# **COMP9415 Review**

## **2D Transformations**

## • Affine transformations

- Translation
  - Translation is the process of moving an object in space

- Rotation
  - Rotate objects around the origin

$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet & \begin{pmatrix} q_1 \\ q_2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) & 0 \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Scaling
  - Scale along both axes.

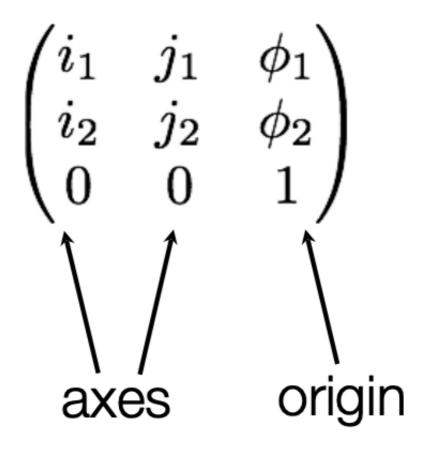
$$ullet \left(egin{array}{c} s_x p_1 \ s_y p_2 \ 1 \end{array}
ight) = \left(egin{array}{ccc} s_x & 0 & 0 \ 0 & s_y & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight)$$

- Shear
  - Shear is the unwanted child of affine transformations.
  - Horizontal

Vertical

- Transformation pipeline
  - $\circ \ P_{camera} \overset{view}{\leftarrow} P_{world} \overset{model}{\leftarrow} P_{local}$
  - The model transform transforms points in the local coordinate system to the world coordinate system
  - The view transform transforms points in the world coordinate system to the camera's coordinate system
  - Matrix

- $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad P_{world} = Trans(Rot(Scale(P_{camera}))) \\ \bullet \quad \text{The view matrix: } P_{camera} = Scale^{-1}(Rot^{-1}(Trans^{-1}(P_{camera}))) \end{array}$
- Decomposing
  - $\circ \ Translation = (\phi_1, \phi_2, 1)^T$
  - $\circ \ \ Rotation = atan2(i_2,i_1)$
  - $\circ$  Scale = |i|
  - $\circ$  Perpendicular (垂直):  $i \cdot j = 0$



### Camera

• In addition to the transformation properties inherited from SceneObject the Camera has an aspect ratio.

## **3D Transformations**

## • TransTranslation

$$egin{array}{ccccc} oldsymbol{\circ} & M_T = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \phi_1 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & \phi_2 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & \phi_3 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

Scale

$$ullet M_T = egin{pmatrix} S_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & S_y & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & S_z & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Shear

#### Rotate

- Right Hand Rule: For any axis, if the right thumb points in the positive direction of the axis the right fingers curl in the direction of rotation
- o Rotate X

$$lacksquare M_x = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & \cos( heta) & -\sin( heta) & 0 \ 0 & \sin( heta) & \cos( heta) & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Rotate Y

$$lacksquare M_y = egin{pmatrix} \cos( heta) & 0 & \sin( heta) & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \ -\sin( heta) & 0 & \cos( heta) & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Rotate Z

$$lack M_z = egin{pmatrix} \cos( heta) & -\sin( heta) & 0 & 0 \ \sin( heta) & \cos( heta) & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## • Projection

- Projection happens after the model and view transformations have been applied, so all points are in camera coordinates.
- Points with negative z values in camera coordinates are in front of the camera.
- Canonical View Volume (CVV)
- Perspective

$$ullet M_{perspective} = egin{pmatrix} n & 0 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & n & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & a & b \ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix is not affine.

С

Situation	Matrix
fovy Aspect = W h	$\mathbf{M_P} = egin{pmatrix} rac{2n}{r-l} & 0 & rac{r+l}{r-l} & 0 \ 0 & rac{2n}{t-b} & rac{t+b}{t-b} & 0 \ 0 & 0 & rac{-(f+n)}{f-n} & rac{-2fn}{f-n} \ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

# **Draw Algorithm**

- Painter's algorithm
  - Sort geometric primitives by depth
  - Draw in order from back to front
  - o Problem
    - Intersect ploygon
- BSP Tree
  - One possible solution is to use Binary Space Partitioning trees (BSP trees)
  - They recursively divide the world into polygons that are behind or in front of other polygons and split polygons when necessary.
  - Then it is easy to traverse and draw polygons in a front to back order
  - Building the tree is slow and it needs to be rebuilt every time the geometry changes.
  - Best for rendering static geometry where tree can just be loaded in.
- Depth Buffer
  - Initially the depth buffer is initialised to 1 (maximum depth in window coords).
  - Each polygon is drawn fragment by fragment.
  - If it is closer, we update the pixel in the colour buffer and update the buffer value to the new pseudodepth. If not we discard it.

## **Triangles**

		.7	.7	.7	.7	.7	.7
		6.	.6	.6	6.	6.	.6
		5.	.5	.5	.5	5.	.5
		.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
		.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3
		.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2

## Buffer

.1	Ι	I	ı	ı	ı	Ι	I	I	I
.1	$\overline{\cdot}$	Ι	Ι	Ι	_	_	_	1	_
.2	.2	.2	-	Ι	_	_	-	Ι	_
.2	.2	.2	.2	Ι	_	Ι	Ι	Ι	-
.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.7	.7	.7	.7	.7
.3	თ,	თ,	.3	.3	<mark>م</mark>	.6	.6	.6	.6
.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.5	.5	.5
.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
.5	.5	.5	.5	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3
.5	.5	.5	.5	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2

## Limitations

## • Ambient light

- $\circ I_{ambient} = I_a \rho_a$ 
  - $I_a$  is the ambient light intensity
  - $\rho_a$  is the ambient reflection coefficient in the range (0,1) (usually  $\rho_a$  =  $\rho_d$ )
- Lighting with just diffuse and specular lights gives very stark shadows.
- In reality shadows are not completely black.
- It is too computationally expensive to model this in detail.
- Light is coming from all directions, reflected off other objects, not just from 'sources'

## • Diffuse light (Lambert's Cosine Law)

- $\circ \ I_d = I_s 
  ho_d (\hat{s} \cdot \widehat{m})$ 
  - $lacksquare I_s$  is the source intensity
  - $\rho_d$  is the diffuse reflection coefficient in [0,1]
- o Both vectors are normalised
- When the angle is 0 degrees the cosine is 1
  - All the reflected light back
- When the angle is 90 degrees
  - None of the light is reflected back
- When the angle is > 90 degrees
  - cos gives us a negative value! This is not what we want.

## • Specular light (Phong model)

$$\circ$$
  $\hat{r} = -s + 2(s \cdot \widehat{m})\widehat{m}$ 

- $\circ I_{sp} = max(0, I_s \rho_{sp}(\hat{r} \cdot \hat{v})^f)$ 
  - ${\color{blue} \blacksquare} \hspace{0.2cm} \rho_{sp}$  is the specular reflection coefficient in the range [0,1]
  - f is the phong exponent, typically in the range [1,128]
  - Larger values of the Phong exponent f make  $cos(\Phi)f$  smaller, produce less scattering, creating more mirror-like surfaces.

## • Blinn Phong Model

- $\circ \ I_{sp} = max(0, I_s 
  ho_{sp}(\widehat{h} \cdot \widehat{m})^f)$
- $\circ$  halfway vector  $\widehat{h} = rac{\widehat{s} + \widehat{v}}{2}$
- Phong/Blinn Phong model only reflects light sources, not the environment.
- It is good for adding bright highlights but cannot create a true mirror.

## • Total intensity for the vertex

- $\circ I = I_{ambient} + I_d + I_{sp}$
- $\circ I = I_a 
  ho_a + max(0, I_s 
  ho_d(\hat{r} \cdot \hat{v})) + max(0, I_s 
  ho_{sp}(\hat{r} \cdot \hat{v})^f)$

## Spotlights

- A spotlight has a direction and a cutoff angle
- Spotlights are also attenuated, so the brightness falls off as you move away from the centre.
- $\circ I = I_s(cos(\beta))^{\varepsilon}$ 
  - ε is the attenuation factor

# **Shading**

## • Flat shading

- Calculated for each face
- The simplest option is to shade the entire face the same colour
- o Pro
  - Diffuse illumination
  - For flat surfaces with distant light sources
  - Non-realistic/retro rendering
  - The fastest shading option
- o Con
  - close light sources
  - specular shading
  - curved surfaces

### Gouraud shading

- Calculated for each vertex and interpolated for every fragment
- Illumination is calculated at each of these vertices.
- Gouraud shading is a simple smooth shading model.
- We calculate fragment colours by bilinear interpolation on neighbouring vertices.
- o Pro

- curved surfaces
- close light sources
- diffuse shading

#### o con

- more expensive than flat shading
- handles specular highlights poorly

## Phong shading

- Calculated for every fragment
- o designed to handle specular lighting better than Gouraud.
- It also handles diffuse better as well.
- illumination values are calculated per fragment rather than per vertex

#### o Pro

- Handles specular lighting well
- Improves diffuse shading
- More physically accurate

#### o Con

- Slower than Gouraud as normals and illumination values have to be calculated per pixel rather than per vertex.
- In the old days this was a BIG issue. Not so much any more.

	Where	Pro	Con
Flat	Face	Flat surfaces, a retro blocky look	Curved surfaces, specular highlights
Gouraud	Vertex	Curved surfaces, diffuse shading	Specular highlights
Phong	Fragment	Diffuse and specular shading	Old hardware

## Color

## Alpha blending

$$egin{aligned} \circ & egin{pmatrix} r \ g \ b \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow a egin{pmatrix} r_{image} \ g_{image} \ b_{image} \end{pmatrix} + (1-a) egin{pmatrix} r \ g \ b \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

## o Example:

■ If the pixel on the screen is currently green, and we draw over it with a red pixel, with alpha = 0.25

$$lack p = egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \end{pmatrix} p_{image} = egin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0.25 \end{pmatrix}$$

- o Con
  - Alpha blending depends on the order that pixels are drawn.
  - You need to draw transparent polygons after the polygons behind them.
  - Must be Back-to-front order

## **Curves**

- de Casteljau Algorithm (Bézier curves )
  - Linear interpolation

$$P(t) = (1-t)P_0 + tP_1$$

Quadratic interpolation

$$P(t) = (1-t)^2 P_0 + 2t(1-t)P_1 + t^2 P_2$$

Cubic interpolation

$$P(t) = (1-t)^3 P_0 + 3t(1-t)^2 P_1 + 3t^2(1-t)P_2 + t^3 P_3$$

- Bézier curves
  - $\circ \sum_{k=0}^m B_k^m(t) P_k$ 
    - **m** is the degree of the curve
    - $P_0...P_m$  are the control points
  - The coefficient functions are called Bernstein polynomials.

$$lacksquare B_k^m(t) = \left(rac{m}{k}
ight) t^k (1-t)^{m-k}$$

$$lacksquare \left( egin{array}{c} m \ k \end{array} 
ight) = rac{m!}{k!(m-k)!}$$
 is binomial function

- o example
  - m = 3

$$B_0^3(t) = (1-t)^3$$

$$B_1^3(t) = 3t(1-t)^2$$

$$B_2^3(t) = 3t^2(1-t)$$

$$B_3^3(t) = t^3$$

$$P(t) = (1-t)^3 P_0 + 3t(1-t)^2 P_1 + 3t^2(1-t)P_2 + t^3 P_3$$

- Tangents
  - Tangent vector

- $lack \frac{dP(t)}{dt} = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} rac{dB_k^{m-1}(t)}{dt} (P_{k+1} P_k)$
- L-System (Lindenmayer System)
  - Can give us realistic plants and trees
  - L-system is a formal grammar
  - o Symbols
    - A, B, +, -
    - A→B A B
    - B→A + B + A
  - Use a **LIFO** stack to save and restore global state like position and heading

## **Textures**

- Usage
  - 1. Load or creating textures
    - 2. Passing the texture to a shader
    - 3. Mapping texture co-ordinates to vertices
- Texture WRAP
  - GL.GL\_REPEAT (default)
  - GL.GL\_MIRRORED\_REPEAT
  - GL.GL\_CLAMP\_TO\_EDGE

```
gl.glTexParameteri( GL.GL_TEXTURE_2D, GL.GL_TEXTURE_WRAP_S,
GL.GL_REPEAT);
gl.glTexParameteri( GL.GL_TEXTURE_2D, GL.GL_TEXTURE_WRAP_T,
GL.GL_REPEAT);
```

#### Textures and shading

- The simplest approach is to replace illumination calculations with a texture look-up.
  - I(P) = T(s(P), t(P))
  - This produces objects which are not affected by lights or color.
- A more common solution is to use the texture to modulate the ambient and diffuse reflection coefficients.
  - $\qquad \qquad I(P) = T(s,t)[I_a\rho_a + I_d\rho_d(\hat{s}\cdot\widehat{m})] + I_s\rho_s(\hat{r}\cdot\hat{v})^f$
  - We usually leave the specular term unaffected because it is unusual for the material colour to affect specular reflections.
- Magnification (zoom in)
  - Nearest Texel
    - Find the nearest texel
    - image
  - Bilinear Filtering
    - Find the nearest four texels and use bilinear interpolation over them
- Minification (zoom out)

### o Aliasing

It occurs when samples are taken from an image at a lower resolution than repeating detail in the image.

## • Filtering

- One screen pixel overlaps multiple texels but is taking its value from only one of those texels.
- A better approach is to average the texels that contribute to that pixel.
- Doing this on the fly is expensive.

## MIP mapping

- Starting with a 512x512 texture we compute and store 256x256, 128x128, 64x64, 32x32, 16x16, 8x8, 4x4, 2x2 and 1x1 versions.
- This takes total memory = 4/3 original.

```
gl.glGenerateMipmap(GL.GL_TEXTURE_2D);
```

• The simplest approach is to use the next smallest mipmap for the required resolution.

## • Trilinear filtering

- A more costly approach is trilinear filtering
  - Use bilinear filtering to compute pixel values based on the next highest and the next lowest mipmap resolutions.
  - Interpolate between these values depending on the desired resolution.

#### Aniso Filtering

- If a polygon is on an oblique angle away from the camera, then minification may occur much more strongly in one dimension than the other.
- Anisotropic filtering is filtering which treats the two axes independently.

### RIP Mapping

- RIP mapping is an extension of MIP mapping which down-samples each axis and is a better approach to anisotropic filtering
  - 256x256 image has copies at: 256x128, 256x64, 256x32, 256x16, ..., 128x256, 128x128, 128x64, .... 64x256, 64x128, etc.

#### o Con

- Does not handle diagonal anisotropy.
- More memory required for RIP maps (4 times as much).
- Not implemented in OpenGL

### Multi-texturing

- Have to pass two different textures to the shader.
- two different sets of texture coordinates

#### Animated textures

• Animated textures can be achieved by loading multiple textures and using a different one on each frame.

## • Rendering to a texture

• A common trick is to set up a camera in a scene, render the scene into an offscreen

buffer, then copy the image into a texture to use as part of another scene.

## • Reflection mapping (cube mapping)

- Doing this in general is expensive, but we can make a reasonable approximation with textures
  - Generate a cube that encloses the reflective object.
  - Place a camera at the centre of the cube and render the outside world onto the faces of the cube.
  - Use this image to texture the object
- To apply the reflection-mapped texture to the object we need to calculate appropriate texture coordinates.
- We do this by tracing a ray from the camera, reflecting it off the object and then calculating where it intersects the cube.

#### o Pros

Produces reasonably convincing polished metal surfaces and mirrors

#### o Cons

- Expensive: Requires 6 additional render passes per object
- Angles to near objects are wrong.
- Does not handle self-reflections or recursive reflections.

## Shadow buffering

- keep a shadow buffer for each light source.
- The shadow buffer is like the depth buffer, it records the distance from the light source to the closest object in each direction.
  - Render the scene from each light's viewpoint capturing only z-info in shadow (depth) buffer (color buffer turned off)
  - Render the scene from camera's point of view, using the previously captured shadow buffers to modulate the fragments
- When rendering a point P
  - Project the point into the light's clip space.
  - Calculate the index (i,j) for P in the shadow buffer
  - Calculate the pseudodepth d relative to the light source
  - If shadow[i,i] < d then P is in the shadow

#### o Pro

- Provides realistic shadows
- No knowledge or processing of the scene geometry is required

## Cons

- More computation
- Shadow quality is limited by precision of shadow buffer. This may cause some aliasing artefacts.
- Shadow edges are hard.
- The scene geometry must be rendered once per light in order to generate the shadow map for a spotlight, and more times for an omnidirectional point light.

## • Light Mapping

- If our light sources and large portions of the geometry are static then we can precompute the lighting equations and store the results in textures called light maps.
- This process is known as baked lighting.

#### o Pro

 Sophisticated lighting effects can be computed at compile time, where speed is less of an issue.

#### o Con

- Memory and loading times for many individual light maps.
- Not suitable for dynamic lights or moving objects.
- Potential aliasing effects depending on the resolution of the light maps.

## Normal mapping

- Phong shader we are assuming that the surface of the polygon is smoothly curved.
- One solution would be to increase the number of polygons to represent all the deformities, but this is computationally unfeasible for most applications.
- Instead we use textures called normal maps to simulate minor perturbations in the surface normal.
- Rather than arrays of colours, normal maps can be considered as arrays of *vectors*.
   These vectors are added to the interpolated normals to give the appearance of roughness.
- o Pro
  - Provide the illusion of surface texture
- Cons
  - Does not affect silhouette
  - Does not affect occlusion calculation

## **Rasterisation**

- Rasterisation is the process of converting lines and polygons represented by their vertices into fragments.
- Fragments are like pixels but include color, depth, texture coordinate. They may also never make it to the screen due to hidden surface removal or culling.
- This operation needs to be accurate and efficient.

## • Bresenham's algorithm

- The key idea is that calculations are doneincrementally, based on the values for the previous pixel.
- o assume to begin with that the line is in the first octant.
- For each x we work out which pixel we set next
  - The next pixel with the same y value if the line passes below the midpoint between

the two pixels

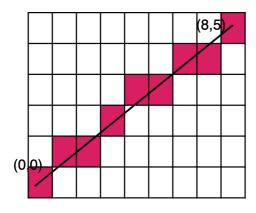
 Or the next pixel with an increased y value if the line passes above the midpoint between the two pixels

```
int y = y0;
for (int x = x0; x <= x1; x++) {
    setPixel(x,y);
    M = (x + 1, y + 1/2)
    if (M is below the line)
        y++
}</pre>
```

```
int y = y0;
int w = x1 - x0;
int h = y1 - y0;
int F = 2 * h - w;

for (int x = x0; x <= x1; x++) {
    drawPixel(x,y);
    if (F < 0)
        F += 2*h;
    else {
        F += 2*(h-w); y++;
    }
}</pre>
```

## o Example



		W = 8		
		h = 5		
2	*	(h - w)	=	-6
2	*	h = 10		

x	y	F
0	0	2
1	1	-4
2	1	6
3	2	0
4	3	-6
5	3	4
6	4	-2
7	4	8
8	5	2

## • Polygon filling

- Shared edges
  - We adopt a rule: The edge pixels belong to the rightmost and/ or upper polygon;

i.e. do not draw rightmost or uppermost edge pixels

## • Scanline algorithm

- Testing every pixel is very inefficient.
- We only need to check where the result changes value, i.e. when we cross an edge
- We proceed row by row:
  - Calculate intersections incrementally.
  - Sort by x value.
  - Fill runs of pixels between intersections.

## • Edge table

- The edge table is a lookup table indexed on the y-value of the lower vertex of the edge.
- Horizontal edges are not added
- We store the the x-value of the lower vertex, the increment (inverse gradient) of the edge and the y-value of the upper vertex.

#### 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 9 0 0 8 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 $\overline{\circ}$ To 0 O 0 O Q $\overline{\circ}$ 0 (0,0)

## Edge table

y in	X	inc	y out
0	1	-0.25	4
0	5	1	1
0	9	ကု	1
0	9	-0.4	5
3	2	-2	4
3	2	2.5	5

## Active Edge List

- On the left edge, round up to the nearest integer, with round(n) = n if n is an integer.
- On the right edge, round down to the nearest integer, but with round(n) = n-1 if n is an integer.

## Active edge list

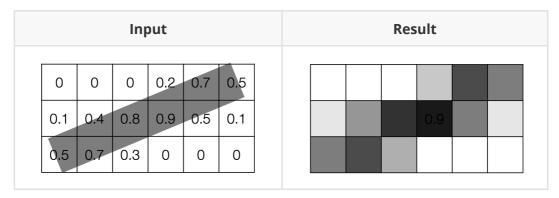
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	0	0
	9	/0	0	0	þ	Ø	0	0	0	0
	d	0	Ø	0	0	0	0	0	9	0
y=2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0		•	•	•	•		•/	• /	0
	0					Ø	0	0	0	Ø

X	inc	y out
0.5	-0.25	4
8.2	-0.4	5

## Antialiasing

## • Prefiltering

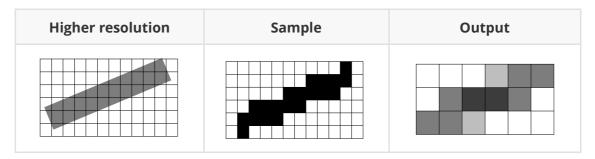
• Prefiltering is computing exact pixel values geometrically rather than by sampling.



■ Prefiltering is most accurate but requires more computation.

## o Postfiltering

- Postfiltering can be faster. Accuracy depends on how many samples are taken per pixel. More samples means larger memory usage.
- Postfiltering is taking samples at a higher resolution (supersampling) and then averaging.
- Draw the line at a higher resolution and average (supersampling).



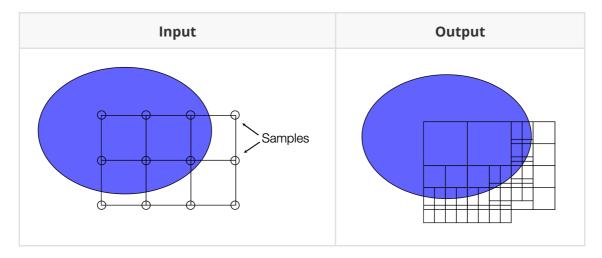
## • Weighted postfiltering

- It is common to apply weights to the samples to favour values in the center of the pixel.
- **Stochastic sampling** (Random)

- Taking supersamples in a grid still tends to produce noticeably regular aliasing effects
- Adding small amounts of jitter to the sampled points makes aliasing effects appear as visual noise.

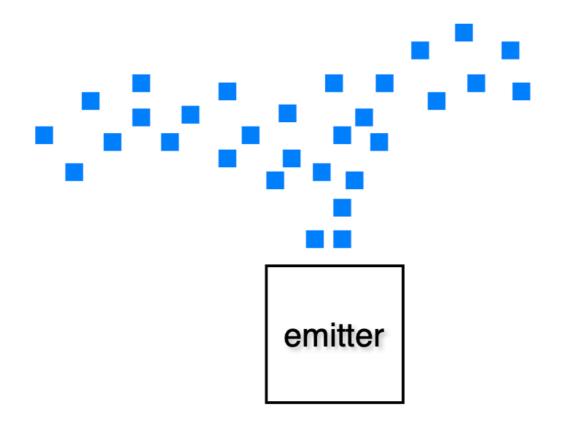
## Adaptive Sampling

- Supersampling in large areas of uniform colour is wasteful.
- Supersampling is most useful in areas of major colour change.
- Solution: Sample recursively, at finer levels of detail in areas with more colour variance.



# Particle systems (粒子系统)

- Some visual phenomena are best modelled as collections of small particles.
- Particles are usually represented as small textured quads or point sprites single vertices with an image attached.
- They are billboarded, i.e transformed so that they are always face towards the camera.
- Particles are created by an emitter object and evolve over time, usually changing position, size, colour.



# **Global Lighting**

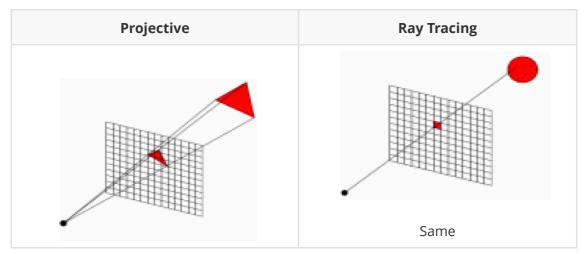
- The lighting equation we looked at earlier only handled direct lighting from sources:
  - $\circ \ I = I_a 
    ho_a + \sum_{l \in lights} I_l(
    ho_d(\widehat{S_1} \cdot \widehat{m}) + 
    ho_{sp}(\widehat{r_1} \cdot \hat{v})^f)$
  - We added an ambient fudge term to account for all other light in the scene.
  - Without this term, surfaces not facing a light source are black.
  - Methods that take this kind of multi-bounce lighting into account are called global lighting methods.

# **Raytracing (Global lighting)**

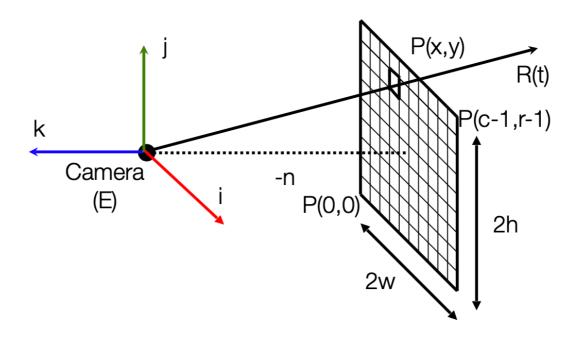
- Raytracing models specular reflection and refraction.
- Both methods are computationally expensive and are rarely suitable for real-time rendering.
- Ray tracing is a different approach to rendering than the pipeline we have seen so far.
- Projective Methods vs RayTracing
  - o Projective Method
    - For each **object:** Find and update each pixel it influences
  - Ray Tracing
    - For each **pixel:** Find each object that influences it and update accordingly
  - o Same
    - shading models
    - calculation of intersections,
  - o Difference

## projection and hidden surface removal come for 'free' in ray tracing

0



## Location of pixel



$$\circ pixelWidth = \frac{2w}{c}$$

$$\circ \ pixelHeight = rac{2h}{r}$$

$$i_c = -w + x(\frac{2w}{c}) = w(\frac{2x}{c} - 1)$$

$$\circ \ j_r = h(\frac{2y}{r} - 1)$$

• The point P(x,y) of pixel (x,y) is given by:

• 
$$P(x,y) = E + w(\frac{2x}{c} - 1)i + h(\frac{2y}{r} - 1)k - nk$$

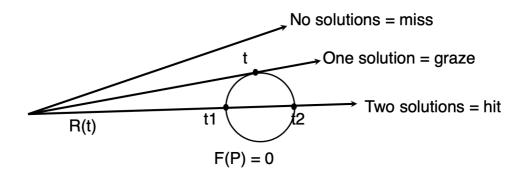
• A ray from the camera through P(x,y) is given by:

• 
$$R(t) = E + t(P(x, y) - E) = E + tv$$

• 
$$R(t) = E + t(P(x,y) - E) = E + tv$$
  
•  $v = w(\frac{2x}{c} - 1)i + h(\frac{2y}{r} - 1)k - nk$ 

- t = 0, we get E (Eye/Camera)
- t = 1, we get P(x,y) the point on the near plane
- t > 1 point in the world
- t < 0 point behind the camera not on ray

## o Generic Sphere



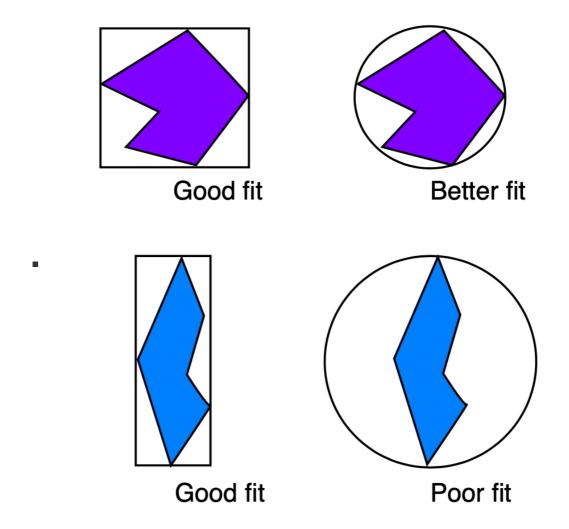
$$t_{1,2} = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}$$

#### Shadows

• At each hit point we cast a new ray towards each light source. These rays are called shadow feelers.

## o Extents (大小)

- Extents are bounding boxes or spheres which enclose an object
- To compute a box extent for a mesh we simply take the min and max x, y and z coordinates over all the points.
- To compute a sphere extent we find the centroid of all the vertices by averaging their coordinates. This is the centre of the sphere.

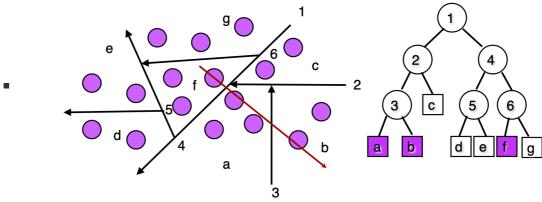


## Projection extents

 A projection extent of an object is a bounding box which encloses all the pixels which would be in the image of the object (ignoring occlusions).

## • Binary Space Partitioning (BSP)

 Another approach to optimisation is to build a Binary Space Partitioning (BSP) tree dividing the world into cells, where each cell contains a small number of objects.



## • Raytracing Can't Do

- Basic recursive raytracing cannot do:
  - Light bouncing off a shiny surface like a mirror and illuminating a diffuse surface

- Light bouncing off one diffuse surface to illuminate others
- Light transmitting then diffusing internally
- Also a problem for rough specular reflection
  - Fuzzy reflections in rough shiny objects

## • Realtime ray-tracing (RTX)

- Works by arranging objects in a bounding volume hierarchy (BVH)
- Specialised hardware offers fast traversal of these hierarchies to find ray intersections.

# **Radiosity (Global lighting)**

- Radiosity models diffuse reflection
- Radiosity is a global illumination technique which performs indirect diffuse lighting.
- Direct lighting techniques only take into account light coming directly from a source.
- Raytracing takes into account specular reflections of other objects.
- Radiosity takes into account diffuse reflections of everything else in the scene.

## • Finite elements

- We divide the scene up into small patches.
- We then calculate the energy transfer from each patch to every other patch.

#### Energy transfer

- The basic equation for energy transfer is:
- Light output = Light emitted + ρ \* Light input
- Where  $\rho$  is the diffuse reflection coefficient.

$$\blacksquare B_i = E_i + \rho_i \sum_j B_j F_{ij}$$

- lacksquare  $B_i$  is the radiosity of patch i
- $E_i$  is the energy emitted by patch i
- $\rho_i$  is the reflectivity of patch i
- $F_{ij}$  is a form factor which encodes what fraction of light from patch j reaches patch i.

## Color

#### RGB

- o Red, Green, Blue
- Colour is expressed as the addition of red, green and blue components.

#### CMYK

- o Cyan, Magenta, Yellow, Black
- CMY is a subtractive colour model, typically used in describing printed media.

#### HSV

- Hue, Saturation, Value (Brightness)
- HSV (aka HSB) is an attempt to describe colours in terms that have more perceptual meaning
- H represents the hue as an angle from 0° (red) to 360° (red)
- S represents the saturation from 0 (grey) to 1 (full colour)
- V represents the value/brightness form 0 (black) to 1 (bright colour).

#### HSL

- Hue, Saturation, Lightness
- HSL (aka HLS) replaces the brightness parameter with a (perhaps) more intuitive lightness value.
- H represents the hue as an angle from 0° (red) to 360° (red)
- S represents the saturation from 0 (grey) to 1 (full colour)
- L represents the lightness form 0 (black) to 1 (white).