IB MATHEMATICS EXTENDED ESSAY

MAP PROJECTIONS

How do we quantify geometric distortions of different map projections using differential geometry?

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The problem of projecting Earth's spherical surface onto a two-dimensional plane stands as one of the most persistent intellectual challenges in human history (Snyder, 1987). Since antiquity, this fundamental limitation of cartography has compelled scholars to develop increasingly complex mathematical solutions while confronting unavoidable geometric compromises. Far from being merely technical instruments for navigation, maps are powerful cultural artifacts that reveal how societies conceptualise space, territory and their prominence in the world (Harley, 1989).

One of the earliest systematic treatments of cartography was established in the 2nd century CE by Claudius Ptolemy, whose Geographia introduced the revolutionary concept of a coordinate grid system (Claudius et al., 2002). This pioneering work not only shaped medieval and Renaissance cartographic development for centuries but also demonstrated the inherent mathematical nature embedded in this problem (Thrower, 2008).

During the Islamic Golden Age, (8th to 13th century), scholars such as al-Khwārizmī and al-Idrīsī advanced mathematical geography by synthesising Ptolemaic theory with new empirical data from Arab navigators and astronomers (Edson et al., 2011). Parallel developments occurred in East Asia, where Chinese cartographers created sophisticated grid-based maps for administrative and military purposes, demonstrating the cross-cultural importance of spatial representation (Yee, 1994).

A major breakthrough in projections came during the Age of Exploration (15th to 17th century), as European empires ventured across the vast oceans and the demand for more precise navigation tools intensified (Brotton, 2014). This period witnessed the development of several landmark projections, most notably Gerardus Mercator's 1569 cylindrical projection. While its conformal properties proved invaluable for marine navigation, its severe areal distortion at high latitudes later became a subject of considerable criticism (Battersby et al., 2014). Contemporary cartographers including Johannes Stabius, Johannes Werner, and Oronce Finé developed alternative projections such as azimuthal and cordiform maps, reflecting the growing interest and recognition of the trade-offs involved in flattening a sphere (Bugayevskiy & Snyder, 2013).

While cartographers grappled with practical representations of Earth, mathematicians were developing the theoretical foundations that would later revolutionise map projections. The origins of differential geometry can be traced to the 17th and 18th centuries, when Christiaan Huygens and Leonhard Euler began systematically studying the curvature of surfaces (Struik, 1988). Their work on osculating circles and developable surfaces laid the groundwork for understanding how three-dimensional forms could be mathematically described.

The two field of mathematics and cartography collided most dramatically in the 20th century, when mathematicians began applying differential geometry to optimise map projections (Snyder, 1987). Today, modern computational maps continue to build upon this mathematical foundation, powering navigation systems worldwide.

Against this historical backdrop, this Extended Essay aims to investigate the Research Question:

How do we quantify geometric distortions of map projections using differential geometry?

I will explore how tools such as the First Fundamental Form, Gaussian curvature, and Tissot's Indicatrix allow us to analyse and visualise distortions in length, area, and angle on maps. By modelling Earth as a perfect sphere, I will examine three widely used projections - the Mercator, Mollweide, and Lambert Conformal Conic - and use my mathematical framework to calculate the geometric distortions each introduces.