A duality property of Delaunay faces for line arrangements in $\mathbb{H}^3$

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Abstract. For an arrangement of lines in $\mathbb{H}^3$, each face of the Delaunay cells is determined by three lines. We prove that the face associated with three lines is the same as the face associated with the three pairwise common perpendiculars to those lines, except in some degenerate circumstances.

1. Introduction

In [Prz12], we introduced the notion of Delaunay cells associated with an arrangement of flats in hyperbolic space. Although that paper dealt with flats of arbitrary dimension in hyperbolic space of arbitrary dimension, in this paper, we restrict attention to one-dimensional flats (i.e. lines) in $\mathbb{H}^3$.

Definition 1.1. [Prz12] Given a line $\ell$ in $\mathbb{H}^3$, define the projection function $\pi : \mathbb{H}^3 \to \ell$ as $\pi(x)$ is the point on $\ell$ which is closest to $x$. We then define the open Delaunay cell associated with the distinct lines $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ (for $n \leq 4$) to be the set of points $x \in \mathbb{H}^3$ for which $\pi_1(x), \ldots, \pi_n(x)$ are in general position and $x$ lies in the relative interior of their convex hull.

We will often allow some or all of the $\ell_i$ to be points on $\partial\mathbb{H}^3$ rather than lines. In this case, the projection function is a constant function, equal to that particular point on $\partial\mathbb{H}^3$. When points on $\partial\mathbb{H}^3$ are allowed, the requirement that the $\ell_i$ be distinct will be replaced with the requirement that none of the $\ell_i$ are contained in any other of the $\ell_i$.

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In [Prz12], we required that the $\ell_i$ be disjoint lines rather than merely distinct, and points on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3$ weren’t allowed. While the primary motivation of this paper is to study the Delaunay cells from [Prz12], the main result of this paper can be proved in some situations which weren’t relevant in [Prz12].

Typically, one would expect the open Delaunay cell associated with $n$ lines to be $(n - 1)$-dimensional, although there are degenerate cases in which it’s empty. Assuming the open Delaunay cell associated with the disjoint lines $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3,$ and $\ell_4$ is three-dimensional, its boundary will be two-dimensional. One portion of the boundary will be the open Delaunay cell associated with three of the lines. We refer to such a portion of the boundary as a face.

Any point $x$ in the face associated with $\ell_1, \ell_2,$ and $\ell_3$ satisfies the criterion that $\pi_1(x), \pi_2(x),$ and $\pi_3(x)$ are in general position and $x$ lies in the relative interior of their convex hull. This face can be extended to a surface, which we call the coplanar surface.

**Definition 1.2.** Let each of $\ell_1, \ell_2,$ and $\ell_3$ be a line in $\mathbb{H}^3$ or point on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3,$ with the requirement that none of the $\ell_i$ is contained in any other of the $\ell_i$. We define the coplanar surface of $\ell_1, \ell_2,$ and $\ell_3$ to be the set

$$\{x \in \mathbb{H}^3 \mid x, \pi_1(x), \pi_2(x), \text{ and } \pi_3(x) \text{ are coplanar}\}$$

![Figure 1. A face (left) and a coplanar surface (right). $\ell_1, \ell_2,$ and $\ell_3$ are solid lines. Pairwise common perpendiculars are dashed lines](image)

One can easily see that $\ell_1, \ell_2,$ and $\ell_3$ all lie on the coplanar surface (or if they’re points on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3,$ the extension of the coplanar surface to $\mathbb{H}^3$). Let $\ell_{ij}^\perp$ be the common perpendicular to $\ell_i$ and $\ell_j.$ We regard a point on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3$ as being perpendicular to any line that contains it. For example, if two distinct lines share a common endpoint, then the common endpoint is their common
perpendicular. The common perpendicular to two distinct points on \( \partial \mathbb{H}^3 \) is the line which connects them. Then the restriction that none of the \( \ell_i \) are contained in any of the other \( \ell_i \) serves the purpose of guaranteeing that the pairwise common perpendiculars exist.

If they are lines, \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) also lie on the coplanar surface (since if \( x \) is on \( \ell_{ij}^\perp \), then \( x, \pi_i(x), \) and \( \pi_j(x) \) are collinear). In the case that any of the \( \ell_{ij}^\perp \) is a point on \( \partial \mathbb{H}^3 \), it won’t lie on the coplanar surface, but it will lie on the extension of the coplanar surface to \( \mathbb{H}^3 \).

Except in degenerate cases, \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) are six distinct lines which form a right-angled (nonplanar) hyperbolic hexagon, which happens to be the boundary of the face associated with the lines \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \). Degenerate cases include: some of the “lines” being points on \( \partial \mathbb{H}^3 \), the face being empty, some of the \( \ell_i \) intersecting each other, or some of the \( \ell_{ij}^\perp \) intersecting each other.

If we were given only the right-angled hyperbolic hexagon, it would be impossible to tell which of the three sides were the original three lines and which of the three sides were the pairwise common perpendiculars. In particular, the pairwise common perpendiculars to \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) are (in some order) \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \). Then the coplanar surface of \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) would contain the same six lines. Thus, it’s natural to ask whether the coplanar surface of \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) is the same as the coplanar surface of \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \).

**Theorem 3.2.** Let each of \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) be a line in \( \mathbb{H}^3 \) or a point on \( \partial \mathbb{H}^3 \), none of which contains any of the others. Then their coplanar surface is contained in the coplanar surface of their pairwise common perpendiculars. If none of the pairwise common perpendiculars contain any other of the pairwise common perpendiculars, then the two coplanar surfaces are identical.

**Theorem 3.6.** Let each of \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) be a line in \( \mathbb{H}^3 \) or a point on \( \partial \mathbb{H}^3 \), none of which contains any of the others. Let \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \) be their pairwise common perpendiculars. If none of the \( \ell_{ij}^\perp \) contain any other of the \( \ell_{ij}^\perp \), then the face associated with \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) is the same as the face associated with \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \).

One could ask whether the same theorems hold for flats in higher dimensional hyperbolic space, but the general answer seems to be “no”. In three-dimensional Euclidean geometry, pairs of lines don’t always have a unique common perpendicular line. Avoiding these exceptional cases, it’s very simple to prove that analogous theorems hold. Another natural question to ask is “since \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) determine the same coplanar surface as \( \ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp, \) and \( \ell_{31}^\perp \), are there any other
triples of lines which determine that coplanar surface? We expect to address this in a future paper.

The motivation is to study degenerate circumstances that can arise in Delaunay decompositions, such as multiple Delaunay faces having two-dimensional overlap. We also suspect that the Delaunay faces can provide the 2-handles of a Mom structure [GMM10], [GMM09], [Mil09], although this would likely require ruling out various exceptional circumstances.

In Section 2, we compute (up to a scalar multiple) the projection of the origin onto the common perpendicular to two lines. In Section 3, we prove the main results of the paper.

2. Projection onto the common perpendicular

Throughout the paper, we represent $\mathbb{H}^3$ in the Klein model. The Klein model is $D^3 = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |x| < 1 \}$. Lines and planes are accurately represented as lines and planes, but angles and distances are distorted. Rotation about the origin is a hyperbolic isometry. Other hyperbolic isometries are generally not as simple to describe.

A plane has a unit normal vector $n$ (in a Euclidean sense, and chosen to point away from the origin). Then the equation of the plane can be written as $x \cdot n = C$ for some constant $C$. The pole of the plane is the point $\frac{C n}{|C|^2}$, which lies outside of $D^3$. A line is perpendicular to a plane (in a hyperbolic sense) if and only if it passes through the plane’s pole. In the case that $C = 0$, the plane has no pole. In that case, the plane and line are perpendicular in a hyperbolic sense if and only if they are perpendicular in a Euclidean sense.

Definition 2.1. We will represent a line $\ell \in D^3$ as a vector $c \in D^3$ and a unit vector $d \in \mathbb{R}^3$. The vector $c$ is the point on $\ell$ which is closest to $0$, so is $\pi(0)$. The vector $d$ is a direction vector for the line $\ell$. Then $c \cdot d = 0$ and $d \cdot d = 1$.

We will also represent a point $c \in \partial D^3$ as the vector $c$ and a unit vector $d$. We choose the unit vector $d$ so $c \cdot d = 0$, but otherwise the choice of $d$ is arbitrary. We include $d$ merely for notational consistency between lines in $D^3$ and points on $\partial D^3$.

As a plane has a pole, so does a line. The pole of a line is another line, passing through the point $\frac{c}{|c|^2}$ with direction $c \times d$. A plane is perpendicular to a line if and only if the plane contains the line’s pole. If $c = 0$, then the line has no pole. In this case, a line and plane are perpendicular in a hyperbolic sense if and only if they are perpendicular in a Euclidean sense.
Proposition 2.2. Let each of \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) be a line in \( D^3 \) or a point on \( \partial D^3 \) (described by vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \) as in Definition 2.1). If \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) have a common perpendicular line \( \ell_{12} \) which lies in the \( x\mathcal{-}y \) plane and is parallel (in a Euclidean sense) to the \( y \)-axis, then we may write \( d_i \) and \( c_i \) as

\[
d_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_i^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_i}} (\sin \alpha \cos \beta_i, -t_i \cos \alpha \cos \beta_i, \sin \beta_i)
\]

\[
c_i = p_i - (p_i \cdot d_i) d_i
\]

where

\[
p_i = (\cos \alpha, t_i \sin \alpha, 0)
\]

for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \), and some \( |t_i| \leq 1 \), \( 0 < \alpha < \pi \), and \( 0 \leq \beta_i < \pi \). Assuming \( \ell_1 \neq \ell_2 \), the ordered pairs \((t_1, \beta_1)\) and \((t_2, \beta_2)\) are not equal.

**Proof.** If the common perpendicular \( \ell_{12} \) to \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) lies in the \( x\mathcal{-}y \) plane and is parallel to the \( y \)-axis, then it crosses the \( x \)-axis somewhere within \( D^3 \). Let that point be \((\cos \alpha, 0, 0)\) with \( 0 < \alpha < \pi \). Then \( \ell_{12} \) is the line \( x = \cos \alpha, z = 0 \). Each of \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) will intersect \( \ell_{12} \) at a point \( p_i \) with \( y \)-coordinate between \(-\sin \alpha \) and \( \sin \alpha \). Let the \( y \)-coordinate of \( p_i \) be \( t_i \sin \alpha \) for \( i \in \{1, 2\} \) and \( |t_i| \leq 1 \). Then \( \ell_i \) lies in a plane which is (hyperbolically) perpendicular to \( \ell_{12} \) at the point \( p_i \). Any plane perpendicular to \( \ell_{12} \) must contain the pole of the line \( \ell_{12} \), the line \( x = \sec \alpha, y = 0 \) (unless \( \alpha = \frac{\pi}{2} \)). The equation of such a plane is \((\sec \alpha - \cos \alpha)y = -(x - \sec \alpha)t_i \sin \alpha\), which simplifies to \( y \sin \alpha = t_i(1 - x \cos \alpha) \). Note that this final form for the plane is correct even if \( \alpha = \frac{\pi}{2} \), since in that case \( \ell_{12} \) is the \( y \)-axis and the plane must be perpendicular to \( \ell_{12} \) in even a Euclidean sense.

The direction vector \( d_i \) must be orthogonal to the normal vector of the plane. The normal vector to the plane is \((t_i \cos \alpha, \sin \alpha, 0)\) so \( d_i \) is a scalar multiple of \((\sin \alpha \cos \beta_i, -t_i \cos \alpha \cos \beta_i, \sin \beta_i)\) for some \( \beta_i \in [0, 2\pi) \). Since the sign of \( d_i \) is irrelevant, we may choose \( \beta_i \in [0, \pi) \). Scaling so \( d_i \) is a unit vector, we see that

\[
d_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_i^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_i}} (\sin \alpha \cos \beta_i, -t_i \cos \alpha \cos \beta_i, \sin \beta_i)
\]

Line \( \ell_i \) passes through the point \( p_i \) with direction \( d_i \). On \( \ell_i \), the closest point to the origin is \( c_i = p_i - (p_i \cdot d_i) d_i \).

If the ordered pairs \((t_1, \beta_1)\) and \((t_2, \beta_2)\) are equal, then \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) both pass through the same point \( p_1 = p_2 \) and have the same direction vectors, so aren’t distinct. \( \square \)

**Remark 1.** By rotating \( D^3 \) about the origin, most pairs of distinct lines can be transformed into lines of the form in the proposition. However, if \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \)
share an endpoint on $\partial D^3$, then they lack a common perpendicular line. The proposition does not produce any such pairs of lines, even if $\alpha = 0$.

**Lemma 2.3.** With $d_i$ and $p_i$ as in the previous proposition, and $i$ and $j$ in $\{1, 2\}$,

1. $p_j \cdot d_i = \frac{(1-t_i t_j) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_i}{\sqrt{1-(1-t_j^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_i}}$
2. $1 - |p_i|^2 = (1 - t_j^2) \sin^2 \alpha$
3. The $y$-coordinate of $(p_i \cdot d_i) p_i + (1 - |p_i|^2) d_i$ is zero.
4. $p_j \cdot (p_i - p_j) = (t_i t_j - t_j^2) \sin^2 \alpha$
5. $d_j \cdot (p_j - p_i) = \frac{(t_i t_j - t_j^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_j}{\sqrt{1-(1-t_j^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_j}}$

**Proof.** Each of these claims can be verified through a short computation. □

**Definition 2.4.** If each of $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ is a line in $D^3$ or a point on $\partial D^3$ (represented as vectors $c_i$ and $d_i$), define

$$a = (|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_2 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1 + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)d_2$$

We will prove that the projection of 0 onto $\ell_{12}^\perp$ is a positive scalar multiple of $a$. First, we need some technical results.

**Proposition 2.5.** With $c_i$ and $d_i$ as in Proposition 2.2, the $y$-coordinate of $a$ is 0.

**Proof.** Rather than deal with the entire expression for $a$, we start by reorganizing the terms in $(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1$.


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By Lemma 2.3, the $y$-coordinate of $(p_1 \cdot d_1)p_1 + (1 - |p_1|^2)d_1$ is zero, so the $y$-coordinate of $(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1$ is the same as the $y$-coordinate of $(c_2 \cdot (p_2 - p_1))c_1$. Similarly, the $y$-coordinate of $(|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_2 + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)d_2$ is the same as the $y$-coordinate of $(c_1 \cdot (p_1 - p_2))c_2$. Thus, the $y$-coordinate of $a$ is the same as the $y$-coordinate of $(c_2 \cdot (p_2 - p_1))c_1 + (c_1 \cdot (p_1 - p_2))c_2$.

When nonzero, $p_2 - p_1$ points in the $y$-direction, so we can verify that the $y$-coordinate of $a$ is zero by computing $a \cdot (p_2 - p_1) = (c_2 \cdot (p_2 - p_1))(c_1 \cdot (p_2 - p_1)) + (c_1 \cdot (p_1 - p_2))(c_2 \cdot (p_2 - p_1)) = 0$. If $p_2 - p_1 = 0$, then $t_1 = t_2$. By a continuity argument, since the $y$-coordinate of $a$ is zero when $t_1 \neq t_2$, it’s also zero when $t_1 = t_2$.

**Proposition 2.6.** With $c_1$ and $d_1$ as in Proposition 2.2, the $z$-coordinate of $a$ is zero.

**Proof.** First, we compute the $z$-coordinate of $(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1$. Since $c_1 = p_1 - (p_1 \cdot d_1)d_1$, and $p_1$ lies in the $x$-$y$ plane, the $z$-coordinate of $(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1$ is the same as the $z$-coordinate of

$$
d_1 \left( -(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)(p_1 \cdot d_1) + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1) \right)
= d_1 \left( -(|c_2|^2 - (p_1 \cdot c_2) + (p_1 \cdot d_1)(d_1 \cdot c_2))(p_1 \cdot d_1) \right)
\quad + (1 - |p_1|^2 + (p_1 \cdot d_1)^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1))
= d_1 \left( -(|p_2|^2 + (p_2 \cdot d_2)^2 + (p_1 \cdot p_2) - (p_2 \cdot d_2)(p_1 \cdot d_2))(p_1 \cdot d_1) \right)
\quad + (1 - |p_1|^2)((p_2 \cdot d_1) - (p_2 \cdot d_2)(d_1 \cdot d_2))
= d_1 \left( -(p_2 \cdot (p_1 - p_2))(p_1 \cdot d_1) + (1 - |p_1|^2)(p_2 \cdot d_1) \right)
\quad + (p_2 \cdot d_2)(p_1 \cdot d_1)((p_2 - p_1) \cdot d_1) + (1 - |p_1|^2)(p_2 \cdot d_2)(d_1 \cdot d_2)
$$

Now, we compute the $z$-coordinate of this, using Lemma 2.3. The $z$-coordinate is

$$
\frac{\sin \beta_1}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_1^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1}} \left( (t_1 t_2 - t_2^2) \sin^2 \alpha (1 - t_1^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_1 \right)
\quad + \frac{(1 - t_1^2) \sin^2 \alpha (1 - t_1 t_2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_1}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1}}
\quad + \frac{(1 - t_2^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_2 (p_1 \cdot d_1))(t_1 t_2 - t_2^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_2}{(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)}
\quad - \frac{(1 - t_1^2) \sin^2 \alpha (1 - t_1^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_2 (d_1 \cdot d_2)}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2}}
$$
Factoring out common terms, this becomes

\[
\begin{align*}
&= \frac{\sin \beta_1 \cos \alpha \sin^2 \alpha}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_1^2)^2} \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1} \left(1 - (1 - t_1^2) \sin \alpha \cos \beta_1 ((t_1 t_2 - t_2^2) + (1 - t_1 t_2)) \right) \\
&+ \frac{(1 - t_2^2) \cos \beta_2 (\mathbf{p}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1) (t_1 t_2 - t_2^2) \cos \alpha \cos \beta_2}{(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)} \\
&- \frac{(1 - t_1^2) (1 - t_2^2) \sin \alpha \cos \beta_2 (\mathbf{d}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)}{(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)}
\end{align*}
\]

Continuing to substitute expressions from Lemma 2.3 and simplify gives

\[
\begin{align*}
&= \frac{(1 - t_2^2) \sin \beta_1 \cos \alpha \sin^2 \alpha}{\sqrt{1 - (1 - t_1^2)^2} \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1} \left(1 - (1 - t_1^2) \sin \alpha \cos \beta_1 \right) \\
&+ \frac{\cos \beta_2 (1 - t_2^2) \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \cos \beta_1 (t_1 t_2 - t_2^2) \cos \alpha \cos \beta_2}{(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)} \\
&- \frac{(1 - t_1^2) (1 - t_2^2) \sin \beta_1 \cos \alpha \sin^3 \alpha}{1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1} \left(\cos \beta_1 + \frac{\cos \beta_2 \cos \beta_1}{(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)} \right) \\
&- \frac{\cos \beta_2 (\sin^2 \alpha + t_1 t_2 \cos^2 \alpha) \cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 + \sin \beta_1 \sin \beta_2}{1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2}
\end{align*}
\]
\[
(1 - t_1^2)(1 - t_2^2) \sin \beta_1 \sin \beta_2 \cos \alpha \sin^3 \alpha \sin(\beta_2 - \beta_1) \\
(1 - (1 - t_1^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_1)(1 - (1 - t_2^2) \cos^2 \alpha \cos^2 \beta_2)
\]

That was the $z$-coordinate of $(|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1$. Similarly, we can compute the $z$-coordinate of $(|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_2 + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)d_2$, which will be the same, except the $\sin(\beta_2 - \beta_1)$ will become $\sin(\beta_1 - \beta_2)$. Since $\sin$ is an odd function, the total $z$-coordinate of $a$ is 0.

**Proposition 2.7.** If each of $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ is a line in $D^3$ or a point on $\partial D^3$ and neither $\ell_1$ nor $\ell_2$ contains the other, then their common perpendicular passes through the origin if and only if $a = 0$.

**Proof.** If $a = 0$, then $a \cdot c_1 = a \cdot c_2 = 0$.

\[
0 = a \cdot c_1 = (|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)|c_1|^2 + (|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)(c_1 \cdot c_2) + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)^2 \\
= (|c_1|^2|c_2|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)^2) + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)^2
\]

Since $(|c_1|^2|c_2|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)^2)$ and $(1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)^2$ are both nonnegative, we have that $|c_1|^2|c_2|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)^2 = 0$ and $(1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2) = 0$. Similarly, from $a \cdot c_2 = 0$, we see that $(1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1) = 0$.

If $c_1 = c_2 = 0$, then lines $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ intersect at the origin, so their common perpendicular passes through the origin. Thus, assume without loss of generality that $c_1 \neq 0$. From $|c_1|^2|c_2|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)^2 = 0$, we see that $\text{Span}(c_1, c_2)$ is one dimensional (i.e. a line passing through 0). This line is perpendicular to $\ell_1$. If $\ell_2$ is a point on $\partial D^3$, then $\ell_2$ is an endpoint of $\text{Span}(c_1, c_2) \cap D^3$ so is perpendicular to $\text{Span}(c_1, c_2)$. If $\ell_2$ is a line in $D^3$, then $1 - |c_2|^2 = 0$, so $c_1 \cdot d_2 = 0$. Then $\text{Span}(c_1, c_2)$ is perpendicular to $\ell_2$. Thus $\text{Span}(c_1, c_2)$ is the common perpendicular to $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$. This completes one direction of the proof.

Now assume that the common perpendicular to $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ passes through the origin. Then $c_1$ and $c_2$ are linearly dependent, so $c_2 \cdot d_1 = c_1 \cdot d_2 = 0$. There is some vector $v$ and scalars $c_1$ and $c_2$ such that $c_1 = c_i v$.

\[
a = (|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_2 + 0 + 0 \\
= (c_1^2 - c_1 c_2)|v|^2 c_1 v + (c_2^2 - c_1 c_2)|v|^2 c_2 v = 0
\]

**Proposition 2.8.** With $c_i$ and $d_i$, as in Proposition 2.2, the $x$-coordinate of $a$ has the same sign as $\cos \alpha$.

**Proof.** Proposition 2.7 proves the result in the case that $\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2}$, so assume $\alpha \neq \frac{\pi}{2}$.
The $x$-coordinate of $\mathbf{a}$ is a continuous function of the $\beta_i$ and $t_i$. The common perpendicular to $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ doesn’t pass through the origin. Then Proposition 2.7 verifies that the $x$-coordinate of $\mathbf{a}$ is not zero, unless $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ are identical, in which case either $(t_1, \beta_1) = (t_2, \beta_2)$ or $t_1 = t_2 = \pm 1$. Fixing $\alpha$, we may continuously vary the $t_i$ and $\beta_i$ without changing the sign of the $x$-coordinate of $\mathbf{a}$, as long as we avoid the conditions $(t_1, \beta_1) = (t_2, \beta_2)$ or $t_1 = t_2 = \pm 1$.

Without loss of generality, we may then assume that $t_1 = 1$ and $t_2 = -1$. Then $\mathbf{c}_1 = (\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha, 0)$ and $\mathbf{c}_2 = (\cos \alpha, -\sin \alpha, 0)$. It is then easy to compute that $\mathbf{a} = 2(1 - \cos 2\alpha)(\cos \alpha, 0, 0)$. Since $0 < \alpha < \pi$, we have completed the proof.

**Proposition 2.9.** Given two distinct lines $\ell_1$ and $\ell_2$ in $D^3$ (represented as vectors $\mathbf{c}_i$ and $\mathbf{d}_i$), if they have a common endpoint, then it is a positive scalar multiple of $\mathbf{a}$.

**Proof.** Let $\mathbf{p} \in \partial D^3$ be the common endpoint and let the direction vector of line $\ell_i$ be $\mathbf{d}_i$. The sign of $\mathbf{d}_i$ is irrelevant, so we are free to choose $\mathbf{d}_i$ so $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_i > 0$. The closest point on $\ell_i$ to $\mathbf{0}$ is $\mathbf{c}_i = \mathbf{p} - (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_i)\mathbf{d}_i$. With this, we compute that

$$|\mathbf{c}_2|^2 - (\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2) = \mathbf{c}_2 \cdot (\mathbf{c}_2 - \mathbf{c}_1) = \mathbf{c}_2 \cdot ((\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)\mathbf{d}_1 - (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)\mathbf{d}_2) = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)$$

Also, $1 - |\mathbf{c}_1|^2 = 1 - ((\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2) = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2$. Similarly, we can compute that $|\mathbf{c}_1|^2 - (\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2) = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)$ and $1 - |\mathbf{c}_2|^2 = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)^2$. Then $\mathbf{a}$ is

$$\begin{align*}
|\mathbf{c}_2|^2 - (\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2) & = (\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 + (|\mathbf{c}_1|^2 - \mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2)\mathbf{c}_2 + (1 - |\mathbf{c}_1|^2)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)\mathbf{d}_1 + (1 - |\mathbf{c}_2|^2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)\mathbf{d}_2) \\
& = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)\mathbf{d}_1 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)\mathbf{d}_2 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2\mathbf{d}_1 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)^2\mathbf{d}_2 \\
& = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1) + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2) + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2\mathbf{d}_1 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)^2\mathbf{d}_2 \\
& = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)\mathbf{p} + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)\mathbf{p}
\end{align*}$$

We can compute that the scalar coefficient of $\mathbf{p}$ in the above expression is

$$\begin{align*}
(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{d}_1) + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2) \\
= (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)((\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1) - (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{d}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)) + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)((\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2) - (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{d}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)) \\
= (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)^2 - 2(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)(\mathbf{d}_1 \cdot \mathbf{d}_2) \\
\geq (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)^2 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2)^2 - 2(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1)(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2) = ((\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_1) - (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{d}_2))^2 \geq 0
\end{align*}$$

By Proposition 2.7, $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Thus, $\mathbf{a}$ is a positive scalar multiple of $\mathbf{p}$, so $\mathbf{p}$ is also a positive scalar multiple of $\mathbf{a}$. \qed
Theorem 2.10. Let each of \( \ell_1 \) and \( \ell_2 \) be a line in \( D^3 \) or a point on \( \partial D^3 \) (represented as vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \)), neither of which contains the other. Let \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) be their common perpendicular. The projection of \( 0 \) onto \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) is a positive scalar multiple of the vector

\[
a = (|c_2|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_1 + (|c_1|^2 - c_1 \cdot c_2)c_2 + (1 - |c_1|^2)(c_2 \cdot d_1)d_1 + (1 - |c_2|^2)(c_1 \cdot d_2)d_2
\]

Proof. Proposition 2.9 proves the theorem in the case that \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) is a point on \( \partial D^3 \). Thus, we may assume that \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) is a line. Without loss of generality, we may rotate \( D^3 \) so \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) lies in the \( x-y \) plane and is parallel to the \( y \)-axis. Propositions 2.5 and 2.6 prove that \( a \) lies along the \( x \)-axis. The projection of \( 0 \) onto \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) is \((\cos \alpha, 0, 0)\). Proposition 2.8 then verifies that \( a \) and \((\cos \alpha, 0, 0)\) point in the same direction. \( \square \)

Remark 2. It is worth noting that the expression in Theorem 2.10 is a polynomial expression in the entries of the vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \). In higher dimensions, it doesn’t seem to be the case that the projection of \( 0 \) onto \( \ell_{12}^\perp \) is a scalar multiple of such a simple expression. We speculate that is the reason why the main results of this paper can’t be extended to higher dimensions.

### 3. Proof of duality

In this section, we prove the main results of the paper, that the coplanar surface of three distinct lines is (usually) the same as the coplanar surface of their pairwise common perpendiculars. A similar result applies to faces.

Proposition 3.1. Let each of \( \ell_1 \), \( \ell_2 \), and \( \ell_3 \) be a line in \( D^3 \) or a point on \( \partial D^3 \) (represented as vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \) as in Definition 2.1), none of which contains any of the others. If \( c_1 \), \( c_2 \), and \( c_3 \) are linearly dependent, then \( a_{12}, a_{23}, \) and \( a_{31} \) are also linearly dependent, where \( a_{ij} \) is computed using Definition 2.4 with lines \( \ell_i \) and \( \ell_j \).

In particular, if the three vectors \( c_1 \), \( c_2 \), and \( c_3 \) are linearly dependent, but no two of them are linearly dependent, then we can find nonzero numbers \( \lambda_i \) and \( \mu_i \) such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i c_i = \lambda_3 a_{12} + \lambda_1 a_{23} + \lambda_2 a_{31} = 0 \) and \( \lambda_i \mu_i \) doesn’t depend on \( i \).

Proof. Without loss of generality, rotate \( D^3 \) about the origin so the vectors \( c_i \) all lie in the \( x-y \) plane. Then we may write the vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \) as \( c_i = (r_i \cos \theta_i, r_i \sin \theta_i, 0) \) and \( d_i = (-\sin \theta_i \sin \phi_i, \cos \theta_i \sin \phi_i, \cos \phi_i) \), where
Now we compute $\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_{i+2} (|c_{i+1}|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) d_i + (|c_{i+1}|^2) (c_i \cdot d_{i+1}) d_{i+1}$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} (1 - |c_i|^2) (\lambda_{i+2} (c_{i+1} \cdot d_i) + \lambda_{i+1} (c_{i+2} \cdot d_i)) d_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} (1 - |c_i|^2) (\lambda_{i+2} r_{i+1} \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i) + \lambda_{i+1} r_{i+2} \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) d_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} (1 - |c_i|^2) r_{i+1} r_{i+2} \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_{i+1}) \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_i) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} \left( (1 - |c_i|^2) r_{i+1} r_{i+2} \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_{i+1}) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i) \cdot (\sin(\theta_i - \theta_{i+2}) + \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_i)) d_i \right) = 0$$

where $k = (0, 0, 1)$. If we let $\lambda_i = r_i \sin(\theta_i - \theta_{i+2}) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)$, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_{i+2} (|c_{i+1}|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) c_i + (|c_{i+1}|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) c_{i+1}$$ simplifies as

$$(r_{i+1}^2 - r_i r_{i+1} \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) c_i + (r_{i+1}^2 - r_i r_{i+1} \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) c_{i+1}
= r_i r_{i+1} (r_{i+1} - r_i \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) (\cos \theta_i) \sin \theta_i, 0)
+ (r_i - r_{i+1} \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) (\cos \theta_{i+1}, \sin \theta_{i+1}, 0))
= r_i r_{i+1} (r_{i+1} \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) (\sin \theta_{i+1}, - \cos \theta_{i+1}, 0))
+ r_i \sin(\theta_i - \theta_{i+1}) (\sin \theta_i, - \cos \theta_i, 0))
= r_i r_{i+1} \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i) ((c_{i+1} - c_i) \times k)$$

where $k = (0, 0, 1)$. If we let $\lambda_i = r_i \sin(\theta_i - \theta_{i+2}) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)$, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_{i+2} (|c_{i+1}|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) c_i + (|c_{i+1}|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) c_{i+1}$$ simplifies as

$$(r_{i+1}^2 - r_i r_{i+1} \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) c_i + (r_{i+1}^2 - r_i r_{i+1} \cos(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i)) c_{i+1}$$
Then $\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_{i+2} a_{i,i+1}$ is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} \lambda_{i+2} ([c_{i+1}]^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})) c_i + ([|c_i|^2 - (c_i \cdot c_{i+1})] c_i$$

$$+ (1 - |c_i|^2)(c_{i+1} \cdot d_i) d_i + (1 - |c_{i+1}|^2)(c_i \cdot d_{i+1}) d_{i+1}) = 0$$

As long as at least one of the $\lambda_i$ is nonzero, we’ve proved that $a_{12}, a_{23},$ and $a_{31}$ are linearly dependent. We still need to check the degenerate cases in which $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = 0$.

If two or more of the $r_i$ are 0, then without loss of generality we may assume that $r_1 = r_2 = 0$, so $c_1 = c_2 = 0$. Then $a_{12} = 0$ so $a_{12}, a_{23},$ and $a_{31}$ are linearly dependent.

If two or more of the $r_i$ are nonzero, then without loss of generality we may assume that $r_1 \neq 0$ and $r_2 \neq 0$. Then from $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$, we have that $\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_3) \sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1) = \sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1) \sin(\theta_3 - \theta_2) = 0$. This produces two possibilities: either $\sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1) = 0$ or $\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_3) = \sin(\theta_3 - \theta_2) = 0$. In the second case, we can still conclude that $\sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1) = 0$, so in either case, we have that $\sin(\theta_2 - \theta_1) = 0$. Then $c_1$ and $c_2$ are nonzero scalar multiples of each other. Then $(|c_2|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)) c_1 + (|c_1|^2 - (c_1 \cdot c_2)) c_2 = 0$ and $c_2 \cdot d_1 = c_1 \cdot d_2 = 0$, so $a_{12} = 0$. Then $a_{12}, a_{23},$ and $a_{31}$ are linearly dependent.

Now we prove the remaining claim in the theorem. If no two of the $c_i$ are linearly dependent, then let $\mu_i = c_{i+1} \times c_{i+2} \cdot k$ where $k = (0,0,1)$. Then $\sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i c_i = 0$. Further $\mu_i = r_{i+1} r_{i+2} \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_{i+1}) \neq 0$.

Note that

$$\lambda_i \mu_i = r_i \sin(\theta_i - \theta_{i+2}) \sin(\theta_{i+1} - \theta_i) r_{i+1} r_{i+2} \sin(\theta_{i+2} - \theta_{i+1})$$

$$= \prod_{j=1}^{3} r_j \sin(\theta_j + 1 - \theta_j)$$

so doesn’t depend on $i$. If no two of the $c_i$ are linearly dependent, then none of the $c_i$ is $0$ and no two of the $\theta_i$ differ by an integer multiple of $\pi$. Then $\lambda_i \mu_i \neq 0$, so the $\lambda_i$ and $\mu_i$ are all nonzero. \qed

**Theorem 3.2.** Let each of $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$ be a line in $\mathbb{H}^3$ or a point on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3$, none of which contains any of the others. Then their coplanar surface is contained in the coplanar surface of their pairwise common perpendiculars. If none of the pairwise common perpendiculars contain any other of the pairwise common perpendiculars, then the two coplanar surfaces are identical.
Proof. We represent $\mathbb{H}^3$ as $D^3$ in the Klein model. Represent $\ell_i$ by vectors $c_i$ and $d_i$ as in Definition 2.1. Let $p$ be any point on the coplanar surface of $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$. By performing a hyperbolic isometry, we may assume that $p$ is the origin. Then $\pi_i(p) = c_i$. Since $p$ is on the coplanar surface of $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$, we have that $0$, $c_1$, $c_2$, and $c_3$ are coplanar, so $c_1$, $c_2$, and $c_3$ are linearly dependent. By Proposition 3.1, $a_{12}$, $a_{23}$, and $a_{31}$ are linearly dependent. By Theorem 2.10, the projections of $p$ onto the three pairwise common perpendiculars are scalar multiples of $a_{12}$, $a_{23}$, and $a_{31}$ respectively. Thus, $p$ is on the coplanar surface of the pairwise common perpendiculars. This proves that the coplanar surface of $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$ is contained in the coplanar surface of their pairwise common perpendiculars.

To prove the second part of the theorem, note that if none of the pairwise common perpendiculars contain any other of the pairwise common perpendiculars, then the pairwise common perpendiculars also satisfy the hypotheses of the theorem.

The pairwise common perpendiculars to the pairwise common perpendiculars are $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$. Applying the portion of the theorem that we’ve already proved, the coplanar surface to the pairwise common perpendiculars is contained in the coplanar surface to the pairwise common perpendiculars to the pairwise common perpendiculars. □

Remark 3. Although a point which is coplanar with its projections onto the $\ell_i$ is also coplanar with its projections onto the pairwise common perpendiculars, the two planes aren’t usually the same. One can readily compute that even if $c_1$ and $c_2$ lie in the $x$-$y$ plane, $a_{12}$ generally won’t.

Proposition 3.3. Let each of $\ell_1$, $\ell_2$, and $\ell_3$ be a line in $D^3$ or a point on $\partial D^3$, none of which contains any of the others. Then the associated face does not include any points on any of the $\ell_i$ or $\ell^\perp_{ij}$.

Proof. Given any point in the face, we may perform a hyperbolic isometry to move the point to the origin. Thus, without loss of generality, we prove that if the origin is on one of the $\ell_i$ or the $\ell^\perp_{ij}$, then it isn’t in the face.

Suppose that $0$ is on one of the $\ell_i$, without loss of generality $\ell_1$. Then $\pi_1(0) = 0$. The only way $\pi_1(0)$ can lie in the relative interior of the convex hull of $\pi_1(0)$, $\pi_2(0)$, and $\pi_3(0)$ is if that convex hull is one-dimensional. However, in that case, $\pi_1(0)$, $\pi_2(0)$, and $\pi_3(0)$ aren’t in general position. Thus, $0$ isn’t in the face.

Suppose that $0$ is on one of the $\ell^\perp_{ij}$, without loss of generality $\ell^\perp_{12}$. Then $0$, $\pi_1(0)$, and $\pi_2(0)$ are collinear. Again, the only way that $\pi_1(0)$ can lie in the
relative interior of the convex hull of \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \) and \( \pi_3(0) \) is if that convex hull is one-dimensional. Again, that would require that \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \) and \( \pi_3(0) \) aren’t in general position. Thus, \( 0 \) isn’t in the face.

**Proposition 3.4.** Let each of \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) be a line in \( D^3 \) or a point on \( \partial D^3 \) (represented as vectors \( c_i \) and \( d_i \), as in Definition 2.1), none of which contains any of the others. If \( 0 \) lies on their coplanar surface, but not on any of the \( \ell_i \) or \( \ell_i \perp \), then the affine hull of \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \) and \( \pi_3(0) \) is two-dimensional, so there are unique (up to scaling) numbers \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3 \) such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i c_i = 0 \).

**Proof.** Since \( 0 \) lies on the coplanar surface, \( \pi_1(0) = c_1, \pi_2(0) = c_2, \) and \( \pi_3(0) = c_3 \) are linearly dependent.

If the dimension of \( \text{Span}(c_1, c_2, c_3) \) is zero, then \( c_1 = c_2 = c_3 = 0 \), so all three of the \( \ell_i \) pass through the origin, violating the hypotheses.

Suppose that the dimension of \( \text{Span}(c_1, c_2, c_3) \) is one. If any of the \( c_i \) were \( 0 \), that would mean that one of the \( \ell_i \) passed through the origin. Thus, the \( c_i \) are all nonzero. Then they are scalar multiples of each other, so each of the \( c_i \) is perpendicular to all of the \( d_j \). Thus, \( \text{Span}(c_1, c_2, c_3) \) is the common perpendicular to all three of the \( \ell_i \), violating the hypotheses.

Thus, \( \text{Span}(c_1, c_2, c_3) \) is two-dimensional. The \( \mu_i \) exist and are unique up to scaling.

**Proposition 3.5.** Let each of \( \ell_1, \ell_2, \) and \( \ell_3 \) be a line in \( D^3 \) or a point on \( \partial D^3 \), none of which contains any of the others. Then the point \( 0 \) is in the associated face if and only if there are positive constants \( \mu_i \) (unique up to scaling) such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) = 0 \) and \( 0 \) is not on any of the lines \( \ell_i \) or \( \ell_i \perp \).

**Proof.** For three vectors \( v_1, v_2, \) and \( v_3 \) in \( \mathbb{R}^3 \) whose affine hull is two-dimensional and passes through \( 0 \), \( 0 \) is in the relative interior of their convex hull if and only if there are positive numbers \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3 \) such that \( 0 = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i v_i \).

The point \( 0 \) is in the face if and only if \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \) and \( \pi_3(0) \) are in general position and \( 0 \) lies in the relative interior of their convex hull. Then \( 0 \) is on the face if and only if the affine hull of \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \pi_3(0) \) is two-dimensional, and \( 0 \) lies in this affine hull, and there are positive numbers \( \mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3 \) such that \( 0 = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) \).

Suppose that \( 0 \) is on the face. Then by Proposition 3.3, \( 0 \) doesn’t lie on any of the \( \ell_i \) or \( \ell_i \perp \). By Proposition 3.4, the affine hull of \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \pi_3(0) \) is two-dimensional. Since \( 0 \) lies in the relative interior of the convex hull of \( \pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \) and \( \pi_3(0) \), there are positive constants \( \mu_i \) (unique up to scaling) such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) = 0 \). This completes one direction of the proof.
Suppose now that there are positive constants $\mu_i$ such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) = 0 \) and \( \mathbf{0} \) is not on any of the lines $\ell_i$ or $\ell_{ij}^\perp$. Since \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) = 0 \), the vectors $\pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \pi_3(0)$ are linearly dependent, and thus $\mathbf{0}$ lies on the coplanar surface. By Proposition 3.4, the affine hull of $\pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \pi_3(0)$ is two-dimensional. Since the $\mu_i$ are all positive, $\mathbf{0}$ must lie in the interior of the convex hull of $\pi_1(0), \pi_2(0), \pi_3(0)$.

\[ \Box \]

**Theorem 3.6.** Let each of $\ell_1, \ell_2$, and $\ell_3$ be a line in $\mathbb{H}^3$ or a point on $\partial \mathbb{H}^3$, none of which contains any of the others. Let $\ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp$, and $\ell_{31}^\perp$ be their pairwise common perpendiculars. If none of the $\ell_{ij}^\perp$ contain any other of the $\ell_{ij}^\perp$, then the face associated with $\ell_1, \ell_2$, and $\ell_3$ is the same as the face associated with $\ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp$, and $\ell_{31}^\perp$.

**Proof.** Let $p$ be a point on the face associated with $\ell_1, \ell_2$, and $\ell_3$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $p$ is at the origin in the Klein model. Since $p$ is a point on the face, it’s also a point on the coplanar surface to $\ell_1, \ell_2$, and $\ell_3$. From Propositions 3.3 and 3.5, we have that $p$ is not on any of the lines $\ell_i$ or $\ell_{ij}^\perp$ and that there are positive constants $\mu_i$ such that \( \sum_{i=1}^{3} \mu_i \pi_i(0) = 0 \). The $\mu_i$ are unique up to scaling, so may be assumed to be the same as the $\mu_i$ produced by Proposition 3.1. Since $p$ is not on any of the $\ell_i$ or $\ell_{ij}^\perp$, Proposition 3.1 provides nonzero constants $\lambda_i$ such that $\lambda_3 a_{12} + \lambda_1 a_{23} + \lambda_2 a_{31} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\lambda_i \mu_i$ doesn’t depend on $i$. Then the $\lambda_i$ are all of the same sign. Without loss of generality, we may assume that the $\lambda_i$ are all positive. Since the projection of $\mathbf{0}$ onto $\ell_{ij}^\perp$ is a positive scalar multiple of $a_{ij}$, by Proposition 3.5, we have that $p$ lies on the face associated with $\ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp$, and $\ell_{31}^\perp$.

Repeat the argument starting with the face associated to $\ell_{12}^\perp, \ell_{23}^\perp$, and $\ell_{31}^\perp$. \[ \Box \]

**References**


A duality property of Delaunay faces for line arrangements in $\mathbb{H}^3$


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