图形瑰宝

第三册

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第1章 图像处理

本章中的所有算法都涉及对图像或像素的二维数组执行的操作。通常,图形程序员可能想要更改图像的大小、颜色或其他功能。前三个算法描述了在各种环境下拉伸或缩放图像的技术。第一条强调速度,而第二条强调质量。第四个算法描述了一种使用简化的颜色集显示全彩色图像的方法。

在某些情况下,将多个图像的特征组合起来是很有用的。第七个算法将我们现在熟悉的图像组合代数应用于黑白位图或1位图像。第八个算法讨论了如何有选择地模糊两幅图像,同时结合它们,以模拟相机的光圈景深效果。

有时,期望的结果不是另一个图像,而是图像中某些特征的另一种表示。第 五、第六和第九算法描述了从图像中提取区域边界信息的技术。

1.1 位图快速拉伸

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介绍

这里提出了一个整数算法,用于将位图的任意水平线或垂直线拉伸到任何其他任意直线上。该算法可用于要求接近实时性或实时性的绘图和绘图程序。应用程序区域的例子包括扩大和缩小位图的矩形区域,以及将矩形区域包装到圆形区域上。

算法

程序本身非常简单,大多数计算机图形程序员可能都熟悉它所基于的Bresenham划线算法(1965)。事实上,它可以基于任何画线算法;然而,Bresenham被选中,因为它是基于整数的,并且在计算机图形社区中非常普遍。对于那些不熟悉Bresenham算法的人来说,伪代码用于在第一个八边形中绘制线段。

```
Algorithm 1: Line(x1,y1,x2,y2)
```

input:由点(x1,y1)和点(x2,y2)构成的线段

output: 将线段绘制到位图上

// 从(x1, y1)到(x2, y2)在第一个八边形内画一条线; 所有变量都是整数

$$dx \leftarrow x2 - x1$$

 $dy \leftarrow y2 - y1$
 $e \leftarrow 2 * dy - dx$
for $i \leftarrow 1, i \leq dx, i \leftarrow i + 1$ do

WritePixel (x1,y1) // 在图上显示(x1,y1)while $e \geqslant 0$ do $y1 \leftarrow y1 + 1$ $e \leftarrow e - 2 * dx$ $x1 \leftarrow x1 + 1$ $e \leftarrow e + 2 * dy$

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上面的伪代码也适用于第二个八分位数,但是在这种情况下,行不会是连续的,因为x1总是递增1。这非常适合算法。

让我们回到拉伸算法的解释上。x1和y1不能被解释为二维直线上的一对坐标,它们必须被解释为一维坐标。dx必须解释为目标线的长度,dy是源线的长度。使用这些解释,x1是目标线上的坐标,y1是源线上的坐标。对于目标线上的每个像素,从源线上选择一个像素。这些像素以统一的方式选择。参见图1.1.1。

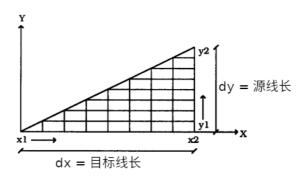


Figure 1.1.1: 源线与目标线

如果dx大于dy,那么目标线比源线长。因此,在绘制到目的线上时,源线将被放大。另一方面,如果dy大于dx,源线就会减小。如果dx = dy,算法会得到与源相同的直线。下面是伪代码中完整的stretcher算法,重写后能够处理x2 < x1和y2 < y1的行。

如果x等于0,那么符号函数不需要返回0,因为dx或dy都等于0,这意味着一条长度为1的直线。由于该算法只使用整数运算,而不使用乘法或除法,因此非常高效和快速。

这个小程序的另一个有趣之处是,它可以用来生成几种不同形状的位图。下面列出了一些可以用来渲染的东西。

一些项目使用位图扩展器

- 包裹在圆形或椭圆形区域上的矩形图片。关于绕圈,请参阅附录中的源代码。
- 放大和缩小位图的矩形部分。参见附录中的源代码。

Algorithm 2: Stretch(x1, y1, x2, y2, yr, yw)

```
input:
output:
// 从(x1, y1)到(x2, y2)在第一个八边形内画一条线; 所有变量都是
   整数
// 将源线(y1
               y2)延伸到目标线(x1 x2)。
// 源线和目标线都是水平的
// vr =从其中读取像素的水平线
// ww =要写入像素的水平线
// ReadPixel(x, y)返回像素(x, y)处的颜色
// WritePixel(x, y) 用当前颜色写入(x, y)处的像素
// SetColor(Color) 设置当前写入的颜色为Color
dx \leftarrow abs (x2 - x1)
dy \leftarrow abs (y2 - y1)
sx \leftarrow sign(x2 - x1)
sy \leftarrow sign (y2 - y1)
e \leftarrow 2 * dy - dx
dx2 \leftarrow 2 * dx
dy \leftarrow 2 * dy
for i \leftarrow 1, i \leqslant dx, i \leftarrow i+1 do
   color \leftarrow ReadPixel(x, y)
   {\tt SetColor}\ ({\tt Color})
   WritePixel(x1, yw)
   while e \geqslant \theta do
      y1 \leftarrow y1 + sy
    \vdash e \leftarrow e - dx2
   x1 \leftarrow x1 + 1
   e \leftarrow e + 2 * dy
```

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• 将位图的矩形部分绕平行梯形包绕。例如,一个绕x或y轴旋转,然后进行透视转换的矩形可以用作目标形状。

进一步的工作

为了改进算法,也许可以添加一个抗锯齿例程. See also G1, 147; G1, 166; G3, A.2.

1.2 一般的滤波图像缩放

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栅格图像可以看作是连续二维函数f(x,y)的样本的矩形网格。这些样本被假定为连续函数在给定样本点的精确值。理想的光栅图像缩放程序包括重建原始的连续函数,然后以不同的速率重新采样该函数(Pratt, 1991;Foley etal., 1990)。采样率越高(采样越靠近),采样就越多,图像也就越大。采样率越低(采样间隔越远)产生的样本越少,因此图像越小。幸运的是,我们不需要真正地重建整个连续函数,而只是确定重建函数在与新样本对应的点上的值,这是一个更容易的任务(Smith, 1981)。仔细选择过滤器,这个重采样过程可以分两步进行,首先水平地拉伸或缩小图像,然后垂直地拉伸或缩小(反之亦然),可能有不同的比例因子。双通道方法的运行时成本 $O(image_width*image_height*(filter_width+filter_height)比简单的二维过滤<math>O(image_width*image_height*(filter_width+filter_height)要低得多。$

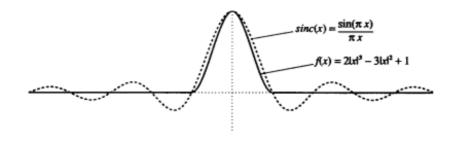


Figure 1.2.1: sinc示例

放大图像的过程有很多名字,包括放大、拉伸、缩放、插值和上采样。我将把这个过程称为放大。缩小图像的过程也有很多名字,包括缩小、缩小、按比例缩小、抽取和下采样。我将把这个过程称为简化。这些过程将在一维而不是二维中进行解释,因为缩放是在每个轴上独立进行的。

在放大过程中,我们通过应用滤波函数来确定每个源像素对每个目标像素的贡献。采样理论表明,sinc函数f(x) = sin(x)/x是理想的重构函数;然而,我们有一个有限的样本集,并且需要一个具有有限支持的过滤器(即过滤器非零的区

域)。我在这个例子中使用的过滤器是一个三次函数,f(x)=2|x|3-3|x|2+1,从- 1到+1,当单独应用时,它覆盖了每个样本的单位体积。图1比较了这些过滤函数。重采样滤波器的设计是一个没完没了的争论的来源,超出了这个宝石的范围,但在许多其他作品中讨论(Pratt, 1991; Turkowski, 1990; Mitchell, 1988; Smith, 1982; Oppenheim and Schafer, 1975; Rabiner and Gold, 1975).。为了应用滤镜,我们将滤镜函数的副本放在每个源像素的中心,并缩放到该像素的高度。对于每个目标像素,我们计算源图像中相应的位置。我们将这一点上加权滤波函数的值相加,以确定目标像素的值。图1.2.2说明了这个过程。

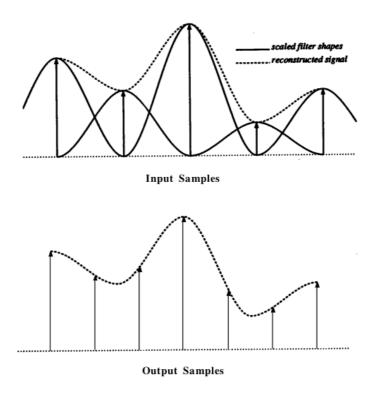


Figure 1.2.2: 滤波示例

在缩小过程中,过程是相似的,但不完全相同,因为我们必须考虑频率混叠。采样理论将奈奎斯特频率定义为能够正确捕获连续源信号中所有频率成分的采样率。奈奎斯特频率是源信号中最高频率分量频率的两倍。任何频率成分高于采样率的一半将被不正确地采样,并将被混叠到一个更低的频率。

因此, 重构信号将只包含采样率的一半或更少的频率成分。在放大过程中, 我们拉伸重构信号, 降低其分量频率。然而, 在缩小过程中, 我们正在缩小重构 信号,提高其分量频率,并可能超过我们新的采样率的奈奎斯特频率。为了创建合适的样本,我们必须消除重采样奈奎斯特频率以上的所有频率成分。这可以通过图像缩小因子拉伸滤波函数来实现。此外,由于每个源像素处的滤波器更宽,和将按比例更大,并应除以相同的因子进行补偿。图1.2.3说明了这个过程。

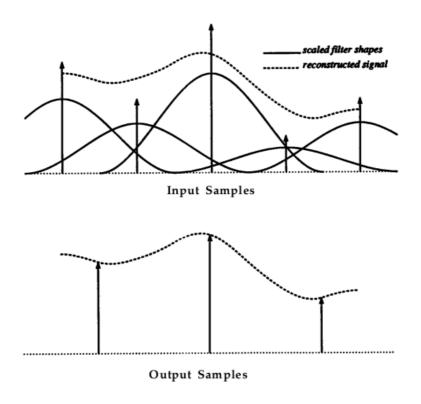


Figure 1.2.3: 滤波示例

到目前为止,我们只考虑了一维情况。我们将其扩展到典型的光栅图像的二维情况,首先水平缩放,然后垂直缩放。这里将不再演示缩放最小目标轴的进一步优化。滤波操作会导致大量的计算,所以我们尽可能多地预先计算。每个行(或列)的缩放过程是相同的。过滤器的位置和面积是固定的;这样,我们就可以预先计算出每个目标像素的贡献者和相应的滤波器权值。计算目标像素贡献者的伪代码如3。

在计算出贡献之后,目标图像的所有行(或列)都可以使用相同的预计算的过滤器值进行处理。下面的伪代码4显示了这些值用于扩展单个目标行的应用程序。

然后将相同的过程应用于图像的列一首先根据垂直比例因子(可能与水平比

Algorithm 3: calculate contributions(destination)

Algorithm 4: scale_row(destination_row, source_row) input:

output:

```
for i \leftarrow 0, i \leftarrow i + 1, i < dst\_size do

v \leftarrow 0;

for j \leftarrow 0, j \leftarrow j + 1, j < contributors[i] do

s \leftarrow contributor[i][j];

w \leftarrow weight\_value[i][j];

v \leftarrow v + (source\_row[s]*w);

destination row[i] \leftarrow v;
```





Figure 1.2.4: 滤波示例



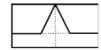


Figure 1.2.5: 滤波示例



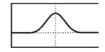


Figure 1.2.6: 滤波示例



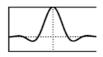


Figure 1.2.7: 滤波示例





Figure 1.2.8: 滤波示例

例因子不同)预计算过滤器的贡献,然后处理从中间(水平比例)图像到最终目标图像的列。

在附录中提供的源代码中,给出了许多过滤器函数,可以很容易地添加新的函数。zoom()函数以所需过滤器的名称和过滤器支持作为参数。图1.2.4到图1.2.8显示了不同滤波器对样本图像的影响,以及每个滤波器函数的脉冲响应图。

样本图像在两个方向上都按比例放大了12倍。图1.2.4显示了一个框过滤器,它相当于直接复制像素值,因为它显示了相当多的平铺或"锯齿"。图1.2.5显示了三角形或Bartlett滤波器,相对于方框来说是一个相当大的改进,计算仍然简单,但仍然有明显的过渡线。图1.2.6显示了一个三次b样条,它没有产生尖锐的过渡,但是它的宽度导致了过度的模糊。三角形和b样条函数分别通过盒形滤波器与自身卷积1次和3次来计算。图1.2.7显示了Lanczos 3滤波器,一个在-3到+3范围外衰减为零的sinc函数,它显示了在完全sinc函数时出现的过度的"振铃"效应。图1.2.8显示了Mitchell滤波器($B=\frac{1}{3},C=\frac{1}{3}$),一个没有急剧过渡的三次函数,以及"振铃(ringing)"和"模糊(blurring)"效果之间的一个很好的折衷。

See also G1, 147; G1, 166; G3, A.1.

1.3 位图缩放操作的优化

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这一节描述了一系列位图缩放操作的优化。我们没有给出一般的缩放算法,而是利用了几个特定于应用程序的限制,这些限制允许显著减少执行时间:每像素图像的位、已知的源和目标位图大小、以及位压缩的水平光栅存储和显示格式。示例应用程序是在典型的视频监视器上显示传真位图图像。

我们首先假设在内存中有源FAX,未压缩,存储为8位字节,每个字节的高阶位表示沿水平行的一组8个字节中最左边的像素。此外,在选择示例缩放因子时,我们假设源FAX的分辨率在两个方向上都是200点每英寸。如果数据是常用的200 × 100 dpi格式,我们可以通过复制每个扫描线使其为200 × 200 dpi,这是我们在解压阶段经常可以处理的任务。最初,我们将假设数据存储为与显示所用的位值匹配的白色和黑色位值。下面将讨论一种反演0位和1位含义的好方法。最后,我们假设目标位图的格式与源位图相同。

由于我们的示例图像分辨率高于您的典型视频监视器,我们将只考虑缩小图像的情况,而不是放大它。同样,我们用8来表示比例因子, $\frac{7}{8}=87.5\%$, $\frac{6}{8}=75\%$, $\frac{5}{8}=62.5\%$, $\frac{4}{8}=50\%$, $\frac{3}{8}=37.5\%$, $\frac{2}{8}=25\%$ 。一般算法工作如下:从源图像中取一条扫描线。对于每个字节,使用字节值作为查找表的索引,该查找表给出给定输入字节的简化位。将派生的输出位移位到累加器中。每个输入字节加到累加器的位数是基于比例因子的(例如,如果我们减少到 $\frac{5}{8}$ 比例,我们为每个8位输入生成5位输出)。当累加器中至少有8位时,我们从累加器中删除最左边的8位,并将它们作为输出字节写入目标扫描行。扫描线末端剩余的任何位都会被移到相应的位置并输出。许多源扫描线可以完全跳过,再次基于比例因子(例如,在 $\frac{5}{8}$ 的比例下,我们每8个扫描线中只处理5个,跳过3个)。

既然已经理解了基本的算法,我们可以讨论一些有用的变化和改进过程。该算法的核心是约简查找表。如果我们需要反转最终图像中的黑白图像,一种方法是反转查找表中存储的位。然后,它将映射到1111b,而不是00000000000时射到000006。这本质上给了我们在缩放期间免费的光度反演。类似地,通过仔细创建查找表,我们可以解决另一个问题,同样是免费的。如果我们缩小到量的比例,我们将在每8位中寻找3个来输出。图1.3.1a显示了这样做的最简单的方法。

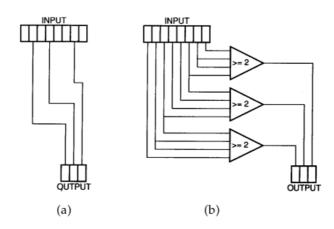


Figure 1.3.1: 缩放操作

一个更好的方法是模拟一种对源比特进行滤波或加权平均的形式,如图1.3.1b所示。由于查找表可以在编译时创建,所以使用更复杂的算法创建表的计算成本与运行时性能无关。为了进行适当的过滤缩放,我们真的应该跨相邻扫描线和跨字节边界应用过滤器。由于这些操作会带来很高的运行时成本,并且以有限的方式应用过滤,我们可以在没有额外成本的情况下展示改进,所以我们做的是便宜的事情。即使在这些限制条件下,使用滤波也比直接对输入进行子采样要好,如图1.3.1a所示。

您喜欢的任何类型的传递函数都可以以同样的方式应用,在8位跨度的限制内,并且仅以黑白作为输入值。您甚至可以做一些事情,如反转位的顺序,这可以与不同的存储顺序一起使用,以使图像从左到右翻转,或将其旋转180度(以防有人将图像倒过来输入扫描仪)。将表扩展到16位,这将占用128Kb的内存,而不是8位表使用的256b,从而提供了更大的灵活性。使用16位时,您可以使用更大的跨度,并且可以选择16倍而不是8倍的比例因数,这可能会使您的视频显示尺寸更匹配。这些技术以及附录中给出的示例代码只是简单的构建块。检查您自己的应用程序的约束,以找到更多应用这些原则和提高代码性能的方法。

See also G1, 147; G1, 166; G2, 57; G2, 84.

1.4 一个简单的减色滤镜

Dennis Bragg Graphics Software Inc. Bullard, Texas

介绍

提出了一个简单的滤波器,将一个24位的彩色光栅图像减少到15位有效位,并消除了可见的颜色步进问题。所得到的图像可以直接显示在16位帧缓冲器上,或用作颜色量化方法的输入,以进一步减少图像中的颜色数量。

光栅图像通常存储为一个24位像素数组,8位分配给每个红、绿、蓝(RGB)组件。每个RGB组件包含256种可能的强度级别。图1(见彩色插入图)是一个24位图像,使用了2215种不同的颜色。注意彩色球平滑连续的阴影。

不幸的是,能够显示24位彩色图像的帧缓冲区并不总是可用的。使用8位像素作为256色彩色地图索引的彩色显示器被广泛使用。颜色量化方法(Gervautz和Purgathofer, 1990)常用于减少24位图像中使用的颜色数量,以便在8位设备上准确显示。

每像素可以显示16位颜色的帧缓冲器(每个RGB组件5位,加上一个属性位)也变得越来越便宜。在16位帧缓冲区上显示24位图像的典型解决方案是屏蔽每个RGB组件的三个最不重要的位。这种方法将每种颜色的256个强度级别减少到只有32个级别。

一个发生在减色平滑阴影图像的问题是颜色步进。在原始24位图像中,亮度从暗到亮连续变化的区域,在16位或8位帧缓冲区中显示时,通常会出现明显的亮度级步骤。在第2页(见彩色插入图)中,第1页的图像使用Gervautz和Purgathofer的颜色量化方法减少到256色。由于可供选择的颜色数量有限,请注意踏在球上的颜色。

该宝石通过一个加权随机量来改变每个像素RGB组件的强度级别,从而解决了颜色步进问题。方差量的加权方式这种方法的结果图像中任何像素局部区域的平均值非常接近源图像的实际24位颜色。

结果图像每像素包含15个有效的颜色位,每个RGB组件包含5个有效的颜色位。图像可以直接显示在16位帧缓冲区上,或用作颜色量化方法的输入,以进一步减少颜色的数量。得到的图像有一些"颗粒"的外观,但比可见的颜色梯度要

少得多。

滤波器

过滤器分别考虑每个像素的RGB组件。将一个分量的256个强度等级划分为32个相等的区域。每个区域覆盖8个强度等级。第一个区域的强度等级为0,下一个区域的强度等级为8,以此类推。

RGB组件的强度将被设置为这些区域之一。如果将组件设置为最接近的强度级别,得到的图像仍然会显示颜色步进。相反,强度除以8(或模量)的余数被确定。这给出了一个从0到7的数字。生成一个范围为0到8的随机数,并与余数进行比较。如果余数小于或等于随机数,则分量强度增加8。这具有以一种随机的方式改变组件的效果,但偏重于最接近的强度水平。

接下来,根据用户提供的噪声水平,将一些随机噪声添加到组件强度中。噪音的添加消除了任何残留的色彩踏步,否则可能是显而易见的。最后,组件较低的3位被屏蔽,将每像素的有效位数减少到15。

这个过程产生的RGB组件与原始的24位组件有很大的不同。然而,图像任意局部区域的像素分量的平均强度与原始图像的平均强度非常接近。在第三张图中(见彩色插入图),首先对原始的24位图像进行滤波处理,然后采用与图2相同的方法将图像压缩到每像素8位。

实现

这个过滤器是用函数rgbvary()实现的。该函数需要四个参数:一个由待处理像素的RGB组件组成的三个字符数组(RGB),一个指定所需噪声级别的整数(noise level),以及像素的x和y位置(x和y)。

该函数返回源RGB数组中修改后的RGB组件。噪音等级可以从0(无噪音)到8(吵闹!)2级的噪音在实践中效果很好。

像素的x和y位置由两个宏(jitterx和jittery)使用,它们生成随机数。抖动宏基于GRAPHICS GEMS中的抖动函数(Cychosz, 1990)。使用抖动的优点是它总是在特定的x, y位置上以相同的幅度变化一个像素。当你在动画中减少几帧的色彩时,这是很重要的。使用标准的随机数生成器将在动画播放时产生"雪花"效果。jitter函数消除了这个问题。

在调用rgbvary()以初始化jitter宏使用的查找表之前,必须调用函数jitter_init()。这个过程使用标准的C函数rand()来填写表格。

总结

一种滤波器被提出,以减少24位图像为15有效位每像素。该程序消除了颜色步进的问题,但代价是外观略有颗粒。生成的图像可以直接显示在16位帧缓冲上,或用作颜色量化方法的输入,以进一步减少颜色。



1.4 Plate 1. Original 24-bit color image.



1.4 Plate 2. 256 color image after standard color quantization.



1.4 Plate 3. 256 color image after processing with rgbvary() and standard color quantization.

Figure 1.4.1: 颜色滤波

1.5 从抽样数据得到的紧凑等高线

Dennis Bragg Graphics Software Inc. Bullard, Texas

问题

包括医学成像、地震学和气象学在内的许多领域的数据,都是在一个大立方体网格的顶点上采集的一组测量数据。在这些领域中,从数据立方体生成可视化表示的技术非常重要。许多常见的可视化技术将数据值视为连续函数F的样本函数值,并对某些c生成F(x,y,z)=c的分段平面近似,即函数的等值线。最初的《图形瑰宝》之一,"从采样数据定义表面",调查了几种最著名的从数据立方体生成等高线的技术(Hall, 1990)。

在本文中,我们将对该类型的所有技术进行增强。这种增强减少了任何等高 线近似的元素数量,并改善了元素的形状。第一个改进通常将表示的大小减少 约50%,允许更快的重新显示并减少内存需求。第二种方法通过避免在许多照明 模型中造成不希望看到的阴影影响的狭窄元素,从而得到质量更好的图片。

基于立方体的轮廓

一些作者提出了大致类似的方法,可以从立方体数据网格中创建可视化的等高线。这些方法分别处理每个立方体上的数据,并利用沿立方体边缘的线性插值来计算位于等高线上的点集合。在Lorenson和Cline的Marching Cubes算法(Lorenson和Cline, 1987)中,这些交点通过表查找来连接成边和三角形,表查找的基础是定义立方体顶点的值F(x,y,z)-c的符号。

不幸的是,这种方法并不能保证轮廓的连续性,因为共享一张带有混合符号的脸的相邻立方体可以以不同的方式划分(Durst, 1988)。其他人提出了另一种方法,通过对模糊人脸中心的函数进行采样来消除这种情况的歧义(Wyvil等人,1986)。我们称之为这样的方法,通过沿着三次网格边缘的线性插值计算出轮廓的顶点,基于边缘的插值方法。

基于边缘的插值方法的另一个问题是,它们产生的表面网格可能非常不规则,即使是简单的三元数据。这些不规则性包括微小的三角形(当轮廓通过立方

体网格的顶点时产生)和狭窄的三角形(当轮廓通过网格的边缘时产生)。根据我们的经验,在某些曲面网格中,这种三角形可以占到三角形的50%。这些形状糟糕的元素通常会降低渲染算法和有限元分析应用于网格的性能,而对近似的总体精度贡献很小。

紧凑立方体

这个章节的贡献是一种通用的技术,用于从基于边的插值中消除近简并三角形的问题。该技术背后的想法很简单:当网格的一个顶点靠近表面时,将网格"弯曲"一点,这样顶点就位于表面上。小三角形坍缩成点,小三角形坍缩成边,只剩下形状良好的大三角形。本文的其余部分概述了这一理念的实现;有更详细的解释(Moore和Warren, 1991)。

对数据立方体应用任何基于边的插值算法,并在此过程中,记录沿着立方体边缘生成的每个顶点,该顶点附近的立方体网格的点。我们称这个顶点为它最近的网格点的卫星。如果顶点位于一条边的中点,则可以使用这条边的任意端点,只要共享这条边的所有其他立方体使用同一个端点。当算法的这一阶段完成后,就得到了等高线的三角剖分S和一个离三角剖分的每个顶点最近的网格点。

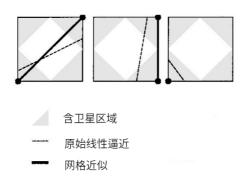


Figure 1.5.1: 二维案例表紧凑型立方体

为了得到一个新的、更小的等值线近似值,请采用以下步骤(算法5):

该方法的第一步是定义新网格连接点的拓扑结构。在S中,一个特定网格点的所有卫星被合并成结果网格中的单个顶点。因此,当一个网格点被"切掉"时产生的小三角形被折叠到网格点上。当两个顶点非常接近同一个网格点时产生的窄三角形被折叠成一条边。图1以两个维度说明了这一点。从这个角度来看,如果原曲面网格是连续的,那么算法第一步生成的网格也必须是连续的。

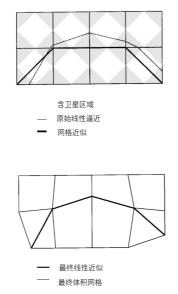


Figure 1.5.2: 一个二维立方体的例子

Algorithm 5: 等值线近似值

```
for each triangle T in S do
    if the vertices of T are satellites of distinct gridpoints then
        produce a triangle connecting the gridpoints;
else
        T collapses to a vertex or edge so ignore it;
for each gridpoint g of the new triangulation do
        displace g to the average position of its satellites;
```

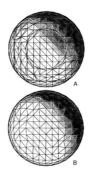


Figure 1.5.3: 球面的两个近似值

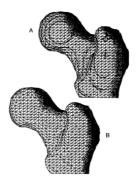


Figure 1.5.4: 两个股骨头的近似图

在第二步中, 网格的顶点被平移到原始等高线上或附近。由于每个新的顶点位置被选择为位于原始轮廓上一小簇点的平均位置, 新的近似通常只与原始轮廓稍微偏离。

图1.5.2 说明了这种方法应用于二维网格。上面的部分说明了第一步的结果。下面的部分说明了第二步的输出。图形上部的短边已折叠成下部的顶点。

实际上,这种方法效果很好,将三角形的数量减少了40%到60%。图1.5.3显示了一个球体由游行立方体(a)和相同的球体后紧凑的立方体(B)的应用。图1.5.4显示了一个人类的股骨,最初作为CT数据,为波状外形的游行立方体(a)和紧凑的立方体(B)。在每个例子中,三角形的数量减少了使用紧凑的数据集,其余三角形的形状也得到了明显的改善。

正如这里所描述的,紧凑立方体产生的轮廓可能有几个不受欢迎的特征。首先,最终轮廓的边界可能不在定义的立体网格的边界上。第二,通过公共网格点附近的轮廓的两个不相交的薄片可以在该网格点融合。Moore和Warren(1991)描述了对Compact Cubes的简单修改,解决了这些问题。

See also G1, 552; G1, 558; G2, 202.

1.6 从位图生成等值线

Tim Feldman Island Graphics Corporation San Rafael, California

本节提出了一种算法,该算法遵循采样数据数组中的轮廓边缘。它使用Freeman链编码生成一个向量列表,描述轮廓的轮廓。

假设您有一个已采样或"数字化"成灰度像素矩形阵列的地形图。不同的像素值对应不同的地形高程。该算法可用于生成以等高线表示地形高程的"地形图"。附录中给出了一个遵循一条轮廓线的示例程序(contour.c)。

该算法能够处理包含单个样本点的等高线、围绕不同海拔区域的等高线、不形成闭合曲线的等高线、以及形成交叉曲线、形成环路的等高线。在所有情况下,它遵循轮廓的最外层边缘。给定阵列中高程轮廓的初始点,该算法找到轮廓的边缘。然后顺时针方向沿着这条边走,直到它回到起点。沿着每个方向向量描述了从路径上的一个像素到路径上的下一个像素的方向。路径上的所有像素都是近邻。因此,向量可以被认为是传统二维向量的方向部分,其长度部分总是等于一个像素。这样的向量列表被称为"弗里曼链",以其创始人Herbert Freeman命名(Freeman,1961)。图1.6.1 显示了定义从一个像素到其邻居路径上的八个可能方向的值。本例中使用的像素阵列如图1.6.2a所示;图1.6.2b显示了示例程序的输出。算法从样本x=3,y=2开始,寻找高程=200的等高线边缘并跟踪。

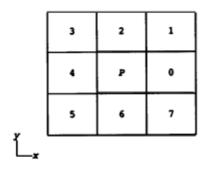


Figure 1.6.1: 从点P到它的八个邻居的方向向量。

该算法的核心在于知道如何以顺时针方向沿着轮廓的方式选择邻居。测试

7	0	100	100	100	100	100	200	200	
6	100	100	100	100	100	200	200	100	
5	100	200	200	200	200	200	200	100	
4	100	200	255	200	200	100	100	100	
3	100	200	250	250	250	200	100	100	
2	100	200	200	200	200	100	100	100	
1	100	100	200	200	200	200	200	100	
0	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
y Lx	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
(a)									
222000110564577044443									

Figure 1.6.2: a)标高数据采样样例。 b)绘制高程 = 200等高线轮廓的22个点向量。

(b)

图1.6.2a,并想象您从x=1,y=2的采样点出发,沿着高程=200的等高线边缘行走。为了顺时针移动轮廓线,你的第一个移动应该是x=1,y=3处的样本。你走在自己轮廓的边缘;在你的左边是危险的悬崖,它向下坠落到一个较低的高度。当你沿着轮廓走的时候,注意你的头部是变化的,但是悬崖总是在你的左边。在选择下一步的时候,你总是试着向前走,向左走,而不是走下悬崖。如果你不能向前移动到你的左边,你试着顺时针方向:直走。如果不行,你试着顺时针方向向前,向右,等等。如果你发现自己在一个海角上,你顺时针方向的方向会让你掉头,重新走一段路。最终,你将完全沿着轮廓移动,然后回到你的起点。

算法的工作原理是一样的。build()过程构建围绕轮廓边缘移动时所采取的方向的Freeman链。build()调用neighbor()过程来获取路径上的下一个邻居。neighbor()反过来调用probe()来查找该邻居。最低级的过程是in_cont(),它只是简单地测试给定的样本是否在轮廓中。请注意,采样数据的整个数组不需要立即放入内存:in_cont()可以修改为随机访问脱机存储,如果需要的话。

neighbor()中的last_dir变量维护neighbor()的方向感。检查图3,看看邻居()过程是如何实现上面描述的"尝试向前移动并向左移动"的步骤的。假设你从样本a到达样本P,那么last dir是2,而样本C总是在等高线之外,所以第

一个探测的邻居是D。从P到D的方向是3;new dir←last dir + 1。

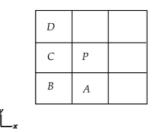


Figure 1.6.3: 从P点通过A或B点移动到D点

现在假设您从b到达了P, $last_dir$ 是1,C仍然在等高线之外,D仍然是要探测的第一个邻居。P到D的方向仍然是3; $new_dir \leftarrow last_dir + 2$ 。

请注意,当 $last_dir$ 等于0、2、4或6时,到达P点的情况都是全等的(它们只是被旋转了90度)。类似地, $last_dir = 1$ 、3、5和7的情况都相等。因此,neighbor()使用的简单规则是将 new_dir 设置为 $last_dir + 1$ (如果 $last_dir$ 为偶数),或将其设置为+ 2(如果 $last_dir$ 为奇数)。当然, new_dir 的范围必须保持在0到7之间,因此加法对8取模。

E的取值范围从0到7,所以加法对8取模。唯一剩下的微妙之处是如何正确地选择第一个移动,以便以顺时针方向围绕轮廓开始。这是很容易实现的:算法,当给定一个起点在轮廓的任何地方,在轮廓向左移动,直到它遇到边缘。这保证了路径从边缘开始。它还保证了初始排列如图3所示:路径从样本P开始,C处的邻居不在等高线中,并且new_dir的值应为3。这意味着last_dir的初始值应该是1。算法在build()过程中设置它。

这个示例程序是为了演示Freeman链背后的思想而编写的,但它的存储效率并不高。链表中的每个成员占用一个整数和一个指针。但正如Freeman在他最初的工作中指出的,每个方向向量编码只需要三个比特。使用三位的实现将使用一个大的内存块而不是链表,并且将有将方向向量链打包到块中的过程,并按顺序提取它们。为了确定应该为保存轮廓中所有方向向量的块分配多少内存,将使用轮廓跟踪算法的简化版本。它会沿着轮廓线计算描述完整路径所需的方向向量的数量,但它不会存储方向向量。一旦确定了矢量的数量,就会分配内存,调用主算法重描轮廓,并将方向矢量打包到内存块中。

前面的方法比示例程序更有效,但它用速度换取了内存空间。第三种方法仍

然允许轮廓具有任意长度,同时有效地使用内存空间,同时保持良好的速度。它通过消除预扫描步骤来实现这一点。对于使用大数据集或不保存在内存中的数据集的实现来说,这是一个重要的考虑因素。方法是使用一个简单的链表,就像示例程序一样。但是,列表中的每个成员都有一个分配的内存块,而不是一个整数。这个块包含许多方向向量,每一个都被压缩成3个比特。更多的数据块将被分配,并根据需要链接到列表中,因为轮廓是遵循的。包装和提取带菌者将需要程序,而且必须保持额外的管理资料,以便使一切都处于控制之下。这种技术为链表中的指针使用了少量空间,但仍然比示例程序的内存效率高得多。这种方法的权衡是在实际编程中经常遇到的问题:为了在保持速度的同时节省存储空间,会增加程序的复杂性。

最后,一些实现可能根本不需要在内存中保存轮廓的表示;它们可以简单地将 方向向量写入顺序访问磁盘文件或某些输出设备或并发进程。在这种情况下,示 例程序的build()过程将被修改。

See also G3, A.5.

1.7 合成黑白位图

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介绍

典型的位图编码黑白像素。添加一个辅助位图允许我们表示透明的像素。这种两位表示对于非矩形或有孔的黑白图像很有用。它还为组合位图提供了一组更丰富的操作。我们用布尔值对 (α,β) 编码三个可能的像素值,如下所示:

α	β	Meaning
1	0	Black
1	1	vvnite
0	0	Transparent
0	1	Undefined

Compositing Bitmaps

我们可以使用合成操作R \leftarrow P **op** Q 将两个像素P = $(P_{\alpha'}, P_{\beta})$ 和Q = $(Q_{\alpha'}Q_{\beta})$ 组合成一个新的像素R = $(R_{\alpha'}R_{\beta})$, 如表一所示。

该表是将全彩合成代数(Porter and Duff, 1984)简化为两个位域(Salesin and Barzel, 1986)。注意,表中 R_{α} 和 R_{β} 的方程现在是布尔公式:and被写成乘法,OR写成加法,XOR写成 \oplus 。布尔操作可以使用一系列标准的"bitblt"操作一次对整个位图执行。根据操作的不同,所需的bitblt总数从2到4不等。

表中的数字描述了操作对两个示例位图P和q的影响。在这些数字中,使用灰色调表示结果中的透明区域。

over运算符用于将非矩形黑白位图置于现有图像之上——它非常适合绘制游标。in和out操作符允许一个位图作为另一个位图的哑光一例如,如果P是一个"砖"纹理,而Q是一个"建筑",那么P in Q就会用砖对建筑进行贴片。如果一个位图同时充当另一个位图的哑光和背景,那么atop操作符很有用——例如,它允许将一小块纹理增量地绘制到现有位图上。

See also G1, 210.

Operation		Figure	R_{α}	R_{β} Description
clear		0	0	Result is transparent
P		P_{α}	P_{β}	P only
Q	\triangle	Q _α	Q_{β}	Q only
P over Q		$P_{\alpha} + Q_{\alpha}$	$P_{\beta} + \overline{P}_{\alpha}Q_{\beta}$	P occludes background Q
P in Q		$P_{\alpha}Q_{\alpha}$	$Q_{\alpha}P_{\beta}$	Q_{α} acts as a matte for P : P shows only where Q is opaque
P out Q	() V	$P_{\alpha}\overline{Q}_{\alpha}$	$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}_{\alpha} \mathbb{P}_{\beta}$	$\overline{\mathbb{Q}}_{\alpha}$ acts as a matte for P : P shows only where \mathbb{Q} is transparent
P atop Q	747	Qα	$Q_{\alpha}P_{\beta} + \overline{P}_{\alpha}Q_{\beta}$	$(P \text{ in } Q) \cup (Q \text{ out } P);$ Q is both background and matte for P
P xor Q		$P_{\alpha} \oplus Q_{\alpha}$	$\overline{Q}_{\alpha}P_{\beta} + \overline{P}_{\alpha}Q_{\beta}$	$\begin{array}{c} (P \ out \ Q) \ \cup \ (Q \ out \ P); \\ P \ and \ Q \ mutually \ exclude \ each \ other \end{array}$

Table 1.1: 位图合成操作

1.8 计算机动画的 $2\frac{1}{2}D$ 景深模拟

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介绍

景深被定义为在光学透镜系统中包围焦平面的区域,在该区域内物体保持确定的焦质量。长期以来,摄影师和电影摄影师一直利用相机镜头和光圈的这一方面,将观众的注意力从感兴趣的领域以外的区域引导到图像的特定部分。正因为如此,在计算机动画系统中加入景深效果是非常有利的。

这个gem描述了一个2½-D的景深算法,用于模拟计算机生成的动画中的焦点变化。这种特殊的算法实际上独立于任何隐藏面去除技术。我们根据深度将3d场景分层为独立渲染的不相交对象组。生成的图像经过滤波模拟景深,然后通过合成后处理重新组合成单幅图像。当逐渐改变滤镜应用于动画序列的连续帧时,其效果是将观看者的注意力从场景的一个深度面拉到另一个深度面。

相关工作

以前模拟景深的尝试涉及使用针孔相机模型(Potmesil和Chakravarty, 1982)。 然而,该算法没有考虑到透镜表面提供了连续的环境不同视图这一事实。分布射 线追踪(Cook et al., 1984)克服了这一缺陷,但将该技术嵌入到渲染过程中。我 们的算法可以被认为是这两种方法的折中:虽然我们不整合阴影和景深,但我们确 实以一种受限的方式结合了表面可见性和景深。

算法

我们的方法本质上是一个三个阶段的过程:

1. 隐藏表面去除阶段:

在第一个阶段中,可以手动或自动地将对象分层或聚类到前景和背景组中。每个簇或组被单独渲染成它自己的图像,每个像素的alpha通道有一个不透明度掩码(见图1,颜色插入)。这种不透明度遮罩最终在第三阶段发挥作用,但它可以在第二阶段进行修改。

2. 滤波器后处理阶段:

该阶段使用类似于指数低通滤波器的卷积掩模来模糊各种图像,以模拟景深效果。由于我们的算法与模拟透镜的焦距无关,这允许我们自由地操纵图像的模糊程度。然而,我们的目的是创造一个现实的效果,所以我们仔细选择模糊程度。还必须小心避免"渐晕"(Perlin, 1985),如果过滤算法不补偿图像边界之外的未知区域,就会出现这种现象。这是通过重新计算加权滤波器,每当卷积掩模的任何部分被图像边界剪辑。

3. 合成阶段:

最后,在这一阶段,我们遵循波特和达夫(1984)、达夫(1985)和麦克斯和勒纳(1985)建立的算法。第一阶段中不透明度蒙版的重要性在这里发挥了作用,因为它允许我们在将前景图像叠加到背景图像时避免混淆工件。

焦距变化模拟

正如在介绍中所述,电影摄影师长期以来一直使用焦点的变化来推动或拉观 众的注意力从场景的一个部分到另一个部分(例如,从前景到背景)。这种"聚焦 "是未经过滤的前景对象("聚焦中")与模糊的背景("超出"焦平面)叠加的结果。因此,将观众的注意力从前景拉到背景,相当于在一系列帧中,将镜头的"焦平面"沿着光轴从前景逐渐转移到背景。因为我们不使用镜头和光圈相机模型,我们必须从一帧到一帧修改模糊滤镜的形状。假设发生焦点变化模拟的帧数是先验的,我们可以很容易地对滤波器的"模糊度"进行插值,范围从一个很小的值到一个能给我们期望的最大图像模糊度的大小。这是为前景对象做的。对于相应的背景图像,我们使用相同的插值值系列,只是顺序相反。当过滤过程完成后,两个独立的前景和背景图像流在最后一个阶段被拼接在一起,形成拍摄的最终图像帧。图b、c和d(见颜色插入)分别是由这个过程产生的动画序列的第一帧、中间帧和最后帧的例子。作为一个边注,这一过程所获得的结果与塞尔动画中偶尔使用的多平面相机系统所获得的结果非常相似(Thomas和Johnston,1981)。

致谢和历史记录

这本书是几年前与詹姆斯·阿尔沃(James Alvo)合作撰写的一篇更详细但从 未发表过的论文的浓缩。作为一个历史笔记,在这个宝石中描述的焦点变化模拟 被用于两个阿波罗计算机射线追踪动画公司中的第一个(即"Quest")。



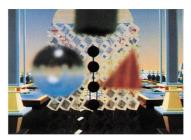
(a) 由它们自己渲染的场景中的一 簇物体。



(b) 前景和背景物体的合成图像。 前景是"聚焦"。



(c) 合成图像。前景和背景对象模 (d) 合成图像。动画序列的最后一 糊化。



帧, 背景对象"聚焦"。

复合区域的快速边界生成器 1.9

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问题

在计算机图形学的许多应用中, 寻找由封闭边界定义的多个区域的轮廓是一 个常见的问题。通过求一组圆的包络线可以确定一组雷达站点的二维覆盖,如 图1所示。另一个例子是土地利用和城市规划中若干分区的大纲。一般来说,这 类应用程序都是将兴趣区域的联合可视化。需要一种算法来找到这些区域的复合 边界或包络线。换句话说, 我们希望显示一组二维区域的轮廓。每个区域在二维 上都是一个封闭边界。常见的区域原语是圆、多边形和椭圆、但任何其他封闭区 域轮廓都可以使用所描述的技术很好地工作。在这个gem中,我们将使用圆作为 我们的基本示例区域。图1到图3显示了该算法的步骤。圆集合的轮廓有许多短的 连接弧或扇形。

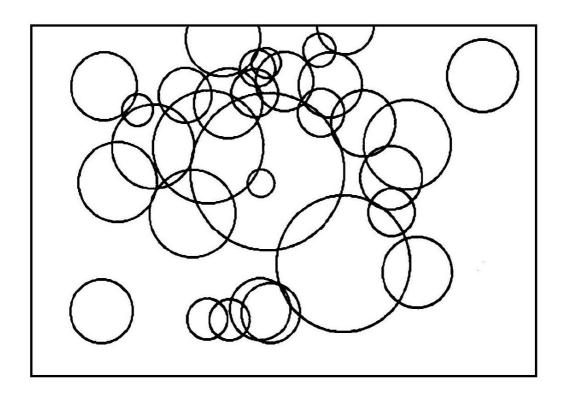


Figure 1.9.1: A set of circles shown in a frame buffer.

其他方法

针对多雷达站点问题的几种解决方案都采用了直接分析的方法。他们通过一系列雷达范围圆进行工作,通过将每个新圆与以前的交叉点生成的弧相交,从而创建一组弧(Bowyer and Woodwark, 1983)。不相交的圆必须带着,并与每个新圆相交。对每个新圆进行内部/外部测试,并修改弧集以删除一些弧段并添加新的弧。不幸的是,随着圆列表的增长,生成边界的时间随着圆数量的平方而增加。已经实现了一些改进,例如完全丢弃包含在其他圆中的圆,并使用边界框测试来限制更昂贵的圆/弧相交测试的数量。

Figure 2. The circles of Fig. 1 after filling.

这种直接的分析方法适合于创建分辨率远高于典型帧缓冲区所能显示的区域 边界数据集。然而,可视化一组区域的包络可以更快地完成。

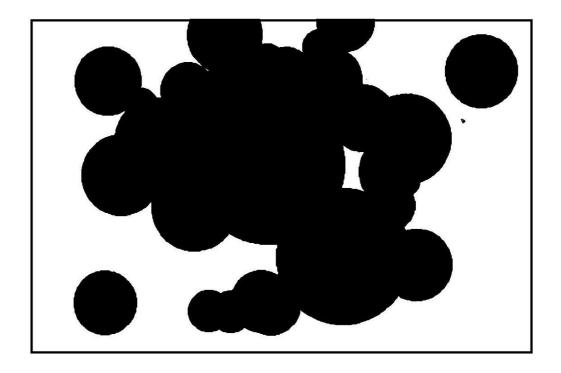


Figure 1.9.2: The circles of Fig. 1 after filling.

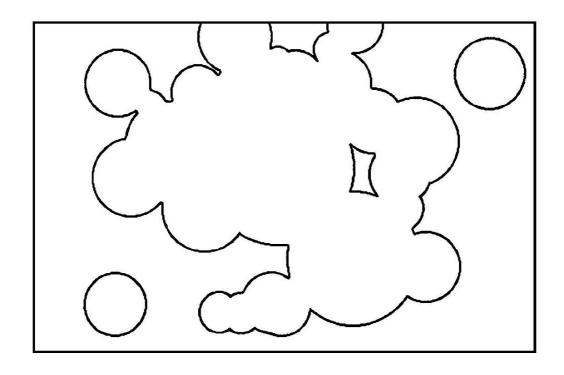


Figure 1.9.3: Scallops. The envelope of Fig. 1 circles.

快速生成边界

一种混合了计算机图形学和图像处理技术的快速生成区域边界的方法。该算法由两个基本步骤组成,用于帧缓冲区的有限分辨率。首先,对于每个封闭原语,绘制填充区域并将其剪切到帧缓冲区限制。尽管我们希望只显示许多闭合对象的信封,但我们同时绘制和填充每个对象。通常绘图和填充可以通过精心的算法构造在同一个步骤中完成。其次,在整个帧缓冲区上应用侵蚀运算符来删除所有填充的内部点。没有填充的对象,侵蚀不会使它们减少到复合边界。这个过程如图1-3所示,每个圆都是独立绘制和填充的。

该算法的执行时间是所有区域的绘图和填充时间加上单道侵蚀操作的时间。 在我们的示例中,这是绘制/填充所有圆所需的时间加上侵蚀它们所需的时间。 当绘制单个重叠对象时,不填充先前由另一个区域填充的像素似乎可以节省一些 时间。不幸的是,测试确定一个区域是否已经被填满通常比仅仅将数据写入帧缓 冲区要花费更长的时间。所需的时间与所有区域的填充面积成线性增长,对于直 接分析方法的平方增长率有相当大的改进。 附录II中用于生成填充圆的示例C代码改变了计算机图形文本中给出的通常的中点圆生成算法,以创建填充圆(Foley et al., 1990)。通过调用raster_fill函数来填充圆,该函数直接实现了使用fill_circle 函数中的二阶偏差生成中点圆的算法。

将填充区域侵蚀到它们的边界轮廓,查看帧缓冲区中每个像素及其最近的四个连接邻居。一个填充的像素值或颜色将被擦除为侵蚀值,只有当它的所有四个连接的邻居像素也被填充相同的值。对背景值的侵蚀将只留下以原始填充颜色绘制的边界像素。然而,侵蚀到不同的颜色将留下轮廓在原始填充值和填充内部用新的侵蚀值。在这个测试过程中使用了三个光栅缓冲区,以避免在以后计算其他像素时替换帧缓冲区中的像素,或者需要从一个帧缓冲区渲染到另一个帧缓冲区。在附录II的C代码中,栅格缓冲区向帧缓冲区添加了一个单像素的边界。用对象的原始像素填充值填充这个边界将留下一个开放的边缘,在这个边界被剪切在帧缓冲区的边缘。当边界设置为背景值(在代码中为零)时,在发生帧边缘裁剪的地方绘制一个封闭边缘包络线。这个过程是图像处理的二值边缘检测(Gonzalez和Wintz, 1987)在计算机图形学中的一个相当简单的应用。

注意事项

尽管这种技术简单快速,像大多数帧缓冲算法一样,它只能精确到最近的像 素。解析解的精度将受到计算所用的算术精度的限制。

对于圆,可以通过生成一个固定圆的栅格跨度宽度表来提高速度。直径应该至少是帧缓冲区最大尺寸宽度的两倍,以保持在Nyquist区间内。然后,该表可用于任何所需圆大小的比例宽度查找。表查找消除了进一步的圆生成,但仍然必须执行剪切和填充操作。对于任何直接可伸缩和未旋转的区域,也可以获得类似的表好处。

为了帮助用户验证函数的正确实现,C代码包含一个简单的程序来测试填充和侵蚀例程。一个很小的伪帧缓冲区使用了用简单的"printf"语句在ASCII中显示的左上角。

第2章 数值和编程技术

计算机图形学领域充满了复杂的数学,图形程序通常充满了计算密集型的操作。简化计算的技术和技巧或有用的近似总是受欢迎的。本节包含的Gems为那些喜欢"关注细节"的程序员增加了技巧。

第一个Gem描述了IEEE标准平方根运算的快速近似,并改进了前一个Gem中提出的技术。第二个Gem描述了围绕众所周知的UNIX(tm)内存分配器"malloc()"放置的包装器,以提高其可用性和可预测性。第三个Gem解释了如何考虑由轨道球控制的3-D旋转,并提供了背后的群论数学。第四个Gem简要介绍了区间算法以及如何在计算机图形学中使用它。

第五Gem讨论了与常用的两个、三个或更多数字的循环排列技术相关的效率问题。第六Gem讨论了如何选择颜色来突出显示或选择图像特征,并提出了一个类比魔方的空间!第7个Gem处理的是生成具有各种分布的随机点集,均匀的和其他的。这些技术对于分布射线追踪和其他蒙特卡罗方法非常有用。最后两个Gems采用了二维和三维空间中经常使用的一些概念,并将它们扩展到高维空间中。

2.1 IEEE 快速平方根

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这个gem是Paul Lalonde和Robert Dawson在Graphics Gems i中提出的快速平方根算法的重新实现。

在我的实现中,我添加了一个额外的例程,它允许将平方根表转储为C源代码。该文件可以单独编译,以消除在运行时创建表的必要性。

新的例程使用IEEE双精度浮点格式。我包含了许多有用的#defines,以使程序更易于访问。注意,在某些体系结构中,单词的顺序是颠倒的。常数MOST SIG OFFSET 可以设置为1或0,以允许这一事实。

表的大小可以通过改变常量SQRT_TAB 大小来调整。它一定是4的幂。恒定的MANT_SHIFTS必须相应地进行调整——如果将表的大小增加四倍,那么从3MANT SHIFTS 中减去2。

See also G1, 403; G1, 424; G2, 387.

2.2 一个简单的快速内存分配器

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这个Gem描述了一个简单的内存分配包,可以用来代替传统的malloc()库函数。该包维护一个内存块链表,以顺序的方式从其中分配内存。如果一个块用完,则从下一个块分配内存。如果下一个块是NULL,则使用malloc()分配一个新块。

我们把内存块的列表称为池。一个池可以被全部释放,也可以被重置。在前一种情况下,使用库函数free()将分配给池的所有内存返回给系统。在后一种情况下,不会释放任何内存,但会重置池的高水位标记。这允许在一个操作中丢弃池中分配的所有数据,几乎没有任何开销。然后池中的内存就可以重用了,不需要重新分配。

这个包允许程序员创建多个池,并在它们之间切换。 该方案的一些优点是:

- 内存分配很快。
- 数据可能具有更大的局部性。
- 我们不再需要每个数据结构都有一个免费的例程。
- 重置池非常简单。这可能会取代对free()库例程的许多调用。
- 内存泄漏的可能性较小。

主要的缺点是:

• 单个结构不能被释放。这可能会导致更大的项目驻留。

该软件包已成功用于射线追踪程序。使用了两个池。第一个池保存在读取模型文件时创建的永久数据。第二个池用于在呈现过程中创建的临时数据。在计算完每个像素后重置该池。

该一揽子方案的合并产生了三个重大影响。首先,程序运行得更快。虽然速度不是特别快,但是程序的大部分时间都花在计算十字路口,而不是分配内存上。其次,许多操作的代码变得更简单。这是因为消除了对释放内存的调用。最后,所有的空间泄漏都被根除了。这个程序由许多人共同开发,在某些情况下,对适当的内存分配函数的调用被忘记了。使用包消除了对这些调用的需要;因此,空间泄漏也被消除了。

2.3 滚动球

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交互式图形系统通常需要允许用户使用常用的二维输入设备(如鼠标)在三维 空间中自由旋转图形对象的技术。实现这一目标受到一个事实的阻碍,即从输入 设备的两个参数到定向的三个参数空间没有单一的自然映射。

在这里,我们介绍了鼠标驱动三维方向控制的滚动球方法,以及它在其他科学可视化问题上的一些有趣的扩展。这种技术利用连续的二维运动(以球在平桌上滚动而不滑动为模型)来达到任意的三维方向。与其他各种方法不同,滚动球方法只有一个状态,并且完全与上下文无关:可以关闭鼠标光标,忽略移动的历史或演进状态,但仍然确切地知道下一个增量鼠标移动将会产生什么效果。对于从直接操作印象中获益的应用程序来说,这个属性非常有吸引力。

很明显,鼠标可以控制围绕两个轴(图1中的x和y方向)的旋转。令人惊讶的是,滚动球还自然地包含了诱导屏幕垂直方向(图1中的z轴)的顺时针和逆时针旋转的能力。根据空间旋转的群体理论的一个基本但违反直觉的性质,在小的顺时针圆周上移动滚动球控制器必然会产生小的逆时针旋转,反之亦然。这就解释了为什么一个明显不可能的三度转动自由度确实可以通过一个上下文无关的二自由度输入设备产生。

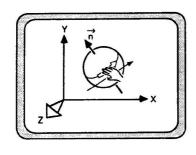
下面给出的滚动球算法的数学形式实际上是Chen等人(1988)在广泛调查方向控制方法中所研究的算法的一部分;我们的方法以Chen等人(1988)没有处理过的方式利用和扩展了算法的属性。滚动球应该被理解为一种新颖的、上下文无关的方法,它利用了通常以上下文相关的方式使用的已知旋转算法。

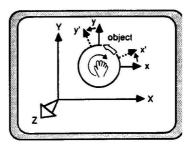
下面的处理包括两个主要部分。第一部分介绍了如何使用滚动球法进行三维 定位控制,以及如何在交互式图形系统中实现它。第二部分描述了如何将滚动球 方法扩展到科学可视化中极为重要的其他转换组;滚动球法被看作是一个迷人的工 具,在它自己的权利可视化变换组的性质。

使用方法

为了理解这个方法的基本原理, 假设一个球放在桌子上, 在你手掌的水平下

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簇物体。

(a) 由它们自己渲染的场景中的一 (b) 前景和背景物体的合成图像。 前景是"聚焦"。

Figure 2.3.1: 滚动球算法中使用的两种基本技术用于实现图形对象的任意空间旋 转。a)用鼠标按黑色箭头指示的方向移动手,使物体绕位于屏幕平面上的轴ni旋 转,即使赤道沿空心箭头方向旋转。b)小圈移动手,使物体绕屏幕平面法线旋 转,方向与手的运动方向相反,再次旋转赤道沿空心箭头方向。

方。

球绕任何与桌面平行的轴旋转时,都是通过手在垂直于轴的方向上水平移 动,从而使球绕该轴旋转。注意,这个类的任何单一运动都不会产生围绕垂直轴 的旋转,垂直干丰掌的轴。

然而,如果你把你的手平放在一个球的顶部,并在水平的小圆圈中移动你的 手, 球实际上会绕着垂直轴向相反的方向旋转。

控制空间方向的滚动球算法是通过将要旋转的图形对象的方向作为球本身的 方向来实现的,同时使用鼠标(或类似的二维输入设备)来模拟手掌的动作。

通过执行鼠标(或手)的指示动作,可以使用滚动球算法在显示的图形对象上 实现以下效果:

- 绕水平屏幕线或x-轴旋转、是通过相对于查看器向前或向后移动鼠标来实 现的。
- 通过向左或向右移动鼠标,可以旋转垂直屏幕线或v轴。
- 绕屏幕平面上的对角线旋转,我们用向量n表示其方向,通过垂直移动鼠标 到 前来实现,就像手掌在绕轴前旋转圆柱或球一样。
- 小的顺时针旋转垂直于屏幕,或z轴,通过移动鼠标在小的,逆时针的圆 圈。更明显的旋转是通过使用更大的圆周运动来实现的。

- 小的逆时针旋转,垂直于屏幕是通过移动鼠标在小的,顺时针的圆圈。
- 围绕屏幕垂直方向的大旋转是通过向任何方向旋转对象90°来实现的,围绕原始屏幕垂直轴旋转所需的量(现在位于屏幕平面上),然后旋转90°来恢复原始屏幕垂直轴的方向。这个动作本质上是一个大的长方形运动,与绕屏幕垂直旋转的小圆形运动形成对比。

图1总结了两个最基本的动作,绕屏幕平面上的轴n旋转和绕屏幕垂直轴旋转。

输入设备光标的位置与滚动球算法无关,在旋转操作期间,它通常对用户是不可见的。计算只需要先前和当前设备位置之间的差异,因此通常需要在每次移动后将鼠标弯曲到屏幕中央,以防止它离开交互窗口。因此,该方法是真正的上下文无关的,非常适合强调直接操作的用户界面。

实现

滚动球算法是通过取一个给定的增量输入设备运动来定义一个在右屏幕坐标系中包含组件(dx,dy)的向量来实现的。右旋轴 \vec{n} 被定义为位于屏幕平面上的垂直于输入设备运动的以下单位向量:

$$n_{x} = \frac{-dy}{dr}, \quad n_{y} = \frac{+dx}{dr}, \quad n_{z} = 0$$
 (2.3.1)

这里我们定义了输入设备的位移 $dr = (dx^2 + dy^2)^{1/2}$ 。

其次,引入了该算法的单一自由参数——有效滚动半径R,它决定了旋转角度对位移dR的灵敏度;如果dr只有几个像素,那么大约100的r值是合适的。我们选择旋转角度为 $\theta = \arctan(\mathrm{dr/R}) \approx (\mathrm{dr/R})$,使

$$\cos \theta = \frac{R}{(R^2 + dr^2)^{1/2}}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{dr}{(R^2 + dr^2)^{1/2}}$$
(2.3.2)

绕轴 \vec{n} 旋转一个角度 θ 的矩阵的一般形式是,其中 $\vec{n}\cdot\vec{n}=1$,(参见M. Pique在Graphics Gems I, p. 446 [Glassner, 1990]中的"矩阵技术"):

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$$\cos\theta + (n_x)^2 (1 - \cos\theta) \qquad n_y n_x (1 - \cos\theta) - n_z \sin\theta \qquad n_x n_z (1 - \cos\theta) + n_y \sin\theta$$

$$n_y n_x (1 - \cos\theta) + n_z \sin\theta \qquad \cos\theta + (n_y)^2 (1 - \cos\theta) \qquad n_y n_z (1 - \cos\theta) - n_x \sin\theta$$

$$n_z n_x (1 - \cos\theta) - n_y \sin\theta \qquad n_z n_y (1 - \cos\theta) + n_x \sin\theta \qquad \cos\theta + (n_z)^2 (1 - \cos\theta)$$

$$(2.3.3)$$

将Eq.(2.3.1)中 \vec{n} 的值代入Eq.(2.3.3),得到滚动球旋转矩阵

$$\cos\theta + (dy/dr)^{2}(1 - \cos\theta) - (dx/dr)(dy/dr)(1 - \cos\theta) + (dx/dr)\sin\theta - (dx/dr)(dy/dr)(1 - \cos\theta) \cos\theta + (dy/dr)^{2}(1 - \cos\theta) + (dy/dr)\sin\theta - (dx/dr)\sin\theta \cos\theta$$

$$-(dx/dr)\sin\theta - (dy/dr)\sin\theta \cos\theta$$
(2.3.4)

其中三角函数的值由式(2.3.2)给出。我们观察到:

- 在应用式(2.3.4)之前,必须将所有向量转换到所需的旋转中心。
- 旋转必须在一个单独的步骤中执行,如Eq.(2.3.4)。执行旋转作为一个序列,例如,首先绕*x*-轴,然后绕y轴,将给出一个完全不同的结果(尽管,由于微妙的原因,差异可能几乎是不可观察的)。
- 更改n的整体符号将产生围绕对象的视点旋转,而不是视图内的对象旋转。 小的顺时针的手运动将产生小的顺时针旋转的视点,但在视图中心的对象 将继续逆时针旋转。这一现象源于群理论对身体固定旋转和空间固定旋转 描述的符号差异(Whittaker, 1944)。

滚球法的推广

当我们分析滚动球法的群论背景时,各种相关的应用立即浮现出来。在这里,我们总结了普通旋转所涉及的基本群论,以及几个易于实现的扩展。这些技术对于许多科学可视化应用程序都很有用,包括建立关于一般群体的直觉。如果读者对群论没有兴趣,只是想知道如何实现和使用算法,就不必再读下去了。

无穷小旋转的群论

涉及滚动球行为的基本群论(Edmonds, 1957)可以总结如下:如果我们定义 L_i , $i = \{x, y, z\}$ 为旋转群O(3)的无穷小产生子,具有正旋转的右手约定,那么我们就有了对易关系

$$[\mathbf{L}_y, \mathbf{L}_z] = -\mathbf{L}_x, \tag{2.3.5}$$

$$[\mathbf{L}_z, \mathbf{L}_\mathbf{x}] = -\mathbf{L}_y, \tag{2.3.6}$$

$$[\mathbf{L}_x, \mathbf{L}_y] = -\mathbf{L}_z, \tag{2.3.7}$$

其中我们使用了定义[A,B] = AB - BA。这些无穷小生成器可以表示为矩阵,也可以表示为这种形式的微分算子

$$L_x = y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial v}$$

和它的循环排列。方程式中的负号。(5-7)不是任意的,而是由我们的惯例决定的,L_i使用右手规则绕第i轴旋转一个向量。这个负号直接导致了观测到的反旋转,是旋转群性质的必然结果。

四元数旋转, 2×2 矩阵, 和SU(2)旋量

滚动球变换用于定义四元数旋转(例如,参见Shoemake, 1985, 或p-g的"使用四元数")。Maillot在Graphics Gems I, 第498页[Glassner, 1990])甚至比普通的空间旋转更自然。这是因为四元数公式等价于组SU(2)的更标准的2×2矩阵表示法,SU(2)是通常旋转组O(3)的双重覆盖(Edmonds, 1957)。(尽管这两个基团对应完全不同的拓扑空间,但它们被滚动的球利用的无穷小性质是相同的。)

为了利用滚动球进行SU(2)转动, 我们用

$$U = I_2 \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - i\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}, \qquad (2.3.8)$$

其中 I_2 是2×2单位矩阵, $\vec{\sigma}$ 表示SU(2)服从循环关系 $\sigma_x^2 = 1$, $\sigma_x\sigma_Y = i\sigma_z$ 的2×2矩阵基。这相当于一个基于四元数的转换,其中 $(c,u) = (\cos(\theta/2), \vec{n}\sin(\theta/2))$ 。注意,与完整矩阵Eq.(3)相比,Eq.(8)合并滚动球的基本参数要简单得多。

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更改而的整体符号将产生围绕对象的视点旋转,而不是视图内的对象旋转。

矩阵Eq.(8)的元素可以根据需要从Eq.(3)中计算一个普通的矢量旋转矩阵,也可以直接用作 2×2 矩阵来旋转旋量(Edmonds, 1957),这是旋转群所能作用的最基本对象。

欧几里得四维

在四维欧氏空间中,0(4)群有6个转动自由度,而不是由于0(3)而在三维空间中存在的3个。

6个0(4)旋转算子 $L_{\mu\nu}$, μ , $\nu = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $L_{\mu\nu} = -L_{\mu\nu}$,可以通过定义以下组合分解为 $O(3) \times O(3)$:

$$L_{\rm i}^{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\rm ijk} L_{\rm jk} \pm L_{\rm 4i} \right).$$
 (2.3.9)

这里 ϵ_{ijk} 是三维中的完全反对称张量,我们使用重复罗马指标从1到3求和的惯例。每一个组合都服从独立的0(3)变换关系,

$$\left[L_{1}^{\pm}, L_{\rm j}^{\pm}\right] = -\epsilon_{\rm ijk}L_{\rm k}^{\pm}, \quad \left[L_{\rm i}^{\pm}, L_{\rm j}^{\mp}\right] = 0,$$
 (2.3.10)

因此可以使用O(3)滚动球算法单独控制。以这种方式产生的旋转可以写成

$$R^{\pm} = I_4 \cos \theta + \dot{\vec{n}} \dot{L}^{\pm} \sin \theta, \qquad (2.3.11)$$

其中

$$ec{n} \cdot ec{L} \pm = \left| egin{array}{cccc} 0 & -n_z & n_y & \mp n_x \\ n_z & 0 & -n_x & \mp n_y \\ -n_y & n_x & 0 & \mp n_z \\ \pm n_x & \pm n_y & \pm n_z & 0 \end{array}
ight|,$$

单位向量 \vec{n} 通常由式(1)定义。因此,我们可以使用滚动球的两个副本来操纵四维方向的所有自由度,一个为 L_1^+ ,一个为 L_i^- 。

另一种方法也适用于N维欧氏空间中的旋转,它是将群O(4)(或N中的O(N))分解为O(3)子群,并将每个子群视为独立的滚动球变换。

洛伦兹变换

研究高速物理系统必须使用时空洛伦兹变换,而不是欧几里得旋转。洛伦兹变换将空间和时间混合在一起,保留了一个具有一个负分量的闵可夫斯基空间二次型。纯粹的速度变化,或"加速",在形式上类似于用双曲函数取代三角函数的旋转。速度 $\vec{v} = v \tanh \xi$ 通过矩阵转换向量 (\vec{x}, t)

$$\begin{vmatrix} \delta_{ij} + \hat{v}_i \hat{v}_j (\cosh \xi - 1) & \hat{v}_j \sinh \xi \\ \hat{v}_i \sinh \xi & \cosh \xi \end{vmatrix}. \tag{2.3.12}$$

为了实现O(2,1)洛伦兹转换(它保留了diag (1,1,-1)的形式),我们将鼠标运动解释为"洛伦兹滚动球"在鼠标移动方向上的微小速度变化。(我们也可以研究物理时空的变换群O(3,1);不幸的是,导致式(10)的论点的类比需要引入复向量。)

O(2,1)转换的无穷小生成器是boost操作符

$$B_{\mathbf{x}} = t \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \quad B_{y} = t \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \mathbf{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial t},$$

和操作符

$$L = x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

在x-y面上产生旋转。boost算子在旋转下变换为普通向量, $[L,B_x]=-B_y,[L,B_y]=+B_x$,而它们的相互交换产生的旋转符号与类似的O(3)算子, $[B_x,B_y]=+L$ 相反。

我们将鼠标输入与O(2,1)转换Eq.(12)关联起来,将Eq.(1)替换为

$$\hat{v}_x = \frac{+dx}{dr}, \quad \hat{v}_y = \frac{+dy}{dr} \tag{2.3.13}$$

选择boost参数为 $\xi=\tanh^{-1}(dr/s)\approx(dr/s)$,其中's是一个合适的缩放因子,确保(dr/s)<1。

然后我们发现,在小的顺时针方向移动输入设备会产生顺时针方向坐标框架的空间部分的旋转,这与标准O(3)旋转的结果相反!这种效应被称为托马斯进动,使滚动球技术成为洛伦兹变换的一种非常自然的技术。

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总结

总之,滚动球技术提供了一种在交互式图形系统中使用二维输入设备控制三个转动自由度的方法,这种方法不依赖于输入设备的状态、位置或历史。由于算法丰富的群论起源,许多相关的科学可视化应用自然而然地出现了。要想熟练使用该技术,用户需要付出一些努力。但是,一旦掌握了这种方法,就会提供与情境无关的、探索性的方向调整,强烈支持直接操作的感觉。

鸣谢

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2.4 区间运算

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在计算机图形学中, 离散化问题发生在两个不同的领域:

- ◆ 计算的最终输出是用有限分辨率的设备显示或打印的二维图像,这会造成 诸如混叠等不良影响。
- 确定位置、强度和颜色所需的计算在通用计算设备或专用图形计算机中进行。在任何一种情况下,存储实数的基本方法都是所谓的浮点表示。这种表示为存储浮点数分配固定数目的二进制位数,浮点数可以是输入或输出量,也可以是中间计算的结果。

我们将讨论一种工具,区间分析,它使用有保证的上界和下界来估计和控制 在数值计算中可能出现的数值误差,特别是在计算机图形问题中出现的数值误 差。区间算术是一门涉及面很广的学科,我们只涉及到一些基本思想。然而,我 们注意到区间算术和分析已经导致了基于包含和收缩的新技术的发展,这些技术 适用于计算机图形学中的一些问题。

我们首先给出一个可能发生在图形应用程序中的问题的例子。一个基本例程可能包括确定两条线(为了简单起见,在 E^2 中)是否平行(也就是说,它们是否有一个有限的交集)。如果它们相交,计算交点。让线条保持原样

$$0.000100x + 1.00y = 1.00 (2.4.1)$$

$$1.00x + 1.00y = 2.00 (2.4.2)$$

假设这个算法是一个三位数四舍五入的算法。四舍五入到五位数的真正解是x = 1.0001和y = 0.99990,而使用Forsythe和Moler(1967)中描述的过程,三位数的算术给出y = 1.00的x = 0.00。在本文中,使用不同的计算顺序安排也得到了其他错误的结果。从这个例子可以看出,这样的计算可能有很大的误差,以致于一个应该在区域内的交集实际上可能被计算在区域外。

2.4. 区间运算 53

另一个例子是区域填充,其中区域的连通性依赖于一个计算,该计算可能以 与交叉计算相同的方式充满错误。

这样的错误很难防范,最终它们会在计算机生成的场景中产生不受欢迎的工件,并且很难在大型程序中跟踪和纠正。

其中许多误差可以使用区间算法自动控制。它使程序能够给出项目p和集合P的三个答案之一。

- 1. p肯定在P中。
- 2. p肯定不在P中。
- 3. 在执行的计算和可用的精度中,不可能告诉 $p \in P$ 或 $p \notin P$,也就是说,结果是不确定的。

根据前面的例子,我们可以说直线相交,它们不相交,或者它们是否相交是不确定的。类似地,我们可以声明一个域是连接的,它是没有连接的,或者域是否连接是不确定的。在每一种情况下,可以将决策程序内置于程序中以处理这三种情况。

区间运算有着悠久的历史;然而,它的现代使用源于摩尔(1966)的《区间分析》一书的出版。后来,有大量的出版物专门讨论这个问题。Garloff出版了参考书目(1985,1987),举行了一些会议,最近出版了一份新的苏联期刊,《区间计算》(新技术研究所,1991),完全致力于区间分析。

区间算术定义如下:设 $I=\{A:A=[a,b],a\cdot b\in\mathbf{R}\}$ 为实紧区间集,设 $A,B\in I$ 。然后区间算术运算定义为

Interval arithmetic is defined as follows: Let $I = \{A : A = [a, b], a \cdot b \in \mathbb{R}\}$ be the set of real compact intervals and let $A, B \in I$. Then the interval arithmetic operations are defined by

$$A * B = \{\alpha * \beta : \alpha \in A, \beta \in B\},\$$

where $* \in \{+, -, \cdot, /\}$ (note that / is undefined when $0 \in B$), that is, the interval result of A * B contains all possible point results $\alpha * \beta$ where α and β are real numbers such that $\alpha \in A$ and $\beta \in B$ and * is one of the basic arithmetic operations.

This definition is motivated by the following argument. We are given two intervals A and B and we know that they contain exact values x and y, respectively. Then the definition guarantees that $x * y \in A * B$ for any of the operations given above even though we do not know the exact values of x and y.

This definition is not very convenient in practical calculations. Letting A = [a, b] and B = [c, d], it can be shown that it is equivalent to

$$[a, b] + [c, d] = [a + c, b + d],$$

$$[a, b] - [c, d] = [a - d, b - c],$$

$$[a, b] \cdot [c, d] = [\min(ac, ad, bc, bd), \max(ac, ad, bc, bd)],$$

$$[a, b]/[c, d] = [a, b][1/d, 1/c] \text{ if } 0 \sim [c, d],$$

which means that each interval operation $* \in \{+, -, \cdot, /\}$ is reduced to real operations and comparisons.

2.5 II.4 INTERVAL ARITHMETIC

One very important property of interval arithmetic is that

$$A, B, C, D \in A \subseteq B, C \subseteq D, \Rightarrow A_{\sqcup} * CC_{\sqcup} \subseteq B_{\sqcup} * D$$
 for $* \in \{+, -, \cdot, /\}$

if the operations are defined. In other words, if A and C are subsets of B and D, respectively, then A * C is a subset of B * D for any of the basic arithmetic operations. Therefore, errors introduced at any stage of the computations, such as floating-point errors or input errors, can be accounted for. Because of the importance of Eq. (4), it has been called the inclusion isotony of interval operations.

One consequence of this is that any programmable real calculation can be embedded in interval calculations using the natural correspondence between operations so that if $x \in X \in I$, then $f(x) \in f(X)$, where f(X) is interpreted as the calculation of f(x) with x replaced by X and the operations replaced by interval operations.

Another important principle of interval arithmetic is that it can be implemented on a floating-point computer such that the resulting interval contains the result of the real interval computations using Eqs. (3) and directed rounding. Several software systems are available for this purpose, such as PASCAL-SC (Bohlender et al., 1981). The implementation only has to take care that each calculation of interval endpoints is rounded outwards from the interior of the intervals.

Interval arithmetic has some drawbacks as well:

- Subtraction and division are not the inverse operations of addition and multiplication.
- The distributive law does not hold. Only a subdistributive law A(B+C) $\subseteq AB + AC, A, B, C \in I$, is valid.
- The interval arithmetic operations are more time-consuming than the corresponding real operations roughly by a factor of 3 (although interval arithmetic implementations of some problems may run faster than the corresponding real versions; see Suffern and Fackerell, 1991).

As a simple example of the use of interval computations, we consider the intersecting lines problem given above using three-digit interval

2.6 II.4 INTERVAL ARITHMETIC

arithmetic. Using Cramer's rule, we get

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{vmatrix} 1.00 & 0.000100 \\ 2.00 & 1.00 \end{vmatrix} / \begin{vmatrix} 0.000100 & 1.00 \\ 1.00 & 1.00 \end{vmatrix}$$

and

$$y = \begin{vmatrix} 0.000100 & 1.00 \\ 1.00 & 2.00 \end{vmatrix} / \begin{vmatrix} 0.000100 & 1.00 \\ 1.00 & 1.00 \end{vmatrix}$$

Using interval arithmetic we obtain

$$x \in X = [0.980, 1.03]$$

and

$$y \in Y = [0.989, 1.02],$$

which in each case contains the exact solution. This calculation corresponds to a more stable calculation in real arithmetic than the one quoted from Forsythe and Moler (1967). If that particular sequence of calculations were performed in interval arithmetic, then the interval would be larger, but in all cases we have that the exact result is contained in the resulting intervals.

One interesting feature of interval arithmetic is that it can be used to develop new algorithms that are not simply extensions of algorithms in real arithmetic. One example of this is the interval Newton method first developed by Moore (1966). Let F(x) be given and suppose that we want to find the points ξ where $F(\xi) = 0$ in a given interval X_0 . Then the interval Newton method is defined to be the iteration

$$X_{n+1} = m(X_n) - F(X_n) / F'(m(X_n)), \quad n = 0, 1, ...,$$

where m([a;b]) = ((a+b)/2 and F'(X) is the interval evaluation of the derivative of F. The method has some interesting properties.

- 1. If a zero, ξ , of F exists in $X_{0'}$ then $\xi \in X_n$ for all n; see Moore (1966). This means that all the zeros in the initial X_0 are retained in subsequent intervals.
- 2. If $X_{n'}$ is empty for some n, then F has no zeros in X (Moore, 1966).

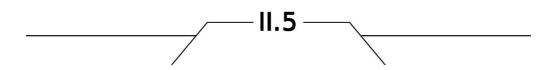
2.7 II.4 INTERVAL ARITHMETIC

Further properties of interval iterations for the solution of equations can be found, for example, in Neumaier (1990).

This method can be applied in computer graphics in ray-tracing. The intersection calculation between an implicit surface and a ray results in a problem of finding either one (the smallest) root or all the roots of a function F(x) = 0 (see Hanrahan, 1989). With the use of interval arithmetic techniques, the result can be guaranteed to be contained in the resulting intervals, avoiding anomalies in the rendering process (see Kalra and Barr, 1989, for a discussion of the problem).

Further discussions on the use of interval arithmetic for implicit surface rendering, in contouring algorithms, and in planarity estimation is found in Mudur and Koparkar (1984) and Suffern and Fackerell (1991), where it is combined with subdivision techniques in order to improve the results.

See also G2, 394.



2.8 FAST, GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES Alan W. Paeth NeuralWare Incorporated Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Free-running inner-loops often require a sequence of values or conditions that repeat every N steps. For instance, a technique for high-speed Z-buffer drawing (Booth et al., 1986) must perform buffer swapping and housekeeping in cycles of three. When N is not a power of two, direct examination of a register's low order bits may not be used to form a count modulo N. Similarly, a fast 2-D N-gon generator requires the cyclic production of a sequence of N values, with vertex N identical to vertex zero. This Gem considers compact methods for N < 8 that use neither more than three machine instructions nor three registers. No conditional logic is employed, making the techniques well-suited to hand coding.

$$N = 2$$
 (Review)

The familiar two-fold "toggle" alternates between true and false:

```
condition := not(condition); True in alternating cases if (condition) ...
```

Similarly, a two-fold "cycle" of values is a simple alternation. When both values are predeterminated, one instruction and one integer register suffice:

register
$$a := v1$$
; initialize
constant $c := v1 + v2$;
repeat cycle
 $a := a - c$; $a : [v1 \ v2 \cdots]$

2.9 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

For instance, Wirth (1973) speeds a prime number sieve by using (2.2) to generate the sequence $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 2 & 4 & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$ of distances between successive odd integers not divisible by three (Knuth, 1981). Rewriting the arithmetic of (2.2) with logical xor operations yields a well-known, patented method for inverting a frame-buffer's pixels in alternating fashion. In arithmetic form, a pixel inversion scheme well-suited to greyscale frame buffers is rederived (Newman and Sproull, 1979).

Most generally, the cyclic sequence is specified only at run time. For N=2, cycling is swapping, easily accomplished in three arithmetic or logical operations without resort to a third holding register, as described in previous Gems by Paeth (1990) and Wyvill (1990), respectively.

2.10
$$N = 3$$
 (Extension)

The pairwise swapping technique does not extend gracefully: Cyclic permutation of the sequence [a, b, c] by exchanging (for example) elements at locations (1,2) and (2,3) costs six instructions and three registers. A first-principles cyclic

brigade method requires N+1 registers and N+1 assignments. Though straightforward, the latter still exceeds both the instruction and register limits set forth in the preface:

```
r1 := r1 \text{ xor } r2; r2 := r2 \text{ xor } r1; rx := r1; r1 := r2; r1 := r1 \text{ xor } r2; r2 := r2 \text{ xor } r3; < versus > r2 := r3; r3 := rx; r3 := r3 \text{ xor } r2; r2 := r2 \text{ xor } r3
```

Often, as in (2.1), values are required only to trigger a 1-in-N event. For N=3, two registers and two lines suffice. Each register instruction is of the compact, two-op form $\ll rx = rx$ op ry \gg :

```
register r1 := 0; Three fold trigger register r2 :=1; repeat cycle:
```

This produces the tertiary (r1, r2) column set shown. The trigger occurs when a register is zero. Testing on r2 streamlines the operation under the

$$r1 := r1 \text{ xor } r2;$$
 $r1: [1 \ 1 \ 0 \ \cdots]$
 $r2 := r2 \text{ xor } r1;$ $r2: [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ \cdots]$

2.11 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

assumption that hardware condition codes are set by the preceeding logical operations. The phase of the test may be adjusted by substituting a column other than the third in the initialization of (r1,r2). Triggering 2-in-3 times defines the complementary set: a test for nonzero is substituted. The three phase-distinct 1-in-3 tests may be done concurrently, forming a cyclic switch:

```
if r=0 then \cdots 1-in-3, phase =0
if rl=r2 then \cdots 1-in-3, phase =1
if rl=0 then \cdots 1-in-3, phase =2
```

The conditions and related blocks may be embedded among the xor operations to take advantage of implicit condition code sensing. That is, the two xor lines that implicitly define the modulo three counter need not be adjacent.

Cyclic permutation of three variables in three registers can be done in the minimum number of instructions (three). The derivation is not obvious and relates the threefold arithmetic case described later.

```
register int a=c1; Three fold cycle
register int b=c1 xor c2;
constant int c=c1 xor c2 xor c3;
repeat cycle:
a=a xor b;
a:[c1\ c2\ c3...]
```

The use of logical xor is valuable as the elements may be a mixed sequence of integers, pointers and floats; arithmetic operations would not permit this. Note that the last two lines both update the value in b, while register c is never written. This suggests the alternate line:

b = b xor c;

b = b xor a:

$$b := b \text{ xor } (a \text{ xor } c)$$

in which c is equated to a predetermined compile time constant. However, the value must typically occupy a third register at run time. (See the C-code for a two register variant which produces the cycle [1, 2, 3].)

2.12 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

When mere triggering is required, fixing c = 0 elides the middle line of the cycle, reconstructing the N = 3 triggering case. Alternately, the two lines may be regarded as the first two of three lines of the familiar xor swap code. Because the final line of the latter matches the first, three passes through the two-line xor code produce the same sequential action on the two registers as do two passes through the three-line code (this is suggested in Eq.(3.1a) by the grouping of instructions). Both define a restoring double swap: the identity operation on two elements in no less than six steps. Thus, the two-line code forms cycles of length three while generating the sequence $[r1, r1 \oplus r2, r2]$.

$$N = 3, 4, 6$$

Remarkably, cycles of length up to $N_{\overline{5}}6$ require only two registers. Clearly, there is insufficient storage for swapping of all elements, else a cyclic brigade of N+1 registers and N+1 assignments would suffice. Instead, the goal is to derive a set of values (on one or both registers) in which all generated values are distinct. Thus, the registers must "count," and rival first-principles code such as a quick hexagon-drawing routine:

2.13
$$Xval = X_Value_Table[(i := (i +1 mod 6))];$$

 $Yval = Y_Value_Table[i];$

Here the modulus is a major expense: its cost is on par with integer division. The other first-principles method uses conditional logic to restart a decrementing counter, giving a large branch penalty on modern pipelined hardware, made worse by small N.

As will be seen in (6.2), vertex production of 2-D hexagons may use this sixfold cycle:

 $\begin{aligned} Xval &= X_coord \ [x := x + y]; \\ Yval &= Y_coord[y := y + not(x)] \\ where \ not(x) \ is \ bit \ inversion, \ i.e., \ not(x) = x \ xor \ (-1) \ under \ two \end{aligned}$

2.14 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

complement hardware. Arrays of length seven are required having suitable offsets, as seen in the companion C code.

$2.15 \quad N = 6 \text{ Derivation}$

Nonuniform rotation may be modeled by functional composition. That is, F(F. . . . (F([x])). . .) = [x] in no less than N steps. For instance, the linear fractional function $F(x_5)_{\sqcup} [2x_{\sqcup}l]/[x+1]$ yields $F^6(x) = x$ (Yale, 1975). Such forms may be equated directly to the algebra of 2×2 matrices (Birkhoff and MacLane, 1965); the former are treated preferentially for ease of derivation.

The values of two registers may be represented by a point [x,y] on an integer lattice, one coordinate per register. Treated as a (column) vector v, the function F is a 2×2 matrix of which premultiplies v. For a given N, F must be determined such that $F^N v = I$. When F is a shear matrix rotation may be achieved in three shears (Paeth, 1986), requiring only one assignment statement per shear (p.182). When the off-diagonal matrix element is $\{\pm 1\}$, no multiplication occurs and one machine instruction suffices. All-rational forms also yield rotation, but the sets of circumferential points are not roots of unity (vertices of an N-gon inscribed in a unit circle on the complex Cartesian plane). The one solution is for fourfold rotation. That decomposition is:

Regrouping of the first and third matrix (p.192) allows a two-line rotation, useful on machines that provide an implicit multiplication by two:

$$x := x + y;$$
 $x := x + (2^*y);$
 $y := y - x;$ $< 0x > y := y = x;$
 $x := x + y;$

This sequential form is slightly more expensive than the compact $\{x = -y, y_{\bar{E}}x\}$ form made possible when simultaneous reassignment of register values is possible, as in hardware. Rotations of three and six may

2.16 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

be formed by finding the eigenvalues of the product of an X and Y shear in symbolic form and equating them with the roots of unity, thus determining the values of the two off-axis elements. In its most compact form, this yields the quadratic equation $z=\frac{1}{2}\left(m\pm\sqrt{m^2-4}\right)$, which can represent roots of unity $z^N=1$ for $N=\{1,2,3,4,6\}$, with the respective values $m=\{2,-2,-1,0,1\}$. Solution using MAPLE on the matrix equation (XY)^N = I with symbolic matrix elements does not reveal real-valued, integral forms markedly distinct from this general solution:

$$(m, N) = \{(-1, 3), (0, 4), (1, 6)\}$$

Both three-and sixfold rotation using unit elements are thus possible. These are unexpected, given the irrationality of $\cos 60^{\circ}$. The distortion of the simplified two-shear rotational form has become a virtue in fixing vertices to integral locations. Note that the three nontrivial solutions for N = (3, 4, 6) enumerate the set of N-gons that tile the plane (Figs. 1a, 1b).

An automated examination of all three-instruction, three-register shears having small multipliers was conducted. No solutions for new N were found, and most forms were not markedly distinct. The two-register

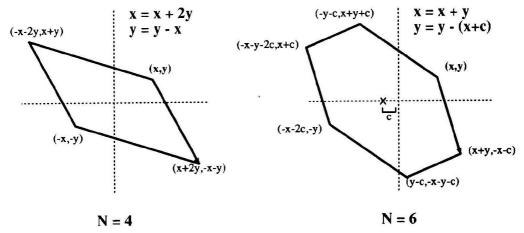


Figure 1.

2.17 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

N=3 form was rewritten using xor, leading to (3.3). The N=6 two-register form was seen to accommodate one additional constant, which offsets the hexagon in x, illustrated in Fig. 1b and presented algebraically below:

When c = 0, the values in register a lag those in b by two steps, suggestive of a $(\cos t, \sin t)$ generator, except the 90° quadrature becomes a 120° phase offset. With $c \neq 0$ the generation of a sequence of distinct values is achieved, meeting the original goal. Setting c = -1 allows the implicit formation of the - (a + 1) term using the logical ones complement (Paeth and Schilling, 1991), giving:

$$a_{\bar{\Xi}}=b_s=1;~$$
 six-fold fixed-ualue cycle
$$a:=a+b;~a:\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}1&2&0&-3&-4&-2\end{array}\right]$$

in which the c offset displaces the hexagon's center laterally, removing symmetry of central inversion. This helps achieve distinct values. With $a>0,\ b>0$ and 2c>a+b, the sequence in a is always positive.

2.18
$$N = 6$$
 (Triggering)

Arbitrary triggering is possible using the sixfold form. The distinct values of the preceding algorithm allow concurrent 1-in- N triggers having any phase offset. However, 2-in-N and 3-in- N forms with nonadjacent triggers present greater difficulty: They may not be created by replacing equality test with an inequality. This is a consequence of the figures' convexity: In geometric terms, a test such as y > 4 represents a horizontal half-space of values. Intersection of the polygon by the plane splits it into two distinct boundary sets of conterminous vertices. The goal is a simple trigger that does not resort to intra-register bit testing as in the companion Gem cited above.

Six states allow 64 trigger patterns, in which a "*" (".") in the ith place represents a (dis)arming of the trigger for the ith state. Elimination

$$b := b + not(a); b:[1 - 2 - 3 - 1 _2 3]$$

2.19 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

of complementary patterns halves this number. Patterns containing repetitive triggers such as "**.." and "...." may be decomposed into super or subcycles and are eliminated. Left are three prototypical patterns, having one, two, or three bits set. Testing uses the sixfold rotation variant in (6.2) with implicit (c = -1) and starting values a = b = 0:

a:
$$0 0 -1 -2 -2 -1$$

b: $0 -1 -1 0 +1 +1$
 $a = 0 AND b = 0 : * . . -$
 $a = 0 : * . * . .$
 $a = 0 OR b = 0 : * * . * . .$

The widespread use of xor suggests methods similar to pseudo-random number (RPN) generation on the field of integers mod1 (see Morton, 1990). The traditional shift and carry-test logic hardware may be "wired" directly into three xor register instructions having a permuting form, giving

repeat
$$b := b \text{ xor } a;$$

$$c := c \text{ Xorb};$$

$$a := a_{q}$$

This yields the table of values listed below.

A	В	С
a	b	С
$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{b}$	$\mathbf{b} \oplus \mathbf{c}$	$a \oplus b \oplus c$
$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{c}$	a	b
c	$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{b}$	$\mathbf{b} \oplus \mathbf{c}$
$a \oplus b \oplus C$	$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{c}$	a
b	\mathbf{c}	$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{b}$
$\mathbf{b} \oplus \mathbf{c}$	$a \oplus b \oplus C$	$\mathbf{a} \oplus \mathbf{c}$

2.20 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

Here column A leads B by two steps, likewise B ahead of C, but C leads A by three steps. Each column takes on all $N_5 - 1$ possible arrangements of xor among the three variables, omitting the forbidden zero state. This does not restrict the periodic production of zero elements, formed either by setting any (but not all) of $\{a, b, c\}$ to zero, or by equating initial values in two registers, since M xor M = 0.

Use of four registers (r=4) suggests $2^4-1=15$ states. Since r is even, N is composite with factors $(2^2+1)(2^22_{\square}-1)$. This reveals the subcycle for $N_5=5$, rounding out the table for small N. However, this method shows only a marginal gain over the brigade method (five variables, one temporary register, six assignments) and was not explored. For those inclined to large N, factors may be used to compose larger cycles: concurrent loops of relatively prime length resynchronize after a number of steps equal to the product (the GCM) of their lengths.

For the last single-digit value, N=9 remains difficult as it is neither prime nor a square-free composite. The next primes at (11,13) are not of the $2^{m}-1$ Mersenne form. By Fermat's theorem, they (and any prime p) are factors of 2^{p-1} , here $2^{101}1$ and 2^{12} . 1. Since this implies that the number of registers grows at least linearly with the cycle length for xor methods, the brigade method wins by virtue of simplicity. Although the practical limit of all methods explored thus far

is N < 8, more exotic and convoluted methods are possible and may be examined through brute-force means. One is presented below.

$$N = 24$$

As a last example, the code

register a = 4;

register b = 3;

repeat

a := a - b

a := a bit-and 15; explicit limit on register a

b := b xor a;

offers a method of cycling modulo 24. Limiting the domain of register a to 16 values necessarily introduces value multiplicity. The initial values

2.21 II.5 FAST GENERATION OF CYCLIC SEQUENCES

chosen confine both a and b to the domain [1..15] and further insures that they are never simultaneously equal.

This code's value is in forming parallel 24:1, 12:1, 8:1, and 6:1 rate division using the conditional tests (b=1), (a=4), (b=7) and (b=12), respectively. These tests are chosen so at most one is true at any step, allowing rate multiplication (up to 10-in-24) by combining the $\{1,2,3,4\}$ -in-24 tests by oring of the triggering bits. Note that only the 3-in-24 rate shows slight nonuniformity:

a: 115 2 3 712 5 3 215 3 4 9 7 211151213 112 7 11 4

b: 213151211 7 2 1 3121511 2 5 712 315 2 91112 7 3

 $b_{w}1: *a = 4:$

 $b_{\bar{v}=7}7$

 $b_{y=12}$:

2.22. SUMMARY 69

•

*

\$

 \boldsymbol{x}

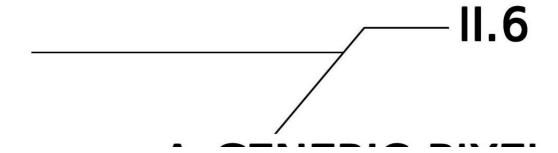
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*

2.22 Summary

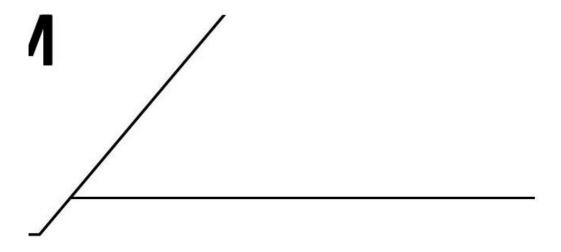
Methods for cyclic production of both arbitrary values and of Boolean states has been presented. Cases $N = \{2, 3, 4, 6, 7\}$ were treated in detail. The extensive C-code variants provided in the appendices make a useful set of additions to the graphics programmer's bag of tricks.

See also G1, 436.



A GENERIC PIXEL SELECTION

MECHANISM



Reversing the colors of a frame buffer's pixels is a common way to highlight a region. A useful reversal function provides color pairs that are visually distinct. On newer hardware, lookup tables (which map a pixel's appearance) are keyed by window, introducing spatial dependence. This burdens the design of a "best" function. This gem offers a simple a priori solution that guarantees visually distinct color pairs, though their eventual appearance remains unknown to the algorithm. Typical use is in creating screen-wide, window-invariant tools, such as system cursors or selection rectangles for display "snapshots."

A useful reversing function F on pixel p satisfies two algebraic criteria: F(F(p)) = p and $F(p)\mu$ p. The first assures that the function is its own inverse. The second is crucial in guaranteeing that the two elements in any color pair are "not nearly equal," leaving them visually distinct. For one-bit pixels, complementation (bit toggle) is the obvious solution. At higher precision, the (ones) complement of all bits becomes an arithmetic operation: F(p) = not(p) = -1 - p under two's complement arithmetic (Paeth, 1991). This has been generalized (Newman and Sproull, 1979) for $0 \le c < 1$ as $F_c(p) = \text{frac}(c-p)$. This fails the second criterion: For parameter c a pixel of value c/2 maps onto itself. Geometrically, the unit interval has been displayed (by c) and mirrored onto the original interval, thereby introducing a stationary point.

The solution used in the Palette system (Higgins and Booth, 1986) returns to logical operations. Given a binary integer that defines discrete positions along

an interval, bit complementation of merely the uppermost bit swaps the interval's lower and upper halves without any mirroring. The pixels in any color pair are now displaced by half the interval

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distance, guaranteeing distinct colors. In the case of color-mapped pixels (which serve as indices), elements in a pair are far removed in the domain of the mapping function, yielding colors likewise removed in the range should the color map define a monotonic function-a common case. Certain nonlinear non-Cartesian color maps (Paeth, 1991) also work well under this function and support a simple geometric interpretation.

The generic function may now be constructed by making simple assumptions. The pixel precisions of monochromatic channels on typical framebuffers are one, four, or eight bits. The operation

macro bwpixflip (x)
$$x := x$$
 bit-xor 133 hex 85

complements the topmost bit in all cases without knowledge of the precision in use. When the underlying pixel is of lower precision, toggling the higher-order bits is of no consequence or is squelched by action of a hardware write mask. Conversely, operation upon a high precision, pixel will complement additional low-precision bits, but these are sufficiently removed to be of much consequence.

For RGB pixels, three copies of hexadecimal 85 assures operation on three adjacent channels. This also introduces a toggle at bit 12, a further benefit on hardware providing extended monochromatic precision or color table indexing. The generic color reverse function is

macro pixelflip(x)
$$x := x$$
 bit-xor 8750469 hex 858585

Threefold use of the operation swaps halves of the unit interval along each color axis. Geometrically, this represents a shuffling of eight subcubes within

the unit color cube about the central point $(\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2})$ of midlevel gray. In non-Rubik fashion, the orientation of each cubelet is preserved (fig. 1a). In the first-principles "xor - 1" case (not shown) an additional central inversion of the eight cubelets inverts the entire solid and the undesirable stationary point is reintroduced at the mid-gray position.

Finally, it is often advantageous to leave the blue channel uncomplemented. When blue occupies the uppermost pixel bits (as on the Adage/ Ikonas or SGI/ Iris), complementation of the lower 16 bits defining the red and green channels still occurs; all monochromatic and lookup cases (in which pixel precision never exceeds 16 bits) are also

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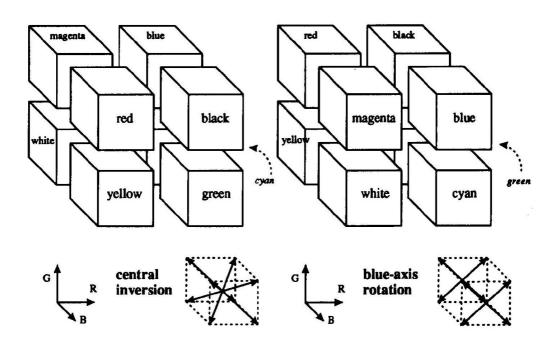


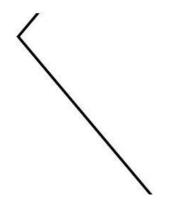
Figure 1 covered implicitly. The alternate generic macro is

macro pixelflip2(x) x := x bit-xor 34181 hex 8585

For 24-bit color, preservation of blue means that subcubes no longer swap through central inversion (Fig. la), but are instead rotated a half-turn about the blue axis in "Ferris-wheel" fashion (lb). This creates a pair of opponent colors (red, green) for which the human visual system is highly responsive, plus pairs (blue, white), (cyan, magenta) and (yellow, black). The alternate macro supports the use of short, 16-bit integers in the reversal.

See also G1, 215; G1, 219; G1, 233; G1, 249.

2.25 NONUNIFORM RANDOM POINT SETS VIA WARPING



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We often want to generate sets of random or pseudorandom points on the unit square for applications such as distribution ray tracing. There are several methods for doing this, such as jittering and Poisson disk sampling. These methods give us a set of N reasonably equidistributed points on the unit square: (u_1, v_1) through $(u_{N'}, v_N)$.

Sometimes, our sampling space may not be square (e.g., a circular lens) or may not be uniform (e.g., a filter function centered on a pixel). It would be nice if we could write a mathematical transformation that would take our equidistributed points (u_i, v_i) as input, and output a set of points in our desired sampling space with our desired density. For example, to sample a camera lens, the transformation would take (u_i, v_i) and output (r_i, θ_i) such that the new points were approximately equidistributed on the disk of the lens.

It turns out that such transformation functions are well known in the field of Monte Carlo integration. A table of several transformations useful for computer graphics is given in Table I. The method for generating such transformations is discussed for the rest of this article. Note that several of these transformations can be simplified for simple densities. For example, to generate directions with a cosine distribution, use the Phong density with n = 1. To generate points on the unit hemisphere, use the sector on the unit sphere density with $\theta_1 = 0$, $\theta_2 = \pi/2$, $\varphi_1 = 0$, and $\varphi_2 = \pi$.

For Monte Carlo methods we must often generate random points according to some probability density function, or random rays according to a directional probability density. In this section a method for one and two dimensional random variables is described. The discussion closely follows that of Shreider (1966).

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Table 1. Some Useful Transformation. ^a.

Target Space	Density	Domain	Transformation
Radius R disk	$p(r,\theta) = \frac{1}{\pi R^2}$	$\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ $r \in [0, R]$	$\theta = 2\pi u \\ r = R\sqrt{v}$
Sector of radius R disk	$p(r,\theta) = \frac{2}{\left(\theta_2 - \theta_1\right)\left(r_2^2 - r_1^2\right)}$	$\theta \in [\theta_1, \theta_2]$ $r \in [r_1, r_2]$	$\theta = \theta_1 + u(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$ $r = \sqrt{r_1^2 + v(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$
Phong density exponent n	$p(\theta,\phi) = \frac{n+1}{2\pi} \cos^n \theta$	$\theta \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$	$\theta = \arccos\left((1-u)^{1/(n+1)}\right)$
		$\phi \in [0,2\pi]$	$\phi = 2\pi v$
Separated triangle filter	p(x,y)(1- x)(1- y)	$x \in [-1,1]$	$x = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1-u)} & \text{if } u \ge 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2u} & \text{if } u < 0.5 \end{cases}$
		$y\in [-1,1]$	$y = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1 - v)} & \text{if } v \ge 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2v} & \text{if } v < 0.5 \end{cases}$
Triangle with vertices a_0, a_1, a_2	$p(a) = \frac{1}{\text{area}}$	$s \in [0, 1]$ $t \in [0, 1 - s]$	$s = 1 - \sqrt{1 - u}$ $t = (1 - s)v$ $a = a_0 + s(a_1 - a_0) + t(a_2 - a_0)$
Surface of unit sphere	$p(\theta,\phi) = \frac{1}{4\pi}$	$\theta \in [0, \pi]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$	$\theta = \arccos(1 - 2u)$ $\phi = 2\pi v$
Sector on surface of unit sphere	$p(\theta, \phi)$	$\theta \in \left[\theta_1, \theta_2\right]$	$\theta = \arccos[\cos \theta_1 \\ + u(\cos \theta_2 - \cos \theta_1)]$
	$=\frac{1}{(\phi_2-\phi_1)(\cos\theta_1-\cos\theta_2)}$	$\phi \in \left[\phi_1,\phi_2\right]$	$\phi = \phi_1 + v(\phi_2 - \phi_1)$
Interior of radius R sphere	$p = \frac{3}{4\pi R^3}$	$\theta \in [0, \pi]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$ $R \in [0, R]$	$\theta = \arccos(1 - 2u)$ $\phi = 2\pi v$ $r = w^{1/3}R$

a The symbols u, v, and w represent instances of uniformly distributed random variables ranging over [0, 1].

If the density is a one-dimensional f(x) defined over the interval $x \in [a,b]$, then we can generate random numbers α_i that have density f from a set of uniform random numbers ξ_i , where $\xi_i \in [0,1]$. To do this we need the probability distribution function F(x):

$$F(x) = \int_{a} f(x') d\mu (x')$$

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To get α_i we simply transform ξ_i :

$$\alpha_{i} = F^{-1}\left(x_{i}\right),$$

where F^{-1} is the inverse of F. If F is not analytically invertible, then numerical methods will suffice because an inverse exists for all valid probability distribution functions.

If we have a two-dimensional density (x, y) defined on [a, b: c, d], then we need the two-dimensional distribution function:

$$F(x,y) = \int_{c}^{y} \int_{a}^{t} f(x',y') d\mu(x',y').$$

We first choose an x_i using the marginal distribution F(x, d), and then choose y_i according to $F(x_i, y) / F(x_i, d)$. If F(x, y) is separable (expressable as g(x)h(y)), then the one-dimensional techniques can be used on each dimension.

As an example, to choose reflected ray directions for zonal calculations or distributed ray tracing, we can think of the problem as choosing points on the unit sphere or hemisphere (since each ray direction can be expressed as a point on the sphere). For example, suppose that we want to choose rays according to the density

$$p(\theta, \varphi) = \frac{n+1}{2\pi} \cos^n \theta,$$

where n is a Phong-like exponent; θ is the angle from the surface normal and $\theta \in [0, \pi/2]$ (is on the upper hemisphere); and φ is the azimuthal angle $(\varphi \in [0, 2\pi])$. The distribution function is

$$P(\theta, \varphi) = \int_0^{\varphi} \int_0^{\theta} p(\theta, \varphi') \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi'.$$

The $\sin \theta$ term arises because $d\omega = \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi$ on the sphere. When the marginal densities are found, p (as expected) is separable, and we find that a (r_1, r_2) pair of uniform random numbers can be transformed to a direction by

$$(\theta, \varphi) = \left(\arccos\left(\left(1 - r_1\right)^{1/(n+1)}\right), 2\pi r_2\right).$$

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Typically, we want a directional (θ, φ) pair to be with respect to someunit vector y (as opposed to the z axis). To do this we can first convert the angles to a unit vector a:

$$a = (\cos \varphi \sin \theta, \sin \varphi \sin \theta, \cos \theta).$$

We can then transform a to be an a' with respect to ψ by multiplying a by a rotation matrix R (a' = Ra). This rotation matrix is simple to write down:

$$R = \begin{array}{cccc} u_x & v_x & w_x \\ u_y & v_y & w_y \\ u_z & v_z & w_z \end{array}$$

where $u = (u_{x'}u_{y'}u_z)$, $v = (v_{x'}v_{y'}v_z)$, $w = (w_{x'}w_{y'}, w_z)$, form a basis (an orthonormal set of unit vectors where $u = v \times w$, $v = w \times u$, and $w = u \times v$) with the constraint that w is aligned with ψ :

$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{\psi}{|\psi|}.$$

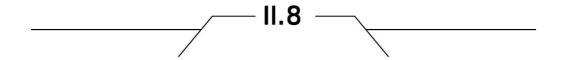
To get u and v, we need to find a vector t that is not colinear with w. To do this simply set t equal to w and change the smallest magnitude component of t to one. The u and v follow easily:

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

$$v = w \times u$$
.

This family of techniques is very useful for many sampling applications. Unfortunately, some sampling spaces (e.g., the surface of a dodecahedron) are not naturally dealt with using the methods in this gem. Special purpose or, as a last resort, rejection techniques are then called for.

See also G1, 438.



2.29 CROSS PRODUCT IN FOUR DIMENSIONS AND BEYOND



2.30 Introduction

Cross product is one of the gods' great gifts to mankind. It has many applications in mathematics, physics, engineering, and, of course, computer graphics. Normal vectors, rotations, curl, angular momentum, torque, and magnetic fields all make use of the cross product.

Given two linearly independent vectors u and v in three dimensions, their cross product is the vector $u \times v$ perpendicular to the plane of u and v, oriented according to the right-hand rule, with length equal to $|\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{v}|\sin\theta$, where Θ is the angle between u and v. In rectangular coordinates, the cross product can be computed from the simple determinant formula

$$u \times v = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_3 \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \mathbf{v}_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Equivalently,

$$u \times v = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2, u_3v_1 - u_1v_{3'}u_1v_{2'} - u_2v_1).$$

At first glance, cross product seems to be an artifact of three dimensions. In three dimensions the normal direction to the plane determined by two vectors is unique up to sign, but in four dimensions there are a whole plane of vectors normal to any given plane. Thus, it is unclear how to define the cross product of two vectors in four dimensions. What then

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is the analogue of the cross product in four dimensions and beyond? The goal of this gem is to answer this question.

2.32 Tensor Product

There is a way to look at the cross product that is more instructive than the standard definition and that generalizes readily to four dimensions and beyond. To understand this approach, we need to begin with the notion of the tensor product of two vectors u, v.

The tensor product $u \otimes v$ is defined to be the square matrix

$$u \otimes v = u^t * v,$$

where the superscript t denotes transpose and \ast denotes matrix multiplication. Equivalently,

$$(u \otimes v)_{ij} = (u_i, v_j).$$

Notice that for any vector w,

$$w(u\otimes v)=(w\cdot u)v.$$

Thus, the tensor product is closely related to the dot product.

Like dot product, the tensor product makes sense for two vectors of arbitrary dimension. Indeed, the tensor product shares many of the algebraic properties of the dot product. However, unlike the dot product, the tensor product is not communative. That is, in general,

$$u \otimes v \neq v \otimes u$$
 because $u_i v_j \neq u_j v_i$

Applications of the tensor product of two vectors to computer graphics are given in Goldman (1990, 1991).

2.33 Wedge Product

The wedge product of two vectors u and v measures the noncommutativity of their tensor product. Thus, the wedge product $u \wedge v$ is the square

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matrix defined by

$$u \wedge v = u \otimes v - v \otimes u$$
.

Equivalently,

$$(u \wedge v)_{ij} = (u_i v_j - u_j v_i).$$

Like the tensor product, the wedge product is defined for two vectors of arbitrary dimension. Notice, too, that the wedge product shares many properties with the cross product. For example, it is easy to verify directly from the definition of the wedge product as the difference of two tensor products that:

$$\begin{split} u \wedge u &= 0, \\ u \wedge v &= -v \wedge u \\ \text{(anticommutative)}, \\ u * (v \wedge w) \neq (u \wedge v) * w^t \\ \text{(nonassociative)}, \\ u \wedge cv &= c(u \wedge v) = (cu) \wedge v, \\ u \wedge (v + w) &= u \wedge v + u \wedge w \\ \text{(distributive)}, \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} u*(v\wedge w) + v*(w\wedge u) + w*(u\wedge v) &= 0\\ (Jacobi identity),\\ r*(u\wedge v)* s^t &= (r\cdot u)(s\cdot v) - (r\cdot v)(s\cdot u)\\ (Lagrange identity). \end{split}$$

The wedge product also shares some other important properties with the cross product. The defining characteristics of the cross product are captured by the formulas

$$u \cdot (u \times v) = v \cdot (u \times v) = 0,$$
$$|u \times v| = |u|^2 |v|^2 \sin^2 \Theta.$$

By the Lagrange identity, the wedge product satisfies the analogous

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identities:

$$\begin{split} u*(u\wedge v)*u^t &= v*(u\wedge v)*v^t = 0,\\ u*(u\wedge v)*v^t &= (u\cdot u)(v\cdot v) - (u\cdot v)^2 = \ |u||^2\,v\Big|^2\sin^2\Theta \end{split}$$

A variant of the last identity can be generated by defining the norm of a matrix M to be

$$|M|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} (M_{ij})^2$$
.

Then by direct computation it is easy to verify that

$$|u \wedge v|^2 = (u \cdot u)(v \cdot v) - (u \cdot v)^2 = |u|^2 |v|^2 \sin^2 \Theta.$$

In addition, the cross product identity

$$(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{u}$$

has the wedge product analogue

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{u}.$$

The cross product can be used to test for vectors perpendicular to the plane of u and v because

$$\mathbf{w} \times (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w} \perp \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}.$$

Similarly, the wedge product recognizes vectors perpendicular to the plane determined by u and v because by (1),

$$\mathbf{w} * (\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{u}) = (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{w} \perp \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}.$$

Moreover, in three dimensions,

$$u\Lambda v = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 & u_1v_3 - u_3v_1 \\ u_2v_1 - u_1v_2 & 0 & u_2v_3 - u_3v_2 \\ u_3v_1 - u_1v_3 & u_3v_2 - u_2v_3 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

2.36 II.8 CROSS PRODUCT IN FOUR DIMENSIONS AND BEYOND

Thus, in three dimensions the entries of the wedge product matrix $u \wedge v$ are, up to sign, the same as the components of the cross product vector $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$. This observation explains why wedge product and cross product share so many algebraic properties.

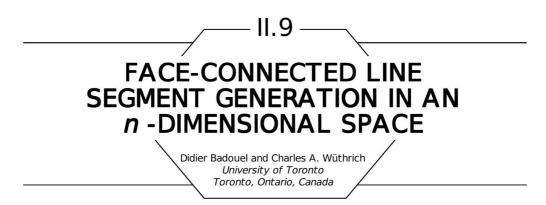
In three dimensions we are really very lucky. The matrix $u \wedge v$ is antisymmetric so, up to sign, it has only three unique entries. This property allows us to identify the matrix $u \wedge v$ with the vector $u \times v$. Nevertheless, there is something very peculiar about the vector $u \times v$. If u and v are orthogonal unit vectors, then the vectors $u, v, u \times v$ form a right-handed coordinate system. But if M is the linear transformation that mirrors vectors in the u, v plane, then $\{u \cdot M, v \cdot M, (u \times v) \cdot M\} = \{u, v, -u \times v\}$ forms a left-handed coordinate system. Thus, $(u \cdot M) \times (v \cdot M) \neq (u \times v) \cdot M$, so $u \times v$ does not really transform as a vector. This anomaly

should alert us to the fact that cross product is not really a true vector. In fact, cross product transforms more like a tensor than a vector.

In higher dimensions we are not nearly so lucky. For example, in four dimensions the antisymmetric matrix $u \wedge v$ has, up to sign, six, not four, distinct entries. Thus, the matrix $u \wedge v$ cannot be identified with a four-dimensional vector. In n dimensions, the antisymmetric matrix $u \wedge v$ has n(n-1)/2 unique entries. But $n(n-1)/2 \neq n$ unless n=0,3. Thus, only in three dimensions can we identify the wedge product of two vectors with a vector of the same dimension. In general, the wedge product is an antisymmetric 2-tensor. This antisymmetric tensor shares many of the important algebraic properties of the cross product, and thus it is a natural generalization of the cross product to four dimensions and beyond.

2.37 Acknowledgment

I would like to thank Joe Warren for pointing out that the formula for the length of the cross product $u \times v$ has a direct analogue in the formula for the norm of the wedge product $u \wedge v$.



In the early days of Computer Graphics, straight line rasterization was developed to render segments onto the raster plane. Later, three-dimensional segment discretization had to be developed to keep track of the path of a ray in the object space. These algorithms generate a connected sequence that represents the segment in the discrete space; moreover, they define a path in which the directions are uniformly distributed. An extension to higher-dimensional spaces is suited for

applications ranging from line generation in a time-space coordinate system to the incremental generation of a discrete simultaneous linear interpolation of any number of variables.

This gem presents an algorithm that generates a face-connected line segment in discrete n-dimensional spaces. In two dimensions, the algorithm introduced below coincides with any classical 4-connected straight line drawing algorithm. Among all discrete segments joining two points, this algorithm produces one in which the directions are uniformly distributed. A definition of uniform distribution is given below.

Consider an n-dimensional lattice, or hyperlattice, i.e., the set of all points $P = (p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_{n-1})$ of \mathbf{Z}^n : Neighbourhood relations can be defined between the Voronoi hypervroxel associated with each point of the hyperlattice. In fact, only voxels having a hyperface in common, i.e., corresponding to hyperlattice points having n-1 coordinates in common, will be considered here as neighbours. In a two-dimensional lattice, such neighbourhood relation is the well-known 4 - connection, while in the three-dimensional space it leads to 6-connection. The neighbourhood relations among the hyperlattice points introduce a rasterization proce- dure for curves into the hyperlattice: A rasterization of a curve is in fact a path of neighbouring lattice points.

Consider two hyperlattice points $P = (p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{n-1})$ and $Q = (q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1})$. Let $n_i = |q_i - p_i|$ Then a face-connected shortest path between P and Q requires $\mathbf{m} = \sum \mathbf{n_i}$ steps. The hyperline points are the points of coordinates $x_i = (q_i - p_i) t + p_i$, with $t \in [0, 1]$. The parameter t introduces an ordering on the points of the straight line. Consider the straight line points P_{i,h_1} obtained for $t = h_i/n_i$, where $h_j = 1, \dots, n_i$, and order them in increasing order of their corresponding parameter value. Whenever an ambiguity occurs, and two parameter values $h_j/\mathbf{n_i}$ and $h_j/\mathbf{n_j}$ coincide, an arbitrary order has to be chosen. In other words, the segment PQ is subdivided into $\mathbf{n_i}$ parts for each dimension i, and the points obtained on the straight line segment are ordered by increasing values of the parameter t. When two subdivision points coincide, the one corresponding to the smaller dimension is considered to precede the other one.

The resulting set is a finite ordered set of the segment points P_{i,h_i} , which can be renamed as $A_{0'}A_1, \ldots, A_{m-1}$ Consider the finite path built by taking the sequence of directions $\{a_k\}_{k=0,\ldots,m-1}$, such that each direction a_k corresponds to the point $A_k = P_{a_k,1}$, for some l. Such a path is said to be uniformly distributed with respect to the directions that constitute it. It is clear that in such a path the occurrences of the different directions that have to appear in it are as evenly spaced as possible in the chain. Moreover, if we follow the previously defined path from the point P, the point Q shall be reached.

Whenever the hyperface-connected rasterization onto the n-dimensional hyperlattice of a straight line segment joining two hyperlattice points is computed, the result is a hyperface-connected path joining the two points. This path is uniformly distributed among all directions. A simplified version of the routing algorithm can be therefore summarized as follows. For each direction i, an integer counter d_i is used. In order to generate the straight line between the two points P and Q, the values of \mathbf{n}_i are computed. Their least common multiple $\mathbf{l} = \mathrm{LCM}(\mathbf{n}_i)$ is evaluated, \mathbf{l} and the values of $\mathbf{n}_i'' = 1/\mathbf{n}_i$ are computed. To obtain only integer

In fact, either a low-complexity method in $O(n \log k)$ based on a table lookup or a simple common multiple can be used here. computations, the values of $n'_i = 2n''$ are used. The cells d_i are initialized to the value $n'_i/2$. This initialization has to be made, otherwise the path generated corresponds to another rasterization scheme. At each step, n'_i is added to the di with the smallest value, and the ith signed direction is generated. The generation procedure is repeated until all d_i have reached the value $2l + n''_i$, which is equivalent to $\forall i, d_i \geq 2l$.