# GEOMETRY

Lecturer: Asst. Prof. Ufuk Çelikcan

Based on the slides by: E. Angel and D. Shreiner

#### **Basic Elements**

- Geometry is the study of the relationships among objects in an n-dimensional space
  - In computer graphics, we are interested in objects that exist in 3 dimensions
- Want a minimum set of primitives from which we can build more sophisticated objects
- We will need three basic elements
  - 1. Scalars
  - 2. Vectors
  - 3. Points

### Coordinate-Free Geometry

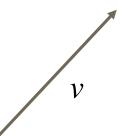
- When we learned simple geometry, most of us started with a Cartesian approach
  - Points at locations in space p=(x,y,z)
  - We derived results by algebraic manipulations involving these coordinates
- This approach is nonphysical
  - Physically, points exist regardless of the location of an arbitrary coordinate system
  - Most geometric results are independent of the coordinate system
    - Example: Euclidean geometry: two triangles are identical if two corresponding sides and the angle between them are identical

### Scalars

- Scalars can be defined as members of sets
  - which can be combined by two operations: addition and multiplication
  - obeying some fundamental axioms: associativity, commutativity, inverses
- Examples include the real and complex number systems under the ordinary rules with which we are familiar.
- Scalars alone have no geometric properties

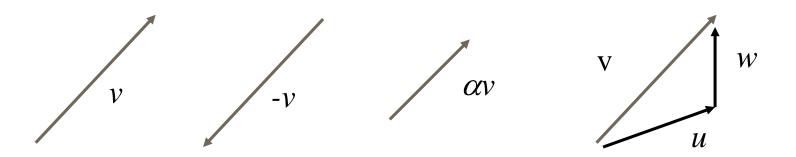
#### Vectors

- Physical definition:
- a vector is a quantity with two attributes
  - Direction
  - Magnitude
- Examples include
  - Force
  - Velocity
  - Directed line segments
    - Most important example for graphics
    - Can map to other types



### **Vector Operations**

- Every vector has an inverse
  - Same magnitude but points in opposite direction
- Every vector can be multiplied by a scalar
- There is a zero vector
  - Zero magnitude, undefined orientation
- The sum of any two vectors is a vector
  - Use head-to-tail axiom



### Linear Vector Spaces

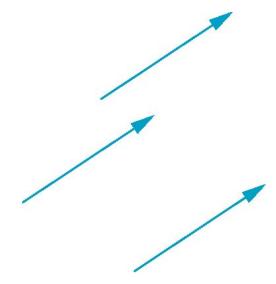
- Mathematical system for manipulating vectors
- Operations
  - scalar-vector multiplication  $u = \alpha v$
  - vector-vector addition: W = U + V
- Expressions such as

$$v=u+2w-3r$$

make sense in a vector space

#### **Vectors Lack Position**

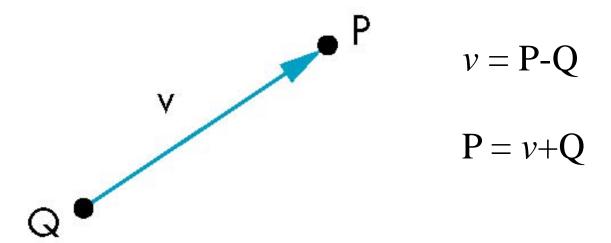
- These vectors are identical
  - Same length and magnitude



- >> Vector spaces insufficient for geometry
  - >> Need points too

#### **Points**

- Location in space
- Operations allowed between points and vectors
  - Point-point subtraction >> yields a vector
    - Equivalent to point-vector addition



- Geometrically, curves and surfaces are usually considered to be sets of points with some special properties, living in a space consisting of "points."
- Typically, one is also interested in geometric properties invariant under certain transformations, for example, translations, rotations, projections, etc.
- One could model the space of points as a vector space, but this is not very satisfactory for a number of reasons.
  - One reason is that the point corresponding to the zero vector (0), called the origin, plays a special role, when there is really no reason to have a privileged origin.
  - Another reason is that certain notions, such as parallelism, are handled in an awkward manner.
  - But the deeper reason is that vector spaces and affine spaces really have different geometries.
- Affine spaces provide a better framework for doing geometry.

- In particular, it is possible to deal with points, curves, surfaces, etc., in an intrinsic manner, that is, independently of any specific choice of a coordinate system.
  - As in physics, this is highly desirable to really understand what is going on.
  - Affine spaces are the right framework for dealing with motions, trajectories, and physical forces, among other things. Thus, affine geometry is crucial to a clean presentation of kinematics, dynamics, and other parts of physics (for example, elasticity).

Also, given an mxn matrix A and a vector b ∈ R^m, the set U = {x ∈ R^n | Ax = b} of solutions of the system Ax = b is an affine space, but not a vector space (linear space) in general.

- no specific point that serves as an origin.
  - >> no vector has a fixed origin and no vector can be uniquely associated to a point.
- instead, there are displacement vectors between two points of the space.
  - Thus it makes sense to subtract two points of the space, giving a vector,
    - but it does not make sense to add two points of the space.
  - Likewise, it makes sense to add a vector to a point, resulting in a new point displaced from the starting point by that vector.
- Of course, coordinate systems have to be chosen to finally carry out computations, but one should learn to resist the temptation to resort to coordinate systems until it is really necessary.
- Should use coordinate systems only when needed.

- Points + a vector space
  - Points are typically used to position ourselves in space and vectors are use to move about in space.

#### Operations

- Vector-vector addition
- Scalar-vector multiplication
- Point-vector addition
- Scalar-scalar operations

#### For any point define

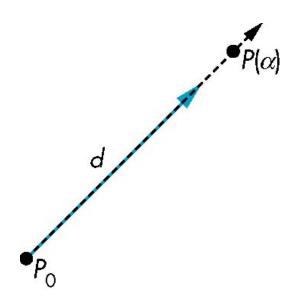
- $1 \bullet P = P$
- 0 P = **0** (zero vector)

### Lines

Consider all points of the form

$$P(\alpha)=P_0+\alpha \mathbf{d}$$

>> Set of all points that pass through  $P_0$  in the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{d}$ 



### Parametric Form

#### Two-dimensional forms

- 1. Explicit form: y = mx + h
- 2. Implicit form: ax + by + c = 0

#### 3. Parametric form:

$$x(\alpha) = \alpha x_0 + (1-\alpha)x_1$$
$$y(\alpha) = \alpha y_0 + (1-\alpha)y_1$$

#### parametric form of the line

- More robust and general than other forms
- Extends to curves and surfaces

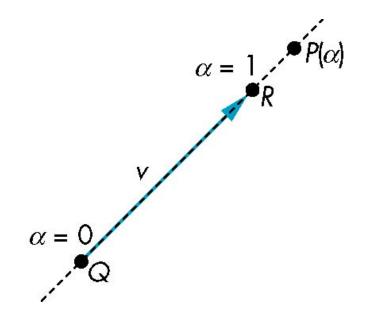
### Rays and Line Segments

• If  $\alpha >= 0$ , then  $P(\alpha)$  is the **ray** leaving  $P_0$  in the direction **d** 

If we use two points to define v, then

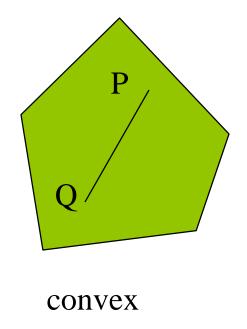
$$P(\alpha) = Q + \alpha (R-Q) = Q + \alpha v$$
$$= \alpha R + (1-\alpha)Q$$

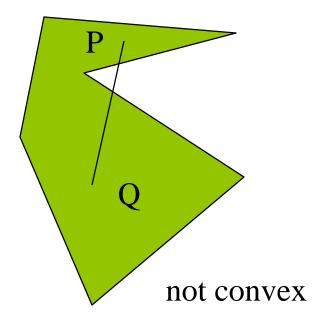
For  $0 <= \alpha <= 1$  we get all the points on the *line segment* joining R and Q



## Convexity

 An object is convex iff for any 2 points in the object all points on the line segment between these 2 points are also in the object





### Affine Sums

Consider the "sum"

$$P = \alpha_1 P_1 + \alpha_2 P_2 + \dots + \alpha_n P_n$$

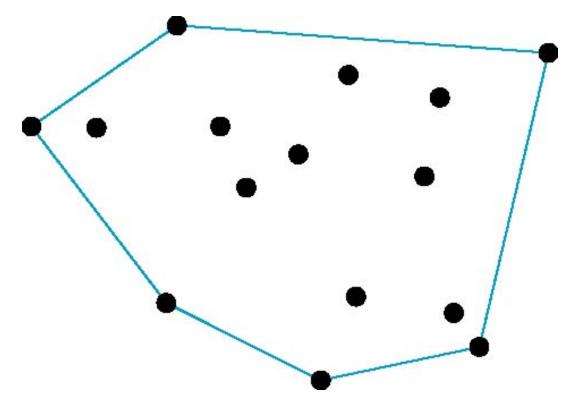
Can show by induction that this sum makes sense iff  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n = 1$ 

in which case we have the *affine sum* (affine combination) of the points  $P_1, P_2, .....P_n$ 

- If, in addition,  $\alpha_i >= 0$ , then we have the *convex hull* of  $P_1, P_2, \dots P_n$ 
  - Convex combinations are simply affine combinations where the constants in the combination are limited to be in the interval [0,1].

### Convex Hull

- Smallest convex object containing P<sub>1</sub>,P<sub>2</sub>,....P<sub>n</sub>
  - The set of all points P that can be written as convex combinations of  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$
- Formed by "shrink wrapping" points

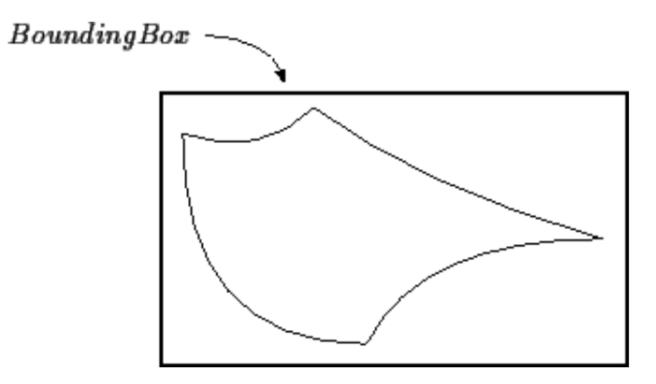


### Convex Hull

- Convex combinations are an extremely important concept in computer graphics and geometric modeling.
- The convex-hull concept will allow us to take a set of points, put a **bounding box** about the set of points, and since the bounding box is convex, we are insured that the convex-hull of the set of points is also contained in the bounding box.
- These bounding boxes are the method that we can use to "keep track of" objects without having to continually reference the object's complex mathematical definition.
  - In many cases, a bounding box can be placed about the object and the algorithms can refer to the box when necessary, rather than the object.

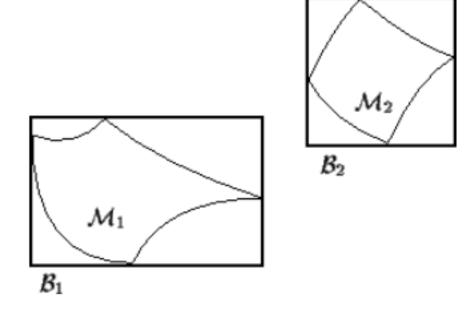
### **Bounding Box**

 A bounding box for an object is just a rectangular box in three-dimensional space, with sides parallel to the coordinate planes, that contains (or surrounds) the object. This illustration below shows a two-dimensional box surrounding a curved object.



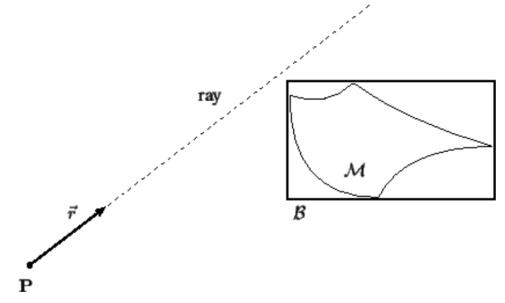
### A Simple Intersection Test

- If we have two complex models M1 and M2 and we wish to see if these models do not intersect, we can use a "bounding-box test" to give a quick initial answer.
- If B1 and B2 are bounding boxes containing M1 and M2 respectively, it is easily seen that M1 and M2 cannot intersect if the two bounding boxes do not intersect.



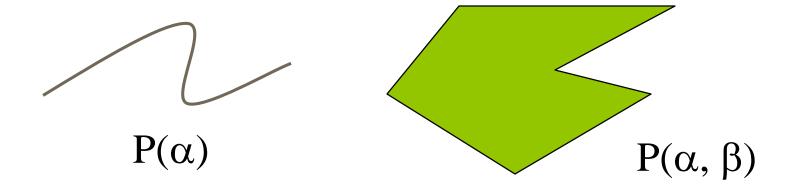
### A Ray/Object Intersection Test

- Want to see if a ray intersects a model M. This is normally a complex operation, and we can simplify it somewhat by using a simple "bounding-box test" to see if the ray misses M.
- By placing a bounding box B around M, we first see if the ray hits B, and if not, we know that the ray does not hit the model M.
- Of course, if the ray hits the bounding box, we then must test it against
  M for intersection which may be expensive. But by testing first against
  the bounding box, we can eliminate a number of complex expensive
  calculations.



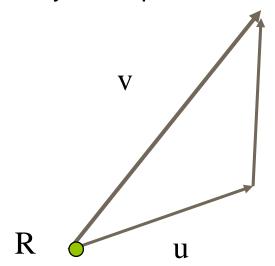
### **Curves and Surfaces**

- Curves are one parameter entities of the form  $P(\alpha)$  where the function is nonlinear
- Surfaces are formed from two-parameter functions  $P(\alpha, \beta)$ 
  - Linear functions give planes and polygons

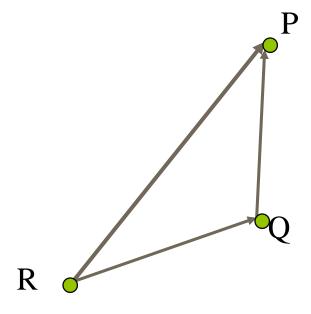


### **Planes**

- A plane can be defined by
  - a point and two vectors
  - or by three points

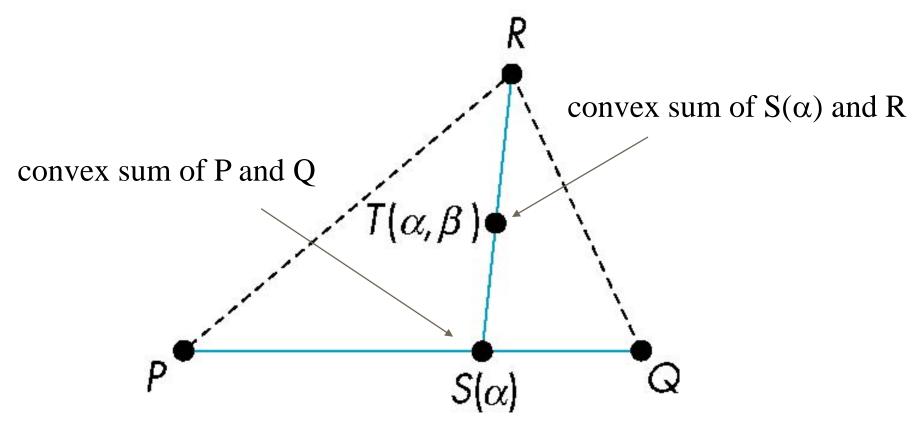


$$P(\alpha,\beta)=R+\alpha u+\beta v$$



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

# Triangles



for  $0 \le \alpha$ ,  $\beta \le 1$ , we get all points in triangle

### Barycentric Coordinates

Triangle is convex so any point inside can be represented as an affine combination

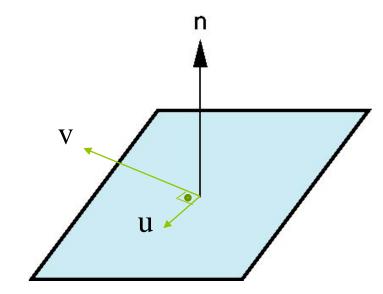
$$P(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = \alpha_1 P + \alpha_2 Q + \alpha_3 R$$
 where 
$$\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 1$$
 
$$\alpha_i >= 0$$

The representation is called the **barycentric coordinate** representation of P

### **Normals**

- Every plane has a vector n normal (perpendicular, orthogonal) to it
- From point & two vector form:  $P(\alpha,\beta) = R + \alpha u + \beta v$ , we know we can use the cross product to find  $n = u \times v$  and the equivalent form

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



# REPRESENTATION

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### Linear Independence

- A set of vectors  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$  is linearly independent if  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + ... \alpha_n v_n = 0$  iff  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = ... = 0$
- If a set of vectors is linearly independent, we cannot represent one in terms of the others
- If a set of vectors is linearly dependent, at least one of them can be written in terms of the others

### Dimension

- In a vector space, the maximum number of linearly independent vectors is fixed and is called the dimension of the space
- In an n-dimensional space, any set of n linearly independent vectors form a basis for the space
- Given a basis  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ , any vector v can be written as

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

where the  $\{\alpha_i\}$  are unique

### Representation

- Until now we have been able to work with geometric entities without using any frame of reference, such as a coordinate system
- Now, need a frame of reference to relate points and objects to our physical world.
  - For example, where is a point exactly? Can't answer without a reference system
    - World coordinates
    - Camera coordinates

### Coordinate Systems

- Consider a basis  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$
- A vector is written as  $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + .... + \alpha_n v_n$
- The list of scalars  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, .... \alpha_n\}$  is the *representation* of v with respect to the given basis
- We can write the representation as a row or a column array of scalars

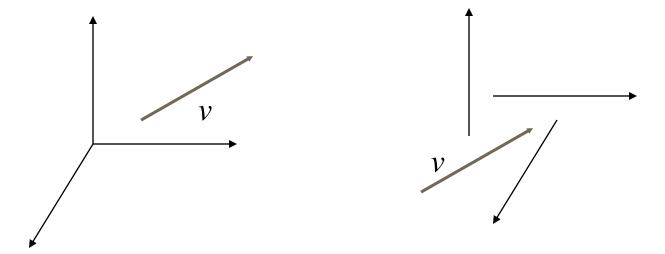
$$\mathbf{a} = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \dots \ \alpha_n]^T = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ . \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

### Example

- $v = 2v_1 + 3v_2 4v_3$
- a=?
- $\mathbf{a} = [2\ 3\ -4]^{\mathrm{T}}$
- Note that this representation is with respect to a particular basis.
- For example, in OpenGL
  - we start by representing vectors using the <u>object basis</u>
  - but later the system needs a representation in terms of the camera/eye basis

### Coordinate Systems

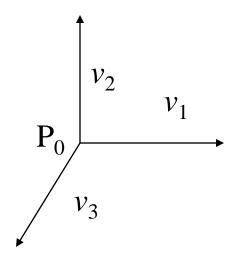
Which is correct?



Both are correct, because vectors have no fixed location

### Frames

- A coordinate system by itself is insufficient to represent points
- If we work in an affine space, we can add a single point, the *origin*, to the basis vectors to form a *frame*



# Representation in a Frame

- Frame determined by  $(P_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$
- Within this frame, every vector can be written as

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

Every point can be written as

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + .... + \beta_n v_n$$

# Confusing Points and Vectors

Consider the point and the vector

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + .... + \beta_n v_n$$

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + .... + \alpha_n v_n$$

They appear to have the similar representations

$$\mathbf{p} = [\beta_1 \ \beta_2 \ \beta_3]$$
  $\mathbf{v} = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3]$  which confuses the point with the vector  $\mathbf{v}$   $\mathbf{p}$   $\mathbf{A}$  vector has no position

Vector can be placed anywhere

point: fixed

# A Single Representation

>> If we define  $0 \cdot P = 0$  and  $1 \cdot P = P$  then we can write

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3 = [\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 0] [v_1 v_2 v_3 P_0]^T$$

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + \beta_3 v_3 = [\beta_1 \beta_2 \beta_3 1] [v_1 v_2 v_3 P_0]^T$$

Thus we obtain the four-dimensional homogeneous coordinate representation

$$\mathbf{v} = [\alpha_1 \, \alpha_2 \, \alpha_3 \, 0]^T$$
$$\mathbf{p} = [\beta_1 \, \beta_2 \, \beta_3 \, 1]^T$$

# Homogeneous Coordinates

 The homogeneous coordinates form of a three dimensional point [x y z] is given as

$$\mathbf{p} = [x', y', z', w]^T = [wx wy wz w]^T$$

• We return to a three dimensional point (for  $w\neq 0$ ) by

$$x \leftarrow x'/w$$
  
 $y \leftarrow y'/w$   
 $z \leftarrow z'/w$ 

- If w=0, the representation is that of a vector
- Note: homogeneous coordinates replaces points in
   3-dimensions by lines through the origin in 4-dimensions
- For w=1, the representation of a point is [x y z 1]

# Homogeneous Coordinates and Computer Graphics

- Homogeneous coordinates are key to all computer graphics systems
  - All standard transformations (rotation, translation, scaling) can be implemented with matrix multiplications using 4 x 4 matrices
  - Hardware pipeline works with 4 dimensional representations
  - For orthographic viewing, we can maintain  $w\!=\!0$  for vectors and  $w\!=\!1$  for points
  - For perspective we need a perspective division

# Change of Coordinate Systems

 Consider two representations of the same vector with respect to two different bases. The representations are

$$\mathbf{a} = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3]$$
$$\mathbf{b} = [\beta_1 \ \beta_2 \ \beta_3]$$

where

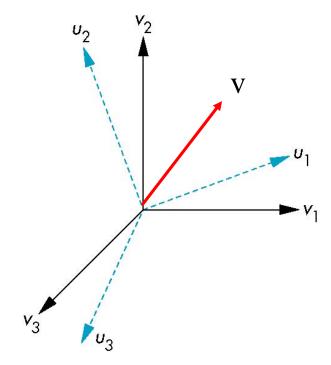
$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \alpha_3 v_3 = [\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3] [v_1 v_2 v_3]^T$$

$$= \beta_1 u_1 + \beta_2 u_2 + \beta_3 u_3 = [\beta_1 \beta_2 \beta_3] [u_1 u_2 u_3]^{\mathrm{T}}$$

### Representing second basis in terms of first

Each of the basis vectors, u1,u2, u3, are vectors that can be represented in terms of the first basis

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= \gamma_{11} v_1 + \gamma_{12} v_2 + \gamma_{13} v_3 \\ u_2 &= \gamma_{21} v_1 + \gamma_{22} v_2 + \gamma_{23} v_3 \\ u_3 &= \gamma_{31} v_1 + \gamma_{32} v_2 + \gamma_{33} v_3 \end{aligned}$$



#### **Matrix Form**

The coefficients define a 3 x 3 matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} \\ \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

and the bases can be related by

$$a=M^Tb$$

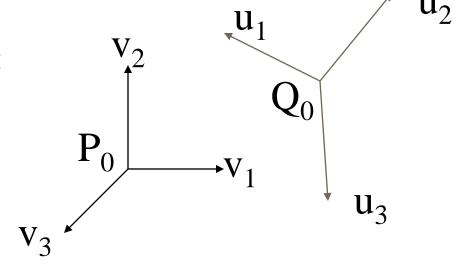
see the textbook for numerical examples

# Change of Frames

 We can apply a similar process in homogeneous coordinates to the representations of both points and vectors

Consider two frames:

$$(P_0, v_1, v_2, v_3)$$
  
 $(Q_0, u_1, u_2, u_3)$ 



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

#### Representing One Frame in Terms of the Other

#### Extending what we did with change of bases

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= \gamma_{11} v_1 + \gamma_{12} v_2 + \gamma_{13} v_3 \\ u_2 &= \gamma_{21} v_1 + \gamma_{22} v_2 + \gamma_{23} v_3 \\ u_3 &= \gamma_{31} v_1 + \gamma_{32} v_2 + \gamma_{33} v_3 \\ Q_0 &= \gamma_{41} v_1 + \gamma_{42} v_2 + \gamma_{43} v_3 + \gamma_{44} P_0 \end{aligned}$$

defining a 4 x 4 matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma_{11} & \gamma_{12} & \gamma_{13} & 0 \\ \gamma_{21} & \gamma_{22} & \gamma_{23} & 0 \\ \gamma_{31} & \gamma_{32} & \gamma_{33} & 0 \\ \gamma_{41} & \gamma_{42} & \gamma_{43} & \gamma_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Working with Representations

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

$$\mathbf{a} = [\alpha_1 \ \alpha_2 \ \alpha_3 \ \alpha_4]$$
 in the first frame  $\mathbf{b} = [\beta_1 \ \beta_2 \ \beta_3 \ \beta_4]$  in the second frame

where  $\alpha_4 = \beta_4 = 1$  for points and  $\alpha_4 = \beta_4 = 0$  for vectors and

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{b}$$

The matrix M is 4 x 4 and specifies an affine transformation in homogeneous coordinates

### **Affine Transformations**

- Every linear transformation is equivalent to a change in frames
- Every affine transformation preserves lines
  - preserves collinearity: so Affine Transformations
    - transform parallel lines into parallel lines
    - and preserve ratios of distances along parallel lines.
- However, an affine transformation has only 12 degrees
   of freedom because 4 of the elements in the matrix are
   fixed and are a subset of all possible 4 x 4 linear
   transformations

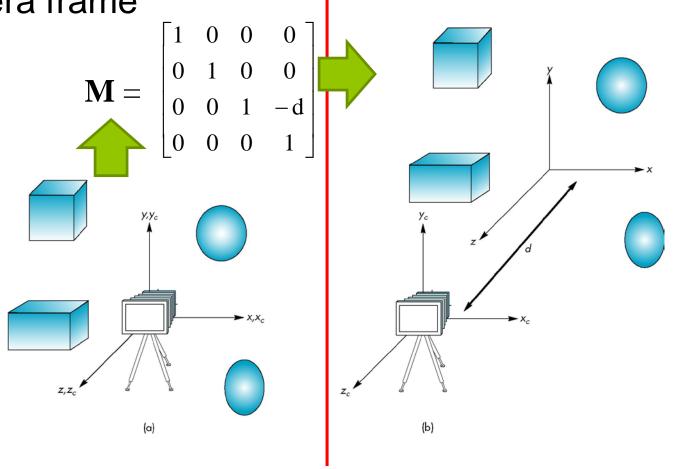
#### The World and Camera Frames

- When we work with representations, we work with n-tuples (arrays of n scalars)
- Changes in frame are then defined by 4 x 4 matrices
- In OpenGL, the base frame that we start with is the world frame
- Eventually we represent entities in the camera frame by changing the world representation using the model-view matrix
- Initially these frames are the same (M=I) until we change them using the model-view matrix

# Moving the Camera

If objects are on both sides of z=0, we must move

camera frame



# TRANSFORMATIONS

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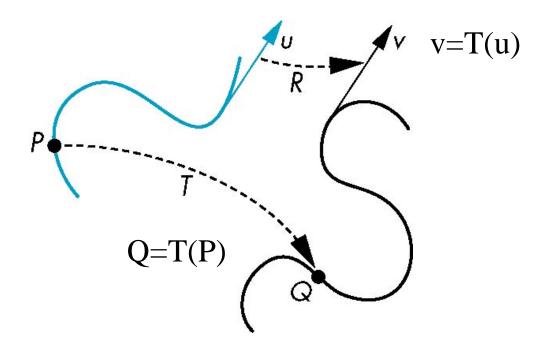
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### **General Transformations**

#### A transformation

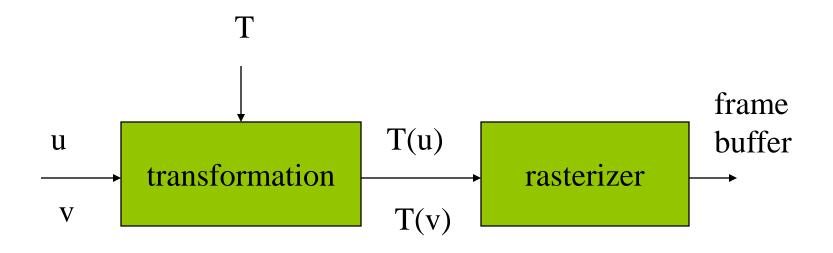
- maps points to other points
- and/or maps vectors to other vectors

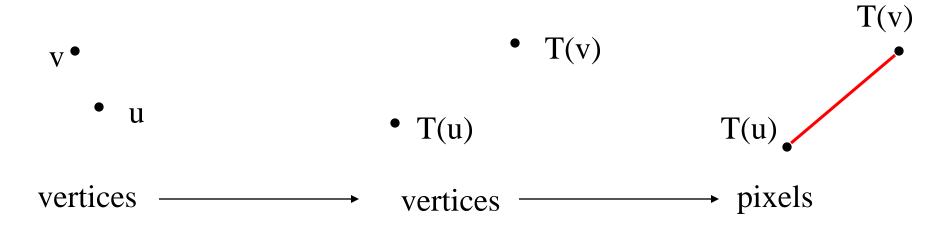


### **Affine Transformations**

- Line preserving
- Characteristic of many physically important transformations
  - Rigid body transformations: rotation, translation
  - Scaling, shear
- Importance in computer graphics is that:
  - we need to transform only endpoints of line segments
  - and let implementation draw line segment between the transformed endpoints

# Pipeline Implementation





#### **Notation**

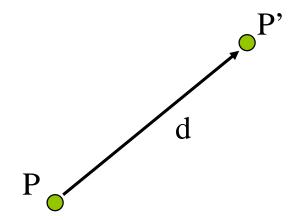
We will be working with both: coordinate-free representations of transformations and representations within a particular frame

#### Our choice of notation:

- P,Q, R: points in an affine space
- u, v, w: vectors in an affine space
- $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ : scalars
- p, q, r: representations of points
   -array of 4 scalars in homogeneous coordinates
- u, v, w: representations of vectors
   -array of 4 scalars in homogeneous coordinates

#### **Translation**

Move (translate, displace) a point to a new location



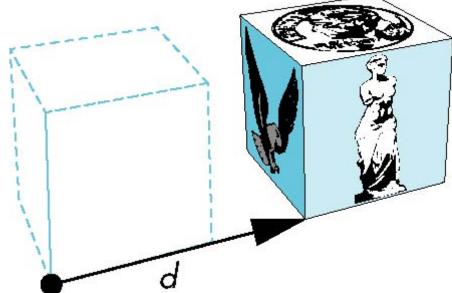
- Displacement determined by a vector d
  - Three degrees of freedom
  - P'=P+d

# How many ways?

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



object



translation: every point displaced by same vector

# Translation Using Representations

Using the homogeneous coordinate representation in some frame

$$\mathbf{p} = [x \ y \ z \ 1]^{T}$$
  
 $\mathbf{p}' = [x' \ y' \ z' \ 1]^{T}$   
 $\mathbf{d} = [dx \ dy \ dz \ 0]^{T}$ 

Hence  $\mathbf{p'} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{d}$  or

$$x'=x+d_X$$
 $y'=y+d_Y$ 
 $z'=z+d_Z$ 

note that this expression is in four dimensions and expresses point = vector + point

#### **Translation Matrix**

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

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}(d_{x}, d_{y}, d_{z}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & d_{x} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & d_{y} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & d_{z} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

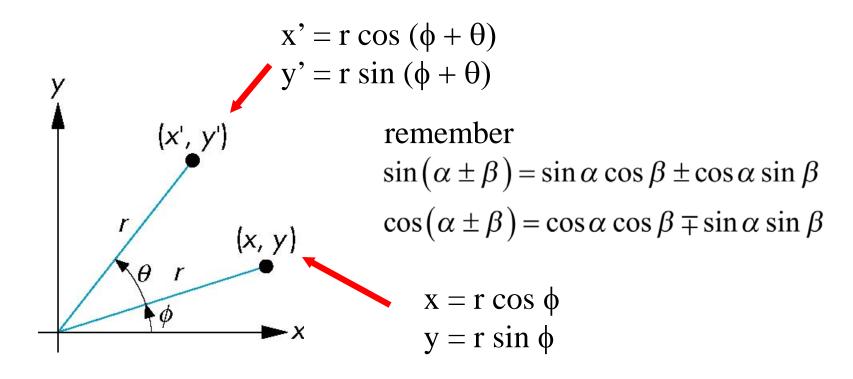
#### This form is better for implementation because

- all affine transformations can be expressed this way
- and multiple transformations can be concatenated together

# Rotation (2D)

#### Consider rotation about the origin by $\theta$ degrees

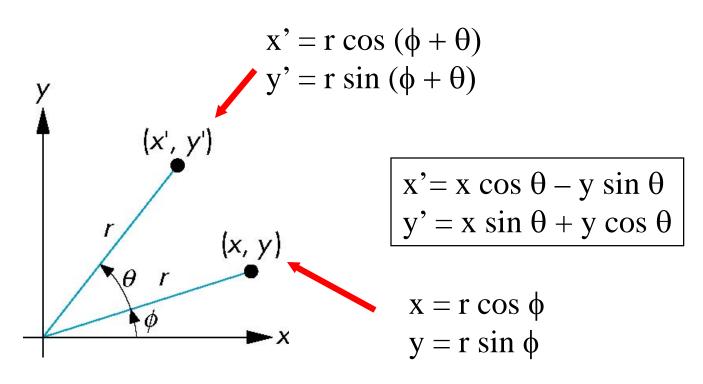
• radius stays the same, angle increases by  $\theta$ 



# Rotation (2D)

#### Consider rotation about the origin by $\theta$ degrees

• radius stays the same, angle increases by  $\theta$ 



#### Rotation about the z-axis

- Rotation about z-axis in three dimensions leaves all points with the same z
  - 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

$$\mathbf{p}' = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{\theta}) \mathbf{p}$$

#### **Rotation Matrix**

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

# Rotation about x and y axes

- Same argument as for rotation about z-axis
  - For rotation about x-axis >> x is unchanged
  - For rotation about y-axis >> y is unchanged

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

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

# Scaling

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

$$\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{s}_{x} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{y}' = \mathbf{s}_{y} \mathbf{x}$$

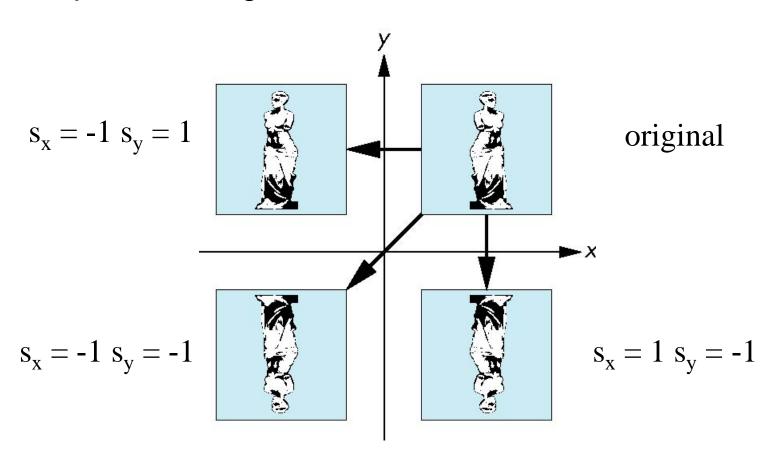
$$\mathbf{z}' = \mathbf{S}_{z} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{p}' = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{p}$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{s}_{x}, \mathbf{s}_{y}, \mathbf{s}_{z}) = \begin{bmatrix} s_{x} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_{y} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_{z} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Reflection

corresponds to negative scale factors



#### Inverses

- Although we could compute inverse matrices by general formulas, we can use simple geometric observations
  - Translation:  $\mathbf{T}^{-1}(d_x, d_y, d_z) = \mathbf{T}(-d_x, -d_y, -d_z)$
  - Rotation:  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta) = \mathbf{R}(-\theta)$ 
    - Holds for any rotation matrix
    - Note that since  $\cos(-\theta) = \cos(\theta)$  and  $\sin(-\theta) = -\sin(\theta)$ >>  $\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\theta) = \mathbf{R} (-\theta) = \mathbf{R}^{\mathrm{T}}(\theta)$
  - Scaling:  $S^{-1}(s_x, s_y, s_z) = S(1/s_x, 1/s_y, 1/s_z)$

### Concatenation

- We can form arbitrary affine transformation matrices by multiplying together rotation, translation, and scaling matrices in any order
- Because the same transformation is applied to many vertices, the cost of forming a matrix
   M=ABCD is not significant compared to the cost of computing Mp for many vertices p
- The difficult part is how to form a desired transformation from the specifications in the application

### Order of Transformations

- Note that matrix on the right is the first applied
- Mathematically, the following are equivalent
   p' = ABCp = A(B(Cp))
- Note that many references use column matrices to represent points. In terms of column matrices

$$\mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

# General Rotation About the Origin

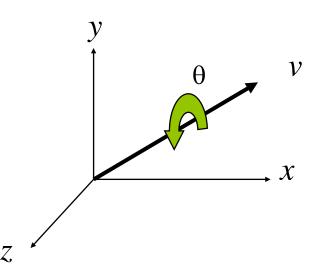
A rotation by  $\theta$  about an arbitrary axis can be decomposed into the concatenation of rotations about the x, y, and z axes

$$\mathbf{R}(\theta) = \mathbf{R}_{z}(\theta_{z}) \; \mathbf{R}_{y}(\theta_{y}) \; \mathbf{R}_{x}(\theta_{x})$$

 $\theta_x\,\theta_y\,\theta_z$  are called the Euler angles

Note: rotations do not commute.

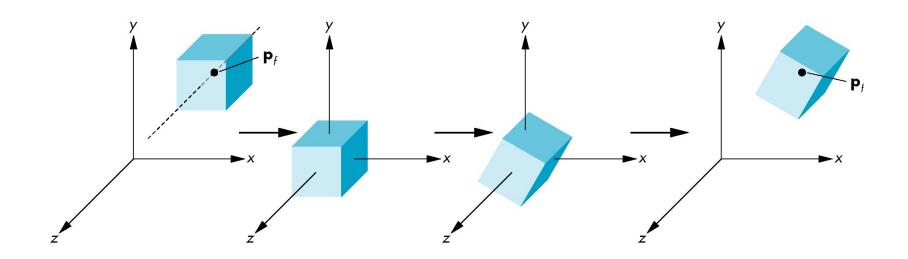
>> We can use rotations in another order but with different angles.



### Rotation About a Fixed Point other than the Origin

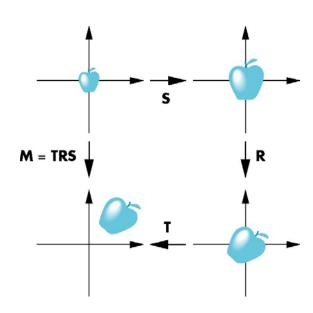
- Move fixed point to origin
- 2. Rotate
- 3. Move fixed point back

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{p}_{f}) \mathbf{R}(\theta) \mathbf{T}(-\mathbf{p}_{f})$$



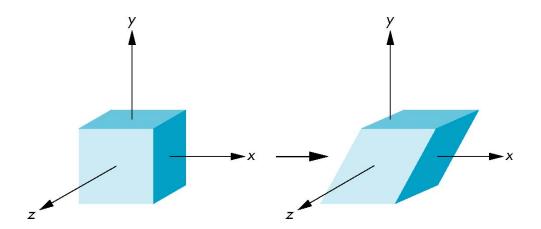
# Instancing

- 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



### Shear

- Helpful to add one more basic transformation
- Equivalent to pulling faces in opposite directions

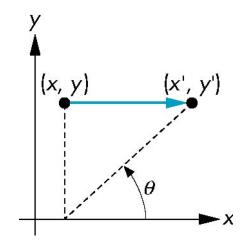


#### **Shear Matrix**

Consider a simple shear along *x*-axis

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

$$\mathbf{H}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \cot \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# OPENGL TRANSFORMATIONS

Lecturer: Asst. Prof. Ufuk Çelikcan

Based on the slides by: E. Angel and D. Shreiner

### Objectives

- Learn how to carry out transformations in OpenGL
  - Rotation
  - Translation
  - Scaling
- Introduce mat.h and vec.h transformations
  - Model-view
  - Projection

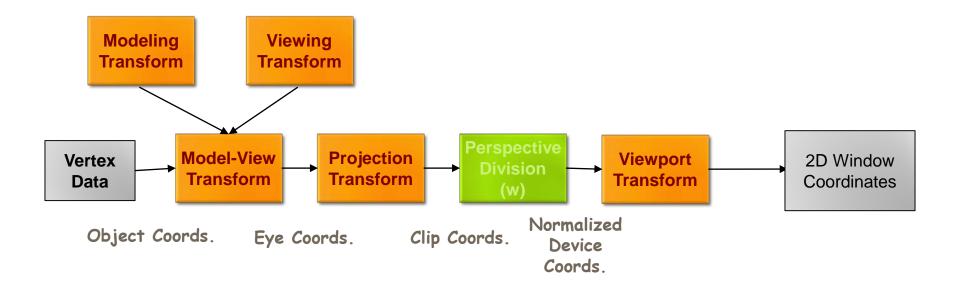
### 3D Transformations

- A vertex is transformed by 4x4 matrices
  - all affine operations are matrix multiplications
- Perspective projections and translations require the 4<sup>th</sup> row and column.
  - Otherwise, these operations would require a vector-addition operation, in addition to the matrix multiplication.
  - For operations other than perspective projection, the fourth row is always (0, 0, 0, 1) which leaves the w-coordinate unchanged..
- All matrices are stored column-major in OpenGL
  - this is opposite of what "C" programmers expect
- Matrices are always post-multiplied
  - product of matrix and vector is  $\mathbf{M}\vec{v}$

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_0 & m_4 & m_8 & m_{12} \\ m_1 & m_5 & m_9 & m_{13} \\ m_2 & m_6 & m_{10} & m_{14} \\ m_3 & m_7 & m_{11} & m_{15} \end{bmatrix}$$

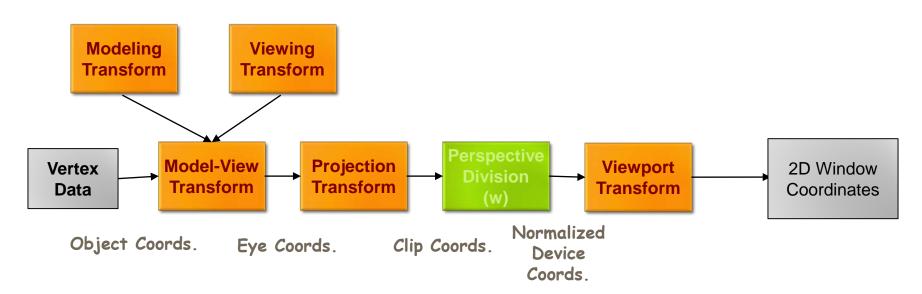
#### **Transformations**

- The processing required for converting a vertex from 3D or 4D space into a 2D window coordinate is done by the transform stage of the graphics pipeline. The operations in that stage are illustrated below.
  - The orange boxes represent a matrix multiplication operation.
- Transformations take us from one "space" to another
  - All of our transforms are 4x4 matrices



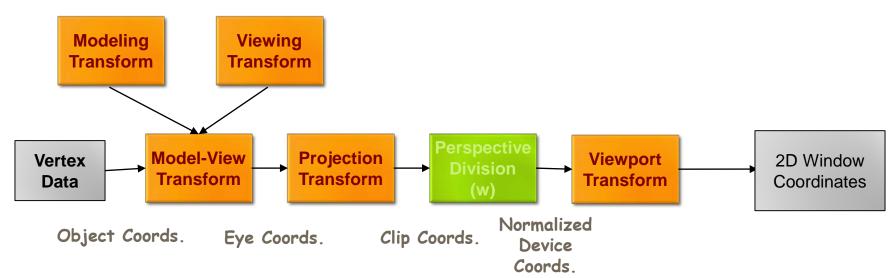
#### **Transformations**

- When we want to draw a geometric object, like a chair for instance, we first determine all
  of the vertices that we want to associate with the chair.
- Next, we determine how those vertices should be grouped to form geometric primitives, and the order we're going to send them to the graphics subsystem. This process is called *modeling*. Quite often, we'll model an object in its own 3D coordinate system (called **object coordinates**, also called as **model coordinates**).
- When we want to add that object into the scene we're developing, we need to determine
  its world coordinates.
- We do this by specifying a modeling transformation, which tells the system how to move from one coordinate system to another. i.e., modeling transforms bring the object into world space.



#### **Transformations**

- Viewing transformations dictate where the viewing frustum is in world coordinates.
- Modeling transforms, in combination with viewing transforms, are the first transformation that a vertex goes through.
- After model-view transformations, vertices are at the eye coordinates (camera coordinates) where the camera [ =eye ] works in.
- Next, the projection transform is applied which maps the vertex into clip coordinates, which is where clipping occurs.
- After clipping, we divide by the w value of the vertex (perpective division), which is
  modified by projection. This division operation is what allows the farther-objects-beingsmaller activity.
- The transformed, clipped coordinates are then mapped into the window (viewport transform).



#### Camera Analogy and Transformations

- Modeling transformations >> world coordinates
  - moving the model in the scene
- Viewing transformations >> eye coordinates
  - tripod—define position and orientation of the camera in the world
  - Can be done by rotations and translations but is often easier to use LookAt()
- Projection transformations >> clip coordinates
  - adjust the lens of the camera
  - The projection matrix is used to define the view volume and to select a camera lens
- Viewport transformations >> screen coordinates
  - enlarge or reduce the physical photograph

#### Model-view and Projection Matrices

- Although both are manipulated by the same functions, we have to be careful because incremental changes are always made by postmultiplication
  - For example, rotating model-view and projection matrices by the same matrix are not equivalent operations. Postmultiplication of the model-view matrix is equivalent to premultiplication of the projection 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  $\mathbf{M}_0$ ,  $\mathbf{M}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{M}_n$  so that when they are applied successively to one or more objects we see a smooth transition
- >> For orientating an object, we can use the fact that every rotation corresponds to part of a great circle on a sphere
  - Find the axis of rotation and angle
  - Virtual trackball (see text)

#### Incremental Rotation

- Consider the two approaches
  - a) For a sequence of rotation matrices  $R_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n$ , find the Euler angles for each and use  $R_i = R_{iz} \, R_{iy} \, R_{ix}$ 
    - Not very efficient
  - instead: Use the final positions to determine the axis and angle of rotation, then increment only the angle
- Quaternions can be more efficient than either
  - But we keep those for advanced computer graphics class

### Interfaces

- One of the major problems in interactive computer graphics is how to use two-dimensional devices such as a mouse to interface with three dimensional objects
- Example: how to form an instance matrix?
- Some alternatives
  - Virtual trackball
  - 3D input devices such as the spaceball
  - Use areas of the screen
    - Distance from center controls angle, position, scale depending on mouse button depressed

## **BUILDING MODELS**

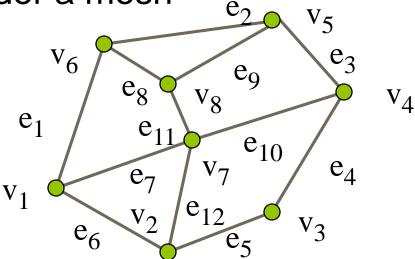
Lecturer: Asst. Prof. Ufuk Çelikcan

Based on the slides by: E. Angel and D.

Shreiner

### Representing a Mesh

Consider a mesh



- There are 8 nodes and 12 edges
  - 5 interior polygons
  - 6 interior (shared) edges
- Each vertex has a location  $v_i = (x_i y_i z_i)$

### Simple Representation

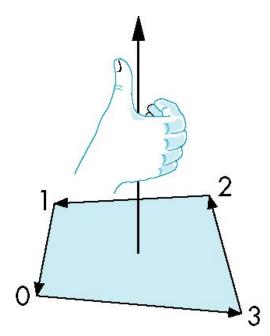
- Define each polygon by the geometric locations of its vertices
- Leads to OpenGL code such as

```
vertex[i] = vec3(x1, x1, x1);
vertex[i+1] = vec3(x6, x6, x6);
vertex[i+2] = vec3(x7, x7, x7);
i+=3;
```

- Inefficient and unstructured
  - For example: Consider moving a vertex to a new location
    - Must search for all occurrences

## Inward and Outward Facing Polygons

- The order  $\{v_1, v_6, v_7\}$  and  $\{v_6, v_7, v_1\}$  are equivalent in that the same polygon will be rendered by OpenGL but the order  $\{v_1, v_7, v_6\}$  is different
- The first two describe outwardly facing polygons
- Use the *right-hand rule* = counter-clockwise encirclement of outward-pointing normal
- OpenGL can treat inward and outward facing polygons differently



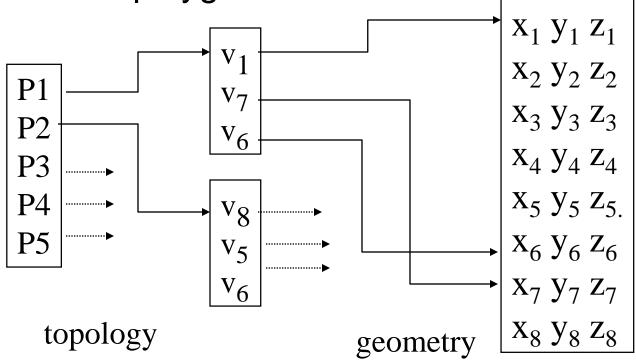
### Geometry vs Topology

- Generally it is a good idea to look for data structures that separate the geometry from the topology
  - Geometry: locations of the vertices
  - Topology: organization of the vertices and edges
    - Example: a polygon is an ordered list of vertices with an edge connecting successive pairs of vertices and the last to the first
  - Topology holds even if geometry changes

### Vertex Lists

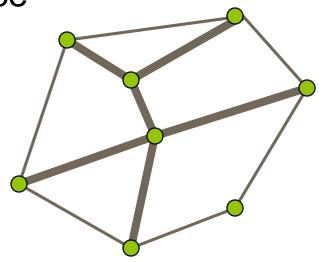
- Put the geometry in an array
- Use pointers from the vertices into this array

Introduce a polygon list



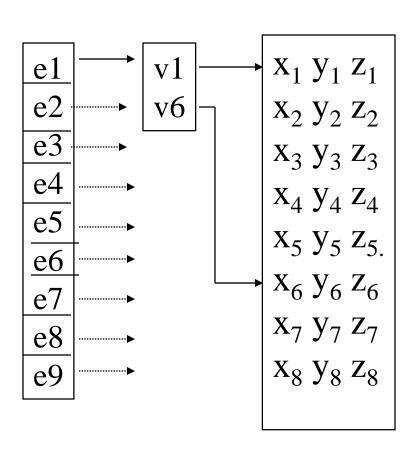
### Shared Edges

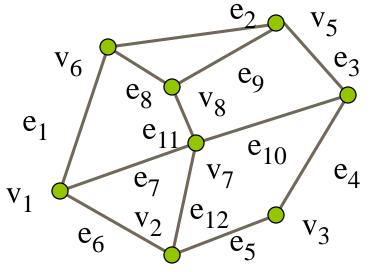
 Vertex lists will draw filled polygons correctly but if we draw the polygon by its edges, shared edges are drawn twice



Better Alternative: Can store mesh by edge list

## Edge List





Note: polygons are not represented

### Modeling a Cube

Model a color cube for the rotating cube program

Define global arrays for vertices and colors

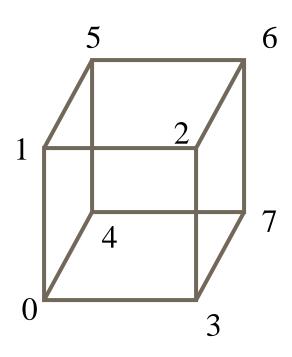
### Drawing a triangle from a list of indices

Draw a triangle from a list of indices into the array vertices and assign a color to each index

```
void triangle(int a, int b, int c, int d)
{
   vcolors[i] = colors[d];
   position[i] = vertices[a];
   vcolors[i+1] = colors[d]);
   position[i+1] = vertices[b];
   vcolors[i+2] = colors[d];
   position[i+2] = vertices[c];
   i+=3;
}
```

#### Draw cube from faces

```
void colorcube()
{
    quad(0,3,2,1);
    quad(2,3,7,6);
    quad(0,4,7,3);
    quad(1,2,6,5);
    quad(4,5,6,7);
    quad(0,1,5,4);
}
```



Note that vertices are ordered so that we obtain correct outward facing normals

## Efficiency

 The weakness of this approach is that we are building the model in the application and must do many function calls to draw the cube

### Vertex Arrays

- OpenGL provides a facility called vertex arrays that allows us to store array data in the implementation
- Vertex arrays can be used for any attributes including
  - Vertices
  - Colors
  - Color indices
  - Normals
  - Texture coordinates
  - Edge flags

### Mapping indices to faces

So instead, we can form an array of face indices

```
GLubyte cubeIndices[24] = \{0,3,2,1,2,3,7,6,4,7,3,1,2,6,5,4,5,6,7,0,1,5,4\};
```

- Each successive four indices describe a face of the cube
  - But we will not pursue efficiency in our example

### Rotating Cube

#### Full example

- Model Colored Cube
- Use 3 button mouse to change direction of rotation
- Use idle function to increment angle of rotation

### **Cube Vertices**

```
// Vertices of a unit cube centered at
  origin, sides aligned with axes
point4 vertices[8] = {
   point4( -0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
   point4( -0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
   point4( 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 1.0),
   point4( 0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1.0),
   point4(-0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 1.0),
   point4( -0.5, 0.5, -0.5, 1.0 ),
   point4( 0.5, 0.5, -0.5, 1.0),
   point4( 0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 1.0)
```

### Colors

```
// RGBA colors
color4 vertex_colors[8] = {
   color4( 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0 ), // black
   color4( 1.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0 ), // red
   color4( 1.0, 1.0, 0.0, 1.0 ), // yellow
   color4( 0.0, 1.0, 0.0, 1.0 ), // green
   color4( 0.0, 0.0, 1.0, 1.0 ), // blue
   color4( 1.0, 0.0, 1.0, 1.0 ), // magenta
   color4( 1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0 ), // white
   color4(0.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0) // cyan
};
```

### **Quad Function**

```
// quad generates two triangles for each face
// and assigns colors to the vertices
int Index = 0;
void quad( int a, int b, int c, int d )
      colors[Index] = vertex_colors[a];
      points[Index] = vertices[a]; Index++;
      colors[Index] = vertex_colors[b];
      points[Index] = vertices[b]; Index++;
      colors[Index] = vertex_colors[c];
      points[Index] = vertices[c]; Index++;
      colors[Index] = vertex_colors[a];
      points[Index] = vertices[a]; Index++;
      colors[Index] = vertex colors[c];
      points[Index] = vertices[c]; Index++;
      colors[Index] = vertex_colors[d];
      points[Index] = vertices[d]; Index++;
```

### Color Cube

```
// generate 12 triangles: 36 vertices
// and 36 colors
void colorcube()
   quad(1,0,3,2);
   quad(2,3,7,6);
   quad(3,0,4,7);
   quad(6,5,1,2);
   quad(4, 5, 6, 7);
   quad(5, 4, 0, 1);
```

```
// Array of rotation angles (in degrees) for each
// coordinate axis
enum { Xaxis = 0, Yaxis = 1, Zaxis = 2, NumAxes = 3 };
int Axis = Xaxis;
GLfloat Theta[NumAxes] = { 0.0, 0.0, 0.0 };

GLuint theta;
// The location of the "theta" shader uniform variable
```

### Initialization I

```
void
init()
{
    colorcube();

    // Create a vertex array object
    GLuint vao;
    glGenVertexArrays ( 1, &vao );
    glBindVertexArray ( vao );
```

### Initialization II

```
// Create and initialize a buffer object
  GLuint buffer:
  glGenBuffers( 1, &buffer );
  glBindBuffer( GL ARRAY BUFFER, buffer );
  glBufferData( GL_ARRAY_BUFFER, sizeof(points) +
      sizeof(colors), NULL, GL STATIC DRAW );
  glBufferSubData(GL ARRAY BUFFER, 0,
       sizeof(points), points );
  glBufferSubData(GL_ARRAY_BUFFER, sizeof(points),
       sizeof(colors), colors );
// Load shaders and use the resulting shader program
  GLuint program = InitShader( "vshader36.glsl",
       "fshader36.glsl" );
  glUseProgram( program );
```

### Initialization III

```
// set up vertex arrays
  GLuint vPosition = glGetAttribLocation( program,
      "vPosition" );
  glEnableVertexAttribArray( vPosition );
  glVertexAttribPointer( vPosition, 4, GL_FLOAT,
     GL_FALSE, 0, BUFFER_OFFSET(0) );
  GLuint vColor = glGetAttribLocation( program,
      "vColor" );
  glEnableVertexAttribArray( vColor );
  glVertexAttribPointer( vColor, 4, GL_FLOAT,
     GL FALSE, 0, BUFFER OFFSET(sizeof(points)) );
  theta = glGetUniformLocation( program, "theta"
  glEnable( GL DEPTH TEST );
  glClearColor( 1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 1.0);
```

### Display Callback

### Mouse Callback

```
void mouse( int button, int state, int x, int y )
{
   if ( state == GLUT_DOWN ) {
      switch( button ) {
      case GLUT_LEFT_BUTTON: Axis = Xaxis; break;
      case GLUT_MIDDLE_BUTTON: Axis = Yaxis; break;
      case GLUT_RIGHT_BUTTON: Axis = Zaxis; break;
   }
}
```

### Idle Callback

```
void
idle( void )
    Theta[Axis] += 0.01;
    if ( Theta[Axis] > 360.0 )
        Theta[Axis] -= 360.0;
    glutPostRedisplay();
```

#### Vertex Shader

```
#version 150
in vec4 vPosition;
in vec4 vColor;
out vec4 color;
uniform vec3 theta;
void main()
   // Convert degrees to radians and compute the sines and cosines of theta for each of
   // the three axes in one computation.
   vec3 angles = radians( theta );
   vec3 c = cos(angles);
   vec3 s = sin(angles);
   //these matrices are column-major, and the rotation is with -theta
   mat4 rx = mat4(1.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0,
                                                               \sin(-\theta) = -\sin(\theta)
\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{X}}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
                            0.0, c.x, s.x, 0.0,
                            0.0, -s.x, c.x, 0.0,
                            0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0);
```

#### Vertex Shader

// Workaround for bug in ATI driver ry[1][0] = 0.0; ry[1][1] = 1.0;

// Workaround for bug in ATI driver rz[2][2] = 1.0;

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

#### Fragment Shader

```
#version 150

in vec4 color;
out vec4 fColor;

void main()
{
   fColor = color;
}
```