# **GPU-BASED NORMAL MAP GENERATION**

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Abstract: This work presents a method for the generation of normal maps from two polygonal models: a very detailed one with a high polygonal density, and a coarser one which will be used for real-time rendering. This method generates the normal map of the high resolution model which can be applied to the coarser model to improve its shading. The normal maps are completely generated on the graphics hardware.

## **1 INTRODUCTION**

A normal map is a two-dimensional image whose contents are RGB colour elements which are interpreted as 3D vectors containing the direction of the normal of the surface in each point. This is especially useful in real-time applications when this image is used as a texture applied onto a 3D model, because normals for each point of a model can be specified without needing more geometry. This feature enables the use of correct per-pixel lighting using the Phong lighting equation.

Normal map generation is a key part in real-time applications, such as video-games or virtual reality, due to the intensive use of techniques such as normal-mapping, used to increase the realism of the scenes.

Compared to traditional per-vertex lighting, perpixel lighting with normal maps gives the rendered model a great amount of surface detail, which can be appreciated through the lighting interactions of the light and the surface. Figure 1 shows the effect of applying a normal, extracted from a highly detailed model, onto a coarser mesh which is used for rendering the model in real-time without almost losing quality. This technique gives detail to meshes without having to add real geometric detail.

Altough normal maps can be easily generated when both the reference and the working meshes use

a common texture coordinate system, this is not always the case and thus, it is not trivial to implement on the graphics hardware. This is the reason why this kind of tools are often implemented on software.

The high programmability of current graphics hardware allows for the implementation of these kinds of methods on the GPU. This way, the great scalability of the graphics hardware, which is increased even more each year, can be used to perform this task.

## **2** STATE OF THE ART

Some other authors have presented works about the generation of normal maps for simplified meshes. (Sander, 2001) (Soucy, 1996) (Cignoni, 1998) generate an atlas for the model so that they can sample the colour and normal values of the surface to be stored in a texture, which will be applied over a simplified version of the same original model. However, these methods need the coarse version of the mesh to be a simplified version of the sampled mesh, which is a disadvantage. The method proposed in this work does not have this limitation, the only limitation; of our work is that the two objects involved must have the same size, positions and shape in the space.

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Figure 1: Normal mapping example: the figure on the right shows the results of applying the normal map generated from the high resolution mesh (left) and its coarse representation (middle).

Although other authors (Wang, 2002) implementation takes advantage of graphics hardware for the generation of normal maps, they do not exploit it completely as they only use the rasterizing stage of the GPU, performing other tasks on the CPU. Moreover, this method has some limitations: it can not generate the normals for faces that are occluded by other parts of the model, and it does not fully take advantage of the graphics hardware capabilities, having to perform some read backs from the colour buffer.

On the other hand, (Gumbau, 2006) present an extremely fast method to calculate normal maps on the GPU. However, it has a strong limitation: the normal map generated from a mesh A to be applied to a mesh B can be generated if and only if the mesh B has been generated from a simplification process applied to the mesh A, and the distribution of texture coordinates fulfil some special requirements. These strong limitations enable the normal map to be generated very fast, but it can only be used in very specific and controlled situations.

Finally, there exist some applications (NVIDIA) that use ray tracing to calculate the normal map in a very precise way. Their disadvantage is that they do not benefit from the graphics hardware, and thus they will not be explained.

## **3** METHOD

The method presented in this paper generates the normal map completely on the GPU, so that all the work is performed by the graphics hardware. This has the advantage of taking profit of a highly parallelizable hardware which will quickly increment its performance in the next years. Coarse versions of highly detailed meshes are often modelled from scratch (as in the video game industry for example), so we can not expect any correspondence between the two meshes other than geometric proximity. Having this in mind, this method avoids the requirement of generating the coarse mesh from the highly detailed mesh, and, as a consequence, they can be modelled separately.

#### 3.1 Main Idea

Let  $M_{HR}$  and  $M_{LR}$  be two polygonal meshes so that  $M_{LR}$  is a coarse representation of  $M_{HR}$ . We define the normal map MN as a two-dimensional texture which can be used as input for normal mapping. Our goal is to calculate MN on the GPU.

We assume that  $M_{LR}$  is a good approximation of M<sub>HR</sub> and that both are situated in the same spatial position, and have the same sizes and orientation. Basically, to calculate MN, one render of M<sub>HR</sub> will be performed for each triangle (T) of  $M_{LR}$ , discarding those parts of the model projected outside T. For every fragment of M<sub>HR</sub> projected through T, the direction of the normal will be extracted and stored into MN, using the texture coordinates of T to calculate the exact position inside the texture. Easily explained, the algorithm works as: the normals of all those pixels of the high resolution mesh rendered through the window formed by the triangle T will become the part of the normal map applied to T. This way, M<sub>HR</sub> is used as a three-dimensional grid which contains information about how to render  $M_{HR}$ .

Texture coordinates of  $M_{HR}$  must be fully unwrapped in a way that there are no triangles overlapped in texture space.

#### **3.2 Transformation Matrices**

For each iteration of the algorithm, a transformation matrix (which encapsulates the model, view and projection transformations) must be calculated. This matrix transforms the triangle T (composed by the vertices v0, v1 and v2) to the two-dimensional

triangle t (composed by the texture coordinates of T: t0, t1 and t2).

Figure 2 shows this process. Once obtained, this matrix will be applied to every vertex of  $M_{HR}$ , so that all the triangles visible through T will be projected onto the area defined by *t*.



Figure 2: The transformation matrix which converts the 3D triangle T into a 3D triangle composed by the texture coordinates of T must be calculated at each step.

#### 3.2.1 Model/View Matrix Calculation

The model/view matrix (MV) is derived from the three parameters that define a virtual camera which will be configured so that its viewing direction is parallel to the normal of T, looking to the center of the triangle and located at a certain distance of T. As we will use an orthographic projection, the distance T will not affect the final projection.

To define a virtual camera, a third parameter is needed: the roll angle usually specified as the "up vector". This vector is calculated using its texture coordinates.

Let  $(t^1, t^2 y t^3)$  be the texture coordinates of the three vertices of T  $(v^1, v^2, v^3)$ . The vertical value on our two-dimensional space will be assumed to be the vector (0,1). Having this in mind we can propound the following equation system:

$$0 = \alpha \cdot (t_x^2 - t_x^1) + \beta \cdot (t_x^3 - t_x^1)$$
  

$$1 = \alpha \cdot (t_y^2 - t_y^1) + \beta \cdot (t_y^3 - t_y^1)$$
(1)

Working out the values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  will let to calculate the desired vector in the following way:

$$\overrightarrow{UP} = \left\| \alpha \cdot (\overrightarrow{v^2} - \overrightarrow{v^1}) + \beta \cdot (\overrightarrow{v^3} - \overrightarrow{v^1}) \right\|$$
(2)

## 3.2.2 **Projection Matrix**

We will use a pseudo-orthogonal projection matrix to project the vertices of  $M_{HR}$ . Similar to an orthogonal matrix, it will not modify the X and Y coordinates depending on the value of Z. However its behavior is not exactly the same of a common orthogonal matrix, as we will explain later.

We need to calculate a projection matrix (P) which transforms the coordinates of T into its texture coordinates t, so we propound the following equations:

$$P \cdot v^i = t^i \quad \forall i \in \{0, 1, 2\} \tag{3}$$

The problem here is that the matrix P is a homogeneous transform matrix (it has 16 elements), and thus it can not be solved directly because we have not enough equations.

As we are looking for a pseudo-orthogonal matrix which transforms the X and Y coordinates of each vertex to the texture coordinates, we only need to calculate the value of the 6 unknowns  $(P_n)$  shown in figure 3:

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_A & P_B & 0 & P_C \\ P_D & P_E & 0 & P_F \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{2}{l-c} & -\frac{l+c}{l-c} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} w_x^i \\ w_y^i \\ w_z^i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Nt_x^i \\ Nt_y^i \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Figure 3: Unknowns to solve to calculate the desired projection matrix.

where *i* refers to each one of the three vertices of T, and  $w^i$  refers to those vertices pre-multiplied by the MV matrix, as shown below:

$$MV \cdot \vec{v^i} = \vec{w^i} \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$
<sup>(4)</sup>

 $Nt_x^i$  and  $Nt_y^i$  are the normalized device coordinates for each one of the transformed vertices. As after perspective division, the visible coordinates in the screen are situated in the range [-1,1]. Nevertheless, we want them to be in the range [0,1] of the texture coordinates, then we have to take that into account. They are calculated using the following formula:

$$(Nt_x^i, Nt_y^i) = 2 \cdot (t_x^i, t_y^i) - 1 \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$$
(5)

After solving the equations propounded in Figure 3 we get the desired pseudo-orthogonal matrix which projects every vertex of  $M_{HR}$  in a way that all the triangles visible through T will be rendered inside the area formed by the texture coordinates of T.

#### 3.3 Framebuffer

As explained before, the number of renders of  $M_{HR}$  needed to be performed is equal to the triangle count of  $M_{LR}$ . However, we are only interested in the pixels which are inside the area formed by the triangle T projected with the matrix MVP. Setting up the stencil buffer to discard all pixels which are outside the projection of T, is a very simple way to discard unwanted pixels and to protect those parts which have been already rendered.

Finally, the *pixel shader* re-scales every unmasked normal to the range [0,1], so that the normal vector can be encoded as a colour in the RGB space.

#### 3.4 The Auto-occlusion Problem

Sometimes, there are some parts of the models that will cause this method to fail. This happens when there is another part of the model between the camera and the real target surface. This problem is clearly shown in Figure 4, where a part of the model is incorrectly occluding the desired surface (coloured in red), causing the normal map to be completely invalid.



Figure 4: Auto-occlusion problem: the ear next to the camera is occluding the real desired geometry.

To solve this problem we have developed a technique called *vertex mirroring*. Basically we consider that if a pixel is going to be drawn more than once (some parts of the model overlap in screen space), then the valid pixel will be that one which is closer to T. This is similar to what raytracing-based normal map generation algorithms do: if some polygons intersect the ray, take the one which is closer to T.

Let  $\Pi$  be the plane containing T. Let N be the normal of  $\Pi$ ,  $\mathbf{v}^i$  be each one of the vertices of  $M_{HR}$  and  $k^i$  be the distance between  $\Pi$  and  $\mathbf{v}^i$ . Then the final position of  $\mathbf{v}^i$  is recalculated as follows:

$$v^{i} = v^{i} - 2 \cdot clamp(k^{i}, 0, k^{i}) \cdot \vec{N}$$
(6)

The function clamp(a,b,c) will trunk the value *a* inside the range [*b*,*c*]. This ensures that all vertices of M<sub>HR</sub> are in front of the plane  $\Pi$ , because those vertex that are behind that plane are mirrored through it. After performing this step, we can use the standard depth test to ensure that each rendered pixel is the nearest possible to T.

This technique can be implemented in a *vertex shader* for optimal performance, in a clear, elegant and efficient way.

#### 3.5 Normal Map Border Expansion

Once the previous process is over, the normal map is correctly calculated. However, due to the texture filtering methods used in real-time hardware, normals could incorrectly interpolate with their neighbouring "empty" texels. To solve this problem, we need to create an artificial region surrounding every part of the normal map.

To detect those texels that do not contain a valid normal, an extra pass rendering a full screen quad textured with the previously generated normal map will be performed. For each pixel, the *pixel shader* of the normal map generator will check if the texel belonging to the pixel being processed has a module less than 1, which means that it does not contain a valid normal (because all normal must be unitary). If that happens, the pixel must be filled with the average normalized value of its neighbouring texels which contain a valid normal.

At the end of the process a 1-pixel sized frontier is created around all parts of the normal map that didn't contain a valid normal. This process can be repeated with the resulting texture to expand the frontier to a user defined size.

## 4 **RESULTS**

All tests were performed on an Athlon64 3500+ / 1GB RAM / GeForce 6800 Ultra and can be divided into two categories: performance and quality tests. Table 1 shows a study of total times required to generate the normal maps for two models with a different polygonal complexity. For each model ( $M_{HR}$ , first column) different coarse approximations are used ( $M_{LR}$ , second column) to generate MN. The column on the right shows the time in milliseconds needed to calculate the normal map for a certain combination of meshes.

An octree-based acceleration structure is used to discard as many triangles as possible in an efficient way to improve rendering times up to 10 times.



Figure 5: Normal maps used in Figure 6. From left to right: the bunny, the monster and the horse.

Table 1: Total times in milliseconds needed to generate the normal maps for two different models, using a set of different coarse approximations.

Triangles	Triangules	Time
$M_{HR}$	$M_{LR}$	(ms)
	250	140
69.451	500	224
	1.000	442
	2.000	721
	2.500	912
	3.000	1034
	250	22
	500	32
	1.000	66
16.843	2.000	102
	2.500	131
	3.000	158

On the other hand, some tests have been done to compare our results with a software based approach, which is implemented in the nVidia Melody tool. These results are not shown in a table because that tool does not display time information. However, those the times needed for the application to calculate the normal maps for the same high resolution model used in our tests vary from 2 to 6 seconds for the worst and better cases, which is worse compared with our results.

The other studied parameter is how the size of the normal map affects to our method. As one can imagine, the bottleneck of our application is the huge amount of vertices needed to be processed, because the pixel operations performed are very light weight. Table 2 shows how our method is independent of the size of the normal map.

Figure 6 shows the results of the generated normal maps for 3 different models: the bunny, the monster and the horse. The column on the left shows

the high resolution models ( $M_{HR}$ ). The column on the centre shows the coarse versions of each mesh ( $M_{LR}$ ) used to calculate the normal map. Finally, the column on the right shows the final normal map applied to the coarse mesh, so one can check the final visual quality of the normal map. Figure 5 shows the normal maps generated for its use in Figure 6.

Table 2: Generation times at different resolutions.

Triangles M <sub>HR</sub> / M <sub>LR</sub>	Resolution	Time (ms)
69.451 / 1.000	128 x 128	442
	512 x 512	441
	1024 x 1024	443

### 5 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a GPU-based method for normal map generation. This method exploits the graphics hardware in a way that it takes advantage of the parallelization of the GPU in various ways. On the one hand, the graphics hardware utilizes several shading processors in parallel, which is inherent to the graphics pipeline. On the other hand, there is a parallelization between the GPU and the CPU, which is useful to calculate matrices on the CPU while the GPU is performing each render. Moreover, the method proposed here does not have some of the limitations explained in the introduction.

Although this method has been used to calculate the normals of a high resolution polygonal mesh, it could also be used to obtain other surface parameters such as diffuse colour maps, height maps or specular maps. As seen before, this method is highly dependent of the number of triangles of both models ( $M_{HR}$  and  $M_{LR}$ ). However, this limitation can be reduced by using some kind of hierarchical culling method to discard most of the unneeded geometry. In this article we have used octrees as an acceleration structure. Moreover, reducing the number of renders needed by grouping triangles of  $M_{LR}$  would also be possible. This would highly accelerate the total generation times, although this has been left as future work.

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Figure 6: The column on the left show the high resolution models ( $M_{HR}$ ). The column in the middle shows the coarse versions ( $M_{LR}$ ) of those meshes. Finally, the column on the right show the resulting normal map applied to  $M_{L}$ .