







[show basic PRT demos – don't visualize any techniques, just show rendering in general]



We will first revisit the basic equation that is used to generate outgoing radiance at a surface point (p) in direction (omega out).

You evaluate the outgoing basis functions in the direction omega out (this is a row vector of coefficients)

You then multiply that times the transfer matrix at the point (p).

And final dot the result with the coefficients of the environment lighting vector I\_env



Another way to look at the above equation is that we evaluate the outgoing radiance function at the point p (e\_p) in the direction omega\_out.



The light on the right hand side has to be represented in the global frame of the object. This can be achieved in several ways, for example if the light basis functions have efficient rotation formula you can just apply them, in general you can project the lighting into the basis, or you can evaluate simple analytic models as Jan talked about earlier.

The transfer matrices can be stored either at every vertex or at every texel.

The outgoing basis is generally evaluated per-pixel (based on interpolated or computed omega out.) This is generally done in a pixel shader, and can either be tabulated (for example in cube maps) or evaluated analytically.



There are a couple of limitations of PRT that makes it difficult to use it as discussed so far from a practical stand point.

The matrices can be very large, even in the diffuse case 25d vectors are required, 3 time as many if you want to model color bleeding.

The glossy case requires 25<sup>2</sup> matrices, at roughly 50k vertices like most of our examples this requires over 100mb.

Glossy rendering is also slow – you can freeze the view/light to gain some performance, but this is a serious constraint.

Also glossy rendering is not as GPU friendly as the diffuse case – with much of the work being done on the CPU.

Finally, the light order for the diffuse case is limited because of the number of coefficients that can be stored per vertex on current hardware.



Our chief goal for compression is efficient decoding.

As much of this work has to be done on the GPU as possible and ideally we would render directly from the compressed representation.

This could lead to increased rendering performance making the glossy case practical.

Also it's important to reduce the run time memory requirements, not just the size of the datasets on disk.



These high dimensional signals are difficult to visualize, so I will use a much simpler problem to describe the compression techniques.

Our surface here is a curve, and the signal we are compressing is the normal at each point – a 2D signal.



On the right, we visualize the signal space. Each normal maps onto a point on the unit circle; this is the gauss map of the curve.

## Precomputed Radiance Transfer: Theory and Practice



Vector quantization is a simple but common compression technique. It groups the signal into a small number of clusters of similar samples, 3 in this example.



VQ approximates each sample as the mean of the cluster it's a member of.

Note that the clustering is done completely in signal space; the spatial relationships of the samples is ignored.



Principle component analysis is another common compression technique.

Given a signal in some high dimensional space, PCA computes an optimal lower dimensional linear approximation to the signal, in a least squares sense.

This is done by computing the mean of the signal, and a set of basis vectors.

In this case we are projecting the signal from 2D down to a single line. Each sample is then replaced by its projection coefficients in this new basis.

The chief limitation is evident from this example.

While the signal is a 1D manifold, it is clearly not globally linear.

But a linear approximation \*is\* appropriate locally – on the circle the tangent is a good local approximation to the signal.

Our signal is a high dimensional vector mapped to a surface in 2D.

If the signal is smooth, locally there should be a 2D tangent plane in 625D signal space at each point, so a local linear approximation should be appropriate.



Our technique, called CPCA for "clustered principal analysis", exploits this by computing a linear subspace in each cluster.

Each surface point needs to store an index into a cluster, and a set of projection weights for the PCA basis in the corresponding cluster.



So CPCA approximates samples in each cluster using a low dimensional affine model.

There are a couple of ways to do the clustering.

The most straightforward approach is just to cluster using VQ and then compute a PCA basis in each cluster, which we call "static PCA".

VQ optimizes for piecewise constant reconstruction, while we use piecewise-affine reconstruction, so this is clearly suboptimal.

"Iterative PCA" clusters using distance to affine sub-space instead of distance to mean.

It computes PCA in the inner loop and so is slower than static PCA.

But it optimizes for the reconstruction we use during rendering.



Here we see two images clustered with the different techniques using a single PCA vector.

When shading, using a single PCA vector means each cluster will have a linear gradient.

Static PCA creates clusters that are relatively isotropic, while iterative PCA shapes the clusters based on probable shadow gradient directions.



While this is new to CG, it's been done in machine learning.

Kambhatla used the term VQ+PCA to define the static case, and VQPCA to define the iterative case.

Dony settled on the term Mixture of PC to define the iterative case.

Mueller and collegues used similar techniques in a paper at VMV in 2003.

There are more sophisticated techniques for non-linear dimensionality reduction. Matt Brand's work is used in a paper presented at siggraph in 2003 for example.

Mapping these techniques to the previous generation of GPU's is challenging. Since samples are classified in a variable number of clusters, variable storage is required.

Partitioning the mesh into independent sets of data is also more difficult.

As features like dependent textures become more performant, it will be worth investigating these other algorithms as well.



Here we see quality obtained when a bird model is rendered at equal frame rates using 3 compression techniques.

With VQ, piecewise-constant reconstruction artifacts are apparent.

This signal is clearly not represented well with global PCA – there is substantial energy loss.

CPCA does a good job of approximating the signal, with fairly low error.



Rendering with CPCA is straight forward.

First, approximate each transfer matrix with the mean from its cluster and a linear combination of the cluster's basis vectors.

In this equation the Cp subscript represents the cluster for the corresponding point.

We can plug this directly into the rendering equation.

While this expression looks more complex then the original equation, we can distribute the dot produce with the light vector "I" and arrive at the following equation.

The highlighted expression are just exit radiance column vectors.

So scalar exit radiance is computed by taking a linear combination of exit radiance vectors and dotting it with the exit basis function evaluated in the view direction.



The important thing to note about this equation is that highlighted terms are constant per cluster, so they can be computed on the CPU at each frame.

The dimensionality of these vectors only depends on the number of exit radiance basis functions, so the math on the GPU is independent of the light's dimension.

For our glossy transfer matrices, this represents a computational savings if N is lower than 25.



Using a non-local viewer model is a common technique in computer graphics.

The assumption is that the view does not change much across the object, so a common view direction can be used for all surface locations.

This allows us to distribute the constant view direction into the precomputed expressions, making the shader independent of both view and light orders. All we need to render is a simple linear combination of N colors.



Here's the GPU dataflow diagram. A static vertex buffer is computed which contains the position, local frame, and cluster index.

Each vertex's data also includes a binary value, called "incluster", which is 1 if the vertex is in the current cluster/supercluster and zero if it is a support vertex outside the cluster.

The projection coefficients are also stored at each vertex.

At every frame, constants in the vertex shader are loaded.

These constants include the eye point in object space and the transformation matrix. Also the per-cluster exit radiance vectors are computed on the CPU and loaded as well.

The vertex shader then computes the view vector in the local frame, and the exit radiance vector "e" passing them to the pixel shader.

The pixel shader evaluates the exit basis functions, which we store as a texture, in the interpolated view direction.

It dots that with the interpolated exit radiance vector "e" to compute scalar exit radiance. This is done once each for R/G/B.



[walk through various numbers of PCA vectors, show difference between local/non-local viewer, etc.]

## Precomputed Radiance Transfer: Theory and Practice



Here is the HLSL shader for diffuse rendering, the exact details aren't that important, but depending on the number of clusters/PCA vectors you use, the shader is quite manegable.



When writing shaders for CPCA, you want to leverage the SIMD nature of GPU's, always use a multiple of 4 PCA vectors, and split 4 coefficients for the same color in a register, instead of treating them as RGB colors to maximize the 4-way SIMD nature. When accumulating coefficients, it is more efficient to use a mul, and a string of mad's instead of a bunch of 4D dot products – because it generalizes to higher dimensions much better.

It's also worth leveraging the SIMD nature of CPU's, the dot products that compute shader constants can be mapped into SIMD CPU instructions quite easily.

When quantizing PCA coefficients, full 32 bit values are not needed. It is easy to normalize the data into [-1,1], just scale the corresponding basis vector by the inverse – this pushes precision into the constant registers, which are always higher precision. Even signed 8 bit values look fine, but it is possible to use higher precision for the first couple of PCA values, since they contribute the most to the final result.



If you want to use CPCA with textures, care must be taken.

PCA coefficients in the same cluster can be interpolated, mip-mapped, etc.

However cluster ID's, are coefficients from different clusters should not be, so naïve bi-linear filtering will not work.

There are two simple solutions.

Just use pure PCA (ie: a single cluster), this filters fine, but it won't compress well.

You can do the interpolation in the shader – ie: evaluate the 4 taps and blend the shaded result. This is extremely expensive though.



A better solution is to evaluate the shading directly in texture space.

No interpolation is required, because evaluation will only occur at texel centers. PRT textures are often stored at much lower spatial sampling rates, so it can significantly save computation.

However more resources are needed, in the diffuse case this effectively builds a dynamic light map, and in the glossy case a dynamic surface light field.

These can be updated at a lower frequency though – for example for a day/night cycle in a game.

Another approach is to cluster based on charts in a texture atlas

This guarantees that all pixels that will be reconstructed are in the same cluster (but charts can be in different clusters), and no temporary surfaces are required.

The compressed results might be sub-optimal however, and it might be interesting incorporating clustering for compression into the parameterization process.



There was another nice paper by Mueller and collegues where they used datasets that had information at two scales (coarse transfer matrices and fine scale BTF's) and encoded both using local PCA. The naïve approach to doing this would be to blow out the SH signal in between the scales, and reprojet this spatially varying function at the finer scale – however this would be extremely slow.

They obvserved that you can directly project from coefficients on one CPCA space to coefficients in another by simply projecting all of the basis vectors for relighting the BTF's through the basis matrices used for coarse scale transfer. These coefficients would then be updated when the lighting change and everything would remain performant.



Instead of learning the clusters, you could just try and partition them spatially (this has been done in image re-lighting work.)

If the geometry varies quickly relative to the cluster size, it will require a higher dimensional linear space to approximate the data.

By clustering regions that are not spatially adjacent, for example the un-occluded region with a vertical normal highlighted here, you can get away with fewer clusters and lower dimensional linear spaces.



When looking at PRT in general, it is worth thinking about the relationship between light frequency and spatial sampling rates.

PRT generally deals with "steerable" lighting models, but it is worth thinking about the "finest" light that can be modeled when determining a bounds on spatial sampling densities.

Given a simple scene, with a large area light, a simple blocker and a simple receiver, the intensity on the receiver is broken into 3 categores.

Regions that are completely lit, regions that are completely in shadow (the umbra) and a transition region (the penumbra.) Large area lights have slow transitions, this means they induce lower spatial sampling rates.



However for smaller light sources, the penumbras tighten, which means the transitions are more rapid, so the sampling rates have to be higher.



It is also worth thinking about angular, or directional sampling issues. Large/smooth lights subtend large solid angles, so to get an accurate estimate of the illumination arriving at a point, many directional samples have to be taken.

This means that traditional interactive techniques for shadowing (for example), would require many passes to generate an accurate model of the illumination.



Small light sources clearly require fewer samples, which means they are more feasible to work with at run time (assuming a small number of small light sources.)



So for direct lighting, large low frequency lights induce coarse spatial sampling rates – which means less storage is required and precomputing makes more sense.

They are difficult to handle using run time integration due to the large solid angles.

Small lights induce high spatial sampling densities, and are more amenable to run time integration.



When looking at more complex transport effects (beyond direct lighting) it is worth noting that they pretty much always behave as low frequency light sources – a wall illuminated by a tight light source generally acts as a large emitter.

So precomputing indirect lighting from high frequency lighting seems like a reasonable idea in general.

But that than begs the question, is it feasible to simulate the indirect lighting from high frequency lighting using a low frequency projection of that lighting? This could be similar to the duality discussed by ravi in his siggraph 2001 paper between light and material frequency.




The albedo should be factored out of the transfer vectors/matrices.

The incident lighting is almost always much smoother than reflectivity, so it makes sense to not conflate the two.



The easiest way to do this is to only multiply by albedo when "gathering" (or before shooting) during transport simulation.

So all transfer vectors (for any transport path) model everythign except the multiply by the albedo at a point on the surface.





One of the most beneficial properties of normal mapping is that it enables modeling things at multiple scales. Coarse information, either per vertex or in a lower resolution texture (like incident lighting) should be stored at the appropriate sampling rates. Normal maps model fine scale perturbations of the surface normal – but ideally you wouldn't blow out transfer vectors/matrices to that fine scale.

The technique we are about to describe is only for diffuse materials, the bi-scale radiance transfer paper covers the more general case, but is a much "heavier" technique (both in terms of computation and data...)

## Irradiance Environment Maps



• [Ramamoorthi2001], application of the SH convolution formula

$$(h*f)_{l}^{m} = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2l+1}}h_{l}^{0}f_{l}^{m} = \alpha_{l}^{0}h_{l}^{0}f_{l}^{m}$$

- h is circularly symmetric function h(z)
- f is any function over the sphere
- Evaluate convolved SH in a direction computes integral of h oriented in that direction against f

The normal mapping technique is based on the irradiance environment map paper from siggraph 2001.

This paper is essentially an application of the spherical harmonic convolution formula.

Which is simple the convolution of a circularly symmetric kernel h (can be thought of as a function of Z only when oriented with the Z axis) with an arbitrary function f represented in spherical harmonics can be represented by scaling each of the coefficients in a given band of f (I) by a constant and the coefficient of m=0 in h at that band.

Circular symmetric functions of z only have one non-zero projection coefficient (corresponding to m=0)

Evaluating a convolved function in a given direction gives you the integral of the original function against the kernel oriented in that direction.

The reason the kernel has to be circularly symmetric is because functions with circular symmetry are parameterized by 2 DOF, so the result of the convolution can be represented on the unit sphere – a general kernel would generate a function on SO3.

In ravi's paper he observes that the clamped cosine kernel can be represented in closed form and that most of the energy is in the coefficients through the quadratics. This is the same motivation used in image processing – large kernels are more efficiently convolved in frequency space.



The technique presented will also only account for global illumination at the scale of the geometry, how bumps cast shadows/reflect light on themselves will not be modeled.

If you scaled the lighting environment by the DC term of the SH projection of visibility, that's mathematically equivalent to taking the product of the lighting and the visibility projected into SH – which is a mathematical justification for ambient occlusion.

A result of the irradiance environment map paper is that transferred radiance only need to be quadratic if the shadowing of the bumps is not being taken into account.



The easiest way to think about the technique that will be described is you have a smoothly varying irradiance environment map, that you want to evaluate using a normal looked up from the normal map.



[ load simple scene ][ go into normal map mode ][ turn off light probe, turn on directional light ]

Here is a fairly coarsely tesselated mesh with a normal map, the precomputation knows nothing about the actual normal map being used. We can change the scale of the normal map, or switch in a different normal map, and use the same simulation results.

This achieves the desired effect – a coars PRT simulation is combined with a high frequency normal map.

Here I will toggle between the "ideal" case and an approximation that I will describe in a bit. This approximation is quite good, but there is clearly some error near the silhoutte – which might be a result of compression.



Valve showed a similar technique at GDC04, but just for static lighting. The idea presented here is for a parameterized model of lighting.



The first term is the distant environment map lighting.



The next term is a transfer matrix that maps distant lighting to quadratic transferred incident lighting



Then there is a rotation from the global to the local frame



And finaly a diagonal matrix that convolves the signal with the coefficients for the normalized cosine kernel



You then have the SH basis functions (quadratic) evaluated in the normal direction.



Finally this generates outgoing radiance for the given normal



## Normal Mapping for PRT



- Related to technique presented last year by Valve<sup>™</sup> for Half-Life<sup>®</sup> 2
  - But for parameterized model of light
- Mathematical formulation

$$e(n) = y(n)^T \mathbf{l}'$$

Convolved local lighting environment (Transferred Incident Radiance)



Evaluating the technique as outlined in the previous slides is still fairly heavy weight.

You require 9xorder^2 matrices per vertex or in a low res texture (which can be compressed.)

More importantly that generates 27 coefficients that are the irradiance environment map that have to then be evaluated.

So we are going to go over some "cheaper" approximations.



The basic problem is that you have a hemispherical function (outgoing radiance) that is a function of the normal (not view direction as we have done before.)

One simple approach would be to project this hemispherical function into some other basis.

HalfLife2 uses 3 quadratic polynomials on portions of the hemisphere.

You could also use the basis functions from last years EGSR paper, these look like than can do a reasonable job approximating convolved SH functions in maple, but more experimentation needs to be done.



Another approach, that we will discuss here is to use the same ideas that are used for BRDF factorization, which Jaakko talked about earlier.

That is build a matrix "A" sampling the convolved lighting environment over a hemisphere of normals. The rows represent the normal directions, the columns the lighting environment.



This is just trying to give more intuition to the matrix A.

You have some sampling of the hemisphere, each row corresponds to a sample.

The columns correspond to illumination from the 9 quadratic SH basis functions.

A coefficient in the matrix represents the integral of a cosine kernel in the given direction against the lighting environment. Not that the lighting environment should be clamped to the hemisphere before this integral happens.

Bi-linear basis functions are used on the unit disk, and then mapped to the hemisphere to generate a value at any point on the hemisphere (so there are at most 4 non-zero entries for a given normal.)



Then you compute the singular value decomposition of this matrix and you get 3 terms.

A matrix U, where each column represents a "normal basis" texture.

A diagonal matrix S (the singular values)

And a matrix Vt, which is 9x9 (for quadratic SH.)



This generates a new equation that simply replaces the evaluation of the quadratic SH in the normal direction.



Then instead of using the full matrix, just use the first M singular values.



Here you see the accuracy with uniform sampling over the hemisphere, and cosine weighted sampling (normals alligned with Z in tangent space are prefered.) 4 terms is fairly accurate.



This is not much more complex than a conventional PRT shader.





A much more approximate solution would be to just use a coarse PRT result to modulate a per-pixel evaluation.







## Normal Mapping for PRT



- Relatively cheap, allows for "sparse" PRT that responds to high frequency changes in surface normal
- Could improve by moving to a YUV color space
  - More precision in luminance, less in chroma
  - Like video/image codecs



[ load simple scene ][ go into normal map mode ][ turn off light probe, turn on directional light ]

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## Precomputed Radiance Transfer: Theory and Practice



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Run through the DX demos.

