# Geometric Modelling Summer 2018 

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http://hci.uni-kl.de/teaching/geometric-modelling-ss2018

Foundations trom

# Foundations from Projective Geometry 

## Motivating Considerations

(This follows K.P. Grotemeyer: Analytic Geometry.)
Starting with ordinary Cartesian (Euclidean) coordinates $\bar{x}_{1}, \bar{x}_{2}, \bar{x}_{3}$ of a point $P$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}\left(\mathbb{E}^{3}\right)$, we introduce four variables $x_{0}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ by carrying out the following operations:

$$
\bar{x}_{1}=\frac{x_{1}}{x_{0}} ; \quad \bar{x}_{2}=\frac{x_{2}}{x_{0}} ; \quad \bar{x}_{3}=\frac{x_{3}}{x_{0}}
$$

These variables are called homogeneous coordinates.

## Motivating Considerations


and vice versa every column vector of this kind with $x_{0} \neq 0$ is a point in Euclidean space, but:

$$
\left(\begin{array}{l}
x_{0} \\
x_{1} \\
x_{2} \\
x_{3}
\end{array}\right) \text { and }\left(\begin{array}{l}
c x_{0} \\
c x_{1} \\
c x_{2} \\
c x_{3}
\end{array}\right) \text { map to the same point if } c \neq 0 .
$$

## Projective Geometry

## Motivating Considerations

Points with $x=0$ have no Euclidean interpretation. They are points at infinity. $\left(0, a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)^{T}$ can be interpreted as the infinitely far point along the line in the direction from the coordinate offspring to the Euclidean point $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}\right)^{T}$.

$$
x_{0} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow\left(x_{0}, \frac{a_{1}}{x_{0}}, \frac{a_{2}}{x_{0}}, \frac{a_{3}}{x_{0}}\right)^{T} \rightarrow \infty
$$



Figure: When $x_{0}$ approaches 0 , the length of the direction vector approaches infinity.

## Projective Geometry

## Motivating Considerations

The equation $x_{0}=0$ describes the plane at infinity, the plane that contains all points at infinity.


Figure: Plane at infinity: $x_{0}=0$.
$\mathbb{E}^{3}+$ plane at infinity $\rightarrow P^{3}$ projective space.
In $P^{2}$, all lines intersect in one point, which is a point at infinity in case of Euclidean parallelism, or they are identical. In $P^{3}$, all planes intersect in exactly one line - probably a line at infinity - or they are identical.

## Motivating Considerations

Line equation in homogeneous coordinates:

$$
u_{0} x_{0}+u_{1} x_{1}+u_{2} x_{2}=0
$$

Plane equation in homogeneous coordinates:

$$
u_{0} x_{0}+u_{1} x_{1}+u_{2} x_{2}+u_{3} x_{3}=0
$$

## Motivating Considerations

Principle of Duality: Every 4-column has two geometric interpretations: As a point or as a plane.

| Point | Plane |
| :---: | :---: |
| Line $\rightarrow$ connection of two points |  |
| connect | Line $\rightarrow$ intersection of two planes |
| intersect |  |
| line of points | sheaf of planes |

## Projective Geometry

## Projective Transformations

The principle of duality can only be applied to results where relations between positions are concerned. In projective geometry, there are no notions of metric properties like length, angle, area, or volume!

## Definition: Projective Transformations of $P^{3}$, Collineation, Correlation

Projective Transformation: $F: P^{3} \rightarrow P^{3} ; \tilde{\zeta}=A \zeta ; \operatorname{det} A \neq 0$. Collineation: $\tilde{\zeta}$ and $\zeta$ either both represent points or both represent planes.
Correlation: each of $\tilde{\zeta}$ and $\zeta$ may represent a point or a plane.

## Projective Geometry

## Projective Transformations

## Definition: Linear Maps and Frames of Reference in Projective Spaces, Projective Coordinates

Let $\left\{\vec{\alpha}_{i}\right\}$ be linearly independent 4-columns in $P^{3}$, i.e. points or planes in $P^{3}$.
Figures of 1st order of $P^{3}: \zeta=\mu_{0} \vec{\alpha}_{0}+\mu_{1} \vec{\alpha}_{1}$
Examples: lines of points, sheaf of planes, line as support of a line of points or a sheaf of planes.
Figures of 2 nd order of $P^{3}: \zeta=\mu_{0} \vec{\alpha}_{0}+\mu_{1} \vec{\alpha}_{1}+\mu_{2} \vec{\alpha}_{2}$
Examples: plane as support of points (so-called bundle of planes), points as support of a bundle of planes.
Figures of 3rd order of $P^{3}: \zeta=\mu_{0} \vec{\alpha}_{0}+\mu_{1} \vec{\alpha}_{1}+\mu_{2} \vec{\alpha}_{2}+\mu_{3} \vec{\alpha}_{3}$
Examples: all points of $P^{3}$, all planes of $P^{3}$.
$\mu_{0}, \mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$, and $\mu_{3}$ are called projective coordinates.

## Projective Transformations

Fundamental elements of these figures:

- 1st order: $\binom{1}{0} ;\binom{0}{1}$
- 2nd order: $\left(\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ;\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ;\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right)$
- 3rd order: $\vec{e}_{0}=\left(\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ; \overrightarrow{e_{1}}=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ; \vec{e}_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0\end{array}\right) ; \vec{e}_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1\end{array}\right)$

All the examples mentioned in the definition above (and more figures) can be constructed by linear projective transformations $A$ from these fundamental elements.

## Projective Geometry

## Projective Transformations

In $P^{3}$, the fundamental elements form a coordinate tetrahedron.
$\ln P^{2}$, a coordinate triangle results.
The Cartesian (Euclidean) coordinate system features the "zero point" $\vec{e}_{0}$ and $\vec{e}_{1}, \vec{e}_{2}$, and $\vec{e}_{3}$ as points at infinity.


## Projective Transformations

Projective Invariants:

- projective transformations map lines to lines
- a linear figure of order $r$ is is mapped to a figure of same order by a projective transformation. The projective coordinates stay the same
- Let $\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}, \zeta_{3}$, and $\zeta_{4}$ elements of a 1st-order figure and the columns $\binom{\alpha_{0}}{\alpha_{1}},\binom{\beta_{0}}{\beta_{1}},\binom{\gamma_{0}}{\gamma_{1}}$, and $\binom{\delta_{0}}{\delta_{1}}$ the projective coordinates of these figures. The cross ratio $C R\left(\zeta_{0}, \zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}, \zeta_{3}\right)$ is invariant under projective transformation.


## Projective Geometry

## Projective Transformations

## Definition: Cross Ratio

Let $\zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}, \zeta_{3}$, and $\zeta_{4}$ elements of a 1st-order figure and the columns $\binom{\alpha_{0}}{\alpha_{1}},\binom{\beta_{0}}{\beta_{1}},\binom{\gamma_{0}}{\gamma_{1}}$, and $\binom{\delta_{0}}{\delta_{1}}$ the projective coordinates of these figures. Their cross ratio (also called double ratio) is defined as:

$$
C R\left(\zeta_{0}, \zeta_{1}, \zeta_{2}, \zeta_{3}\right)=\frac{\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{0} & \gamma_{0} \\
\alpha_{1} & \gamma_{1}
\end{array}\right|}{\left|\begin{array}{cc}
\beta_{0} & \gamma_{0} \\
\beta_{1} & \gamma_{1}
\end{array}\right|}: \frac{\left|\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha_{0} & \delta_{0} \\
\alpha_{1} & \delta_{1}
\end{array}\right|}{\left|\begin{array}{cc}
\beta_{0} & \delta_{0} \\
\beta_{1} & \delta_{1}
\end{array}\right|}
$$

## Projective Geometry

## Projective Transformations

Two (isomorphic) models of $P^{2}$ :


Points: antipodal point pairs $\leftrightarrow$ lines through origin
Lines: great circles $\leftrightarrow$ planes through origin

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Definition: Projective Spaces

- Let $V$ be a $(n+1)$-dim. vector space over a field $F$. The set of one-dim. vector spaces $\Pi K:=\{t \cdot \Pi, t \in K, \Pi \in V, \Pi \neq \overrightarrow{0}\}$ is called the projective space of projective dimension $n$ belonging to $V$. Notation: $P(V)$ with $\operatorname{dim} P(V)=n$.
- If $U$ is a $(k+1)$-dim. subspace of $V, P(U)$ is called the $k$-dim projective subspace of $P(V)$.
$k=0$ : "points"; $k=1$ : "lines"; $k=2$ : "planes", ...,
$k=n-1$ : "hyperplanes"
- A point $P(\vec{r})$ is incident with a projective subspace $P(U)$ iff. the vector subspace $\vec{r}$ is contained in $U$.
- Points $P\left(\vec{a}_{0}\right), \ldots, P\left(\vec{a}_{n}\right)$ are called linearly independent iff. $\vec{a}_{0}, \ldots, \vec{a}_{n}$ are linearly independent vectors.


## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Comment:

The projective space $P(V)$ is spanned by $n+1$ linearly independent vectors but while in $V$ after picking a base every vector can be associated with a unique ( $n+1$ )-tuple $\left(\lambda_{0}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$, this is not possible in $P(V)$ !
An additional norming point is needed to uniquely determine the base vectors up to a common factor $p \in K \backslash\{0\}$.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Definition: Projective Coordinate Systems

Every $(n+2)$-tuple of points of the projective space $P(V)$ having the property that $n+1$ points are always linearly independent, is called a projective coordinate system of $P(V)$.

## Theorem

Every projective coordinate system of $P(V)$ can be represented in the form $\left\{P\left(\vec{a}_{0}\right), P\left(\vec{a}_{1}\right), \ldots, P\left(\vec{a}_{n}\right), P\left(\vec{a}_{0}+\vec{a}_{1}+\ldots+\vec{a}_{n}\right)\right\}$, where $\vec{a}_{0}, \ldots \vec{a}_{n}$ are a basis of $V$.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

Projective Plane

coordinate triple

Projective space

coordinate quadruplet

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Comments:

A $k$-dim. projective subspace $P(U)$ can thus be characterized by
$k+1$ linearly independent points $P\left(\vec{a}_{0}\right), \ldots, P\left(\vec{a}_{k}\right)$, but also by
$n-k$ linear functions $L_{1}, \ldots L_{n-k}$ over
$V: P(U)=\left\{P(\vec{r}) \in P: L_{1}(\vec{r})=\ldots=L_{n-k}(\vec{r})=0\right\}$.
To every $k$-dim. subspace of $P(V)$ belongs a $(n-k-1)$-dim. subspace of $P(L(V, K))$. In particular, every hyperplane in $P(V)$ corresponds to a point in $P(L(V, K))$ and every point in $P(V)$ to a hyperplane in $P(L(V, K))$.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Definition: Dual Vector Spaces

Let $V$ and $V^{*}$ be vector spaces over a common scalar field $F$ with $\operatorname{dim} V=\operatorname{dim} V^{*}=n+1$.
$V$ and $V^{*}$ are called dual vector spaces iff. there is a bilinear map $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle: V^{*} \times V \rightarrow K$ which does not degenerate, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle\Pi, x\rangle=0 \forall \Pi \in V^{*} & \Rightarrow x=0 \\
\langle\Pi, x\rangle=0 \forall x \in V & \Rightarrow \Pi=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Examples:

(1) Let $V$ the Euclidean vector space, $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ the scalar product. $\rightarrow(V, V)$ is a pair of dual vector spaces.
(2) Let $V$ the Euclidean vector space, $V^{*}:=L(V, K) ;\langle f, x\rangle: f(x)$.
$\rightarrow(V, L(V, K))$ is a pair of dual vector spaces.
(3) Let $V=K^{n+1}, V^{*}=K^{n+1} ; ~ \Pi=\left(\Pi_{0}, \ldots \Pi_{n}\right)$,
$x=\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right),\langle\Pi, x\rangle=\operatorname{sum}_{i, j=0}^{n} c_{i j} \Pi_{i} x_{i}$.
$\rightarrow$ If $\operatorname{det}\left(c_{i j}\right) \neq 0,\left(V, V^{*}\right)$ is a pair of dual vector spaces.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Definition: Projective Coordinate Systems

Let $\left(V, V^{*}\right)$ be a pair of dual vector spaces. Then, $P\left(V^{*}\right)$ is called dual to $P(V)$.

## Theorem

A point $P(\vec{r})$ is incident with $P(U)$ and $P(V)$ iff. $\langle\Pi, \vec{r}\rangle=0$ for all $\Pi \in U^{+}=\left\{\Pi \in V^{*}:\langle\Pi, \vec{a}\rangle=0 \forall \vec{a} \in V\right\}$.

## Theorem: Duality Principle

If one takes a theorem holding in $P(V)$ and replaces every occurence of "connection" by "intersection", "intersection" by "connection", and " $k$-dim. subspace" by "( $n-k-1$ )-dim subspace, one obtains a new "dual theorem" that holds in $P(V)$.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

> Definition: Automorphism
> Let $V$ a vector space with $\operatorname{dim} V=n+1$. Every invertible linear $\operatorname{map} A: V \rightarrow V$ is called automorphism of $V$. The set of all automorphisms of $V$ constitute a group called $G L(V)$ resp. $G L(n+1, K)$.
> After picking a base for $V$, every automorphism $A$ of $V$ bijectively associated with a quadratic matrix with non-zero determinant.

## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Definition: Group of Projective Transformations

If $A \in G L(n+1, K)$, the map $\alpha: P(V) \rightarrow P(V)$ induced by $A$ on $P(V)$ is called a projective transformation. The automorphisms $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ of $V$ induce the same map $\alpha$ on $P(V)$ if $A=c \cdot A^{\prime}$ for some $c \neq 0$.
The set of all homothetic transformations $H_{n+1}:=\{c \cdot I d \mid c \neq 0\}$ is a normal subgroup (dt. "Normalteiler") of $G L(n+1, K)$. The quotient group (dt. "Faktorgruppe")

$$
\mathbb{P}:=P \cdot G L(n+1, K):=G L(n+1, K) / H_{n+1}
$$

is the group of the projective transformations of $P(V)$.
The next chapter will discuss further detail on the group theoretical aspects within the scope of Felix Klein's Erlanger Programm.

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## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Properties of Projective Transformations:

- bijective
- preserve the cross ratio
- map projective subspaces to projective subspaces of equal dimension

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## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Properties of Projective Transformations:

- bijective
- preserve the cross ratio
- map projective subspaces to projective subspaces of equal dimension


## Projective Geometry

## Analytical Structure of Projective Geometry

## Comments:

- Every line-preserving bijective map that preserves the cross ratio from $P(V)$ to itself is a projective transformation.
- The subject of projective geometry is to investigate properties of configurations and figures that are invariant under projective transformations.
- Every line-preserving bijective map of a real projective space whose dimension is at least two is a projective transformation.

