#### CS174A: Introduction to Computer Graphics

Royce 190 TT 4-6pm

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#### Assignment #1

- Push back deadline to Friday 10/17 11:55pm
- You should have started by now!
- As I have said, the expectation is that you can pick up what you need to know about HTML and Javascript
- 7th Edition is the required text for this class
  - If you can make it work without it that is up to you

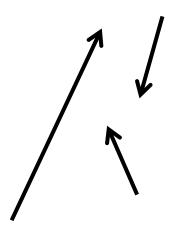
# A little math background

- Representing geometric objects
  - We want an efficient general representation.
    - Flexible coordinate systems.
      - » Understood to mean not imposing particular dimensional or unit constraints.
    - Using homogenous coordinates.
    - All good for fast hardware implementation.
  - What is that and how do I get it?

- We are going to concern ourselves with three kinds of spaces.
  - Vector space
  - Affine space
  - Euclidian space
  - Each builds on the last to give us the tools we need.
  - Geometric objects will exist within these spaces.

- Vector Space
  - Vectors have *only* direction and magnitude.
  - Addition and multiplication are permitted.
  - Addition
    - Head-to-tail axiom (e.g. connect tail to head of last)
  - Multiplication
    - By a scalar.
    - Changes only the magnitude.

- Vector Space
  - There are two ways to understand a vector
    - Directed line segments good for understanding, not so good as a practical matter.
    - *n*-tuples of real numbers what OpenGL uses.



$$v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$$

- Vector Space
  - The space where operations on these vectors is defined is termed  $\mathbb{R}^n$
  - This  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is also where we can manipulate vectors using matrix algebra useful later.
  - The notion of *linear independence* defines what we understand as a *dimension*.
  - The D in 3D

- Vector Space (linear independence)
  - Take a linear combination of vectors u.

$$u = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n$$

• If the *only* set of scalars such that

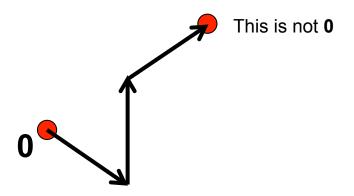
$$\alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n = 0$$

• is

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0$$

- The vectors are said to be linearly independent.
- For n=3, there is only one set u(1,0,1),(1,1,0),(0,1,1)
- The *largest* number of linearly independent vectors that we can find in a *space* gives the *dimension*.

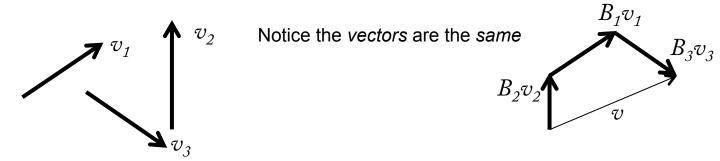
- Vector Space
  - The set of *linearly independent vectors* we care about are these you may be familiar with them.
  - You can see, very easily, that the *only* way to sum them and get
    0 as a result is if you multiply them all by zero.



- Vector Space
  - Given a vector space of dimension *n*, then *any* set of *n linearly independent vectors* forms a *basis*.

$$v = \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + ... + \beta_n v_n$$

• The scalars  $\{\beta_i\}$  give the *representation* of v with respect to the basis  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$ .

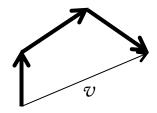


linearly independent vectors

a "representation"

- Vector Space
  - The key in the last slide was the word *any*.
  - The *basis* is, basically, every (all) *linearly independent vector(s)* that exists within a *dimension*.

- Vector Space
  - ...and what is a *representation* of a vector?
    - It is just a **specific** *linearly independent vector* within a particular *dimension*.
  - Now we have *linearly independent vectors*, *dimension*, *basis* and *representations*.



a specific "representation"

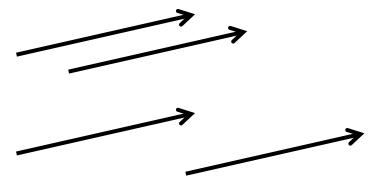
- Vector Space
  - So what?
  - The *basis* gives us a *representation* as we have seen.
    - We can use matrix multiplication to change one *representation* into another using.
    - Translation, scaling, rotation, etc.
  - Remember this is all in abstract space vector space so far.

- Vector Space
  - However, once we decide on a *basis* we have committed to using a *dimension* to describe our set of *linearly independent* vectors.
  - If we restrict the scalars of the *basis* to real numbers
    - We can use *n*-tuples of reals and use matrix algebra.
    - Better than trying to do this all in abstract vector space.
  - We are inching towards something real
    - Promise.

- Vector Space
  - Matrices are useful for changing representations.
  - We will use this later to be able to convert from one *frame* to another (get to *frames* in a minute)

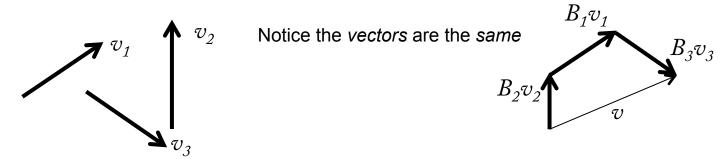
$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta_1' \\ \beta_2' \\ \vdots \\ \beta_N' \end{bmatrix} = M \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- Affine Space
  - Vector space does not have any concept of *location*.
  - Vector space has vectors floating nowhere.
    - Just direction and magnitude, remember?
  - But, we can plant them in a dimensional space.
    - Remember  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?
    - How about  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ?



These are all the same i.e. have the same *representation* 

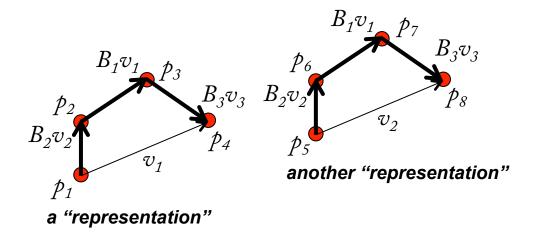
- Affine Space
  - Even using a *representation* of a vector
  - Vectors can appear to be emerging from anywhere.
  - We still do not have *location*.



linearly independent vectors

a "representation"

- Affine Space
  - Affine space introduces the concept of a *point* to vector space.
  - A point gives us location



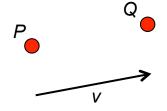
- Affine Space
  - Along with that *point* we add an operation
    - Point subtraction, given points P and Q.

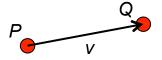
$$v = P - Q$$

- Gives us a vector. Which leads us to vector/point addition.

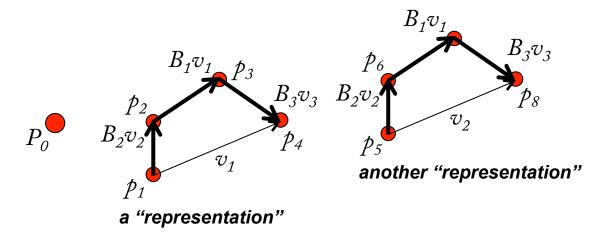
$$Q = v + P$$

- Adding two points does not make sense, why?





- Affine Space
  - We can define affine space in terms of frames.
    - Think of a *frame* as all *coordinate systems* that exist within a particular *basis*,  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
    - Similar type of relationship as *representation* is to *basis*.
  - A *frame* consists of a point  $P_0$  (the origin) and *basis*.



- Affine Space
  - If  $P_0$  is the *origin* of our *frame*.
  - Any point within the *frame* can be defined by

$$P = P_0 + \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + ... + \beta_n v_n$$

- We now have the ability to define geometry with *points* in a coordinate system.
- We do not have the concept of length or distance yet, however.

- Euclidian Space
  - Consists of only vectors and scalars. (reals only)
  - We define a new operation, the *dot product*.
    - The operation combines two vectors to form a real.
    - It also satisfies the following properties.

$$u \cdot v = v \cdot u,$$
  
 $(\alpha u + \beta v) \cdot w = \alpha u \cdot w + \beta v \cdot w,$   
 $v \cdot v > 0 \text{ if } v \neq 0$ 

- Euclidian Space
  - It means that if  $u \cdot v = 0$ , then u and v are *orthogonal* to each other.
  - The actual operation on two vectors looks like this  $u \cdot v = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + ... + u_nv_n$
  - Interestingly this leads to the observation that  $u \cdot u = |u|^2$
  - Which is the square of the vector's *length*.
    - Very Useful!

- Euclidian Space
  - Furthermore

$$u \cdot v = |u||v|\cos\theta$$

• Gives the angle between two vectors *u* and *v*.

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{u \cdot v}{|u||v|}$$

- All very interesting
  - Because when we add in the key concept from *Affine Space...*

- Euclidian Space
  - Adding the *affine* concept of *points* we can now get the distance between those *points*.
    - Recall that for two points P and Q, P-Q is a vector, so

$$|P-Q| = \sqrt{(P-Q) \cdot (P-Q)}$$

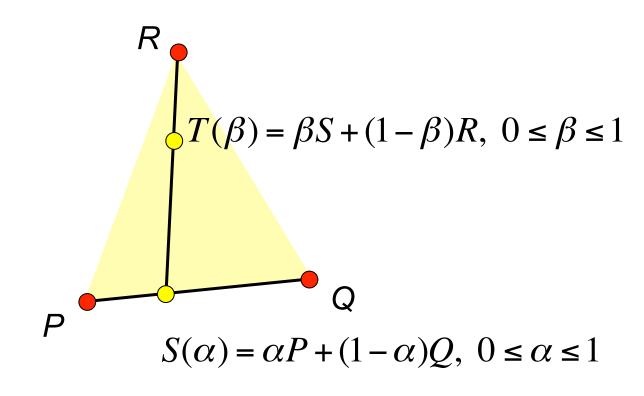
- ...is the *distance* between P and Q.
- We now have the foundation describing the geometric world we will be using.

- Planes
  - So far we have vectors, points (and lines)
  - A *plane* exists in *affine* space and it defined by three points; P, Q and R.
    - All the points of a line can be found via: (you know this)  $S(\alpha) = \alpha P + (1 \alpha)Q, \ 0 \le \alpha \le 1$
    - Picking an arbitrary point on this line and connecting it to a point R we get the second line:

$$T(\beta) = \beta S + (1 - \beta)R, \ 0 \le \beta \le 1$$

– All these points defined by  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  form the plane defined by points P, Q and R.

• Planes (a picture helps)



- Planes
  - If we combine and rearrange this we get:

$$T(\alpha, \beta) = \beta \left[\alpha P + (1 - \alpha)Q\right] + (1 - \beta)R$$

- ...and then

$$T(\alpha, \beta) = P + \beta(1 - \alpha)(Q - P) + (1 - \beta)(R - P)$$

- Which are all the points interior to the plane defined by the points P, Q and R a.k.a. a *triangle*.
  - Point is, (Q-P) and (R-P) are arbitrary vectors.
  - So a plane can be defined by two vectors and a point, as long as the two vectors are not parallel.

- Planes
  - Simplifying a bit more we can get to:  $T(\alpha, \beta) = \beta \alpha P + \beta (1 - \alpha)Q + (1 - \beta)R$
  - Which is also known as a point's *barycentric coordinate* representation.
  - Not super-critical to this class but you will sometimes see term mentioned in a derivation.

#### Planes

• Interestingly, we can find a vector *n* that is *orthogonal* to our *plane*, defined by the vectors *u* and *v*, by using the *cross product*.

$$n = u \times v$$

- This new vector is known as the *normal* to the plane.
  - We will find many uses for the normal in this course.

$$u = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3$$

$$v = \beta_1 + \beta_2 + \beta_3$$

$$n = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2 \\ \alpha_3 \beta_1 - \alpha_1 \beta_3 \\ \alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Homogeneous Coordinates

- Recall, a *frame* for an *affine* space is given by
  - a *basis* and an origin point  $P_0$

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + ... + \alpha_n v_n + 0P_0$$

• Then, any point p within the *frame* can be written as

$$p = \beta_1 v_1 + \beta_2 v_2 + \dots + \beta_n v_n + 1P_0$$

- The  $\mathbb{R}^3$  coordinate vectors of the vector v and point p can be written as
- Notice the 0 and 1
- 0 is nowhere
- 1 plants it in space

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad p = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Homogeneous Coordinates

- This is *four* dimensional?
  - Yes!
  - It has its benefits.
  - Now *vectors* and *points* have a distinct form where before they were both *n*-tuples.
  - But there is more! You will see!

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad p = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scale, Rotation and Translation
  - I am going to use 2D transformations, it's simpler.
  - Let's define a *scale* transformation matrix.

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{array} \right]$$

• Applying the transformation gives

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha x \\ \beta y \end{array}\right]$$

• No problem.

- Scale, *Rotation* and Translation
  - Let's define a *rotation* transformation matrix.

$$R(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

• Applying the transformation gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x\cos(\theta) - y\sin(\theta) \\ x\sin(\theta) + y\cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

• Again, no problem.

- Scale, Rotation and *Translation* 
  - Unfortunately, we cannot perform a *translation* with a matrix-vector multiplication.
  - This is a problem we want to do translations!
  - Fortunately, there is a solution...

- Scale, Rotation and Translation
  - Homogeneous coordinates triumphantly return!
  - If we represent the *points* we wish to *translate* as such

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}\right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{array}\right]$$

• Things start to work very nicely.

#### Transformations

- Scale, Rotation and Translation
  - Let's now define a *translation* transformation matrix like this
  - Oh my!
  - How nice!

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & j \\ 0 & 1 & k \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x+j \\ y+k \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- But what happens to our other transformations?
- Lets see...

#### Transformations

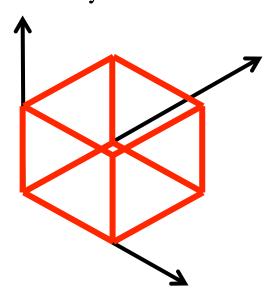
- Scale, Rotation and Translation
  - Let's see how the *scale* transformation works using *homogeneous coordinate* form.
  - Let's re-define a *scale* transformation matrix and apply it.

$$S(\alpha, \beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha x \\ \beta y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

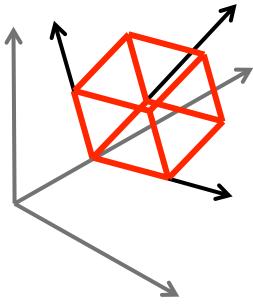
- Rotation follows in the same way.
- The same hold true for 3D.

- There are, traditionally, six coordinate frames used in the OpenGL pipeline.
  - 1. Object (model) coordinates
  - 2. World coordinates
  - 3. Eye (camera) coordinates
  - 4. Clip coordinates
  - 5. Normalized device coordinates
  - 6. Window (screen) coordinates

- An *object* is represented in Object (model) coordinates.
  - This is a local *frame* of the object that is convenient to model the geometry.



- Objects are placed in world coordinates.
  - This is a global *frame* typically used to position *objects* relative to each other by *scaling*, *translating* and *rotating*.



- Eye (camera) coordinates
  - While *object* and *world* coordinates are convenient for modeling we need decide where are *eye* is in order to determine what we "see"
  - We use 4x4 matrices to transform from model to world to eye coordinates.
  - We concatenate these into
    - the *model-view* transformation

- *Clip*, Normalized device & Window coordinates
  - We'll get to the specifics later on...but, briefly
  - Clip coordinates used to reject primitives outside of the *view volume* after the projection transformation.
  - It is easiest to do this when we transform the *view volume* into a cube centered around the origin.
    - Recall the "Normalized View Volume"
    - The hardware can perform clipping very quickly here.

- Clip, Normalized device & Window coordinates
  - After the projection transformation
    - Clip coordinates are still in homogeneous coordinates.
    - Dividing out the w component, perspective division results in a 3D point in *normalized device coordinates*.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} perspective \\ division \\ z/w \end{bmatrix}$$

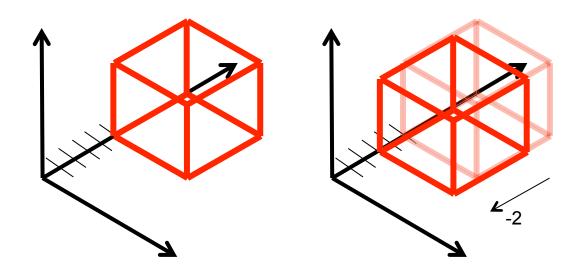
- Clip, Normalized device & Window coordinates
  - Finally, *normalized device* coordinates are transformed into *window* coordinates.
  - The result are 3D points in window coordinates.
  - Since *window* (screen) coordinates are 2D the pipeline just drops the z (depth) value.
  - Those *window* (screen) coordinates are pixel locations defined by the *viewport*.

# OpenGL Camera

- There is no camera per se in OpenGL
  - We control what we "see" by manipulating the *model-view* transformation.
  - There are two ways to think of this.
    - 1. Move the *world* to the *eye* coordinate frame.
    - 2. Move the *eye* to the *world* coordinate frame.
  - These are really the same thing.
    - Just different ways of thinking about the problem.
    - How do we get what we want to "see" in front of the eye.

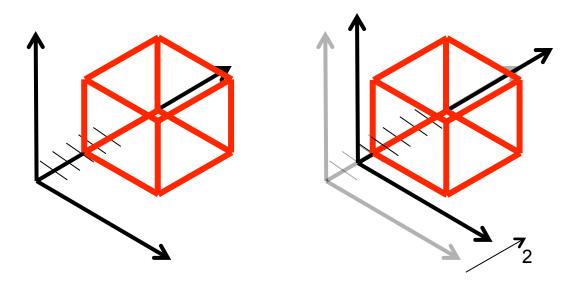
# OpenGL Camera

- Camera fixed at the origin
  - We transform the *world* in front of our *eye*.
  - If we wanted to move our view forward by 2.
    - We would transform the *world* frame by -2.



# OpenGL Camera

- World fixed at the origin
  - We transform the *eye* into the *world*.
  - If we wanted to move our view forward by 2.
    - We would transform the *eye* frame by 2.



- All transformation matrices are 4x4
  - Performed using homogeneous coordinates.
  - Points do not need to be represented in homogeneous coordinates in your code.
    - Since forth-dimension is always the same value, 1.

• Homogeneous translation matrix.

$$T = T(\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \Delta x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \Delta y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \Delta z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Important to note that OpenGL represents matrices as **column vectors**.
- So, for example,  $T[3][1] = \Delta y$

• Homogeneous scale matrix.

$$S = S(\beta_x, \beta_y, \beta_z) = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \beta_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Important to note that OpenGL represents matrices as **column vectors**.
- So, for example,  $T[2][2] = \beta_z$

- Homogeneous *rotation* matrix.
  - Rotations are performed about a single axis.
  - Rotations around the origin leads to definitions for rotation around the *x*, *y* and *z* axes.
  - For instance, rotation about the z-axis is defined as

$$R_z = R_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 & 0\\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Homogeneous *rotation* matrix.
  - Rotations about the x-axis.

$$R_{x} = R_{x}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Rotations about the *y*-axis.

$$R_{y} = R_{y}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & 0 & \sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin\theta & 0 & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Matrix multiplication is associative.

$$q = CBAp \rightarrow q = (C(B(Ap)))$$

- This means we can concatenate matrices together.
- Lets take transformation matrices A, B and C

$$M = CBA$$

• Once concatenated into a single matrix we get the full transformation in a single step.

$$q = Mp$$

• This typically results in a significant performance gain when transforming lots and lots of geometry.

- Matrix multiplication is not commutative.
  - When performing multiple rotation transformations.
    - However, when performing a series of transformation of a particular type the order does not matter. Try it.
      - » i.e. series of rotations
    - The **order** of transformation *types* matters.
      - » i.e. q=TRSTp is not the same as q=TSRTp

- What order to get what I want?
  - They are applied in the opposite order that you expect them to be applied last to first.
  - This is because they are post-multiplied with the current transformation matrix.

$$q = TR_z Tp$$

$$C \leftarrow I$$

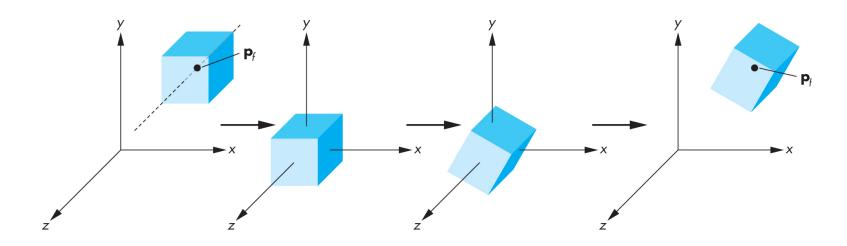
$$C \leftarrow CT(1.0, 2.0, 3.0)$$

$$C \leftarrow CR_z(45.0)$$

$$C \leftarrow CT(-1.0, -2.0, -3.0)$$

$$q = Cp$$

- What order to get what I want?
  - As you can see the transformations are applied last to first.
  - This is simply because of post-multiplication.



- How do we apply transformations to geometry?
  - We could apply it to our geometry in our application.
    - Update buffer by call glBufferData(), although specifying GL\_STATIC\_DRAW is now a pretty bad hint.
  - This would work but...
    - CPU is doing work better suited to the GPU
    - Geometry data would have to be re-sent to GPU each time we apply and or change the transform.

- How do we apply transformations to geometry?
  - A better way would be to send the data once.
  - All we want to do is update the transformation.
  - We can pass the transformation to the GPU by specifying a uniform variable.
    - the setup is very similar to passing the vertex data.

- How do we apply transformations to geometry?
  - After compiling and linking the vertex shader program.
  - We find the location of the variable we are after.

- How do we apply transformations to geometry?
  - When we are ready to set the value in the shader we indicate the location in the shader and the data.
  - 3<sup>rd</sup> param indicates whether row major or not.

- How do we apply transformations to geometry?
  - In the shader we specify the variable as uniform.
  - The calculation should be obvious.
  - You might try this out on assignment #1 by rotating the fractal around the origin.
  - Use keyboard to dynamically rotate fractal.

```
In vec4 vPosition;
Uniform mat4 mTransformation;

void main()
{
      gl_Position = mTransformation * vPosition;
}
```

#### Next Time

- We will focus on
  - Perspective projection.
  - View transformations.
- Get started on your assignment!