An Introduction to WebGL Programming

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Agenda

- Evolution of the OpenGL Pipeline
- Prototype Applications in WebGL
- OpenGL Shading Language (GLSL)
- Vertex Shaders
- Fragment Shaders
- Examples
We’ll present four examples:

1. A minimum but complete WebGL program that renders a single triangle
2. A rotating cube with interactive buttons to control direction of rotation and also to toggle rotation on and off
3. A cube with lighting implemented in the shaders
4. A cube with texture mapping
OpenGL is a library of function calls for doing computer graphics. With it, you can create interactive applications that render high-quality color images composed of 2D and 3D geometric objects and images.

Additionally, the OpenGL API is independent of all operating systems, and their associated windowing systems. That means that the part of your application that draws can be platform independent. However, in order for OpenGL to be able to render, it needs a window to draw into. Generally, this is controlled by the windowing system on whatever platform you are working on.
OpenGL ES is a smaller version of OpenGL that was designed for embedded systems which did not have the hardware capability to run desktop OpenGL. OpenGL ES 2.0 is based on desktop OpenGL 3.1 and thus is shader-based. Each application must provide both a vertex shader and a fragment shader. Functions from the fixed function pipeline that were in ES 1.0 have been deprecated. OpenGL ES has become the standard API for developing 3D cell phone applications.

WebGL runs within the browser so is independent of the operating and window systems. It is an implementation of ES 2.0 and with a few exceptions the functions are identical. Because WebGL uses the HTML canvas element, it does not require system dependent packages for opening windows and interaction.
Most Web applications involve some combination of HTML code, JavaScript code, Cascading Style Sheet (CSS) code and some additional packages such as jQuery. The fundamental element is a Web page which can be described by HTML. HTML code consists of series of tags, most of which can have multiple parameters associated with them. For example the script tag (<script>) allows us to bring in the shaders and other files. The key tag for WebGL is the HTML5 canvas tag which creates a window into which WebGL can render.

All browsers will execute JavaScript code which can be placed between <script> and </script> tags or read in from a file identified in the <script> tag. JavaScript is an interpreted high level language which because all browsers can execute JS code has become the language of the Web. JavaScript is a large language with many elements similar to C++ and Java but with many elements closer to other languages. Our examples should be understandable to anyone familiar with C++ or Java. There are, however, a number of “gotchas” in JS that we will point out as we go through our examples.

In this course, we only need HTML and JS to create basic interactive 3D applications.
Evolution of the OpenGL Pipeline
The initial version of OpenGL was announced in July of 1994. That version of OpenGL implemented what’s called a *fixed-function pipeline*, which means that all of the operations that OpenGL supported were fully-defined, and an application could only modify their operation by changing a set of input values (like colors or positions). The other point of a fixed-function pipeline is that the order of operations was always the same – that is, you can’t reorder the sequence operations occur.

This pipeline was the basis of many versions of OpenGL and expanded in many ways, and is still available for use. However, modern GPUs and their features have diverged from this pipeline, and support of these previous versions of OpenGL are for supporting current applications. If you’re developing a new application, we strongly recommend using the techniques that we’ll discuss. Those techniques can be more flexible, and will likely perform better than using one of these early versions of OpenGL since they can take advantage of the capabilities of recent Graphics Processing Units (GPUs).
While many features and improvements were added into the fixed-function OpenGL pipeline, designs of GPUs were exposing more features than could be added into OpenGL. To allow applications to gain access to these new GPU features, OpenGL version 2.0 officially added **programmable shaders** into the graphics pipeline. This version of the pipeline allowed an application to create small programs, called *shaders*, that were responsible for implementing the features required by the application. In the 2.0 version of the pipeline, two programmable stages were made available:

- **vertex shading** enabled the application full control over manipulation of the 3D geometry provided by the application
- **fragment shading** provided the application capabilities for *shading* pixels (the terms classically used for determining a pixel's color).

OpenGL 2.0 also fully supported OpenGL 1.X's pipeline, allowing the application to use both version of the pipeline: fixed-function, and **programmable**.
Until OpenGL 3.0, features have only been added (but never removed) from OpenGL, providing a lot of application backwards compatibility (up to the use of extensions). OpenGL version 3.0 introduced the mechanisms for removing features from OpenGL, called the deprecation model. It defines how the OpenGL design committee (the OpenGL Architecture Review Board (ARB) of the Khronos Group) will advertise of which and how functionality is removed from OpenGL.

You might ask: why remove features from OpenGL? Over the 15 years to OpenGL 3.0, GPU features and capabilities expanded and some of the methods used in older versions of OpenGL were not as efficient as modern methods. While removing them could break support for older applications, it also simplified and optimized the GPUs allowing better performance.

Within an OpenGL application, OpenGL uses an opaque data structure called a context, which OpenGL uses to store shaders and other data. Contexts come in two flavors:

- **full** contexts expose all the features of the current version of OpenGL, including features that are marked deprecated.
- **forward-compatible** contexts enable only the features that will be available in the next version of OpenGL (i.e., deprecated features pretend to be removed), which can help developers make sure their applications work with future version of OpenGL.

Forward-compatible contexts are available in OpenGL versions from 3.1 onwards.
OpenGL ES and WebGL

- OpenGL ES 2.0
  - Designed for embedded and hand-held devices such as cell phones
  - Based on OpenGL 3.1
  - Shader based

- WebGL
  - JavaScript implementation of ES 2.0
  - Runs on most recent browsers

WebGL is becoming increasingly more important because it is supported by all browsers except Internet Explorer (and even that appears to be changing). Besides the advantage of being able to run without recompilation across platforms, it can easily be integrated with other Web applications and make use of a variety of portable packages available over the Web.
WebGL Application Development
To begin, let us introduce a simplified model of the OpenGL pipeline. Generally speaking, data flows from your application through the GPU to generate an image in the frame buffer. Your application will provide vertices, which are collections of data that are composed to form geometric objects, to the OpenGL pipeline. The vertex processing stage uses a vertex shader to process each vertex, doing any computations necessary to determine where in the frame buffer each piece of geometry should go. The other shading stages we mentioned – tessellation and geometry shading – are also used for vertex processing, but we're trying to keep this simple.

After all the vertices for a piece of geometry are processed, the rasterizer determines which pixels in the frame buffer are affected by the geometry, and for each pixel, the fragment processing stage is employed, where the fragment shader runs to determine the final color of the pixel.

In your OpenGL applications, you'll usually need to do the following tasks:

• specify the vertices for your geometry
• load vertex and fragment shaders (and other shaders, if you're using them as well)
• issue your geometry to engage the OpenGL pipeline for processing

Of course, OpenGL is capable of many other operations as well, many of which are outside of the scope of this introductory course. We have included references at the end of the notes for your further research and development.
You’ll find that a few techniques for programming with modern OpenGL goes a long way. In fact, most programs – in terms of OpenGL activity – are very repetitive. Differences usually occur in how objects are rendered, and that’s mostly handled in your shaders.

There four steps you’ll use for rendering a geometric object are as follows:

1. First, you’ll load and create OpenGL shader programs from shader source programs you create
2. Next, you will need to load the data for your objects into OpenGL's memory. You do this by creating buffer objects and loading data into them.
3. Continuing, OpenGL needs to be told how to interpret the data in your buffer objects and associate that data with variables that you’ll use in your shaders. We call this shader plumbing.
4. Finally, with your data initialized and shaders set up, you’ll render your objects

We’ll expand on those steps more through the course, but you’ll find that most applications will merely iterate through those steps.
While OpenGL will take care of filling the pixels in your application’s output window or image, it has no mechanisms for creating that rendering surface. Instead, OpenGL relies on the native windowing system of your operating system to create a window, and make it available for OpenGL to render into. For each windowing system (like Microsoft Windows, or the X Window System on Linux [and other Unixes]), there’s a binding library that lets mediates between OpenGL and the native windowing system.

Since each windowing system has different semantics for creating windows and binding OpenGL to them, discussing each one is outside of the scope of this course. Instead, we use an open-source library named freeglut that abstracts each windowing system’s specifics into a simple library. freeglut is a derivative of an older implementation called GLUT, and we’ll use those names interchangeably. GLUT will help us in creating windows, dealing with user input and input devices, and other window-system activities.

You can find out more about freeglut at its website:
http://freeglut.sourceforge.net

Both GLUT and freeglut use deprecated functions and should not work with a core profile. One alternative is GLFW which runs on Windows, Linux and Mac OS X.
A Really Simple Example

- Generate one red triangle
- Has all the elements of a more complex application
  - vertex shader
  - fragment shader
  - HTML canvas

- [www.cs.unm.edu/~angel/WebGL](http://www.cs.unm.edu/~angel/WebGL)
The html file describes the page and where to get the information for it. Many of the tags are not required. For example the default if the doctype tag is omitted is HTML5.

The shaders can also be read in from files. Alternative code for initShaders is on the website for the class.

Most HTML tags are of the form <tagname> to start the tag and </tagname> to end it. The id’s allow us to refer to the shaders in the js file.
webgl-utils.js contains a standard set of utilities from Google (but runs on other browsers) that enable us to set up the WebGL context.

initShaders.js is a function that contains all the WebGL calls to read, compile and link the shaders.

triangle.js is the application file that generates the geometry and renders it.

All these functions are on the course website and at www.cs.unm.edu/~angel/WebGL

The id assigned to the canvas allows us to refer to it in the js file.
gl is the WebGL context and contains all the WebGL functions and parameters.

Because the browser operates asynchronously, it reads in and executes code sequentially. The onload function `init` will only execute when all the files in the HTML file have been read in. Variables such as `document`, `window` and `canvas` are globals that are created when the HTML file is executed.

The typed array `vertices` is similar to a C/C++/Java array of floats and is simpler than a JS array.

We are using the default camera here which sees everything within a cube whose diagonally opposite corners are at (-1, -1, -1) and (1, 1, 1). In addition if specify locations in two dimensions, WebGL sets the z component to 0.

viewport says we want to use the whole canvas.

Canvas is cleared to white and opaque.
intiShaders reads, compiles and links the shaders into a program object. We can have multiple program objects, each with its own shaders and switch among them with `gl.useProgram`

data are placed in vertex buffer objects (VBOs) which on the GPU. Here the only vertex attribute we need for each vertex is its position. By caching data in VBOs we avoid repeated CPU to GPU data transfers when want to rerender the geometry.
vPosition is our name for the vertex position attribute in our vertex shader.

Because this example is static, we only need to render the geometry once. We clear the frame buffer and draw our one triangle as a filled entity.
In OpenGL, as in other graphics libraries, objects in the scene are composed of geometric primitives, which themselves are described by vertices. A vertex in modern OpenGL is a collection of data values associated with a location in space. Those data values might include colors, reflection information for lighting, or additional coordinates for use in texture mapping. Locations can be specified on 2, 3 or 4 dimensions but are stored in 4 dimensional homogeneous coordinates.

Vertices must be organized in OpenGL server-side objects called vertex buffer objects (also known as VBOs), which need to contain all of the vertex information for all of the primitives that you want to draw at one time. VBOs can store vertex information in almost any format (i.e., an array-of-structures (AoS) each containing a single vertex’s information, or a structure-of-arrays (SoA) where all of the same “type” of data for a vertex is stored in a contiguous array, and the structure stores arrays for each attribute that a vertex can have). The data within a VBO needs to be contiguous in memory, but doesn’t need to be tightly packed (i.e., data elements may be separated by any number of bytes, as long as the number of bytes between attributes is consistent).

In desktop OpenGL, VBOs are further required to be stored in vertex array objects (known as VAOs). Since it may be the case that numerous VBOs are associated with a single object, VAOs simplify the management of the collection of VBOs. VAOs will be in the next version of WebGL.
To form 3D geometric objects, you need to decompose them into geometric primitives that WebGL can draw. WebGL (and modern desktop OpenGL) only knows how to draw three things: points, lines, and triangles, but can use collections of the same type of primitive to optimize rendering.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OpenGL Primitive</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Total Vertices for ( n ) Primitives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GL_POINTS</td>
<td>Render a single point per vertex (points may be larger than a single pixel)</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_LINES</td>
<td>Connect each pair of vertices with a single line segment.</td>
<td>( 2n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_LINE_STRIP</td>
<td>Connect each successive vertex to the previous one with a line segment.</td>
<td>( n+1 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_LINE_LOOP</td>
<td>Connect all vertices in a loop of line segments.</td>
<td>( n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_TRIANGLES</td>
<td>Render a triangle for each triple of vertices.</td>
<td>( 3n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_TRIANGLE_STRIP</td>
<td>Render a triangle from the first three vertices in the list, and then create a new triangle with the last two rendered vertices, and the new vertex.</td>
<td>( n+2 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GL_TRIANGLE_FAN</td>
<td>Create triangles by using the first vertex in the list, and pairs of successive vertices.</td>
<td>( n+2 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The next few slides will introduce our second example program, one which simply displays a cube with different colors at each vertex. We aim for simplicity in this example, focusing on the WebGL techniques, and not on optimal performance. This example is animated with rotation about the three coordinate axes and interactive buttons that allow the user to change the axis of rotation and start or stop the rotation.
In order to simplify our application development, we define a few types and constants to make our code more readable and organized.

Our cube, like any other cube, has six square faces, each of which we'll draw as two triangles. In order to sizes memory arrays to hold the necessary vertex data, we define the constant `numVertices`.

As we shall see, GLSL has vec2, vec3 and vec4 types. All are stored as four element arrays: \([x, y, z, w]\). The default for vec2’s is to set \(z = 0\) and \(w = 1\). For vec3’s the default is to set \(w = 1\).

MV.js also contains many matrix and viewing functions. The package is available on the course website or at www.cs.unm.edu/~angel/WebGL. MV.js is not necessary for writing WebGL applications but its functions simplify development of 3D applications.
In order to provide data for WebGL to use, we need to stage it so that we can load it into the VBOs that our application will use. In your applications, you might load these data from a file, or generate them on the fly. For each vertex, we want to use two bits of data – vertex attributes in OpenGL speak – to help process each vertex to draw the cube. In our case, each vertex has a position in space, and an associated color. To store those values for later use in our VBOs, we create two arrays to hold the per vertex data. Note that we can organize our data in other ways such as with a single array with interleaved positions and colors.

We will see shortly that JavaScript arrays are objects and are not equivalent to simple C/C++/Java arrays.
In our example we’ll copy the coordinates of our cube model into a VBO for WebGL to use. Here we set up an array of eight coordinates for the corners of a unit cube centered at the origin.

You may be asking yourself: “Why do we have four coordinates for 3D data?” The answer is that in computer graphics, it’s often useful to include a fourth coordinate to represent three-dimensional coordinates, as it allows numerous mathematical techniques that are common operations in graphics to be done in the same way. In fact, this four-dimensional coordinate has a proper name, a homogenous coordinate. We could also use a vec3 type, i.e.

```javascript
var vertices = [
    vec4(-0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4(-0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4( 0.5, 0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4( 0.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4(-0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4(-0.5, 0.5, -0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4( 0.5, 0.5, -0.5, 1.0 ),
    vec4( 0.5, -0.5, -0.5, 1.0 )
];
```

In this example, we will again use the default camera so our vertices all fit within the default view volume.
Just like our positional data, we’ll set up a matching set of colors for each of the model’s vertices, which we’ll later copy into our VBO. Here we set up eight RGBA colors. In WebGL, colors are processed in the pipeline as floating-point values in the range [0.0, 1.0]. Your input data can take any form; for example, image data from a digital photograph usually has values between [0, 255]. WebGL will (if you request it), automatically convert those values into [0.0, 1.0], a process called *normalizing* values.
Arrays in JS

- A JS array is an object with attributes and methods such as length, push() and pop()
  - fundamentally different from C-style array
  - cannot send directly to WebGL functions
  - use flatten() function to extract data from JS array

```javascript
gl.bufferData( gl.ARRAY_BUFFER, flatten(colors),
              gl.STATIC_DRAW );
```

flatten() is in MV.js.

Alternately, we could use typed arrays as we did for the triangle example and avoid the use of flatten for one-dimensional arrays. However, we will still need to convert matrices from two-dimensional to one-dimensional arrays to send them to the shaders. In addition, there are potential efficiency differences between using JS arrays vs typed arrays.
As our cube is constructed from square cube faces, we create a small function, quad(), which takes the indices into the original vertex color and position arrays, and copies the data into the VBO staging arrays. If you were to use this method (and we'll see better ways in a moment), you would need to remember to reset the Index value between setting up your VBO arrays.

Note the use of the array method push() so we do not have to use indices for the point and color array elements.
Generating the Cube from Faces

- Generate 12 triangles for the cube
  - 36 vertices with 36 colors

```javascript
function colorCube() {
    quad( 1, 0, 3, 2 );
    quad( 2, 3, 7, 6 );
    quad( 3, 0, 4, 7 );
    quad( 6, 5, 1, 2 );
    quad( 4, 5, 6, 7 );
    quad( 5, 4, 0, 1 );
}
```

Here we complete the generation of our cube’s VBO data by specifying the six faces using index values into our original positions and colors arrays. It’s worth noting that the order that we choose our vertex indices is important, as it will affect something called backface culling later.

We’ll see later that instead of creating the cube by copying lots of data, we can use our original vertex data along with just the indices we passed into quad() here to accomplish the same effect. That technique is very common, and something you’ll use a lot. We chose this to introduce the technique in this manner to simplify the OpenGL concepts for loading VBO data.
While we’ve talked a lot about VBOs, we haven’t detailed how one goes about creating them. Vertex buffer objects, like all (memory) objects in WebGL (as compared to geometric objects) are created in the same way, using the same set of functions. In fact, you’ll see that the pattern of calls we make here are similar to other sequences of calls for doing other WebGL operations.

In the case of vertex buffer objects, you’ll do the following sequence of function calls:

1. Generate a buffer’s by calling `gl.createBuffer();`
2. Next, you’ll make that buffer the “current” buffer, which means it’s the selected buffer for reading or writing data values by calling `gl.bindBuffer()`, with a type of GL_ARRAY_BUFFER. There are different types of buffer objects, with an array buffer being the one used for storing geometric data.
3. To initialize a buffer, you’ll call `gl.bufferData()`, which will copy data from your application into the GPU’s memory. You would do the same operation if you also wanted to update data in the buffer.
4. Finally, when it comes time to render using the data in the buffer, you’ll once again call `gl.bindVertexArray()` to make it and its VBOs current again.

We can replace part of the data in a buffer with `gl.bufferSubData()`
To complete the “plumbing” of associating our vertex data with variables in our shader programs, you need to tell WebGL where in our buffer object to find the vertex data, and which shader variable to pass the data to when we draw. The above code snippet shows that process for our two data sources. In our shaders (which we’ll discuss in a moment), we have two variables: vPosition, and vColor, which we will associate with the data values in our VBOs that we copied from our vertex positions and colors arrays.

The calls to `gl.getAttribLocation()` will return a compiler-generated index which we need to use to complete the connection from our data to the shader inputs. We also need to “turn the valve” on our data by enabling its attribute array by calling `gl.enableVertexAttribArray()` with the selected attribute location.

Here we use the flatten function to extract the data from the JS arrays and put them into the simple form expected by the WebGL functions, basically one dimensional C-style arrays of floats.

```js
var cBuffer = gl.createBuffer();
gl.bindBuffer( gl.ARRAY_BUFFER, cBuffer );
gl.bufferData( gl.ARRAY_BUFFER, flatten(colors), gl.STATIC_DRAW );

var vColor = gl.getAttribLocation( program, "vColor" );
gl.vertexAttribPointer( vColor, 4, gl.FLOAT, false, 0, 0 );
gl.enableVertexAttribArray( vColor );

var vBuffer = gl.createBuffer();
gl.bindBuffer( gl.ARRAY_BUFFER, vBuffer );
gl.bufferData( gl.ARRAY_BUFFER, flatten(points), gl.STATIC_DRAW );

var vPosition = gl.getAttribLocation( program, "vPosition" );
gl.vertexAttribPointer( vPosition, 3, gl.FLOAT, false, 0, 0 );
gl.enableVertexAttribArray( vPosition );
```
In order to initiate the rendering of primitives, you need to issue a drawing routine. While there are many routines for this in OpenGL, we'll discuss the most fundamental ones. The simplest routine is `glDrawArrays()`, to which you specify what type of graphics primitive you want to draw (e.g., here we're rendering a triangle strip), which vertex in the enabled vertex attribute arrays to start with, and how many vertices to send.

This is the simplest way of rendering geometry in WebGL. You merely need to store your vertex data in sequence, and then `gl.drawArrays()` takes care of the rest. However, in some cases, this won't be the most memory efficient method of doing things. Many geometric objects share vertices between geometric primitives, and with this method, you need to replicate the data once for each vertex.

```
function render()
{
    gl.clear( gl.COLOR_BUFFER_BIT | gl.DEPTH_BUFFER_BIT);
    gl.drawArrays( gl.TRIANGLES, 0, numVertices);
    requestAnimationFrame( render );
}
```
Shaders and GLSL
The final shading stage that OpenGL supports is *fragment shading* which allows an application per-pixel-location control over the color that may be written to that location. Fragments, which are on their way to the framebuffer, but still need to do some pass some additional processing to become pixels. However, the computational power available in shading fragments is a great asset to generating images. In a fragment shader, you can compute lighting values – similar to what we just discussed in vertex shading – per fragment, which gives much better results, or add bump mapping, which provides the illusion of greater surface detail. Likewise, we’ll apply texture maps, which allow us to increase the detail for our models without increasing the geometric complexity.
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GLSL

- OpenGL Shading Language
- C like language with some C++ features
- 2-4 dimensional matrix and vector types
- Both vertex and fragment shaders are written in GLSL
- Each shader has a main()
As with any programming language, GLSL has types for variables. However, it includes vector-, and matrix-based types to simplify the operations that occur often in computer graphics.

In addition to numerical types, other types like *texture samplers* are used to enable other OpenGL operations. We'll discuss texture samplers in the texture mapping section.
The vector and matrix classes of GLSL are first-class types, with arithmetic and logical operations well defined. This helps simplify your code, and prevent errors.

Note in the above example, overloading ensures that both a*m and m*a are defined although they will not in general produce the same result.
For GLSL’s vector types, you’ll find that often you may also want to access components within the vector, as well as operate on all of the vector’s components at the same time. To support that, vectors and matrices (which are really a vector of vectors), support normal “C” vector accessing using the square-bracket notation (e.g., “[i]”), with zero-based indexing. Additionally, vectors (but not matrices) support swizzling, which provides a very powerful method for accessing and manipulating vector components.

Swizzles allow components within a vector to be accessed by name. For example, the first element in a vector – element 0 – can also be referenced by the names “x”, “s”, and “r”. Why all the names – to clarify their usage. If you’re working with a color, for example, it may be clearer in the code to use “r” to represent the red channel, as compared to “x”, which make more sense as the x-positional coordinate.
In addition to types, GLSL has numerous qualifiers to describe a variable usage. The most common of those are:

- **attribute**
  - vertex attributes from application

- **varying**
  - copy vertex attributes and other variables from vertex shaders to fragment shaders
  - values are interpolated by rasterizer
    ```glsl
    varying vec2 texCoord;
    varying vec4 color;
    ```

- **uniform**
  - shader-constant variable from application
    ```glsl
    uniform float time;
    ```

Recent versions of GLSL replace attribute and varying qualifiers by in and out qualifiers
GLSL also provides a rich library of functions supporting common operations. While pretty much every vector- and matrix-related function available you can think of, along with the most common mathematical functions are built into GLSL, there’s no support for operations like reading files or printing values. Shaders are really data-flow engines with data coming in, being processed, and sent on for further processing.
Fundamental to shader processing are a couple of built-in GLSL variable which are the terminus for operations. In particular, vertex data, which can be processed by up to four shader stages in OpenGL, are all ended by setting a positional value into the built-in variable, `gl_Position`.

Additionally, fragment shaders provide a number of built-in variables. For example, `gl_FragCoord` is a read-only variable, while `gl_FragDepth` is a read-write variable. Later versions of OpenGL allow fragment shaders to output to other variables of the user’s designation as well.
Here’s the simple vertex shader we use in our cube rendering example. It accepts two vertex attributes as input: the vertex’s position and color, and does very little processing on them; in fact, it merely copies the input into some output variables (with \texttt{gl\_Position} being implicitly declared). The results of each vertex shader execution are passed further down the OpenGL pipeline, and ultimately end their processing in the fragment shader.
Here’s the associated fragment shader that we use in our cube example. While this shader is as simple as they come – merely setting the fragment’s color to the input color passed in, there’s been a lot of processing to this point. In particular, every fragment that’s shaded was generated by the rasterizer, which is a built-in, non-programmable (i.e., you don’t write a shader to control its operation). What’s magical about this process is that if the colors across the geometric primitive (for multi-vertex primitives: lines and triangles) is not the same, the rasterizer will interpolate those colors across the primitive, passing each iterated value into our color variable.

The precision for floats must be specified. All WebGL implementations must support medium.
Shaders need to be compiled in order to be used in your program. As compared to C programs, the compiler and linker are implemented in the OpenGL driver, and accessible through function calls from within your program. The diagram illustrates the steps required to compile and link each type of shader into your shader program. A program must contain a vertex shader (which replaces the fixed-function vertex processing), a fragment shader (which replaces the fragment coloring stages).

Just as with regular programs, a syntax error from the compilation stage, or a missing symbol from the linker stage could prevent the successful generation of an executable program. There are routines for verifying the results of the compilation and link stages of the compilation process, but are not shown here. Instead, we’ve provided a routine that makes this process much simpler, as demonstrated on the next slide.
To simplify our lives, we created a routine that simplifies loading, compiling, and linking shaders: `InitShaders()`. It implements the shader compilation and linking process shown on the previous slide. It also does full error checking, and will terminate your program if there’s an error at some stage in the process (production applications might choose a less terminal solution to the problem, but it’s useful in the classroom).

`InitShaders()` accepts two parameters, each a filename to be loaded as source for the vertex and fragment shader stages, respectively.

The value returned from `InitShaders()` will be a valid GLSL program id that you can pass into `glUseProgram()`.
OpenGL shaders, depending on which stage they are associated with, process different types of data. Some data for a shader changes for each shader invocation. For example, each time a vertex shader executes, it’s presented with new data for a single vertex; likewise for fragment, and the other shader stages in the pipeline. The number of executions of a particular shader rely on how much data was associated with the draw call that started the pipeline – if you call `glDrawArrays()` specifying 100 vertices, your vertex shader will be called 100 times, each time with a different vertex.

Other data that a shader may use in processing may be constant across a draw call, or even all the drawing calls for a frame. GLSL calls those *uniform* variables, since their value is uniform across the execution of all shaders for a single draw call.

Each of the shader’s input data variables (ins and uniforms) needs to be connected to a data source in the application. We’ve already seen `glGetAttribLocation()` for retrieving information for connecting vertex data in a VBO to shader variable. You will also use the same process for uniform variables, as we’ll describe shortly.
Once you know the names of variables in a shader – whether they’re attributes or uniforms – you can determine their location using one of the `glGet*Location()` calls.

If you don’t know the variables in a shader (if, for instance, you’re writing a library that accepts shaders), you can find out all of the shader variables by using the `glGetActiveAttrib()` function.
You’ve already seen how one associates values with attributes by calling `glVertexAttribPointer()`. To specify a uniform’s value, we use one of the `glUniform*()` functions. For setting a vector type, you’ll use one of the `glUniform*()` variants, and for matrices you’ll use a `glUniformMatrix*()` form.

```cpp
    gl.uniform4f( index, x, y, z, w );

    var transpose = gl.GL_TRUE;

    // Since we’re C programmers
    gl.uniformMatrix4fv( index, 3, transpose, mat );
```
For a static application we can generate geometry in init() or call another function for init()

For dynamic applications, we can put static parts in init() and dynamic parts in render() or in the event listeners which we will discuss soon.
Buffering, Animation and Interaction
Double Buffering

• The processes of rendering into a frame buffer and displaying the contents of the frame buffer are independent

• To prevent displaying a partially rendered frame buffer, the browser uses double buffering
  – rendering is into the back buffer
  – display is from the front buffer
  – when rendering is complete, buffers are swapped

• However, we need more control of the display from the application

Double buffering is no faster or slower than single buffering. It just prevents the display of a partially rendered scene.

In desktop OpenGL, the application has control of the swapping of the front and back buffers through interaction with the window system.
uniform qualified variables are constant for an execution of `gl.drawArrays()`, i.e. are constant for each instantiation of the vertex shader.
The multiplication operation is overloaded so we can use \texttt{vec4 = float*vec4} in shader but we must set the \texttt{w} component back to zero or the effect of the scaling will be cancelled by the perspective division when we go from homogeneous coordinates back to three dimensions in the pipeline.
We begin delving into shader specifics by first taking a look at vertex shaders. As you've probably arrived at, vertex shaders are used to process vertices, and have the required responsibility of specifying the vertex's position in clip coordinates. This process usually involves numerous vertex transformations, which we'll discuss next. Additionally, a vertex shader may be responsible for determine additional information about a vertex for use by the rasterizer, including specifying colors.

To begin our discussion of vertex transformations, we'll first describe the *synthetic camera model*. 

---

**Vertex Shader Applications**

- A vertex shader is initiated by each vertex output by `gl.drawArrays()`.
- A vertex shader must output a position in clip coordinates to the rasterizer.
- Basic uses of vertex shaders:
  - Transformations
  - Lighting
  - Moving vertex positions:
    - animation
    - morphing
Event Driven Input

- Browser execute code sequential and then wait for an event to occur
- Events can be of many types
  - mouse and keyboard
  - menus and buttons
  - window events
- Program responds to events through functions called **listeners** or **callbacks**
id allows us to refer to button in JS file. Text between <button> and </button> tags is placed on button. Clicking on button generates an event which we will handle with a listener in JS file.

Note buttons are part of HTML not WebGL.
In init()

```javascript
    document.getElementById("xButton").onclick =
        function () { axis = xAxis; };
    document.getElementById("yButton").onclick =
        function () { axis = yAxis; };
    document.getElementById("zButton").onclick =
        function () { axis = zAxis; };
    document.getElementById("ButtonT").onclick =
        function () { flag = !flag; };
```

render();

The event of clicking a button (onclick) occurs on the display (document). Thus the name of the event is document.button_id.onclick. For a button, the event returns no information other than it has been clicked. The first three buttons allow us to change the axis about which we increment the angle in the render function. The variable flag is toggled between true and force. When it is true, we increment the angle in the render function.
function render()
{
    gl.clear( gl.COLOR_BUFFER_BIT | gl.DEPTH_BUFFER_BIT);
    if(flag) theta[axis] += 2.0;
    gl.uniform3fv(thetaLoc, theta);
    gl.drawArrays( gl.TRIANGLES, 0, numVertices );
    requestAnimFrame( render );
}

This completes the rotating cube example.

Other interactive elements such as menus, sliders and text boxes are only slightly more complex to add since they return extra information to the listener. We can obtain position information from a mouse click in a similar manner.
Transformations
This model has become known as the synthetic camera model. Note that both the objects to be viewed and the camera are three-dimensional while the resulting image is two-dimensional.
The processing required for converting a vertex from 3D or 4D space into a 2D window coordinate is done by the transform stage of the graphics pipeline. The operations in that stage are illustrated above. The purple boxes represent a matrix multiplication operation. In graphics, all of our matrices are $4 \times 4$ matrices (they’re homogenous, hence the reason for homogenous coordinates).

When we want to draw an geometric object, like a chair for instance, we first determine all of the vertices that we want to associate with the chair. Next, we determine how those vertices should be grouped to form geometric primitives, and the order we’re going to send them to the graphics subsystem. This process is called **modeling**. Quite often, we’ll model an object in its own little 3D coordinate system. When we want to add that object into the scene we’re developing, we need to determine its **world coordinates**. We do this by specifying a **modeling transformation**, which tells the system how to move from one coordinate system to another.

Modeling transformations, in combination with **viewing** transforms, which dictate where the viewing frustum is in world coordinates, are the first transformation that a vertex goes through. Next, the **projection transform** is applied which maps the vertex into another space called **clip coordinates**, which is where clipping occurs. After clipping, we divide by the $w$ value of the vertex, which is modified by projection. This division operation is what allows the farther-objects-being-smaller activity. The transformed, clipped coordinates are then mapped into the window.
Note that human vision and a camera lens have cone-shaped viewing volumes. OpenGL (and almost all computer graphics APIs) describe a pyramid-shaped viewing volume. Therefore, the computer will “see” differently from the natural viewpoints, especially along the edges of viewing volumes. This is particularly pronounced for wide-angle “fish-eye” camera lenses.
By using 4×4 matrices, OpenGL can represent all geometric transformations using one matrix format. Perspective projections and translations require the 4th row and column. Otherwise, these operations would require an vector-addition operation, in addition to the matrix multiplication.

While OpenGL specifies matrices in column-major order, this is often confusing for “C” programmers who are used to row-major ordering for two-dimensional arrays. OpenGL provides routines for loading both column- and row-major matrices. However, for standard OpenGL transformations, there are functions that automatically generate the matrices for you, so you don't generally need to be concerned about this until you start doing more advanced operations.

For operations other than perspective projection, the fourth row is always (0, 0, 0, 1) which leaves the w-coordinate unchanged.
Another essential part of the graphics processing is setting up how much of the world we can see. We construct a viewing frustum, which defines the chunk of 3-space that we can see. There are two types of views: a perspective view, which you're familiar with as it's how your eye works, is used to generate frames that match your view of reality—things farther from your appear smaller. This is the type of view used for video games, simulations, and most graphics applications in general.

The other view, orthographic, is used principally for engineering and design situations, where relative lengths and angles need to be preserved.

For a perspective, we locate the eye at the apex of the frustum pyramid. We can see any objects which are between the two planes perpendicular to eye (they’re called the near and far clipping planes, respectively). Any vertices between near and far, and inside the four planes that connect them will be rendered. Otherwise, those vertices are clipped out and discarded. In some cases a primitive will be entirely outside of the view, and the system will discard it for that frame. Other primitives might intersect the frustum, which we clip such that the part of them that’s outside is discarded and we create new vertices for the modified primitive.

While the system can easily determine which primitive are inside the frustum, it’s wasteful of system bandwidth to have lots of primitives discarded in this manner. We utilize a technique named culling to determine exactly which primitives need to be sent to the graphics processor, and send only those primitives to maximize its efficiency.
In OpenGL, the default viewing frusta are always configured in the same manner, which defines the orientation of our clip coordinates. Specifically, clip coordinates are defined with the “eye” located at the origin, looking down the –z axis. From there, we define two distances: our near and far clip distances, which specify the location of our near and far clipping planes. The viewing volume is then completely by specifying the positions of the enclosing planes that are parallel to the view direction.
The images above show the two types of projection transformations that are commonly used in computer graphics. The orthographic view preserves angles, and simulates having the viewer at an infinite distance from the scene. This mode is commonly used in engineering and design where it’s important to preserve the sizes and angles of objects in relation to each other. Alternatively, the perspective view mimics the operation of the eye with objects seeming to shrink in size the farther from the viewer they are.

The each projection, the matrix that you would need to specify is provided. In those matrices, the six values for the positions of the left, right, bottom, top, near and far clipping planes are specified by the first letter of the plane’s name. The only limitations on the values is for perspective projections, where the near and far values must be positive and non-zero, with near greater than far.

The functions otho and frustum in MV.js provide these matrices.
lookAt() generates a viewing matrix based on several points. LookAt() provides natural semantics for modeling flight applications, but care must be taken to avoid degenerate numerical situations, where the generated viewing matrix is undefined.

An alternative is to specify a sequence of rotations and translations that are concatenated with an initial identity matrix.

lookAt() is in MV.js as are translation, scaling and rotation functions that we present in the next few slides.

Note: that the name modelview matrix is appropriate since moving objects in the model front of the camera is equivalent to moving the camera to view a set of objects.
Here we show the construction of a translation matrix. Translations really move coordinate systems, and not individual objects.
Here we show the construction of a scale matrix, which is used to change the shape of space, but not move it (or more precisely, the origin). The above illustration has a translation to show how space was modified, but a simple scale matrix will not include such a translation.

\[
S(s_x, s_y, s_z) = \begin{pmatrix}
  s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]
Here we show the effects of a rotation matrix on space. Once again, a translation has been applied in the image to make it easier to see the rotation's affect.
Here's an example vertex shader for rotating our cube. We generate the matrices in the shader (as compared to in the application), based on the input angle \( \theta \). It's useful to note that we can vectorize numerous computations. For example, we can generate a vectors of sines and cosines for the input angle, which we'll use in further computations.

```glsl
attribute vec4 vPosition;
attribute vec4 vColor;
varying vec4 color;
uniform vec3 theta;

void main()
{
    // Compute the sines and cosines of theta for each of the three axes in one computation.
    vec3 angles = radians( theta );
    vec3 c = cos( angles );
    vec3 s = sin( angles );
}
```
Completing our shader, we compose two of three rotation matrices (one around each axis). In generating our matrices, we use one of the many matrix constructor functions (in this case, specifying the 16 individual elements). It's important to note in this case, that our matrices are column-major, so we need to take care in the placement of the values in the constructor.

```c
// Remember: these matrices are column-major
mat4 rx = mat4( 1.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 
                0.0, c.x, s.x, 0.0, 
                0.0, -s.x, c.x, 0.0, 
                0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0 );

mat4 ry = mat4( c.y, 0.0, -s.y, 0.0, 
                0.0, 1.0, 0.0, 0.0, 
                s.y, 0.0, c.y, 0.0, 
                0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0 );
```
We complete our shader here by generating the last rotation matrix, and then use the composition of those matrices to transform the input vertex position. We also pass-thru the color values by assigning the input color to an output variable.

```glsl
color = vColor;

mat4 rz = mat4( c.z, -s.z, 0.0, 0.0, 
                s.z, c.z, 0.0, 0.0, 
                0.0, 0.0, 1.0, 0.0, 
                0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0 );

gl_Position = rz * ry * rx * vPosition;
```

Finally, we merely need to supply the angle values into our shader through our uniform plumbing. In this case, we track each of the axes rotation angle, and store them in a vec3 that matches the angle declaration in the shader. We also keep track of the uniform's location so we can easily update its value.

```javascript
// in init()

var theta = [ 0, 0, 0 ];
var axis = 0;
thetaLoc = gl.getUniformLocation(program, "theta");

// set axis and flag via buttons and event listeners

// in render()

if(flag) theta[axis] += 2.0;
gl.uniform3fv(thetaLoc, theta);
```
Lighting
Lighting is an important technique in computer graphics. Without lighting, objects tend to look like they are made out of plastic.

OpenGL divides lighting into three parts: material properties, light properties and global lighting parameters.

While we’ll discuss the mathematics of lighting in terms of computing illumination in a vertex shader, the almost identical computations can be done in a fragment shader to compute the lighting effects per-pixel, which yields much better results.
WebGL can use the shade at one vertex to shade an entire polygon (constant shading) or interpolate the shades at the vertices across the polygon (smooth shading), the default.

The original lighting model that was supported in hardware and OpenGL was due to Phong and later modified by Blinn.
The lighting normal tells OpenGL how the object reflects light around a vertex. If you imagine that there is a small mirror at the vertex, the lighting normal describes how the mirror is oriented, and consequently how light is reflected.

Surface Normals

- Normals define how a surface reflects light
  - Application usually provides normals as a vertex attribute
  - Current normal is used to compute vertex’s color
  - Use unit normals for proper lighting
    • scaling affects a normal’s length
Material properties describe the color and surface properties of a material (dull, shiny, etc). The properties described above are components of the Phong lighting model, a simple model that yields reasonable results with little computation. Each of the material components would be passed into a vertex shader, for example, to be used in the lighting computation along with the vertex’s position and lighting normal.
Here we declare numerous variables that we’ll use in computing a color using a simple lighting model. All of the uniform values are passed in from the application and describe the material and light properties being rendered.
In the initial parts of our shader, we generate numerous vector quantities to be used in our lighting computation.

- pos represents the vertex’s position in eye coordinates
- L represents the vector from the vertex to the light
- E represents the “eye” vector, which is the vector from the vertex’s eye-space position to the origin
- H is the “half vector” which is the normalized vector half-way between the light and eye vectors
- N is the transformed vertex normal

Note that all of these quantities are vec3’s, since we’re dealing with vectors, as compared to homogenous coordinates. When we need to convert from a homogenous coordinate to a vector, we use a vector swizzle to extract the components we need.
Here we complete our lighting computation. The Phong model, which this shader is based on, uses various material properties as we described before. Likewise, each light can contribute to those same properties. The combination of the material and light properties are represented as our “product” variables in this shader. The products are merely the component-wise products of the light and objects same material properties. These values are computed in the application and passed into the shader.

In the Phong model, each material product is attenuated by the magnitude of the various vector products. Starting with the most influential component of lighting, the diffuse color, we use the dot product of the lighting normal and light vector, clamping the value if the dot product is negative (which physically means the light’s behind the object). We continue by computing the specular component, which is computed as the dot product of the normal and the half-vector raised to the shininess value. Finally, if the light is behind the object, we correct the specular contribution.

Finally, we compose the final vertex color as the sum of the computed ambient, diffuse, and specular colors, and update the transformed vertex position.
Texture Mapping
Textures are images that can be thought of as continuous and be one, two, three, or four dimensional. By convention, the coordinates of the image are $s$, $t$, $r$ and $q$. Thus for the two dimensional image above, a point in the image is given by its $(s, t)$ values with $(0, 0)$ in the lower-left corner and $(1, 1)$ in the top-right corner.

A texture map for a two-dimensional geometric object in $(x, y, z)$ world coordinates maps a point in $(s, t)$ space to a corresponding point on the screen.
The advantage of texture mapping is that visual detail is in the image, not in the geometry. Thus, the complexity of an image does not affect the geometric pipeline (transformations, clipping) in OpenGL. Texture is added during rasterization where the geometric and pixel pipelines meet.
In the simplest approach, we must perform these three steps. Textures reside in texture memory. When we assign an image to a texture it is copied from processor memory to texture memory where pixels are formatted differently.

Texture coordinates are actually part of the state as are other vertex attributes such as color and normals. As with colors, WebGL interpolates texture inside geometric objects.

Because textures are really discrete and of limited extent, texture mapping is subject to aliasing errors that can be controlled through filtering.

Texture memory is a limited resource and having only a single active texture can lead to inefficient code.
The first step in creating texture objects is to create an empty texture object with `gl.createTexture()`.

To begin defining a texture object, you call `gl.bindTexture()` with the id of the object you want to create. The target in WebGL can only be `TEXTURE_2D`. All texturing calls become part of the object until the next `gl.bindTexture()` is called.

To have WebGL use a particular texture object, call `gl.bindTexture()` with the target and id of the object you want to be active.

```javascript
var texture = gl.createTexture();

gl.bindTexture(gl.TEXTURE_2D, texture);
```
Specifying a Texture Image

- Define a texture image from an array of texels in CPU memory

\[
\text{gl.texImage2D(gl.TEXTURE\_2D, 0, gl.RGBA, texSize, texSize, 0, gl.RGBA, gl.UNSIGNED\_BYTE, image);}\]

- Define a texture image from an image in a standard format memory specified with the \text{<image>} tag in the HTML file

\[
\text{var image = document.getElementById("texImage");}
\text{gl.texImage2D(gl.TEXTURE\_2D, 0, gl.RGB, gl.RGB, gl.UNSIGNED\_BYTE, image);}\]

Specifying the texels for a texture is done using the \text{gl.texImage\_2D()} call. This will transfer the texels in CPU memory to OpenGL, where they will be processed and converted into an internal format.

The level parameter is used for defining how WebGL should use this image when mapping texels to pixels. Generally, you’ll set the level to 0, unless you are using a texturing technique called mipmapping.
When you want to map a texture onto a geometric primitive, you need to provide texture coordinates. Valid texture coordinates are between 0 and 1, for each texture dimension, and usually manifest in shaders as vertex attributes. We'll see how to deal with texture coordinates outside the range $[0, 1]$ in a moment.
Just like vertex attributes were associated with data in the application, so too with textures. In particular, you access a texture defined in your application using a *texture sampler* in your shader. The type of the sampler needs to match the type of the associated texture. For example, you would use a sampler2D to work with a two-dimensional texture created with `gl.texImage2D(GL_TEXTURE_2D, ...);`

Within the shader, you use the `texture()` function to retrieve data values from the texture associated with your sampler. To the `texture()` function, you pass the sampler as well as the texture coordinates where you want to pull the data from.

Note: the overloaded `texture()` method was added into GLSL version 3.30. Prior to that release, there were special texture functions for each type of texture sampler (e.g., there was a `texture2D()` call for use with the `sampler2D`).

```glsl
precision mediump float;

varying vec4 fColor;
varying vec2 fTexCoord;
uniform sampler2D texture;

void main()
{
   gl_FragColor = fColor*texture2D(texture, fTexCoord);
}
```
Similar to our first cube example, if we want to texture our cube, we need to provide texture coordinates for use in our shaders. Following our previous example, we merely add an additional vertex attribute that contains our texture coordinates. We do this for each of our vertices. We will also need to update VBOs and shaders to take this new attribute into account.
The code snippet above demonstrates procedurally generating a two 64 x 64 texture maps.
The above functions completely specify a texture object. The code creates a texture id by calling `gl.createTexture()`. It then binds the texture using `gl.bindTexture()` to open the object for use, and loading in the texture by calling `gl.texImage2D()`. After that, numerous sampler characteristics are set, including the texture wrap modes, and texel filtering.

`gl.pixelStorei` will flip the texture image in the y direction. We usually need to do this for web images (gif, jpeg) that we want to use for textures because WebGL uses a coordinate system with the origin at the bottom left whereas images based on standard displays have the origin at the top left.
In order to apply textures to our geometry, we need to modify both the vertex shader and the pixel shader. Above, we add some simple logic to pass-thru the texture coordinates from an attribute into data for the rasterizer.
Continuing to update our shaders, we add some simple code to modify our fragment shader to include sampling a texture. How the texture is sampled (e.g., coordinate wrap modes, texel filtering, etc.) is configured in the application using the `gl.texParameter*()` call.

```glsl
varying vec4 color;
varying vec2 texCoord;

uniform sampler texture;

void main()
{
   gl_FragColor = color * texture( texture, texCoord );
}
```
What we haven’t talked about

- Off-screen rendering
- Compositing
- Cube maps
What’s missing in WebGL (for now)

- Other shader stages
  - geometry shaders
  - tessellation shaders
  - compute shaders
    - WebCL exists
- Vertex Array Objects
Resources
<table>
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<th>Books</th>
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<tr>
<td>• <strong>Modern OpenGL</strong></td>
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<td>– The OpenGL Superbible, 5th Edition</td>
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<td>– OpenGL and the X Window System</td>
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<td>– OpenGL ES 2.0 Programming Guide</td>
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All the above books except Angel and Shreiner, Interactive Computer Graphics (Addison-Wesley), are in the Addison-Wesley Professional series of OpenGL books.
Online Resources

- The OpenGL Website: www.opengl.org
  - API specifications
  - Reference pages and developer resources
  - Downloadable OpenGL (and other APIs) reference cards
  - Discussion forums
- The Khronos Website: www.khronos.org
  - Overview of all Khronos APIs
  - Numerous presentations
- get.webgl.org
- www.cs.unm.edu/~angel/WebGL/7E
- www.chromeexperiments.com/webgl
Q & A

Thanks for Coming!
Thanks!

• Feel free to drop us any questions:

   angel@cs.unm.edu
   shreiner@siggraph.org

• Course notes and programs available at

   www.daveshreiner.com/SIGGRAPH
   www.cs.unm.edu/~angel

Many example programs, a C++ matrix-vector package and the InitShader function are under the Book Support tab at www.cs.unm.edu/~angel