

# Generalizing Gauss's Pentagon Relation

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## 1 Introduction

Gauss's pentagon relation says that the map

$$G_5(x_1, x_2) = \left( x_2, \frac{1 - x_1}{1 - x_1 x_2} \right) \quad (1)$$

has order 5. That is,  $G_5^5 = I$ , where  $I$  is the identity map. This fact is closely related to *Napier's rule* from spherical geometry, and it is also related to the projective geometry of pentagons. See [MOT], and also the discussion below.

Though it seems trivial, we point out that  $G_5^{10} = I$  as well. In this paper we will show that  $G_5$  is the first map in a series of maps  $G_n : \mathbf{R}^{2n-8} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2n-8}$ , for  $n = 5, 6, 7, \dots$ , such that  $G_n^{2n} = I$ . The next two maps are

$$G_6(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \left( x_2, x_3, x_4, \frac{1 - x_1 - x_3 + x_1 x_2 x_3}{1 - x_1 - x_3 x_4} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$G_7(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6) = \left( x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, \frac{1 - x_1 - x_3 - x_5 + x_1 x_2 x_3 + x_3 x_4 x_5 + x_1 x_5}{1 - x_1 - x_3 + x_1 x_2 x_3 + x_1 x_5 x_6 - x_5 x_6} \right) \quad (3)$$

The reader who has a computer handy can check that  $G_6^{12} = I$  and  $G_7^{14} = I$  on random inputs. The general equation has the form

$$G_n(x_1, \dots, x_{2n-8}) = \left( x_2, \dots, x_{2n-8}, R_n(x_1, \dots, x_{2n-8}) \right), \quad (4)$$

where  $R_n$  is the rational function given in §23.

I discovered these maps when considering the projective geometry of polygons, in connection with the pentagram map. The pentagram map has deep connections to integrable systems and cluster algebras – see the references – and perhaps there is some depth to the maps discussed here.

## 2 Flag Invariants

We work in the projective plane. What we say works (with suitable interpretations) over any field, though for concreteness we think of the action taking place over  $\mathbf{R}$ .

We list points in homogeneous coordinates.  $LL'$  denotes the intersection of lines  $L$  and  $L'$ , and  $PP'$  denotes the line containing  $P$  and  $P'$ . We have the *inverse cross ratio*

$$[a, b, c, d] = \frac{(a - b)(c - d)}{(a - c)(b - d)}. \quad (5)$$

For the reader who wants to make their own experiments, we mention an extremely useful calculation device. Given 4 collinear points  $A, B, C, D$  in the projective plane, the quantity

$$\frac{(A \times B) * (C \times D)}{(A \times C) * (B \times D)} \quad (6)$$

is a vector of the form  $(x, x, x)$ , where  $x$  is the inverse cross ratio. Here  $(*)$  denotes pointwise multiplication, and the division line denotes pointwise division.

A *polygonal ray* is an infinite collection of points  $P_{-7}, P_{-3}, P_{+1}, \dots$ , with indices congruent to 1 mod 4, normalized so that

$$P_{-7} = (0, 0, 1), \quad P_{-3} = (1, 0, 1), \quad P_{+1} = (1, 1, 1), \quad P_{+5} = (0, 1, 1). \quad (7)$$

These points determine lines

$$L_{-5+k} = P_{-7+k}P_{-3+k}, \quad (8)$$

We define

$$F_{-6+k} = (P_{-7+k}, L_{-5+k}), \quad F_{-4+k} = (P_{-3+k}, L_{-5+k}) \quad (9)$$

$$c(F_{0+k}) = [P_{-7+k}, P_{-3+k}, L_{-5+k}L_{3+k}, L_{-5+k}L_{7+k}], \quad (10)$$

$$c(F_{2+k}) = [P_{9+k}, P_{5+k}, L_{7+k}L_{-1+k}, L_{7+k}L_{-5+k}], \quad (11)$$

All these equations are meant for  $k = 0, 4, 8, 12, \dots$ . Finally, we define

$$x_k = c(F_{2k}); \quad k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \quad (12)$$

We have associated the *flag invariants*  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots$  to the polygonal ray. See [Sch3] for more details.

### 3 The Reconstruction Formula

Given a list  $(x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots)$ , we seek a polygonal ray which has this list as its flag invariants.

We repeat some definitions from [Sch3]. An *odd block* is a sequence either of the form  $k$  or  $k, k+1, k+2$ , where  $k$  is odd. We say that two blocks are *well separated* if there are at least 3 integers strictly between them. For instance 1 and 3, 4, 5 are not well separated, but 1 and 5, 6, 7 are well separated.

We say that an *admissible sequence* is a finite increasing sequence of integers that decomposes into pairwise well-separated blocks. We define the *sign* of an admissible sequence to be  $(+)$  if there are an even number of singles and  $(-)$  if there are an odd number of singles. The emptyset counts as an admissible sequence, and its sign is  $(+)$ .

We attach a monomial to each admissible sequence  $I$ , as follows.

$$m(I) = \text{sign}(I)x^I. \quad (13)$$

For instance, when  $I = (1, 5, 6, 7, 11)$  we have  $m(I) = +x_1x_5x_6x_7x_{11}$ .

Given odd integers  $a < b$  we define  $S_a^b$  to be the set of admissible sequences which only use integers in the open interval  $(a, b)$ . So,  $a$  and  $b$  themselves cannot appear in members of  $S_a^b$ . Finally, we define

$$O_a^b = \sum_{I \in S_a^b} m(I). \quad (14)$$

These polynomials are some of the building blocks for the integrable structure of the pentagram map; see [Sch3], [OST1], [OST2], and [Sol].

For the purposes of giving a recursive definition of these polynomials, we define  $O_{-1}^{-1} = 1$  and  $O_{b+2}^b = 0$ . We then have

$$O_b^b = O_{b-2}^b = 1, \quad O_a^b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -x_{b-2} \\ x_{b-4}x_{b-3}x_{b-2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} O_a^{b-2} \\ O_a^{b-4} \\ O_a^{b-6} \end{pmatrix}, \quad a = b-4, b-6, \dots \quad (15)$$

Taking [Sch3, eq. 20] and applying a suitable projective duality, we get the *reconstruction formula*

$$P_{9+2k} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & x_0x_1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & x_0x_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} O_{-1}^{3+k} \\ O_{+1}^{3+k} \\ O_{+3}^{3+k} \end{pmatrix}, \quad k = 0, 2, 4, \dots \quad (16)$$

## 4 Closed Polygons

Multiplying through by the matrix  $M^{-1}$ , where  $M$  is in the matrix in Equation 16, we get an alternate normalization. Setting

$$Q_{-7} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ x_0x_1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Q_{-3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ x_0x_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Q_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

we have

$$Q_{9+2k} = \begin{pmatrix} O_{-1}^{3+k} \\ O_{+1}^{3+k} \\ O_{+3}^{3+k} \end{pmatrix}, \quad k = 0, 2, 4, \dots \quad (18)$$

In case we have a closed  $n$ -gon, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = [Q_{-3}] = [Q_{4n-3}] = [Q_{9+2(2n-6)}] = \begin{bmatrix} O_{-1}^{2n-3} \\ O_{+1}^{2n-3} \\ O_{+3}^{2n-3} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (19)$$

Here  $[\cdot]$  denotes the equivalence class in the projective plane. Equation 19 yields  $O_{-1}^{2n-3} = O_{+1}^{2n-3} = 0$ . Shifting the vertex labels of our polygon by 1 unit has the effect of shifting the flag invariants by 2 units. Doing all cyclic shifts, we get

$$O_a^b = 0 \quad b - a = 2n - 4, 2n - 2, \quad a, b \text{ odd}. \quad (20)$$

This last equation is consistent with Equation 17.

We can get even nicer relations if we consider projective duality. Given a polygon  $P$  with flag invariants  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  we consider the dual polygon  $P^*$ . The polygon  $P^*$  is such that a projective duality carries the lines extending the edges of  $P^*$  to the points of  $P$ , and *vice versa*. When suitably labeled, the flag invariants of  $P^*$  are  $x_2, x_3, \dots$ . Equation 20 also holds for  $P^*$ .

We defined  $O_a^b$  with respect to the odd parity. We can make the same definition with respect to pairs  $a < b$  when both have even parity. Since Equation 20 also holds relative to  $P^*$ , we do not need to take  $a$  and  $b$  odd in Equation 20. In particular, we have the  $2n$  relations

$$O_a^b = 0 \quad b - a = 2n - 4 \quad (21)$$

The fact that we can reconstruct a polygon from these relations alone can be interpreted as a proof that the relations in Equation 21 imply the relations in Equation 20.

## 5 The Rational Maps

Equation 21 tells us that  $O_{-1}^{2n-5} = 0$ . But now Equation 15 gives

$$x_{2n-7}x_{2n-8}x_{2n-9}O_{-1}^{2n-11} - x_{2n-7}O_{-1}^{2n-9} + O_{-1}^{2n-7} = 0. \quad (22)$$

note that  $x_0$  does not occur in this equation. Solving for  $x_{2n-7}$ , we get

$$x_{2n-7} = R_n(x_1, \dots, x_{2n-8}),$$

where

$$R_n(x_1, \dots, x_{2n-8}) = \frac{O_{-1}^{2n-7}}{O_{-1}^{2n-9} - x_{2n-8}x_{2n-9}O_{-1}^{2n-11}} \quad (23)$$

Thanks to Equation 21, these equations hold when we shift the indices cyclically by any amount. Thus

$$x_{2n-7+k} = R_n(x_{k+1}, \dots, x_{2n-8+k}), \quad k = 1, \dots, 2n. \quad (24)$$

In particular, if we define  $G_n$  as in Equation 4, relative to  $R_n$  from Equation 23, then we have  $G_n^{2n} = I$ .

Just to see that Gauss's relation comes out of this, consider the case  $n = 5$ . In this case

$$R_5(x_1, x_2) = \frac{O_{-1}^3}{O_{-1}^1 - x_2x_1O_{-1}^{-1}} = \frac{1 - x_1}{1 - x_1x_2} \quad (25)$$

The case  $n = 6$  yields

$$R_6(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{O_{-1}^5}{O_{-1}^3 - x_4x_3O_{-1}^1} = \frac{1 - x_1 - x_3 + x_1x_2x_3}{1 - x_1 - x_3x_4} \quad (26)$$

This agrees with what we advertised in the introduction.

One might wonder why  $G_n^n = I$  for  $n = 5$  but not for higher values of  $n$ . It turns out that the flag invariants for a pentagon satisfy  $x_{k+5} = x_k$  for all  $k$ . See [FT] for a proof. This explains why, in fact,  $G_5^5 = I$ . In general, there is no such symmetry, and we have to double the period to get the identity. The special points on which  $R_n^n$  is the identity correspond to polygons with 2-fold projective symmetry when  $n$  is even, and certain self-dual polygons when  $n$  is odd. See [FT] for a detailed discussion of self-dual polygons.

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