# **Affine transformations**

Brian Curless CSE 557 Fall 2013

# 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*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed., McGraw-Hill, New York, 1990, Chapter 2.

#### **Geometric transformations**

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

These transformations can be very simple, such as scaling each coordinate, or complex, such as non-linear 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

• as column vectors

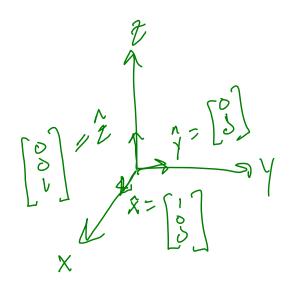
$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

as row vectors

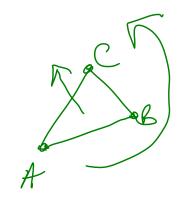
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### **Canonical axes**



right-hunded coord. Systim





$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \\ u_z \end{bmatrix} \qquad V = \begin{bmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{bmatrix}$$

$$||V|| = \int v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2$$

$$u \cdot V = u_{x} v_{x} + u_{y} v_{y} + v_{y} v_{z} = u^{T} V$$

$$V \cdot u = u \cdot V$$

$$||V||^{2} = V \cdot V$$

per pendicular or thoughton



 $(mx)\cdot n = 0 = (mx)\cdot \Lambda$ 

 $\|uxy\| = \|u\|\|y\| \sin\theta$ 

unv =) uxv=0

Area ( [] = llul llull sind = lluxvll

Arenthrest / (B-A) X (C-t)

## Representation, cont.

We can represent a **2-D transformation** *M* by a matrix

$$(AB)^T = B^A$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

If **p** is a column vector, M goes on the left:

sent a **2-D transformation** 
$$M$$
 by a matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} A B \end{pmatrix}^T = B^T A^T$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(AB)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} AB \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = I \cdot B^{-1}$$
In vector,  $M$  goes on the left:
$$\begin{pmatrix} AB \end{pmatrix}^{-1} + BB^{-1} = I \cdot B^{-1}$$

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If **p** is a row vector,  $M^T$  goes on the right:

$$\mathbf{p'} = \mathbf{p}M^{T}$$

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

We will use **column vectors**.

#### **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:

$$x' = ax + by$$

$$y' = cx + dy$$

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

# **Identity**

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

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda$$

# **Scaling**

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

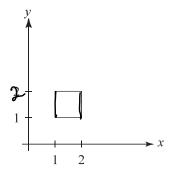
• Gives a **scaling** matrix:

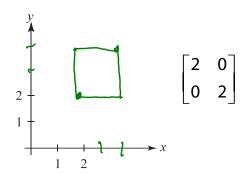
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix}$$

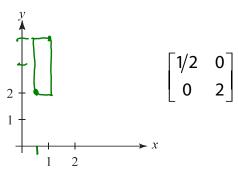
Provides differential (non-uniform) scaling in x and y:

$$x' = ax$$

$$y' = dy$$







$$\chi' = \frac{1}{2}\chi$$

$$\chi' = \frac{1}{2}\chi$$

Refletoon

Suppose we keep b=c=0, but let either a or d go negative.

Examples:

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

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

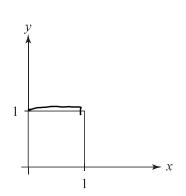
The matrix

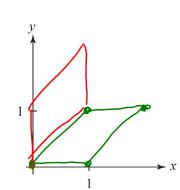
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & b \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

gives:

$$x' = x + by$$

$$y' = y$$





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

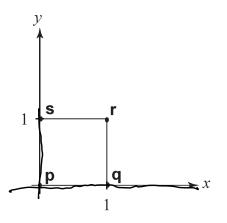
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + y \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

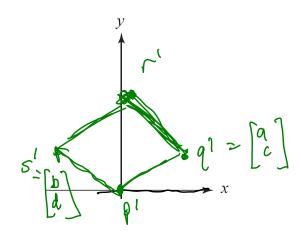
## **Effect on unit square**

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{p} \quad \mathbf{q} \quad \mathbf{r} \quad \mathbf{s}] = [\mathbf{p'} \quad \mathbf{q'} \quad \mathbf{r'} \quad \mathbf{s'}]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & a+b & b \\ 0 & c & c+d & d \end{bmatrix}$$





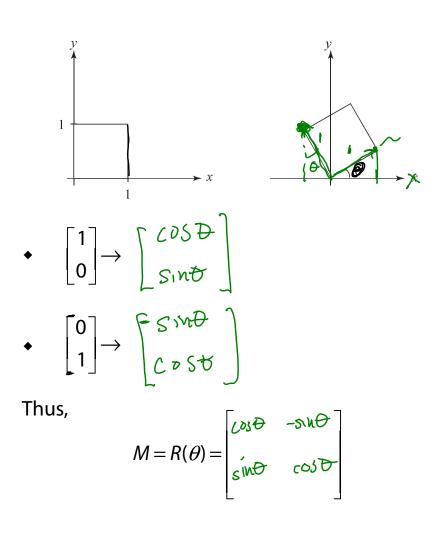
# Effect on unit square, cont.

#### 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

#### **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":



Postive rotation

## **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?

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u & v \end{bmatrix} \qquad u = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ c \end{bmatrix} \qquad v = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$u \cdot v = 0 \qquad \qquad \forall vovs = 3 \text{ donstr.} = 1 \text{ Dof}$$

$$u \cdot v = 1$$

$$v \cdot v = 1$$

#### **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:

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

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

$$= [\mathbf{u} \quad \mathbf{v}] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= x \cdot \mathbf{u} + y \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

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

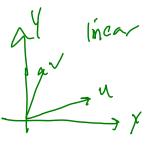
The transformation to this new basis (a.k.a., change of basis) is a **linear transformation**.

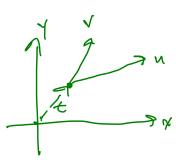
#### Limitations of the 2 x 2 matrix

A 2 x 2 linear transformation matrix allows

- Scaling
- Rotation
- Reflection
- Shearing

**Q**: What important operation does that leave out?





#### **Affine transformations**

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?

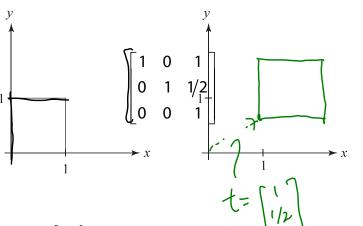
## Homogeneous coordinates

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

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

And then transform with a 3 x 3 matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = T(\mathbf{t}) \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \succeq \begin{bmatrix} x & + t_y \\ y & + t_y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



...gives translation!

## **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:

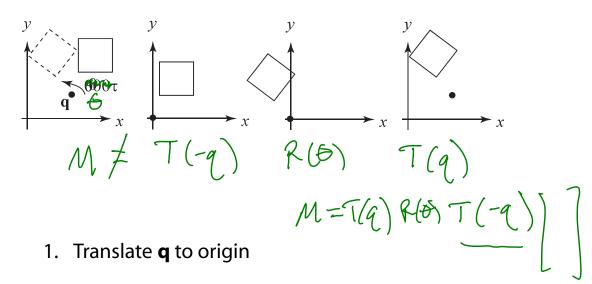
$$M\mathbf{p}_{\mathsf{aff}} = \begin{bmatrix} A\mathbf{p}_{\mathsf{lin}} + \mathbf{t} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# **Rotation about arbitrary points**

$$R(0) = \begin{cases} \cos \theta - \sin \theta & \phi \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & \delta \end{cases}$$

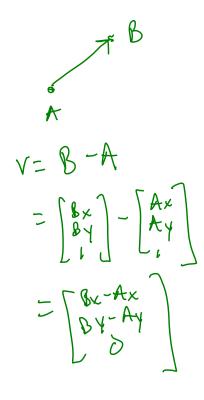
Until now, we have only considered rotation about the origin.

With homogeneous coordinates, you can specify a rotation,  $\theta$ , about any point  $\mathbf{q} = [\mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{X}} \, \mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{y}}]^\mathsf{T}$  with a matrix:



- 2. Rotate
- 3. Translate back

Note: Transformation order is important!!





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 matrix?

$$\begin{bmatrix} a b tx \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} vx \\ c d ty \\ o o a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a vx + b vy \\ a vx + d vy \\ d \end{bmatrix}$$

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

vector + vector 
$$\rightarrow Vector$$

scalar · vector  $\rightarrow Vector$ 

point - point  $\rightarrow Vector$ 

point + vector  $\rightarrow Point$ 

point + point  $\rightarrow chass$ 

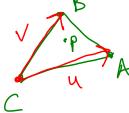
One useful combination of affine operations is:

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



## **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:

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

$$= \alpha (A - c) + \beta (B - c) + C$$

$$= \alpha A + \beta B + (1 - \alpha - \beta) C$$

$$= \alpha A + \beta B + \delta C \qquad \alpha + \beta + \gamma = 1$$

The coordinates  $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$  are called the **barycentric** coordinates of *P* relative to *A*, *B*, and *C*.

#### **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:

$$\alpha = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} P_{x} & B_{x} & C_{x} \\ P_{y} & B_{y} & C_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{x} & B_{x} & C_{x} \\ A_{y} & B_{y} & C_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}} \beta = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} A_{x} & P_{x} & C_{x} \\ A_{y} & P_{y} & C_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{x} & B_{x} & C_{x} \\ A_{y} & B_{y} & C_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}} \gamma = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} A_{x} & B_{x} & P_{x} \\ A_{y} & B_{y} & P_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{x} & B_{x} & C_{x} \\ A_{y} & B_{y} & C_{y} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}}$$

Computing the determinant of the denominator gives:

$$B_x C_y - B_y C_x + A_y C_x - A_x C_y + A_x B_y - A_y B_x$$

# **Cross products in 2D**

Recall the 3D cross product:

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{v} & \mathbf{v} & \mathbf{v} \\ u_{x} & u_{y} & u_{z} \\ v_{x} & v_{y} & v_{z} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (u_{y}v_{z} - u_{z}v_{y})\mathbf{i} + (u_{z}v_{x} - u_{x}v_{z})\mathbf{j} + (u_{x}v_{y} - u_{y}v_{x})\mathbf{k}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} u_{y}v_{z} - u_{z}v_{y} \\ u_{z}v_{x} - u_{x}v_{z} \\ u_{x}v_{y} - u_{y}v_{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

What happens when  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  lie in the x-y plane?

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Barycentric coords from area ratios

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

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

The determinant is then just the z-component of  $(B-A) \times (C-A)$ , which is two times the area of triangle ABC!

$$= (\mu \times \nabla) (\mu \times \nabla)$$

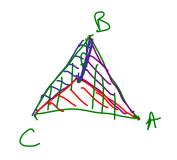
$$= (\mu \times \nabla)_{\mathcal{Z}}$$

Thus, we find:

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{SArea}(PBC)}{\text{SArea}(ABC)}$$
  $\beta = \frac{\text{SArea}(APC)}{\text{SArea}(ABC)}$   $\gamma = \frac{\text{SArea}(ABP)}{\text{SArea}(ABC)}$ 

Where SArea( $\Delta$ ) 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?  $\rho$  not in  $\Delta$ 



#### 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:

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

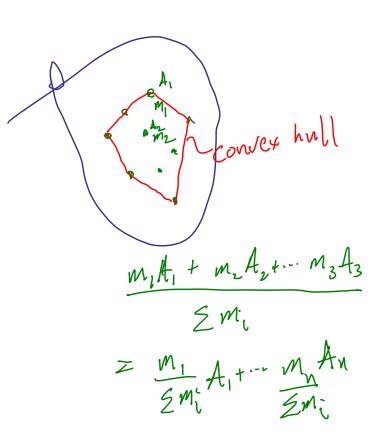
It is a **vector** combination if:

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

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?

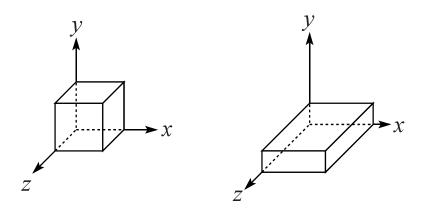


### **Basic 3-D transformations: scaling**

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

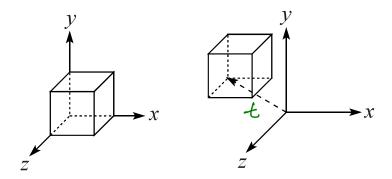
For example, <u>scaling</u>:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



### **Translation in 3D**

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



#### **Rotation in 3D**

How many degrees of freedom are there in an

# Rotation in 3D (cont'd)

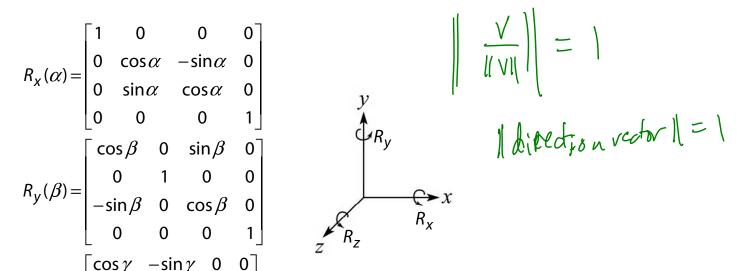
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These are the rotations about the canonical axes:

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

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

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



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

rotation by O (100) direction (2) of)

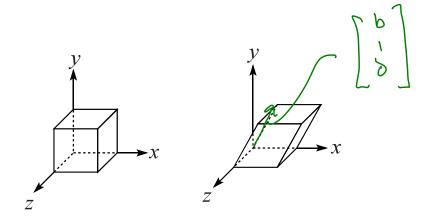
quaternion
$$q = q_i \hat{l} + q_j \hat{l} + q_k \hat{k} + q_k \hat{l}$$

$$= \begin{cases} q_i \\ q_s \\ q_k \end{cases} \quad ||q|| = 1$$

# **Shearing in 3D**

Shearing is also more complicated. Here is one example:

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



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:

$$F(\alpha_1 A_1 + \dots + \alpha_n A_n) = \alpha_1 F(A_1) + \dots + \alpha_n F(A_n)$$

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:

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

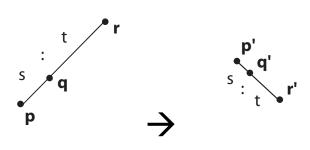
This transformation, known as an orthographic projection is an affine transformation.

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)



ratio = 
$$\frac{\|\mathbf{pq}\|}{\|\mathbf{qr}\|} = \frac{s}{t} = \frac{\|\mathbf{p'q'}\|}{\|\mathbf{q'r'}\|}$$

## **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:

• glRotatef (
$$\theta$$
, x, y, z)  $\mathcal{M} \leftarrow \mathcal{M} \mathcal{R}$   
• mathematical mathema

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