

6.2 Bump Mapping & Clipping



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Bump Mapping

A long time ago, in 1978

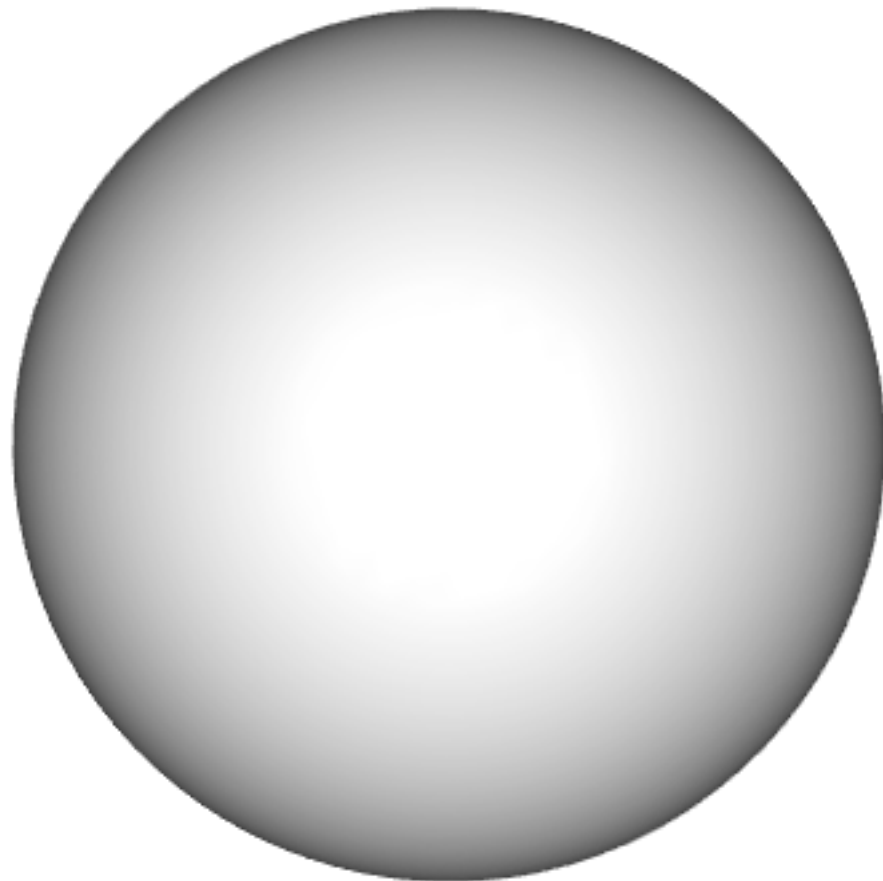


... bump mapping was born



courtesy by ZBrush

For Meshes



vertex normal interpolation

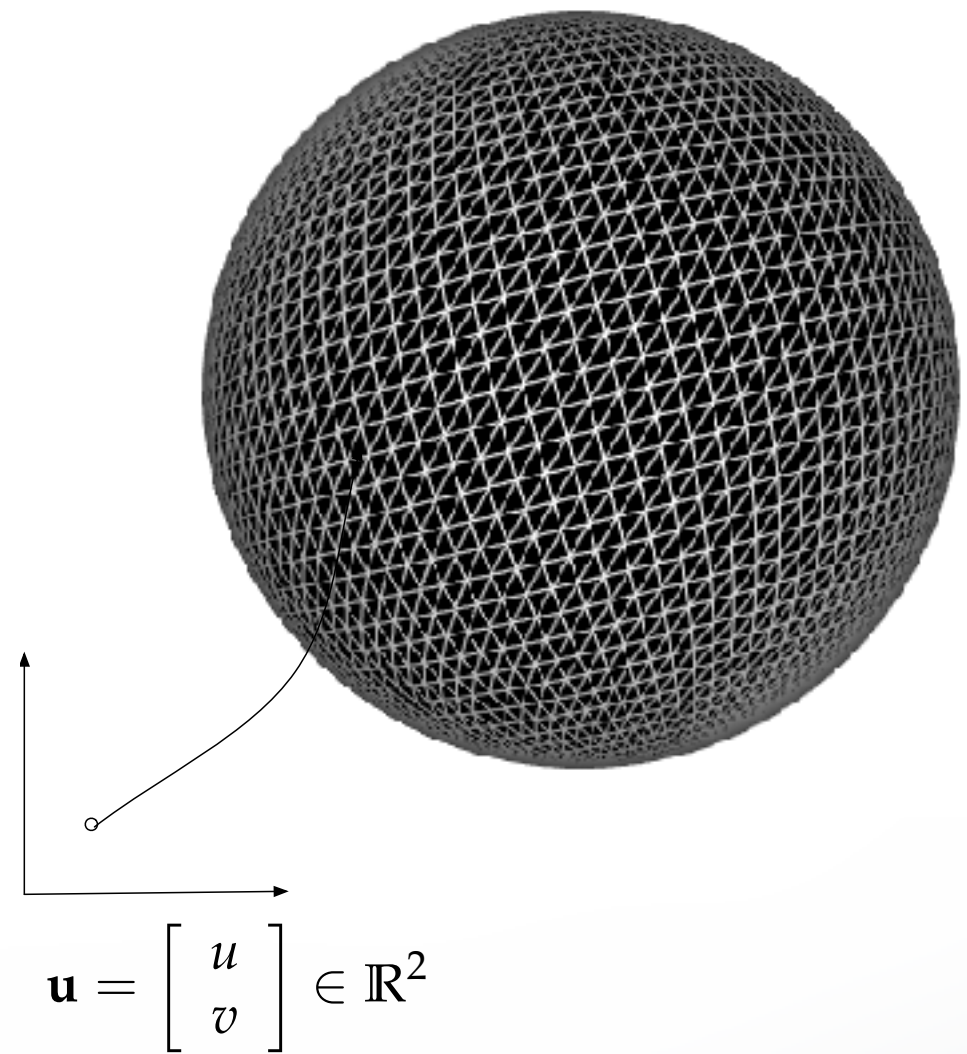
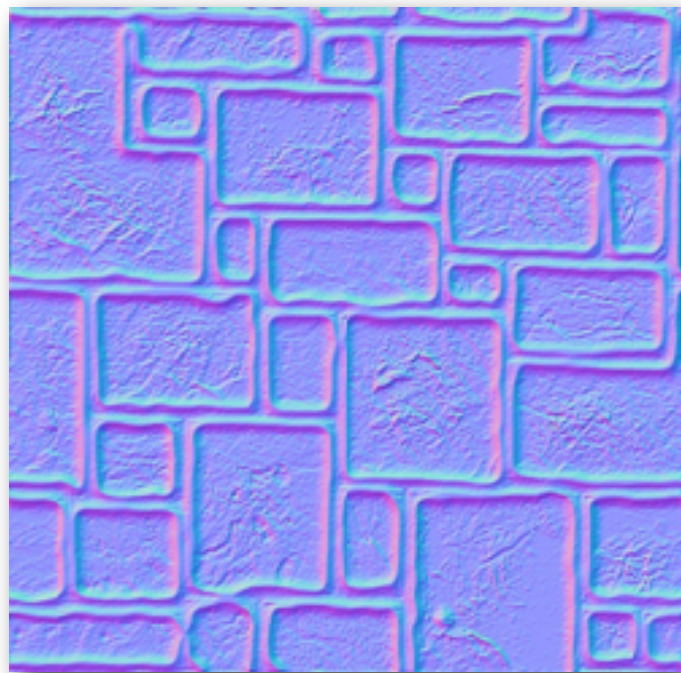


smooth shading

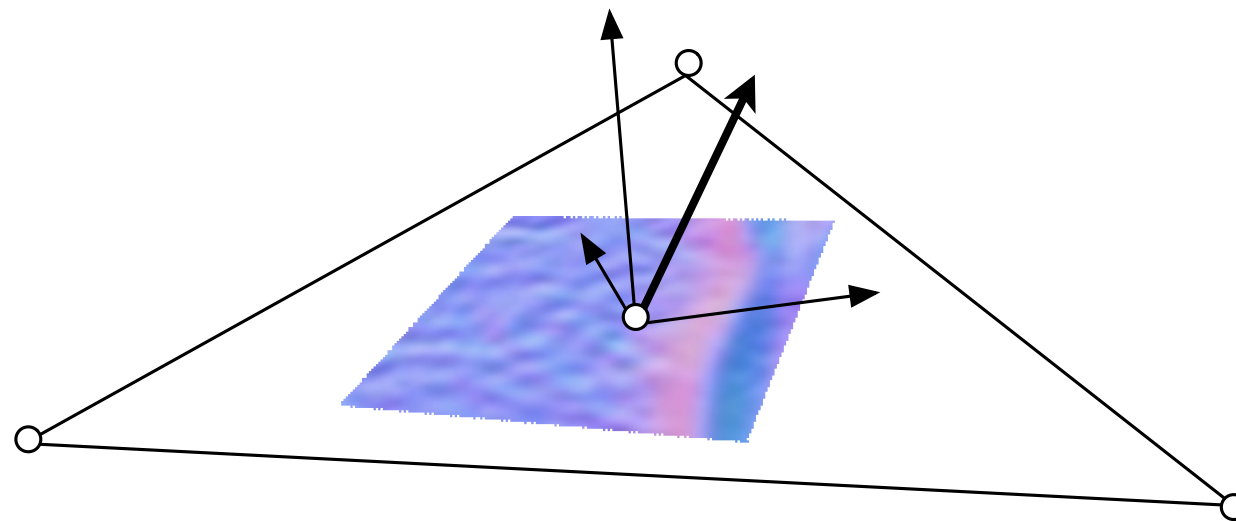
What about
accessing **textures** to modify **surface normals**...

Goal

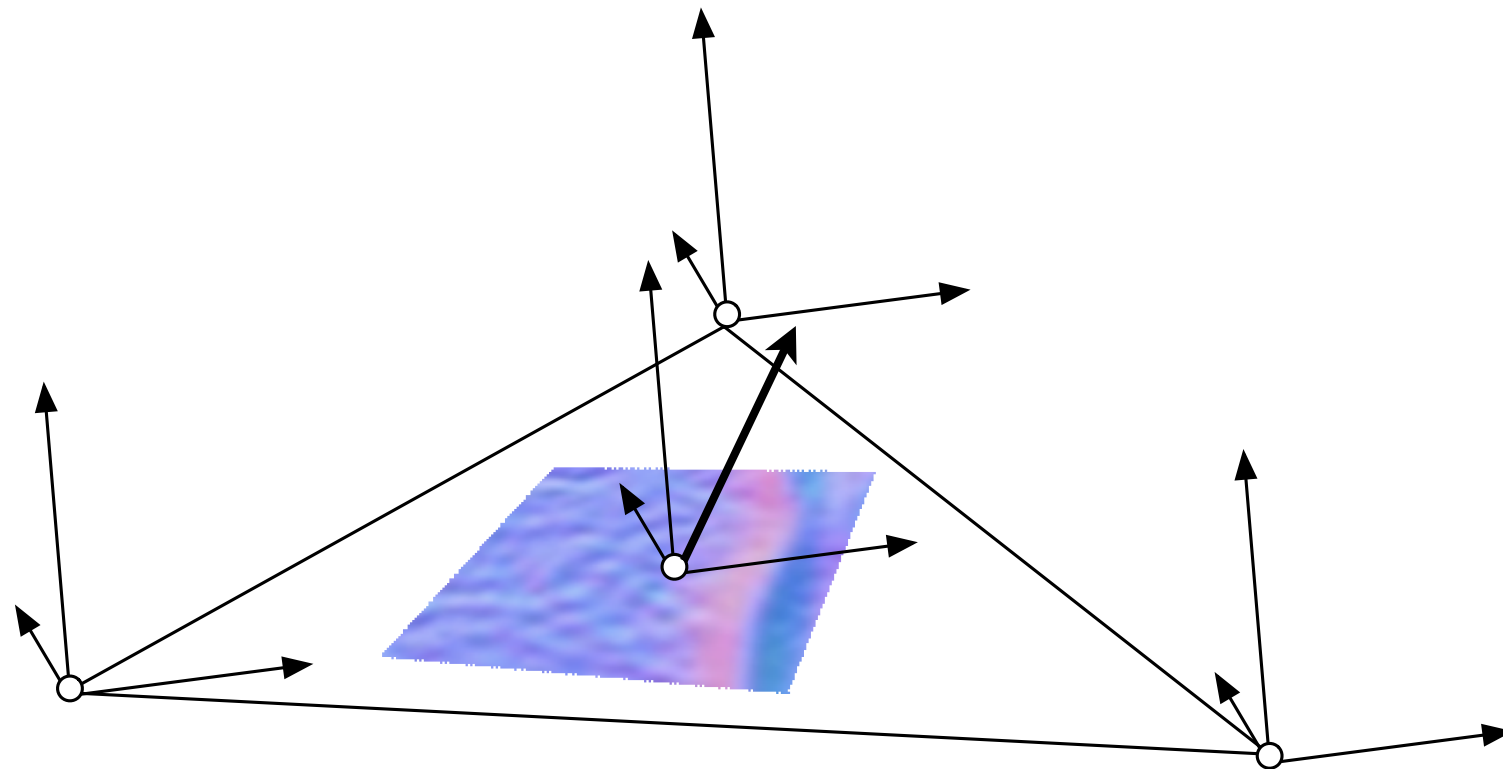
Use **bump map normals** given a **parametrized mesh**



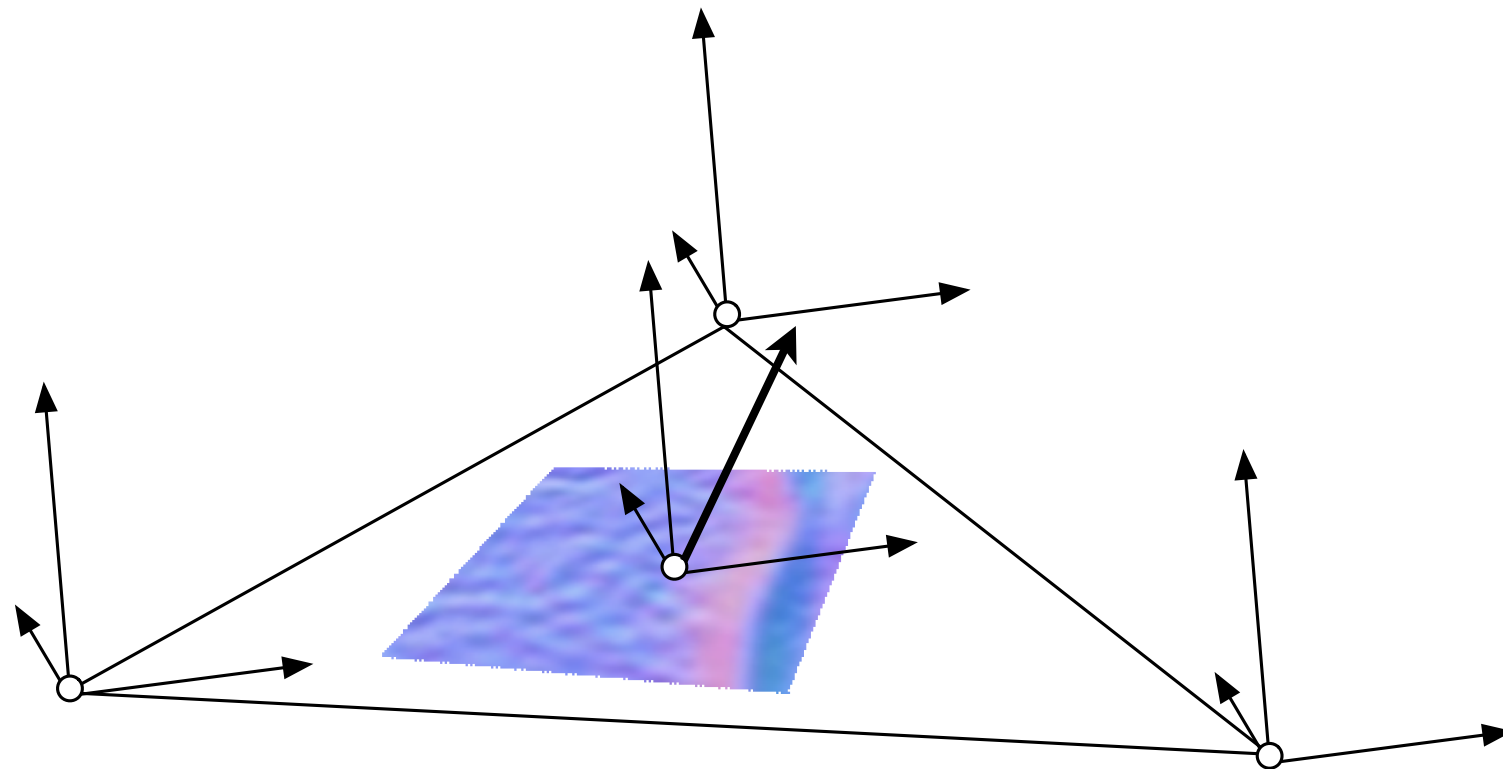
Bump map normals
are defined in a **local coordinate frame**
inside a triangle



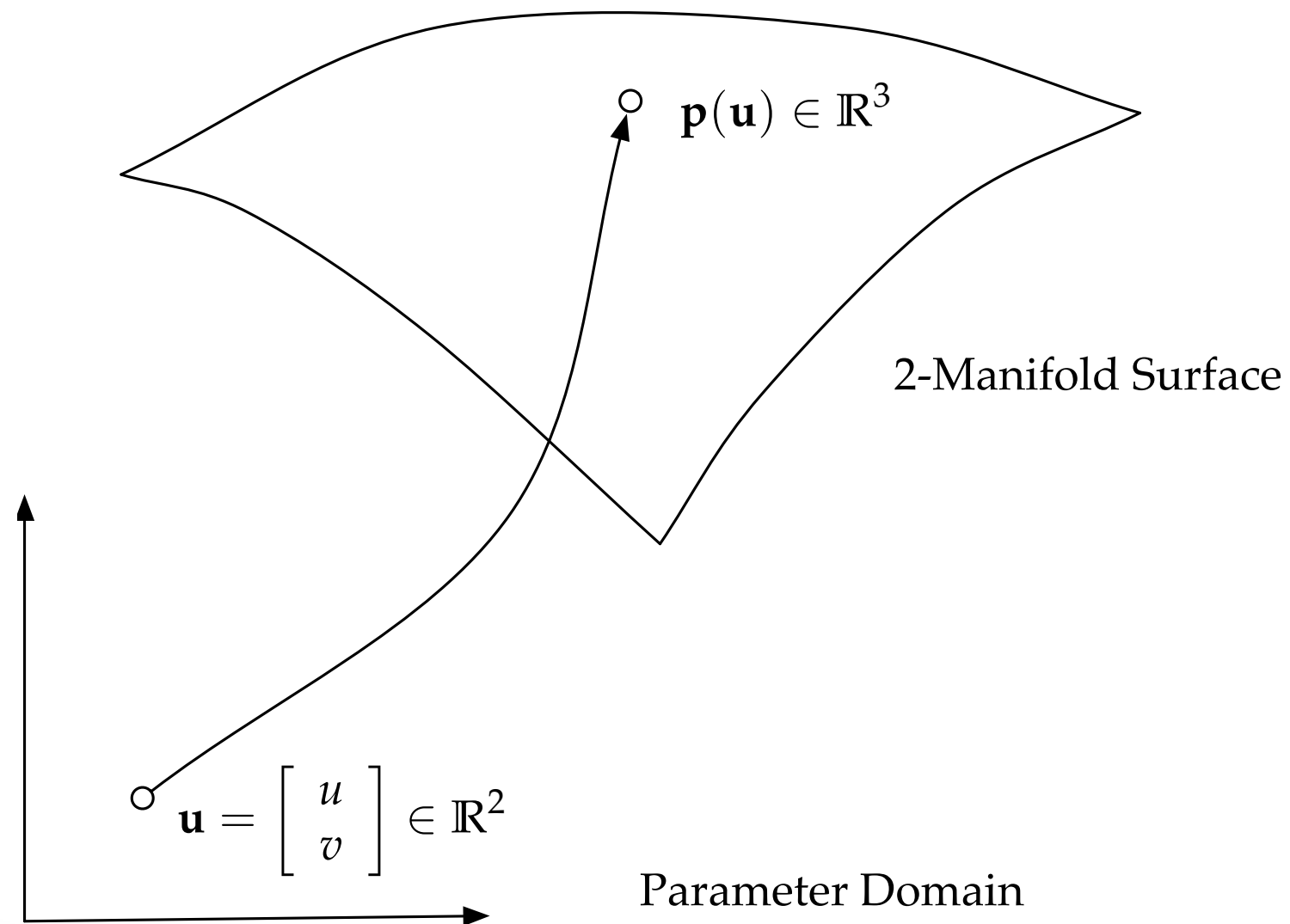
We have **positions**, **normals** and **parameters**
of the triangle corners



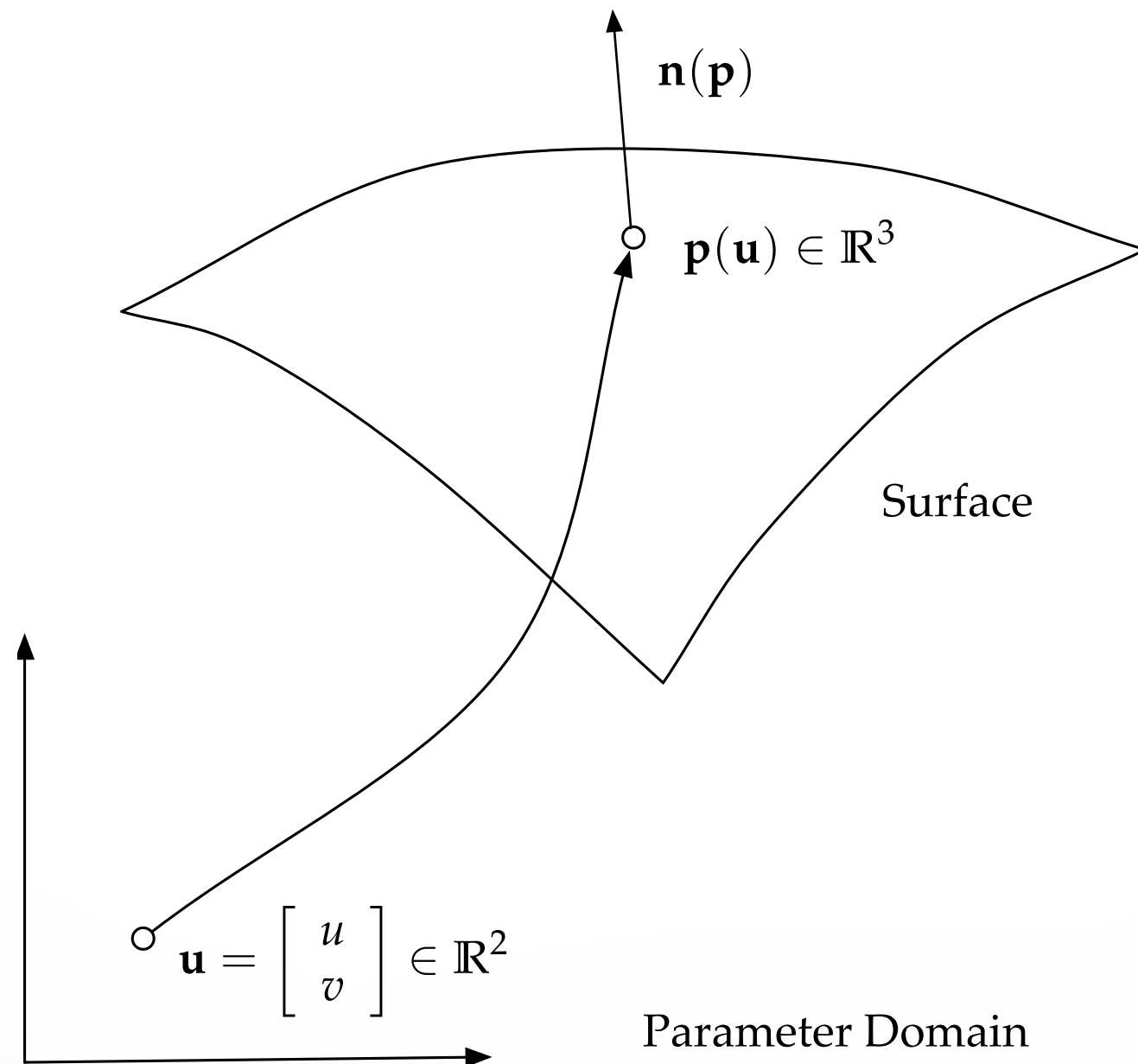
How do we obtain coordinate frame?



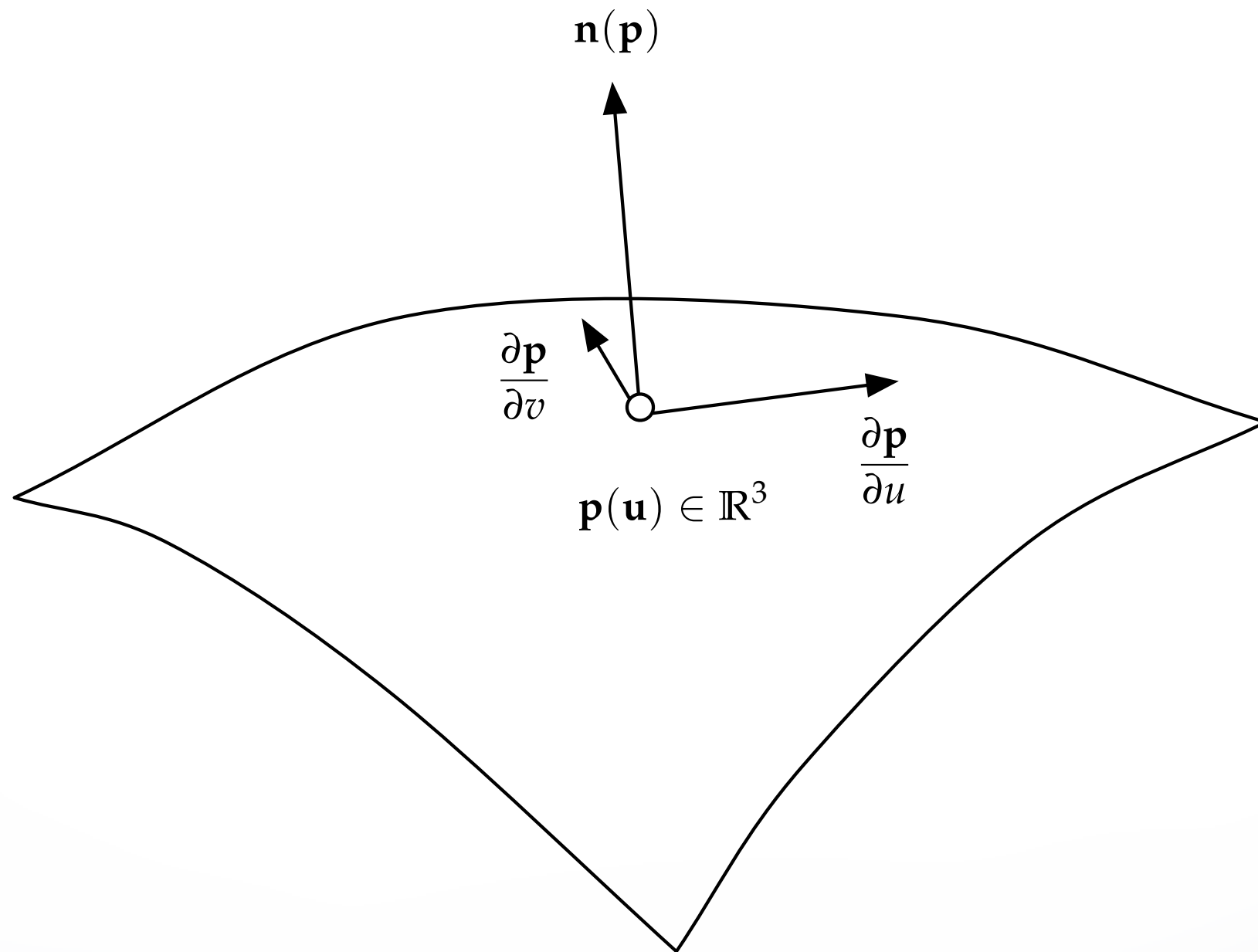
Some Differential Geometry



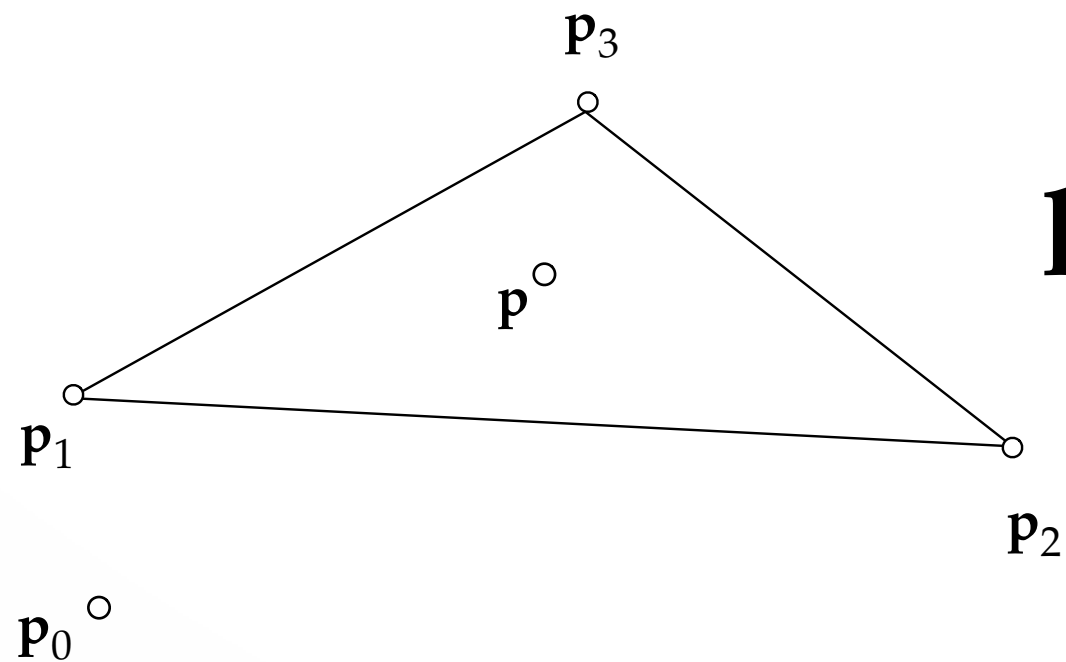
Surface normals for shading



Surface normals obtained from tangent space



Tangent vectors inside triangles



$$\mathbf{p}_i = \mathbf{p}_0 + u_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} + v_i \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v}$$

Fully determined from positions and parameters

we are not interested in \mathbf{p}_0

$$\mathbf{p}_2 - \mathbf{p}_1 = (u_2 - u_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} + (v_2 - v_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v}$$

$$\mathbf{p}_3 - \mathbf{p}_1 = (u_3 - u_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} + (v_3 - v_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v}$$

2x2 Matrix Inversion

$$\mathbf{p}_2 - \mathbf{p}_1 = (u_2 - u_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} + (v_2 - v_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v}$$

$$\mathbf{p}_3 - \mathbf{p}_1 = (u_3 - u_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} + (v_3 - v_1) \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v}$$

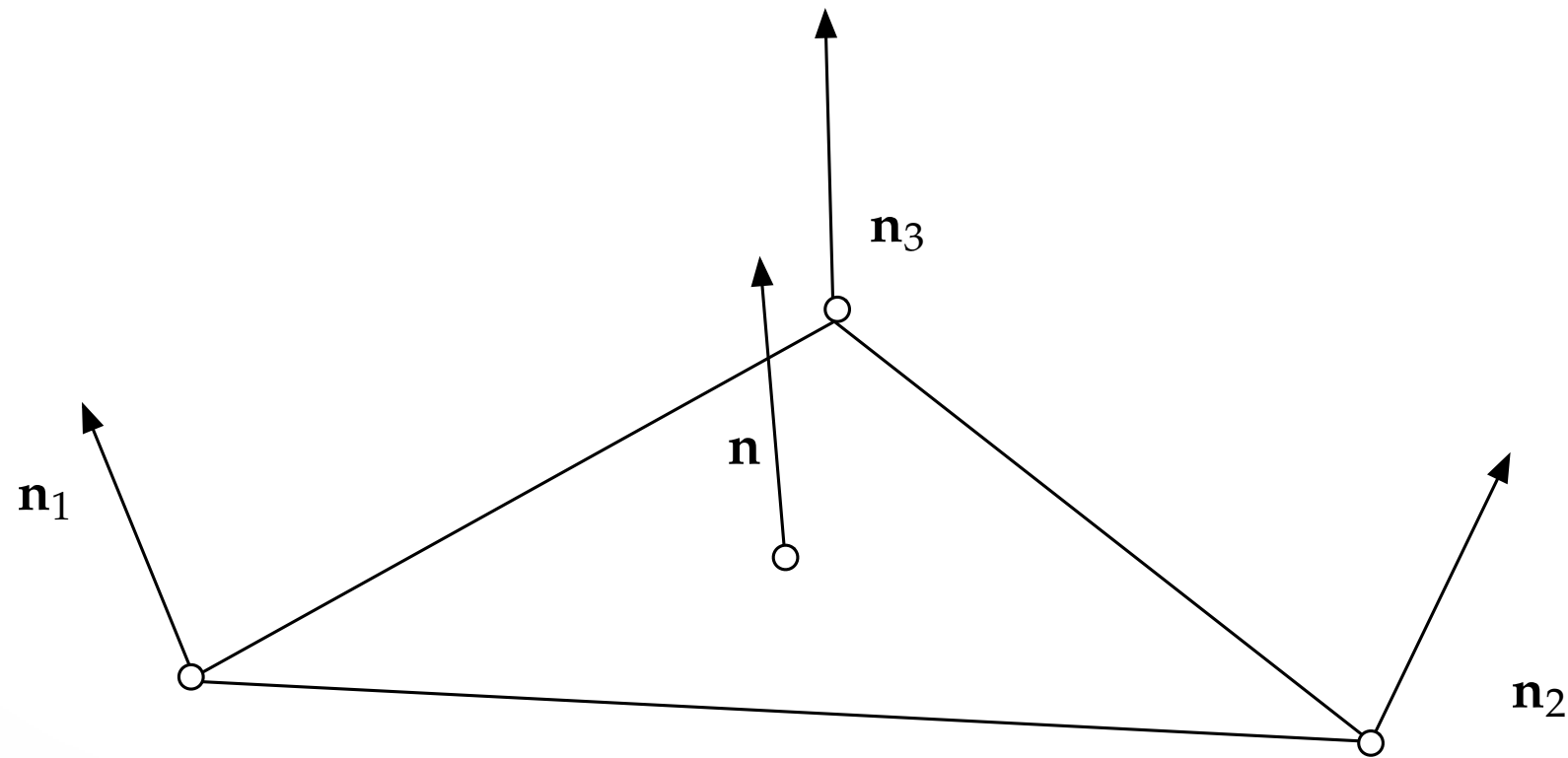


$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{p}_2 - \mathbf{p}_1 & \mathbf{p}_3 - \mathbf{p}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (u_2 - u_1) & (u_3 - u_1) \\ (v_2 - v_1) & (v_3 - v_1) \end{bmatrix}$$

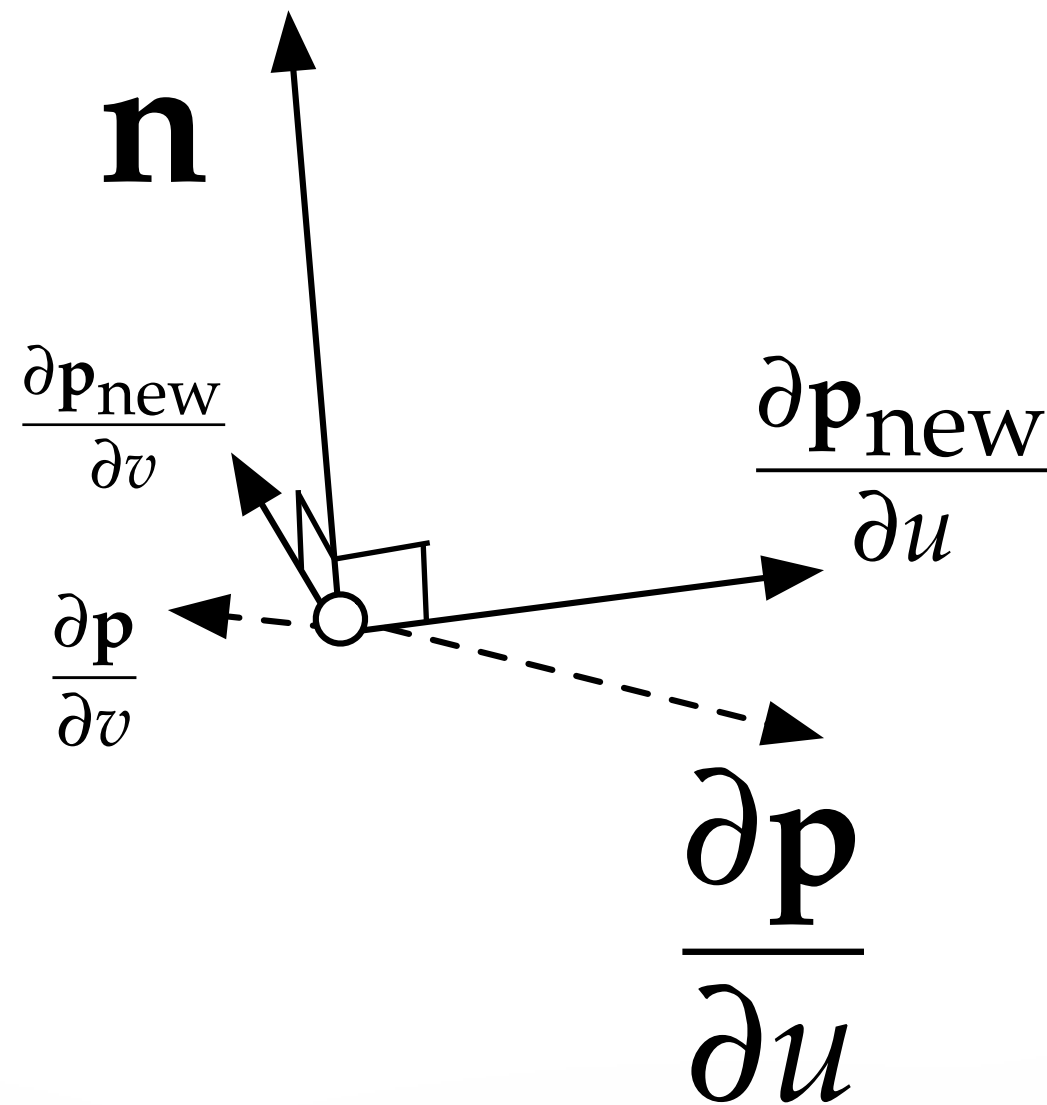
correct if mesh is planar

Normals Interpolation (see Phong Shading)

$$\mathbf{n} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{n}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{n}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{n}_3 \quad \text{from} \quad \mathbf{p} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{p}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{p}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{p}_3$$



Tangent vectors orthogonal to normal



We now have an **inexpensive way** to add
geometric details

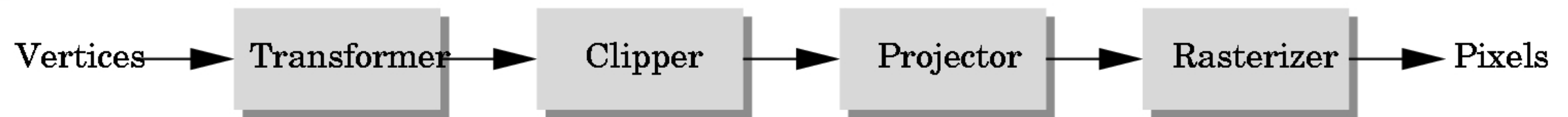
Other bump mapping techniques exist

Further Readings

- “Simulation of Wrinkled Surfaces” [Blinn 1978]
- “Real-Time Rendering” [Akenine-Möller and Haines 2002] p.166 – 177

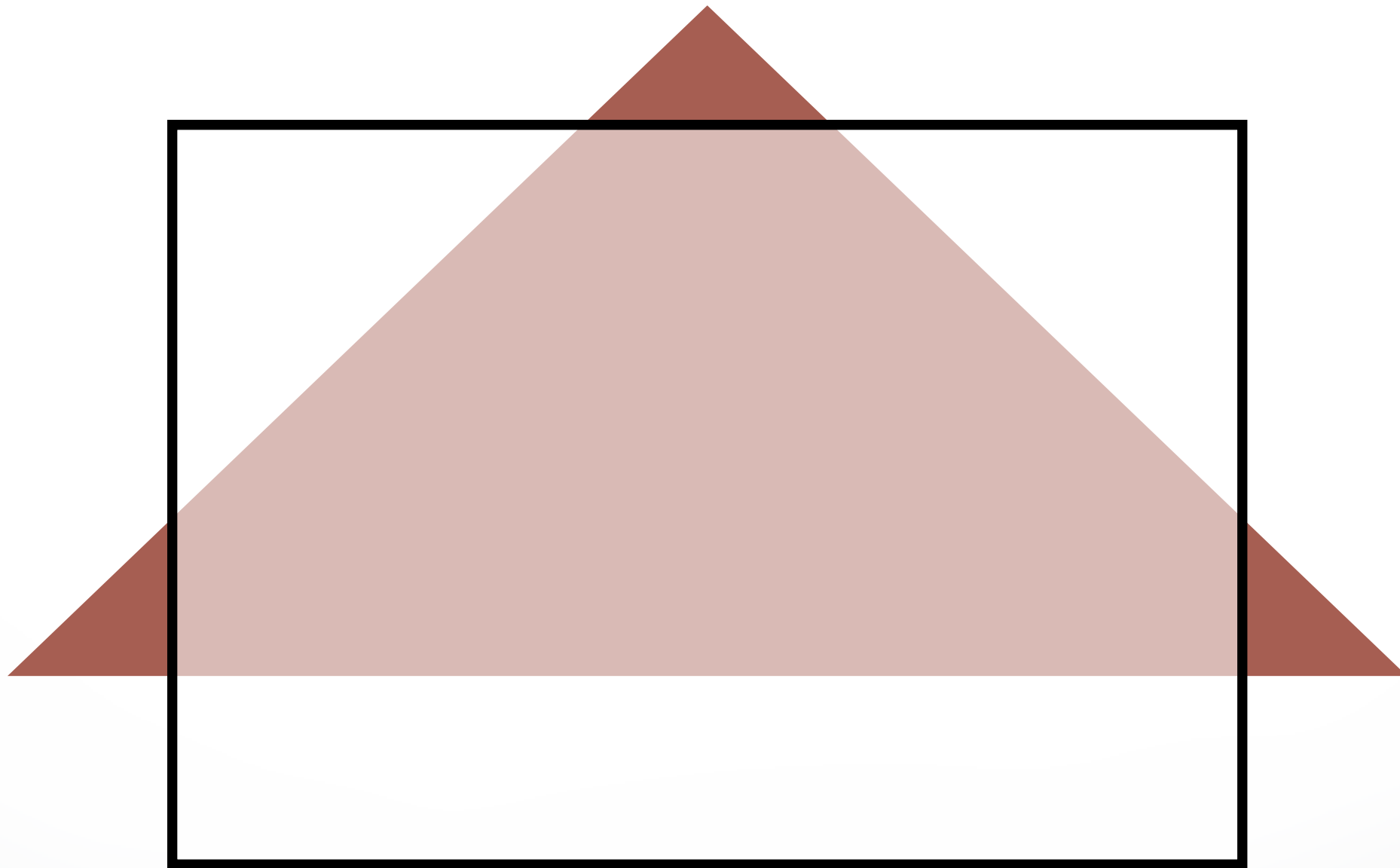
Clipping

The Graphics Pipeline, Revisited



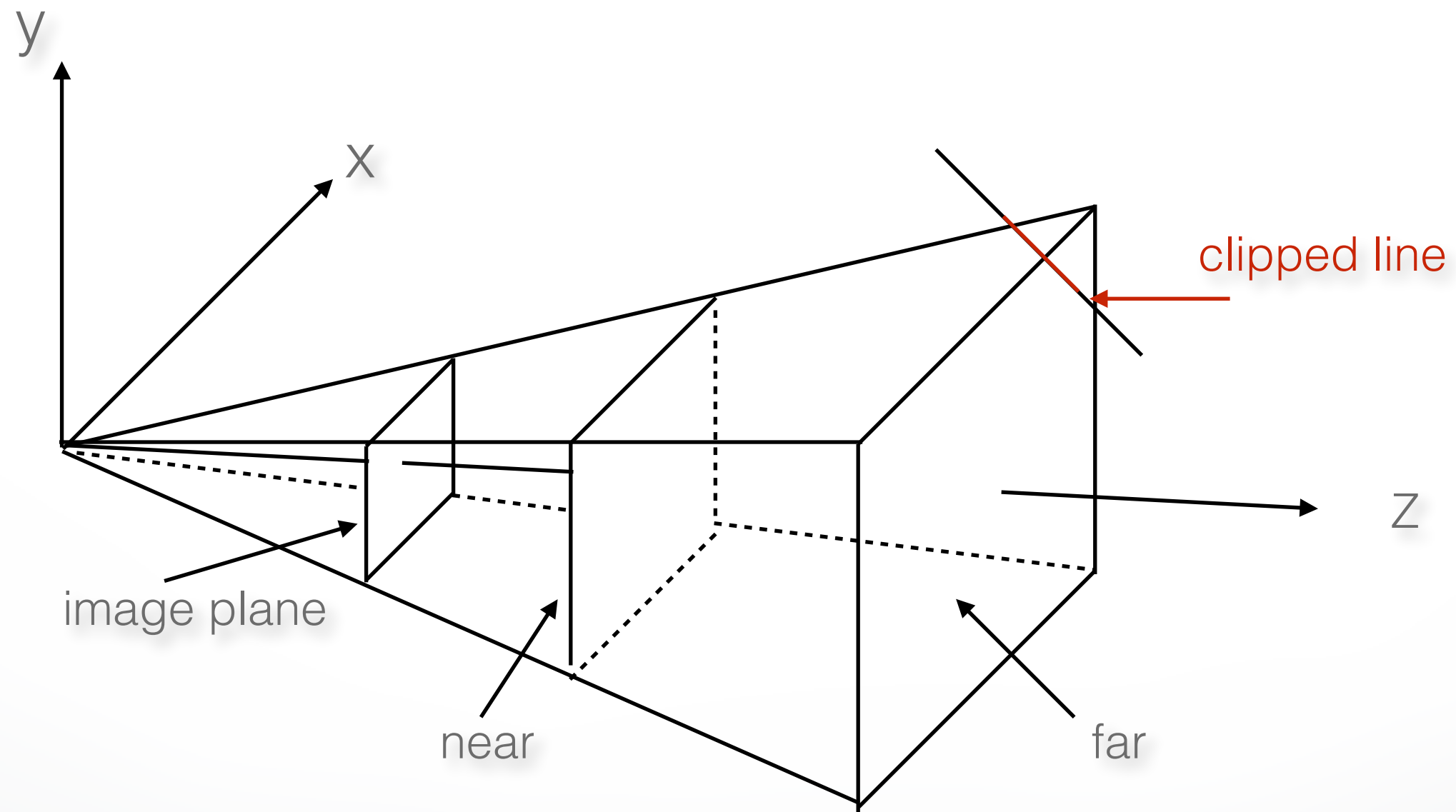
- Must eliminate objects that are outside of viewing frustum
- **Clipping**: object space (eye coordinates)
- **Scissoring**: image space (pixels in frame buffer)
 - most often less efficient than clipping
- We will first discuss **2D clipping** (for simplicity)
 - OpenGL uses 3D clipping

2D Clipping Problem



Clipping Against a Frustum

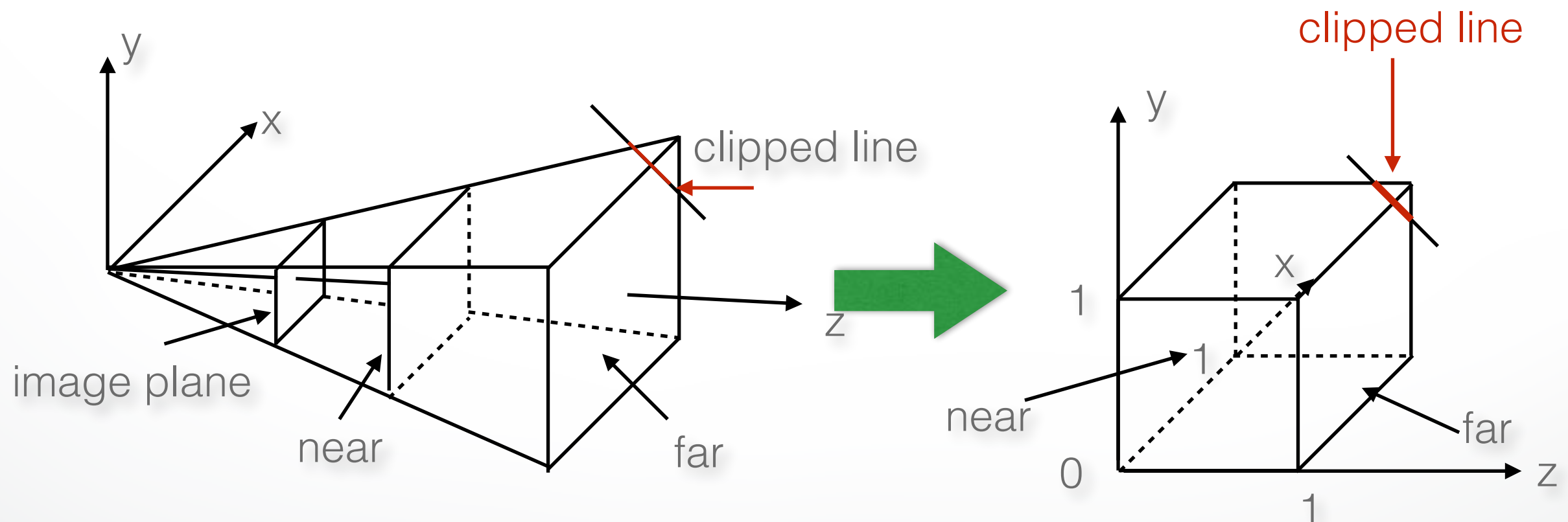
- General case of frustum (truncated pyramid)



- Clipping is tricky because of frustum shape

Perspective Normalization

- Solution:
 - Implement perspective projection by **perspective normalization** and orthographic projection
 - Perspective normalization is a homogeneous transformation



The Normalized Frustum

- OpenGL uses $-1 \leq x, y, z \leq 1$ (others possible)
- Clip against resulting cube
- Clipping against arbitrary (programmer-specified) planes requires more general algorithms and is more expensive

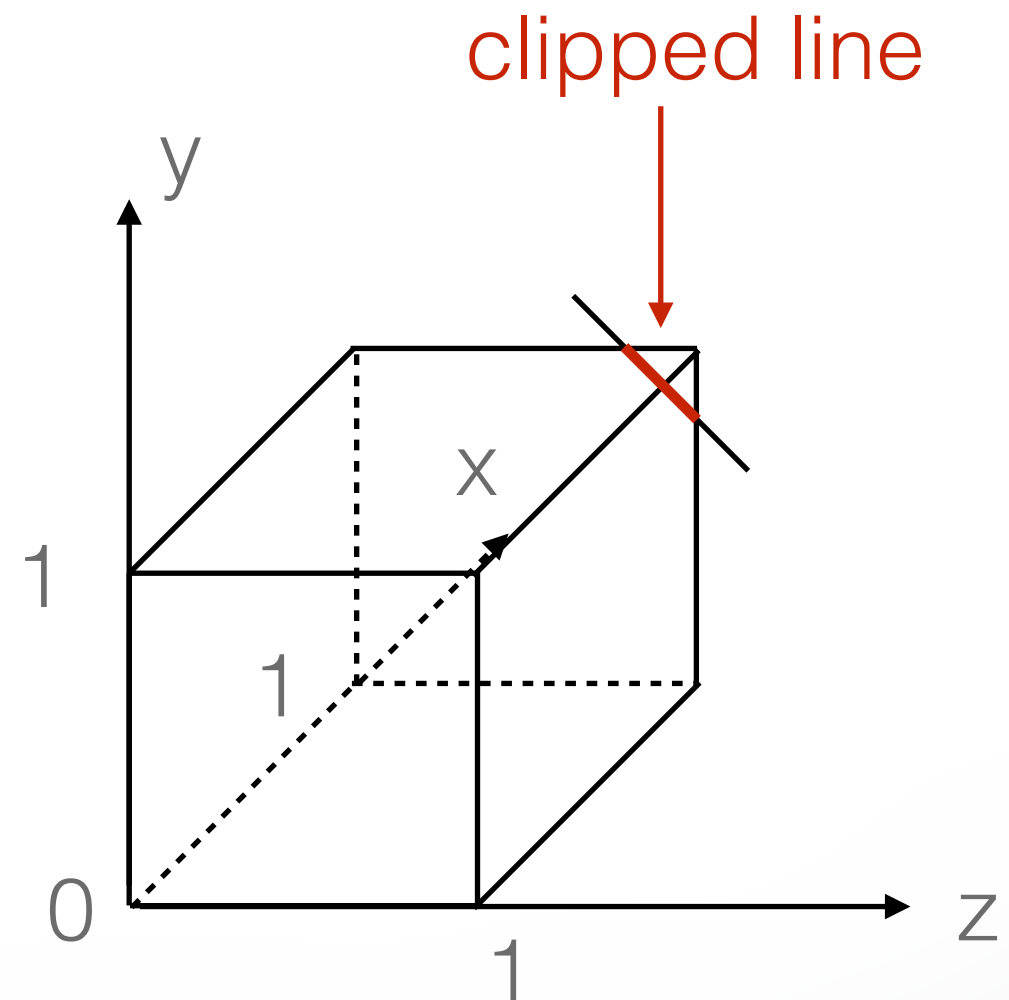
The Viewport Transformation

- Transformation sequence again:
 1. **Camera**: From object coordinates to eye coords
 2. **Perspective normalization**: to clip coordinates
 3. **Clipping**
 4. **Perspective division**: to normalized device coords
 5. **Orthographic projection** (setting $z_p = 0$)
 6. **Viewport transformation**: to screen coordinates
- Viewport transformation can distort
 - Solution: pass the correct window aspect ratio to `gluPerspective`

Clipping

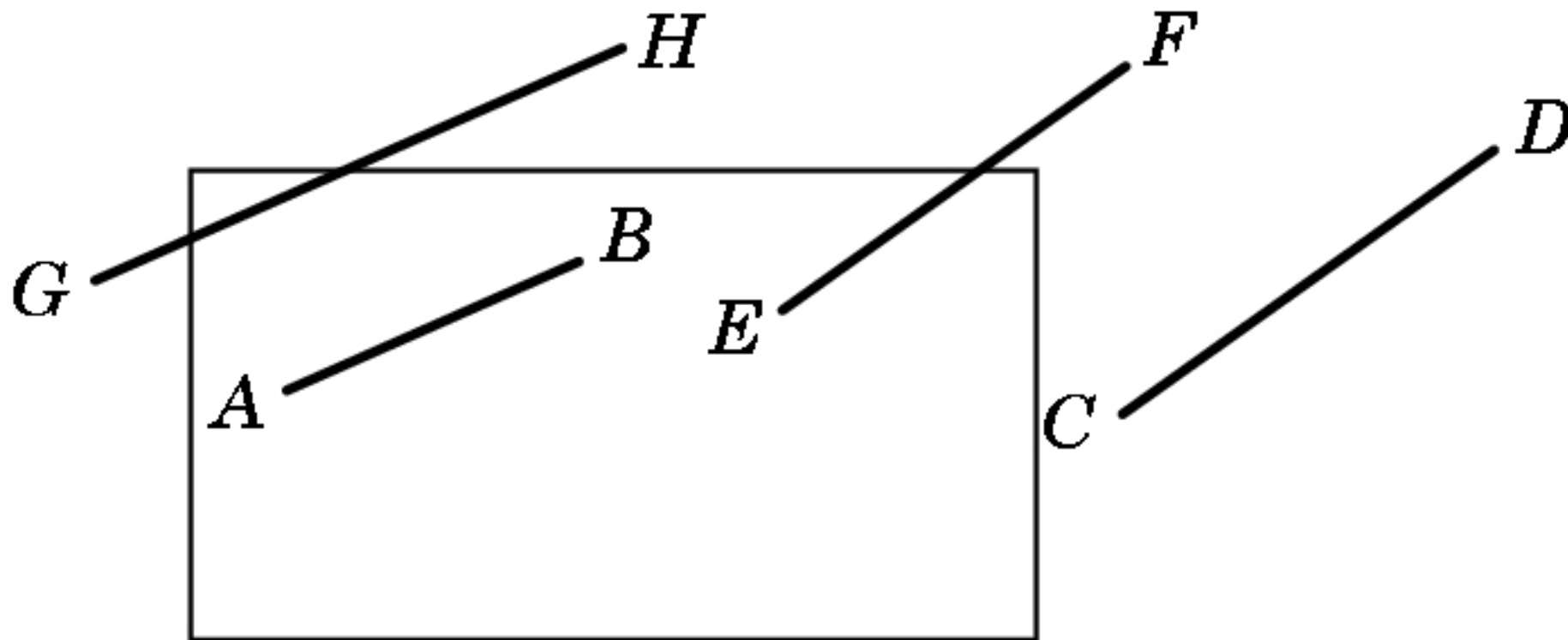
- General: 3D object against cube

- Simpler case:
 - In 2D: line against square or rectangle
 - Later: polygon clipping



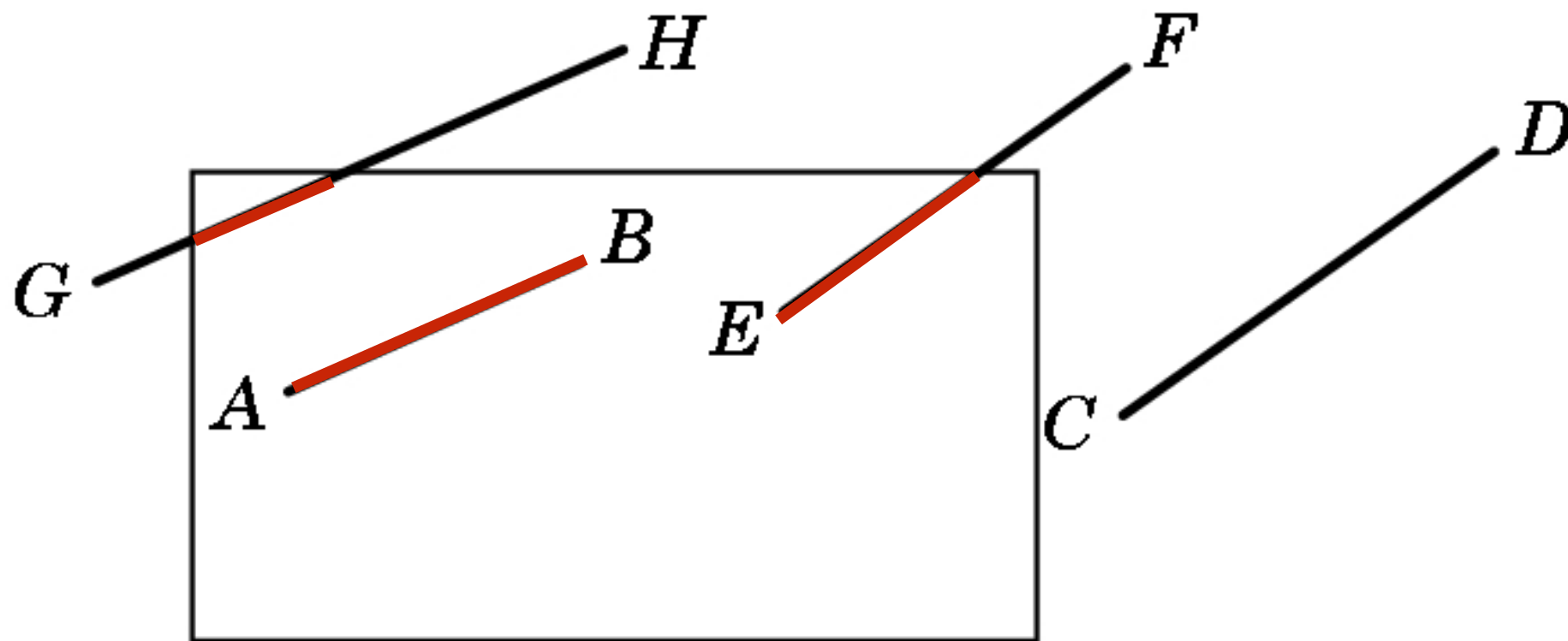
Clipping Against Rectangle in 2D

- **Line-segment clipping**: modify endpoints of lines to lie within clipping rectangle



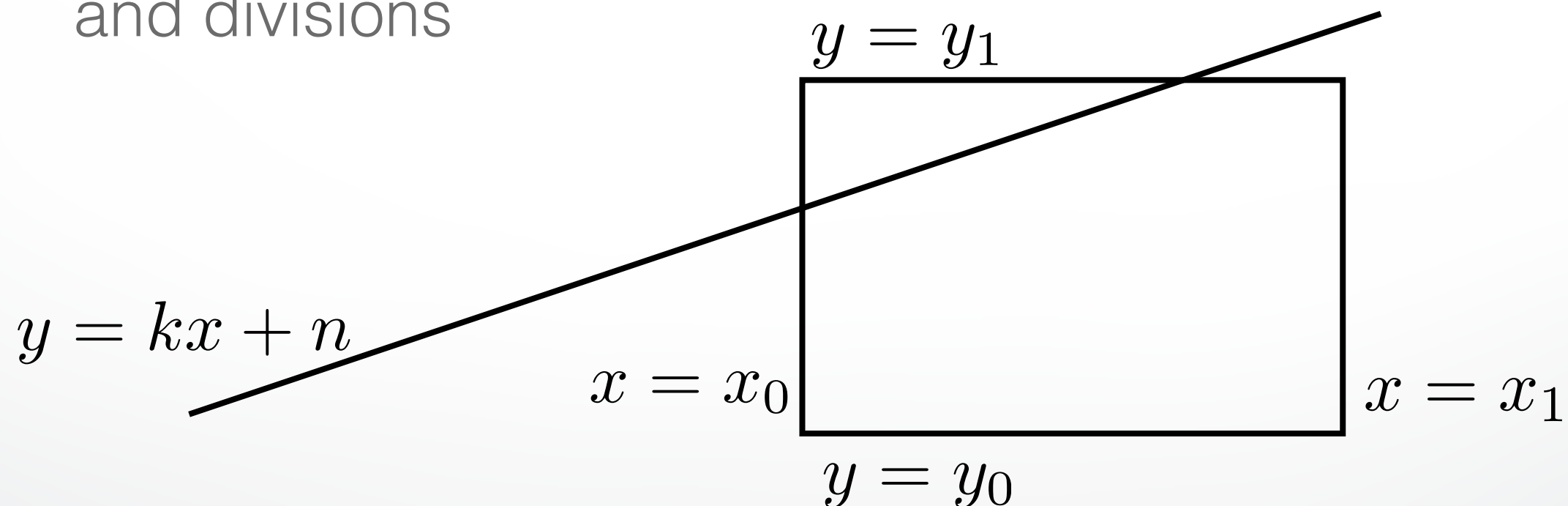
Clipping Against Rectangle in 2D

- The result (in red)



Clipping Against Rectangle in 2D

- Could calculate intersections of line segments with clipping rectangle
 - expensive, due to floating point multiplications and divisions
- Want to minimize the number of multiplications and divisions

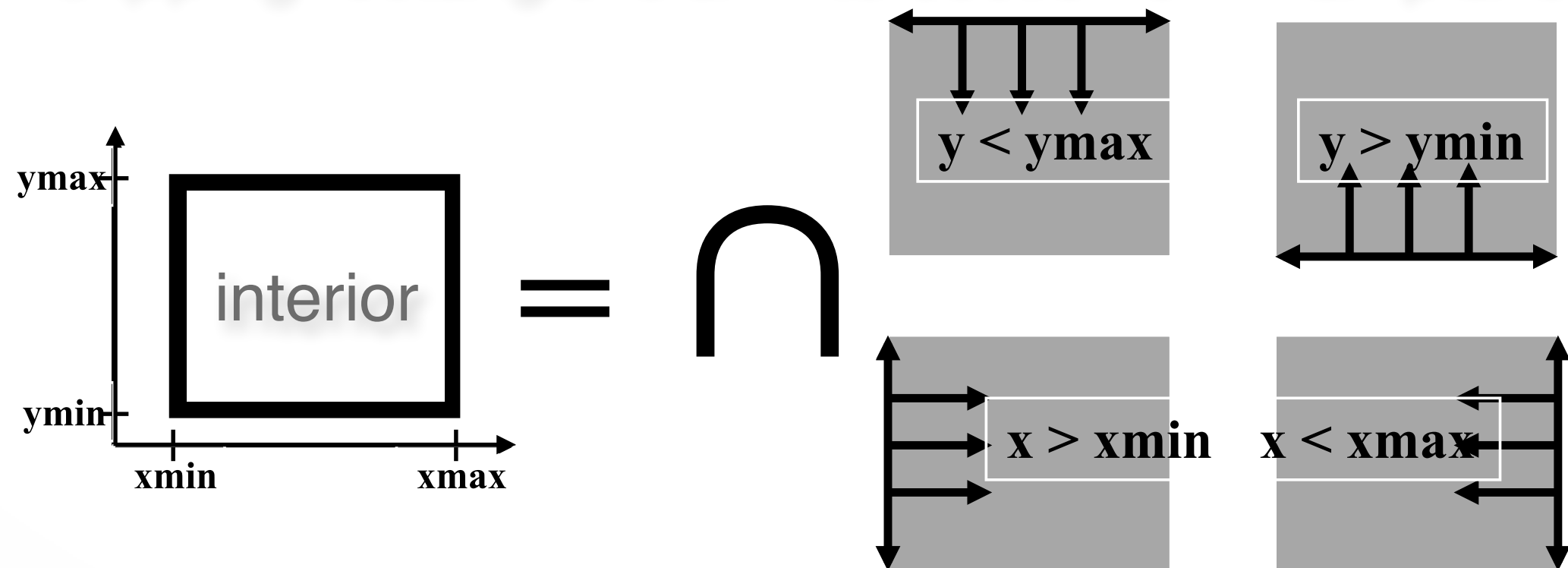


Several practical algorithms for clipping

- Main motivation:
Avoid expensive line-rectangle intersections
(which require floating point divisions)
- Cohen-Sutherland Clipping
- Liang-Barsky Clipping
- There are many more
(but many only work in 2D)

Cohen-Sutherland Clipping

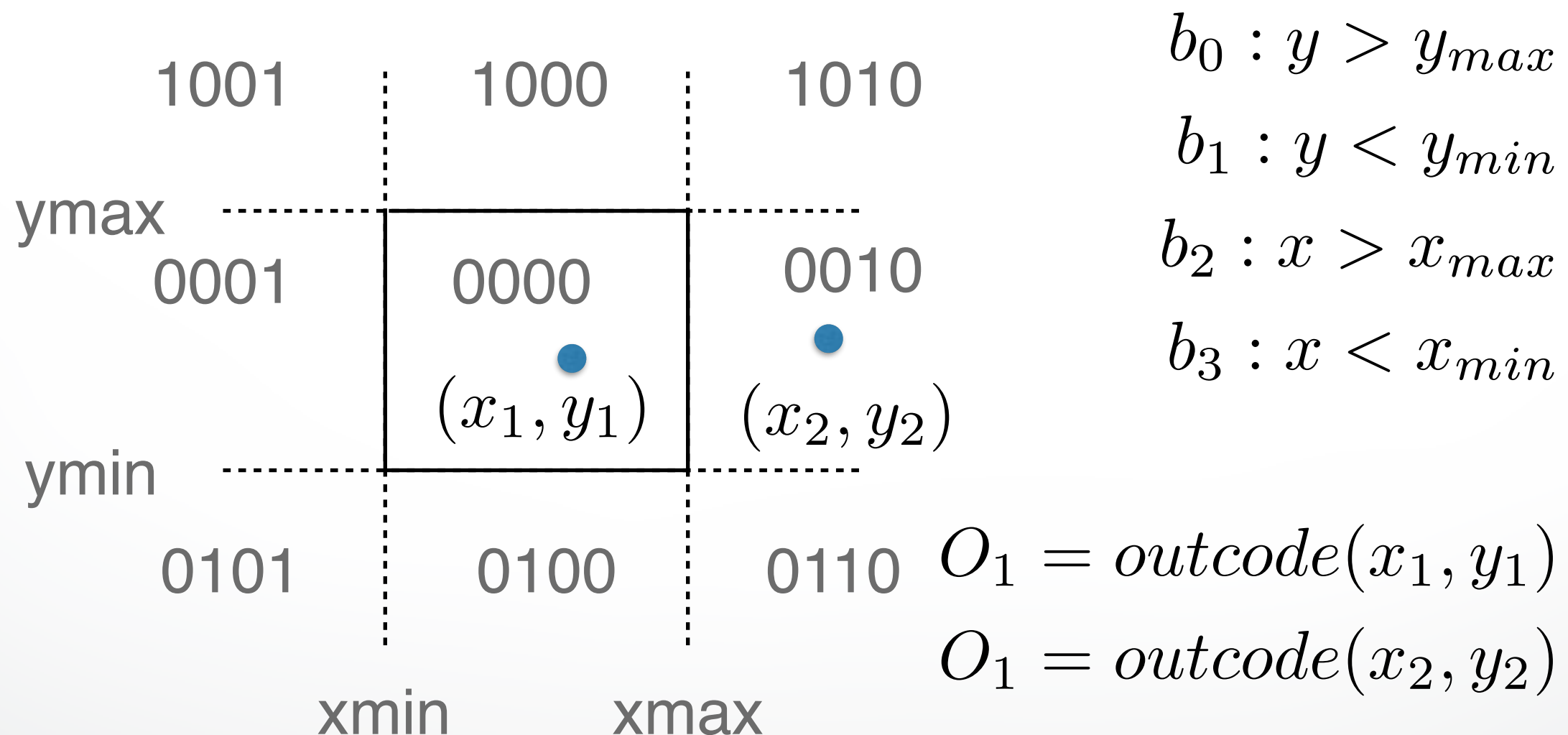
- Clipping rectangle is an intersection of 4 half-planes



- Encode results of four half-plane tests
- Generalizes to 3 dimensions (6 half-planes)

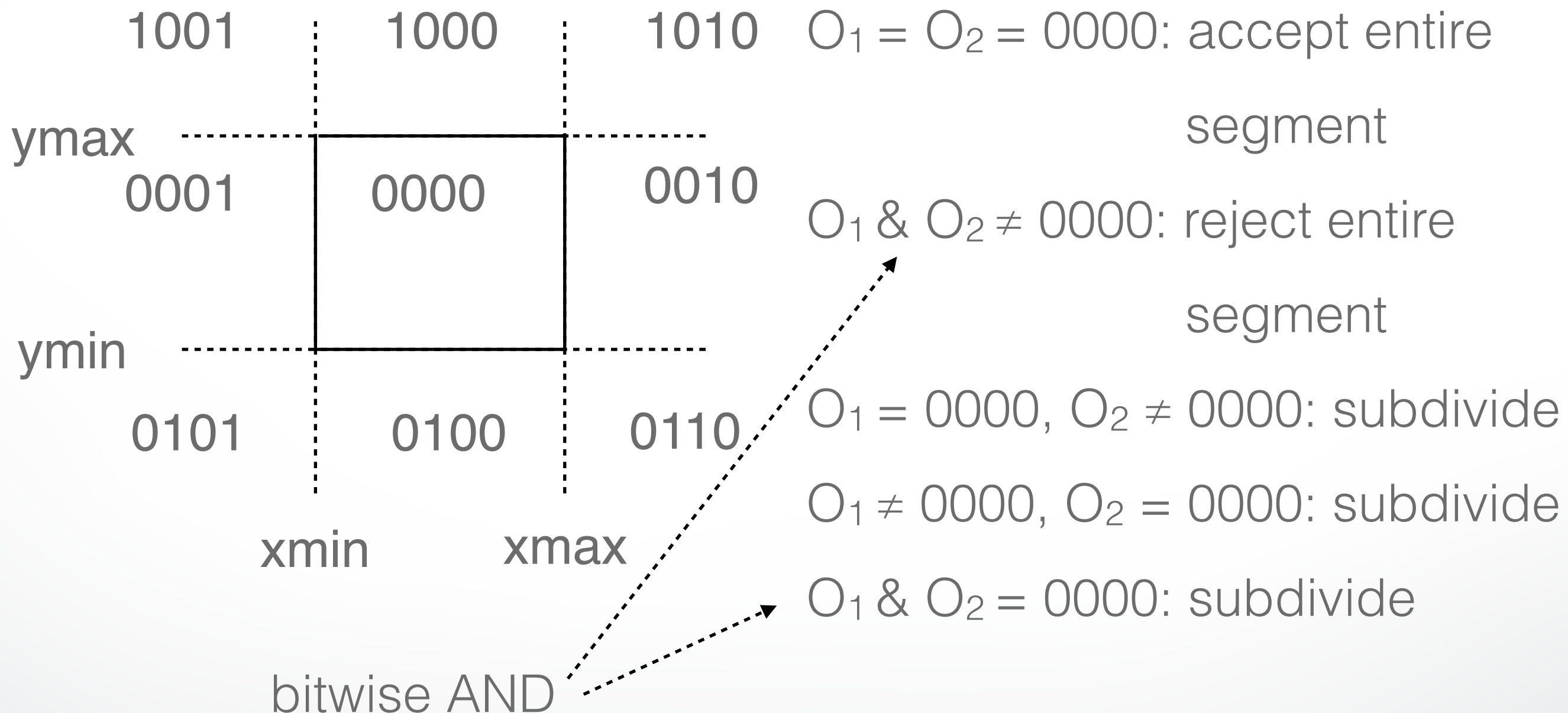
Outcodes (Cohen-Sutherland)

- Divide space into 9 regions
- 4-bit **outcode** determined by comparisons (TBRL)



Cases for Outcodes

- Outcomes: accept, reject, subdivide



Cohen-Sutherland Subdivision

- Pick outside endpoint ($o \neq 0000$)
- Pick a crossed edge ($o = b_0b_1b_2b_3$ and $b_k \neq 0$)
- Compute intersection of this line and this edge
- Replace endpoint with intersection point
- Restart with new line segment
 - Outcodes of second point are unchanged
- This algorithm converges

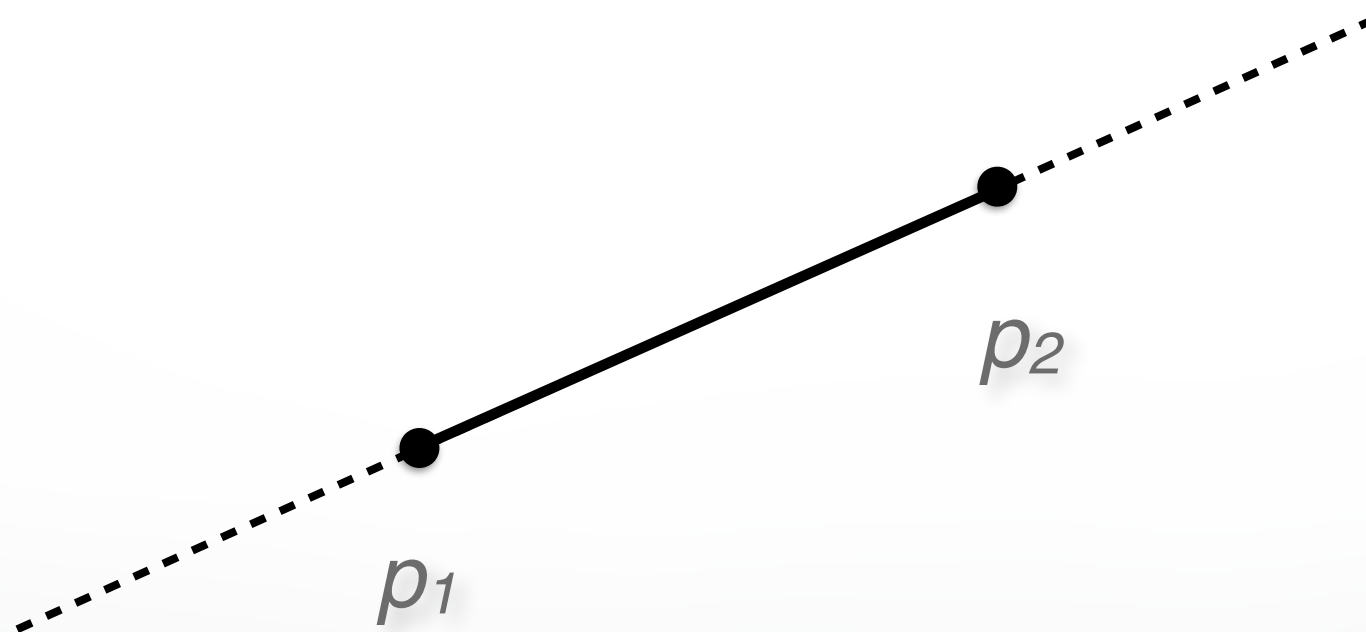
Liang-Barsky Clipping

- Start with parametric form for a line

$$p(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)p_1 + \alpha p_2, \quad 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

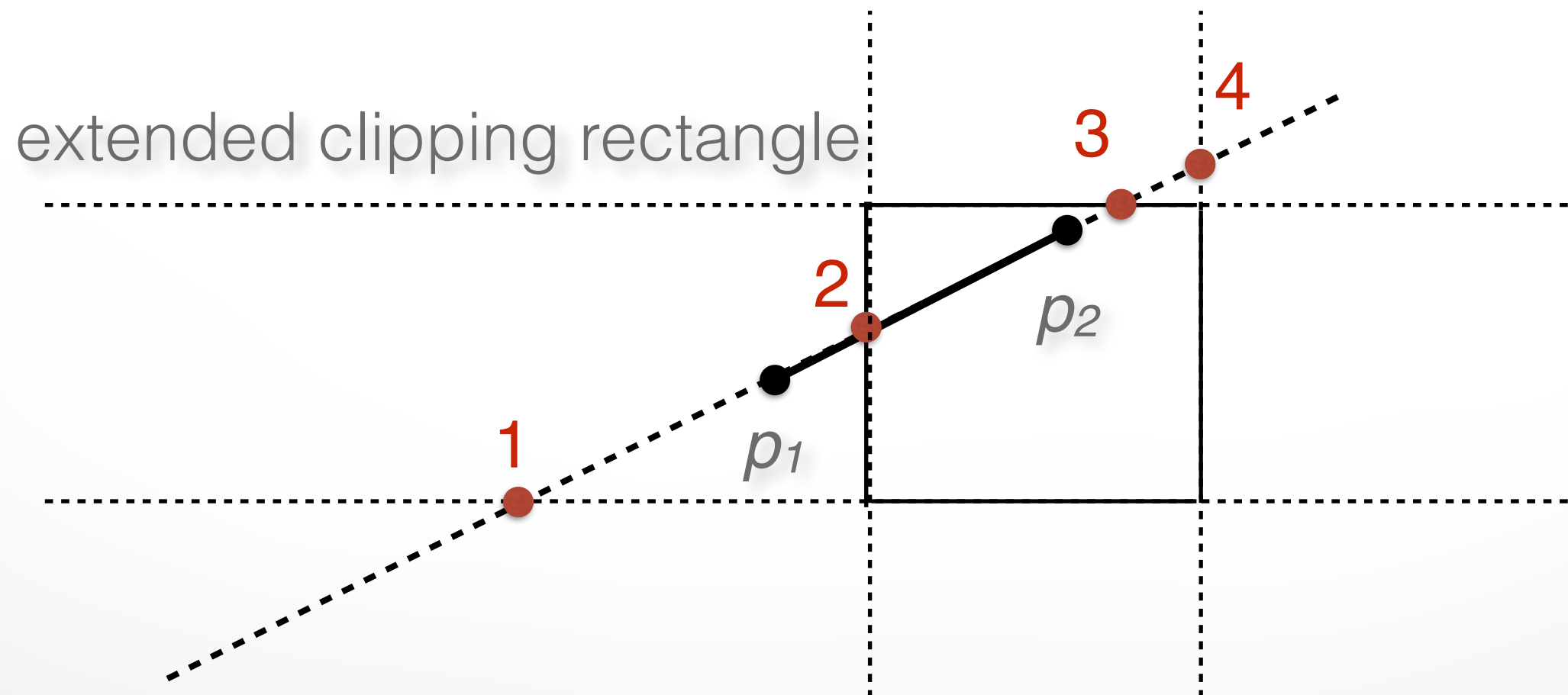
$$x(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)x_1 + \alpha x_2$$

$$y(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)y_1 + \alpha y_2$$

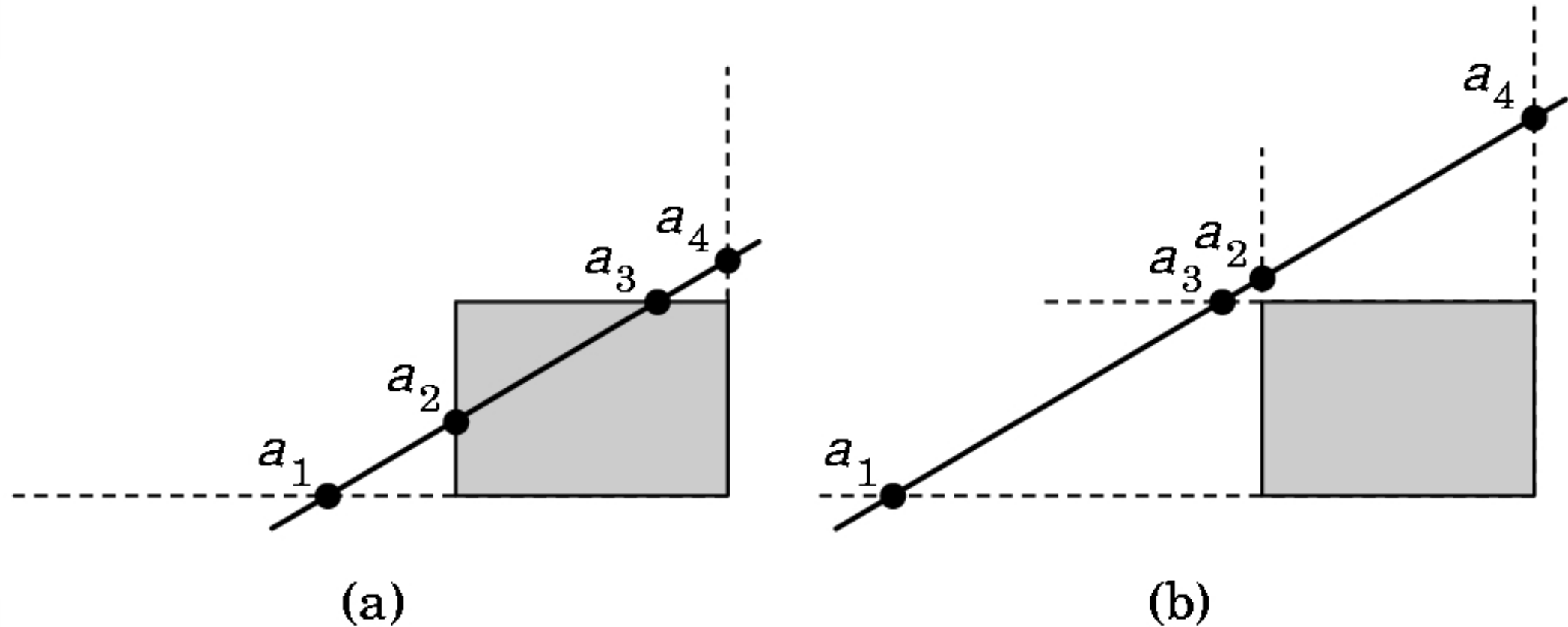


Liang-Barsky Clipping

- Compute all four intersections 1,2,3,4 with extended clipping rectangle
- Often, no need to compute all four intersections

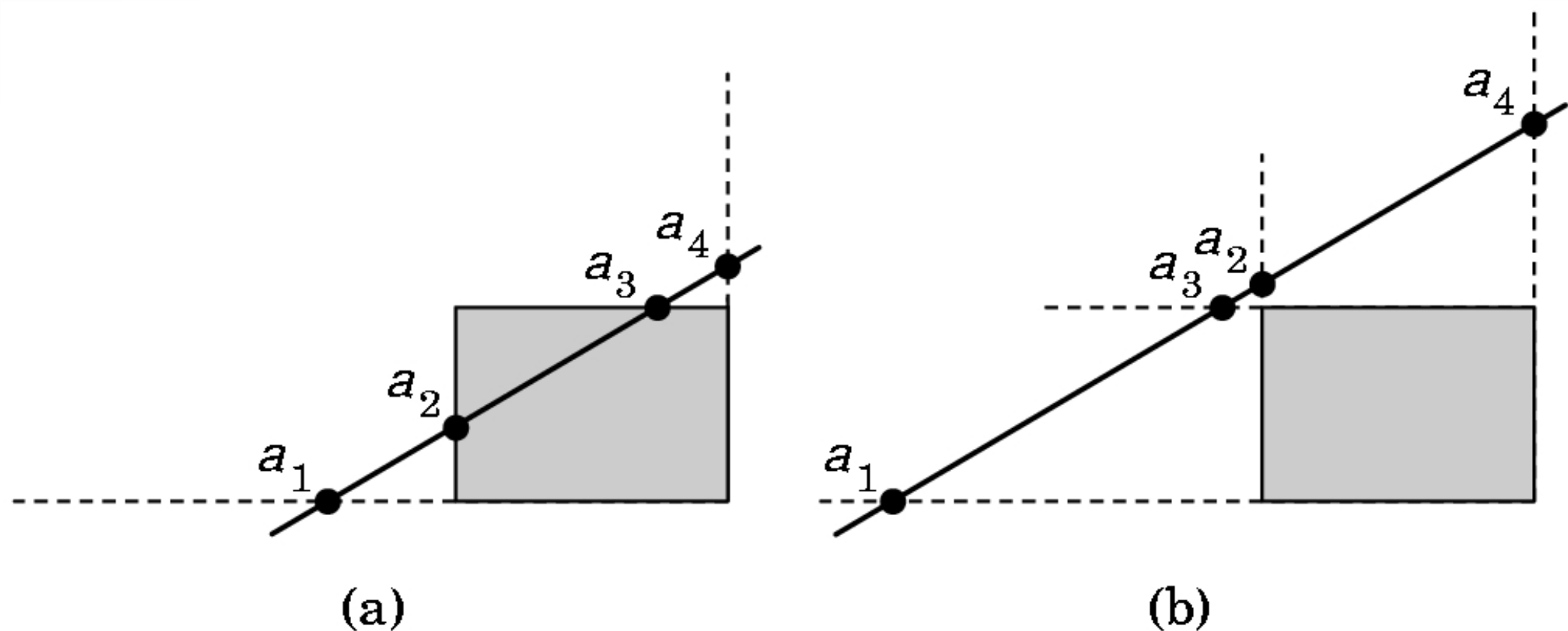


Ordering of intersection points



- Order the intersection points
- Figure (a): $1 > \alpha_4 > \alpha_3 > \alpha_2 > \alpha_1 > 0$
- Figure (b): $1 > \alpha_4 > \alpha_2 > \alpha_3 > \alpha_1 > 0$

Liang-Barsky Idea



- It is possible to clip already if one knows the order of the four intersection points !
- Even if the actual intersections were not computed !
- Can enumerate all ordering cases

Liang-Barsky efficiency improvements

- Efficiency improvement 1:
 - Compute intersections one by one
 - Often can reject before all four are computed
- Efficiency improvement 2:
 - Equations for α_3, α_2

$$y_{\max} = (1 - \alpha_3)y_1 + \alpha_3 y_2$$

$$x_{\min} = (1 - \alpha_2)x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2$$

$$\alpha_3 = \frac{y_{\max} - y_1}{y_2 - y_1} \quad \alpha_2 = \frac{x_{\min} - x_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

- Compare α_3, α_2 without floating-point division

Line-Segment Clipping Assessment

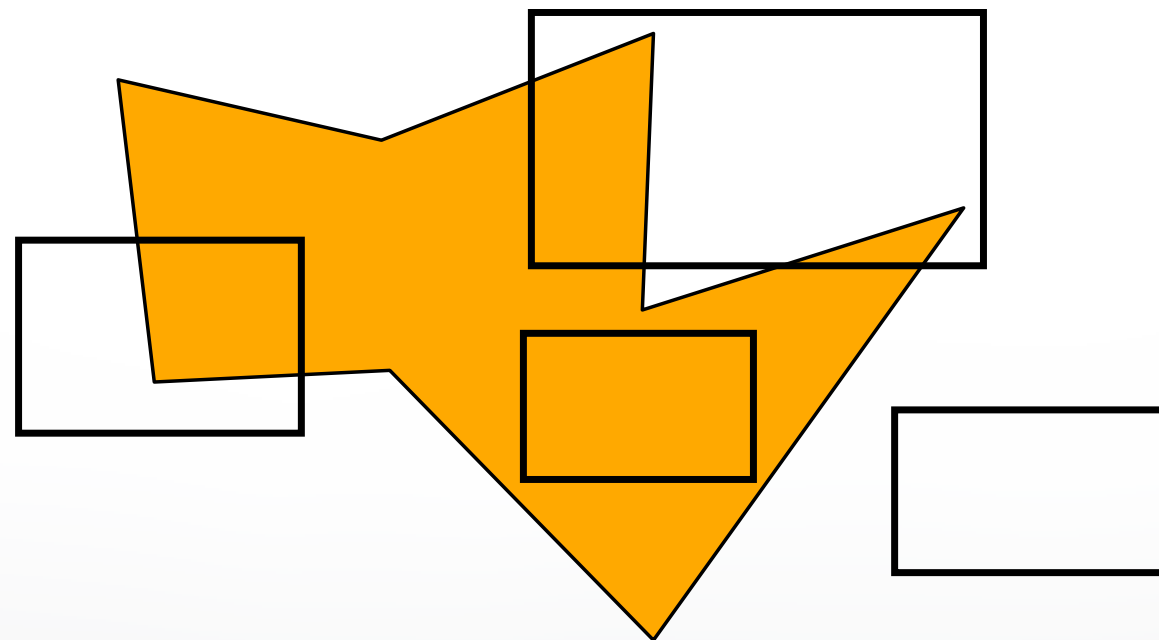
- Cohen-Sutherland
 - Works well if many lines can be rejected early
 - Recursive structure (multiple subdivisions) is a drawback
- Liang-Barsky
 - Avoids recursive calls
 - Many cases to consider (tedious, but not expensive)
 - In general much faster than Cohen-Sutherland

Outline

- Line-Segment Clipping
 - Cohen-Sutherland
 - Liang-Barsky
- Polygon Clipping
 - Sutherland-Hodgeman
- Clipping in Three Dimensions

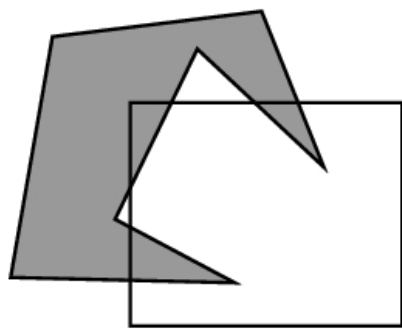
Polygon Clipping

- Convert a polygon into **one or more** polygons
- Their union is intersection with clip window
- Alternatively, we can first tessellate concave polygons (OpenGL supported)

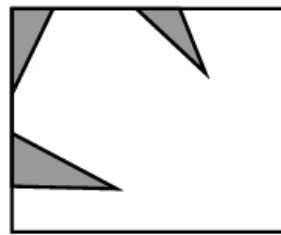


Concave Polygons

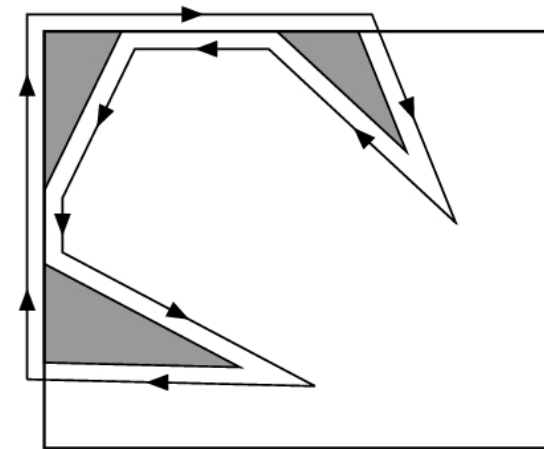
- Approach 1: clip, and then join pieces to a single polygon
 - often difficult to manage



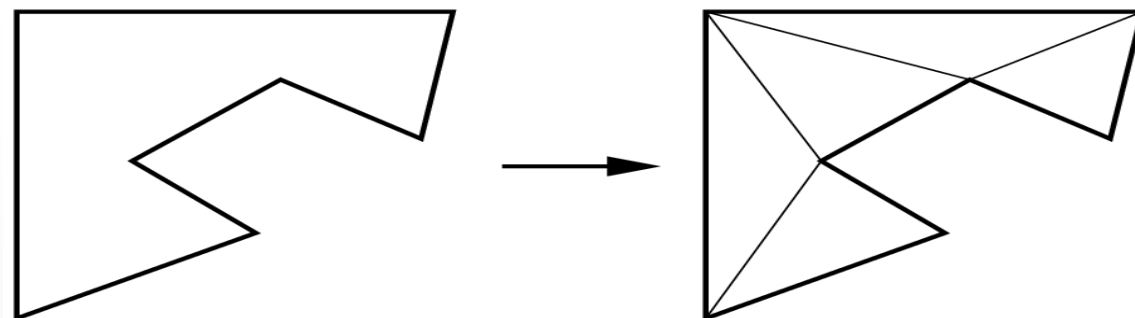
(a)



(b)

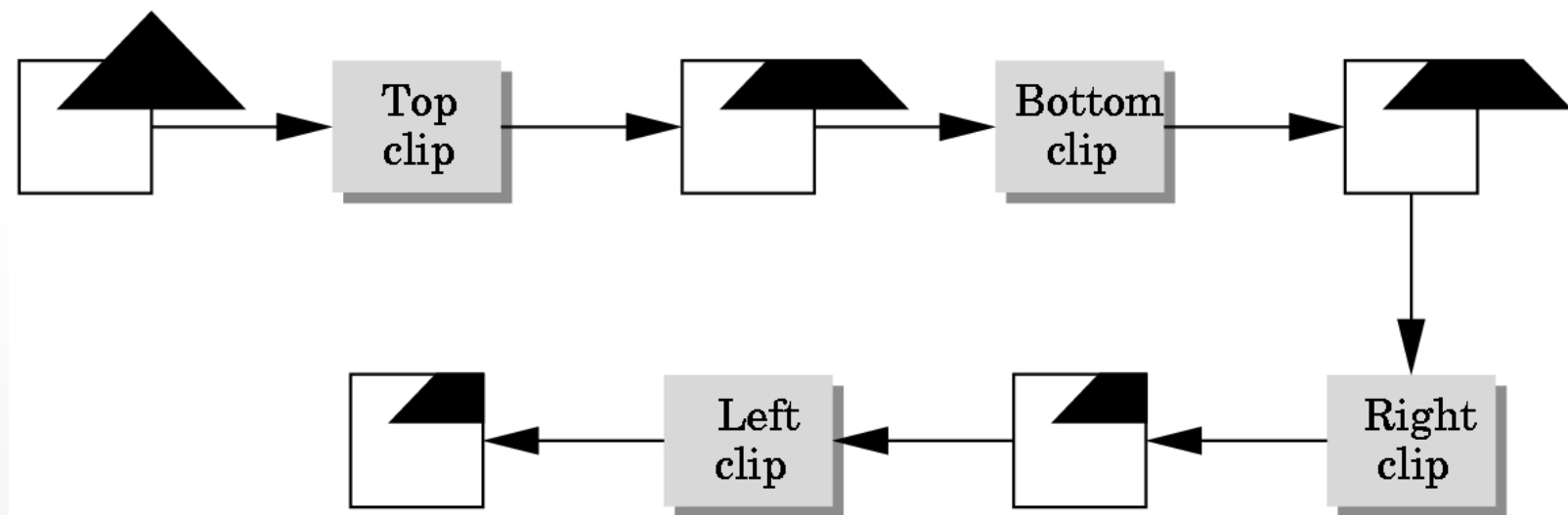


- Approach 2: tessellate and clip triangles
 - this is the common solution



Sutherland-Hodgeman (part 1)

- Subproblem:
 - Input: polygon (vertex list) and single clip plane
 - Output: new (clipped) polygon (vertex list)
- Apply once for each clip plane
 - 4 in two dimensions
 - 6 in three dimensions
 - Can arrange in pipeline

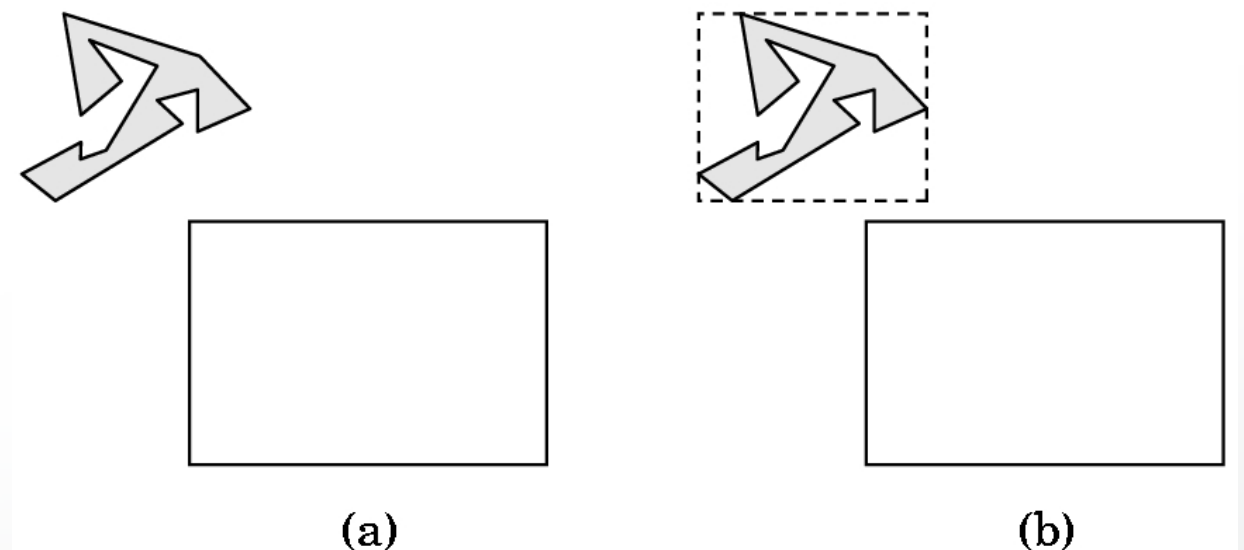


Sutherland-Hodgeman (part 2)

- To clip vertex list (polygon) against a **half-plane**:
 - Test first vertex. Output if inside, otherwise skip.
 - Then loop through list, testing transitions
 - ▶ In-to-in: output vertex
 - ▶ In-to-out: output intersection
 - ▶ out-to-in: output intersection and vertex
 - ▶ out-to-out: no output
 - Will output clipped polygon as vertex list
- May need some cleanup in concave case
- Can combine with Liang-Barsky idea

Other Cases and Optimizations

- Curves and surfaces
 - Do it analytically if possible
 - Otherwise, approximate curves / surfaces by lines and polygons
- Bounding boxes
 - Easy to calculate and maintain
 - Sometimes big savings

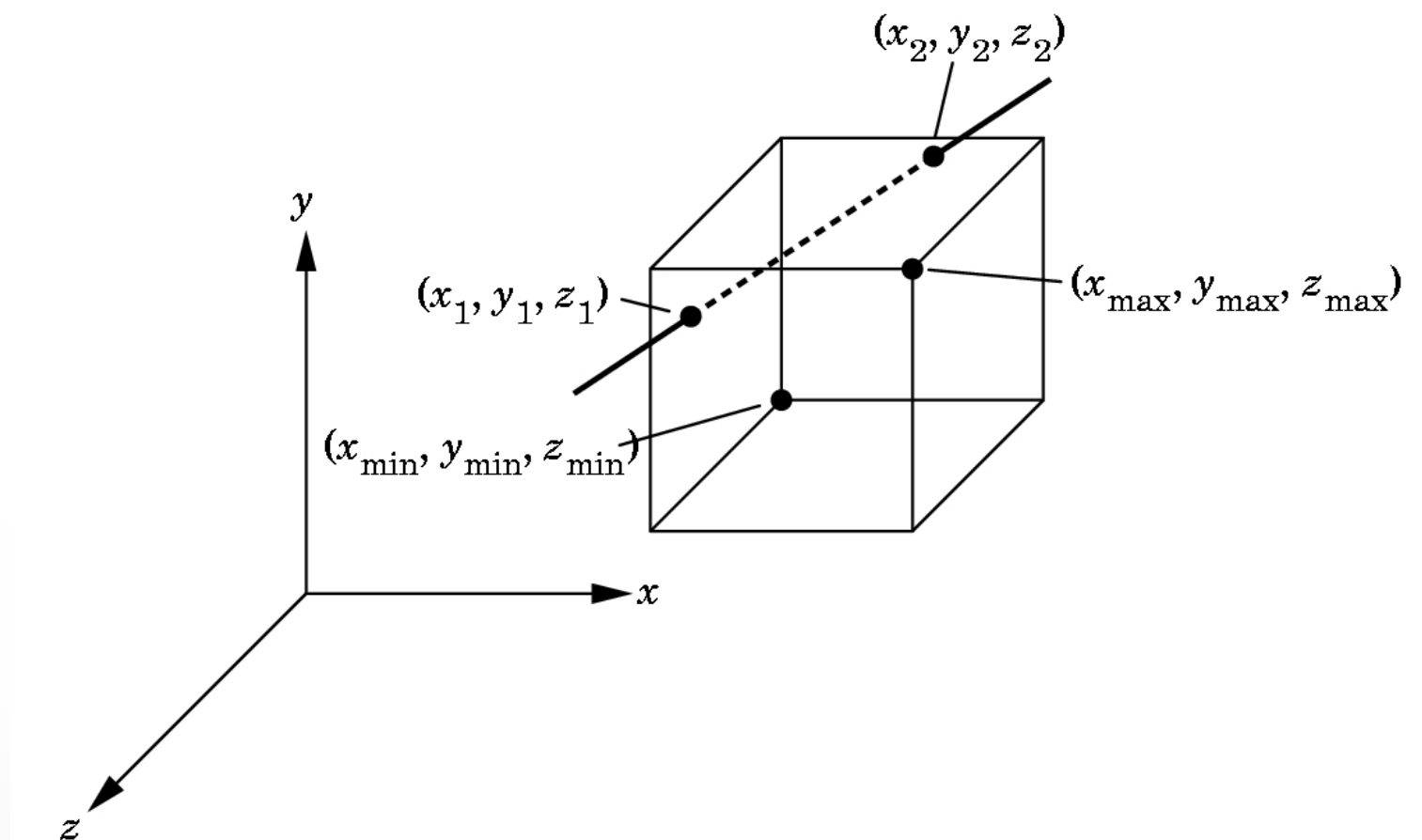


Outline

- Line-Segment Clipping
 - Cohen-Sutherland
 - Liang-Barsky
- Polygon Clipping
 - Sutherland-Hodgeman
- Clipping in Three Dimensions

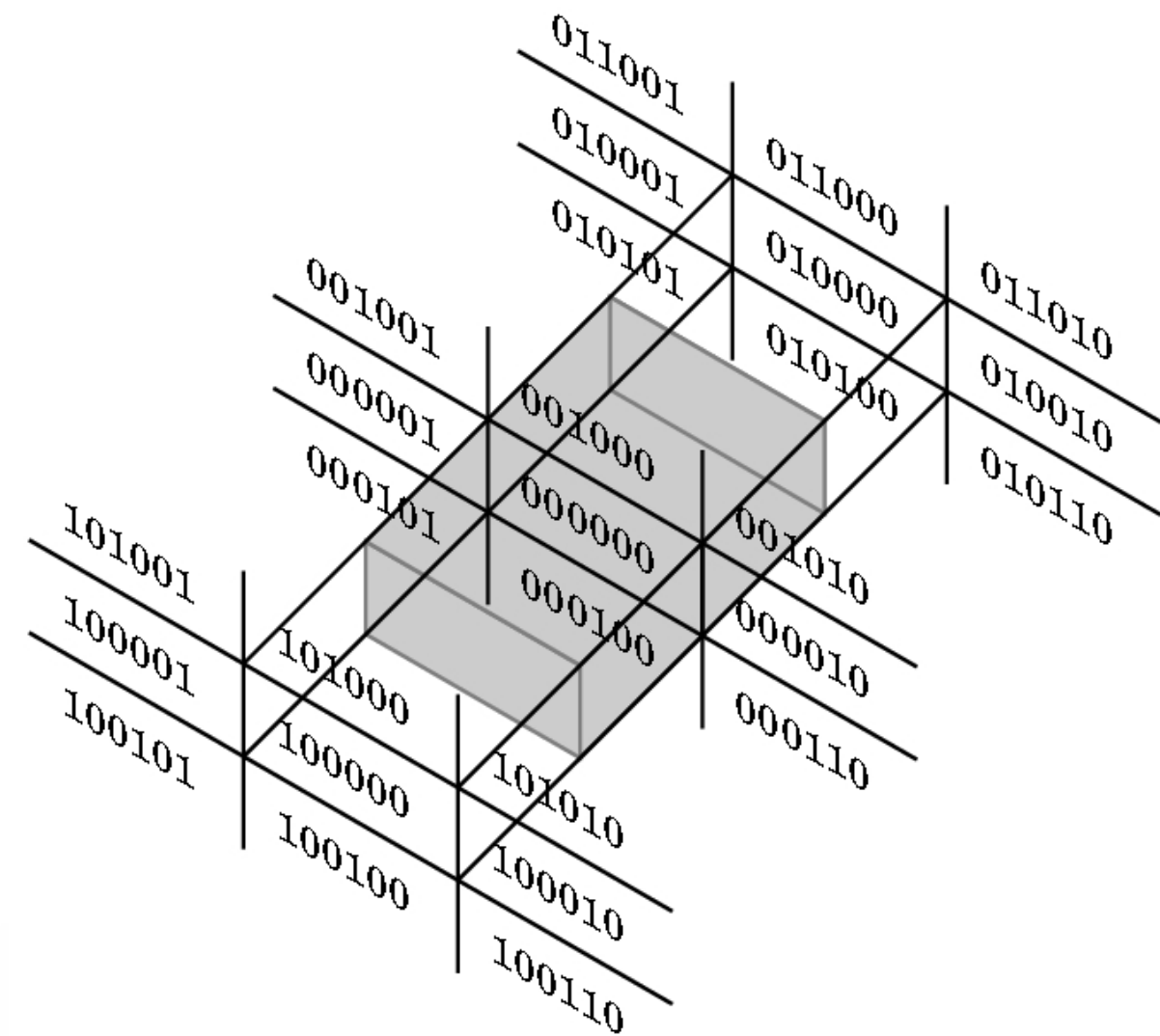
Clipping Against Cube

- Derived from earlier algorithms
- Can allow right parallelepiped



Cohen-Sutherland in 3D

- Use 6 bits in outcode
 - b_4 : $z > z_{\max}$
 - b_5 : $z < z_{\min}$
- Other calculations as before



Liang-Barsky in 3D

- Add equation $z(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)z_1 + \alpha z_2$
- Solve, for \mathbf{p}_0 in plane and normal \mathbf{n} :

$$p(\alpha) = (1 - \alpha)p_1 + \alpha p_2$$
$$\mathbf{n} \cdot (p(\alpha) - p_0) = 0$$

- Yields

$$\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{n} \cdot (p_0 - p_1)}{\mathbf{n} \cdot (p_2 - p_1)}$$

- Optimizations as for Liang-Barsky in 2D

Summary: Clipping

- Clipping line segments to rectangle or cube
 - Avoid expensive multiplications and divisions
 - Cohen-Sutherland or Liang-Barsky
- Polygon clipping
 - Sutherland-Hodgeman pipeline
- Clipping in 3D
 - essentially extensions of 2D algorithms

Next Time

- Scan conversion
- Anti-aliasing
- Other pixel-level operations

<http://cs420.hao-li.com>

Thanks!

