6. Ray Tracing

Geometric optics

Modern theories of light treat it as both a wave and a particle.

We will take a combined and somewhat simpler view of light – the view of geometric optics.

Here are the rules of geometric optics:

- Light is a flow of photons with wavelengths. We'll call these flows "light rays."
- Light rays travel in straight lines in free space.
- Light rays do not interfere with each other as they cross.
- Light rays obey the laws of reflection and refraction.
- Light rays travel from the light sources to the eye, but the physics is invariant under path reversal (reciprocity).

Synthetic pinhole camera

The most common imaging model in graphics is the synthetic pinhole camera: light rays are collected through an infinitesimally small hole and recorded on an image plane.

For convenience, the image plane is usually placed in front of the camera, giving a non-inverted imaging.

Viewing rays emanate from the center of projection (COP) at the center of the lens (or pinhole).

The image of an object point P is at the intersection of the viewing ray through P and the image plane.

Reading

Required:

- Watt, sections 1.3-1.4, 12.1-12.5.1.
- T. Whitted. An improved illumination model for shaded display. Communications of the ACM 23(6), 343-349, 1980. [In the reader.]

Further reading:

Eye vs. light ray tracing

Where does light begin?

At the light: light ray tracing (a.k.a., forward ray tracing or photon tracing)

At the eye: eye ray tracing (a.k.a., backward ray tracing)

We will generally follow rays from the eye into the scene.

Precursors to ray tracing

Local illumination

- Cast one eye ray, then shade according to light

Appel (1968)

- Cast one eye ray + one ray to light

Whitted ray-tracing algorithm

In 1980, Turner Whitted introduced ray tracing to the graphics community.

- Combines eye ray tracing + rays to light
- Recursively traces rays

Algorithm:

1. For each pixel, trace a primary ray in direction $V$ to the first visible surface.
2. For each intersection, trace secondary rays:
   - Shadow rays in directions $L$, to light sources
   - Reflected ray in direction $R$.
   - Refracted ray or transmitted ray in direction $T$.

Whitted algorithm (cont'd)

Let's look at this in stages:
Shading

A ray is defined by an origin $P$ and a unit direction $d$ and is parameterized by $t$:

$$ P + td $$

Let $I(P, d)$ be the intensity seen along that ray. Then:

$$ I(P, d) = I_{\text{direct}} + I_{\text{reflected}} + I_{\text{transmitted}} $$

where

- $I_{\text{direct}}$ is computed from the Phong model
- $I_{\text{reflected}} = k_r I(Q, R)$
- $I_{\text{transmitted}} = k_t I(Q, T)$

Typically, we set $k_r = k_s$ and $k_t = 1 - k_s$.

Reflection and transmission

Law of reflection:

$$ \theta_i = \theta_r $$

Snell’s law of refraction:

$$ \eta_i \sin \theta_i = \eta_r \sin \theta_t $$

where $\eta_i$, $\eta_r$ are indices of refraction.

Total Internal Reflection

The equation for the angle of refraction can be computed from Snell’s law:

What happens when $\eta_i > \eta_r$?

When $\theta_t$ is exactly 90°, we say that $\theta_t$ has achieved the “critical angle” $\theta_c$.

For $\theta_t > \theta_c$, no rays are transmitted, and only reflection occurs, a phenomenon known as “total internal reflection” or TIR.

Error in Watt!!

In order to compute the refracted direction, it is useful to compute the cosine of the angle of refraction in terms of the incident angle and the ratio of the indices of refraction.

On page 24 of Watt, he develops a formula for computing this cosine. Notationally, he uses $\mu$ instead of $\eta$ for the index of refraction in the text, but uses $\eta$ in Figure 1.16(?), and the angle of incidence is $\phi$ and the angle of refraction is $\theta$.

Unfortunately, he makes a grave error in computing $\cos \theta$. He also has some errors in the figures on the same page.

Consult the errata for important corrections!
Ray-tracing pseudocode

We build a ray traced image by casting rays through each of the pixels.

function traceImage (scene):
    for each pixel (i,j) in image
        S = pixelToWorld(i,j)
        P = COP
        d = (S - P)/||S - P||
        l(i,j) = traceRay(scene, P, d)
    end for
end function

Ray-tracing pseudocode, cont’d

function traceRay(scene, P, d):
    (t, N, mtrl) ← scene.intersect (P, d)
    Q ← ray (P, d) evaluated at t
    l = shade(q, N, mtrl, scene)
    R = reflectDirection(N, -d)
    l ← l + mtrl.K_r * traceRay(scene, Q, R)
    if ray is entering object then
        n_i = index_of_air
        n_t = mtrl.index
    else
        n_i = mtrl.index
        n_t = index_of_air
    if (mtrl.K_t > 0 and notTIR(n_i, n_t, N, -d)) then
        T = refractDirection(n_i, n_t, N, -d)
        l ← l + mtrl.K_t * traceRay(scene, Q, T)
    end if
    return l
end function

Terminating recursion

Q: How do you bottom out of recursive ray tracing?

Possibilities:

Shading pseudocode

Next, we need to calculate the color returned by the shade function.

function shade(mtrl, scene, Q, N, d):
    l ← mtrl.K_e + mtrl.K_a * scene->I_a
    for each light source ℓ do:
        atten = ℓ -> distanceAttenuation(Q) *
        ℓ -> shadowAttenuation(scene, Q )
        l ← l + atten*(diffuse term + spec term)
    end for
    return l
end function
Shadow attenuation

Computing a shadow can be as simple as checking to see if a ray makes it to the light source.
For a point light source:

```cpp
function PointLight::shadowAttenuation(scene, P)
    \( d = (\ell \cdot \text{position} - P).\text{normalize()} \)
    \((t, N, mtrl) \leftarrow \text{scene.intersect}(P, d)\)
    \(Q \leftarrow \text{ray}(t)\)
    \text{if } Q \text{ is before the light source}:
        \text{atten} = 0
    \text{else}:
        \text{atten} = 1
    \text{end if}
end function
```

Q: What if there are transparent objects along a path to the light source?

Ray-plane intersection

We can write the equation of a plane as:

\[
ax + by + cz + d = 0
\]

The coefficients \(a, b,\) and \(c\) form a vector that is normal to the plane, \(n = [a\ b\ c]^T\). Thus, we can rewrite the plane equation as:

We can solve for the intersection parameter (and thus the point):

Ray-triangle intersection

To intersect with a triangle, we first solve for the equation of its supporting plane:

Then, we need to decide if the point is inside or outside of the triangle.

Solution 1: compute barycentric coordinates from 3D points.

What do you do with the barycentric coordinates?

Solution 2: project down a dimension and compute barycentric coordinates from 2D points.

Why is solution 2 possible? Why is it legal? Why is it desirable? Which axis should you “project away”?
Interpolating vertex properties

The barycentric coordinates can also be used to interpolate vertex properties such as:

- material properties
- texture coordinates
- normals

For example:

\[ k_d(Q) = \alpha k_d(A) + \beta k_d(B) + \gamma k_d(C) \]

Interpolating normals, known as Phong interpolation, gives triangle meshes a smooth shading appearance. (Note: don’t forget to normalize interpolated normals.)

Epsilons

Due to finite precision arithmetic, we do not always get the exact intersection at a surface.

Q: What kinds of problems might this cause?

Q: How might we resolve this?

Intersecting with xformed geometry

In general, objects will be placed using transformations. What if the object being intersected were transformed by a matrix \( M \)?

Apply \( M^{-1} \) to the ray first and intersect in object (local) coordinates!

Intersecting with xformed geometry

The intersected normal is in object (local) coordinates. How do we transform it to world coordinates?