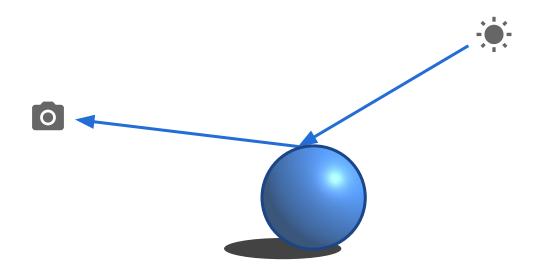
TA 10

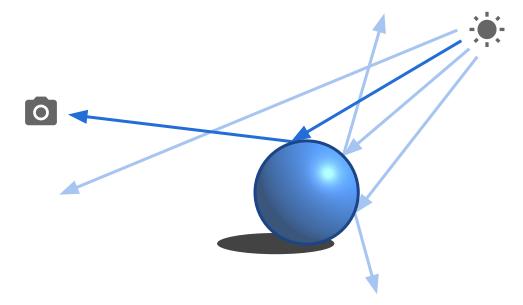
- The Ray Tracing Algorithm
- Aliasing
- Acceleration Structures

Computer Graphics 2020

• In the real world, light travels in *rays* from a light source, hits objects and bounces around until it finally enters our eyes / a camera

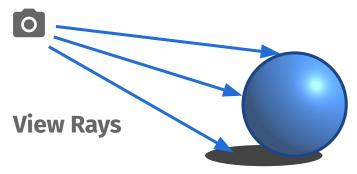


- If we trace each ray, bouncing around the scene until it hits the camera, we can create an image
- But only a tiny fraction of the rays actually reach our camera!

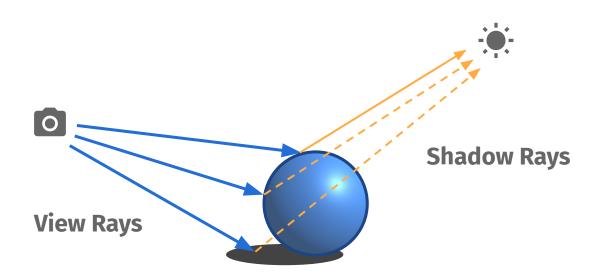


 Instead of shooting rays from light sources, we can cast rays from the camera into the scene, and trace them until they hit something

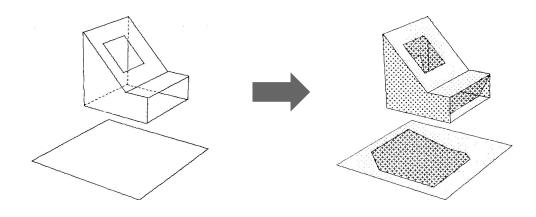




 We can then shoot another ray from the hit point towards the light source and check for collisions to figure out if the point is in light or in shadow

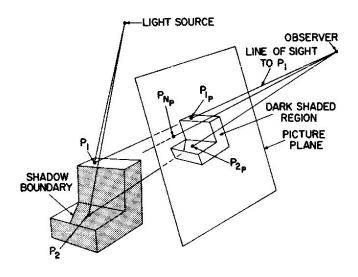


- This idea is called Ray Tracing
- The first ray tracing algorithm used for rendering was presented by Arthur Appel in 1968

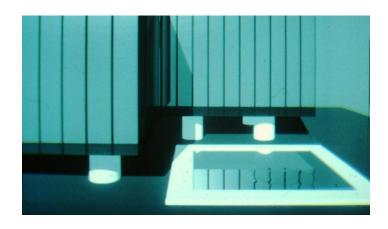


Figures from Appel's 1968 paper

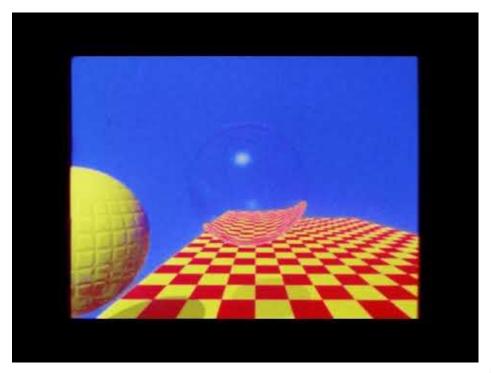
- Appel traced rays toward light sources to draw shadows
- At the time, the output device was not a screen but a pen plotter!



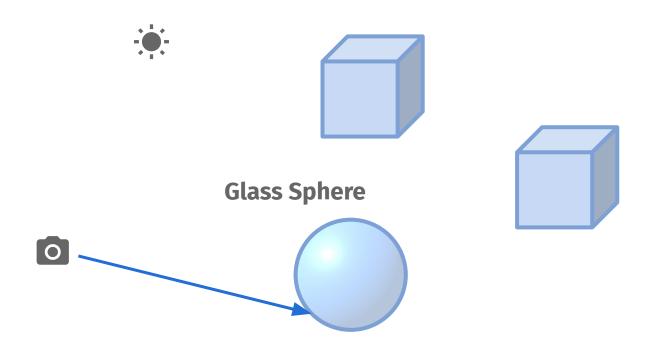
- In 1980, J. Turner Whitted published a seminal paper describing various algorithms and techniques to render 3D scenes using ray tracing
- Many of the methods and ideas from the paper are still in use today



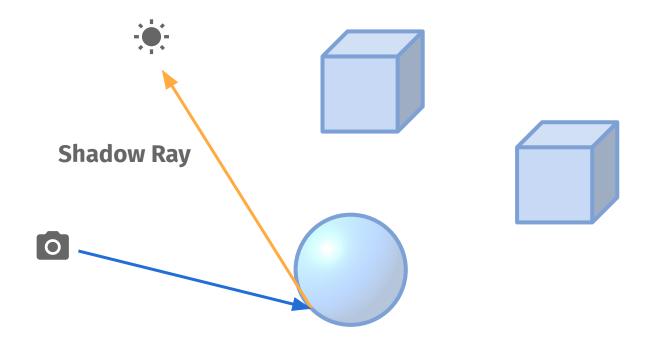
 Whitted's idea was to recursively cast rays from each hit point, creating effects like shadows, reflections and refractions:



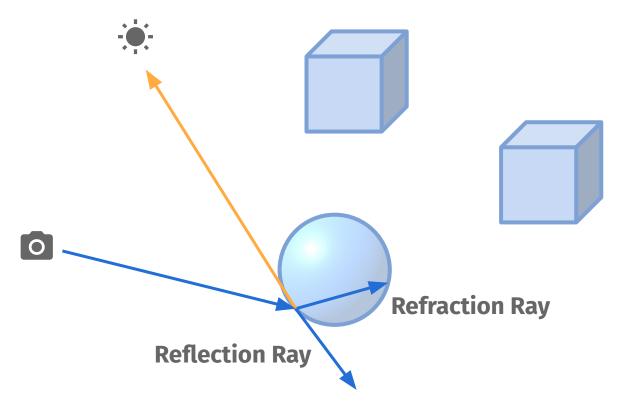
 Cast a ray from the camera and find the first hit point



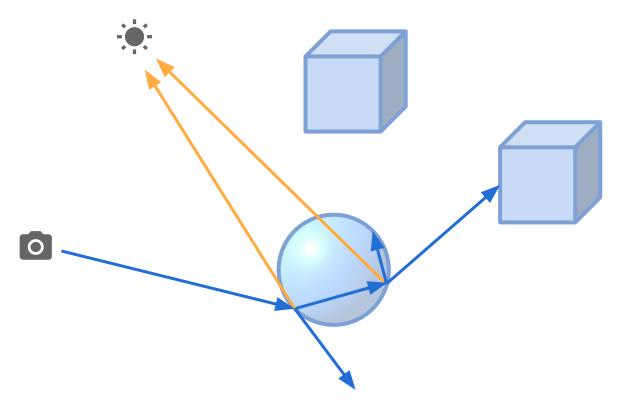
 Then cast a shadow ray from the hit point towards the light



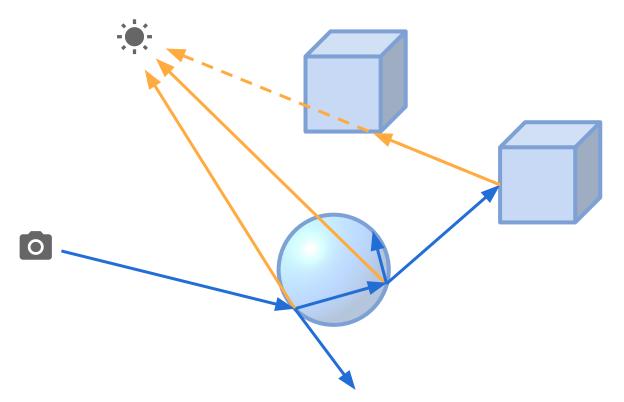
 Calculate the reflection and refraction angles, then cast rays in those directions



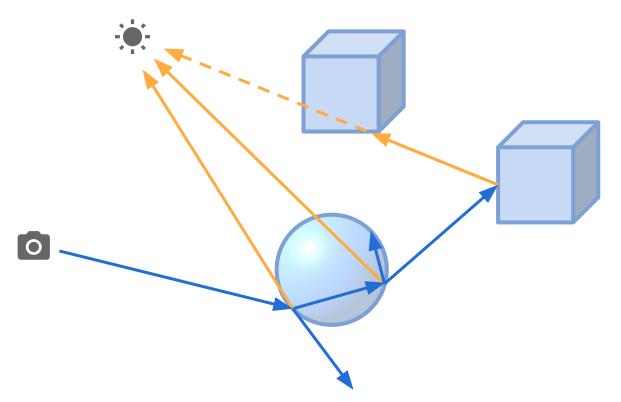
 Following the refraction ray, cast more shadow, refraction and reflection rays



 We continue tracing rays recursively until we reach a specified bounce limit



 Combining the contributions of all these rays we can calculate the final pixel color



Ray Tracing Algorithm

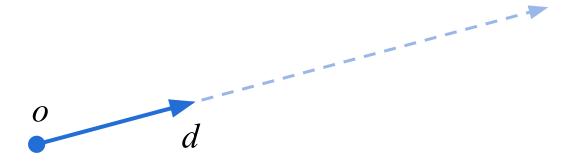
- For each pixel:
 - 1. Determine ray direction
 - 2. Intersect ray with the scene
 - 3. Compute lighting & shading
 - 4. Set pixel color

Ray Tracing Algorithm

- For each pixel:
 - 1. Determine ray direction
 - 2. Intersect ray with the scene
 - 3. Compute lighting & shading
 - 4. Set pixel color

Ray

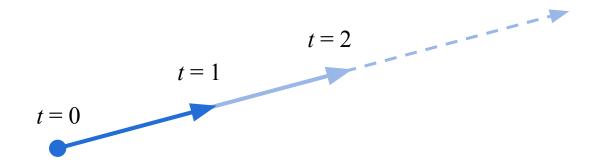
- A *Ray* is defined by 2 parameters:
 - An origin point $o = (o_x, o_y, o_z)$
 - A direction vector $d = (d_x, d_y, d_z)$



Ray

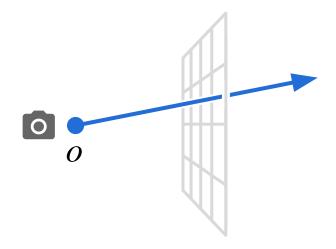
• Parametric representation:

$$ray(t) = o + dt$$
$$t > 0$$



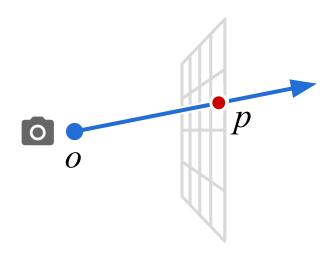
Generating View Rays

- We need to generate a ray for each pixel in the final image, i.e. find its origin & direction
- When using a perspective camera, the origin o will be the camera position



Generating View Rays

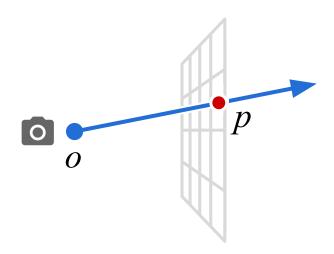
- Transform a pixel location (x, y) to coordinates on our image plane $p \in [-1, 1]^2$
- We get a direction vector $(p-o)/\|(p-o)\|$



Generating View Rays

- Remember we must transform both p and q to world-space
- The view ray for each pixel is

$$ray(t) = o + t (p - o) / ||(p - o)||$$

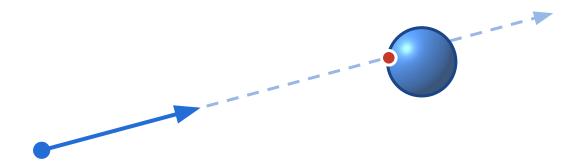


Ray Tracing Algorithm

- For each pixel:
 - 1. Determine ray direction
 - 2. Intersect ray with the scene
 - 3. Compute lighting & shading
 - 4. Set pixel color

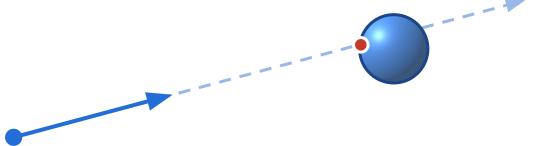
Ray Casting

- Ray Casting is the process of checking for intersections along a ray
- we "shoot" the ray and check what gets hit
- · Useful in general, e.g. collision detection

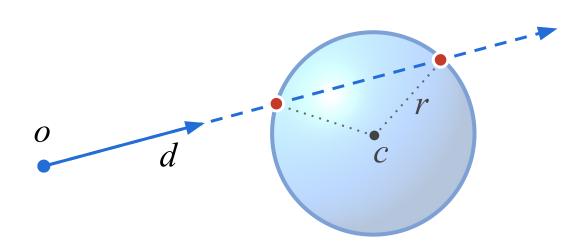


Ray-Object Intersection

- Given an implicit representation of some object f(p) = 0, we want to find $t \in (t_{min}, t_{max})$ s.t. f(r(t)) = 0
- Finding intersection points is essentially finding the roots of this equation
- Generally $t_{min} = \varepsilon$, $t_{max} = \infty$



 We want to find the intersection of a ray with a sphere centered at point c with radius r:



- To find the intersection we need to meet 2 conditions:
 - 1. The point is on the ray:

$$ray(t) = o + dt$$

2. The point is on the sphere:

$$||p-c|| = r \Leftrightarrow (p-c)\cdot(p-c) - r^2 = 0$$

Under these 2 conditions we get:

$$0 = (o + dt - c) \cdot (o + dt - c) - r^2 =$$

$$d \cdot dt^2 + 2(o - c) \cdot dt + (o - c) \cdot (o - c) - r^2$$

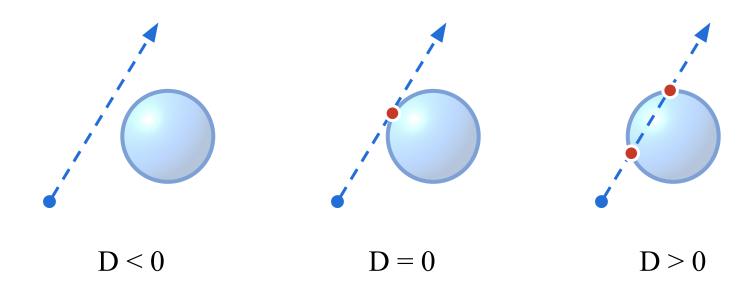
This is a quadratic equation in relation to t:

$$A = d \cdot d = 1$$
 $B = 2(o - c) \cdot d$ $C = (o - c) \cdot (o - c) - r^2$

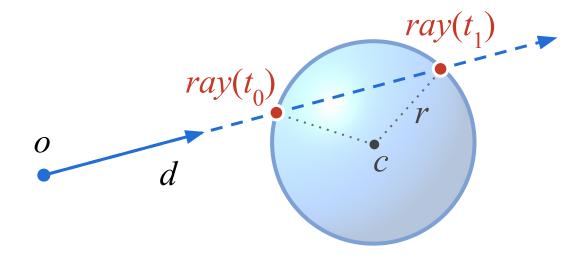
We know how to find the roots:

$$t_{0.1} = (-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}) / 2A$$

• We get 0, 1 or 2 solutions, according to the discriminant $D = B^2 - 4AC$:

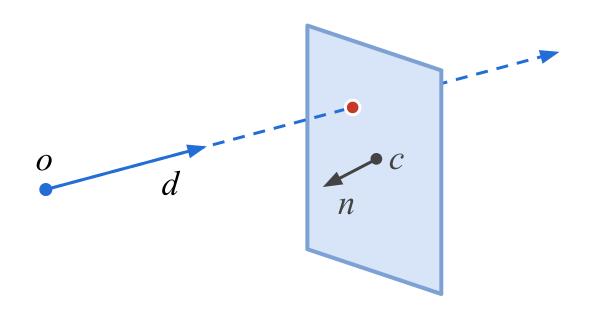


- If we get 2 solutions pick the smaller one to get the first hit point
- Remember to make sure t > 0



Ray-Plane Intersection

 We want to find the intersection of a ray with a plane going through point c with normal n:



Ray-Plane Intersection

- To find the intersection we need to meet 2 conditions:
 - 1. The point is on the ray:

$$ray(t) = o + dt$$

2. The point is on the plane:

$$(p-c)\cdot n=0$$

Ray-Plane Intersection

Under these 2 conditions we get:

$$0 = (ray(t) - c) \cdot n = (o + dt - c) \cdot n$$
$$= (o - c) \cdot n + (d \cdot n)t$$

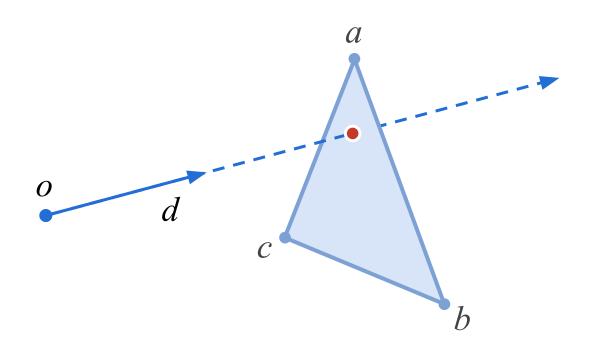
• Assuming $d \cdot n \neq 0$ we get one solution:

$$t = \frac{-(o-c) \cdot n}{d \cdot n}$$

• *ray*(*t*) is our intersection point

Ray-Triangle Intersection

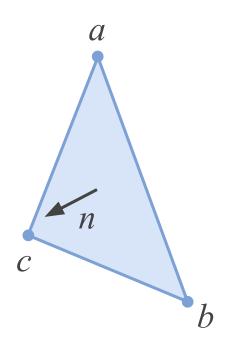
• We want to find the intersection of a ray with a triangle (a, b, c):



Ray-Plane Intersection

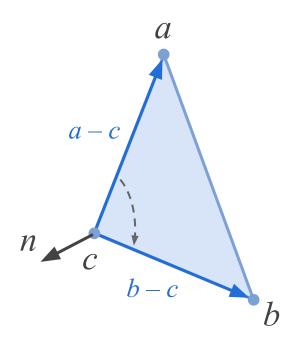
- We can divide the problem into 2 parts:
 - 1. Check if the ray intersects the plane on which the triangle (a, b, c) lies
 - 2. Assuming we found an intersection point *p*, check if *p* the falls inside or outside the triangle (*a*, *b*, *c*)

 To check the ray-triangle intersection, we must find the normal direction n

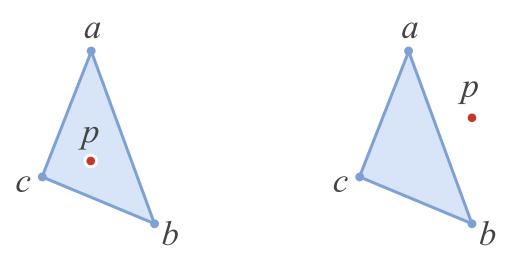


We can calculate using the cross product:

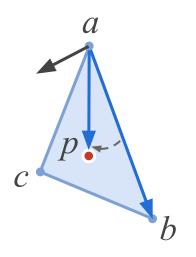
$$n = (a - c) \times (b - c) / ||(a - c) \times (b - c)||$$

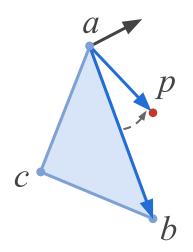


- Assume we found an intersection point p, how do we check if p the falls inside the triangle?
- We can use cross products to determine which side of each edge p is on



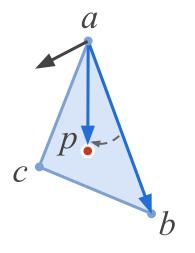
- For example, look at vectors b a and p a
- Their cross product $(b-a)\times(p-a)$ in the same direction as the normal vector only if p is inside of the edge ab:

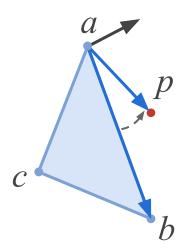




• In other words, p is inside of the edge ab if the following holds:

$$(b-a)\times(p-a)\cdot n\geq 0$$





 Meaning that p is inside of the triangle (a, b, c) if all these conditions are met:

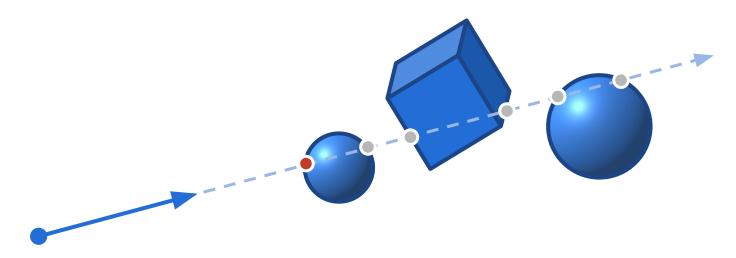
$$(b-a)\times(p-a)\cdot n \ge 0$$
$$(c-b)\times(p-b)\cdot n \ge 0$$
$$(a-c)\times(p-c)\cdot n \ge 0$$

 If any one of these tests fails, then p is not inside the triangle and the result is no intersection

- Using ray-triangle intersections we can render triangular 3D meshes with ray-tracing!
- Note that this is not the most efficient way to compute ray-triangle intersections
- A lot of research went into this problem in the early days of ray-tracing

Ray-Scene Intersections

- For each camera ray we must check intersections with each object in the scene
- Finally we save only the closest intersection this is our "Best Hit"



Ray Tracing Algorithm

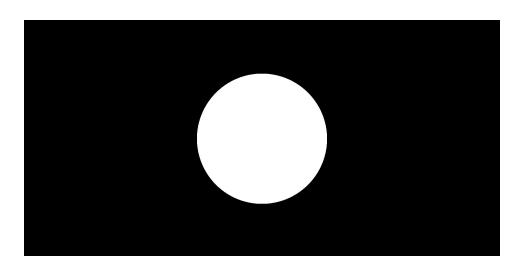
- For each pixel:
 - 1. Determine ray direction
 - 2. Intersect ray with the scene
 - 3. Compute lighting & shading
 - 4. Set pixel color

- Let ray(t) = o + dt be a view ray, cast from the camera position o at direction d
- We'll also define e to be the energy of the ray, for now think of it as e = 1
- The function trace will return the energy or color *c* associated with the ray, shot into our scene:

$$c = \operatorname{trace}(o, d, e) = \begin{cases} ec_{\operatorname{hit}} & \text{ray hit point } p \\ ec_{\operatorname{miss}} & \text{ray missed all geometry} \end{cases}$$

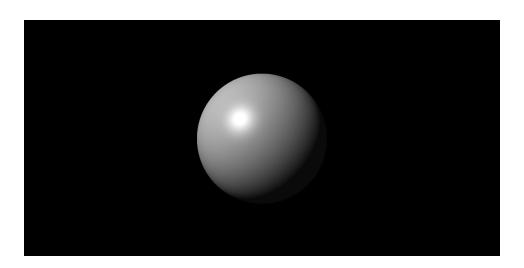
• The simplest shading - color the pixel white if its ray has hit something, black otherwise

$$c_{\text{hit}} = 1$$
 $c_{\text{miss}} = 0$

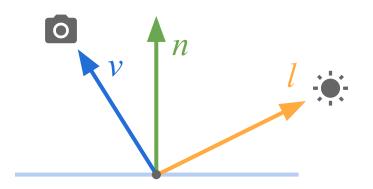


 We can do better - use Blinn-Phong lighting to shade each hit point

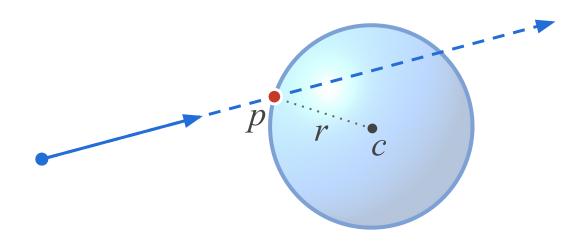
$$c_{\text{hit}} = \text{BlinnPhong}(p, d) = \max((\cdot, n, 0)) + \max((n \cdot h, 0))^{\sigma}$$



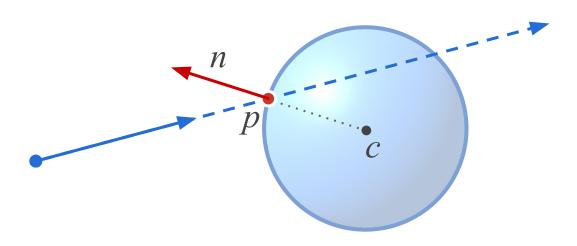
- We need 3 direction vectors to use Blinn-Phong:
 - 1 Light direction assume it is given
 - v View direction given from the view ray -d
 - n Surface normal we need to calculate the normal when we find the hit point p



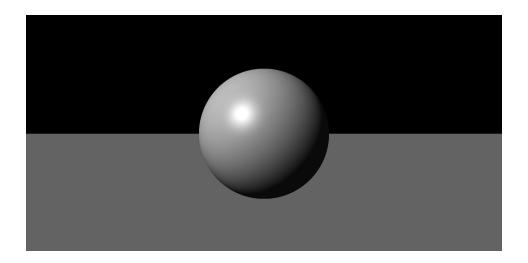
- For example, assume we found the intersection point p with a sphere centered at c with radius r
- What is the surface normal n at this point?



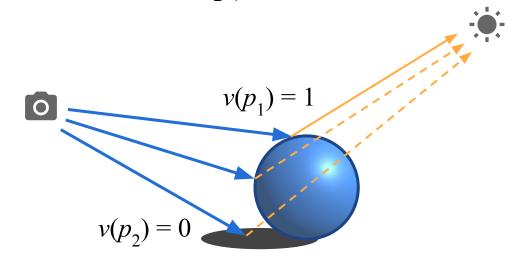
- We can easily calculate it using the hit point and the center of the sphere n = (p c) / ||p c||
- We save this surface normal as part of the hit



 Let's add a floor plane to our scene, so we can see cast shadows:

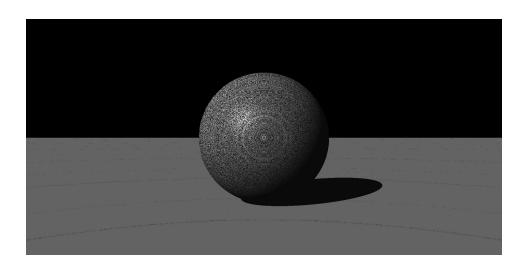


- From each hit point p we cast a shadow ray in the direction of the light to get a visibility term v(p)
- If we hit something, the point is in shadow and so v(p) = 0, otherwise v(p) = 1

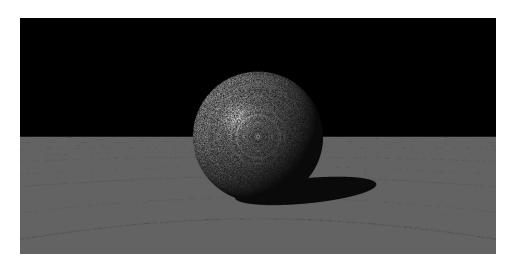


• When we try to use this, we get ugly artefacts known as "shadow acne":

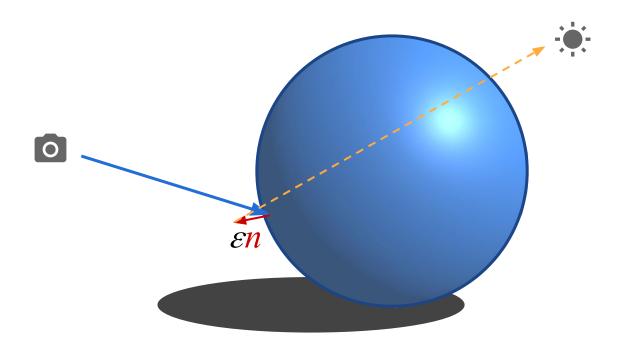
$$c_{\text{hit}} = v(p) \text{BlinnPhong}(p, d)$$



- The shadow ray intersects with the surface it originated from!
- Numerical precision errors cause the "noisy" appearance

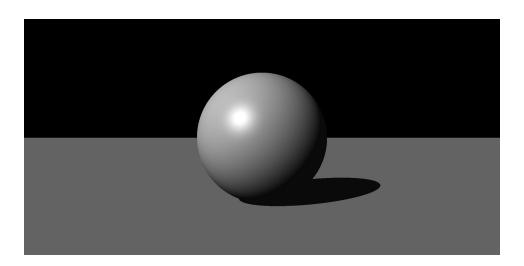


• The solution - offset by ε in the normal direction n before casting the shadow ray



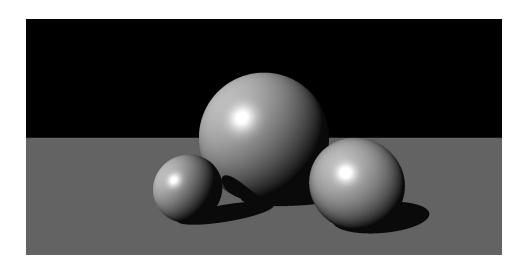
- No more shadow acne!
- Note that we get binary shadows with hard edges

$$c_{\text{hit}} = v(p + \varepsilon n) \text{BlinnPhong}(p, d)$$



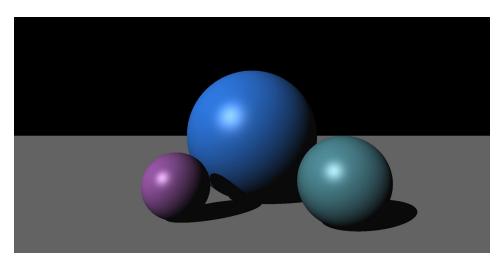
Materials

- · Let's add a few more spheres to our scene
- We can associate each sphere with a material that defines how it interacts with light rays



Materials

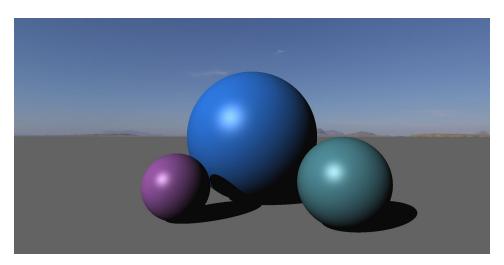
- At each ray hit we store the material properties and then use that for shading
- For example, we can give each sphere a different diffuse color \boldsymbol{k}_d to use in Blinn-Phong



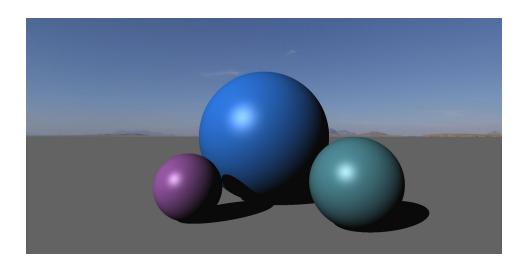
Environment Mapping

 Instead of returning black for all missed rays, we can use the ray direction d to sample an environment map, similar to reflection mapping

$$c_{\text{miss}} = \text{skybox}(d)$$

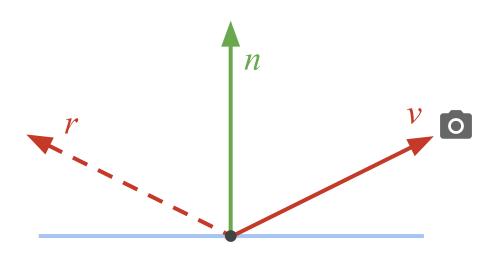


 To get reflections, we must cast a new ray in the reflection direction, calculate its shading and add it to the final color of the pixel



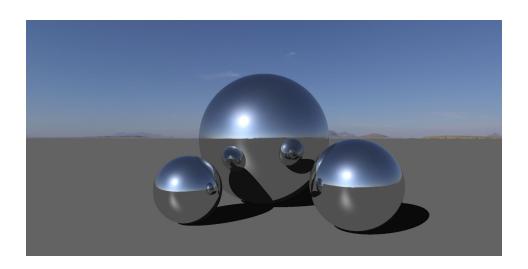
• Reminder - to find the reflection direction:

$$r = 2(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} - \mathbf{v}$$



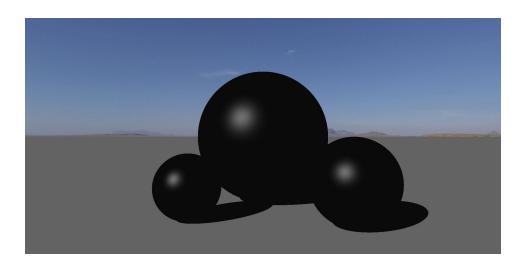
 We recursively trace the new ray from the hit point p at direction r

$$c_{\text{hit}} = v(p + \varepsilon n) \text{BlinnPhong}(p, d) + \text{trace}(p, r, e)$$



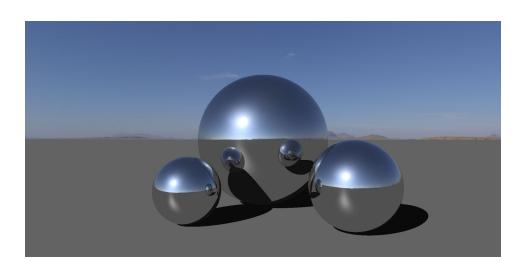
 Note that we must set a bounce limit *l* for the light rays otherwise the recursion can go on forever!

$$l = 1...5$$

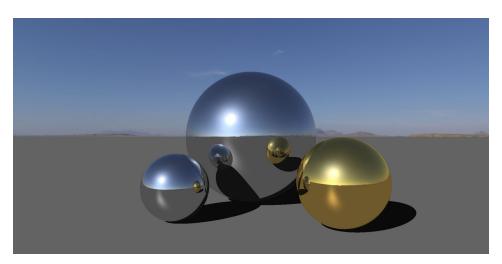


• We multiply the reflected ray's energy by the specular coefficient k_s to account for absorption

$$c_{\text{hit}} = v(p + \varepsilon n) \text{BlinnPhong}(p, r_d) + \text{trace}(p, r, k_s e)$$



- We can now save this specular coefficient in the material to get all kinds of effects
- For example, we know that gold has a specular reflectivity of roughly $k_s = (1, 0.78, 0.34)$



$$k_d = (0.2, 0.5, 0.5)$$
 $k_d = (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)$

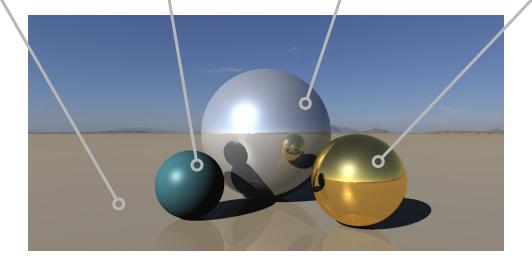
$$k_{s} = (0.0, 0.0, 0.0)$$
 $k_{s} = (0.5, 0.5, 0.5)$

$$k_d = (0.9, 0.8, 0.7)$$

$$k_s = (0.1, 0.1, 0.1)$$

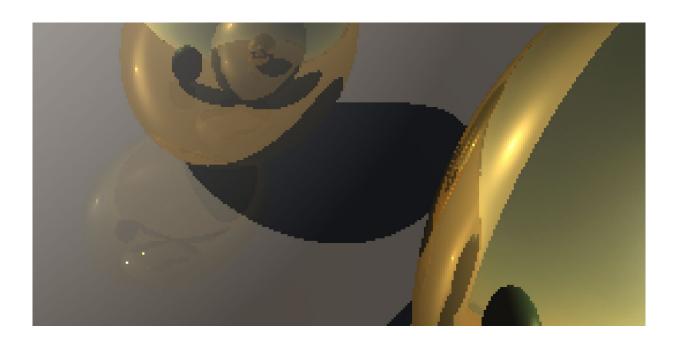
$$k_d = (0.0, 0.0, 0.0)$$

$$k_s = (1.0, 0.7, 0.3)$$



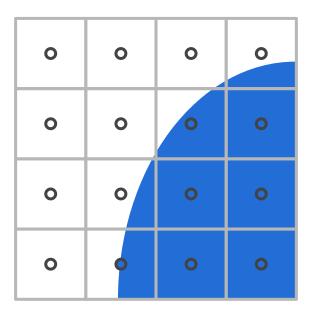
Aliasing

If you look closely at the images we rendered,
 you can see aliasing artefacts - especially on the
 edges of objects and shadows



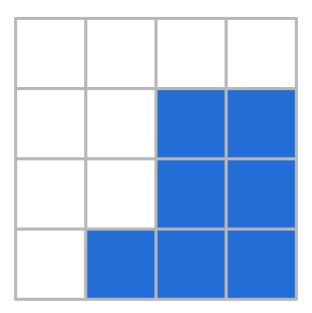
Aliasing

• This happens because we send just one ray from the center of each pixel:



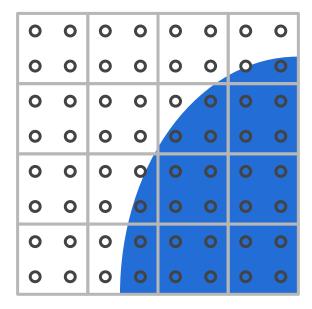
Aliasing

• This happens because we send just one ray from the center of each pixel:



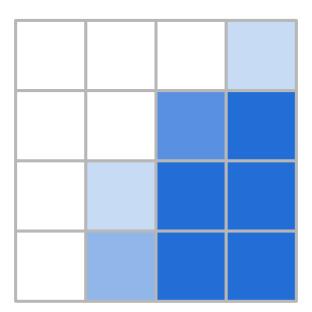
Supersampling

 The solution - send multiple rays from each pixel and average the result



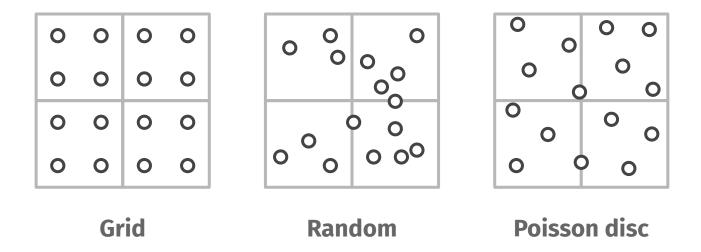
Supersampling

• This is called **Supersampling** anti-aliasing or SSAA



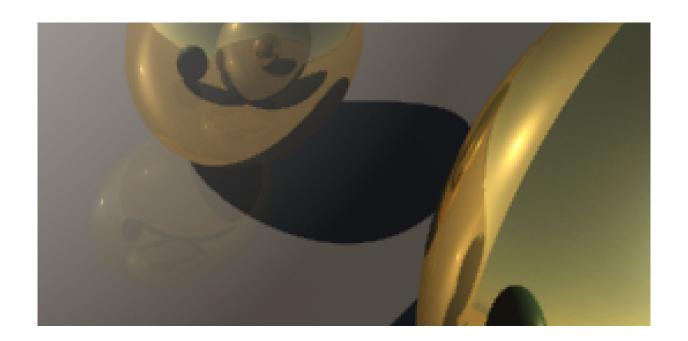
Supersampling

• There are all kinds of supersampling patterns we can use, each has strengths and weaknesses



Aliasing

• We can see a big improvement in the zoomed-in rendering result:

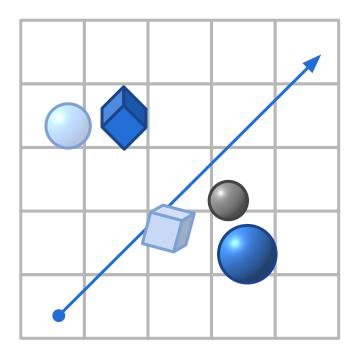


Acceleration Structures

- Let's say we want to render a 1280×1024 pixel image with 5 rays per pixel
- A recursion depth limit of 8
- 1000 objects to intersect in the scene (a common mesh can typically have much more triangles)
- 1280×1024×5×8×1000 = **52,428,800,000**
- This is a lot of work, even for a modern GPU!
- We need some sort of acceleration...

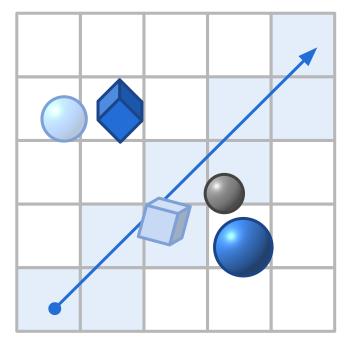
Uniform Grid Space Subdivision

 We can divide our scene into axis-aligned boxes, and associate each one with the objects within



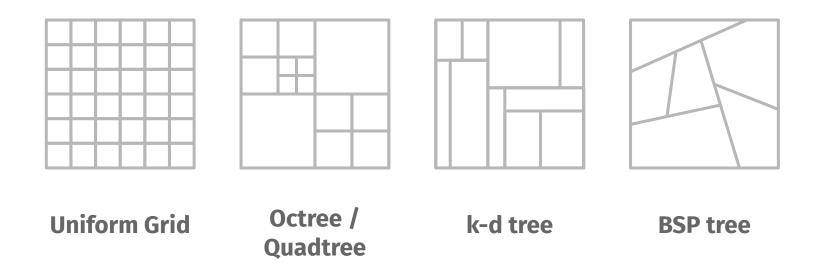
Uniform Grid Space Subdivision

 We efficiently check which grid cells are collided, and then check intersections with the relevant objects

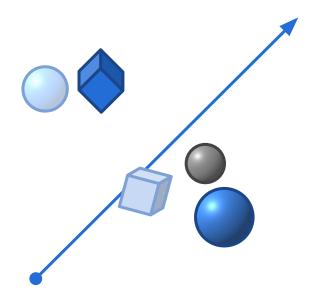


Space Subdivision

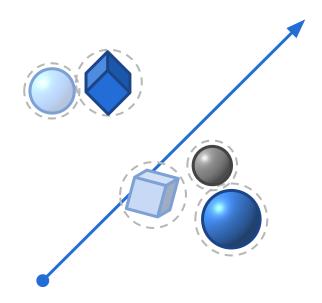
 There are various methods to subdivide space, each with advantages and drawbacks



 We can wrap objects in the scene with bounding volumes that will completely contain them

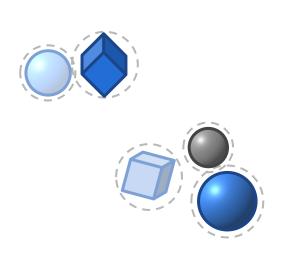


• First check collisions with these volumes which is more efficient, then with the bounded objects

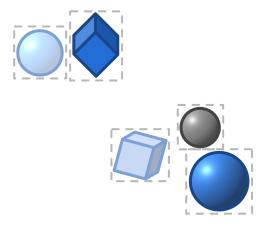


- We would like to use bounding volumes that have a very simple shape, such that intersection tests and distance computations are simple and fast
- On the other hand, we would like to have bounding volumes that fit the corresponding data objects very tightly

• Two common choices:

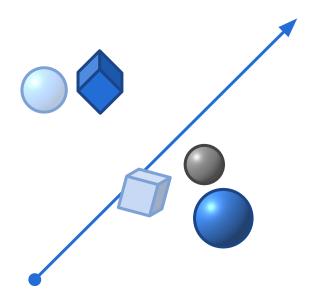




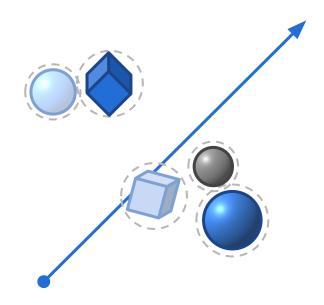


Axis-aligned bounding boxes

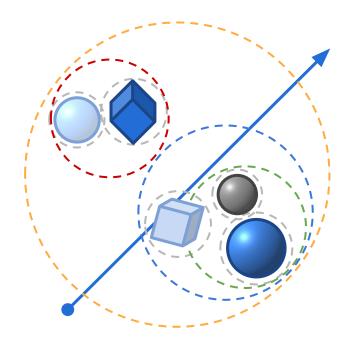
• A **Bounding Volume Hierarchy** or BVH is a tree structure on a set of geometric objects



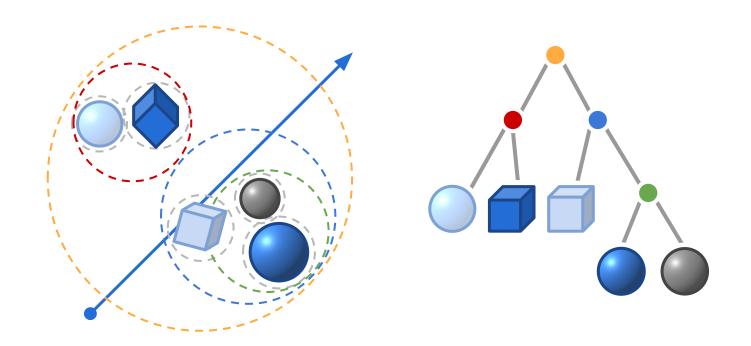
 First wrap all objects in bounding volumes that form the leaf nodes of the tree



 These nodes are then grouped as small sets and enclosed within larger bounding volumes



• When checking for intersections, we first check the bounding volumes then travel down the tree



- Without BVH, checking collisions for the entire scene is O(n)
- With BVH, it is typically O(log *n*)

