

# CSC 433/533

## Computer Graphics

### Algebra and Ray Shooting

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Credit: Joshua Levine

## What is a Vector?

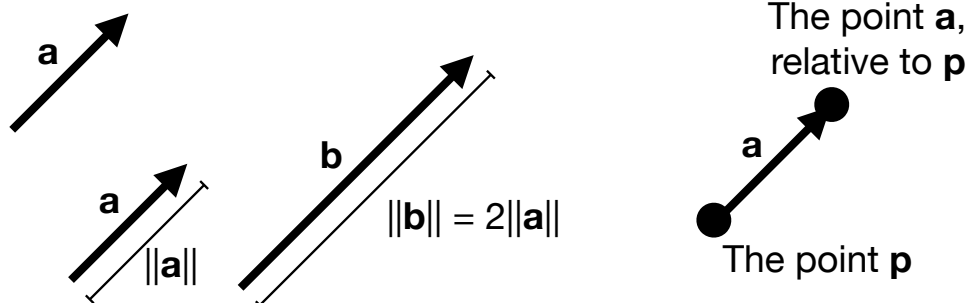
- A **vector** describes a length and a direction
- A vector is also a tuple of numbers
  - But, it often makes more sense to think in terms of the length/direction than the coordinates/numbers
  - And, especially in code, we want to manipulate vectors as objects and abstract the low-level operations
  - Compare with a **scalar**, or just a single number

# Properties

- Two vectors,  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , are the same (written  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$ ) if they have the same length and direction. (other notation:  $\vec{a}, \vec{a}$ )
- A vector's **length** is denoted with  $\| \cdot \|$ , (sometimes we just denote  $\cdot$ ). When  $\mathbf{a} = (x, y)$ , then  $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{a \cdot x^2 + a \cdot y^2}$ 
  - e.g. the length of  $\mathbf{a}$  is  $\|\mathbf{a}\|$
- A **unit vector** has length one
- The **zero vector** has length zero, and undefined direction

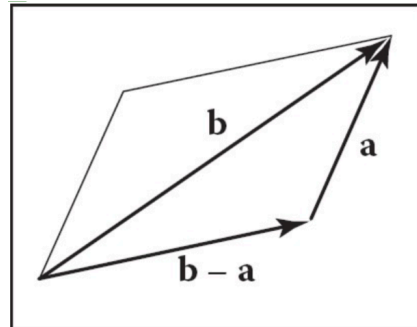
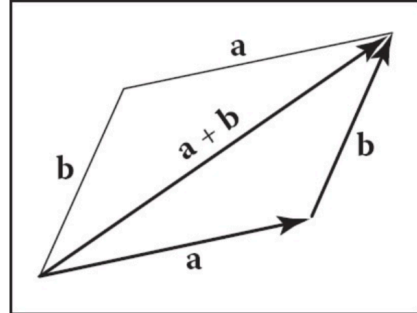
# Vectors in Pictures

- We often use an arrow to represent a vector
  - The length of the arrow indicates the length of the vector, the direction of the arrow indicates the direction of the vector.
- The position of the arrow is irrelevant!
  - However, we can use vectors to represent positions by describing displacements from a common point



# Vector Operations

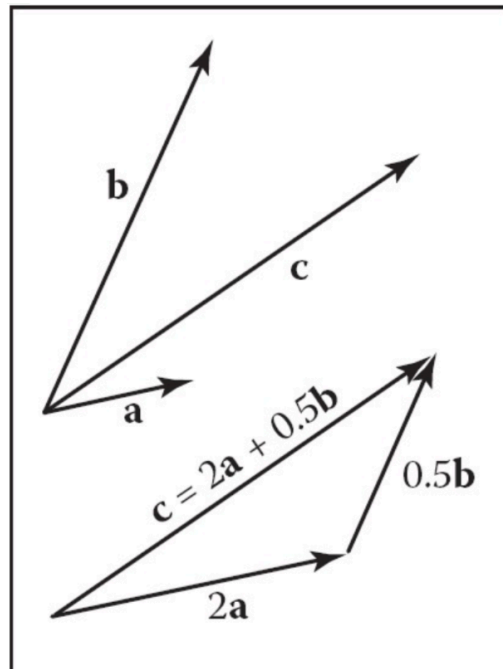
- Vectors can be added, e.g. for vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$ , there exists a vector  $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$   
 $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a.x + b.x, a.y + b.y)$
- Defined using the parallelogram rule: idea is to trace out the displacements and produced the combined effect
- Vectors can be negated (flip tail and head), and thus can be subtracted
- Vectors can be multiplied by a scalar, which scales the length but not the direction  
 $\beta \mathbf{a} = (\beta a.x, \beta a.y)$



# Vectors Decomposition

- By linear independence, any 2D vector can be written as a combination of any two nonzero, nonparallel vectors
- Such a pair of vectors is called a **2D basis**

$$\mathbf{c} = a_c \mathbf{a} + b_c \mathbf{b}$$



# Canonical (Cartesian) Basis

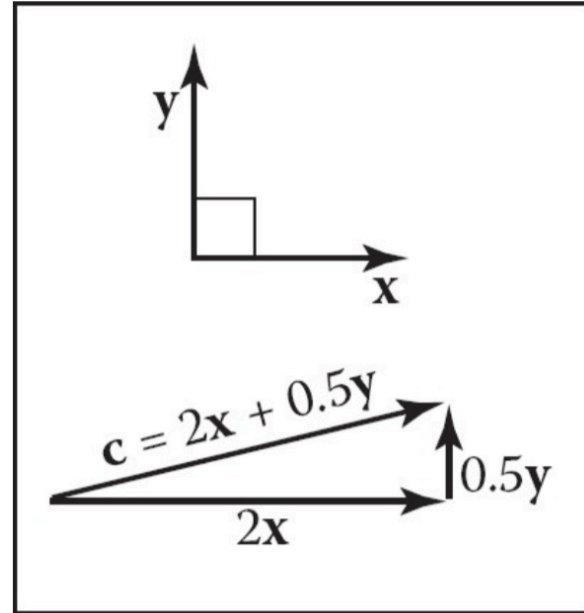
- Often, we pick two perpendicular vectors,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , to define a common **basis**

- Notationally the same,

$$\mathbf{a} = x_a \mathbf{x} + y_a \mathbf{y}$$

- But we often don't bother to mention the basis vectors, and write the vector as  $\mathbf{a} = (x_a, y_a)$ , or

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} x_a \\ y_a \end{bmatrix}$$



# Vector Multiplication: Dot Products

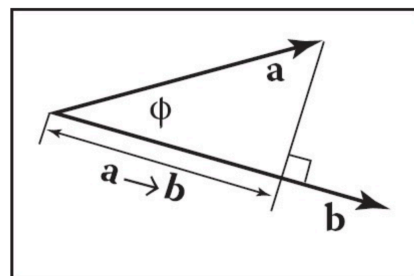
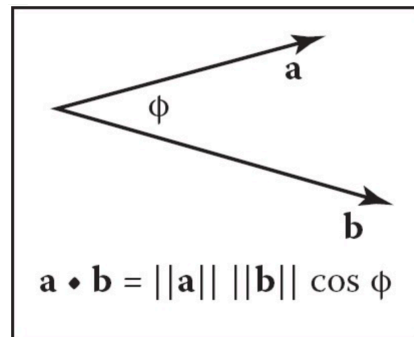
- Given two vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , the **dot product**, relates the lengths of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  with the angle  $\phi$  between them:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (a \cdot x \cdot b \cdot x + a \cdot y \cdot b \cdot y)$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos \phi$$

- Sometimes called the scalar product, as it produces a scalar value
- Also can be used to produce the **projection**,  $\mathbf{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{b}$ , of  $\mathbf{a}$  onto  $\mathbf{b}$

$$\mathbf{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \cos \phi = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$$



# Dot Products are Associative and Distributive

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a},$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c},$$

$$(k\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \cdot (k\mathbf{b}) = k\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

- And, we can also define them directly if  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are expressed in Cartesian coordinates:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = x_a x_b + y_a y_b$$

## 3D Vectors

- Same idea as 2D, except these vectors are defined typically with a basis of three vectors
  - Still just a direction and a magnitude
  - But, useful for describing objects in three-dimensional space
- Most operations exactly the same, e.g. dot products:

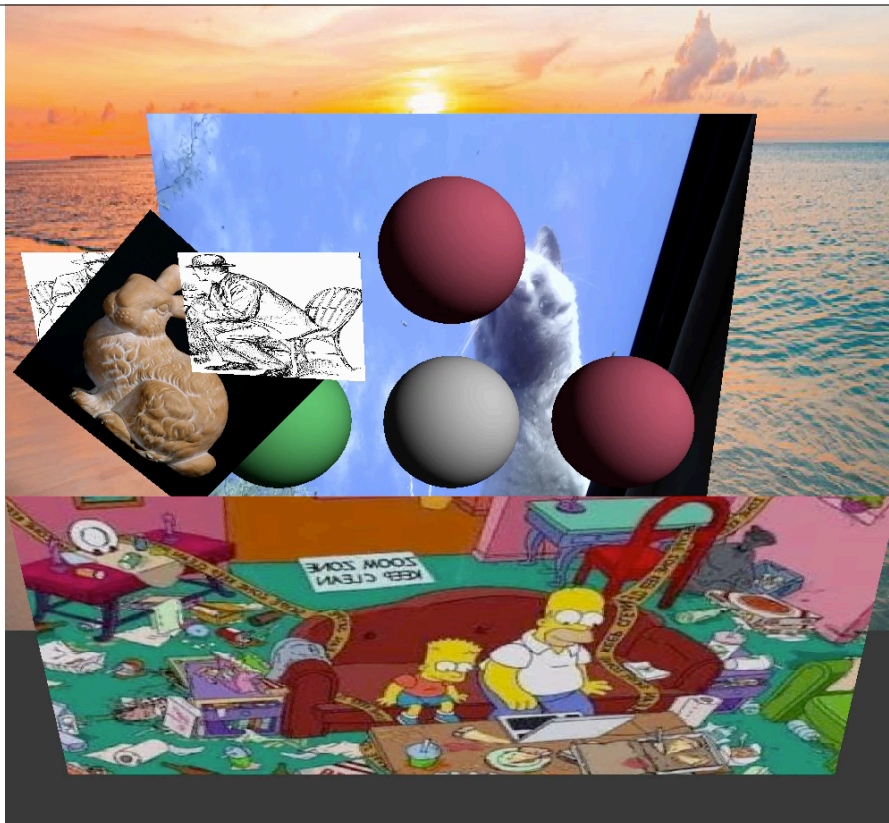
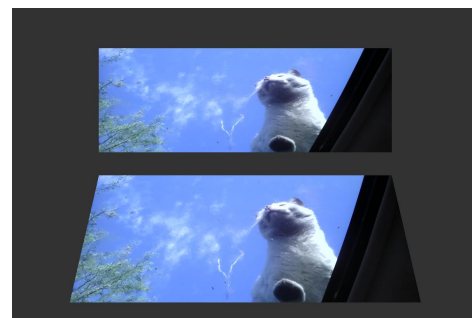
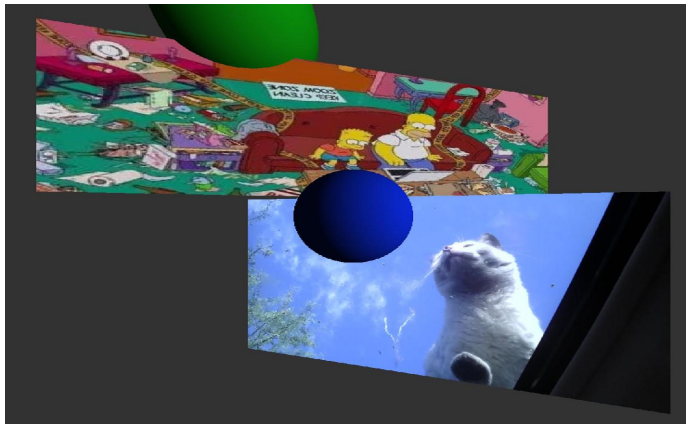
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = x_a x_b + y_a y_b + z_a z_b$$

# Assignment 3. Balls and Billboards

Input: JSON file describing locations of billboards and spheres.

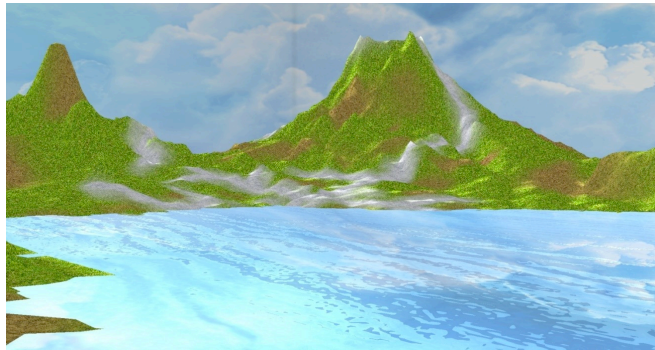
Images placed on the billboards.

Output: scene showing what a viewer could see, and  
A video showing camera movement



## Billboards are extremely important for interactive computer graphics

- They could use as texture
- They could use as “imposer” of a very detailed huge geometric scene (e.g. the mountains at the background)
- The user could move (slightly) and not notice that the background mountains don't move properly. Very small errors.



## Each tree is its own billboard



- But if we render a tree on a billboard, why are the billboard not occluding each other ?
- We store at the data base a set of 2D images. Each shows the tree from a different directions.
- If the camera moves slightly, Small errors are not noticeable. Sometimes we need to switch with image with another

# Cross Products

• In 3D, another way to “multiply” two vectors is the **cross product**,  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ :

- $\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\| = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \sin \phi$

•  $\|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\|$  is always the area of the parallelogram formed by  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  is always in the direction perpendicular (two possible answers).

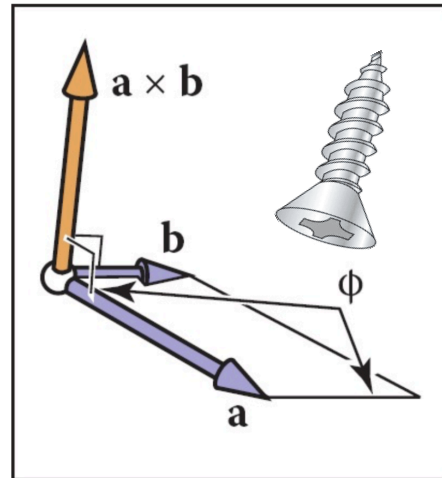
• A screw turned from  $\mathbf{a}$  to  $\mathbf{b}$  will progress in the direction  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$

• Cross products distribute, but order matters:

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times (k\mathbf{b}) = k(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \quad \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a})$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \left( \underbrace{y_a z_b - z_a y_b}_{\mathbf{x} \text{ component}}, \quad \underbrace{z_a x_b - x_a z_b}_{\mathbf{y} \text{ component}}, \quad \underbrace{x_a y_b - y_a x_b}_{\mathbf{z} \text{ component}} \right)$$



# Cross Products

• Since the cross product is always orthogonal to the pair of vectors, we can define our 3D Cartesian coordinate space with it:

• In practice though (and the book derives this), we use the following to compute cross products:

$$\mathbf{x} = (1,0,0)$$

$$\mathbf{y} = (0,1,0)$$

$$\mathbf{z} = (0,0,1)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{y} = +\mathbf{z},$$

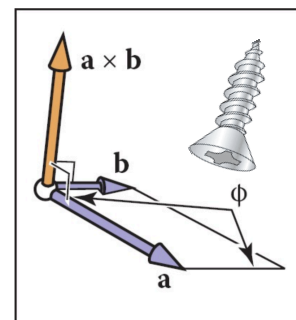
$$\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{z},$$

$$\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{z} = +\mathbf{x},$$

$$\mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{y} = -\mathbf{x},$$

$$\mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{x} = +\mathbf{y},$$

$$\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{z} = -\mathbf{y}.$$



$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -(\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a})$$



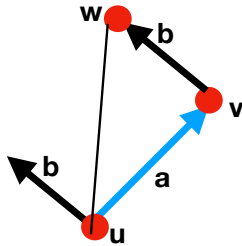
# Checking orientation

Assume  $a, b$  are in 2D ( $z=0$ ). There are 3 possible scenarios.

$a$  might be counter-clockwise (ccw) of  $b$

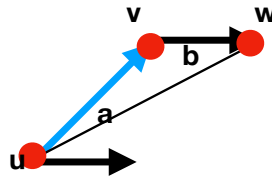
$a$  might be clockwise (cw) of  $b$

$a$  is collinear with  $b$



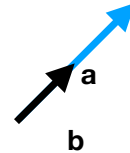
$$x_a y_b - y_a x_b > 0$$

$a$  is counter-clockwise (ccw) of  $b$



$$x_a y_b - y_a x_b < 0$$

$a$  is clockwise (cw) of  $b$

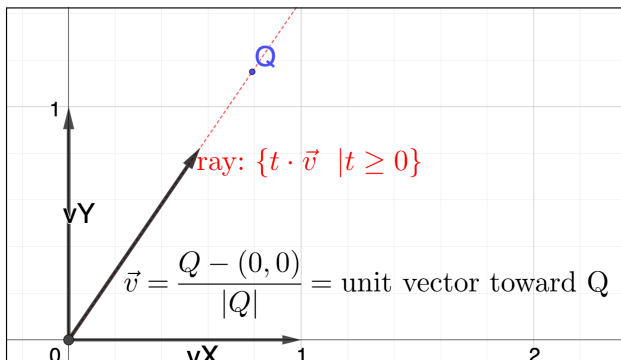


$$x_a y_b - y_a x_b = 0$$

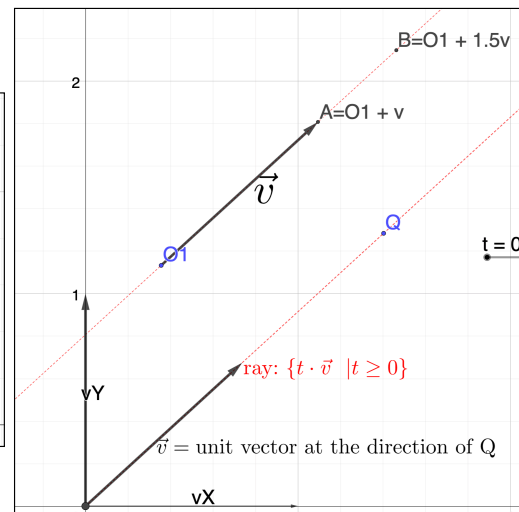
$a, b$  collinear

This will provide a convenient way to check if a triangle with vertices  $u, v, w$  (when vertices are given to us in this order) is CCW or CW

# Rays, lines, Orthogonal Projections

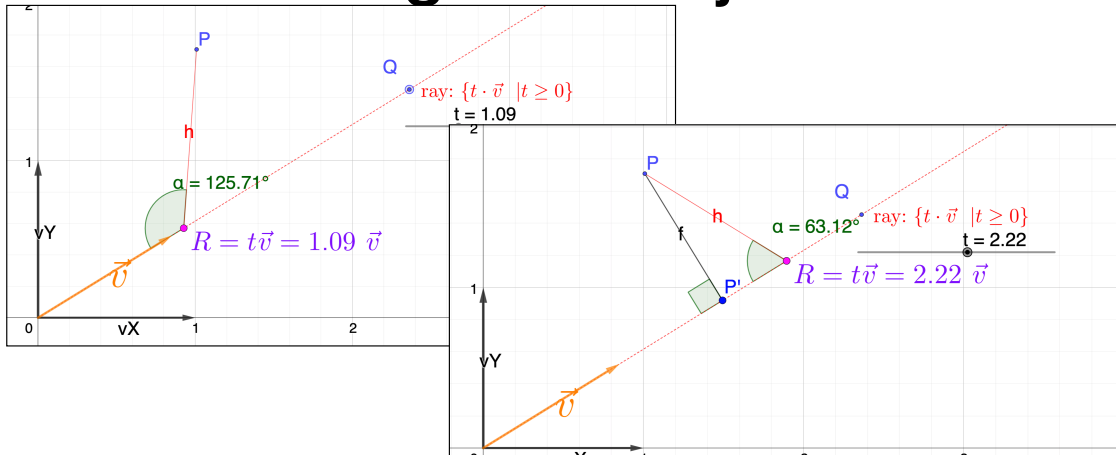


The ray  $\{t \cdot \vec{v} \mid t \geq 0\}$   
 The line that  $\vec{v}$  defines is  
 $\ell = \{t \cdot \vec{v} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$   
 (that is,  $t$  is any real value)



The ray  $\{O1 + t \cdot \vec{v} \mid t \geq 0\}$   
 This is the same ray, shifted by  $O1$   
 That is, the ray emerges from  $O1$

# Orthogonal Projections



- Let  $P$  be a point not on the ray
- Need to find: The point  $P'$  which is the orthogonal projection of  $P$  on  $\ell = \{t\vec{v} \mid t \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- $P'$  is the closest point on  $\ell$  to  $P$
- Assume  $t$  start at zero, and slowly increases. Let  $R = t \cdot \vec{v}$ . Monitor the angle  $\angle(O, R, P')$ . At some time  $t_0$ , this angle is 0, and  $R$  and  $P'$  coincide, and  $\angle(O, R, P') = 0$ . This means:

$$\begin{aligned} (t_0 \cdot \vec{v}) &\perp (P - t_0 \vec{v}) \Rightarrow \\ (t_0 \cdot \vec{v}) \cdot (P - t_0 \vec{v}) &= 0 \\ t_0 v \cdot P &= t_0^2 (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}) \\ \Leftrightarrow t_0 &= P \cdot \vec{v} \\ \Rightarrow P' &= (P \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v} \end{aligned}$$

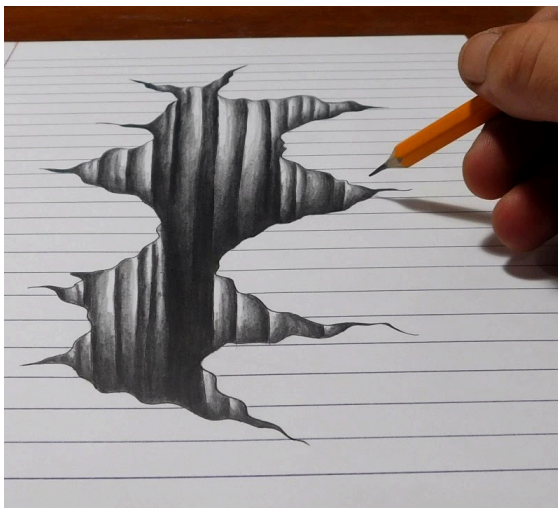
# Rendering

# What is Rendering?

*“**Rendering** is the task of taking three-dimensional objects and producing a 2D image that shows the objects as viewed from a particular viewpoint”*

## Two Ways to Think About How We Make Images

- Drawing



- Photography



# Two Ways to Think About Rendering

- Object-Ordered
- Image-Ordered
- Decide, for every object in the scene, its contribution to the image
- Decide, for every pixel in the image, its contribution from every object

# Two Ways to Think About Rendering

- Object-Ordered or **Rasterization**

```
for each object {  
  for each image pixel {  
    if (object affects pixel)  
    {  
      do something  
    }  
  }  
}
```

- Image-Ordered or **Ray Tracing**

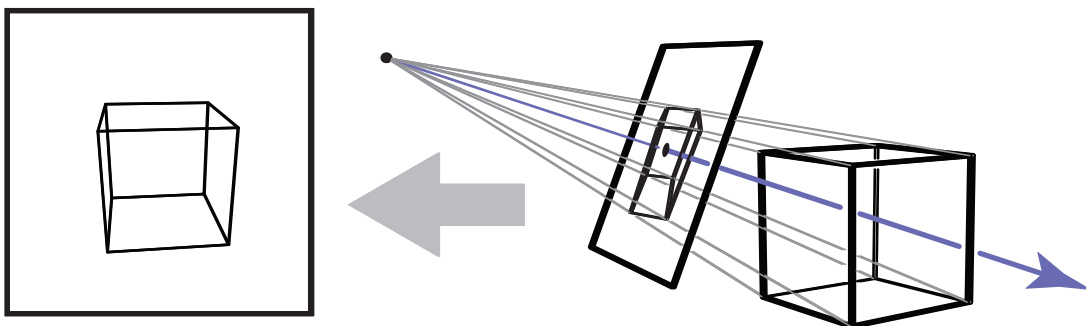
```
for each image pixel {  
  for each object {  
    if (object affects pixel)  
    {  
      do something  
    }  
  }  
}
```

**TODAY**

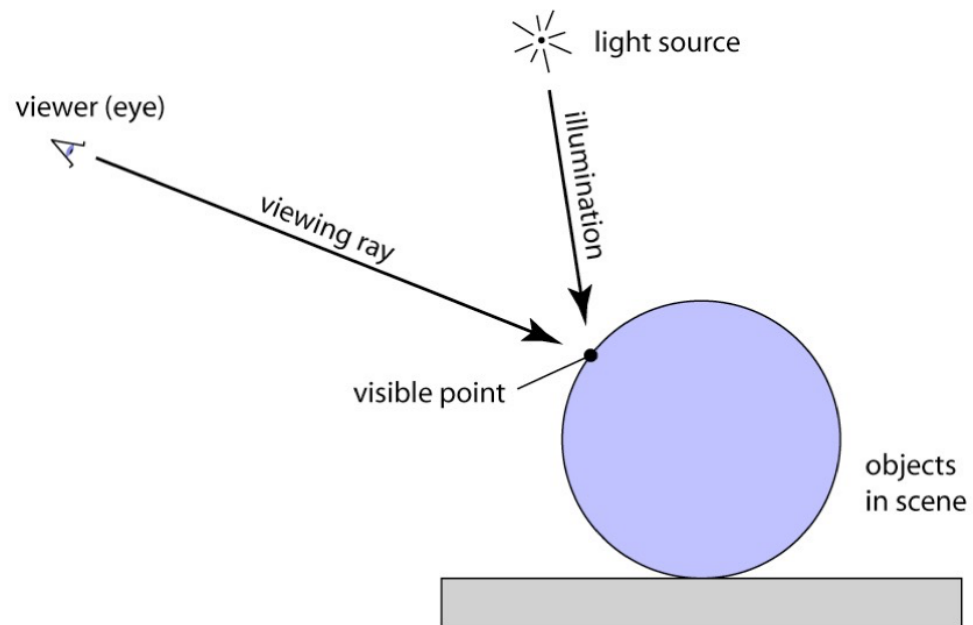
# Basics of Ray Tracing

## Idea of Ray Tracing

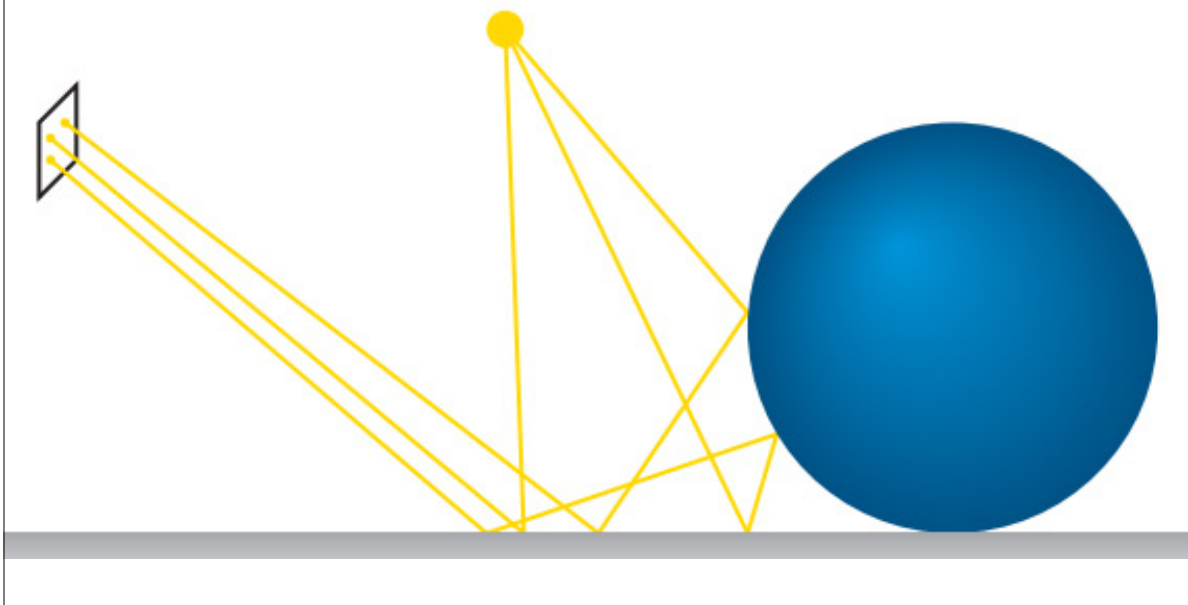
- Ask first, for each pixel: what belongs at that pixel?
- Answer: The set of objects that are visible if we were standing on one side of the image looking into the scene



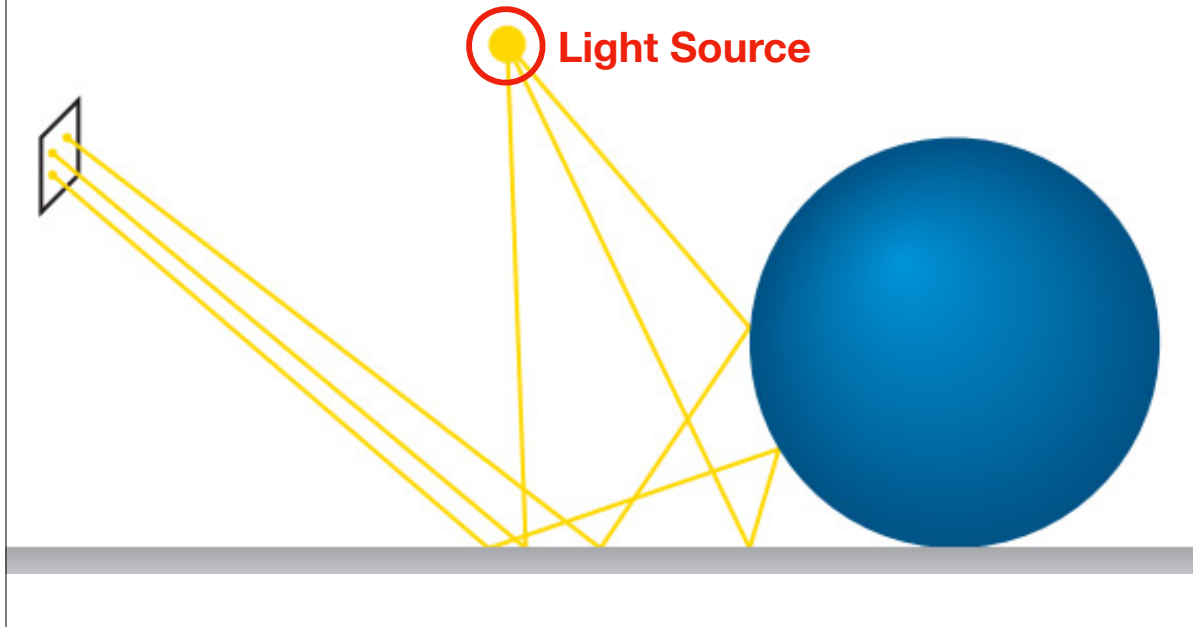
# Key Concepts, in Diagram



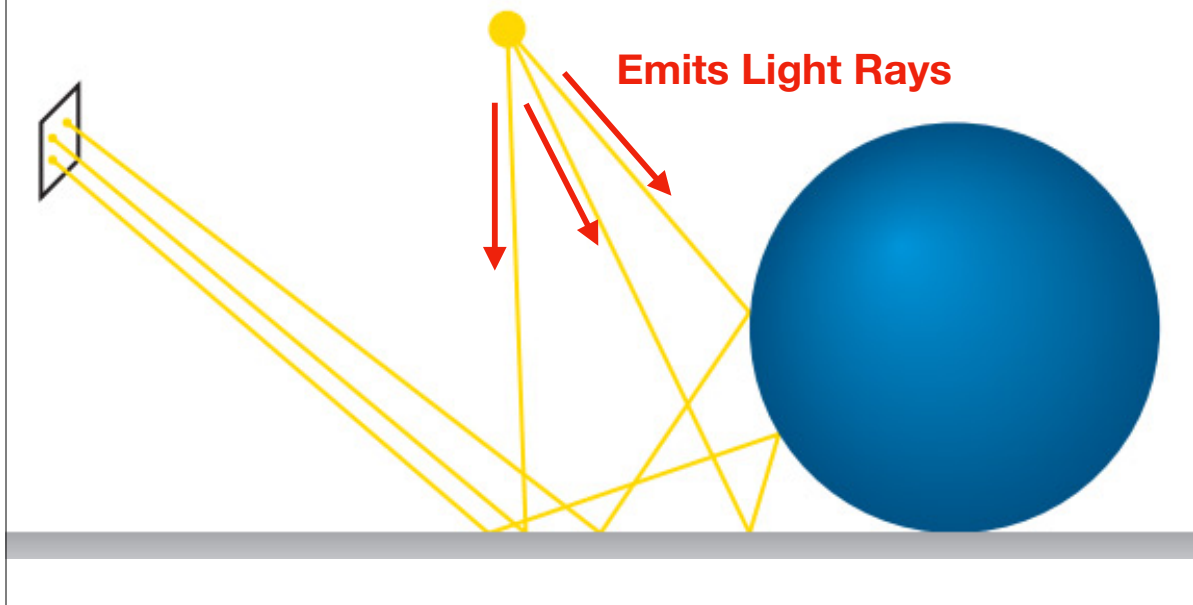
# Idea: Using Paths of Light to Model Visibility



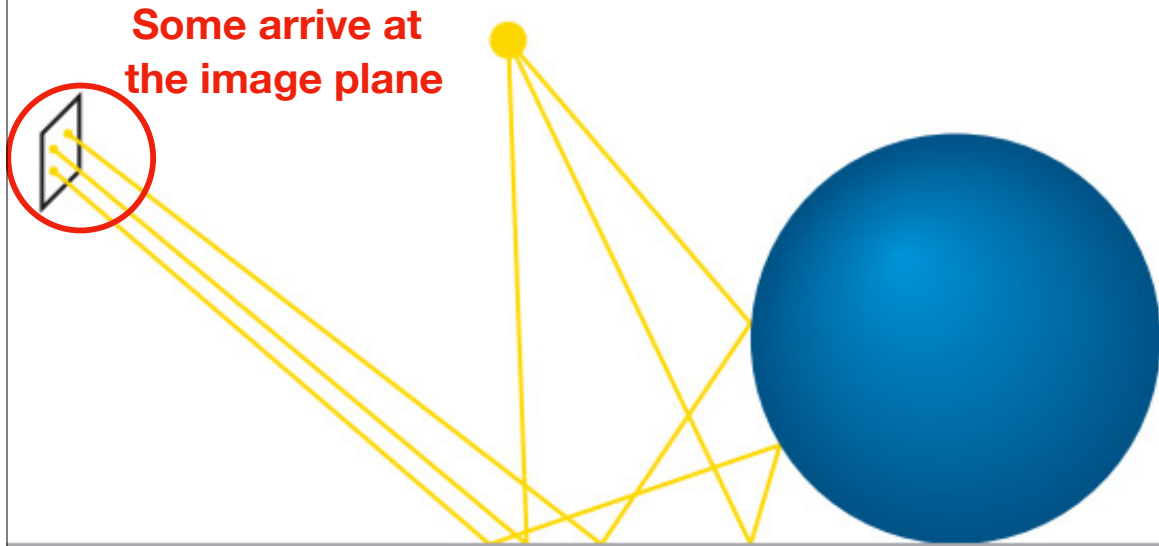
# Using Paths of Light to Model Visibility



# Using Paths of Light to Model Visibility



# Using Paths of Light to Model Visibility



<https://software.intel.com/file/37491>

# Using Paths of Light to Model Visibility

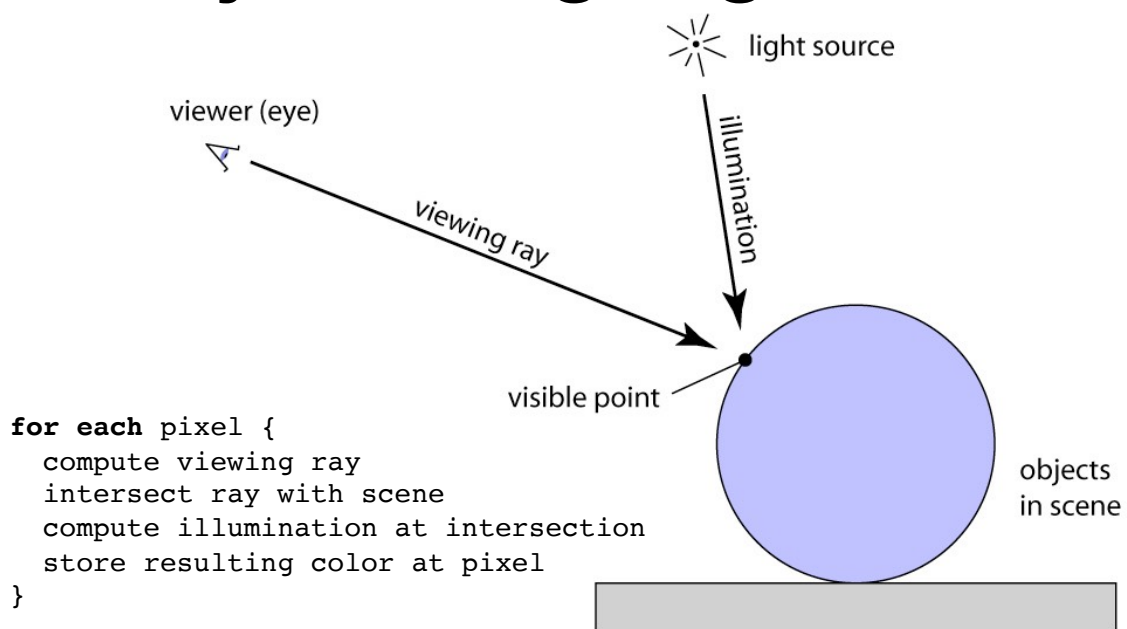




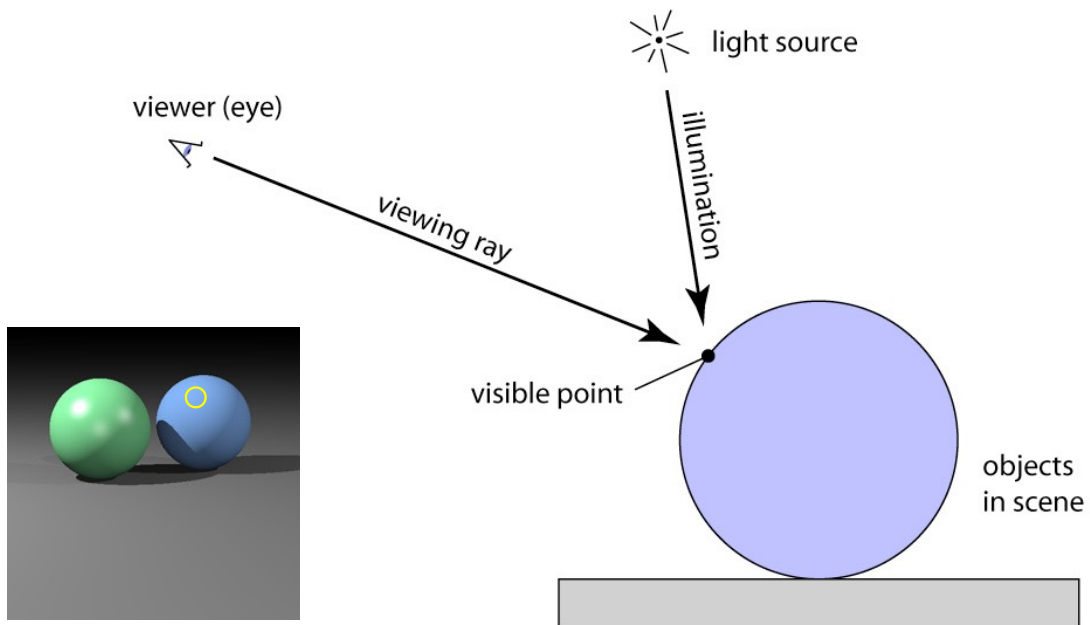
# Forwarding vs Backward Tracing

- Idea: Trace rays from light source to image
  - This is slow!
- Better idea: Trace rays from image to light source

## Ray Tracing Algorithm



# Ray Tracing Algorithm



## Cameras and Perspective

```
If illumination is uniform and directional-free (ambient light):  
for each pixel {  
  compute viewing ray  
  intersect ray with scene  
  copy the color of the object at this point to this pixel.  
}
```

Commonly, we need slightly more involved

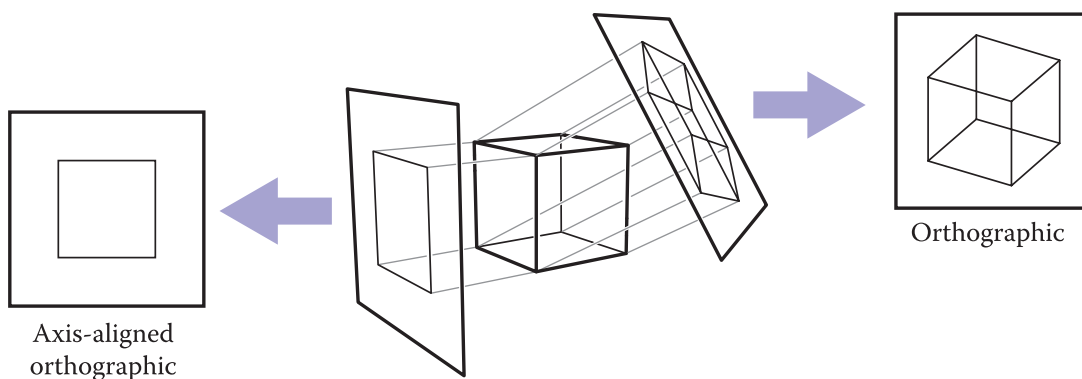
```
for each pixel {  
  compute viewing ray  
  intersect ray with scene  
  compute illumination at intersection  
  store resulting color at pixel  
}
```

# Linear Perspective

- Standard approach is to project objects to an image plane so that straight lines in the scene stay straight lines on the image
- Two approaches:
  - Parallel projection: Results in **orthographic** views
  - Perspective projection: Results in **perspective** views

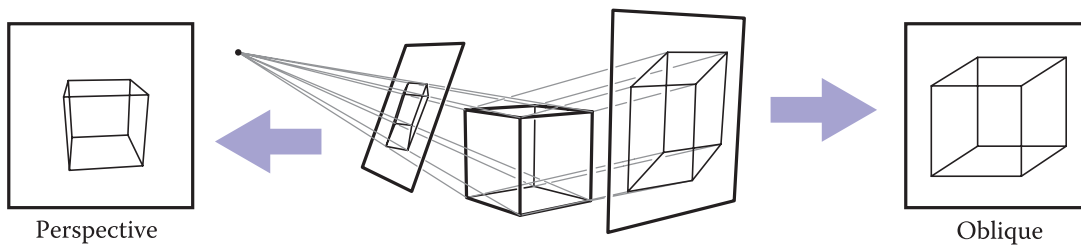
# Orthographic Views

- Points in 3D are moved along parallel lines to the image plane.
- Resulting view determined solely by choice of projection direction and orientation/position of image plane



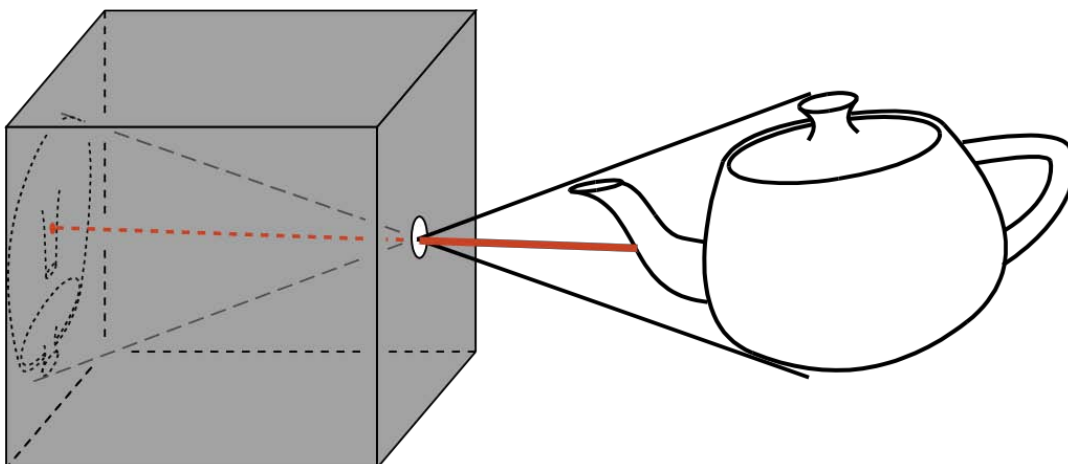
# Perspective Views

- But, objects that are further away should look smaller!
- Instead, we can project objects through a single viewpoint and record where they hit the plane.
- Lines which are paper in 3D might be non-parallel in the view



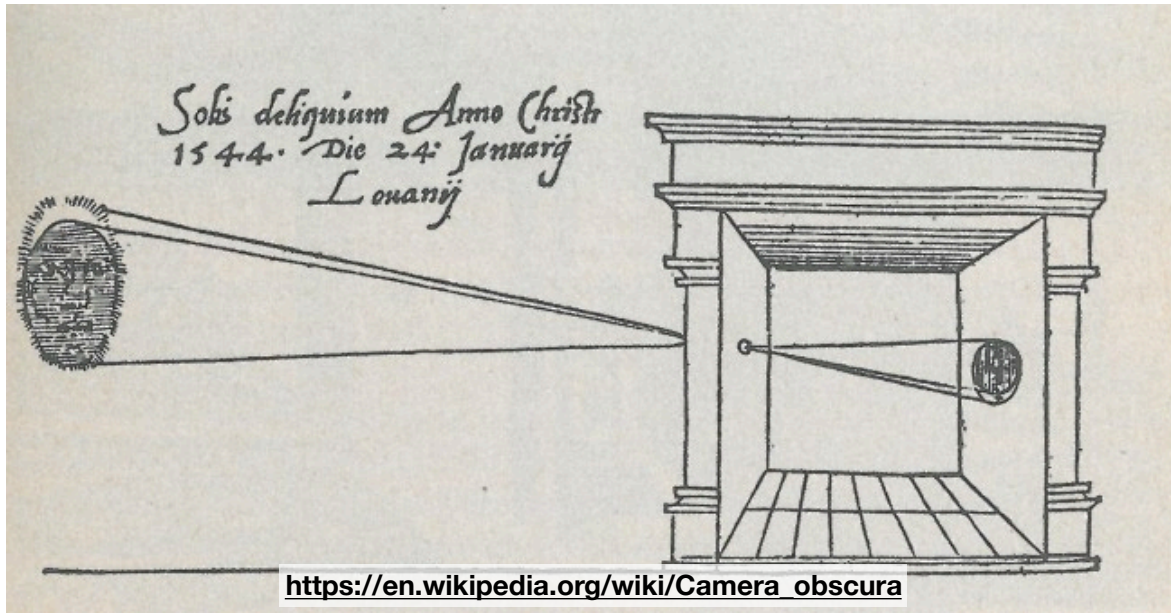
# Pinhole Cameras

- Idea: Consider a box with a tiny hole. All light that passes through this hole will hit the opposite side
- Produced image inverts



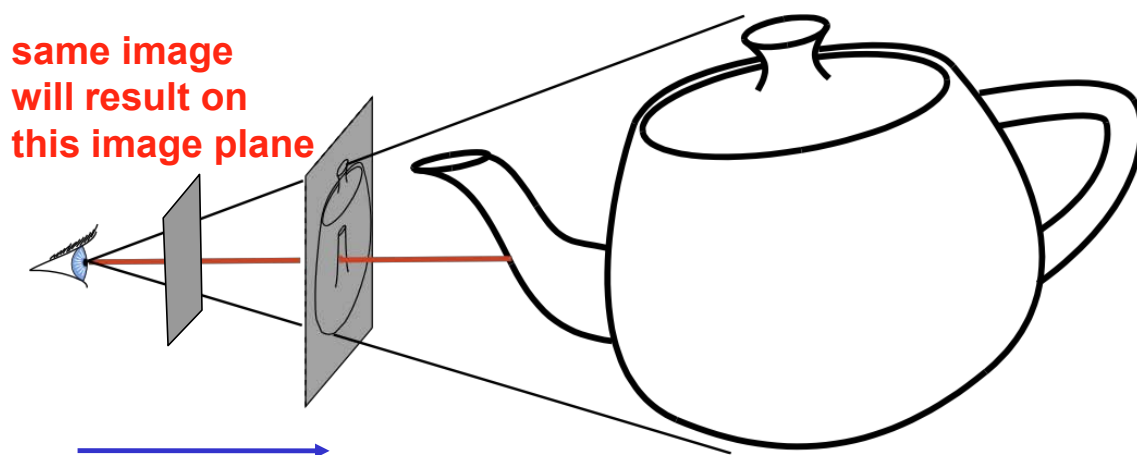
# Camera Obscura

- Gemma Frisius, 16th century



## Simplified Pinhole Cameras

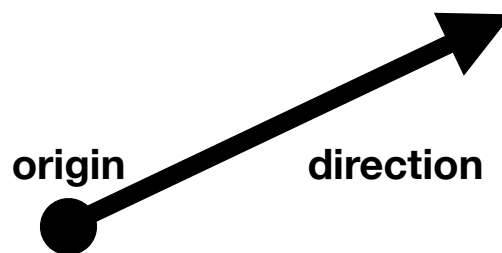
- Instead, we can place the eye at the pinhole and consider the eye-image pyramid (sometimes called **view frustum**)



# Defining Rays

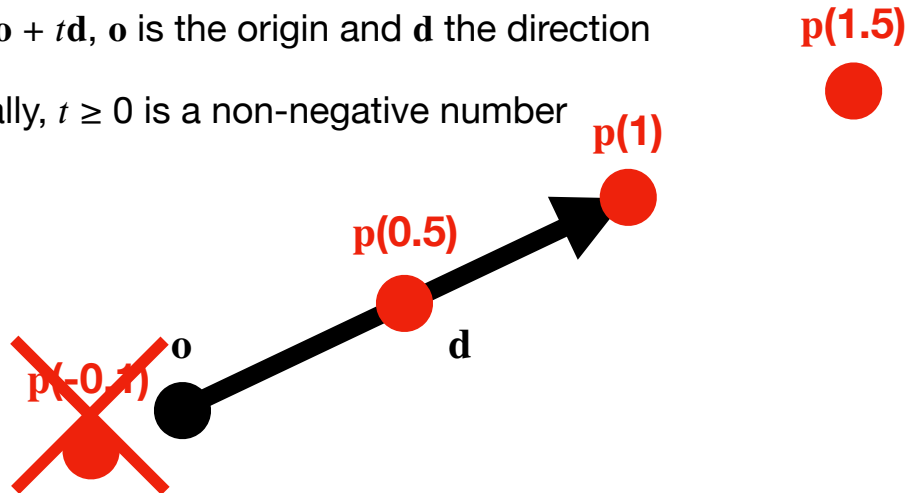
## Mathematical Description of a Ray

- Two components:
  - An **origin**, or a position that the ray starts from
  - A **direction**, or a vector pointing in the direction the ray travels
    - Not necessarily unit length, but it's sometimes helpful to think of these as normalized



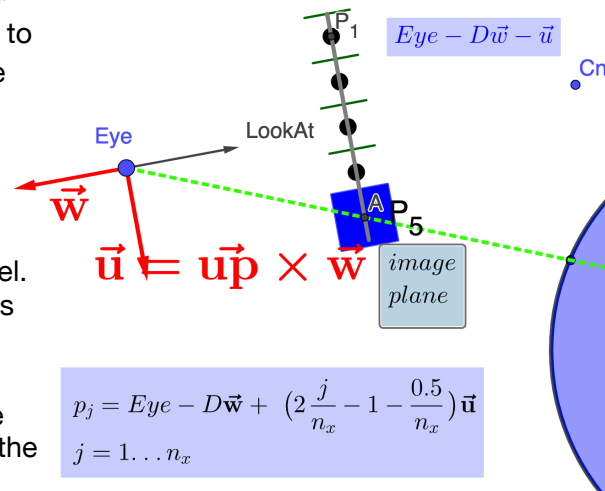
# Mathematical Description of a Ray

- Rays define a family of points,  $\mathbf{p}(t)$ , using a **parametric** definition
- $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$ ,  $\mathbf{o}$  is the origin and  $\mathbf{d}$  the direction
- Typically,  $t \geq 0$  is a non-negative number



# The Plan (high level)

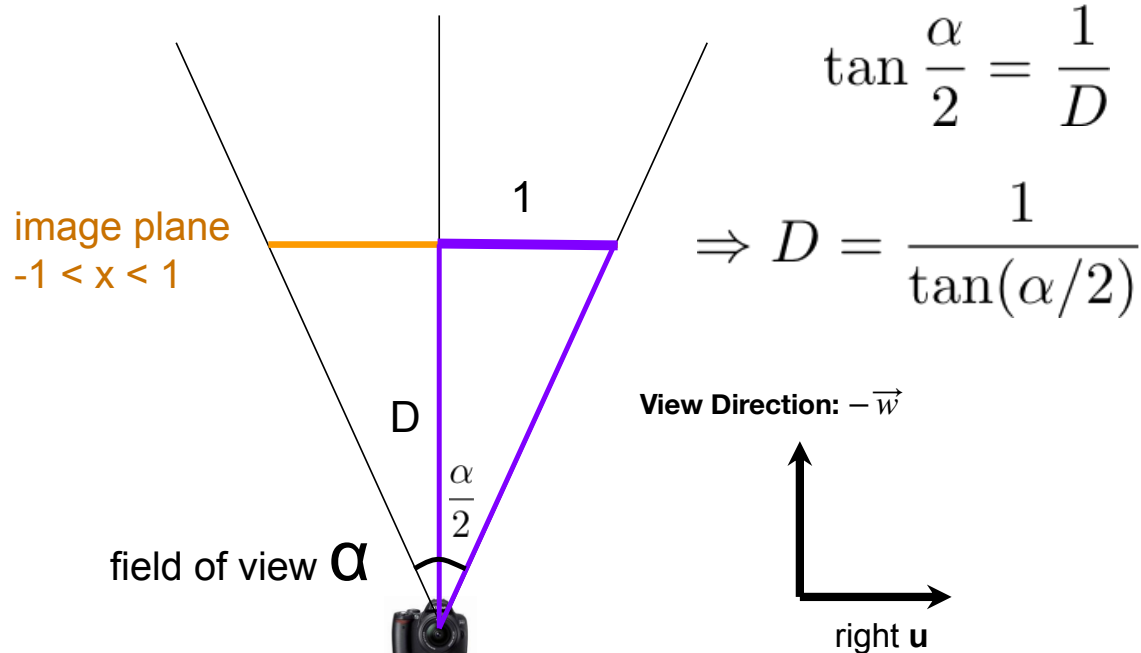
- Given camera parameters (details later), and  $n_x, n_y$ , the number of pixels in a row, and in column, of the rendered image, we need to generate  $n_x \times n_y$  rays, emerging from the camera.
- To create the rays, we will need a set of witness points  $p_{i,j}$  All in the image plane. Each witness point is in a center of a pixel. Shoot a ray from the EYE to each witness point.
- For each ray, find what is the color of the first object it hits, and copy this color to the corresponding pixel.



$$p_j = Eye - D\vec{w} + \left(2 \frac{j}{n_x} - 1 - \frac{0.5}{n_x}\right) \vec{u}$$

$$j = 1 \dots n_x$$

# Ray Generation in 2D



# Camera Components

- Definition of an image plane
  - Both in terms of pixel resolution AND position in 3D space or more frequently in **field of view** and/or **distance**
- Viewpoint
- View direction LookAt (in hw3, you are given a center that you are looking at. It is a point in the scene)
- Up vector (note that is not necessarily the “up” of the geometric scene)



# Building coordinates system

- $\overrightarrow{LookAt} = \frac{\overrightarrow{Center} - \overrightarrow{Eye}}{\|\overrightarrow{Center} - \overrightarrow{Eye}\|}$
- $\overrightarrow{w} = -\overrightarrow{LookAt}$  - it is a unit vector pointing backward (toward the viewer)
- $\overrightarrow{u} = \overrightarrow{Up} \times \overrightarrow{w}$ . Vector point right from the eye. Make sure to normalized
- $\overrightarrow{v} = \overrightarrow{w} \times \overrightarrow{u}$
- The segment  $(\overrightarrow{Eye}, \overrightarrow{Center})$  is orthogonal to the image plane, and pass via the middle of the image plane

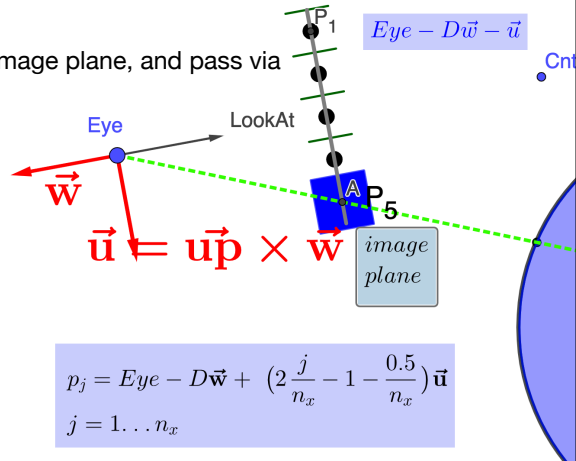
Where is the point  $\overrightarrow{Eye} - D\overrightarrow{w}$  ?

Witness points (first in 2D):

$$p_j = \overrightarrow{Eye} - D\overrightarrow{w} + \left(2\frac{j}{n_x} - 1 - \frac{0.5}{n_x}\right)\overrightarrow{u}$$

$$j = 1, 2, \dots, \#columns$$

Ray r:  $r = \overrightarrow{Eye} + t(p_i - \overrightarrow{Eye})$



# Now in 3D

Assume first  $n_x = n_y$  (#columns=#rows)

Witness points (first in 2D):

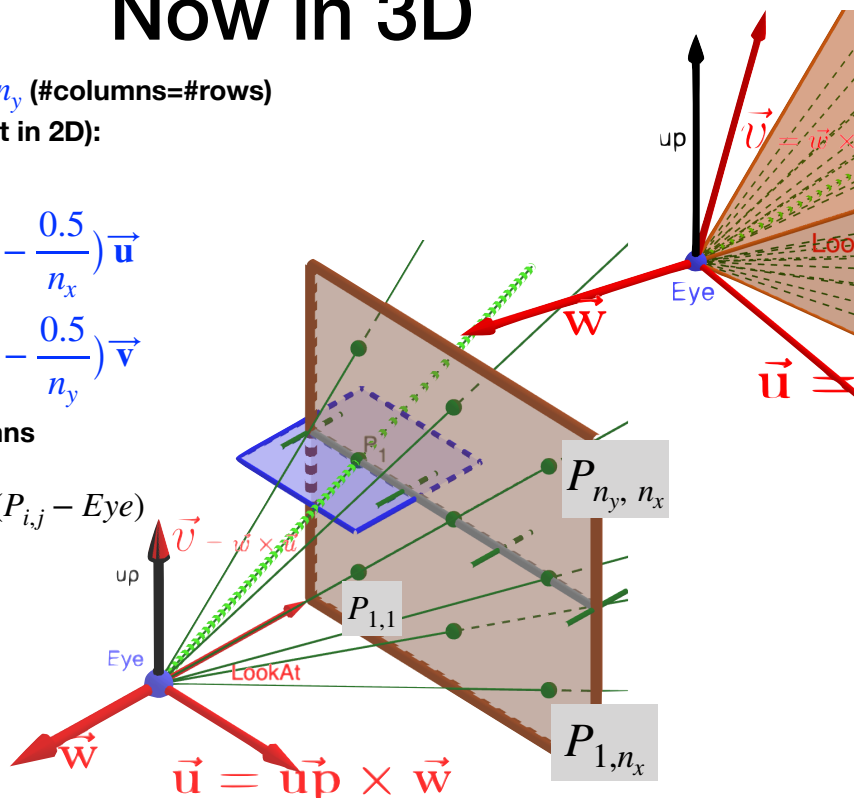
$$P_{i,j} = \overrightarrow{Eye} - D\overrightarrow{w}$$

$$+ \left(2\frac{j}{n_x} - 1 - \frac{0.5}{n_x}\right)\overrightarrow{u}$$

$$+ \left(2\frac{i}{n_y} - 1 - \frac{0.5}{n_y}\right)\overrightarrow{v}$$

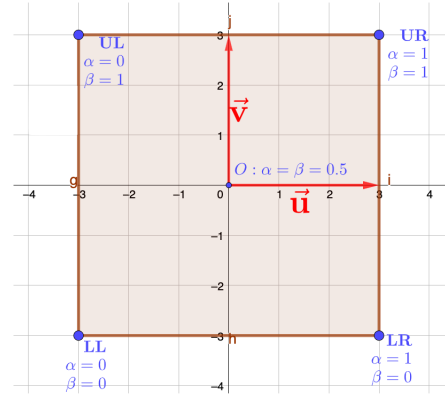
$$i, j = 1, 2, \dots, \#columns$$

Ray r:  $r = \overrightarrow{Eye} + t(P_{i,j} - \overrightarrow{Eye})$



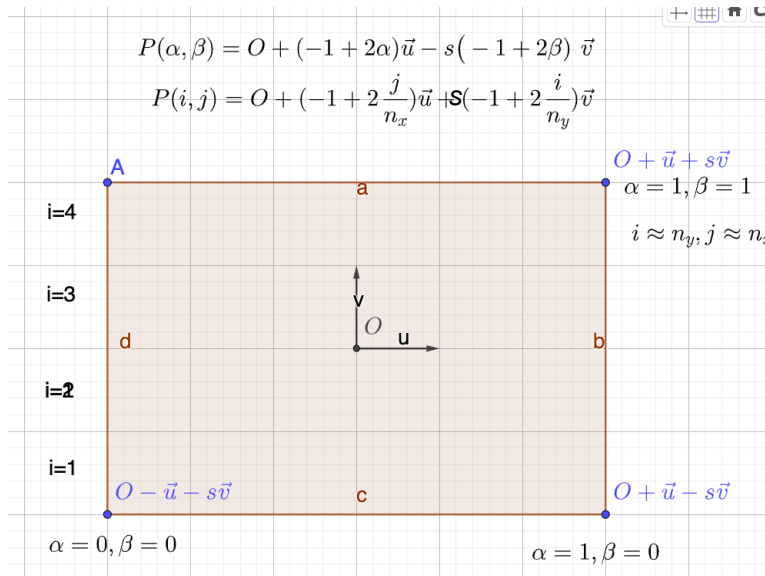
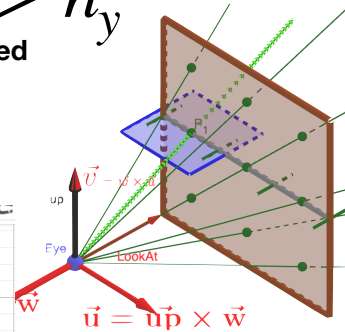
# Here is systematic way to develop these formulas (you will have multiple opportunities in this course to use similar tricks

- Canonical representation:
- Each point in the image could be represented by coordinates  $(\alpha, \beta)$ . The lower left (LL) is  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , That is  $LL = O - \vec{u} = \vec{v}$
- And the lower right (LR) is  $\alpha = 1, \beta = 0$ .
- By linear interpolation  $P(\alpha, \beta) = O + (2\alpha - 1)\vec{u} + (2\beta - 1)\vec{v}$
- Observe that  $|\vec{u}| = |\vec{v}| = 1$ , and the size of a pixel is  $\frac{2}{n_x} \times \frac{2}{n_y}$
- At this point, we remember that the image consists of  $n_x \times n_y$  pixels. Referring to the LL corner of each pixel, we could transform the canonical representation to image representation by setting  $\alpha = j/n_x, \beta = i/n_y$ . Substitute, we obtain
- $P(i, j) = O + (\frac{2j}{n_x} - 1)\vec{u} + (\frac{2i}{n_y} - 1)\vec{v}$
- Finally, if you index the image  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ , then subtract half a pixel.
- Finally, if you index the image  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ , then subtract half a pixel.  $P(i, j) = Eye - D\vec{w} + (\frac{2j-1}{n_x} - 1)\vec{u} + (\frac{2i-1}{n_y} - 1)\vec{v}$
- If you index  $p_0, p_2, \dots, p_{n-1}$ , then add a half a pixel  $P(i, j) = Eye - D\vec{w} + (\frac{2j+1}{n_x} - 1)\vec{u} + (\frac{2i+1}{n_y} - 1)\vec{v}$



## Now in 3D - the case $n_x > n_y$

Assume that each pixel is still a square. So the generated image, width > height. Let  $s = n_y/n_x$



# Intersecting Objects

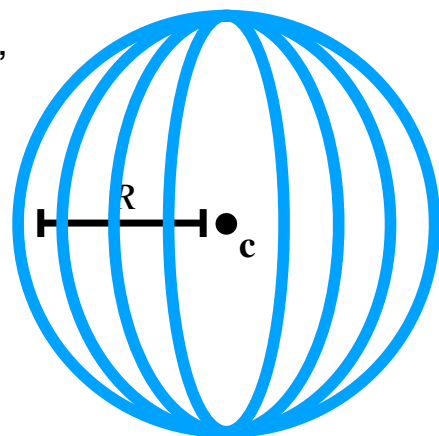
```
for each pixel {  
  compute viewing ray  
  intersect ray with scene  
  compute illumination at intersection  
  store resulting color at pixel  
}
```

## Defining a Sphere

- We can define a sphere of radius  $R$ , centered at position  $c$ , using the implicit form

$$f(\mathbf{p}) = (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2 = 0$$

- Any point  $\mathbf{p}$  that satisfies the above lives on the sphere



# Ray-Sphere Intersection

- Two conditions must be satisfied:
  - Must be on a ray:  $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$
  - Must be on a sphere:  $f(\mathbf{p}) = (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2 = 0$
- Can substitute the equations and solve for  $t$  in  $f(\mathbf{p}(t))$ :

$$(\mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2 = 0$$

- Solving for  $t$  is a quadratic equation

# Ray-Sphere Intersection

- Solve  $(\mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2 = 0$  for  $t$ :
- Rearrange terms:

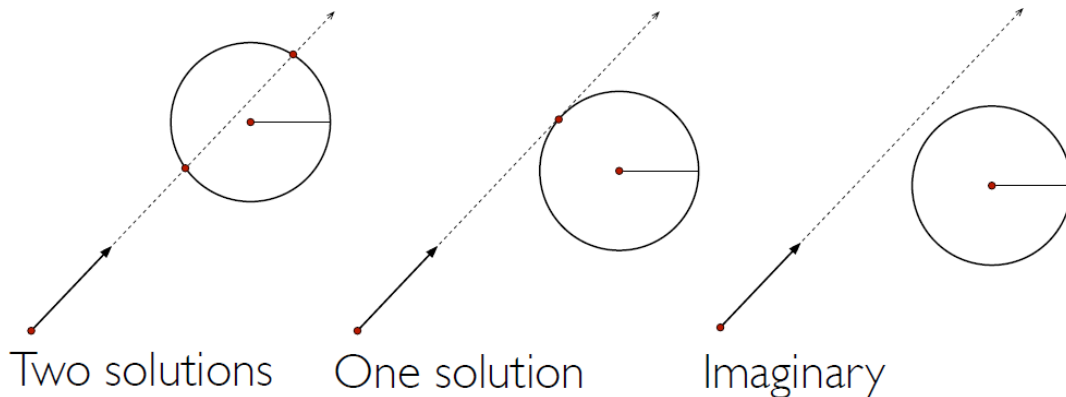
$$(\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{d})t^2 + (2\mathbf{d} \cdot (\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c}))t + (\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2 = 0$$

- Solve the quadratic equation  $At^2 + Bt + C = 0$  where
  - $A = (\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{d})$
  - $B = 2\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c})$
  - $C = (\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c}) \cdot (\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{c}) - R^2$

<p><b>Discriminant, <math>\Delta = B^2 - 4AC</math></b> <b>Solutions must satisfy:</b> <math>t = (-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC})/2A</math></p>
--

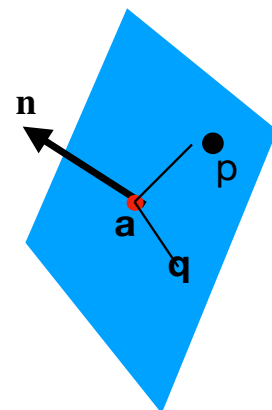
# Ray-Sphere Intersection

- Number of intersections dictated by the discriminant
- In the case of two solutions, prefer the one with lower  $t$



# Defining a Plane

- Let  $h$  be a plane with normal  $\mathbf{n}$ , and containing a point  $\mathbf{a}$ . Let  $\mathbf{p}$  be some other point. Then  $\mathbf{p}$  is on this plane if and only if (iff)  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{n}$
- Proof. Consider the segment  $\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{a}$ .  $\mathbf{p}$  is on the plane iff  $\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{a}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{n}$ . Using the property of dot product  $(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = |\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{n}| \cos \alpha$
- Here  $\alpha$  is the angle between them. Now  $\cos(90)=0$ . So if  $\mathbf{p}$  on this plane then  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  implying
- If  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} > \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  then  $\mathbf{p}$  lives on the “front” side of the plane (in the direction pointed to by the normal)
- $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} < \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  means that  $\mathbf{p}$  lives on the “back” side.
- Sometimes used as  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p})=0$  iff “ $\mathbf{p}$  on the plane”. So the function  $f(\mathbf{p})$  is  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p})=(\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{a})\cdot\mathbf{n}$
- If we have 3 points  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}$  all on the plane, then we can compute a normal  $\mathbf{n} = (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}) \times (\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{a})$ . (cross product).
- Warning: The term “normal” does not mean that it was normalized.



# Ray-Plane Intersection

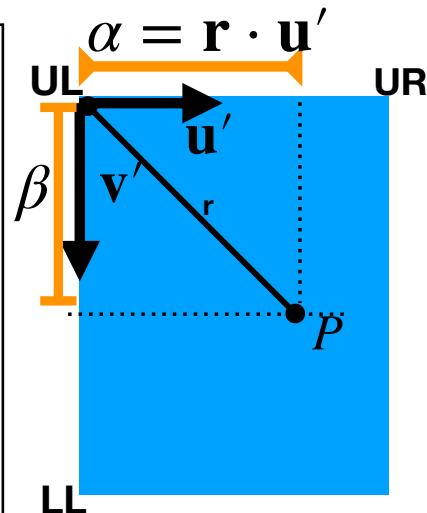
- A ray  $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$
- Two conditions must be satisfied:
  - Must be on a ray:  $\mathbf{p}(t) = \mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d}$
  - Must be on the plane:  $f(\mathbf{p}) = (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$
- Can substitute the equations and solve for  $t$  in  $f(\mathbf{p}(t))$ :

$$(\mathbf{o} + t\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$$

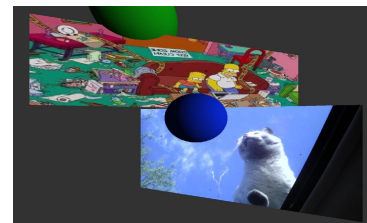
- This means that  $t_{\text{hit}} = ((\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{o}) \cdot \mathbf{n}) / (\mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{n})$ . The intersection point is  $\mathbf{o} + t_{\text{hit}}\mathbf{d}$

## Finding the color of a point on a billboard

- For each billboard, you will be given 3 corners (UL,UR,LL)
- Let  $\mathbf{u}', \mathbf{v}'$  be orthonormal vectors (orthogonal and unit length).  $\mathbf{u}' = \frac{UR - UL}{\|UR - UL\|}$
- Let  $P$  be a point on the plane containing the billboard. Let  $\mathbf{r} = P - UL$ .
- Let  $\alpha = \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u}'$
- $\alpha$  is the length of the projection of  $\mathbf{r}$  on  $\mathbf{u}'$ .
- Other words. "shadow" that  $\mathbf{r}$  casts on the line containing  $\mathbf{u}'$
- We can use  $\alpha, \beta$  to determine if  $P$  is in the billboard, (how), and if yes, find the pixel of the image of the billboard at  $P$ .



$$\mathbf{P} = \underbrace{UL + (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{u}') \mathbf{u}'}_{\alpha} + \underbrace{(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{v}') \mathbf{v}'}_{\beta}$$



# Constructing Orthonormal Bases from a Pair of Vectors

- Given two vectors  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , which might not be orthonormal to begin with:

$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|},$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{w}\|},$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{u}.$$

- In this case,  $\mathbf{w}$  will align with  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  will be the closest vector to  $\mathbf{b}$  that is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{w}$