COMP3421
Introduction to 3D Graphics
3D coordinates

Moving to 3D is simply a matter of adding an extra dimension to our points and vectors:

\[ P = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \]
3D coordinates

3D coordinate systems can be left or right handed.

We typically use right-handed systems, but left handed ones can arise (eg, if one of the axes has negative scale).
Depth

By default OpenGL draws objects in the order in which they are generated in the code.

To make sure closer objects are drawn in front of objects behind them:

```c
    gl.glEnable(GL2.GL_DEPTH_TEST);
    gl.glClear(GL2.GL_DEPTH_BUFFER_BIT);
```

(We will talk in more detail about depth soon.)
3D objects

We represent 3D objects as **polygonal meshes**.

A mesh is a collection of polygons in 3D space that form the skin of an object.

Let’s try the default glut teapot.
Without lighting, our 3D objects look flat.

```gl
gl.glEnable(GL2.GL_LIGHTING);
```

Once **lighting** is enabled, by default,

```gl
gl.glColor does not work. You need to specify material properties
```

Enabling lighting does not actually turn any lights on. You also need something like

```gl
gl.glEnable(GL2.GL_LIGHT0);
```
3D transformations

3D affine transformations have the same structure as 2D but have an extra axis:

\[
M = \begin{pmatrix}
i & j & k & \phi \\
i_1 & j_1 & k_1 & \phi_1 \\
i_2 & j_2 & k_2 & \phi_3 \\
i_3 & j_3 & k_3 & \phi_3 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]
3D Transformations

Translation:

\[ M_T = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & \phi_1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & \phi_2 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & \phi_3 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \]

Scale:

\[ M_S = \begin{pmatrix}
 s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \]

Shear:

\[ M_H = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & h & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \]
3D Rotation

The rotation matrix depends on the axis of rotation.

We can decompose any rotation into a sequence of rotations about the x, y and z axes.

Conversely, any sequence of rotations can be expresses as a single rotation about an axis.
3D Rotation

In each case, positive rotation is CCW from the next axis towards the previous axis.

- $M_x$ rotates $y$ towards $z$
- $M_y$ rotates $z$ towards $x$
- $M_z$ rotates $x$ towards $y$

This works no matter whether the frame is left or right handed.
3D Rotation

\[ M_x = \begin{pmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\
0 & \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \]

\[ M_y = \begin{pmatrix}
\cos(\theta) & 0 & \sin(\theta) & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
-\sin(\theta) & 0 & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \]
3D Rotation

\[ M_z = \begin{pmatrix}
\cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\
\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 
\end{pmatrix} \]
In OpenGL

gl.glTranslated(dx, dy, dz);
gl.glScaled(sx, sy, sz);
gl.glRotated(angle, vx, vy, vz);

angle of rotation
axis of rotation
Our Own 3D Mesh: A Cube

gl.glBegin(GL2.GL_QUADS);
   // front
   gl.glVertex3d(0, 0, 0);
gl.glVertex3d(1, 0, 0);
gl.glVertex3d(1, 1, 0);
gl.glVertex3d(0, 1, 0);
   // back
   gl.glVertex3d(0, 0, -1);
gl.glVertex3d(0, 1, -1);
gl.glVertex3d(1, 1, -1);
gl.glVertex3d(1, 0, -1);
   // etc
A Cube

Notice that each face is drawn so the the polygon is facing **outwards**. i.e: the **area vector** is pointing out of the cube.

In a right-handed frame, this means the points are in anticlockwise order.

Note: If you use your right hand, your curved fingers represent the winding order and your thumb the outwards direction.
Exercise

//top face
//bottom face
//left face
//right face

//see code for solns
Lighting and Normals

Once lighting is on, it is no longer enough to model the vertices of your objects, you need to provide normals as well. Eg

```
gl.glNormal3d(0,0,1);
```

These are used during the lighting calculations. Otherwise lighting does not work properly.

Note: The glut teapot already has normals defined – but we will need to add these ourselves for our own meshes.
Lighting and Normal Normals

For the lighting calculations to work as expected normals passed to it must be unit length.

OpenGL transforms normals using a version of the modelview matrix called the inverse transpose modelview matrix. This means scaling also changes the length of normals.

To avoid this problem use:

```c
gl.glEnable(GL.GL_NORMALIZE);
```
Modeling Normals

Every vertex has an associated normal

Default normal is (0,0,1)

On flat surfaces, we want to use face normals set the normals perpendicular to the face.

On curved surfaces, we may want to specify a different value for the normal, so the normals change more gradually over the curvature.
Face Normals
Smooth vs Flat Vertex Normals
OpenGL

```c
gl.glBegin(GL2.GL_POLYGON);
{
    // set normal before vertex
    gl.glNormal3d(nx, ny, nz);
    gl.glVertex3d(px, py, pz);
    // etc...
}

gl.glEnd();
```
Calculation of Face Normals

Every vertex for a given face will be given the same normal.

This normal can be calculated by

Finding cross product of 2 sides if the face is planar (triangles are always planar)

Using Newell’s method for arbitrary polygons
A Cube With Normals

gl.glBegin(GL2.GL_POLYGON); // front
  gl.glNormal3f(0,0,1);
  gl.glVertex3d(0, 0, 0);
  gl.glVertex3d(1, 0, 0);
  gl.glVertex3d(1, 1, 0);
  gl.glVertex3d(0, 1, 0);
gl.glEnd();

gl.glBegin(GL2.GL_POLYGON); // back
  gl.glNormal3f(0,0,-1);
  gl.glVertex3d(0, 0, -1);
  gl.glVertex3d(0, 1, -1);
  gl.glVertex3d(1, 1, -1);
  gl.glVertex3d(1, 0, -1);
gl.glEnd();
Newell's Method

A robust approach to computing face normal for arbitrary polygons:

\[ n_x = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (y_i - y_{i+1})(z_i + z_{i+1}) \]

\[ n_y = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (z_i - z_{i+1})(x_i + x_{i+1}) \]

\[ n_z = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (x_i - x_{i+1})(y_i + y_{i+1}) \]

where \((x_N, y_N, z_N) = (x_0, y_0, z_0)\)
Vertex Normals

For smooth surfaces we can calculate each normal based on

maths if it is a surface with a mathematical formula

averaging the face normals of adjacent vertices (if this is done without normalising the face normals you get a weighted average). This is the basic way and can be fine tuned to exclude averaging normals that meet at a sharp edge etc.
Cylinder Example

For a cylinder we want smooth vertex normals for the curved surface – as we do not want to see edges there.

But face normals for the top and bottom where there should be a distinct edge
Mesh Representation

It is common to represent a mesh in terms of three lists:

- **vertex list**: all the vertices used in the mesh
- **normal list**: all the normals used in the object
- **face list**: each face's vertices and normals as indices into the above lists.
# Cube

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vertex</th>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Cube

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>normal</th>
<th>x</th>
<th>y</th>
<th>z</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Cube

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>face</th>
<th>vertices</th>
<th>normals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0,1,3,2</td>
<td>0,0,0,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4,6,7,5</td>
<td>1,1,1,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,4,5,1</td>
<td>2,2,2,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,3,7,6</td>
<td>3,3,3,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0,2,6,4</td>
<td>4,4,4,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7,3,1,5</td>
<td>5,5,5,5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3D Camera

A 3D camera can be at any 3D point and orientation.

As before, the view transform is the world-to-camera transform, which is the inverse of the usual local-to-global transformation for objects.

The camera points **backwards** down its local z-axis.
The view volume

A 2D camera shows a 2D world window.

A 3D camera shows a 3D view volume.

This is the area of space that will be displayed in the viewport.

Objects outside the view volume are clipped.

The view volume is in camera coordinates.
Orthographic view volume

camera

nenear plane

far plane
Projection

We want to project a point from our 3D view volume onto the near plane, which will then be mapped to the viewport.

Project happens after the model-view transformation has been applied, so all points are in camera coordinates.

Points with negative z values are in front of the camera.
Orthographic projection

The orthographic projection is simple:

\[ q_1 = p_1 \]
\[ q_2 = p_2 \]
glOrtho() // create a 3D orthographic projection

// Create a 3D orthographic projection

GLfloat left, right, bottom, top, near, far;

// Set the projection matrix to the initial identity matrix
glMatrixMode(GL2.GL_PROJECTION);
glLoadIdentity();

// Set the projection matrix to an orthographic projection
// with the specified projection parameters
glOrtho(left, right, bottom, top, near, far);
The default camera is located at the origin oriented down the negative z-axis.

Using a value of 2 for near means to place the near plane at $z = -2$

Similarly far $= 8$ would place it at $z = -8$
Orthographic Projections

Orthographic projections are commonly used in:

• design – the projection maintains parallel lines and describes shapes of objects completely and exactly

• They are also used in some computer games
Canonical View Volume

It is convenient for clipping if we scale all coordinates so that visible points lie within the range \((-1,1)\). Note the z axis signs are flipped. It is now a left handed system.

This is called the canonical view volume (CVV).
Orthographic transformation matrix

This maps the points in camera/eye coordinates into the canonical view volume.

\[ M_o = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{2}{r-l} & 0 & 0 & -\frac{r+l}{r-l} \\
0 & \frac{2}{t-b} & 0 & \frac{r+l}{t+b} \\
0 & 0 & \frac{-2}{f-n} & \frac{t-b}{f+n} \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{f-n}{1}
\end{pmatrix} \]
What about depth?

We still need depth information attached to each point so that later we can work out which points are in front.

The projection matrix maps z values of visible points between to between -1 for near and 1 for far.

So we are still working in 4D (x,y,z,w) homogenous co-ordinates.
// the camera is at 2,3,3
// rotated 45 deg about y
// then 10 deg about x

gl.glMatrixMode(GL2.GL_MODELVIEW);
gl.glLoadIdentity();

// Rotation about y
gl.glRotated(-45, 0, 1, 0);

// Translation
gl.glTranslated(-2, -3, -3);

// Rotation about x
gl.glRotated(-10, 1, 0, 0);
gluLookAt

A convenient shortcut for setting the camera view transform.

`gluLookAt(eyeX, eyeY, eyeZ, centerX, centerY, centerZ, upX, upY, upZ)`

This places a camera at (eyeX, eyeY, eyeZ) looking towards (centreX, centreY, centreZ)
gluLookAt

A position and a target alone do not provide a complete 3D coordinate frame.

k is fixed but i and j can rotate.
gluLookAt

A position and a target alone do not provide a complete 3D coordinate frame.

$k$ is fixed but $i$ and $j$ can rotate.
gluLookAt

Generally we want the camera angled so that the image is vertical.

i.e. vertical lines in the world are also vertical in the camera view.

We achieve this by specifying an 'up' vector in world coordinates, which points upwards.
gluLookAt

Now we want the camera's i vector to be at right angles to both the k vector and the up vector:
gluLookAt

We can calculate this as:

\[ k = E - C \]
\[ i = \text{up} \times k \]
\[ j = k \times i \]
\[ \phi = E \]

This is the view transformation computed by gluLookAt.
Foreshortening

Foreshortening is the name for the experience of things appearing smaller as they get further away.

Foreshortening happens because our eye is a point camera.
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Foreshortening happens because our eye is a point camera.
Orthographic camera

The orthographic camera does not perform foreshortening.

Objects size is independent of distance from the camera.

![Diagram of an orthographic camera showing a near plane and an object.]
The orthographic camera does not perform foreshortening.

Objects size is independent of distance from the camera.
We can define a different kind of projection that implements a perspective camera. The view volume is a frustum.
Orthogonal camera

Compare this to the orthogonal view volume which is a rectangular parallelepiped (ie a box)
glFrustumum()

// create a perspective projection

gl.glMatrixMode(GL2.GL_PROJECTION);
gl.glLoadIdentity();
gl.glFrustumum(left, right, bottom, top, near, far);

// left, right, bottom, top are the
// sides of the *near* clip plane

// near and far are *positive*
glFrustum
gluPerspective()

// a more convenient form instead
// of glFrustum

gl.glMatrixMode(GL2.GL_PROJECTION);
gl.glLoadIdentity();

GLU glu = new GLU();
glu.gluPerspective(fieldOfView,
    aspectRatio, near, far);

// fieldOfView is in the y direction
gluPerspective

Figure 3-14  Perspective Viewing Volume Specified by gluPerspective()
The perspective projection:

\[ q_1 = n \frac{p_1}{-p_3} \]

\[ q_2 = n \frac{p_2}{-p_3} \]
Pseudodepth

We still need depth information attached to each point so that later we can work out which points are in front. And we still want this information to lie between -1 and 1.

We need to give each point a pseudodepth value that preserves front-to-back ordering.

We want the equation for q3 to have the same denominator (-p3) as q1 and q2.
These constraints yield an equation for pseudodepth:

\[ q_3 = \frac{ap_3 + b}{-p_3} \]

\[ a = -\frac{f + n}{f - n} \]

\[ b = -\frac{2fn}{f - n} \]
Pseudodepth
Depth: Near and Far

Suppose $N = 1$ $F = 100$

$a = -(F+N)/(F-N)$ $b = -2FN/(F-N)$

$a = -101/99$ $b = -200/99$

$z^* = (101Pz + 200)/(99*-Pz)$

$Pz = -1, \quad z^* = -1$

$Pz = -2, \quad z^* = 0.010101$

$Pz = -99, \quad z^* = 0.999796$

$Pz = -100, \quad z^* = 1$
Extended homogeneous coords

We extend our representation for homogeneous coordinates to allow values with a fourth component other than zero or one.

We define an equivalence:

\[ P = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} wp_1 \\ wp_2 \\ wp_3 \\ w \end{pmatrix} \text{ for any } w \neq 0 \]

These two values represent the same point.
Example

(1,3,-2,1) is equivalent to
(2,6,-4,2) in homogeneous co-ordinates

This also means if I want to divide by say 3 using matrix multiplication I could do something like

\[ \mathbf{M} (12,3,-6,1) = (12,3,-6,3) \]

And then my point is equivalent to
(4,1,-2,1)
Perspective transform

We can now express the perspective equations as a single matrix:

\[
M_{\text{perspective}} = \begin{pmatrix}
    n & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & n & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & a & b \\
    0 & 0 & -1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Note that this matrix is not affine.
Perspective transform

To transform a point:

\[ Q = M_{\text{perspective}} P \]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
    n & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & n & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & a & b \\
    0 & 0 & -1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
    p_1 \\
    p_2 \\
    p_3 \\
    1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
    np_1 \\
    np_2 \\
    ap_3 + b \\
    -p_3
\end{pmatrix}
\equiv
\begin{pmatrix}
    np_1/-p_3 \\
    np_2/-p_3 \\
    (ap_3 + b)/-p_3 \\
    1
\end{pmatrix}
\]
Perspective transform

This matrix maps the perspective view volume to an axis aligned cube.

Note the z-axis has been flipped.
It is convenient for clipping if we scale all coordinates so that visible points lie within the range (-1,1). Note the z axis signs are flipped. It is now a left handed system.

This is called the **canonical view volume** (CVV).
Perspective projection matrix

We can combine perspective transformation and scaling into a single matrix:

$$M_P = \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{2n}{r-l} & 0 & \frac{r+l}{r-l} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{2n}{t-b} & \frac{r-l}{t+b} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \frac{-t-b}{f-n} & \frac{-2fn}{f-n} \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}$$
Clipping

We can now clip points against the CVV. The Liang-Barsky algorithm is a variant of Cyrus-Beck extended to handle 3D and homogeneous coordinates. Details are in the textbook if you're interested.
Perspective division

After clipping we need to convert all points to the normal form with the fourth component equal to one.

This is called the perspective division step.

\[ q = \frac{1}{p_4} \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \\ p_4 \end{pmatrix} \]
Viewport transformation

Finally we scale points into window coordinates corresponding to pixels on the screen. It also maps pseudodepth from `-1..1` to `0..1`.
Viewport transformation

Again, we can do this with a matrix:

\[
M_{\text{viewport}} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{w_s}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{h_s}{2} & 0 & s_x + \frac{w_s}{2} \\
0 & 0 & f_s - n_s & s_y + \frac{h_s}{2} \\
0 & 0 & \frac{n_s + f_s}{2} & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Where \( n_s \) is 0 and \( f_s \) is 1
The graphics pipeline

1. Model Transform
   - local coordinates
   - world coordinates

2. Model-View Transform
   - View Transform
   - eye coordinates

3. Rasterisation
   - Viewport
   - window coords
   - 3D CCV coords

4. Hidden surface removal
   - Frame buffer

5. Texturing

6. Projection transformation
   - Clipping
   - 4D CCV coords

7. Display
   - User
The graphics pipeline

To transform a point: \( P = (p_1, p_2, p_3)^\top \)

Extend to **homogeneous coordinates**: 
\[
P = (p_1, p_2, p_3, 1)^\top
\]

Multiply by **model matrix** to get world coordinates: 
\[
P_w = M_{\text{model}}P
\]

Multiply by **view matrix** to get camera (eye) coordinates: 
\[
P_c = M_{\text{view}}P_w
\]
The graphics pipeline

Multiply by projection matrix to get clip coordinates (with fourth component):

\[ P_{ccv} = M_{\text{persp}} P_c \]

Clip to remove points outside CVV.

Perspective division to eliminate fourth component.

\[ P_n = \frac{1}{p_4} P_{ccv} \]

Viewport transformation to window coordinates.

\[ P_v = M_{\text{viewport}} P_n \]
Exercises

Write a snippet of jogl code to draw a triangle with vertices:

(2,1,-4)
(0,-1,-3)
(-2,1,-4)

Make sure you specify face normals for the vertices.
Exercise 2

We want to use a perspective camera to view our triangle. Which command/s would work?

gl.glOrtho(-3,3,-3,3,0,8);

gl.glFrustum(-3,3,-3,3,0,8);

gl.glFrustum(-3,3,-3,3,-2,8);

 glu.gluPerspective(60,1,2,8);

 glu.gluPerspective(60,1,0,8);
Exercises 3

What would be an equivalent way to specify your perspective camera?

Where would the x and y vertices in our triangle be projected to on the near plane? What would the pseudo-depth of our vertices be in CVV co-ordinates?
Exercises 4

Suppose we wanted to add another triangle with vertices

(-0.5,0,0)
(0.5,0.5,0)
(0.5,-0.5,0)

Would this appear on the screen? How could we fix this?