# A Note on Projective Klingenberg Planes over Rings of Plural Numbers

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Abstract—This paper deals with a certain class of projective Klingenberg planes over the local ring  $F[\eta]/\langle \eta^{m} \rangle$  with F an arbitrary field, known as the plural algebra of order m. In particular addition and multiplication of points on a line is defined geometrically and interpreted algebraically, by using the coordinate ring.

*Index Terms*—plural algebra, local ring, projective Klingenberg plane, geometric addition and multiplication.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Klingenberg in [13] introduced real plural algebras as an example of an H-ring without using the name "plural numbers". Jukl, in [8], studied the real plural algebra of order m and investigated linear forms on a free finite dimensional module M, especially their kernel. Jukl continued to study free finite dimensional modules in [9]. In [5], Erdogan et. al. investigated some properties of the modules constructed over the real plural algebra and later, in [6], Ciftci and Erdogan obtained an n- dimensional projective coordinate space associated with the (n+1)- dimensional free module over this real plural algebra. For more detailed information on modules, see [14]. For the algebraic and linear algebraic notions that will be used throughout this paper, we refer to [7] and [15]

In this paper we will study a class of projective Klingenberg (PK) planes coordinatized by the plural algebra (of order m)  $\mathbf{A}:=F+F\eta+F\eta^2+\dots+F\eta^{\{m-1\}}$  such that  $\eta^{\{m\}=0}$  for  $\eta \notin F$  (where F is a field), namely, by the local ring  $F[\eta]/\langle \eta^{\{m\}} \rangle$ . In particular addition and multiplication of points on a line is defined geometrically and interpreted algebraically, by using the coordinate ring. This generalizes a result of Celik and Erdogan [4] for the case of dual numbers (m=2).

#### **II. PRELIMINARIES**

In this section we will give some definitions and results which will be the basis of this paper.

A ring **R** with identity element 1 is called local if the set **I** 

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of its non-unit elements is an ideal. Then  $\mathbf{R}/\mathbf{I}$  is a (skew) field and also either x or 1-x is a unit.

Let F be a field. Let  $\eta^{\{m\}=0}$  for  $\eta \notin F$ . Consider  $\mathbf{A}:=F(\eta)=F+F\eta+F\eta^{2}+\dots+F\eta^{\{m-1\}}$  with componentwise addition and multiplication modulo  $\eta^{\{m\}}$ . Then  $\mathbf{A}$  is a (unital, commutative and associative) local ring with the maximal ideal  $\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{A}\eta$  of non-units. Also, the local ring  $\mathbf{A}$  can be considered as plural F-algebra of order m with a basis  $\{1,\eta,\eta^{2},\dots,\eta^{\{m-1\}}\}$ . Note that the algebra can be seen as quotient ring of the polynomial ring  $F[\eta]$  by the principal ideal  $\leq \eta^{\{m\}>}$ . For more detailed information about quotient rings, it can be seen to [16]. If we choose the field of real numbers instead of F then we have the real plural algebra of order m (see [8, Def. 1.1])

It is clear that an element x of **A** is of the form  $x=a_0 + a_1 \eta + a_2 \eta^2 + \dots + a_{m-1} \eta^{m-1}$  where  $a_{i}\in F$  for  $0 \le i \le m-1$ .

Now we can consecutively state the following two results, analogues of Proposition 1.3 and 1.5 given in [8], without proof.

## **Proposition 1**.

An element  $x=a_0 + a_1 \eta + a_2 \eta^2 + \dots + a_{m-1}\eta^{n-1} \in \mathbf{A}$  is a unit if and only if  $a_0 \neq 0$ .

## **Proposition 2**.

**A** is a local ring with maximal ideal  $\eta$ **A**. The subsets  $\eta^{j}$ **A**,  $1 \le j \le m$ , are all ideals in **A**.

From [2] we recall the following:

#### **Definition 3**.

Let  $M=(P,L,\in,\sim)$  consist of an incidence structure  $(P,L,\in)$ (points, lines, incidence) and an equivalence relation `~' (neighbour relation) on **P** and on **L**. Then M is called a projective Klingenberg plane (PK-plane), if it satisfies the following axioms:

(PK1) If P,Q are non-neighbour points, then there is a unique line PQ through P and Q.

(PK2) If g,h are non-neighbour lines, then there is a unique point  $g\Lambda h$  on both g and h.

(PK3) There is a projective plane  $M^{*}=(P^{*},L^{*},E)$ and an incidence structure epimorphism  $\Psi:M \rightarrow M^{*}$ , such that the conditions

$$\begin{split} \Psi(P)=&\Psi(Q) \Leftrightarrow P \sim Q, \Psi(g)=&\Psi(h) \Leftrightarrow g \sim h \\ \text{hold for all } P, Q \in & \textbf{P}, \text{ g,h} \in \textbf{L}. \end{split}$$

Let **R** be a local ring. Then  $M(\mathbf{R})=(\mathbf{P},\mathbf{L},\in,\sim)$  is the



incidence structure with neighbour relation defined as follows:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P} &= \{(x,y,1)|x,y \in \mathbf{R}\} \cup \{(1,y,z)|y \in \mathbf{R}, z \in \mathbf{I}\} \cup \{(w,1,z)|w,z \in \mathbf{I}\}, \\ \mathbf{L} &= \{[m,1,k]|m,k \in \mathbf{R}\} \cup \{[1,n,p]|p \in \mathbf{R}, n \in \mathbf{I}\} \cup \{[q,n,1]|q,n \in \mathbf{I}\}, \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} & [m,1,k] = \{(x,xm+k,1) \mid x \in \textbf{R} \} \cup \{(1,zk+m,z) \mid z \in \textbf{I} \}, \\ & [1,n,p] = \{(yn+p,y,1) \mid y \in \textbf{R} \} \cup \{(zp+n,1,z) \mid z \in \textbf{I} \}, \\ & [q,n,1] = \{(1,y,yn+q) \mid y \in \textbf{R} \} \cup \{(w,1,wq+n) \mid w \in \textbf{I} \}. \end{split}$$

From [2] we recall the following theorem.

## Theorem 4.

 $M(\mathbf{R})$  is a PK-plane, and each desarguesian PK-plane is isomorphic to some  $M(\mathbf{R})$ .

For more detailed information about desarguesian PK-plane, it can be seen to the papers of [1, 10]. By Theorem 4 it is obvious that  $M(\mathbf{A})$  is a PK-plane.

An n-tuple  $(n\geq 3)$  of pairwise non-neighbour points is called an (ordered) n-gon if no three of its elements are on neighbour lines.

Baker et. al., [2], use O=(0,0,1), U=(1,0,0), V=(0,1,0), E=(1,1,1) as a coordinatization 4-gon of a PK-plane.

Finally, we give the definition of addition and multiplication of points on the line OU of  $M(\mathbf{A})$  in the sense of [4].

## Definition 5.

Let A and B be non-neighbour points on the line OU=[0,1,0] of  $M(\mathbf{A})$ . Then

i) A+B is defined as the intersection point of the lines LV and OU where L=KU $\land$ BS, K=AV $\land$ OS, S=(1,1,0).

ii) A·B is defined as the intersection point of the lines VN and OU where N=AS $\land$ OM, M=BV $\land$ IS, S=(1,1,0), I=(1,0,1).

In the next section, we will give the main results.

#### III. THE MAIN RESULTS

We immediately start with giving the following proposition which is analogue of a result given in [4]. The calculations in the proof of the proposition are based on similar calculations used in the coordinatization procedure for general PK-planes due to Keppens [11, 12].

## **Proposition 6**.

The addition and multiplication of two non-neighbour points A and B on the line OU in  $M(\mathbf{A})$  as defined geometrically in Definition 5 can be calculated algebraically using the ring operations in the coordinatizing plural F-algebra.

**Proof.** Let A=(a,0,1) and B=(b,0,1) be non-neighbour points on the line OU=[0,1,0] where



 $a=a_0 + a_1 \eta + a_2 \eta^2 + \dots + a_{m-1} \eta^{m-1} \in \mathbf{A}$  and  $b=b_0 + b_1 \eta + b_2 \eta^2 + \dots + b_{m-1} \eta^{m-1} \in \mathbf{A}.$ 

i) For the lines AV=[1,0,a] and OS=[1,1,0], we have the intersection point as K=(a,a,1). Also, for the lines BS=[1,1,-b] and KU=[0,1,a], we get the intersection point as L=(a+b,a,1). Finally

$$A+B = LV \land OU$$
  
= [1,0,a+b] \land OU  
= (a+b,0,1)

is obtained.

If B=(1,0,z), that is, B~U, then for the lines AV=[1,0,a] and OS=[1,1,0], we have the intersection point as K=(a,a,1). Also, for the lines BS=[z,-z,1] and KU=[0,1,a] we get the intersection point as L=(1,z\cdot(1+a\cdot z)^{-1}\cdot a,z\cdot(1+a\cdot z)^{-1}). Finally,

$$A+B = LV \land OU$$
  
= [z·(1+a·z)<sup>-1</sup>,0,1] \lapha[0,1,0]  
= (1,0,z·(1+a·z)<sup>-1</sup>)  
= (1,0,z^{-1})=B^{-1}

is obtained.

ii) Since A,B $\not\sim$ O we know that a and b are units of **A**. For the lines IS=[1,1,-1] and BV=[1,0,b] we have the intersection point as M=(b,b-1,1). Also, for the lines AS=[1,1,-a] and OM=[1-b<sup>-1</sup>,1,0] we get the intersection point as N=(a·b,(a·b)-a,1). Finally,

$$A \cdot B = VN \land OU$$
  
= [1,0,a·b] \lapha[0,1,0]  
= (a·b,0,1)

is obtained.

If B=(1,0,z), that is, B~U, then for the lines IS=[1,1,-1] and BV=[z,0,1] we have the intersection point as M=(1,1-z,z). Also, for the lines AS=[1,1,-a] and OM=[1-z,1,0] we get the intersection point as N=(1,1-z,z $\cdot a^{-1}$ ). Finally,

$$A \cdot B = VN \land OU$$
  
= [z \cdot a^{-1}, 0, 1] \wedge[0, 1, 0]  
= (1, 0, z \cdot a^{-1})  
= (1, 0, z \cdot )  
= B \cdot 2

is obtained.

As a corollary of Proposition 6, we can state the following:

## Corollary 7.

The point S=(1,1,0) in Definition 5 may be replaced by any point S on UV with  $S \not\sim U$ ,  $S \not\sim V$ . Hence, the definition of the addition and multiplication of points on the line OU is independent of the choice of the point S.

**Proof.** If S  $\stackrel{\frown}{}$  is an arbitrary point on the line UV non-neighbour to V then, let S  $\stackrel{\frown}{}$  =(1,s,0)

where  $s=s_0 + s_1 \eta + s_2 \eta^2 + \dots + s_{m-1} \eta^{m-1} \in A$  is a unit since  $S \stackrel{\sim}{\to} U$ . By similar calculations we replace S by S  $\stackrel{\sim}{\to}$  in the proof of Proposition 6. Then,

i) For the lines AV=[1,0,a] and OS = [s,1,0] we have the intersection point as  $K=(a,a\cdot s,1)$ . Also, for the lines  $BS = [s,1,-(b\cdot s)]$  and  $KU=[0,1,a\cdot s]$ , we get the intersection point as  $L=(a+b,a\cdot s,1)$ . Finally,

$$A+B = LV \land OU$$
  
= [1,0,a+b] \land [0,1,0]  
= (a+b,0,1)

is obtained.

If B=(1,0,z), that is, B~U, then for the lines AV=[1,0,a] and OS  $\hat{}$  = [s,1,0], we have the intersection point as K=(a,a·s,1). Also, for the lines BS  $\hat{}$  =[z,-(s<sup>-</sup> 1·z),1] and KU=[0,1,a·s], we get the intersection point as L=(1,z·(1+a·z)<sup>-</sup> 1(a·s),z·(1+a·z)<sup>-</sup> 1). Finally,

$$A+B = LV \land OU$$
  
= [z·(1+a·z)<sup>-1</sup>,0,1] \lapha[0,1,0]  
= (1,0,z·(1+a·z)<sup>-1</sup>)  
= (1,0,z<sup>-1</sup>)  
= B<sup>-1</sup>

is obtained.

ii) For the lines IS=[s,1,-s] and BV=[1,0,b] we have the intersection point as M=(b,(b·s)-s,1). Also, for the lines AS=[s,1,-(a·s)] and OM=[s-(b<sup>-1</sup>·s),1,0] where b∈**A** is a unit since B $\not\sim$ O, we get the intersection point as N=(a·b,(a·b)·s-a·s,1). Finally

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{V} \mathbf{N} \wedge \mathbf{O} \mathbf{U} \\ &= [1, 0, \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}] \wedge [0, 1, 0] \\ &= (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}, 0, 1) \end{aligned}$ 

is obtained.

If B=(1,0,z), that is, B~U, then for the lines IS=[s,1,-s] and BV=[z,0,1], we have the intersection point as M=(1,s-(z·s),z). Also for the lines AS=[s,1,-(a·s)] and OM=[s-(z·s),1,0], we get the intersection point as N=(1,s-(z·s),z·a<sup>-1</sup>) where a  $\in \mathbf{A}$  is a unit since A $\neq$ O. Finally,

$$A \cdot B = VN \land OU$$
  
= [z \cdot a^{-1}, 0, 1] \lapha[0, 1, 0]  
= (1, 0, z \cdot a^{-1})  
= (1, 0, z \cdot a^{-1})  
= B \cdot a^{-1}

is obtained.

As an immediate consequence of Proposition 6, addition and multiplication of points on the line OU corresponds to addition and multiplication of elements of the local ring **A** of plural numbers over a field. This means that  $(OU,+,\cdot)$  itself has the structure of a local ring. The situation generalizes the one valid in an ordinary desarguesian (affine or projective)



plane over a field F where the points on a line can also be added and multiplicated in such a way that one obtains a field isomorphic to F (see [3, Chapter 3]). Also, in [4], a similar result was obtained for PK-planes over a local ring of dual numbers (over a field or even over a quaternion skewfield).

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