Coordinates and Transformations

2016 Spring

National Cheng Kung University

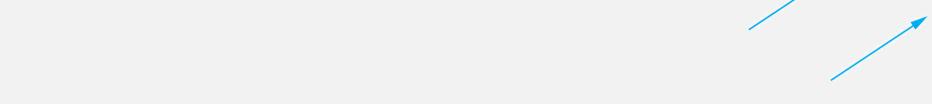
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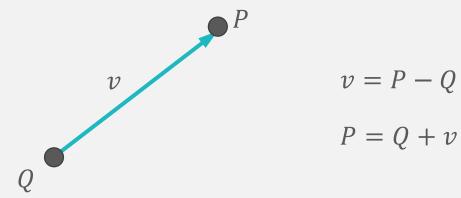
Scalars, Pints, & Vectors

- Basic geometric objects and relationships among them can be described using scalars, points, and vectors
 - A point is a location in space
 - A scalar is used to specify quantities such as distance between two points.
 - Scalars obey a set of rules that are abstractions of the operations of ordinary arithmetic
 - Addition/subtraction, multiplication/division
 - A vector is a quantity with two attributes: direction and magnitude
 - A vector does not have a fixed location in space



Points

- Operations between point and vector:
 - Point-point subtraction yields a vector.
 - **Equivalent to point-vector addition.**



Linear Vector Space

- Mathematical system for manipulating vectors:
 - Scalar-vector multiplication: $v' = \propto v$
 - \square Vector-vector addition: v = u + w



Head-to-tail rule

Vector Space

- \blacksquare A linear combination of n vectors $u_1, u_2, ... u_n$ is a vector of the form:
 - $u = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + ... + \alpha_n u_n$
- If $\alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + ... + \alpha_n u_n = 0$ only when $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 0$, then $u_1, u_2, ... u_n$ are linear independent and form the basis
 - $\blacksquare \alpha_1, \alpha_2 ... \alpha_n$ give the representation of u
- If $u_1', u_2', ... u_n'$ is some other basis and $u = \alpha_1' u_1' + \alpha_2' u_2' + ... + \alpha_n' u_n'$
 - $\blacksquare \alpha_1', \alpha_2' \dots \alpha_n'$ give another representation of u
- There exist an nxn matrix **T** such that $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1' \\ \alpha_2' \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{T} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$

at
$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2' \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_3' \end{bmatrix} = T \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

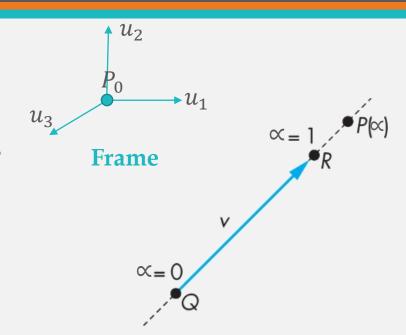
Affine Space

■ Affine Space:

- Point + a vector space
- Any arbitrary vector can be written uniquely as $v = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n u_n$
- Any arbitrary point can be written uniquely as $P = P_0 + \beta_1 u_1 + \beta_2 u_2 + \cdots + \alpha_n u_n$

Operations:

- Vector-vector addition
- Scalar-vector multiplication
- Point-vector addition
- Affine addition (addition of two points)



$$P = Q + \propto v$$
 $v = R - Q$

$$v = R - C$$



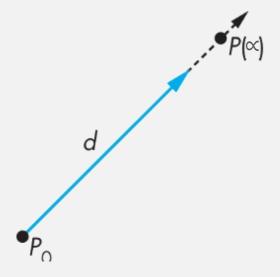
$$P = \alpha_1 R + \alpha_2 Q$$
 where $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$

Lines

- A line is a set of all points that pass through P_0 in the direction of the vector d.
 - Parametric form: $P(\propto) = P_0 + \propto d$
- Two-dimension forms:
 - Explicit: y = mx + h
 - General/Implicit form: ax + by + c = 0
 - Parametric form:

$$\chi(\propto) = \propto \chi_0 + (1 - \propto)\chi_1$$

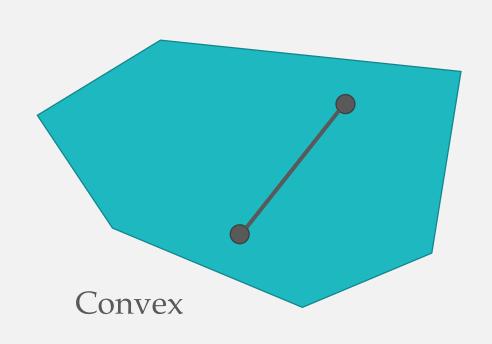
$$y(\propto) = \propto y_0 + (1 - \propto)y_1$$

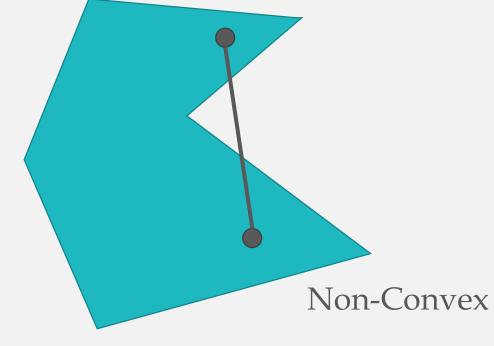


Convexity

A convex object :

For any two points in the object, all points on the line segment between these two points are also in the object.



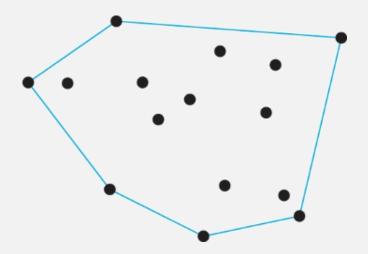


Convex Hull

■ Given a set of points $\{P_1, P_2, ..., P_n\}$, we can extend the affine sum to find the set of points forming a convex hull, where each point is in the form of:

$$P = \propto_1 P_1 + \propto_2 P_2 + \dots + \propto_n P_n \text{ where } \propto_1 + \propto_2 + \dots + \propto_n = 1, \quad \propto_i \geq 0$$

■ The convex hull is formed by stretching a tight fitting surface over the given set of points, i.e. shrink-wrapping the points .



Dot and Cross Products

- Dot (inner) product: $u \cdot v$
 - $u \cdot v = 0$ iif. u and v are orthogonal
 - In the Euclidean space, the magnitude of a vector is:

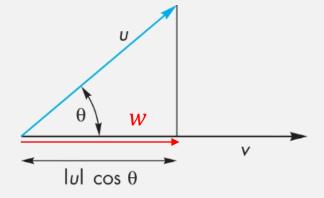
$$|u|^2 = u \cdot u$$

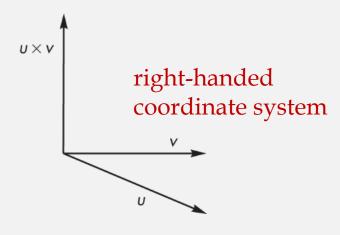
■ The cosine of the angle between two vectors:

$$\cos\theta = \frac{u \cdot v}{|u||v|}$$

- \blacksquare Cross (outer) product: $u \times v$
 - Given two non-parallel vectors u and v, we can determine a third vector that is orthogonal to them:
 - The magnitude of the cross product gives the magnitude of the sine of the angle between u and v:

$$|\sin\theta| = \frac{|u \times v|}{|u||v|}$$





Planes

- A plane is an affine space defined by a direct extension of the parametric line.
 - Each point on the plane expanded by three points P,Q, and R can be defined by

$$T(\propto, \beta) = \beta[\alpha P + (1 - \alpha)Q] + (1 - \beta)R$$

$$= \beta \alpha P + \beta (1 - \alpha)Q + (1 - \beta)R$$

$$= \alpha' P + \beta' Q + \gamma' R \text{ where } \alpha' + \beta' + \gamma' = 1$$

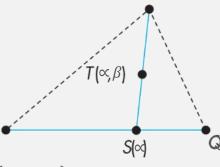
$$(\alpha', \beta', \gamma') \text{ is the barycentric coordinate representation of } T$$

 \blacksquare A plane can be expressed by a point P_0 and two nonparallel vectors u and v

$$T(\alpha, \beta) = P + \beta(1 - \alpha)(Q - P) + (1 - \beta)(R - P)$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 $T(\propto, \beta) = P + \propto 'u + \beta'v$

$$\rightarrow$$
 If a point *T* lies in the plane: $P - T = \propto 'u + \beta' v$



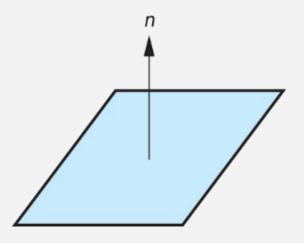
$$S(\alpha) = \alpha P + (1 - \alpha)Q, \ 0 \le \alpha \le 1$$

$$T(\beta) = \beta S + (1 - \beta)R$$
, $0 \le \beta \le 1$

Normal

- \blacksquare Every plane has a vector n normal/perpendicular/orthogonal to it.
 - \blacksquare Obtained by $n = u \times v$
- The plane equation can be also expressed by:

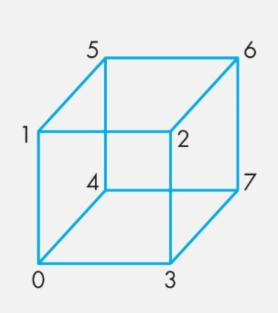
$$n \cdot (P - P_0) = 0$$

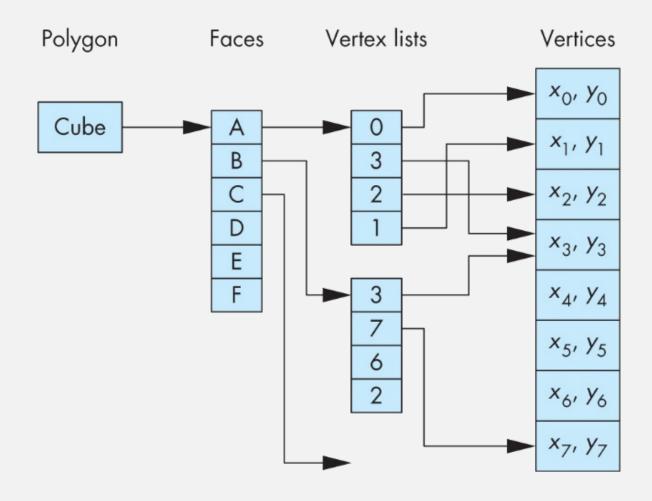


3-D Objects

- Three features characterize 3-D object that fit well with existing graphics hardware and software:
 - The objects are described by their 2D surfaces and can be thought of as being hollow.
 - The objects can be specified through a set of vertices in 3-D.
 - The objects either are composed of or can be approximated by flat, convex polygons.

Vertex-list Representation of a Cube



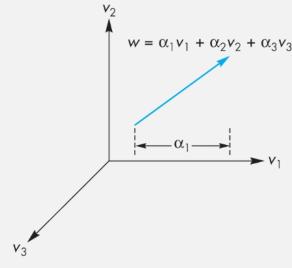


Coordinate Systems and Frames

Any vector w can be represented uniquely in terms of three linearly independent vectors/bases, v_1 , v_2 , and v_3 :

$$w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3$$

 \propto_1, \propto_2 , and \propto_3 are the components of *w* with respect to the three basis.



$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{v}$$

Coordinate Systems and Frames (Cont.)



- With a particular reference point (the origin), we can represent all points unambiguously in the affine space.
- The origin and the basis vectors determine a frame.

Coordinate Systems and Frames (Cont.)

- Within a given frame
 - Every vector can be written uniquely as:

$$w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3 = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{v}$$

Every point can be written uniquely as:

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + \beta_3 v_3 = P_0 + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{v}$$

Change of Coordinate Systems

- Object/model Frame → World Frame → Camera/eye Frame
 - can be done by the models-view matrix

2 basis:
$$\begin{cases} \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} \\ \{u_1, u_2, u_3\} \end{cases} \qquad \begin{aligned} u_1 &= \gamma_{11} v_1 + \gamma_{12} v_2 + \gamma_{13} v_3 \\ u_2 &= \gamma_{21} v_1 + \gamma_{22} v_2 + \gamma_{23} v_3 \\ u_3 &= \gamma_{31} v_1 + \gamma_{32} v_2 + \gamma_{33} v_3 \end{aligned} \qquad \mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} \\ \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

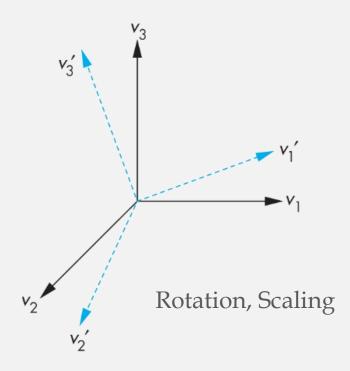
$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{v}$$

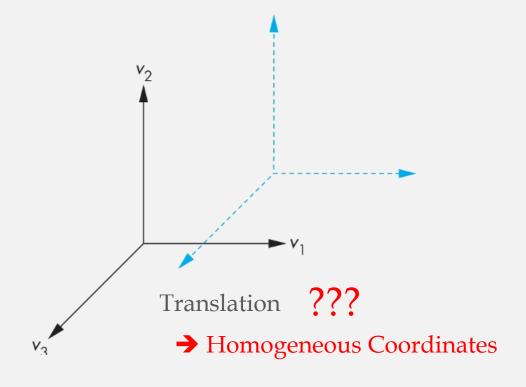
Consider a vector $w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3 = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{v}$ and $w = \beta_1 u_1 + \beta_2 u_2 + \beta_3 u_3 = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{u}$

$$w = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{v} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{M}^T \mathbf{b} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{M}^{T-1} \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{T} \mathbf{a}$$

Change of Coordinate Systems (Cont.)

$$b = M^{T^{-1}}a = Ta$$





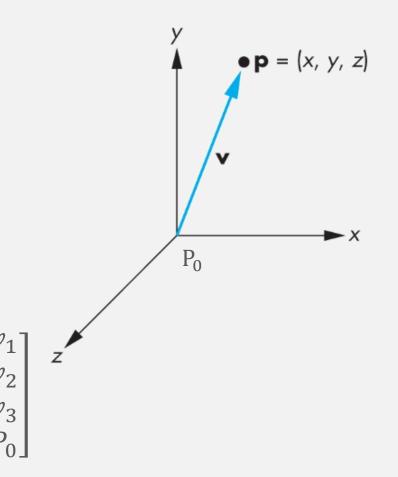
Homogeneous Coordinates

Any point P can be represented as

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = xv_1 + yv_2 + zv_3 + P_0$$

Any vector *w* can be represented as

$$w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$



Homogeneous Coordinates (Cont.)

■ If (v_1, v_2, v_3, P_0) and (u_1, u_2, u_3, Q_0) are two frames:

$$u_{1} = \gamma_{11}v_{1} + \gamma_{12}v_{2} + \gamma_{13}v_{3}$$

$$u_{2} = \gamma_{21}v_{1} + \gamma_{22}v_{2} + \gamma_{23}v_{3}$$

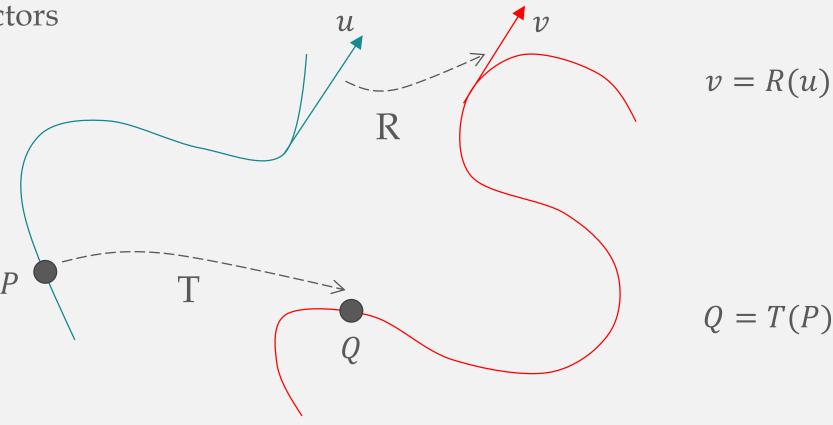
$$u_{3} = \gamma_{31}v_{1} + \gamma_{32}v_{2} + \gamma_{33}v_{3}$$

$$Q_{0} = \gamma_{41}v_{1} + \gamma_{42}v_{2} + \gamma_{43}v_{3} + P_{0}$$

Matrix Representation of the change of frames (12 coefficients)

General Transformations

■ A transformation maps points to other points and/or vectors to other vectors



Affine Transformations

- A transformation that preserves lines and parallelism
 - maps parallel lines to parallel lines
- If we know the transformations of *p* and *q*, we can obtain the transformations of linear combinations of *p* and *q* by taking linear combinations of their transforms:
- Characteristic of many physically important transformations
 - Rigid body transformations: identity, translation, rotation, reflection
 - Non-rigid body transformation: scaling, shear

Translation

■ Using the homogeneous coordinate representation in some frame

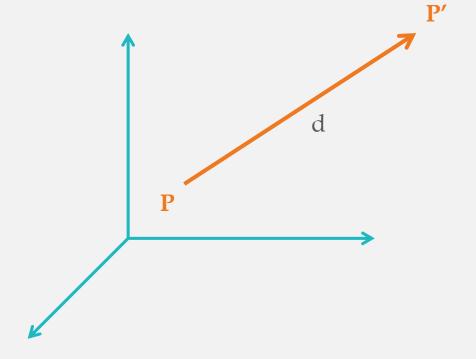
$$p = \begin{bmatrix} x & y & z & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$p' = \begin{bmatrix} x' & y' & z' & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$d = \begin{bmatrix} d_x & d_y & d_z & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Hence p' = p + d or

$$x' = x + d_x$$
$$y' = y + d_y$$
$$z' = z + d_z$$



Translation Matrix

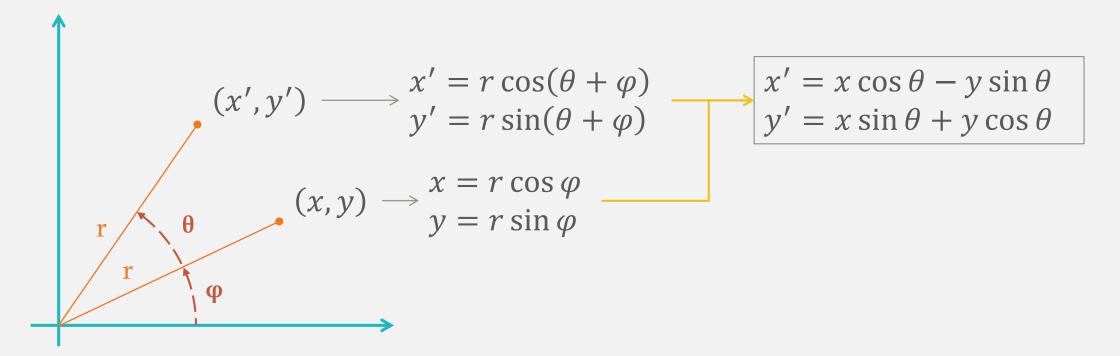
We can also express translation using a 4 x 4 matrix **T** in homogeneous coordinates p' = Tp where

$$T = T(d_x, d_y, d_z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & d_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & d_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & d_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why do we use a matrix form instead of vector addition?

Rotation (2D)

- \blacksquare Consider rotation about the origin by θ degrees
 - \blacksquare radius stays the same, angle increases by θ



Rotation about the z axis

- Rotation about *z*-axis in three dimensions
 - \blacksquare leaves all points with the same z
 - \blacksquare equivalent to rotation in two dimensions in planes of constant z

$$x' = x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta$$

$$y' = x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta$$

$$z' = z$$

or in homogeneous coordinates

$$p' = R_z(\theta)p$$

$$R = R_Z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation about *x*- and *y*-axes

- Same argument as for rotation about *z*-axis
 - \blacksquare for rotation about *x*-axis, *x* is unchanged
 - for rotation about *y*-axis, *y* is unchanged

$$R = R_{x}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad R = R_{y}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling

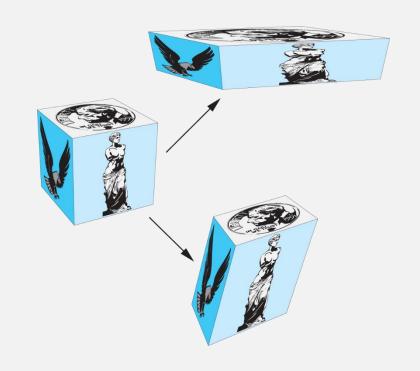
Expand or contract along each axis (fixed point of origin)

$$x' = s_{x}x$$

$$y' = s_{y}y \longrightarrow p' = Sp$$

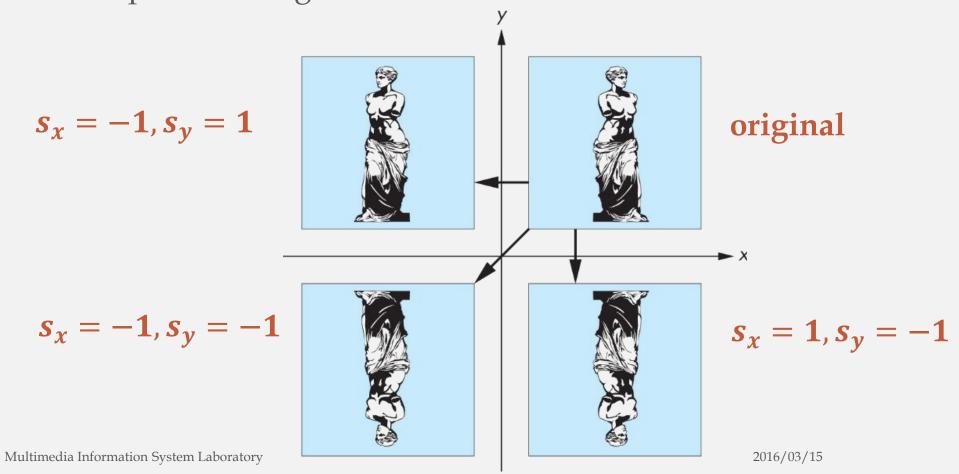
$$z' = s_{z}z$$

$$S = S(s_x, s_y, s_z) = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Reflection

Corresponds to negative scale factors



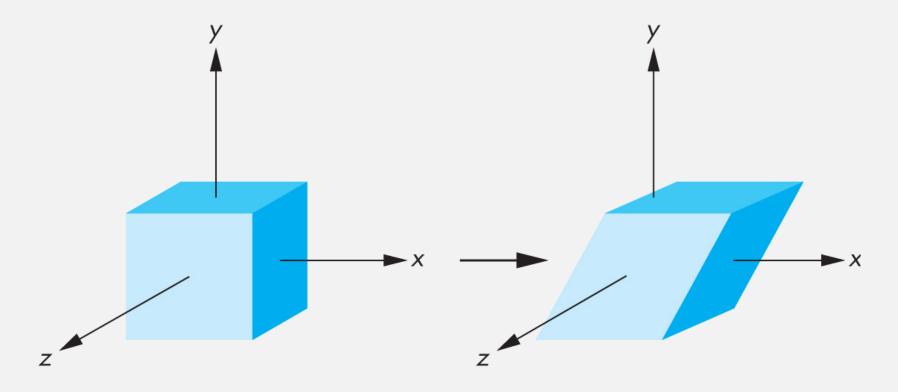
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Inverses

- Compute inverse matrices by general formulas, or use simple geometric observations
 - Translation: $T^{-1}(d_x, d_y, d_z) = T(-d_x, -d_y, -d_z)$
 - Rotation: $R^{-1}(\theta) = R(-\theta)$
 - □ holds for any rotation matrix
 - $\square \cos -\theta = \cos \theta$ and $\sin -\theta = -\sin \theta \rightarrow R^{-1}(\theta) = R^{T}(\theta) \rightarrow R$ is an orthogonal matrix
 - Normalized orthogonal matrices correspond to rotation about the origin
 - Scaling: $S^{-1}(S_x, S_y, S_z) = S\left(\frac{1}{S_x}, \frac{1}{S_y}, \frac{1}{S_z}\right)$

Shear

■ Equivalent to pulling faces in opposite directions



Shear Matrix

 \blacksquare Consider simple shear along *x*-axis

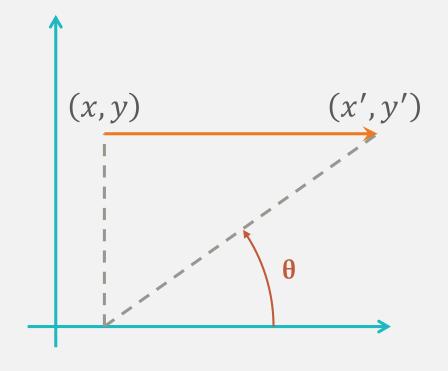
$$x' = x + y \cot \theta$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z$$

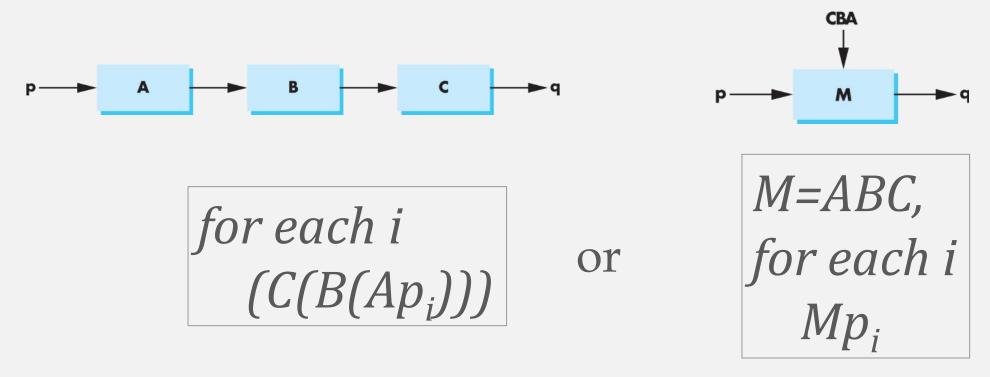
$$p' = Hp$$

$$H(heta) = egin{bmatrix} 1 & \cot heta & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Concatenation

■ Form arbitrary affine transformation matrices by multiplying together rotation, translation, and scaling matrices



Order of Transformations

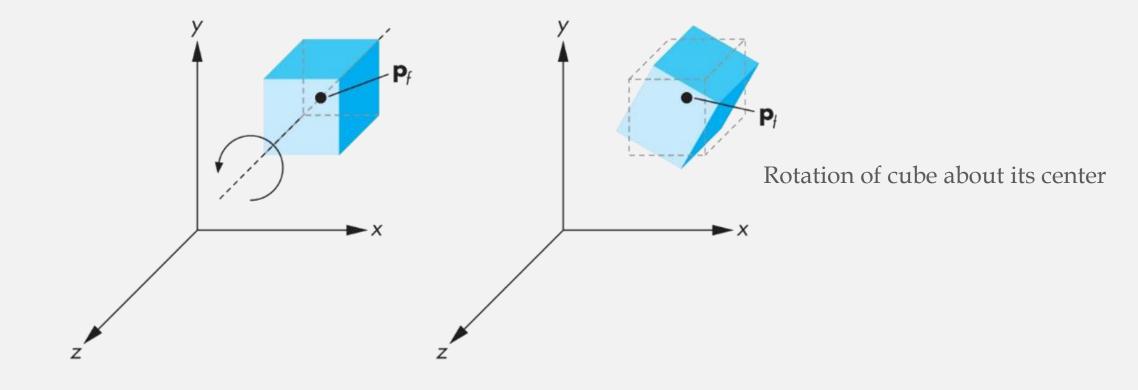
- Note that matrix on the right is the first applied
- Mathematically, the following are equivalent

$$p' = ABCp = A(B(Cp))$$

Note many references use column matrices to represent points. In terms of column matrices:

$$p'^T = p^T C^T B^T A^T$$

Rotation About a Fixed Point

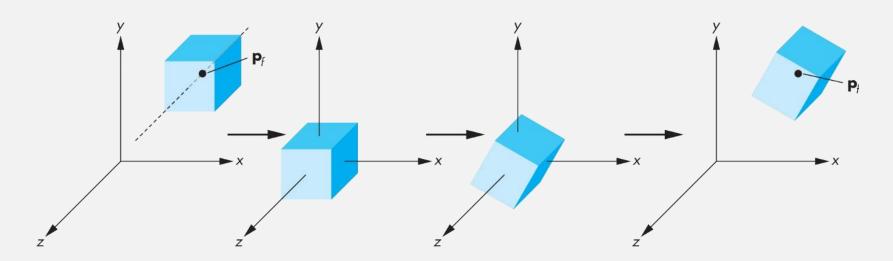


Rotation About a Fixed Point other than the Origin

- 1. Move fixed point to origin
- 2. Rotate
- 3. Move fixed point back

$$M = T(p_f)R(\theta_z)T(-p_f)$$

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 & x_f - x_f \cos \theta + y_f \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & y_f - x_f \sin \theta - y_f \cos \theta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

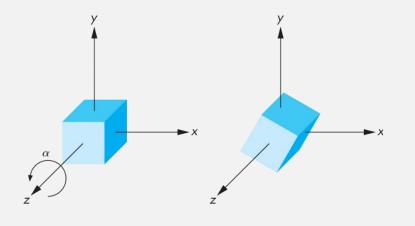


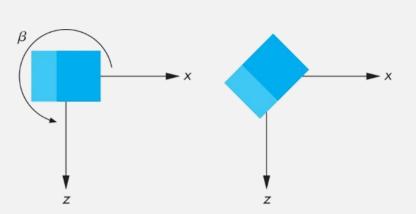
General Rotation About the Origin

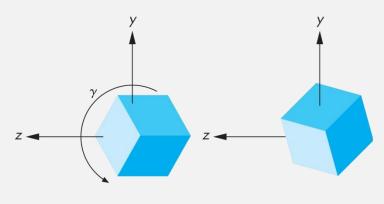
Decompose into the concatenation of rotations about the x-, y-, and z-axes

$$R(\theta) = R_z(\theta_z) R_y(\theta_y) R_x(\theta_x)$$

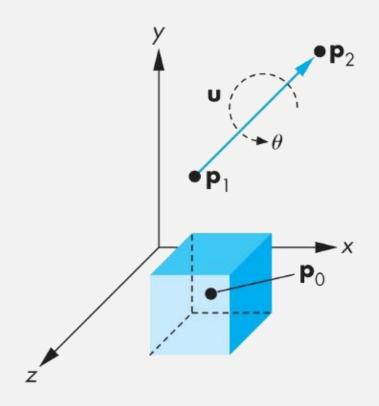
 θ_x , θ_y , θ_z are called the Euler angles.

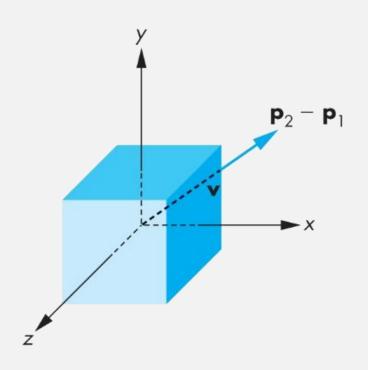






Rotation About an Arbitrary Axis





Rotation About an Arbitrary Axis

Rotate around an axis vector *u*

$$v = \frac{u}{|u|} = [\alpha_x \quad \alpha_y \quad \alpha_z]^T \qquad \alpha_x^2 + \alpha_y^2 + \alpha_z^2 = 1$$

$$\cos \phi_{x} = \alpha_{x}$$

$$\cos \phi_{y} = \alpha_{y} \implies \cos^{2} \phi_{x} + \cos^{2} \phi_{y} + \cos^{2} \phi_{z} = 1$$

$$\cos \phi_{z} = \alpha_{z}$$

Hint: What we already have are rotations around *x*-, or *y*-, or *z*-axes.

 $(\alpha_{\chi}, \alpha_{\gamma}, \alpha_{z})$

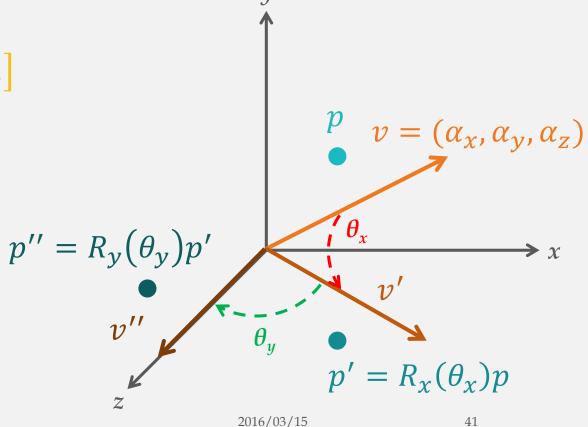
Rotation About an Arbitrary Axis (cont.)

- 1. Rotate the axis vector to match z- (x- or y-) axis [R_{axis}]
- 2. Rotate around *z*-axis $[R_z(\theta)]$
- 3. Rotate the axis vector back $\begin{bmatrix} R_{axis}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$

$$R_{axis} = R_y(\theta_y)R_x(\theta_x)$$

$$M = R_{axis}^{-1} R(\theta) R_{axis}$$

= $R_x(-\theta_x) R_y(-\theta_y) R_z(\theta) R_y(\theta_y) R_x(\theta_x)$

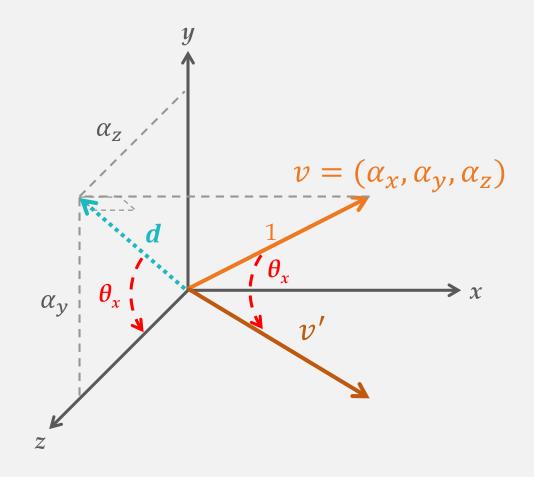


$R_{x}(\theta_{x})$

$$R = R_{x}(\theta_{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta_{x} & -\sin \theta_{x} & 0 \\ 0 & \sin \theta_{x} & \cos \theta_{x} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{x}(\theta_{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\alpha_{z}}{d} & -\frac{\alpha_{y}}{d} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\alpha_{y}}{d} & \frac{\alpha_{z}}{d} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$d = \sqrt{\alpha_y^2 + \alpha_z^2}$$

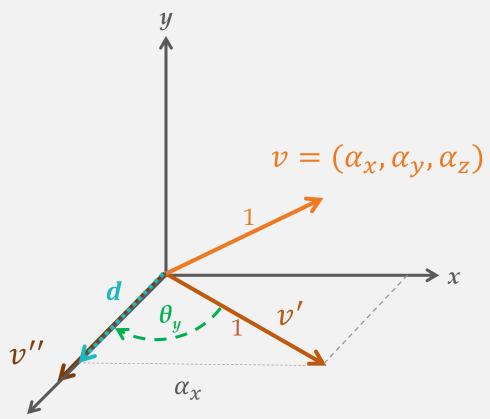


$R_y(\theta_y)$

$$R = R_y(\theta_y) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_y & 0 & \sin \theta_y & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta_y & 0 & \cos \theta_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{y}(\theta_{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} d & 0 & -\alpha_{x} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \alpha_{x} & 0 & -d & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M = T(P_0)R_x(-\theta_x)R_y(-\theta_y)R_z(\theta)R_y(\theta_y)R_x(\theta_x)T(-P_0) z$$



Instancing

■ In modeling, we often start with a simple object centered at the origin, oriented with the axis, and at a standard size

- We apply an instance transformation to its vertices to
 - Scale
 - Orient
 - Locate

