



In this part of the course, we will first discuss current and next-generation platforms on which games run. Next we will discuss the computation and storage constraints game developers face when developing for these platforms, the various production considerations which affect reflectance rendering in games, and finally the rendering environment within which reflection models are used in games.



In this section, we discuss the platforms on which games run. First we shall give a brief overview of the rendering pipeline on the relevant platforms, and then we shall detail some of the characteristics of current and next-generation game platforms.

Here we see three modern game platforms. Two are consoles (the Xbox 360 and Playstation 3) and the third is a PC.



To some extent, the various game platforms are converging. They all use multiplecore central processing units and GPUs with similar architectures.



Basic block diagram of the hardware architecture of modern game platform. On some systems, like Xbox 360, the GPU and CPU memory is merged.



This represents the main functional units in the GPU pipeline as it exists today. The Xbox 360, the Playstation 3 and current PCs all share this GPU architecture. For the purposes of this talk, we are most interested in the two programmable shader units. Currently there is a programmable vertex shader or vertex program, and a programmable pixel shader or fragment program. The rest of the pipeline is fixed-function (but highly configurable) logic.



This shader model is the one exposed in Direct3D 10. Hardware supporting this model should be available in late 2006. Most of the differences from shader model 3 are related to memory access, however the introduction of the Geometry Shader fundamentally alters the kinds of shading which can be performed, since shading is now possible at the triangle level if desired.



Now we shall discuss the computation and storage constraints game developers face when developing for these platforms, in particular as they pertain to rendering reflection models.

Computation and Storage Constraints			
Platform	Xbox 360	Playstation 3	PC (2007)
CPU	3.2 GHz	3.2 GHz	3 GHz
	3 Cores	1 Core + 7 SPUs	2 Cores
GPU	shader 3	shader 3	shader 4
Memory	512 MB	512 MB	2048 MB
Bandwidth	21.2 GB/s	25 GB/s	6 GB/s
	(256 GB/s)	25 GB/s	60 GB/s
			SIGGRAPH20

The PS3 and PC both have two memory buses, a graphics bus and a CPU bus. For this reason two bandwidth numbers are given; the first number is for the CPU bus, and the second is for the GPU bus. The Xbox 360 has one bus, and high-speed embedded RAM for the back-buffer (for which the bandwidth number is given in parenthesis).

Some of these computational resources are reserved for operating system tasks (some SPUs on the PS3, one thread of one core on the Xbox 360, and a variable amount on the PC).



Cache behavior is also a big problem with multiple CPUs and other tasks. Specifically, other processes and jobs can pollute the working set, vastly slowing down a processors performance. Latency varies from platform to platform, but is on the order of 100-500 cycles.



The shader model exposed on current GPUs allows for stream computation on individual vertices or fragments only, so any computations which are performed on triangles or otherwise require topology or connectivity information must be restricted to fixed-function hardware, or performed on the general-purpose CPU. In the near future, GPUs supporting shader model 4 will have the geometry shader which enables programmable triangle / topology computations. On the Playstation 3, the SPUs can fulfill a similar role.



It would seem that moving computations to the vertex level would always result in a performance gain. However, some scenes have extremely small triangles (so the balance between vertex and fragment count is not always overwhelmingly one-sided). Also, the GPU contains hierarchical z-buffer hardware which enables discarding many pixels before shading. When properly utilized, this can lead to the vertex processing becoming the bottleneck. Shading at a vertex level can also cause visual artifacts. For these reasons, in the future it is likely that the vertex shaders will primarily perform geometry transformations and deformations and the shading will be mostly relegated to the pixel shader.



500 instructions is high end, but recall that with flow control, in a typical scenario not all of these instructions are executed. Still, 500 cycles is theoretically feasible on high end hardware, assuming the hardware is running at full capacity. In practice the number will often be significantly lower.

The Z-prepass referred to in the slide is the technique of rendering the scene to the z-buffer first with a very simple shader (writing no color, just depth), thus taking full advantage of the hierarchical z-buffer hardware when the full shader is being used. This technique only works on opaque surfaces. Translucent surfaces often have high overdraw and for this reason they must use simpler shaders.



Memory throughput and latency improves very slowly while computation throughput increases at an accelerating rate. For this reason, there is an ever-growing gap in the relative cost between the two.



In this theoretical GPU, we have one shader core and 3 suspended pixels. The shader core starts by executing shader instance #1, which corresponds to a specific pixel on the screen.



When the GPU hits the Texture instruction, it halts the pixel thread, and puts it in the suspended pixels. The program counter and register state is halted at that texture instruction. Shader instance 2 is now loaded into the core.



Now, shader instance 3 is loaded into the shader core, and executed until the texture instruction.



Finally, the shader core gets to pixel instance #4, here we have 3 partially executed pixels waiting to be completed.



Finally, the shader core reloads pixel #1, and the texture load data should now be ready, having been sent across the bus



Storage constraints are often more important in Console development then in PC development, since there is often no guarantee of a hard drive, RAM is limited, and seek time on a DVD/Blu-Ray disc is slow. Additionally, high texture use causes bandwidth loads which can be a performance bottleneck.



These figures are composite numbers, but represent fairly typical scenarios found in real world situations.



Here we bring a case study of an actual game under development, "Sid Meier's Railroads!" by Firaxis, to show real-world computation and storage budgets.

Sid Meier's Railroads!: Where the Detail Is

- We put much more detail on gameplay elements then filler elements, usually 2-4x resources
- Can't do more than this or we start to see objects become out of place. A high quality object rendered on a low quality landscape stands out







The terrain pixel shader is an example of trading off computations for storage. A high-resolution unique texture over the terrain would require about 300 MB. By tiling multiple textures and performing complex compositing operations in the pixel shader, the appearance of a unique texture is achieved with only about 30MB of texture data.



In contrast to the terrain, which had a low triangle count but covered most of the screen, the "clutter" has a very high triangle count but covers less of the screen. This case a more expensive pixel shader can be used for more complex shading.



In Railroads!, the percentage of the frame covered by cities and buildings varies, it is low on average but there are times when it is higher.





Now we shall discuss the various production considerations which affect reflectance rendering in games.



First we will discuss the production pipeline for creating game art, in particular as it pertains to reflection models. Then we shall discuss issues relating to reflection models which affect the ease of art creation.



This is a somewhat simplified and idealized version of the modern game development pipeline. In reality, production does not proceed in an orderly fashion from one stage to the next – there is frequent backtracking and iteration. Also, not all stages are present for all types of data – the lighting stage is typically performed for rigid scenery and animation is typically performed for deforming characters, so both are almost never performed on the same model. We will discuss different types of game models later in the course.



The software packages in which the initial modeling is performed are traditionally the general-purpose workhorse of game art development, although many of their functions are being taken over by a new class of specialized detail modeling packages. The in-game geometry (as opposed to detail geometry which is only used to create textures) is edited here. This geometry needs to be amenable to level-of-detail (LOD), animation, surface parameterization and efficient in-game processing and rendering – these all impose constraints on how the geometry can be modeled.

Creating a surface parameterization is an important part of the artists task. This parameterization is used for the various textures which will be attached to the model. Automatic tools for generating these parameterizations have historically produced results of insufficient quality, however they are steadily improving. In the past, surface parameterizations included large amounts of repetition to save texture memory, now the growing emphasis on normal maps (which can rarely be repeated over a model) means that most parameterizations are unique over the model (or at least over half a model in the common case of bilaterally symmetrical models). This may also differ between scenery and character models (repeating / tiled textures are more common in scenery modeling).



Here we see an example of initial modeling of a game character's head in Maya. The in-game geometry can be seen, as well as the UV parameterization. Note that the parameterization is highly continuous. This is more important than low distortion, and is the reason why parameterizations are so commonly generated by hand. Discontinuities in the UV parameterization will require duplicating vertices along the discontinuity, and may also cause undesirable rendering artifacts in some cases if they are too prevalent throughout the model.

As mentioned before, the construction of the in-game model and its parameterization must obey multiple constraints and requires much skill and experience to perform well.



The next step is detail modeling. This has become more important in recent years.





Here we see the same character, after he has been exported from Maya and imported into ZBrush. ZBrush was the first detail modeling package and is still by far the most popular.


The relatively low-resolution in-game model has its resolution significantly increased and smoothed, then fine geometric details are painted / sculpted into the model. These details will not be present in the in-game geometry, instead they will be "baked" into textures of various kinds.



The most common type of texture used to represent the added geometric detail is the tangent-space normal map. This is a texture where the colors represent the coordinates of surface normal vectors in the local frame of the in-game (original, lower-resolution) mesh. This local frame is referred to as a tangent space. Detail modeling applications have various controls as to how the normal map is created and in which format it is saved. The generation of such a normal map can be seen as a process of sampling the surface normals of the high-detail model onto the surface parameterization of the low-detail model.

Here we see another reason why the surface texture parameterization created by the artist in the previous step is important. This parameterization is not only used to map textures such as the normal map onto the surface; it is also used to define the local surface frame into which the surface normals are resampled.

The normal map extraction is not always performed in the detail modeling application – sometimes the high-detail geometry is exported, and both it and the low-detail geometry are imported into a specialized normal map generation application, such as Melody from NVIDIA. General-purpose modeling packages such as Maya also provide normal map generation functionality.



Here we see the resulting normal map texture which was generated from ZBrush. In this common representation, the red, green and blue channels of the texture represent the X, Y and Z coordinates respectively of the surface normal vector in tangent space. The -1 to 1 range of the coordinates has been remapped to the 0 to 1 range of the texture channels. The common purple color we see here is RGB = $\{0.5, 0.5, 1\}$, which represents a surface normal of $\{0, 0, 1\}$ in tangent space, namely a surface normal which is aligned with that of the underlying low-resolution surface. Divergences from this color represent areas where the surface normal diverges from that of the low-resolution surface.

Note that many other representations of the normal map are possible. For example, it is common to only store the X and Y components of the normal, generating the Z component in the shader based on the fact that the normal vector is known to lie on the upper hemisphere.



Many other surface properties besides surface normals are stored in textures. The most common (and until recently, the only) such texture is the diffuse color or spectral albedo texture. We see here the color texture which in an early state of work in Photoshop (by far the most common 2D texture editing application). More recently, many other surface properties are stored in textures. Any BRDF parameter can be stored in a texture, although if the parameter affects the final radiance in a highly non-linear manner, the hardware texture filtering will not produce the correct result. There will be more discussion on this subject later in the course.

A highly continuous parameterization will make it much easier to paint the texture, which is yet another reason why this is a desirable property.



Here is the result of applying the work-in-progress texture we just saw to the model in ZBrush. It is possible to work closely between the 2D texture painting application and the 3D detail modeling application, changes in one will be quickly mirrored in the other so the artist has immediate feedback of the results of their changes.

Detail modeling applications also allow painting surface colors directly onto the surface of the model, which is starting to become a popular alternative to 2D painting tools. In most cases, both options are used together since each type of tool is convenient for performing certain operations.



Here we see the final painted texture in Photoshop,



And in ZBrush.



The next step is material modeling. This is an important step for this course, and uses the results of the previous step.



This is where the artist will choose from the available shaders, so if there are shaders supporting different reflectance models or BRDFs the artist will decide which is most applicable to the object. The entire object does not have to use the same shader, although there are significant performance advantages to maximizing the amount of geometry which can be drawn with a single shader.



Here we see the in-game model with the normal map generated from ZBrush and the color map painted in Photoshop applied. The open dialog allows the artist to select the shaders used, and once selected, to select which textures are used and various other parameters which are not derived from textures. For example, in this shader although the diffuse color is derived from a texture, the specular color is a shader setting. However, this color is multiplied with a per-pixel scalar factor derived from the Alpha channel of the color texture. The specular power is also a setting and not derived from a texture. In general, deriving parameters from textures makes the shader more expressive, enabling the artist to represent different kinds of materials in a single shader (which has some advantages). On the other hand, increasing the amount of textures used uses up more storage, and may also cause the shaders to execute considerably more slowly.



The next step is lighting. This refers to "pre-lighting", which is the pre-computation of lighting values.



This is only done for certain kinds of geometry and materials, and we will discuss it further in a later section of the course. One noteworthy detail about lighting tools is that they are sometimes used to generate "ambient occlusion" factors into vertices or textures for use in later rendering.



Finally, we have animation. This is only relevant for certain kinds of models (scenery is rarely animated). The two most common kinds of animation used in games are bone deformation and blend shapes (also known as morph targets).



Here we see the final character being animated in Maya, using blend shapes or morph targets. The animation is most commonly performed in the general-purpose modeling application.



We have mentioned several times that different kinds of models are sometimes handled differently in the art pipeline. These are the main types of game models.

Background objects are mostly static, and include scenery (such as rooms, ground, trees, etc.). Foreground objects include characters, and other objects which might need to move and / or deform.

Note that which category an object can belong to is somewhat dependent on the specific game; in one case a chair may be static and a background object, in another game the chair may be movable by the character and act as a foreground object.

The example scene is from a game which is currently under development by Naughty Dog.



Background objects are sometimes further differentiated into unique, seamlessly connected parts (such as walls and floor) and instanced discrete objects.

Here we have marked the barrels as instanced background for example's sake, however if they are desired to move or interact in other ways they may actually be foreground objects.

This is another example scene from the same game.



Now we shall discuss issues relating to reflection models which affect the ease of art creation.







We will show specific BRDFs and show how to make their parameters more physically meaningful in a later section.





Since shift-variance is so important for artist control, BRDF rendering methods which preclude it will have limited applicability in games.



Finally in this section, we shall discuss the rendering environment within which reflection models are used in games.



First we shall discuss the different kinds of lighting environments which are used to light reflection models in games. Next, we discuss issues relating to per-pixel detail methods such as bump, twist and relief mapping as they affect the implementation of reflection models.



Outdoor, daytime environments are lit by a combination of sunlight and skylight. Indoor environments are mostly lit by artificial lighting with some sunlight, nighttime urban scenes are lit only by artificial lights, etc. Indirect lighting is important as well as direct light sources. Here we see a nighttime scene from the game by Naughty Dog.





This is a repeat of a previous slide. We show it here again because this division is significant for how lighting is handled in games. Lighting is often handled quite differently on background and foreground geometry.



A common trend in game development is to move as much computation as possible to "tools time" – pre-compute data using custom tools which is later used in the game. This usually involves a computation vs. memory tradeoff which must be carefully considered, but in many cases it is worth doing.

In many games, much of the lighting is assumed not to change (most games do not feature changing sun and sky light with time of day, and do not often allow changing interior lighting during gameplay). The affect of these static lights can be computed ahead of time and stored in different ways.





The low-resolution lighting information is usually stored over the scene in a unique manner (no repetition or sharing, even between otherwise identical objects). Memory limitations therefore constrain this information to be stored at a low spatial frequency. For this reason it is very advantageous to combine it with higher-frequency data which can be repeated / reused between different parts of the scene (such as albedo textures or normal maps).



The use of simple prelighting (irradiance values only) dates back to around 1996 (Quake by id software). The use in games of prelighting incorporating directional information was pioneered by Valve with the release of Half-Life 2 in 2004. There separate irradiance information is stored for each of three surface directions which form an orthonormal basis. The actual surface normal is combined with this data in the pixel shader to compute the final lighting. This lighting information is used for diffuse lighting only in Half-Life 2, however extensions for certain types of specular reflectance have been suggested. In general, arbitrary BRDFs cannot be rendered with this type of lighting data.

Directional prelighting is currently an active area of research and development in the game industry (and hopefully in the research community; see "Normal Mapping for Precomputed Radiance Transfer" by Peter-Pike Sloan, SI3D 2006).



The foreground objects move throughout the scene, are not seamlessly connected to other objects and are usually small in extent compared to the spatial variations in the scene lighting. For these reasons, a common approximation is to treat the prelighting as distant lighting and compute it at the center of the object. This is usually achieved by interpolating between scattered (regular or irregular) spatial samples called *light probes*. Each light probe stores a function over the sphere, either of incident radiance (as a function of incident direction) or of irradiance (as a function of surface normal direction). The position of the object.

Similarly to background prelighting data, this is usually applied to Lambertian surfaces, with occasional extensions for some limited types of specular reflectance. Commonly to handle highly specular reflections, high-resolution environment maps are used, with very sparse spatial sampling (perhaps a single map per scene).

The example character is from the game by Naughty Dog.



If a light can change in position, direction (such as a flashlight carried by a character) or perhaps just in its color and intensity (such as a flickering torch on a wall) then it cannot usually be handled via prelighting. High-frequency lighting (such as local point lights, or sharp shadows) is also difficult to handle with prelighting. These cases are commonly handled by applying dynamic light sources, usually point or directional lights. Here we see an example scene from the game by Naughty Dog which uses dynamic lighting.



This is a repeat of a previous slide. We bring it again here to discuss a common issue with how point / directional light intensity values are commonly represented in games. Note that arbitrary BRDFs are relatively easy to handle with this kind of lighting, since the BRDF just has to be evaluated at a small set of discrete directions.



Before we continue our discussion of point and directional lights, there is an issue which should be noted. The intensity values commonly used for point and directional lights (both in game engines and in common DCC applications such as MAX and Maya) are closely related, but not equal to the radiometric radiant intensity quantity. The difference will become clear if we examine a Lambertian surface lit by a single point light, both as a radiometric equation and in the form commonly used in game engine. Here we see that the light "game intensity" value (here denoted by i_l) differs from the light's radiant intensity value (I_l) by a factor of $1/\pi$.

This factor needs to be noted when adapting reflectance models from books or papers for use in games. If the standard "game intensities" are used, then the BRDF needs to be multiplied by π (this multiplication will tend to cancel out the $1/\pi$ normalization factors which are common in many BRDFs). Game developers should also note the presence of this factor when using other kinds of lighting than point lights, since it may need to be removed in such cases. Another option is for game developers to use the radiometrically correct quantities at least during computation (using them throughout the pipeline could be difficult since lighting artists are often used to the "game intensity" values).



- Another way in which the math typically used in games for lighting with point lights differs from the radiometric math for point lights is in the distance attenuation function. A straight inverse square function is rarely used, usually some other 'distance attenuation' function is used. These functions are typically clamped to 1 close to the light (unlike the inverse square factor, which can reach arbitrarily large values close to the light) and decrease with increasing distance, usually reaching 0 at some finite distance from the light (again unlike the inverse square factor).
- Such 'tweaked' distance attenuation factors have a long history and are not unique to games, being in the earliest OpenGL lighting models and being used in DCC applications as well as other types of production rendering (such as movie rendering). Note that games will often use these distance attenuation functions in the prelighting stage as well as for dynamic runtime lights.

There are three main reasons for using a function other than a straight inverse square falloff:

- 1) More control by the artist to achieve a certain 'look' for the scene
- 2) Performance if the light's effect drops to 0 at a finite distance, then it can be left out of lighting computations for objects beyond that distance
- 3) Actual light sources are not zero-size points and have some spatial extent. These lights will have more gradual falloffs than point lights, and this visual effect can be simulated by tweaking the falloff function.


Usually this will result in the light only emitting radiance within a cone or frustum. A light which illuminates in all directions (also called an *omni light*) can also project a texture using a cube map, this can be useful to simulate some types of light fixtures.



For an example of a complex point light variation used in film rendering, see "Lighting Controls for Computer Cinematography" (Ronen Barzel, Journal of Graphics Tools 1997).

The computation of the direction and intensity of the light are typically performed in the pixel shader, and the result is combined with the BRDF to compute the final lighting result (more details about this later in the course).



Here we see examples of shadows in another scene from the game by Naughty Dog.







Environment maps are textures parameterized by directions on the sphere and used for distant lighting. A planar reflection map is a texture which represents the scene reflected about a plane, this would be used to render reflections on a planar surface. Other types of texture-based lighting are also used.



An example of the first issue is an outdoor scene with sunlight. We would want to include the sunlight in the prelighting on static objects to take account of indirect illumination resulting from sunlight, but we also want dynamic objects to case shadows from the sun on static objects, which is difficult if the sunlight has already been accounted for in the prelighting. There are various solutions to this problem, and similar problems, which are outside the scope of this course.

An example of divergent representations for prelighting and runtime light is a foreground object lit both by a spherical harmonic light probe and several point lights. If the object is Lambertian, the spherical harmonic coefficients for the lights can often be combined with those from the light probe interpolation, thus resulting in improved efficiency.

An example of prelighting and dynamic lights interacting differently with BRDFs: again a foreground object lit by a combination of spherical harmonic light probes and point lights. If the object is not Lambertian, the reflectance models used for the prelighting and runtime lights will differ.

Light Architecture

- Usually games will have a general structure for the light environments supported
 - This will affect shaders, lighting tools, and data structures and code used for managing lights





Pass-per-light architectures have the advantage of simplicity. Shaders only have to be written to support a single light, and only one variation needs to be written for each type of light. The object has to go through the entire graphics pipeline for each light affecting it, which can introduce significant overhead. On the other hand, efficiencies can be gained by only rendering the part of the screen covered by the current light. Certain shadow approaches (such as stencil shadows) require a pass-per-light approach.

All-lights-in-one pass architectures only process the object once, regardless of lighting complexity. There are two approaches to writing shaders for such an architecture: a single shader using dynamic branching (which is slower), or compiling a shader variation for each possible light set (which may cause a combinatorial explosion). Limits on the number of textures may restrict the number of lights casting shadows.

A common approach is to assume a standard light set (for example, an ambient term and three point lights) and in cases where the actual set of lights affecting an object is more complex than the standard set, merge the excess lights together, or discard them, or otherwise approximate the actual light set with a standard light set. This architecture can yield the highest (and more importantly, the most consistent) performance, but introduces complexity and possible temporal artifacts ('pops') in the approximation process.



Now we shall discuss issues relating to per-pixel detail methods such as bump, twist and relief mapping as they affect the implementation of reflection models.



This is a repeat of a previous slide. This will be relevant for the discussion of bump, twist and relief mapping.







