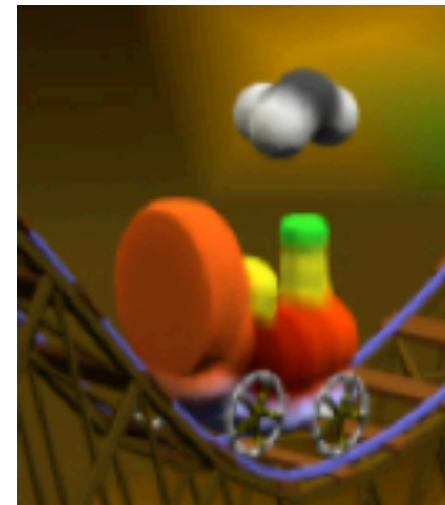




Advanced Computer Graphics Modelling beyond Polygons (and Raytracing them ...)



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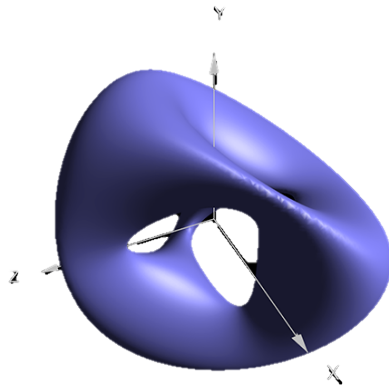


- An **implicit surface** is the set

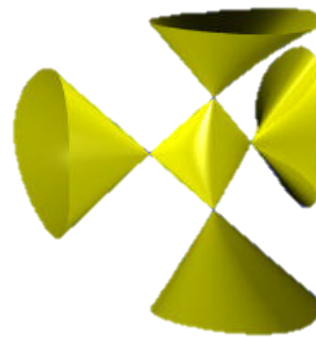
$$\{\mathbf{x} \mid F(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$$

with some function F .

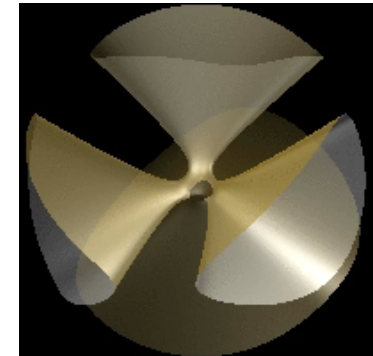
- Example: surface of sphere
- More & nicer examples:



$$(x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - ak^2)^2 - b((z - k)^2 - 2x^2)((z + k)^2 - 2y^2)^2$$



$$8x^2 - xy^2 + xz^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 8$$



$$(x + y + z)^3 = x^3 + y^3 + z^3 + 1$$

movie

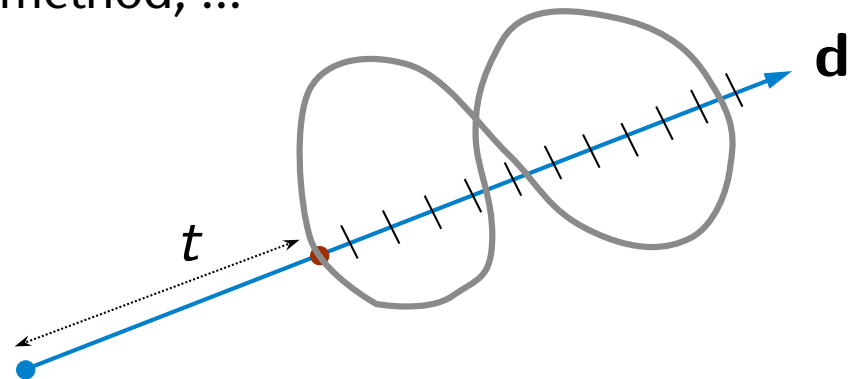
Intersection of Ray with Implicit Surface

- Ray: $P(t) = O + t \cdot \mathbf{d}$
- Inserting in implicit function $F(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ yields polynomial

$$F(P(t)) = 0$$

in t of degree n

- Find the roots:
 - If degree < 5 : solve for t analytically
 - Else: interval bisection, Newton's method, ...
 - Start values? ...



Root-Finding with Laguerre's Method

- Advantage: one of the very few "*sure-fire*" methods
- Limitations:
 - Works only for polynomials
 - Algorithm needs to perform calculations in complex numbers, even if all roots are real (and thus all coefficients)
 - Very little theory is known about its convergence behavior
 - If the root it converges to is a simple root, then the convergence order is (at least) 3
- Lots of empirical evidence that the algorithm (almost) **always** converges towards a root; and it does so from (almost) **any starting value!**

Motivation for the Algorithm

- Given: the polynomial

$$P(x) = (x - x_1)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_n) \quad (0)$$

where the x_i are the, possibly complex, yet unknown roots

- From that, we can derive the following equations:

$$\ln |P(x)| = \ln |x - x_1| + \ln |x - x_2| + \dots + \ln |x - x_n|$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln |P(x)| = \frac{1}{x - x_1} + \dots + \frac{1}{x - x_n} = \frac{P'(x)}{P(x)} =: G \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \ln |P(x)| &= -\frac{1}{(x - x_1)^2} - \dots - \frac{1}{(x - x_n)^2} \\ &= \frac{P''(x)}{P(x)} - \left(\frac{P'(x)}{P(x)} \right)^2 =: -H \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

- Let x be our current approximation of a root, w.l.o.g. root x_1

- Make a "drastic" assumption:

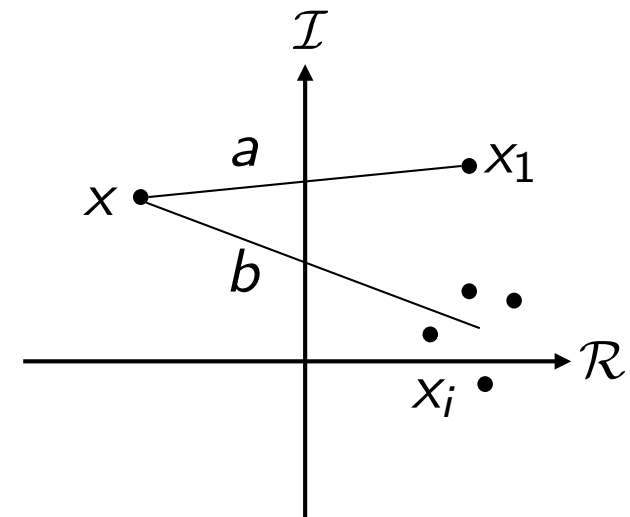
- Denote distance $x - x_1 = a$
- Assume, distance to all other roots is

$$x - x_i \approx b, \quad i = 2, 3, \dots, n$$

- Then, we can write (1) & (2) like this:

$$G \approx \frac{1}{a} + \frac{n-1}{b} \tag{3}$$

$$H \approx \frac{1}{a^2} + \frac{n-1}{b^2} \tag{4}$$



- Plug (4) into (3) and solve for a :

$$a \approx \frac{n}{G \pm \sqrt{(n-1)(nH - G^2)}} \quad (5)$$

- Compute G and H from

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n$$

$$P'(x) = a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 \dots + na_nx^{n-1}$$

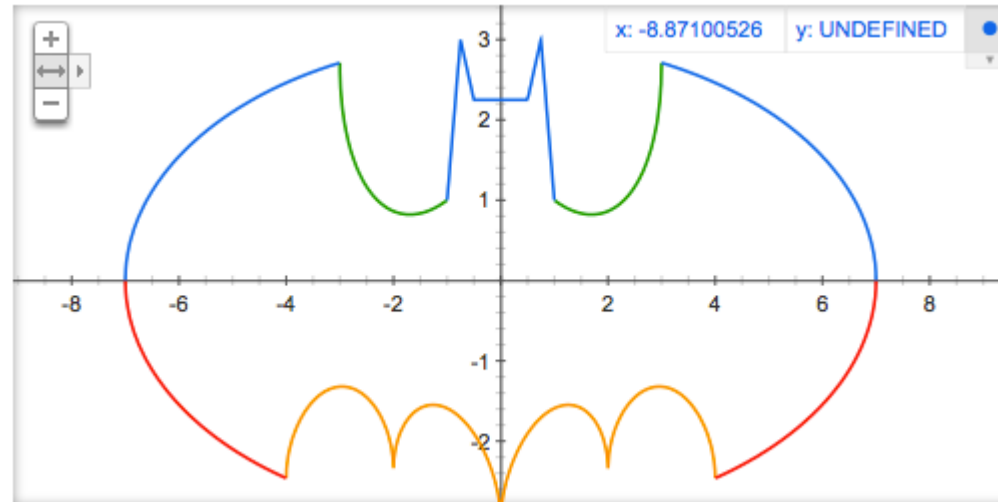
$$P''(x) = 2a_2 + 3 \cdot 2 \cdot a_3x \dots + n \cdot (n-1)a_nx^{n-2}$$

- Choose sign in front of sqrt such that $|a|$ becomes minimal
- Remark: discriminant under sqrt can become negative
 $\rightarrow a$ can become complex
- New approximation of root x_1 is $x_1 = x - a$

```
choose 0-th approximation  $x^{(0)}$ 
repeat
  compute  $G = \frac{P'(x^{(k)})}{P(x^{(k)})}$ 
           $H = G^2 - \frac{P''(x^{(k)})}{P(x^{(k)})}$ 
           $a = \frac{n}{G \pm \sqrt{(n-1)(nH - G^2)}}$ 
  let  $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - a$ 
until  $a$  is "small enough" or  $k \geq \max$ 
```

- Warning: try to use code from *Numerical Recipes*
- For ray-tracing: have to compute **all** roots!
 - When first root is found, factor it out of polynomial
 - Find next root of smaller polynomial, repeat Laguerre n times

- With a few tricks, one can even create complex objects 😊:

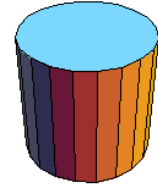


$$\left(\left(\frac{x}{7} \right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{||x|-3|}{|x|-3}} + \left(\frac{x}{3} \right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{|y + \frac{3\sqrt{33}}{7}|}{y + \frac{3\sqrt{33}}{7}}} - 1 \right) \cdot \left(\frac{|x|}{2} - \left(\frac{3\sqrt{33}-7}{112} \right) x^2 - 3 + \sqrt{1 - (||x|-2|-1)^2} - y \right) \cdot \left(9 \sqrt{\frac{(|x|-1)(|x|-.75)}{(1-|x|)(|x|-.75)}} \right) \cdot \left(3|x| + .75 \sqrt{\frac{(|x|-.75)(|x|-.5)}{(.75-|x|)(|x|-.5)}} - y \right) \cdot \left(2.25 \sqrt{\frac{(|x|-1)(|x|-.75)}{(1-|x|)(|x|-.75)}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{6\sqrt{10}}{7} + (1.5 - .5|x|) \sqrt{\frac{||x|-1|}{|x|-1}} - \frac{6\sqrt{10}}{14} \sqrt{4 - (|x|-1)^2} - y \right) = 0$$

Quadrics (Sphere, Cylinder, Paraboloid, Hyperboloid)

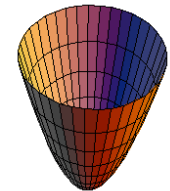
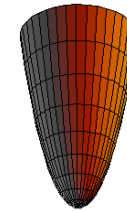
- Infinite cylinder:

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$



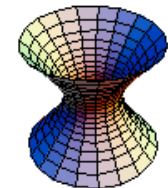
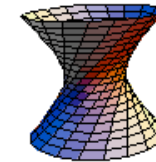
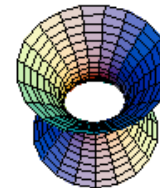
- Paraboloid:

$$x^2 + y^2 - z = 0$$



- Hyperboloid (*one sheet*):

$$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 1$$

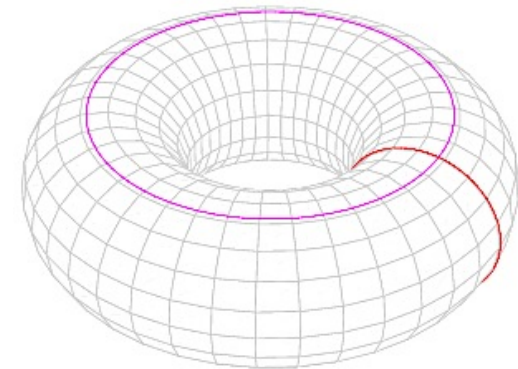
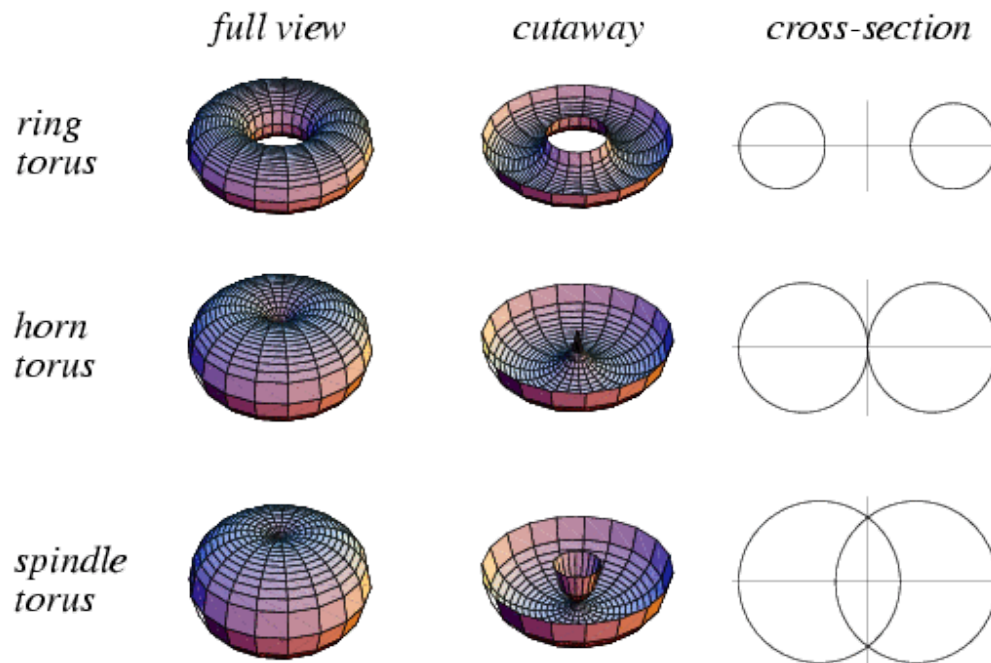
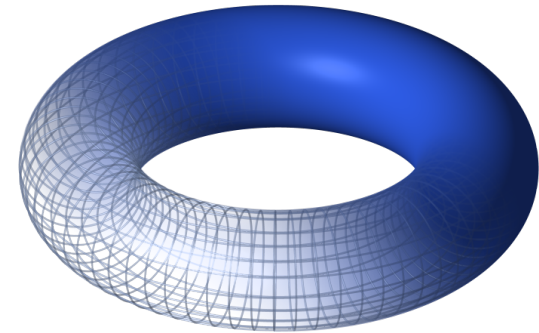


- All of these can be written as a quadratic form (hence the name):

$$\mathbf{x}^T M \mathbf{x} = 0, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^4, \quad M \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$$

- Torus (is not really a quadric!):

$$\left(c - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right)^2 + z^2 = a^2$$



- Generalization of quadrics
- Super-ellipsoid:

$$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^p + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^q + \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^r = 1$$

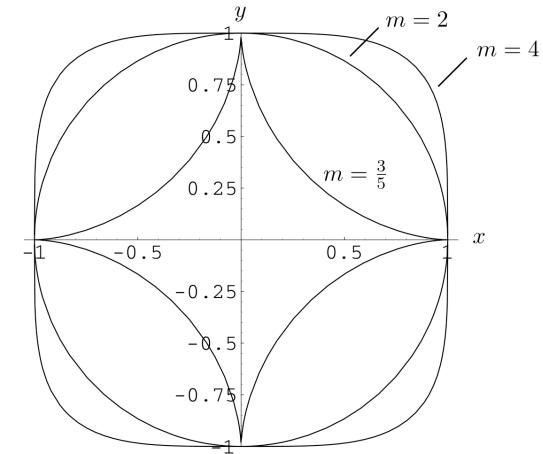
- Super-hyperboloid:

$$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^p + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^q - \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^r = 1$$

- Super-toroid:

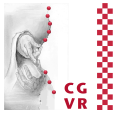
$$\left(d - \left(\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^m + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^n\right)^q\right)^r + \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^p = e^2$$

- Warning: in above equations, we always mean $|x|^p$!



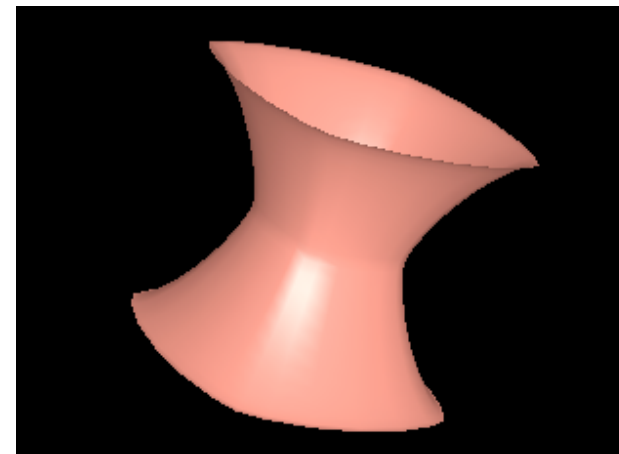
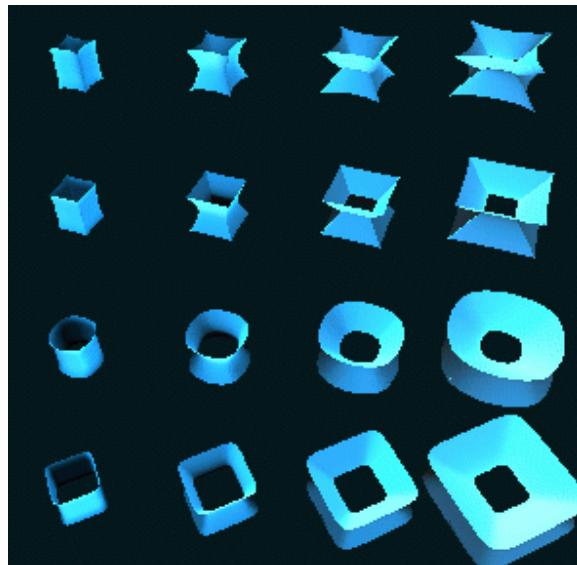
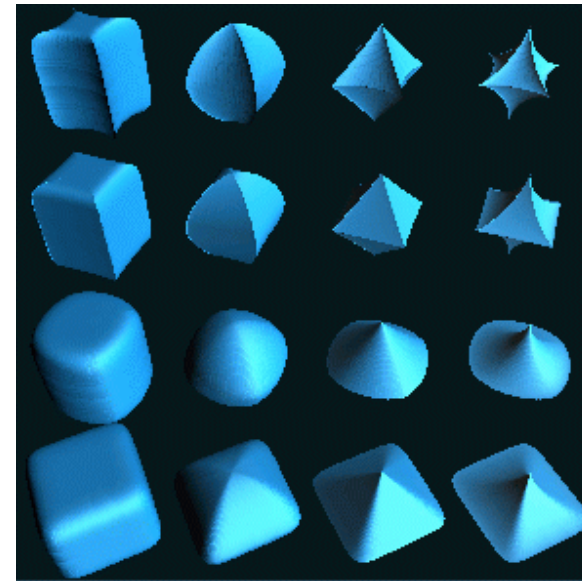


Examples of Super-Quadrics



Optional

n1	0.2	1.0	2.0	3.0
0.2				
1.0				
2.0				
3.0				



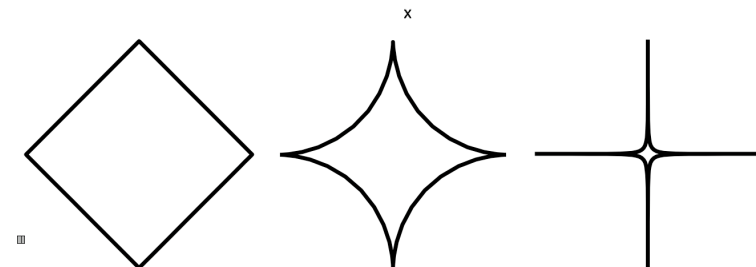
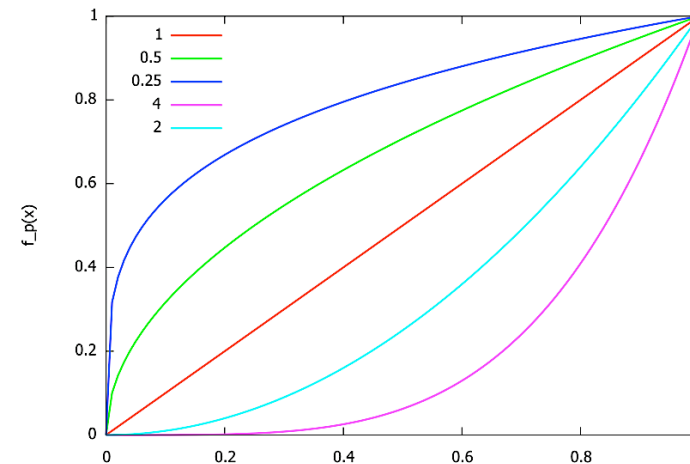
XScreenSaver demo "SuperQuadrics"
www.jwz.org/xscreensaver

- Variant of superquadrics with somewhat better properties
- Idea of superquadrics can be rewritten like this:

$$F(x, y, z) = f_p\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + f_q\left(\frac{y}{b}\right) + f_r\left(\frac{z}{c}\right) - 1$$

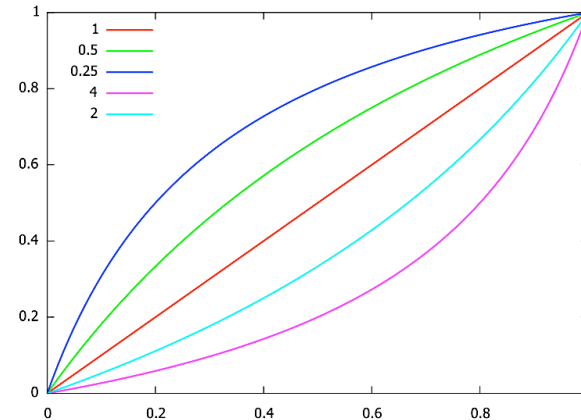
$$f_p(x) = |x|^p$$

- Problem:
 - $f_p(x)$ is not differentiable at $x=0$ for $p \leq 1$
 - Therefore, we get **cusps**, which might be unwanted
 - Besides, $f_p(x)$ is fairly expensive to evaluate



- Simple idea: use different power functions
- A new pseudo-power function [Blanc & Schlick]:

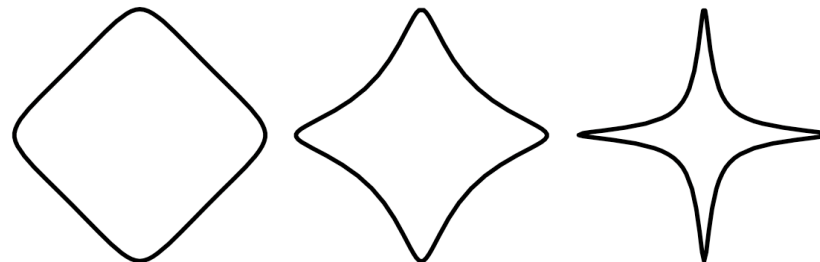
$$g_p(x) = \frac{x^p}{p + (1 - p)x}$$



- With that, the ratioquadric for a "ratio-ellipsoid" is

$$F(x, y, z) = g_p\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + g_q\left(\frac{y}{b}\right) + g_r\left(\frac{z}{c}\right) - 1$$

- Result:



- Inspired by molecules
- Idea: consider the surface of a sphere as the set of points that have the same "potential", where the maximum is reached at the center of the sphere → **isosurface**

- A **potential field** is described by a **potential field function**, e.g.

$$p(r) = \frac{1}{r^2}$$

where

$$r = r_1(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_1\|$$

- The sphere's surface is thus

$$K = \{\mathbf{x} \mid p(\mathbf{x}) = \tau\}$$

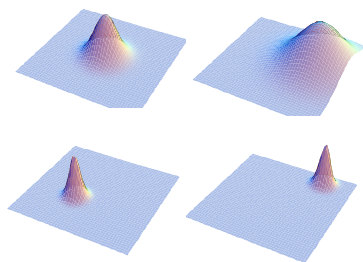
- τ is called **threshold** or **isovalue**

- More complex objects can be created by **blending (superposition)** of several potential fields

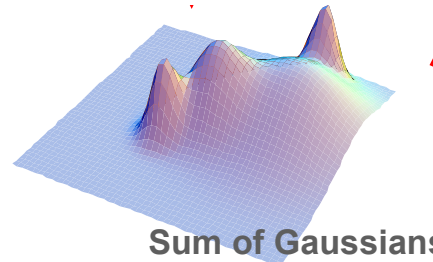
- Simplest blending is (weighted) addition of the potential fields:

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \frac{1}{r_i^2(\mathbf{x})}, \quad r_i(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|$$

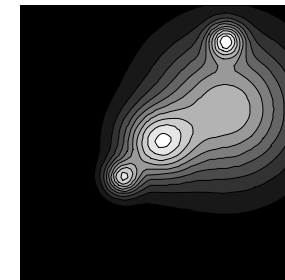
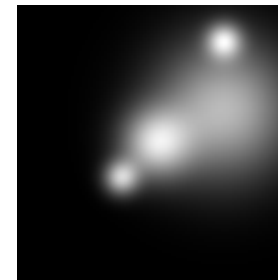
- The set of points x_i is called the *skeleton*,
 P is the total potential, the a_i determine the influence (= "field's force")
- Negative influence can "carve out" material (e.g., for making holes)
- Note: the potential field is defined in the whole space



Individual fields



Sum of Gaussians



Potential blob shapes

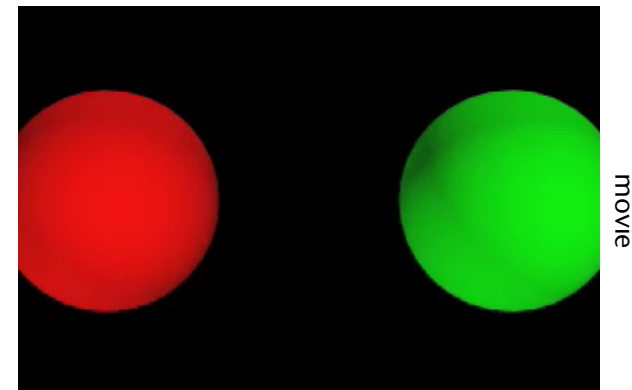
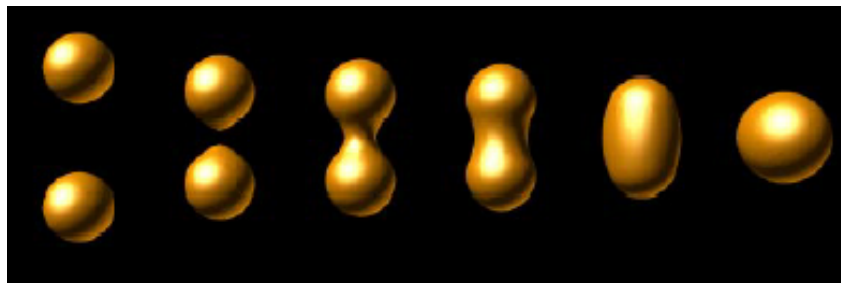
- Ingredients for definition of metaballs:
 distance function, potential function, skeleton points, weights
- In general, a metaballs object is defined as the isosurface

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ P(\mathbf{x}) = \tau \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3, P(\mathbf{x}) = \sum a_i p(d_i(\mathbf{x})) \}$$

with p = potential function,

d_i = distance function to i -th skeletal point

- Examples for 2 skeleton points:

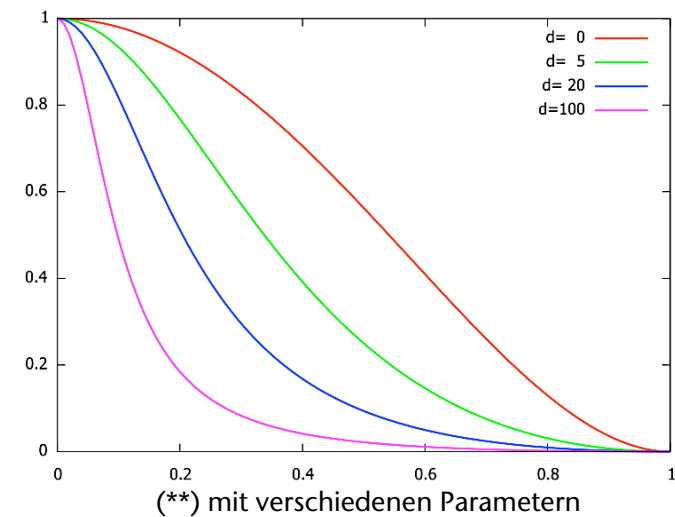
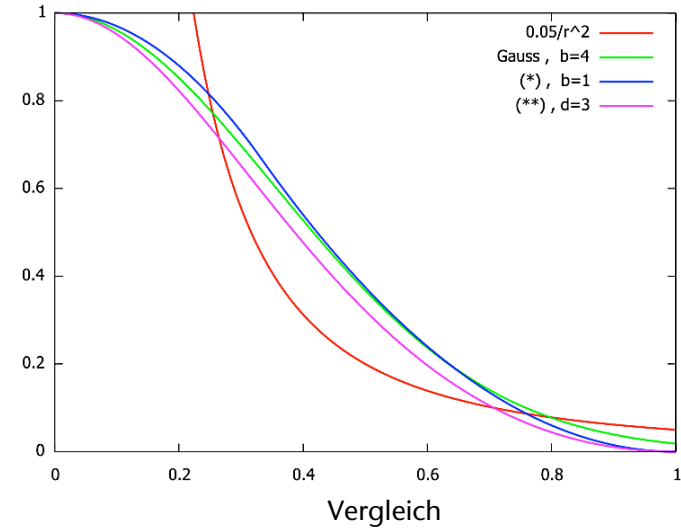


Other potential functions:

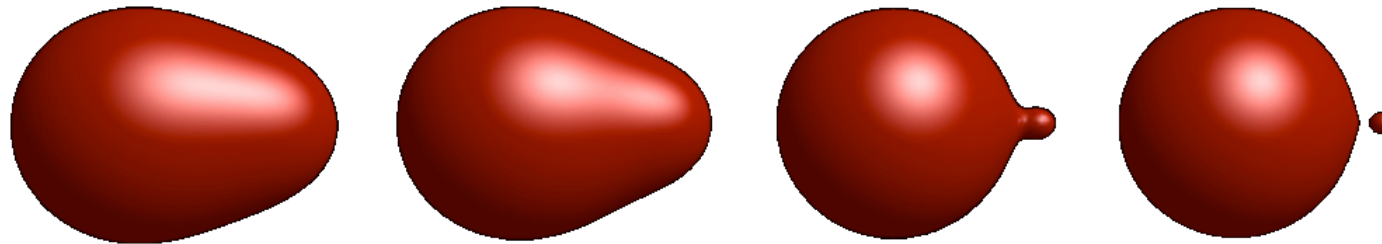
$$p_i(r) = e^{-br^2}$$

$$p(r) = \begin{cases} 1 - 3\frac{r^2}{b^2} & , r \leq \frac{1}{3}b \quad (*) \\ \frac{3}{2}\left(1 - \frac{r}{b}\right)^2 & , \frac{1}{3}b \leq r \leq b \\ 0 & , r > b \end{cases}$$

$$p(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{r^4 - 2r^2 + 1}{1 + dr^2} & , r \leq 1 \\ 0 & , r > 1 \end{cases} \quad (**)$$



- Effect of the variation of the parameter d :

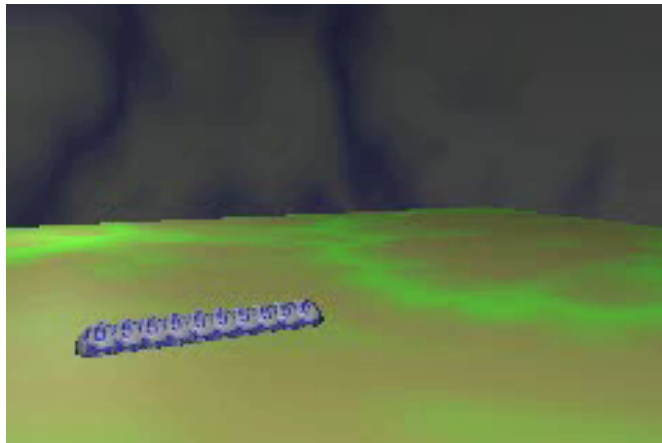
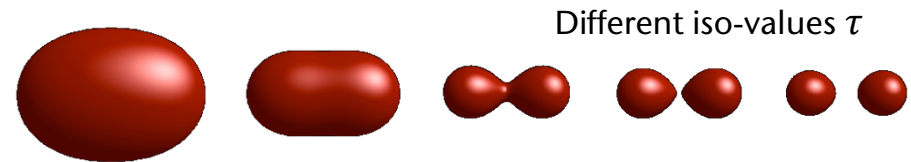


Potential fct is (**), d is fixed for the left skeleton point, $d = 10 \dots 2000$ for the right skeleton point

- Many names for this kind of modeling methodology:
 "metaballs", "soft objects", "blobs", "blobby modeling",
 "implicit modeling", ...

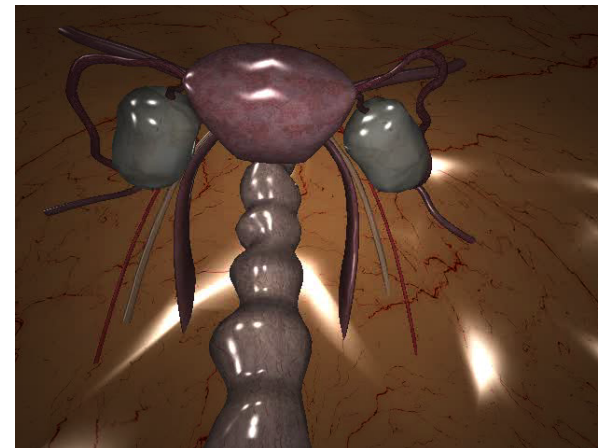
Deformable Models

- With implicit modeling (metaballs), it is easy to create and animate deformable "blob-like" objects:
 - Animate (move) the skeleton points
 - Modify parameters a_i, d, \dots
 - Modify the iso-value τ



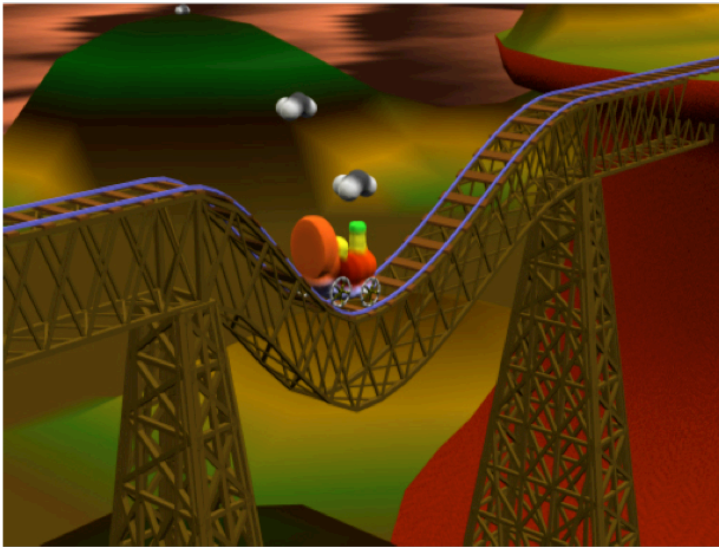
Brian Wyvill

<http://pages.cpsc.ucalgary.ca/~blob/animations.html>

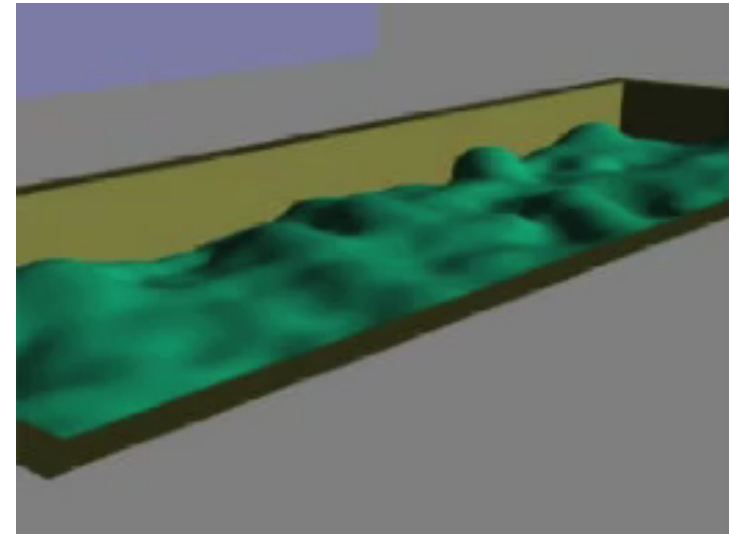


Frédéric Triquet

<http://www2.lifl.fr/~triquet/implicit/video/>



"The Great Train Rubbery" — Siggraph 1986



"Soft"

"The Wyvill Brothers"

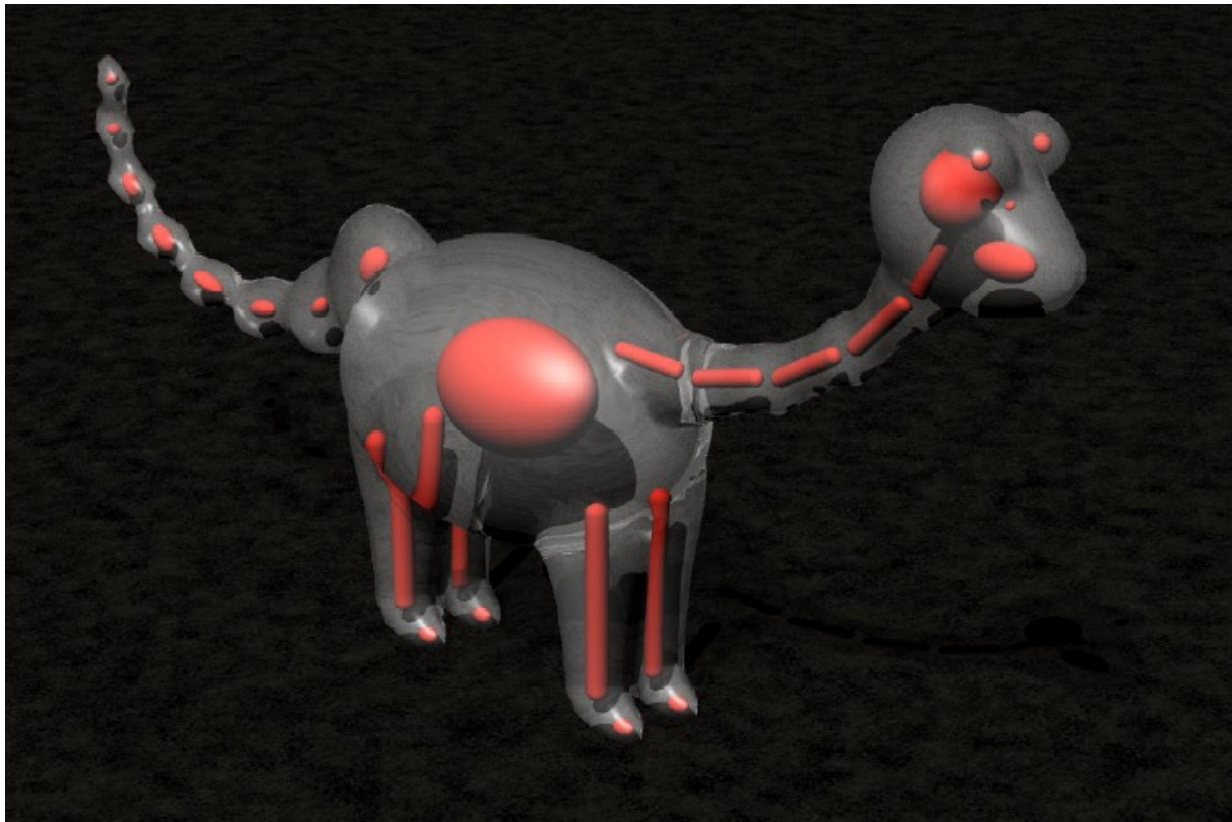


Geoff

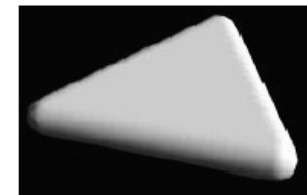
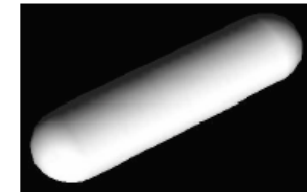


Brian

- Points are the simplest kind of primitive for metaballs skeletons; analogously, we can use lines, polygons, ellipsoids, etc.:



Examples of other primitives:

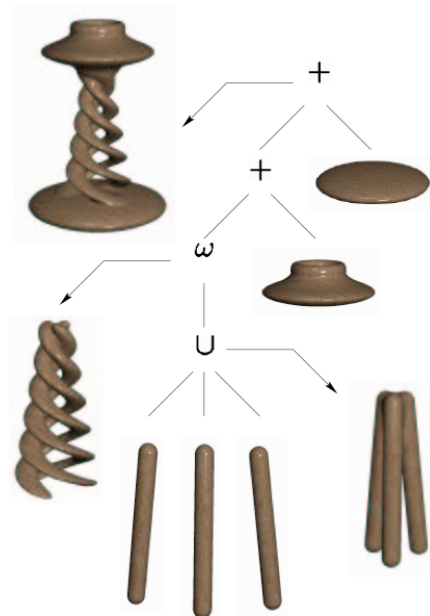


- Other blending functions:

$$P_{\cup}(\mathbf{x}) = \max\{p_1(\mathbf{x}), p_2(\mathbf{x})\}$$

$$P_{\cap}(\mathbf{x}) = \min\{p_1(\mathbf{x}), p_2(\mathbf{x})\}$$

- A tree of "blending" operations (similar to CSG) – the "BlobTree":



Remarks on Implicit Modeling

- One can achieve some nice effects very easily
- The technique did not get traction in the tool set of animation industries and CAD, because there is too much "black magic" involved in achieving a particular effect [says Geoff Wyvill, too]
- For special kinds of deformable objects, it can be very useful, e.g., for fluids