



Geometric Transformations

Computer Graphics and Visualization

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Scalars

- ▶ Ordinary real numbers and their operations are an example of a Scalar field
- ▶ Scalars have two fundamental operations between pairs, addition and multiplication
- ▶ They are associative, commutative and distributive.
- ▶ Each element α has an additive inverse $-\alpha$ and a multiplicative inverse α^{-1}

Vector space

- ▶ A vector space contains scalars and vectors
- ▶ Vectors have two operations
 - vector-vector addition

$$v = u + w$$

- scalar-vector multiplication

$$v = \alpha u$$

- ▶ Every vector v has an additive inverse $-v$

Vector

- ▶ A vector is a direction and magnitude in space.
- ▶ It has no location.

Affine space

- In affine space Points are added
 - A point is a location in space.
 - It has neither size or shape.

point-vector addition A new point is formed by adding a vector to a point.

$$P = Q + v$$

point-point subtraction A subtraction of one point from an other, forms a vector.

$$v = P - Q$$

zero-vector A vector of no magnitude, thus an undefined direction.

Lines and Rays in Affine Space

$$P(\alpha) = P_0 + \alpha d$$

- ▶ Parametric form
 - We generate points on the line by varying the parameter α

- ▶ A *line* is infinite in both directions

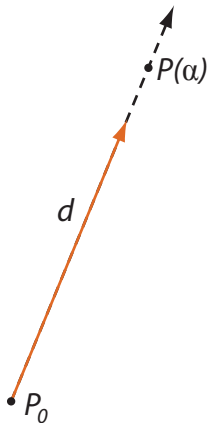
$$-\infty \leq \alpha \leq \infty$$

- ▶ A *ray* is infinite in one direction

$$\alpha \geq 0$$

- ▶ A *line segment* is finite

$$a \leq \alpha \leq b$$



Affine Sum

- ▶ No point-point addition
- ▶ No point-scalar multiplication

However!

$$P = Q + \alpha v$$

$$v = R - Q$$

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

- ▶ A point can be expressed as combination of two points and it is located on the line connecting the two.

Planes

- ▶ Using affine sums a plane can be defined by

$$T(\alpha, \beta) = P_0 + \alpha u + \beta v$$

if u and v are nonparallel.

- ▶ The *normal vector* to a plane can be found using the cross product.

$$n = u \times v$$

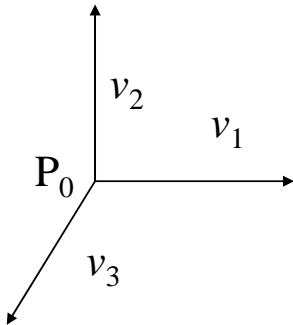
Coordinate Representation - Frames

- ▶ In affine space we have the ability to build *frames*
- ▶ Need a frame of reference to *relate* points and objects.
 - Object coordinate
 - World coordinates
 - Camera coordinates

Frames

In an affine space

a point in space together with the basis vectors can form a frame.



Euclidean Space

- ▶ No concept of distance or length in affine space.
 - ▶ Euclidean space add the dot-product
 - Vector length $|v| = \sqrt{v \cdot v}$
 - Angles $u \cdot v = |u||v|\cos\theta$
-
- ▶ Affine space enough to define geometric models
 - ▶ In a frame we use euclidean operations

Frames in Affine Space

- ▶ Frame determined by

$$(P_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$$

- ▶ Within this frame, every vector can be written as

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

- ▶ Every point can be written as

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + \beta_3 v_3$$

Going 4D

Add a dimension, w , so that the 3D affine space is a projection in a 4D space.

Benefits:

- ▶ Uniform representation of all transformations and projections.
- ▶ Efficient pipeline

Let us take a 2D example!

2D affine space in 3D

Take a 2D image

- ▶ Let it become a 2D projection in 3D space where $w = 1$ (affine space)
- ▶ All 2D points becomes a 3D line passing through origo
- ▶ All 2D lines becomes a plane also passing through origo.

Homogenous Coordinates

- ▶ All 3D points along the 3D line represents the same 2D point
- ▶ Changing w for the projection plane, does not effect the projected image.
 - All point will have the same relative distance
 - we do not have a notion of length, so it is not "bigger" or "smaller"
- ▶ The *homogenous coordinate* (or projective coordinate) of a 2D point $[x \ y]^T$ is $[wx \ wy \ w]^T$, where $[x \ y \ 1]^T$ is the point's normalized form.

Vanishing points

- ▶ So how about a 3D point $[2 \ 3 \ \varepsilon]^T$ if $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$?
- ▶ In affine space this point will vanish into infinity.
- ▶ Points where $w = 0$ is called *vanishing points*
- ▶ In the affine space they represent *points in infinity*
- ▶ Can also be seen as directions or *vectors*.

Frames in homogenous coordinates

- ▶ A frame can be represented as a point where $w = 1$ and a set of basis vectors where $w = 0$.
- ▶ We represent it as $[v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3 \ P_0]^T$
- ▶ Using that frame a point Q and vector u can then be represented as

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

$$Q = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + \beta_3 v_3$$

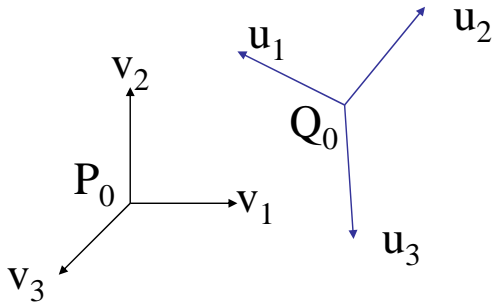
or for short

$$u = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3 \ 0]^T$$

$$Q = [\beta_1 \ \beta_2 \ \beta_3 \ 1]^T$$

Change of Frames

- Consider two frames: (v_1, v_2, v_3, P_0) and (u_1, u_2, u_3, Q_0)



- Any point or vector can be represented in either frame
- We can represent u_1, u_2, u_3, Q_0 in terms of v_1, v_2, v_3, P_0 .

Representing One Frame in Terms of the Other

$$u_1 = \gamma_{11} v_1 + \gamma_{21} v_2 + \gamma_{31} v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_2 = \gamma_{12} v_1 + \gamma_{22} v_2 + \gamma_{32} v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_3 = \gamma_{13} v_1 + \gamma_{23} v_2 + \gamma_{33} v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$Q_0 = \gamma_{14} v_1 + \gamma_{24} v_2 + \gamma_{34} v_3 + 1 \cdot P_0$$

defining a 4×4 matrix

$$[u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3 \ Q_0] = [v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3 \ P_0] \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} & \gamma_{14} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} & \gamma_{24} \\ \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} & \gamma_{34} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Change of Coordinate Systems

- ▶ Within the two frames any point or vector has a representation of the same form

- $\mathbf{a} = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3 \ w]^T$ in the first frame

- $\mathbf{b} = [\beta_1 \ \beta_2 \ \beta_3 \ w]^T$ in the second frame

where $w = 1$ for points and $w = 0$ for vectors

- ▶ Hence

$$[v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3 \ P_0]\mathbf{a} = [u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3 \ Q_0]\mathbf{b} = [v_1 \ v_2 \ v_3 \ P_0]\mathbf{M}\mathbf{b}$$

or

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{M}\mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{M}^{-1}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$$

Affine Transformations

The matrix M is 4×4 and has 12 degrees of freedom (since 4 elements are fixed). It specifies all the **affine transformations** in *homogeneous coordinates*. Affine transformations is a subset of all linear transformations.

Affine transformations

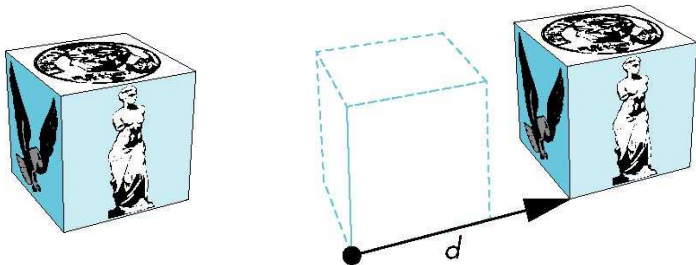
- ▶ Equivalent to a change in frames
- ▶ Preserves parallel lines
- ▶ Preserves ratios of vectors along a line

Translation

- ▶ Move (translate, displace) a point to a new location
- ▶ Displacement determined by a vector d
 - Three degrees of freedom

$$P\delta = P + d$$

- ▶ Although we can move a point to a new location in infinite ways, when we move many points there is usually only one way



Affine Translation

- ▶ A translation in positive direction of an object is equivalent with an translation in negative direction of the frame.
- ▶ Applying the *inverse* of **M** on an object is equivalent to applying **M** on the frame.

Affine Translation

- ▶ A translation is equivalent to changing frame, with
 - preserved base vectors
 - a moved origin.

$$u_1 = 1 \cdot v_1 + 0 \cdot v_2 + 0 \cdot v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_2 = 0 \cdot v_1 + 1 \cdot v_2 + 0 \cdot v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_3 = 0 \cdot v_1 + 0 \cdot v_2 + 1 \cdot v_3 + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$Q_0 = -d_x \cdot v_1 - d_y \cdot v_2 - d_z \cdot v_3 + 1 \cdot P_0$$

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -d_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -d_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -d_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

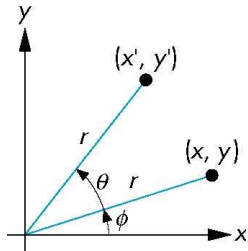
Affine Translation

- The matrix to apply to the object is

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

Rotation (2D)

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



$$x = r \cdot \cos(\phi)$$

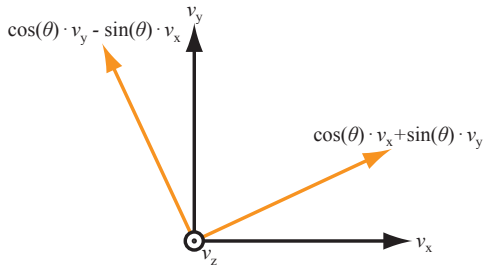
$$y = r \cdot \sin(\phi)$$

$$x' = r \cdot \cos(\phi + \theta) = x \cdot \cos(\theta) - y \cdot \sin(\theta)$$

$$y' = r \cdot \sin(\phi + \theta) = x \cdot \sin(\theta) + y \cdot \cos(\theta)$$

Rotation about the z-axis

- ▶ A counterclockwise rotation around the z-axis is equivalent to changing frame, with
 - x and y vectors rotated clockwise around the z axis and
 - a preserved origin



Rotation about the z-axis

$$u_x = \cos(-\theta) \cdot v_x + \sin(-\theta) \cdot v_y + 0 \cdot v_z + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_y = -\sin(-\theta) \cdot v_x + \cos(-\theta) \cdot v_y + 0 \cdot v_z + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$u_z = 0 \cdot v_x + 0 \cdot v_y + 1 \cdot v_z + 0 \cdot P_0$$

$$Q_0 = 0 \cdot v_z + 0 \cdot v_y + 0 \cdot v_z + 1 \cdot P_0$$

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

Rotation about the z-axis

- The matrix to apply to the object is

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \mathbf{R}_z = \mathbf{R}_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation about the x and y axis

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

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

Scaling

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

Concatenation

- ▶ We can form arbitrary affine transformation matrices by multiplying rotation, translation, and scaling matrices
- ▶ Because the same transformation is applied to many vertices, the cost of forming a matrix $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{DCBA}$ is not significant compared to the cost of computing $\mathbf{M}p$ for many vertices p

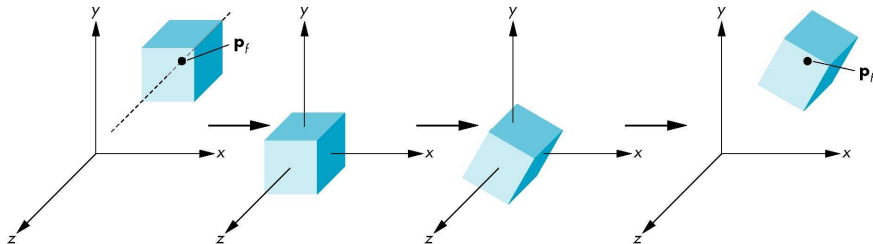
$$p' = \mathbf{CB} \mathbf{A} p = \mathbf{M} p$$

- ▶ Note that the matrix on the right is the first applied
- ▶ The difficult part is how to form a desired transformation from the specifications in the application

Rotation About a Fixed Point other than the Origin

- ▶ Move fixed point to origin
- ▶ Rotate
- ▶ Move fixed point back

$$M = T(P_x, P_y, P_z) \cdot R(\theta) \cdot T(P_x, P_y, P_z)^{-1}$$



Why Homogenous Coordinates Again?

Why use 4D instead of 3D

- ▶ Gives a unique representation of both points and vectors.
- ▶ All affine transformations can be done with matrix multiplications.
 - Translations can not be done as a matrix multiplication using 3D coordinates
- ▶ Can be extended to perspective transformations

General Rotation to a New Frame

- ▶ Assume we have a vector, u_1 and $\|u_1\| = 1$.
- ▶ If we want u_1 to become the x unit vector in a new frame we need a matrix \mathbf{M} such that

$$\mathbf{M}u_1 = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]^T$$

- ▶ This implies we also need two more vectors u_2 and u_3 that will become the new y and z unit vectors in a new frame.
- ▶ Then $u_1 \perp u_2 \perp u_3$ and $u_2 \perp u_3$, and $\|u_1\| = \|u_2\| = \|u_3\| = 1$ must be fulfilled.
- ▶ With an unchanged origo, then also $\mathbf{M}[0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]^T = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]^T$.

General Rotation to a New Frame

Then

$$\mathbf{M} \begin{bmatrix} u_{1x} & u_{2x} & u_{3x} & 0 \\ u_{1y} & u_{2y} & u_{3y} & 0 \\ u_{1z} & u_{2z} & u_{3z} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_4$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1x} & u_{2x} & u_{3x} & 0 \\ u_{1y} & u_{2y} & u_{3y} & 0 \\ u_{1z} & u_{2z} & u_{3z} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \Rightarrow \mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{1x} & u_{2x} & u_{3x} & 0 \\ u_{1y} & u_{2y} & u_{3y} & 0 \\ u_{1z} & u_{2z} & u_{3z} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Because the matrix is *special orthogonal*.

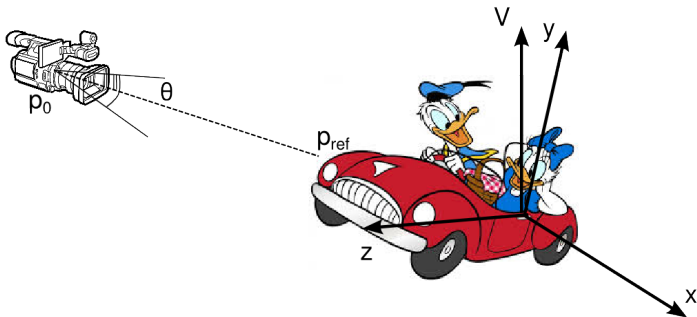
Camera Model

From point - p_0 : The position of the camera, Center of projection, COP.

Look-at Point - p_{ref} : Where the camera is aimed.

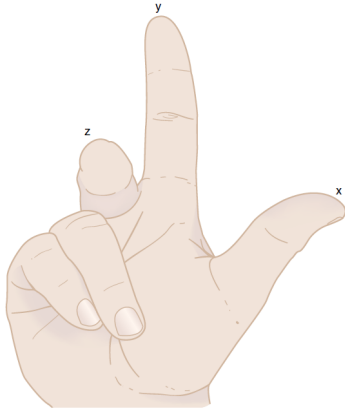
Up vector - V : Defines the up direction.

View angle - θ : Field of view.



Right-Handed Coordinate System

- In OpenGL all coordinate systems are Right-Handed



Viewing Transformation

1. Place an object in world coordinates.
 - Transform object coordinates $p^{(obj)} = (x^{(obj)}, y^{(obj)}, z^{(obj)}, w)$ to world coordinates $p^{(w)} = (x^{(w)}, y^{(w)}, z^{(w)}, w)$.
2. Place to camera in the world
 - Transform world coordinates $p^{(w)}$ to camera (eye) coordinates $p^{(c)}$.
 - p_0 ends up in the origin of the eye coordinate system. p_{ref} ends up on the *negative* z-axis. V vector ends up in the positive Y-Z plane.
3. Project eye coordinates $p^{(c)}$ to normal device coordinates $p^{(ndc)}$.
4. Orthogonal projection to the view port (handled by OpenGL).

1. Object to World Transformation

- ▶ Apply affine transformations to transform (translate, scale, rotate, shear, etc.) an object $w^{(obj)} = T p^{(obj)}$
- ▶ Usually concatenated transformations $T = T_n \dots T_1$
- ▶ In a scene these transformations are ordered in a hierarchy (part of a scene graph)

2. World to Camera Transformation

- ▶ Two transformations
 - A translation
(to move the camera to origin)
 - A rotation of the basis axes to align them with the camera

2. Translation

- ▶ Move the world frame so that the camera is at origin.
- ▶ Apply $T(-p_0)$ to the object
(Corresponds to apply $T(p_0)$ to the frame)

2. Create rotation matrix



The camera's Z-axis in world coordinates

$$n = \frac{p_0 - p_{\text{ref}}}{||p_0 - p_{\text{ref}}||}$$

Z-axis should be mapped to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ in eye coordinates.

2. Create rotation matrix

Vector perpendicular to $p_0 - p_{\text{ref}}$ and V

$$u = \frac{V \times (p_0 - p_{\text{ref}})}{\|V \times (p_0 - p_{\text{ref}})\|} = \frac{V \times n}{\|V \times n\|}$$

X-axis should be mapped to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ in eye coordinates.

2. Create rotation matrix

Vector perpendicular to n and u

$$v = n \times u$$

Y-axis should be mapped to $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ in eye coordinates.

2. Create rotation matrix

Combining all tree conditions

$$\mathbf{M}_{wc} \begin{bmatrix} u & v & n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

\mathbf{M}_{wc} is orthonormal, so

$$\mathbf{M}_{wc}^T = \mathbf{M}_{wc}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}_{cw}$$

2. In Homogenous Coordinates

$$\mathbf{M}_{wc}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 0 \\ u & v & n & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

\mathbf{M}_{wc}^{-1} is special orthogonal, so $\mathbf{M}_{wc}^{-1} = \mathbf{M}_{wc}^T = \mathbf{M}_{cw}$

2. The View Matrix

- ▶ The translation $\mathbf{T}(-p_0)$ and
- ▶ rotation \mathbf{M}_{wc}
- ▶ give the View Matrix \mathbf{V} (Not the Up-vector)

$$\mathbf{V}(p_0, p_{\text{ref}}, V) = \mathbf{M}_{wc} \mathbf{T}(-p_0)$$

General Properties

$$\mathbf{M}_{wc}\mathbf{T}(-p_0)p^{(w)} = \mathbf{V}p^{(w)} = p^{(c)}$$

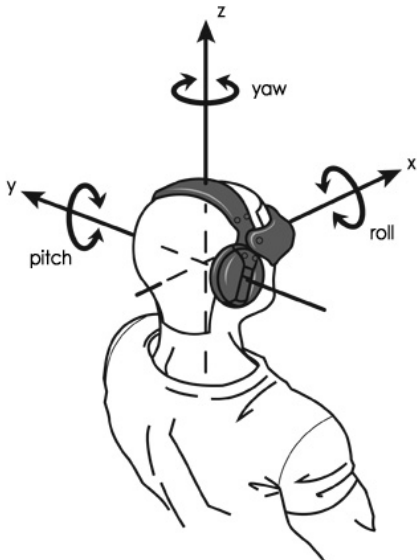
$$\mathbf{V}^{-1} = (\mathbf{M}_{wc}\mathbf{T}(-p_0))^{-1} = \mathbf{T}(p_0)\mathbf{M}_{wc}^T = \mathbf{T}(p_0)\mathbf{M}_{cw}$$

$$p^{(w)} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}p^{(c)} = \mathbf{T}(p_0)\mathbf{M}_{cw}p^{(c)}$$

Same properties for vectors!

$$u^{(w)} = \mathbf{V}^{-1}u^{(c)} = \mathbf{T}(p_0)\mathbf{M}_{cw}u^{(c)}$$

Yaw-Pitch-Roll



Excercises

- ▶ How to change p_0 , p_{ref} , and V when we go "forward" d with the camera?
- ▶ How to change p_0 , p_{ref} , and V when we "roll" (turn right) θ with the camera?
- ▶ How to change p_0 , p_{ref} , and V when we "pitch" θ with the camera?
- ▶ If we express these tranformations in camera coordinates, how do we update the \mathbf{M}_{wc} matrix?

Smooth Rotation

From a practical standpoint, we often want to use transformations to move and reorient an object smoothly

Problem: find a sequence of model-view matrices $\mathbf{M}_0, \mathbf{M}_1, \dots, \mathbf{M}_n$ so that when they are applied successively to one or more objects we see a smooth transition.

Smooth Rotation

Consider the two approaches

- ▶ For a sequence of rotation matrices $\mathbf{R}_0, \mathbf{R}_1, \dots, \mathbf{R}_n$, find the Euler angles for each and use

$$\mathbf{R}_i = \mathbf{R}_{ix} \mathbf{R}_{iy} \mathbf{R}_{iz}$$

- Not very efficient
 - Risk of Gimbal lock
 - hard to get uniform incremental steps.
- ▶ Use the final positions to determine the axis and angle of rotation, then increment only the angle
 - Rotation about an arbitray axis
 - Use properties of eigenvalues

Smooth Rotation

Consider the two approaches

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Quaternions can be more efficient than either

Quaternions

- ▶ Complex numbers can express rotations in 2D. Recalling Euler's identity

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$

we can write a polar representation of a complex number as

$$c = a + ib = re^{i\theta}$$

where $r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a}$.

- ▶ This polar representation gives an expression of rotations in the complex plane.

Quaternions

- ▶ Extension of imaginary numbers from two to three dimensions

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

- ▶ Requires one real and three imaginary components \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j} , and \mathbf{k} .
We can define the quaternion r as

$$r = q_0 + q_1\mathbf{i} + q_2\mathbf{j} + q_3\mathbf{k} = (q_0, \mathbf{q})$$

- ▶ For quaternions we have rules for addition, multiplication, magnitude and inverse.

Quaternions and Rotations

- ▶ Using the quaternion $q = (\cos \frac{\theta}{2}, \mathbf{v} \cdot \sin \frac{\theta}{2})$ describes a rotation of θ degrees around the unit vector \mathbf{v} .
- ▶ Representing a point $\mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)$ as the quaternion $\mathbf{p} = (0, \mathbf{p})$, then $\mathbf{p}' = (0, \mathbf{p}') = q\mathbf{p}q^{-1}$ where
$$\mathbf{p}' = \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} \mathbf{p} + \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{v} + \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} (\mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{v}) + \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{v}$$
gives us \mathbf{p} rotated θ degrees around \mathbf{v} .

Quaternions vs Euler Angles

- ▶ Quaternions use less operations than euler angles
- ▶ Easier to interpolate points over a rotation with quaternions
- ▶ Euler angles can risk gimble locks