A summary of Projective Geometric Algebra

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Abstract

Information on Geometric Algebra is scattered and scarce. This is an explanation of how to calculate PGA, but not necessarily why it works - for that you can try sudgylacmoe on youtube and Eric Lengyel's cheatsheet for point-based PGA (though he goes mad with power). We would also point you to bivector.net (but their calculator just, doesn't), the ganja.js math is presumably correct, since their demos seem to work.

I. Geometric numbers

 $1 + x^2 = 0$ x = ?

x is not a real number; but if it's not real, why should the other numbers be real?

$$(e_1)^2 + (e_2)^2 = (e_0)^2$$

 $(e_1)^2 = 1$; $(e_2)^2 = -1$; $(e_0)^2 = 0$

In fact, we can define as many of these as we want with a geometric algebra $\mathbb{G}_{a,b,c}$ having a numbers that square to 1, b that square to -1 and c that square to 0 (degenerate basis vectors):

$$(a+be_1)\in \mathbb{G}_{1,0,0}$$
 // hyperbolic numbers $(a+be_2)\in \mathbb{G}_{0,1,0}$ // complex numbers $(a+be_0)\in \mathbb{G}_{0,0,1}$ // dual numbers

We can multiply these numbers together using the geometric product:

$$(e_i)^2 = \{1, -1, 0\}$$

 $e_i e_j = -e_j e_i$

The result is another number in the same algebra $\mathbb{G}_{a,b,c}$

This product is neither commutative nor anticommutative, but it is distributive and as-

sociative:

$$AB \neq BA$$

 $AB \neq -BA$
 $A(B+C) = AB + AC$
 $(AB)C = A(BC)$
 $aB = Ba; a \in \mathbb{R}$

Thus the product of two complex numbers:

$$(A_1 + A_2e_2)(B_1 + B_2e_2)$$

$$= A_1B_1 + A_1B_2e_2 + A_2e_2B_1 + A_2e_2B_2e_2$$

$$= A_1B_1 + A_1B_2e_2 + A_2B_1e_2 + A_2B_2$$

$$= (A_1B_1 + A_2B_2) + (A_1B_2 + A_2B_1)e_2$$

II. ROTATIONS

A multivector with n basis vectors consists of 2^n blades:

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- scalar = 0-vector = 1
- vector = 1-vector
- bivector = 2-vector
- trivector = 3-vector
- ...
- pseudovector = (n-1)-vector
- pseudoscalar = n-vector = 1
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Where a k-vector has $\binom{n}{k}$ blades, for example:

$$A = A_1$$

$$+ A_2e_0 + A_3e_1 + A_4e_2$$

$$+ A_5e_{01} + A_6e_{02} + A_7e_{12}$$

$$+ A_8e_{012}$$

We can abbreviate blades like e_1e_2 as e_{12} .

We can use the exponential function to find a rotation e^A :

$$e^{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!}$$

$$e^{ae_{2}} = 1 + ae_{2} - \frac{a^{2}}{2} - \frac{a^{3}}{3}e_{2} + \dots$$

$$= (1 - \frac{a^{2}}{2} + \dots) + (a - \frac{a^{3}}{3} + \dots)e_{2}$$

$$= \cos(a) + \sin(a)e_{2}$$

Similarly you can find

$$e^{e_i} = \begin{cases} \cosh(a) + \sinh(a)e_i & ((e_i)^2 = 1) \\ \cos(a) + \sin(a)e_i & ((e_i)^2 = -1) \\ 1 + e_i & ((e_i)^2 = 0) \end{cases}$$

This gives us hyperbolic rotations, rotations and translations (rotations through infinity) respectively.

With X_i = the i-th blade in a multivector:

$$e^A = \prod_i e^{A_i X_i}$$

This operation depends on the order of the basis blades. For graphics you would want rotation, then translation. $(e_0 \text{ should be last})$

III. UNARY OPERATORS

We can define some operations, like reversing the order of basis vectors in the blade, that amount to flipping some signs:

$$ilde{X_i} = (-1)^{\lfloor k/2
floor} X_i$$
 // reverse $X_i \in ext{k-vector}$ $f(A) = \sum_i f(X_i)$

Poincaré duality states that maps between k-vectors and (n-k)-vectors exist.

$$X_i dual(X_i) = \pm 1$$

 $dual(X_i) = \pm X_{2^n - i + 1}$

For example:

$$X_i X_i = 1$$
 // left complement $X_i \overline{X_i} = 1$ // right complement $X_i X_i^\star = sign(X_i^{ND} \widetilde{X_i^{ND}}) 1$ // hodge dual

Where X_i^{ND} is X_i without degenerate basis vectors, e.g.

$$X_i = e_{012}; \ X_i^{ND} = e_{12}$$
 For $G_{a,0,c} \colon X_i^\star = \overline{X_i}$

And applying a dual twice changes the signs, so we also want their inverses:

$$(X_i^{\star})^{\star^{-1}} = X_i$$
$$\underline{\overline{X_i}} = X_i$$

In 2D and 3D PGA, we can simplify implementation by swapping two basis vectors in some blades such that $\overline{X_i}$ does not flip signs, e.g.

$$A = A_1 + A_2e_0 + A_3e_1 + A_4e_2$$

$$+ A_5e_{01} + A_6e_{20} + A_7e_{12} + A_8e_{012}$$

$$\underline{A} = \overline{A} = A_8 + A_7e_0 + A_6e_1 + A_5e_2$$

$$+ A_4e_{01} + A_3e_{20} + A_2e_{12} + A_1e_{012}$$

IV. Shapes and sizes

Let $\mathbb{G}_{d,0,1}$ be a d-dimensional PGA:

$$(e_0)^2 = 0; (e_i)^2 = 1$$

Now we have a choice to make:

- 1. Point-based PGA
 - vectors are points
 - (n-1)-vectors are hyperplanes
- 2. Plane-based PGA
 - vectors are hyperplanes
 - (n-1)-vectors are points

Both of these are equally valid and many operations make use of computing in the dual algebra via \overline{A} op \overline{B} .

$$point = e_0 + xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d$$

 $hyperplane = \overline{e_0 + xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \textit{hyperplane} = e_0 + xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d \\ & \textit{point} = \overline{e_0 + xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d} \end{aligned}$$

We will denote Plane-based operations inside boxes whenever they differ.

Let $\langle A \rangle_k$ be the grade selection operator:

$$\langle X_i \rangle_k = \begin{cases} X_i & (X_i \in \text{k-vector}) \\ 0 & (X_i \notin \text{k-vector}) \end{cases}$$
$$\langle A \rangle_k = \sum_i \langle X_i \rangle_k$$

Then we can define the wedge \land and antiwedge \lor products:

$$\begin{split} A \wedge B &= \sum_{j,k} \left\langle \left\langle A \right\rangle_j \left\langle B \right\rangle_k \right\rangle_{j+k} = \overline{\underline{A} \vee \overline{B}} \\ A \vee B &= \sum_{j,k} \left\langle \left\langle A \right\rangle_j \left\langle B \right\rangle_k \right\rangle_{n-((n-j)+(n-k))} \\ &= \overline{\underline{A} \wedge \overline{B}} \end{split}$$

These operators retain distributivity, associativity and noncommutativity.

We can then join points into lines and lines into planes:

$$line = point_1 join point_2$$
 $plane = point_1 join point_2 join point_3$
 $A join B = A \wedge B$

$$A join B = A \vee B$$

In fact this works with any two geometric objects, operators that don't have this property aren't really worth your time.

And we can meet two objects:

$$point = line_1 meet line_2$$

 $point = plane meet line$
 $line = plane_1 meet plane_2$
 $A meet B = A \lor B$

$$A \operatorname{\it meet} B = A \wedge B$$

If you meet two parallel lines, you get a point at infinity = an infinite point:

$$line_1$$
 meet $line_1 = xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d$

$$|line_1|$$
 meet $line_1 pprox \overline{xe_1 + ye_2 + ... + we_d}$

You probably want to ignore the sign flips from the dual, otherwise you'd be changing the coordinates.

All objects in PGA have an direction A^D and position A^P :

$$A = A^{D} + A^{P}$$

$$A^{D} = \sum_{i} A_{i} X_{i} \quad (e_{0} \in X_{i})$$

$$A^{P} = \sum_{i} A_{i} X_{i} \quad (e_{0} \notin X_{i})$$

$$A^{D} = \sum_{i} A_{i} X_{i} \quad (e_{0} \notin X_{i})$$
$$A^{P} = \sum_{i} A_{i} X_{i} \quad (e_{0} \in X_{i})$$

In 2D and 3D:

$$point = e_0 + A^P$$
$$line = A^D + A^P$$

$$point = \overline{e_0} + A^P$$

In 3D:

$$plane = A^{D} + A_{15}e_{123}$$

= $normal + distance$

$$plane = A^D + A_2 e_0$$

We can take norms to measure the direction or the position:

$$||A||_D = \sqrt{\sum_i \left(A_i^D\right)^2}$$

A is finite when $\|A\|_D \neq 0$, therefore infinite objects have no direction.

$$||A||_{P} = \sqrt{\sum_{i} (A_{i}^{P})^{2}}$$

$$||A|| = \sqrt{\sum_{i} |(A_{i}X_{i})^{2}|} = ||A||_{P}$$

$$||A|| = ||A||_{D}$$

$$A^{-1} = \tilde{A} \frac{1}{||A||^{2}}$$

We can use this to calculate lengths/areas/volumes/...:

$$\begin{split} length(edge_loop) &= \sum_{i} \|line_i\|_P \\ area(edge_loop) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \|line_i\|_D \\ line_i &= p_i \, join \, p_{i+1} \\ area(triangle_mesh) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \|plane_i\|_P \\ volume(triangle_mesh) &= \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i} \|plane_i\|_D \\ plane_i &= p_i \, join \, p_{i+1} \, join \, p_{i+2} \end{split}$$

i. Rasterization

We could just take the x, y components of a d-dimensional point and get an orthographic projection.

But we could also just make a line from the camera (at the origin) to a point and then intersect it with a plane:

$$p_{perspective} = (p_{camera\ join}\ p_{vertex})\ meet\ (xy_plane)$$
 $xy_plane = p_1\ join\ p_2\ join\ p_3$
 $depth(p_{vertex}) = \|p_{vertex}\|_P$

TODO: project(A, B): $P = (A \cdot B^{-1})B$? TODO: project(point_at_origin, B) TODO: project(plane_at_infinity, B)

ii. Raytracing

TODO: $line_1 \wedge line_2$ = $signed_distance(line_1, line_2) || line_1^D \wedge line_2^D ||$ TODO: correlate of signed distance between lines: $line_1 \vee line_2$ -> ray-triangle intersection

-> raytraced game

TODO: distance of line to A -> raytraced graphing calculator

TODO: ?

$$d(A,B) = \begin{cases} \underline{A \wedge \overline{B}} & (type(A) = type(B)) \\ d(A,project(A,B)) & (type(A) \neq type(B)) \end{cases}$$

TODO: cos(A, B) = A dot A / (A.norm() B.norm()); sin(A, B) = ?

iii. Raymarching

TODO: signed distance of point to A -> raymarched graphing calculator

iv.

V. Motors

Taking $e^{bivector}$ gives us a motor (motion operator), we can apply motors via $MA\tilde{M}$:

$$motor = e^{bivector}$$
 $rotor = e^{bivector^{D}}; rotor \in motor$
 $translator = e^{bivector^{P}}; translator \in motor$

In 3D, rotors are quaternions.

Where bivector blades are rotations. For example $\frac{\theta}{2}e_{12}$ is an xy rotation by θ degrees and $\frac{d}{2}e_{01}$ is a translation by d:

$$e^{\frac{\theta}{2}e_{12}} = \cos\frac{\theta}{2} + \left(\sin\frac{\theta}{2}\right)e_{12}$$

$$e^{\frac{d}{2}e_{01}} = 1 + \frac{d}{2}e_{01}$$

We can interpolate motors with nlerp or slerp, where BA^{-1} is a transformation that brings A to B:

$$nlerp(t, A, B) = \frac{lerp(t, A, B)}{\|lerp(t, A, B)\|}$$
$$lerp(t, A, B) = (1 - t)A + tB$$
$$slerp(t, A, B) = (BA^{-1})^t A$$

nlerp does not allow for unnormalized motors, but we will be normalizing them in the physics simulation anyways. $TODO: line\ forces\ per\ https://enki.ws/ganja.js/examples/coffeeshop.html \#sUwbwu9vR\ and\ https://bivector.net/PGADYN.html$

VI. Bonus

Useless operators that are just here for completeness:

$$X_i^\dagger = (-1)^{\lfloor k \rfloor} X_i$$
 // involute $ar{X}_i = (-1)^{\lfloor k+k/2 \rfloor} X_i$ // conjugate
$$\|A\|_\infty = \|A\|_D$$

$$\boxed{\|A\|_\infty = \|A\|_P}$$