remark III. If $n>4$, then $\min \xi_{n}>4$.
Proof. Suppose, to the contrary, that there exists a c.c. consisting of triangles and quadrangles only. By (II) we can find a quadrangular atom. If we choose the pole $N$ in this atom then, by the Lemma, let the points $\mathscr{P}_{1}, \mathscr{P}_{2}, \mathscr{P}_{3}$ and $\mathscr{P}_{4}$ form the minimal convex hull of $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ (Fig. 5).


Figure 5.


Figure 6.

Consider the collection $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n} \backslash\left\{\mathscr{P}_{k}\right\}$ (we delete the point $\mathscr{P}_{k}$ ), where $\mathscr{P}_{k}$ belongs to the interior of $\mathscr{P}_{1} \mathscr{P}_{2} \mathscr{P}_{3} \mathscr{P}_{4}$. This corresponds to the deletion of the geodesic $\gamma_{k}$ on $E_{2}$. It can be proved that the deletion of this geodesic cannot result in the formation a new polygon with more than 4 sides. Deleting successively the points different from $\mathscr{P}_{1}, \mathscr{P}_{2}, \mathscr{P}_{3}, \mathscr{P}_{4}$, we obtain a five-point set (see Fig. 6). Here we can easily show the pentagonal atom. This contradiction proves Remark III.

Remark IV. Denote by $q_{k}$ the number of $k$-gons of the c.c. The method described above answers the following question: What are the possible sequences ( $q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n}$ ), generated by c.c.? We have found that for $n=3,4,5$ all possible cases are as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
n=3, & q_{3}=4 \\
n=4, & q_{3}=4, \quad q_{4}=5 \\
n=5, & q_{3}=5, \quad q_{4}=5, \quad q_{5}=1
\end{array}
$$

For $n=6$ we have the following possibilities.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& q_{3}=6, \quad q_{4}=9, \quad q_{5}=0, \quad q_{6}=1, \\
& q_{3}=10, \quad q_{4}=0, \quad q_{5}=6, \quad q_{6}=0, \\
& q_{3}=6, \quad q_{4}=8, \quad q_{5}=2, \quad q_{6}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

In particular, we obtain that $\min \xi_{3}=3, \min \xi_{4}=4, \min \xi_{5}=5$. What is the $\min \xi_{n}$, when $n>5$ ? The answer is given by the following

Theorem.

$$
\min \xi_{n}= \begin{cases}n, & n \leqq 5 \\ 5, & n=5\end{cases}
$$

Proof. It is sufficient to construct such a set of points on $\boldsymbol{R}^{2}$, which have only "triangular", "quadrangular" or "pentagonal" atoms.

Consider a unit square $\mathscr{P}_{1} \mathscr{P}_{2} \mathscr{P}_{3} \mathscr{P}_{4}$ on $R^{2}$ (see Fig. 7).
We shall place the points $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$ on congruent arcs $\sigma_{i}$, which emanate from vertices $\mathscr{P}_{i}(i=1,2,3,4)$ and lie within the square. Two points $Q_{1} \in \sigma_{i}$ and $Q_{2} \in \sigma_{j}$ ( $i \neq j$ ) are called corresponding, if $Q_{1}$ goes in $Q_{2}$ under euclidean motion, which brings $\sigma_{i}$ in to $\sigma_{j}$.


Figure 7.

Let $y=f(x)$ be an equation of $\sigma_{1}$. We shall find $f(x)$, using the following condition:

The tangent at every point of $\sigma_{1}$ crosses $\sigma_{2}$ in the point, which corresponds to the point of tangency on $\sigma_{1}$.
From this we derive the differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1-x-y}{y-x}=\frac{d y}{d x} \quad \text { with initial condition } y(0)=1 \tag{A}
\end{equation*}
$$

The solution of this Cauchy problem exists, it is unique and it is a logarithmic helix. From (A) we deduce that the curve $y=f(x)$ is convex in the neighbourhood of $\mathscr{P}_{1}$ and it has horizontal tangent at the point $\mathscr{P}_{1}$ (side of the square).

We take each $\sigma_{i}$ to be a "piece" of logarithmic helix. Denote by $\lambda$ the common length of the arcs $\sigma_{i}(i=1,2,3,4)$. Let $\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{k}, \ldots$ be a sequence of posilive numbers such that $\sum \delta_{i}<\lambda$. Now we proceed to construct the desired set. First we construct an auxiliary sequence of points $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ on the curve $\sigma_{1}$. Let $Q_{1}$ be the endpoint of $\sigma_{1}$ and if the points $Q_{1}, Q_{2}, \ldots, Q_{j}$ have been constructed, then $Q_{j+1}$ is constructed as follows. We draw the line $\mathscr{P}_{1} Q_{j}$. Let $Q_{j}^{\prime}$ be the intersection point of this line with $\sigma_{2}$ (see Fig. 8). Starting from $Q_{j}^{\prime}$ we move along $\sigma_{2}$ in the direction of $\mathscr{P}_{2}$ at distance $\delta_{j}$. In this way we obtain the point $Q_{j}^{\prime \prime}$. Now we draw a line through $Q_{j}^{\prime \prime}$, which is tangent to $\sigma_{1}$ and let $Q_{j+1}$ be the point of tangency. It is clear that in this way an infinite sequence of points $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ can be constructed. Now we describe how we construct the collection $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{n}$. On $\sigma_{1}$ we construct [ $n / 4$ ] points $Q_{i}$, where $[n / 4]=$ "enter" of $n / 4$. Further, we construct the corresponding points on the arcs $\sigma_{i}(i=2,3,4)$. Together with the vertices of the square we have now $4[n / 4]+4$ points. The set $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{i}\right\}_{t=1}^{n}$ is obtained by deletion of $4-n(\bmod 4)$ extremal points on the arcs $\sigma_{i}$ (which are distinct from the vertices of the square). The so obtained set is denoted by $P$.


Figure 8. The length of arc $Q_{j}^{\prime} Q_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ is $\delta_{j}$

Now we shall verify that all atoms generated by $P$ (equivalently the cells of the corresponding complex on $E_{2}$ ) are triangles, quadrangles or pentagons. For the description of an arbitrary atom $\alpha$ it is sufficent to determine those two subsets of $P$, which are separated by the lines of the atom. Therefore we shall use the following notations: $\alpha=F \mid P \backslash F$, where $F, P \backslash F$ are the two subsets in question.

Denote by $\mathscr{M}_{i}$ the set of points $\left\{\mathscr{P}_{j}\right\}$ lying on $\sigma_{i}$, then $P=\bigcup_{i=1}^{4} \mathscr{M}_{i}$. By choosing a sufficiently small $\lambda$, it is possible to satisfy the following conditions:
(a) Every $\sigma_{i}$ is contained in the triangle $\mathscr{P}_{i} Z \mathscr{P}_{j}$, where $j=i+1(\bmod 4)$, $i \in\{1,2,3,4\}$.
(b) The segments $\mathscr{P}_{j} Q_{1}(j=2,3,4)$ are intersected by no $\sigma_{i}(i=2,3,4)$. The same is true for segments, joining $\mathscr{P}_{1}$ with the endpoints of $\sigma_{i}(i=2,3,4)$.
(c) The lines $g$ intersect the same $\sigma_{i}$ in at most two points.

Let us introduce a classification of the atoms. In our classification we denote by $\mathscr{A}_{j}$ the classes of the atoms. All the sets $F, M$ in the description of the atoms will be non-empty. Below, the sign $\subset$ denotes only proper inclusion. We put
$\mathscr{A}_{1}=\{\emptyset \mid P\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{2}=\left\{F \mid P \backslash F\right.$, where $F \subset \mathscr{M}_{i}$ for some $\left.i\right\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{3}=\left\{\mathscr{M}_{i} \mid P \backslash \mathscr{M}_{i}\right.$ for some $\left.i\right\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{4}=\left\{\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup \mathscr{M}_{j} \mid P \backslash\left(\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup \mathscr{M}_{j}\right)\right.$, where $\left.i \neq j\right\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{5}=\left\{\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup F \mid P \backslash\left(\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup F\right)\right.$, where $\left.F \subset \mathscr{M}_{j}, i \neq j\right\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{6}=\left\{F \cup M \mid P \backslash(F \cup M)\right.$, whore $F \subset \mathscr{M}_{i}, M \subset \mathscr{M}_{j}(i \neq j)$ and every $g$ intersects $\sigma_{i}$ and $\sigma_{j}$ in one point only $\}$,
$\mathscr{A}_{7}=\left\{F \cup M \mid P \backslash(F \cup M)\right.$, where $F \subset \mathscr{M}_{i}, M \subset \mathscr{M}_{j}(i \neq j)$ and every $g$ intersects $\sigma_{i}$ (or $\sigma_{j}$ ) in exactly two points\},
$\mathscr{A}_{8}=\left\{\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup F \cup M \mid P \backslash\left(\mathscr{M}_{i} \cup F \cup M\right)\right.$, where $F \subset \mathscr{M}_{k}, M \subset \mathscr{M}_{j}$ and

$$
i \neq j, j \neq k, i \neq k .\}
$$

By our choice of $\lambda$ this classification is complete. Direct verification shows that the atom of $\mathscr{A}_{1}$ is a quadrangle (by the Lemma),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{2}$ are either quadrangles, or pentagons (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ and (a), (b).),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{3}$ are either triangles or quadrangles (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ and (a), (b)),
the atoms $\mathscr{A}_{4}$ are either quadrangles or pentagons (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ and (a), (b)),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{5}$ are either quadrangles or pentagons (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ and (a), (b)),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{6}$ are quadrangles (by the construction of $\sigma_{i}$ and (a); (b)),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{i}$ are either quadrangles or pentagons (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}, \sigma_{i}$ and (a); (b); (c)),
the atoms of $\mathscr{A}_{8}$ are quadrangles (by the construction of $\sigma_{i}$ and (a), (b)).
Let us consider one of the types of the atoms, say $\mathscr{A}_{2}$, in more detail (see Fig. 9). Let $g$ be a line defining an atom from $\mathscr{A}_{2}$, say $F \mid P \backslash F$, where $F \subset \mathscr{M}_{1}$. Then there exist two points $Q_{k}$ and $Q_{k+1}$. belonging to $\mathscr{M}_{1}$ such that $Q_{k} \in P \backslash F, Q_{k+1} \in F$. Further let $Q_{k}^{\prime}$ and $Q_{k+1}^{\prime}$ be the points from $\mathscr{M}_{4}$ corresponding to $Q_{k}$ and $Q_{k+1}$. Then the limiting lines are $Q_{k+1} \mathscr{P}_{2}, Q_{k+1}^{\prime} Q_{k+1}, Q_{k}^{\prime} Q_{k}, Q_{k} \mathscr{P}_{2}, Q_{k}^{\prime} Q_{k+1}^{\prime}$ (by the construction of $\left\{Q_{i}\right\}$ and the choice $\lambda$ ). Hence this atom is a pentagon. If $Q_{k}=Q_{1}$ and $n \neq 0(\bmod 4)$, then any atom from $\mathscr{A}_{2}$ is a quadrangle.


Figure 94
One can similarly treat the other seven cases. This will conclude the proof of the Theorem.

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