

Eurographics 2013

Projective Geometry, Duality and Precision of Computation in Computer Graphics, Visualization and Games



Tutorial

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Plzen (Pilsen) City



Plzen is an old city [first records of Plzen castle 976] city of culture, industry, and brewery.

City, where today's beer fermentation process was invented that is why today's beers are called Pilsner - world wide

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Ostrava City

Ostrava is

- an industrial city of coal mining & iron melting
- 3rd largest city



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University of West Bohemia 17530 students + 987 PhD students

Computer Science and Engineering Mathematics (+ Geomatics)
 Physics Cybernetics Mechanics (Computational)

- Over 50% of income from research and application projects
- New research center EU project - investment 64 mil. EUR
- 2nd in the ranking of Czech technical / informatics faculties 2009, 2012



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An overview

- Precision and robustness
- Euclidean space and projective extension
- Principle of duality and its applications
- Geometric computation in the projective space
- Intersection of two planes in E3 with additional constrains
- Barycentric coordinates and intersections
- Interpolation and intersection algorithms
- Implementation aspects and GPU
- Conclusion and summary

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Numerical systems

- Binary system is used nearly exclusively
- Octal & hexadecimal representation is used
- If we would be direct descendants of tetrapods – we would have a great advantage – “simple counting in hexadecimal system”

| | Name | Base | Digits | E min | E max |
|----------------|--------|------|--------|--------|-------|
| BINARY | | | | | |
| B 16 | Half | 2 | 10+1 | -14 | 15 |
| B 32 | Single | 2 | 23+1 | -126 | 127 |
| B 64 | Double | 2 | 52+1 | -1022 | 1023 |
| B 128 | Quad | 2 | 112+1 | -16382 | 16383 |
| DECIMAL | | | | | |
| D 32 | | 10 | 7 | -95 | 96 |
| D 64 | | 10 | 16 | -383 | 384 |
| D 128 | | 10 | 34 | -6143 | 6144 |

IEEE 758-2008 standard



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Mathematically perfect algorithms fail due to instability

Main issues

- stability, robustness of algorithms
- acceptable speed
- linear speedup – results depends on HW, CPU parameters !

Numerical stability

- limited precision of float / double
- tests $A ? B$ with floats

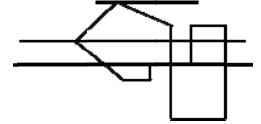
if $A = B$ then else ; if $A = 0$ then else
should be forbidden in programming languages

- division operation should be removed or postponed to the last moment if possible - "blue screens", system resets

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Typical examples of instability

- intersection of 2 lines in E3
- point lies on a line in E2 or a plane in E3
 $Ax + By + C = 0$ or $Ax + By + Cz + D = 0$
- detection if a line intersects a polygon, touches a vertex or passes through



Typical problem

double $x = -1$; double $p = \dots$;

while ($x < +1$)

{ if ($x == p$) Console.Out.WriteLine(" *** ")

$x += p$;

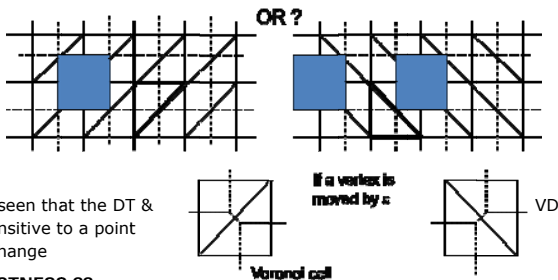
}

/* if $p = 0.1$ then no output, if $p = 0.25$ then expected output */

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Delaunay triangulation & Voronoi diagram

Point inside of a circle given by three points – problems with meshing points in regular rectangular grid.



It can be seen that the DT & is very sensitive to a point position change

?? ROBUSTNESS ??

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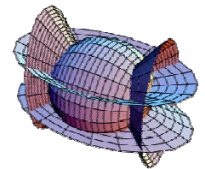
Vectors and Points in Geometry

Vectors – movable, no fixed position

- Points – no size, position fixed in the GIVEN coordinate system

Coordinate systems:

- Cartesian – left / right handed right handed system is used
- Polar
- Spherical, Cylindrical
- and many others, e.g. Confocal Ellipsoidal Coordinates
<http://mathworld.wolfram.com/ConfocalEllipsoidalCoordinates.html>



Courtesy of
<http://mathworld.wolfram.com/ConfocalEllipsoidalCoordinates.html>

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Floating point

- Not all numbers are represented correctly
- Logarithmic arithmetic
- Continuous fractions
- Interval arithmetic

$$\pi = \frac{4}{1 + \frac{1^2}{3 + \frac{2^2}{5 + \frac{3^2}{\dots}}}}$$

$$\pi = [3; 7, 15, 1, 292, 1, 1, 1, 2, 1, 3, 1 \dots]$$

$$\begin{aligned} x + y &= [a + c, b + d] & x &= [a, b] \\ x - y &= [a - d, b - c] & y &= [c, d] \\ x \times y &= [\min(ac, ad, bc, bd), \max(ac, ad, bc, bd)] \\ x / y &= [\min(a/c, a/d, b/c, b/d), \max(a/c, a/d, b/c, b/d)] \text{ if } y \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Numerically NOT valid identities due to limited precision

- $\cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \beta = 1$
- $x^2 - y^2 = (x - y)(x + y)$

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Statements like

if $\langle \text{float} \rangle = \langle \text{float} \rangle$ then or if $\langle \text{float} \rangle \neq \langle \text{float} \rangle$ then

should not be allowed in programming languages

Quadratic equation - more reliable results

$$at^2 + bt + c = 0 \quad \text{usually solved as} \quad t_{1,2} = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

If $b^2 \gg 4ac$ then

$$q = -(b + \text{sign}(b)\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac})/2 \quad t_1 = q/a \quad t_2 = c/a$$

The discriminant should be computed with a twice precision

Vieta's formula

$$t_1 + t_2 = -b/a \quad t_1 t_2 = c/a$$

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Function value computation at $x = 77617, y = 33096$

$$f(x, y) = 333.75y^6 + x^2(11x^2y^2 - y^6 - 121y^4 - 2) + 5.5y^8 + x/(2y)$$

$f = 6.33835 \cdot 10^{29}$ single precision

$f = 1,1726039400532$ double precision

$f = 1,1726039400531786318588349045201838$ extended precision

The correct result is "somewhere" in the interval of

$[-0,827396059946821368141165095479816292005,$
 $-0,827396059946821368141165095479816291986]$

Exact solution

$$f(x, y) = -2 + \frac{x}{2y} = \frac{54767}{66192}$$

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Summation is one of often used computations.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10^3} 10^{-3} = 0.999990701675415$$

or

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10^4} 10^{-4} = 1.000053524971008$$

The result should be only one.

The correctness in summation is very important in power series computations.

!!!!ORDER of summation

$$\sum_{n=1}^{10^6} \frac{1}{n} = 14.357357$$

$$\sum_{n=10^6}^1 \frac{1}{n} = 14.392651$$

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Recursion

Towers of Hanoi

```
MOVE (A, C, n);
{ MOVE (A, B, n-1);
  MOVE (A, C, 1);
  MOVE (B, C, n-1)
} # MOVE (from, to, number) #
```

Ackermann function

$$A(m, n) = \begin{cases} n + 1 & \text{if } m = 0 \\ A(m - 1, 1) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n = 0 \\ A(m - 1, A(m, n - 1)) & \text{if } m > 0 \text{ and } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

The value of the function grows very fast as

$$A(4, 4) = 2^{2^{2^{65536}}} = 2^{2^{10^{197296}}}$$

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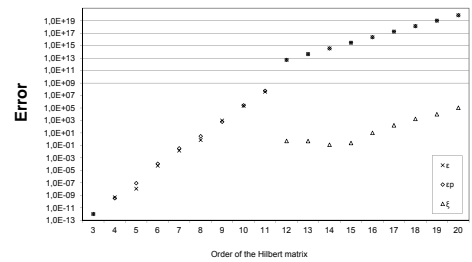
Numerical computations

$$Ax = b \quad x = A^{-1}b$$

Hilbert's Matrix Inversion

$$H_{ij} = \frac{1}{i+j-1}$$

$$H_{ij}^{-1} = (-1)^{i+j} (i+j-1) \binom{n+i-1}{n-j} \binom{n+j-1}{n-i} \binom{i+j-2}{i-1}^2$$



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Mathematical "forms"

There are several "forms":

Implicit $F(x, y, z) = 0$ or $F(x) = 0$ or $F(x) = 0$ (system of equations)

There is no orientation, e.g.

- if $F(x) = 0$ is a iso-curve there is no hint how to find another point of this curve, resp. a line segment approximating the curve => tracing algorithms
- if $F(x) = 0$ is a iso-surface there is no hint how to find another point of this surface => iso-surface extraction algorithms

Parametrical

$$x = x(u) \quad x = x(u, v)$$

Points of a curve are "ORDERED" according to a parameter u , resp. u, v

Explicit $z = f(x)$

$$z = f(x, y) \quad [\text{actually } 2 \frac{1}{2} D]$$

For the given value x , resp. x, y we get function value z

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Implicit form

- Is used for separation - for detection if a point is inside or outside, e.g. a half-plane or a circle etc.
- There is always a question how to compute x of $F(x) = 0$ as there are several solutions in general
- Complexity of computations \times precision of computation

Compiler optimization is **DANGEROUS** in general - numerical precision

$$x^2 - y^2 = (x + y)(x - y)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_x & A_y & A_x^2 + A_y^2 & 1 \\ B_x & B_y & B_x^2 + B_y^2 & 1 \\ C_x & C_y & C_x^2 + C_y^2 & 1 \\ D_x & D_y & D_x^2 + D_y^2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_x - D_x & A_y - D_y & (A_x^2 - D_x^2) + (A_y^2 - D_y^2) \\ B_x - D_x & B_y - D_y & (B_x^2 - D_x^2) + (B_y^2 - D_y^2) \\ C_x - D_x & C_y - D_y & (C_x^2 - D_x^2) + (C_y^2 - D_y^2) \end{bmatrix} > 0$$

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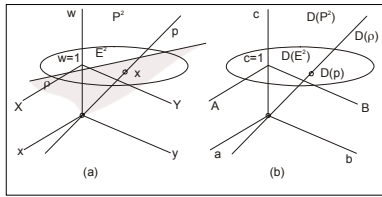
Projective Space

$$X = [X, Y]^T \quad X \in E^2$$

$$x = [x, y, w]^T \quad x \in P^2$$

Conversion:

$$X = [x/w, y/w]^T \quad w \neq 0$$



If $w = 0$ then x represents "an ideal point" - a point in infinity, i.e. it is a directional vector.

The Euclidean space E^2 is represented as a plane $w = 1$.

Equivalent "mathematical" notation often used:

$$x = [w: x, y]^T \quad \text{generally for } E^n \quad x = [x_0: x_1, \dots, x_n]^T$$

i.e. homogeneous coordinate is the first

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Points and vectors

- Vectors are "freely movable" - not having a fixed position

$$a_1 = [x_1, y_1, 0]^T$$

- Points are **not** "freely movable" - they are fixed to an origin of the current coordinate system

$$x_1 = [x_1, y_1, w_1]^T \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = [x_2, y_2, w_2]^T$$

usually in textbooks $w_1 = w_2 = 1$

A vector $A = X_2 - X_1$ in the Euclidean coordinate system - CORRECT

Horrible "construction" DO NOT USE IT - IT IS TOTALLY WRONG

$$a = x_2 - x_1 = [x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, w_2 - w_1]^T = [x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, 1 - 1]^T = [x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, 0]^T$$

This was presented as "How a vector" is constructed in the projective space P^k in a textbook!! **WRONG, WRONG, WRONG**

This construction has been found in SW as well!!

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Points and vectors

A Euclidean vector given by two points in the homogeneous coordinates

$$a = x_2 - x_1 = [w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1, w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1, w_1 w_2]^T$$

This is the **CORRECT SOLUTION**, but what is the interpretation?

A "difference" of coordinates of two points is a vector in the mathematical meaning and $w_1 w_2$ is a "scaling" factor actually

Actually the division operation is postponed and not performed immediately. A vector in projective notation

$$a = x_2 - x_1 = [w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1, w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1, w_1 w_2]^T \triangleq \left[\frac{w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1}{w_1 w_2}, \frac{w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1}{w_1 w_2}, 0 \right]^T$$

where: \triangleq means projectively equivalent

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A Euclidean vector in the projective representation (if the vector length matters)

$$a = x_2 - x_1 = [w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1, w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1, w_1 w_2]^T \triangleq \left[\frac{w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1}{w_1 w_2}, \frac{w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1}{w_1 w_2}, 0 \right]^T$$

A vector in the projective space is given by coordinates x, y, w as

$$a = x_2 - x_1 = [x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, w_2 - w_1]^T$$

[=>Linear interpolation with a non-linear monotonic interpolation]

We have to strictly distinguish meaning of one *dimensional array* [vector], i.e. if we are working with:

- **points**, i.e. a data structure represent point coordinates, or
- **vectors**, i.e. a data structure represent a vector in the mathematical meaning

VECTORS x POINTS

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Duality

For simplicity, let us consider a line p defined as:

$$aX + bY + c = 0$$

We can multiply it by $w \neq 0$ and we get:

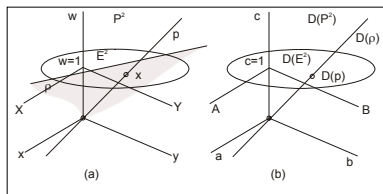
$$awX + bwY + cw = 0$$

As $x = wX$ and $y = wY$

$$ax + by + cw = 0 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad p^T x = 0$$

$$p = [a, b, c]^T \quad x = [x, y, w]^T = [wX, wY, w]^T$$

A line $p \in E^2$ is actually a plane in the projective space P^2 (point $x = [0, 0, 0]^T$ excluded)



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Duality

From the mathematical notation $p^T x = 0$

we cannot distinguish whether p is a line and x is a point or vice versa in the case of P^2 . It means that

- a *point* and a *line* are dual in the case of P^2 , and
- a *point* and a *plane* are dual in the case of P^3 .

The principle of duality in P^2 states that:

Any theorem in E^2 remains true when we interchange the words "point" and "line", "lie on" and "pass through", "join" and "intersection", "collinear" and "concurrent" and so on.

Similarly for the E^3 case.

Once the theorem has been established, the dual theorem is obtained as described above.

This helps a lot to solve some geometrical problems.

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Examples of dual objects and operators

| | Primitive | Dual primitive |
|-------|----------------|----------------|
| p^2 | Point Line | Line Point |
| p^3 | Point Plane | Plane Point |

| Operator | Dual operator |
|-----------|---------------|
| Join | Intersect |
| Intersect | Join |

Computational sequence for a problem is the same for a dual problem.

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Intersection of two lines

Let two lines p_1 and p_2 are given by

$$p_1 = [a_1, b_1 : c_1]^T \quad \text{and} \quad p_2 = [a_2, b_2 : c_2]^T$$

We have to solve a system of linear equations $Ax = b$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ q_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ q_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -c_1 \\ -c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then well known formula is used

$$x = \frac{Det_x}{Det} = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & b_1 \\ q_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}} \quad y = \frac{Det_y}{Det} = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & q_1 \\ a_2 & q_2 \end{bmatrix}}{\det \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}}$$

But what if Det is small?

Usually a sequence like *if abs(det(...)) ≤ eps then* is used. What is *eps*?

Note * usually a line is in its explicit form as $ax + by = q$ instead of $ax + by + c = 0$, i.e. the implicit form

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Definition

The cross product of the two vectors

$$x_1 = [x_1, y_1 : w_1]^T \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = [x_2, y_2 : w_2]^T$$

is defined as:

$$x_1 \times x_2 = \det \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ x_1 & y_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where: $i = [1, 0 : 0]^T$ $j = [0, 1 : 0]^T$ $k = [0, 0 : 1]^T$

or as

$$x_1 \times x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -w_1 & y_1 \\ w_1 & 0 & -x_1 \\ -y_1 & x_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix} = Tx_2$$

Please, note that homogeneous coordinates are used.

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Theorem

Let two points x_1 and x_2 be given in the projective space. Then the coefficients of the p line, which is defined by those two points, are determined as the cross product of their homogeneous coordinates

$$p = x_1 \times x_2 = [a, b : c]^T$$

Proof

Let the line p^2 be defined in homogeneous coordinates as

$$ax + by + cw = 0$$

We are actually looking for a solution to the following equations:

$$p^T x_1 = 0 \quad p^T x_2 = 0$$

where: $p = [a, b : c]^T$

Note that c represents a "distance" from the origin of the coordinate system.

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It means that any point x that lies on the p line must satisfy both the equation above and the equation $p^T x = 0$ in other words the p vector is defined as

$$p = x_1 \times x_2 = \det \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ x_1 & y_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

We can write

$$(x_1 \times x_2)^T x = 0 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \det \begin{bmatrix} x & y & w \\ x_1 & y_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

Note that the Cross product and the Dot product is an instruction in Cg/HLSL on GPU.

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Evaluating the determinant $\det \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ x_1 & y_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$

we get the line coefficients of the line p as:

$$a = \det \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & w_1 \\ y_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad b = -\det \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & w_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad c = \det \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & y_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:

1. A line $ax + by + c = 0$ is a one parametric set of coefficients

$$p = [a, b : c]^T$$

From two values x_1 and x_2 we have to compute 3 values, coefficients a , b and c

2. For $w = 1$ we get the standard cross product formula and the cross product defines the p line, i.e. $p = x_1 \times x_2$ where:

$$p = [a, b : c]^T$$

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We have seen that computation of

- an intersection of two lines is given as $Ax = b$
- a line given by two points is given as $Ax = 0$

Different scheme BUT

Those problems are DUAL.

Why algorithms are different??

Cross product is equivalent to a solution of a linear system of equations!
No division operations!

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DUALITY APPLICATION

In the projective space P^2 points and lines are dual. Due to duality we can directly intersection of two lines as

$$x = p_1 \times p_2 = \det \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{bmatrix} = [x, y, w]^T$$

If the lines are parallel or close to parallel, the homogeneous coordinate $w \rightarrow 0$ and users have to take a decision – so there is no sequence in the code like *if abs(det(...)) ≤ eps then ...* in the procedure.

Generally computation can continue even if $w \rightarrow 0$ if projective space is used.

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DISTANCE

Geometry is strongly connected with distances and their measurement, geometry education is strictly stucked to the Euclidean geometry, where the distance is measured as

$$d = \sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2}, \text{ resp. } d = \sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2}.$$

This concept is convenient for a solution of basic geometric problems, but in many cases it results into quite complicated formula and there is a severe question of stability and robustness in many cases.

The main objection against the projective representation is that there is no metric.

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The distance of two points can be easily computed as

$$dist = \sqrt{\xi^2 + \eta^2} / (w_1 w_2)$$

where: $\xi = w_1 x_2 - w_2 x_1$ $\eta = w_1 y_2 - w_2 y_1$

Also a distance of a point x_0 from a line in E^2 can be computed as

$$dist = \frac{a^T x_0}{w_0 \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}$$

where: $x_0 = [x_0, y_0, w_0]^T$ $a = [a, b, c]^T$

The extension to E^3/P^3 is simple and the distance of a point x_0 from a plane in E^3 can be computed as

$$dist = \frac{a^T x_0}{w_0 \sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

where: $x_0 = [x_0, y_0, z_0, w_0]^T$ $a = [a, b, c, d]^T$.

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In many cases we do not need actually a *distance*, e.g. for a decision which object is closer, and *distance*² can be used instead, i.e. for the E^2 case

$$dist^2 = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2 (a^2 + b^2)} = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2 n^T n}$$

where: $a = [a, b, c]^T = [n : c]^T$ and the normal vector n is not normalized

If we are comparing distances of points from the given line p we can use "pseudo-distance" for comparisons

$$(pseudo_dist)^2 = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2}$$

Similarly for a plane ρ in the case of E^3

$$dist^2 = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2 (a^2 + b^2 + c^2)} = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2 n^T n} \quad \text{and} \quad (pseudo_dist)^2 = \frac{(a^T x_0)^2}{w_0^2}$$

where: $a = [a, b, c, d]^T = [n : d]^T$

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Computation in Projective Space

- Cross product definition
- A plane ρ is determined as a cross product of three given points

Due to the duality

- An intersection point x of three planes is determined as a cross product of three given planes.

$$x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k & l \\ x_1 & y_1 & z_1 & w_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & z_2 & w_2 \\ x_3 & y_3 & z_3 & w_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rho_1 \times \rho_2 \times \rho_3 = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k & l \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Computation of generalized cross product is equivalent to a solution of a linear system of equations
=> no division operation!**

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Geometric transformations with points

(note $X = x/w, Y = y/w, w \neq 0$):

Translation by a vector $(A, B) \triangleq [a, b: c]^T$, i.e. $A = a/c, B = b/c, c \neq 0$:

In the Euclidean space: $x' = Tx$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & A \\ 0 & 1 & B \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x + Aw \\ y + Bw \\ w \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} x/w + A \\ y/w + B \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X + A \\ Y + B \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

In the projective space: $x' = T'x$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 & a \\ 0 & c & b \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} cx + aw \\ cy + bw \\ cw \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} (cx + aw)/(cw) \\ (cy + bw)/(cw) \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x/w + a/c \\ y/w + b/c \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X + A \\ Y + B \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

and $\det(T') = c^3$. For $c = 1$ we get a standard formula

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & A \\ 0 & 1 & B \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Rotation by an angle $(\cos\varphi, \sin\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & c \end{pmatrix} \triangleq [a, b: c]^T$

In the Euclidean space: $x' = Rx$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\varphi & -\sin\varphi & 0 \\ \sin\varphi & \cos\varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} \cos\varphi & -\sin\varphi & 0 \\ \sin\varphi & \cos\varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

In the projective space: $x' = R'x$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a & -b & 0 \\ b & a & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax - by \\ bx + ay \\ cw \end{bmatrix} \triangleq$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} (ax - by)/(cw) \\ (bx + ay)/(cw) \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x}{w} \frac{a}{c} - \frac{y}{w} \frac{b}{c} \\ \frac{x}{w} \frac{b}{c} + \frac{y}{w} \frac{a}{c} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X \cos\varphi - Y \sin\varphi \\ X \sin\varphi + Y \cos\varphi \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

as $c^2 = (a^2 + b^2)$ by definition, $\det(R') = (a^2 + b^2)c = c^3$

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Scaling by a factor $(S_x, S_y) = \begin{pmatrix} s_x & s_y \\ w_s & w_s \end{pmatrix} \triangleq [s_x, s_y: w_s]^T$

$$x' = Sx \quad \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & S_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x' = S'x \quad \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & S_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & w_s \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(S') = s_x s_y w_s$$

It is necessary to note that the determinant of a transformation matrix Q , i.e. matrices T', R', S' , is $\det(Q) \neq 1$ in general, but as the formulation is in the projective space, there is no need to "normalize" transformations to $\det(Q) = 1$ even for rotation.

It can be seen that if the parameters of a geometric transformation are given in the homogeneous coordinates, no division operation is needed at all.

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Transformation of lines and planes

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Dual problem} \\ \mathbf{p} = x_1 \times x_2 \\ \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}_1 \times \mathbf{p}_2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} E^2 \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} E^3 \\ \mathbf{\rho} = x_1 \times x_2 \times x_3 \\ \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{\rho}_1 \times \mathbf{\rho}_2 \times \mathbf{\rho}_3 \end{array}$$

In graphical applications position of points are changed by an interaction, i.e. $x' = Tx$.

The question is how coefficients of a line, resp. a plane are changed without need to recompute them from the definition.

It can be proved that

$$\mathbf{p}' = (Tx_1) \times (Tx_2) = \det(T)(T^{-1})^T \mathbf{p} \triangleq (T^{-1})^T \mathbf{p}$$

or

$$\mathbf{\rho}' = (Tx_1) \times (Tx_2) \times (Tx_3) = \det(T)(T^{-1})^T \mathbf{\rho} \triangleq (T^{-1})^T \mathbf{\rho}$$

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Transformation of lines and planes

As the computation is made in the projective space we can write

$$\mathbf{p}' = (T^{-1})^T \mathbf{p} = [a', b': c']^T \quad \text{for lines in } E^2$$

or

$$\mathbf{\rho}' = (T^{-1})^T \mathbf{\rho} = [a', b', c': d']^T \quad \text{for planes in } E^3$$

THIS SIMPLIFIES COMPUTATIONS

Transformation matrices for lines, resp. for planes are **DIFFERENT** from transformations for points! Note that a normal vector of a line is actually a co-vector, i.e. an oriented "surface".

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Transformation of lines and planes

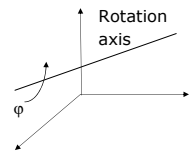
Transformation about a general axis in E^3 / P^3

$$x(t) = x_A + st$$

Usually used transformation (T is translation):

$$Q = T^{-1} R_{zx}^{-1} R_{yz}^{-1} R(\varphi) R_{zx} R_{xy} T$$

$$R_{yz} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{c}{\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}} & \frac{-b}{\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{b}{\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}} & \frac{c}{\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



$s = [a, b, c]^T$ is an axis directional vector. This is unstable if $\sqrt{b^2 + c^2} \rightarrow 0$ and not precise if $b^2 \gg c^2$ or vice versa.

That is generally computationally complex and unstable as a user has to select which axis is to be used for a rotation

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Transformation of lines and planes

Transformation about an axis \mathbf{n}
in the Euclidean space E^3

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X} \cos \varphi + (1 - \cos \varphi)(\mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{X}) \cdot \mathbf{n} + (\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{X}) \sin \varphi$$

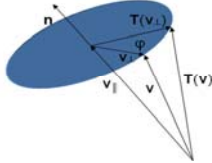
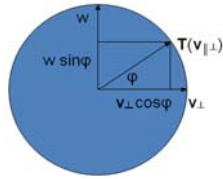
$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I} \cos \varphi + (1 - \cos \varphi)(\mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n}) + \mathbf{W} \sin \varphi$$

where: $\mathbf{n} \otimes \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n}^T$ is a matrix.

In the Euclidean space E^3 the vector \mathbf{n} has to be normalized

The matrix \mathbf{W} is defined as: $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v}$

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -n_z & n_y \\ n_z & 0 & -n_x \\ -n_y & n_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ in our case}$$



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Projection

Standard projection

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_i \\ y_i \\ w_i \end{bmatrix} = T_{projection} \begin{bmatrix} x_j \\ y_j \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

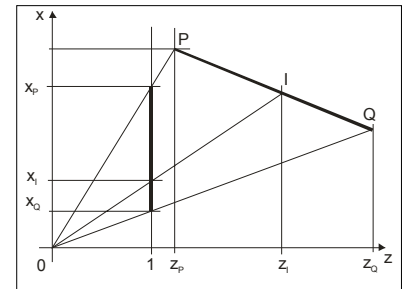
How to determine z_i
coordinate?

$$x_i = (1 - \lambda)x_p + \lambda x_Q$$

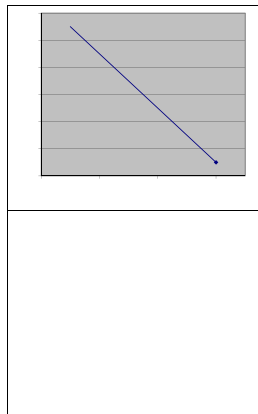
$$y_i = (1 - \lambda)y_p + \lambda y_Q$$

$$\frac{1}{z_i} = (1 - \lambda) \frac{1}{z_p} + \lambda \frac{1}{z_Q}$$

⇒ "Reverse" depth computation, e.g. for correct intensity computation if perspective projection is used.



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Computation in Projective Space

Intersection line - plane (Cyrus-Beck clipping algorithm)

$$x(t) = x_0 + (x_1 - x_0)t = x_0 + st \quad \text{Computation in projective space !}$$

$$s = x_1 - x_0 = [x_1 - x_0, y_1 - y_0, z_1 - z_0 : w_1 - w_0]^T \quad t \in (-\infty, \infty)$$

$$a^T x = 0 \quad ax + by + cz + dw = 0 \quad a = [a, b, c, d]^T$$

Euclidean solution:

$$t = -\frac{a^T x_0}{a^T s}$$

Projective solution:

$$\tau = -a^T x_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_w = a^T s \quad t = [\tau, \tau_w]^T$$

Test: if $t < t_{min}$ then ...modification:
if $\tau * \tau_{min_w} > \tau_w * \tau_{min}$ then

- An intersection of a plane with a line in E^2 / E^3 can be computed efficiently, **no division operation**
- Comparison operations must be modified!!!
- => Cyrus-Beck line clipping algorithm 10-25% faster

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Line Clipping - convex polygon

```

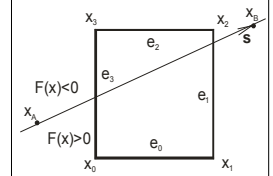
procedure CLIP_Line (  $x_A, x_B$  );
/*  $x_A = [x_A, y_A, w_A]^T$   $x_B = [x_B, y_B, w_B]^T$  */
begin /*  $p = [a, b, c]^T$  given - NO STEP 1 */
{1}  $p := x_A \times x_B$ ; /*  $p: ax + by + c = 0$  */
{2} for  $k := 0$  to  $N-1$  do /*  $x_k = [x_k, y_k, w_k]^T$  */
{3} if  $p^T x_k \geq 0$  then  $c_k := 1$  else  $c_k := 0$ ;
{4} if  $c = [0...0]^T$  or  $c = [1...1]^T$  then EXIT;
{5}  $i := \text{TAB1}[c]$ ;  $j := \text{TAB2}[c]$ ;
{6}  $x_A := p \times e_i$ ;  $x_B := p \times e_j$ ;
{7} DRAW ( $x_A; x_B$ ) *  $e_i - i$ -th edge */
end /* CLIP_Line */
/*  $c$  identifies an edge intersected */
    
```

NO SIMPLE, ROBUST and FAST

- Skala, V.: A new approach to line and line segment clipping in homogeneous coordinates, The Visual Computer, Springer Vol.21, No.11, pp.905-914, 2005

Line clipping algorithms in E^2

- Cohen-Sutherland
- Liang-Barsky
- Hodgman
- Skala - modification of Clip_L for line segments



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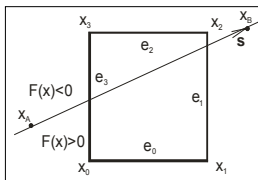
For a rectangular normalized window

$$x_A := p \times e_i$$

For the edge $y = -1$, i.e. $y + 1 = 0$

$$x_A = [x_A, y_A, w_A]^T = \begin{bmatrix} i & j & k \\ a & b & c \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [b - c, -a : a]$$

$$\triangleq \left[\frac{b-c}{a}, \frac{-a}{a} : 1 \right]^T = \left[\frac{b-c}{a}, -1 : 1 \right]^T$$



Actually expression for y_A , resp. for x_A is given by the window edge.

No multiplication or division operations

A simple modification if a line is given

(in the Euclidean or projective space) as $x(t) = x_A + st$

Simple modification for non-convex polygon but it requires intersections sorting => $O(M \lg M)$

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/* Additional code for Line Segment clipping colored */

```

function CODE (  $x$  ); /* Cohen Sutherland window coding */
begin  $c := [0000]$ ; /* land / lor - bitwise operations and / or */
if  $x < x_{min}$  then  $c := [1000]$  else if  $x > x_{max}$  then  $c := [0100]$ ;
if  $y < y_{min}$  then  $c := c \text{ lor } [1001]$  else if  $y > y_{max}$  then  $c := c \text{ lor } [0010]$ ;
 $CODE := c$ 
end /* CODE */
procedure Clip_LineSegment (  $x_A, x_B$  ); /* short x long line segments */
begin  $c_A := \text{CODE}(x_A)$ ;  $c_B := \text{CODE}(x_B)$ ;
if ( $c_A \text{ lor } c_B$ ) = 0 then { output ( $x_A; x_B$ ); EXIT } /* inside */
if ( $c_A \text{ land } c_B$ )  $\neq$  0 then EXIT; /* outside */
 $p := x_A \times x_B$ ; /*  $ax + by + c = 0$ ;  $p = [a, b, c]^T$  */
for  $k := 0$  to 3 do /*  $x_k = [x_k, y_k, w_k]^T$   $c = [c_3, c_2, c_1, c_0]^T$  */
if  $p^T x_k \geq 0$  then  $c_k := 1$  else  $c_k := 0$ ;
if  $c = [0000]^T$  or  $c = [1111]^T$  then EXIT;
 $i := \text{TAB1}[c]$ ;  $j := \text{TAB2}[c]$ ;
/* original code  $x_A := p \times e_i$ ;  $x_B := p \times e_j$ ; DRAW ( $x_A; x_B$ ) */
    
```

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/* additional code for Line Segment clipping */

```

if  $c_A \neq 0$  and  $c_B \neq 0$ 
then {  $x_A := p \times e_i$ ;  $x_B := p \times e_j$  } /* two intersections */
else /* only one intersection point */
if  $c_A = 0$  then /*  $x_B$  is outside */
{ if  $c_B \text{ land } \text{MASK}[c] \neq 0$ 
then  $x_B := p \times e_i$ 
else  $x_B := p \times e_j$ 
}
else if  $c_B = 0$  then /*  $x_A$  is outside */
{ if  $c_A \text{ land } \text{MASK}[c] \neq 0$ 
then  $x_A := p \times e_i$ 
else  $x_A := p \times e_j$ 
}
output ( $x_A, x_B$ )
end /* Clip_LineSegment */
    
```

| c | c ₃ | c ₂ | c ₁ | c ₀ | TAB1 | TAB2 | MASK |
|----|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|------|------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | None | None | None |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0100 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0100 |
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 0010 |
| 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0010 |
| 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| 6 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0100 |
| 7 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1000 |
| 8 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 | 1000 |
| 9 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0100 |
| 10 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | N/A | N/A | N/A |
| 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0010 |
| 12 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0010 |
| 13 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0100 |
| 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0100 |
| 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | None | None | None |

Algorithm can be extended to convex polygon clipping & modified for parametric lines as well

For a convex n-sided polygon the table can be generated synthetically.

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Computation in Projective Space - Barycentric coordinates

Let us consider a triangle with vertices X_1, X_2, X_3

A position of any point $X \in E^2$ can be expressed as

$$a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + a_3 X_3 = X$$

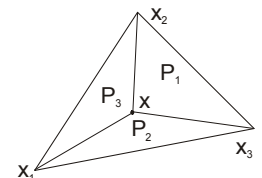
$$a_1 Y_1 + a_2 Y_2 + a_3 Y_3 = Y$$

Additional condition:

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 = 1$$

$$0 \leq a_i \leq 1 \quad i = 1, \dots, 3$$

$$a_i = \frac{P_i}{P}$$



Linear system has to be solved

If points x_i are given as $x_i = [x_i, y_i, z_i, w_i]^T$ and $w_i \neq 1$ then x_i have to be "normalized" to $w_i = 1$, i.e. $4 * 3 = 12$ division operations are used.

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Computation in Projective Space

$$b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + b_3X_3 + b_4X = 0$$

$$b_1Y_1 + b_2Y_2 + b_3Y_3 + b_4Y = 0$$

$$b_1 + b_2 + b_3 + b_4 = 1 \quad b_i = -a_i b_4 \quad b_4 \neq 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, 3$$

Rewriting

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 & X_2 & X_3 & X \\ Y_1 & Y_2 & Y_3 & Y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{b} &= [b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4]^T \\ \boldsymbol{\xi} &= [X_1, X_2, X_3, X]^T \\ \boldsymbol{\eta} &= [Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, Y]^T \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} &= [1, 1, 1, 1]^T \end{aligned}$$

A solution of the linear system of equations (LSE) is equivalent to generalized cross product:

$$\mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\xi} \times \boldsymbol{\eta} \times \boldsymbol{\omega}$$

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Computation in Projective Space

For $w_i \neq 0$ each column can be multiplied by the relevant w_i

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 X_1 & w_2 X_2 & w_3 X_3 & w X \\ w_1 Y_1 & w_2 Y_2 & w_3 Y_3 & w Y \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y \\ w_1 & w_2 & w_3 & w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$$

where again

$$\mathbf{b} = [b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4]^T \quad \boldsymbol{\xi} = [x_1, x_2, x_3, x]^T \quad \boldsymbol{\eta} = [y_1, y_2, y_3, y]^T \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} = [w_1, w_2, w_3, w]^T$$

Barycentric coordinates (Euclidean):

$$0 \leq (-b_1; w_2, w_3, w) \leq 1 \quad 0 \leq (-b_2; w_3, w_1, w) \leq 1 \quad 0 \leq (-b_3; w_1, w_2, w) \leq 1$$

=> Tests - point in triangle, point in tetrahedron -

all in homogeneous coordinates

=> **new entities:** *projective scalar, projective vector*

(Skala, V.: Barycentric coordinates computation in homogeneous coordinates, Computers&Graphics, 2008)

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Computation in Projective Space

Area of a triangle

Volume of a tetrahedron

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}_1^T \cdot (\mathbf{x}_2 \times \mathbf{x}_3) / (w_1 w_2 w_3)$$

$$V = \frac{1}{6} \mathbf{x}_1^T \cdot (\mathbf{x}_2 \times \mathbf{x}_3 \times \mathbf{x}_4) / (w_1 w_2 w_3 w_4)$$

As the principle of duality is valid, one could ask: *What is a "dual" value G to a computation of the area P if the triangle is given by three lines in the "normalized" form, e.g. $\mathbf{a}_i^T \cdot (\mathbf{a}_2 \times \mathbf{a}_3)$ instead of three points?*

$$G = \mathbf{a}_1^T \cdot (\mathbf{a}_2 \times \mathbf{a}_3) \triangleq \begin{vmatrix} \cos \alpha_1 & \cos \alpha_2 & \cos \alpha_3 \\ \sin \alpha_1 & \sin \alpha_2 & \sin \alpha_3 \\ d_1 & d_2 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \cos \alpha_2 & \cos \alpha_3 \\ 0 & \sin \alpha_2 & \sin \alpha_3 \\ 0 & 0 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} = d_3 \sin \alpha_2$$

$$= d_3 \cdot a / (2R) = P/R$$

It can be seen that $G = d_3 \sin \alpha_2 = P/R$, where: a is the length of the line segment on \mathbf{a}_3 and R is a radius of the circumscribing circle.

=> value G can be used as criterion for a quality triangular meshes.

- Skala, V.: Geometric Computation, Duality and Projective Space, IW-LGK workshop proceedings, ISBN 978-3-86780-244-4, pp.105-111, Dresden University of Technology, 2011

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Computation in Projective Space

Line in E^3 as Two Plane Intersection

Standard formula in the Euclidean space

$$\rho_1 = [a_1, b_1, c_1; d_1]^T \quad \rho_2 = [a_2, b_2, c_2; d_2]^T = [\mathbf{n}_2^T; d_2]^T$$

Line given as an intersection of two planes

$$\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{n}_1 \times \mathbf{n}_2 \equiv [a_3, b_3, c_3]^T \quad \mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{s}t$$

$$x_0 = \frac{d_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - d_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & c_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}}{DET} \quad y_0 = \frac{d_2 \begin{vmatrix} a_3 & c_3 \\ a_1 & c_1 \end{vmatrix} - d_1 \begin{vmatrix} a_3 & c_3 \\ a_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}}{DET}$$

$$z_0 = \frac{d_2 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} - d_1 \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}}{DET} \quad DET = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

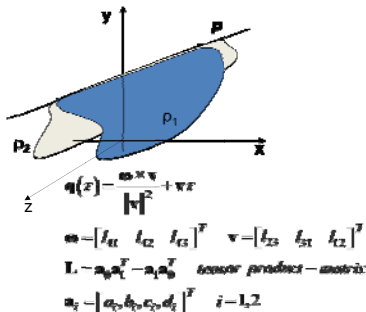
The formula is quite "horrible" one and for students not acceptable as it is too complex and they do not see from the formula comes from.

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Computation in Projective Space

Line in E^3 as Two Plane Intersection

- Standard formula in the Euclidean space
- Plücker's coordinates a line is given by two points. DUALITY - a point is dual to a plane and vice versa => an intersection of two planes can be computed as a dual problem
- But computationally **expensive** computation
- Projective formulation and simple computation



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Computation in Projective Space

Line in E^3 as Two Plane Intersection

$$\rho_1 = [a_1, b_1, c_1; d_1]^T \quad \rho_2 = [a_2, b_2, c_2; d_2]^T$$

normal vectors are

$$\mathbf{n}_1 = [a_1, b_1, c_1]^T \quad \mathbf{n}_2 = [a_2, b_2, c_2]^T$$

Directional vector of a line of two planes ρ_1 and ρ_2 is given as

$$\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{n}_1 \times \mathbf{n}_2$$

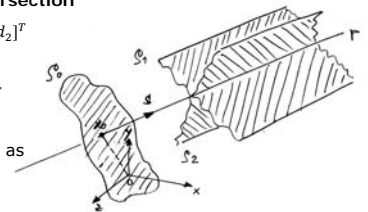
"starting" point x_0 ???

A plane ρ_0 passing the origin with a normal vector \mathbf{s} , $\rho_0 = [a_0, b_0, c_0; 0]^T$

The point x_0 is defined as

$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \rho_1 \times \rho_2 \times \rho_0$$

Simple formula for matrix-vector architectures like GPU and parallel processing. Compare the standard and projective formulas



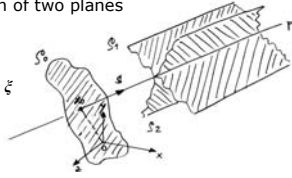
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Computation in Projective Space – the nearest point

Find the nearest point on an intersection of two planes to the given point ξ

Simple solution:

- Translate planes ρ_1 and ρ_2 so the ξ is in the origin
- Compute intersection of two planes i.s. x_0 and s
- Translate x_0 using T^{-1}



Known solution using Lagrange multipliers

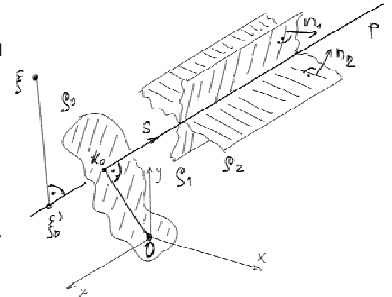
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & n_{1x} & n_{2x} & p_x \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & n_{1y} & n_{2y} & p_y \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & n_{1z} & n_{2z} & p_z \\ n_{1x} & n_{1y} & n_{1z} & 0 & 0 & \lambda \\ n_{2x} & n_{2y} & n_{2z} & 0 & 0 & \mu \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2p_{0x} \\ 2p_{0y} \\ 2p_{0z} \\ \bar{p}_1 \cdot \bar{n}_1 \\ \bar{p}_2 \cdot \bar{n}_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Krumm, J.: Intersection of Two Planes, Microsoft Research

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The closest point to an intersection of two planes

In some applications we need to find a closest point on a line given as an intersection of two planes. We want to find a point ξ_0' , the closest point to the given point ξ , which lies on an intersection of two planes



$$\rho_1 \triangleq [n_1^T; d_1]^T \text{ and } \rho_2 \triangleq [n_2^T; d_2]^T$$

This problem was recently solved by using Lagrange multipliers and an optimization approach leading to a solution of a system of linear equations with 5 equations.

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Solution in the projective space

1. Translate the given point $\xi = [\xi_x, \xi_y, \xi_z : 1]^T$ to the origin – matrix Q
2. Compute parameters of the given planes ρ_1 and ρ_2 after the transformation as $\rho_1' = Q^{-T} \rho_1$ and $\rho_2' = Q^{-T} \rho_2$,
3. Compute the intersection of those two planes ρ_1' and ρ_2'
4. Transform the point ξ_0 to the original coordinate system using transformation

$$n_0 = n_1 \times n_2 \quad \rho_0 \triangleq [n_0^T; 0]^T \quad \xi_0 = \rho_1 \times \rho_2 \times \rho_0 \quad \xi_0' = Q^{-1} \xi_0$$

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -\xi_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -\xi_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -\xi_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad Q^{-T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \xi_x & \xi_y & \xi_z & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad Q^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \xi_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \xi_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \xi_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is simple, easy to implement on GPU.

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Curves and surfaces

Rational Bézier curve – Euclidean $X = [X, Y, Z]^T$

$$X(t) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) w_i q_i}{\sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) w_i} \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1 \quad B_i^n \binom{n}{i} (1-t)^{n-1} t^i$$

$$\text{1st derivative} \quad \left[\frac{a'}{b'} \right] = \frac{a'b - ab'}{b^2} \quad \text{quite complicated}$$

Projective $x = [x, y, z, w]^T$

$$x(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) q_i \quad x'(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n B_i^n(t) q_i$$

How simple !

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Computation in Projective Space

Disadvantages

- Careful handling with formula as the projective space
- "Oriented" projective space is to be used, i.e. $w \geq 0$; HW could support it
- Exponents of homogeneous vectors can overflow
 - exponents should be normalized; HW could support it unfortunately not supported by the current hardware
 - P_Lib – library for computation in the projective space - uses SW solution for normalization on GPU (C# and C++)

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Computation in Projective Space

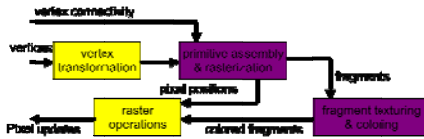
Advantages

- "Infinity" is well represented
- No division operation is needed, a division operation can be hidden to the homogeneous coordinate
- Many mathematical formula are simpler and elegant
- One code sequence solve primary and dual problems
- Supports matrix-vector operations in hardware – like GPU etc.
- Numerical computation can be faster
- More robust and stable solutions can be achieved
- System of linear equations can be solved directly without division operation, if exponent normalization is provided

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Implementation aspects and GPU

- GPU (Graphical Processing Unit) -optimized for matrix-vector, vector-vector operation – especially for $[x,y,z:w]^T$
- Native arithmetic operations with homogeneous coordinates – without exponent “normalization”
- Programmable HW – parallel processing



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Implementation aspects and GPU

4D cross product can be implemented in Cg/HLSL on GPU (not optimal implementation) as:

float4 cross_4D(float4 x1, float4 x2, float4 x3)

{ float4 a; # simple formula #

a.x=dot(x1.yzw, cross(x2.yzw, x3.yzw));

a.y=-dot(x1.xzw, cross(x2.xzw, x3.xzw));

a.z=dot(x1.xyw, cross(x2.xyw, x3.xyw));

a.w=-dot(x1.xyz, cross(x2.xyz, x3.xyz));

return a;

}

more compact formula available

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Appendix

Data processing - main field in computer science

Data processing itself can be split to two main areas:

• processing of textual data

limited interval of values, unlimited dimensionality

[a char as one dimension -

Methionylthreonylthreonylglutaminylarginyl..isoleucine 189,819 chars]

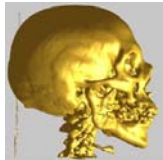
No interpolation is defined

• processing of numerical data

unlimited interval of values,

limited dimensionality – usually 2 or 3

Interpolation can be used



| | Textual | Graphical |
|----------|--------------|---------------------|
| Dim | ∞ | 2, 3 |
| Interval | 0-255(ASCII) | $(-\infty, \infty)$ |

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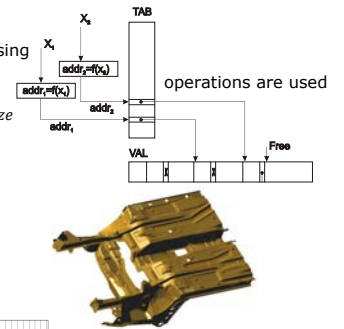
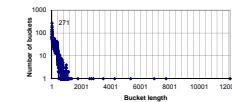
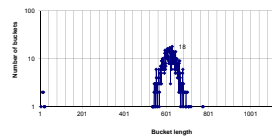
Hash functions

• usually used for textual data processing

• prime numbers and modulo

Usual form $Addr = [3x + 5y + 7z] \bmod size$

multiplication int * float needed



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If the hash function is constructed as

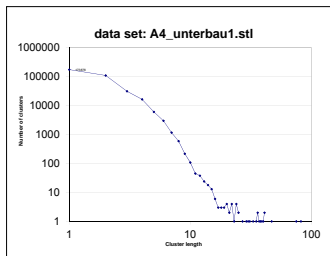
$$Addr = [C(ax + \beta y + \gamma z)] \bmod m$$

where a, β, γ are “irrational” numbers and $m = 2^k$ better distribution is obtained => much faster processing.

C is a “magic” constant which maps the expression for $x_{min}, x_{max} > to (0, maxint)$

$$Addr = [C(ax + \beta y + \gamma z)] \bmod (2^k - 1)$$

- Hradek, J., Skala, V.: Hash Function and Triangular Mesh Reconstruction, Vol.29, No.6., pp.741-751, Computers&Geosciences, Pergamon Press, ISSN 0098-3004, 2003



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Textual processing

The has function is constructed as

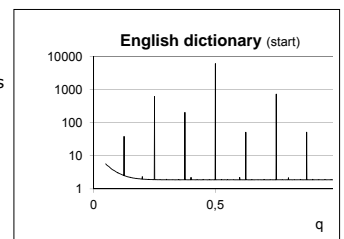
$$h(x) = \left(C * \sum_{i=1}^L q^i x_i \right) \bmod m$$

q „irrational“ $0 < q < 1$

$$m = 2^k - 1$$

Both geometrical and textual hash function design have the same approach coefficients are “irrational” and no division operation is needed.

Some differences for Czech, Hebrew, English, German, Arabic, ... languages and “chemical” words.



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Summary and conclusion

We have got within this course an understanding of:

- projective representation use for geometric transformations with points, lines and planes
- principle of duality and typical examples of dual problems, influence to computational complexity
- intersection computation of two planes in E3, dual Plücker coordinates and simple projective solution
- geometric problems solution with additional constrains
- intersection computations and interpolation algorithms directly in the projective space
- barycentric coordinates computation on GPU
- avoiding or postponing division operations in computations

Projective space representation supports matrix-vector architectures like GPU – faster, robust and easy to implement algorithms achieved

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?? Questions ??

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