

Introduction to Graphics

Computer Science Tripos Part 1A/1B Michaelmas Term 2017/2018

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This handout includes copies of the slides that will be used in lectures. These notes do not constitute a complete transcript of all the lectures and they are not a substitute for text books. They are intended to give a reasonable synopsis of the subjects discussed, but they give neither complete descriptions nor all the background material.

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Introduction to Computer Graphics

Peter Robinson & Rafał Mantiuk

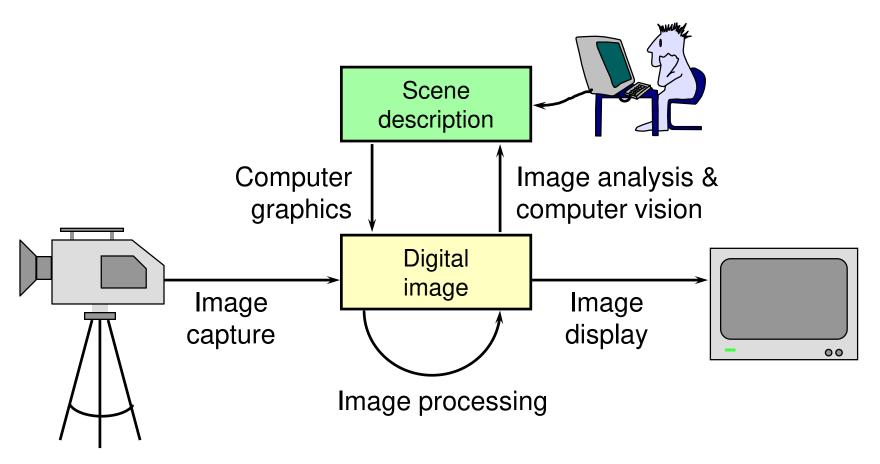
www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~pr & ~rkm38

Eight lectures & two practical tasks for Part IA CST

Two supervisions suggested

Two exam questions on Paper 3

What are Computer Graphics & Image Processing?



Why bother with CG & IP?

- ★All visual computer output depends on CG
 - printed output (laser/ink jet/phototypesetter)
 - monitor (CRT/LCD/plasma/DMD)
 - all visual computer output consists of real images generated by the computer from some internal digital image
- → Much other visual imagery depends on CG & IP
 - TV & movie special effects & post-production
 - most books, magazines, catalogues, brochures, junk mail, newspapers, packaging, posters, flyers



Course Structure

→ Background

 What is an image? Human vision. Resolution and quantisation. Storage of images in memory. [I lecture]

★ Rendering

 Perspective. Reflection of light from surfaces and shading. Geometric models. Ray tracing. [3 lectures]

Graphics pipeline

 Polygonal mesh models. Transformations using matrices in 2D and 3D. Homogeneous coordinates. Projection: orthographic and perspective. [I lecture]

Graphics hardware and modern OpenGL

 Vertex processing. Rasterisation. Fragment processing. Working with meshes and textures. [2 lectures]

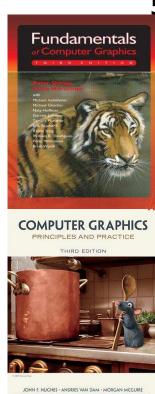
Technology

 Colour spaces. Output devices: brief overview of display and printer technologies. [I lecture]

Course books

- **→** Fundamentals of Computer Graphics
 - Shirley & Marschner
 CRC Press 2015 (4th edition)
- ★ Computer Graphics: Principles & Practice
 - Hughes, van Dam, McGuire, Sklar et al.
 Addison-Wesley 2013 (3rd edition)
- **→** OpenGL Programming Guide:

 The Official Guide to Learning OpenGL Version 4.5 with SPIR-V
 - Kessenich, Sellers & Shreiner
 Addison Wesley 2016 (7th edition and later)



Computer Graphics & Image Processing

→ Background

- What is an image?
- Human vision
- Resolution and quantisation
- Storage of images in memory
- **+** Rendering
- + Graphics pipeline
- +Graphics hardware and modern OpenGL
- + Colour

What is required for vision?

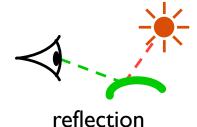
- + illumination
 - some source of light
- → objects
 - which reflect (or transmit) the light
- + eyes
 - to capture the light as an image



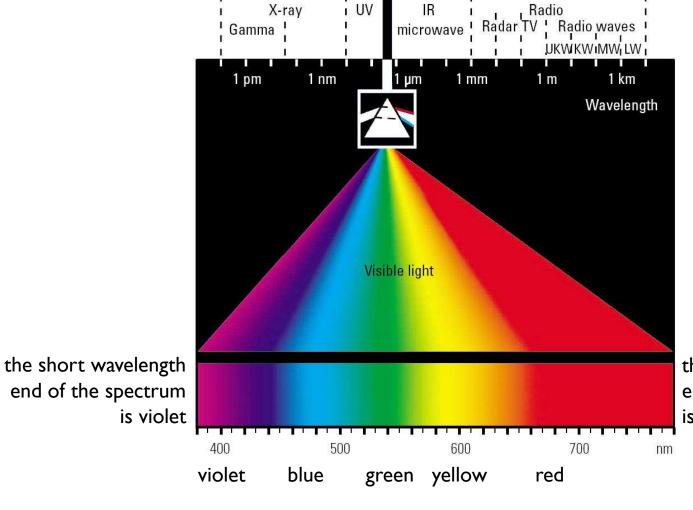
direct viewing



transmission



The spectrum



visible light is only a tiny part of the whole electromagnetic spectrum

the long wavelength end of the spectrum is red

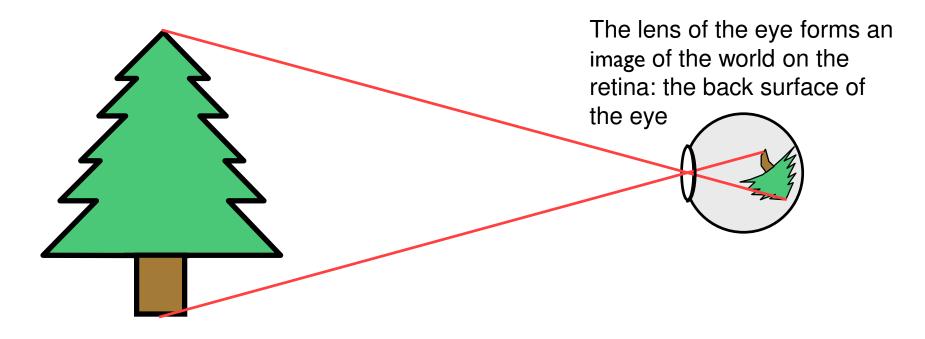
What is an image?

- two dimensional function
- → value at any point is an intensity or colour
- → not digital!

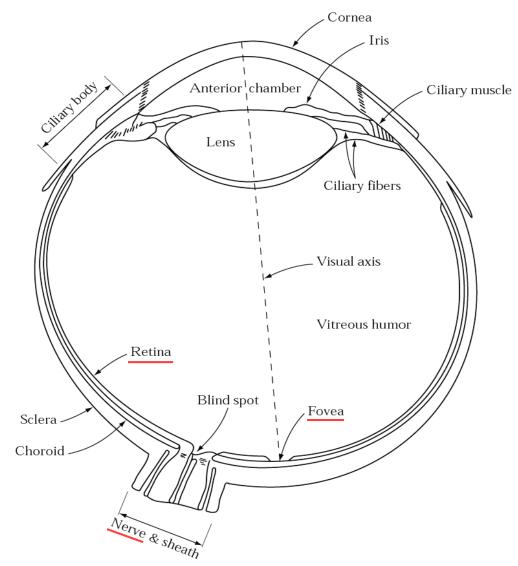


The workings of the human visual system

to understand the requirements of displays (resolution, quantisation and colour) we need to know how the human eye works...



Structure of the human eye



- the retina is an array of light detection cells
- the fovea is the high resolution area of the retina
- the optic nerve takes signals from the retina to the visual cortex in the brain

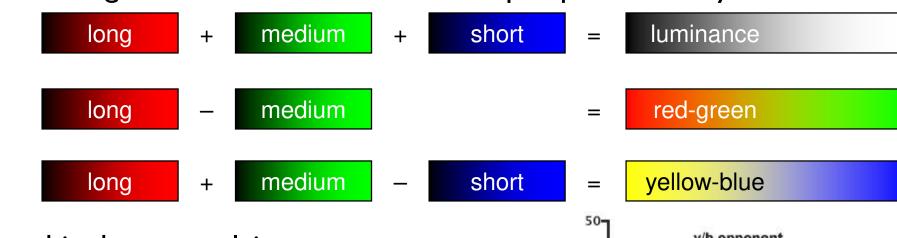
Fig. 2.1 from Gonzalez & Woods

Light detectors in the retina

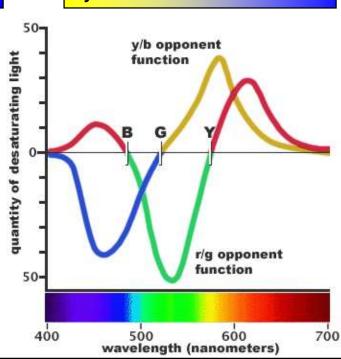
- +two classes
 - rods
 - cones
- +cones come in three types
 - sensitive to short, medium and long wavelengths
 - allow you to see in colour
- the cones are concentrated in the macula, at the centre of the retina
- the fovea is a densely packed region in the centre of the macula
 - contains the highest density of cones
 - provides the highest resolution vision

Colour signals sent to the brain

the signal that is sent to the brain is pre-processed by the retina

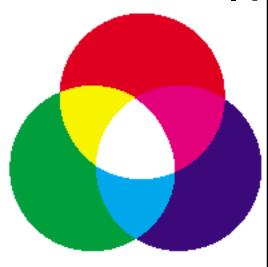


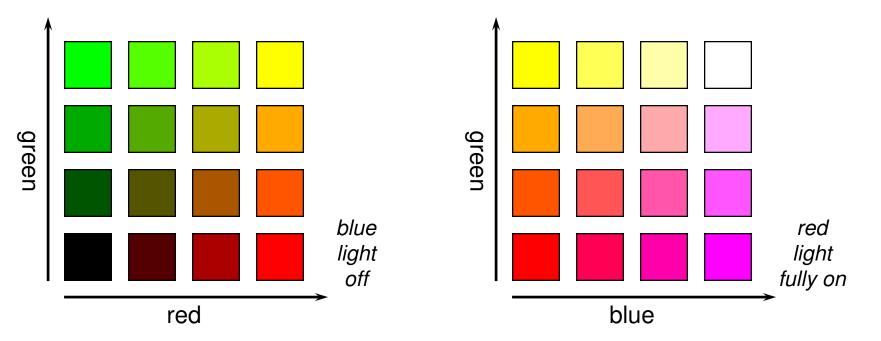
- this theory explains:
 - colour-blindness effects
 - why red, yellow, green and blue are perceptually important colours
 - why you can see e.g. a yellowish red but not a greenish red



Mixing coloured lights

by mixing different amounts of red, green, and blue lights we can generate a wide range of responses in the human eye





not all colours can be created in this way

What is a digital image?

- → a contradiction in terms
 - if you can see it, it's not digital
 - if it's digital, it's just a collection of numbers
- → a sampled and quantised version of a real image
- → a rectangular array of intensity or colour values

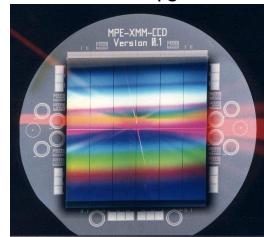
Sampling

- → a digital image is a rectangular array of intensity values
- +each value is called a pixel
 - "picture element"
- *sampling resolution is normally measured in pixels per inch (ppi) or dots per inch (dpi)
 - computer monitors have a resolution around 100 ppi
 - laser and ink jet printers have resolutions between 300 and I 200 ppi
 - typesetters have resolutions between 1000 and 3000 ppi

Image capture

- → a variety of devices can be used
 - scanners
 - line CCD (charge coupled device) in a flatbed scanner
 - spot detector in a drum scanner
 - cameras
 - area CCD
 - CMOS camera chips

area CCD www.hll.mpg.de



flatbed scanner www.nuggetlab.com



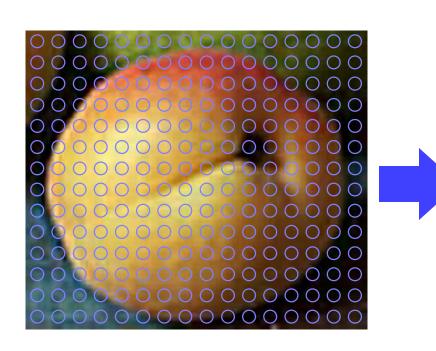
Heidelberg drum scanner



Heidelberg drum scanner and many other images in this section come from "Handbook of Print Media", by Helmutt Kipphan, Springer-Verlag, 2001

The image of the

Image capture example

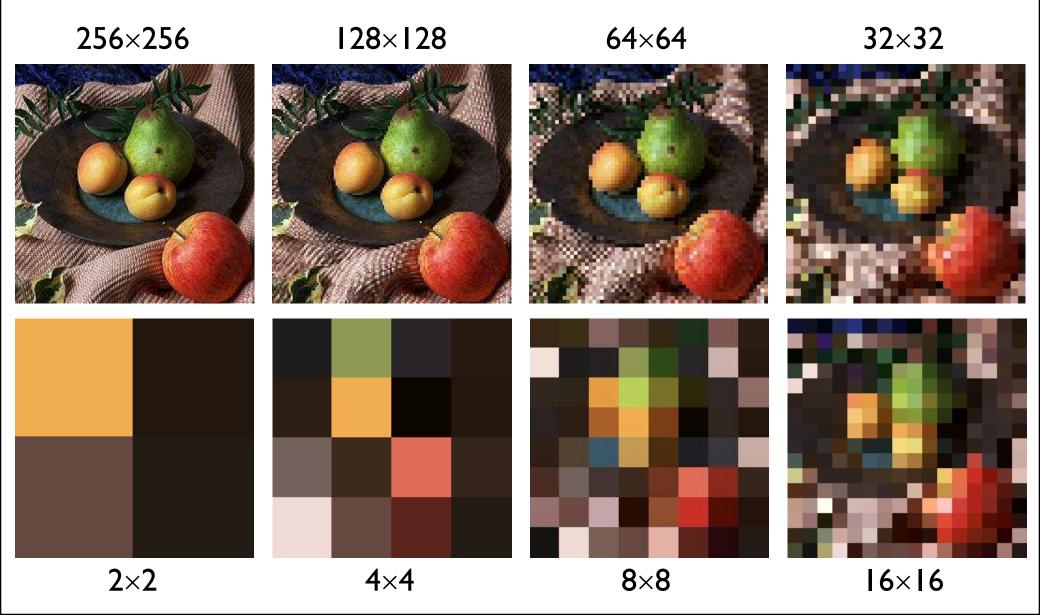


A real image

103 59 12 80 56 12 34 30 1 78 79 21 145 156 52 136 143 65 115 129 41 128 143 50 85 106 11 74 96 14 85 97 23 66 74 23 73 82 29 67 76 21 40 48 7 33 39 9 94 54 19 42 27 6 19 10 3 59 60 28 102 107 41 208 88 63 204 75 54 197 82 63 179 63 46 158 62 46 146 49 40 52 65 21 60 68 11 40 51 17 35 37 0 28 29 0 83 50 15 2 0 1 13 14 8 243 173 161 231 140 69 239 142 89 230 143 90 210 126 79 184 88 48 152 69 35 123 51 27 104 41 23 55 45 9 36 27 0 28 28 2 29 28 7 40 28 16 13 13 1 224 167 112 240 174 80 227 174 78 227 176 87 233 177 94 213 149 78 196 123 57 141 72 31 108 53 22 121 62 22 126 50 24 101 49 35 16 21 1 12 5 0 14 16 11 3 0 0 237 176 83 244 206 123 241 236 144 238 222 147 221 190 108 215 170 77 190 135 52 136 93 38 76 35 7 113 56 26 156 83 38 107 52 21 31 14 7 9 6 0 20 14 12 255 214 112 242 215 108 246 227 133 239 232 152 229 209 123 232 193 98 208 162 64 179 133 47 142 90 32 29 19 27 89 53 21 171 116 49 114 64 29 75 49 24 10 9 5 11 16 9 237 190 82 249 221 122 241 225 129 240 219 126 240 199 93 218 173 69 188 135 33 219 186 79 189 184 93 136 104 65 112 69 37 191 153 80 122 74 28 80 51 19 19 37 47 16 37 32 223 177 83 235 208 105 243 218 125 238 206 103 221 188 83 228 204 98 224 220 123 210 194 109 192 159 62 150 98 40 116 73 28 146 104 46 109 59 24 75 48 18 27 33 33 47 100 118 216 177 98 223 189 91 239 209 111 236 213 117 217 200 108 218 200 100 218 206 104 207 175 76 177 131 54 142 88 41 108 65 22 103 59 22 93 53 18 76 50 17 9 10 2 54 76 74 108 111 102 218 194 108 228 203 102 228 200 100 212 180 79 220 182 85 198 158 62 180 138 54 155 106 37 132 82 33 95 51 14 87 48 15 81 46 14 16 15 0 11 6 0 64 90 91 54 80 93 220 186 97 212 190 105 214 177 86 208 165 71 196 150 64 175 127 42 170 117 49 139 89 30 102 53 12 84 43 13 79 46 15 72 42 14 10 13 4 12 8 0 69 104 110 58 96 109 130 128 115 196 154 82 196 148 66 183 138 70 174 125 56 169 120 54 146 97 41 118 67 24 90 52 16 75 46 16 58 42 19 13 7 9 10 5 0 18 11 3 66 111 116 70 100 102 78 103 99 57 71 82 162 111 66 141 96 37 152 102 51 130 80 31 110 63 21 83 44 11 69 42 12 28 8 0 7 5 10 18 4 0 17 10 2 30 20 10 58 88 96 53 88 94 59 91 102 69 99 110 54 80 79 23 69 85 31 34 25 53 41 25 21 2 0 8 0 0 17 10 4 11 0 0 34 21 13 47 35 23 38 26 14 47 35 23

A digital image

Sampling resolution



Quantisation

- +each intensity value is a number
- → for digital storage the intensity values must be quantised
 - limits the number of different intensities that can be stored
 - limits the brightest intensity that can be stored
- how many intensity levels are needed for human consumption
 - 8 bits often sufficient
 - some applications use 10 or 12 or 16 bits
 - more detail later in the course
- +colour is stored as a set of numbers
 - usually as 3 numbers of 5—16 bits each
 - more detail later in the course

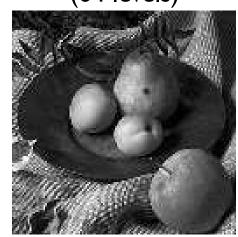
Quantisation levels

8 bits (256 levels)

7 bits (128 levels)



6 bits (64 levels)



5 bits (32 levels)





I bit (2 levels)



2 bits (4 levels)



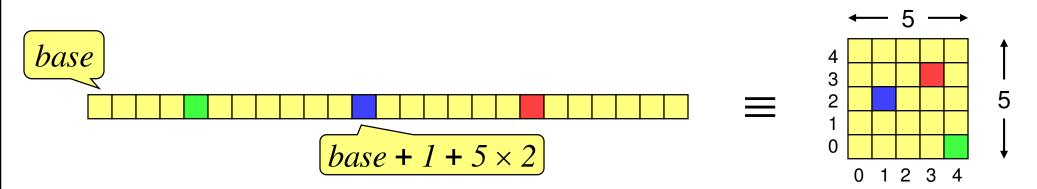
3 bits (8 levels)



4 bits (16 levels)

Storing images in memory

- →8 bits became a de facto standard for greyscale images
 - ♦ 8 bits = I byte
 - ◆ 16 bits is now being used more widely, 16 bits = 2 bytes
 - an 8 bit image of size $W \times H$ can be stored in a block of $W \times H$ bytes
 - one way to do this is to store pixel[x][y] at memory location $base + x + W \times y$
 - memory is ID, images are 2D

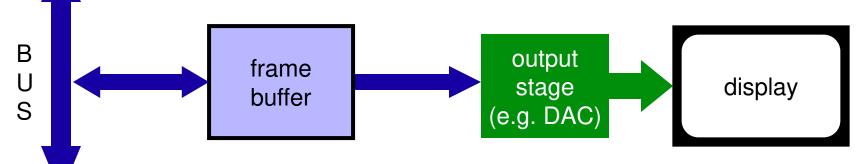


Colour images

- tend to be 24 bits per pixel
 - 3 bytes: one red, one green, one blue
 - increasing use of 48 bits per pixel, 2 bytes per colour plane
- can be stored as a contiguous block of memory
 - \blacksquare of size $W \times H \times 3$
- more common to store each colour in a separate "plane"
 - \blacksquare each plane contains just $W \times H$ values
- the idea of planes can be extended to other attributes associated with each pixel
 - alpha plane (transparency), z-buffer (depth value), A-buffer (pointer to a data structure containing depth and coverage information), overlay planes (e.g. for displaying pop-up menus) — see later in the course for details

The frame buffer

most computers have a special piece of memory reserved for storage of the current image being displayed



- the frame buffer normally consists of dual-ported Dynamic RAM (DRAM)
 - sometimes referred to as Video RAM (VRAM)

Computer Graphics & Image Processing

- **→** Background
- **→ Rendering**
 - Perspective
 - Reflection of light from surfaces and shading
 - Geometric models
 - Ray tracing
- **→** Graphics pipeline
- **→** Graphics hardware and modern OpenGL
- **→** Technology

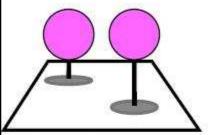
Depth cues



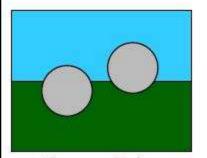
Occlusion



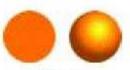
Relative Size



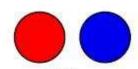
Shadow and Foreshortening



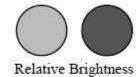
Distance to Horizon



Shading



Colour





Atmosphere



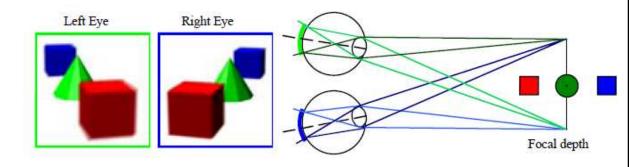
Focus



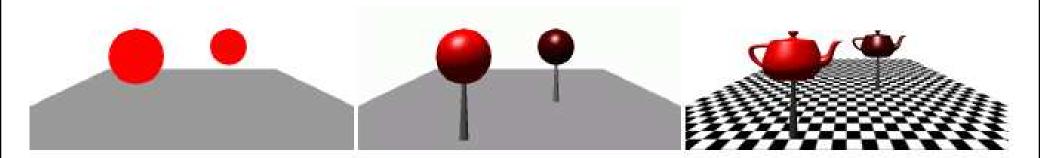
Familiar Size



Texture Gradient



Rendering depth



Perspective in photographs



Gates Building – the rounded version (Stanford)

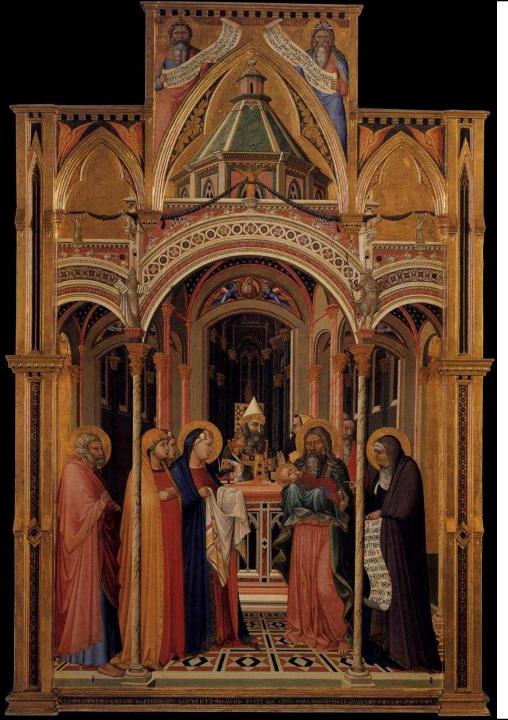




Gates Building – the rectilinear version (Cambridge)



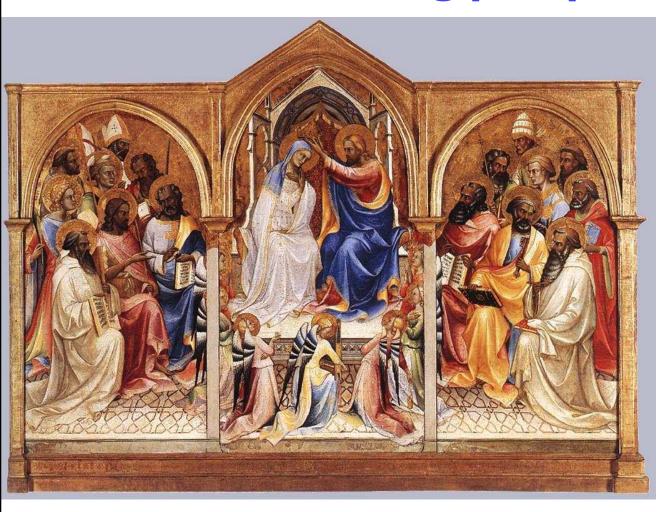




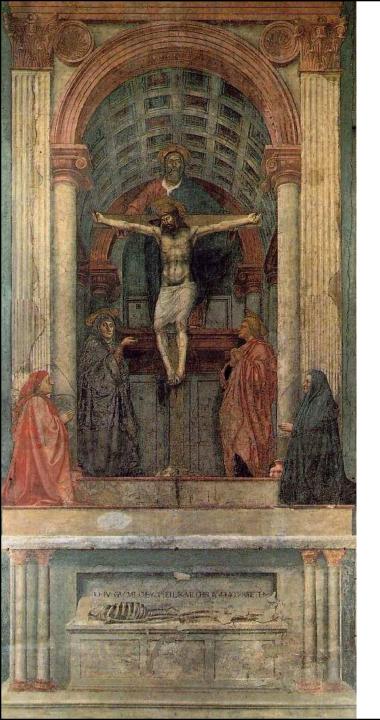
Early perspective

- Presentation at the Temple
- → Ambrogio Lorenzetti 1342
- → Uffizi Gallery Florence

Wrong perspective

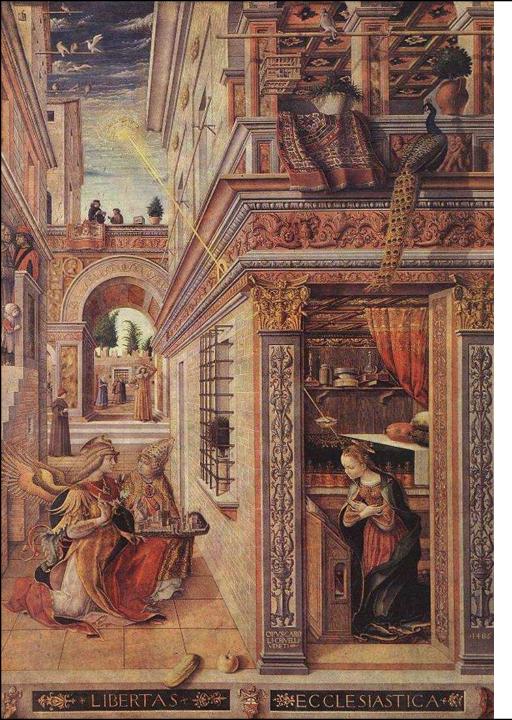


- +Adoring saints
- ◆Lorenzo Monaco 1407-09
- → National Gallery London



Renaissance perspective

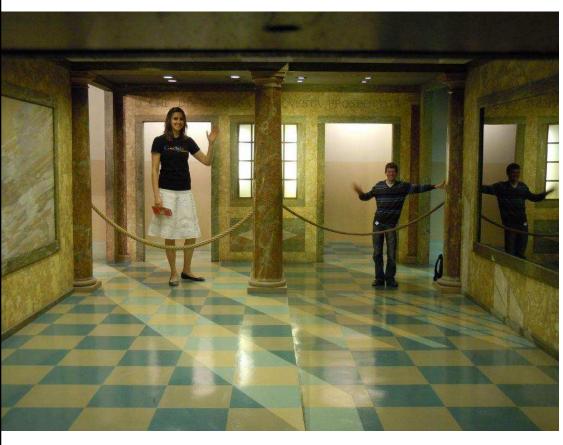
- → Geometrical perspective Filippo Brunelleschi 1413
- → Holy Trinity fresco
- Masaccio (Tommaso di Ser Giovanni di Simone) 1425
- → Santa Maria Novella Florence
- → De pictura (On painting) textbook by Leon Battista Alberti 1435

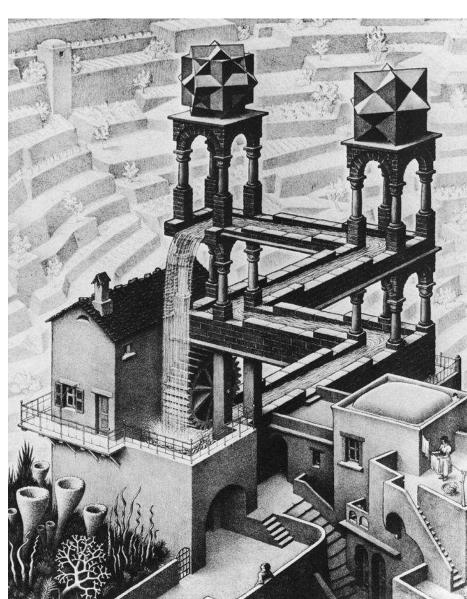


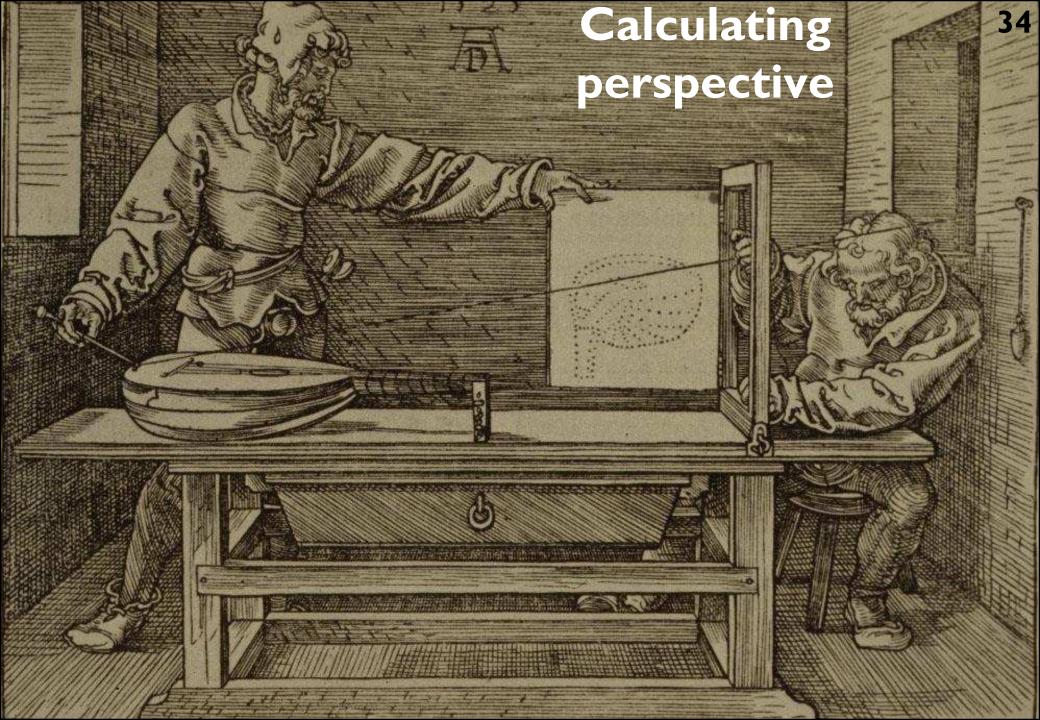
More perspective

- ★ The Annunciation with Saint Emidius
- → Carlo Crivelli 1486
- → National Gallery London

False perspective

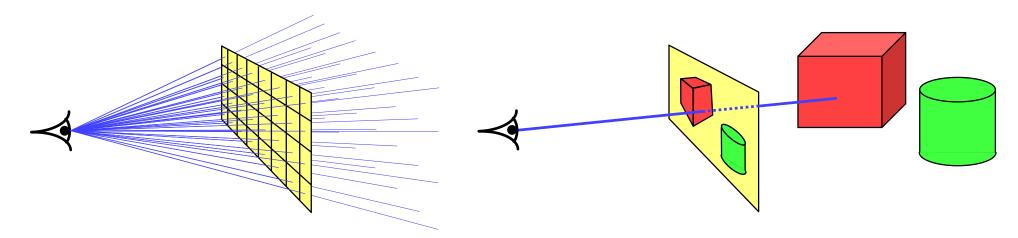






Ray tracing

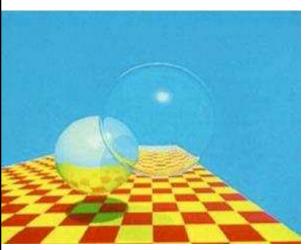
- → Identify point on surface and calculate illumination
- → Given a set of 3D objects, shoot a ray from the eye through the centre of every pixel and see what surfaces it hits



shoot a ray through each pixel

whatever the ray hits determines the colour of that pixel

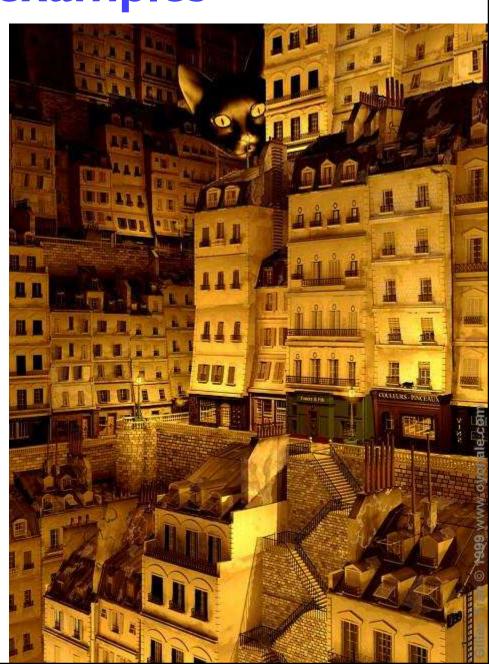
Ray tracing: examples





ray tracing easily handles reflection, refraction, shadows and blur

ray tracing is computationally expensive

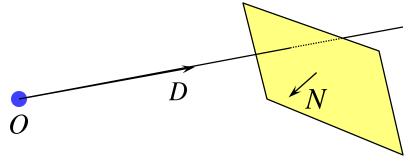


Ray tracing algorithm

```
select an eye point and a screen plane
FOR every pixel in the screen plane
   determine the ray from the eye through the pixel's centre
   FOR each object in the scene
       IF the object is intersected by the ray
           IF the intersection is the closest (so far) to the eye
               record intersection point and object
           END IF;
       END IF;
   END FOR:
   set pixel's colour to that of the object at the closest intersection point
END FOR:
```

Intersection of a ray with an object I





ray:
$$P = O + sD$$
, $s \ge 0$

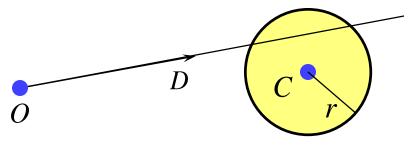
plane: $P \cdot N + d = 0$

$$s = -\frac{d + N \cdot O}{N \cdot D}$$

- polygon or disc
 - intersection the ray with the plane of the polygon
 - as above
 - then check to see whether the intersection point lies inside the polygon
 - a 2D geometry problem (which is simple for a disc)

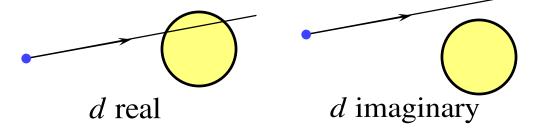
Intersection of a ray with an object 2





ray:
$$P = O + sD$$
, $s \ge 0$

sphere :
$$(P-C) \cdot (P-C) - r^2 = 0$$



- all similar to sphere
- try them as an exercise

$$a = D \cdot D$$

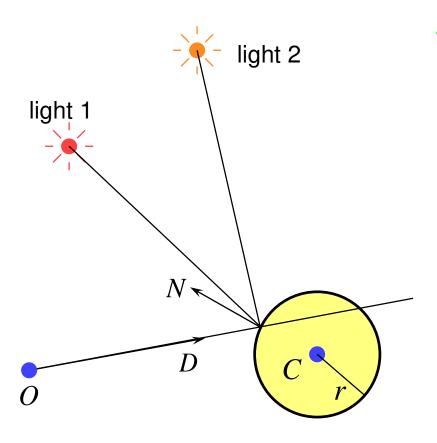
$$b = 2D \cdot (O - C)$$

$$c = (O - C) \cdot (O - C) - r^{2}$$

$$d = \sqrt{b^{2} - 4ac}$$

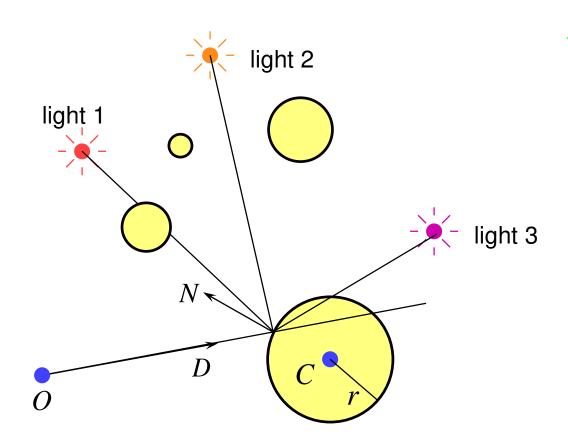
$$s_{1} = \frac{-b + d}{2a}$$

Ray tracing: shading



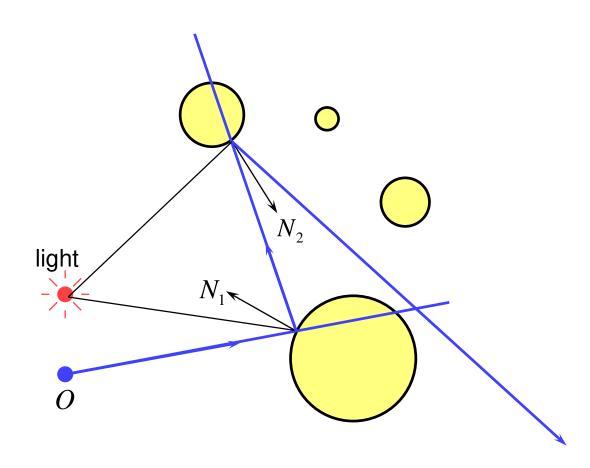
- once you have the intersection of a ray with the nearest object you can also:
 - calculate the normal to the object at that intersection point
 - shoot rays from that point to all of the light sources, and calculate the diffuse and specular reflections off the object at that point
 - this (plus ambient illumination) gives the colour of the object (at that point)

Ray tracing: shadows



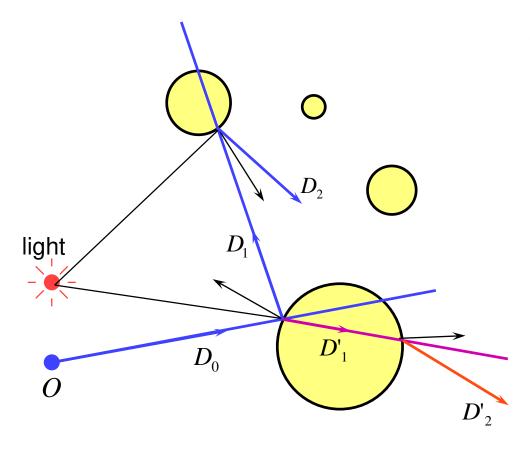
- because you are tracing rays from the intersection point to the light, you can check whether another object is between the intersection and the light and is hence casting a shadow
 - also need to watch for selfshadowing

Ray tracing: reflection



- if a surface is totally or partially reflective then new rays can be spawned to find the contribution to the pixel's colour given by the reflection
 - this is perfect (mirror) reflection

Ray tracing: transparency & refraction

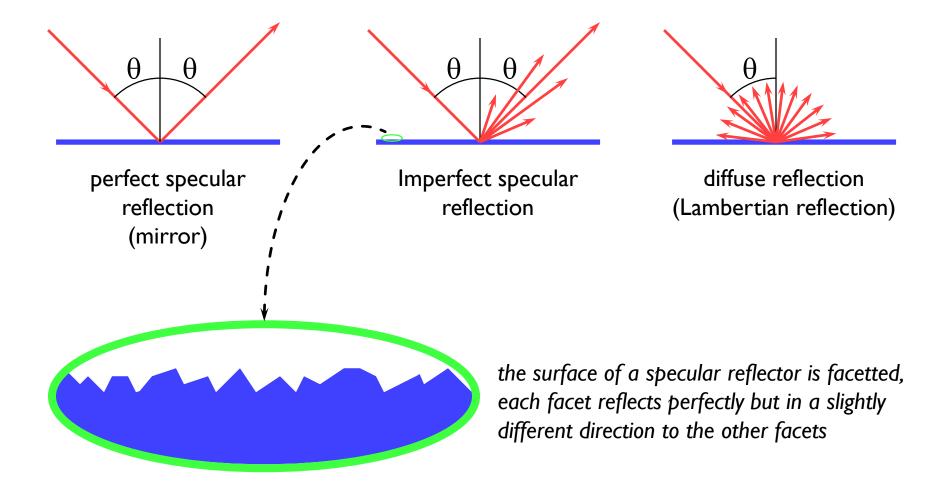


- objects can be totally or partially transparent
 - this allows objects behind the current one to be seen through it
- transparent objects can have refractive indices
 - bending the rays as they pass through the objects
- transparency + reflection means that a ray can split into two parts

Illumination and shading

- → Dürer's method allows us to calculate what part of the scene is visible in any pixel
- → But what colour should it be?
- → Depends on:
 - lighting
 - shadows
 - properties of surface material

How do surfaces reflect light?



Comments on reflection

- the surface can absorb some wavelengths of light
 - e.g. shiny gold or shiny copper
- specular reflection has "interesting" properties at glancing angles owing to occlusion of micro-facets by one another



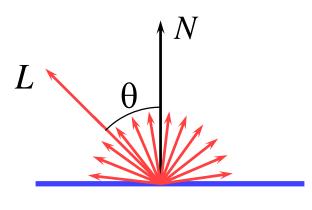
- plastics are good examples of surfaces with:
 - specular reflection in the light's colour
 - diffuse reflection in the plastic's colour



Calculating the shading of a surface

- gross assumptions:
 - there is only diffuse (Lambertian) reflection
 - all light falling on a surface comes directly from a light source
 - there is no interaction between objects
 - no object casts shadows on any other
 - so can treat each surface as if it were the only object in the scene
 - light sources are considered to be infinitely distant from the object
 - the vector to the light is the same across the whole surface
- observation:
 - the colour of a flat surface will be uniform across it, dependent only on the colour & position of the object and the colour & position of the light sources

Diffuse shading calculation



$$I = I_l k_d \cos \theta$$
$$= I_l k_d (N \cdot L)$$

L is a normalised vector pointing in the direction of the light source

N is the normal to the surface

 I_l is the intensity of the light source

 k_d is the proportion of light which is diffusely reflected by the surface

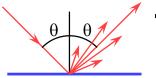
I is the intensity of the light reflected by the surface

use this equation to calculate the colour of a pixel

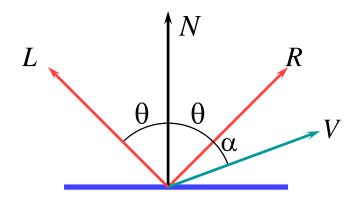
Diffuse shading: comments

- ullet can have different I_l and different k_d for different wavelengths (colours)
- watch out for $\cos \theta < 0$
 - implies that the light is behind the polygon and so it cannot illuminate this side of the polygon
- do you use one-sided or two-sided surfaces?
 - one sided: only the side in the direction of the normal vector can be illuminated
 - if $\cos\theta < 0$ then both sides are black
 - which side of the polygon is illuminated
 - need to invert the sign of the intensity for the back side
- \bullet this is essentially a simple one-parameter (θ) BRDF

Specular reflection



Phong developed an easy-tocalculate approximation to specular reflection



$$I = I_l k_s \cos^n \alpha$$
$$= I_l k_s (R \cdot V)^n$$

L is a normalised vector pointing in the direction of the light source

R is the vector of perfect reflection

N is the normal to the surface

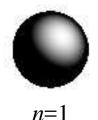
V is a normalised vector pointing at the viewer

 I_l is the intensity of the light source

 k_s is the proportion of light which is specularly reflected by the surface

n is Phong's *ad hoc* "roughness" coefficient

I is the intensity of the specularly reflected light





n=3

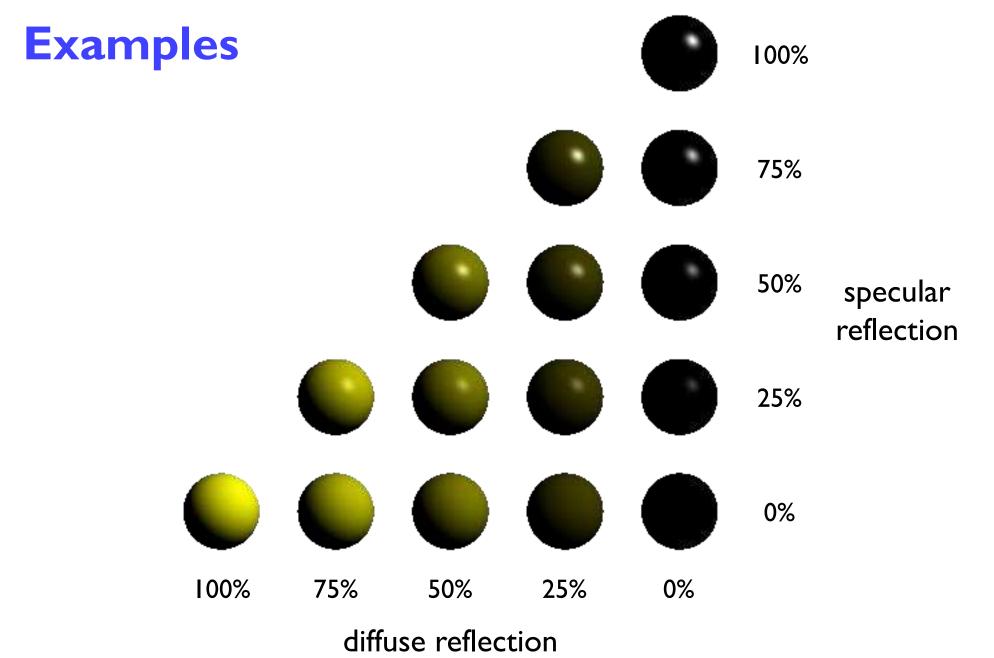






Phong Bui-Tuong, "Illumination for computer generated pictures", CACM, 18(6), 1975, 311–7

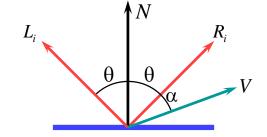
n=20 n=40



Shading: overall equation

 the overall shading equation can thus be considered to be the ambient illumination plus the diffuse and specular reflections from each light source

$$I = I_a k_a + \sum_i I_i k_d (L_i \cdot N) + \sum_i I_i k_s (R_i \cdot V)^n$$



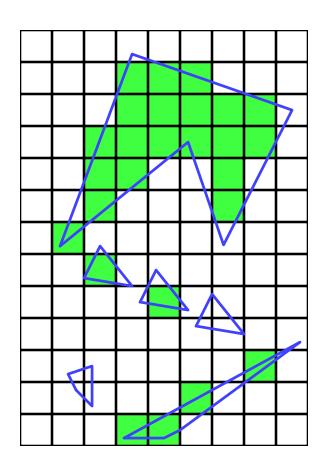
the more lights there are in the scene, the longer this calculation will take

The gross assumptions revisited

- diffuse reflection
- approximate specular reflection
- no shadows
 - need to do ray tracing or shadow mapping to get shadows
- lights at infinity
 - can add local lights at the expense of more calculation
 - need to interpolate the L vector
- no interaction between surfaces
 - cheat!
 - assume that all light reflected off all other surfaces onto a given surface can be amalgamated into a single constant term: "ambient illumination", add this onto the diffuse and specular illumination

Sampling

- we have assumed so far that each ray passes through the centre of a pixel
 - i.e. the value for each pixel is the colour of the object which happens to lie exactly under the centre of the pixel
- this leads to:
 - stair step (jagged) edges to objects
 - small objects being missed completely
 - thin objects being missed completely or split into small pieces

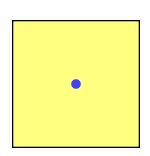


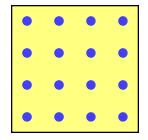
Anti-aliasing

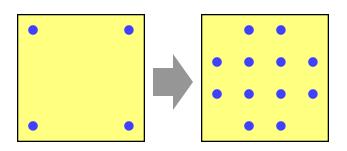
- these artefacts (and others) are jointly known as aliasing
- methods of ameliorating the effects of aliasing are known as anti-aliasing
 - in signal processing aliasing is a precisely defined technical term for a particular kind of artefact
 - in computer graphics its meaning has expanded to include most undesirable effects that can occur in the image
 - this is because the same anti-aliasing techniques which ameliorate true aliasing artefacts also ameliorate most of the other artefacts

Sampling in ray tracing

- single point
 - shoot a single ray through the pixel's centre
- super-sampling for anti-aliasing
 - shoot multiple rays through the pixel and average the result
 - regular grid, random, jittered, Poisson disc
- adaptive super-sampling
 - shoot a few rays through the pixel, check the variance of the resulting values, if similar enough stop, otherwise shoot some more rays

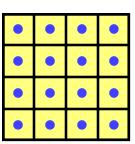


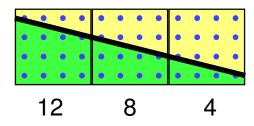


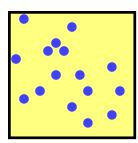


Types of super-sampling I

- regular grid
 - divide the pixel into a number of sub-pixels and shoot a ray through the centre of each
 - problem: can still lead to noticable aliasing unless a very high resolution sub-pixel grid is used
- random
 - \blacksquare shoot N rays at random points in the pixel
 - replaces aliasing artefacts with noise artefacts
 - the eye is far less sensitive to noise than to aliasing

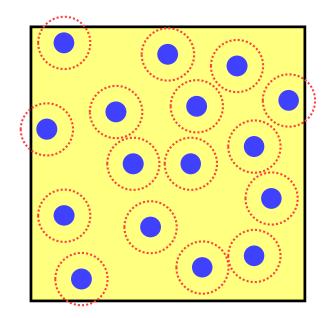


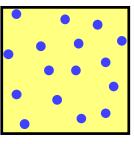




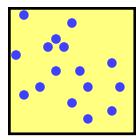
Types of super-sampling 2

- Poisson disc
 - shoot N rays at random points in the pixel with the proviso that no two rays shall pass through the pixel closer than ε to one another
 - for N rays this produces a better looking image than pure random sampling
 - very hard to implement properly





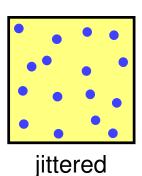


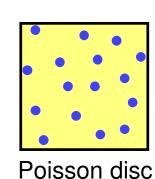


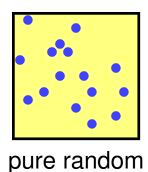
pure random

Types of super-sampling 3

- jittered
 - divide pixel into N sub-pixels and shoot one ray at a random point in each sub-pixel
 - an approximation to Poisson disc sampling
 - for N rays it is better than pure random sampling
 - easy to implement







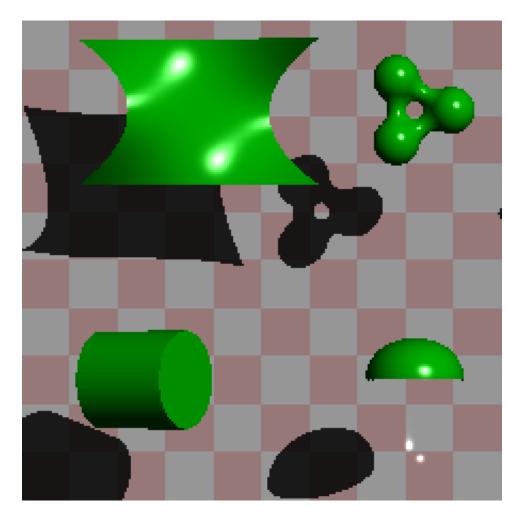
More reasons for wanting to take multiple samples per pixel

- super-sampling is only one reason why we might want to take multiple samples per pixel
- many effects can be achieved by distributing the multiple samples over some range
 - called distributed ray tracing
 - N.B. distributed means distributed over a range of values
- can work in two ways
 - 1 each of the multiple rays shot through a pixel is allocated a random value from the relevant distribution(s)
 - all effects can be achieved this way with sufficient rays per pixel
 - 2 each ray spawns multiple rays when it hits an object
 - this alternative can be used, for example, for area lights

Examples of distributed ray tracing

- distribute the samples for a pixel over the pixel area
 - get random (or jittered) super-sampling
 - used for anti-aliasing
- distribute the rays going to a light source over some area
 - allows area light sources in addition to point and directional light sources
 - produces soft shadows with penumbrae
- distribute the camera position over some area
 - allows simulation of a camera with a finite aperture lens
 - produces depth of field effects
- distribute the samples in time
 - produces motion blur effects on any moving objects

Anti-aliasing



one sample per pixel

multiple samples per pixel

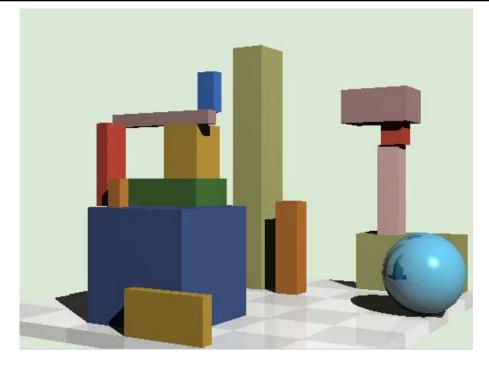
Area vs point light source





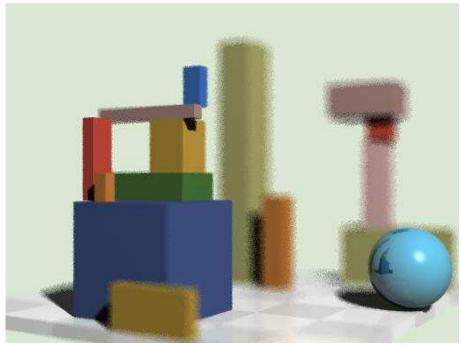
an area light source produces soft shadows

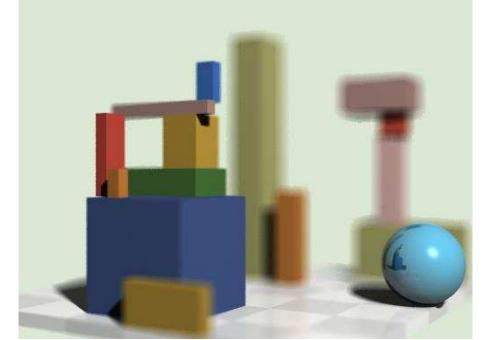
a point light source produces hard shadows



Finite aperture

left, a pinhole camera
below, a finite aperture camera
below left, I2 samples per pixel
below right, I20 samples per pixel
note the depth of field blur: only objects
at the correct distance are in focus





Computer Graphics & Image Processing

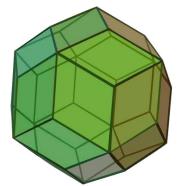
- **→** Background
- **→ Rendering**
- Graphics pipeline
 - Polygonal mesh models
 - Transformations using matrices in 2D and 3D
 - Homogeneous coordinates
 - Projection: orthographic and perspective
- **→** Graphics hardware and modern OpenGL
- + Colour

Unfortunately...

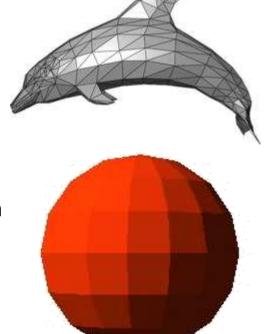
- → Ray tracing is computationally expensive
 - used by hobbyists and for super-high visual quality
- → Video games and user interfaces need something faster
- + So:
 - Model surfaces as polyhedra meshes of polygons
 - Use composition to build scenes
 - Apply perspective transformation and project into plane of screen
 - Work out which surface was closest
 - Fill pixels with colour of nearest visible polygon
- → Modern graphics cards have hardware to support this

Three-dimensional objects

 Polyhedral surfaces are made up from meshes of multiple connected polygons

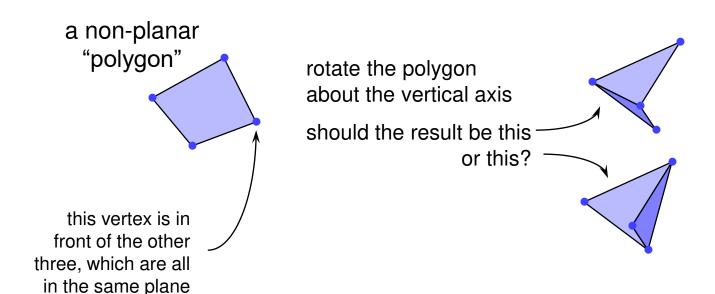


- Polygonal meshes
 - open or closed
 - manifold or non-manifold
- Curved surfaces
 - must be converted to polygons to be drawn



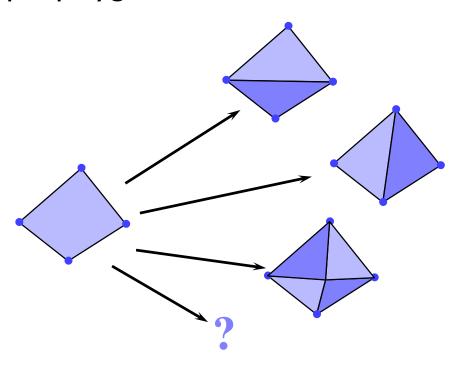
Surfaces in 3D: polygons

- + Easier to consider planar polygons
 - 3 vertices (triangle) must be planar
 - > 3 vertices, not necessarily planar



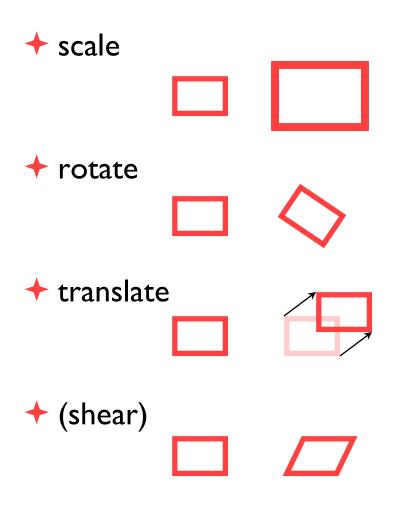
Splitting polygons into triangles

- Most Graphics Processing Units (GPUs) are optimised to draw triangles
- Split polygons with more than three vertices into triangles



which is preferable?

2D transformations



- + why?
 - it is extremely useful to be able to transform predefined objects to an arbitrary location, orientation, and size
 - any reasonable graphics package will include transforms
 - 2D → Postscript
 - 3D → OpenGL

Basic 2D transformations

- scale
 - about origin
 - by factor *m*
- rotate
 - about origin
 - \blacksquare by angle θ
- translate
 - along vector (x_o, y_o)
- shear
 - \blacksquare parallel to x axis
 - by factor a

$$x' = mx$$

$$y' = my$$

$$x' = x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta$$

$$y' = x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta$$

$$x' = x + x_o$$

$$y' = y + y_o$$

$$x' = x + ay$$

$$y' = y$$

Matrix representation of transformations

- **→** scale
 - \bullet about origin, factor m

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 \\ 0 & m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

- → do nothing
 - identity

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

- + rotate
 - about origin, angle θ

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

- → shear
 - \bullet parallel to x axis, factor a

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

Homogeneous 2D co-ordinates

 translations cannot be represented using simple 2D matrix multiplication on 2D vectors, so we switch to homogeneous co-ordinates

$$(x, y, w) \equiv \left(\frac{x}{w}, \frac{y}{w}\right)$$

- an infinite number of homogeneous co-ordinates map to every 2D point
- w=0 represents a point at infinity
- usually take the inverse transform to be:

$$(x, y) \equiv (x, y, 1)$$

Matrices in homogeneous co-ordinates

+ scale

• about origin, factor *m*

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

do nothing

identity

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

→ rotate

about origin, angle θ

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

+ shear

parallel to x axis, factor a

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

Translation by matrix algebra

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_o \\ 0 & 1 & y_0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

In homogeneous coordinates

$$x' = x + wx_0$$

$$x' = x + wx_o$$
 $y' = y + wy_o$ $w' = w$

$$w' = w$$

In conventional coordinates

$$\frac{x'}{w'} = \frac{x}{w} + x_0$$
 $\frac{y'}{w'} = \frac{y}{w} + y_0$

$$\frac{y'}{w'} = \frac{y}{w} + y_0$$

Concatenating transformations

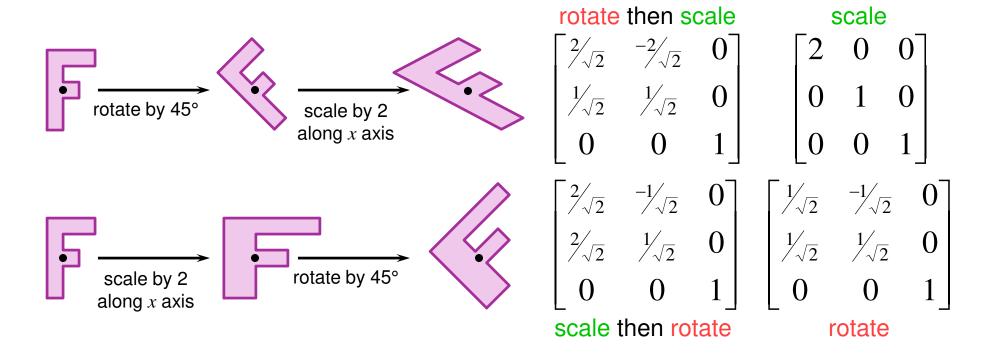
- often necessary to perform more than one transformation on the same object
- can concatenate transformations by multiplying their matrices
 e.g. a shear followed by a scaling:

scale
 shear

$$\begin{bmatrix} x'' \\ y'' \\ w'' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ w' \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ w \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w' \end{bmatrix}$$

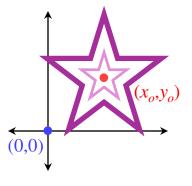
Transformation are not commutative

be careful of the order in which you concatenate transformations



Scaling about an arbitrary point

- scale by a factor m about point (x_a, y_a)
 - translate point (x_o, y_o) to the origin
 - 2 scale by a factor m about the origin
 - 3 translate the origin to (x_0, y_0)



$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x_o \\ 0 & 1 & -y_o \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y'' \\ w'' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_o \\ 0 & 1 & y_o \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x'' \\ y'' \\ w'' \end{bmatrix}$$

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} x''' \\ y''' \\ w''' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_o \\ 0 & 1 & y_o \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x'' \\ y'' \\ w'' \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x''' \\ y''' \\ w''' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_o \\ 0 & 1 & y_o \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -x_o \\ 0 & 1 & -y_o \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercise: show how to perform rotation about an arbitrary point

3D transformations

3D homogeneous co-ordinates

$$(x, y, z, w) \rightarrow (\frac{x}{w}, \frac{y}{w}, \frac{z}{w})$$

3D transformation matrices

translation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

identity

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

rotation about x-axis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

scale

$$egin{bmatrix} m_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & m_y & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & m_z & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \ \end{bmatrix}$$

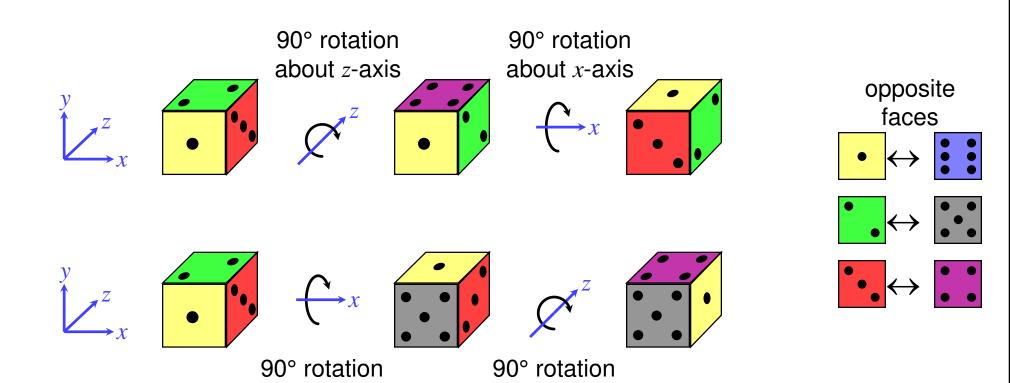
rotation about z-axis

$$m_x$$
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rotation about y-axis

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

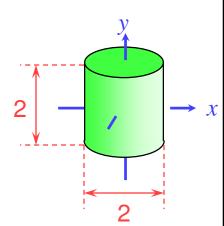
3D transformations are not commutative



about *x*-axis

about z-axis

- the graphics package Open Inventor defines a cylinder to be:
 - centre at the origin, (0,0,0)
 - radius I unit
 - height 2 units, aligned along the y-axis
- this is the only cylinder that can be drawn,
 but the package has a complete set of 3D transformations
- we want to draw a cylinder of:
 - radius 2 units
 - the centres of its two ends located at (1,2,3) and (2,4,5)
 - its length is thus 3 units
- what transforms are required? and in what order should they be applied?



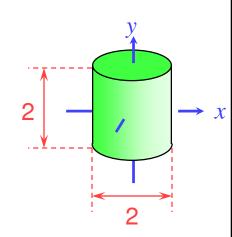
- → order is important:
 - scale first
 - rotate
 - translate last
- +scaling and translation are straightforward

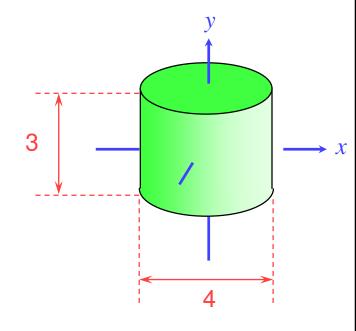
$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

scale from size (2,2,2) to size (4,3,4)

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

translate centre of cylinder from (0,0,0) to halfway between (1,2,3) and (2,4,5)



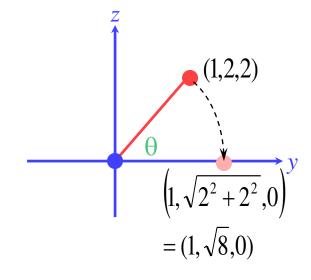


- → rotation is a multi-step process
 - break the rotation into steps, each of which is rotation about a principal axis
 - work these out by taking the desired orientation back to the original axis-aligned position
 - the centres of its two ends located at (1,2,3) and (2,4,5)
 - desired axis: (2,4,5)-(1,2,3)=(1,2,2)
 - original axis: y-axis = (0,1,0)

- desired axis: (2,4,5)-(1,2,3)=(1,2,2)
- original axis: y-axis = (0,1,0)
- \bullet zero the z-coordinate by rotating about the x-axis

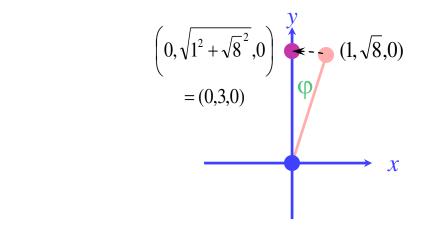
$$\mathbf{R}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\theta = -\arcsin\frac{2}{\sqrt{2^{2} + 2^{2}}}$$



- \bullet then zero the *x*-coordinate by rotating about the *z*-axis
- we now have the object's axis pointing along the y-axis

$$\mathbf{R}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi & 0 & 0 \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\varphi = \arcsin \frac{1}{\sqrt{1^{2} + \sqrt{8}^{2}}}$$

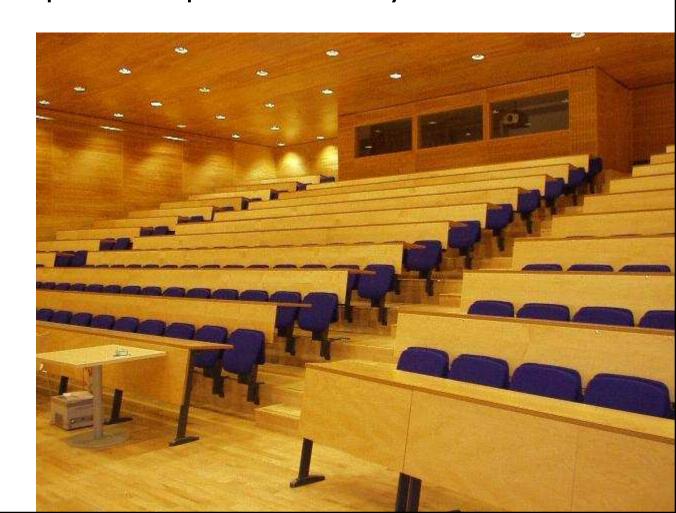


- the overall transformation is:
 - first scale
 - then take the inverse of the rotation we just calculated
 - finally translate to the correct position

$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{R}_1^{-1} \times \mathbf{R}_2^{-1} \times \mathbf{S} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

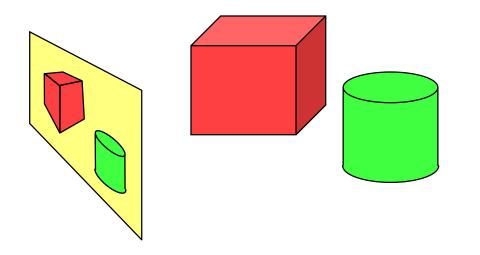
Application: display multiple instances

 transformations allow you to define an object at one location and then place multiple instances in your scene



3D ⇒ 2D projection

- → to make a picture
 - 3D world is projected to a 2D image
 - like a camera taking a photograph
 - the three dimensional world is projected onto a plane



The 3D world is described as a set of (mathematical) objects

e.g. sphere radius (3.4)

centre (0,2,9)

e.g. box size (2,4,3)

centre (7, 2, 9)

orientation (27º, 156º)

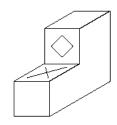
Types of projection

→ parallel

- \bullet e.g. $(x, y, z) \rightarrow (x, y)$
- useful in CAD, architecture, etc
- looks unrealistic



- e.g. $(x, y, z) \rightarrow (\frac{x}{z}, \frac{y}{z})$
- things get smaller as they get farther away
- looks realistic
 - this is how cameras work





Cavalier projection

Cabinet projection



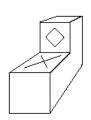


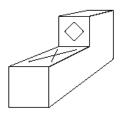


Parallel to Y axis

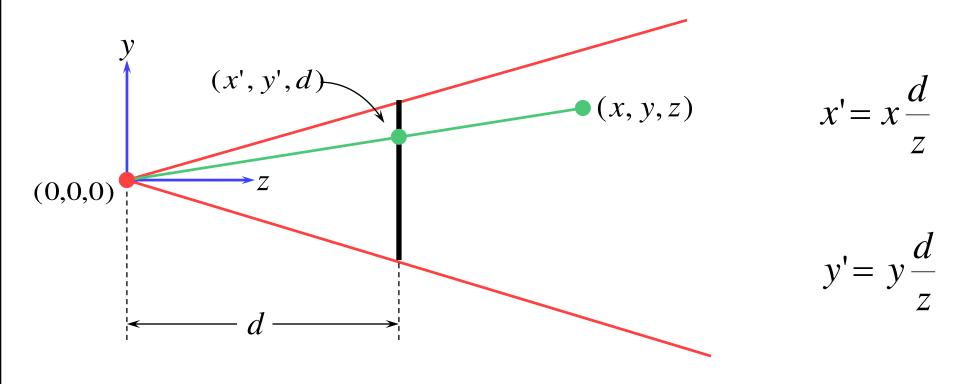


Parallel to Z axis





Geometry of perspective projection



Projection as a matrix operation

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

$$x' = x \frac{d}{z}$$

$$y' = y \frac{d}{z}$$

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

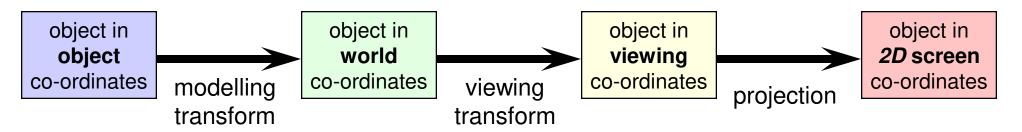
This is useful in the z-buffer algorithm where we need to interpolate 1/z values rather than z values.

$$z' = \frac{1}{z}$$

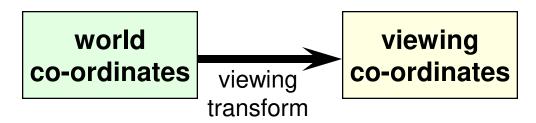
Perspective projection with an arbitrary camera

- we have assumed that:
 - \blacksquare screen centre at (0,0,d)
 - screen parallel to xy-plane
 - z-axis into screen
 - y-axis up and x-axis to the right
 - \blacksquare eye (camera) at origin (0,0,0)
- for an arbitrary camera we can either:
 - work out equations for projecting objects about an arbitrary point onto an arbitrary plane
 - transform all objects into our standard co-ordinate system (viewing co-ordinates) and use the above assumptions

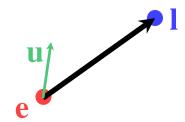
A variety of transformations



- the modelling transform and viewing transform can be multiplied together to produce a single matrix taking an object directly from object co-ordinates into viewing co-ordinates
- either or both of the modelling transform and viewing transform matrices can be the identity matrix
 - e.g. objects can be specified directly in viewing co-ordinates, or directly in world co-ordinates
- this is a useful set of transforms, not a hard and fast model of how things should be done



- → the problem:
 - to transform an arbitrary co-ordinate system to the default viewing co-ordinate system
- → camera specification in world co-ordinates
 - eye (camera) at (e_x, e_y, e_z)
 - look point (centre of screen) at (l_x, l_y, l_z)
 - up along vector (u_x, u_y, u_z)
 - perpendicular to el



• translate eye point, (e_x, e_y, e_z) , to origin, (0,0,0)

$$\mathbf{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -e_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -e_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -e_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

ullet scale so that eye point to look point distance, $|{f el}|$, is distance from origin to screen centre, d

$$|\overline{\mathbf{el}}| = \sqrt{(l_x - e_x)^2 + (l_y - e_y)^2 + (l_z - e_z)^2} \qquad \mathbf{S} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{|\overline{\mathbf{el}}|} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{d}{|\overline{\mathbf{el}}|} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{d}{|\overline{\mathbf{el}}|} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

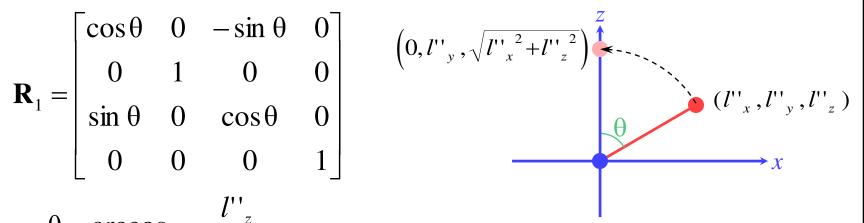
- need to align line el with z-axis
 - first transform e and l into new co-ordinate system

$$e'' = S \times T \times e = 0$$
 $l'' = S \times T \times l$

 \blacksquare then rotate e''l'' into yz-plane, rotating about y-axis

$$\mathbf{R}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\theta = \arccos \frac{l''_z}{\sqrt{l''_x^2 + l''_z^2}}$$

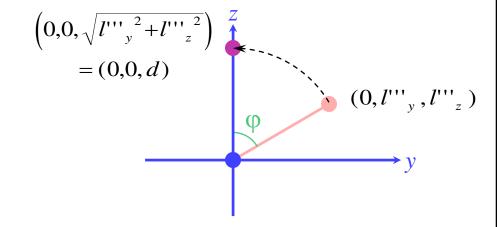


• having rotated the viewing vector onto the yz plane, rotate it about the x-axis so that it aligns with the z-axis

$$\mathbf{l}^{\prime\prime\prime} = \mathbf{R}_1 \times \mathbf{l}^{\prime\prime}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \left(0,0,\sqrt{l'''_{y}}^{2} + l'''_{z}^{2}\right) \\ = (0,0,d) \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & &$$

$$\varphi = \arccos \frac{l'''_z}{\sqrt{l'''_y}^2 + l'''_z}$$



- the final step is to ensure that the up vector actually points up,
 i.e. along the positive y-axis
 - $lue{z}$ actually need to rotate the up vector about the z-axis so that it lies in the positive y half of the yz plane

$$\mathbf{u}^{\prime\prime\prime\prime} = \mathbf{R}_2 \times \mathbf{R}_1 \times \mathbf{u}$$

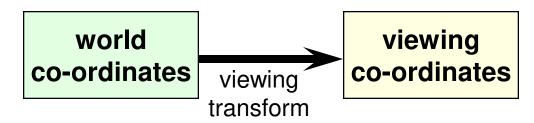
$$\mathbf{R}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \psi & -\sin \psi & 0 & 0 \\ \sin \psi & \cos \psi & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\psi = \arccos \frac{u''''_y}{\sqrt{u''''_x^2 + u''''_y^2}}$$

why don't we need to multiply **u** by **S** or **T**?

u is a vector rather thana point, vectors do notget translated

scaling u by a uniform scaling matrix would make no difference to the direction in which it points



 we can now transform any point in world co-ordinates to the equivalent point in viewing co-ordinate

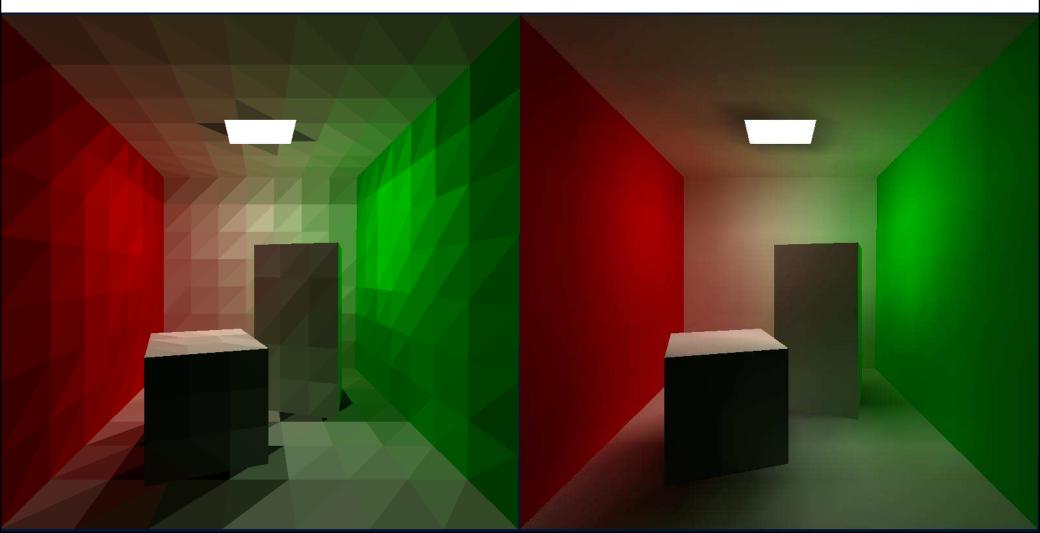
$$\begin{bmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \\ w' \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_3 \times \mathbf{R}_2 \times \mathbf{R}_1 \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{T} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{bmatrix}$$

- in particular: $\mathbf{e} \rightarrow (0,0,0) \quad \mathbf{l} \rightarrow (0,0,d)$
- the matrices depend only on e, l, and u, so they can be premultiplied together

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{R}_3 \times \mathbf{R}_2 \times \mathbf{R}_1 \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{T}$$

Illumination & shading

- → Drawing polygons with uniform colours gives poor results
- → Interpolate colours across polygons

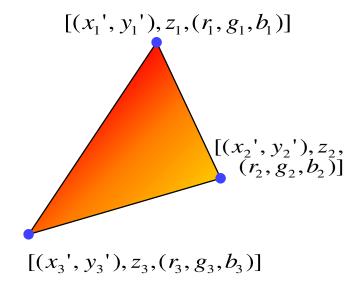


Illumination & shading

- → Interpolating colours across polygons needs
 - colour at each vertex
 - algorithm to blend between the colours across the polygon
- → Works for ambient lighting and diffuse reflection
- ◆ Specular reflection requires more information than just the colour

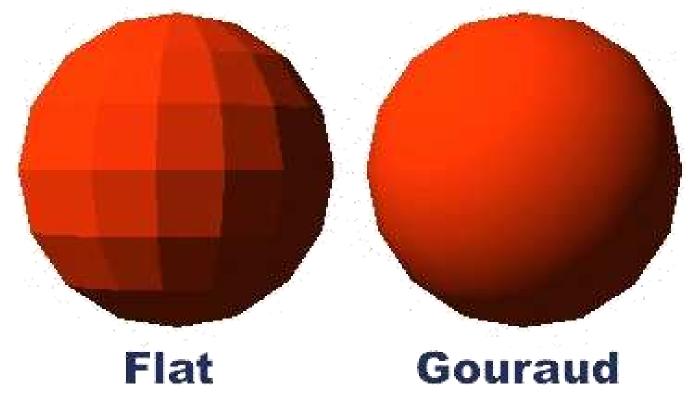
Gouraud shading

- for a polygonal model, calculate the diffuse illumination at each vertex
 - calculate the normal at the vertex, and use this to calculate the diffuse illumination at that point
 - normal can be calculated directly if the polygonal model was derived from a curved surface
- interpolate the colour between the vertices across the polygon
- surface will look smoothly curved
 - rather than looking like a set of polygons
 - surface outline will still look polygonal



Flat vs Gouraud shading

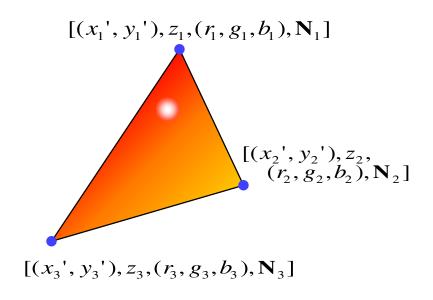
 note how the interior is smoothly shaded but the outline remains polygonal



Phong shading

- similar to Gouraud shading, but calculate the specular component in addition to the diffuse component
- therefore need to interpolate the normal across the polygon in order to be able to calculate the reflection vector

 N.B. Phong's approximation to specular reflection ignores (amongst other things) the effects of glancing incidence



Introduction to Computer Graphics

- **→** Background
- **→** Rendering
- **→** Graphics pipeline
- Graphics hardware and modern OpenGL
 - GPU & APIs
 - OpenGL Rendering pipeline
 - Example OpenGL code
 - GLSL
 - Transformations & vertex shaders
 - Raster buffers
 - Textures
- + Colour

What is a GPU?

- Graphics Processing Unit
- Like CPU (Central Processing Unit) but for processing graphics
- Optimized for floating point operations on large arrays of data
 - Vertices, normals, pixels, etc.



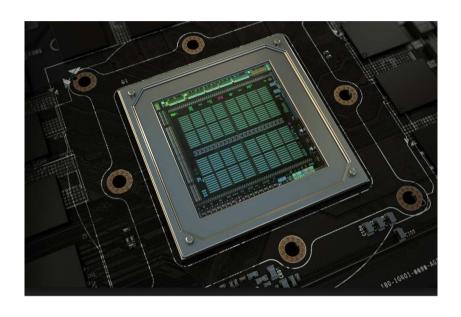


Transistor count



Intell 8-core Core i7 Haswell-E

2,600,000,000 transistors



Nvidia GeForce GTX Titan X

8,000,000,000 transistors

What does a GPU do

- Performs all low-level tasks & a lot of high-level tasks
 - Clipping, rasterisation, hidden surface removal, ...
 - Essentially draws millions of triangles very efficiently
 - Procedural shading, texturing, animation, simulation, ...
 - Video rendering, de- and encoding, deinterlacing, ...
 - Physics engines
- Full programmability at several pipeline stages
 - fully programmable
 - but optimized for massively parallel operations

What makes GPU so fast?

- > 3D rendering can be very efficiently parallelized
 - Millions of pixels
 - Millions of triangles
 - Many operations executed independently at the same time
- This is why modern GPUs
 - Contain between hundreds and thousands of SIMD processors
 - ▶ Single Instruction Multiple Data operate on large arrays of data
 - >>400 GB/s memory access
 - This is much higher bandwidth than CPU
 - But peak performance can be expected for very specific operations

GPU APIs (Application Programming Interfaces)

OpenGL



- Multi-platform
- Open standard API
- Focus on general 3D applications
 - Open GL driver manages the resources

DirectX

DirectX[®]

- Microsoft Windows / Xbox
- Proprietary API
- Focus on games
 - Application manages resources

Similar functionality and performance



One more API

- Vulkan cross platform, open standard
- Low-overhead API for high performance 3D graphics
- Compared to OpenGL / DirectX
 - Reduces CPU load
 - Better support of multi-CPU-core architectures
 - Finer control of GPU

But

- The code for drawing a few primitives can take 1000s line of code
- Intended for game engines and code that must be very well optimized

GPU for general computing

- OpenGL and DirectX are not meant to be used for general purpose computing
 - Example: physical simulation, machine learning
- ► CUDA NVidia's architecture for parallel computing
 - C-like programming language
 - With special API for parallel instructions
 - Requires NVidia GPU
- OpenCL Similar to CUDA, but open standard
 - Can run on both GPU and CPU
 - ▶ Supported by AMD, Intel and Nvidia, Qualcomm, Apple, ...





OpenCL

GPU and mobile devices

OpenGL ES 1.0-3.2

- Stripped version of OpenGL
- Removed functionality that is not strictly necessary on mobile devices



- iOS: iPhone, iPad
- Android phones
- PlayStation 3
- Nintendo 3DS
- and many more



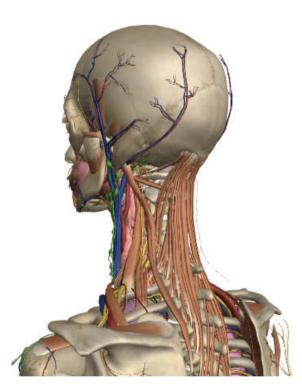
OpenGL ES.

OpenGL ES 2.0 rendering (iOS)

WebGL



- JavaScript library for 3D rendering in a web browser
- WebGL I.0 based on OpenGL ES 2.0
- ▶ WebGL 2.0 based on OpenGL ES 3.0
 - Chrome and Firefox (2017)
- Most modern browsers support WebGL
- Potentially could be used to create3D games in a browser
 - and replace Adobe Flash



http://zygotebody.com/

OpenGL in Java

- Standard Java API does not include OpenGL interface
- But several wrapper libraries exist
 - Java OpenGL JOGL
 - Lightweight Java Game Library LWJGL
- We will use LWJGL 3
 - Seems to be better maintained
 - Access to other APIs (OpenCL, OpenAL, ...)
- We also need a linear algebra library
 - ▶ JOML Java OpenGL Math Library
 - Operations on 2, 3, 4-dimensional vectors and matrices

OpenGL History

- Proprietary library IRIS GL by SGI
- OpenGL 1.0 (1992)
- OpenGL 1.2 (1998)
- OpenGL 2.0 (2004)
 - **▶** GLSL
 - Non-power-of-two (NPOT) textures
- OpenGL 3.0 (2008)
 - Major overhaul of the API
 - Many features from previous versions depreciated
- OpenGL 3.2 (2009)
 - Core and Compatibility profiles

- Geometry shaders
- OpenGL 4.0 (2010)
 - Catching up with Direct3D 11
- OpenGL 4.5 (2014)
- OpenGL 4.6 (2017)
 - SPIR-V shaders

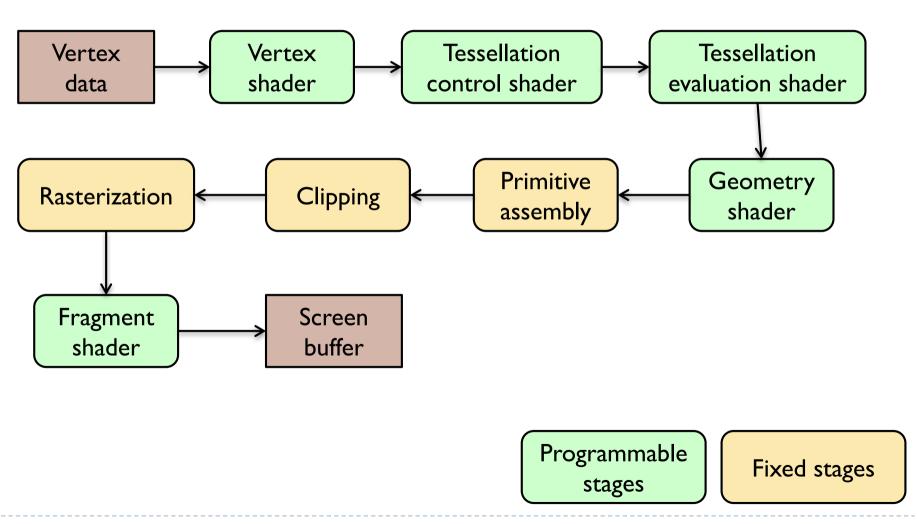
OpenGL programming model

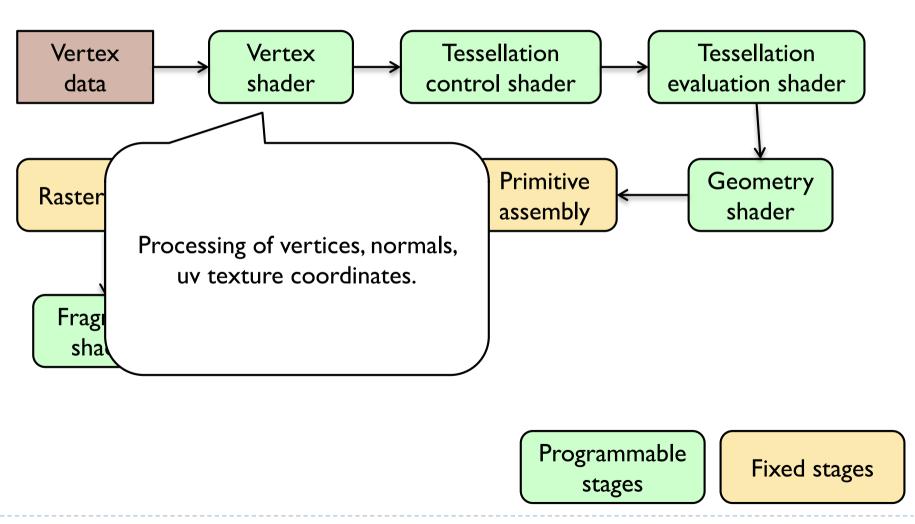
CPU code

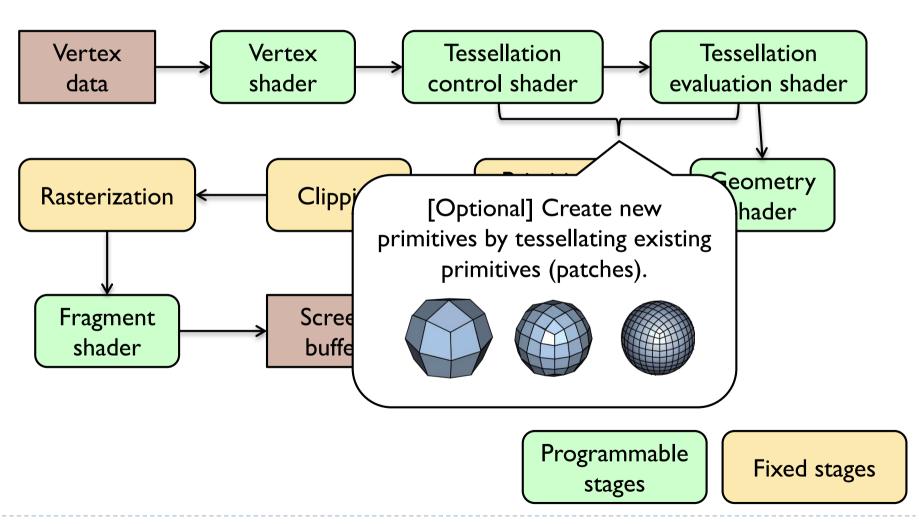
- ▶ gl* functions that
 - Create OpenGL objects
 - Copy data CPU<->GPU
 - Modify OpenGL state
 - Enqueue operations
 - Synchronize CPU & GPU
- C99 library
- Wrappers in most programming language

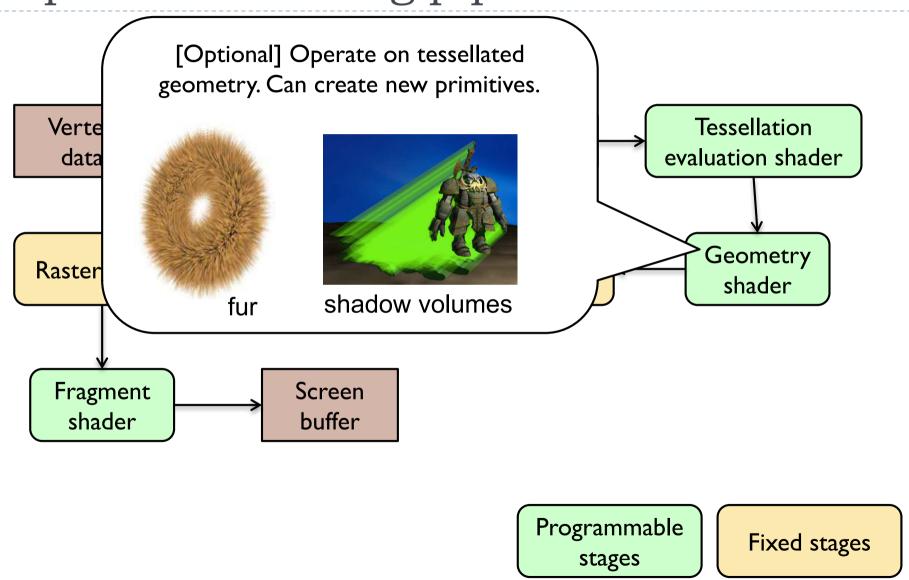
GPU code

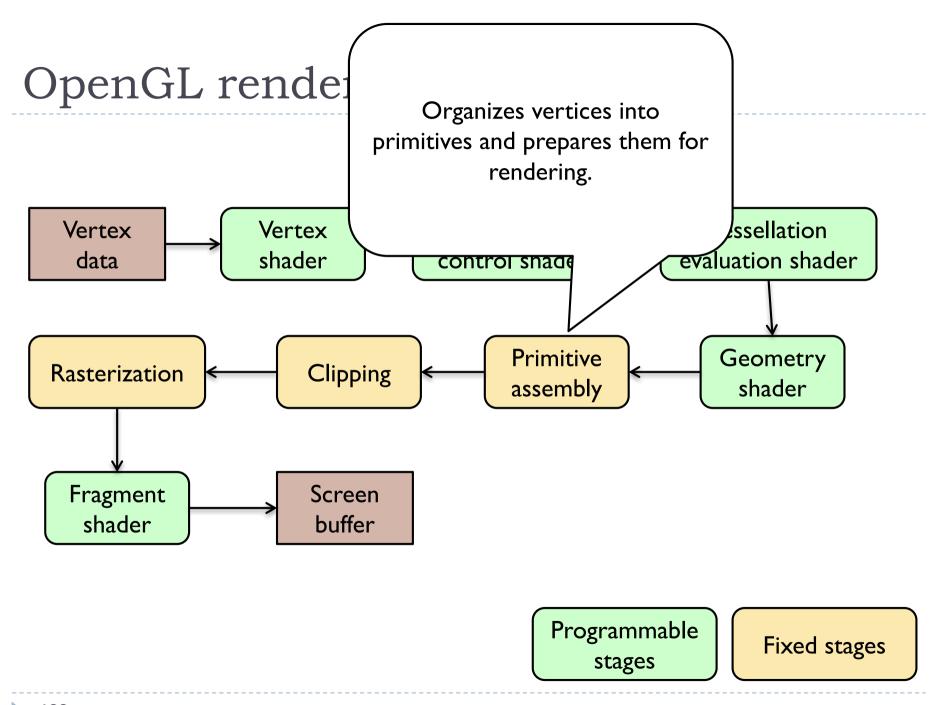
- Fragment shaders
- Vertex shaders
- and other shaders
- Written in GLSL
 - Similar to C
 - From OpenGL 4.6 could be written in other language and compiled to SPIR-V

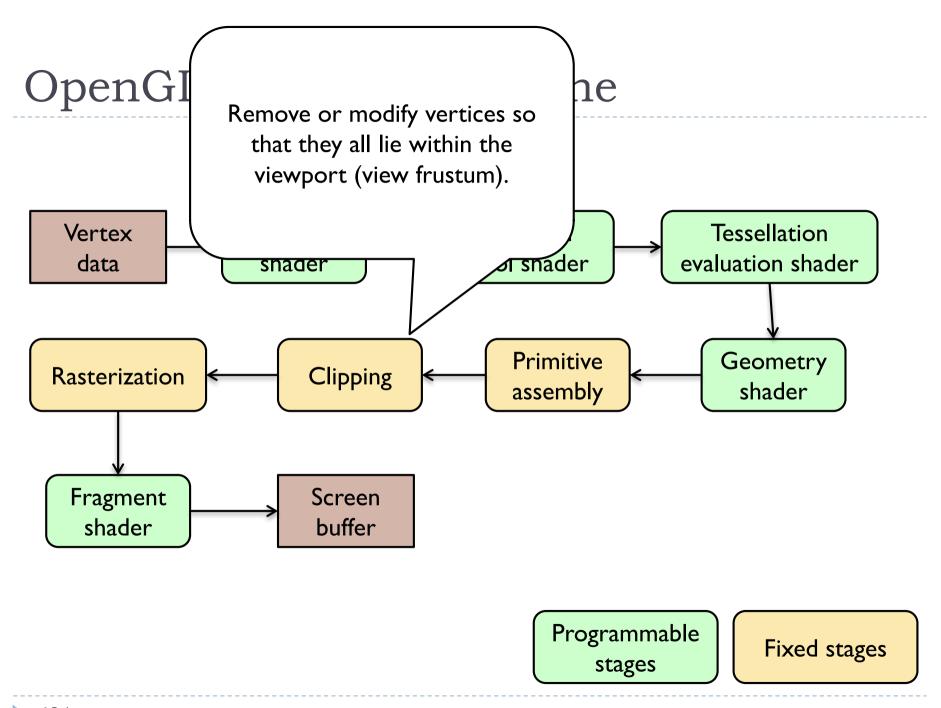


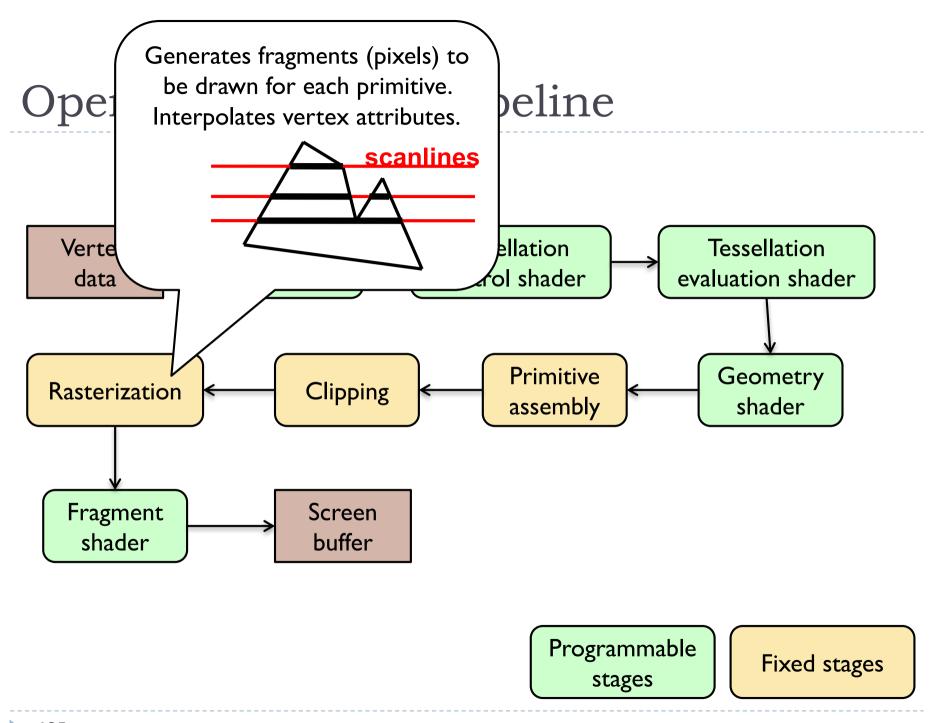


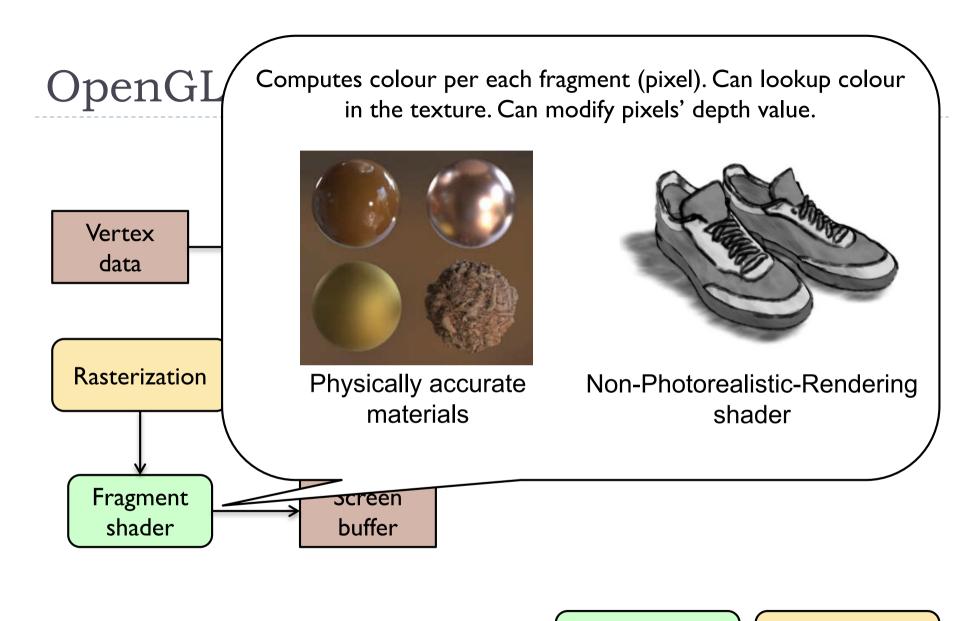












Programmable stages

Fixed stages

Managing buffers/objects in OpenGL

Generating names

- "name" is like a reference in Java
- glGen* functions create names WITHOUT allocating the actual object
- From OpenGL 4.5: glCreate* functions create names AND allocate actual object

Binding objects

- glBind* functions
- Performs two operations
 - Allocates memory for a particular object (if it does not exist)
 - Makes this object active in the current OpenGL Context
- Functions operating on OpenGL objects will change the currently bound (or active) object

Managing buffers/objects in OpenGL

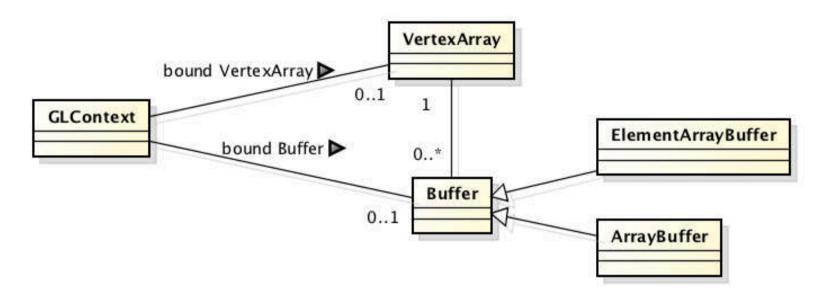
Unbinding objects

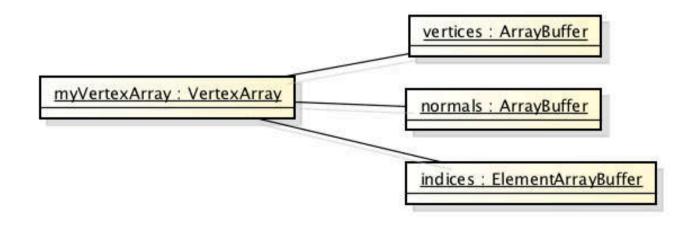
- ▶ Passing "0" instead of "name" unbinds the active object
- glBind(.., 0)

Deleting object

- glDelete* functions
- Deletes both the object and its name

Geometry objects in OpenGL (OO view)





OpenGL as a state-machine

If OpenGL was OO API:

VertexArray va = new VertexArray();

ArrayBuffer vertices = new ArrayBuffer(my data);

va.add(vertices);

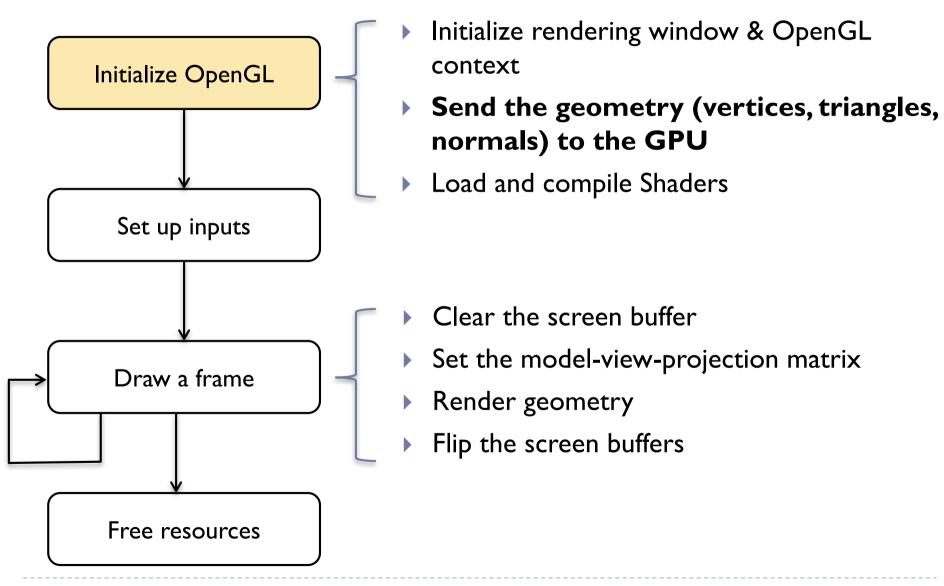
But it is not, and you must do:

int va = glGenVertexArrays(); glBindVertexArray(va); // va becomes "active" VertexArray

int vertices = glGenBuffers(); glBindBuffer(GL ARRAY BUFFE R, vertices); // This adds vertices to currently bound VertexArray

OpenGL example code - overview

Let us draw some triangles



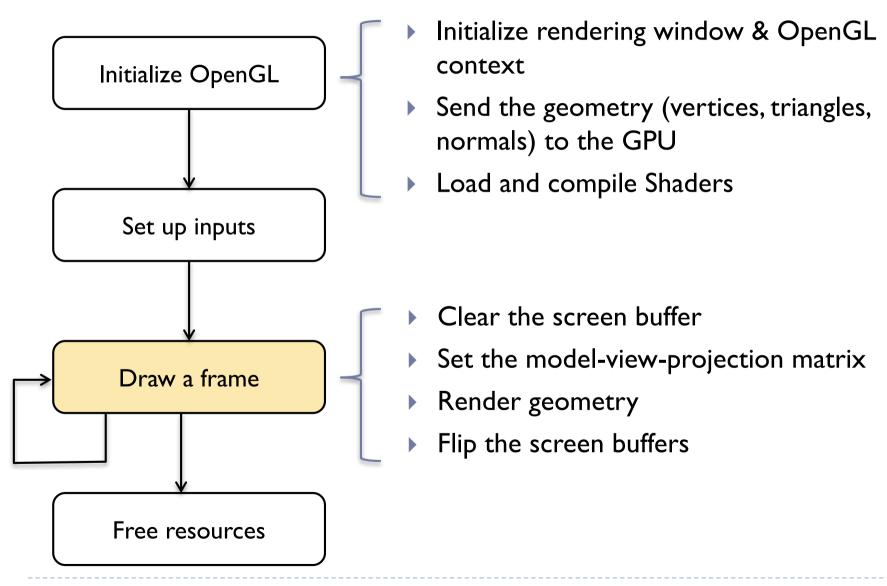
A more complete example

```
int vertexArrayObj = glGenVertexArrays(); // Create a name
glBindVertexArray(vertexArrayObj); // Bind a VertexArray
float[] vertPositions = new float[] \{-1,-1,0,0,1,0,1,-1,0\}; // x, y, z, x, y, z ...
// Java specific code for transforming float[] into an OpenGL-friendly format
FloatBuffer vertex buffer = BufferUtils.createFloatBuffer(vertPositions.length);
vertex_buffer.put(vertPositions); // Put the vertex array into the CPU buffer
                                // "flip" is used to change the buffer from read to
vertex buffer.flip();
write mode
int vertex handle = glGenBuffers(); // Get an OGL name for a buffer object
glBindBuffer(GL_ARRAY_BUFFER, vertex_handle); // Bring that buffer object into
existence on GPU
glBufferData(GL_ARRAY_BUFFER, vertex_buffer, GL_STATIC_DRAW); // Load the
GPU buffer object with data
```

Note on LWJGL

- The OpenGL functions and constants can be found in the LWJGL packages:
 - org.lwjgl.opengl.GLI I
 - org.lwjgl.opengl.GLI5
 - org.lwjgl.opengl.GL20
 - org.lwjgl.opengl.GL30
 - ...
- For simplicity, package names are omitted in all examples shown in these slides

Let us draw some triangles



Rendering 1 of 2

```
// Step I: Pass a new model-view-projection matrix to the vertex shader
Matrix4f mvp matrix; // Model-view-projection matrix
mvp matrix = new
Matrix4f(camera.getProjectionMatrix()).mul(camera.getViewMatrix());
int mvp_location = glGetUniformLocation(shaders.getHandle(), "mvp_matrix");
FloatBuffer mvp buffer = BufferUtils.createFloatBuffer(16);
mvp matrix.get(mvp buffer);
glUniformMatrix4fv(mvp_location, false, mvp_buffer);
// Step 2: Clear the buffer
glClearColor(1.0f, 1.0f, 1.0f, 1.0f); // Set the background colour to dark grey
glClear(GL_COLOR_BUFFER_BIT | GL_DEPTH_BUFFER_BIT);
```

Rendering 2 of 2

```
// Step 3: Draw our VertexArray as triangles
glBindVertexArray(vertexArrayObj); // Bind the existing VertexArray object
glDrawElements(GL_TRIANGLES, no_of_triangles, GL_UNSIGNED_INT, 0); //
Draw it as triangles
glBindVertexArray(0); // Remove the binding

// Step 4: Swap the draw and back buffers to display the rendered image
glfwSwapBuffers(window);
glfwPollEvents();
```

GLSL - fundamentals

Shaders

- Shaders are small programs executed on a GPU
 - Executed for each vertex, each pixel (fragment), etc.
- ▶ They are written in GLSL (OpenGL Shading Language)
 - Similar to C++ and Java
 - Primitive (int, float) and aggregate data types (ivec3, vec3)
 - Structures and arrays
 - Arithmetic operations on scalars, vectors and matrices
 - Flow control: if, switch, for, while
 - Functions

Example of a vertex shader

```
#version 330
in vec3 position;
                                 // vertex position in local space
in vec3 normal;
                                 // vertex normal in local space
out vec3 frag normal;
                                 // fragment normal in world space
uniform mat4 mvp matrix;
                                 // model-view-projection matrix
void main()
  // Typicaly normal is transformed by the model matrix
  // Since the model matrix is identity in our case, we do not modify normals
  frag normal = normal;
  // The position is projected to the screen coordinates using mvp_matrix
  gl_Position = mvp_matrix * vec4(position, 1.0);
                                Why is this piece
                                 of code needed?
  150
```

Data types

- Basic types
 - float, double, int, uint, bool
- Aggregate types
 - float: vec2, vec3, vec4; mat2, mat3, mat4
 - double: dvec2, dvec3, dvec4; dmat2, dmat3, dmat4
 - ▶ int: ivec2, ivec3, ivec4
 - uint: uvec2, uvec3, uvec4
 - bool: bvec2, bvec3, bvec4

```
vec3 V = vec3(1.0, 2.0, 3.0); mat3 M = mat3(1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, 9.0);
```

Indexing components in aggregate types

- Subscripts: rgba, xyzw, stpq (work exactly the same)
 - float red = color.r;
 - float v_y = velocity.y;

but also

- float red = color.x;
- float v_y = velocity.g;
- With 0-base index:
 - float red = color[0];
 - float m22 = M[I][I]; // second row and column of matrix M

Swizzling

You can select the elements of the aggregate type:

- vec4 rgba_color(1.0, 1.0, 0.0, 1.0);
- vec3 rgb_color = rgba_color.rgb;
- vec3 bgr_color = rgba_color.bgr;
- vec3 luma = rgba_color.ggg;

Arrays

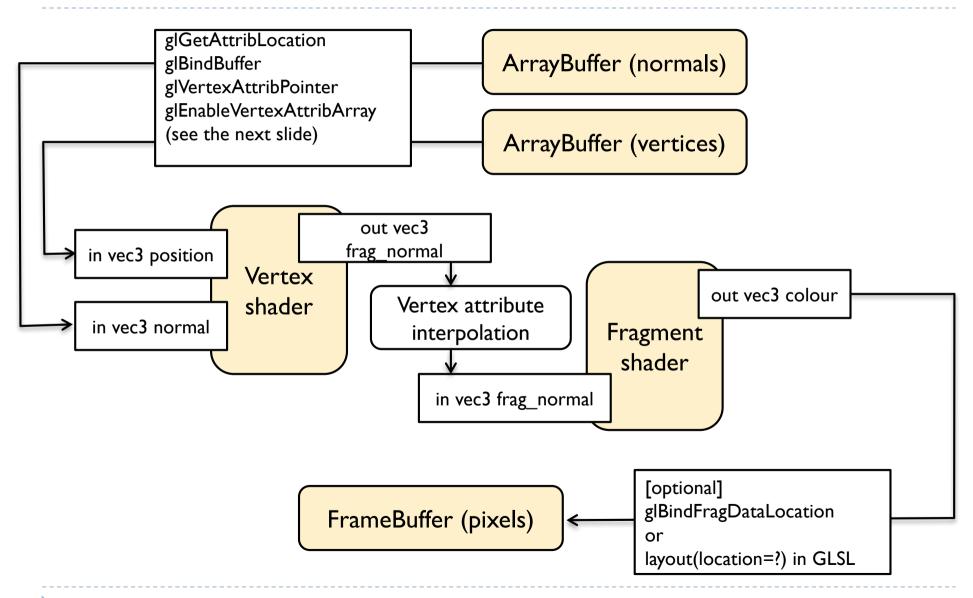
Similar to C
float lut[5] = float[5](1.0, 1.42, 1.73, 2.0, 2.23);

Size can be checked with "length()"
for(int i = 0; i < lut.length(); i++) {
 lut[i] *= 2;
}</pre>

Storage qualifiers

- const read-only, fixed at compile time
- ▶ in input to the shader
- out output from the shader
- uniform parameter passed from the application (Java),
 constant for the primitive
- buffer shared with the application
- shared shared with local work group (compute shaders only)
- Example: const float pi=3.14;

Shader inputs and outputs



How to specify input to a vertex shader?

```
// Get the locations of the "position" vertex attribute variable
in our shader
int position_loc = glGetAttribLocation(shaders_handle,
"position");
// If the vertex attribute found
if (position loc != -1) {
  // Activate the ArrayBuffer that should be accessed in the
shader
  glBindBuffer(GL_ARRAY_BUFFER, vertex_handle);
  // Specifies where the data for "position" variable can be
accessed
  glVertexAttribPointer(position_loc, 3, GL_FLOAT, false, 0, 0);
  // Enable that vertex attribute variable
  glEnableVertexAttribArray(position loc);
```

Passing uniform(s) to a shader

In shader:

```
uniform mat4 mvp_matrix; // model-view-projection matrix
```

▶ In Java:

GLSL Operators

- Arithmetic: + ++ --
 - Multiplication:
 - vec3 * vec3 element-wise
 - ▶ mat4 * vec4 matrix multiplication (with a column vector)
- ▶ Logical (bool): &&, ||, ^^
- Assignment:

```
float a=0;
a += 2.0; // Equivalent to a = a + 2.0
```

See the quick reference guide at:

https://www.opengl.org/documentation/glsl/

GLSL Math

Trigonometric:

radians(deg), degrees(rad), sin, cos, tan, asin, acos, atan, sinh, cosh, tanh, asinh, acosh, atanh

Exponential:

- pow, exp, log, exp2, log2, sqrt, inversesqrt
- Common functions:
 - abs, round, floor, ceil, min, max, clamp, …
- And many more
- See the quick reference guide at:

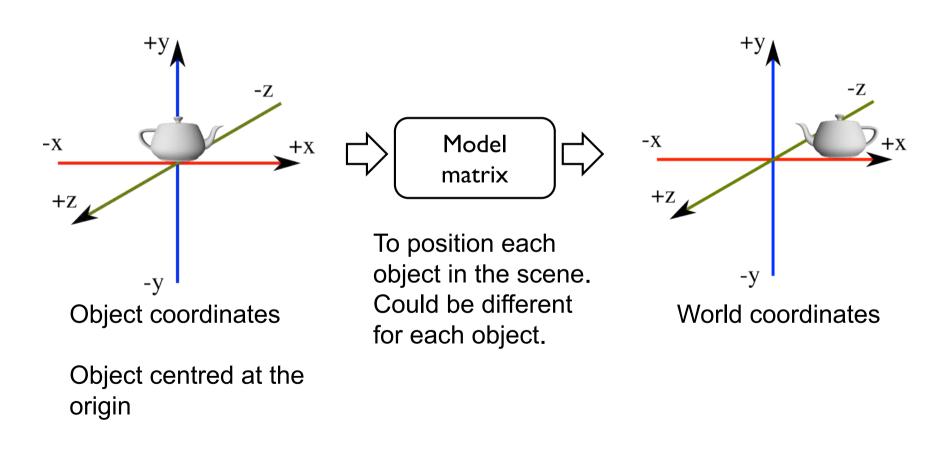
https://www.opengl.org/documentation/glsl/

GLSL flow control

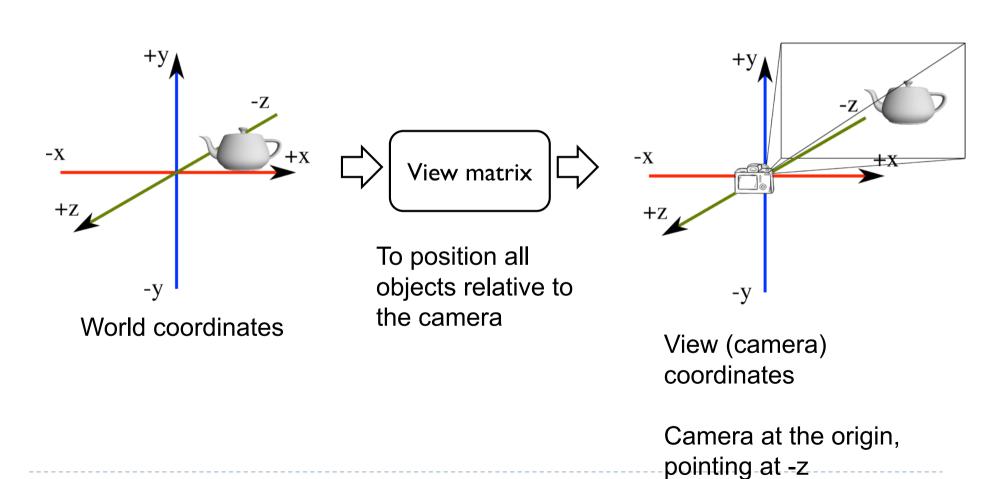
```
if( bool ) {
 // true
                                  for( int i = 0; i<10; i++ ) {
} else {
 // false
                                  while( n < 10 ) {
switch( int_value ) {
  case n:
    // statements
    break;
                                  do {
  case m:
                                  } while ( n < 10 )</pre>
    // statements
    break;
  default:
```

Transformations (Vertex shaders)

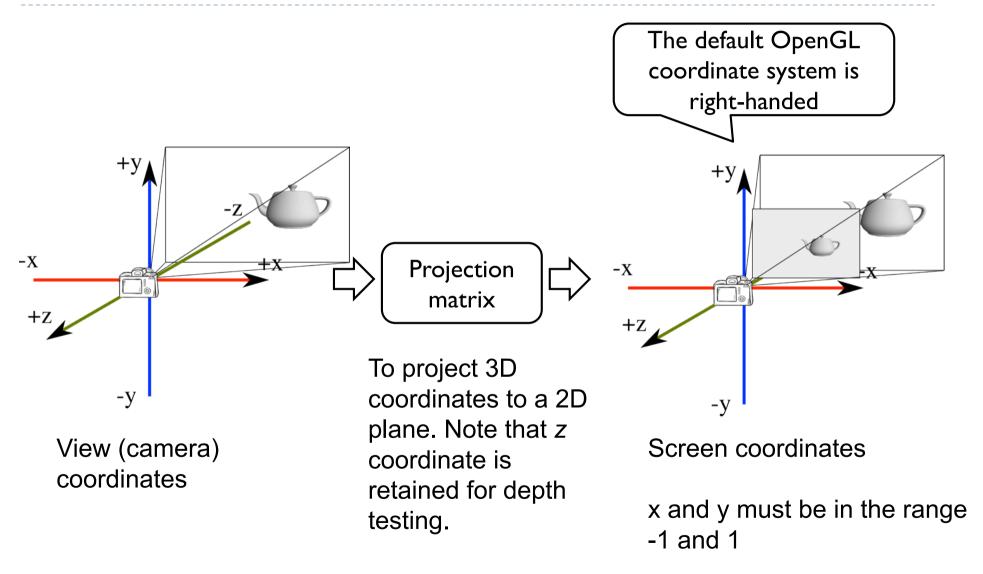
Model, View, Projection matrices



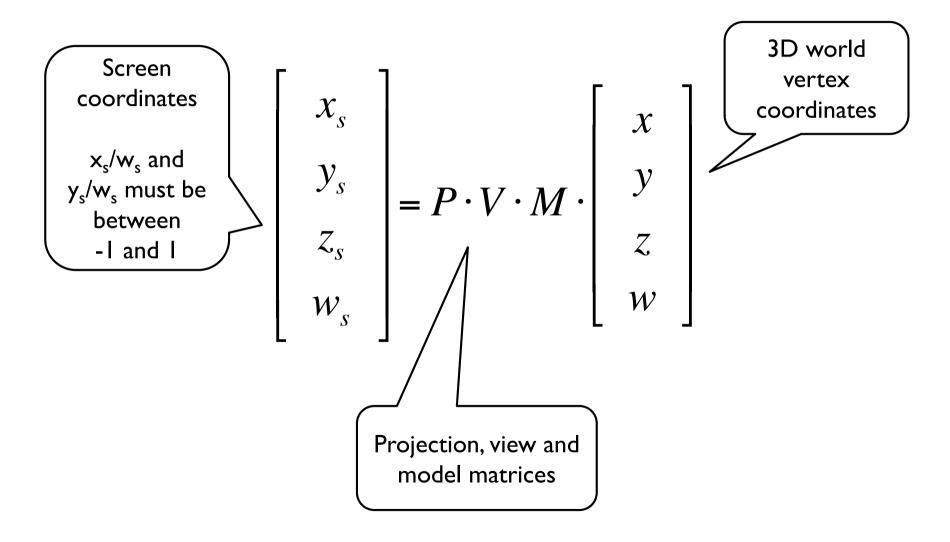
Model, View, Projection matrices



Model, View, Projection matrices

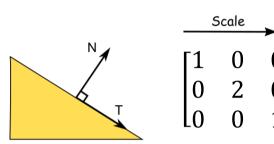


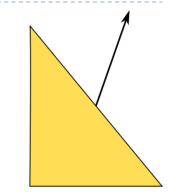
All together

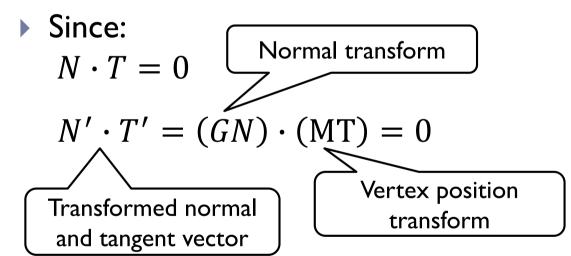


Transforming normal vectors

 Transformation by a nonorthogonal matrix does not preserve angles







- We can find that: $G = (M^{-1})^T$
 - Derivation shown on the visualizer

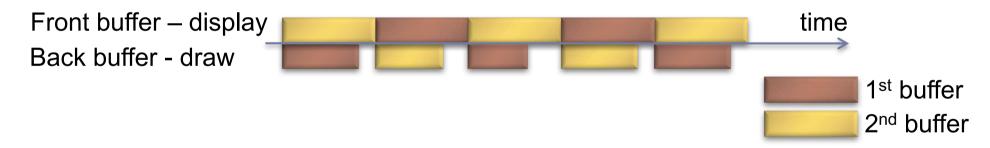
Raster buffers (colour, depth, stencil)

Render buffers in OpenGL

Four components: Colour: **GL FRONT** GL_BACK **RGBA** Typically 8 bits per component GL FRONT LEFT GL_FRONT_RIGHT In stereo: GL BACK LEFT GL_BACK_RIGHT To resolve occlusions (see Z-buffer algorithm) Depth: **DEPTH** Single component, usually >8 bits To block rendering selected pixels **STENCIL** Stencil: Single component, usually 8 bits.

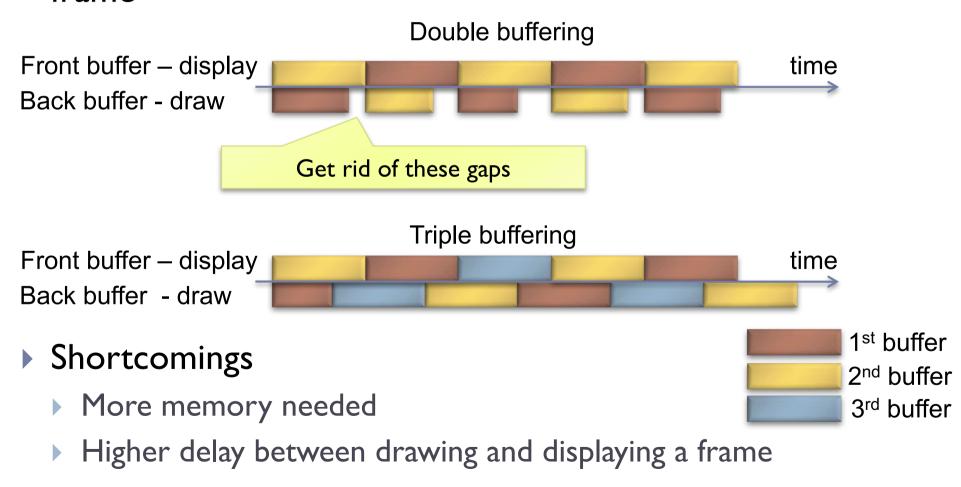
Double buffering

- To avoid flicker, tearing
- Use two buffers (rasters):
 - ▶ Front buffer what is shown on the screen
 - ▶ Back buffer not shown, GPU draws into that buffer
- When drawing is finished, swap front- and back-buffers



Triple buffering

Do not wait for swapping to start drawing the next frame

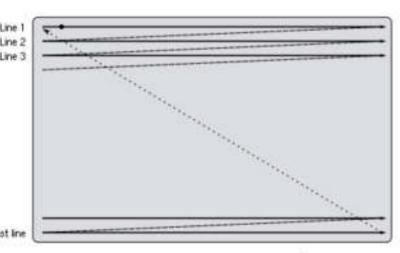


Vertical Synchronization: V-Sync

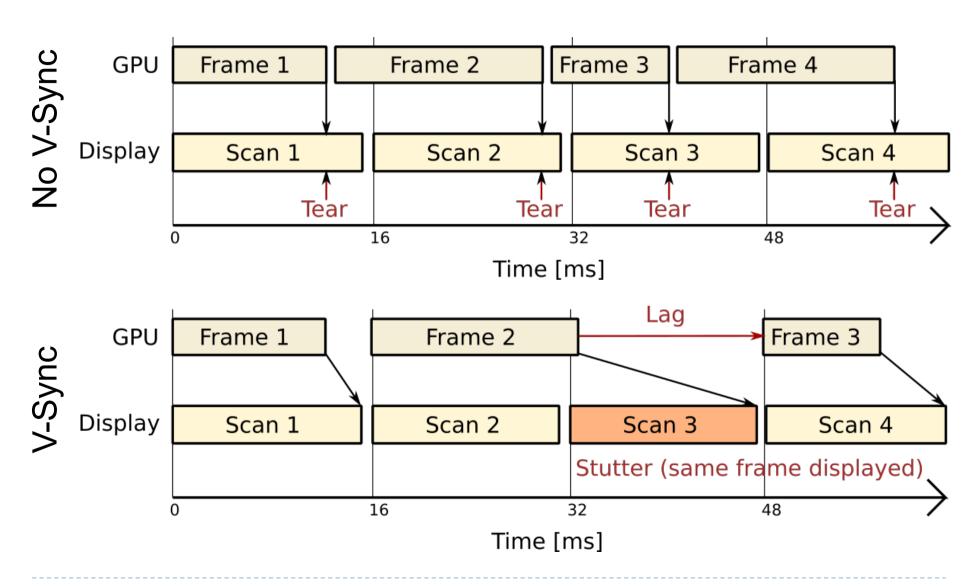
- Pixels are copied from colour buffer to monitor row-by-row
- If front & back buffer are swapped during this process:
 - Upper part of the screen contains previous frame
 - Lower part of the screen contains current frame
 - Result: tearing artefact
- Solution: When V-Sync is enabled
 - glwfSwapInterval(1);

glSwapBuffers() waits until the last raw is copied to the display.





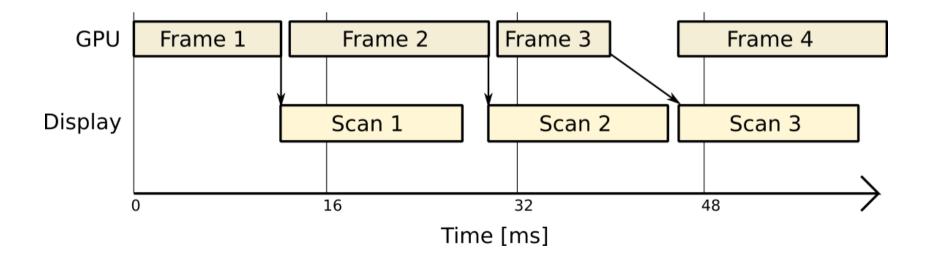
No V-Sync vs. V-Sync



FreeSync (AMD) & G-Sync (Nvidia)

Adaptive sync

- Graphics card controls timing of the frames on the display
- Can save power for 30fps video of when the screen is static
- Can reduce lag for real-time graphics

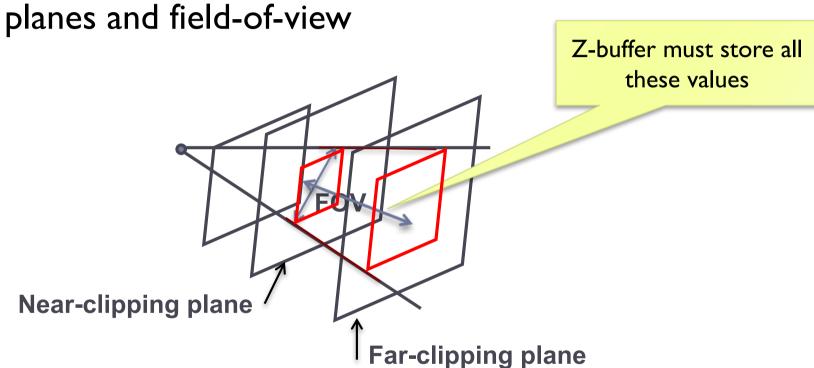


Z-Buffer - algorithm

- Initialize the depth buffer and image buffer for all pixels color(x, y) = Background_Color, depth(x, y) = z_far // position of the far clipping plane
- For every triangle in a scene
 - For every fragment (x, y) representing this triangle
 - Calculate z for current (x, y)
 - \rightarrow if (z < depth(x, y))
 - \Box depth (x, y) = z
 - \Box color (x, y) = Polygon_Color (x, y)

View frustum

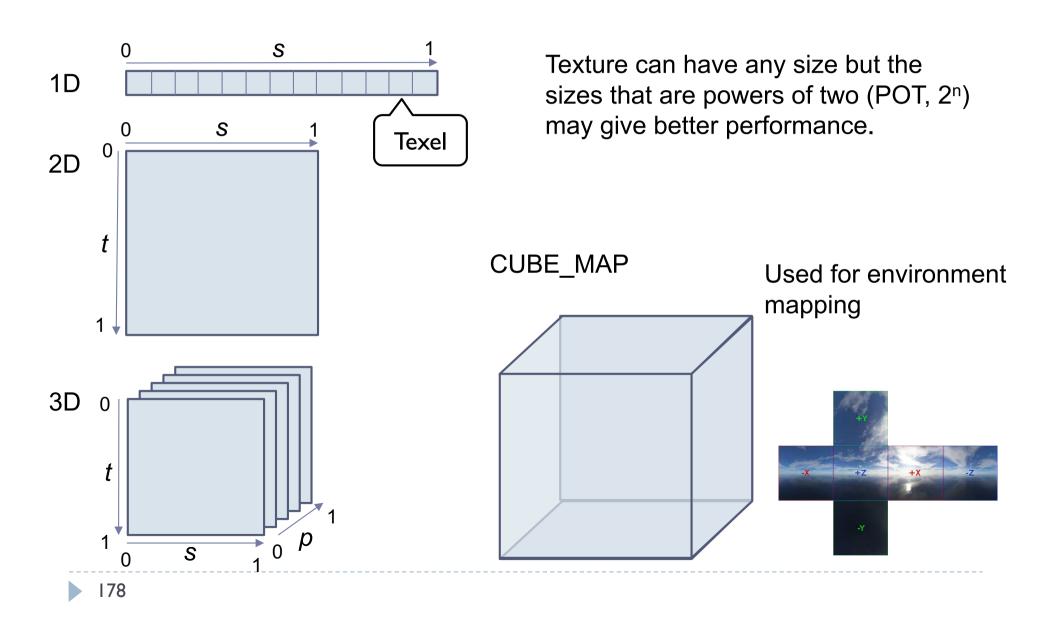
Controlled by camera parameters: near-, far-clipping





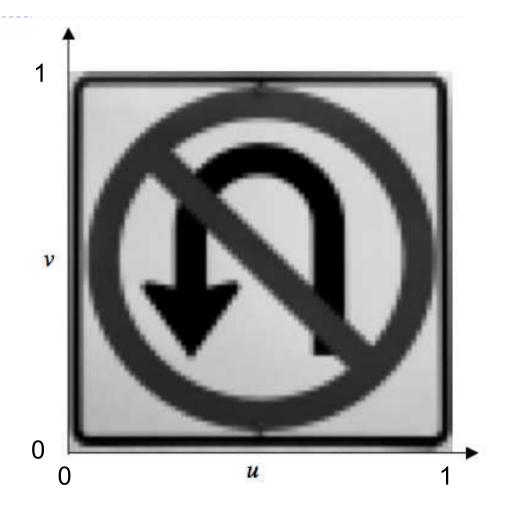
Textures

(Most important) OpenGL texture types



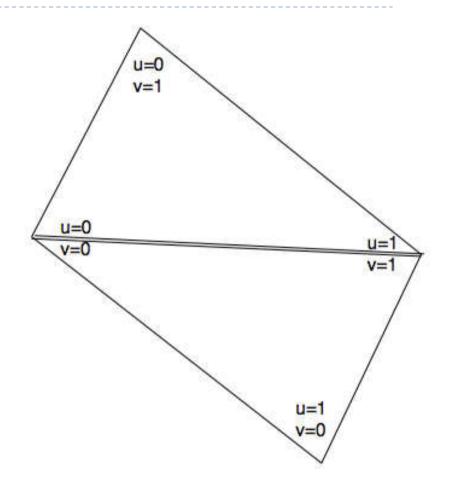
Texture mapping

- ▶ I. Define your texture function (image) T(u,v)
- (u,v) are texture coordinates



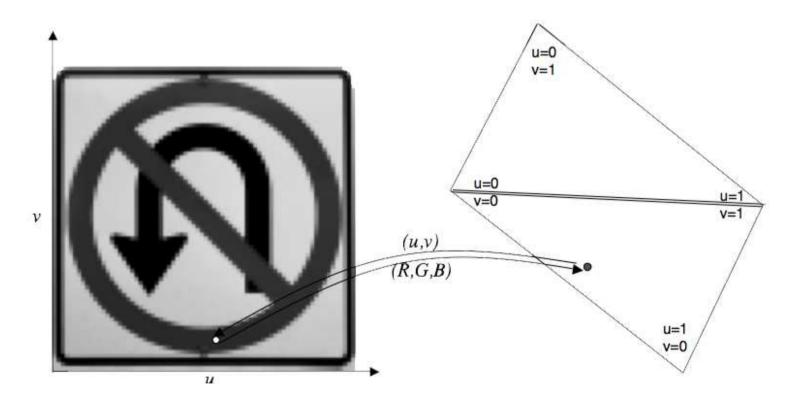
Texture mapping

 Define the correspondence between the vertices on the 3D object and the texture coordinates

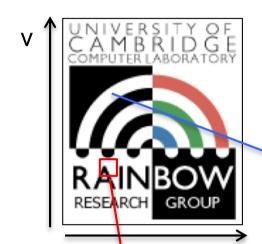


Texture mapping

▶ 3. When rendering, for every surface point compute texture coordinates. Use the texture function to get texture value. Use as color or reflectance.



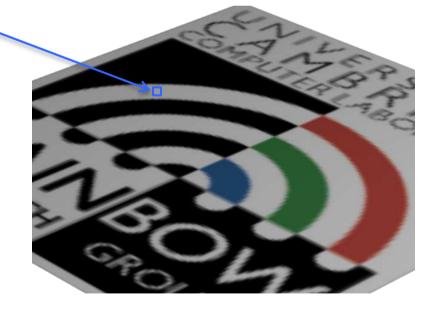
Sampling



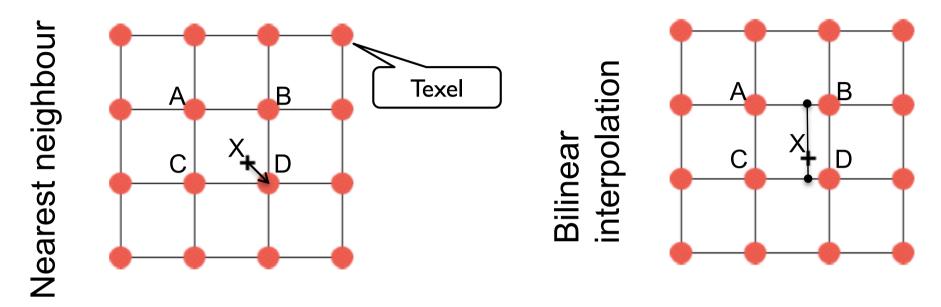
Texture

Up-sampling More pixels than texels Values need to be interpolated

Down-sampling Fewer pixels than texels Values need to be averaged over an area of the texture (usually using a mipmap)

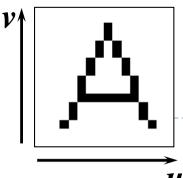


Nearest neighbor vs. bilinear interpolatim

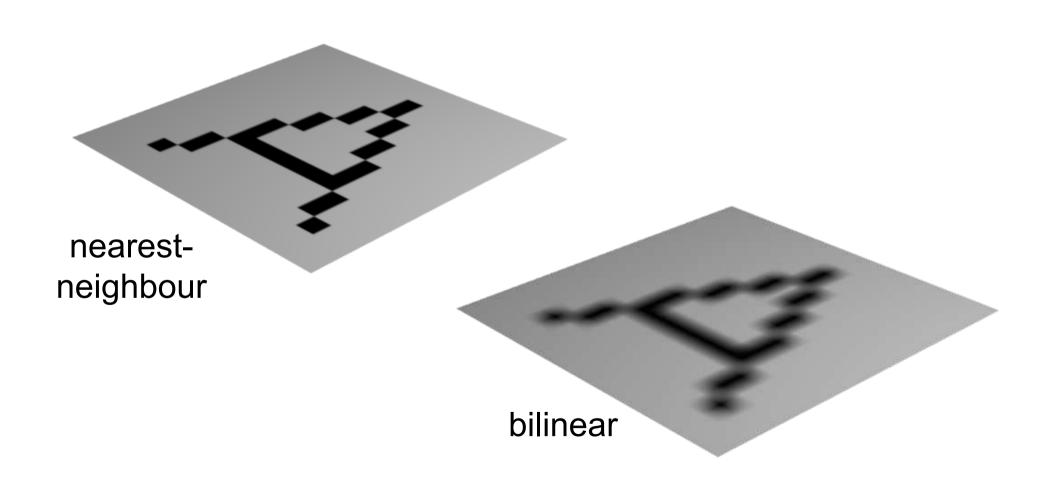


Pick the nearest texel: D

Interpolate first along x-axis between AB and CD, then along y-axis between the interpolated points.



Texture mapping examples





Up-sampling

nearestneighbour

blocky artefacts



bilinear

blurry

artefacts

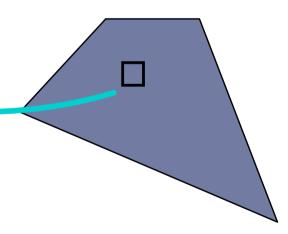


- if one pixel in the texture map covers several pixels in the final image, you get visible artefacts
- only practical way to prevent this is to ensure that texture map is of sufficiently high resolution that it does not happen

Down-sampling

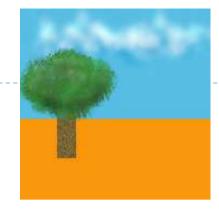


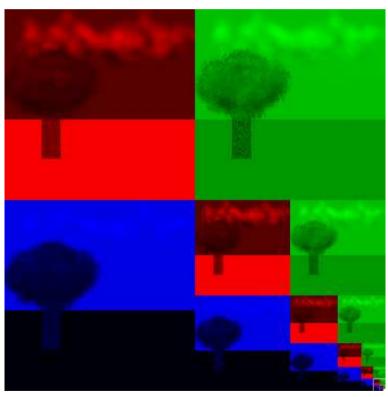
• if the pixel covers quite a large area of the texture, then it will be necessary to average the texture across that area, not just take a sample in the middle of the area



Mipmap

- Textures are often stored at multiple resolutions as a mipmap
 - Each level of the pyramid is half the size of the lower level
- It provides pre-filtered texture (area-averaged) when screen pixels are larger than the full resulution texels
- Mipmap requires just 1/3 of the original texture size to store

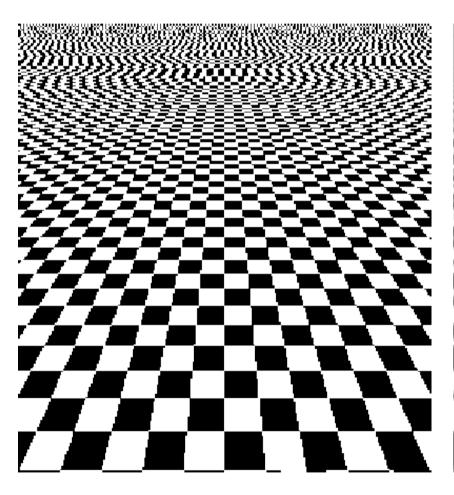


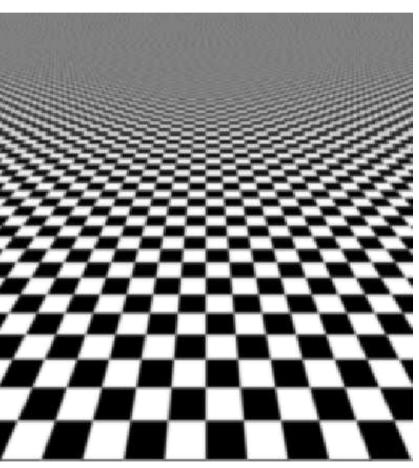


Down-sampling

without area averaging

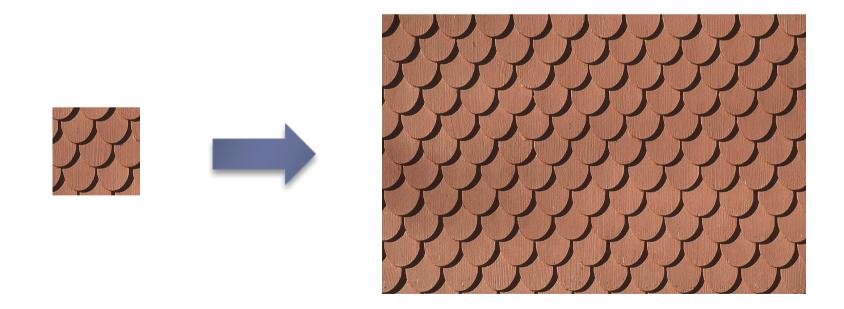
with area averaging





Texture tiling

- ▶ Repetitive patterns can be represented as texture tiles.
- ▶ The texture folds over, so that
 - T(u=1.1, v=0) = T(u=0.1, v=0)



Texture atlas

A single texture is often used for multiple surfaces and objects





Example from: http://awshub.com/blog/blog/2011/11/01/hi-poly-vs-low-90ly/

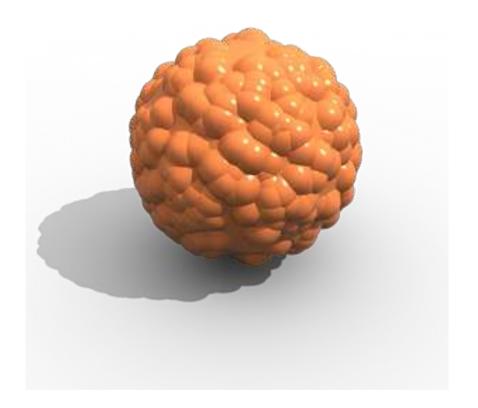
Bump (normal) mapping

- Special kind of texture that modifies surface normal
 - Surface normal is a vector that is perpendicular to a surface
- The surface is still flat but shading appears as on an uneven surface
- Easily done in fragment shaders



Displacement mapping

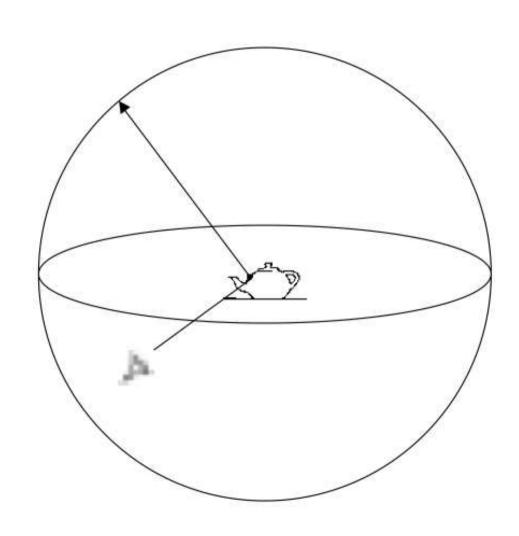
- ▶ Texture that modifies surface
- Better results than bump mapping since the surface is not flat
- Requires geometry shaders



Environment mapping

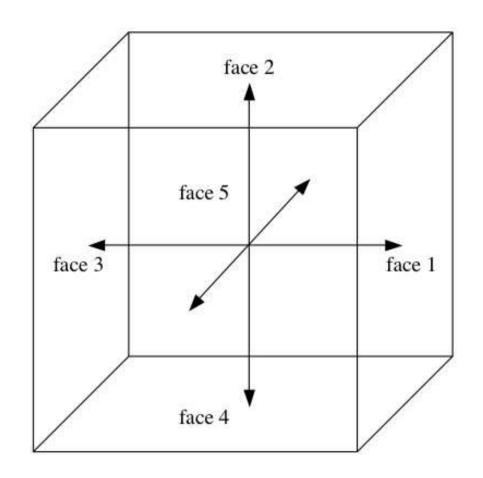
▶ To show environment reflected by an object



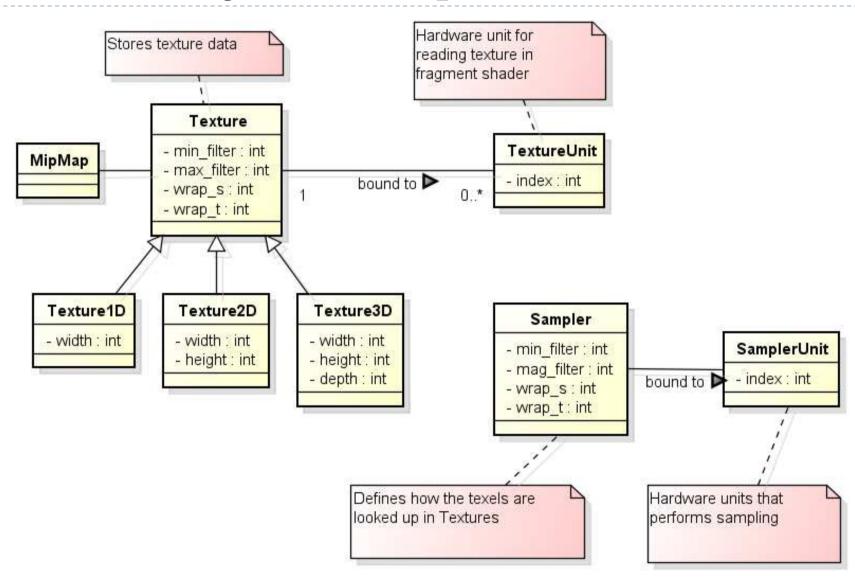


Environment mapping

- ▶ Environment cube
- Each face captures environment in that direction



Texture objects in OpenGL



Setting up a texture

```
// Create a new texture object in memory and bind it
int texId = glGenTextures();
glActiveTexture(textureUnit);
glBindTexture(GL_TEXTURE_2D, texId);
// All RGB bytes are aligned to each other and each component is
1 byte
glPixelStorei(GL_UNPACK_ALIGNMENT, 1);
// Upload the texture data and generate mipmaps
glTexImage2D(GL_TEXTURE_2D, 0, GL_RGB, tWidth, tHeight, 0,
        GL RGBA, GL UNSIGNED BYTE, buf);
glGenerateMipmap(GL TEXTURE 2D);
```

Texture parameters

```
//Setup filtering, i.e. how OpenGL will interpolate the pixels
when scaling up or down
glTexParameteri(GL_TEXTURE_2D, GL_TEXTURE_MAG_FILTER,
GL LINEAR);
glTexParameteri(GL TEXTURE 2D, GL TEXTURE MIN FILTER,
GL LINEAR MIPMAP NEAREST);
                     How to interpolate
   How to
 interpolate in
                     between mipmap
     2D
                          levels
//Setup wrap mode, i.e. how OpenGL will handle pixels outside of
the expected range
glTexParameteri(GL_TEXTURE_2D, GL_TEXTURE_WRAP_S,
GL CLAMP TO EDGE);
glTexParameteri(GL TEXTURE 2D, GL TEXTURE WRAP T,
GL CLAMP TO EDGE);
```

Fragment shader

```
#version 330
uniform sampler2D texture_diffuse;
in vec2 frag_TextureCoord;

out vec4 out_Color;

void main(void) {
      out_Color = texture(texture_diffuse, frag_TextureCoord);
}
```

Rendering

```
// Bind the texture
glActiveTexture(GL_TEXTURE0);
glBindTexture(GL_TEXTURE_2D, texId);

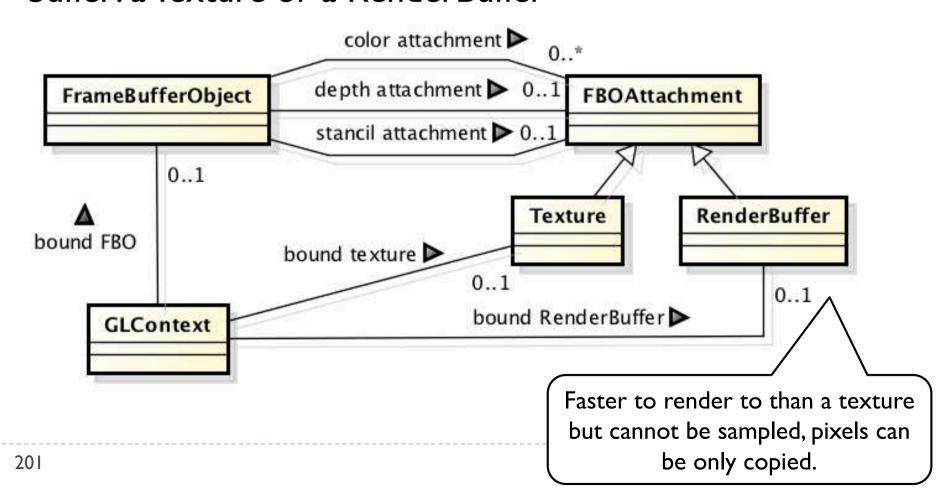
glBindVertexArray(vao);
glDrawElements(GL_TRIANGLES, indicesCount, GL_UNSIGNED_INT, 0);
glBindVertexArray(0);

glBindTexture(GL_TEXTURE_2D, 0);
```

Frame Buffer Objects

Frame Buffer Objects (FBOs)

Instead of rendering to the screen buffer (usually GL_BACK), an image can be rendered to an off-screen buffer: a Texture or a RenderBuffer



Frame Buffer Object applications

Post-processing, tone-mapping, blooming, etc.



Reflections (in water), animated textures (e.g. TV screen)



When the result of rendering is not shown (e.g. saved to disk)

FBO: Code example 1/3

Create FBO, attach a Texture (colour) and a RenderBuffer (depth)

```
int color_tex = glGenTextures();
glBindTexture(GL_TEXTURE_2D, color_tex);
glTexImage2D(GL_TEXTURE_2D, 0, GL_RGBA8, 256, 256, 0, GL_BGRA,
GL_UNSIGNED_BYTE, NULL);

int myFBO = glGenFramebuffers();
glBindFramebuffer(GL_FRAMEBUFFER, myFBO);
//Attach 2D texture to this FBO
glFramebufferTexture2D(GL_FRAMEBUFFER, GL_COLOR_ATTACHMENT0,
GL_TEXTURE_2D, color_tex, 0);
```

FBO: Code example 2/3

```
int depth_rb = glGenRenderbuffers();
glBindRenderbuffer(GL_RENDERBUFFER, depth_rb);
glRenderbufferStorage(GL_RENDERBUFFER, GL_DEPTH_COMPONENT24,
256, 256);
//Attach depth buffer to FBO
glFramebufferRenderbuffer(GL_FRAMEBUFFER, GL_DEPTH_ATTACHMENT,
GL_RENDERBUFFER, depth_rb);
```

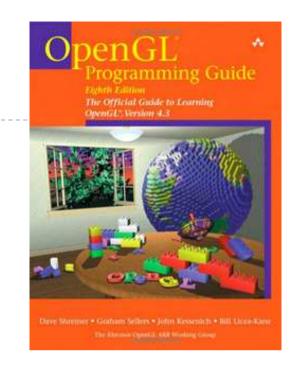
FBO: Code example 3/3

Render

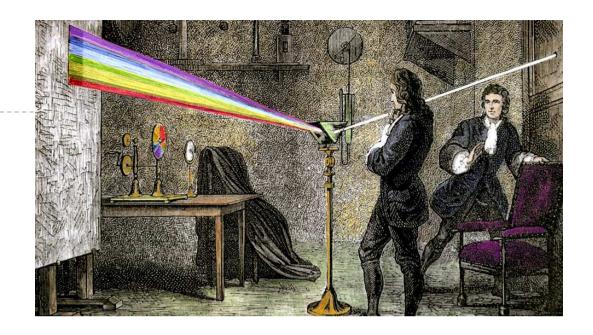
```
glBindFramebuffer(GL_FRAMEBUFFER, myFBO);
glClearColor(0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0);
glClearDepth(1.0f);
glClear(GL_COLOR_BUFFER_BIT | GL_DEPTH_BUFFER_BIT);
// Render
glBindFramebuffer(GL_FRAMEBUFFER, 0);
```

References

The OpenGL Programming Guide, 8th Edition, The Official Guide to Learning OpenGL by Dave Shreiner et al (2013) ISBN-10: 0321773039



- OpenGL quick reference guide https://www.opengl.org/documentation/ glsl/
- ▶ Google search: "man gl....."

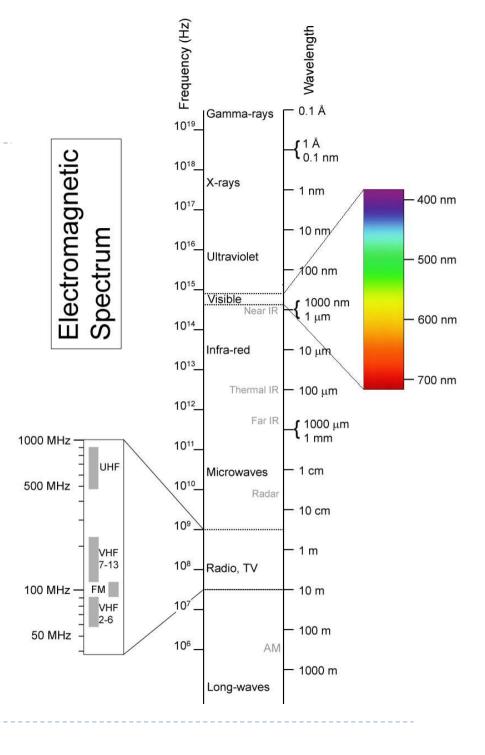


Colour and colour spaces

Electromagnetic spectrum

Visible light

- Electromagnetic waves of wavelength in the range 380nm to 730nm
- Earth's atmosphere lets through a lot of light in this wavelength band
- Higher in energy than thermal infrared, so heat does not interfere with vision



Colour

▶ There is no physical definition of colour – colour is the result of our perception

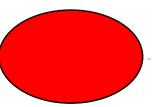
For emissive displays / objects

colour = perception(spectral_emission)

For reflective displays / objects

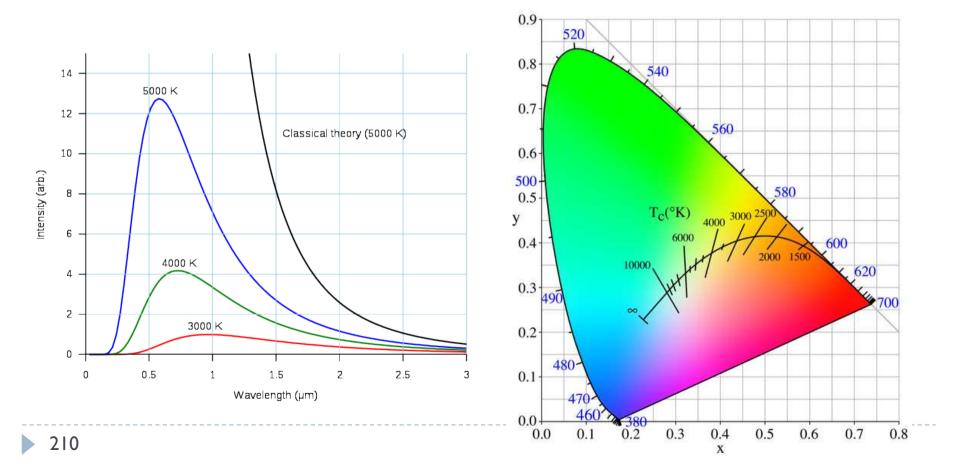
colour = perception(illumination * reflectance)





Black body radiation

- Electromagnetic radiation emitted by a perfect absorber at a given temperature
 - Graphite is a good approximation of a black body



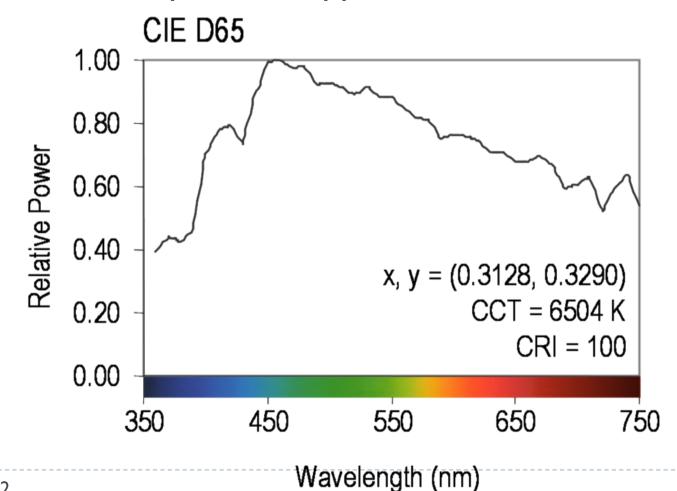
Correlated colour temperature

- The temperature of a black body radiator that produces light most closely matching the particular source
- Examples:
 - Typical north-sky light: 7500 K
 - Typical average daylight: 6500 K
 - Domestic tungsten lamp (100 to 200 W): 2800 K
 - ▶ Domestic tungsten lamp (40 to 60 W): 2700 K
 - Sunlight at sunset: 2000 K
- Useful to describe colour of the illumination (source of light)

Standard illuminant D65

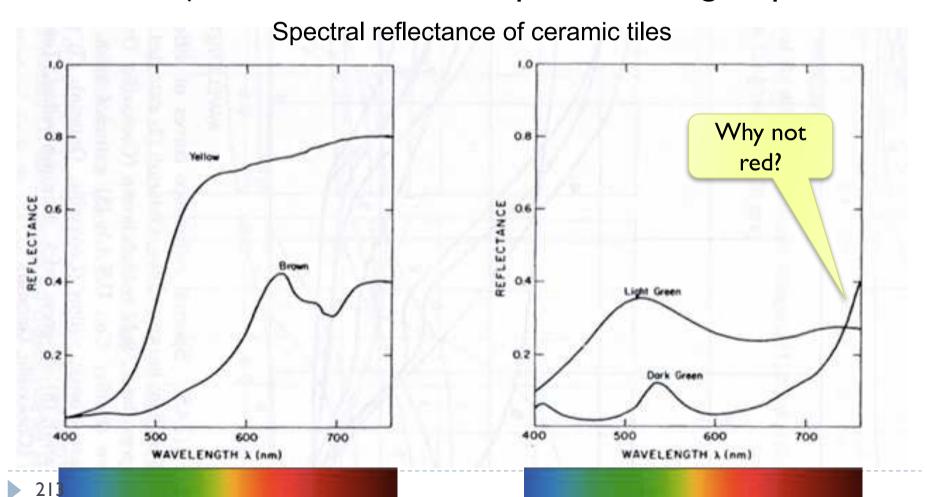


- Mid-day sun in Western Europe / Northern Europe
- ▶ Colour temperature approx. 6500 K



Reflectance

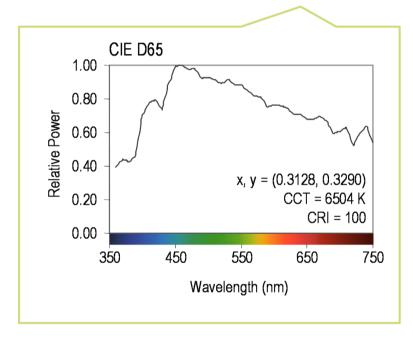
- Most of the light we see is reflected from objects
- ▶ These objects absorb a certain part of the light spectrum



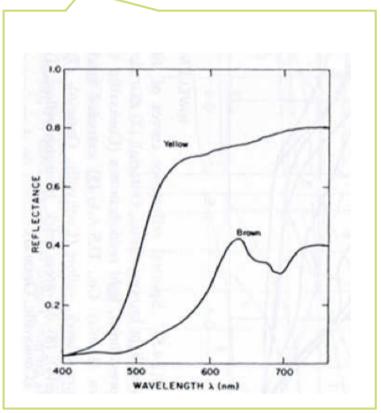
Reflected light

$$L(\lambda) = I(\lambda) \cdot R(\lambda)$$

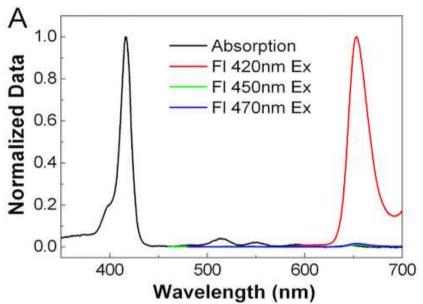
▶ Reflected light = illumination * reflectance

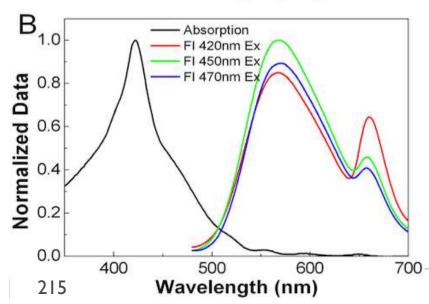


The same object may appear to have different color under different illumination.



Fluorescence

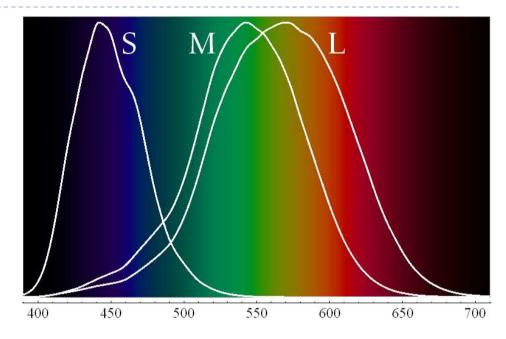






Colour vision

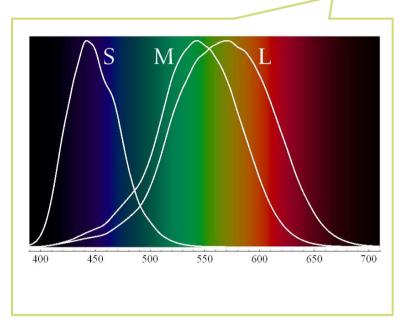
- Cones are the photreceptors responsible for color vision
 - Only daylight, we see no colors when there is not enough light
- Three types of cones
 - S sensitive to short wavelengths
 - M sensitive to medium wavelengths
 - L sensitive to long wavelengths

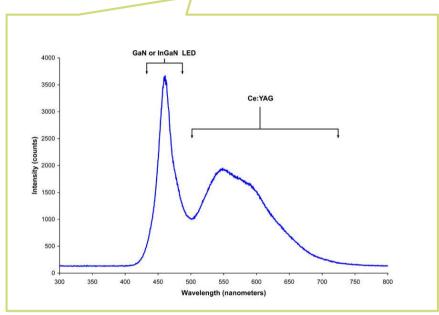


Sensitivity curves – probability that a photon of that wavelengths will be absorbed by a photoreceptor

Perceived light

cone response = sum(sensitivity * reflected light)





Although there is an infinite number of wavelengths, we have only three photoreceptor types to sense differences between light spectra

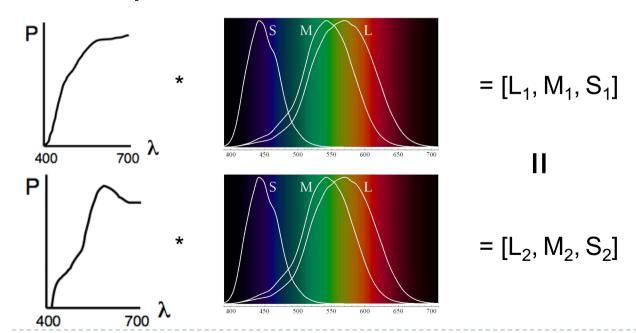
Formally

$$R_{S} = \int_{380}^{730} S_{S}(\lambda) \cdot L(\lambda) d\lambda$$

Index S for S-cones

Metamers

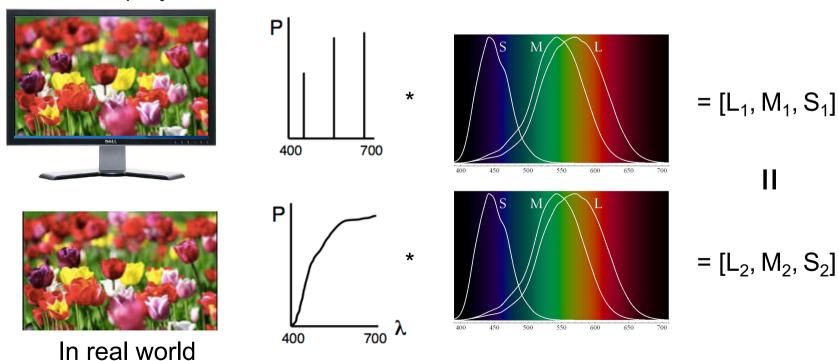
- Even if two light spectra are different, they may appear to have the same colour
- The light spectra that appear to have the same colour are called **metamers**
- Example:



Practical application of metamerism

- Displays do not emit the same light spectra as real-world objects
- Yet, the colours on a display look almost identical

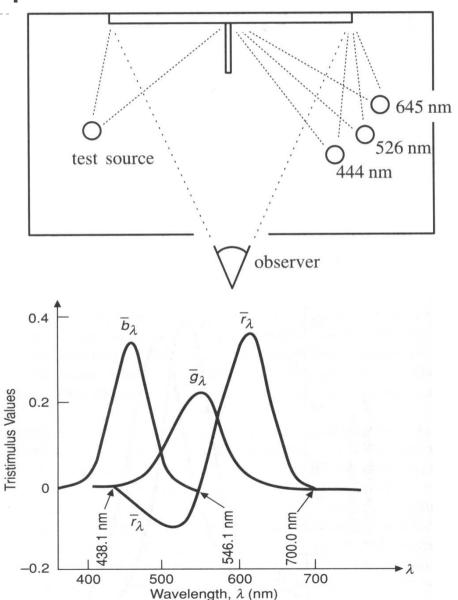




Tristimulus Colour Representation

Observation

- Any colour can be matched using three linear independent reference colours
- May require "negative" contribution to test colour
- Matching curves describe the value for matching monochromatic spectral colours of equal intensity
 - With respect to a certain set of primary colours



Standard Colour Space CIE-XYZ

CIE Experiments [Guild and Wright, 1931]

- Colour matching experiments
- ▶ Group ~12 people with "normal" colour vision
- 2 degree visual field (fovea only)

CIE 2006 XYZ

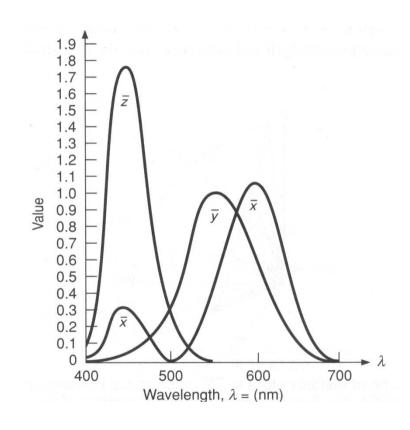
- Derived from LMS color matching functions by Stockman & Sharpe
- S-cone response differs the most from CIE 1931

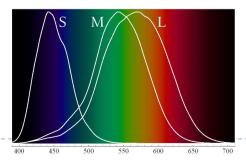
CIE-XYZ Colour Space

- Goals
 - ▶ Abstract from concrete primaries used in experiment
 - All matching functions are positive
 - One primary is roughly proportionally to light intensity

Standard Colour Space CIE-XYZ

- Standardized imaginary primariesCIE XYZ (1931)
 - Could match all physically realizable colour stimuli
 - Y is roughly equivalent to luminance
 - Shape similar to luminous efficiency curve
 - Monochromatic spectral colours form a curve in 3D XYZ-space



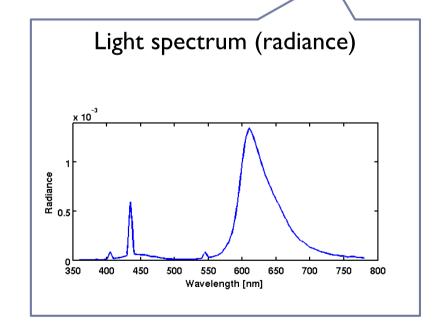


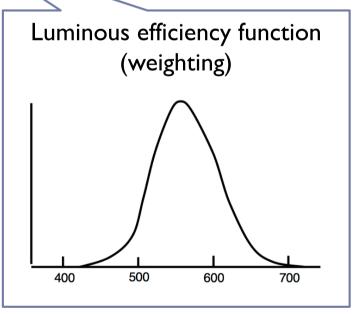
Cone sensitivity curves can be obtained by a linear transformation of CIE XYZ

Luminance – photometric quantity

 Luminance – perceived brightness of light, adjusted for the sensitivity of the visual system to wavelengths

Luminance $L_V = \int_0^\infty L(\lambda) \cdot V(\lambda) d\lambda$ ISO Unit: cd/m²



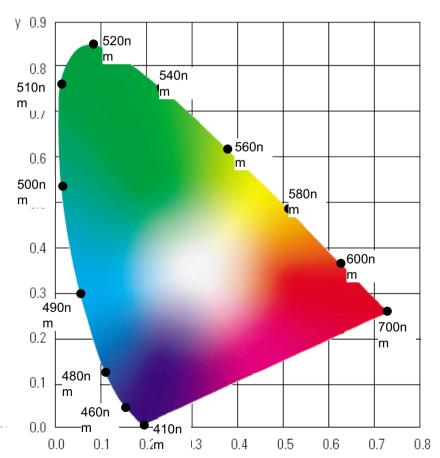


CIE chromaticity diagram

• chromaticity values are defined in terms of x, y, z

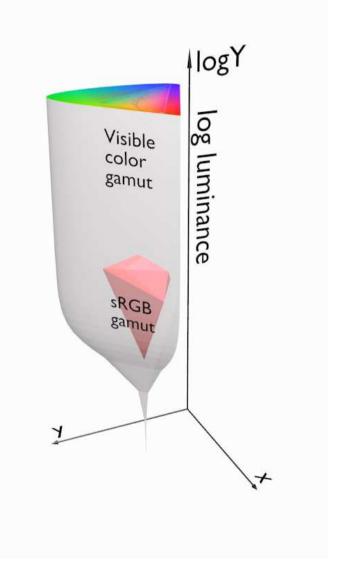
$$x = \frac{X}{X+Y+Z}$$
, $y = \frac{Y}{X+Y+Z}$, $z = \frac{Z}{X+Y+Z}$ \therefore $x+y+z=1$

- ignores luminance
- can be plotted as a 2D function
- pure colours (single wavelength) lie along the outer curve
- all other colours are a mix of pure colours and hence lie inside the curve
- points outside the curve do not exist as colours



Visible vs. displayable colours

- All physically possible and visible colours form a solid in XYZ space
- Each display device can reproduce a subspace of that space
- A chromacity diagram is a slice taken from a 3D solid in XYZ space
- Colour Gamut the solid in a colour space
 - Usually defined in XYZ to be deviceindependent

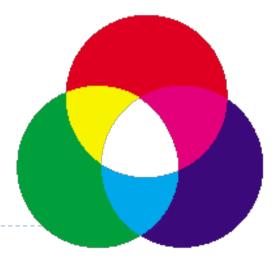


Representing colour

- We need a mechanism which allows us to represent colour in the computer by some set of numbers
 - A) preferably a small set of numbers which can be quantised to a fairly small number of bits each
 - ▶ Linear and gamma corrected RGB, sRGB
 - B) a set of numbers that are easy to interpret
 - Munsell's artists' scheme
 - ► HSV, HLS
 - C) a set of numbers so that the (Euclidean) colour differences are approximately perceptually uniform
 - ▶ CIE Lab, CIE Luv

RGB space

- all display devices which output light mix red, green and blue lights to make colour
 - televisions, CRT monitors, video projectors, LCD screens
- ▶ nominally, *RGB* space is a cube
- the device puts physical limitations on:
 - the range of colours which can be displayed
 - the brightest colour which can be displayed
 - the darkest colour which can be displayed



RGB in XYZ space

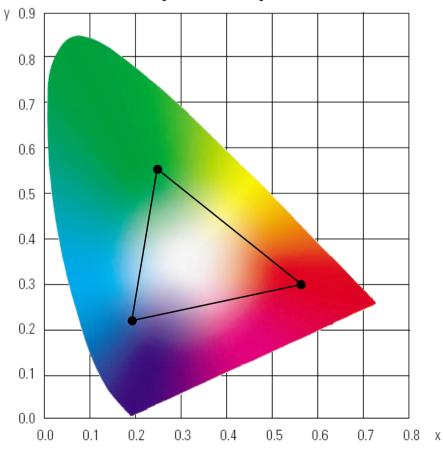
 CRTs and LCDs mix red, green, and blue to make all other colours

the red, green, and blue primaries each map to a point

in XYZ space

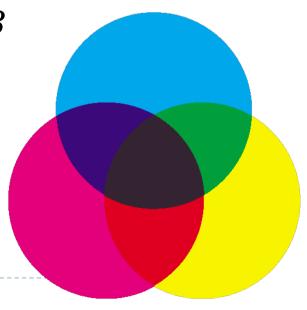
any colour within the resulting triangle can be displayed

- any colour outside the triangle cannot be displayed
- for example: CRTs cannot display very saturated purple, turquoise, or yellow

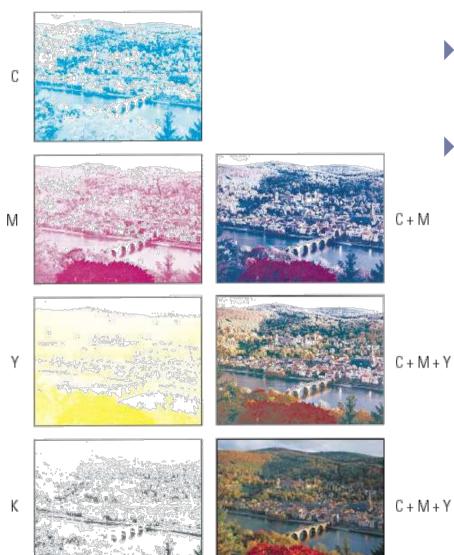


CMY space

- printers make colour by mixing coloured inks
- the important difference between inks (CMY) and lights (RGB) is that, while lights emit light, inks absorb light
 - cyan absorbs red, reflects blue and green
 - magenta absorbs green, reflects red and blue
 - yellow absorbs blue, reflects green and red
- ightharpoonup CMY is, at its simplest, the inverse of RGB
- ► CMY space is nominally a cube



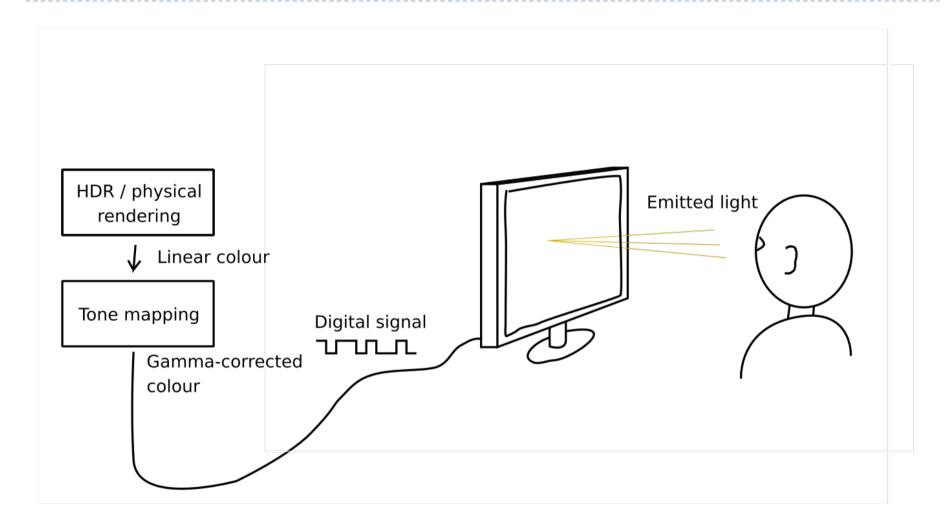
CMYK space



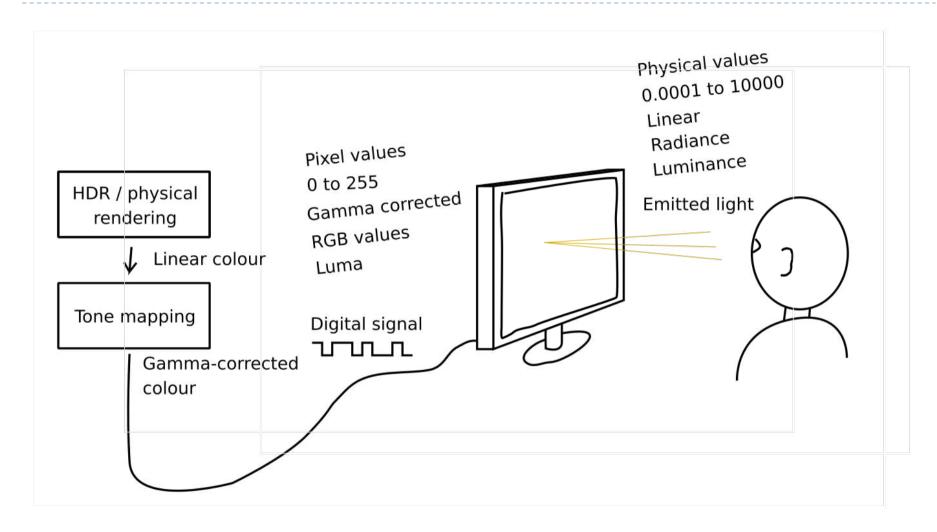
- in real printing we use black (key) as well as CMY
- why use black?
 - inks are not perfect absorbers
 - mixing C + M + Y gives a muddy grey, not black
 - lots of text is printed in black: trying to align C, M and Y perfectly for black text would be a nightmare

C + M + Y + K

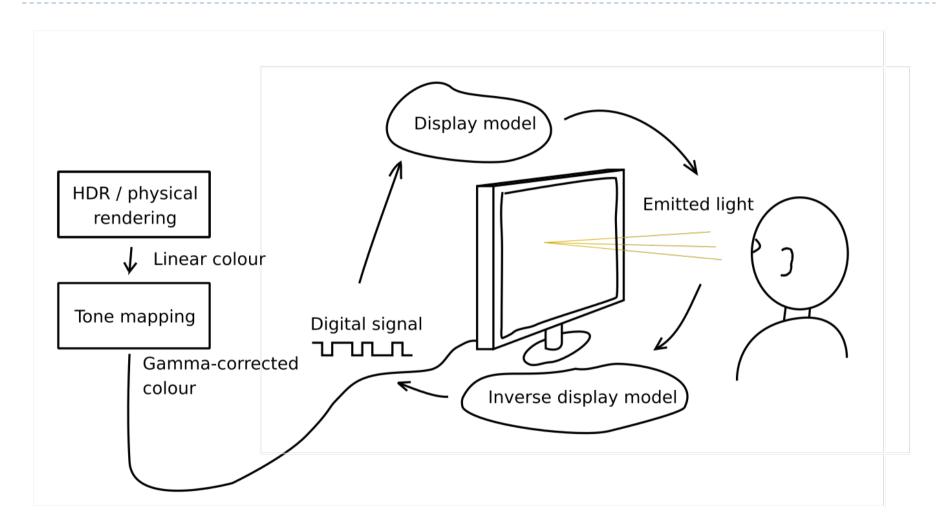
Linear vs. gamma-corrected values



Linear vs. gamma-corrected values



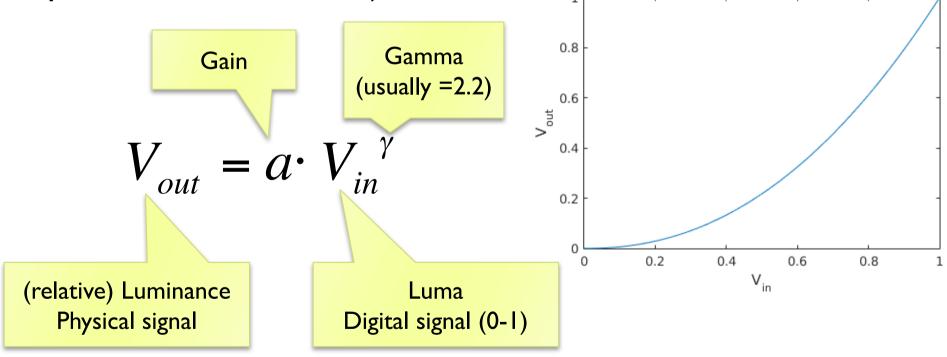
Linear vs. gamma-corrected values



Basic display model: gamma correction

Gamma correction is used to encode luminance or tristimulus color values (RGB) in imaging systems (displays,

printers, cameras, etc.)



For color images:
$$R = a \cdot (R')^{\gamma}$$

and the same for green and blue

Why is gamma needed?



- <- Pixel value (luma)
- <- Luminance
- "Gamma corrected" pixel values give a scale of brightness levels that is more perceptually uniform
- At least 12 bits (instead of 8) would be needed to encode each color channel without gamma correction
- And accidentally it was also the response of the CRT gun

Luma – gray-scale pixel value

▶ **Luma** - pixel brightness in gamma corrected units

$$L' = 0.2126R' + 0.7152G' + 0.0722B'$$

- \triangleright R', G' and B' are gamma corrected colour values
- Prime symbol denotes "gamma corrected"
- Used in image/video coding
- Note that relative luminance if often approximated with

$$L = 0.2126R + 0.7152G + 0.0722B$$

= 0.2126(R')\gamma + 0.7152(G')\gamma + 0.0722(B')\gamma

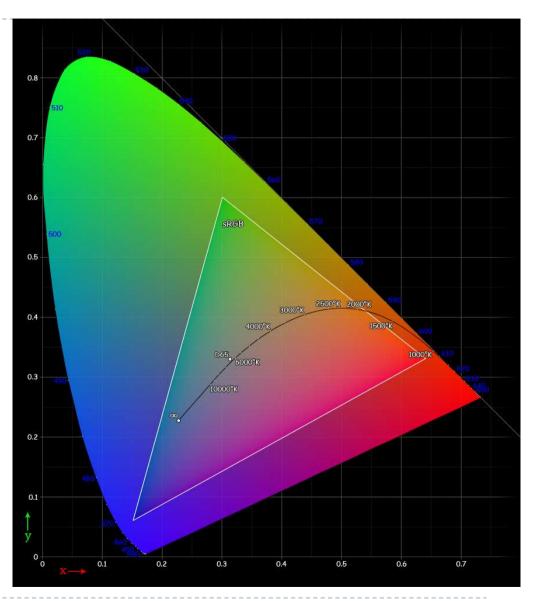
- \triangleright R, G, and B are linear colour values
- Luma and luminace are different quantities despite similar formulas

sRGB colour space

- "RGB" colour space is not a standard. Colours may differ depending on the choice of the primaries
- "sRGB" is a standard colour space, which most displays try to mimic (standard for HDTV)

Chromaticity	Red	Green	Blue	White point
x	0.6400	0.3000	0.1500	0.3127
у	0.3300	0.6000	0.0600	0.3290
z	0.0300	0.1000	0.7900	0.3583

The chromacities above are also known as Rec. 709



sRGB colour space

▶ Two step XYZ to sRGB transformation:

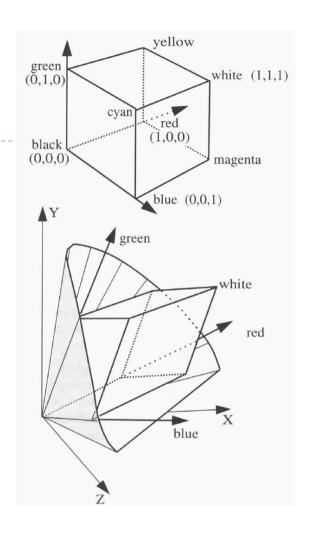
Step I: Linear color transform

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{\text{linear}} \\ G_{\text{linear}} \\ B_{\text{linear}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.2406 & -1.5372 & -0.4986 \\ -0.9689 & 1.8758 & 0.0415 \\ 0.0557 & -0.2040 & 1.0570 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \\ Z \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 2: Non-linearity

$$C_{\text{srgb}} = \begin{cases} 12.92C_{\text{linear}}, & C_{\text{linear}} \le 0.0031308\\ (1+a)C_{\text{linear}}^{1/2.4} - a, & C_{\text{linear}} > 0.0031308 \end{cases}$$

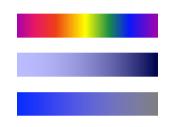
$$a = 0.055$$

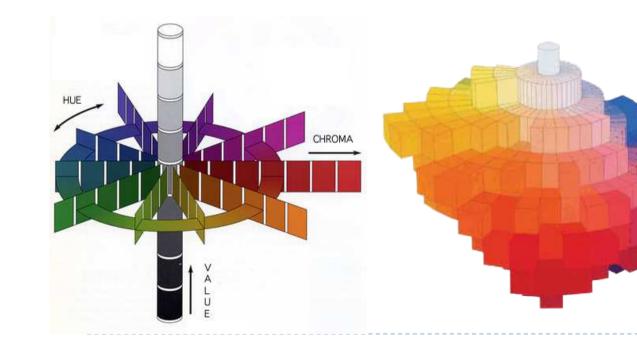


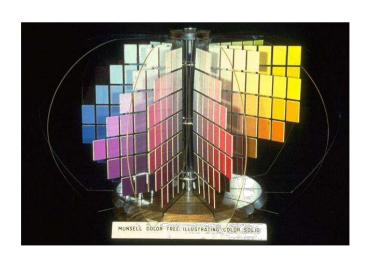
Munsell's colour classification system

three axes

- ▶ hue ➤ the dominant colour
- ▶ value ➤ bright colours/dark colours
- ▶ chroma ➤ vivid colours/dull colours
- > can represent this as a 3D graph

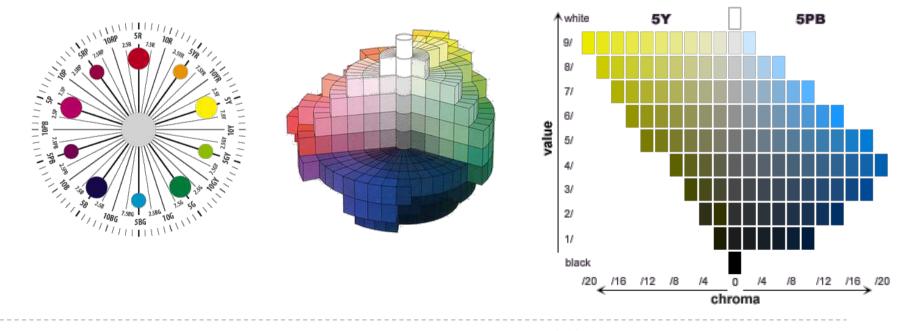






Munsell's colour classification system

- any two adjacent colours are a standard "perceptual" distance apart
 - worked out by testing it on people
 - a highly irregular space
 - e.g. vivid yellow is much brighter than vivid blue





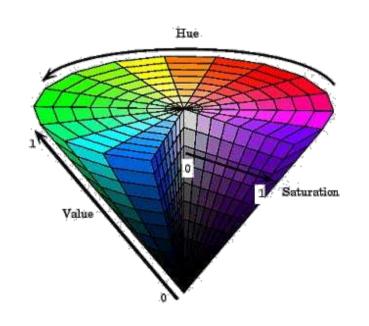
Colour spaces for user-interfaces

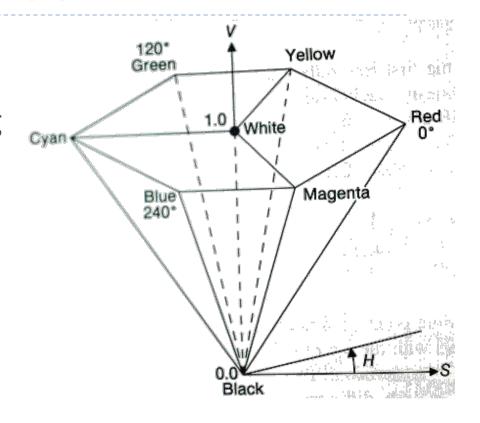
- ▶ *RGB* and *CMY* are based on the physical devices which produce the coloured output
- ▶ *RGB* and *CMY* are difficult for humans to use for selecting colours
- Munsell's colour system is much more intuitive:
 - hue what is the principal colour?
 - value how light or dark is it?
 - chroma how vivid or dull is it?
- computer interface designers have developed basic transformations of RGB which resemble Munsell's humanfriendly system

HSV: hue saturation value

three axes, as with Munsell

- hue and value have same meaning
- the term "saturation" replaces the term "chroma"

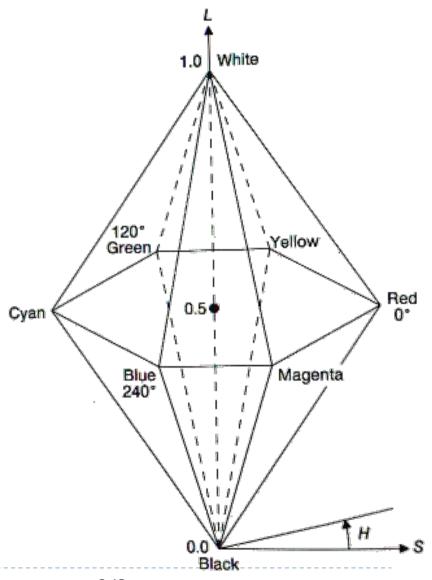




- designed by Alvy Ray Smith in 1978
- algorithm to convert HSV to RGB and back can be found in Foley et al., Figs 13.33 and 13.34

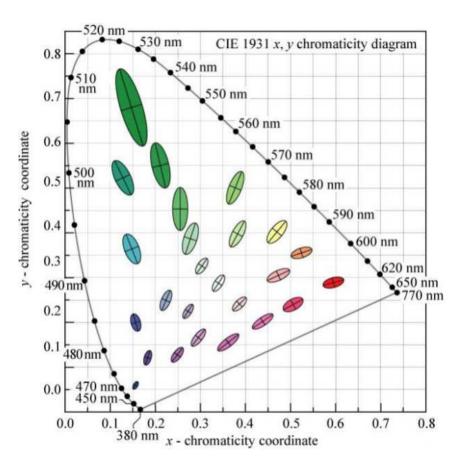
HLS: hue lightness saturation

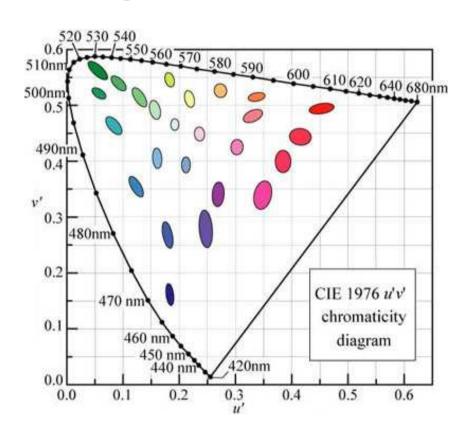
- → a simple variation of HSV
 - hue and saturation have same meaning
 - the term "lightness" replaces the term "value"
- designed to address the complaint that HSV has all pure colours having the same lightness/value as white
 - designed by Metrick in 1979
 - algorithm to convert HLS to RGB and back can be found in Foley et al., Figs 13.36 and 13.37



Perceptually uniformity

MacAdam ellipses & visually indistinguishable colours





In CIE xy chromatic coordinates

In CIE u'v' chromatic coordinates

CIE L*u*v* and u'v'

- Approximately perceptually uniform
- u'v' chromacity

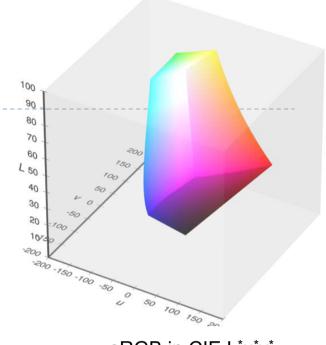
$$u' = rac{4X}{X+15Y+3Z} = rac{4x}{-2x+12y+3} \ v' = rac{9Y}{X+15Y+3Z} = rac{9y}{-2x+12y+3}$$

CIE LUV

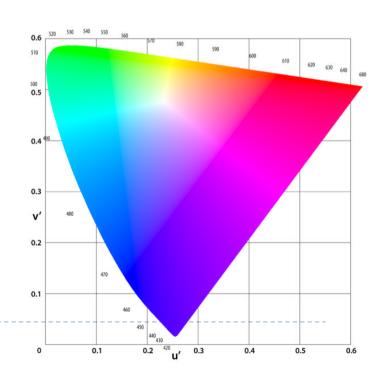
Lightness
$$L^* = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{29}{3}\right)^3 Y/Y_n, & Y/Y_n \leq \left(\frac{6}{29}\right)^3 \\ 116(Y/Y_n)^{1/3} - 16, & Y/Y_n > \left(\frac{6}{29}\right)^3 \end{cases}$$
 Chromacity coordinates
$$v^* = 13L^* \cdot (u' - u'_n)$$
 Colours less distinguishable when dark

▶ Hue and chroma

$$C^*_{uv} = \sqrt{(u^*)^2 + (v^*)^2} \ h_{uv} = ext{atan2}(v^*, u^*),$$



sRGB in CIE L*u*v*



CIE L*a*b* colour space

 Another approximately perceptually uniform colour space

$$\begin{split} L^{\star} &= 116 f\left(\frac{Y}{Y_{\rm n}}\right) - 16 \\ a^{\star} &= 500 \left(f\left(\frac{X}{X_{\rm n}}\right) - f\left(\frac{Y}{Y_{\rm n}}\right)\right) \\ b^{\star} &= 200 \left(f\left(\frac{Y}{Y_{\rm n}}\right) - f\left(\frac{Z}{Z_{\rm n}}\right)\right) \end{split}$$

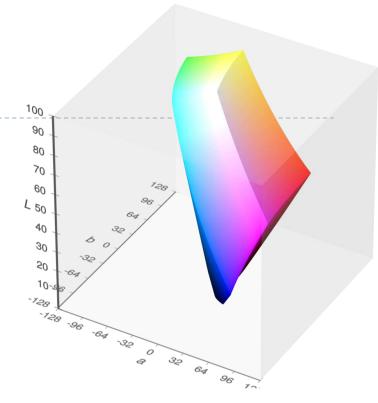
Trichromatic values of the white point, e.g.

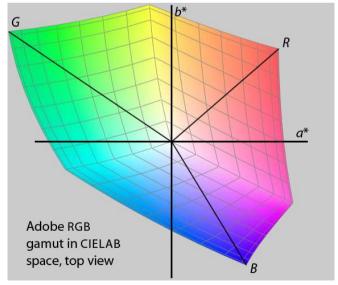
$$X_{\rm n} = 95.047, \ Y_{\rm n} = 100.000, \ Z_{\rm n} = 108.883$$

$$f(t) = egin{cases} \sqrt[3]{t} & ext{if } t > \delta^3 \ rac{t}{3\delta^2} + rac{4}{29} & ext{otherwise} \ \delta = rac{6}{29} \end{cases}$$

Chroma and hue

$$C^\star = \sqrt{{a^\star}^{\,2} + {b^\star}^{\,2}}, \qquad h^\circ = rctanigg(rac{b^\star}{a^\star}igg)$$







Lab space

- this visualization shows those colours in Lab space which a human can perceive
- again we see that human perception of colour is not uniform
 - perception of colour diminishes at the white and black ends of the L axis
 - the maximum perceivable chroma differs for different hues

Colour - references

- Chapters "Light" and "Colour" in
 - Shirley, P. & Marschner, S., Fundamentals of Computer Graphics
- Textbook on colour appearance
 - Fairchild, M. D. (2005). *Color Appearance Models* (second.). John Wiley & Sons.