

# *Introduction to Graphics*

## Lecture 2:

## Worlds in 2D and 3D

## *Lecture Overview*

- Planar Polyhedra
- Object Representation
- Wire Frame Models
- Vectors Review (based on Dr Bradley's notes)
- Planar Projections
- Ortographic Projections
- Perspective Projection
- Vanishing Points

## *Three Dimensional Scenes*

- Three dimensional graphics scenes can be made up of many diverse objects:

Spheres

Cones

Cubes

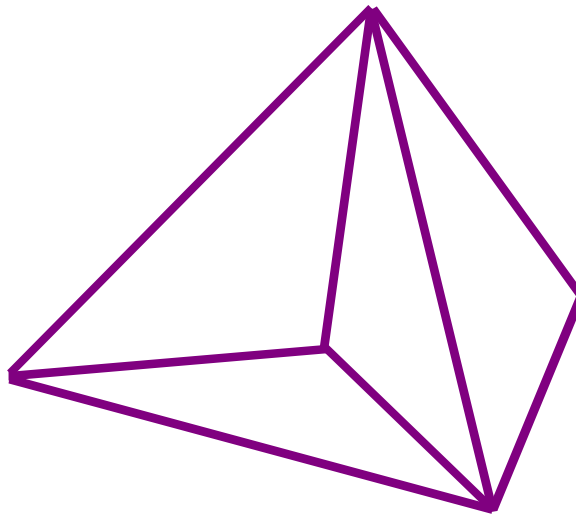
Smooth Surfaces

etc.

- For simplicity we will concentrate on planar polyhedra

# Planar Polyhedra

These are three dimensional objects whose faces are all *planar polygons* often called *facets*.



# *Representing Planar Polygons*

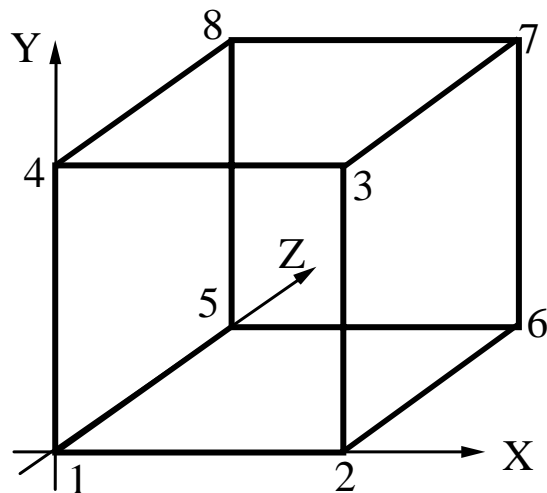
A mixture of numerical and topological data is required to represent planar polygons in a computer.

## Numerical Data

Actual coordinates of vertices, etc.

## Topological Data

Details of what is connected to what... **Edges/Faces**



NUMERICAL DATA	TOPOLOGICAL DATA	
Points	Lines	Faces
1. [0,0,0]	1. 1>>2	1,2,4,5
2. [2,0,0]	2. 1>>4	1,3,7,8
3. [2,2,0]	3. 1>>5	&c
4. [0,2,0]	4. 3>>4	
&c	5. 3>>2	
	&c	

Diagram 2.1: Representing 3D objects

# *Object Representation*

## Static Data Structures:

The point data is stored in arrays

The topological data is stored in arrays of (point) array indices

## Dynamic Data Structures:

The topological data is implied by the data structure

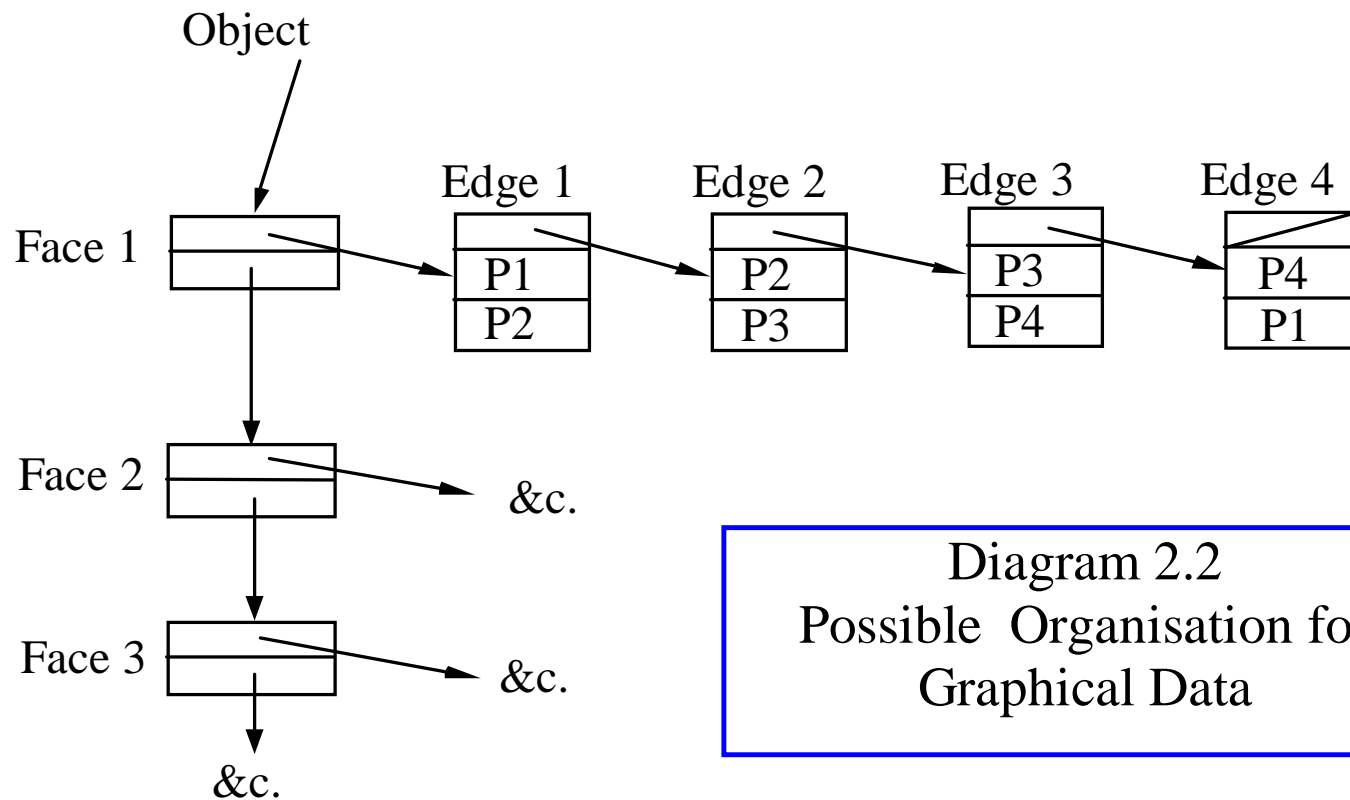


Diagram 2.2  
Possible Organisation for  
Graphical Data



# *Vectors in Computer Graphics*

A vector is used in Computer Graphics to represent the position coordinates for a point.

A *position vector* is simply another name for a coordinate in cartesian space. It differs from *directional vectors* in that it is always assumed to start from the origin.

# Vector representation and notation

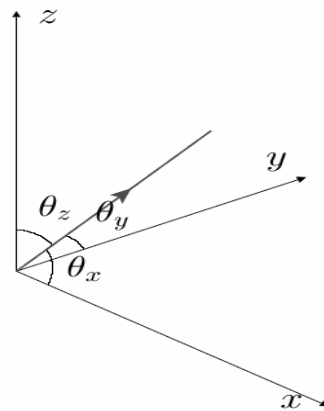
A vector conveys **both** direction and magnitude.

Row vector

$$\vec{p} = (p_1, p_2, p_3)$$

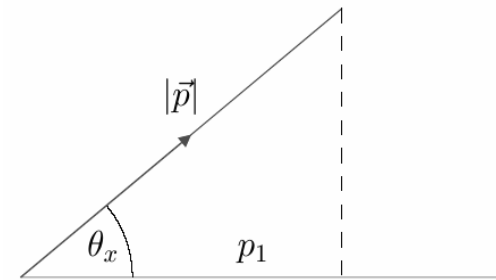
Column vector

$$\vec{p} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$|\vec{p}| = \sqrt{p_1^2 + p_2^2 + p_3^2}$$

Vector magnitude



$$\cos(\theta_x) = \frac{p_1}{|\vec{p}|}$$

$$\cos(\theta_y) = \frac{p_2}{|\vec{p}|}$$

$$\cos(\theta_z) = \frac{p_3}{|\vec{p}|}$$

Vector direction

## Unit Vectors

All vectors in 3D can be expressed as a weighted sum of the unit vectors  $\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}$  :

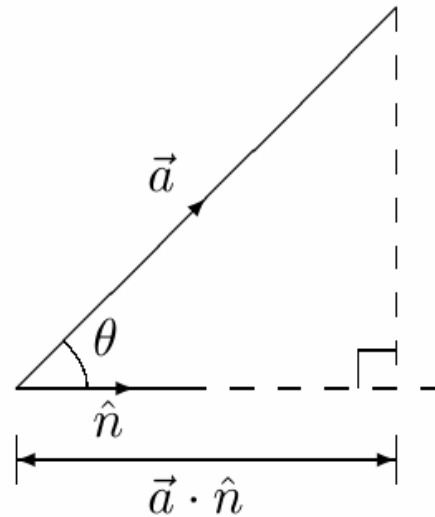
$$\vec{p} = (p_1, p_2, p_3) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{pmatrix} \equiv p_1 \vec{i} + p_2 \vec{j} + p_3 \vec{k}$$

$$|p_1 \vec{i} + p_2 \vec{j} + p_3 \vec{k}| = \sqrt{p_1^2 + p_2^2 + p_3^2}$$

Unit vectors are often used for specifying directions.

By convention,  $i = [1,0,0]$ ,  $j = [0,1,0]$  and  $k = [0,0,1]$  refer to the unit vectors in the directions of the Cartesian axes.

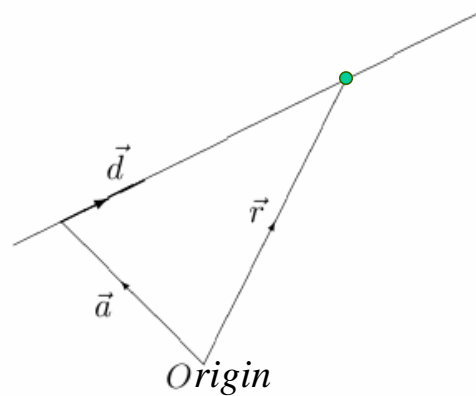
# Vector Projection



$\hat{n}$  is a unit vector, i.e.  $|\hat{n}| = 1$

$\vec{a} \cdot \hat{n} = |\vec{a}| \cos \theta$  represents the *amount* of  $\vec{a}$  that points in the  $\hat{n}$  direction

## Equation of a Line



For a general point,  $\vec{r}$ , on the line:

$$\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda \vec{d}$$

where:  $\vec{a}$  is a point on the line and  $\vec{d}$  is a vector parallel to the line

## Equation of a Plane

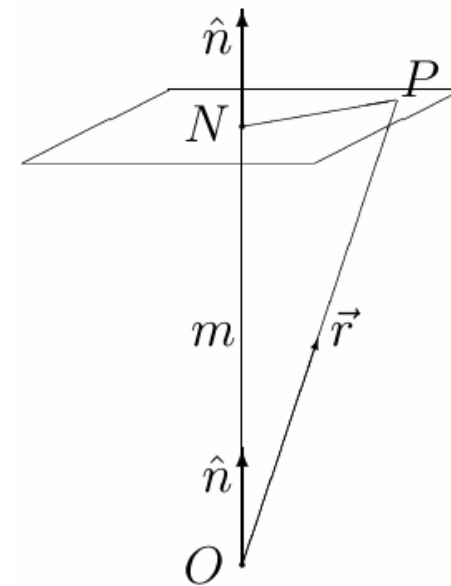
Equation of a plane. For a general point,  $\vec{r}$ , in the plane,  $\vec{r}$  has the property that:

$$\vec{r} \cdot \hat{n} = m$$

where:

$\hat{n}$  is the unit vector perpendicular to the plane

$|m|$  is the distance from the plane to the origin (at its closest point)



# *Vector & Matrices Algebra*

See:

`VectorAlgebraSummary.pdf`

and

`MatricesTutorial.pdf`

in additional material directory (~fernando/MMG/additional)

## *Projections of Wire Frame Models*

- Wire frame models simply include points and lines (no faces).
- To draw a 3D wire frame model the **points** must first be converted to a 2D representation. Simple drawing primitives can then be used to draw them.
- The conversion from 3D into 2D is a form of **projection**.



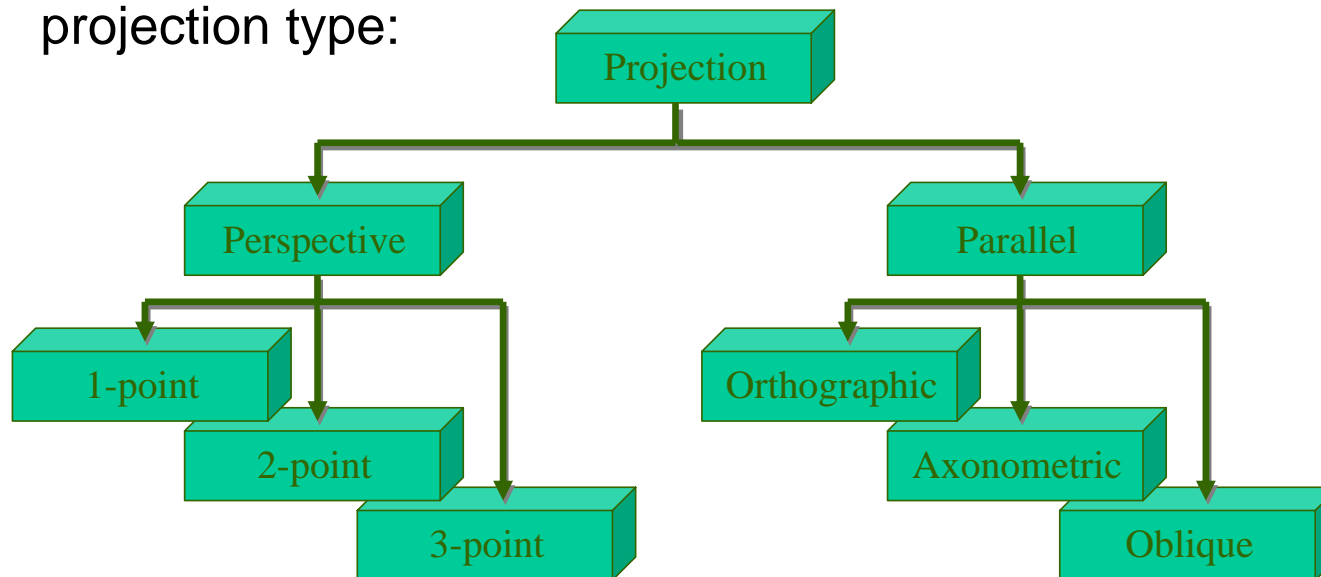
## 3D $\rightarrow$ 2D Projection

Type of projection depends on a number of factors:

*location and orientation* of the viewing plane (*viewport*)

direction of projection (described by a vector)

projection type:



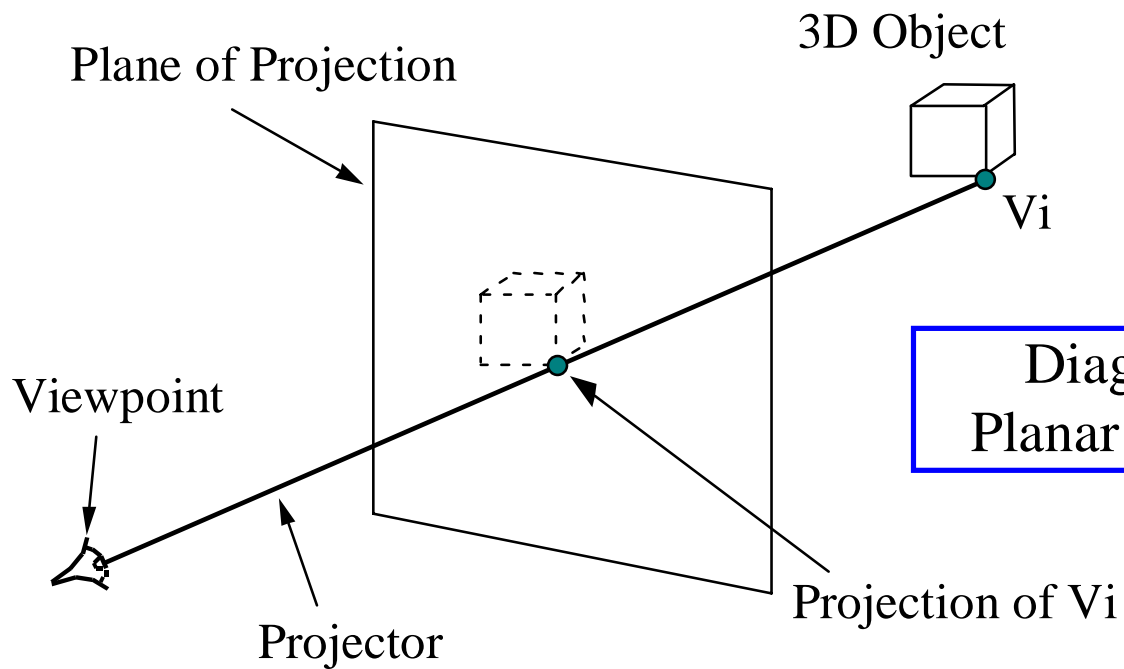
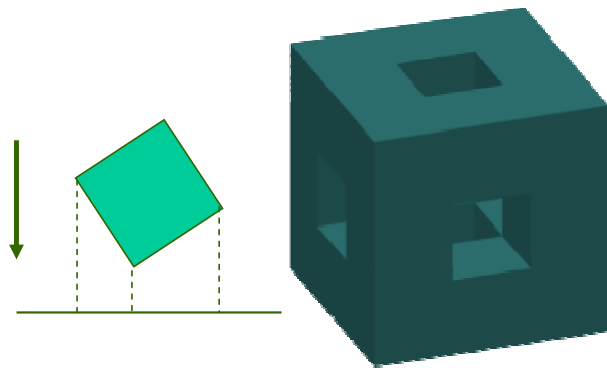


Diagram 2.3  
Planar projection

Projection = Intersection of a line (Projector) with a surface (Plane of Projection)

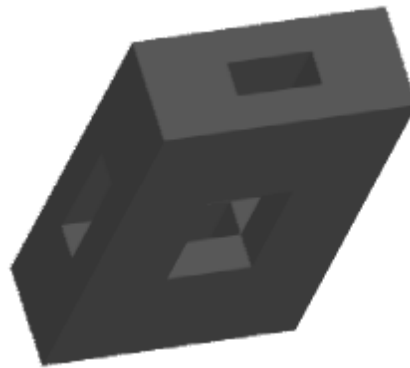
# Parallel Projections



Axonometric

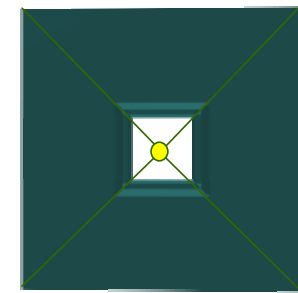
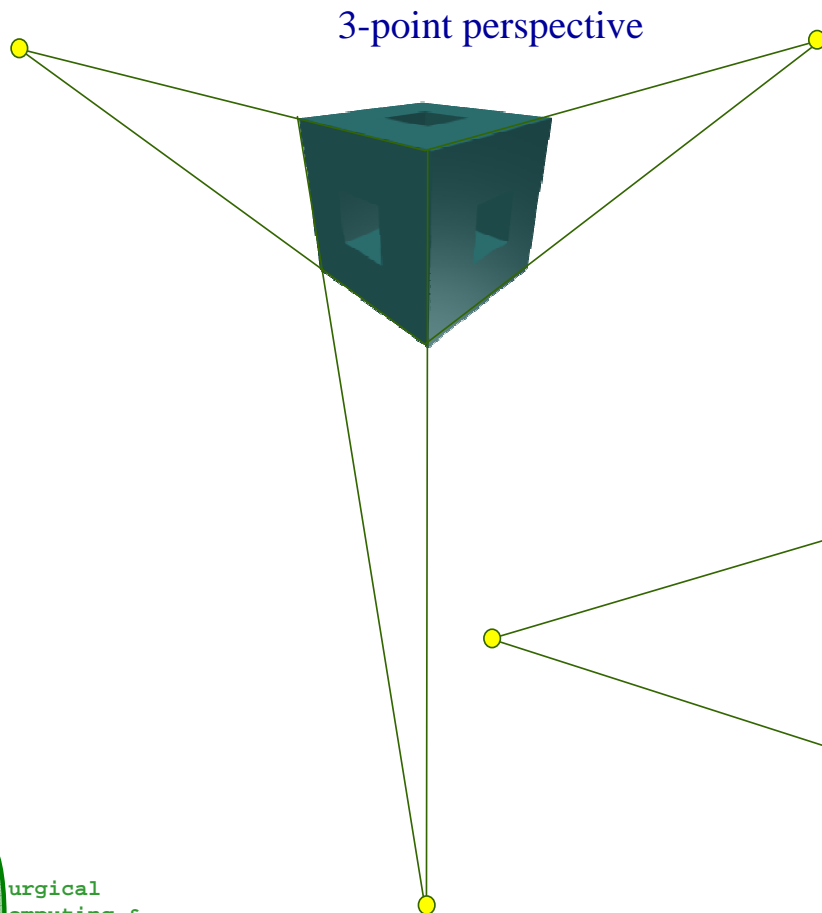


Orthographic

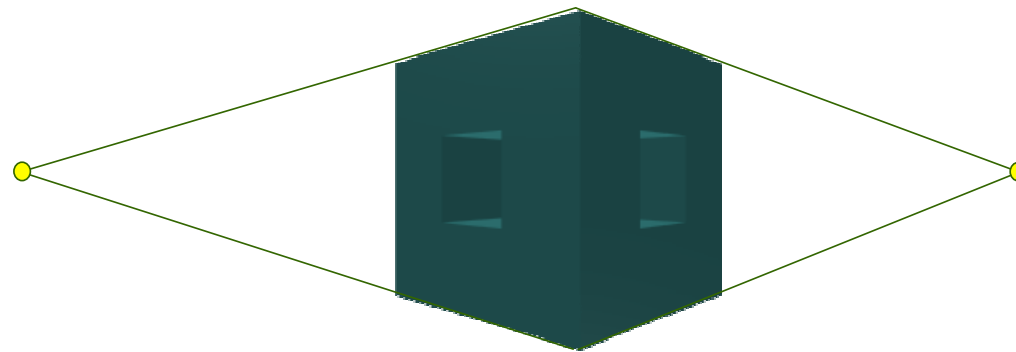


Oblique

# *Perspective Projections*



1-point perspective



2-point perspective

## *Non Linear Projections*

In general it is possible to project onto any surface:

Sphere

Cone

etc

or to use curved projectors, for example to produce lens effects.

We will only consider planar linear projections.

## *Normal Orthographic Projection*

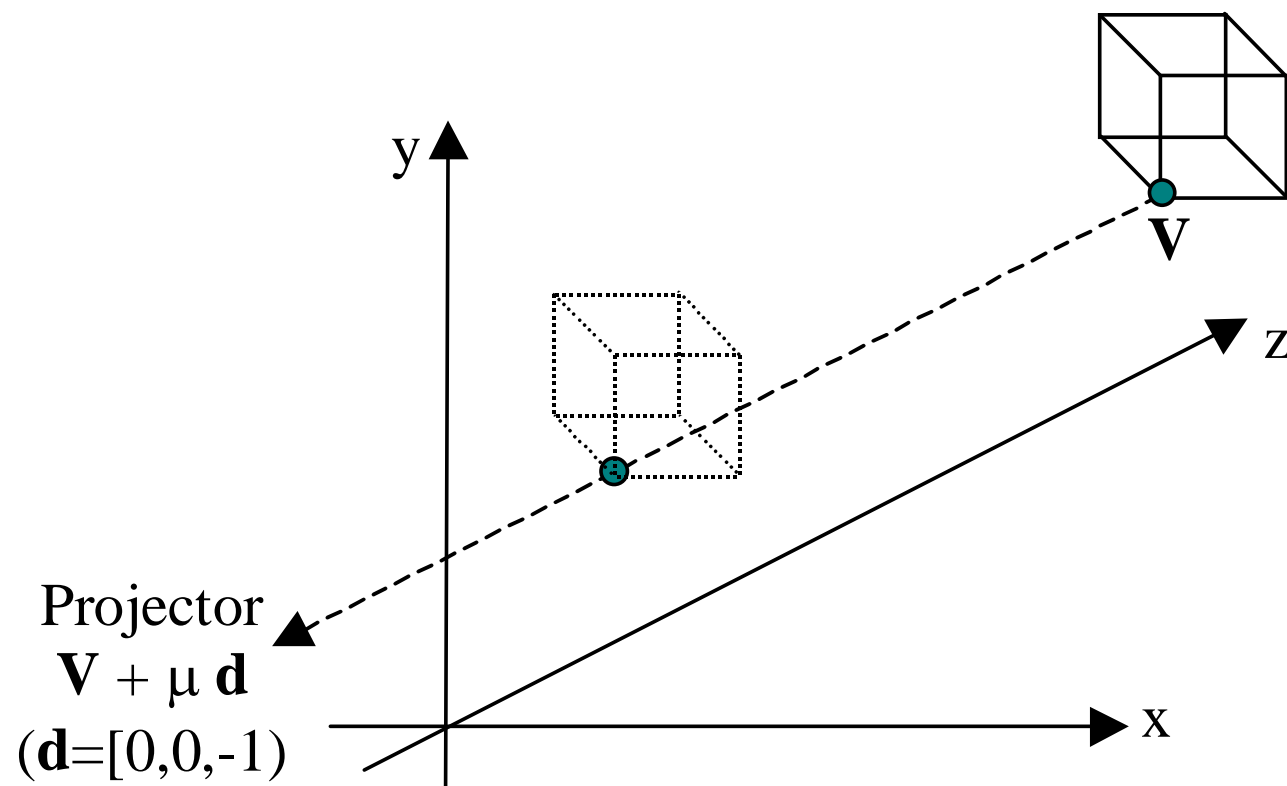
Simplest form of projection, and effective in many cases.

The viewpoint is at  $z = -\infty$

The plane of projection is  $z=0$

so

All projectors have direction  $d = [0,0,-1]$



## *Calculating an Orthographic Projection*

Projector Equation for each point **P** in 3D object:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{V} + \mu \mathbf{d}$$

Substitute direction of projection  $\mathbf{d} = [0,0,-1]$

Yields cartesian form

$$P_x = V_x + 0 \quad P_y = V_y + 0 \quad P_z = V_z - \mu$$

The projection plane is  $z=0$  so the projected coordinate is

$$[V_x, V_y, 0] \text{ or } V_{2D} = [V_x, V_y]$$

i.e. take the 3D x and y components of the vertex



See sample Orthographic Projection:  
`orthoProj.wrl`  
in additional material directory  
(~fernando/MMG/additional)

## *Perspective Projection*

- **Orthographic projection** is fine in cases depth is not important (i.e. most objects at same distance from viewer).
- However for depth sensitive work (e.g. computer games) it is not sufficient.
- Instead we use **Perspective Projection**

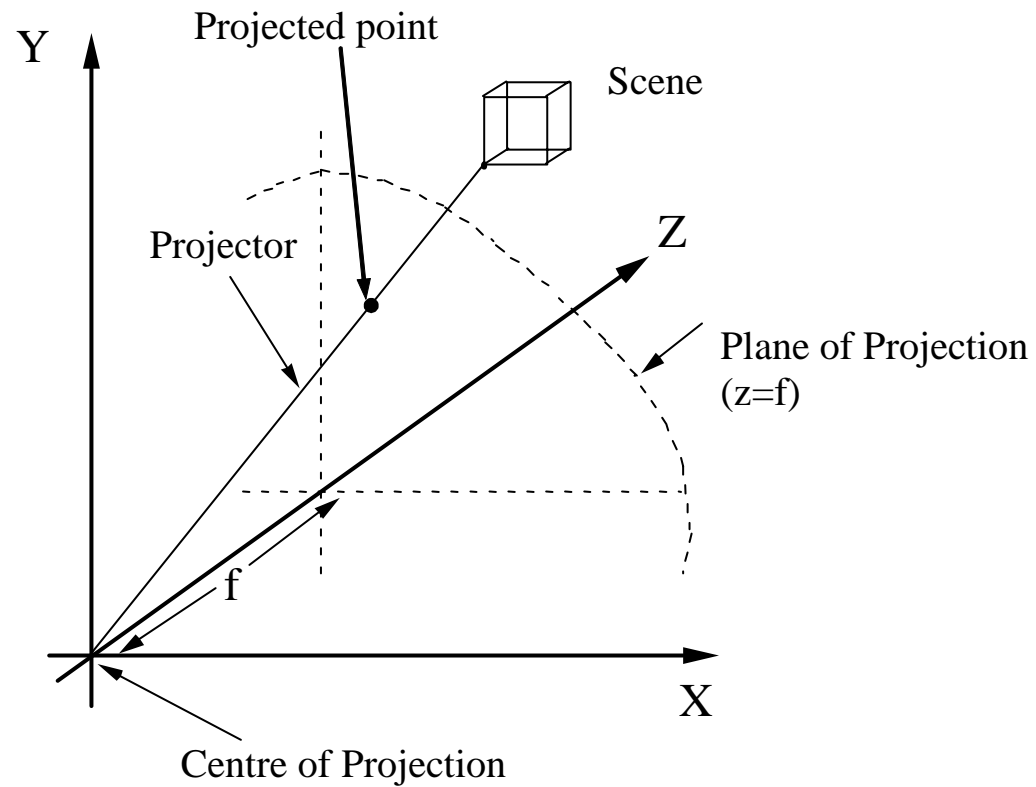


Diagram 2.5: Canonical form for Perspective projection

## *Calculating a Perspective Projection*

Projector Equation:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mu \mathbf{V} \quad (\text{all projectors go through the origin})$$

At the projected point  $P_z=f$

$$\mu_p = P_z/V_z = f/V_z$$

$$P_x = \mu_p V_x \quad \text{and} \quad P_y = \mu_p V_y$$

Thus

$$P_x = f V_x/V_z = \mu_p V_x \quad \text{and} \quad P_y = f V_y/V_z = \mu_p V_y$$

$\mu_p$  is known as the **Fore-shortening Factor**

## *Perspective projection as similar triangles*

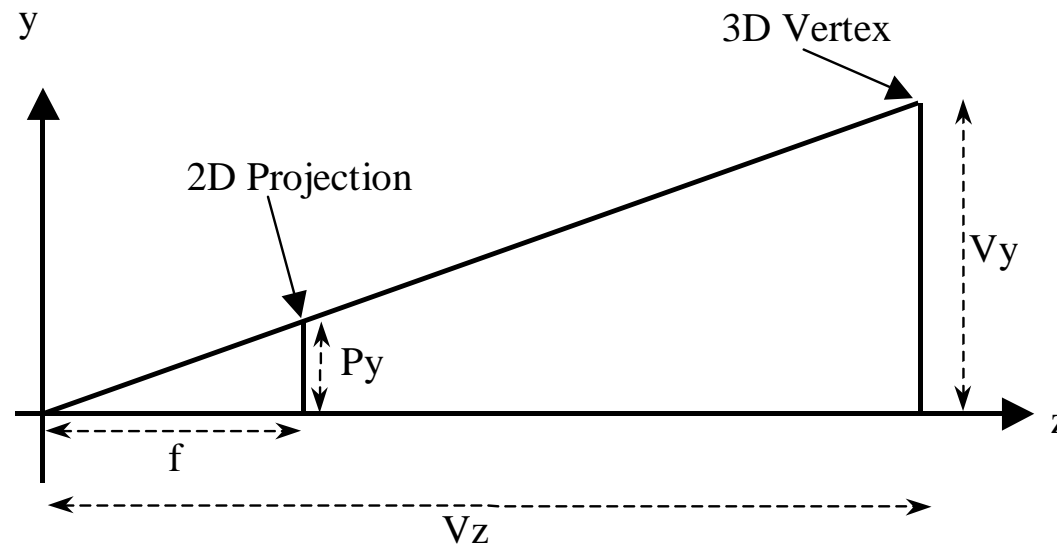


Diagram 2.6:  
Perspective projection by similar triangles

See sample Perspective Projection:  
`perspectiveProj.wrl`  
in additional material directory  
(~fernando/MMG/additional)

## *Characteristics of Perspective Projection*

An interesting feature of perspective projection is that parallel lines are not necessarily parallel any more.

Images of parallel lines which are parallel to projection surface **WILL** remain parallel.

Others will meet at vanishing points.

Consider two parallel lines in 3D

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{V}_1 + \mu \mathbf{d}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_2 = \mathbf{V}_2 + \mu \mathbf{d}$$

Consider a perspective projection of these lines

## *Perspective projection of parallel lines*

The projection of the X coordinate is:

$$P_1x = f (V_1x + \mu dx)/(V_1z + \mu dz)$$

now let  $\mu \rightarrow \infty$

$$P_1x = lx = f dx/dz \quad \text{and similarly} \quad P_1y = ly = f dy/dz$$

The projected point is independent of **V**.

**All lines** in direction **d** converge to same point in the image plane -- the Vanishing Point

Every point in plane is a VP for some set of lines



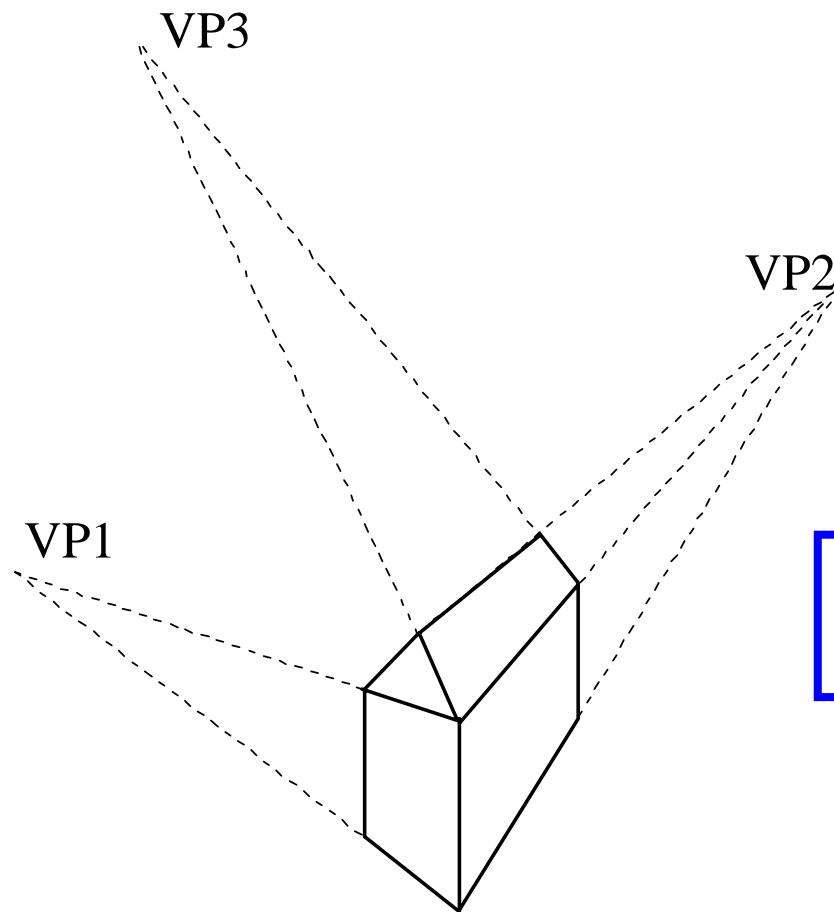


Diagram 2.7  
Vanishing Points

## *The Vanishing Point*

The vanishing point is a fixed point, which may or may not appear in the image. It is given by:

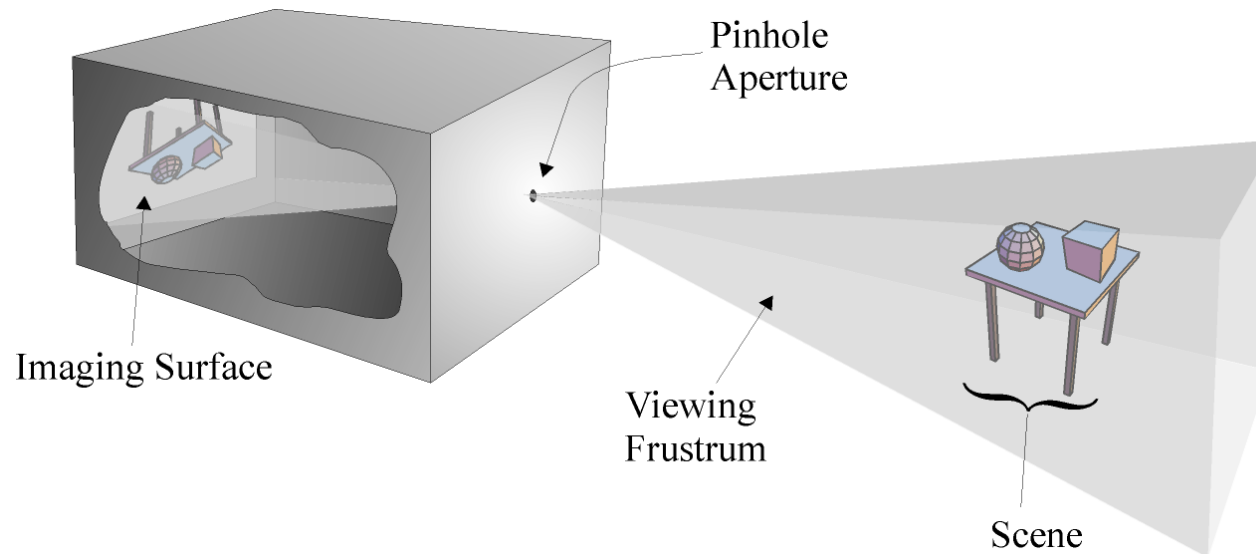
$$lx = f \ d_x/d_z$$

and

$$ly = f \ d_y/d_z$$

Vanishing points are used by architects to construct drawings.

## *Pinhole Camera Model*



Why is the object inverted?

Where is the Centre of Projection?  
Where is the plane of projection?