3D Geometry

17 February 2009 CMPT370 Dr. Sean Ho Trinity Western University



OpenGL state machine

Two kinds of OpenGL functions Generate primitives Vertex, line, triangle, polygon, etc. Change state Current colour Material properties (shininess, etc.) Transformations: view, model Each primitive gets whatever state was current when it was drawn

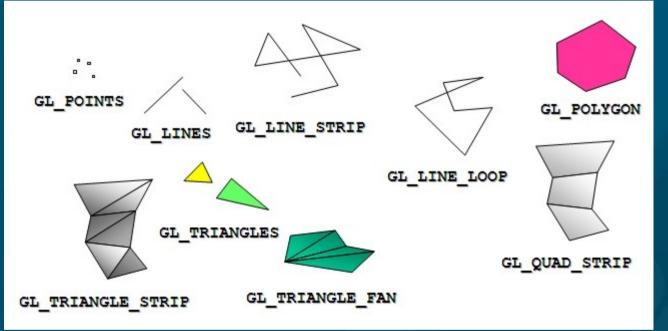


OpenGL functions

Most core OpenGL functions look like this: glVertex3f(x, y, z) • gl: belongs to core OpenGL library (glu for GLU) Vertex: name of function • 3f: argument type: 3 floats Not overloaded, for efficiency • glVertex3fv(vec) takes a pointer to an array of 3 floats • glVertex3i(x, y, z): ints • glVertex3d(x, y, z): doubles

OpenGL primitives

glBegin(GL_*) starts a set of primitives



Polygons must be simple: edges cannot cross
 Must be convex

Must be flat: all vertices in the same plane

CMPT370: geometry

Drawing in OpenGL (cf CubeView)

Start the set of primitives: Set the colour and other attributes: • glColor3f(0.0, 0.0, 1.0); Create the vertices: • glVertex3f(0.0, 0.1, 0.2); • glVertex3f(0.1, 0.0, 0.2); • glVertex3f(0.0, 0.0, 0.2); End the set of primitives: • glEnd();



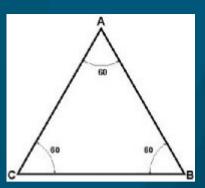
Projection matrix

The coordinates of glvertex are in world coords OpenGL converts to camera coords, then to screen coords The projection matrix specifies the camera: • glMatrixMode(GL PROJECTION); Specify the viewing volume: • glLoadIdentity(); • glOrtho(left, right, bottom, top, near, far) Orthographic (parallel) projection



Coordinate-free geometry

Cartesian geometry:



- Points are locations in space (x,y,z)
- Tied to a particular coordinate system
- Euclidean (coordinate-free) geometry:
 - Points exist regardless of the coordinate system
 - e.g.: two triangles are identical if all three legs are same length
 - Regardless of where in space the triangle is



Scalars, vectors, and points

Three basic elements in geometry Scalars (α)

- Addition, multiplication
- Associativity, commutativity, etc. (field)
- No geometric properties
- E.g., reals, complex numbers
- Vectors (v)
- Points (P)





Vectors have two attributes:
Direction
Magnitude
No position
Physically-inspired definition
e.g., force, velocity, directed line segments





Every vector v has an inverse -v



There is a zero vector (zero magnitude)

Adding two vectors gives another vector u+v = w

• Vectors can be multiplied by scalars $\alpha v = w$

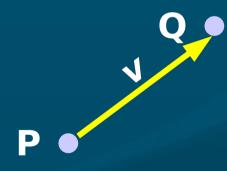


CMPT370: geometry

Points

Location in space (no direction)
Relationships between vectors and points:

Subtracting two points gives vector: P - Q = v
Adding a vector to a point: Q + v = P





Affine spaces

Combine a point (origin) with a vector space • Vector-vector addition: u + v• Scalar-vector multiplication: $\alpha * v$ • Point-vector addition: P + v• Scalar-scalar operations: $\alpha + \beta * \gamma$ For any point P, let • 1 * P = P• 0 * P = (zero vector) 0

WESTERN UNIVERSITY



Parametric definition of a line:

- All points P that pass through a point P₀ in the direction of the vector v:
- $P(\alpha) = P_0 + \alpha * v$

 Alternate forms in 2D:

 Parametric: x(α) = (1-α)x₀ + (α)x₁, y(α) = (1-α)y₀ + (α)y₁
 Explicit: y = mx + h

 Implicit: ax + by + c = 0



CMPT370: geometry



A ray is one side of a line:
All points P(α) = P₀ + α *v for which $\alpha \ge 0$

■ A line segment between points P_0 and P_1 is • All points $P(\alpha) = (1-\alpha)P_0 + (\alpha)P_1$ P_1 for which $0 \le \alpha \le 1$



CMPT370: geometry



We can generalize from lines to curves:

Curves are one-parameter geometric entities
 P(α)

Often have a starting point P₀

• α can be thought of as time

Curve describes motion of a point through time



Surfaces

Curves $P(\alpha)$ have one parameter α **Surfaces** $P(\alpha, \beta)$ have two parameters α, β • Linear functions of α , β give planes and polygons A plane in 3D can be defined by • Point + 2 vectors: $P(\alpha, \beta) = P_0 + \alpha u + \beta v$ • Or 3 points: $P(\alpha, \beta) = P_0 + \alpha(Q - P_0) + \beta(R - P_0)$ 0 P

Normal vectors

Every plane has a vector n which is normal (perpendicular, orthogonal) to it

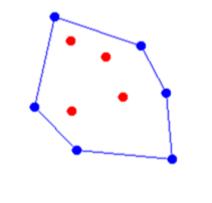
- Use cross-product: $n = u \times v$
- Unit normal is the normal vector which has magnitude 1
- Perpendicular means dotproduct is zero: n * v = 0



Convex hull

- The convex hull of a set of points {P₁, P₂, ..., P_n} is the smallest convex area containing the points:
 - Convex: connect any two points in the area, the line segment is completely within the area
 - "Shrink-wrap" of the points
- Points are convex sums of {P_i}:

• $\sum \alpha_i P_i$, where $\sum \alpha_i \le 1$

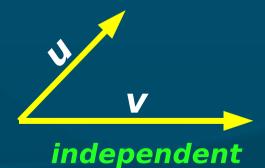


Triangles are the convex hulls
 TRIOTY3 points
 WESTERN СМРТЗ70: geometry

Linear independence

A set of vectors {v₁, v₂, ..., v_n} is linearly independent if

- $\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + ... + \alpha_n v_n = 0$ only when all the α_i are zero.
- i.e., cannot represent one vector v_i as a linear combination of the others









Any vector space has a dimension:

 Max # of linearly independent vectors

 A basis for an n-D vector space is a set of n vectors {v_i} such that any vector w in the space can be written as a combination of them:

 $\bullet w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$

 These {α_i} are a unique representation for the vector w with respect to this basis

If the basis vectors are unit-length, this unit basis is usually written {e_i}

Frame

A basis is enough to represent vectors, but • Holds no position information We use a frame to represent points Basis + a point (origin): affine space • In 3D: frame $F = (P_0, e_1, e_2, e_3)$ • Any vector w = $\alpha_1 e_1 + \alpha_2 e_2 + \dots + \alpha_n e_n$ • Any point $P = P_0 + \beta_1 e_1 + \beta_2 e_2 + ... + \beta_n e_n$ The representation is the scalar coefficients $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$ or $(\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n)$