Lecture 4: Affine Transformations

for Satan himself is transformed into an angel of light. 2 Corinthians 11:14

1. Transformations

Transformations are the lifeblood of geometry. Euclidean geometry is based on *rigid motions* -- translation and rotation -- transformations that preserve distances and angles. *Congruent triangles* are triangles where corresponding lengths and angles match.

The turtle uses translation (FORWARD), rotation (TURN), and uniform scaling (RESIZE) to move about on the plane. The turtle can also apply translation (SHIFT), rotation (SPIN), and scaling (SCALE) to generate new shapes from previously defined turtle programs. These three transformations -- translation, rotation and uniform scaling -- are called *conformal transformations*. Conformal transformations preserve angles, but not distances. *Similar triangles* are triangles where corresponding angles agree, but the lengths of corresponding sides are scaled. The ability to scale is what allows the turtle to generate self-similar fractals like the Sierpinski gasket.

In Computer Graphics transformations are employed to position, orient, and scale objects as well as to model shape. Much of elementary Computational Geometry and Computer Graphics is based upon an understanding of the effects of different transformations.

The transformations that appear most often in 2-dimensional Computer Graphics are the affine transformations. *Affine transformations* are composites of four basic types of transformations: translation, rotation, scaling (uniform and non-uniform), and shear. Affine transformations do not necessarily preserve either distances or angles, but affine transformations map straight lines to straight lines and affine transformations preserve ratios of distances along straight lines. For example, affine transformations map midpoints to midpoints. In this lecture we are going to develop explicit formulas for various affine transformations; in the next lecture we will use these affine transformations as an alternative to turtle programs to model shapes for Computer Graphics.

2. Conformal Transformations

Among the most important affine transformations are the conformal transformations: translation, rotation, and uniform scaling. We shall begin our study of affine transformations by developing explicit formulas for these conformal transformations.

To fix our notation, we will use upper case letters $P,Q,R,\ldots$ from the middle of the alphabet to denote points and lower case letters $u,v,w,\ldots$ from the end of the alphabet to denote vectors. Lower

case letters with subscripts will denote rectangular coordinates. Thus, for example, we shall write $P = (p_1, p_2)$ to denote that (p_1, p_2) are the rectangular coordinates of the point P. Similarly, we shall write $v = (v_1, v_2)$ to denote that (v_1, v_2) are the rectangular coordinates of the vector v.

2.1 Translation. We have already encountered translation in our study of turtle graphics (see Figure 1). To translate a point $P = (p_1, p_2)$ by a vector $w = (w_1, w_2)$, we set

$$P^{new} = P + w \tag{1}$$

or in terms of coordinates

$$p_1^{new} = p_1 + w_1$$
$$p_2^{new} = p_2 + w_2 .$$

Vectors are unaffected by translation, so

$$v^{new} = v .$$

We can rewrite these equations in matrix form. Let I denote the 2×2 identity matrix; then

$$P^{new} = P * I + w$$
$$v^{new} = v * I.$$

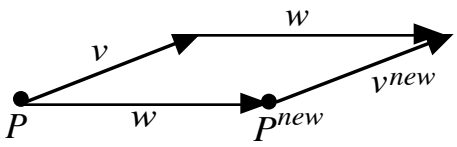

Figure 1: Translation. Points are affected by translation; vectors are not affected by translation.

2.2 Rotation. We also encountered rotation in turtle graphics. Recall from Lecture 1 that to rotate a vector $v = (v_1, v_2)$ through an angle θ, we introduce the orthogonal vector $v^{\perp} = (-v_2, v_1)$ and set

$$v^{new} = \cos(\theta) v + \sin(\theta) v^{\perp}$$

or equivalently in terms of coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} v_1^{new} &= v_1 \cos(\theta) - v_2 \sin(\theta) \\ v_2^{new} &= v_1 \sin(\theta) + v_2 \cos(\theta) \ . \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Introducing the rotation matrix

$$Rot(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix},$$

we can rewrite Equation (2) in matrix form as

$$v^{new} = v * Rot(\theta) \ . \tag{3}$$

In our study of affine geometry in the plane, we want to rotate not only vectors, but also points about other points. Since $P = Q + (P - Q)$, rotating a point P about another point Q through the angle θ is equivalent to rotating the vector $P - Q$ through the angle θ and then adding the resulting vector to Q (see Figure 2). Thus by Equation (3) the formula for rotating a point P about another point Q through the angle θ is

$$P^{new} = Q + (P - Q) * Rot(\theta) = P * Rot(\theta) + Q * \big(I - Rot(\theta)\big), \qquad (4)$$

where I is again the 2×2 identity matrix. Notice that if Q is the origin, then this formula reduces to

$$P^{new} = P * Rot(\theta),$$

so $Rot(\theta)$ is also the matrix representing rotation of points about the origin.

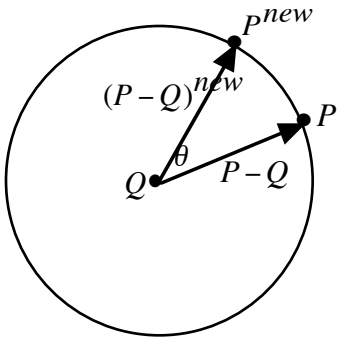

Figure 2: Rotation about the point Q. Since the point Q is fixed and since $P = Q + (P - Q)$, rotating a point P about the point Q through the angle θ is equivalent to rotating the vector $P - Q$ through the angle θ and then adding the resulting vector to Q.

2.3 Uniform Scaling. Uniform scaling also appears in turtle graphics. To scale a vector $v = (v_1, v_2)$ by a factor s, we simply set

$$v^{new} = sv \qquad (5)$$

or in terms of coordinates

$$v_1^{new} = sv_1$$
$$v_2^{new} = sv_2.$$

Introducing the scaling matrix

$$Scale(s) = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 \\ 0 & s \end{pmatrix},$$

we can rewrite Equation (5) in matrix form as

$$v^{new} = v * Scale(s).$$

Again, in affine geometry we want not only to scale vectors, but also to scale uniformly the distance of points from a fixed point. Since $P = Q + (P - Q)$, scaling the distance of an arbitrary point P from a fixed point Q by the factor s is equivalent to scaling the length of the vector $P - Q$ by the factor s and then adding the resulting vector to Q (see Figure 3). Thus the formula for scaling the distance of an arbitrary point P from a fixed point Q by the factor s is

$$P^{new} = Q + (P - Q) * Scale(s) = P * Scale(s) + Q * \big(I - Scale(s)\big). \qquad (6)$$

Notice that if Q is the origin, then this formula reduces to

$$P^{new} = P * Scale(s),$$

so $Scale(s)$ is also the matrix that represents scaling the distance of points from the origin.

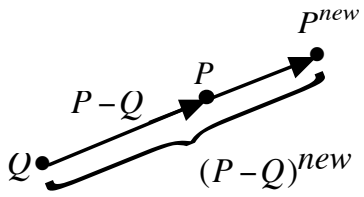

Figure 3: Uniform scaling about a fixed point Q. Since the point Q is fixed and since $P = Q + (P - Q)$, scaling the distance of a point P from the point Q by the factor s is equivalent to scaling the vector $P - Q$ by the factor s and then adding the resulting vector to Q.

3. General Affine Transformations

The three conformal transformations -- translation, rotation, and uniform scaling -- all have the following form: there exists a matrix M and a vector w such that

$$\begin{aligned} v^{new} &= v * M \\ P^{new} &= P * M + w. \end{aligned} \qquad (7)$$

In fact, this form characterizes all affine transformations. That is, a transformation is said to be *affine* if and only if there is a matrix M and a vector w so that Equation (7) is satisfied.

The matrix M represents a linear transformation on vectors. Recall that a transformation L on vectors is *linear* if

$$\begin{aligned} L(u + v) &= L(u) + L(v) \\ L(cv) &= cL(v). \end{aligned} \qquad (8)$$

Matrix multiplication represents a linear transformation because matrix multiplication distributes through vector addition and commutes with scalar multiplication -- that is,

$$(u+v)*M = u*M + v*M$$
$$(cv)*M = c(v*M).$$

The vector w in Equation (7) represents translation on the points. Thus an affine transformation can always be decomposed into a linear transformation followed by a translation. Notice that translation is not a linear transformation, since translation does not satisfy Equation (8); therefore translation cannot be represented by 2×2 matrix multiplication.

Affine transformations can also be characterized abstractly in a manner similar to linear transformations. A transformation A is said to be *affine* if A maps points to points, A maps vectors to vectors, and

$$\begin{aligned} A(u+v) &= A(u) + A(v) \\ A(c\,v) &= c\,A(v) \\ A(P+v) &= A(P) + A(v). \end{aligned} \qquad (9)$$

The first two equalities in Equation (9) say that an affine transformation is a linear transformation on vectors; the third equality says that affine transformations are well behaved with respect to the addition of points and vectors. It is easy to check that translation is an affine transformation.

In terms of coordinates, linear transformations can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} x^{new} &= a\,x + b\,y \\ y^{new} &= c\,x + d\,y \end{aligned} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (x^{new}, y^{new}) = (x,y) * \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

whereas affine transformations have the form

$$\begin{aligned} x^{new} &= a\,x + b\,y + e \\ y^{new} &= c\,x + d\,y + f \end{aligned} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (x^{new}, y^{new}) = (x,y) * \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix} + (e,f) \ .$$

There is also a geometric way to characterize affine transformations. Affine transformations map lines to lines (or if the transformation is degenerate a line can get mapped to a single point). For suppose that L is the line determined by the point P and the direction vector v. Then the point Q lies on the line L if and only if there is a constant λ such that

$$Q = P + \lambda v$$

If A is an affine transformation, then by Equation (9)

$$A(Q) = A(P + \lambda v) = A(P) + \lambda A(v).$$

Therefore the point $A(Q)$ lies on the line $A(L)$ determined by the point $A(P)$ and the vector $A(v)$. (If $A(v) = 0$, then the transformation A is degenerate and $A(L)$ collapses to a single point.) Moreover, suppose Q is a point on the line segment PR that splits PR into two segments in the ratio a/b. If A is an affine transformation, then $A(Q)$ splits the line segment $A(P)A(R)$ into two segments in the same ratio a/b -- that is, affine transformations preserves ratios of distances along straight lines (see Figure 4). We can prove this result in the following fashion. Since Q lies along

the line PR

$$\frac{|Q-P|}{|R-P|}=\frac{a}{a+b} \;\Leftrightarrow\; Q=P+\frac{a}{a+b}(R-P)\,.$$

Similarly, since $A(Q)$ lies along the line $A(P)A(R)$,

$$\frac{|A(Q)-A(P)|}{|A(R)-A(P)|}=\frac{a'}{a'+b'}\Leftrightarrow A(Q)=A(P)+\frac{a'}{a'+b'}\big(A(R)-A(P)\big)$$

But by Equation (9)

$$Q=P+\frac{a}{a+b}(R-P)\Rightarrow A(Q)=A(P)+\frac{a}{a+b}A(R-P)=A(P)+\frac{a}{a+b}\big(A(R)-A(P)\big).$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{a'}{a'+b'}=\frac{a}{a+b}\,,$$

so $A(Q)$ splits the line segment $A(P)A(R)$ into two segments in the same ratio that Q split the line segment PR.

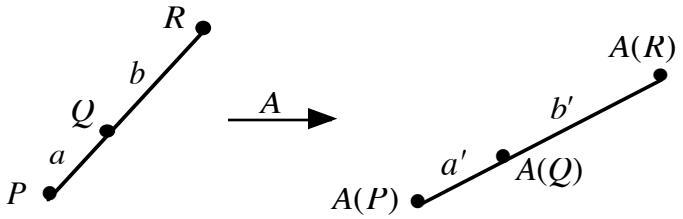

Figure 4: Affine transformations map straight lines to straight lines and preserve ratios of distances along straight lines. Thus $\frac{a'}{a'+b'}=\frac{a}{a+b}$.

Linear transformations are typically represented by matrices because composing two linear transformations is equivalent to multiplying the corresponding matrices. We would like to have the same facility with affine transformations -- that is, we would like to be able to compose two affine transformations by multiplying their matrix representations. Unfortunately, our current representation of an affine transformation in terms of a linear transformation matrix M and a translation vector w does not work so well when we want to compose two affine transformations. In order to overcome this difficulty, we shall now introduce a clever device called *affine coordinates*.

3.1 Affine Coordinates. Points and vectors are both represented by pairs of rectangular coordinates, but points and vectors are different types of objects with different behaviors for the same affine transformations. For example, points are affected by translation, but vectors are not. We are now going to introduce a third coordinate -- an affine coordinate -- to distinguish between points and vectors. Affine coordinates will also allow us to represent each affine transformation using a single 3×3 matrix and to compose any two affine transformations by matrix multiplication.

Since points are affected by translation and vectors are not, the affine coordinate for a point is 1; the affine coordinate for a vector is 0. Thus, from now on, we shall write $P = (p_1, p_2, 1)$ for points and $v = (v_1, v_2, 0)$ for vectors.

Affine transformations can now be represented by 3×3 matrices, where the third column is always $(0 \quad 0 \quad 1)^T$. The affine transformation

$$v^{new} = v * M$$

$$P^{new} = P * M + w.$$

represented by the 2×2 matrix M and the translation vector w can be rewritten using affine coordinates in terms of a single 3×3 matrix

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{pmatrix} M & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now

$$(v^{new}, 0) = (v, 0) * \tilde{M} = (v, 0) * \begin{pmatrix} M & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (v * M, 0)$$

$$(P^{new}, 1) = (P, 1) * \tilde{M} = (P, 1) * \begin{pmatrix} M & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (P * M + w, 1).$$

Notice how the affine coordinate -- 0 for vectors and 1 for points -- is correctly reproduced by multiplication with the last column of the matrix $\tilde{M}$. Notice too that the 0 in the third coordinate for vectors effectively insures that vectors ignore the translation represented by the vector *w*.

Below we rewrite the standard conformal transformations -- translation, rotation, and uniform scaling -- in terms of 3×3 affine matrices.

Translation -- by the vector $w = (w_1, w_2)$

$$Trans(w) = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ w_1 & w_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation -- around the Origin through the angle θ

$$Rot(\theta, Origin) = \begin{pmatrix} Rot(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation -- around the point $Q=(q_1,q_2)$ *through the angle* θ

$$Rot(Q,\theta)=\begin{pmatrix} Rot(\theta) & 0 \\ Q*\big(I-Rot(\theta)\big) & 1 \end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ q_1\big(1-\cos(\theta)\big)+q_2\sin(\theta) & -q_1\sin(\theta)+q_2\big(1-\cos(\theta)\big) & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Uniform Scaling -- around the Origin by the factor s

$$Scale(Origin,s)=\begin{pmatrix} sI & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Uniform Scaling -- around the point $Q=(q_1,q_2)$ *by the factor s*

$$Scale(Q,s)=\begin{pmatrix} sI & 0 \\ Q*(1-s)I & 1 \end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ (1-s)q_1 & (1-s)q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

3.2 Image of One Point and Two Vectors. Fix a point Q and two linearly independent vectors u,v. Since the vectors u,v form a basis, for any vector w there are scalars σ,τ such that

$$w=\sigma u+\tau v.$$

Hence for any point P, there are scalars s,t such that

$$P-Q=su+tv$$

or equivalently

$$P=Q+su+tv$$

Therefore if A is an affine transformation, then by Equation (9)

$$\begin{aligned} A(P)&=A(Q)+sA(u)+tA(v) \\ A(w)&=\sigma A(u)+\tau A(v)\ . \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Thus if we know the effect of the transformation A on one point Q and on two linearly independent vectors u,v, then we know the affect of A on every point P and every vector w. Hence, in addition to conformal transformations, there is another important way to define affine transformations of the plane: by specifying the image of one point and two linearly independent vectors.

Geometrically, Equation (10) says that an affine transformation A maps the parallelogram determined by the point Q and the vectors u,v into the parallelogram determined by the point $A(Q)$ and the vectors $A(u),A(v)$ (see Figure 5). Thus affine transformations map parallelograms into parallelograms.

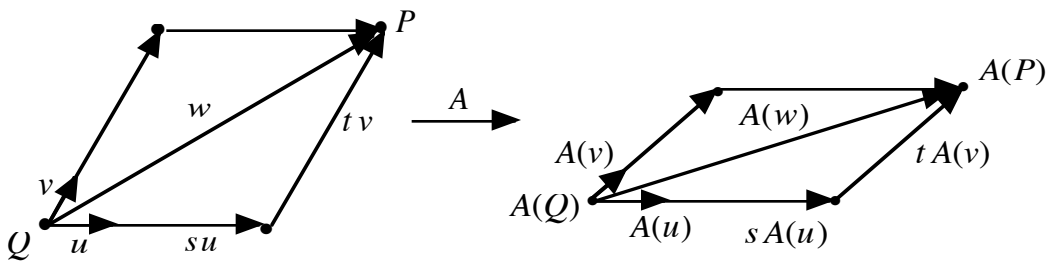

Figure 5: Affine transformations map parallelograms to parallelograms.

To find the 3×3 matrix representation M of such an affine transformation A, let Q^*,u^*,v^* be the images of Q,u,v under the transformation A. Then using affine coordinates, we have

$$(u^*,0) = (u,0) * M$$

$$(v^*,0) = (v,0) * M$$

$$(Q^*,1) = (Q,1) * M$$

where

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} a & c & 0 \\ b & d & 0 \\ e & f & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} u^* & 0 \\ v^* & 0 \\ Q^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{S_{new}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} u & 0 \\ v & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{S_{old}} * \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a & c & 0 \\ b & d & 0 \\ e & f & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{M}.$$

Solving for M yields

$$M = S_{old}^{-1} * S_{new}$$

or equivalently

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} u & 0 \\ v & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} u^* & 0 \\ v^* & 0 \\ Q^* & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & 0 \\ v_1 & v_2 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} u_1^* & u_2^* & 0 \\ v_1^* & v_2^* & 0 \\ q_1^* & q_2^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

To compute M explicitly, we need to invert a 3×3 matrix. For nonsingular 3×3 matrices N there is a slick way to find N^{-1}. Suppose that

$$N = \begin{pmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{pmatrix};$$

then

$$N^{-1} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} B \times C & C \times A & A \times B \end{pmatrix}}{Det(N)},$$

where $\times$ denotes cross product. This result is easily verified using the standard properties of the cross product, which we shall review in Lecture 9.

3.3 Non-Uniform Scaling. Uniform scaling scales distances by the same amount in all directions; non-uniform scaling scales distances by different amounts in different directions. We are interested in non-uniform scaling for many reasons. For example, we can apply non-uniform scaling to generate an ellipse by scaling a circle from its center along a fixed direction (see Figure 6). To scale the distance from a fixed point Q along an arbitrary direction w by a scale factor s, we can apply our method for generating arbitrary affine transformations by specifying the image of one point and two linearly independent vectors (see Figure 7).

Figure 6: Scaling a circle from its center along a fixed direction generates an ellipse.

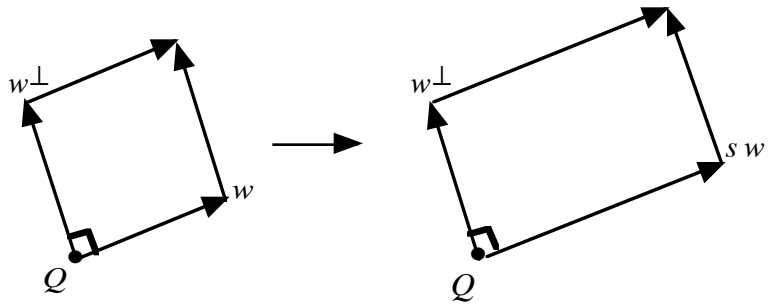

Figure 7: Scaling from the fixed point Q in the direction w by the scale factor s. The point Q is fixed, the vector w is scaled by s, and the orthogonal vector $w^{\perp}$ remains fixed. Thus non-uniform scaling maps a square into a rectangle.

Let $Scale(Q,w,s)$ denote the transformation that scales the distance from a fixed point Q along an arbitrary direction w by a scale factor s. To find the 3×3 matrix that represents the transformation $Scale(Q,w,s)$, we need to know the image of one point and two linearly independent

vectors. Consider the point Q and the vectors w and $w^{\perp}$, where $w^{\perp}$ is a vector of the same length as w perpendicular to w. It is easy to see how the transformation $Scale(Q,w,s)$ affects Q, w, $w^{\perp}$:

- $Q \to Q$ because Q is a fixed point of the transformation;
- $w \to sw$ because distances are scaled by the factor s along the direction w;
- $w^{\perp} \to w^{\perp}$ because distances along the vector $w^{\perp}$ are not changed, since $w^{\perp}$ is orthogonal to the scaling direction w.

Therefore by the results of the previous section:

$$Scale(Q,w,s) = \begin{pmatrix} w & 0 \\ w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} sw & 0 \\ w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now recall that if $w = (w_1, w_2)$, then $w^{\perp} = (-w_2, w_1)$. Therefore in terms of coordinates

$$Scale(Q,w,s) = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 & w_2 & 0 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} sw_1 & sw_2 & 0 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice, in particular, that if Q is the origin and w is the unit vector along the x-axis, then $w^{\perp}$ is the unit vector along the y-axis, so

$$\begin{pmatrix} w_1 & w_2 & 0 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = Identity\ Matrix.$$

Therefore scaling along the x-axis is represented by the matrix

$$Scale(Origin,i,s) = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Similarly, scaling along the y-axis is represented by the matrix

$$Scale(Origin,j,s) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

3.4 Image of Three Non-Collinear Points. If we know the image of three non-collinear points under an affine transformation, then we also know the image one point and two linearly independent vectors. Indeed suppose that we know the image of the three non-collinear points P_1, P_2, P_3 under the affine transformation A. Then $u = P_2 - P_1$ and $v = P_3 - P_1$ are certainly linearly independent

vectors, and

$$A(u) = A(P_2 - P_1) = A(P_2) - A(P_1)$$
$$A(v) = A(P_3 - P_1) = A(P_3) - A(P_1) \ .$$

Hence if we know the image of P_1, P_2, P_3 under the affine transformation *A*, then we know the image of the point P_1 and the linearly independent vectors *u*,*v*. Therefore the image of three non-collinear points specifies a unique affine transformation. We are now going to study the geometry behind affine transformations defined by the image of three non-collinear points. To assist our understanding, we shall introduce the notion of barycentric coordinates.

A point and two orthogonal unit vectors define a rectangular coordinate system. Similarly, three non-collinear points define a barycentric coordinate system. Suppose that P_1, P_2, P_3 are three non-collinear points. If *P* is any point in the plane, then there are unique scalars s,t such that

$$P = P_1 + s(P_2 - P_1) + t(P_3 - P_1)$$

or equivalently

$$P = (1 - s - t)P_1 + sP_2 + tP_3 .$$

Let $\beta_1 = 1 - s - t$, $\beta_2 = s$, $\beta_3 = t$. Then

$$P = \beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \beta_3 P_3 \qquad (10)$$

and

$$\beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3 = 1 \ . \qquad (11)$$

The scalars $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ are called the *barycentric coordinates* of the point *P* relative to $\Delta P_1 P_2 P_3$.

Barycentric coordinates have a geometric interpretation in terms of ratios of areas. In fact,

$$\beta_1 = \pm \frac{Area(\Delta P P_2 P_3)}{Area(\Delta P_1 P_2, P_3)}, \ \beta_2 = \pm \frac{Area(\Delta P P_3 P_1)}{Area(\Delta P_1 P_2, P_3)}, \ \beta_3 = \pm \frac{Area(\Delta P P_1 P_2)}{Area(\Delta P_1 P_2, P_3)} \qquad (12)$$

where the sign of the area depends on the location of *P* relative to $\Delta P_1 P_2 P_3$. In particular, the signs are all positive if *P* lies inside of $\Delta P_1 P_2 P_3$ (see Figure 8).

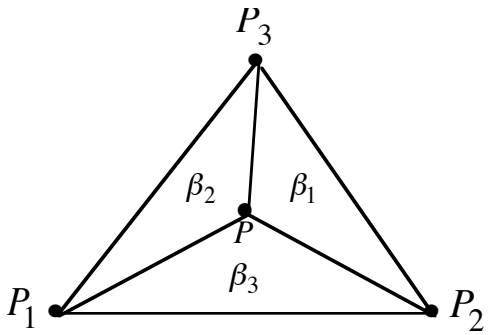

Figure 8: The barycentric coordinates $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ of the point *P* relative to. $\Delta P_1 P_2 P_3$.

To prove the results in Equation (12), observe that by Equations (10) and (11)

$$P = P_1 + \beta_2 (P_2 - P_1) + \beta_3 (P_3 - P_1)$$

or equivalently

$$P - P_1 = \beta_2 (P_2 - P_1) + \beta_3 (P_3 - P_1).$$

Crossing both sides with the vector $P_2 - P_1$ yields

$$(P - P_1) \times (P_2 - P_1) = \beta_3 (P_3 - P_1) \times (P_2 - P_1).$$

Therefore taking the magnitude of both sides and solving for β_3, we find that

$$|\beta_3| = \frac{|(P - P_1) \times (P_2 - P_1)|}{|(P_3 - P_1) \times (P_2 - P_1)|}.$$

But we shall show in Lecture 11 that for any triangle

$$Area(\Delta PQR) = \frac{|(Q - P) \times (R - P)|}{2}..$$

Hence

$$|\beta_3| = \frac{Area(\Delta PP_1P_2)}{Area(\Delta P_1P_2,P_3)}.$$

Similar arguments give similar formulas for β_1.and β_2.

Now let A be an affine transformation and let $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ be the barycentric coordinates of the point P relative to $\Delta P_1P_2P_3$. Then

$$P = \beta_1 P_1 + \beta_2 P_2 + \beta_3 P_3$$

so

$$A(P) = \beta_1 A(P_1) + \beta_2 A(P_2) + \beta_3 A(P_3).$$

Hence $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ are the barycentric coordinates of the point $A(P)$ relative to $\Delta A(P_1)A(P_2)A(P_3)$. Therefore affine transformation preserve barycentric coordinates (see Figure 9).

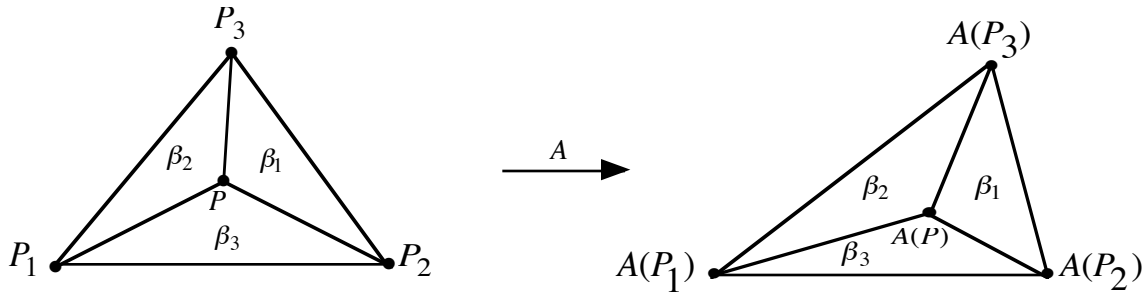

Figure 9: The image of three non-collinear points specifies a unique affine transformation that preserves barycentric coordinates.

To find the 3×3 matrix M that represents an affine transformation A defined by the image of three non-collinear points, we can proceed as in Section 3.2. Let P_1^*, P_2^*, P_3^* be the images of the points P_1, P_2, P_3 under the transformation A. Using affine coordinates, we have

$$(P_1^*,1) = (P_1,1) * M$$

$$(P_2^*,1) = (P_2,1) * M$$

$$(P_3^*,1) = (P_3,1) * M$$

where

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} a & c & 0 \\ b & d & 0 \\ e & f & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} P_1^* & 1 \\ P_2^* & 1 \\ P_3^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{P_{new}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} P_1 & 1 \\ P_2 & 1 \\ P_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{P_{old}} * \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a & c & 0 \\ b & d & 0 \\ e & f & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{M}.$$

Solving for M yields

$$M = P_{old}^{-1} * P_{new}$$

or equivalently if $P_k = (x_k, y_k)$ and $P_k^* = (x_k^*, y_k^*)$ for $k = 1,2,3$, then

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} P_1 & 1 \\ P_2 & 1 \\ P_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} P_1^* & 1 \\ P_2^* & 1 \\ P_3^* & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} x_1^* & y_1^* & 1 \\ x_2^* & y_2^* & 1 \\ x_3^* & y_3^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Notice the similarity to the matrix expression in Section 3.2 for the affine transformation defined by the image of one point and two linearly independent vectors. The only differences are the ones appearing in the first two rows of the third columns, indicating that two vectors have been replaced by two points.

4. Summary

Below is a summary of the main high level concepts that you need to remember from this lecture. Also listed below for your convenience are all the 3×3 matrices representing affine transformations that we have derived in this lecture.

4.1 Affine Transformations and Affine Coordinates. Affine transformations are the fundamental transformations of 2-dimensional Computer Graphics. There are several different ways of characterizing affine transformations:

1. A transformation A is affine if there exists a 2×2 matrix M and a vector w such that
   $A(v) = v * M$
   $A(P) = P * M + w$.

2. A transformation A is affine if there is a 3×3 matrix M such that
   $\big(A(v), 0\big) = (v, 0) * M$
   $\big(A(P), 1\big) = (P, 1) * M$

3. A transformation A is affine if
   $A(u + v) = A(u) + A(v)$
   $A(c\,v) = c\,A(v)$
   $A(P + v) = A(P) + A(v)$.

4. A transformation A is affine if A preserves ratios of distances along straight lines.

Affine transformations include the standard conformal transformations -- translation, rotation, and uniform scaling -- of turtle graphics, but they also incorporate other transformations such as non-uniform scaling. Every affine transformations can be specified either by the image of one point and two linearly independent vectors or by the image of three non-collinear points.

Affine coordinates are used to distinguish between points and vectors. The affine coordinate of a point is 1; the affine coordinate of a vector is 0. Affine coordinates can be applied to represent all affine transformations by 3×3 matrices of the form,

$$\tilde{M} = \begin{pmatrix} M & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

so that

$$(v^{new}, 0) = (v, 0) * M$$
$$(P^{new}, 1) = (P, 1) * M.$$

These matrix representations allow us to compose affine transformations using matrix multiplication.

Finally a word of caution. We use matrices to *represent* transformations, but matrices are not the same things as transformations. Matrix representations for affine transformations are akin to coordinate representations for points and vectors -- that is, a low level computational tool for communicating efficiently with a computer. *Matrices are the assembly language of transformations*. As usual, we do not want to think or write programs in an assembly language; we want to work in a high level language. In the next lecture, we shall introduce a high level language for 2-dimensional Computer Graphics based on affine transformations. You will code the matrices for these transformations only once, but you will use the corresponding high level transformations many, many times.

4.2 Matrices for Affine Transformations in the Plane

Translation -- by the vector $w = (w_1, w_2)$

$$Trans(w) = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ w & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ w_1 & w_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation -- around the Origin through the angle θ

$$Rot(\theta, Origin) = \begin{pmatrix} Rot(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation -- around the point $Q = (q_1, q_2)$ *through the angle* θ

$$Rot(Q,\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} Rot(\theta) & 0 \\ Q * (I - Rot(\theta)) & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ q_1(1-\cos(\theta)) + q_2 \sin(\theta) & -q_1 \sin(\theta) + q_2(1-\cos(\theta)) & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Uniform Scaling -- around the Origin by the factor s

$$Scale(Origin, s) = \begin{pmatrix} sI & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Uniform Scaling -- around the point $Q = (q_1, q_2)$ *by the factor s*

$$Scale(Q, s) = \begin{pmatrix} sI & 0 \\ Q * (1-s)I & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ (1-s)q_1 & (1-s)q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Non-*Uniform Scaling -- around point* $Q = (q_1, q_2)$ *in direction* $w = (w_1, w_2)$ *by the factor s*

$$Scale(Q,w,s) = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 & w_2 & 0 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} s w_1 & s w_2 & 0 \\ -w_2 & w_1 & 0 \\ q_1 & q_2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Scaling from the Origin along the x-axis by the factor s

$$Scale(Origin, i, s) = \begin{pmatrix} s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Scaling from the Origin along the y-axis by the factor s

$$Scale(Origin, j, s) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Image of One Point $Q = (x_3, y_3)$ *and Two Vectors* $v_1 = (x_1, y_1),\ v_2 = (x_2, y_2)$

$$Image(v_1, v_2, Q) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 0 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 0 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} x_1^* & y_1^* & 0 \\ x_2^* & y_2^* & 0 \\ x_3^* & y_3^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Image of Three Non-Collinear Points $P_1 = (x_1, y_1),\ P_2 = (x_2, y_2),\ P_3 = (x_3, y_3)$

$$Image(P_1, P_2, P_3) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} x_1^* & y_1^* & 1 \\ x_2^* & y_2^* & 1 \\ x_3^* & y_3^* & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Inverse of a 3×3 *Matrix* $N = \begin{pmatrix} A & B & C \end{pmatrix}^T$

$$N^{-1} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} B \times C & C \times A & A \times B \end{pmatrix}}{Det(N)}$$

Exercises

1. Show that translation is not a linear transformation, but is an affine transformation on points.

2. Show that the formula for scaling a point P around a point Q by a scale factor s is equivalent to $P^{new} = (1 - s)Q + sP$.

3. Let w_Q denote the vector from the point Q to the origin.
   a. Without appealing to coordinates and without explicitly multiplying matrices, show that:
      i. $Rot(Q, \theta) = Trans(-w_Q) * Rot(\theta) * Trans(w_Q)$
      ii. $Scale(Q, s) = Trans(-w_Q) * Scale(s) * Trans(w_Q)$
   b. Give a geometric interpretation for the results in part a.

4. Let w_Q denote the vector from the point Q to the origin, let i denote the unit vector along the x-axis, and let α denote the angle between the vectors w and i.

a. Without appealing to coordinates and without explicitly multiplying matrices, show that:
$Scale(Q,w,s) = Trans(-w_Q) * Rot(-\alpha) * Scale(Origin, i, s) * Rot(\alpha) * Trans(w_Q)$

b. Give a geometric interpretation for the result in part a.

5. Show that rotation and scaling about a fixed point commute. That is, show that
$Rot(Q,\theta) * Scale(Q,s) = Scale(Q,s) * Rot(Q,\theta)$.

6. Verify that if $w = (w_1, w_2)$, then $w^{\perp} = (-w_2, w_1)$ by invoking the formula
$w^{\perp} = w * Rot(\pi/2)$.

7. What is the geometric effect of the transformation matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} w & 0 \\ w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} sw & 0 \\ t\,w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

8. Show that when affine transformations are represented by 3×3 matrices, composition of affine transformations is equivalent to matrix multiplication.

9. Let A be an affine transformation. Using Equation (9) show that for all points P,Q
$A(Q - P) = A(Q) - A(P)$.

10. Let A be an affine transformation and let $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ be the barycentric coordinates of the point P relative to $\Delta P_1 P_2 P_3$. Using Equation (9) show that
$A(P) = \beta_1 A(P_1) + \beta_2 A(P_2) + \beta_3 A(P_3)$.

11. Show that:
a. the composite of two affine transformations is an affine transformation;
b. the inverse of a nonsingular affine transformation is an affine transformation.

Conclude that the nonsingular affine transformations form a group.

12. Let M,N be two matrices whose third column is $(0 \quad 0 \quad 1)^T$. Show that:
a. the third column of $M * N$ is $(0 \quad 0 \quad 1)^T$;
b. the third column of M^{-1} is $(0 \quad 0 \quad 1)^T$.

Conclude that the nonsingular affine transformation matrices form a group.

13. Show that every conformal transformation is determined by:
a. the image of one point and one vector.
b. the image of two points.

14. Show that if M is a conformal transformation, then $ScaleFactor(M) = \sqrt{\det(M)}$.

15. a. Show that an affine transformation is determined by the image of two points and one vector that is not parallel to the line determined by the two points.

    b. Let P_1^*, P_2^*, v^* be the images of P_1, P_2, v under the affine transformation A. Find the 3×3 matrix M that represents the affine transformation A.

16. Let M be the 3×3 matrix corresponding to the affine transformation A. Show that

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} A(i) & 0 \\ A(j) & 0 \\ A(Origin) & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

17. *Shear* is the affine transformation defined by mapping a unit square with vertex Q and sides $w, w^{\perp}$ into a parallelogram by tilting the edge $w^{\perp}$ so that $w_{new}^{\perp}$ makes an angle of θ with $w^{\perp}$ (see Figure 10). Show that:

a. $$Shear(Q, w, w^{\perp}, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} w & 0 \\ w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} * \begin{pmatrix} w & 0 \\ \tan(\theta) w + w^{\perp} & 0 \\ Q & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

b. $$Shear(Origin, i, j, \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \tan(\theta) & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

c. $\det\left(Shear(Q, w, w^{\perp}, \theta)\right) = 1$.

d. Shear preserves area.

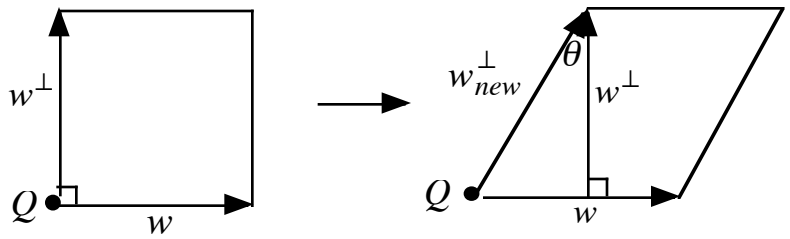

Figure 10: Shear maps the rectangle with vertex Q and sides $w, w^{\perp}$ into a parallelogram by tilting the edge $w^{\perp}$ so that $w_{new}^{\perp}$ makes an angle of θ with $w^{\perp}$.