Basic Computer Graphics

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Summary

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Coordinate systems
- 3. Geometric transformations
- Geometric transformations for display
- 5. Choosing the camera parameters
- 6. Hidden surface removal
- 7. Lighting: Shading
- 8. Cast Shadows
- 9. Textures

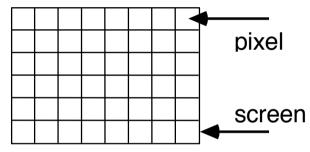




Introduction

Image

- Image = set of pixels
- Synthesis ⇔ assign an intensity value (color) to each pixel
- Intensity depends on the used light sources, the location of the viewpoint and of the objects within the scene.



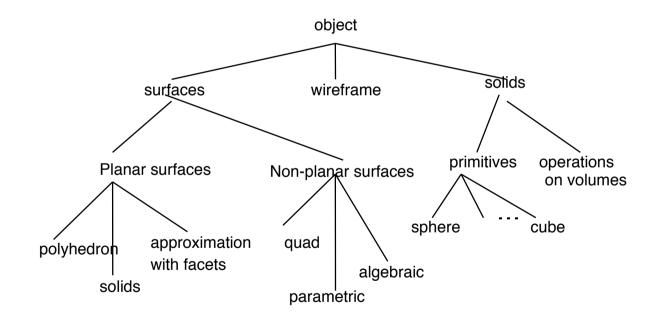




What is Computer Graphics?

3D models:

– Scene = set of different kinds



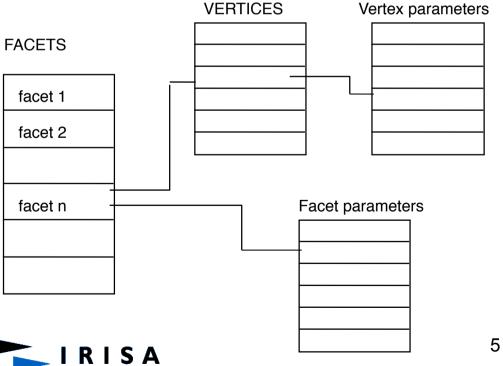




What is Computer Graphics?

3D models: facets

- object = {planar facets}
- scenes = list of facets
- facet = list of vertices





Introduction

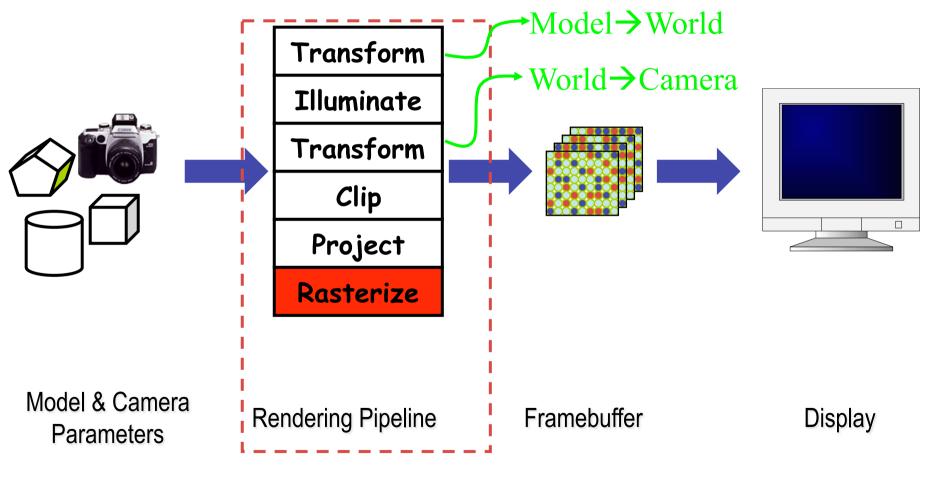
The different processing:

- Geometric transformations.
- Clipping: Pyramidal view volume.
- Hidden surface removal.
- Cast shadows.
- Polygon filling.
- Transparent objects.
- Aliasing
- Texture mapping.





Introduction The Rendering Pipeline



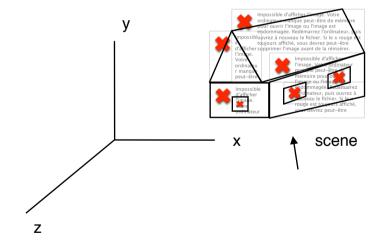




Coordinate systems

At least 3 coordinate systems:

 Word Coordinate System (o,x,y,z): in which is described the scene.

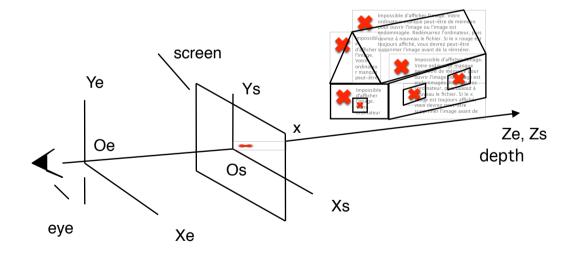






Coordinate systems

- View Coordinate System (oe,xe,ye,ze).
- z = depth axis.
- Screen Coordinate System: (os,xs,ys,zs)







- Interest: enlarge a scene, translate it, rotate it for changing the viewpoint (also called camera).
- 2 ways for expressing a transformation:
 - with a matrix.
 - by composing transformations such as:
 - translation
 - Scaling
 - rotation





Translation

Scaling

$$T(t_x, t_y, t_z) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & t_x \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & t_y \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & t_z \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad S(s_x, s_y, s_z) = \begin{bmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S(s_x, s_y, s_z) = \begin{vmatrix} s_x & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & s_y & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & s_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$





- Rotation
 - One axis and one angle
 - Expression: matrix
- Also composition of rotation around each axis of the coordinate system





Rotations around axes



$$R_{x}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{y}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & 0 & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_{z}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rotation around an axis: the sub-matrix A
is orthogonal: At*A = I





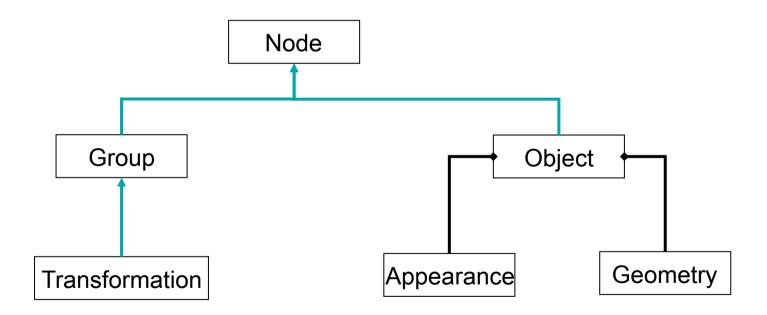
- Position the objects one with respect to the others
 - the vase is on the commode
- Modeling without accounting for the final position





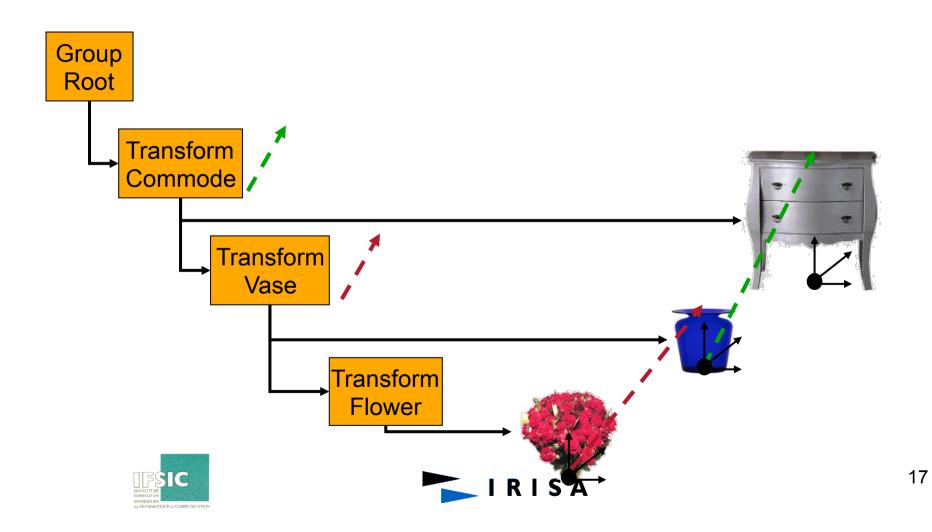


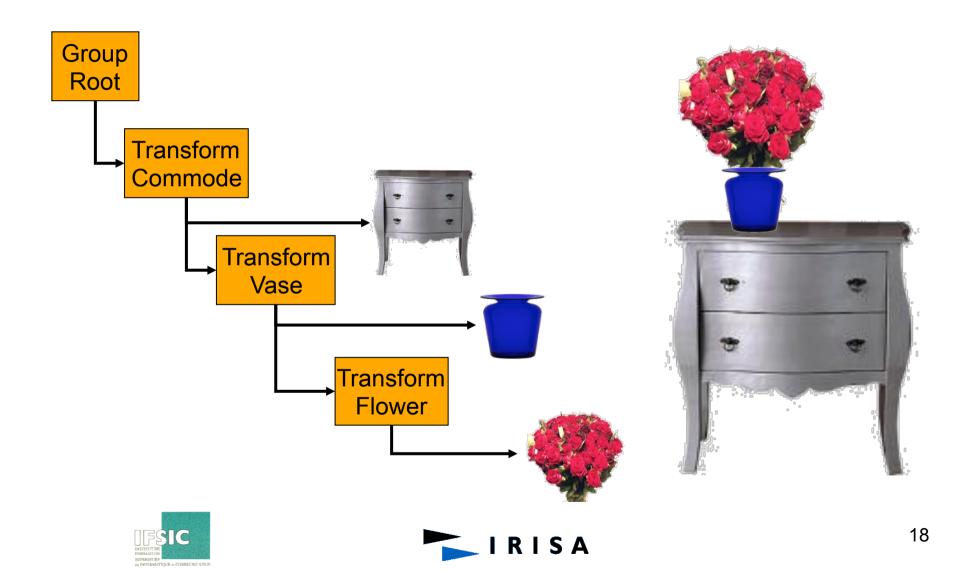
Scene graph





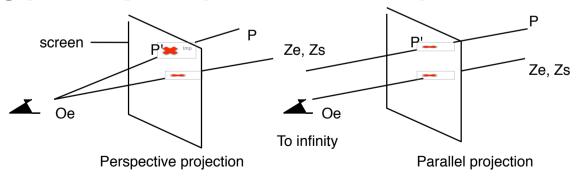






Projections

- Plane projection = transformation which associates a screen point with a scene point
- It is defined by:
 - a centre of projection
 - a projection plane
- Two types : perspective and parallel

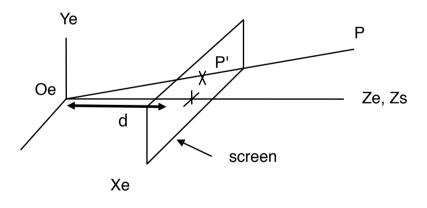


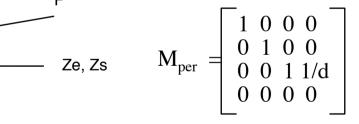




- P'(xp, yp, d) = projection of P(x, y, z)
- d = focal distance
- We get:

$$yp = d * y / z$$
 et $xp = d * x / z$



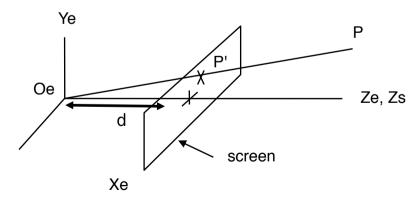






Homogeneous coordinates

- Homo. Coord.: (X, Y, Z, W) = (x, y, z, 1) * Mper
- We get: (X, Y, Z, W) = (x, y, z, z / d)
- Perspective projection of P:
 (X/W, Y/W, Z/W, 1) = (xp, yp, zp, 1) = (x * d / z, y * d / z, d, 1)



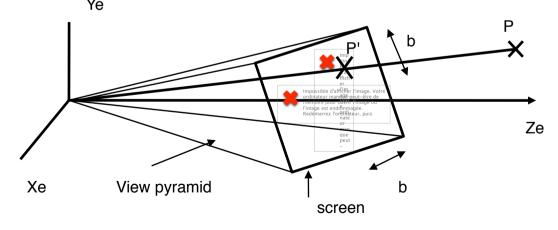
$$\mathbf{M}_{per} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1/d \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





Clipping

- Visible objects: inside the view pyramid
- Made up of 6 planes
- Objects whose only a part lies whin the pyramid are clipped by the 6 planes



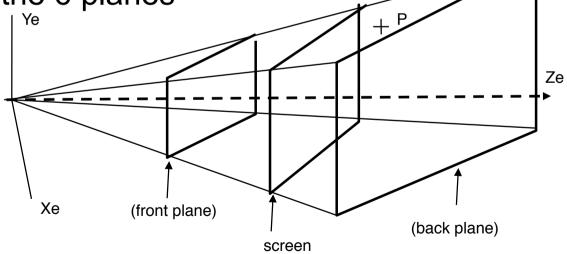




Clipping

- Visible objects: inside the view pyramid
- Made up of 6 planes

 Objects whose only a part lies whin the pyramid are clipped by the 6 planes







Choosing the camera parameters

• **Resolution**: Resx x Resy (Nbr of columns) x (Nbre of rows)

COP = Center Of Projection (observer).

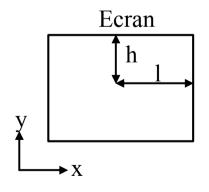
VRP = View Reference Point (targetetted point).

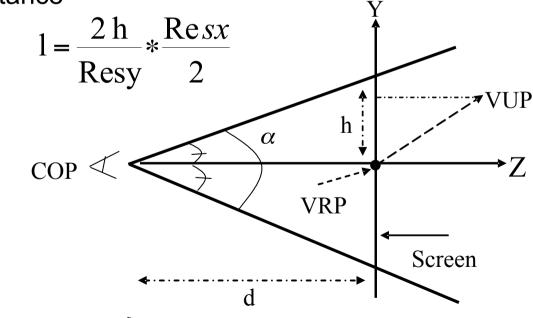
VPN = View Point Normal (screen normal).

VUP = View Up Vector

d = focal distance

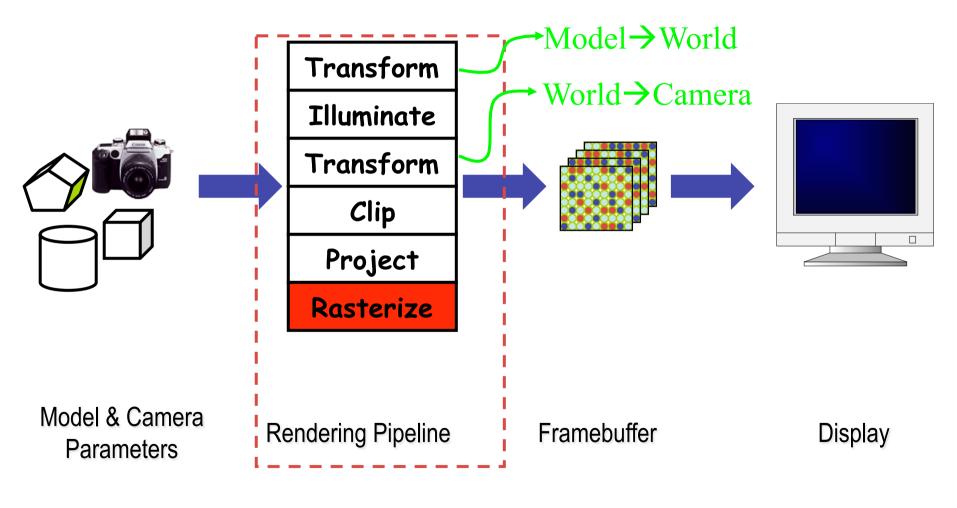
$$h = (tg \alpha / 2) * d$$







Introduction: Rasterization







Rasterizing: Polygons

- In interactive graphics, polygons rule the world
- Two main reasons:
 - Lowest common denominator for surfaces
 - Can represent any surface with arbitrary accuracy
 - Splines, mathematical functions, volumetric isosurfaces...
 - Mathematical simplicity lends itself to simple, regular rendering algorithms
 - Like those we're about to discuss...
 - Such algorithms embed well in hardware





Rasterizing: Polygons

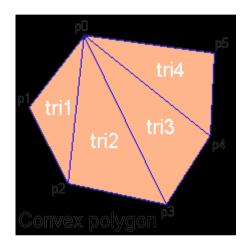
- Triangle is the minimal unit of a polygon
 - All polygons can be broken up into triangles
 - Triangles are guaranteed to be:
 - Planar
 - Convex





Rasterizing: Triangulation

 Convex polygons easily triangulated (Delaunay)



tri1

Concave polygons present

a challenge





Rasterizing Triangles

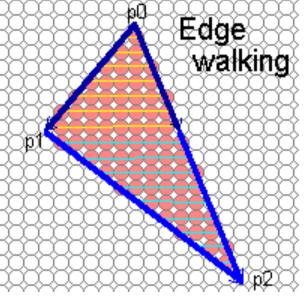
 Interactive graphics hardware commonly uses edge walking or edge equation techniques for rasterizing triangles





Rasterization: Edge Walking

- · Basic idea:
 - Draw edges vertically
 - Interpolate colors down edges
 - Fill in horizontal spans for easseanline
 - At each scanline, interpolate edge colors across span







Rasterization: Edge Walking

- Order three triangle vertices in x and y
 - Find middle point in y dimension and compute if it is to the left or right of polygon. Also could be flat top or flat bottom triangle
- We know where left and right edges are.
 - Proceed from top scanline downwards
 - Fill each span
 - Until breakpoint or bottom vertex is reached



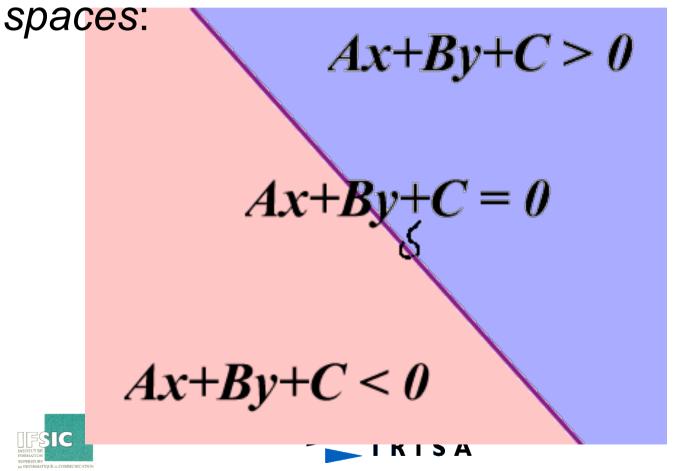


- An edge equation is simply the equation of the line defining that edge
 - Q: What is the implicit equation of a line?
 - -A: Ax + By + C = 0
 - Q: Given a point (x,y), what does plugging x & y into this equation tell us?
 - A: Whether the point is:
 - On the line: Ax + By + C = 0
 - "Above" the line: Ax + By + C > 0
 - "Below" the line: $Ax + By + C < \theta$

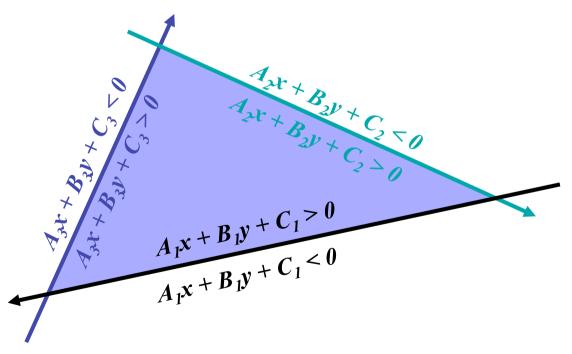




Edge equations thus define two half-



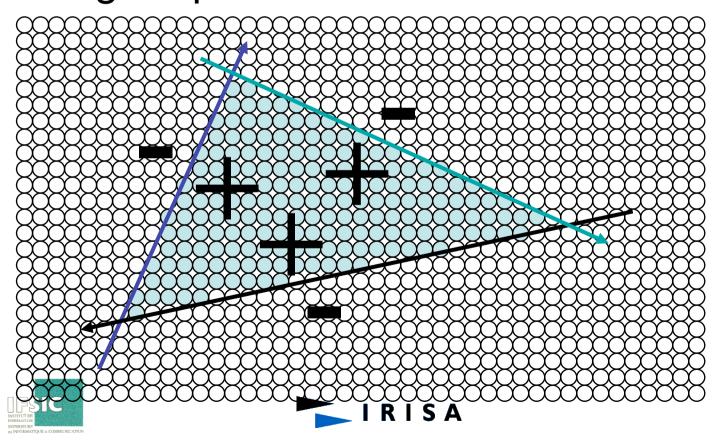
 And a triangle can be defined as the intersection of three positive half-spaces:



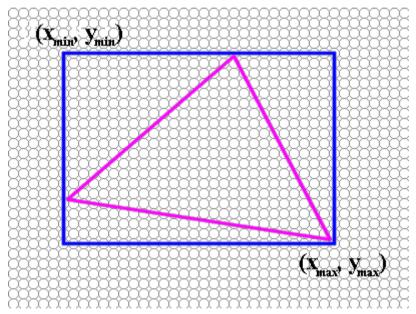




 So...simply turn on those pixels for which all edge equations evaluate to > 0:



Which pixels: compute min,max bounding box



Edge equations: compute from vertices





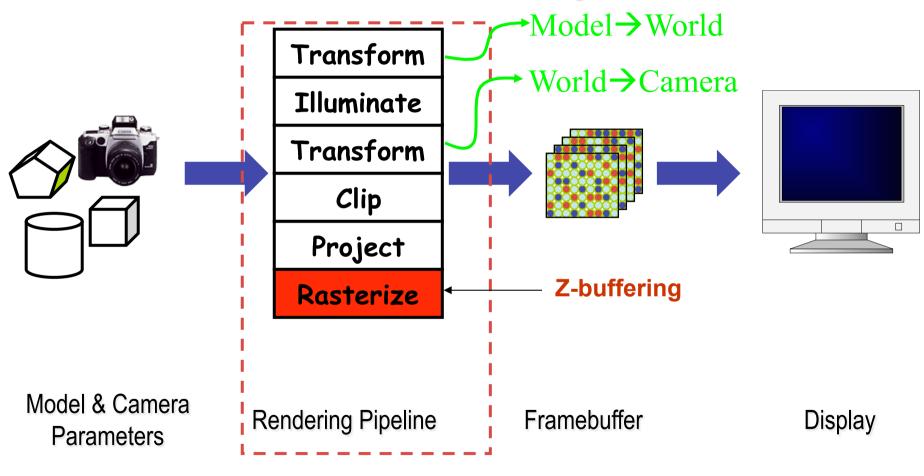
Rasterization: Edge Equations: Code

- Basic structure of code:
 - Setup: compute edge equations, bounding box
 - (Outer loop) For each scanline in bounding box...
 - (Inner loop) ...check each pixel on scanline, evaluating edge equations and drawing the pixel if all three are positive





Hidden Surface Removal Z-buffering



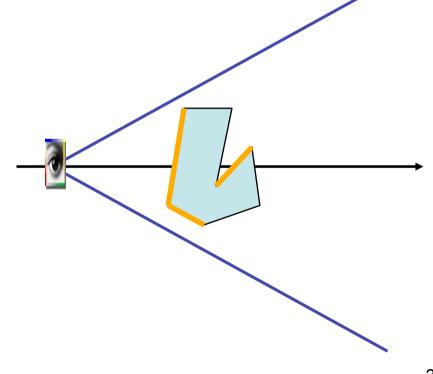




Hidden Surface Removal Back Face Culling & Clipping

- Back Face Culling
 - Simple test
 - Normal: N
 - View direction: V
 - Dot produit: V·N

Clipping







Hidden Surface Removal Z-buffering

- Real-time
 - Z-Buffer (Catmull in 1974)
 - · Depth memory for each pixel
 - Two 2D arrays
 - Frame buffer for intensities (colors): FB [i] [j]
 - Z-buffer for depths (z coordinate) ZB [i] [j]
 - Facets (triangles) are processed without any ordering





Hidden Surface Removal Z-buffering

```
algorithm Z-Buffer ()
begin
   for (for pixels i, j do)
          FB [i][j] ← back plane's color; ZB [i][j] ← z (back plane)
    endfor
   for (all facets) do
          for (all pixels within the projection of the facet) do
               compute_intensity_and_z for all pixels using interpolation
               if (zFrontPlane \le z \text{ of polygone at point } i,j \le ZB [i][j]) then
                    ZB [i][j] \leftarrow z of facet at pixel (i,j)
                    FB[i][j] \leftarrow color of facet at (i,j)
               endif
          endfor
    endfor
end
```



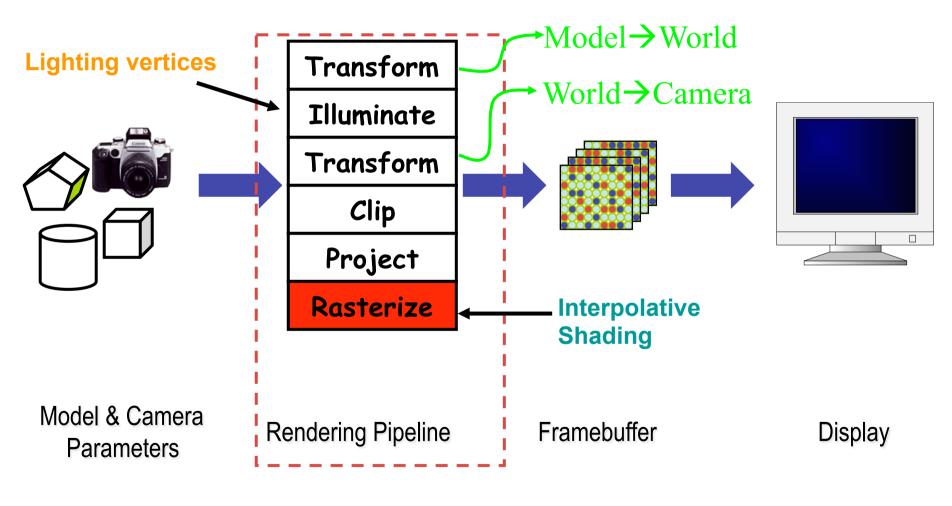


Lighting





Lighting



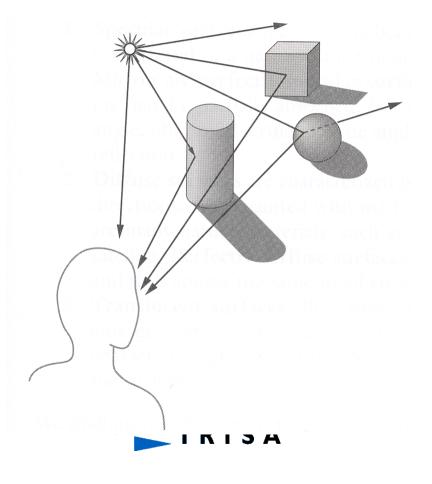




Lighting: Illumination

How do we compute radiance for a sample

ray?



Lighting: Goal

Must derive computer models for ...

Emission at light sources

Scattering at surfaces

Reception at the camera

Desirable features ...

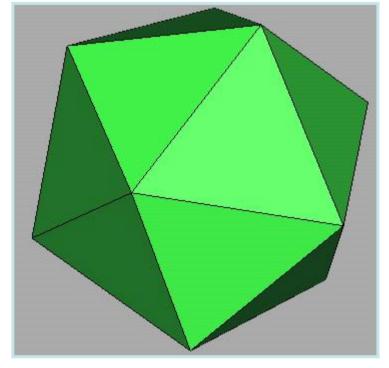
- Concise
- Efficient to compute
- "Accurate"





Lighting: Overview

- Direct (Local) Illumination
 - Emission at light sources
 - Scattering at surfaces
- Global illumination
 - Shadows
 - Refractions
 - Inter-object reflections







Lighting: Modeling Light Sources

- $I_{\perp}(x,y,z,\theta,\phi,\lambda)$...
 - describes the intensity of energy,
 - leaving a light source, ...
 - arriving at location(x,y,z), ...
 - from direction (θ, ϕ) , ...
 - with wavelength λ











Lighting: Ambient Light Sources

- Objects not directly lit are typically still visible
 - e.g., the ceiling in this room, undersides of desks
- This is the result of *indirect illumination* from emitters, bouncing off intermediate surfaces
- Too expensive to calculate (in real time), so we use a hack called an ambient light source
 - No spatial or directional characteristics; illuminates all surfaces equally
 - Amount reflected depends on surface properties





Lighting: Ambient Light Sources

- For each sampled wavelength (R, G, B), the ambient light reflected from a surface depends on
 - The surface properties, $k_{ambient}$
 - The intensity, $I_{ambient,}$ of the ambient light source (constant for all points on all surfaces)
 - $I_{reflected} = k_{ambient} I_{ambient}$

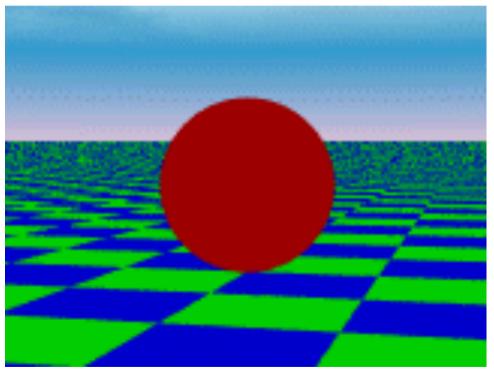




Lighting: Ambient Light Sources

A scene lit only with an ambient light

source:



Light Position Not Important

Viewer Position Not Important

Surface Angle Not Important





Lighting: Ambient Term

Represents reflection of all indirect

illumination



This is a total hack (avoids complexity of global illumination)!





Lighting: Directional Light Sources

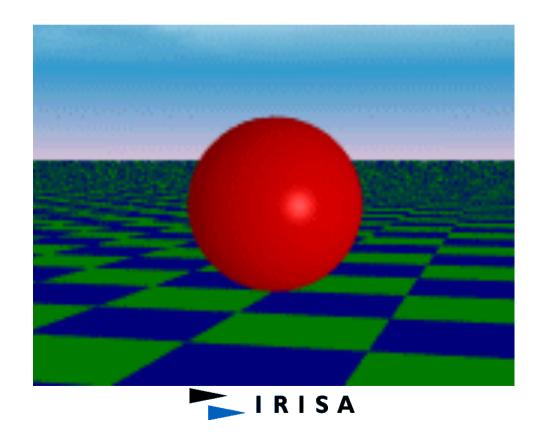
- For a directional light source we make simplifying assumptions
 - Direction is constant for all surfaces in the scene
 - All rays of light from the source are parallel,
 - As if the source were infinitely far away from the surfaces in the scene
 - A good approximation to sunlight
- The direction from a surface to the light source is important in lighting the surface





Lighting: Directional Light Sources

 The same scene lit with a directional and an ambient light source





Lighting: Point Light Sources

- A point light source emits light equally in all directions from a single point
- The direction to the light from a point on a surface thus differs for different points:
 - So we need to calculate a normalized vector to the light source for every point we light:

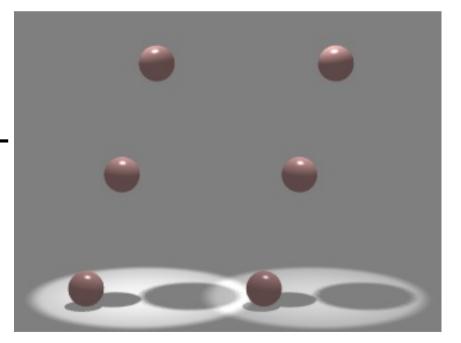
$$\overline{d} = \frac{\overline{p} - l}{\|\overline{p} - \overline{l}\|}$$





Lighting: Other Light Sources

- Spotlights are point sources whose intensity falls off directionally.
 - Requires color, point direction, falloff parameters
 - Supported by OpenGL

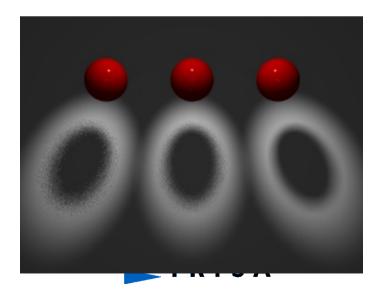






Lighting: Other Light Sources

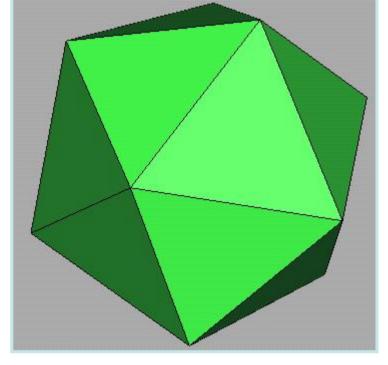
- Area light sources define a 2-D emissive surface (usually a disc or polygon)
 - Good example: fluorescent light panels
 - Capable of generating soft shadows (why?)





Lighting: Overview

- Direct (Local) Illumination
 - Emission at light sources
 - Scattering at surfaces
- Global illumination
 - Shadows
 - Refractions
 - Inter-object reflections

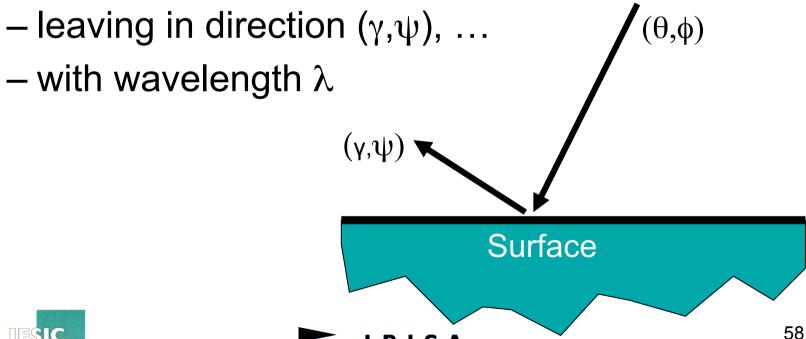






Lighting: Modeling Surface Reflectance

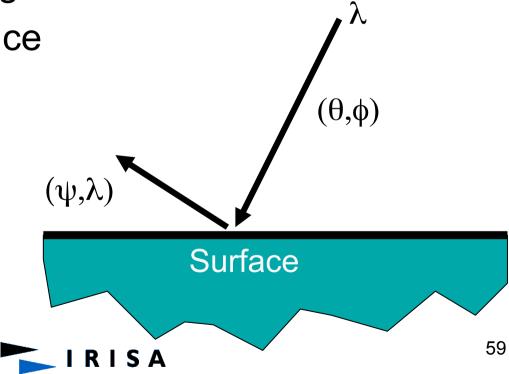
- $R_s(\theta, \phi, \gamma, \psi, \lambda)$...
 - describes the amount of incident energy,
 - arriving from direction (θ,ϕ) , ...





Lighting: Empirical Models

- Ideally measure radiant energy for "all" combinations of incident angles
 - Too much storage
 - Difficult in practice





Lighting: The Physics of Reflection

- Ideal diffuse reflection
 - An ideal diffuse reflector, at the microscopic level,
 is a very rough surface (real-world example: chalk)
 - Because of these microscopic variations, an incoming ray of light is equally likely to be reflected in any direction over the hemisphere:



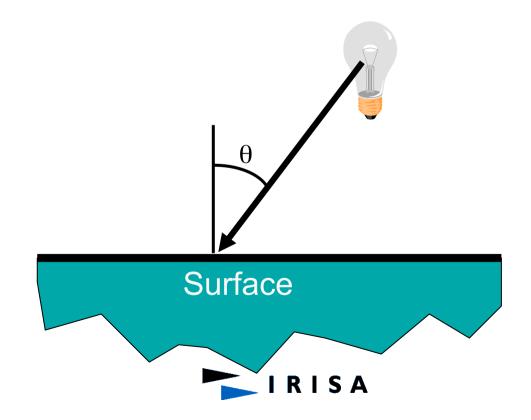
- What does the reflected intensity depend on?





Lighting: Diffuse Reflection

- How much light is reflected?
 - Depends on angle of incident light





Lighting: Lambert's Cosine Law

Ideal diffuse surfaces reflect according to Lambert's cosine law:

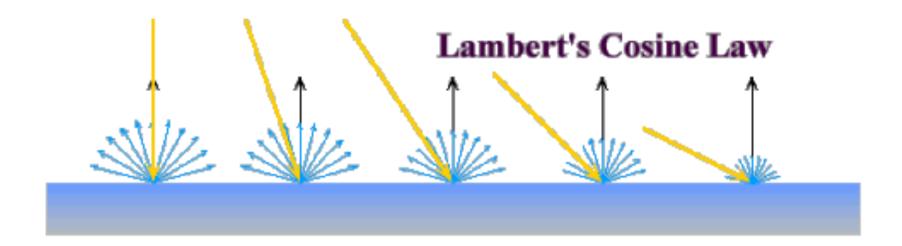
The energy reflected by a small portion of a surface from a light source in a given direction is proportional to the cosine of the angle between that direction and the surface normal

- These are often called Lambertian surfaces
- Note that the reflected intensity is independent of the viewing direction, but does depend on the surface orientation with regard to the light source





Lighting: Lambert's Law

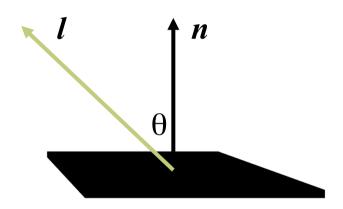






Lighting: Computing Diffuse Reflection

 The angle between the surface normal and the incoming light is the angle of incidence:



•
$$I_{diffuse} = k_d I_{light} \cos \theta$$

In practice we use vector arithmetic:

•
$$I_{diffuse} = k_d I_{light} (n \cdot l)$$





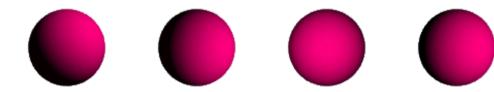
Lighting: Diffuse Lighting Examples

- We need only consider angles from 0° to 90° (Why?)
- A Lambertian sphere seen at several different lighting angles:









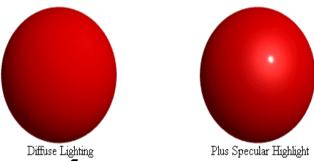






Lighting: Specular Reflection

- Shiny surfaces exhibit specular reflection
 - Polished metal
 - Glossy car finish



- A light shining on a specular surface causes a bright spot known as a specular highlight
- Where these highlights appear is a function of the viewer's position, so specular reflectance is view dependent





Lighting: The Physics of Reflection

 At the microscopic level a specular reflecting surface is very smooth

 Thus rays of light are likely to bounce off the microgeometry in a mirror-like fashion

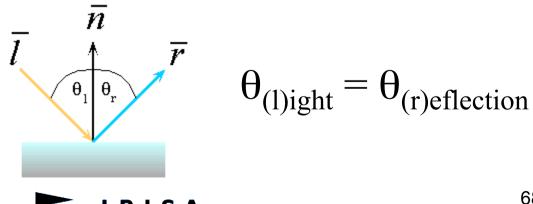
 The smoother the surface, the closer it becomes to a perfect mirror





Lighting: The Optics of Reflection

- Reflection follows Snell's Laws:
 - The incoming ray and reflected ray lie in a plane with the surface normal
 - The angle that the reflected ray forms with the surface normal equals the angle formed by the incoming ray and the surface normal:



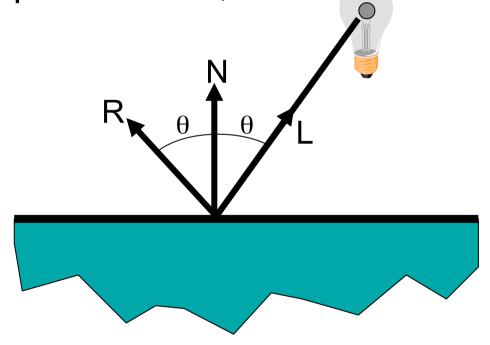




Lighting: Specular Reflection

Reflection is strongest near mirror angle

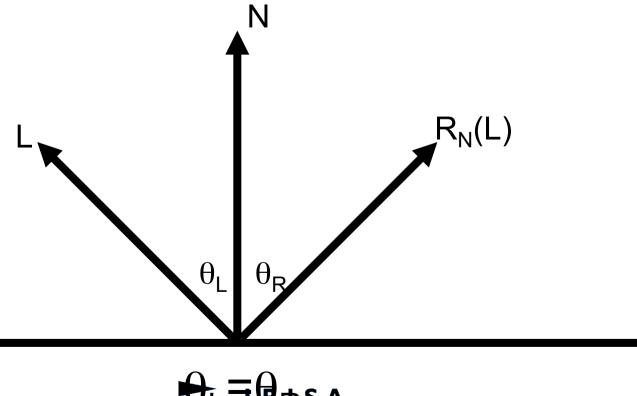
– Examples: mirrors, metals





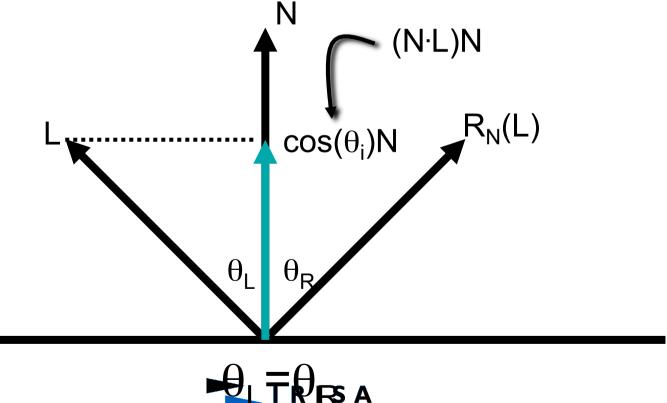


Lighting: Geometry of Reflection



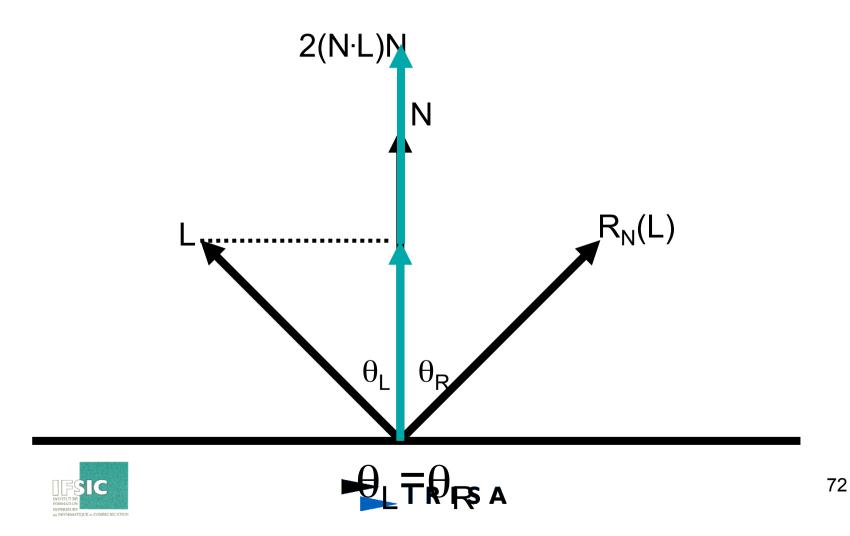


Lighting: Geometry of Reflection

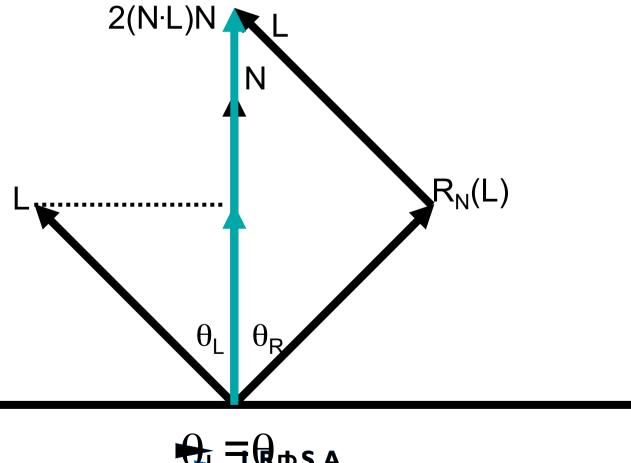




Lighting: Geometry of Reflection

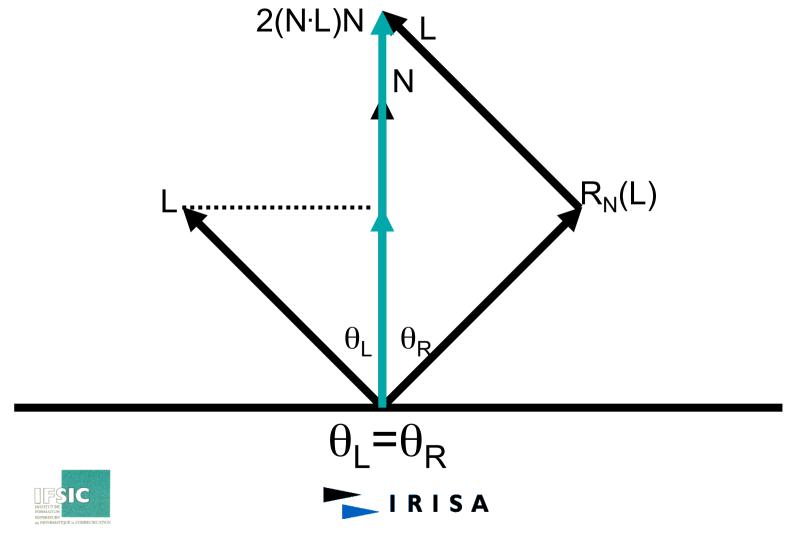


Lighting: Geometry of Reflection



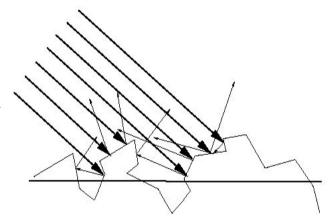


Lighting: Geometry of Reflection



Lighting: Non-Ideal Specular Reflectance

- Snell's law applies to perfect mirror-like surfaces, but aside from mirrors (and chrome) few surfaces exhibit perfect specularity
- How can we capture the "softer" reflections of surface that are glossy rather than mirror-like?



- One option: model the microgeometry of the surface and explicitly bounce rays off of it
- Or...





Lighting: Non-Ideal Specular Reflectance

An Empirical Approximation

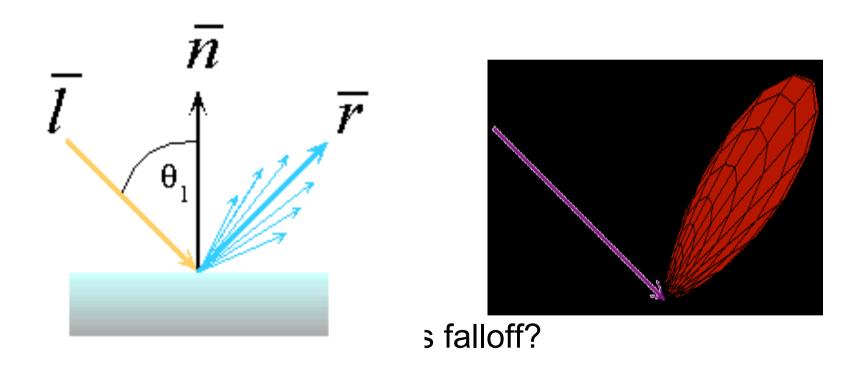
- Hypothesis: most light reflects according to Snell's Law
 - But because of microscopic surface variations, some light may be reflected in a direction slightly off the ideal reflected ray
- Hypothesis: as we move from the ideal reflected ray, some light is still reflected





Lighting: Non-Ideal Specular Reflectance

An illustration of this angular falloff:





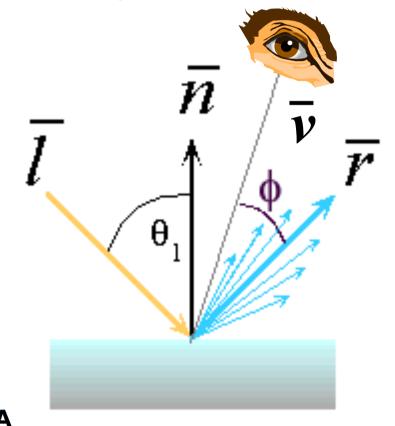


Lighting: Phong Lighting

 The most common lighting model in computer graphics was suggested by Phong:

$$I_{specular} = k_s I_{light} (\cos \phi)^{n_{shiny}}$$

- The n_{shiny} term is a purely empirical constant that varies the rate of falloff
- Though this model has no physical basis, it works (sort of) in practice

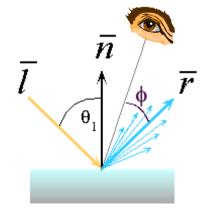


Lighting: Calculating Phong Lighting

 The cos term of Phong lighting can be computed using vector arithmetic:

$$I_{specular} = k_s I_{light} (\overline{v} \cdot \overline{r})^{n_{shiny}}$$

- v is the unit vector towards the viewer
- -r is the ideal reflectance direction

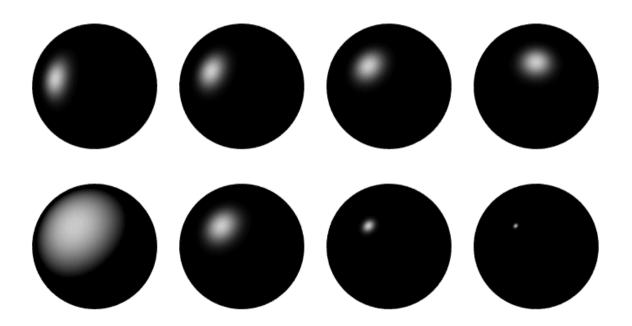






Lighting: Phong Examples

• These spheres illustrate the Phong model as l and n_{shiny} are varied:







Lighting: Combining Everything

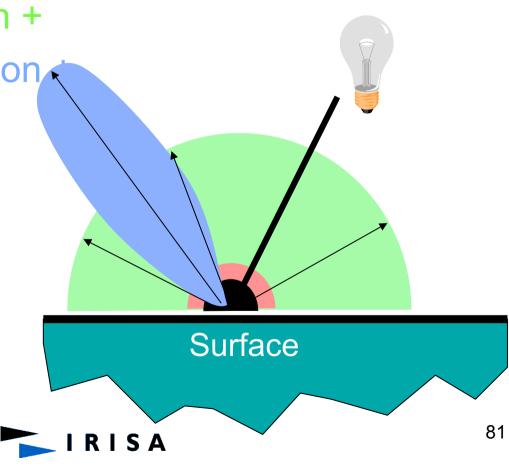
Simple analytic model:

– diffuse reflection +

specular reflection

- emission +

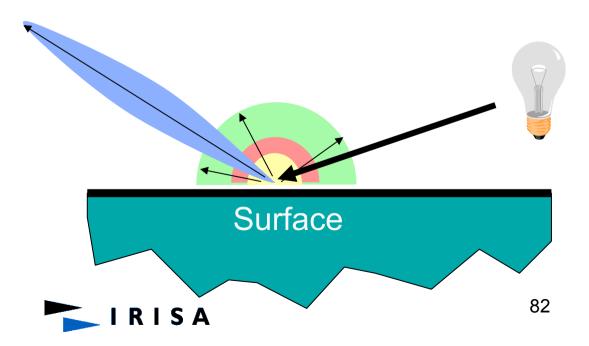
- "ambient"





Lighting: Combining Everything

- Simple analytic model:
 - diffuse reflection +
 - specular reflection +
 - emission +
 - "ambient"





Lighting: OpenGL Reflectance Model

• Sum diffuse, specular, emission, and

ambient

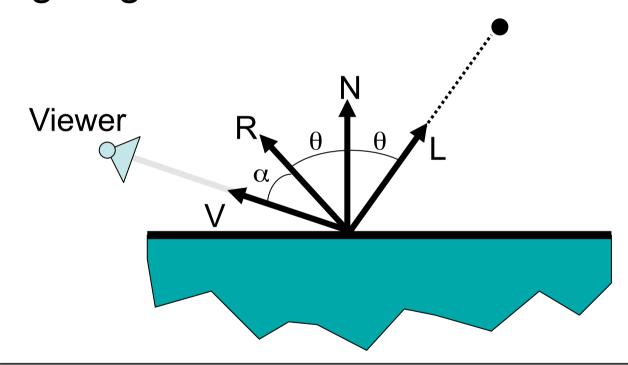
Phong	$\rho_{ambient}$	P _{diffuse}	Pspecular	$ ho_{ m total}$
$\phi_i = 60^{\circ}$	•	*		
$\phi_i = 25^{\circ}$	•			
$\phi_i = 0^{\circ}$	•			





Lighting: The Final Combined Equation

• Single light source:



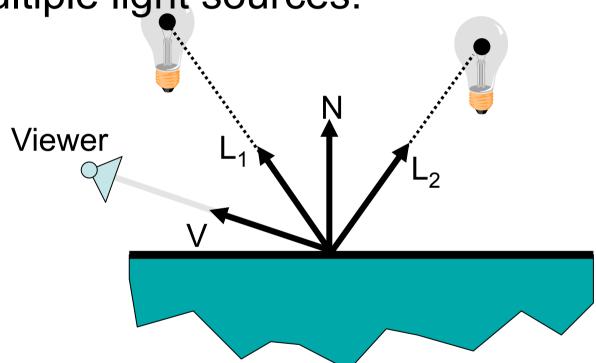
$$I = I_E + K_A I_{AL} + K_D (N \bullet L) I_L + K_S (V \bullet R)^n I_L$$





Lighting: Final Combined Equation

Multiple light sources:

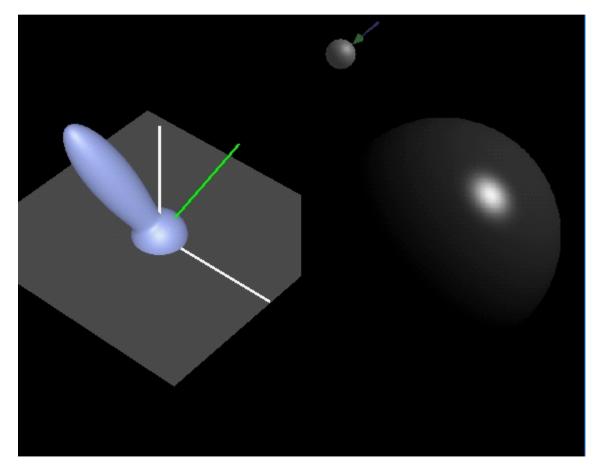


$$I = I_E + K_A I_{AL} + \sum_i (K_D(N \bullet L_i) I_i + K_S(V \bullet R_i)^n I_i)$$





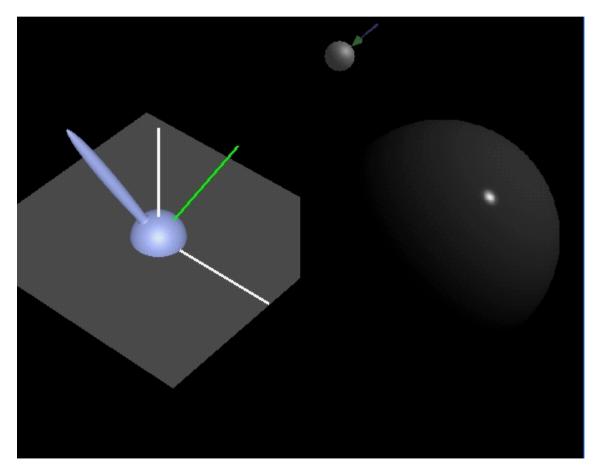
- $K_d = 0.25$
- $-K_{s} = 0.75$
- n=50.0







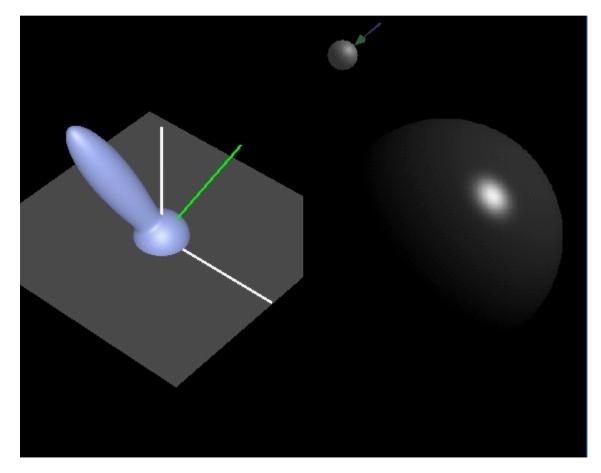
- $K_d = 0.25$
- $-K_{s} = 0.75$
- n=200.0







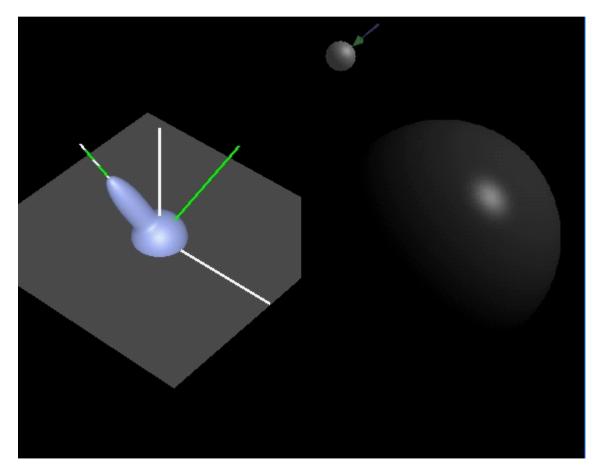
- $K_d = 0.25$
- $-K_{s} = 0.75$
- n=50.0







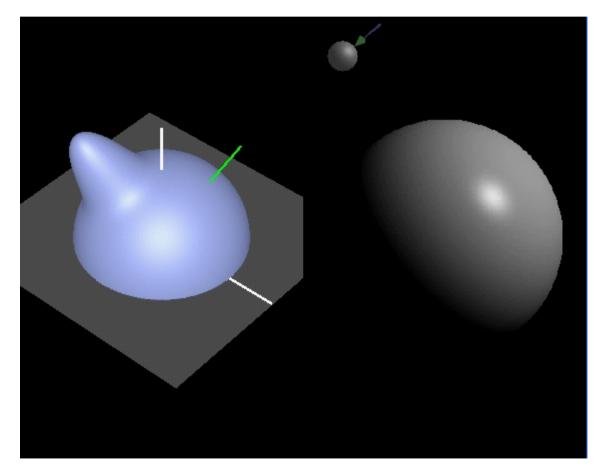
- $K_d = 0.25$
- $-K_{s} = 0.25$
- n=50.0







- $K_d = 0.75$
- $K_s = 0.25$
- n=50.0



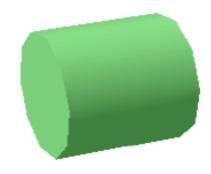




Lighting: interpolative shading

- Smooth D object representations: Quadrics superquadrics splines
 - Computing surface normals can be very expensive
- Interpolative shading:
 - approximate curved objects by polygonal meshes,
 - compute a surface normal that varies smoothly from one face to the next
 - computation can be very cheap
 Many objects are well approximated
 by polygonal meshes
 - silhouettes are still polygonal
- Done: rasterization step

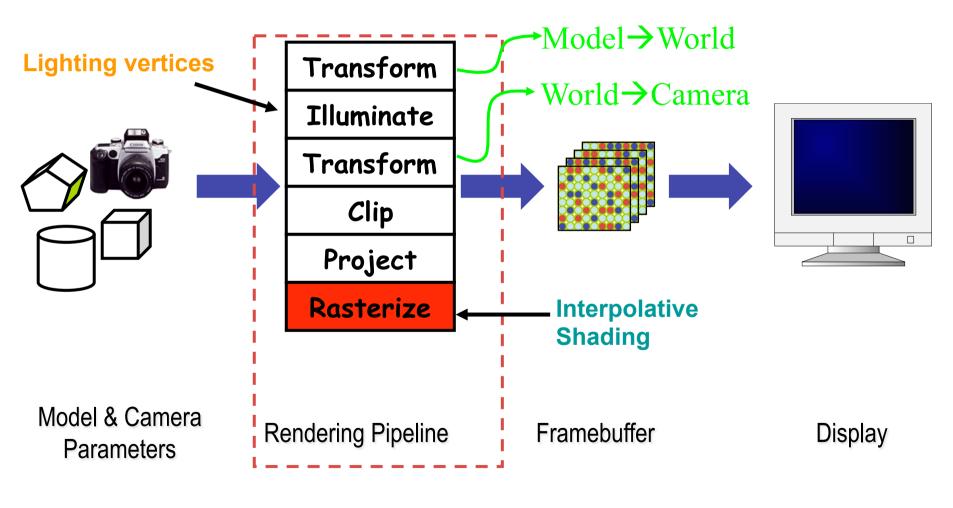








Lighting







Lighting: interpolative shading

Two kinds of interpolative shading

- Gouraud Shading: cheap but gives poor highlights.
- Phong Shading: slightly more expensive but gives excellent highlights.

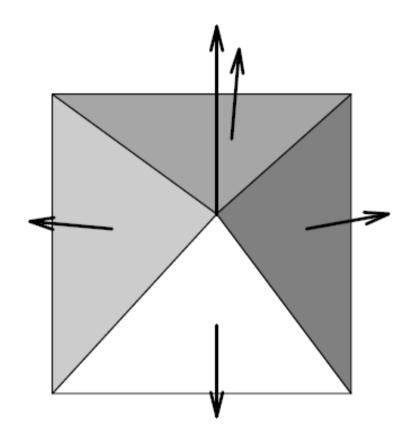




Lighting: interpolative shading

Vertex Normals

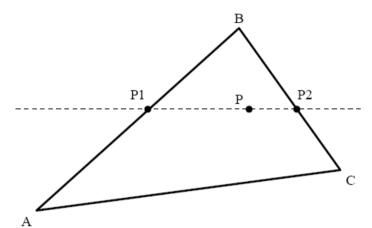
- All interpolative shading methods rely on vertex normals.
- A vertex normal is the average of the normals of all of the faces sharing that vertex.







Lighting: Gouraud Shading



- Compute RGB Color at Each Vertex. Use the Phong illumination model (or any other).
- Compute RGB Colors at P_1 and P_2 . By linear interpolation:

$$s = \frac{\|P_1 - B\|}{\|A - B\|} \qquad (R_{P_1}, G_{P_1}, B_{P_1}) = s(R_A, G_A, B_A) + (1 - s)(R_B, G_B, B_B)$$

• Compute RGB Colors at P. By linear interpolation:

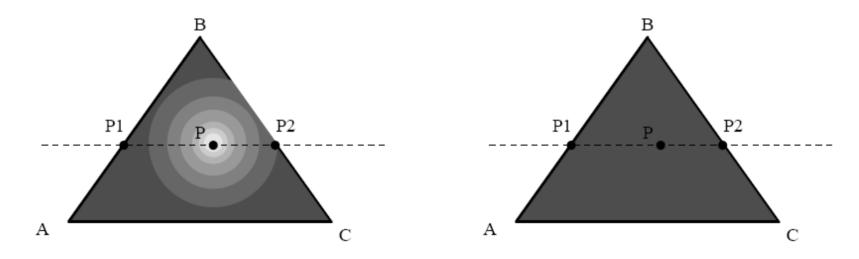
$$s = \frac{\|P - P_2\|}{\|P_1 - P_2\|} \qquad (R_P, G_P, B_P) = s(R_{P_1}, G_{P_1}, B_{P_1}) + (1 - s)(R_{P_2}, G_{P_2}, B_{P_2})$$





Lighting Poor Highlights from Gouraud Sading

- Suppose we are approximating a sphere and that the true highlight should appear in the center of a face (e.g., at P).
- The computed RGBs at A, B, and C will not have highlights (because they are far away from P).
- Any point in the interior will therefore not have a highlight.



Desired

IFSIC

DESIRE

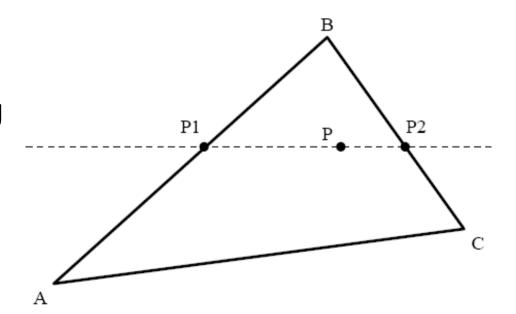


Gouraud Result

Lighting: Phong Shading

Interpolate the normals instead of the RGB values.

- Compute normals at each vertex A B and C.
- Compute the normals at P₁ and P₂ By interpolation using the normals from A and B and C and B.
- Compute the normal at P By interpolating the normals from P₁ and P₂.
- Compute RGB values at P Using Phong's rule.

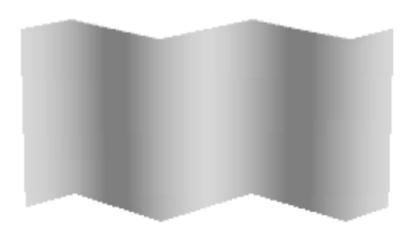


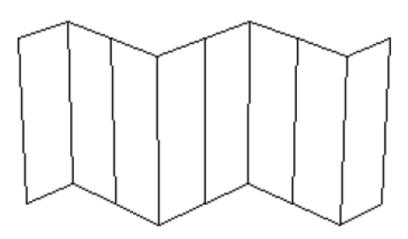




Lighting: Phong Shading

Interpolating the normals









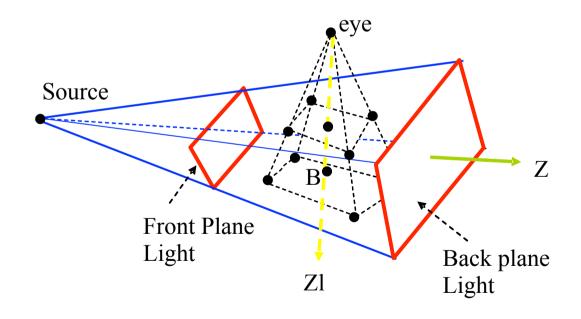
Cast Shadows





Cast Shadows: Shadow Map

Two Z-buffers: one from the light source and another from the viewer







Cast Shadows: Shadow Map

- Compute an image as seen by the point light source
- Compute an image as seen by the eye
- Let (X,Y,Z) be a point seen through a pixel (x,y) of the camera screen
- Let (XI,YI,ZI) be the coordinates of this point in the source coordinate system and (xI,yI) the coordinates of the associated pixel on the source's screen
- If ZI > Z_Buffer_Light[xl][yl] then the point is shadowed
- Else the point is lit and we compute its intensity.

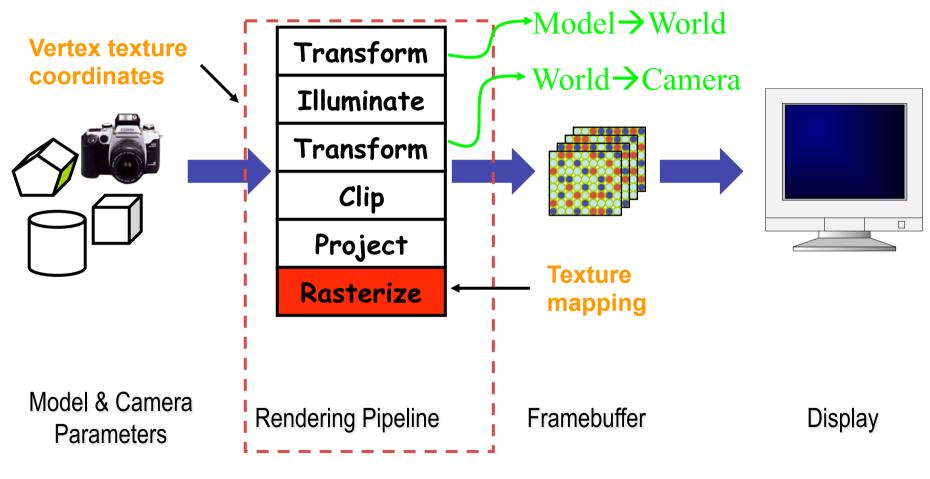








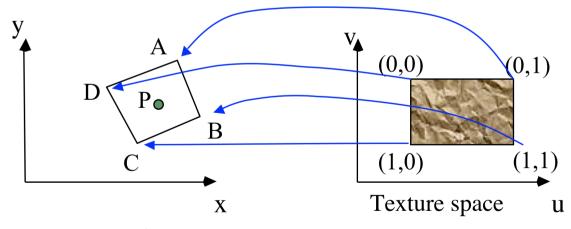
Introduction The Rendering Pipeline





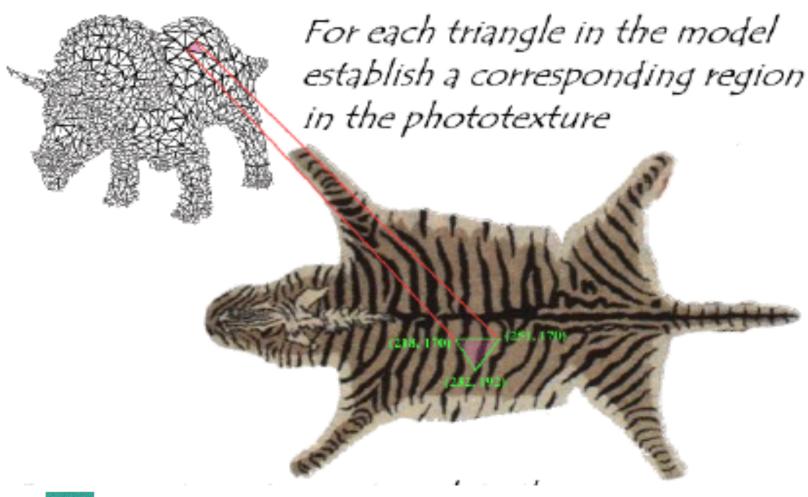


- Texture = 2D Image (we do not consider 3D textures)
- Texture: represented by a 2D array of RGB triplets
- Triplet: Color, Normal or any other thing
- Normalized texture space: (u,v), u et v ranging from 0 to 1
- For a pixel P within the projected facet: compute its texture coordinates by interpolation





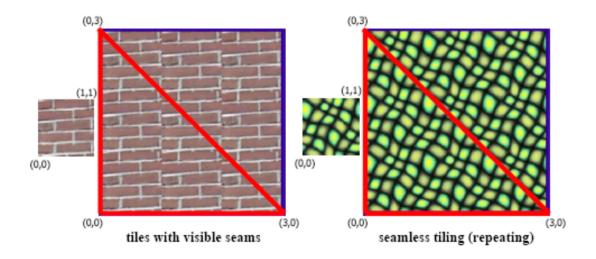








- Specify a texture coordinate (u,v) at each vertex
- Canonical texture coordinates (0,0) → (1,1)

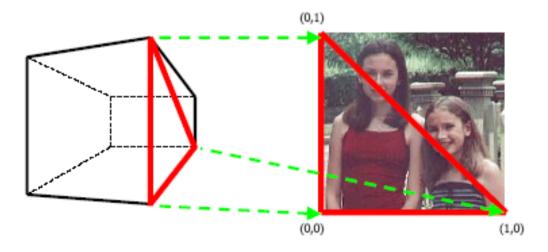






Texture Mapping: Interpolation

- Specify a texture coordinate (u,v) at each vertex
- Interpolate the texture values of intersection points lying on the polygon using those of its vertices





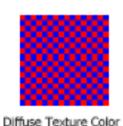


Texture Mapping & Illumination

- Texture mapping can be used to alter some or all of the constants in the illumination equation:
 - pixel color, diffuse color, alter the normal,
- Classical texturing: diffuse color k_d changes over a surface and is given by a 2D texture which is an image

$$I_{local} = \sum_{i=0}^{nbLum} I_i \times \frac{vis(i)}{d_i^2} \times \left(k_d \left(\overrightarrow{N} \cdot \overrightarrow{L}_i \right) + k_s \left(\overrightarrow{R}_i \cdot \overrightarrow{V} \right)^n \right)$$







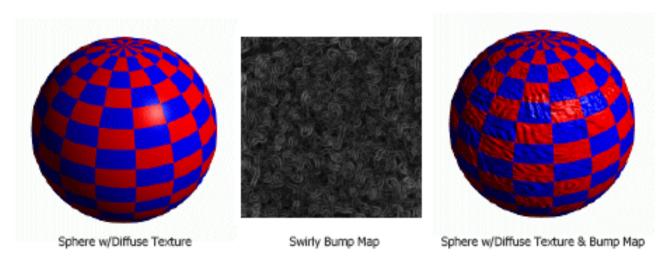


Texture used as Diffuse Color





- Use textures to alter the surface normal
 - Does not change the actual shape of the surface
 - Just shaded as if it was a different shape

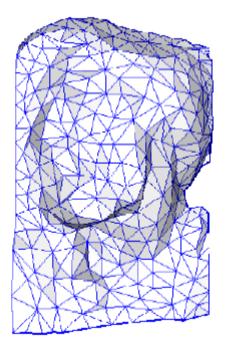






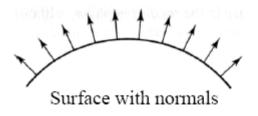
 Add more realism to synthetic images without adding a lot of geometry

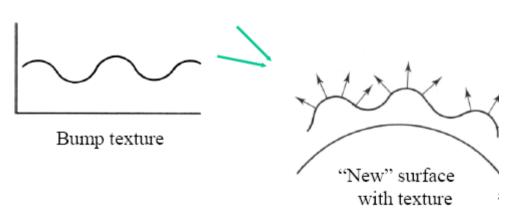
















- Normal of bumped surface, so-called perturbed normal:
- Derivation can be found in "Simulation of Wrinkled Surfaces"

James F. Blinn SIGGRAPH '78 Proceedings, pp. 286-292, 1978 (Pioneering paper...)

- Use texture to store either:
 - perturbed normal map
 - bump-map itself



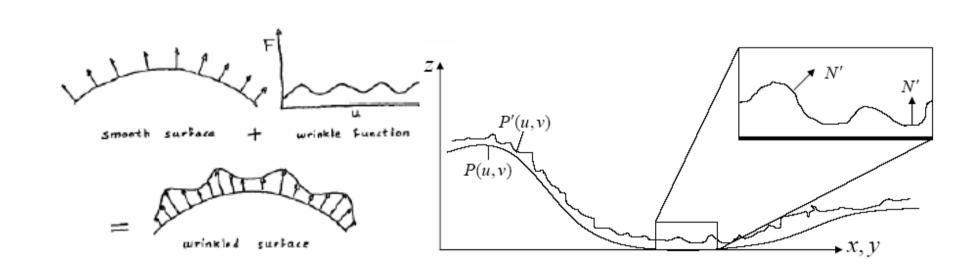


- The light at each point depends on the normal at that point.
- Take a smooth surface and perturb it with a function B.
- But we don't really perturb that surface (that is not displacement mapping).
- We modify the normals with the function B(u,v), measuring the displacement of the irregular surface compared to the ideal one.
- we are only shading it as if it was a different shape! This technique is called bump mapping.
- The texture map is treated as a single-valued height function.
- The value of the function is not actually used, just its partial derivatives.





The partial derivatives tell how to alter the true surface normal at each point on the surface to make the object appear as if it was deformed by the height function.







General case

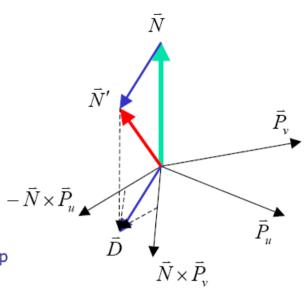
$$\vec{P} = [x(u,v), y(u,v), z(u,v)]^T$$
 Initial point

$$\vec{N} = \vec{P}_u \times \vec{P}_v$$

Normal

$$\vec{P}' = \vec{P} + \frac{B(u, v)\vec{N}}{\|\vec{N}\|}$$

Simulated elevated point after bump



$\vec{N}' \approx \vec{N} + \frac{B_u(\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_v) - B_v(\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_u)}{\|\vec{N}\|}$

Variation of normal in u direction

$$B_{u} = \frac{B(s - \Delta, t) - B(s + \Delta, t)}{2\Delta}$$

$$B_{v} = \frac{B(s, t - \Delta) - B(s, t + \Delta)}{2\Delta}$$

Variation of normal in v direction

Compute bump map partials by numerical differentiation





Bump mapping derivation

 ≈ 0

$$\vec{P}' = \vec{P} + \frac{B(u, v)\vec{N}}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|}$$

$$\vec{P}_u' = \vec{P}_u + \frac{B_u \vec{N}}{\|\vec{N}\|} + \frac{B \vec{N}_u}{\|\vec{N}\|} \approx 0$$

Assume *B* is very small...

$$\vec{N}' = \vec{P}_u' \times \vec{P}_v'$$

$$\vec{P}_{v}' = \vec{P}_{v} + \frac{B_{v}\vec{N}}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|} + \frac{B\vec{N}_{v}}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|}$$

$$\vec{N}' \approx \vec{P}_u \times \vec{P}_v + \frac{B_u(\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_v)}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|} + \frac{B_v(\vec{P}_u \times \vec{N})}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|} + \frac{B_uB_v(\vec{N} \times \vec{N})}{\left\|\vec{N}\right\|^2}$$

But
$$\vec{P}_u \times \vec{P}_v = \vec{N}$$
, $\vec{P}_u \times \vec{N} = -\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_u$ and $\vec{N} \times \vec{N} = 0$ so

$$\vec{N}' \approx \vec{N} + \frac{B_u(\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_v)}{\|\vec{N}\|} - \frac{B_v(\vec{N} \times \vec{P}_u)}{\|\vec{N}\|}$$





Choice of function B(u,v)

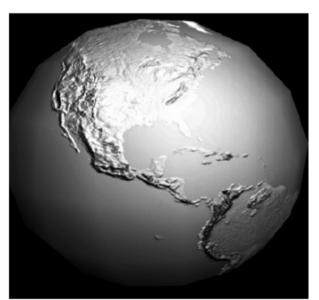
- Blinn has proposed various techniques:
- B(u,v) defined analytically as a polynomial with 2 variables or a Fourier serie (very expensive approach)
- B(u,v) defined by 2-entry table (poor results, requires large memory)
- B(u,v) defined by 2-entry table smaller and an interpolation is performed to find in-between values





- Treat the texture as a single- valued height function
- Compute the normal from the partial derivatives in the texture



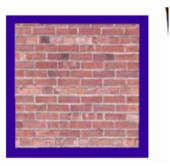






- There are no bumps on the silhouette of a bump-mapped object
- Bump maps don't allow self-occlusion or selfshadowing
- Problem solved with Displacement Mapping

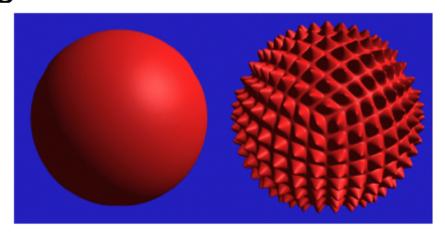








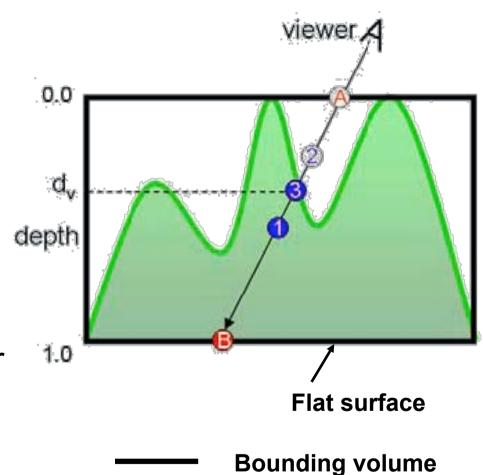
- Use the texture map to actually move the surface point along the normal to the intersected point.
- The geometry must be displaced before visibility is determined, which is different from bump mapping







- Compute intersection between ray and bounding volume
- Result: points A and B
- Height (or depth) is stored in a texture
- Use a search technique for the first intersection point: here point 3

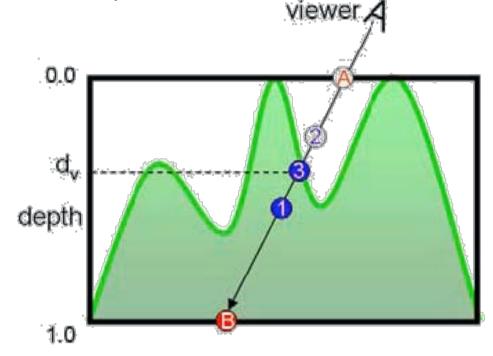








- A has a depth value of 0 and B has a depth value of 1.0.
- •At each step, compute the midpoint of the current interval and assign it the average depth and texture coordinates of the end points. (used to access the depth map).
- •If the stored depth is smaller than the computed value, the point along the ray is inside the height-field surface (point 1).
- •In this case it takes three iterations to find the intersection between the height-field and the ray



•However, the binary search may lead to incorrect results if the viewing ray intersects the height-field surface more than once

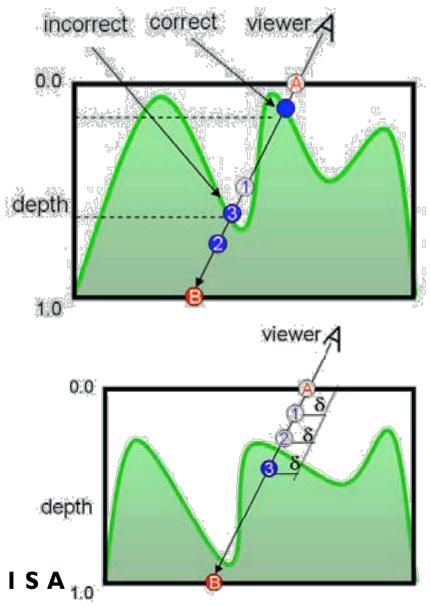




•However, the binary search may lead to incorrect results if the viewing ray intersects the height-field surface more than once:

•In this situation, since the value computed at 1 is less than the value taken from the height-field, the search will continue down.

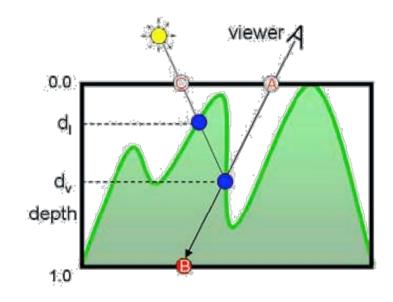
•In order to remedy this, the algorithm starts with a linear search





The technique can also handle surface self-shadowing:

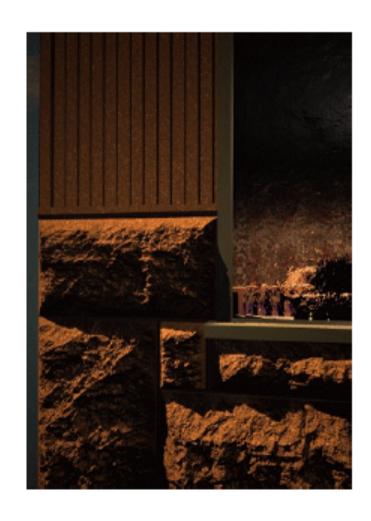
•We must decide if the light ray intersects the height-field surface between point C and the point where the viewing ray first hits the surface.







- Image from:
 Geometry Caching
 for
 Ray-Tracing
 Displacement Maps
- by Matt Pharr and Pat Hanrahan.
- note the detailed shadows cast by the stones







Bump Mapping combined with texture





