VARIETIES OF TOPOLOGICAL GEOMETRIES

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ABSTRACT. A variety of topological geometries is either

A. a projective variety $\mathcal{L}(F)$ over some topological field F, or

B. a matchstick variety $\mathcal{M}(X)$ over some topological space X. As a main tool for showing this, we prove a structure theorem for arbitrary topological

geometries.

1. Introduction.

- a. The Euclidean plane, the real hyperbolic plane, the real affine 3-space, and the real projective *n*-spaces are all strongly interrelated by forming subgeometries and contractions. Therefore it seems natural to consider *classes* of geometries. In [KK 82] (reprinted in [Ku 86]), Kahn and Kung defined the notion "variety of (combinatorial) geometries". They succeeded in determining all varieties of *finite* geometries. On p. 498 they list some difficulties associated with the determination of all varieties of *arbitrary* geometries. Therefore it seems reasonable to add an additional structure: In this paper we determine all varieties of *topological* geometries:
- **5.4.** Main Theorem II. Let $\mathcal T$ be a variety of topological geometries containing a nondiscrete one. Then $\mathcal T$ is either
 - A. a projective variety $\mathcal{L}(F)$ over some topological field F, or
 - B. a matchstick variety $\mathcal{M}(X)$ over some Hausdorff topological space X.

Comparing this with the finite case we observe that none of the three types: free variety, origami varieties, voltage-graphic varieties, has a topological analogue. If we view matchstick geometries as trivial, then 5.4 even says that only "classical" geometries (i.e. geometries coordinatizable over some topological field) can be members of a variety. Furthermore, of the multitude of nondesarguesian topological projective planes, none belongs to a variety.

There exist projective as well as matchstick varieties admitting more than one sequence of universal models:

A. Let $\mathbb{R}(x)$ be the field of rational functions over \mathbb{R} (reals). There is a linear ordering on it with r < x for all $r \in \mathbb{R}$, which makes it an ordered field. Endowed with the open interval topology induced by this ordering, $\mathbb{R}(x)$ becomes a topological field $F : \mathbb{R}(x^2)$ is a proper subfield isomorphic to F. Therefore (see [KK 82, p. 498]), defining T_n to be the affine n-space over

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F, we obtain another sequence of universal models for the projective variety $\mathcal{L}(F)$.

B. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and Y := [0, 1], the closed unit interval. Since X is homeomorphic to the subspace]0, 1[of Y, by 5.3 we have $\mathcal{M}(X) = \mathcal{M}(Y)$. Therefore the matchstick variety $\mathcal{M}(X)$ has at least two sequences of universal models: The powers of the line over \mathbb{R} , and the powers of the line over [0, 1].

Our proof for the Main Theorem II is not analogous to the corresponding one in [KK 82]. We derive it from a structure theorem on arbitrary topological geometries, which is of interest in its own right:

- **4.6. Main Theorem I.** Each topological geometry **G** is isomorphic to the direct product of finitely many
 - (1) open subgeometries of projective spaces over topological fields,
 - (2) topological planes (not necessarily desarguesian or projective),
 - (3) lines over Hausdorff topological spaces, or
 - (4) discrete geometries.

b. Notions. Notation. Facts.

b1. Let **G** be a geometric lattice (also called geometry, or matroid; see e.g. [Bi 67, CR70, Ku 86, We 76, Wh 86, Wh 87]). For $x \in \mathbf{G}$, we define the dimension of x—denoted by dim x—to be the cardinality of a maximal chain from the smallest element 0 to x, minus 2. The dimension of **G** is defined by dim $\mathbf{G} := \dim 1 =: n$, where 1 is the largest element. Elements of dimension 0, 1, 2, k, n-2, n-1 are called points, lines, planes, k-flats, colines, hyperplanes (or copoints). Furthermore, if n=0,1,2, resp. k, then **G** itself is called a point, line, plane, resp. k-space.

For $x \in G$, the intervals $G_x := [0, x]$ and $G^x := [x, 1]$ (contraction) are again geometric lattices, as is the following: For a set M of points, the subgeometry G(M) induced on M is the set of flats of G for which M contains a spanning set, with the ordering inherited from G. Furthermore we use the following symbols:

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x \le y for: x is a lower neighbor of y, set of upper neighbors of x,

x \in \mathcal{S} set of points below x, set of k-flats of k,

k \in \mathcal{S} restriction of k \in \mathcal{S} to k \in \mathcal{S} is defined dually.
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- **b2.** A topological geometry (or topological n-space) is a geometric lattice G where each "layer" ${}_{j}G$ of ${}_{j}$ -flats carries a topology such that
 - (CV) Joining a point with a j-flat is continuous.
- (CA) Meeting a hyperplane with a j-flat resulting in a (j-1)-flat, is continuous.
- (S) Each hyperplane h and j-flat x with $j \ge 1$ meeting in a (j-1)-flat, have neighborhoods V, resp. W, with the same properties, i.e. each $h' \in V$ meets each $x' \in W$ in a (j-1)-flat.

This notion has been justified in [Gr 86a]. Furthermore, in [CG 89] it is shown that it would be too strong to postulate—as the analogy to topological groups etc. might suggest it—a topology on G such that the "full" functions of \vee and \wedge are continuous. Instead of postulating this, our three axioms only require all "slices" ${}_{0}\bigvee_{j}$ and ${}^{n-1}\bigwedge_{j-1}^{j}$ to be continuous, and the domain of ${}^{n-1}\bigwedge_{j-1}^{j}$ to be open.

We define the topology τ of **G** to be that of the free union of the ${}_{j}\mathbf{G}$ (cf. [Gr 86a, p. 115]). Thus, a topological geometry could equivalently be defined as a pair (\mathbf{G}, τ) of a geometric lattice and a topology, satisfying $(\mathbb{C}\vee)$, $(\mathbb{C}\wedge)$ and (\mathbf{S}) , where each ${}_{j}\mathbf{G}$ is open.

For a topological field F, the topological projective n-space over F, denoted by $\mathbf{P}_n(F) =: \mathbf{P}$, is the lattice of subspaces of the F-vector space F^{n+1} , given the following topology $\tau :$ For $M \subseteq F^{n+1}$, denote by $M_{\mathbf{P}}$ the set of subspaces meeting M. Define τ to be the topology having as a subbasis

$$\{M_{\mathbf{P}}|M \text{ open in } F^{n+1}\} \cup \{i\} = 1 \le i \le n\}.$$

From [Sz 86, Proposition 3] it follows easily that (P, τ) is a topological projective space in the sense of [Mi 68, p. 246], which by [Gr 86a, Theorem 3.3] is a topological geometry.

- **b3.** The (direct) product $G_1 \times G_2$ of two topological geometries G_i is defined as the (direct) product (see e.g. [Bi 67, p. 8]) of the corresponding lattices, endowed with the product topology. Since a variety is closed under the formation of products, it is important to observe the following fact:
- 1.1. The product of two topological geometries is again a topological geometry.

The proof is a verification using generalized sequences (or nets, see e.g. [Du 66, p. 2.10]). \Box

b4. We write \cong for "isomorphic" (see [Gr 86a, p. 115]), and \approx for "homeomorphic".

2. Planes

The following proposition is a generalization of [Gr 86a, Corollary 5.3]. It is needed here for planes only. However, the proof for this special case would not be simpler.

- 2.1. Let **G** be an arbitrary topological geometry. Let h_i be two hyperplanes, l a line such that $h_i \wedge l =: p_i$ are points. If either
 - a. l contains at least three points, or
 - b. $p_1 = p_2$,

then there exist neighborhoods U_i of p_i in h_i with $U_1 \approx U_2$.

Proof. By (S) there exists a neighborhood V of l all of whose lines meet each h_i in a point. In both cases a and b, l contains a point q different from both p_i . Since $V \cap q$ is open in the set q of all lines through q, by [Gr 86a, Lemma \bullet

$$U:= \overbrace{V\cap q}^{\circ} \setminus \{q\}$$

of all points $\neq q$ on these lines is an open point set. Now the sets $U_i := U \cap \overset{\circ}{h}_i$ are the required neighborhoods, and $p'_1 \mapsto (p'_1 \vee q) \wedge h_2$ is a homeomorphism from U_1 onto U_2 . \square

- 2.2. Corollary. Let G be an arbitrary topological plane. Let l be a line. Let p_i be two points on l such that there exists a point q outside l satisfying:
 - (i) Each line $p_i \lor q$ contains at least three points.
 - (ii) At least three lines pass through q.

Then there exist neighborhoods U_i of p_i in l with $U_1 \approx U_2$.

Proof. Apply 2.1a, 2.1b, and then again 2.1a. \Box

For the remainder of §2, let G be an arbitrary topological plane.

- 2.3. Let p be a cluster point. Then:
- **a.** For at least one line l through p, p is a cluster point in the space l of all points on l.
- **b**. If at least three lines pass through p, then p is a cluster point on each line through p.
- *Proof.* a. Our assumption implies the existence of a generalized sequence (or net; see e.g. [Du 66, p. 210]) $p_{\nu} \to p$, $p_{\nu} \neq p$. Because of dim $G \geq 2$ there exists a point q outside l. Since lines are hyperplanes, by (S) $p_{\nu} \vee q =: m_{\nu}$ finally meets l in a point p_{ν} . Now (CV) and (CA) imply $p_{\nu} \to p$.
- Case 1. There exist arbitrarily large ν with $p'_{\nu} \neq p$. Then p is a cluster point of l.
- Case 2. $p'_{\nu} = p$ finally. Then $p'_{\nu} \lessdot m := p \lor q$ finally. Hence p is a cluster point of \mathring{m} .
- **b.** Because of **a**, there exists a line l through p containing a generalized sequence $p_{\nu} \to p$ with $p_{\nu} \neq p$. Let $l' \neq l$ be any line through p. By assumption there exists a point q outside l and l'. Analogously to the proof for a, define $p'_{\nu} := (p_{\nu} \vee q) \wedge l'$. Again by (S), p'_{ν} finally is a point, and by (C \vee) and (C \wedge), $p'_{\nu} \to p$. By construction, $p'_{\nu} \neq p$. \square
- 2.4. Let $l \neq m$ be two lines meeting in a point p such that
 - (1) p is a cluster point on l,
 - (2) m contains at least three points.

Then each point of l is a cluster point on l.

Proof. Let p' be a second point on l. Our statement will follow from Corollary 2.2, applied to $p_1 = p$, $p_2 = p'$, and q = second point on m. We have to show conditions (i) and (ii):

We conclude (ii) from (1) using: (a) The point space of a topological geometry is Hausdorff [Gr 86a, 4.2]. (b) A T_1 -space having a cluster point is infinite.

- To show (i) we use (2) and choose a third point q' on m. By (1), and (a), (b) above there exists a generalized sequence $p_{\nu} \neq p$, p' on l with $p_{\nu} \rightarrow p$. By (CV) and (S) the line $q' \lor p_{\nu}$ finally meets $p' \lor q$ in a point, which must be different from q and p'. \square
- 2.5. **Theorem.** Let G be a nondiscrete topological plane containing a two-point line. Then G contains a line l and a point q such that $G \cong G_l \times G_q$.

Proof. Since G is not discrete, by [Gr 86a, 4.19] the point space $_{\circ}$ G is not discrete, and therefore contains a cluster point p. By 2.3a, there exists a line l through p such that p is a cluster point on l. We prove 2.5 by showing: If the plane G contains at least two points outside l then it contains no two-point line. Actually we show that then each line has a cluster point on it, and hence (see 2.4, proof for (ii)) is infinite.

Assume G contains at least two points outside l. Either these are collinear with p, or there exist at least two lines $\neq l$ through p, and then by 2.3b l is a cluster point on each line through p. Hence in either case, there exists a line $m \neq l$ through p containing at least three points.

Therefore by 2.4 each point of l is a cluster point on l. Let now l' be any line meeting l in a point $p' \neq p$. Joining p' with the points of m we obtain at least three lines through p'. Hence by 2.3b, p' is a cluster point also on l'. Since l contains at least three points, by 2.4 each point of l' is a cluster point on it. Finally, let l' be any line $\neq l$ either meeting l in p, or disjoint to l (i.e. $l' \wedge l = 0$). Choose a point $q \neq p$ on l' and two points $p_i \neq p$ on l. By the preceding paragraph, q is a cluster point on $p_1 \vee q$, and hence by 2.3b on l'. \square

3. REGULAR FLATS. SEPARATORS

In each following section of this paper, G denotes an arbitrary topological geometry, of (lattice theoretical) dimension n.

For 3.3 we need the following fact:

3.1. Assume that (*) each line contains at least three points. If there exist a k-flat z with $0 \le k \le n-2$, and an open set $W \ne \emptyset$ of upper neighbors, then G is discrete.

Proof. Choose $y \in W$. Because of $k \neq n-1$ there exists a hyperplane h with $y \wedge h = z$. Because of $k \geq 0$ and (S) we may assume that each $y' \in W$ meets h in a k-flat, too. Since $z \leq y'$, this k-flat must be z. By [Gr 86a, 4.6] the set V of k-flats contained in some (k+1)-flat of W is open. Since $V \cap G_h = \{z\}$ is open in the topological geometry [Gr 86a, 4.20a] G_h , by (*) and [Gr 86a, Theorem 5.4 (3) \Rightarrow (6)], G_h is discrete. Hence by [Gr 86, Theorem 5.4 (2) \Rightarrow (6)], G_h is discrete. \Box

Definition. A flat x is regular if and only if

- (*) Each line $l \le x$ contains at least three points, and
- (**) The space \ddot{x} of points below x is not discrete.

G is called regular if and only if 1 is a regular flat.

- 3.2. If x is a regular flat, then:
 - a. $\dim x > 1$.
- b. If dim $x \ge 2$ then for each line $l \le x$, each point of l is a cluster point of
 - c. If $y \le x$ and dim $y \ge 1$ then y is regular.

Proof. a: (**). b: [Gr 86a, Theorem 5.4(2) \Rightarrow (5)]. c. Case 1: $\dim x = 1$. Then y = x. Case 2: $\dim x \ge 2$: (*) clearly carries over to smaller flats. (**): y contains a line l, which by b has a cluster point. \square

The following theorem is needed for 3.4. It generalizes [Gr 86 b, 3.2]. It also allows an alternative proof for [Gr 86b, Theorem 3.3] not using [Ka 74, p. 176, Lemma].

3.3. **Theorem.** Each hyperplane h and each regular j-flat $x \not\leq h$, both passing through a common point, meet in a (j-1)-flat.

Proof. Because of $x \nleq h$ there exists a flat y satisfying $h \land x =: z \lessdot y \leq x$ and hence $h \land y = z$. Since dim $z =: k \geq 0$, by (S) there exists a neighborhood V of y all of whose elements meet h in a k-flat, too. In the topological j-space G_x , the set $W := V \cap G_x$ is a neighborhood of y all of whose elements pass through z. If our statement were false, i.e. y < x, then because of (*), 3.1 would be applicable, implying that \mathring{x} would be discrete, a contradiction to (**). \square

3.4. If G contains a regular hyperplane x and at least two points outside then it is regular.

Proof. We proceed indirectly by induction. By 3.2a, the statement makes sense only for dim $G \ge 2$. Theorem 2.5 implies that it is true for dim G = 2. Assume that it is true for all topological geometries of dimension n - 1, and that there exists a G of dimension n for which it is false. Then, since (**) carries over from x to 1, (*) must be violated. Thus G must contain a two-point line l. Since x is regular, $l \not\leq x$.

Case 1: $l \wedge x = 0$. Because $n \geq 3$, there exists a hyperplane $h \geq l$ meeting x.

Case 2: $l \wedge x$ is a point p. Then l contains only one further point $p' \not \leq x$. By the assumption of 3.4, there exists a second point $q \not \leq x$. Again, because n > 3, there exists a hyperplane $h \geq l \vee q$.

In either case, Theorem 3.3 implies that $h \wedge x =: x'$ is a regular (by 3.2c) hyperplane of the topological (n-1)-space G_h . Since G_h contains at least two points outside x', it is regular by our induction hypothesis. In particular, $l \leq h$ contains at least three points, a contradiction. \square

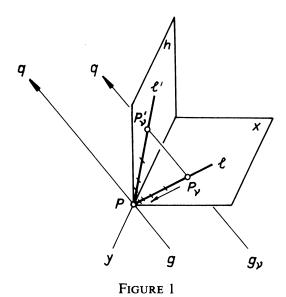
3.5. Corollary. If x and y are regular flats with $x \wedge y \neq 0$, then $x \vee y$ is regular.

Proof. We may assume $y \nleq x$. Then because of $x \land y \neq 0$, there exists a line $l \leq y$ such that $x \land l$ is a point. Define $x_1 := x \lor l$. In the topological geometry \mathbf{G}_{x_1} , x is a regular hyperplane. Since y is regular, l contains at least two points outside x. Hence by 3.4, x_1 is regular. This proves our statement in case $x_1 = x \lor y$.

In case $x_1 < x \lor y$, we repeat the above procedure: $x_2 := x_1 \lor l_1, \ldots, x_k := x_{k-1} \lor l_{k-1} = x \lor y$. \square

3.6. Assume **G** contains a maximal regular flat x < 1. Let h be a hyperplane satisfying $0 < x \land h =: y < x$. In case x is a line, assume further: (c) y is a cluster point on \mathring{x} . Then **G** contains no point outside x and h.

Proof (indirect; see Figure 1). Assume there exists a point $q \notin \mathring{x} \cup \mathring{h}$. By assumption, there exists a point $p \le y$. Because of y < x there exists a line l < x with $l \wedge y = p$. Since x is regular, by 3.2b—in case x is a line by



- (c)—there exists a generalized sequence $p \neq p_{\nu} \lessdot l$ converging to p. Because of $q \not\leq h$, $q \lor p =: g$ is a line meeting h in a point (namely p). By $(C \lor)$ and (S), $q \lor p_{\nu} =: g_{\nu}$ is a line finally meeting h in a point p'_{ν} . Because of $q \nleq x$ we have $p'_{\nu} \neq p$. Hence $(q \vee l) \wedge h =: l'$ is a line containing the generalized sequence p'_{ν} , which by $(C \land)$ has p as a cluster point. Now $l' \nleq x$ implies $x' := x \vee l' > x$. By Corollary 3.5, x' is regular, too, a contradiction to the maximality of x. \square
- 3.7. Assume G contains a maximal regular flat l < 1 which is a line. Then there exists a coline y satisfying
 - (1) $l \wedge v = 0$,
 - (2) **G** contains no point outside l and y.

Proof. By (**), \tilde{l} contains a cluster point p. Because of l < 1 there exists a hyperplane h with $l \wedge h = p$. Choose y < h with $p \nleq y$. Clearly, y satisfies (1). (2) (Indirect; see Figure 2): Assume there exists a point q neither on lnor on y. By 3.6 we have ${}_{\circ}\mathbf{G} = \tilde{l} \cup \tilde{h}$ and hence $q \leq h$.

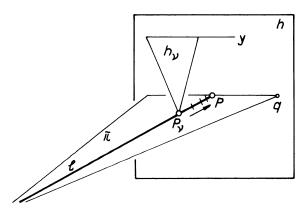


FIGURE 2

Let $p \neq p_{\nu} \lessdot l$ be a generalized sequence converging to p. Then $h_{\nu} := y \lor p_{\nu}$ is a generalized sequence of hyperplanes, which by $(C \lor)$ converges to $h = y \lor p$. For the plane $\pi := l \lor q$ we have that $\pi \land h = p \lor q$ is a line. Hence by (S), $\pi \land h_{\nu}$ finally is a line, too. On the other hand, since l is maximal regular also in the topological plane G_{π} , 3.4 implies $\mathring{\pi} = \mathring{l} \cup \{q\}$. Since both $l \lessdot h_{\nu}$ and $q \lessdot h_{\nu}$ are impossible, $\pi \land h_{\nu} = p_{\nu}$ is a point. This is a contradiction. \square

Definition (cf. [CR 70, p. 12.1]; [Wh 86, p. 176]). A flat x of a geometric lattice **G** is a *separator* if and only if for each "nonincident" pair $p \not\leq h$ of a point p and a hyperplane h, either $p \leq x$ or $x \leq h$ holds.

In each G, 0 is a separator. A separator s is called *minimal* if and only if $s \neq 0$ and there exists no separator s' with 0 < s' < s.

3.8. **Theorem.** Maximal regular flats x are minimal separators.

Proof. Let x be a maximal regular flat.

Claim: x is a separator. If x = 1, then trivially x is a separator. If x < 1, let $0 \le p \le h \le 1$ be given. Assume $x \le h$.

Case 1: dim $x \ge 2$. Then $x \land h \ne 0$. There exists a hyperplane h' satisfying $0 < x \land h' < h'$. By 3.6, we have ${}_{\circ}\mathbf{G} = \overset{\circ}{x} \cup \overset{\circ}{h'}$. Hence $x \land h = 0$ would imply $\overset{\circ}{h} \subseteq \overset{\circ}{h'}$, and therefore h = h', a contradiction to $x \land h' \ne 0$. Now because of $0 < x \land h < x$, 3.6 implies $p \le x$.

Case 2: x =: l is a line. Then by 3.7 we have ${}_{\circ}\mathbf{G} = \overset{\circ}{l} \dot{\cup} \overset{\circ}{y}$. From this one can easily determine the hyperplanes of $\mathbf{G}: l \nleq h$ implies $h = q \lor y$ for some $q \lessdot l$. Hence $p \nleq h$ implies $p \le l = x$.

Claim: The flat x is minimal. For each 0 < s < x we construct a point-hyperplane pair $0 such that <math>p \nleq s$ and $s \nleq h$: In the geometry G_x , choose points $p \nleq s$ and $q \leq s$. By (*) the line $p \vee q$ contains a third point r. Again because of (*), we may apply [Gr 86a, 2.3b] to x = r, $y_1 = p$, $y_2 = s$, and obtain a flat k < x containing neither p nor s. There exists a hyperplane $h \geq k$ of G not containing x. \square

4. FACTORIZATION

4.1. For each separator s, the set G_s of flats below s is open.

Proof. By the definition of the topology on G (see §1.b.2), we must show that for each i the set ${}_{i}G_{s}$ of i-flats below s is open in the set ${}_{i}G$ of all i-flats. We use induction on i:

- I. i = 0: By [CR 70, Proposition 12.4], G contains a complement t of s such that each point is either on s or on t. Since the set t of all points below any flat t is closed [Gr 86a, 4.1], ${}_{\circ}G_{s} = s = {}_{\circ}G \setminus t$ is open.
- II. Assume ${}_{i}\mathbf{G}_{s}$ is open. Since ${}_{i}\overset{\circ}{\bigvee}_{i+1}$ is an open function [Gr 86a, 4.9], ${}_{i+1}\mathbf{G}_{s}={}_{i}\mathbf{G}_{s}\overset{i+1}{\bigvee}_{s}\overset{\circ}{i}$ is also open. \square
- 4.2. Corollary. Each separator is isolated.

Proof. By 4.1, $\{s\} = \dim_s \mathbf{G}_s$ is open in $\dim_s \mathbf{G}$. \square

Two flats s, t are said to form a skew pair if they form a modular pair with $s \wedge t = 0$; see e.g. [CR 70, p. 219].

4.3. If two flats s and t form a skew pair, then the restriction of \vee to $\mathbf{G}_s \times \mathbf{G}_t$ is continuous.

Proof. Let (x_{ν}, y_{ν}) , $(x, y) \in \mathbf{G}_s \times \mathbf{G}_t$, where x_{ν} and y_{ν} are generalized sequences converging to x resp. y. Then $\dim x_{\nu} = \dim x =: i$ and $\dim y_{\nu} = \dim y =: j$ finally. By [MM 70, 1.53], $s \in M$ t implies $x_{\nu} \in M$ y_{ν} . Together with $x_{\nu} \wedge y_{\nu} = 0$ we obtain

$$\dim x_{\nu} \vee y_{\nu} = \dim x_{\nu} + \dim y_{\nu} - \dim x_{\nu} \wedge y_{\nu} = i + j + 1$$

finally. Hence the continuity of $i \bigvee_{k=1}^{j} [Gr 86a, Theorem 4.16]$ implies $x_{\nu} \vee y_{\nu} \rightarrow x \vee y$. \square

We need the following extension of [CR 70; §12, Theorem 3] to topological geometries:

4.4. For two elements s, t the map

$$\iota_{s} \times \iota_{t} : \mathbf{G}_{s} \times \mathbf{G}_{t} \to \mathbf{G}$$
, defined by $(x, y) \mapsto x \vee y$,

is an isomorphism of topological geometries if and only if s and t are complementary separators.

Proof. Because of [CR 70; §12, Theorem 3] it suffices to show: Let s and t be complementary separators. If $l_s \times l_t$ is an isomorphism of geometric lattices, then it is also a homeomorphism.

Since $l_s \times l_t$ is bijective, it suffices to show that it is (1) continuous, and (2) open.

(1) Since G is isomorphic to $G_s \times G_t$ as a geometric lattice, we have

$$\dim s \vee t = \dim s + \dim t + 1$$
,

and hence (see e.g. [CR 70, Proposition 2.8]) s M t. We now can apply 4.3.

- (2) If A is an open subset of G_s , then by 4.1 it is also open in G. Likewise for $B \subseteq G_t$. Hence the openness of \vee [Gr 86a, Corollary 4.14] implies that $A \vee B$ is open in G. \square
- 4.5. Corollary. Denote by r_1, \ldots, r_k the maximal regular flats of G, and let d be a complement of $r_1 \vee \cdots \vee r_k =: s$. Then d is unique, and the map

$$\iota_1 \times \cdots \times \iota_k \times \iota \colon \mathbf{G}_{r_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{G}_{r_k} \times \mathbf{G}_d \to \mathbf{G}$$

defined by $(x_1, \ldots, x_k, y) \mapsto x_1 \vee \cdots \vee y_k \vee y$ is an isomorphism of topological geometries.

Proof. By Theorem 3.8, each r_i is a separator. By [CR 70, §12, Theorem 2] so is each join of these, in particular s. By [CR 70, Proposition 12.4] there is exactly one complement d of s, and d is again a separator. We now use 4.4 for $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ inductively. \square

- 4.6. **Main Theorem I.** Each topological geometry **G** is isomorphic to the direct product of finitely many
 - (1) open subgeometries of projective spaces over topological fields,
 - (2) topological planes (not necessarily desarguesian or projective),
 - (3) lines over Hausdorff topological spaces, or
 - (4) discrete geometries

 (\mathbf{H})

- *Proof.* Because of 4.5 it suffices to know all regular topological geometries:
- (1) For dimension at least three, these have been classified in [Gr 86b, Corollary 4.5].
- (2), (3): Dimensions 2 resp. 1: see [Gr 86a, p. 115, Remarks 2 and 3] (here regularity is not needed). \Box

5. VARIETIES

We now take over from Kahn and Kung, just replacing "finite" (combinatorial) by "topological", the following definition motivated in [KK 82, p. 486]:

Definition. A class $\mathcal T$ of topological geometries is called a variety if and only if

- ("hereditary") \mathcal{F} is closed under the formation of isomorphic copies, (Sub) subgeometries, (C) contractions, and (P) finite direct products; and
- \mathcal{F} contains a sequence T_1, T_2, T_3, \ldots ("universal models") of dimensions $1, 2, 3, \ldots$ such that each $G \in \mathcal{F}$ of dimension i is isomorphic to a subgeometry of T_i .

Remark. (Sub) means that a subgeometry is also in \mathcal{T} provided it is a topological geometry again. Note that this is not always the case: Let G be the euclidean plane, and M the closed unit disc. Then G(M) does not satisfy (S).

Notation. Let X, Y be two topological geometries (topological spaces, topological fields). We write

$$X \prec Y$$

if and only if X is isomorphic to a subgeometry (subspace, subfield) of Y.

Remark. $X \prec Y$ and $Y \prec X$ do not imply $X \cong Y$: For the topological spaces $X = \mathbb{R}$ and Y = [0, 1] we have $Y \prec X$ and $X \cong]0, 1[\prec Y]$. Nevertheless $X \ncong Y$ (cf. §1.a).

Definition. a. Projective variety $\mathcal{L}(F)$: Let F be a topological field. Define $\mathcal{L}(F)$ to be the class of all topological geometries isomorphic to some subgeometry of some topological projective n-space $\mathbf{P}_n(F) =: \mathbf{P}_n$ (see §1).

b. Matchstick variety $\mathcal{M}(X)$: Let X be a Hausdorff topological space containing at least two elements. Let $p \in X$. Define $\mathbf{l} :=$ topological line over X (see [Gr 86a, p. 115, Remark 3]), and $\mathbf{p} := \{0, p\}$, $0 \neq p$, ("topological point"). Let $\mathbf{M}_{2k-1} := \mathbf{l}^k$, and $\mathbf{M}_{2k} := \mathbf{l}^k \times \mathbf{p}$. Define $\mathcal{M}(X)$ to be the class of all topological geometries isomorphic to some subgeometry of some \mathbf{M}_n .

We hasten to supplement:

5.1. Each $\mathcal{L}(F)$ and each $\mathcal{M}(X)$ is a variety.

Proof. Straightforward.

5.2 **Lemma.** Let F, F' be topological fields, and let $2 \le m \le n$ be integers. Then

$$\mathbf{P}_m(F) \prec \mathbf{P}_n(F') \Leftrightarrow F \prec F'$$
.

Proof. (⇒) Because of $m \ge 2$ we can conclude $\mathbf{P}_2(F) \prec \mathbf{P}_2(F') =: \mathbf{P}$. Thus $\mathbf{P}_2(F) \cong \mathbf{P}(M)$ for some point set $M \subseteq {}_{\circ}\mathbf{P}$. Since \mathbf{P} induces on M a (topological) projective plane, M contains a quadrangle. Any corresponding ordered quadrangle (o, u, v, i) induces operations + and \cdot on the points $\neq v$ of the line $o \lor v =: l$, making it a (ternary) field K' (see e.g. [HP 73, V.2]; [Ha 59, 20.3]; [Pi 75, 1.5]). Since +, \cdot , and $^{-1}$ are multiple compositions of the functions ${}_{\circ}\bigvee_{\circ}$ and ${}^{1}\bigwedge_{\circ}$, by $(C\lor)$ and $(C\land)$, K' is a topological field. One verifies that each \mathbf{P} -automorphism in $PGL_2(F')$ is continuous. Hence the transitivity of the group $PGL_2(F')$ on the set of ordered quadrangles (see e.g. [HP 73, Theorem 2.12]) implies $K' \cong F'$ (as topological fields). Furthermore, $\mathring{l} \cap M \setminus \{v\}$ becomes a subfield $K \le K'$. In $\mathbf{P}_2(F)$, the ordered quadrangle corresponding to (o, u, v, i) under the isomorphism $\mathbf{P}(M) \cong \mathbf{P}_2(F)$ yields a topological field $K^* \cong K$. Analogously to the above, the transitivity of $PGL_2(F)$ implies $K^* \cong K$. To sum up, $F \cong K^* \cong K \le K' \cong F'$ implies $F \prec F'$. (\Leftarrow) Verification, using [Gr 86a, 4.22]. □

5.3. Let \mathcal{S} , \mathcal{T} be varieties containing sequences \mathbf{S}_n resp. \mathbf{T}_n of universal models such that there exists an integer k with $\mathbf{S}_n \prec \mathbf{T}_n$ for all $n \geq k$. Then $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{F}$.

Proof. (U), transitivity of \prec , (Sub). For dim G < k: (P). \Box

- 5.4. Main Theorem II. Let $\mathcal T$ be a variety of topological geometries containing a nondiscrete one. Then $\mathcal T$ is either
 - A. a projective variety $\mathcal{L}(F)$ over some topological field F, or
 - B. a matchstick variety $\mathcal{M}(X)$ over some Hausdorff topological space X.

Proof. Since \mathcal{T} contains a nondiscrete geometry, by the Main Theorem I, [Gr 86a, $5.4(2) \Rightarrow (6)$], (Sub), and (U), T_1 must be a regular line.

Case A: T_2 regular. Then all T_n are regular (cf. [KK 82, Lemma 5]): From (Sub), (P) and (U) we deduce T_1 , T_{n-2} , $T_{n-1} \prec T_n$. Assume T_n is not regular, but all preceding T_i are. Then the Main Theorem I and $T_{n-1} \prec T_n$, as well as the regularity of T_{n-1} , imply $T_n \cong H \times p$. Here H is a regular topological (n-1)-space, and p is a point. Now from (P) and (U) we get $T_{n-2} \times T_1 \prec H \times p$. Because of the regularity of T_{n-2} and T_1 , this implies $T_{n-2} \times T_1 \prec H$, a contradiction to dim H = n - 1.

The regularity of the T_n implies for $n \ge 3$, by [Gr 86b, Corollary 4.5], the existence of a topological field F_n with $T_n \prec P_n(F_n)$. Let $F =: F_3$. We will show $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{L}(F)$ by a sequence of steps:

- (1) $\mathbf{T}_n^p \cong \mathbf{P}_{n-1}(F_n)$ for each point p of \mathbf{T}_n : Since \mathbf{T}_n may be embedded as an *open* subgeometry of $\mathbf{P}_n(F_n) =: \mathbf{P}$ [Gr 86b, Corollary 4.5], we have by [Gr 86a, Corollary 5.6c] that $\mathbf{T}_n^p = \mathbf{P}^p \cong \mathbf{P}_{n-1}(F_n)$.
- (2) $F \prec F_n$: Since \prec is transitive, it suffices to show $F_n \prec F_{n+1}$: Because of (C), (P), and (U) we have $\mathbf{T}_n^p \times \mathbf{T}_1 \prec \mathbf{T}_{n+1} \prec \mathbf{P}_{n+1}(F_{n+1})$. Together with (1) we deduce $\mathbf{P}_{n-1}(F_n) \prec \mathbf{P}_{n+1}(F_{n+1})$. By Lemma 5.2 (\Rightarrow) this implies $F_n \prec F_{n+1}$.
- (3) $F_n \prec F$: Because of (1), (C), and (U) we have $\mathbf{P}_{n-1}(F_n) \cong \mathbf{T}_n^p \prec \mathbf{T}_{n-1} \prec \mathbf{P}_{n-1}(F_{n-1})$. By Lemma 5.2 (\Rightarrow) this implies $F_n \prec F_{n-1}$.
- (4) $\mathbf{P}_n(F) \prec \mathbf{P}_n(F_{n+1}) \cong \mathbf{T}_{n+1}^p \prec \mathbf{T}_n$ by (2), Lemma 5.2 (\Leftarrow), (1), (C), and (U).
 - (5) $\mathbf{T}_n \prec \mathbf{P}_n(F_n) \prec \mathbf{P}_n(F)$ by (3) and Lemma 5.2 (\Leftarrow).

(6) $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{L}(F)$ because of (4), (5), and 5.3.

Case B: T_2 not regular. Then by (Sub) and (U), no T_n contains a regular plane. For an arbitrary variety, (P) and (U) imply:

$$\mathbf{M}_{2k-1} := \mathbf{T}_1^k \prec \mathbf{T}_{2k-1}$$
 and $\mathbf{M}_{2k} := \mathbf{T}_1^k \times \mathbf{p} \prec \mathbf{T}_{2k}$,

where $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{F}$ is a point. Combining all this with the regularity of T_1 and the Main Theorem I, we obtain

$$\mathbf{T}_{2k-1} = \mathbf{l}_{1,2k-1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{l}_{k,2k-1}$$
 and $\mathbf{T}_{2k} = \mathbf{l}_{1,2k} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{l}_{k,2k} \times \mathbf{p}$,

where \mathbf{l}_{ij} are regular lines. (Sub) and (U) imply $\mathbf{l}_{ij} \prec \mathbf{T}_1$. Hence $\mathbf{T}_n \prec \mathbf{S}_n$. In summary, 5.3 implies $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{M}(X)$, where X is the point space of \mathbf{T}_1 . \square

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