

Applications of Geometric Algebra I

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3D Algebra

- 3D basis consists of 8 elements
- Represent lines, planes and volumes, from a common origin



Grade 0 Scalar	Grade 1 Vector	Grade 2 Bivector	Grade 3 Trivector
1	e_1, e_2, e_3	e_1e_2, e_2e_3, e_3e_1	I

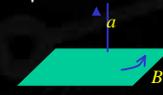
Algebraic Relations

- Generators anticommute $e_1e_2 = -e_2e_1$
- Geometric product $ab = a \cdot b + a \wedge b$
- Inner product $a \cdot b = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}b + b\hat{a})$
- Outer product $a \wedge b = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}b - b\hat{a})$
- Bivector norm $\hat{e}_1 \wedge \hat{e}_2 = I$
- Trivector $I = e_1e_2e_3$
- Trivector norm $I^2 = -1$
- Trivectors commute with all other elements

Lines and Planes

- Pseudoscalar gives a map between lines and planes

$$B = Ia$$

$$a = -IB$$


- Allows us to recover the vector (cross) product

$$a \cdot b = -Ia \wedge b$$

- But lines and planes are different
- Far better to keep them as distinct entities

Quaternions

- For the bivectors set

$$i = e_2e_3, \quad j = -e_3e_1, \quad k = e_1e_2$$

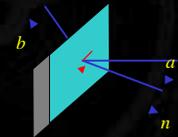
- These satisfy the quaternion relations

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$$

- So quaternions embedded in 3D GA
- Do not lose anything, but
 - Vectors and planes now separated
 - Note the minus sign!
 - GA generalises

Reflections

- Build rotations from reflections
- Good example of geometric product – arises in **operations**



$$a_p = \hat{n} a \hat{n}$$

$$a_r = a - 2 \hat{n} a \hat{n}$$

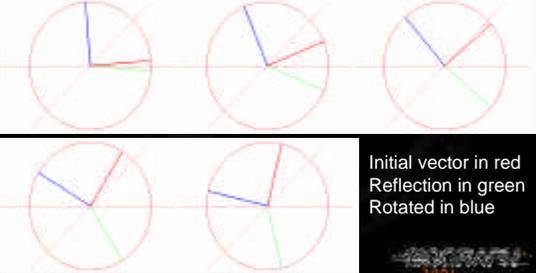
- Image of reflection is

$$b = a_r = a - 2 \hat{n} a \hat{n}$$

$$= a - 2 \hat{n} a \hat{n}$$

Rotations

- 2 successive reflections give a rotation



Initial vector in red
Reflection in green
Rotated in blue

Rotations

- Direction perpendicular to the two reflection vectors is unchanged
- So far, will only talk about rotations in a plane with a fixed origin (more general treatment later)



Algebraic Formulation

- Now look at the algebraic expression for a pair of reflections

$$a \rightarrow m \rightarrow n \rightarrow m = mn a nm$$

- Define the **rotor** $R = mn$
- Rotation encoded algebraically by

$$a \rightarrow RaR^\dagger \quad R^\dagger = nm$$

- Dagger symbol used for the **reverse**

Rotors

- Rotor is a geometric product of 2 unit vectors

$$R = mn = \cos \hat{S} + m \wedge n$$

- Bivector has square

$$\hat{m} \wedge \hat{n}^2 = \hat{m} \hat{m} \cos^2 S - nm + \cos S \hat{S} + \sin^2 S$$

- Used to the negative square by now!
- Introduce unit bivector $\hat{b} = \frac{m \wedge n}{\sin S}$
- Rotor now written

$$R = \cos \hat{S} + \sin \hat{S} \hat{b}$$

Exponential Form

- Can now write $R = \exp \hat{S} \hat{b}$
- But:
 - rotation was through **twice** the angle between the vectors
 - Rotation went with orientation $n \subset m$
- Correct these, get double-sided, half-angle formula

$$a \subset RaR^\dagger \quad R = \exp \hat{S} \hat{b} / 2$$

- Completely general!

Rotors in 3D

- Can rewrite in terms of an axis via

$$R = \exp \hat{S} \hat{n} / 2$$

- Rotors even grade (scalar + bivector in 3D)
- Normalised: $RR^\dagger = mnm = 1$
- Reduces d.o.f. from 4 to 3 – enough for a rotation
- In 3D a rotor is a normalised, even element
- The same as a unit quaternion

Group Manifold

- Rotors are elements of a 4D space, normalised to 1
- They lie on a **3-sphere**
- This is the **group manifold**
- Tangent space** is 3D
- Natural **linear** structure for rotors
- Rotors R and $-R$ define the same rotation
- Rotation group manifold is more complicated



Comparison

- Euler angles give a standard parameterisation of rotations

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos f \cos d + \cos S \sin d \sin f & -\sin f \cos d + \cos S \sin d \cos f & \sin S \sin d \\ \cos f \sin d + \cos S \cos d \sin f & \sin f \sin d + \cos S \cos d \cos f & \sin S \cos d \\ \sin S \sin f & \sin S \cos f & \cos S \end{pmatrix}$$

- Rotor form far easier
- $R = \exp(\hat{e}_1 e_2 d/2) \exp(\hat{e}_2 e_3 S/2) \exp(\hat{e}_1 e_2 f/2) \Rightarrow$
- But can do better than this anyway – work directly with the rotor element

Composition

- Form the compound rotation from a pair of successive rotations
- $a \in R_2 \hat{R}_1 a R_1^{-1} = \hat{R}_2$
- Compound rotor given by group combination law $R = R_2 R_1$
- Far more efficient than multiplying matrices
- More robust to numerical error
- In many applications can safely ignore the normalisation until the final step

Oriented Rotations

- Rotate through 2 different orientations
- Positive Orientation
- $R = \exp(\hat{V} e_1 e_2/2) = \exp(\hat{e}_1 e_2 \wedge/4) \Rightarrow$
- Negative Orientation
- $S = \exp(\hat{V} e_1 e_2/2) = \exp(\hat{e}_1 e_2 \wedge/4) \Rightarrow R$
- So R and $-R$ encode the same absolute rotation, but with different orientations



Lie Groups

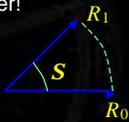
- Every rotor can be written as $\exp(\hat{B}/2) \Rightarrow$
- Rotors form a continuous (Lie) group
- Bivectors form a **Lie algebra** under the commutator product
- All** finite Lie groups are rotor groups
- All** finite Lie algebras are bivector algebras
- (Infinite case not fully clear, yet)
- In conformal case (later) starting point of screw theory (Clifford, 1870s)!

Interpolation

- How do we interpolate between 2 rotations?
- Form path between rotors
- $R \hat{0} \Rightarrow R_0$
 $R \hat{1} \Rightarrow R_1$
- $R \hat{V} \Rightarrow R_0 \exp(\hat{V} B) \Rightarrow$
- Find B from $\exp(\hat{B}) \Rightarrow R_0^{-1} R_1$
- This path is invariant. If points transformed, path transforms the same way
- Midpoint simply $R \hat{1/2} \Rightarrow R_0 \exp(\hat{B}/2) \Rightarrow$
- Works for **all** Lie groups

Interpolation - SLERP

- For rotors in 3D can do even better!
- View rotors as unit vectors in 4D
- Path is a circle in a plane
- Use simple trig' to get SLERP



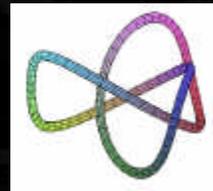
$$R \hat{V} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sin \hat{S}} \hat{\sin \hat{S}} ? V = S R_0 + \sin \hat{V} S R_1 \Rightarrow$$

- For midpoint add the rotors and normalise!

$$R \hat{V} / 2 \Rightarrow \frac{\sin \hat{S} / 2}{\sin \hat{S}} (R_0 + R_1) \Rightarrow$$

Applications

- Use SLERP with spline constructions for general interpolation
- Interpolate between series of rigid-body orientations
- Elasticity
- Framing a curve
- Extend to general transformations



Linearisation

- Common theme is that rotors can **linearise** the rotation group, without approximating!
- Relax the norm constraint on the rotor and write $RAR^1 = fA f^1$
- y belongs to a linear space. Has a natural **calculus**.
- Very powerful in optimisation problems involving rotations
- Employed in computer vision algorithms

Recovering a Rotor

- Given two sets of vectors related by a rotation, how do we recover the rotor?
- Suppose $b_i = Ra_iR^1$
- In general, assume not orthogonal.
- Need reciprocal frame

$$a^1 = \frac{a_2 \cdot a_3 I}{\hat{a}_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot a_3 I} \Rightarrow$$



- Satisfies $a^i \cdot a_j = \delta^i_j$

Recovering a Rotor II

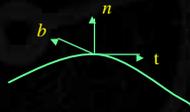
- Now form even-grade object $b_i a^i = Ra_i \hat{J} + B a^i = R \hat{B} J ? B \Rightarrow ? 1 + 4JR$
- Define un-normalised rotor $f = b_i a^i + 1$
- Recover the rotor immediately now as $R = \frac{f}{|f|}$
- Very efficient, but
 - May have to check the sign
 - Careful with 180° rotations

Rotor Equations

- Suppose we take a path in rotor space $R \hat{V} \Rightarrow$
- Differentiating the constraint tells us that $\frac{d}{dV} \hat{R} R^1 \Rightarrow R^{\hat{Q}} R^1 + R R^{\hat{Q}} = 0$
- Re-arranging, see that $R^{\hat{Q}} R^1 = ? \hat{R} R^1 \Rightarrow$ Bivector
- Arrive at **rotor equation** $R^{\hat{Q}} = ? \frac{1}{|f|} B R$
- This is totally general. Underlies the theory of **Lie groups**

Example

- As an example, return to framing a curve.
- Define Frenet frame
- Relate to fixed frame
 $\langle t, n, b \rangle = R e_i R^T$
- Rotor equation
 $R^{\omega} = \frac{1}{2} R I$ $I = U_1 e_2 e_1 + U_2 e_3 e_2$
- Rotor equation in terms of curvature and torsion



Linearisation II

- Rotor equations can be awkward (due to manifold structure)
- Linearisation idea works again
- Replace rotor with general element and write
 $f^{\omega} = \frac{1}{2} B f$
- Standard ODE tools can now be applied (Runge-Kutta, etc.)
- Normalisation of y gives useful check on errors

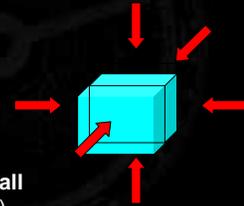
Elasticity

- Some basics of elasticity (solid mechanics):
 - When an object is placed under a **stress** (by stretching or through pressure) it responds by changing its shape.
 - This creates **strains** in the body.
 - In the linear theory stress and strain are related by the **elastic constants**.
 - An example is Hooke's law $F = -kx$, where k is the spring constant.
 - Just the beginning!

Bulk Modulus

- Place an object under uniform pressure P
- Volume changes by

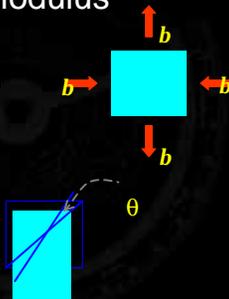
$$P = B \frac{\Delta V}{V}$$
- B is the bulk modulus
- Definition applies for **small** pressures (linear regime)



Shear Modulus

- Shears produced by combination of tension and compression
- Shear modulus G is Shear stress / angle

$$G = \frac{b}{2S}$$



LH Media

- The simplest elastic systems to consider are **linear, isotropic and homogeneous** media.
- For these, B and G contain all the relevant information.
- There are many ways to extend this:
 - Go beyond the linearised theory and treat large deflections
 - Find simplified models for rods and shells

Foundations

- Key idea is to relate the spatial configuration to a 'reference' copy.



- $y=f(x)$ is the **displacement** field. In general, this will be time-dependent as well.

Paths

- From $f(x)$ we want to extract information about the strains. Consider a path



- Tangent vectors map to $f|_x + Q \Rightarrow f|_x \Rightarrow Q \Rightarrow F|_x \Rightarrow C|_x$
- $F(a)=F(a;x)$ is a linear function of a . Tells us about local distortions.

Path Lengths

- Path length in the reference body is

$$\int \left(\frac{dx}{dV} \right)^2 dV$$

- This transforms to

$$\int F|_x \cdot F|_x dV$$

- Define the function $G(a)$, acting entirely in the reference body, by

$$G|_a \Rightarrow F|_x \cdot F|_x$$

The Strain Tensor

- For elasticity, usually best to 'pull' everything back to the reference copy
- Use same idea for rigid body mechanics
- Define the strain tensor from $G(a)$

- Most natural is

$$E|_a \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \hat{G}|_a \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow$$

- An alternative (rarely seen) is

$$E|_a \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \ln G|_a \Rightarrow$$

The Stress Tensor

- Contact force between 2 surfaces is a linear function of the normal (Cauchy)



- $\tau(n)=\tau(n;x)$ returns a vector in the material body. 'Pull back' to reference copy to define

$$T|_n \Rightarrow F^{-1}|_n \cdot \tau(n)$$

Constitutive Relations

- Relate the stress and the strain tensors in the reference configuration
- Considerable freedom in the choice here
- The simplest, LIH media have

$$T|_n \Rightarrow 2GE|_n \Rightarrow \hat{B} \Rightarrow \frac{2}{3} G - \text{tr} \hat{E} \hat{E} = \alpha$$

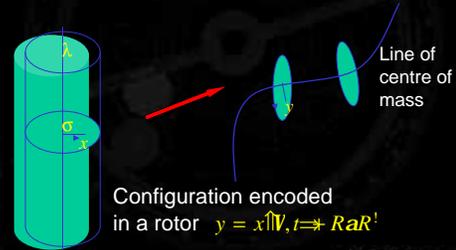
- Can build up into large deflections
- Combined with balance equations, get full set of dynamical equations
- Can get equations from an action principle

Problems

- Complicated, and difficult numerically
- In need of some powerful advanced mathematics for the full nonlinear theory (FEM...)
- Geometric algebra helps because it
 - is coordinate free
 - integrates linear algebra and calculus smoothly
- But need simpler models
- Look at models for rods and beams

Deformable Rod

- Reference configuration is a cylinder



Technical Part

- Spare details, but:
- Write down an action integral
- Integrate out the coordinates over each disk
- Get (variable) **bending moments** along the centre line
- Carry out variational principle
- Get set of equations for the rotor field
- Can apply to static or dynamic configurations

Simplest Equations

- Static configuration, and ignore stretching
- Have rotor equation

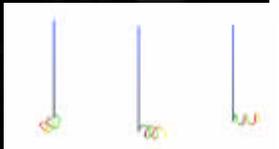
$$\frac{dR}{dV} = ? \frac{1}{2} R I_B$$
- Find bivector from applied couple and elastic constants. $I(B)$ is a known linear function of these mapping bivectors to bivectors

$$I_B = I^{21} \hat{R}^1 C R \Rightarrow$$
- Integrate to recover curve

$$x^{\hat{m}} = R e_1 R^1$$

Example

- Even this simple set of equations can give highly complex configurations!



Small, linear deflections build up to give large deformations

Summary

- Rotors are a general purpose tool for handling rotations in arbitrary dimensions
- Computationally more efficient than matrices
- Can be associated with a linear space
- Easy to interpolate
- Have a natural associated calculus
- Form basis for algorithms in elasticity and computer vision
- All this extends to general groups!

Further Information

- All papers on Cambridge GA group website:
www.mrao.cam.ac.uk/~clifford
- Applications of GA to computer science and engineering are discussed in the proceedings of the AGACSE 2001 conference.
www.mrao.cam.ac.uk/agacse2001
- IMA Conference in Cambridge, 9th Sept 2002
- 'Geometric Algebra for Physicists' (Doran + Lasenby). Published by CUP, soon.

Revised Timetable

- 8.30 – 9.15 Rockwood
Introduction and outline of geometric algebra
- 9.15 – 10.00 Mann
Illustrating the algebra I
- 10.00 -10.15 Break
- 10.15 – 11.15 Doran
Applications I
- 11.15 – 12.00 Lasenby
Applications II
- 1.30 – 2.00 Doran
Beyond Euclidean Geometry
- 2.00 – 3.00 Hestenes
Computational Geometry
- 3.00 – 3.15 Break
- 3.15 – 4.00 Dorst
Illustrating the algebra II
- 4.00 – 4.30 Lasenby
Applications III
- 4.30 Panel