Automagic Raytracer Development Report

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1 Introduction

1.1 Project Overview

This project aims to develop a raytracer from scratch with C++. A raytracer simulates the behaviour of light rays by tracing their paths as they interact with objects within the scene to produce photorealistic images.

The primary objective of this project is to implement essential rendering features, including:

- Blinn-Phong shading for simulating realistic lighting.
- Reflection and refraction to render mirrors and transparent materials.
- Tone mapping to adapt high dynamic range scenes for standard display devices.
- Handling of **ray-object** intersections for primitives such as spheres, triangles, and cylinders.

Beyond these foundational features, the project implemented advanced techniques to enhance performance and realism, such as:

- Bounding Volume Hierarchies (BVH) for faster intersection tests.
- Antialiasing via pixel sampling to smooth jagged edges.
- Realistic rendering features like depth of field and aperture.

Note: For building and running the project, please refer to "FeatureList.txt" for instructions.

1.2 Background Mathematics

1. Intersection of a ray with an object:

$$P = O + tD$$

Where:

- O is the origin of the ray.
- \bullet *D* is the ray's direction vector.
- t is the distance from the ray origin to the intersection point.
- 2. Reflection of a ray:

$$R = 2(N \cdot L)N - L$$

Where:

- N is the normal vector at the intersection point.
- L is the direction vector of the incoming ray.
- R is the direction vector of the reflected ray.

3. Refraction of a ray:

$$T = \eta_i \frac{-L + (N \cdot L)\hat{N}}{\left\| -\eta_i L + (N \cdot L)\hat{N} \right\|} - \eta_t \hat{N}$$

Where:

- η_i and η_t are the refractive indices of the two materials.
- \hat{N} is the normalised surface normal vector at the intersection point.
- \bullet L is the direction vector of the incoming ray.
- T is the direction vector of the refracted ray.
- 4. colour calculation:

$$C = E + \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i C_i$$

Where:

- E is the emitted colour of the surface.
- C_i is the reflected colour contribution from the *i*-th light source.
- w_i is the transmission factor of the corresponding light path.

2 Implementation

2.1 High-Level Design

The primary components of this project are divided into modules for scalability, maintainability, and debugging, each of which is responsible for a specific aspect of the raytracing process. The overview is listed as below:

1. Core

- **Vector3**: A class for 3D vector mathematics including addition, subtraction, normalisation, dot product and cross product
- Ray: A class to represent a ray in 3D space with an origin and a direction mainly for tracing paths from the camera to the scene, also used for light, reflection and refraction rays.

2. Scene:

- **Geometry**: A base class for all objects and provides interfaces for operations like ray-object intersection, centroid computation and bounding box calculations.
- Sphere, Cylinder, Triangle: Specific intersection algorithm for each shape and methods to compute bounding boxes.
- Material: Save the surface properties such as diffuse, specular coefficients, reflectivity, etc.

3. Lighting:

• Light: Represents point light in the scene, including position and intensity.

4. Camera:

• Camera: Models the virtual camera, handles field of view, aspect ratio, depth of field, aperture, and generates rays for each pixel on the image plane.

5. Shading:

- Blinn-Phong Shading: Shading for realistic lighting, including ambient, diffuse and specular components. Also handles reflective and refractive effects through recursive ray tracing.
- Binary: Shade the pixel that hit any object red, otherwise black.

6. Acceleration:

• BVH: Organises objects into a tree structure to optimise ray-object intersection, using Axis-Aligned Bounding Boxes to accelerate intersection queries.

7. Input and Configuration:

• JSON Reader: Parse scene configuration from a JSON file.

8. Rendering Pipeline:

• Rendering loop: Manages the overall rendering process, including all the above features, and supports antialiasing and tone mapping for enhanced visual realism.

2.2 Feature Implementation

Detailed descriptions of each feature:

2.2.1 Basic Features

- 1. **Image writing**: Store the pixel data (RGB values) in a 1D buffer and ensure the data is clamped back to 0-255. Write the PPM header (P6 format) with image width, height, and maximum colour value. Then, write the pixel values in binary format to the file. See implementation in Figure 1.
- 2. **Virtual pin-hole camera**: Compute the forward (lookAt position), right and up vectors to define the camera's orientation in 3D space. Determine the image plane's dimension based on the field of view, aspect ratio, and resolution, and generate rays for each pixel from the camera to the pixel position. See implementation in Figure 2.

Figure 1: Code snippet for writing image.

```
Ray Camera::generateRay(float x, float y) const

{

// Convert pixel coordinates to normalized device coordinates (NDC)

float ndcX = (2 * (x + 0.5f) / static_cast<float>(width) - 1) * aspectRatio * scale; // Scale by aspect ratio and FOV

float ndcY = (1 - 2 * (y + 0.5f) / static_cast<float>(height)) * scale; // Invert y-axis for image plane

Vector3 direction = (forward + ndcX * right + ndcY * up).normalize(); // Compute ray direction

// Handle pinhole camera case (aperture = 0)

if (aperture == 0.0f)

{

return Ray(position, direction); // Direct ray without depth of field effects
}
```

Figure 2: Code snippet for pin-hole camera.

3. Intersection Test:

• Sphere: Represent the sphere with its centre C and radius r. A ray is represented as:

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \mathbf{O} + t \cdot \mathbf{D}$$

where:

- O: Ray origin

- **D**: Ray direction

Compute the vector **OC**:

$$OC = O - C$$

Solve the quadratic equation:

$$a = \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{D}, \quad b = 2 \cdot (\mathbf{OC} \cdot \mathbf{D}), \quad c = (\mathbf{OC} \cdot \mathbf{OC}) - r^2$$

Compute the discriminant:

Discriminant =
$$b^2 - 4 \cdot a \cdot c$$

- If Discriminant < 0, the ray does not intersect the sphere.
- Otherwise, compute the roots:

$$t_1 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{\text{Discriminant}}}{2a}, \quad t_2 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{\text{Discriminant}}}{2a}$$

Determine the closest intersection point:

 $t = \min(t_1, t_2)$ if both roots are positive.

Figure 3: Code snippet of intersection test for spheres.

• Cylinder:

A cylinder is defined by its center C, axis vector A (normalized), radius r, and height h. To determine whether a ray intersects with a finite cylinder, we follow these steps:

First, the ray is represented as:

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \mathbf{O} + t \cdot \mathbf{D},$$

where **O** is the ray origin, and **D** is the ray direction.

The vector from the ray origin to the cylinder centre is computed as:

$$OC = O - C$$

Next, the ray direction and origin are projected onto a plane perpendicular to the cylinder's axis A. The perpendicular components are:

$$\mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{D} - (\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A}, \quad \mathbf{O}' = \mathbf{OC} - (\mathbf{OC} \cdot \mathbf{A}) \cdot \mathbf{A}.$$

The intersection of the ray with the infinite cylinder is determined by solving the quadratic equation:

$$a = \mathbf{D}' \cdot \mathbf{D}', \quad b = 2 \cdot (\mathbf{O}' \cdot \mathbf{D}'), \quad c = \mathbf{O}' \cdot \mathbf{O}' - r^2,$$

Discriminant $= b^2 - 4 \cdot a \cdot c.$

If Discriminant < 0, the ray does not intersect the cylinder. Otherwise, the two possible intersection points (roots) are:

$$t_1 = \frac{-b - \sqrt{\text{Discriminant}}}{2a}, \quad t_2 = \frac{-b + \sqrt{\text{Discriminant}}}{2a}.$$

To validate that the intersection points are within the cylinder's height bounds, compute the projection length of the intersection points onto the cylinder's axis:

Projection Length =
$$(\mathbf{P} - \mathbf{C}) \cdot \mathbf{A}$$
,

where P is the intersection point. The intersection is valid only if:

$$-h \leq \text{Projection Length} \leq h.$$

```
::intersect(const Ray &ray) con
// Implementing a basic cylinder intersection logic (finite cylinder)
Vector3 axisNormalized = axis.normalize();
Vector3 oc = ray.origin - center;
Vector3 d = ray.direction - axisNormalized * ray.direction.dot(axisNormalized);
Vector3 o = oc - axisNormalized * oc.dot(axisNormalized);
float a = d.dot(d);
float c = o.dot(o) - radius * radius;
float discriminant = b * b - 4 * a * c;
float tCylinder = -1;
if (discriminant >= 0)
     float sqrtDiscriminant = std::sqrt(discriminant);
     float t1 = (-b - sqrtDiscriminant) / (2.0f * a);
float t2 = (-b + sqrtDiscriminant) / (2.0f * a);
    // Choose the nearest positive t value tCylinder = (t1 > 0) ? t1 : ((t2 > 0) ? t2 : -1);
     if (tCylinder > 0)
          Vector3 point = ray.origin + ray.direction * tCylinder;
          float projectionLength = [point - center].dot(axisNormalized);
          if (projectionLength >= -height && projectionLength <= height)</pre>
               Vector3 pointOnAxis = center + axisNormalized * projectionLength;
result.normal = (result.point - pointOnAxis).normalize();
               result.material = material;
```

Figure 4: Code snippet of intersection test for the body of cylinders.

Finally, check for intersections with the cylinder's top and bottom caps (treated as disks). The caps are defined by planes at $\mathbf{C} + h \cdot \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{C} - h \cdot \mathbf{A}$. Rayplane intersection tests determine if the ray intersects these disks within their radii. The closest valid intersection (cylinder body or caps) is selected. See implementation in Figure 4, 5

```
float tCapTop = -1;
float tCapBottom = -1;
Vector3 bottomCenter = center - axisNormalized * (height);
Vector3 topCenter = center + axisNormalized * (height);
float denomBottom = ray.direction.dot(axisNormalized);
if (std::abs(denomBottom) > 1e-6) // Avoid division by zero for rays parallel to the plane
    float t = (bottomCenter - ray.origin).dot(axisNormalized) / denomBottom;
    if (t > 0)
        if ((point - bottomCenter).length() <= radius)</pre>
            tCapBottom = t;
   pat denomTop = ray.direction.dot(axisNormalized);
if (std::abs(denomTop) > 1e-6) // Avoid division by zero for rays parallel to the plane
    float t = (topCenter - ray.origin).dot(axisNormalized) / denomTop;
        Vector3 point = ray.origin + ray.direction * t;
        if ((point - topCenter).length() <= radius)</pre>
            tCapTop = t:
```

Figure 5: Code snippet of intersection test for the top and bottom of cylinders.

• Triangle:

To determine whether a ray intersects a triangle, we use the Möller–Trumbore intersection algorithm. This algorithm is efficient and avoids explicitly calculating the triangle's plane equation.

The triangle is defined by its three vertices \mathbf{v}_0 , \mathbf{v}_1 , and \mathbf{v}_2 . The ray is represented as:

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \mathbf{O} + t \cdot \mathbf{D},$$

where **O** is the ray origin, and **D** is the ray direction.

First, calculate the edges of the triangle:

$$\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_0, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \mathbf{v}_0.$$

Next, compute the determinant to check if the ray and triangle are parallel:

$$\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{D} \times \mathbf{e}_2, \quad a = \mathbf{e}_1 \cdot \mathbf{h}.$$

If a is close to zero ($|a| < \epsilon$), the ray is parallel to the triangle, and there is no intersection.

To continue, calculate the inverse of a and the vector from the ray origin to one of the triangle's vertices:

$$f = \frac{1}{a}$$
, $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{O} - \mathbf{v}_0$.

The barycentric coordinates u and v are computed to verify if the intersection point lies within the triangle:

$$u = f \cdot (\mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{h}).$$

If u < 0 or u > 1, the intersection lies outside the triangle.

Next, compute \mathbf{q} and the second barycentric coordinate v:

$$\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{s} \times \mathbf{e}_1, \quad v = f \cdot (\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{q}).$$

If v < 0 or u + v > 1, the intersection lies outside the triangle.

Finally, compute the intersection distance t:

$$t = f \cdot (\mathbf{e}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q}).$$

If t > 0, the ray intersects the triangle at:

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{O} + t \cdot \mathbf{D}.$$

Ensure that the computed normal at the intersection points in the opposite direction of the ray:

$$\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{e}_1 \times \mathbf{e}_2, \quad \mathbf{N} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{N}, & \text{if } \mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{N} < 0, \\ -\mathbf{N}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This ensures consistent orientation for shading.

The implementation of the triangle intersection test is shown in Figure 6.

```
ection Triangle::intersect(const Ray &ray) const
Vector3 edge1 = v1 - v0;
Vector3 edge2 = v2 - v0;
Vector3 h = ray.direction.cross(edge2);
float a = edge1.dot(h);
   (a > -1e-6 && a < 1e-6)
Vector3 s = ray.origin - v0;
float u = f * s.dot(h);
if (u < 0.0 || u > 1.0)
    return result; // Intersection is outside of the triangle
Vector3 q = s.cross(edge1);
float v = f * ray.direction.dot(q);
if (v < 0.0 || u + v > 1.0)
    return result; // Intersection is outside of the triangle
float t = f * edge2.dot(q);
    result.point = ray.origin + ray.direction * t;
    Vector3 computedNormal = edge1.cross(edge2).normalize();
    result.normal = (ray.direction.dot(computedNormal) < θ) ? computedNormal : -computedNormal;
    result.material = material;
```

Figure 6: Code snippet of intersection test for triangles.

4. **Blinn-Phong shading**: Blinn-Phong shading computes realistic lighting at a point on a surface. It combines ambient, diffuse, and specular lighting contributions to produce a visually pleasing result.

The model assumes the following components:

- A light source with intensity L,
- A surface normal N,
- A view direction V (towards the camera),
- A light direction $L_{\mathbf{D}}$ (from the surface point to the light source).

The shading model is described mathematically as:

$$C = C_{ambient} + C_{diffuse} + C_{specular},$$

where C is the resulting colour at the surface point.

Ambient lighting provides a base illumination to simulate light scattered in the environment:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathrm{ambient}} = k_a \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\mathrm{material}} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\mathrm{light}},$$

where k_a is the ambient coefficient, $\mathbf{C}_{\text{material}}$ is the material's ambient colour, and $\mathbf{C}_{\text{light}}$ is the light's ambient colour.

Diffuse lighting simulates light scattered equally in all directions from a surface. It

is calculated as:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\text{diffuse}} = k_d \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{material}} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{light}} \cdot \max(0, \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{D}}),$$

where k_d is the diffuse coefficient, and $\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{L_D}$ is the cosine of the angle between the surface normal and the light direction.

Specular lighting simulates shiny highlights caused by light reflecting off a surface. The Blinn-Phong model uses a halfway vector **H** between the light direction and view direction:

 $H = \frac{L_D + V}{\|L_D + V\|}.$

The specular component is then calculated as:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\text{specular}} = k_s \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{material}} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{light}} \cdot \max(0, \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{H})^n,$$

where k_s is the specular coefficient, n is the specular exponent controlling the shininess, and $\mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{H}$ is the cosine of the angle between the surface normal and the halfway vector.

The final shading computation at a surface point combines the three components:

$$C = C_{ambient} + C_{diffuse} + C_{specular}.$$

Figure 7: Code snippet of Blinn-Phong shading.

Figure 8 shows an example of Blinn-Phong shading applied to a scene, demonstrating the ambient, diffuse, and specular contributions.

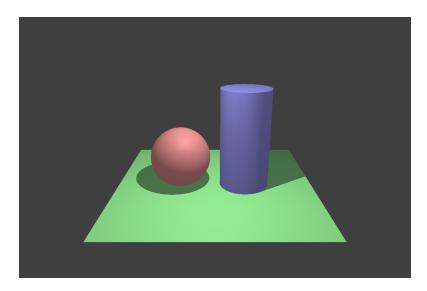


Figure 8: Example of Blinn-phong shading and shadow applied while rendering the image.

5. **Shadow:** A shadow ray $\mathbf{R}(t)$ is defined as:

$$\mathbf{R}(t) = \mathbf{P} + t \cdot \mathbf{L},$$

where:

- P: Surface point.
- L: Direction from P to the light source.
- t: Distance parameter along the ray.

The ray origin is slightly offset by ϵ along the surface normal to avoid self-intersection:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\text{origin}} = \mathbf{P} + \epsilon \cdot \mathbf{N}.$$

The implementation can be seen from Figure 7 and effects can be seen from Figure 8

6. **Tone Map**: Linear tone map is implemented based on the luminance of the input HDR colour.

Luminance Calculation: The luminance of the input HDR colour is computed to represent its perceptual brightness. It is calculated as a weighted sum of the RGB channels:

Luminance =
$$0.2126 \cdot \text{Red} + 0.7152 \cdot \text{Green} + 0.0722 \cdot \text{Blue}$$
.

Tone Mapping: The luminance is adjusted using the tone mapping equation:

$$\label{eq:toneMappedLuminance} \mbox{ToneMappedLuminance} = \frac{\mbox{Luminance}}{\mbox{Luminance} + 1 + \epsilon},$$

where ϵ is a small value to prevent division by zero. The input colour is scaled by the ratio of the tone-mapped luminance to the original luminance:

$$\label{eq:mapped_colour} \begin{aligned} \text{Mappedcolour} &= \text{Inputcolour} \cdot \frac{\text{ToneMappedLuminance}}{\text{Luminance} + \epsilon}. \end{aligned}$$

Gamma Correction: To enhance perceptual accuracy, gamma correction is applied:

 $Mappedcolour_i = (Mappedcolour_i)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}},$

where γ is the gamma value. In this implementation, $\gamma = 1.2$ is used.

Clamping: The final tone-mapped colour is clamped to ensure it remains within the specified minimum and maximum colour bounds:

 $Clampedcolour_i = max(Mincolour_i, min(Mappedcolour_i, Maxcolour_i)).$

Background colour Handling: If the input colour matches the background colour, no tone mapping is applied, and the background colour is returned directly.

```
Vector3 toneMap(const Vector3 &color, float exposure, const Vector3 &minColor, const Vector3 &maxColor, const Vector3 &backgroundColour)

// If the color is equal to the background color, return it directly (no tone mapping needed)
if (color == backgroundColour)
{
    return backgroundColour;
}

// Calculate the luminance of the input color (perceptual brightness based on RGB weights)
float luminance = 0.2126f * color.x + 0.7152f * color.y + 0.0722f * color.z;

// Apply tone mapping to reduce luminance values to a perceptually balanced rangel
float toneMappedLuminance = luminance / (luminance + 1.0f + 1e-6f);
Vector3 mappedColor = color * (toneMappedLuminance / (luminance + 1.0f + 1e-6f)); // Scale color components

// Apply gamma correction to improve perceptual accuracy (optional)
constexpr float gamma = 1.2f; // Gamma value for correction
mappedColor.x = pow(mappedColor.x, 1.0f / gamma); // Correct the red channel
mappedColor.y = pow(mappedColor.y, 1.0f / gamma); // Correct the green channel
mappedColor.y = pow(mappedColor.y, 1.0f / gamma); // Correct the blue channel
// Clamp the final color values to ensure they stay within the specified min and max range
mappedColor = clamp(mappedColor, minColor, maxColor);

// Return the final tone-mapped and clamped color
return mappedColor;
```

Figure 9: Code snippet of tone mapping.

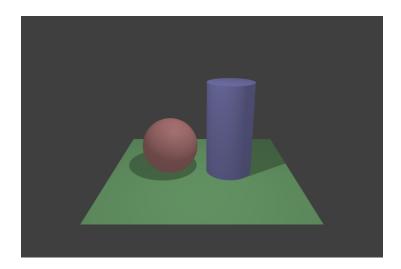


Figure 10: Effect of tone mapping on simple_phong.json.(antialiasing enabled)

By comparing Figure 7 and 10, we can see the effect of the tone map being applied to the image.

7. **Reflection**: Reflection simulates the way light bounces off surfaces, creating mirror-like effects. In ray tracing, reflections are calculated recursively by tracing secondary rays from the point of intersection.

Mathematical Formulation: The direction of the reflected ray \mathbf{R} is computed using the incident ray direction \mathbf{I} and the surface normal \mathbf{N} :

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I} - 2 \cdot (\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{N}) \cdot \mathbf{N}.$$

Here:

- I: Direction of the incident ray (normalized).
- N: Surface normal at the intersection point (normalized).
- R: Direction of the reflected ray (normalized).

Algorithm:

- (a) Compute the reflected ray direction **R** using the formula above.
- (b) Offset the ray origin slightly along $\mathbf R$ to avoid self-intersections:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\text{origin}} = \mathbf{P} + \epsilon \cdot \mathbf{R},$$

where **P** is the intersection point and ϵ is a small constant.

- (c) Trace the reflected ray into the scene to find the next intersection.
- (d) If an intersection is found, calculate the reflected color recursively. The recursion depth is limited to prevent infinite loops:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\text{reflected}} = \mathbf{C}_{\text{object}} + \text{reflectivity} \cdot \text{trace}(\mathbf{R}, \text{depth} - 1).$$

(e) Blend the reflected color with the surface's base color using the material's reflectivity coefficient:

$$\mathbf{C} = (1 - \text{reflectivity}) \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{base}} + \text{reflectivity} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{reflected}}.$$

Figure 11: Code snippet for reflection.

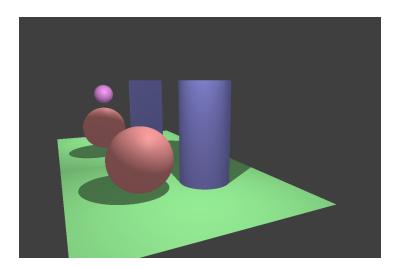


Figure 12: Effect of reflection in an image

8. **Refraction**: Refraction simulates the bending of light as it passes through a transparent surface. In ray tracing, refraction is computed using Snell's Law, which describes how light changes direction when transitioning between media with different refractive indices.

Mathematical Formulation: The direction of the refracted ray **T** is calculated using the incident ray direction **I**, the surface normal **N**, and the ratio of refractive indices $\eta = \frac{\eta_i}{\eta_t}$, where:

- η_i : Refractive index of the medium the ray is exiting.
- η_t : Refractive index of the medium the ray is entering.

Snell's Law for refraction is given by:

$$\mathbf{T} = \eta \cdot \mathbf{I} + (\eta \cdot \cos \theta_i - \sqrt{1 - \eta^2 \cdot (1 - \cos^2 \theta_i)}) \cdot \mathbf{N},$$

where $\cos \theta_i = -\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{N}$.

Total Internal Reflection: If the discriminant inside the square root becomes negative, total internal reflection occurs, and no refraction is possible.

Algorithm:

- (a) Compute $\eta = \frac{\eta_i}{\eta_t}$ based on the refractive indices of the media.
- (b) Calculate $\cos \theta_i = -\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{N}$. Adjust the normal **N** if the ray is exiting the surface.
- (c) Compute the refracted direction **T** using Snell's Law. If the discriminant is negative, handle total internal reflection.
- (d) Offset the refracted ray's origin slightly along T to avoid self-intersection:

$$\mathbf{T}_{\text{origin}} = \mathbf{P} + \epsilon \cdot \mathbf{T}.$$

(e) Trace the refracted ray into the scene to compute the refracted color recursively.

(f) Combine the refracted and reflected colors using the Fresnel reflectance factor R_f :

$$\mathbf{C} = (1 - R_f) \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{refracted}} + R_f \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\text{reflected}},$$

where R_f is computed using Schlick's approximation:

$$R_f = R_0 + (1 - R_0) \cdot (1 - \cos \theta_i)^5,$$

and
$$R_0 = \left(\frac{\eta_i - \eta_t}{\eta_i + \eta_t}\right)^2$$
.

Figure 13: Code snippet for calculating refractions.

```
// Refraction component with new logic
Vector3 refractionOlor(e) 6, 0.6, 0.6);
if (material.isRefractive && nbounces > 0)

{
Vector3 refractionOlor;
float fresnelReflectance = fresnelSchlick(std::abs(viewOir.dot(normal)), material.refractiveIndex);

if (calculateRefraction(ray.direction.normalize(), normal.normalize(), material.refractiveIndex, refractionOir))

{
Vector3 refractionOrigin = refractionOir.dot(normal) < 0 ? intersection.point = normal * epsilon : intersection.point + normal * epsilon; // Offset slightly
Ray refraction(sy(refractionOir.normalize());

Intersection closestRefractionIntersection = findClosestIntersection(refractionRay, spheres, cylinders, triangles);

if (closestRefractionIntersection.hit)

{
    refractionColor = blinnPhongShading(closestRefractionIntersection, refractionRay, lights, spheres, cylinders, triangles, nbounces = 1, backgroundColor);
    }
    else
    {
        refractionColor = backgroundColor;
    }

    refractionColor = refractionColor * (1.0f = material.reflectivity);
        // Combine reflection, refraction, and shading color
        color = (1.0f = fresnelReflectance) * refractionColor + fresnelReflectance * reflectionColor + color;
}
```

Figure 14: Code snippet for applying refraction in blinn-phong rendering.

Figure 13 and 14 show the implementation of refraction in the code, and Figure 15 shows the rendered image with a refractive material.

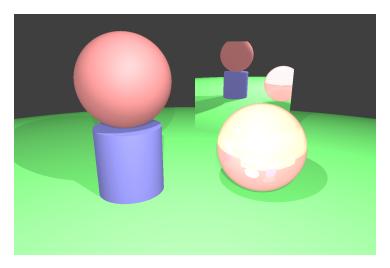


Figure 15: Effect of refraction applied.

2.2.2 Intermediate Features

1. Bounding Volume Hierarchy(BVH): A Bounding Volume Hierarchy (BVH) is a tree structure used to accelerate ray-object intersection tests in ray tracing. BVH organises scene geometry into a hierarchy of bounding volumes, allowing efficient pruning of objects that do not intersect with a ray. This significantly reduces the number of intersection tests, improving rendering performance.

Each node in the BVH represents a bounding volume that encompasses a subset of the scene's geometry:

- Leaf Node: Contains a small number of geometric primitives (e.g., triangles, spheres, or cylinders).
- **Internal Node:** Contains two or more child nodes and a bounding box that encloses all its children's volumes.

The bounding volumes are typically axis-aligned bounding boxes (AABBs) for their computational efficiency.

The BVH is built recursively:

BVHNode = Build(primitives, depth),

where:

- Primitives are the scene's geometric objects.
- Depth is the current level in the BVH tree.

Steps to build the BVH:

- (a) Compute an AABB for the entire set of primitives.
- (b) Partition the primitives into two groups based on a splitting criterion (e.g., midpoint or surface area heuristic).
- (c) Recursively build BVH nodes for each partition until a termination criterion is met (e.g., a minimum number of primitives per leaf node).

Ray traversal through the BVH efficiently determines potential intersections:

- Start at the root node of the BVH.
- Test the ray against the bounding box of the current node.
- If the ray intersects:
 - For leaf nodes, test the ray against the contained primitives.
 - For internal nodes, traverse the child nodes recursively.
- If no intersection occurs, terminate the traversal for that node.

The below figures show the implementation of BVH on top of the Blinn-Phong shading that has already been implemented. The performance of BVH will be discussed in Section 3.

```
static std::unique_ptr:@WMnode> build(std::vector<std::shared_ptr<comst Geometry>> objects, int depth = 0)
{
    auto node = std::make_uniquect@WMnode>();

    // Base cases: leaf node if depth limit exceeded or not enough objects to split
    static consteam int Nav_LEGE_STZE = 0;

    // (Compute bounding box for all objects
    AABE continedBox;
    for (const auto Boby): objects)—
    node>boundingBox = conbinedBox;

    // Calculate axis to split on based on the largest bounding box extent
    Vectors boundsizine = node>boundingBox = node>boundingB
```

Figure 16: Part one of function for building BVH boxes.

Figure 17: Part two of function for building BVH boxes.

Figure 18: BVH box intersection function.

Figure 19: BVH box shadow intersection function.

Figure 20: AABB helper function for constructing BVH.

2.2.3 Advanced Features

- 1. Pixel Sampling for Antialiasing: Antialiasing is a technique used to reduce visual artefacts, such as jagged edges, that occur due to insufficient sampling of the scene. Pixel sampling achieves smoother results by averaging multiple samples taken within each pixel. This process is crucial for producing high-quality rendered images.
 - (a) Divide each pixel into subregions based on the number of samples (e.g., 4×4).
 - (b) Generate sample positions using one of the sampling methods (e.g., jittered sampling).
 - (c) For each sample position, cast a ray into the scene and compute the color at the intersection point.
 - (d) Average the colors of all samples to compute the final pixel color:

$$\mathbf{C}_{\text{pixel}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{C}_{i},$$

where N is the total number of samples, and C_i is the color computed for each sample.

An example plot of the random samples algorithm is given in Firgure 21

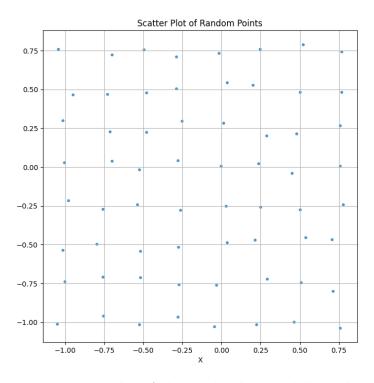


Figure 21: Plot of the randomly sampled pixel.

Below are the code snippets for random sampling of the pixels.

By applying 16 samples to each pixel we can achieve a fantastic result on antialiasing as shown in Figure 25 and 26

Figure 22: Apply random sampling in rendering.

```
else
{
    // Handle cases with no intersection
    if (renderMode == RenderMode::BINARY)
    {
        // Binary shading: set color to red if there's an intersection
        color = Vector3(0.0f, 0.0f, 0.0f);
        totalWeight += 1.0f;
    }
    else if (renderMode == RenderMode::PHONG)
    {
        color += backgroundColor;
        totalWeight += 1.0f;
    }
}

color /= totalWeight; // Normalize color

// Store color in the HDR buffer
hdrColors[y * width + x] = color;
}
```

Figure 23: Code snippet for calculating colour if pixel sampling is enabled.

```
Afterwaters county distributes points for matistating videous county distributed points(int num_amples = 64, float lower_bound = -1.0f, float upper_bound = 1.0f) {
    int grid_size = cataic_catain(scits)(scits)(scits)(scits)(scits), float lower_bound = 1.0f) {
    int grid_size = cataic_catain(scits)(scits)(scits)(scits), float lower_bound = 1.0f) {
    int grid_size = cataic_catain(scits)(scits)(scits), float lower_bound = 1.0f) {
    intermal scits = catain(scits) {
    intermal scits = catain(scits) {
        intermal scits = catain(scits) {
        intermal scits) {
        inte
```

Figure 24: Code snippet for generating points for sampling the pixel.

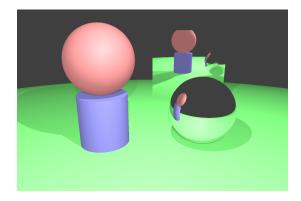


Figure 25: Scene rendered with Blinn-Phong shading without antialiasing.

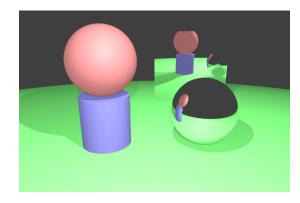


Figure 26: Scene rendered with Blinn-Phong shading with antialiasing.

2. Lens Sampling for Depth of Field (Aperture) Lens sampling simulates depth of field (DoF) effects by accounting for the aperture of a camera lens. In ray tracing, this involves generating rays from a finite aperture and focusing them on a specific focal plane, mimicking the behavior of real-world cameras.

The depth of field is achieved by tracing rays through randomly sampled points on the lens aperture. These rays converge at a focal plane to produce sharp images of objects at a specific distance.

Steps: 1. Define the focal distance d_f , the distance from the camera to the focal plane. 2. Sample random points \mathbf{P}_a on the lens aperture. 3. Compute the direction of the ray from the sampled aperture point \mathbf{P}_a to a point \mathbf{P}_f on the focal plane.

The direction of the sampled ray is given by:

$$\mathbf{D}_a = \frac{(\mathbf{P}_f - \mathbf{P}_a)}{\|\mathbf{P}_f - \mathbf{P}_a\|},$$

where:

- $\mathbf{P}_f = \mathbf{O} + d_f \cdot \mathbf{D}$ is the intersection of the original ray with the focal plane.
- P_a is a randomly sampled point on the aperture.

Algorithm for Lens Sampling:

(a) Generate a random sample on the aperture disk:

$$x_a = r \cdot \cos \theta, \quad y_a = r \cdot \sin \theta,$$

where r is a random radius and θ is a random angle within the aperture's radius.

(b) Calculate the new ray origin as:

$$\mathbf{P}_a = \mathbf{P} + x_a \cdot \mathbf{U} + y_a \cdot \mathbf{V},$$

where U and V are orthogonal vectors defining the lens plane.

- (c) Compute the focal point \mathbf{P}_f on the focal plane.
- (d) Trace the new ray from \mathbf{P}_a to \mathbf{P}_f .

Firgure 27 and 28 shows the code snippet of this function, and Figure 29 and 30 show the comparison of the pinhole camera and simulation of a camera with depth of field and aperture.

```
// Function to generate a ray for a specific pixel
// Parameters:
// A, y: Pixel coordinates in the image (0-based indexing)
// Actumest A Ray object originating from the camera and passing through the pixel
Ray Camera: specimetally (float x, float y) const
{
// Convert pixel coordinates to normalized device coordinates (NDC)
float ndcx = (2 * (x + 0.5f) / static_castfloat>(width) - 1) * aspectRatio * scale; // Scale by aspect ratio and FOV
float ndcx = (3 * (y * 0.5f) / static_castfloat>(width) - 1) * aspectRatio * scale; // Invert y-axis for image plane
Vector3 direction = (forward + ndcx * right + ndcy * up).normalize(); // Compute ray direction
// Handle pinhole camera case (aperture = 0)
if (Baperture == 0.ef)
{
    return Ray(position, direction); // Direct ray without depth of field effects
}

// Simulate depth of field by sampling a random point on the aperture
Vector3 apertureSample = sampleAperture();
// Compute the focal point (where the ray converges based on focal distance)
float t = focalDistance / direction.dot(forward); // Scale based on focal distance
Vector3 focalPoint = position + direction * t;
// Compute the new ray origin (offset by aperture sample) and direction
Vector3 rayorigin = position + aperturesample;
Vector3 newGirection = (focalPoint - rayOrigin).normalize();
// Return the ray with modified origin and direction
return Ray(rayOrigin, newGirection);
}
```

Figure 27: Code snippet generating ray for lens sampling.

```
// Helper function to sample a random point on the aperture (lens)
// Returns: A Vector3 representing the sampled point on the aperture

Vector3 Camera::sampleAperture() const
{

// Use random number generators for uniform sampling within a unit disk
static std::random_device rd;
static std::mtl9937 gen(rd());
static std::mtl9937 gen(rd());
static std::uniform_real_distribution<float> dist(-1.0f, 1.0f); // Uniform distribution in [-1, 1]

float x, y;
do

{
    x = dist(gen);
    y = dist(gen);
} while (x * x + y * y > 1.0f); // Ensure the sample is inside the unit disk

return Vector3(x * aperture * 0.5f, y * aperture * 0.5f, 0.0f); // Scale to aperture size
}
```

Figure 28: Code snippet for the helper function to sample the aperture.

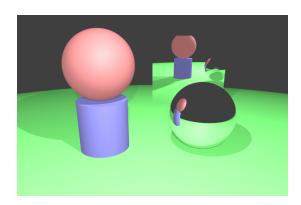


Figure 29: Scene rendered with Blinn-Phong shading with a pinhole camera.

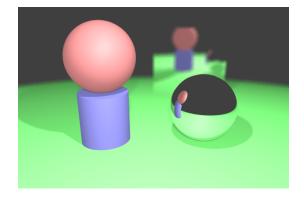


Figure 30: Scene rendered with Blinn-Phong shading with depth of field and aperture applied.

3 Evaluation and Future Works

3.1 Performance Analysis

The speed-up of BCH has been tested on a more complex scene. As shown in Figure 31 and 32. We can see that with BVH enabled for this scene, the render time is 61.8 seconds, whereas without BVH, the render time is 79.4 seconds. By applying BVH, we have gained a 22.1% increase in rendering efficiency.



Figure 31: Timed BVH disabled runtime.



Figure 32: Timed BVH enabled runtime.

By applying BVH to other scenes, we have also observed that the more complex the scene (more objects), the better the BVH can speed up the rendering time.

3.2 Future works

There are a few potential areas that can be improved on top of this project:

- 1. **Acceleration**: Apart from BVH, we can introduce GPU-based optimisations as GPUs are extremely efficient on tasks like this and will improve rendering speed.
- 2. **Sampling**: Other methods like stratified and importance sampling might improve quality.
- 3. **Lighting**: Volumetric light can be implemented for soft shadows, which will increase the realism of the rendered image.

4 Conclusion

The development of this ray tracer project has successfully demonstrated the implementation of key rendering techniques, including Blinn-Phong shading, reflection, refraction, and tone mapping, alongside optimisations such as Bounding Volume Hierarchies (BVH) and pixel sampling for antialiasing. These features, combined with advanced techniques like depth of field and aperture simulation, have enabled the creation of visually appealing and photorealistic scenes.

Throughout the project, mathematical rigour and algorithmic efficiency have been prioritised to ensure accuracy in ray-object intersections and lighting computations. Incorporating BVH, in particular, has shown significant improvements in rendering performance, as evidenced by the 22.1% speed-up in complex scenes. Pixel sampling and lens sampling have further enhanced image quality, reducing aliasing artefacts and providing realistic camera effects.

Despite the accomplishments, there are areas for further exploration. The project can benefit from additional acceleration techniques, such as GPU-based ray tracing, to reduce rendering times. Advanced sampling methods and volumetric lighting could also enhance realism and flexibility in lighting effects. These improvements can extend the versatility of the raytracer and enable its application to more complex and dynamic scenes.

This project has provided a robust foundation for understanding and implementing core and advanced raytracing techniques. While limitations exist, the outcomes achieved demonstrate the potential for further refinement and expansion, paving the way for future more sophisticated and efficient rendering systems.

Appendix: All images rendered

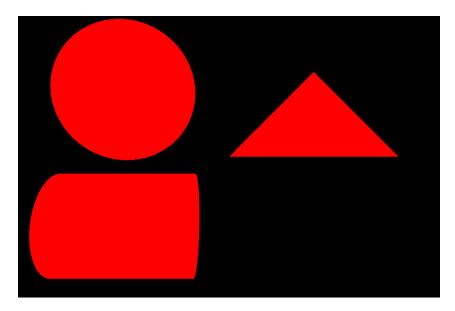


Figure 33: binary_primitives.png

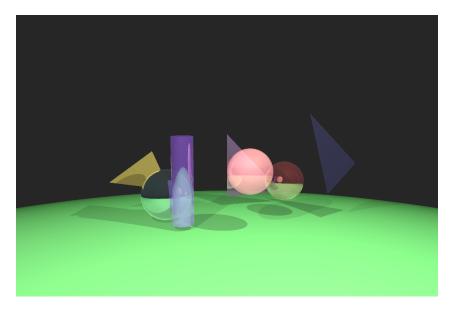


Figure 34: complex.png

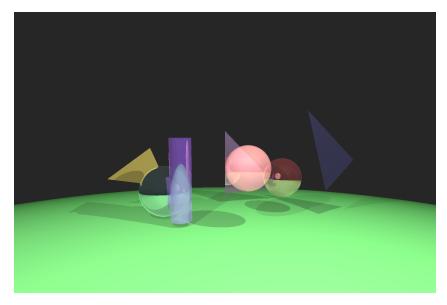


Figure 35: complex_BVH.png

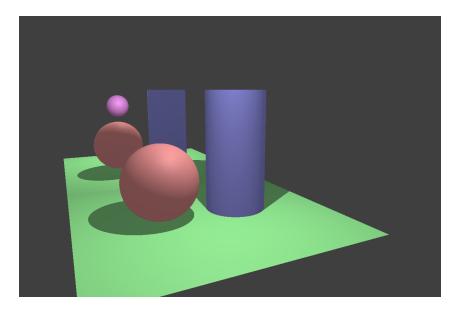
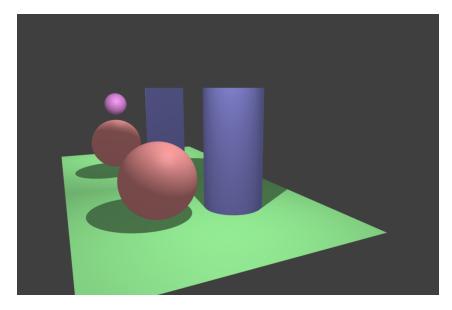
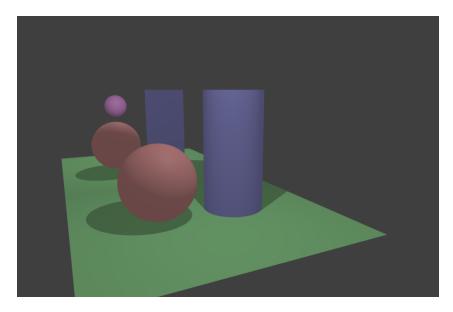


Figure 36: mirror_image.png



 $Figure~37:~mirror_image_antialiasing.png$



 $Figure~38:~mirror_image_antialiasing_toneMap.png$

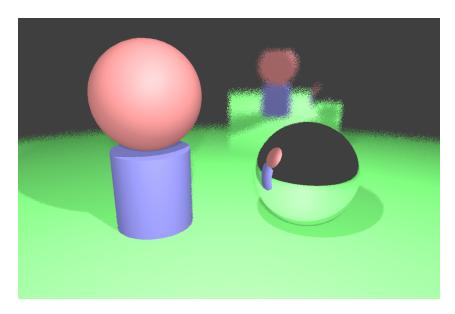


Figure 39: scene_aperture.png

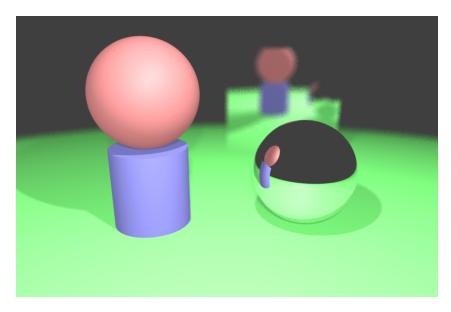
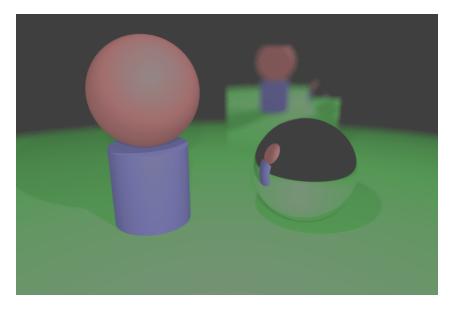


Figure 40: scene_aperture_antialiasing.png



 $Figure~41:~scene_aperture_antialiasing_toneMap.png$



Figure 42: scene_binary.png

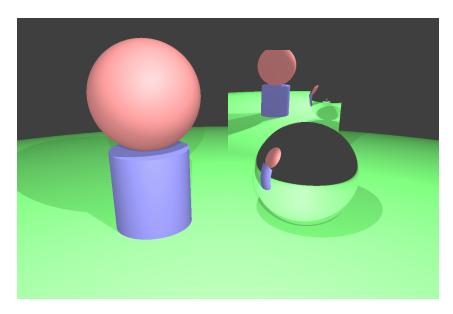


Figure 43: scene_phong.png

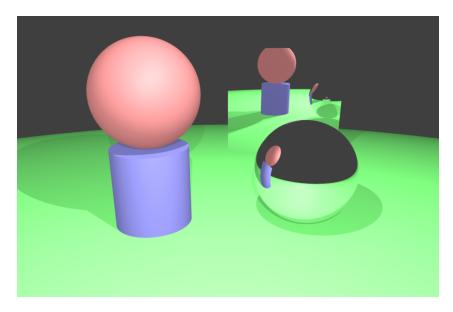
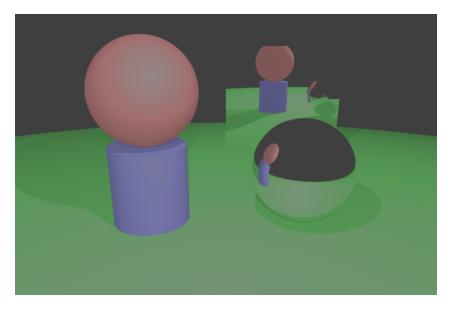
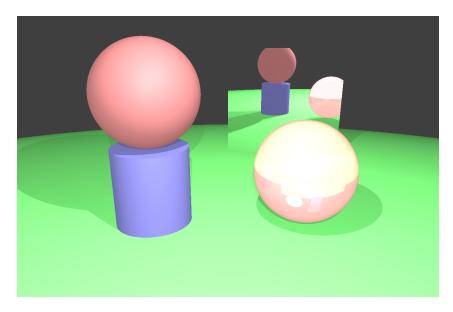


Figure 44: scene_phong_antialiasing.png



 $Figure~45:~scene_phong_antialiasing_toneMap.png$



 $Figure~46:~scene_phong_refractive.png$

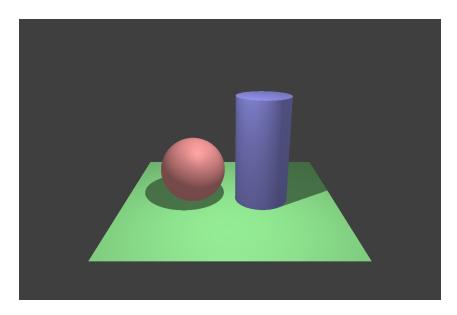
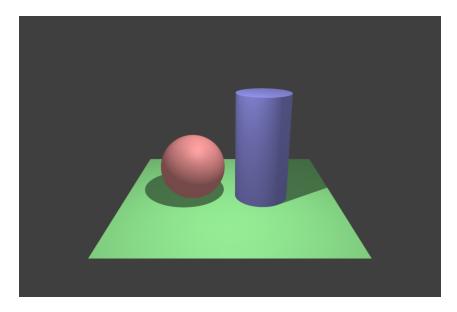


Figure 47: simple_phong.png



 $Figure~48:~simple_phong_antialiasing.png$

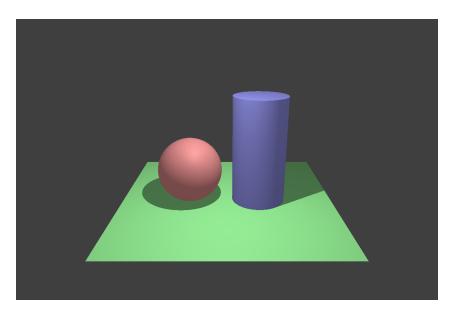


Figure 49: simple_phong.png