



MVE555 Architectural Geometry, Lecture 2



MVE560, Lecture 2

Mathematical Sciences

CHALMERS

Outline

Linear Transformations

Rigid Body Motion

Homogeneous Coordinates

Projections

Linear Transformations — Matrices

Linear transformations on \mathbb{R}^3 are studied in linear algebra, and are characterised by *linearity*:

$$\begin{cases} T(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = T(\mathbf{x}) + T(\mathbf{y}), & \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \\ T(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda T(\mathbf{x}), & \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3. \end{cases}$$

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If $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ then $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, y_3) = T(\mathbf{x})$ can be written as a matrix multiplication:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix},$$

where \mathbf{A} is constant.

Images of the Basic Unit Vectors

Since $(1, 0, 0)$ is transformed into

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{31} \end{bmatrix},$$

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Similarly, the second and third column tell us where $(0, 1, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 1)$ go!

Some Properties

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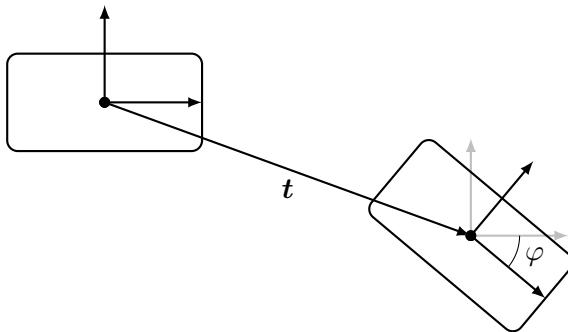
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- If \mathbf{A} is an *orthogonal* matrix, i.e. $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$, then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^\top$
- Whatever \mathbf{A} is, the origin is never moved, i.e. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$

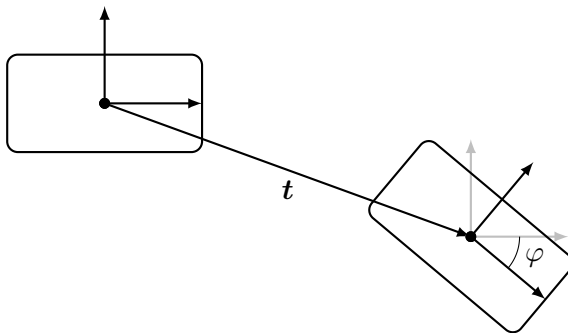
Definition of Rigid Body Motion

A rigid body motion is composed of a *rotation* and a *translation*:



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If combined with a *scaling*, it becomes a *similarity transformation*.

Representing Rigid Body Motions

Let \mathbf{R} be a rotation matrix (later slides) and \mathbf{t} be a vector. Then

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t}$$

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- Rigid body motions are not commutative
- Rigid body motions are associative
- Not a linear transformation — the origin is moved!
- We will see later how to write them using only a matrix multiplication anyway!

Representing Rotations — 2D

In 2D, rotations are almost always represented using the 2×2 matrix

$$\mathbf{R}(\varphi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix},$$

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To rotate a point $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$ and angle φ about the origin, we do

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{R}(\varphi)\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \cos \varphi - y \sin \varphi \\ x \sin \varphi + y \cos \varphi \end{bmatrix}.$$

Representing Rotations — 3D

In 3D, rotations around the three coordinate axes are written as

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

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

$$\mathbf{R}_z(\gamma) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \gamma & -\sin \gamma & 0 \\ \sin \gamma & \cos \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Representing Rotations — 3D

- Any 3D rotation can be obtained using *Tait-Bryan angles* as

$$\mathbf{R}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \mathbf{R}_x(\alpha)\mathbf{R}_y(\beta)\mathbf{R}_z(\gamma)$$

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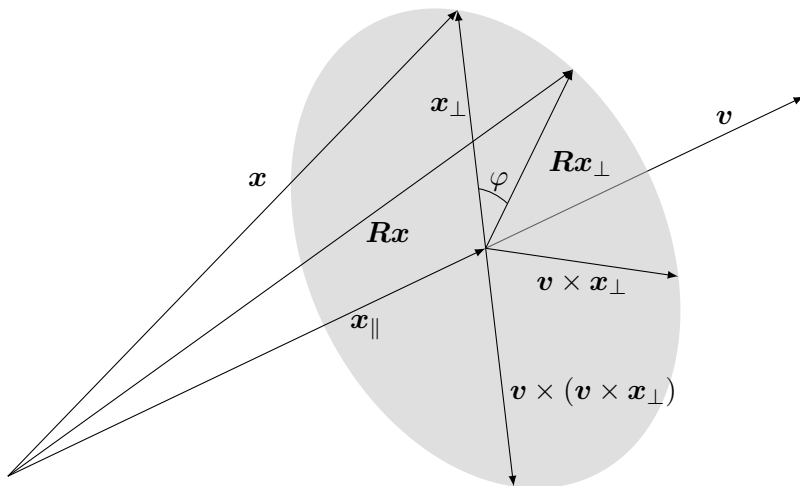
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- By performing different combinations of the rotations, we get various *Euler angle* representations — no clear standard!
- It is often easier to think using an *axis-angle representation*, e.g. *Rodrigues' formula*:

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I} + \sin \varphi [\mathbf{v}]_{\times} + (1 - \cos \varphi) [\mathbf{v}]_{\times}^2$$

Rodrigues' Formula



Rodrigues' Formula Proof

We have $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_{\parallel} + \mathbf{x}_{\perp}$, where \mathbf{x}_{\parallel} is parallel to \mathbf{v} (and thus does not change), and \mathbf{x}_{\perp} is perpendicular to \mathbf{v} . Note also that \mathbf{x}_{\perp} and $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}_{\perp}$ make up an orthogonal basis in the plane orthogonal to \mathbf{v} . It follows that

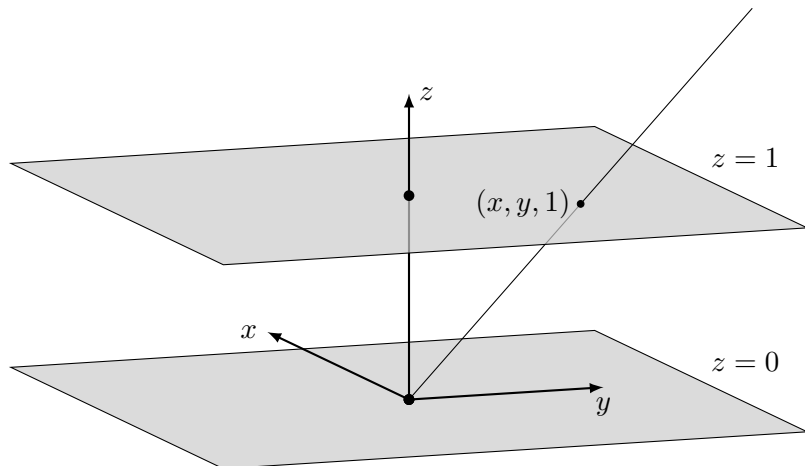
$$\begin{aligned} R\mathbf{x}_{\perp} &= \cos \varphi \mathbf{x}_{\perp} + \sin \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}_{\perp}) \\ &= -\cos \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}_{\perp})) + \sin \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}_{\perp}) \\ &= -\cos \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x})) + \sin \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} R\mathbf{x} &= R\mathbf{x}_{\parallel} + R\mathbf{x}_{\perp} \\ &= (\mathbf{v}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v} - \cos \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x})) + \sin \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \mathbf{x} + \sin \varphi (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x}) + (1 - \cos \varphi)(\mathbf{v} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{x})). \end{aligned}$$

The Planar Case

Suppose we are working in the plane, and have a point (x, y) .
The plane can be 'embedded' in 3D as the plane $z = 1$:



The Planar Case (contd.)

- Each point in the plane $z = 1$ corresponds to a 3D-line through the origin

Möbius, *Der barycentrische Calcul - ein neues Hülfsmittel zur analytischen Behandlung der Geometrie*, 1827.

The Planar Case (contd.)

- Each point in the plane $z = 1$ corresponds to a 3D-line through the origin
- The line through $(x, y, 1)$ includes $(\lambda x, \lambda y, \lambda)$ for any scalar λ

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- When $\lambda \rightarrow \pm\infty$ we obtain *ideal points*, $(x, y, 0)$, infinitely far away (on the *line at infinity*)
- This can be used to capture the difference between vectors and points!

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The 3D Case

- Similarly to the 2D case, we add an extra coordinate that is equal to one, i.e. the homogeneous coordinates for (x, y, z) become $(x, y, z, 1)$ (or $(\lambda x, \lambda y, \lambda z, \lambda)$ for any $\lambda \neq 0$).

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- The homogeneous coordinates $(x, y, z, 0)$ represent the point infinitely far away in the direction (x, y, z)

Revisiting Rigid Body Motions

Recall that a rigid body motion consisting of the rotation \mathbf{R} and the translation \mathbf{t} is written as $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t}$.

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As it turns out,

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{0}^\top & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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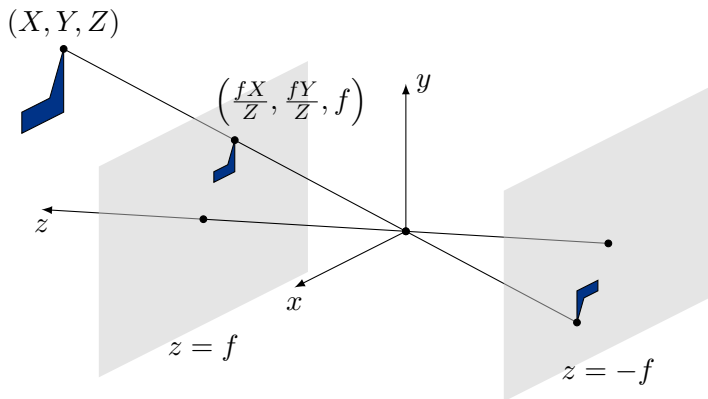
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If we use homogeneous coordinates, we can represent a rigid body motion as the matrix \mathbf{A} above.

The Pinhole Perspective Camera



The Pinhole Perspective Camera (contd.)

A 3D point (X, Y, Z) is thus projected to $(fX/Z, fY/Z, f)$ in the image plane — we may omit the last coordinate:

$$(X, Y, Z) \mapsto (fX/Z, fY/Z).$$

The Pinhole Perspective Camera (contd.)

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Using homogeneous coordinates, we can write the projection as a matrix multiplication:

$$\begin{bmatrix} fX \\ fY \\ Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} f & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & f & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_K \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

The Pinhole Perspective Camera (contd.)

- A camera positioned at \mathbf{t} instead of the origin, and rotated a rotation \mathbf{R} , is represented by the matrix

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{R}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{t} \end{bmatrix}$$

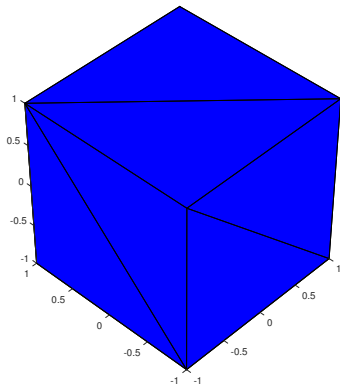
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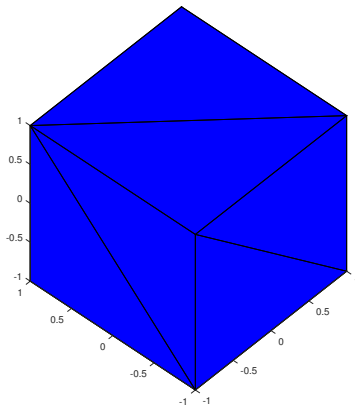
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- For us, the *focal length* f is not particularly interesting most of the time — we can set it to $f = 1$ for simplicity and skip \mathbf{K} entirely

Orthographic Cameras — Illustration

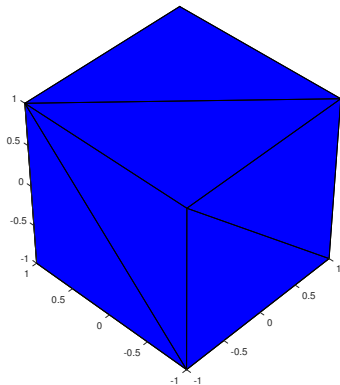


Perspective projection

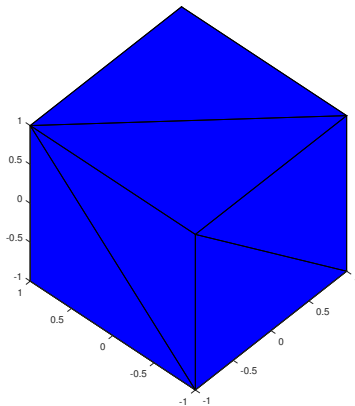


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Orthographic Cameras — Illustration



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