02562 Rendering - Introduction

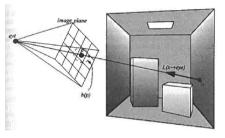
Ray-Object Intersection and Shading Diffuse Surfaces

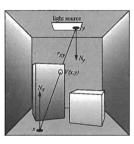
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Rays in theory and in practice

- Parametrisation of a straight line: $r(t) = o + t\vec{\omega}$, $t \in [t_{\min}, t_{\max}]$.
- ▶ Camera provides origin (o) and direction $(\vec{\omega})$ of "eye rays".





▶ Rays in code (WGSL) and recording info about a ray-surface intersection:

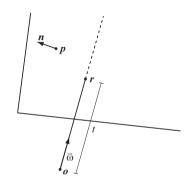
```
struct Ray {
  origin: vec3f,
  direction: vec3f,
  tmin: f32,
  tmax: f32
};
```

```
struct HitInfo {
  has_hit: bool,
  dist: f32,
  position: vec3f,
  normal: vec3f,
  color: vec3f,
  ;
};
```

Ray-plane intersection

- $ightharpoonup \operatorname{\mathsf{Ray}}: oldsymbol{r}(t) = oldsymbol{o} + t\,ec{\omega} \quad , \quad t \in [t_{\mathsf{min}}, t_{\mathsf{max}}] \quad .$
- ▶ Plane: ax + by + cz + d = 0 \Leftrightarrow $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} + d = 0$.

 $d = -oldsymbol{p}_0 \cdot oldsymbol{n}$ for some point $oldsymbol{p}_0$ in the plane.



▶ Setting $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{r}$, we find the distance t' to the intersection point:

$$(\boldsymbol{o} + t' \vec{\omega}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n} + d = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad t' = -\frac{\boldsymbol{o} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} + d}{\vec{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}} = \frac{(\boldsymbol{p}_0 - \boldsymbol{o}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}}{\vec{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}}.$$

Ray-triangle intersection

- ▶ Ray: $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{o} + t \vec{\omega}, t \in [t_{\min}, t_{\max}].$
- ightharpoonup Triangle: \mathbf{v}_0 , \mathbf{v}_1 , \mathbf{v}_2 .
- Edges and normal:

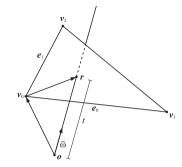
$$\label{eq:e0} \textbf{\textit{e}}_0 = \textbf{\textit{v}}_1 - \textbf{\textit{v}}_0, \ \textbf{\textit{e}}_1 = \textbf{\textit{v}}_2 - \textbf{\textit{v}}_0, \ \textbf{\textit{n}} = \textbf{\textit{e}}_0 \times \textbf{\textit{e}}_1.$$

Barycentric coordinates:

$$r(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \alpha \mathbf{v}_0 + \beta \mathbf{v}_1 + \gamma \mathbf{v}_2 = (1 - \beta - \gamma) \mathbf{v}_0 + \beta \mathbf{v}_1 + \gamma \mathbf{v}_2$$

= $\mathbf{v}_0 + \beta \mathbf{e}_0 + \gamma \mathbf{e}_1$.

- ► The ray intersects the triangle's plane at $t' = \frac{(\mathbf{v_0} \mathbf{o}) \cdot \mathbf{n}}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \mathbf{n}}$.
- Find $r(t') v_0$ and decompose it into portions along the edges e_0 and e_1 to get β and γ . Then check $\beta > 0$, $\gamma > 0$, $\beta + \gamma < 1$.



Ray-triangle intersection

▶ The decomposition of $\mathbf{r}(t') - \mathbf{v}_0$:

$$r(t') - \mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{o} + t'\vec{\omega} - \mathbf{v}_0 = \frac{(\mathbf{v}_0 - \mathbf{o}) \cdot \mathbf{n}}{\vec{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{n}} \vec{\omega} - (\mathbf{v}_0 - \mathbf{o}).$$

- Let us use $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v}_0 \mathbf{o}$, then $(\mathbf{r}(t') \mathbf{v}_0)(\vec{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{n})$
 - $= \vec{\omega}(\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{a}) \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{n} \cdot \vec{\omega}) = \mathbf{n} \times (\vec{\omega} \times \mathbf{a})$
 - $= (\mathbf{e}_0 \times \mathbf{e}_1) \times (\vec{\omega} \times \mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \vec{\omega}) \times (\mathbf{e}_0 \times \mathbf{e}_1)$ $= ((\mathbf{a} \times \vec{\omega}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_1) \mathbf{e}_2 ((\mathbf{a} \times \vec{\omega}) \cdot \mathbf{e}_2) \mathbf{e}_1$
 - $=((\boldsymbol{a} imes\vec{\omega})\cdot\boldsymbol{e}_1)\boldsymbol{e}_0-((\boldsymbol{a} imes\vec{\omega})\cdot\boldsymbol{e}_0)\boldsymbol{e}_1$.
- From this equation, we get the barycentric coordinates of $\mathbf{r}(t')$

$$lpha = 1 - eta - \gamma \,, \quad eta = rac{\left[\left(oldsymbol{v}_0 - oldsymbol{o}
ight) imes oldsymbol{arphi}_1 \cdot oldsymbol{e}_1}{ec{\omega} \cdot oldsymbol{n}} \,, \quad \gamma = -rac{\left[\left(oldsymbol{v}_0 - oldsymbol{o}
ight) imes ec{\omega}
ight] \cdot oldsymbol{e}_0}{ec{\omega} \cdot oldsymbol{n}} \,.$$

Ray-sphere intersection

- ightharpoonup Ray: $m {m r}(t) = {m o} + t\, \vec{\omega}, \ t \in [t_{\rm min}, t_{\rm max}]$.
- ► Sphere: $(x c_x)^2 + (y c_y)^2 + (z c_z)^2 = r^2$.
- With $\boldsymbol{p}=(x,y,z)$ and $\boldsymbol{c}=(c_x,c_y,c_z)$, the sphere is

$$(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{c})\cdot(\boldsymbol{p}-\boldsymbol{c})=r^2$$
 .

Setting p = r, we find the distance t' to the intersection point:

$$(\boldsymbol{o}-\boldsymbol{c}+t'\,\vec{\omega})\cdot(\boldsymbol{o}-\boldsymbol{c}+t'\,\vec{\omega})=r^2$$
 .

- ▶ This is a second degree polynomial, $at^2 + bt + c = 0$, with
- $a = \vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{\omega} = 1$, $b/2 = (\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{c}) \cdot \vec{\omega}$, $c = (\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{c}) \cdot (\boldsymbol{o} \boldsymbol{c}) r^2$.
- ► The distances to the intersection points are

$$t_1'=-b/2-\sqrt{(b/2)^2-c}$$
 , $t_2'=-b/2+\sqrt{(b/2)^2-c}$.

▶ There is no intersection if $(b/2)^2 - c < 0$.

The signature of an intersection function and that of a shader

- ► The intersection function should return a Boolean value signaling intersection or not, but it should also update the hit information when an intersection was found.
- ▶ A shader should return an RGB 3-vector result, but it might also change the ray and hit information to prepare for the next ray along the path.
- Using pointers for function arguments:

```
fn intersect plane(r: Ray, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>, position: yec3f, normal: yec3f) -> bool { ... }
fn intersect triangle(r: Ray, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>, v: array<vec3f, 3>) -> bool { ··· }
fn intersect sphere(r: Ray, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>, center: vec3f, radius: f32) -> bool { ··· }
fn lambertian(r: ptr<function, Ray>, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>) -> vec3f { ... }
fn phong(r: ptr<function, Ray>, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>) -> vec3f { ... }
fn mirror(r: ptr<function, Ray>, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>) -> vec3f { ... }
fn shade(r: ptr<function, Ray>, hit: ptr<function, HitInfo>) -> vec3f
 switch (*hit).shader {
    case 1 { return lambertian(r, hit); }
    case 2 { return phong(r, hit); }
    case 3 { return mirror(r, hit); }
    case default { return (*hit).color: }
```

Kepler's inverse square law

As the relation of a spherical surface, which has its centre in the origin of the light, is from a larger to a smaller one: such is the relation of the strength or density of light rays in a smaller to that in a more spacious spherical surface, that is, conversely. [Kepler 1604]

- Light from a point source falls off with the square of the distance to the point.
- ► Kepler struggled with this law since he only had the notion of rays of light (light was not considered to spread in a volume).
- Neither did he have a precise law of refraction, but he did observe that the inverse square law only works for point lights.

 He did this by generating collimated/directional light using concave mirrors and convex lenses.
- \triangleright If a point light at p has intensity I, the light incident at a surface point x is

$$L_i = \frac{I}{\|\boldsymbol{p} - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2} .$$

Lambert's cosine law

brightness decreases in the same ratio by which the sine of the angle of incidence decreases [Lambert 1760]



- ▶ Lambert uses the angle (CAF = DBF) between the direction of the rays (CA and DB) and the surface tangent plane (AB) as the angle of incidence.
- If we instead measure the angle of incidence θ from the normalised surface normal \vec{n} to the direction toward the incident light $\vec{\omega}_i$, sine becomes cosine.
- Then the diffusely reflected light is

$$L_{r,d} = \frac{\rho_d}{\pi} L_i \cos \theta = \frac{\rho_d}{\pi} L_i (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\omega}_i) .$$

where ρ_d is the diffuse reflectance.

Sampling light in the shader

- The shaders job is to compute and return the amount of observed light $L_o = L_e + L_r$, where L_e is emitted light and L_r is reflected light.
- ightharpoonup The reflected light L_r is light reflected directly from the light source and also light due to indirect illumination.
- For approximation of a diffuse surface, we can use

$$L_o = L_e + L_r = L_e + L_{r,d} + L_a = L_e + \frac{
ho_d}{\pi} L_i (\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\omega}_i) + L_a$$
,

where L_a approximates the indirect illumination by a constant (this is sometimes called *ambient* light).

▶ To get the incident light L_i , we sample a light source. For each type of light source, we should have a sample function returning a Light struct.

Intersecting with the scene and tracing a path

▶ If no recursion, the main program of the ray tracer uses a loop to trace a path:

```
@fragment
fn main_fs(@location(0) coords: vec2f) -> @location(0) vec4f
{
    const bgcolor = vec4f(0.1, 0.3, 0.6, 1.0);
    const max_depth = 10;
    let uv = vec2f(coords.x*uniforms.aspect*0.5f, coords.y*0.5f);
    var r = get_camera_ray(uv);
    var result = vec3f(0.0);
    var hit = HitInfo(false, 0.0, vec3f(0.0), vec3f(0.0), vec3f(0.0), ...);
    for(var i = 0; i < max_depth; i++) {
        if(intersect_scene(&r, &hit)) { result += shade(&r, &hit); }
        else { result += bgcolor.rgb; break; }
        if(int.has_hit) { break; }
    }
    return vec4f(pow(result, vec3f(1.0/uniforms.gamma)), bgcolor.a);
}</pre>
```

► The intersect scene function contains the specifics of the scene description and calls the intersection functions for the different objects in the scene:

```
fm intersect_scene(r: ptr<function, Ray>, hit : ptr<function, HitInfo>) -> bool
{
   // Define scene data as constants.

   // Call an intersection function for each object.
   // For each intersection found, update (*r).tmax and store additional info about the hit.
   return (*hit).has_hit;
}
```

Exercises

Week 1

- ▶ Implement a render engine based on WebGPU.
- ► Generate rays using a (modified) pinhole camera model.
- ▶ Pass data from CPU to GPU to enable interaction and load balancing.

Week 2

- Compute ray-plane, ray-triangle, and ray-sphere intersection.
- Implement conditional acceptance of intersections to find the closest hit (hidden surface removal).
- Compute shading of diffuse surfaces by point lights.
 Use Kepler's inverse square law and Lambert's cosine law.