## Projective-metric spaces with Ceva or Menelaus property

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For the animations Adobe PDF Reader is necessary.

In todays' language Hilbert's IV. problem [8] was to give all the metrics, the projective metrics [6], on every projective space $\mathbb{P}^{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, that satisfy the strict triangle inequality, and then investigate those geometries given by these metrics.
Hamel [9] proved that, according to the domain $\mathcal{D}$ of the projective metric $d$, there are exactly three kinds of them:
hyperbolic type ( $\mathcal{D} \subsetneq \mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{R}^{n}$ convex) parabolic type $\left(\mathcal{D}=\mathbb{P}^{n} \backslash \mathbb{R}^{n}\right)$ and elliptic type $\left(\mathcal{D}=\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$.

A pair $(\mathcal{D}, d)$ of an open convex domain $\mathcal{D}$ and a projective metric $d: \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$is called projective-metric space if the geodesics (the chords of $\partial \mathcal{D}$ ) are isometric to a Euclidean circle (for elliptic type) or to a Euclidean straight line (for the straight types, i.e. either the parabolic or the hyperbolic type).
Spaces of constant curvature show that there are important projective-metric spaces.
 $v_{k}(r) S^{n-1}$ is isometric to a metric sphere of radius $r>0$ in $\mathbb{K}_{k}^{n}$. The projection function $\mu_{k}:\left[0, i_{k}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$gives the geodesic correspondence $\tilde{\mu}_{\kappa}: \operatorname{Exp}_{O}(r \omega) \mapsto \mu_{\kappa}(r) \omega$.

| $\mathbb{K}_{K}^{n}$ | $\kappa$ | $v_{K}$ | $\mu_{\kappa}$ | $i_{\kappa}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbb{H}^{n}$ | -1 | $\sinh r$ | $\tanh r$ | $\infty$ |
| $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ | 0 | $r$ | $r$ | $\infty$ |
| $\mathbb{S}^{n}\left(\mathbb{P}^{n}\right)$ | +1 | $\sin r$ | $\tan r$ | $\pi / 2$ |

Here we identified the space $\mathcal{T}_{O} \mathbb{K}_{k}^{n}$ with $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ by the natural way, and used $\omega \in \mathcal{S}^{n-1}$ in both senses.

Blaschke [2] proved that Crofton's formula [7] gives projective metrics from measures on the Grassmannian.
Busemann conjectured [4] that all projective metrics can be constructed in this way. This was first proved by Pogorelov [13] and Szabó [14].
Beltrami's theorem [1] implies that the only Riemannian projective metrics are those of constant curvature.

The class of projective metrics and the class of projective-metric spaces are both so huge. Busemann noticed [5] that "... the second part of [Hilbert's] problem ... has inevitably been replaced by the investigation of special, or special classes of, interesting geometries."
Our general goal is to
characterize the interesting geometries among projective-metric spaces.
This time we investigate the validity of the theorems of Ceva and Menelaus.

Hilbert metric $d: \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$
d(X, Y)= \begin{cases}0, & \text { if } X=Y, \\ \frac{1}{2}\left|\ln \left(X, Y ; D_{X}, D_{Y}\right)\right|, & \text { if } X \neq Y\end{cases}
$$

where $\mathcal{D}$ is an open, strictly convex, bounded domain in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\overline{D_{X} D_{Y}}=\mathcal{D} \cap X Y$.


Minkowski metric $d_{I}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by $d(X, Y)=\left(Y, I_{Y} ; X\right)$, where $I$, the indicatrix, is an open, strictly convex, bounded domain in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ symmetric at $O, I_{X}=I+\overrightarrow{O X}$, and $\overline{I_{X} I_{Y}}=I_{X} \cap X Y$.

Elliptic metric $d: \mathbb{P}^{n} \times \mathbb{P}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by $d(X, Y)=\arccos |\langle\overrightarrow{O X}, \overrightarrow{O Y}\rangle|$, where the points of $\mathbb{P}^{n}$ are the diagonal point pairs of $\mathcal{S}^{n}$.

Although the theorems of Ceva and Menelaus basically belong to affine geometry, they can be formulated by the metric just as well.
Below, if the projective-metric space is of elliptic type, then it is so meant that a straight line was removed a priori.
Let $A, B$ be different points in a projective-metric space $(\mathcal{D}, d)$, and let $C \in(A B \cap \mathcal{D}) \backslash\{B\}$.


Then the metric ratio and the size-ratio of the triplet $(A, B ; C)$ are
 where $v$ is the size function of the hyperbolic, Euclidean, or elliptic space according to the type of $(\mathcal{D}, d)$. Observe that in a constant curvature space $\mathbb{K}^{n}$ a size-ratio $\langle A, B ; C\rangle_{d}^{\circ}$ is the affine ratio of the orthogonal projections of points $A, B, C$ into the tangent space $T_{C} \mathbb{K}^{n}$.
By a triplet ( $Z, X, Y$ ) of a non-degenerate triangle $A B C \triangle$ we mean three points $Z, X$ and $Y$ being respectively on the straight lines $A B, B C$ and $C A$. It is called

- a Ceva triplet if lines $A X, B Y$ and $C Z$ are concurrent, and

- a Menelaus triplet if $Z, X$ and $Y$ are collinear.

A 3-tuple $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ of real numbers is

- of Ceva type if $\alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma=+1$, and
- of Menelaus type if $\alpha \cdot \beta \cdot \gamma=-1$.


The Ceva or Menelaus property of a projective-metric space means that any triplet ( $Z, X, Y$ ) of any non-degenerate triangle $A B C \triangle$ is Menelaus or Ceva if and only if the 3-tuple $\left(\langle A, B ; Z\rangle_{d}^{\circ},\langle B, C ; X\rangle_{d}^{\circ},\langle C, A ; Y\rangle_{d}^{\circ}\right)$ is of Menelaus or Ceva type, respectively.

A projective-metric space is called Cevian or Menelausian if it has the appropriate property. Known examples are the Minkowski geometries, as the size-function is the identity, and the constant curvature spaces, where appropriate trigonometry applies [12].
Non-Cevian and non-Menelausian spaces are the non-hyperbolic Hilbert geometries ${ }^{1}$. This was proved in [10, Theorem 3.1] by showing that both the Ceva and the Menelaus properties fail for some triangles if the boundary of the Hilbert geometry is not an ellipsoid.

Lemma. If five collinear points $A, R, Z, Q, B$ in a Cevian projective-metric space satisfies $(Z, A ; R)(B, Z ; Q)(A, B ; Z)=1$ in order $A<$ $R<Z<Q<B$, then
(2.1) $\langle Z, A ; R\rangle_{d}^{\circ}\langle B, Z ; Q\rangle_{d}^{\circ}\langle A, B ; Z\rangle_{d}^{\circ}=1$.

Lemma. If five collinear points $Q, Y, X, R, Z$ in a Menelausian projective-metric space satisfies $(X, R ; Z)(R, Q ; X)(Q, X ; Y)=-1 \mathrm{in}$ order $Q<Y<X<R<Z$, then (2.2) $\langle X, R ; Z\rangle_{d}^{\circ}\langle R, Q ; X\rangle_{d}\langle Q, X ; Y\rangle_{d}^{\circ}=-1$.


Relabeling the points $Q<Y \prec X<R<Z$ as $Q \mapsto B, Y \mapsto Q, X \mapsto Z, R \mapsto R$, and $Z \mapsto A$ shows that (2.2) is equivalent ${ }^{2}$ to (2.1).

[^0]
## Theorem. (Á. K. 2019 [11]).

A projective-metric space is Cevian or Menelausian if and only if

- it is a Cayley-Klein model of the hyperbolic geometry, or
- it is a Minkowski geometry, or
- it is the elliptic geometry.

For proving this result we use the equivalency

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\overrightarrow{Z B}-\overrightarrow{Z Q}}{\overrightarrow{Z A}-\overrightarrow{Z R}} \frac{\overrightarrow{R Z}}{\overrightarrow{Z Q}} \frac{\overrightarrow{A Z}}{\overrightarrow{Z B}}=1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{v(d(Z, B)-d(Z, Q))}{v(d(A, Z)-d(R, Z))} \frac{v(d(R, Z))}{v(d(Z, Q))} \frac{v(d(A, Z))}{v(d(Z, B))}=1 \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

that follows from (2.1) by the additivity of the metric $d$. Although this equivalency is quite different in every type of the projective-metric spaces, each case leads to Cauchy's functional equation [15].
As a general setup we parameterize the five collinear points $A<R<Z<Q<B$ by the linear function $P: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow R Q$ so that $Z=P(0), A=P(a), R=P(r), Q=P(q), B=P(b)$, where $a<r<0<q<b$.


Further, we introduce $\ell: R Q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $\ell(s)=v(d(P(s), Z))$.

Cevian $(\mathcal{D}, d)$ is of elliptic type.
The geodesics of a projective-metric space of elliptic type have equal lengths, so we can set their length to $\pi$ by simply multiplying the projective metric with an appropriate positive constant. Hence $v(\cdot)=\sin (\cdot)$, and so $\ell(s)=\sin (d(P(s), Z))$.
Equivalency (2.3) with the addition formulas for sine give

$$
\frac{b-q}{b} \frac{-a}{r-a} \frac{-r}{q}=1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\ell(b) \cos (d(Z, Q))-\cos (d(Z, B)) \ell(q)}{\ell(a) \cos (d(R, Z))-\cos (d(A, Z)) \ell(r)} \frac{\ell(r)}{\ell(q)} \frac{\ell(a)}{\ell(b)}=1 .
$$

After some easy simplifications this becomes
(2.4) $\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{b}=\frac{1}{a}-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \cot (d(Z, Q))-\cot (d(Z, B))=\cot (d(R, Z))-\cot (d(A, Z))$.

Letting $b \rightarrow \infty$ and $a \rightarrow-\infty$ implies that $q \rightarrow-r$ by the left-hand equation of (2.4). The right-hand equation of (2.4) gives that $\cot (d(Z, Q))=\cot (d(R, Z))$, hence $d(Z, Q)=d(R, Z)$. Thus, $q=-r$ is equivalent to $d(Z, Q)=d(R, Z)$, hence $\ell$ is an even function.
Let function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$be defined by $f(x):=\cot (d(Z, P(x)))$. Then (2.4) reads as

$$
f\left(\frac{a b r}{a r+b r-a b}\right)=f(b)+f(r)-f(a) .
$$

Putting $r=-b$ (hence accepting $a<-b$ too!), this gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\frac{a b}{2 a+b}\right)=2 f(b)-f(a) \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

because $f$ is an even function due to the evenness of $\ell$.

Define the odd function

$$
g(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{rr}
f(1 / x), & \text { if } x>0 \\
-f(1 / x), & \text { if } x<0
\end{array}\right.
$$

Then, as $2 a+b<a<0<b$, (2.5) gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
g\left(\frac{2}{b}+\frac{1}{a}\right)=2 g\left(\frac{1}{b}\right)+g\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) . \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the moment let $b=-a / 2$. Then (2.6) gives $g\left(\frac{-3}{a}\right)=2 g\left(\frac{-2}{a}\right)+g\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)$. So $g(0)=0$ follows from $a \rightarrow-\infty$ by the continuity of $g$. Now, $a \rightarrow-\infty$ in (2.6) gives by the continuity of $g$ that $g(2 / b)=2 g(1 / b)$. Substituting this into (2.6) we arrive at Cauchy's functional equation [15] for the continuous function $g$, so we obtain that $g(x)=c x$ for some $c>0$ and every $x$. By the definition of $g$ and $f$ this gives $d(P(s), P(0))=|\arctan (c s)|$ which implies $c=1$.
This proves the theorem for projective-metric spaces of elliptic type.

Cevian $(\mathcal{D}, d)$ is of parabolic type.
We have $v(\cdot)=\cdot$, so $\ell(s)=d(P(s), Z)$, hence (2.3) gives

$$
\frac{b-q}{b} \frac{-a}{r-a} \frac{-r}{q}=1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\ell(b)-\ell(q)}{\ell(a)-\ell(r)} \frac{\ell(r)}{\ell(q)} \frac{\ell(a)}{\ell(b)}=1 .
$$

After some easy simplifications this becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{b}=\frac{1}{a}-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\ell(q)}-\frac{1}{\ell(b)}=\frac{1}{\ell(r)}-\frac{1}{\ell(a)} \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Letting $a \rightarrow-\infty$ and $b \rightarrow \infty$ equation (2.7) gives

$$
\frac{1}{q}=-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\ell(q)}=\frac{1}{\ell(r)},
$$

so the affine and the $d$-metric midpoint of any segment coincide.
Thus, according to Busemann [3, page 94], $d$ is a Minkowski metric, hence the theorem for projective-metric spaces of parabolic type.

Cevian ( $\mathcal{D}, d$ ) is of hyperbolic type.
We have $v(\cdot)=\sinh (\cdot)$, so $\ell(s)=\sinh (d(P(s), Z)$ ), and (2.3) with the addition formulas for the hyperbolic sine give

$$
\frac{b-q}{b} \frac{-a}{r-a} \frac{-r}{q}=1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\ell(b) \cosh (d(Z, Q))+\cosh (d(Z, B)) \ell(q)}{\ell(a) \cosh (d(R, Z))+\cosh (d(A, Z)) \ell(r)} \frac{\ell(r)}{\ell(q)} \frac{\ell(a)}{\ell(b)}=1 .
$$

After some easy simplifications this shows
(2.8) $\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{b}=\frac{1}{a}-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{coth}(d(Z, Q))+\operatorname{coth}(d(Z, B))=\cot (d(R, Z))+\cot (d(A, Z))$.

The intersection $e:=A B \cap \mathcal{D}$ of line $A B$ and the domain $\mathcal{D}$ can be of three types:

- a whole affine line $A B$,

- a ray $\overline{A_{\infty}} B$, or

- a segment $\overline{A_{\infty} B_{\infty}}$.

- $e=A B$.

Letting $b \rightarrow \infty$ and $a \rightarrow-\infty$, implies that $q \rightarrow-r$ by the left-hand equation of (2.4). From the right-hand equation of (2.4) we get that $\operatorname{coth}(d(Z, Q))=\operatorname{coth}(d(R, Z))$, hence $d(Z, Q)=$ $d(R, Z)$. Thus, $q=-r$ is equivalent to $d(Z, Q)=d(R, Z)$, hence $\ell$ is an even function. Thus the map $\rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(z-x) \leftrightarrow P(z+x)$ is a $d$-isometric point reflection of $e$ for every $P(z) \in e$, hence $\left.\tau_{d ; e ; z, t}:=\rho_{d ; e ; t} \circ \rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(y) \rightarrow P(2 z-y) \rightarrow P(2(t-z)+y)\right)$ is a $d$-isometric translation.

So $d(P(x), P(y))=d(P(0), P(y-x))$, hence $d(P(0), P(y-x))+d(P(0), P(z-y))=d(P(x), P(y))+d(P(y), P(z))=d(P(x), P(z))=d(P(0), P(z-x))$.
Thus the continuous function $f(x)=d(P(0), P(x))$ satisfies Cauchy's functional equation [15], hence a constant $c_{e}>0$ exists such that $d(P(x), P(y))=c_{e}|x-y|$ for every $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$.
$0=\overline{A_{\infty}} B$.
Let $A_{\infty}=P\left(a_{\infty}\right)$. Letting $b \rightarrow \infty$ and $a \rightarrow a_{\infty}$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{q}=\frac{1}{a_{\infty}}-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{coth}(d(Z, Q))=\operatorname{coth}(d(R, Z)) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

by (2.8). Reparameterizing ray $e$ by the linear map $\bar{P}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow R Q$ such that $\bar{A}_{\infty}=\bar{P}(0)$, $R=\bar{P}(r), Z=\bar{P}(z), Q=\bar{P}(q)$, we can reformulate equivalency (2.9) to

$$
\frac{1}{q-z}=\frac{1}{-z}-\frac{1}{r-z} \Leftrightarrow d(Z, Q)=d(R, Z)
$$

where $0<r<z<q$. Thus, the map $\rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(r) \leftrightarrow P\left(z^{2} / r\right)$ is a $d$-isometric point reflection on ray $e$ for every $P(z) \in e$, hence $\tau_{d ; e ; z, t}:=\rho_{d ; ; ; t} \circ \rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(r) \rightarrow P\left(z^{2} / r\right) \rightarrow P\left(r t^{2} / z^{2}\right)$ is a $d$-isometric translation.
So $d\left(P(r), \tau_{d ; e ; z, t}(P(r))\right)$ does not depend on $r$, hence it is a real function $\delta$ of $t / z$. As $d$ is additive, this implies $\delta(x)+\delta(y)=\delta(x y)$, so, by the solution of Cauchy's functional equation [15], we have a constant $\bar{c}_{e}>0$ such that $\delta(x)=2 c_{e}|\ln (x)|$. Thus

$$
d(P(x), P(y))=d\left(P(x), \tau_{d ; e, 1, \sqrt{y / x}}(P(x))\right)=\delta(\sqrt{y / x})=\bar{c}_{e}|\ln (y / x)| \quad \text { for every } x, y \in \mathbb{R} .
$$

This means $d(P(x), P(y))=\bar{c}_{e}\left|\ln \left(A_{\infty}, \infty ; P(y), P(x)\right)\right|$, i.e. a Hilbert metric on ray $e$.
$e=\overline{A_{\infty} B_{\infty}}$.
Let $A_{\infty}=P\left(a_{\infty}\right)$ and $B_{\infty}=P\left(b_{\infty}\right)$. Letting $b \rightarrow b_{\infty}$ and $a \rightarrow a_{\infty}$ implies that

$$
\frac{1}{q}-\frac{1}{b_{\infty}}=\frac{1}{a_{\infty}}-\frac{1}{r} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{coth}(d(Z, Q))=\operatorname{coth}(d(R, Z))
$$

by (2.8). Reparameterizing segment $e$ by the linear map $\bar{P}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow R Q$ such that $\bar{A}_{\infty}=\bar{P}(0)$, $R=\bar{P}(r), Z=\bar{P}(z), Q=\bar{P}(q)$, and $\bar{B}_{\infty}=\bar{P}(1)$ we can reformulate the equivalency in (2.9) to

$$
\frac{1}{q-z}-\frac{1}{1-z}=\frac{1}{-z}-\frac{1}{r-z} \Leftrightarrow d(Z, Q)=d(R, Z)
$$

where $0<r<z<q<1$. Thus, the map $\rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(r) \leftrightarrow P\left(\frac{z^{2}(1-r)}{z^{2}-r(2 z-1)}\right)$ is a $d$-isometric point reflection on segment $e$ for every $P(z) \in e$, hence

$$
\tau_{d ; e ;, z, t}:=\rho_{d ; e, t} \circ \rho_{d ; e ; z}: P(r) \rightarrow P\left(\frac{z^{2}(1-r)}{z^{2}-r(2 z-1)}\right) \rightarrow P\left(\frac{1}{1+\frac{1-r}{r} \frac{z^{2}}{(1-z)^{2}} \frac{(1-t)^{2}}{t^{2}}}\right)
$$

is a $d$-isometric translation. So $d\left(P(r), \tau_{d ; e ; z, t}(P(r))\right)$ does not depend on $r$, hence it is a real function $\delta$ of $\frac{z^{2}}{(1-z)^{2}} \frac{(1-t)^{2}}{t^{2}}$. As $d$ is additive, this implies $\delta(x)+\delta(y)=\delta(x y)$ so, by the solution of Cauchy's functional equation [15], we have a constant $\bar{c}_{e}>0$ such that $\delta(x)=2 c_{e}|\ln (x)|$. Thus

$$
d(P(x), P(y))=d\left(P(x), \tau_{d ; e ; 1, \frac{x}{1-x} \frac{1-y}{y}}(P(x))\right)=\delta\left(\sqrt{\frac{x}{1-x} \frac{1-y}{y}}\right)=\bar{c}_{e}\left|\ln \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \frac{1-y}{y}\right)\right| .
$$

This means $d(P(x), P(y))=\bar{c}_{e}\left|\ln \left(A_{\infty}, B_{\infty} ; P(y), P(x)\right)\right|$, i.e. a Hilbert metric on segment $e$.

Having the metric for every possible domain of a projective-metric space of hyperbolic type, we are ready to step forward by considering the properties of the domain $\mathcal{D}$.

If $\mathcal{D}$ contains a whole affine line, then by [6, Exercise [17.8]] it is either a half plane or a strip bounded by two parallel lines, because it is not the whole plane. Thus, domain $\mathcal{D}$ is

$$
\text { either } \mathcal{P}_{(0, \infty)}:=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 0<x\right\} \text { or } \mathcal{P}_{(0, b)}:=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 0<x<b\right\}
$$

in suitable linear coordinates. As the perspective projectivity $\varpi:(x, y) \mapsto\left(\frac{x}{x+1}, \frac{y}{x+1}\right)$ maps $\mathcal{P}_{(0, \infty)}$ onto $\mathcal{P}_{(0,1)}$ bijectively, it is enough to consider the case $\mathcal{D}=\mathcal{P}_{(0,1)}$.
By the above, we know that $d((x, y),(x, z))=c(x)|z-y|$ for a continuous $c:(0,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$, and

$$
d((x, \lambda+\sigma x),(\mu x, \lambda+\mu \sigma x))=\bar{c}(\lambda, \sigma)\left|\ln \left(0, \frac{1}{x} ; 1, \mu\right)\right|=\bar{c}(\lambda, \sigma)\left|\ln \frac{1-\mu x}{\mu(1-x)}\right|
$$

where $\bar{c}: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$is also a continuous function. Putting these together gives

$$
d((x, 0),(s, y))= \begin{cases}\bar{c}\left(\frac{-y x}{s-x}, \frac{y}{s-x}\right)\left|\ln \frac{x(1-s)}{s(1-x)}\right|, & \text { if } x \neq s \\ c(x)|y|, & \text { if } x=s\end{cases}
$$

for every $x, s \in(0,1)$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}$. Letting $y=k(s-x)>0$ where $k \geq 0$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
k c(x) & =\lim _{s \rightarrow x} \frac{d((x, 0),(x, s-x))}{s-x}=\bar{c}(-k x, k) \lim _{s \rightarrow x}\left|\frac{\ln \frac{x(1-s)}{s(1-x)}}{s-x}\right| \\
& =\bar{c}(-k x, k) \lim _{s \rightarrow x}\left|\frac{\ln \left(1-\frac{1}{s(1-x) /(s-x)}\right)^{s(1-x) /(s-x)}}{s(1-x)}\right|=\frac{\bar{c}(-k x, k)}{x(1-x)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

This gives $0=\lim _{k \rightarrow 0} \bar{c}(-k x, k)$, and by continuity $\bar{c}(0,0)=0$, a contradiction.

Thus $\mathcal{D}$ does not contain a whole affine line, so it is either bounded or contains some rays. The metric on every chord $\ell \cap \mathcal{D}$ cut out by the straight lines $\ell$ from $\mathcal{D}$ is of the form $c_{\ell} \delta$, where $\delta$ is the Hilbert metric on $\mathcal{D}$. Multiplier $c_{\ell}$ depends on $\ell$ continuously because $d$ and $\delta$ are continuous. Given non-collinear points $A, B, C \in \mathcal{D}$ the strict triangle inequalities give that $|\delta(A, C)-\delta(B, C)|<\delta(A, B)$ and $\left|c_{A C} \delta(A, C)-c_{B C} \delta(B, C)\right|=|d(A, C)-d(B, C)|<d(A, B)=$ $c_{A B} \delta(A, B)$. These imply

$$
\left|\frac{\delta(A, C)}{\delta(B, C)}-1\right|<\frac{\delta(A, B)}{\delta(B, C)} \text {, and }\left|c_{A C} \frac{\delta(A, C)}{\delta(B, C)}-c_{B C}\right|<c_{A B} \frac{\delta(A, B)}{\delta(B, C)} \text {. }
$$

If $C$ tends to a point $\infty$ on the boundary $\partial \mathcal{D}$ of $\mathcal{D}$, then the first inequality implies $\frac{\delta(A, C)}{\delta(B, C)} \rightarrow 1$, so from the second inequality $c_{A \infty}=c_{B \infty}$ follows. Thus $c_{\ell}$ is the same for every line that goes through the same point of $\partial \mathcal{D}$. This clearly implies that $c_{\ell}$ does not depend on $\ell$, i.e. constant, hence ( $\mathcal{D}, d$ ) is a Hilbert geometry.
However, [10, Theorem 3.1] proves that a Hilbert geometry which has the Ceva property is hyperbolic, hence the theorem for projective-metric spaces of hyperbolic type.

To make versions of Ceva's or Menelaus' theorems valid in more projective-metric spaces more freedom should be allowed for the ratios.
Let $A, B$ be different points in a projective-metric space $(\mathcal{M}, d)$, and let $C \in(A B \cap \mathcal{M}) \backslash\{B\}$. Then the real number

$$
\langle A, B ; C\rangle_{d}^{\dagger}=\left\{\begin{align*}
\frac{\lambda(d(A, C))}{\lambda(d(C, B))}, & \text { if } C \in \overline{A B},  \tag{3.1}\\
-\frac{\lambda(d A, C))}{\lambda(d(C, B))}, & \text { otherwise },
\end{align*}\right.
$$

is called the $\lambda$-ratio of the triplet $(A, B, C)$, where $\lambda$ is a non-negative strictly increasing function of the positive real numbers.
The question arises if there is a projective-metric space in which Ceva's or Menelaus' theorems are valid with a $\lambda$-ratio. The answer to this question is negative for the Hilbert geometries $(\mathcal{M}, d)$.
For, just choose five points on $\partial \mathcal{M}$, and fit an ellipse $\mathcal{E}$ through these points. Then $\mathcal{E}$ intersects $\partial \mathcal{M}$ in at least six points in a circumcise order $M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}, M_{4}, M_{5}, M_{6}$. The chords $\overline{M_{1} M_{4}}, \overline{M_{2} M_{5}}$, and $\overline{M_{3} M_{6}}$ in general intersect each other in three points, say in $A, B$, and $C$. Now, on the side-lines of trigon $A B C \triangle$ the hyperbolic metric is given, hence Ceva's and Menelaus' theorems are valid with $\lambda(\cdot) \equiv \sinh (\cdot)$. For the hyperbolic geometry only the hyperbolic sine function can be a good choice, and we know from the results of the previous slides that it just does not work for more general Hilbert geometries.

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## Projective-metric spaces with Ceva or Menelaus property

(1) Projective-metric spaces

- Introduction
- Examples and question
- Ceva and Menelaus property

2. Cevian and Menelausian spaces

- Characterization
- Proofs
- Elliptic case
- Parabolic case
- Hyperbolic case
(3) Discussion


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We say that a Hilbert geometry is hyperbolic or is the hyperbolic geometry if it is a Cayley-Klein modell of the hyperbolic geometry. ${ }^{2}$ By projective duality it is not a surprise that the Ceva and the Menelaus properties boil down to the same equation.

