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**MASTER THESIS**

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**A Methodical Approach to the  
Evaluation of Appearance  
Computations**

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Development

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Dedication.

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# **Introduction**

**Goals**

**Thesis organization**

# 1. Rendering and Color Science

This chapter serves as an introduction to the computer graphics and the color science. We briefly overview basic aspects of these fields, mainly to familiarize the reader with some of the fundamental processes, their backgrounds and usages. We also establish the terminology, such as *rendering* or *RGB color space*, that will be used throughout the thesis frequently. A significant part of the following sections is based on Wyszecki and Stiles [11], Nimier-David et al. [8] and Pharr et al. [9].

## 1.1 Color perception

## 1.2 Physically based rendering

One of the ultimate goals of the computer graphics is the ability to reproduce visually plausible and physically coherent images that should be indistinguishable from a photograph based on a description of a scene. Such process is called the *photo realistic rendering*. In this thesis, we abbreviate the term and call it simply the *rendering* as the non-photo realistic one does not concern us.

Depending on the implementation, the renderer simulates various phenomena commonly seen in nature such as light reflections, refractions, shadows, etc. Providing a powerful hardware, modern renderers adapt various physical models (or their approximations) of light transport or material properties to provide accurate photo realistic results. In reality, the renderers are so capable that the rendered images are almost identical to the real life photos. An example can be seen in 1.1.



Figure 1.1: An image generated with the Corona Renderer

The main idea is similar for every renderer:

1. A 3D digital scene is described by the objects it contains
2. A light simulation algorithm runs for every visible pixel from the viewer
3. Upon object interaction, the shading of the intersected point is computed
4. As the algorithm terminates, a picture ("photograph") of the scene called the *render* is created

Please see figure 1.2 for a simple demonstration of this workflow.

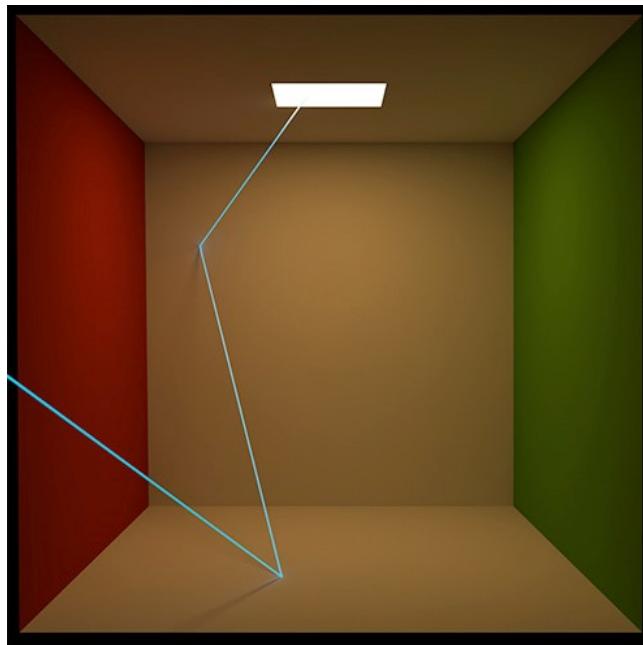


Figure 1.2: A visualization of a light transport algorithm (path tracer) [1]

### 1.2.1 Digital scene

Basic elements of a digital scene are roughly the same for each renderer.

**Camera** A camera (or a sensor) in a digital scene works in the same manner as in real life — it records a picture. Generally, you may define the coordinate position and the viewing vectors but also the properties such as focal distance or the type of the film.

**Light source** The scene needs to be illuminated by one or multiple sources in order to be visible. The common kinds of lights are point light, area light, spot light or environment (constant) lighting.

**Objects** The actual visible contents of the scene are objects. Almost all rendering systems offer a choice to either use their precomputed basic geometry such as spheres or triangles or to include a mesh geometry described in an external file (usually created by an external modeling software). These objects must state their material properties so that the algorithm may correctly interact with them, e.g. diffuse vs. reflective material.

Unfortunately, as each renderer may have a very unique implementation details, the formats of the scenes are vastly different. For example, mitsuba uses XML but PBRT has its own specific format. An example of a simple scene for Mitsuba2 can be found in 1.3.

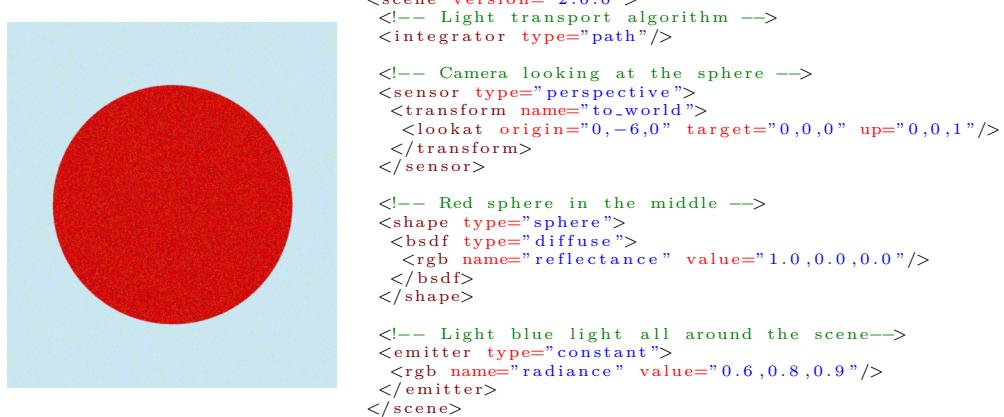


Figure 1.3: A simple scene rendered with Mitsuba2 (left) along with its scene description (right)

### 1.2.2 BRDF

The fundamental part of the rendering process is its implementation of the light transport simulation. This and the following sections will describe the physics theory and the models behind the light transport. Then we take a look at the specific algorithms.

The materials are described by *Bidirection Distrubtion Reflectance Function*, shortly *BRDF* [7]. It looks as follows:

$$f_r(\omega_i, \omega_o) = \frac{dL_o(\omega_o)}{L_i(\omega_i)\cos\theta_id\omega_i} \quad (1.1)$$

This function is given the incoming vector  $\omega_i$ , the outgoing vector  $\omega_o$  and it states how much radiance is reflected from the direction  $\omega_i$  ( $L_i(\omega_i)$ ) to the direction  $\omega_o$  ( $L_o(\omega_o)$ ) for the specific material. An image interpretation of the function is in 1.4. As it is a distribution function, we can also reformulate it's meaning as a probability density that a defined amount of light energy gets reflected from  $\omega_i$  to  $\omega_o$ .

In the simplest cases, the BRDF states how reflective the surface of an object is. The renders of diffuse, rough glossy and mirror materials are compared in 1.5.

Physically based BRDFs must fulfill several properties 3:

**Heimholtz reciprocity** The amount of reflected energy from the incoming direction to the outgoing direction is equal to the amount of energy in the reversed directions ( $f_r(\omega_i, \omega_o) = f_r(\omega_o, \omega_i)$ ).

**Energy conservation** The amount of reflected energy cannot be larger than all received energy.

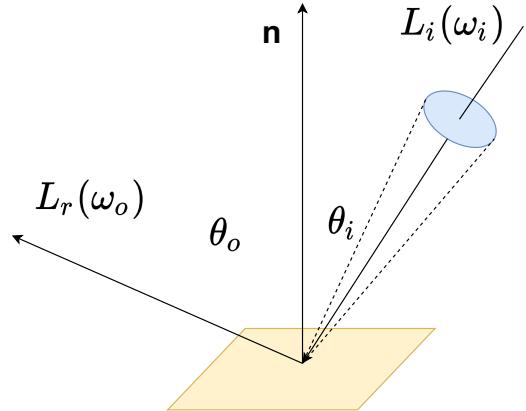


Figure 1.4: Bidirectional Distribution Reflectance Function

**Positivity** BRDF is always positive ( $f_r(\omega_i, \omega_o) \geq 0$ ).

Note that BRDF concerns only opaque surfaces. There exist multiple distribution functions that describe behavior of other materials, for example:

**BTDF** Describes light transmission

**BSDF** Combination of BTDF and BRDF (e.g. glass, water)

**BSSRDF** Considers scattering of the light under the surface as well (skin)

### 1.2.3 Global Illumination

With the BRDF defined, we can now formulate an equation that evaluates the global illumination of a scene — illumination of each point from all light sources. It is generally called the *rendering equation* [6]:

$$L_o(x, \omega_o) = L_e(x, \omega_o) + L_r(x, \omega_o) \quad (1.2)$$

Let's break it down first:

$x$  is the currently computed point in the scene.

$L_o$  is the outgoing radiance.

$L_e$  is the emitted radiance of the point  $x$  as  $x$  can be on a light source.

$L_r$  is also called the *reflectance equation* and it states the total amount of the reflected radiance for all contributions of the incident radiance. Hence, it is an integral over the upper hemisphere over  $x$  that look as follows:

$$L_r(x, \omega_0) = \int_{\Omega} f_r(x, \omega_o, \omega_i) L_i(x, \omega_i) \cos \theta_i d\omega_i \quad (1.3)$$

, where

$f_r(x, \omega_o, \omega_i)$  is the BRDF of  $x$  as defined in 1.1.

$L_i(x, \omega_i)$  is the incoming radiance from a light source.

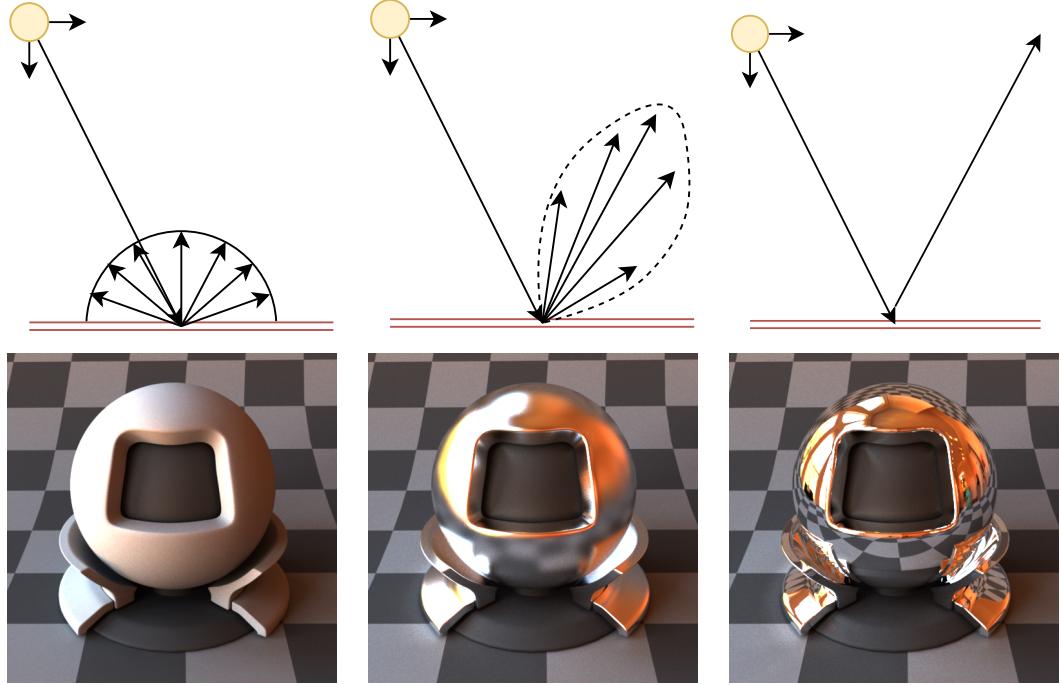


Figure 1.5: A preview of diffuse (left), glossy (middle) and mirror (right) materials rendered in Mitsuba2 along with their illustrative BRDF visualizations

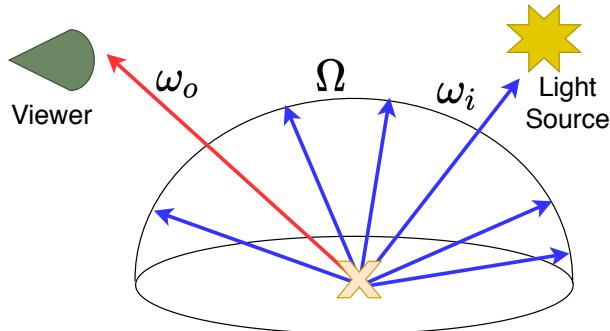


Figure 1.6: Reflectance Equation

An image interpretation of the reflectance equation can be seen in 1.6.

As a matter of fact, each light transport algorithm tries to solve some of the formulations of the rendering equation.

Interestingly, the light transport is recursive in nature. As we can see from the rendering equation, to compute the outgoing radiance at a certain point  $x$ , we need to know all the contributed incoming radiances. These do not necessarily have to originate at a light source — the incoming radiance may come from another, non-emitting point  $y$  in the scene as a result of the rendering equation computed at the point  $y$ .

#### 1.2.4 Monte Carlo integration

Before we proceed to the actual algorithms that evaluate the rendering equation, we briefly introduce a method that is used to approximate the definite integral part of the equation — *Monte Carlo integration* [2].

Formally, for a multidimensional definite integral

$$I = \int_{\Omega} g(x) dx \quad (1.4)$$

Monte Carlo (MC) estimates I as

$$\langle I \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{g(\xi_k)}{p(\xi_k)}; \xi_k \sim p(x) \quad (1.5)$$

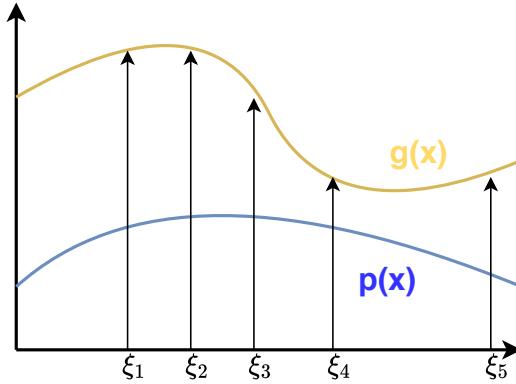


Figure 1.7: Monte Carlo method 2D visualization

In other words, Monte Carlo is a non-deterministic method that sums N randomly chosen samples  $\xi_k$ , computes their values  $g(\xi_k)$  and averages them. To reduce variance, an importance sampling is introduced by drawing samples from a distribution  $p(x)$  that is chosen for each specific problem to approximate the former  $g(x)$  function. In reality, the importance sampling ensures that if we pick some samples twice as much, we decrease their weight to half.

There exist other methods that are used to approximate integrals such as deterministic quadrature or Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC).

### 1.2.5 Light transport algorithms

#### Path tracing

Over the years, a large number of various light transport algorithms and their variations have been developed, where each has its own benefits. The one that we will mention the most in this thesis is called the *path tracing*. Its core idea is simple:

1. For each pixel in the image plane, shoot a primary ray  $r$  from camera into the scene.
2. If  $r$  hits a non-emitting object at point  $x$ :
  - 2.1. Compute BRDF at  $x$ .

- 2.2. Generate a new random direction  $\omega$ . Ideally, the distribution of the generated direction should be proportional to the BRDF — e.g. diffuse BRDF would generate a direction uniformly over a hemisphere while glossy BRDF would prioritize samples from the reflectance lobe (look at 1.5).
- 2.3. Add the BRDF value to the final color of the pixel.
- 2.4. Check for a terminating condition — there exist several options, usually a combination of them is applied:
  - Maximum depth** User specified maximum number of recursions.
  - Russian Roulette** Randomly choose if the ray survives, with each consecutive ray the chance lowers.
  - BRDF-proportional** Depending on the surface material, we decide whether the ray survives or not. For example, reflective or refractive surfaces need a lot more recursions as they propagate the light further to the scene than diffuse surfaces.
- 2.5. In case the termination was not successful, bounce – shoot a secondary ray  $r$  from the point  $x$  in the direction  $\omega$  and continue from step 2.

3. If  $r$  hits an emitting object (light source), add it's emission  $L_e$  to the final color of the pixel
4. If no scene geometry is hit, terminate the algorithm and add the color of the surrounding light (if there is any).

The bouncing of the light in the scene nicely correlates with the recursive nature of the rendering equation. Even though the path tracing is a slow algorithm (e.g. not suitable for real-time rendering in games), its variations can be extremely accurate, even indistinguishable from a real photograph.

**MIS** In the algorithm described above, the direct illumination computation of each scene intersection is dependent only on the BRDF of the intersected surface and consequent walk to the light source. However, such scenario that the light source is hit at the end of every walk is greatly dependent on the number of samples and the maximum allowed depth of the recursion. Consequently, this creates variance which can be easily improved the integration of the *multiple importance sampling* (MIS). Generally, it involves a combination of multiple sampling techniques but in our case it is a combination of the BRDF proportional sampling and the light source sampling — in each step of the path tracing, every light source that is visible from the intersected point contributes to its value. Both sampling methods are, of course, weighted to avoid an over-illumination.

**Volumes** Another aspect that needs to be accounted for in the rendering process are volumetric objects such as fogs or smokes. Normally, there are two ways that a volumetric object may effect the light passing through it. The volume is either attenuating the light by absorbing it or scattering to different directions. Or the volume can also strengthen it by emitting light (e.g. flame) or scattering light from different directions to the current one.

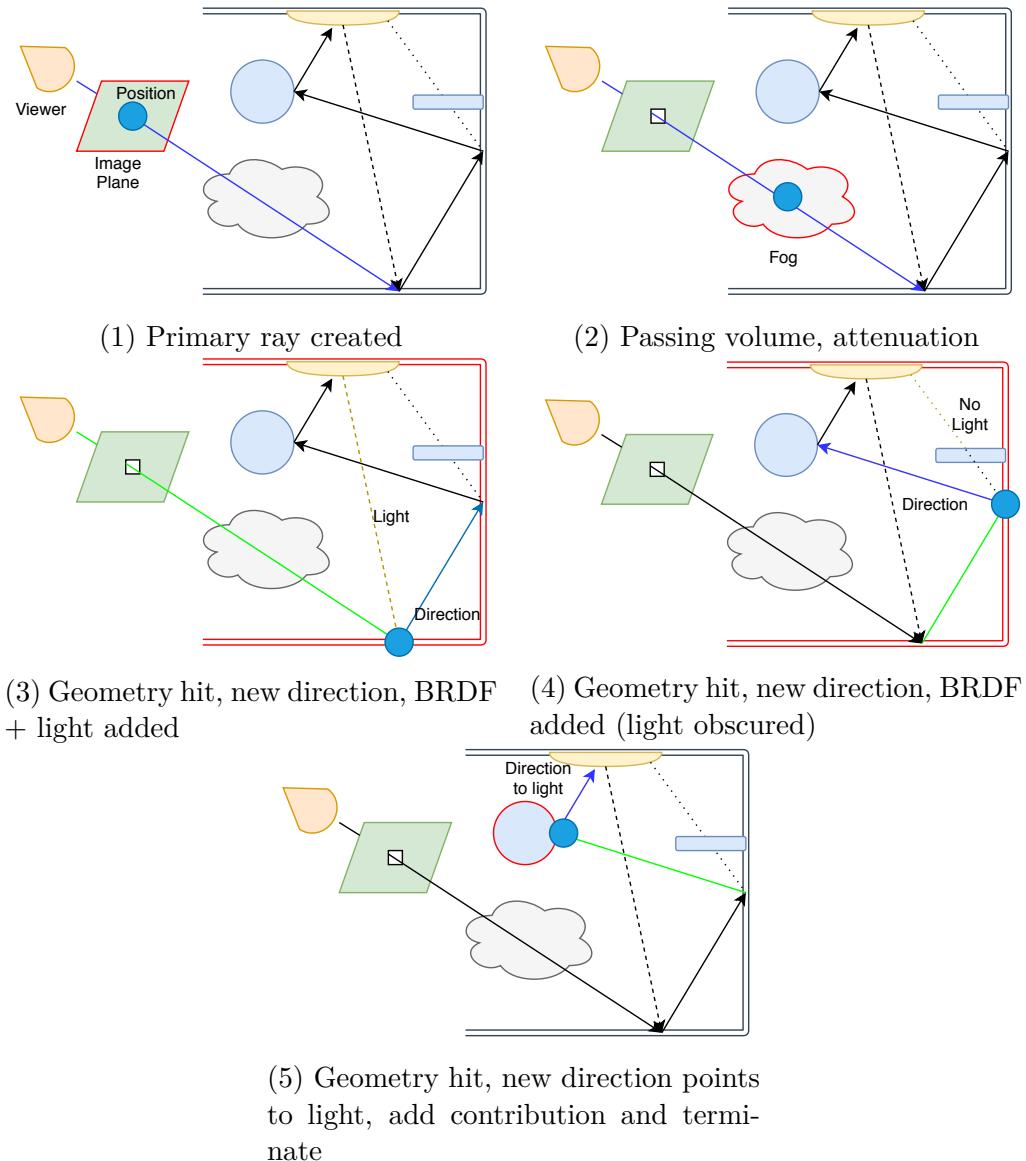


Figure 1.8: A visualization of a single walk in path tracer

A single walk of a path tracer capable of volume tracing and MIS sampling is visualized in 1.8.

### Other methods

As the path tracing is of our main concern in this thesis due to its physically based and unbiased properties, some of the other global illumination techniques are described only briefly here:

**Ray tracing** [4] Similar to the path tracing but there are no bounces from the surfaces, simulates only reflections, refractions, scattering etc. Capable of realtime rendering these days.

**Photon mapping** [5] Two rays are traced independently — from the camera and from a light source until termination, then the radiance is computed

based on their final positions. Faster at some scenarios but biased (does not have to converge to a correct solution).

**Radiosity** [10] Uses the finite element method instead of Monte Carlo. View independent, the light is traced from the source and bounced (possibly) to the viewer. Good for precomputations.

## **2. Spectral Rendering**

**2.1 Color representation**

**2.2 Rendering process**

**2.3 Conversions to RGB**

**2.4 Advantages**

**2.5 Disadvantages**

### **3. Appearance Computations**

**3.1 Reflectance**

**3.2 Spectral accuracy**

**3.3 Polarization**

**3.4 Fluorescence**

**3.5 Iridescence**

## 4. Supported Spectral Renderers

### 4.1 Mitsuba2

### 4.2 ART

## **5. Benchmark**

**5.1 Usage**

**5.2 Framework**

**5.3 Common Data**

**5.4 Scenes**

**5.5 Future Work**

# Conclusion

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