Affine transformations

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Reading

Required:

- Shirley, Sec. 2.4, 2.7
- Shirley, Ch. 5.1-5.3
- Shirley, Ch. 6

Further reading:

- Foley, et al, Chapter 5.1-5.5.
- David F. Rogers and J. Alan Adams, Mathematical Elements for Computer Graphics, 2nd Ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1990, Chapter 2.

Geometric transformations

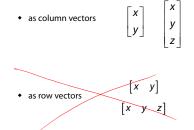
Geometric transformations will map points in one space to points in another: (x', y', z') = f(x, y, z).

These transformations can be very simple, such as scaling each coordinate, or complex, such as nonlinear twists and bends.

We'll focus on transformations that can be represented easily with matrix operations.

Vector representation

We can represent a **point**, $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$, in the plane or $\mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)$ in 3D space



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Canonical axes	Vector length and dot products
right + hunded coord. system $right - hunded coord. system$	$V = \begin{bmatrix} V_x \\ V_y \\ V_z \end{bmatrix} V = \sqrt{V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^4}$ $V = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \\ u_z \end{bmatrix} u \cdot v = u_x v_x + u_y v_y + u_z v_z$ $v \cdot v = V ^2$ $u \cdot v = u^T v u \cdot v \stackrel{?}{=} v \cdot u_y es!$ $u \cdot v = u v \cos \theta u \cdot v = 0 \iff u \perp v$ $v = u v \cos \theta u \cdot v = 0 \iff u \perp v$ $u \cdot v = u v \cos \theta$ $u \cdot v = 0 \iff u \perp v$ $u \cdot v = u v \cos \theta$ $u \cdot v = 0 \iff u \perp v$ $v = u v \cos \theta$
$\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} + (\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}}) \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{x}} + (\mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}}) \mathbf{y}_{\mathbf{x}} + (y$	$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{C}} = \mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{C}} = $

Two-dimensional transformations

Here's all you get with a 2 x 2 transformation matrix *M*:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x'\\y'\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b\\c & d\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x\\y\end{bmatrix}$$

So:

x' = ax + byy' = cx + dy

We will develop some intimacy with the elements *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*...

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Suppose we choose a=d=1, b=c=0:

• Gives the **identity** matrix:

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

• Doesn't move the points at all $\chi^{\not r} \simeq \kappa$

y'= Y



Suppose we set b=c=0, but let a and d take on any

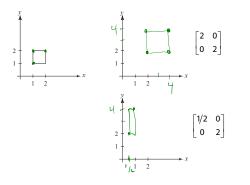
positive value:

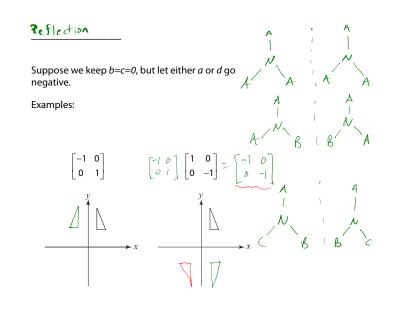
• Gives a **scaling** matrix:

 $\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$

 Provides differential (non-uniform) scaling in x and y: x' = ax







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Shear

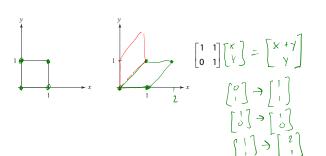
Now let's leave a=d=1 and experiment with b....

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

The matrix

gives:

$$x' = x + by$$
$$y' = y$$



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Effect on unit square, cont.

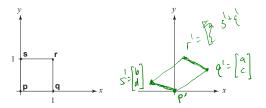
Observe:

- Origin invariant under M
- *M* can be determined just by knowing how the corners (1,0) and (0,1) are mapped
- *a* and *d* give *x* and *y*-scaling
- b and c give x- and y-shearing

Effect on unit square

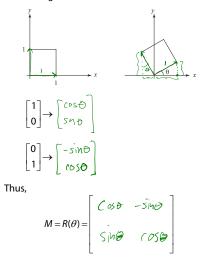
Let's see how a general 2 x 2 transformation *M* affects the unit square:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p} & \mathbf{q} & \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}' & \mathbf{q}' & \mathbf{r}' & \mathbf{s}' \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & a+b & b \\ 0 & c & c+d & d \end{bmatrix}$$



Rotation

From our observations of the effect on the unit square, it should be easy to write down a matrix for "rotation about the origin":



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Degrees of freedom

For any transformation, we can count its degrees of freedom – the number of independent (though not necessarily unique) parameters needed to specify the transformation.

One way to count them is to add up all the apparently free variables and subtract the number of equations that constrain them.

How many degrees of freedom does an arbitrary 2X2 transformation have?

How many degrees of freedom does a 2D rotation have?

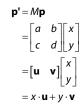
 $\begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} u \cdot v = 0 \\ u \cdot u = 1 \\ v \cdot v = 1 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ v \\ u \cdot u = 1 \\ v \cdot v = 1 \end{array}$ det (M)>0 will avoid reflections

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[a b]

Linear transformations

The unit square observations also tell us the 2x2 matrix transformation implies that we are representing a point in a new coordinate system:



where $\mathbf{u} = [a c]^T$ and $\mathbf{v} = [b d]^T$ are vectors that define a new basis for a linear space.

The transformation to this new basis (a.k.a., change of basis) is a linear transformation.

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Affine transformations

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In order to incorporate the idea that both the basis and the origin can change, we augment the linear space **u**, **v** with an origin **t**.

We call u, v, and t (basis and origin) a frame for an affine space.

Then, we can represent a change of frame as:

 $\mathbf{p'} = x \cdot \mathbf{u} + y \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{t}$

This change of frame is also known as an affine transformation.

How do we write an affine transformation with matrices?

Limitations of the 2 x 2 matrix

A 2 x 2 linear transformation matrix allows

- Scaling
- Rotation
- Reflection
- Shearing

Q: What important operation does that leave out?

translation

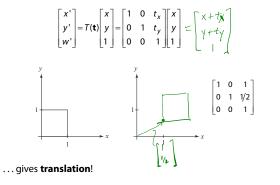
Homogeneous coordinates

Idea is to loft the problem up into 3-space, adding a third component to every point:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Adding the third "w" component puts us in homogenous coordinates.

And then transform with a 3 x 3 matrix:



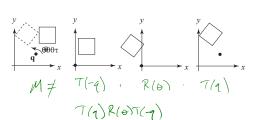
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T(P)

Rotation about arbitrary points $R(\alpha) = \int \cos \alpha \sin \alpha \, d\alpha$

sihad (66a D Until now, we have only considered rotation about the

With homogeneous coordinates, you can specify a rotation, $R(\prec)$ q, about any point $\mathbf{q} = [q_X q_V]^T$ with a matrix:



- 1. Translate **q** to origin
- 2. Rotate

origin.

3. Translate back

Note: Transformation order is important!!

Anatomy of an affine matrix

In matrix form, 2D affine transformations always look like this:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & t_x \\ c & d & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & | \mathbf{t} \\ 0 & 0 & | 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2D affine transformations always have a bottom row of [0 0 1].

An "affine point" is a "linear point" with an added *w*-coordinate which is always 1:

 $\mathbf{p}_{\text{aff}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_{\text{lin}} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Applying an affine transformation gives another affine point:

 $M\mathbf{p}_{aff} = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{p}_{lin} + \mathbf{t} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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Points and vectors

matrix?

V=B-A

Vectors have an additional coordinate of w=0. Thus, a change of origin has no effect on vectors.

Q: What happens if we multiply a vector by an affine

 $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & t_{Y} \\ c & d & t_{Y} \\ 0 & () & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{X} \\ v_{Y} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a v_{X} + b v_{Y} \\ c v_{X} + d v_{Y} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

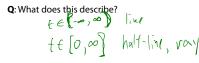
These representations reflect some of the rules of affine operations on points and vectors:

> vector + vector $\rightarrow \sqrt{c}$ scalar · vector $\rightarrow \sqrt{l_c} f_{N}$ point - point $\rightarrow \sqrt{ec}$ point + vector $\rightarrow psint$ point + point \rightarrow chaos

 $\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & &$ Q+β=1 =>point a+β=0 =>vector

One useful combination of affine operations is:

 $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{p}_{o} + t\mathbf{u}$



Barycentric coordinates

A set of points can be used to create an affine frame. Consider a triangle *ABC* and a point *P*:



We can form a frame with an origin *C* and the vectors from *C* to the other vertices:

$$\mathbf{u} = A - C$$
 $\mathbf{v} = B - C$ $\mathbf{t} = C$

We can then write *P* in this coordinate frame:

$$P = \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{t}$$

= $\alpha (\mathbf{t} - c) + \beta (\beta - c) + C$
= $\alpha \mathbf{A} + \beta \mathbf{B} + (1 - \alpha - \beta) (\beta - c) + C$
= $\alpha \mathbf{A} + \beta \mathbf{B} + \delta C$

 $α_{,\beta}\beta_{,\delta}$ The coordinates $(\overline{a, b, g})$ are called the **barycentric coordinates** of *P* relative to *A*, *B*, and *C*.

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Computing barycentric coordinates

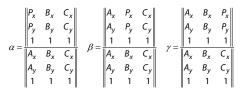
Starting from a triangle in the *x*-*y* plane



we can compute the barycentric coordinates of P:

 $\alpha A + \beta B + \gamma C = \begin{bmatrix} A_x & B_x & C_x \\ A_y & B_y & C_y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P_x \\ P_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Simple matrix analysis gives the solution:



Computing the determinant of the denominator gives:

$$B_xC_y - B_yC_x + A_yC_x - A_xC_y + A_xB_y - A_yB_x$$

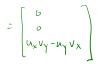
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Cross products in 2D

Recall the 3D cross product:

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{x}} & \hat{\mathbf{y}} & \hat{\mathbf{z}} \\ u_x & u_y & u_z \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= (u_y v_z - u_z v_y) \hat{\mathbf{x}} + (u_z v_x - u_x v_z) \hat{\mathbf{y}} + (u_x v_y - u_y v_x) \hat{\mathbf{z}}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_y v_z - u_z v_y \\ u_z v_x - u_x v_z \\ u_x v_y - u_y v_x \end{bmatrix}$$

What happens when **u** and **v** lie in the *x*-*y* plane?



Barycentric coords from area ratios

(A-c)×(B-

Now, let's rearrange the equation from two slides ago:

$$B_{x}C_{y} - B_{y}C_{x} + A_{y}C_{x} - A_{x}C_{y} + A_{x}B_{y} - A_{y}B_{x} = (A_{x} - C_{x})(B_{y} - C_{y}) - (A_{y} - C_{y})(B_{x} - C_{x})$$

$$(B_{x} - A_{x})(C_{y} - A_{y}) - (B_{y} - A_{y})(C_{x} - A_{x})$$

$$(U \times V)_{t}$$
The determinant is then just the z-component of
(B-A) x (C-A), which is two times the area of triangle
ABC!
Thus, we find:

$$\alpha = \frac{SArea(ABC)}{SArea(ABC)} \quad \beta = \frac{SArea(APC)}{SArea(ABC)} \quad \gamma = \frac{SArea(ABP)}{SArea(ABC)}$$
Where SArea(D) is the signed area of a triangle, which
can be computed with cross-products.

What does it mean for a barycentric coordinate to be negative? $P_{is} outside \Delta_{ABC}$

Affine, vector, and convex combinations

Note that we seem to have constructed a point by adding points together, which we said was illegal, but as long as they have coefficients that sum to one, it's ok.

More generally:

 $P = \alpha_1 A_1 + \dots + \alpha_n A_n$

is an **affine combination** if:

It is a **vector** combination if:

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i = \mathbf{0}$

 $= \frac{m_1 A_1 + m_2 A_2}{m_1 A_1 + m_2 A_2}$

N Sv i=1

 $= \frac{m_1}{\Xi m_1} A_1 + \frac{m_2}{\Xi m_1} A_2 + \cdots$

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 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i = 1$

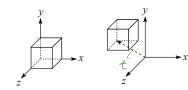
And it is a **convex combination** if:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_i \ge 0$$

Q: Why is it called a convex combination?

Translation in 3D

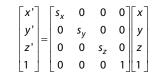
 $\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

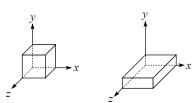


Basic 3-D transformations: scaling

Some of the 3-D transformations are just like the 2-D ones.

For example, scaling:





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Rotation in 3D

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How many degrees of freedom are there in an arbitrary 3D rotation?

Rotation in 3D (cont'd)

These are the rotations about the canonical axes:

$$R_{\chi}(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\alpha & -\sin\alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \sin\alpha & \cos\alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{\chi}(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\beta & 0 & \sin\beta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin\beta & 0 & \cos\beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{\chi}(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\gamma & -\sin\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ \sin\gamma & \cos\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
Use right hand rule

|[v][=]

So.

A general rotation can be specified in terms of a product of these three matrices. How else might you specify a rotation?

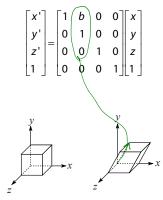
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Shearing in 3D

Shearing is also more complicated. Here is one example:



We call this a shear with respect to the x-z plane.

Preservation of affine combinations

A transformation *F* is an affine transformation if it preserves affine combinations:

$$F(\alpha_1A_1 + \dots + \alpha_nA_n) = \alpha_1F(A_1) + \dots + \alpha_nF(A_n)$$

where the A_i are points, and:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i = 1$$

Clearly, the matrix form of F has this property.

One special example is a matrix that drops a dimension. For example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

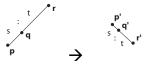
This transformation, known as an orthographic projection is an affine transformation.

We'll use this fact later...

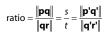
Properties of affine transformations

Here are some useful properties of affine transformations:

- Lines map to lines
- Parallel lines remain parallel
- Midpoints map to midpoints (in fact, ratios are always preserved)









Affine transformations in OpenGL

OpenGL maintains a "modelview" matrix that holds the current transformation **M.**

The modelview matrix is applied to points (usually vertices of polygons) before drawing.

It is modified by commands including:

- ◆ glTranslatef(t_x , t_y , t_z) M ← MT - translate by ($t_{xt} t_{yt} t_z$)
- glRotatef(θ, x, y, z) M ← MR
 rotate by angle θ about axis (x, y, z)
- ◆ glScalef(s_x, s_y, s_z) M ← MS
 scale by (s_x, s_y, s_z)

Note that OpenGL adds transformations by *postmultiplication* of the modelview matrix.