

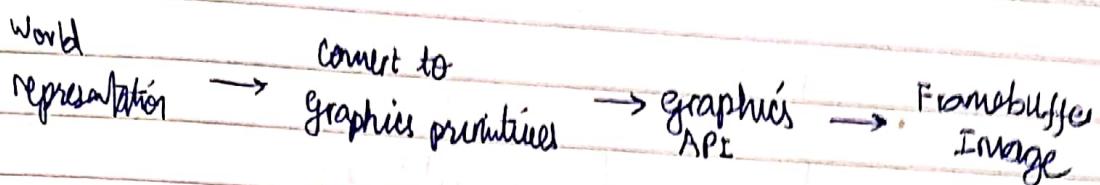
LECTURE - I

Computer graphics with OpenGL → Learn and Review

Computer graphics : Principles and Practice by Foley, Van Dam

TUTORIAL - I

LECTURE - II



Graphics is concerned with appearance of the 3D world to a camera.

- Only outer surfaces of objects important, not interiors.

Hence, only 1D or 2D primitives used.

Points: 1D 2D or 3D

Lines : specified using end points

Triangles / polygons : specified using vertices.

Attributes :- colour, point width, line width, line style, fill, fill pattern, line (two end points), etc.

Point undergoes transformation - translation, rotation, scaling and shearing.

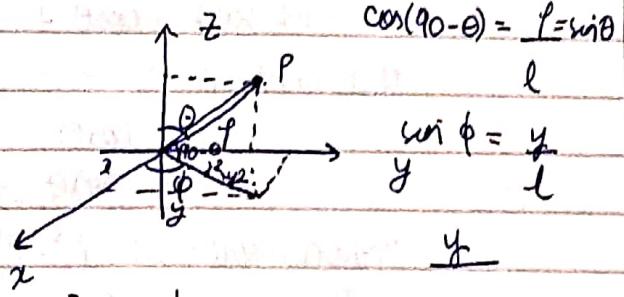
→ 3D Coordinates : Linear or polar

$$\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{z}{\rho} \Rightarrow \theta = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{z}{\rho}\right)$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{y}{x} \Rightarrow \phi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

$$\therefore z = \rho \cos \theta, y = \rho \sin \theta \sin \phi, x = \rho \sin \theta \cos \phi$$



→ Translation

$P = (x, y, z)$, translated by $(a, b, c) \rightarrow$

$$\therefore P' = (x+a, y+b, z+c) = P+T$$

→ Scaling

Scale along x, y, z by (s_x, s_y, s_z, t) .

$$\therefore x' = s_x x, y' = s_y y, z' = s_z z$$

$$\therefore P' = SP$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

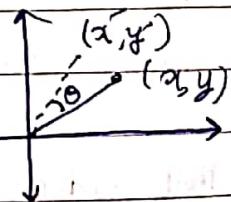
Invariants :- Parallelism, ratios of length in any direction.
(angles also for uniform scaling).

→ Rotation (we consider only CCW rotation as +ve)

2D:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P' = R_\theta P$$



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

Note that,

$$R^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix} = R^T$$

Orthonormal: If $\vec{c}_i \cdot \vec{c}_j = 0$ if $i \neq j$ and 1 if $i = j$ & columns $\vec{c}_i \rightarrow \vec{c}_j$
 $\therefore R$ is orthonormal.

Invariants : distance, angles, parallelism.

3D:

Rotation can be about any axis, L.

About L, distance from L remain constant.

Each point moves in a circle, on a plane \perp L, with centre on L.

Now, about z-axis, if we rotate by θ , then matrix is

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

This is an orthonormal, length preserving transformation.
Similarly,

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

It is orthonormal and norm preserving.

\rightarrow Shearing

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_y & x_z \\ y_x & 1 & y_z \\ z_x & z_y & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

At least one of $x_y, x_z, y_x, y_z, z_x, z_y$ is non-zero.

Rectangles can become trapezoids, but not general quadrilaterals.

Invariants : ⑧ Parallelism, ratios of length in any direction.

→ Reflection

- we entries denote reflection.

Out of all the transforms, only translation cannot be represented as a matrix vector product in 3-D

→ HOMOGENEOUS COORDINATES

A non-zero scale factor ω is added to each coordinate.

e.g. a 2-D point is represented as

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ \omega \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \omega \end{pmatrix} = \left(\frac{x}{\omega}, \frac{y}{\omega} \right)$$

simplest ω is $\omega=1$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20x \\ 20y \\ 20 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20,000x \\ 20,000y \\ 20,000 \end{bmatrix} \quad (\text{as actual point is } \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ \omega \end{pmatrix})$$

In such a system, translation can be written as a matrix product.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x+a \\ y+b \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a \\ 0 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow P' = TP$$

∴ In homogeneous coordinates, ^{linear} ~~any~~ transformations can be written as a matrix product.

e.g. Rotation followed by ~~translation~~
by another rotation followed by scaling followed by scaling followed by another rotation $\therefore P' = R_2 S T R_1 P$

In 3-D matrix has 4 dimensions
(excluding scale) $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \left(\frac{x}{w}, \frac{y}{w}, \frac{z}{w} \right)$
For 2D, all transforms are 3×3 or, and last row is $[0 \ 0 \ 1]$
Similarly, in 3D, most transforms are 4×4 and last row is $[0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$

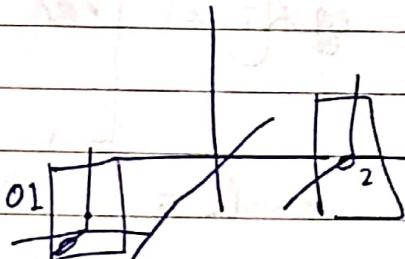
Manipulation of last rows allow us to represent projection.

In homogeneous coordinates, if $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ represents the points at ∞ . These are used in projective geometry.

TUTORIAL-II

Object reference coordinate (ORC)

World reference coordinate (WRC)



ORC

M (matrix of transform b/w ORC and WRC)

WRC

View (view reference matrix)

Camera

LECTURE - III

Homogeneous Coordinates

In 3-D, we use homogeneous coordinates, so rotation matrices are 4x4

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

Translation : $T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & a \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

B) In general, most transformations are not commutative.

e.g. $RT = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & a & a\cos\theta - b\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & b & a\sin\theta + b\cos\theta \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} R' & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, T = \begin{bmatrix} I & t' \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, R' = \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, t' = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore RT = \begin{bmatrix} R' & R't' \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$TR = \begin{bmatrix} R' & t' \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore RT \neq TR$$

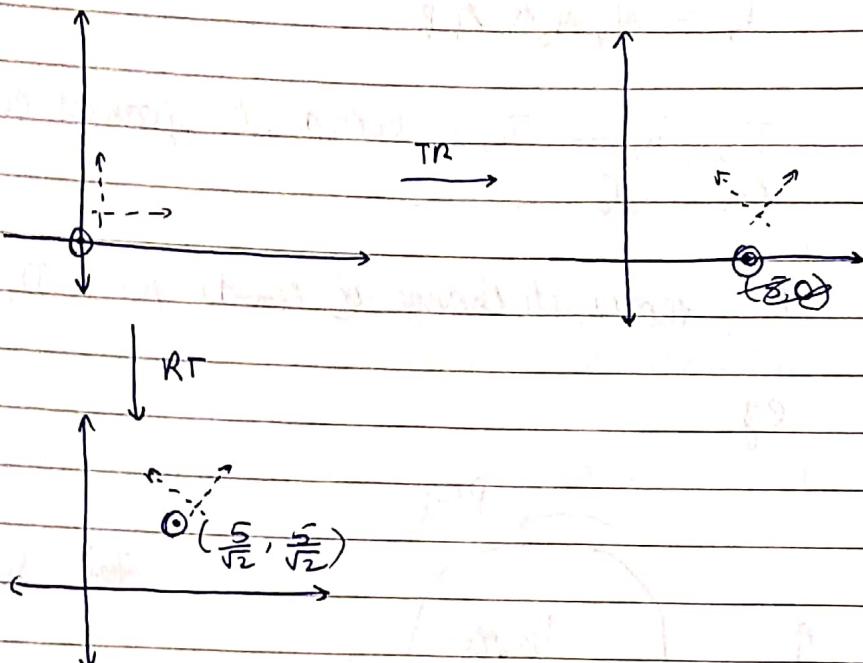
$\therefore RT = TR$, then (1) $R' = I$

(2) $t' = 0$

(3) $R't' = t'$ i.e. 1 is an eigenvalue of R'
i.e. translation is along axis of rotation

In general, translations are commutative ($T_1 T_2 = T_2 T_1$)
 scaling is commutative ($S_1 S_2 = S_2 S_1$)
 But rotations along different axes are not commutative

TR, RT :-



In frame of reference, the frame undergoes opposite transformation.
 → frame (rotation is done locally)

$$P' = TRP$$

←
point

Local world and global world coordinate systems.

In place or local transformation :- we transform the object about the centroid or any origin of local coordinate system.
 e.g. for local rotation, we can think of it as translating to origin local origin to global origin, rotating, then translating back.

∴ $\odot T(c)^M \circ T(-c)$, where c is position vector of local origin.

→ Points and Frames

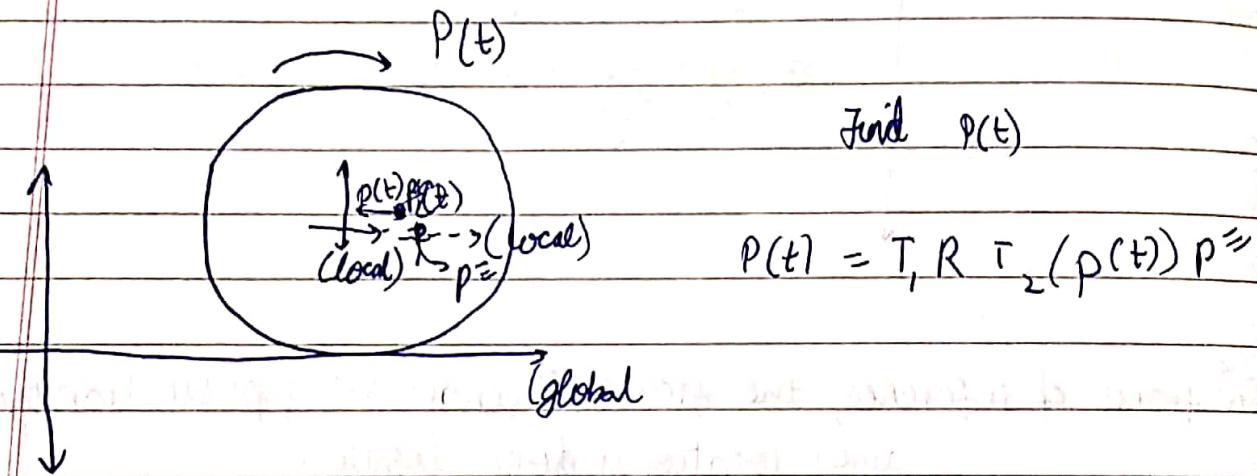
Frames - local / transient coordinate systems.

$$P_4 = M_4 M_3 M_2 M_1 P_0$$

$\Pi_4, \Pi_3, \dots, \Pi_0$:- coordinate frames corresponding to
 P_4, \dots, P_0 .

M_i represents change of coords from Π_{i-1} to Π_{i+1} (?)

e.g.



$$\therefore P(t) = T_1(t) \circ R(\theta(t)) T_2(p(t)) P^\equiv$$

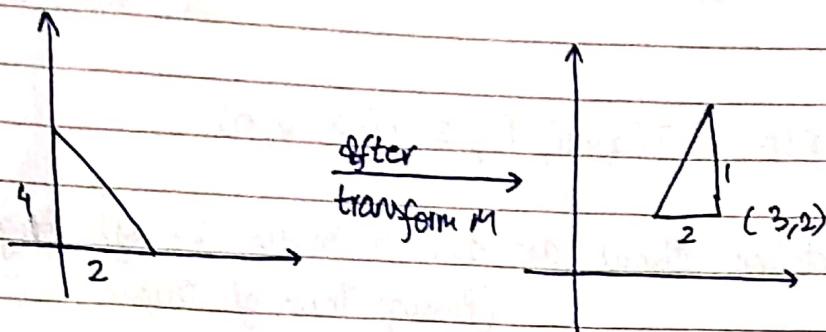
$$T_1(t) = T(r, \theta(t), r) = T(\text{root}, r)$$

$$R(\theta(t)) = R_z(\omega t)$$

$$T_2(t) = T(0, \theta, 1) \circ T(p(t), 0) = T(vt, \theta)$$

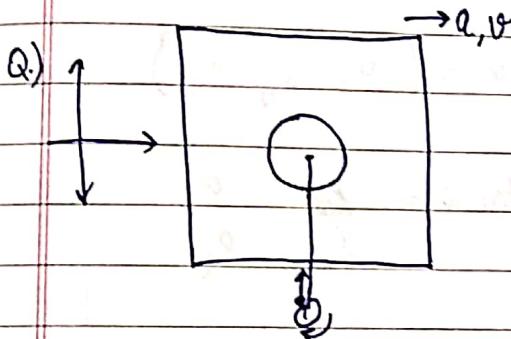
$$P^\equiv = [0, 0, 1]^T \text{ (in local frame, head has coords } (0, 0))$$

LECTURE-IV



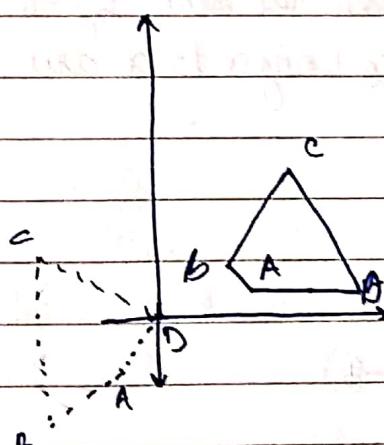
Transformation in order = scaling, rotation then translation.

$$\therefore M = T(3,2) R(90^\circ) S\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) \equiv T(3,2) S\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) R(90^\circ)$$



Model motion of ant.

→ A Transformation Problem



Shift D to origin then rotate s.t
BC is || to y-axis.

The rotation matrix can be found as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \begin{bmatrix} - & \\ -\vec{BC} & - \\ \|\vec{BC}\| & \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{row } 1 \text{ to } \vec{BC} \\
 & = \begin{bmatrix} u_y & -u_z \\ -u_z & u_y \\ u_x & u_y \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} -u_y & u_x \\ u_x & u_y \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

↳ Rotation about an axis parallel to z , through $(x, y, 0)$.

Translate $(x, y, 0)$ to $(0, 0, 0)$, rotate about z , then translate back.

$$\therefore \text{R}(\theta) = T(x, y, 0) R_z(\theta) T(-x, -y, 0)$$

↳ 3D Rotation about an axis ~~of passing through Origin~~
(Passing Through Origin)

$$R_\alpha(\theta) = ?$$

3-step process: Rotate Align α to $\hat{\alpha}$.

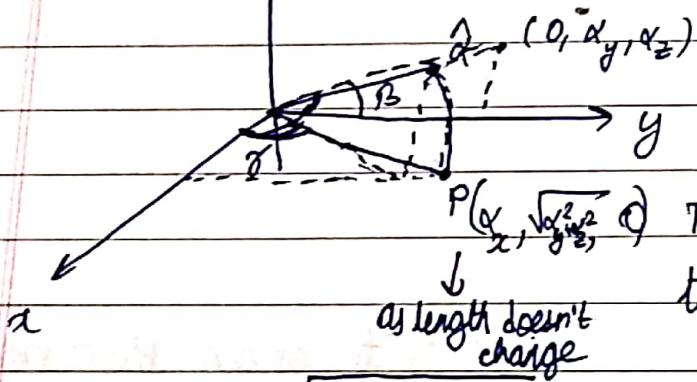
Rotate about x by θ .

Rotate back.

$$\text{To } \therefore R_\alpha(\theta) = R_{\alpha z}^{-1} R_z(\theta) R_{\alpha z}$$

$$\alpha = (\alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_z)$$

$$\tan \beta = \frac{\alpha_z}{\alpha_y}$$



∴ To project α on xy plane,
we rotate by $-\beta$ along x -axis.

Then, we rotate by $-\gamma$ along z -axis
to bring α to x -axis.
as length doesn't change

$$\tan \gamma = \sqrt{\alpha_y^2 + \alpha_z^2}$$

$$\therefore R_{\alpha z} = R_z(-\gamma) R_x(-\beta)$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{\alpha z}^{-1} = [R_x(-\beta)]^{-1} [R_z(-\gamma)]^{-1} = R_\alpha(\beta) R_z(\gamma)$$

$\sec \gamma =$

$$\sqrt{2} = \tan \alpha$$

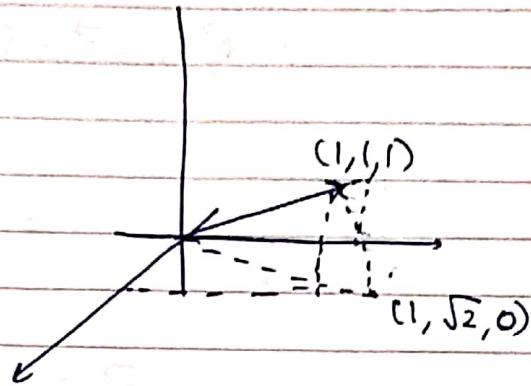
Alternatively, we can find out $R_{\alpha x}$ by using the fact that $\hat{\alpha}$ will be the vector that becomes x -axis.

e.g. rotation about \hat{z} [1 0 0]

$$\therefore \tan \beta = \frac{1}{1} \Rightarrow \beta = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\tan \gamma = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{2})$$



$$\therefore R_x(-\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, R_z(-\tan(\sqrt{2})) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & 0 \\ -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore R_{\alpha x} = R_z(-\gamma) R_x(-\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

On we can find
Method - II:-

We directly know the first row, as it is the axis which rotates onto the x -axis i.e. it is $\hat{\alpha}$ -axis.

$$\therefore R_{\alpha x} = \begin{bmatrix} -r_1 \\ -r_2 \\ -r_3 \end{bmatrix}, r_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [1 \ 1 \ 1]^T \Rightarrow \vec{u} = \vec{u}$$

Also Now, find \vec{v} not $\parallel \vec{u}$.

$$\therefore \vec{r}_2 = \vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_3 \text{ and } \Rightarrow R_{\alpha x} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u} \\ \vec{u} \times \vec{v} \\ \vec{v} \times \vec{u} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{r}_3 = \frac{\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2}{\|\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2\|}$$

$R_{\alpha x}$ is not

Is $R_{\alpha x}$ unique ?? \Rightarrow No
 \hookrightarrow \vec{u} is fixed \hookrightarrow No

$$\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} \oplus \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} [1, 1, 1]^T = \vec{r}_1$$

$$\det \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \vec{r}_2 = \vec{a} \times \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \oplus \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & j & \hat{k} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \oplus \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} (-j(-1) + \hat{k}(-1))$$

$$\vec{r}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \oplus \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \hat{r}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{r}_3 = \vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \oplus \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & j & \hat{k} \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \uparrow(-2) - j(-1) + \hat{k}(1)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \hat{r}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore R_{ax} = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a}^T \\ \hat{r}_2^T \\ \hat{r}_3^T \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Rotation About Arbitrary Axis & Point

We translate point to origin, then rotate about α then translate back.

$$\therefore M(\theta) = T(x, y, z) R_\alpha(\theta) T(-x, -y, -z)$$

$$= T^{-1} R_\alpha(\theta) T$$

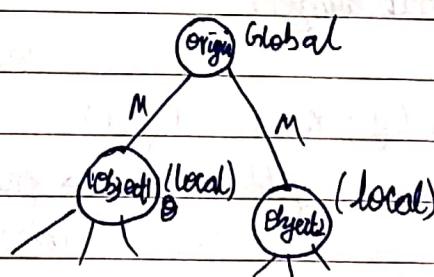
$$= T^{-1} R_{\alpha x}^{-1} R_{\alpha z}(\theta) R_{\alpha x} T$$

→ TRANSFORMING LINES

~~Most~~ Linear transforms conserve collinearity therefore we just apply transform the end points, and then ~~do~~ connect them with a line.

LECTURE - II

→ Modelling



Different coordinates: - Object coords, world coords, camera coords, etc.

Object reference = ORC (Object reference coordinate)

World coordinates (WC)

View reference coordinate (VRC)

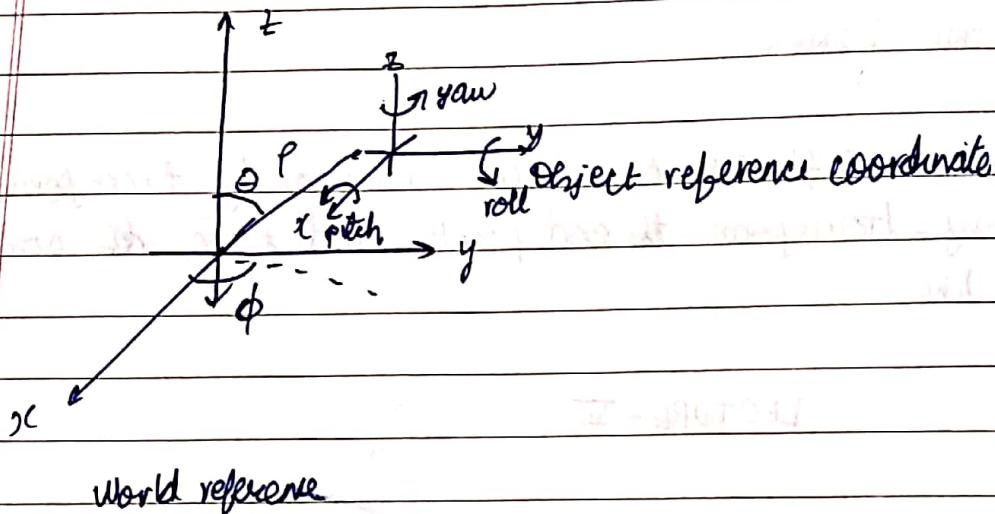
Normalized coordinates (NC)

$$P_{VNC} = \begin{matrix} V \\ M \\ P_{ORC} \end{matrix}$$

↓
in ORC
transforms to WC
transforms to VNC

↳ modelling :- ORC to WC.

In polar coordinates :-



Steps :- Start with both axes aligned

T_W

$$\therefore M = T(\rho, \theta, \phi) \cdot R_z(y) R_x(\rho) R_y(r)$$

yaw pitch roll → preserve order.

(otherwise, rotations are not proper)

$$= T(\rho, \theta, \phi) R_z(-\phi) R_y(r)$$

Now,

$$T(\rho, \theta, \phi) = \underbrace{R_z(-\phi)}_{\text{rotate back}} \underbrace{R_y(r)}_{\text{translate}} \underbrace{T(0, 0, \rho)}_{\text{align z to } \vec{r}} R_z(\phi)$$

Rotate back

translate

align z to \vec{r}

along z by ρ

i.e. translation distance

→ Hierarchy of Transformations

A hierarchy of transformations needed to setup the world and camera.

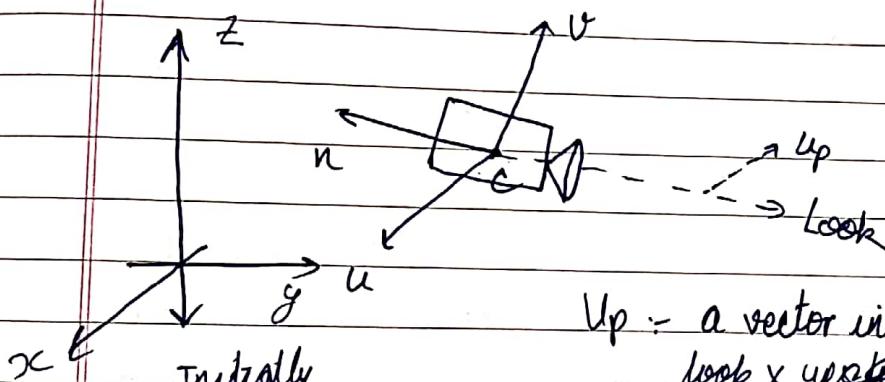
OpenGL transforms local coordinates ORC directly to normalized projection coordinates.

PVM := Projection, View, Modelling

→ View Orientation or Viewing

Transform WC to VRC.

VRCCS u, v, n := Camera center, look point and up vector specified in world coordinates.



Up := a vector in n, v plane

look \times up $\stackrel{\text{cross}}{\times}$ gives u , $u \times u$ gives v

② u = aligned with x , v = aligned with y , n = aligned with z

∴ Translate origin to $C(x, y, z)$

Rotate to align $(-z)$ -axis to look vector. $\theta (-\hat{1})$

Rotate (y) to align y -axis to Up.

Note that rotation matrix can be obtained by using the fact that columns represent the \oplus vectors which align to the axes.

$$\begin{bmatrix} u & n \times u = v & n \end{bmatrix} = R$$

$$A = T(x, y, z) R$$

A also transforms VRC to WC.

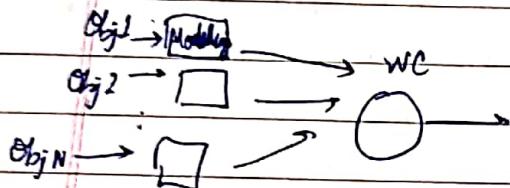
$$\therefore P_{WC} = A P_{VRC}$$

$$\Rightarrow P_{VRC} = A^{-1} P_{WC}$$

$$= R^T T(-x, -y, -z) P_{WC}$$

Scene has one viewing matrix, but each object has a modelling matrix.

LECTURE - IV



PROJECTIONS

Projection involves projectors starting from 3D points and hitting the 2D projection plane, forming the image of the point.
IRL, projectors are photons.

P

↳ Parallel Projection :- All projectors parallel ie have same direction of projection. (DOP)

↳ Perspective projection :- All projectors pass through a point, called the centre of projection e.g. pinhole.
↳ (COP).

Parallel projection = Perspective projection with COP at infinity.

Parallel Projection

→ Orthographic Projection :- Projection plane is \perp to D.O.P.

e.g. If DOP is parallel to the axes : plan, elevation, side elevation.

If P.P. intersects all axes at equal distance : isometric projection

Here lengths in PP are preserved. Good approx. for cameras with long focal length.

→ Oblique Projection :- DOP makes some angle with PP.

e.g. Cavalier: 45° angles b/w DOP and PP. Length along depth axis preserved.

Cabinet: $\tan^{-1}(2)$ angle b/w DOP and PP. length along depth axis halved.

Orthographic projection equation :-

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

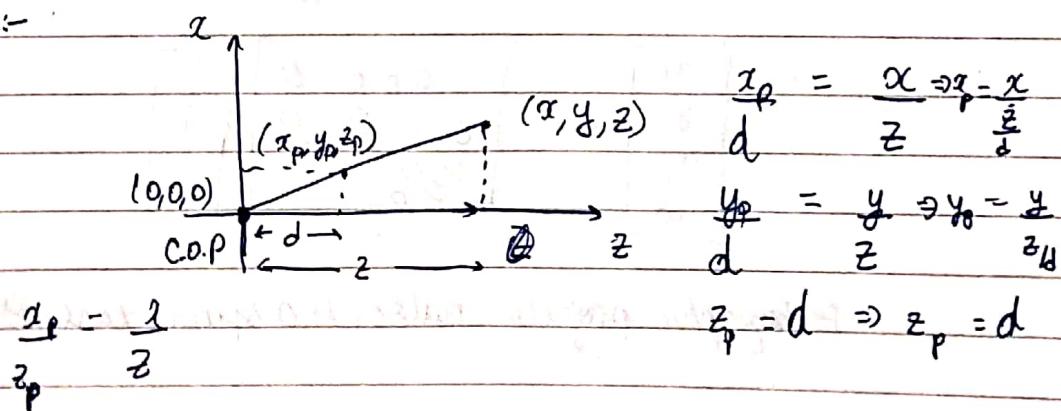
Perspective Projections

Can be characterized by number of vanishing points (projection of points at infinity).

Depends on the number of

There can be 1-point, 2-point, 3-point projections.

Geometry :-



$\therefore x_p = \frac{x}{w}, y_p = \frac{y}{w}, z_p = \frac{z}{w}$, where $w = \frac{z}{d}$

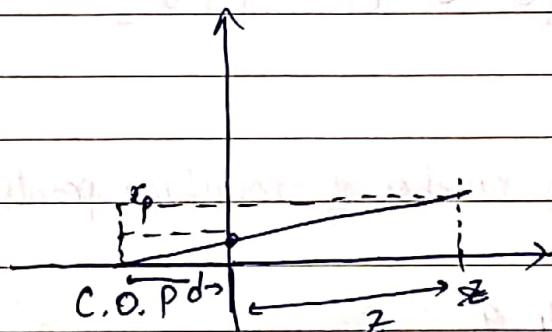
In homogeneous coordinates

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_p \\ y_p \\ z_p \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ \frac{z}{d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_p \\ y_p \\ z_p \\ \frac{z}{d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} x_p \\ y_p \\ z_p \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{d} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Coordinates scaled down proportional to the depth of z values.

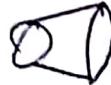
Other scenario :- when C.O.P at $(0, 0, -d)$



$$\frac{x_p}{d} = \frac{x}{z+d} \Rightarrow x_p = \frac{x}{1 + \frac{z}{d}}, z_p = 0, y_p = \frac{y}{1 + \frac{z}{d}}$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} x_p \\ y_p \\ z_p \\ w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{1+\frac{z}{d}} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Orthographic projection matrix is a special case when $d \rightarrow \infty$.



→ Volume of visibility

Cameras have finite fields of view in horizontal and vertical directions.

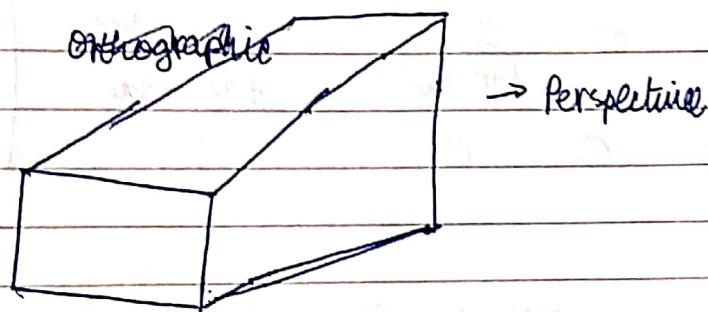
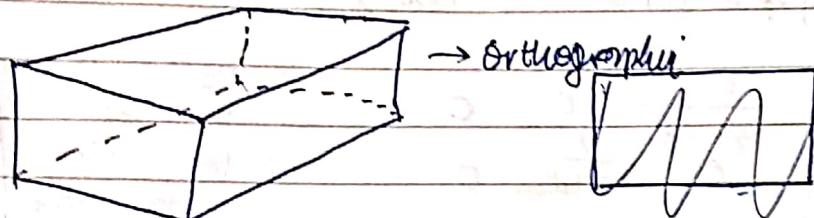
The shape of visible space is ^{cube} cylinder for orthographic projections and cones for perspective projections.

View volume is taken as rectangular specified by 6 planes.

View volume is volume of visible space.

↓
left, right, top,

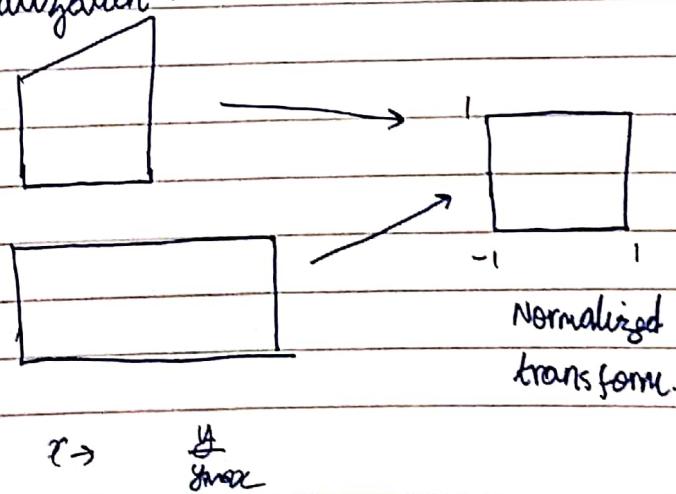
bottom, near, far.



An ideal pin-hole camera has ∞ focal length

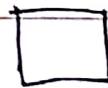
Finite focal length cameras simulate real world

Normalization →



$x \rightarrow \frac{y}{y_{max}}$

$-1, +$



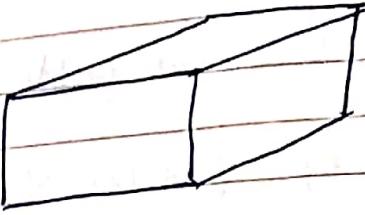
Canonical view volume :-

(P)

$$-1 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$-1 \leq y \leq 1$$

$$-1 \leq z \leq 1$$



For orthographic view volume, we can reach the canonical view volume through appropriate scaling.

Orthographic normalizing matrix :-

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{\text{right-left}} & 0 & 0 & -\left(\frac{\text{right} + \text{left}}{\text{right} - \text{left}}\right) \\ 0 & \frac{2}{\text{top-bottom}} & 0 & -\left(\frac{\text{top} + \text{bottom}}{\text{top} - \text{bottom}}\right) \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{2}{\text{far-near}} & \frac{\text{far} + \text{near}}{\text{far} - \text{near}} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore (0, 0, -\text{near})$ maps to $(0, 0, 1)$ and $(0, 0, -\text{far})$ maps to $(0, 0, -1)$

We drop z and use (x, y) as the (normalized) window coordinates.