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# Mathematical preliminaries for computer vision and deep learning

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# Mathematical preliminaries

- **Mathematical Analysis**
  - Functions
  - Differentiation
  - Fourier transform
- Vector calculus
- 3D geometric transformations
- Projective geometry



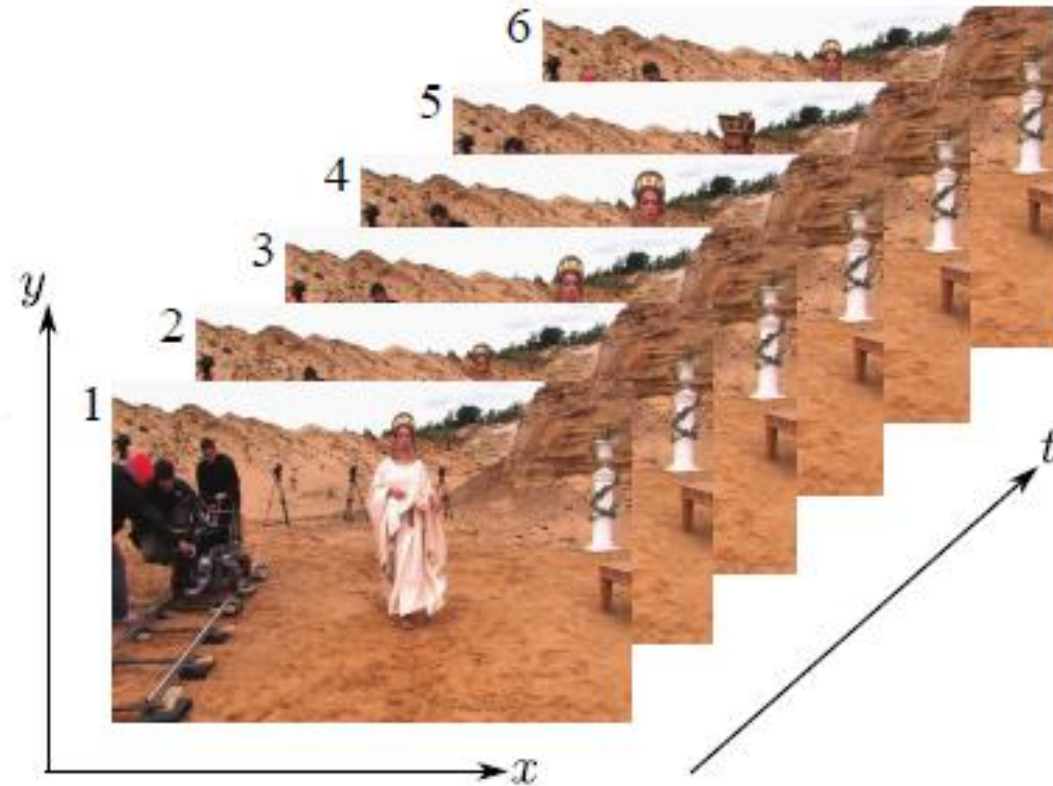
# 1D, 2D, 3D analog signals/functions

- 1D signals of the form  $f(t): \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - *Speech, music*
- 2D signals of the form  $f(x, y): \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - *Greyscale images*
- 3D signals of the form  $f(x, y, z): \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - Video signals  $f(x, y, t): \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$



# 3D data types: video signal

$f(x, y, t)$





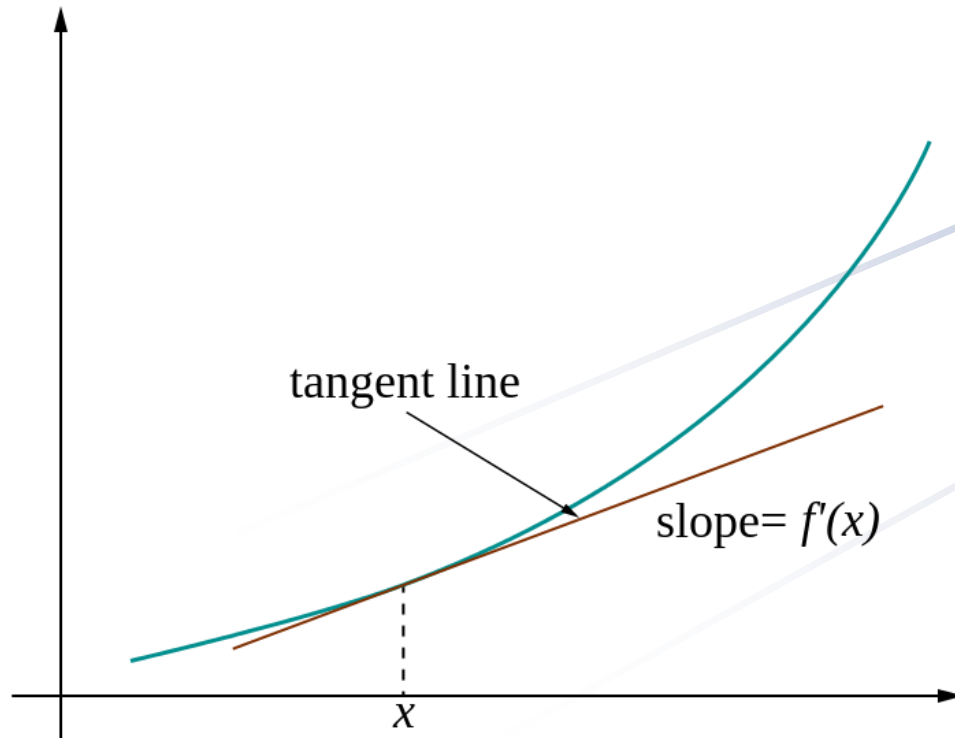
## 1D, 2D, 3D discrete signals

- 1D signals of the form  $f(n): \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - *Digital speech, music*
- 2D signals of the form  $f(i, j): \mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
  - *Digital greyscale images*
- 3D signals of the
  - Volumetric images  $f(i, j, k): \mathbb{Z}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
  - Digital video signals  $f(i, j, k): \mathbb{Z}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$





# 1D Differentiation



- The derivative of a function at a specific point is the rate of change of the output with respect to the input.
- For 1D continuous functions, it is the slope of the tangent line to the function graph at that point:

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$





# Numerical Differentiation

- There are algorithms for approximate differentiation, using various function values.
- For instance, the slope of a nearby secant line through the points  $(x - h, f(x - h))$  and  $(x + h, f(x + h))$  can be employed (for small  $h$ ):

$$\frac{f(x + h) - f(x - h)}{2h}$$







# Partial Differentiation

- For functions of two variables  $f(x, y)$ , the partial derivatives  $\partial f / \partial x, \partial f / \partial y$  can be computed with respect to each variable.
- The grad of a function is given by the vector:

$$\nabla f = [\partial f / \partial x, \partial f / \partial y]^T.$$







# Partial Differentiation

- For functions of many variables  $f(\mathbf{x})$ ,  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T$ , the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  can be computed with respect to each variable.

- The grad of a function is given by the vector:

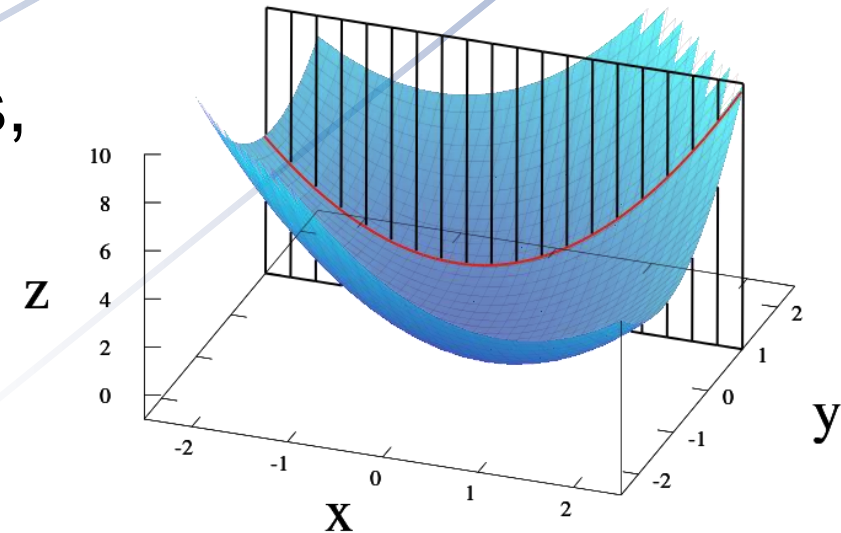
$$\nabla f = [\partial f / \partial x_1, \dots, \partial f / \partial x_n]^T.$$





# Partial Differentiation

- The partial derivatives give the slope of the function graph at a specific point, along the directions parallel to the coordinate axes.
- At maxima/minima, saddle points,  $\nabla f = \mathbf{0}$ .





# Steepest Gradient Descent

- If function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is defined and differentiable in a neighborhood of a point  $\mathbf{x}_t$ , then  $f(\mathbf{x})$  decreases fastest, going from  $\mathbf{x}_t$  to  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1}$  following the direction of the negative gradient of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  at  $\mathbf{x}_t$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - a \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)$$

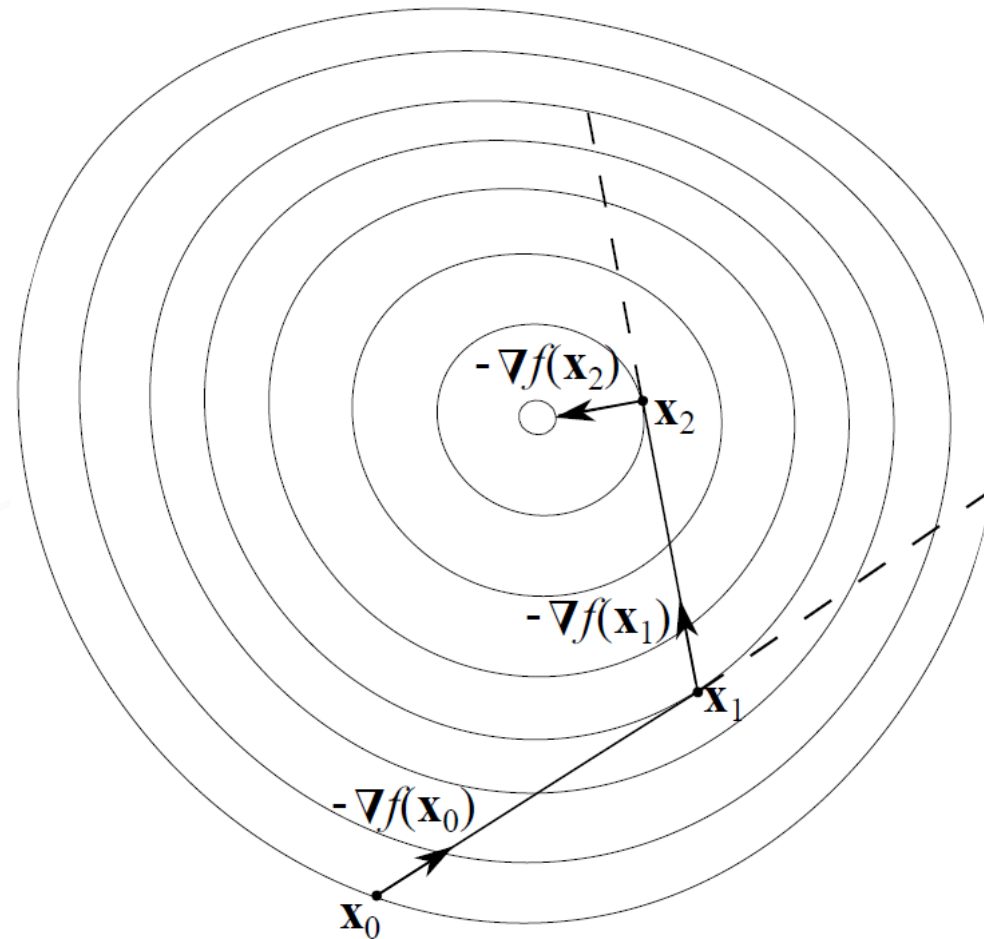
$a$ : the step used to update the vector  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1}$  at each iteration  $t$ .

- $f(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_t)$  and sequence  $\mathbf{x}_t$  converges to a local minimum of  $f(\mathbf{x}_t)$ .



# Steepest Gradient Descent

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# Fourier transform

- *1D Fourier transform:*

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi i x \xi} dx \quad f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{2\pi i x \xi} d\xi$$

- *2D Fourier transform:*

$$F_{\alpha}(\Omega_x, \Omega_y) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\alpha}(x, y) \exp(-i\Omega_x x - i\Omega_y y) dx dy$$

$$f_{\alpha}(x, y) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_{\alpha}(\Omega_x, \Omega_y) \exp(i\Omega_x x + i\Omega_y y) d\Omega_x d\Omega_y$$



# Fourier transform

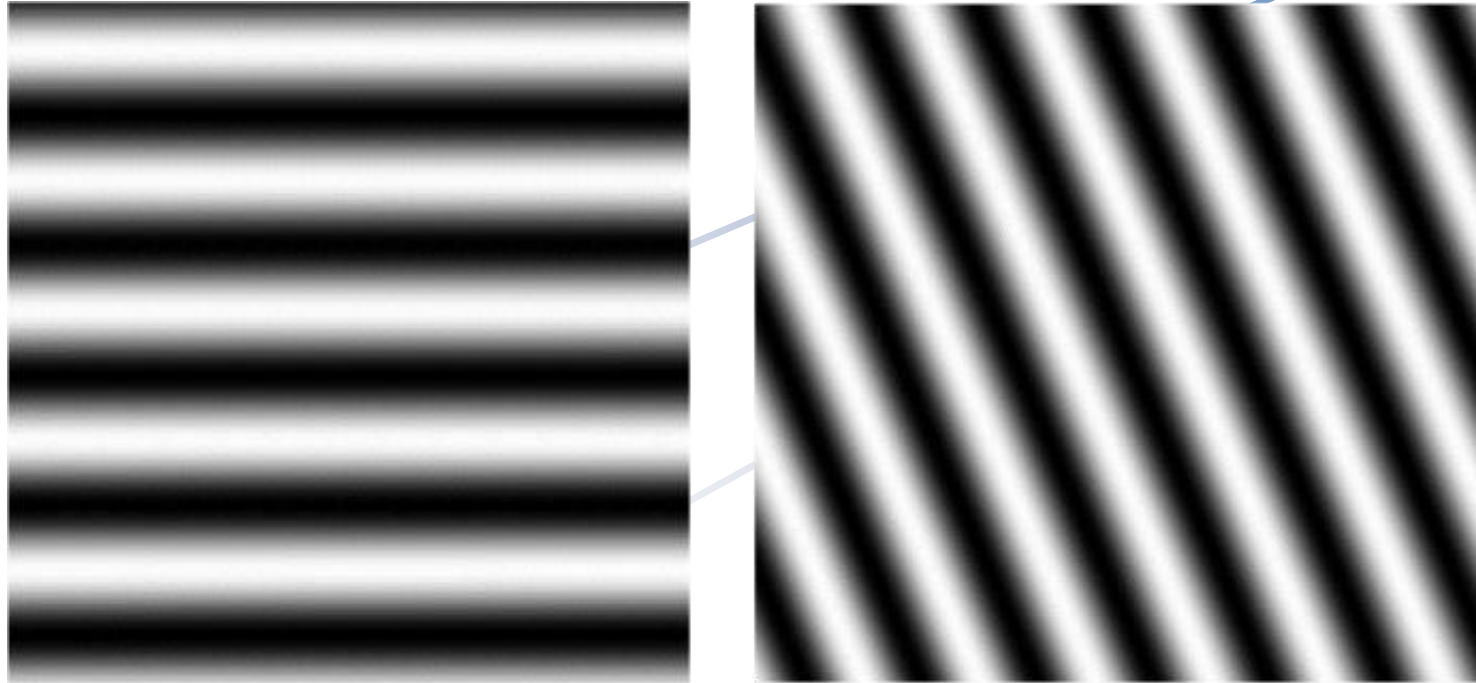


- $F_x, F_y$ : 2D spatial frequencies representing how rapidly image luminance or chrominance changes on the image plane:
  - in *cycles per unit length* along a given axis,
  - in *cycles per meter (cpm)* in the metric measure system.
- $\Omega_x = 2\pi F_x, \Omega_y = 2\pi F_y$ : respective angular frequencies.



# Spatial image content

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$$f(x, y) = \sin(20\pi x + 8\pi y)$$

$$(\Omega_x = 20\pi, \Omega_y = 8\pi)$$





# Mathematical preliminaries



- Mathematical Analysis
  - Functions
  - Differentiation
  - Fourier transform
- **Vector calculus**
- 3D geometric transformations
- Projective geometry





# Vector calculus

- Vectors of the form  $\mathbf{P} = [X, Y, Z]^T$  define point positions in the 3D space  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .
- Vectors of the form  $\mathbf{p} = [x, y]^T$  define point positions in the 2D space  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
- The right-hand thumb rule is typically followed when defining the axis system  $(X, Y, Z)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .



# Vector calculus

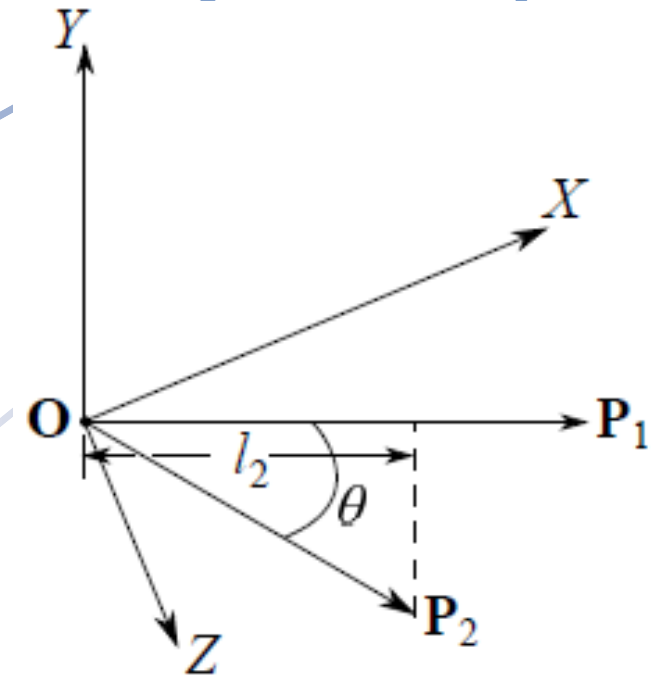
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- *Inner vector product or dot product in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_1^T \mathbf{P}_2 &= \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{P}_1^T = X_1 X_2 + Y_1 Y_2 + Z_1 Z_2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{P}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{P}_2\| \cos \theta, \end{aligned}$$

$\theta$ : the angle formed by the two vectors.





# Vector calculus

- Properties of the inner vector product:
  - It is a scalar value.
  - Its value is equal to the product of the length of one vector  $\|\mathbf{P}_1\|$  and the length of the projection of the second vector  $l_2 = \|\mathbf{P}_2\| \cos \theta$  on the first one.
  - It is maximal for collinear vectors, i.e.,  $\theta = 0$ , thus  $\mathbf{P}_1^T \mathbf{P}_2 = \|\mathbf{P}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{P}_2\|$ .
  - For unit vectors  $\|\mathbf{P}_1\| = \|\mathbf{P}_2\| = 1$ ,  $\mathbf{P}_1^T \mathbf{P}_2 = \cos \theta$ .



# Vector calculus

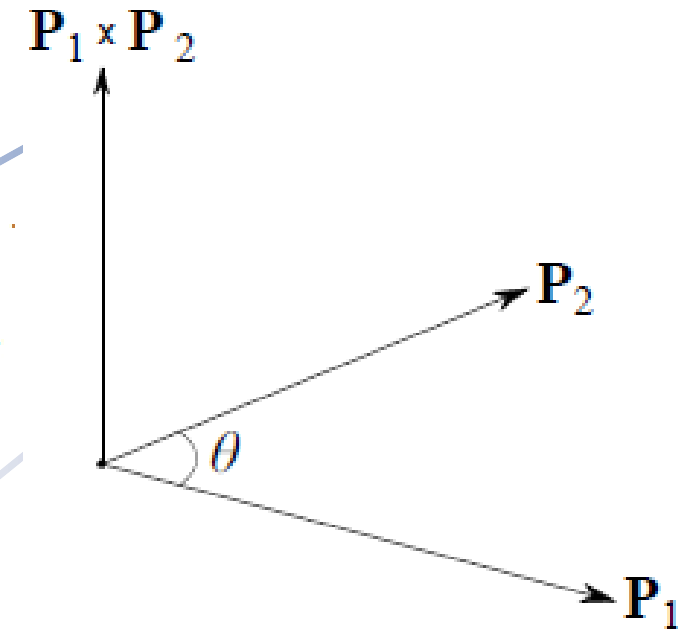
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- *Cross vector product  $\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :*

$$\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2 = (Y_1 Z_2 - Z_1 Y_2)\mathbf{i} + (Z_1 X_2 - X_1 Z_2)\mathbf{j} + (X_1 Y_2 - Y_1 X_2)\mathbf{k}$$

$\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$ : the standard basis vectors of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .





# Vector calculus

- Properties of the cross vector product:
  - It is a vector perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{P}_1$  and  $\mathbf{P}_2$ .
  - Its length is equal to the area of the parallelogram spanned by the two vectors  $\|\mathbf{P}_1\| \cdot \|\mathbf{P}_2\| \sin \theta$ , where  $\theta$  the angle formed by the two vectors.
  - It may also be expressed as a matrix multiplication:

$$\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2 = [\mathbf{P}_1]_{\times} \mathbf{P}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -Z_1 & Y_1 \\ Z_1 & 0 & -X_1 \\ -Y_1 & X_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_2$$

with the  $3 \times 3$  cross product matrix of  $\mathbf{P}_1$  having rank 2.



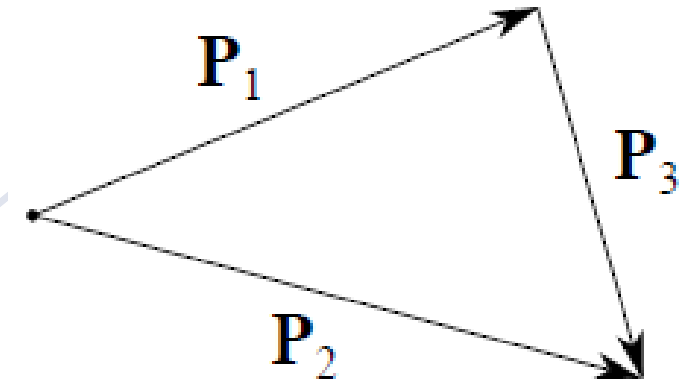
# Vector calculus



- *Scalar triple product* of three vectors  $\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \mathbf{P}_3$ :

$$\mathbf{P}_3^T (\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2)$$

- It is the inner product of one of the vectors with the cross product of the other two.
- If the vectors are coplanar, then:
$$\mathbf{P}_3^T (\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2) = 0.$$
- It expresses the volume of the parallelepiped defined by the three vectors  $\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \mathbf{P}_3$ .







# Mathematical preliminaries

- Mathematical Analysis
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- Vector calculus
- **3D geometric transformations**
- Projective geometry



# 3D geometric transformations



- 3D solid object motions: superposition of a 3D rotation and a 3D translation:

$$\mathbf{X}' = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{T}$$

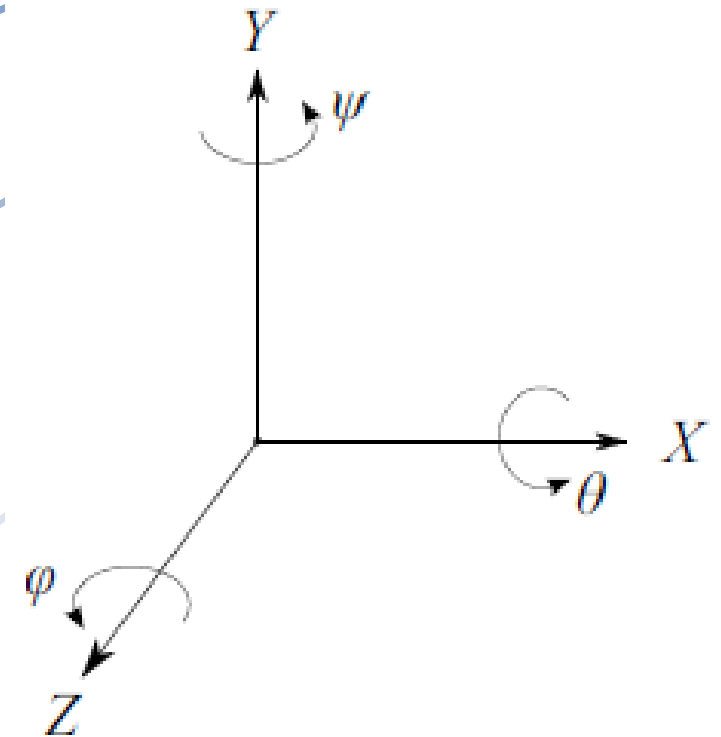
- $\mathbf{X} = [X, Y, Z]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{X}' = [X', Y', Z']^T$ : the coordinates of a solid object point at time instances  $t$  and  $t'$ .
- $\mathbf{R}$  is a  $3 \times 3$  rotation matrix, which can be defined by either:
  - The Euler rotation angles about  $X, Y, Z$  axes (in Cartesian coordinates)
  - a unitary rotation axis and a rotation angle about this axis.
- $\mathbf{T} = [T_x, T_y, T_z]^T$ : a 3D translation vector.



# 3D geometric transformations

- An arbitrary rotation in the 3D space can be represented by the Euler rotation angles  $\theta, \psi, \phi$  about the  $X, Y, Z$  axes.

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# 3D geometric transformations



- Matrix representation of clockwise rotation about each  $X, Y, Z$  axis:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}_z \mathbf{R}_y \mathbf{R}_x = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi \cos \psi & \cos \phi \sin \psi \sin \theta - \sin \phi \cos \theta & \cos \phi \sin \psi \cos \theta + \sin \phi \sin \theta \\ \sin \phi \cos \psi & \sin \phi \sin \psi \sin \theta + \cos \phi \cos \theta & \sin \phi \sin \psi \cos \theta - \cos \phi \sin \theta \\ -\sin \psi & \cos \psi \sin \theta & \cos \psi \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{R}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{R}_y = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & 0 & \sin \psi \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \psi & 0 & \cos \psi \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{R}_z = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi & 0 \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The order of matrices in this equation does matter.



# 3D geometric transformations



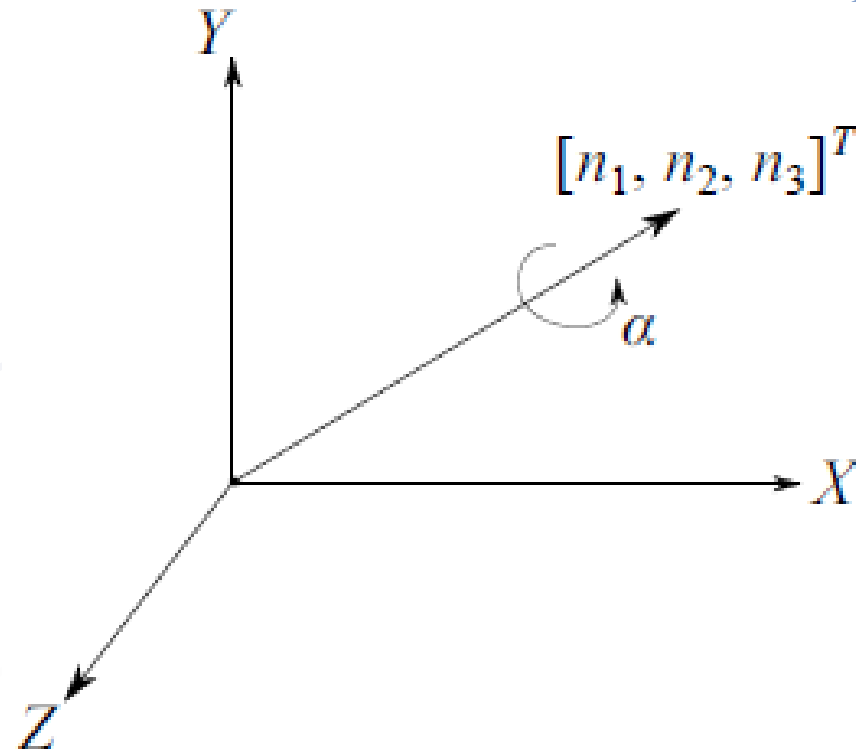
- Orthonormal matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  satisfies:  $\mathbf{R}^T = \mathbf{R}^{-1}$ ,  $\det(\mathbf{R}) = \pm 1$ .
- For infinitesimal rotations of a 3D point  $\theta \approx \Delta\theta \approx 0$ ,  $\phi \approx \Delta\phi \approx 0$ ,  $\psi \approx \Delta\psi \approx 0$  approximations  $\cos \Delta\phi \approx 1$  and  $\sin \Delta\phi \approx \Delta\phi \approx 0$  can be employed.
- Then, matrix multiplication order is irrelevant and  $\mathbf{R}$  takes the following form:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\Delta\phi & \Delta\psi \\ \Delta\phi & 1 & -\Delta\theta \\ -\Delta\psi & \Delta\theta & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# 3D geometric transformations

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# 3D geometric transformations



- Matrix representation of a 3D solid object rotation by an angle  $\alpha$  about arbitrary axis passing through the origin and determined by the unit vector orientation vector  $\mathbf{n} = [n_1, n_2, n_3]^T$ :  $\mathbf{R} = \cos \alpha \mathbf{I} + \sin \alpha [\mathbf{n}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \alpha) \mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} =$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_3 \sin \alpha & n_2 \sin \alpha \\ n_3 \sin \alpha & 0 & -n_1 \sin \alpha \\ -n_2 \sin \alpha & n_1 \sin \alpha & 0 \end{bmatrix} +$$
$$+ \begin{bmatrix} n_1^2(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_1 n_2(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_1 n_3(1 - \cos \alpha) \\ n_2 n_1(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_2^2(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_2 n_3(1 - \cos \alpha) \\ n_3 n_1(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_3 n_2(1 - \cos \alpha) & n_3^2(1 - \cos \alpha) \end{bmatrix} =$$





# 3D geometric transformations

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$$= \begin{bmatrix} n_1^2 + (1 - n_1^2) \cos \alpha & n_1 n_2 (1 - \cos \alpha) - n_3 \sin \alpha & n_1 n_3 (1 - \cos \alpha) + n_2 \sin \alpha \\ n_1 n_2 (1 - \cos \alpha) + n_3 \sin \alpha & n_2^2 + (1 - n_2^2) \cos \alpha & n_2 n_3 (1 - \cos \alpha) - n_1 \sin \alpha \\ n_1 n_3 (1 - \cos \alpha) - n_2 \sin \alpha & n_2 n_3 (1 - \cos \alpha) + n_1 \sin \alpha & n_3^2 + (1 - n_3^2) \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

where:

$$\mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} = \begin{bmatrix} n_1^2 & n_1 n_2 & n_1 n_3 \\ n_1 n_2 & n_2^2 & n_2 n_3 \\ n_1 n_3 & n_2 n_3 & n_3^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



# 3D geometric transformations



- For an infinitesimal rotation angle  $\Delta\alpha \approx 0$ :

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -n_3\Delta\alpha & n_2\Delta\alpha \\ n_3\Delta\alpha & 1 & -n_1\Delta\alpha \\ -n_2\Delta\alpha & n_1\Delta\alpha & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The infinitesimal rotation assumption holds when object motion is relatively slow and or the time interval is very small.
  - It can be used in video analysis if we take into account the relatively short time interval between video frames.



# 3D geometric transformations



- 3D rotation can also be represented by *quaternions* that are extensions of complex numbers:

$$\mathbf{q} = q_0 + q_1\mathbf{i} + q_2\mathbf{j} + q_3\mathbf{k}$$

$q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3$  are real numbers and:

$$\mathbf{i}^2 = \mathbf{j}^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 = \mathbf{ijk} = -1$$

- Unit quaternion  $\mathbf{q}_R = [q_0 \ q_1 \ q_2 \ q_3]^T$ . It satisfies:

$$q_0^2 + q_1^2 + q_2^2 + q_3^2 = 1.$$



# 3D geometric transformations



- Rotation by an angle  $\alpha$  around a unit vector  $[n_1, n_2, n_3]^T$ :

$$\mathbf{q} = \left[ n_1 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad n_2 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad n_3 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \right]^T$$

- Rotation matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  corresponding to a certain quaternion:

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} q_0^2 - q_1^2 - q_2^2 - q_3^2 & 2(q_0q_1 + q_2q_3) & 2(q_0q_2 - q_1q_3) \\ 2(q_0q_1 - q_2q_3) & -q_0^2 + q_1^2 - q_2^2 + q_3^2 & 2(q_1q_2 + q_0q_3) \\ 2(q_0q_2 + q_1q_3) & 2(q_1q_2 - q_0q_3) & -q_0^2 - q_1^2 + q_2^2 + q_3^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Mathematical preliminaries



- Mathematical Analysis
  - Functions
  - Differentiation
  - Fourier transform
- Vector calculus
- 3D geometric transformations
- **Projective geometry**





# Projective geometry

- *Homogeneous coordinates* are basic concept in projective geometry.
- Assuming an Euclidean plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and a Cartesian coordinate system defined on it,  $\mathbf{p} = [x, y]^T$ , we assign the ordered 3-tuple  $[x_h, y_h, a]^T$  to  $\mathbf{p}$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq 0, x = x_h/a, y = y_h/a$ .
- The homogeneous coordinates  $[x_h, y_h, a]^T$  define the projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .
  - Exactly one Euclidean point corresponds to each 3-tuple  $[x_h, y_h, a]^T$ .
  - But both  $[x_h, y_h, a]^T$  and  $[\lambda x_h, \lambda y_h, \lambda a]^T$  3-tuples correspond to the same Euclidean coordinates  $[x, y]^T$ , where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \neq 0$ .
  - Canonical form  $[x_h, y_h, 1]^T$  ???.
  - The projective plane can be defined over the real or the complex field  $x_h, y_h, a \in \mathbb{C}$  ???.





# Projective geometry

- Assuming a 3D Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and a Cartesian coordinate system defined on it,  $\mathbf{P} = [X, Y, Z]^T$ , we assign the ordered 4-tuple  $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, a]^T$  to  $\mathbf{P}$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R}, a \neq 0, X = X_h/a, Y = Y_h/a, Z = Z_h/a$ .
- The homogeneous coordinates  $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, a]^T$  define the projective space  $\mathbb{P}^3$ .
  - Exactly one Euclidean point corresponds to each 4-tuple  $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, a]^T$ .
  - But both 4-tuples  $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, a]^T$  and  $[\lambda X_h, \lambda Y_h, \lambda Z_h, \lambda a]^T$  correspond to the same 3D Euclidean coordinates  $[X, Y, Z]^T$ , where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \neq 0$ .
  - $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, 1]^T$  ???.



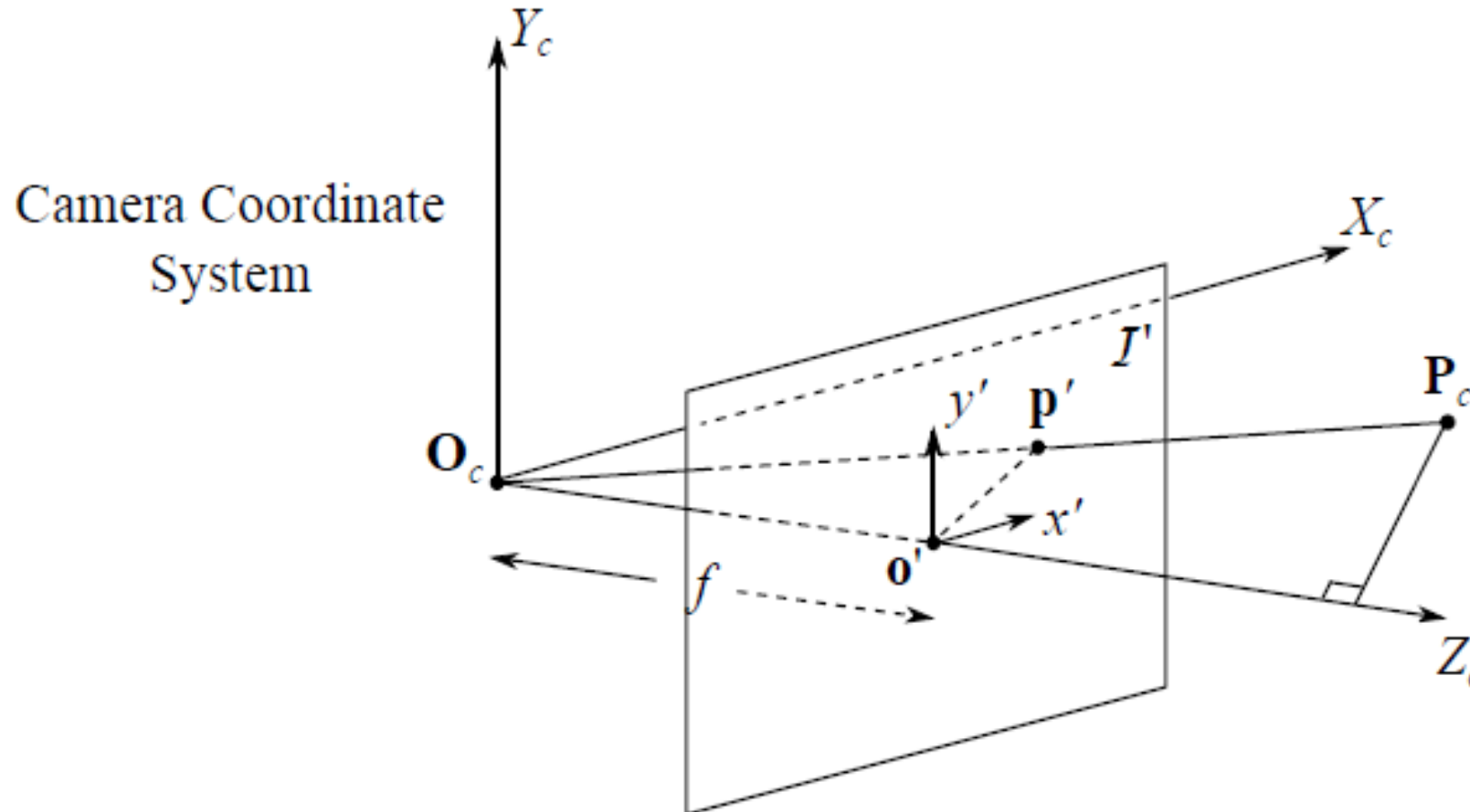


# Projective geometry

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Pinhole camera: projection of the 3D world  $\mathbb{R}^3$  on an image plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .





# Projective geometry

- Difference from Euclidean geometry: it allows for a wider range of transformations than just rotations and translations.
  - *Perspective (or central) projections:*
    - They have a projection center  $O$ .
    - Line segment lengths, angles or parallelism are not necessarily preserved, leading to shape distortions.
    - Property invariable during projection from the *projective space*  $\mathbb{P}^3$  to the projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2$ : *incidence*
      - collinear points remain collinear.
      - straight lines are mapped onto straight lines.
  - Enable the viewer to perceive depth differences between items of the projected 3D scene from the resulting 2D image.





# Projective geometry

- Fundamental property of perspective projection:
  - Every image point lies on a 3D line passing through its corresponding scene point in world space and a common *center of projection*.
- The 2D projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2$  can be considered as contained within a 3D Euclidean “ray space”, containing 3D straight lines passing through origin  $\mathbf{0}$  and point  $\mathbf{p} = [x, y]^T$ , corresponding to the ordered 3-tuple  $[x_h, y_h, a]^T$ .
  - Thus, the 2D projective plane can describe a sequence of one or more perspective projections from a plane in 3D space to the image plane.





# Projective geometry

- An infinite number of 3-tuples  $\mathbf{p}_H = [x_h, y_h, a]^T$  corresponds to each point on the Euclidean plane, hence:
  - The homogeneous coordinates of point  $\mathbf{p} = [x, y]^T$  are not uniquely defined.
- Dropping the constraint  $a \neq 0$  we can have *points at infinity* with homogeneous coordinates  $[x_h, y_h, 0]^T$ , where  $x_h^2 + y_h^2 \neq 0$ , which lie on the *line at infinity*  $[0, 0, a]^T$  on  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .
- Canonical form of line at infinity  $[0, 0, 1]^T$ .





# Projective geometry

- A (straight) *line* in  $\mathbb{P}^2$  is defined by its parameter vector  $\mathbf{u} = [a, b, c]^T$ , satisfying  $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{u} = ax_h + by_h + ca = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{p} = [x_h, y_h, a]^T$ .
- Line equation coefficients  $\mathbf{u}$ : they are the vector entries of homogeneous coordinates of the corresponding projective line.
- Equation of the line joining points  $\mathbf{p}_1 = [x_{h1}, y_{h1}, a_1]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{p}_2 = [x_{h2}, y_{h2}, a_2]^T$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ :  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{p}_1 \times \mathbf{p}_2$ .





# Projective geometry

- *Intersection point* of two lines  $\mathbf{u}_1 = [a_1, b_1, c_1]^T$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_2 = [a_2, b_2, c_2]^T$ :

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2$$

- A *line at infinity* can be described by the homogeneous coordinate vector  $[0, 0, 1]^T$ .
  - It is defined by the plane of rays which pass through the center of projection and are parallel to the image plane.





# Projective geometry

- Three homogeneous coordinate points  $\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3$  lie on the same line if  $\det(\mathbf{P}) = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{P} = [\mathbf{p}_1 | \mathbf{p}_2 | \mathbf{p}_3]$ .
- Three homogeneous coordinate lines  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3$  intersect at the same point if  $\det(\mathbf{U}) = 0$ , where  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 | \mathbf{u}_2 | \mathbf{u}_3]$ .
- A point  $\mathbf{p}$  lies on a line  $\mathbf{u}$ , if and only if  $\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{u} = 0$ .
- *Duality* principle: lines and points are interchangeable in equations on  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .







# Projective geometry

- The addition of the line at infinity  $[0,0,1]^T$  to the Euclidean plane  $[x,y]^T$  augments it to a projective plane  $[x,y,1]^T$ .
  - Infinite homogeneous coordinates correspond to the same Euclidean point, for different values of  $\lambda$ .
  - A homogeneous point in  $\mathbb{P}^2$  corresponds to an entire ray passing through the origin in the associated 3D Euclidean ray space.
  - Each homogeneous equation of the form  $a_1x_h + a_2y_h + a_0a = 0$  with  $a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_0^2 \neq 0$  represents a line.
    - for  $a = 0$ : line at infinity.







# Projective geometry

- Points at infinity: the points of intersection on  $\mathbb{P}^2$  between parallel lines of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .
  - No real line parallelism exists in the projective plane.
- Each point at infinity is associated with a specific direction given by the slope of the parallel  $\mathbb{R}^2$  lines intersecting at it.
- Linear transformation on homogeneous coordinates preserving the property of incidence:
  - Rotation and translation of the 3D ray space coordinate system.





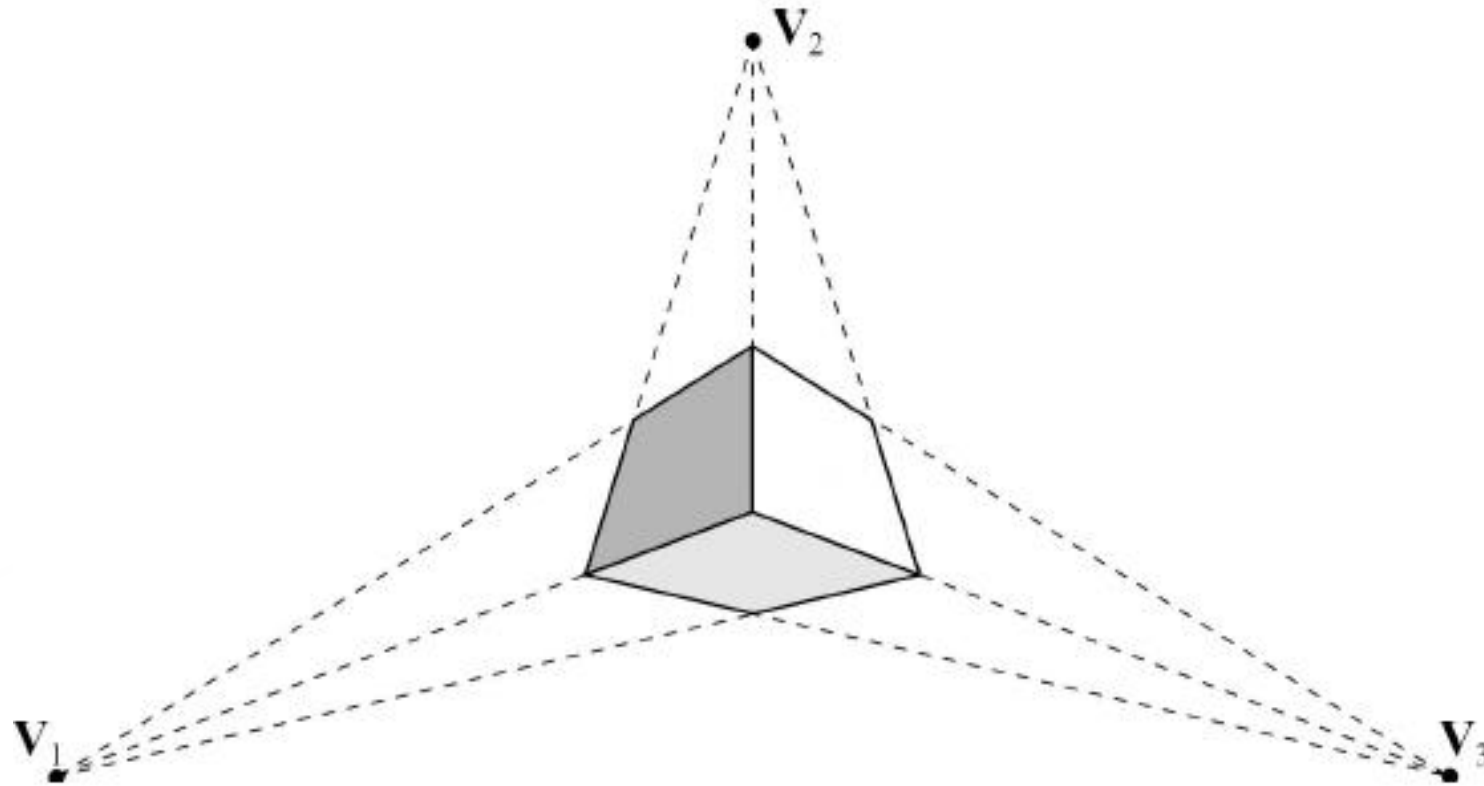
# Projective geometry

- *Vanishing points*: the points of intersection between projected lines corresponding to parallel lines in the Euclidean space.
- Points at infinity in  $\mathbb{P}^2$  are mapped to vanishing points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . ???
- Every point of the plane at infinity maps onto an image point in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ , during perspective projection.



# Projective geometry

MultiDrone



Vanishing points





# Projective geometry

- *Projective transformation*: a product of rotations and translations in 3D ray space, forming a  $3 \times 3$  matrix.
- Projection of a point  $\mathbf{P}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^3$  to a point  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ :

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathcal{P}\mathbf{P}$$

- *Perspective transformation*: Special case of projective transformation ???





## Projective geometry

- *Affine transformation*: ???
- Projection of a point  $\mathbf{P}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^3$  to a point  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ :

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathcal{P}\mathbf{P}$$

- *Similarity transformation*: ???





## Projective geometry

- *Affine plane*: intermediate construction, in-between the Euclidean and the projective plane:
  - It contains exactly the same points as the Euclidean plane.
  - Parallelism and ratios of distances between collinear points are preserved during affine transformations.
  - It allows uniform and non-uniform scaling and shear transformations.
- *Similarity plane*:
  - It allows only rotation, translation and uniform scaling.
  - It preserves almost all geometrical properties.
  - It does **not** preserve the line segment length.



# Projective geometry



- Geometrical transformations, from the most to the least property-preserving ones:
  - Euclidean
  - Similarity
  - Affine
  - Projective.





# Projective geometry

- *Cross-ratio (or anharmonic ratio)*  $C_r$ : ratio of ratios of distances between collinear points.
  - It is a geometric property invariant under a projective transformation.
- For four points  $\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3, \mathbf{p}_4$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ :

$$C_r(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3, \mathbf{p}_4) = \frac{\Delta_{13}\Delta_{24}}{\Delta_{14}\Delta_{23}}$$

$\Delta_{ij}$ : the Euclidean distance between points  $\mathbf{p}_i$  and  $\mathbf{p}_j$ .



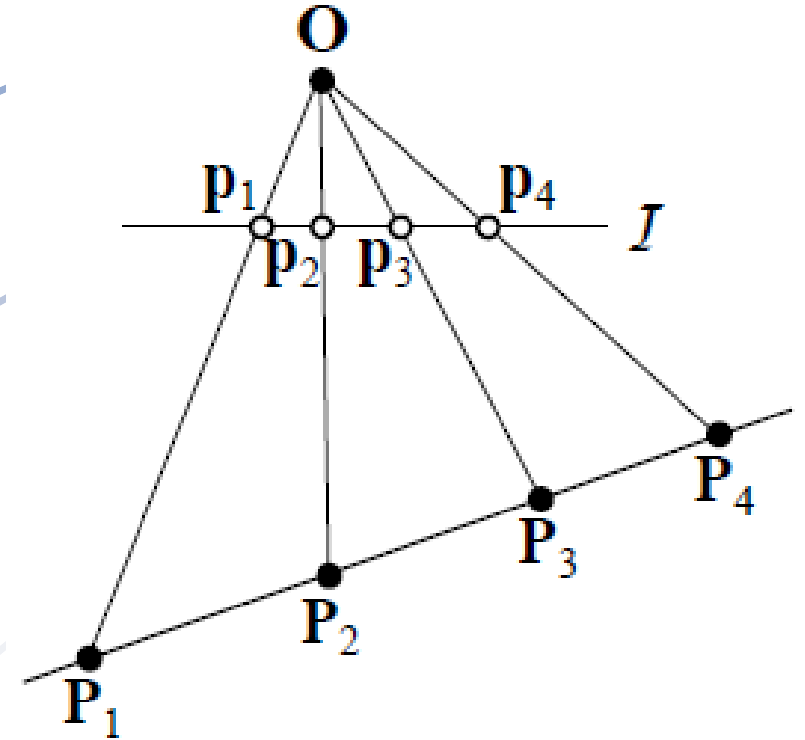




# Projective geometry

- The cross-ratio of four collinear points remains invariant under a projective transformation:

$$C_r(\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2, \mathbf{p}_3, \mathbf{p}_4) = C_r(\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \mathbf{P}_3, \mathbf{P}_4).$$





# Projective geometry

- The cross-ratio invariance is useful for defining and constructing *conic sections* (curves like circles, ellipses, parabolas and hyperbolas) in the projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .

- Conic: a set of points in  $\mathbb{P}^2$  which satisfy:

$$\mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{p} = 0$$

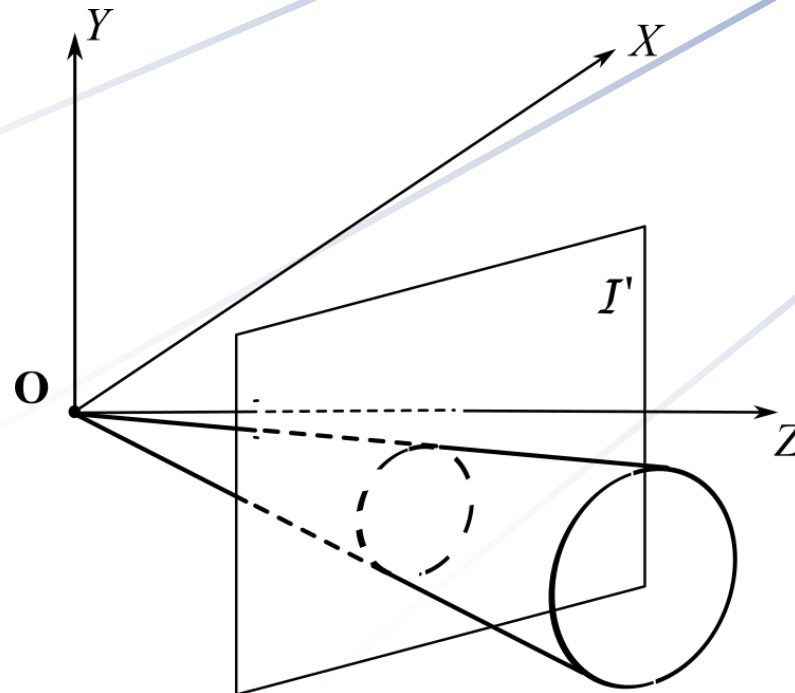
$\mathbf{C}$ : a symmetric  $3 \times 3$  matrix containing the equation coefficients of the conic section.





# Projective geometry

- Conic sections (circles, ellipses, parabolas and hyperbolas) in the projective plane  $\mathbb{P}^2$ .





# Projective geometry

- All conic sections are projectively equivalent.
- Each type of conic section can be projectively mapped to any other type of conic section.
- All circles on the complex projective plane intersect the line at infinity at two fixed points, the *absolute* or *circular points*, having complex coordinates  $\mathbf{i} = [1, i, 0]^T$  and  $\mathbf{j} = [1, -i, 0]^T$ .
- The absolute points are invariant under similarity and Euclidean transformations.





# Projective geometry

- In the  $\mathbb{P}^3$  projective space:
  - points are dual with planes and
  - lines are represented as the intersection of two planes.
- Projection of a point  $\mathbf{P}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^3$  to a point  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $\mathbb{P}^2$ :

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathcal{P}\mathbf{P}$$

- $\mathbb{P}^3$  can be considered as embedded into a 4D 'ray space', with each 4D ray passing through the origin and intersecting with  $\mathbb{P}^3$  at a single point.
- *Plane at infinity*: defined by  $a = 0$  ( $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, 0]^T$ ) and containing all points at infinity.





# Projective geometry

- *Quadric*
  - a surface defined as the set of points  $\mathbf{P}$  satisfying the equation  $\mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{P} = 0$ .
    - $\mathbf{Q}$  is a  $4 \times 4$  symmetric quadric coefficient matrix.
  - They are a 3D generalization of conics.
  - Their intersection with a plane is always a conic.
  - Each of them can be fully represented by its corresponding coefficient matrix.





# Projective geometry

- In homogeneous coordinates, all spheres intersect the plane at infinity in a curve having points  $[X_h, Y_h, Z_h, 0]^T$ , where  $X_h^2 + Y_h^2 + Z_h^2 = 0$  and  $a = 0$ .
- *Absolute conic  $\omega$* : a conic lying on the plane at infinity and consisting solely of complex points:  $\mathbf{P}^T \omega \mathbf{P} = 0$ .
- $\omega$  is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix and  $\mathbf{P} \in [X_h, Y_h, Z_h, 0]^T$ .???
- The identification of its projection on the image plane is equivalent to the specification of the angle between rays when only their image projections are known.





# Projective geometry

- $\omega$  gives a way to define angles in projective space by defining an inner product:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{(\mathbf{u}_1^T \omega \mathbf{u}_2)}{\sqrt{(\mathbf{u}_1^T \omega \mathbf{u}_1)(\mathbf{u}_2^T \omega \mathbf{u}_2)}}$$

$\theta$ : the angle formed by two lines  $\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2 \in \mathbb{P}^3$  ???.







# Projective geometry

- Rotation in the homogeneous coordinates:  $\mathbf{P}'_h = \tilde{\mathbf{R}}\mathbf{P}_h$
- Translation in the homogeneous coordinates :  $\mathbf{P}'_h = \tilde{\mathbf{T}}\mathbf{P}_h$
- Scaling in the homogeneous coordinates :  $\mathbf{P}'_h = \tilde{\mathbf{S}}\mathbf{P}_h$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & 0 \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & 0 \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & T_1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & T_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & T_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{S}} = \begin{bmatrix} S_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & S_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & S_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $r_{ij}$ : the elements of the rotation matrix  $\mathbf{R}$  in the Euclidean space.





# Projective geometry

- 3D rotation followed by translation:

$$\mathbf{P}'_h = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & T_1 \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & T_2 \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & T_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_h$$

- 3D translation followed by rotation:

$$\mathbf{P}'_h = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} & -\mathbf{R}_1^T \mathbf{T} \\ r_{21} & r_{22} & r_{23} & -\mathbf{R}_2^T \mathbf{T} \\ r_{31} & r_{32} & r_{33} & -\mathbf{R}_3^T \mathbf{T} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{P}_h$$

# Q & A



**Thank you very much for your attention!**

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