## Computer Graphics

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#### Reminder

- Last lecture we took a look at recursive ray tracing
- Advantages:
  - ► The scene can be populated with anything, that can be intersected with a ray
  - Easy to implement with recursion
  - It treats light as a particle, the resulting phenomena can be easily displayed
- ► At the same time, we have seen that it also has disadvantages:
  - For every pixel we need to test every primitive → this is what we tried to speed up (bounding, space partitioning)
  - The algorithm is global in nature thus difficult to accelerate with hardware
  - It cannot reproduce the phenomena arising from the wave nature of the light
  - ► Too slow for real-time applications

## Raycasting

For every pixel on the screen:
For every object in the scene:
Does the ray hit the object?

## Incremental image synthesis

For every object in the scene:
 For every pixel on the screen:
 Is the pixel covered by the object's projection?

## Real-time graphics

- For ray tracing, it was: ∀ pixel start a ray: ∀ object (geometry) check if there is an intersection
- Instead let's try this: for ∀ object (geometry): calculate which pixels it is mapped to and finally display only the closest one!
- The speed depends a lot on how quickly can we decide whether a pixel is covered by the object or not.
- ► For this reason, objects can only be built from simple geometries ⇒ in practice this means linear elements (segments and triangles)
- ▶ All other geometries (e.g. sphere) are approximated with these *primitive geometries*, **tessellate**

## Real-time graphics – ideas

- ► Let's not calculate unnecessarily: as soon as possible, filter out the geometries that definitely won't be displayed on the screen
- ▶ In addition, perform all operations in a coordinate system in which it is easiest to calculate
- And we reuse the results of our previous calculations wherever we can

## Incremental image synthesis – terms

- ► Coherence: Instead of pixels, we start with larger logical units, primitives
- Accuracy: object space accuracy (instead of "pixel accuracy")
- Clipping: remove elements sticking out of the screen (out of sight), do not calculate with them unnecessarily
- ▶ Incremental principle: For the shading and the occlusion tasks, we use the information obtained from the larger unit (for example, the slope of the triangles  $(\partial_x z, \partial_y z)$  to calculate the depth of the fragments).

## Comparison

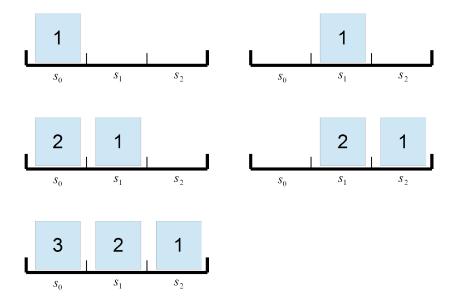
#### Ray tracing

- per pixel calculation
- if it can be intersected with a ray, it can be used
- we get reflection, refraction, shadows
- occlusion task is trivial
- many pixels, many rays, high computational demand

#### Incremental rendering

- per primitive calculation
- if not a primitive, it must be approximated with primitives
- a separate algorithm is required for these
- must be solved separately
- lower computational demand due to coherence

# Pipeline



## Pipeline

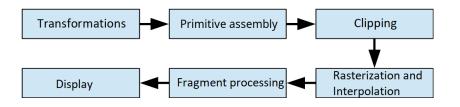
- ► The pipeline is a chain of processing units
- ▶ The input of  $s_i$  processing unit is the output of  $s_{i-1}$  processing unit
- ▶ The output of  $s_i$  is the input of  $s_{i+1}$
- ▶ If we can divide a problem into n consecutive sub-tasks, and these sub-tasks can be completed in roughly the same time, then we can work on n sub-task simultaneously in a unit of time
- ► Except for the initial run-up and the final "run-down" starting with the placement of the last workpiece

- ► The sequence of operations for creating an image of our scene is called **graphics pipeline**
- In essence, real-time applications only have to provide a description of our scene, the steps of image synthesis are performed by the graphics pipeline
- In the pipeline, there are several coordinate system changes we try to perform every task in a coordinate system that best fits it

## Operation of pipeline

- ▶ It starts after every primitive drawing command (e.g glDrawArrays)
- ► The primitives to be drawn go through all the steps of the pipeline independently (usually parallel to each other).
- It can be described and grouped in several ways





- lts steps in terms of main operations:
  - Transformations
  - Primitive assembly
  - Clipping
  - Homogeneous division
  - Rasterisation and interpolation
  - Fragment processing
  - Displaying (and handling occlusion)
- ➤ The result of the graphics pipeline is an image (a two-dimensional array of pixels, each element containing a color value)

## Input data of the pipeline

- Geometric and optical model of the objects to be drawn
- Properties of the *virtual camera* (point of view, viewing angle)
- Canvas (block of pixels on which we map the plane projection of our scene)
- Lighting data for light sources and materials in the scene

#### **Transformations**

- ► The task of the transformations in the pipeline: to "deliver" the given object in the model space to the screen space
- Steps (summary):

#### model CS

- $\rightarrow$  world CS
  - $\rightarrow$  camera CS
    - $\rightarrow$  normalized device CS
      - $\rightarrow$  screen CS

#### **Transformations**

- ► For primitives it is sufficient (\*) to transform their vertices and then connect the transformed vertices
- ► Therefore, the transformations are performed on the vertices of the primitives
- (\*): This should be handled with care for central projection!

#### **Transformations**

- ▶ Before clipping, we do not make a homogeneous division
- ➤ So, the phase called Transformations does not go all the way to the screen C.S, it stops in the homogeneous space after central projection, **before** the homogeneous division.
- ▶ In practice this is what we set in the vertex shader the gl\_Position variable.

# Segment reversal problem

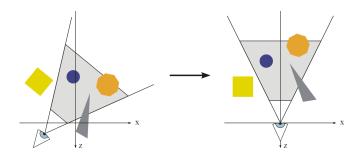
## Coordinate systems

- Normalized device CS: Specific to the hardware / API,  $[-1,1] \times [-1,1] \times [-1,1]$  or  $[-1,1] \times [-1,1] \times [0,1]$  dimensional CS.
- Screen CS:
   CS corresponding to the image to be displayed on the screen/window (left-handed, upper-left "corner" is the origin).

# Model (world) transformation

- ▶ It places the models given in its own (model) coordinate system into the world coordinate system
- ▶ It is typically different for each model (maybe the two elements of our scene only differ in the world transformations!)
- Mostly affine transformations
- ▶ In practice: this is the *model* (or *world*) matrix in our code

# View (camera) transformation



- ▶ It transforms the world coordinate system into a coordinate system fixed to the camera
- We get the transformation from the properties of the camera.
- In practice: this is the view or camera matrix.

# View (camera) transformation

- Properties are the same as for ray tracing: eye, center, up
- From this we get the axes of the view coordinate system:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{w} &= \frac{\mathbf{eye} - \mathbf{center}}{|\mathbf{eye} - \mathbf{center}|} \\ \mathbf{u} &= \frac{\mathbf{up} \times \mathbf{w}}{|\mathbf{up} \times \mathbf{w}|} \\ \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{u} \end{aligned}$$

## View (camera) transformation

Converting into a coordinate system with eye origin and u, v, w axes:

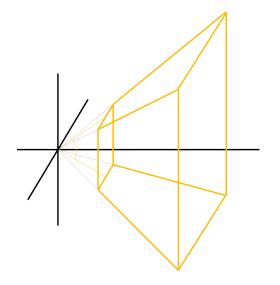
$$T_{View} = \begin{bmatrix} u_x & u_y & u_z & 0 \\ v_x & v_y & v_z & 0 \\ w_x & w_y & w_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -eye_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -eye_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -eye_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Projection – parallel projection

► For example the matrix for projecting onto the *XY* plane

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

# Projection – central projection



# Projection – central projection

- Reminder: 3. lecture
- It transforms the space inside the viewing frustum into normalized CS
- What was in the frustum, it will be in  $[-1,1] \times [-1,1] \times [0,1]$  (or  $[-1,1] \times [-1,1] \times [-1,1]$ ) range
- ► The transformation makes parallels from the *projection lines* passing through the camera
- The transformation pushes the camera position to infinity
- In practice: this is the proj matrix

## Projective transformation

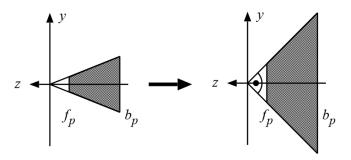
- ► Reminder: properties
  - vertical and horizontal opening angle (fovx, fovy) or the ratio of the sides of the base and the vertical opening angle (fovy, aspect),
  - distance of the near clipping plane (near),
  - distance of the far clipping plane (far)

# Projective transformations in the pipeline

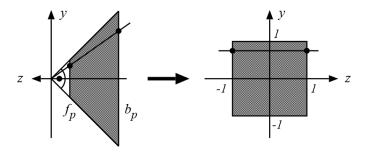
- 1. Let's normalize the viewing frustum so that both angles are  $\frac{\pi}{2}$
- 2. Let's perform the central projection (from the origin, to a plane 1 unit away from the origin, parallel to the XY plane)
- 3. Transform the z=near, z=far planes into the z=-1 and z=1 planes, respectively

Thus, with (1)–(2) we normalize the result's x and y coordinates (map them into [-1,1]), and with (3) we map the z component

# Normalizing the viewing frustum (1)



# Normalizing the viewing frustum (2–3)



# Normalizing the viewing frustum (1)

- ▶ Pay attention: at this point of our pipeline, the camera faces−Z and it is at the origin
- ► From the space above, let's move to a more "normalized" frustum whose opening angle along x and y is 90 degree
- Matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\tan\frac{fovx}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\tan\frac{fovy}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

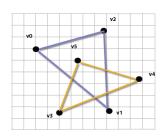
# Normalizing the depth (2-3)

After that, only the z coordinates of the near and far clipping plane needs to be mapped according to the normalization (to -1,1 or 0,1):

$$T_{Projection} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & rac{near+far}{near-far} & rac{2 \cdot near \cdot far}{near-far} \ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

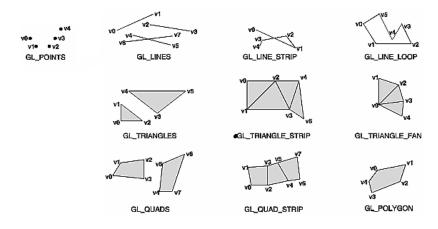
## Primitive assembly





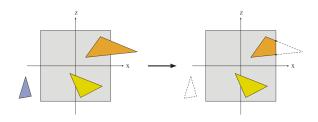
- ▶ The vertices placed in the normalized device CS are connected as primitives
- We distinguish three types of primitives: points, segments, and triangles
- Further variants based on the strategy for connecting vertices

#### **Primitives**



In modern OpenGL GL\_QUADS, GL\_QUAD\_STRIP, GL\_POLYGON are deprecated.

## Clipping



- Goal: don't work unnecessarily with elements that won't be pixels (they will not appear)
- ► To do this, we filter out those elements that will *definitely* not be displayed on the screen
- And we also clip those that are only partially on the screen (identify the pieces of it, that are completely inside the screen and cover these pieces with primitives)

## Clipping in homogeneous coordinates

- Now we only consider clipping a single point, in homogeneous coordinate system:
- ► Let:  $[x_h, y_h, z_h, h]^T = \mathbf{M}_{Proj} \cdot [x_c, y_c, z_c, 1]^T$
- ► Goal:

$$[x, y, z]^T := [x_h/h, y_h/h, z_h/h]^T \in [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1],$$
 i.e

Let h > 0, and

$$-1 \le x \le 1$$

$$-1 \le y \le 1$$

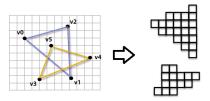
$$-1 \le z \le 1$$

$$-h \le x_h \le h$$

$$-h \le y_h \le h$$

$$-h \le z_h \le h$$

#### Rasterization

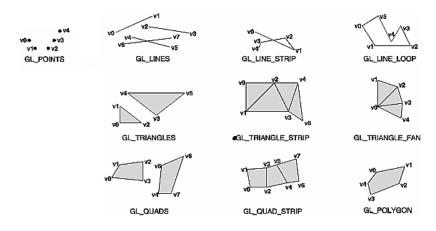


- Remember: so far, all the primitives we have talked about were continuous
- However, we have to work in a discrete space, on the pixels of the screen
- ▶ In other words, we have to discretize our continuous primitives
   − this is called rasterization

#### Rasterization – Why triangles?

- ▶ We need to choose geometric primitives that we can quickly rasterize
- What would be a good primitive? It would be good, e.g. if we could easily calculate from the surface coordinates of a pixel, its neighbouring pixels' coordinates, and if the primitive were in one plane...
- The triangle is like that!
- ► All other surfaces are approximated with such primitives (in essence: with flat faces). ← tessellation before using the pipeline

### Rasterization – primitives



In modern OpenGL GL\_QUADS, GL\_QUAD\_STRIP, GL\_POLYGON are deprecated.

#### Occlusion task

- Task: to decide what piece of the surface is visible in certain parts of the image.
- Object space algorithms:
  - We work with logical units, it does not depend on the screen resolution.
  - Bad news: it will generally not work.
- Screen space algorithms:
  - We decide what is visible pixel by pixel.
  - Just like with ray tracing.

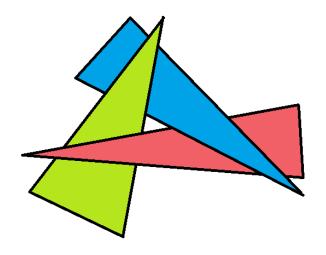
### Back-face culling

- Assumption: our objects are "closed", i.e. if we are not inside the object, we cannot see its surface from the inside.
- ▶ Traversal order: set the order in which the vertices of the polygons *must* be given:
  - clockwise ( CW )
  - counter clockwise ( CCW )
- If, after the transformations, the order of the vertices is not the same as specified, we see the face from the back ⇒ no need to draw it, discardable.

### Painter's algorithm

- We draw the polygons in order of back to front!
- What is closer, we will draw later ⇒ whatever is further away will be covered.
- Problem: how do we order the polygons?
- Even with few triangles, there are cases where it is not possible to give a clear order.

# Painter's algorithm



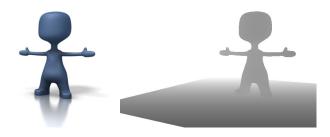
#### Z-buffer algorithm

- ► Screen space algorithm
- For each pixel, we store the corresponding depth value.
- ▶ If we were to draw on this pixel again (*Z-test*):
  - If the new Z value is "deeper", then the point is occluded ⇒ we don't draw
  - ▶ If the old Z value is "deeper", then the new point occludes it ⇒ we draw and store the new Z value.

#### **Z**-buffer

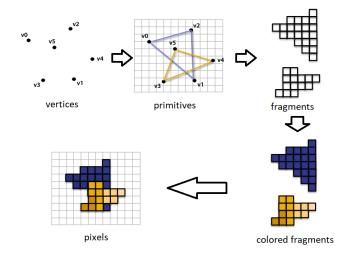
- Z-buffer or depth buffer: separate memory area.
- An array with the same size as the screen/window.
- Accuracy: depends on the distance between the near and far clipping plane.
- Each pixel has a depth value in the buffer.
- ▶ We need to compare with this and write here if the pixel passed the Z-test.
- In practice:
  - ▶ 16-32 bit element size
  - Hardware acceleration
  - ► E.g. near clipping plane: *t*, distant: 1000*t*, then 98% of the Z-buffer describes the first 2% of the range.

#### **Z**-buffer



by macouno, macouno.com

## GPU pipeline



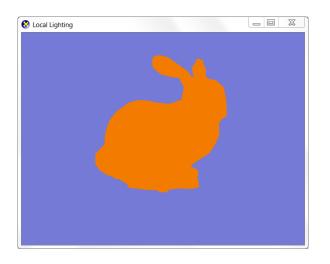
#### Local illumination

 Once we have the mappings of our primitives to pixels, let's somehow calculate colors

### Shading with a single color

- ► We assign a color to each object/primitive, and this will be the value of the pixels when drawn.
- ► Fastest: illumination is practically only one value assignment.
- ► Horrible: neither realistic nor asthetic.

## Shading with a single color



### Flat shading

- ► The lighting is calculated once per polygon, the color is homogeneous within the face.
- Fast: the number of operations depends on the number of polygons, independent of the number of pixels.
- It can be used: for diffuse, solid-colored objects without curved parts.

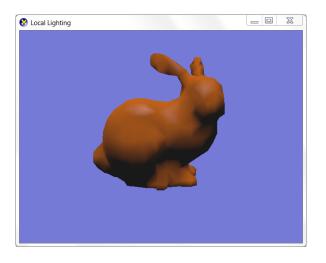
# Flat shading



#### Gouraud shading

- ► The lighting is calculated per vertex, and we get the colors by interpolating the values from the three vertex.
- ► Slower: *N* lighting calculations + interpolation for each pixel.
- Better: the quality of the shading largely depends on the number of polygons. But specular highlights cannot appear on large faces.
- ▶ It is well suited for the graphics pipeline: in addition to calculating the position of the vertices, we can also calculate the color, after which the resulting fragments will automatically receive the interpolated colors during rasterization.

## Gouraud shading



## Phong shading

- Only the normal vectors are interpolated, the illumination is calculated per pixel.
- Slowest: must be calculated at each pixel.
- Best of all: the quality of shading does not depend on the number of polygons. Specular highlights can even appear in the center of the polygon.
- It is well suited for graphics pipeline: during rasterization, the normal vectors are interpolated and the color is calculated separately for each fragment using the obtained normal vector.

## Phong shading

