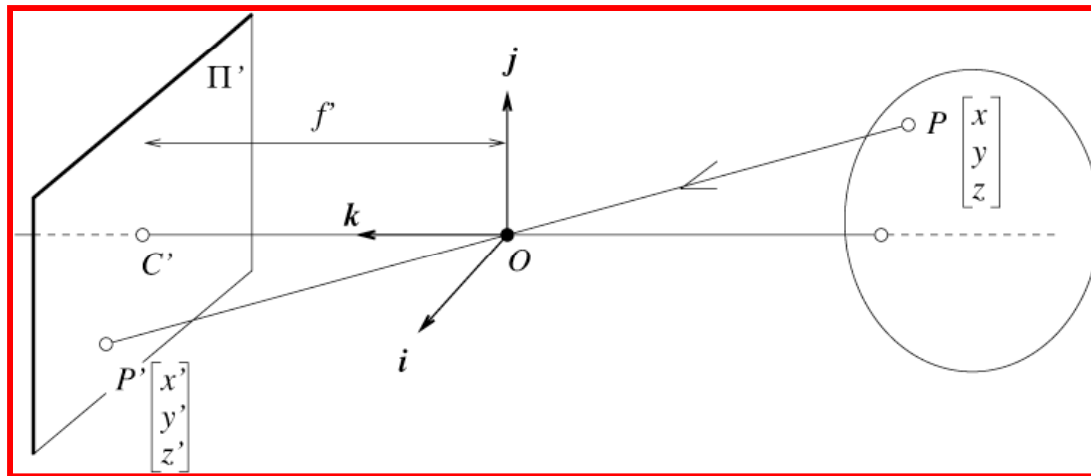


Radiometry

Nuno Vasconcelos
UCSD

Image formation

- two components: geometry and radiometry
- geometry:
 - pinhole camera
 - point (x,y,z) in 3D scene projected into image pixel of coordinates (x', y')
 - according to the perspective projection equation:

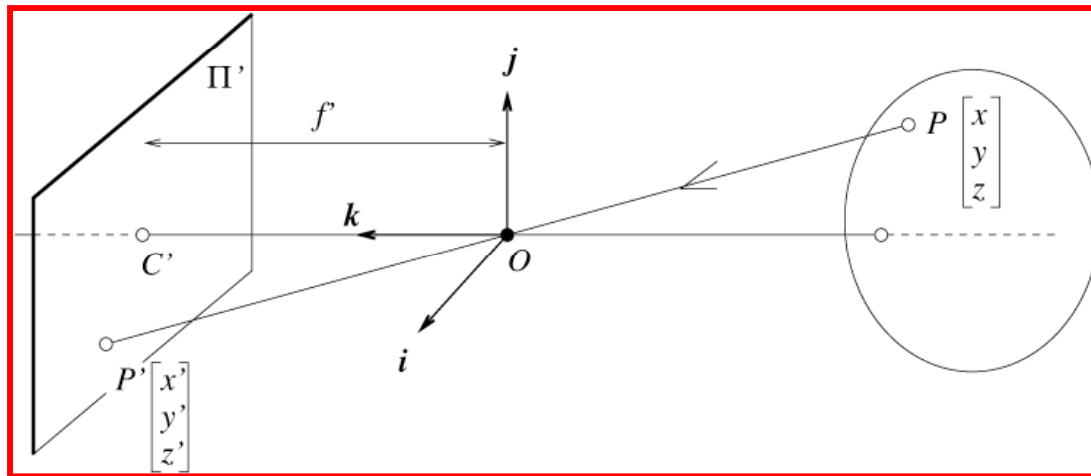


$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = f(X, Y, Z)$$

What is $f(X, Y, Z)$?

Image formation

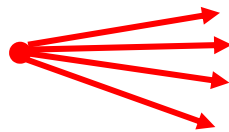
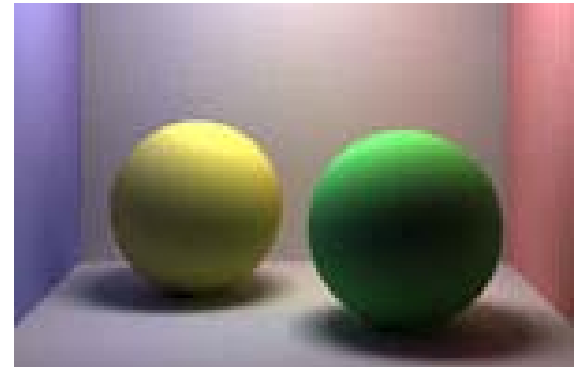
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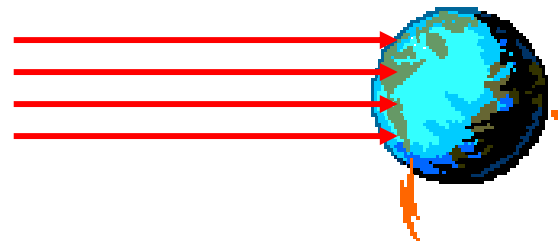
$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} x/z \\ y/z \end{pmatrix}$$

Radiometry

- simplifying assumptions
- objects:
 - Lambertian surfaces: reflect light equally in all directions
 - reflections determined by **albedo**: ratio of **reflected/incident** light
- light sources:
 - point source @ infinity



...

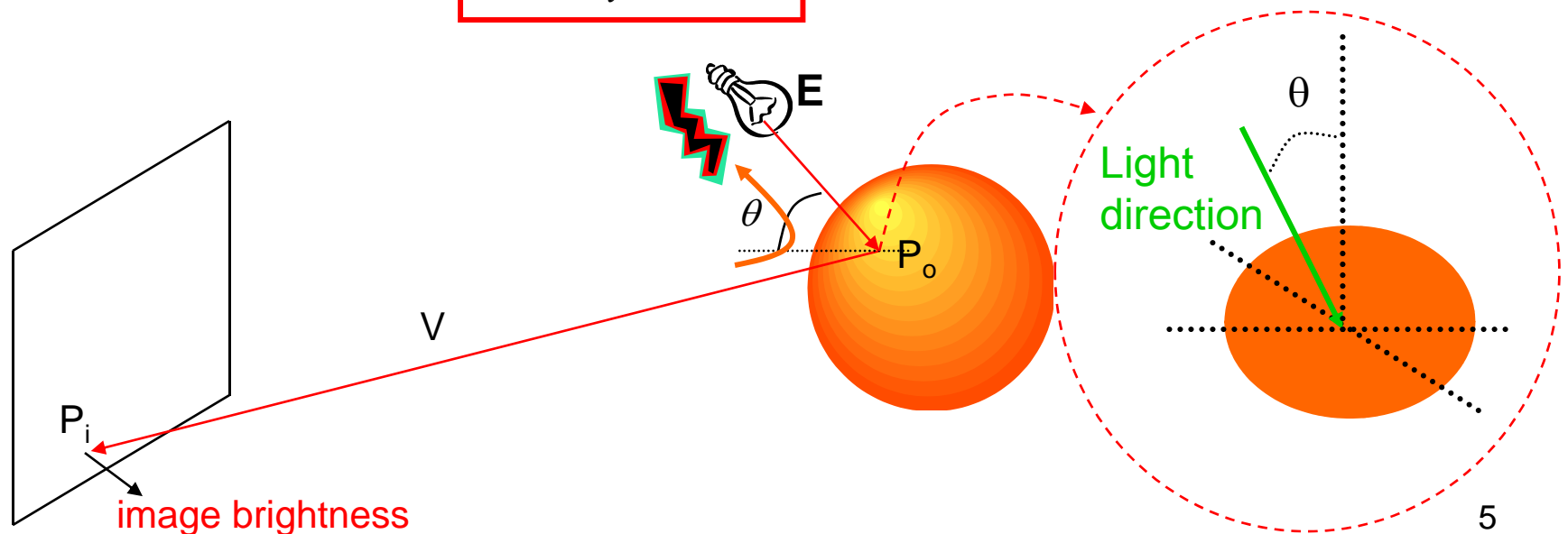


- by the time they hit the object **all rays are parallel**
- **single direction \mathbf{s}** of light for the whole scene

Radiometry

- radiometry equation:
- the power at pixel P_i is a function of
 - object properties (which?)
 - light source (which)
 - interaction between the two?

$$P(P_i) = ?$$

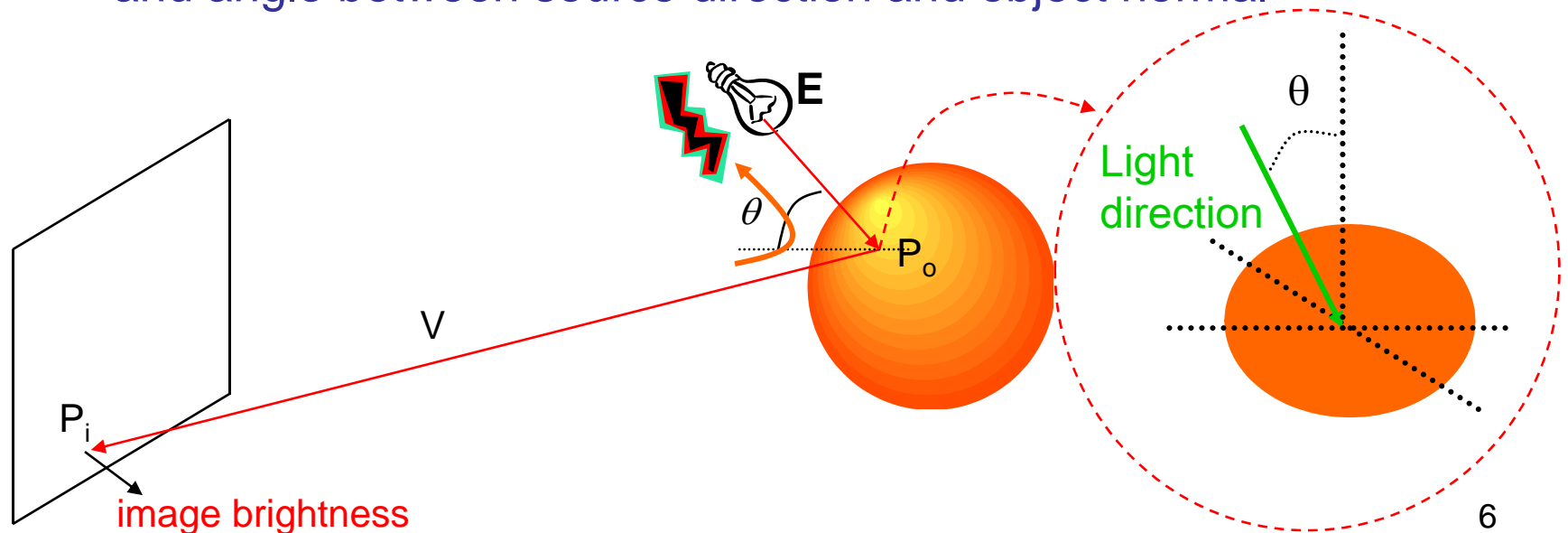


Radiometry

- radiometry equation:

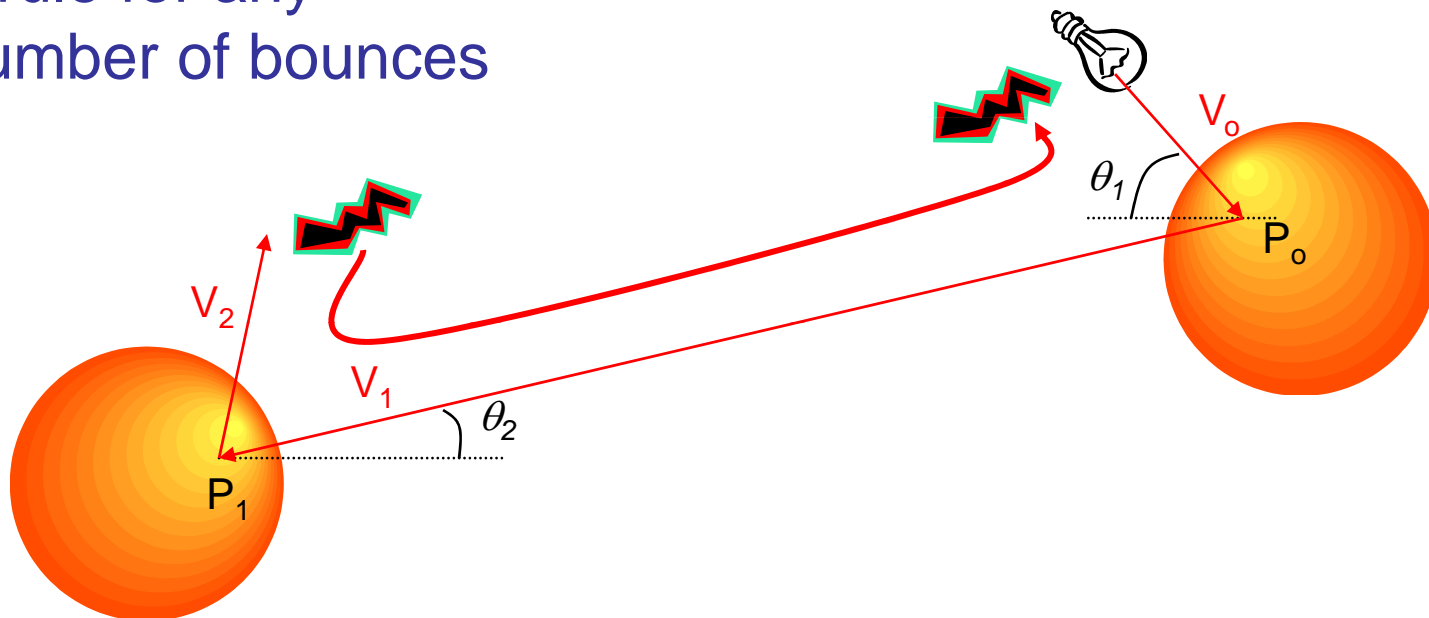
$$P(P_i) = E \rho(P_0) \cos \theta$$

- the power at pixel P_i is the product of
 - source power E ,
 - albedo of the object at reflection point,
 - and angle between source direction and object normal



Radiometry

- a rule for any number of bounces



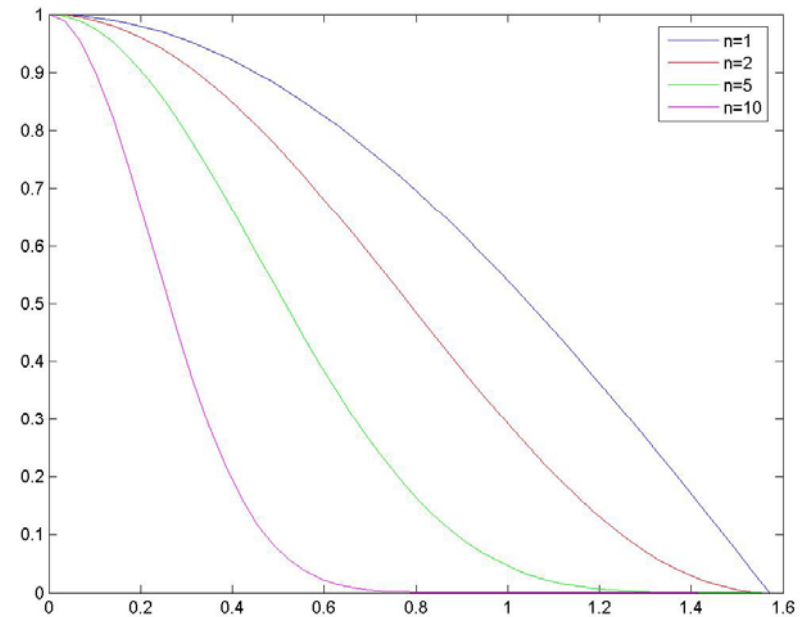
$$P(P_n) = E \left[\prod_{i=0}^n \rho(P_i) \right] \left[\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} \cos \theta_i \right]$$

Lambertian surfaces

- note that on

$$P(P_n) = E \left[\prod_{i=0}^n \rho(P_i) \right] \left[\prod_{i=1}^{n+1} \cos \theta_i \right]$$

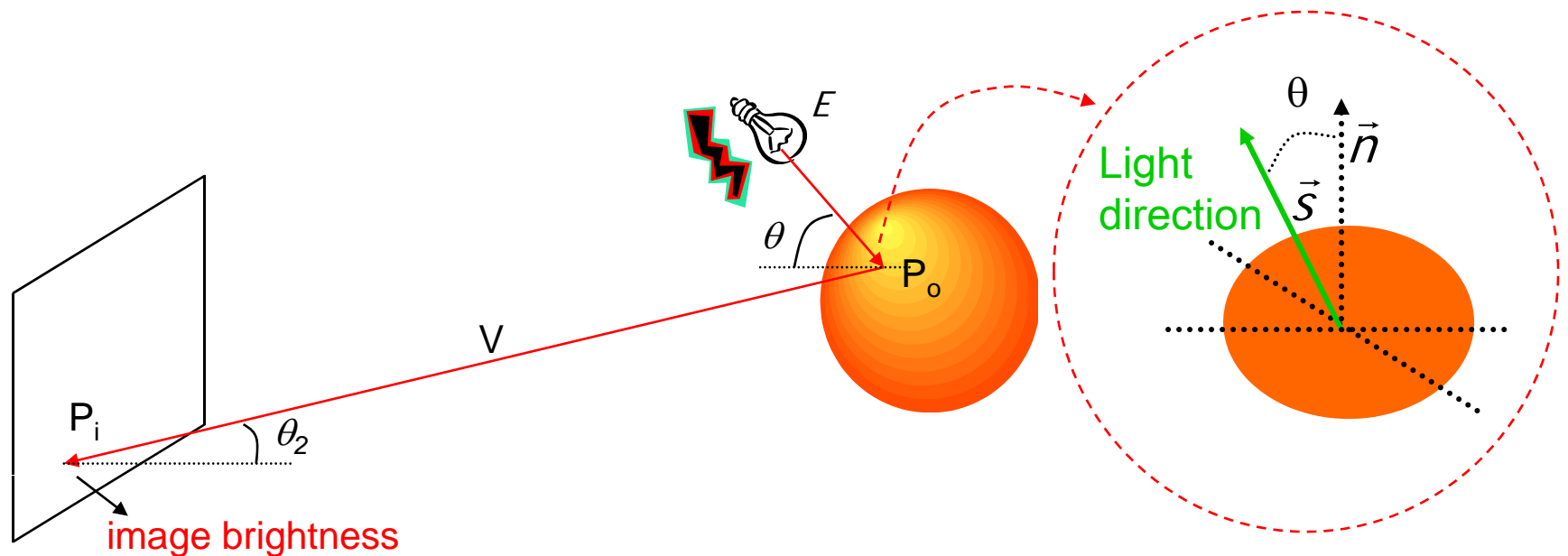
- unless all cosines are close to 1
- their product goes to zero quickly
- e.g. see decay of $\cos^n(\theta)$ with n
- this means that only light that arrives frontally to all the bounces gets propagated very far
- such an alignment is very unlikely
- we don't really have to worry about many bounces
- the process becomes tractable



In vector form

- note that
 - if \mathbf{n} is the surface normal and \mathbf{s} the light direction
 - the two vectors have unit norm
 - then $\cos \theta = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{s}$ and

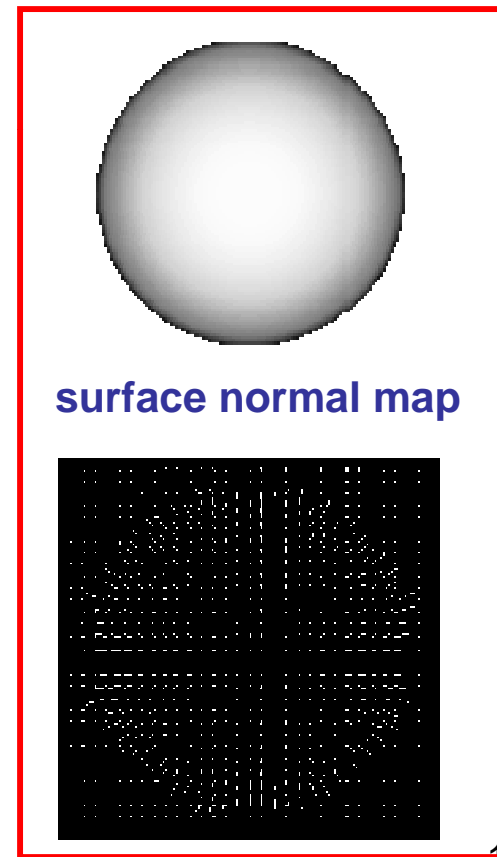
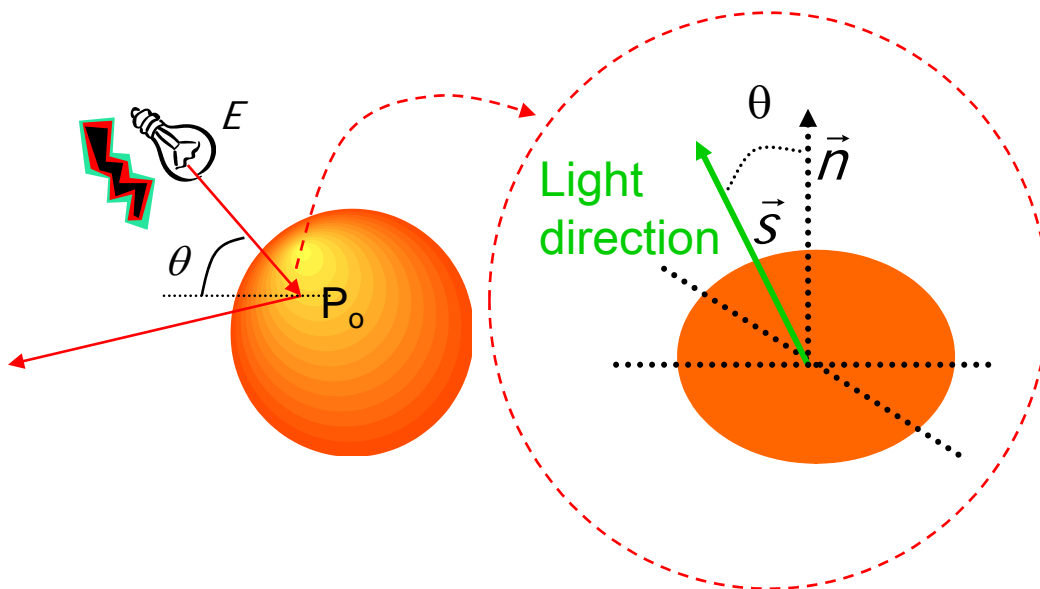
$$P(P_i) = E \rho(P_0) \vec{n}(P_0) \cdot \vec{s}$$



Lambertian surfaces

- note that
 - light direction \mathbf{s} is constant
 - but the surface normal \mathbf{n} and the albedo ρ are functions on the object surface

$$P(P_i) = E\rho(P_0)\vec{n}(P_0)\cdot\vec{s}$$



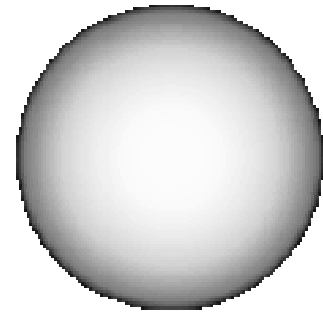
Normals

- the amount of reflected light at P depends on the surface normal $n(P)$
- how do I compute this?
- first we note that a surface is a function of three variables

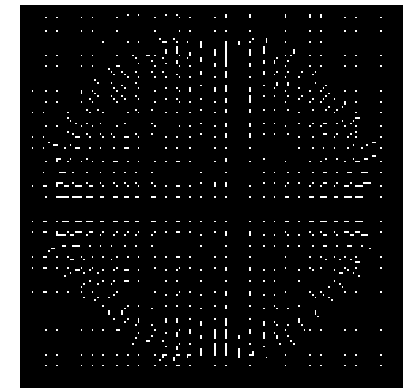
$$f(x,y,z) = 0$$

- e.g., the sphere of radius r and center (x_0, y_0, z_0) is described by

$$(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 + (z-z_0)^2 - r^2 = 0$$

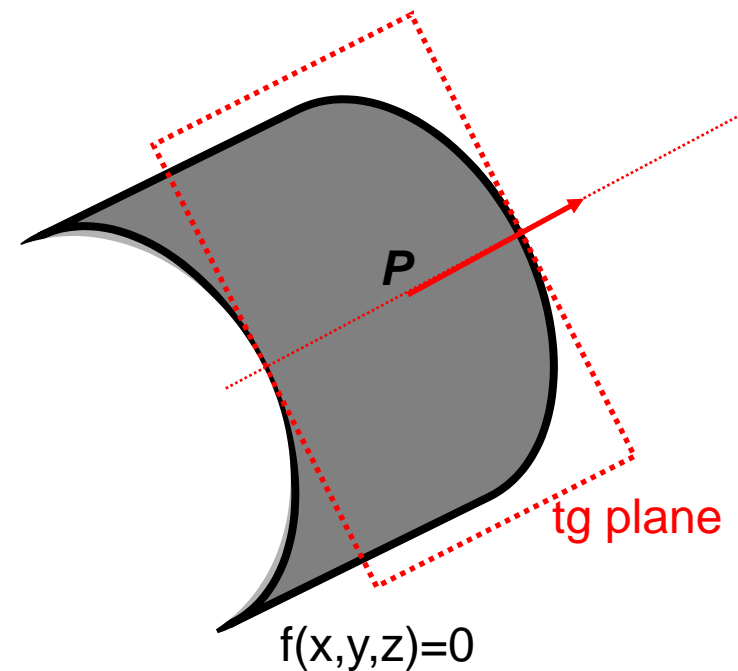


surface normal map



Normals

- the key is to note that
 - the normal is orthogonal to the surface
 - the surface is the set of points where the function $f(x,y,z)$ is constant
 - to “walk” along the surface I “walk” along the set of points where $f(x,y,z)$ stays constant (infinitesimally, this is the plane tangent to the surface at P)
 - to “walk” along the normal, I have to “walk” in the direction along which $f(x,y,z)$ grows most quickly
 - the key is then to find this direction of largest growth



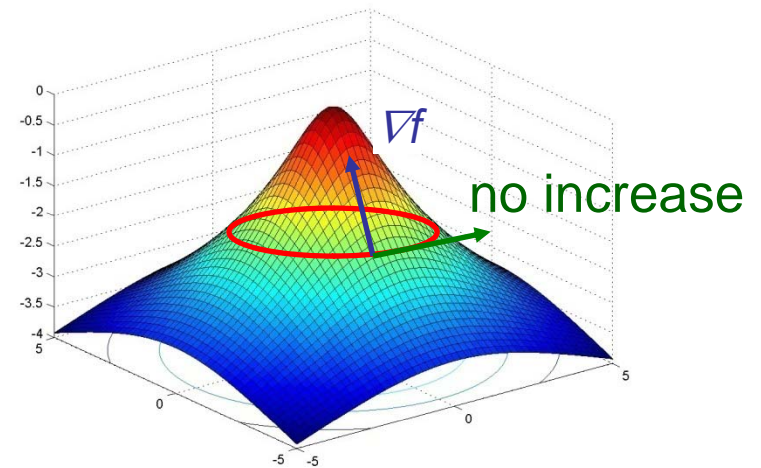
Normals

- recall that
 - a scalar function grows the most when its **derivative** is largest
- the generalization to a multivariate function is the **gradient**

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right)^T$$

- f increases the most in the direction of its gradient
- hence,

“the normal to surface $f(x,y,z) = 0$ at point P is the gradient of $f(x,y,z)$ evaluated at P ”



Normals

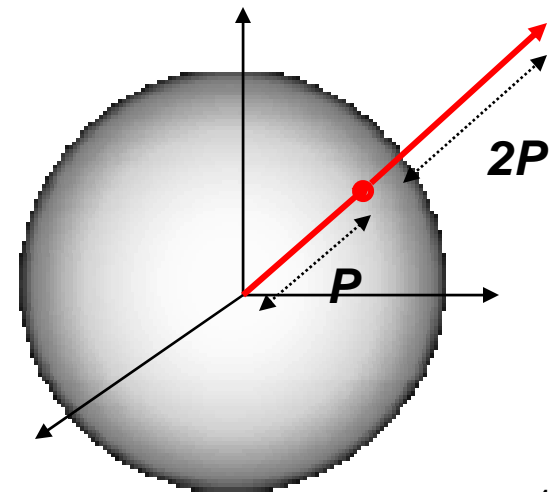
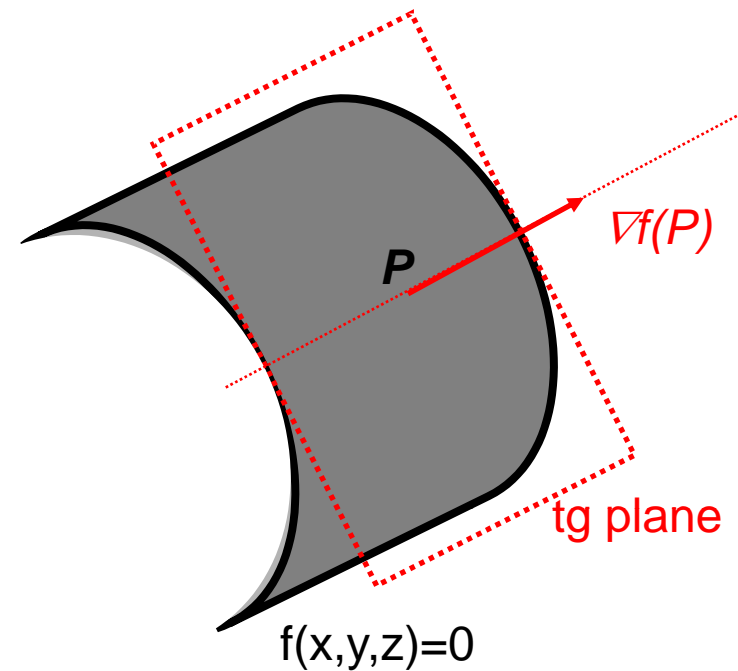
- this is an **important result** that we will use many times in the course
- e.g. for the **sphere of center $(0,0,0)$**

$$\nabla f = 2(x, y, z)^T$$

and “the normal at point P is simply $2P$ ”

- e.g.

$$n(1,0,0) = (2,0,0)$$



Normals

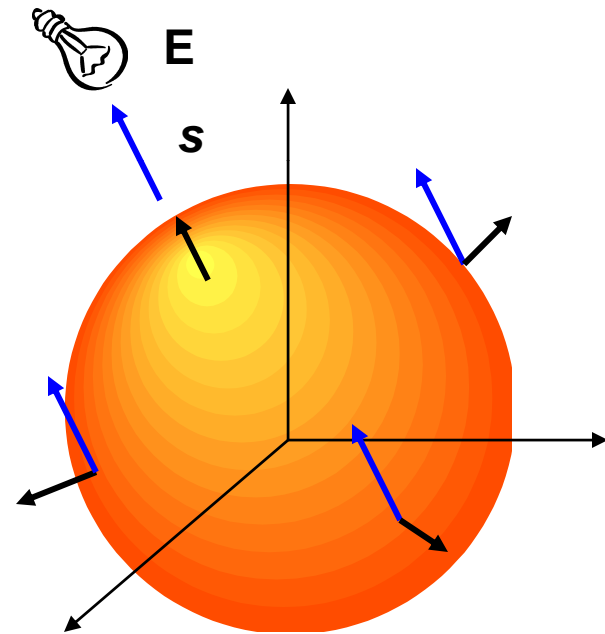
- note that this explains the shading of a sphere
 - we have seen a light source of direction \mathbf{s} generates an image

$$I(P_0) = E\rho \langle \vec{n}(P_0), \vec{s} \rangle$$
$$\propto \langle \vec{n}(P_0), \vec{s} \rangle$$

- for the sphere this is just

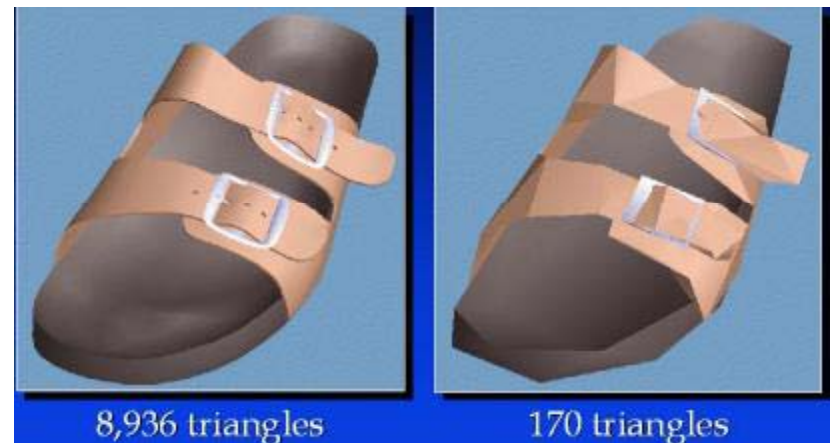
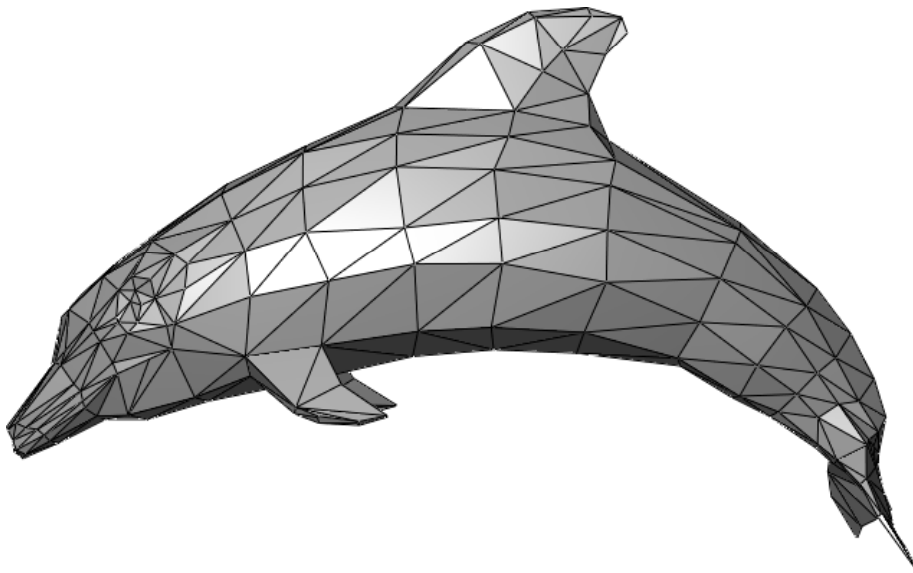
$$I(P_0) \propto \langle P_0, \vec{s} \rangle$$

“the dot product of \mathbf{s} with P_0 itself”



Normals

- what about **more complex objects**?
 - we approximate by a **triangle mesh**
 - **sample** a number of **points on the surface**
 - there are computer graphics algorithms for doing this
 - approximate surface by the **triangles that connect those points**
 - the **more triangles** you use, the **better the approximation**



Normals

- how do I compute the normal to a triangle?
- use the fact that a triangle is a patch of a plane
- how do I
 - compute the normal to a plane?
 - know what is the plane associated with my triangle?
- Q1: a plane is a function of the form

$$ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

- this is the plane of parameters (a,b,c,d)
- in this case

$$f(x, y, z) = ax + by + cz + d$$

Normals

- and

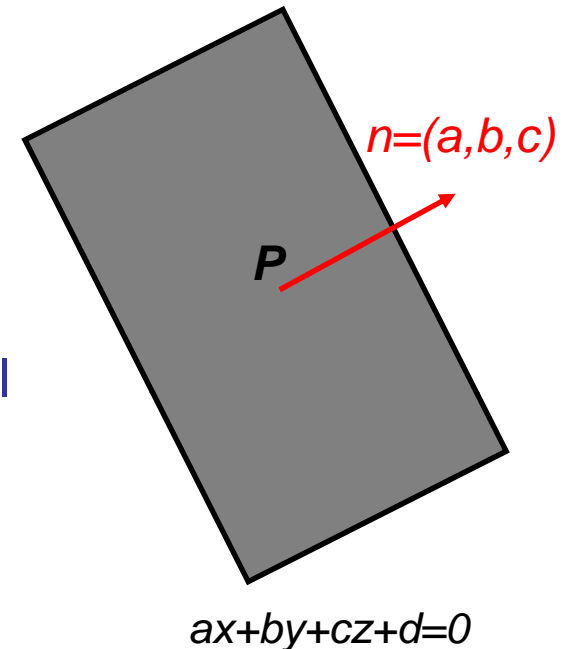
$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = (a, b, c)^T$$

- note that this tells us various things:
 - all points in the plane have the same normal
 - this is called the “normal to the plane”

$$\vec{n} = (a, b, c)^T$$

- the parameter d only has to do with the distance to the origin
- note that if $(0,0,0)$ is on the plane, then $d = 0$, otherwise $d \neq 0$
- the normal and d fully specify the plane

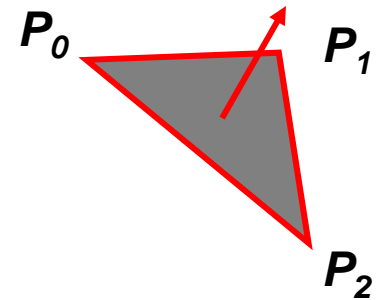
$$\text{plane} = \{P \mid \langle n, P \rangle = -d\}$$



Normals

- Q2: how do I know the plane associated with my triangle
 - note that triangle = 3 points, P_0, P_1, P_2
 - three points define a plane
 - we just have to solve the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \langle n, P_0 \rangle = -d \\ \langle n, P_1 \rangle = -d \\ \langle n, P_2 \rangle = -d \end{cases}$$



- note that multiplying n and d by the same number does not change anything.
- need to enforce extra constraint that $\|n\| = 1$

example (from hw)

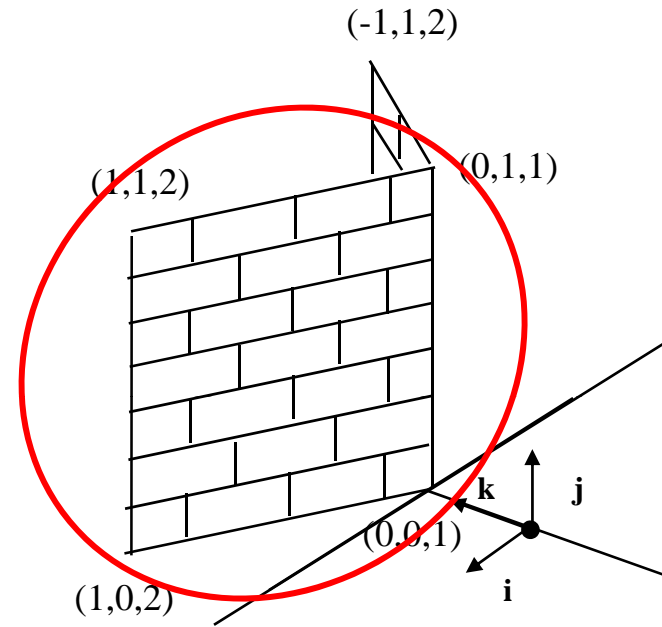
- three points

$$\begin{cases} \langle n, (0,1,1) \rangle = -d \\ \langle n, (0,0,1) \rangle = -d \\ \langle n, (1,0,2) \rangle = -d \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} b = -d - c \\ c = -d \\ a = -d - 2c \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} b = 0 \\ c = -d \\ a = d \end{cases}$$

- leads to the plane equation

$$dx - dz = -d \Leftrightarrow \boxed{z = x + 1}$$



Planes

- for a plane our radiometry equation

$$P(P_i) = E \rho(P_0) \vec{n}(P_0) \cdot \vec{s}$$

- simplifies to

$$P(P_i) = E \langle \vec{n}, \vec{s} \rangle \rho(P_0) \\ \propto \rho(P_0)$$

- this means that (constant) shading is uniform
- the variations that we see are variations in albedo

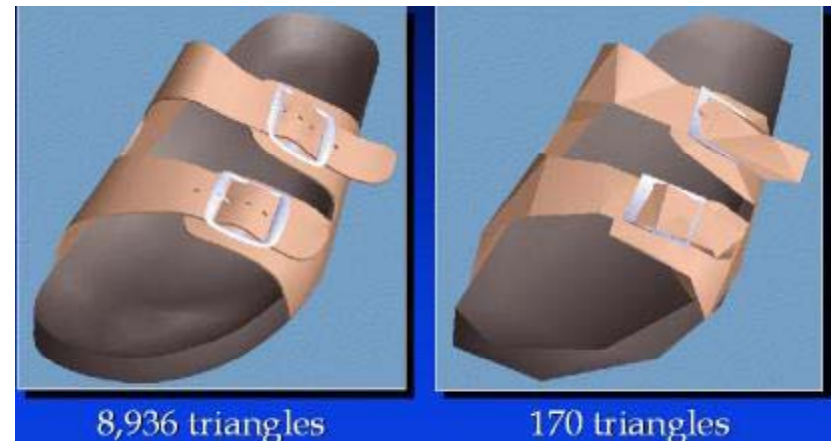
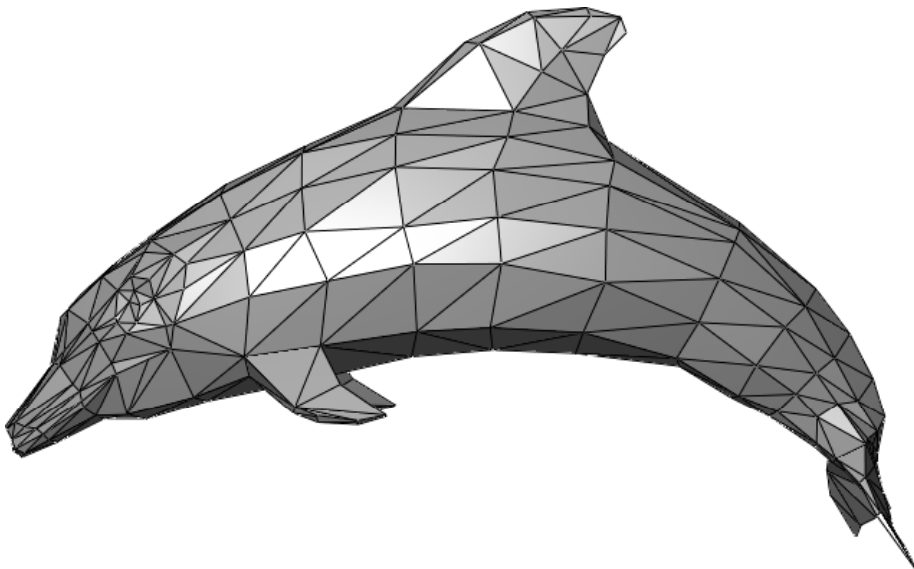


Meshes

- for a mesh
 - this holds for each triangle

$$P(P_i) = E \langle \vec{n}, \vec{s} \rangle \rho(P_0)$$

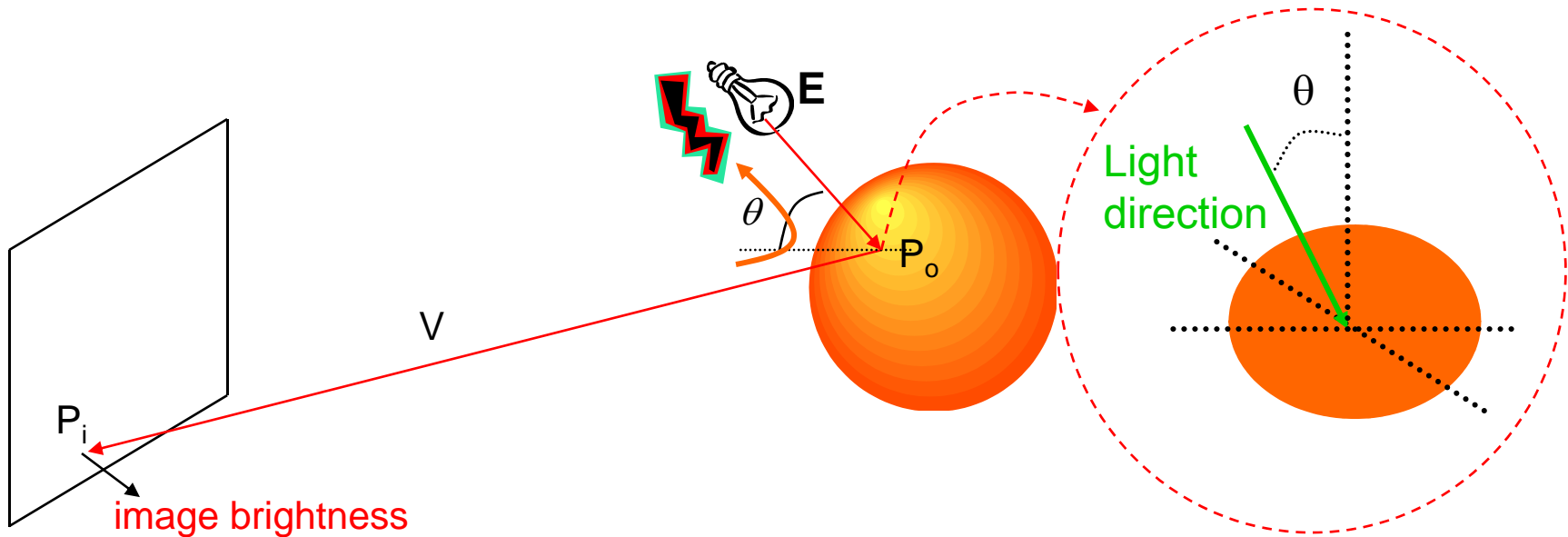
- but $\langle n, s \rangle$ changes from triangle to triangle (different normals)
- hence, we can still have complex shading effects as the number of triangles increases



More complexity

- in summary, we can do a lot with our **simplistic model**
 - Lambertian surfaces
 - point source @ infinity

$$P(P_i) = E \rho(P_0) \cos \theta$$



- turns out that we can work with much more complex light sources

Multiple light sources

- the key insight that the equation is linear on \mathbf{s}

$$P(P_i) = E\rho(P_0)\langle\vec{n}(P_0), \vec{s}\rangle$$

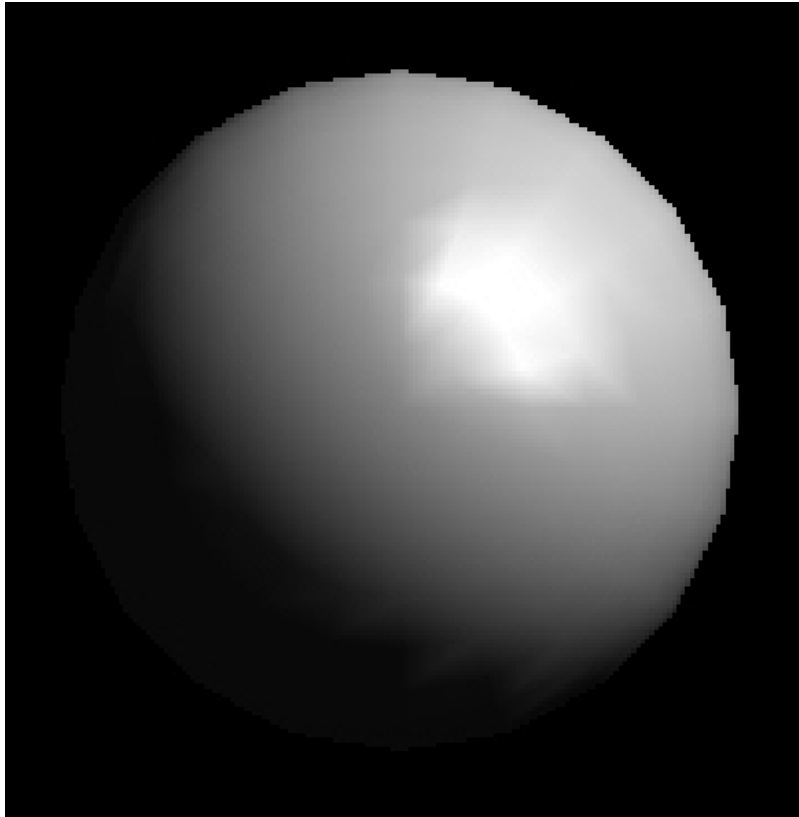
- if we have n PS @ infinity, we can just assume that
 $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{s}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{s}_n$

$$\begin{aligned} P &= E\rho(P_0)\left\langle\vec{n}(P_0), \sum_k \vec{s}_k\right\rangle \\ &= \sum_k E\rho(P_0)\langle\vec{n}(P_0), \vec{s}_k\rangle = \sum_i P_k \end{aligned}$$

- resulting image is sum of the images due to each source

Demo

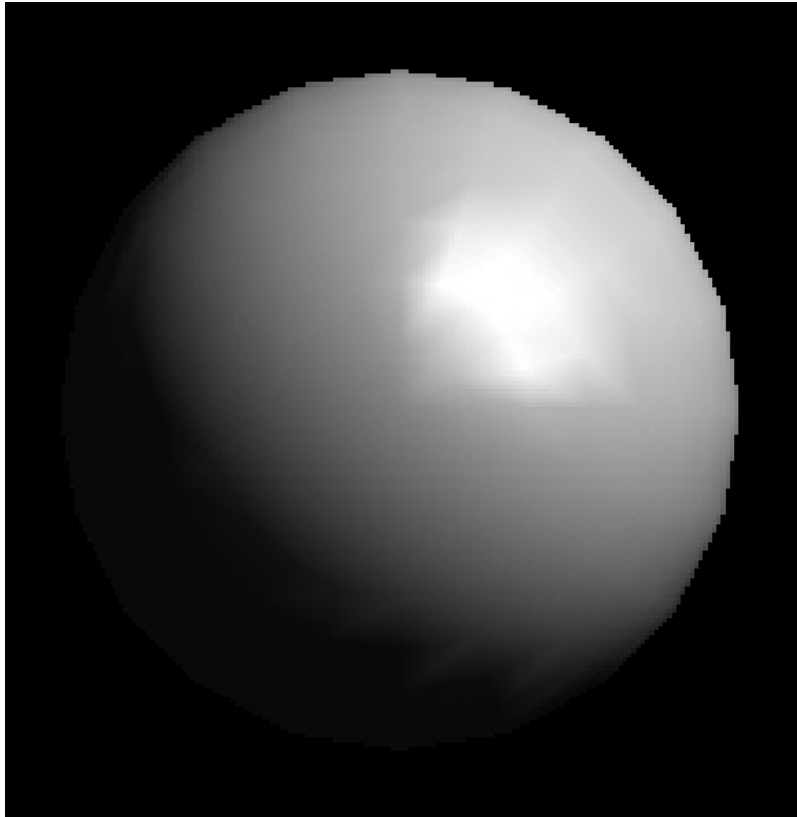
- we start from this image



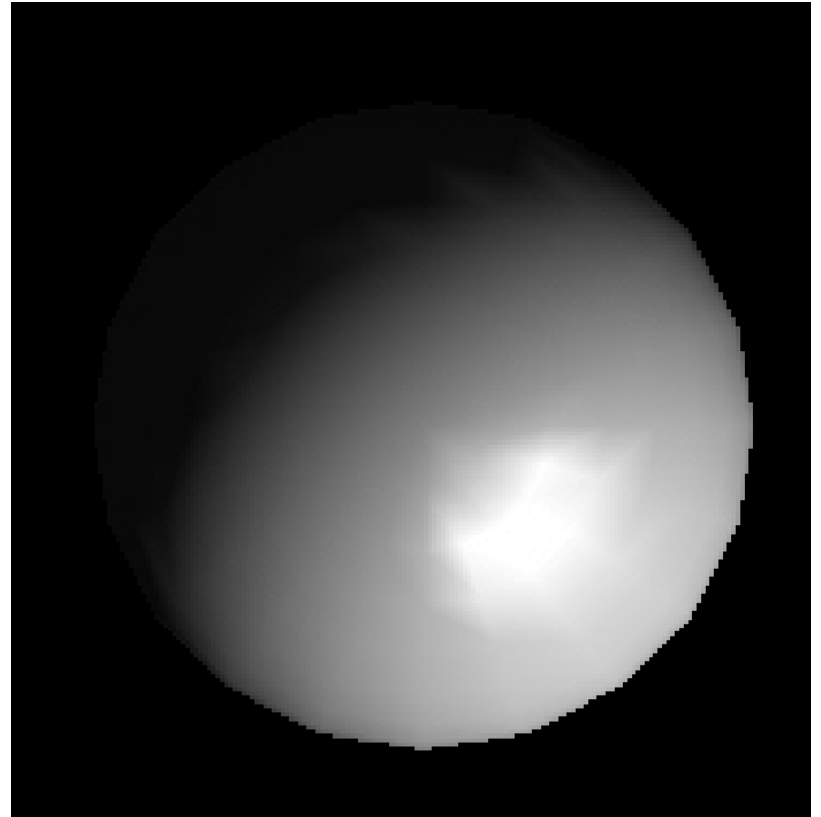
Demo

-

adding this

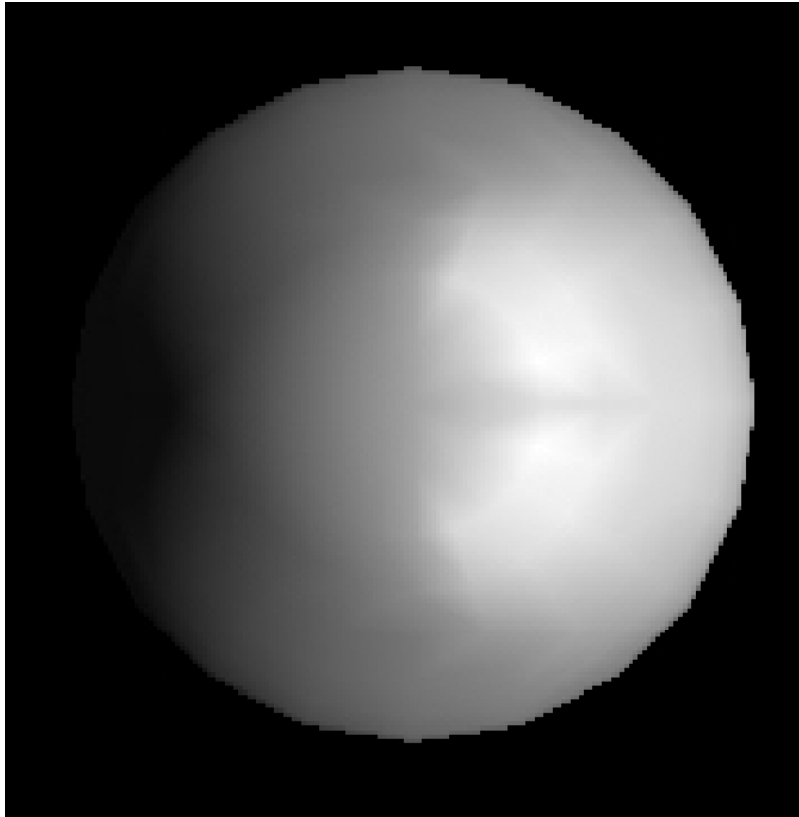


+



Demo

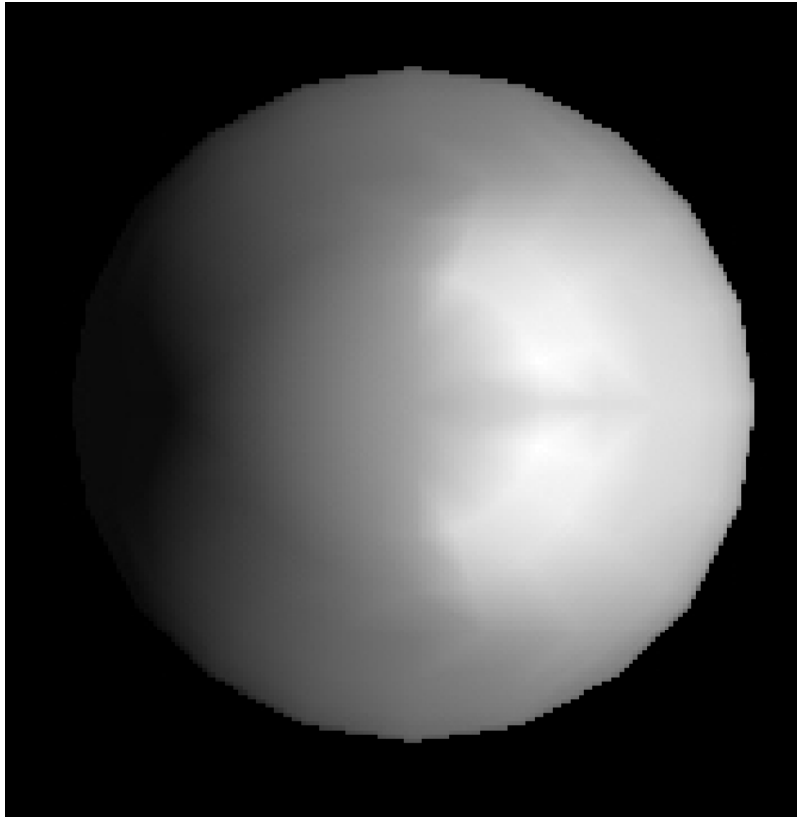
- we get the image lit by **two light sources**



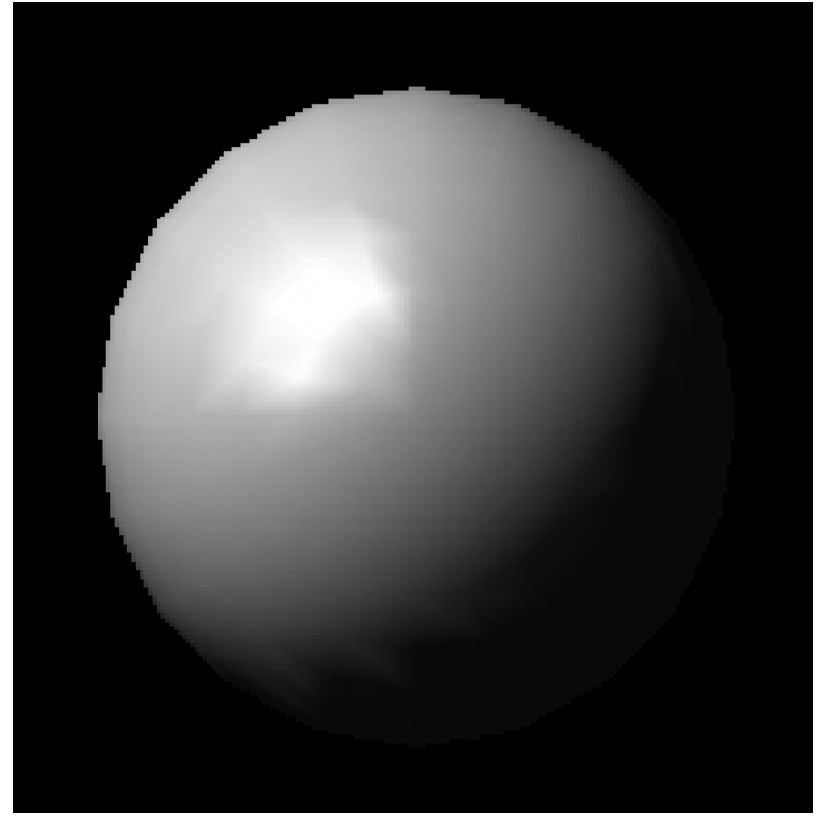
Demo

-

adding this

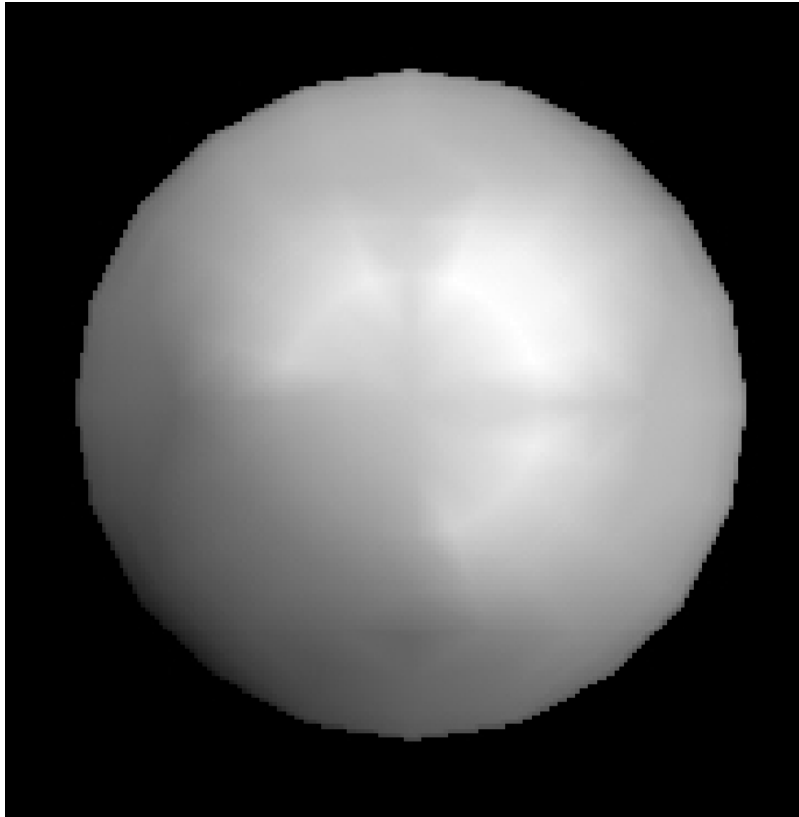


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Demo

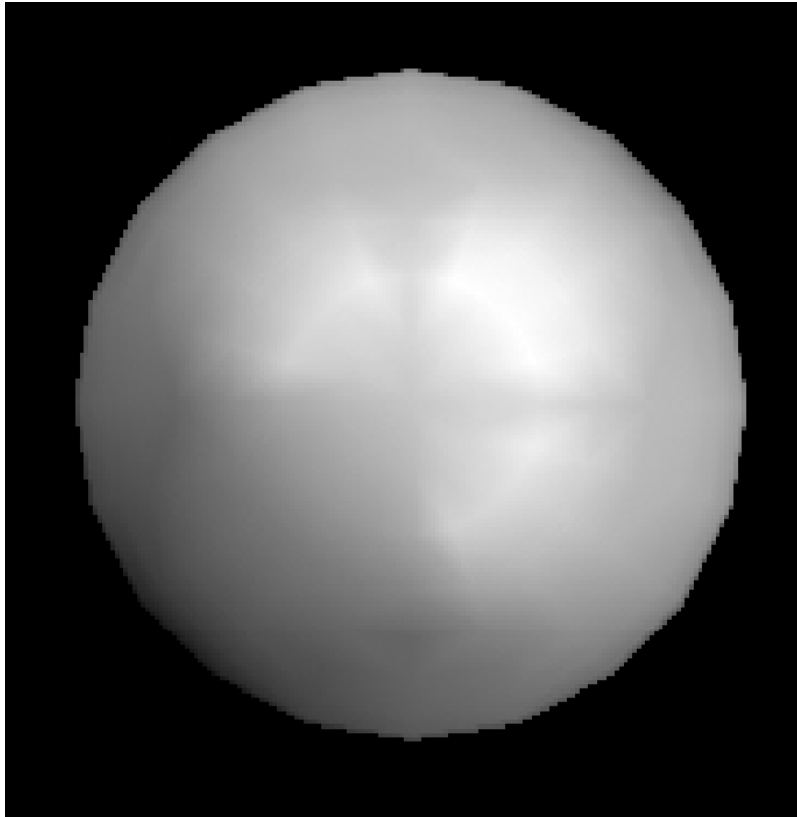
- we get the image lit by the **three light sources**



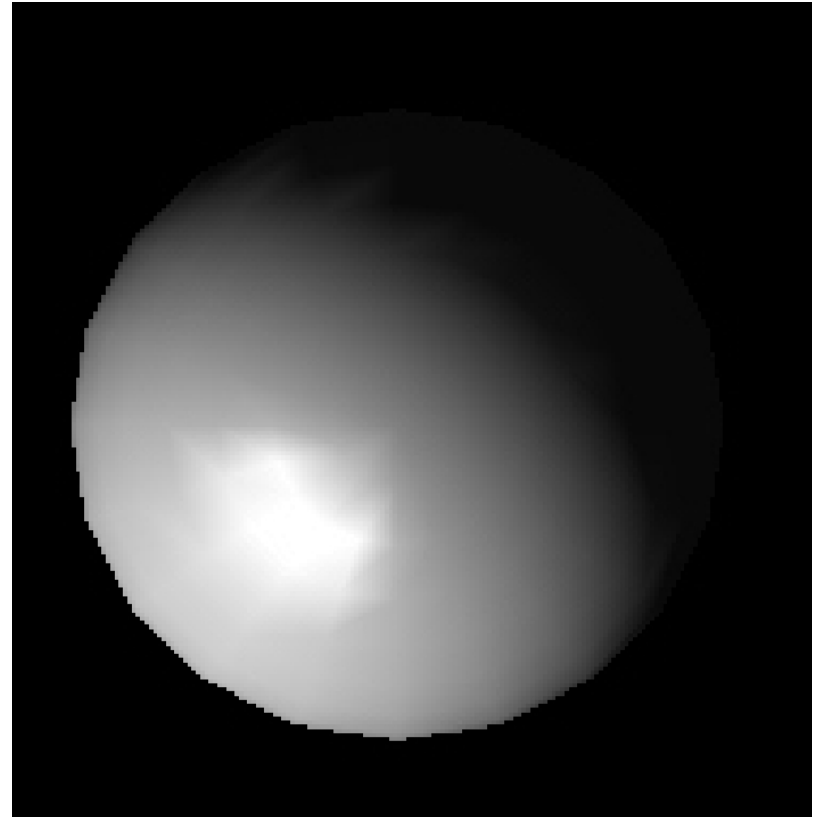
Demo

-

adding this

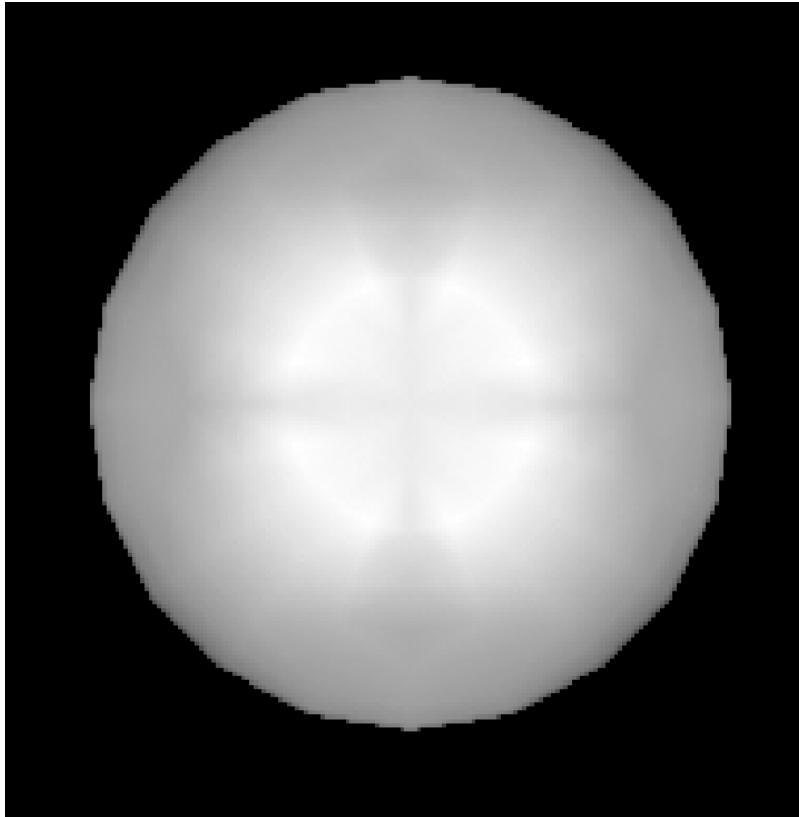


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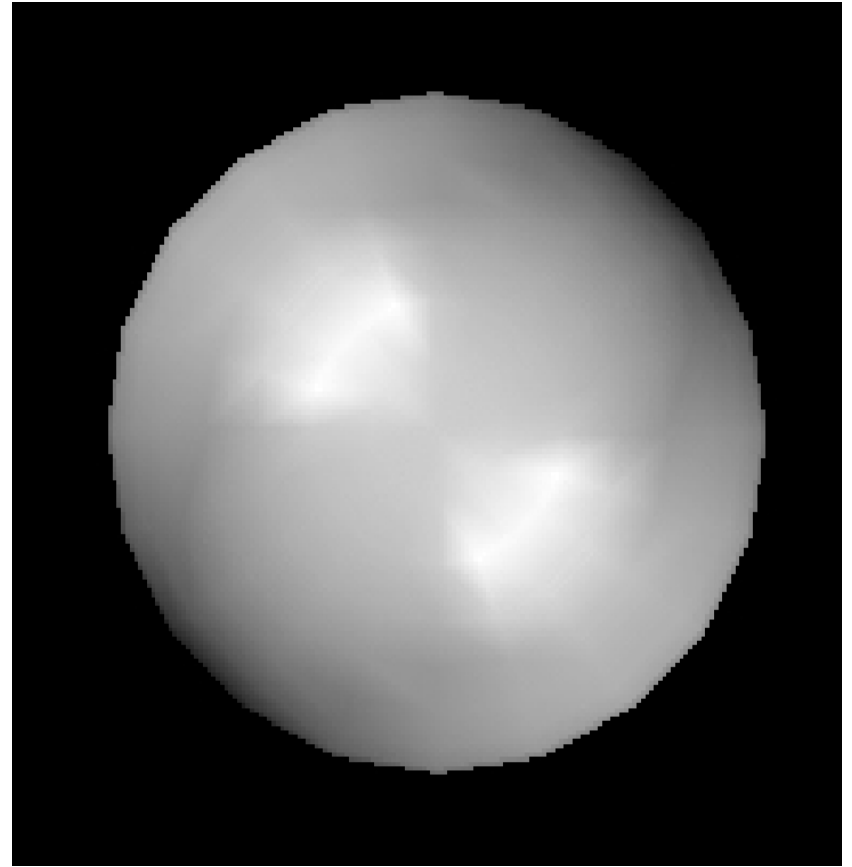
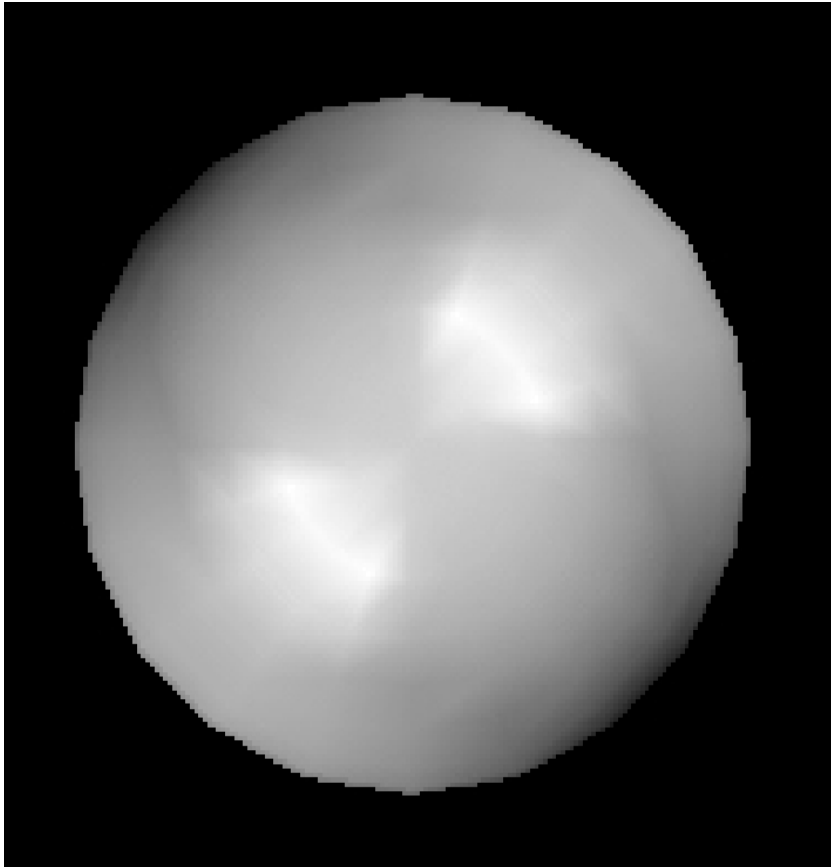
Demo

- we get the image lit by the **four light sources**



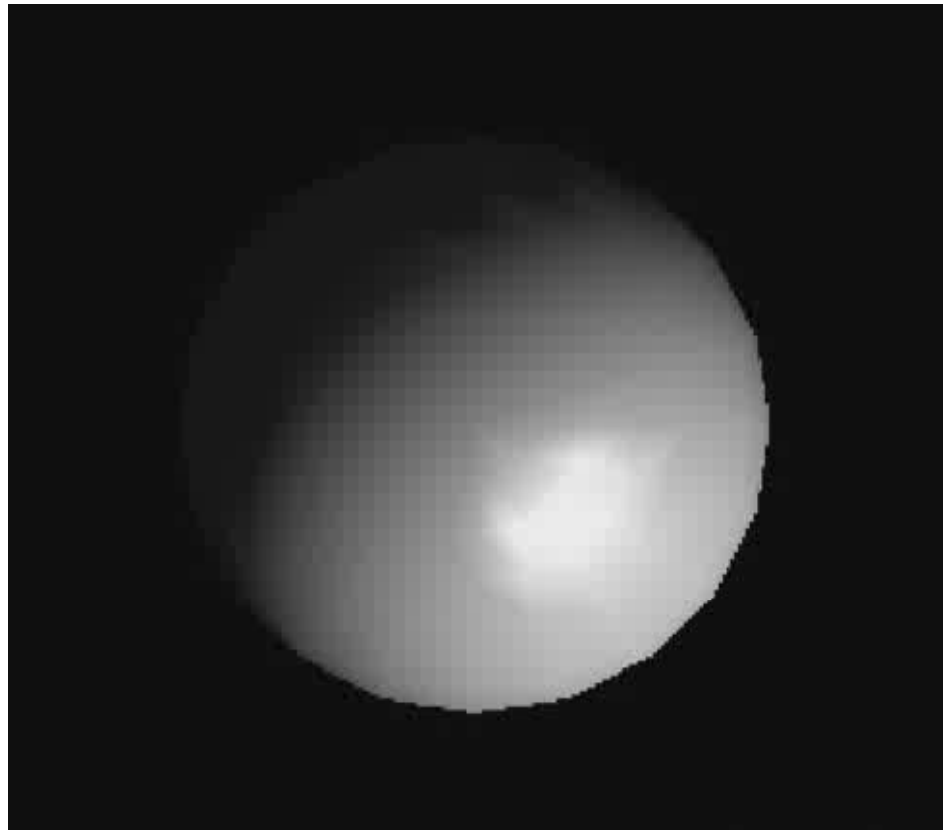
Demos

- other possible patterns



Demos

- From these I can create a movie



Demo

- and this happens in the real world too
(note
combo
of
geo-
metry
and
radio-
metry
)



More complexity

- and what about fluorescent lights, etc.?
- is this still a **point source**?
- no, but an **infinitesimal patch** is



- the **patch dA** is a **point source**
- we work with the **power density**, instead of power
- e.g. dA, centered at x , emits density $E(x)dA$ in its normal direction $s(x)$



More complexity

- the contribution of patch centered at x to the power that hits object point P_0 is

$$P(x) = E(x) \rho(P_0) \langle \vec{n}(P_0), s(x) \rangle dA$$

to compute the overall power, due to all patches, we simply **integrate**

$$P = \int_A E(x) \rho(P_0) \langle \vec{n}(P_0), s(x) \rangle dA$$

- and by **linearity of the dot product**

$$P = \rho(P_0) \left\langle \vec{n}(P_0), \int_A E(x) s(x) dA \right\rangle$$



More complexity

- we thus have

$$P = \rho(P_0) \left\langle \vec{n}(P_0), \int_A E(x) s(x) dA \right\rangle$$

- note that the integral does not depend on P_0
- this is the same as computing

$$\vec{E} = \int_A E(x, y, z) \vec{s}(x, y, z) dx dy dz$$

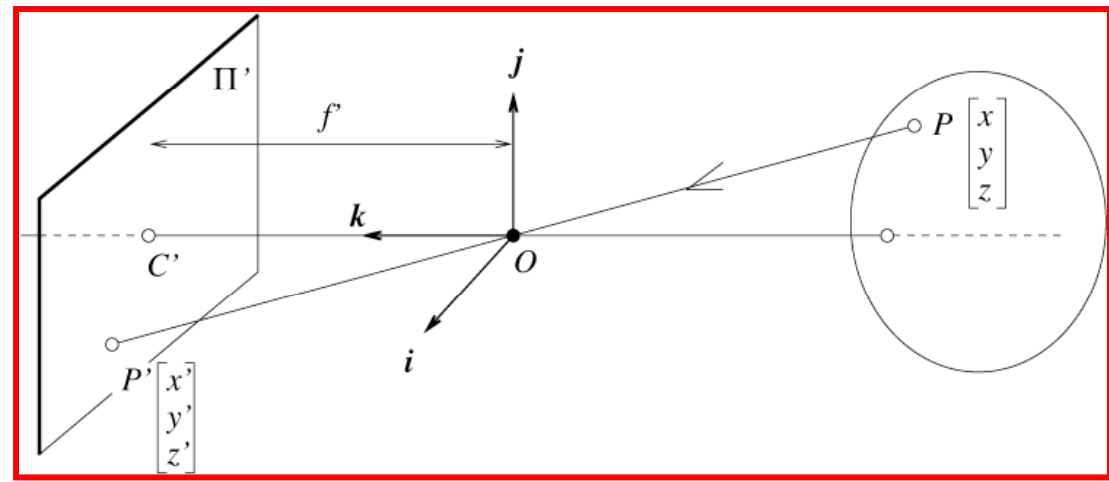
(which is a 3D vector) and assuming a point source of magnitude $E' = ||E||$ and unit direction $s' = E/||E||$



In summary

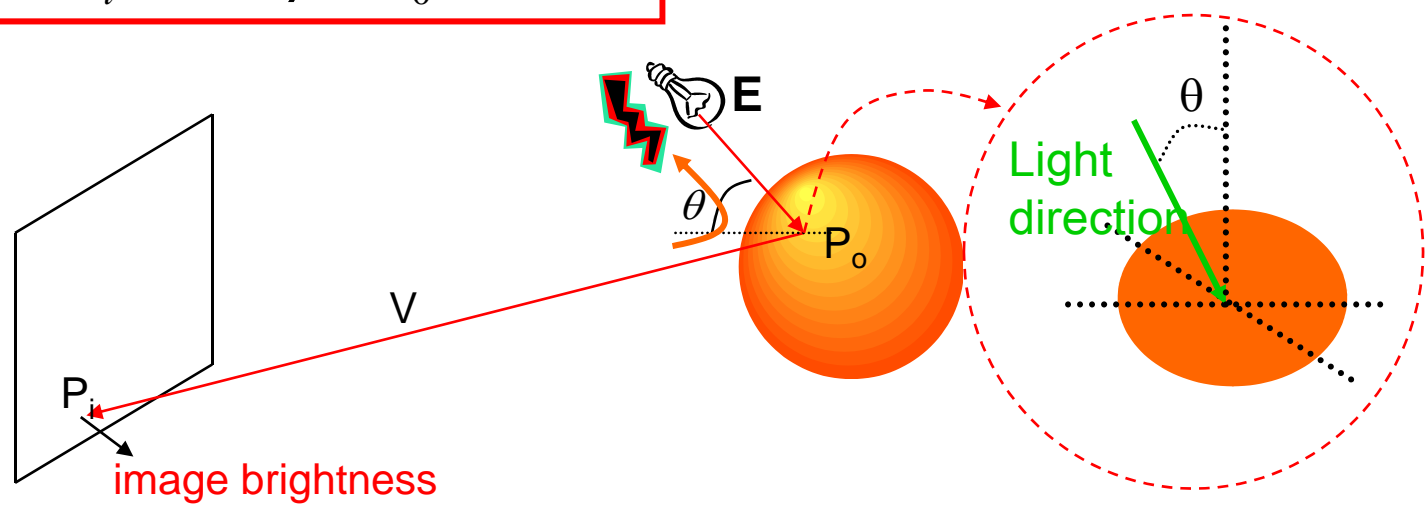
- geometry

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \end{pmatrix} = f \begin{pmatrix} x/z \\ y/z \end{pmatrix}$$



- radiometry

$$P(P_i) = E \rho(P_0) \cos \theta$$



Any questions?