

Geometry

(Many slides adapted from Octavia Camps and Amitabh Varshney)

Much of material in Appendix A

Goals

- Represent points, lines and triangles as column vectors.
- Represent motion as matrices.
- Move geometric objects with matrix multiplication.
- Refresh memory about geometry and linear algebra

Vectors

- Ordered set of numbers: (1,2,3,4)
- Example: (x,y,z) coordinates of pt in space.

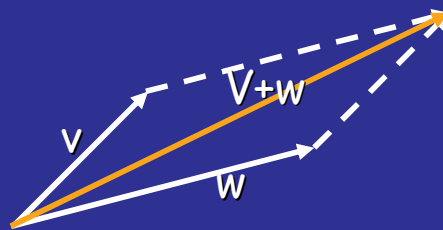
$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

If $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$, \mathbf{v} is a unit vector

Vector Addition

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (x_1, x_2) + (y_1, y_2) = (x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2)$$

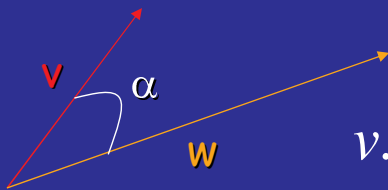


Scalar Product

$$a\mathbf{v} = a(x_1, x_2) = (ax_1, ax_2)$$



Inner (dot) Product



$$v \cdot w = (x_1, x_2) \cdot (y_1, y_2) = x_1 y_1 + x_2 \cdot y_2$$

The inner product is a **SCALAR!**

$$v \cdot w = (x_1, x_2) \cdot (y_1, y_2) = \|v\| \cdot \|w\| \cos \alpha$$

$$v \cdot w = 0 \Leftrightarrow v \perp w$$

First, we note that if we scale a vector, we scale its inner product. That is, $\langle sv, w \rangle = s \langle v, w \rangle$. This follows pretty directly from the definition.

So from now on, we can assume that w , and maybe v are unit vector. Then, as an example, we can consider the case where $w = (1, 0)$. It follows from the definition of cosine that $\langle v, w \rangle = \|v\| \cos(\alpha)$. We can also see that taking $\langle v, (1, 0) \rangle$ and $\langle v, (0, 1) \rangle$ produces the (x, y) coordinates of v . That is, if $(1, 0)$ and $(0, 1)$ are an orthonormal basis, taking inner products with them gives the coordinates of a point relative to that basis. This is why the inner product is so useful. We just have to show that this is true for any orthonormal basis, not just $(1, 0)$ and $(0, 1)$.

How do we prove these properties of the inner product? Let's start with the fact that orthogonal vectors have 0 inner product. Suppose one vector is (x, y) , and WLOG $x, y > 0$. Then, if we rotate that by 90 degrees counterclockwise, we'll get $(y, -x)$. Rotating the vector is just like rotating the coordinate system in the opposite direction. And $(x, y) \cdot (y, -x) = xy - yx = 0$.

Next, note that $v \cdot w = (v \cdot w) / (\|v\| \|w\|) \cdot \|v\| \|w\|$. This means that if we can show that when v and w are unit vectors $v \cdot w = \cos \alpha$, then it will follow that in general $v \cdot w = \|v\| \|w\| \cos \alpha$. So suppose v and w are unit vectors.

Next, note that if $w_1 + w_2 = w$, then $v \cdot w = v \cdot (w_1 + w_2) = v \cdot w_1 + v \cdot w_2$. For any w , we can write it as the sum of $w_1 + w_2$, where w_1 is perpendicular to v , and w_2 is in the same direction as v . So $v \cdot w_1 = 0$. $v \cdot w_2 = \|w_2\|$, since $v \cdot w_2 / \|w_2\| = 1$. Then, if we just draw a picture, we can see that $\cos \alpha = \|w_2\| = v \cdot w_2 = v \cdot w$.

Points

Using these facts, we can represent points.

Note:

$$(x,y,z) = x(1,0,0) + y(0,1,0) + z(0,0,1)$$

$$x = (x,y,z).(1,0,0) \quad y = (x,y,z).(0,1,0)$$

$$z = (x,y,z).(0,0,1)$$

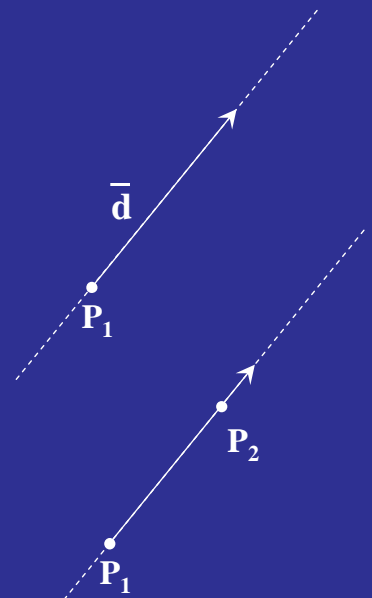
Lines

- Line: $y = mx + a$
- Line: sum of a point and a vector
 $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha \bar{\mathbf{d}}$
(where $\bar{\mathbf{d}}$ is a column vector)

- Line: Affine sum of two points
 $\mathbf{P} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{P}_2$, where $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 1$

Line Segment: For $0 \leq \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \leq 1$, \mathbf{P} lies between \mathbf{P}_1 and \mathbf{P}_2

- Line: set of points equidistant from the origin in the direction of a unit vector. $(a,b) \cdot (x,y) = -c$.

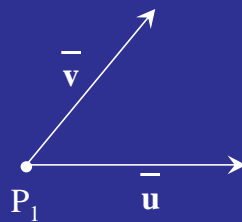


Plane and Triangle

- Plane: sum of a point and two vectors

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha \bar{\mathbf{u}} + \beta \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$

Plane: set of points equidistant from origin in direction of a vector.



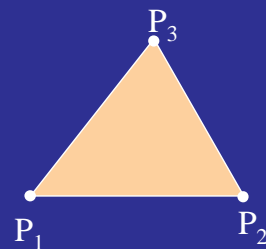
- Triangle: Affine sum of three points

with $\alpha_i \geq 0$

$$\mathbf{P} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{P}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{P}_3,$$

where $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 = 1$

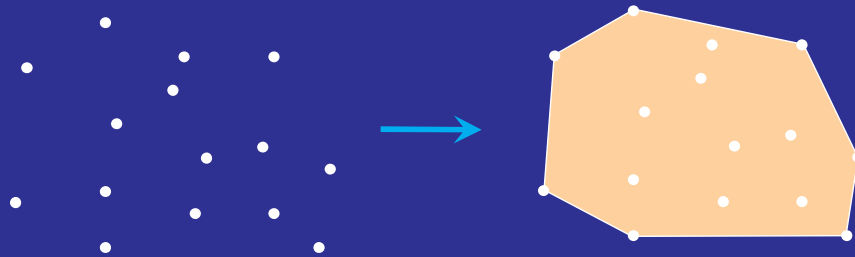
\mathbf{P} lies between $\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \mathbf{P}_3$



Generalizing ...

Affine Sum of arbitrary number of points: Convex Hull

$\mathbf{P} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{P}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \mathbf{P}_n$, where $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n = 1$ and $\alpha_i \geq 0$

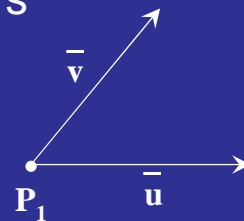


Normal of a Plane

Plane: sum of a point and two vectors

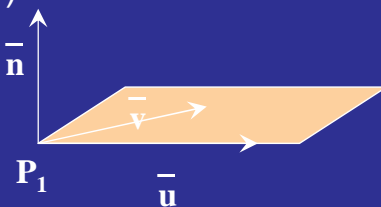
$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}_1 + \alpha \bar{\mathbf{u}} + \beta \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$

$$\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{P}_1 = \alpha \bar{\mathbf{u}} + \beta \bar{\mathbf{v}}$$



If $\bar{\mathbf{n}}$ is orthogonal to $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{v}}$ ($\mathbf{n} = \bar{\mathbf{u}} \times \bar{\mathbf{v}}$):

$$\bar{\mathbf{n}}^T \cdot (\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{P}_1) = \alpha \bar{\mathbf{n}}^T \cdot \bar{\mathbf{u}} + \beta \bar{\mathbf{n}}^T \cdot \bar{\mathbf{v}} = 0$$



Implicit Equation of a Plane

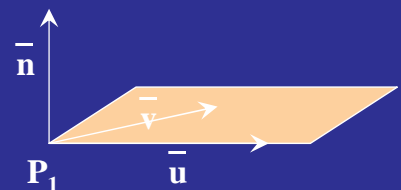
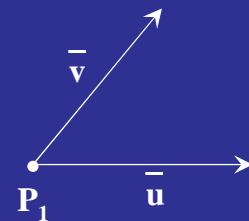
$$\bar{\mathbf{n}}^T \cdot (\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{P}_1) = 0$$

$$\text{Let } \bar{\mathbf{n}} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{P}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ z_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then, the equation of a plane becomes:

$$a(x - x_1) + b(y - y_1) + c(z - z_1) = 0$$

$$ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

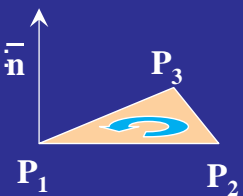


Thus, the coefficients of x , y , z in a plane equation define the normal.

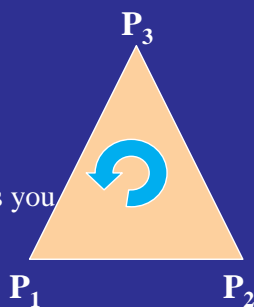
Normal of a Triangle

Normal of the plane containing the triangle (P_1, P_2, P_3) \vec{n}

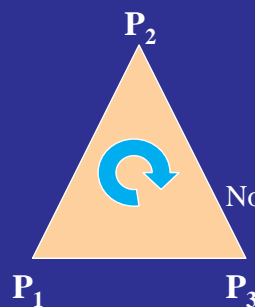
$$\vec{n} = (P_2 - P_1) \times (P_3 - P_1)$$



Normal pointing towards you



Normal pointing away from you



- Models constructed with consistent ordering of triangle vertices :
 - all clockwise or all counter-clockwise.
- Usually normals point out of the model.

Normal of a Vertex in a Mesh

$$\bar{\mathbf{n}}_v = (\bar{\mathbf{n}}_1 + \bar{\mathbf{n}}_2 + \dots + \bar{\mathbf{n}}_k) / k = \sum \bar{\mathbf{n}}_i / k$$

= average of adjacent triangle normals

or better:

$$\bar{\mathbf{n}}_v = \sum (A_i \bar{\mathbf{n}}_i) / (k \sum (A_i))$$

= area-weighted average of adjacent triangle normals

