

Geometry and Groups.

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In the 19th century the mathematician Felix Klein formulated what is called the Erlangen program.¹ The idea is that to every kind of geometry there is a group of transformations which preserve the objects of interest in that kind of geometry. These notes give an idea of what he had in mind.

1. Vectors. Two points $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ determine a vector $\mathbf{v} = q - p$. The **length** of that vector is the distance from p to q , i.e.

$$|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \cdots + v_n^2}, \quad \mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

The **dot product** of two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} is defined by

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \cdots + u_nv_n$$

for $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$. Two vectors are said to be **orthogonal** iff their dot product is zero. The **cross product** of two vectors $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$, $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is defined by

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, u_3v_1 - u_1v_3, u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

2. Lemma. Any two vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ satisfy the identities

$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2 + |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|^2 = |\mathbf{u}|^2|\mathbf{v}|^2, \quad (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{u} = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0.$$

Hence there is a number θ and a vector $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ satisfying the equations

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta, & \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} &= (|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \sin \theta) \mathbf{n}, \\ \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} &= 0, & |\mathbf{n}| &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

If $\det(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{n}) > 0$, the number θ is called the **angle** from \mathbf{u} to \mathbf{v} and is unique up to an integer multiple of 2π .

Proof. Instructive exercise. Use the identity $4ab + (a - b)^2 = (a + b)^2$. □

¹Click if online.

3. Maps. A **map** f from a set X to a set Y assigns to every point $x \in X$ a point $y = f(x) \in Y$. This is indicated by the notation $f : X \rightarrow Y$. The word *function* is often used when $Y = \mathbb{R}$ and the phrase *vector-valued function* is often used when $Y = \mathbb{R}^n$. A map $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is **invertible** iff it has a two sided inverse, i.e. iff there is a map $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$ such that

$$y = f(x) \iff x = f^{-1}(y)$$

for $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.

4. Transformations. An **affine transformation** is a map $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ of form

$$p = \Phi(q) = Uq + \mathbf{c}$$

for $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is an invertible matrix and $\mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$. An affine transformation is called

- a **translation** iff U is the identity matrix, i.e. $\Phi(q) = q + \mathbf{c}$.
- a **linear transformation** iff $\mathbf{c} = 0$.
- **orientation preserving** iff $\det(U) > 0$.
- an **orthogonal transformation** iff $U^* = U^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{c} = 0$.
- an **isometry** iff $U^* = U^{-1}$.
- a **rigid motion** iff $U^* = U^{-1}$ and $\det(U) = 1$.

(Here U^* is the transpose of U .)

5. Groups. A set G of invertible maps $\Phi : X \rightarrow X$ from a set X to itself is a **group** iff it satisfies the following three conditions:

- (i) The identity map is an element of G .
- (ii) The inverse Φ^{-1} of an element of G is an element of G .
- (iii) The composition $\Phi_1 \circ \Phi_2$ of two elements of G an element of G .

6. Theorem. *The affine transformations of \mathbb{R}^n form a group.*

Proof: (i) If U is the identity matrix and $\mathbf{c} = 0$ then $\Phi(p) = p$ for $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(ii) $\Phi^{-1}(p) = U^{-1}(p - \mathbf{c}) = U^{-1}p - U^{-1}\mathbf{c}$.

(iii) $\Phi_1 \circ \Phi_2(q) = U_1U_2p + (U_2\mathbf{c}_1 + \mathbf{c}_2)$. □

7. Corollary. *Each of the subsets defined in $n^\circ 4$ above is a group.*

Proof: Easy exercise. □

8. Theorem. An orthogonal transformation of $U : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ preserves dot products and (therefore) lengths, i.e.

$$(U\mathbf{u}) \cdot (U\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}, \quad |U\mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{v}|$$

for $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If $n = 3$ an orientation preserving orthogonal transformation U preserves the cross product, i.e.

$$(U\mathbf{u}) \times (U\mathbf{v}) = U(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$$

for $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

Proof: Assume that $U^* = U^{-1}$. The first statement follows from the formula

$$(U\mathbf{u}) \cdot (U\mathbf{v}) = (U^*U\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

Since $|\mathbf{u}|^2 = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ and $|\mathbf{v}|^2 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ it follows that U preserves lengths. From Lemma n^o2 we get $(U\mathbf{u}) \times (U\mathbf{v}) = \pm U(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$. Now the identities

$$U(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = (U\mathbf{u}, U\mathbf{v}, U\mathbf{w}), \quad \det(UV) = \det(U) \det(V),$$

and

$$\det(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|^2$$

imply that $(U\mathbf{u}) \times (U\mathbf{v}) = U(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$ when $\det(U) > 0$. □

9. Theorem. A map $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is

(i) an affine transformation if and only if it preserves parameterized lines, i.e.

$$\Phi((1-t)p + tq) = (1-t)\Phi(p) + t\Phi(q)$$

(ii) a translation if and only if it preserves vectors, i.e.

$$\Phi(p) - \Phi(q) = p - q;$$

(iii) an isometry if and only if it preserves distance, i.e.

$$|\Phi(p) - \Phi(q)| = |p - q|;$$

(iv) a rigid motion if and only if it preserves distance and orientation.

Proof: This follows easily from the following computations.

(i) $U((1-t)p + tq) + \mathbf{c} = (1-t)(Up + \mathbf{c}) + t(Uq + \mathbf{c}).$

(ii) $(p + \mathbf{c}) - (q + \mathbf{c}) = p - q.$

(iii) $|\Phi(p) - \Phi(q)|^2 = (U^*U(p - q)) \cdot (p - q) = (p - q) \cdot (p - q) = |p - q|^2.$

(iv) $\det(U^*) = \det(U)$ and $\det(U^{-1}) = \det(U)^{-1}$ so if $U^* = U^{-1}$ and $\det(U) > 0$ then $\det(U) = 1$. □

10. Example. When $n = 2$ a rigid motion Φ has the form

$$\begin{aligned}x &= (\cos \theta)\xi - (\sin \theta)\eta + x_0 \\y &= (\sin \theta)\xi + (\cos \theta)\eta + y_0\end{aligned}$$

where $q = (\xi, \eta)$, $p = (x, y)$, $p = \Phi(q)$, $\mathbf{c} = (x_0, y_0)$.

11. Theorem. Let Γ be a plane curve defined by quadratic equation, say

$$\Gamma = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0\}.$$

Assume that $B^2 - 4AC < 0$ and that Γ contains at least two distinct points. Then there is a rigid motion Φ which transforms Γ to an ellipse in standard form, i.e.

$$\Phi^{-1}(\Gamma) = \left\{ (\xi, \eta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \frac{\xi^2}{a^2} + \frac{\eta^2}{b^2} = 1 \right\}.$$

Moreover $B^2 - 4AC = B_1^2 - 4A_1C_1$ and $A + C = A_1 + C_1$ where $B_1 = 0$, $A_1 = a^{-2}$, $C_1 = b^{-2}$.

Proof: Plug in and solve for θ to make the $\xi\eta$ term go away. Then complete the squares ξ^2 and η^2 and solve for x_0 and y_0 to make the ξ and η terms go away. For more details see any textbook with a title like *Calculus and Analytic Geometry*. \square



