

# The General Pinhole Camera: Effective and Efficient Non-Uniform Sampling for Visualization

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**Abstract**—We introduce the general pinhole camera (GPC), defined by a center of projection (i.e. the pinhole), an image plane, and a set of sampling locations in the image plane. We demonstrate the advantages of the GPC in the contexts of remote visualization, of focus plus context visualization, and of extreme antialiasing, which benefit from the GPC sampling flexibility. For remote visualization we describe a GPC that allows zooming-in at the client without the need for transferring additional data from the server. For focus plus context visualization we describe a GPC with multiple regions of interest with sampling rate continuity to the surrounding areas. For extreme antialiasing we describe a GPC variant that allows supersampling locally with a very high number of color samples per output pixel (e.g. 1024x), supersampling levels that are out of reach for conventional approaches that supersample the entire image. The GPC supports many types of data, including surface geometry, volumetric, and image data, as well as many rendering modes, including highly view-dependent effects such as volume rendering. Finally GPC visualization is efficient—GPC images are rendered and resampled with the help of graphics hardware at interactive rates.

**Index Terms**—Non-uniform sampled images, interactive visualization, remote visualization, focus plus context, antialiasing.

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## INTRODUCTION

THE camera model most frequently used in visualization is the planar pinhole camera (PPC) which samples the data to be visualized with rays defined by a center of projection (i.e. the pinhole) and a regular grid on an image plane. The PPC model has three main limitations. First, the PPC has a limited field of view. Second, all rays are required to pass through the pinhole. Third, the entire field of view is sampled uniformly, without sampling rate flexibility.

This paper addresses the problem of providing a flexible sampling rate. Of course, one could choose to resample a conventional PPC image to any desired set of sampling locations, but such an approach is only approximate since it computes the desired samples by interpolation and not by actually sampling the data to be visualized. The approximation is particularly poor for large sampling rate variations when an adequate approximation by interpolation requires a prohibitively high resolution for the input image.

We present a general pinhole camera (GPC) model that supports any set of sampling locations on the image plane. The GPC rays are defined by a pinhole and the

desired image plane sampling locations. The GPC image is rendered by directly sampling the data to be visualized at the desired sampling locations. GPC visualization is versatile—it supports many types of data, including surface geometry, volume, and image data. GPC visualization is also efficient—complex datasets are rendered interactively with the help of graphics hardware. Moreover, if the application demands it, a GPC image can be resampled at little cost into a conventional PPC image. We demonstrate the advantages of the non-uniform sampling afforded by the GPC in three contexts: remote visualization, focus plus context visualization, and antialiasing (please also see accompanying video).

In order to visualize a dataset at a site other than the site where it was computed or acquired, one approach is to transfer the data. However, data transfers become more and more challenging as data size increases continue to outpace networking bandwidth increases. Moreover, replicating visualization capabilities at all user sites also scales poorly. A second approach overcomes these disadvantages by computing the desired visualization image at the remote site, followed by transferring the image to the local user site. No dataset transfer or replication of visualization capabilities is required. However, such a remote visualization approach suffers from reduced interactivity. Even though the bandwidth requirement for transferring an image is greatly reduced compared to transferring a large dataset, the image has to be transferred in real time and bandwidth remains a bottleneck, affecting the frame rate. The solutions of

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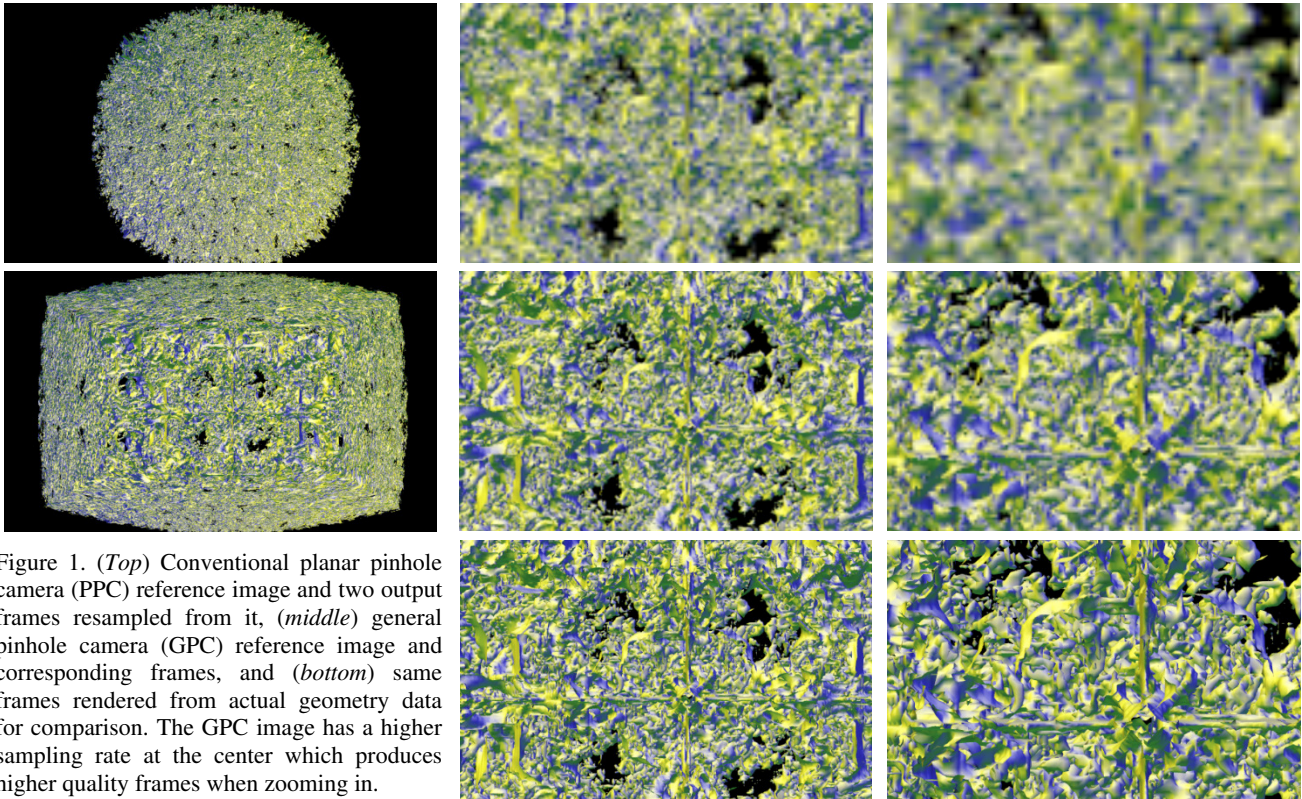


Figure 1. (*Top*) Conventional planar pinhole camera (PPC) reference image and two output frames resampled from it, (*middle*) general pinhole camera (GPC) reference image and corresponding frames, and (*bottom*) same frames rendered from actual geometry data for comparison. The GPC image has a higher sampling rate at the center which produces higher quality frames when zooming in.

reducing image resolution or of aggressive compression are only palliative.

We propose to improve interactivity in remote visualization by transferring GPC images instead of conventional PPC images. The idea is to reuse a GPC image at the local site to compute several high-quality output frames, without the need of any additional data from the remote site. The GPC is designed to produce images with a sampling rate higher at the center and lower at the periphery. The resulting image has size and coherence similar to those of a PPC image, thus the transfer costs are comparable. At the local site the GPC image is resampled into a conventional PPC output frame at interactive rates. The higher sampling rate at the GPC image center allows the user to zoom in with little quality loss. Once the output frame sampling rate exceeds that provided by the GPC image, a new GPC image is requested and transferred from the remote site. The GPC also has a larger field of view than the output frame, which allows the user to rotate the view direction without the need of transferring new images. Like the PPC, the GPC is a pinhole so a GPC reference image cannot accurately support viewpoint translation due to occlusions. However, the approximate translation support provided is sufficient to allow the user to select a novel viewpoint for which a new GPC image is rendered and transferred.

In Figure 1 the PPC and GPC reference images have the same size (800x480) and field of view (90°). The frames are 600x360 in size and have a smaller, variable field of view. The GPC allows zooming in with good results. Frames are computed from a GPC at the rate of 525 frames per second.

The second context in which the GPC infrastructure pays dividends is focus plus context visualization. Many methods have been developed in visualization and computer-human interaction that capitalize on the perceptual advantages of visualizing a region of interest in detail (i.e. focus) while keeping it seamlessly integrated into the surrounding area (i.e. context). The GPC naturally supports higher sampling rates for one or several focus regions. We describe a GPC variant suitable for focus plus context visualization with advantages that include sampling *rate* continuity from focus region to surrounding context, distortion free focus regions, efficiency, and support for many types of data. In Figure 2 the model has 1.3M triangles, the GPC has 2 focus regions with cubic distortion, and the GPC image is rendered at 7Hz, which allows the user to modify focus region parameters interactively.

The GPC proves to be a powerful tool in a third context—antialiasing. As the acuity of measuring instruments and the sophistication of simulations increase, visualization will face the increasing challenge of alleviating mismatches between output image resolution and dataset resolution. Antialiasing techniques can prevent the disturbing visual artifacts that occur when the dataset resolution exceeds the output image resolution. Antialiasing for image data is a solved problem. Antialiasing for 3-D data is more challenging, requiring the computation of multiple color samples for each output pixel. When the resolution mismatch is severe, the required supersampling factor is large, making conventional full-frame antialiasing prohibitively expensive. A possible approach is to address the resolution mismatch offline by

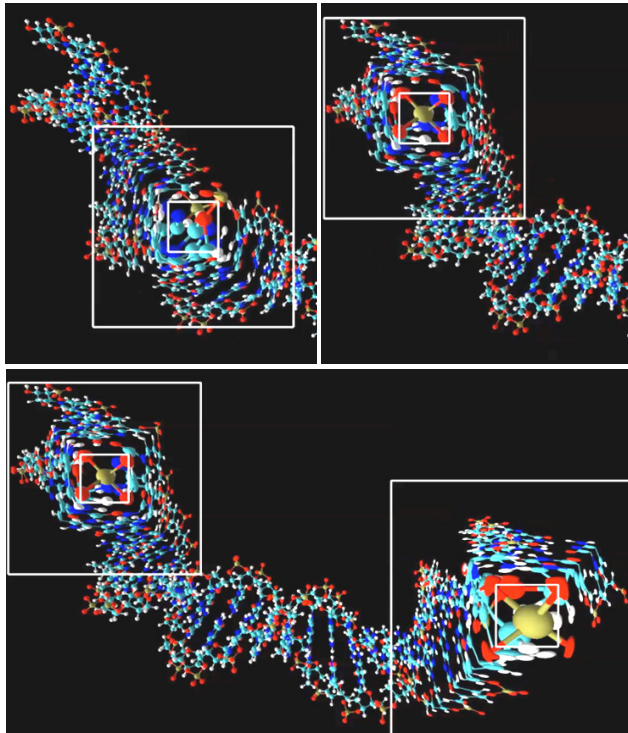


Figure 2 GPC-based focus-plus-context visualization of DNA molecule. The bottom GPC image has two focus regions with 3x and 6x magnification factors, respectively.

precomputing lower levels of detail (LoDs), which is challenging and delays the visualization of real-time datasets.

We describe a GPC variant that capitalizes on the fact that extreme supersampling levels might only be needed in small regions of the output image. The GPC allows supersampling locally at very high levels without substantially increasing the overall memory or rendering cost. In Figure 3 (left) a GPC renders the 32x32 pixel screen area covered by the tree with 361 color samples per pixel using an off-screen framebuffer tile which produces a high quality image output image, bypassing the need for challenging LoD computation. Note that the tree model has only 9K triangles so rendering load is not a factor. With conventional antialiasing serious minification artifacts occur even for a high 16x setting (right).

## PRIOR WORK

*Remote Visualization.* The motivation for remote visualization [1] includes immediate access to remote datasets without off-line downloads, visualization of complex datasets without the need for local high-end storage and visualization capabilities, and visualization without full disclosure of the dataset [2].

One general remote visualization strategy is to reduce the visualization dataset on the server to a size that can be transmitted by the network and visualized by the client. The dataset reduction is performed using one or a combination of techniques, including multiresolution and LoD (e.g. [3], [4]) progressive refinement (e.g. [5], [6]), feature extraction (e.g. [7], [8]),

occlusion culling (e.g. [9], [10]), and data compression (e.g. [11], [12]). Unique strengths of this strategy include the ability to leverage client visualization capabilities, and the ability to accumulate data at the client, which, over time, leads to reduced dependence on the network. Disadvantages include the reliance on visualization capabilities at the client, the need of good a priori estimates for the values of the parameters of the data reduction techniques employed, and the need for data type specific tools at both the server and client.

A second general remote visualization strategy is to relieve the client of all visualization duties. The client transmits the desired visualization view and parameters, the server renders, compresses, and sends the visualization frame, which is received, decompressed, and displayed by the client. The strategy is appealing because of its portability—it gives access to visualization to any client that can display an image (i.e. a terminal), and because of its generality—any type of data and any visualization algorithm is supported as long as it is supported by the server. Leveraging X Window System [13] transport infrastructure and VNC [14] application portal technology, generic remote visualization systems have been developed by academia (e.g. [15], [16], [18]) and industry (e.g. Vizserver [17]) to support thousands of heterogeneous clients. The main challenge is the network bandwidth bottleneck which limits frame rate and resolution. The bottleneck is alleviated by high performance image compression / decompression schemes which run in parallel [19], or with the help of graphics hardware [20].

The importance of optimal work-load partitioning between server and client was also recognized by Luke et al. who propose a remote visualization framework [21] that provides a third, hybrid, partitioning scheme: the client receives images enhanced with per-pixel depth which are rendered locally for higher frame rate and lower latency. Another example of such a hybrid strategy is the Visapult system [22], where the final image is composited in sort-last fashion on the client, but this time the motivation is to lower the computational burden at the server.

The GPC assisted remote visualization approach we propose falls in this hybrid category: the image received by the client is resampled to produce several output visualization frames. The GPC produces a 2-D image that can be compressed or composited with algorithms devised for conventional images, making it suitable for



Figure 3 GPC-based 361x extreme antialiasing (left) and conventional hardware supported 16x antialiasing (right). Images are also shown magnified at 400% for illustration purposes.



straight-forward integration within existing remote visualization frameworks.

*Focus plus Context.* Focus plus context visualization uses an inequitable screen real estate allocation favoring data subsets deemed more important, idea introduced by the fisheye views visualization technique [23]. The approach is supported by the way our visual system works, both at high level—we concentrate on a small part of what we see and rely on the background for general situational awareness, and at low level—the density of receptors on the retina is non-uniform. Focus plus context has been applied to 2-D image data, either acquired or rendered from 2-D primitives, including hierarchies [24], graphs [25], and maps [26]. While these techniques apply a 2-D magnification lens to emphasize the focus region, the Mélange system resorts to mapping the 2-D image data to a 3-D surface designed to emphasize several focus regions, while compressing less interesting connecting context.

The magnification of the focus region implies an increased sampling rate. However, most computer displays are designed for a uniform sampling rate and mapping a focus plus context image to such a conventional display requires distortion. An alternative is to build displays with a variable pixel density that can display a focus plus context image directly [28]. The challenges are difficulty in changing pixel density, abrupt pixel density changes, and bulkiness.

Focus plus context techniques for 3-D surface geometry data typically apply a 3-D space distortion followed by conventional visualization [29]. The distortion has the potential to reveal subsets of interest otherwise occluded [30], but has the disadvantages of difficult distortion design and of a distorted focus region. These difficulties are avoided by distorting the camera rays as opposed to the geometry data, as demonstrated by Wang et al. for volume data [31]. The context and focus regions are essentially rendered with conventional cameras with various resolutions while the distortion is confined to the transition area. Our GPC focus plus context technique is similar to the Wang et al. approach in that the distortion is applied at camera model level. However, the GPC is a general method that supports many types of data, including surface geometry data and that offers great flexibility for designing the transition region, including for achieving sampling rate continuity. Compared to space distortion techniques the GPC is a pinhole thus it has no disocclusion capability, but the GPC avoids the disadvantages of difficult distortion design and of a distorted focus region.

*Antialiasing.* Mip-mapping [32] is an effective hardware supported technique for avoiding minification artifacts when rendering from image data. Antialiasing surface geometry however remains challenging. By combining supersampling with multisampling, which only supersamples coverage and shades once per fragment, today’s ultra high-end NVIDIA [33] and ATI [34] GPUs achieve a full-screen total antialiasing level of

64x (i.e. 8x8). While this is adequate for smoothing triangle edges in most cases, it is insufficient for avoiding minification artifacts when rendering triangles with a small screen footprint. For such triangles a higher level of true supersampling is needed. Full-screen true supersampling at extreme levels (e.g. 1,024x) will remain impractical for the foreseeable future. However, extreme supersampling is only needed for the screen areas with extreme complexity. The GPC enables feed-forward rendering with adaptive supersampling, a practice reserved so far for ray tracing [35]. Finally we note that both NVIDIA and ATI have exposed functionality for per primitive antialiasing setting, but the supersampling level cannot be locally adapted.

*Non-Uniformly Sampled Images.* One of the early uses of non-conventional camera models and the resulting non-uniformly sampled images was to produce panoramic 2-D images to be used as environment maps. These single-image panoramas were gradually supplanted by cube maps modeled with six PPCs only to be recently reconsidered [36] in light of the great programmability and power of today’s GPUs. Researchers have also developed non-pinhole cameras (e.g. the general linear camera [37], the occlusion camera [38]) in order to capture in a single 2-D image more than what is visible from a single viewpoint. Both single-image panoramas and non-pinhole camera images share with the GPC the challenge of non-linear rasterization—the image projection of a triangle is curved and conventional linear rasterization does not apply [47].

Non-uniformly sampled images were also encountered in the context of image-based rendering by 3-D warping [39] and of shadow map antialiasing ([40], [41]). In both cases a z-buffer is re-projected to a novel view, and the re-projected samples form an irregular pattern. The shadow mapping application has to render the irregular z-buffer from the light viewpoint. The irregular z-buffer locations are defined independently by scene geometry and the z-buffer cannot be rendered efficiently in feed-forward fashion by projection followed by rasterization. As shown in the next sections, the GPCs we have developed do provide efficient projection which ensures interactive rendering rates.

## THE GENERAL PINHOLE CAMERA

The general pinhole camera model is defined by a center of projection  $C$  (Figure 4), an image plane specified by a coordinate system with origin  $O$  and axes  $(x, y)$ , and a set  $S$  of  $N$  sampling locations  $s_i(u_i, v_i)$ , where  $u_i$  and  $v_i$  are the image plane coordinates of sample  $s_i$ . A GPC ray is defined by the ordered pair  $(C, O+xu_i+yv_i)$ . This generic model is tailored to an application in three steps:

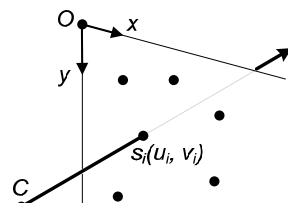


Figure 4 Generic GPC model.

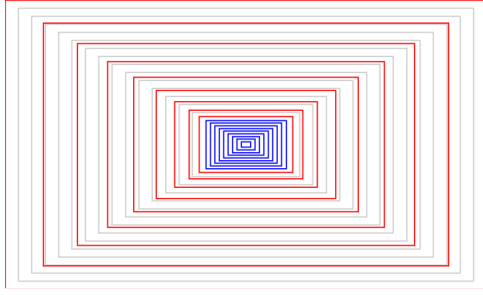


Figure 5. Sampling pattern used for GPC image shown in Figure 1.

- *Sampling location selection.* The actual image plane sampling locations are specified based on the application's goal.

- *Rendering.* Rendering algorithms are devised based on the sampling location pattern. The considerations are efficiency and support for a broad range of data types.

- *Display.* A mapping between the uniform pixels of the display and the non-uniform GPC sampling locations is specified.

### Improved Interactivity in Remote Visualization

In conventional remote visualization the images received from the server are ephemeral—any view change requested by the user renders them obsolete and new images have to be transferred. It is our goal to design images which contain information sufficient for several visualization frames in order to reduce the frequency of image transfers and thereby improve interactivity.

### Sampling location selection

The sampling locations are chosen such that the GPC image anticipates view changes requested by the user. View rotations are easily supported using a larger field of view and a higher resolution for the reference image than for the output frame. Another common view change in visualization applications is zooming. Zooming in by resampling a conventional PPC image leads to blurriness as the original sampling rate is exceeded. In order to alleviate the quality loss as the user zooms in, the GPC image needs to have a higher sampling rate at the center, anticipating the zoom in operation. Compared to a PPC image of same size, the higher density of samples at the center of the GPC has to come at the cost of a lower sample density at the periphery, which is reasonable since the user is likely to concentrate on the center of the image.

We choose a sampling pattern with a constant and

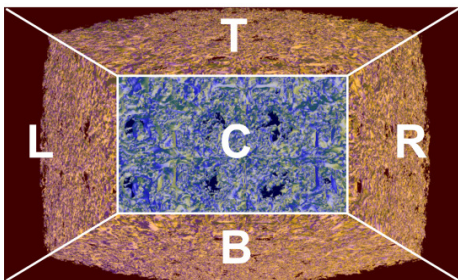


Figure 6. Correspondence between GPC samples and GPC image.

higher sampling rate at the center of the image (blue in Figure 5) and a lower sampling rate at the periphery (red). The samples are specified as a distortion of an

original PPC image (grey). Denser samples produce a magnification and sparser samples produce a compression of the resulting GPC image (Figure 6). The distortion is specified with 3 parameters  $w$ ,  $h$ , and  $z_f$  which define the size and zoom factor of the central region C. Larger  $w$ ,  $h$ , and  $z_f$  values allow zooming in longer with good quality at the cost of a lower quality at the periphery of the GPC image. Here  $w$ ,  $h$ , and  $z_f$  were chosen as  $W/2$ ,  $H/2$ , and 3, where  $W$  and  $H$  are the dimensions of the GPC image.

It remains to specify the samples at the transition region. The constraints are continuity with the central region at the inner boundary and with the image frame at the outer boundary.  $C^0$  continuity at both boundaries ensures that all of the original field of view is sampled.  $C^1$  continuity at the inner boundary ensures that the sampling rate is continuous from the transition to the central region. The simplest expression that satisfies these three conditions is a quadratic. Each of the four regions L, B, R, and T defined by the diagonals of the central rectangle has its own distortion expression. For L the horizontal distorted coordinate  $u_d$  is given by:

$$u_d(u) = a_0u^2 + a_1u + a_2, \quad (1)$$

where  $u$  is the undistorted horizontal coordinate (Figure 7). The coefficients  $a_i$  are the same for the entire region and are computed by solving a linear system of three equations with three unknowns:

$$\begin{aligned} u_d(u) &= u, \\ u_d(u_r) &= W/2 + (u_r - W/2)/z_f, \\ u_d'(u_r) &= 1/z_f \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

The first two equations ensure sampling continuity at the outer and inner boundaries of the transition region. The third equation ensures sampling rate continuity between the transition and central regions. Once  $u_d$  is known, the vertical distorted coordinate  $v_d$  is computed using the constraint that the sample be distorted on a line towards the center of the image. The sampling rate increases from the outer to the inner edge of the transition region ( $u_d''(u)$  is a positive constant). The lowest sampling rate is  $u_d''(u)$ , which is 0.333 for this example, as can be verified in Figure 5 where the grey rectangles are three times as dense as the red rectangles at the periphery. The highest lower bound on the sampling rate is of course achieved when the sampling rate is maintained constant across the transition region. This would yield here a minimum sampling rate of 0.652, but abandoning the sampling rate continuity requirement causes visual artifacts.

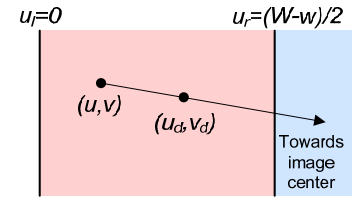


Figure 7 Distortion at transition.

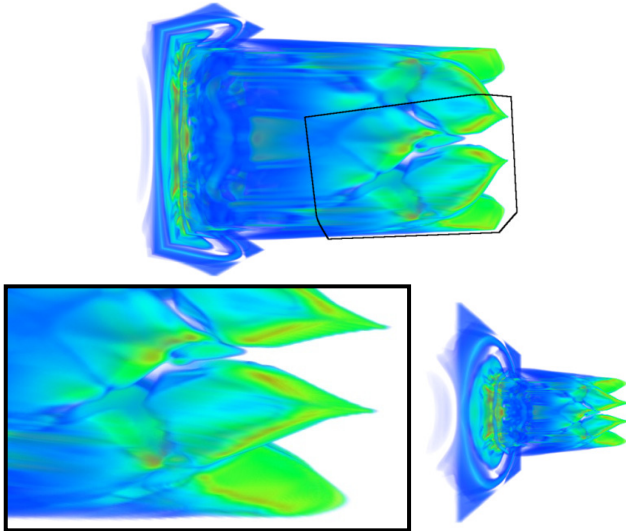


Figure 10. Volume rendering GPC image (top) and two frames resampled from it (bottom).

In summary, a GPC with  $W \times H$  sampling locations is defined by a PPC with resolution  $W \times H$ , a central rectangular region with a magnification factor, and 4 quadratic distortion expressions, one for each of the sub-regions of the transition region.

## Rendering

### Ray casting

Each sampling location defines a GPC ray. Ray casting or ray tracing with the GPC is straightforward. Instead of following the rays of a conventional PPC, the rendering algorithm follows the GPC rays. Like Wang et al. [31], we leverage this fact to provide GPC volume rendering support by ray casting on the GPU (Figure 10). Similarly, surface geometry data can be rendered with a GPC using a ray tracer. As novel graphics architectures become available [42] and as GPUs become more and more programmable, ray tracing is likely to become a serious competitor to feed-forward rendering. For now, rendering by projection followed by rasterization remains the preferred approach in interactive rendering.

### Feed-forward rendering

Feed-forward GPC rendering has to overcome two challenges: projection and rasterization. GPC projection is straightforward. A 3-D point  $P$  is first projected to coordinates  $(u_d, v_d)$  using the PPC associated with the GPC. Then GPC image coordinates  $(u, v)$  are computed by inverting the distortion. For the central rectangular region (C in Figure 6), the distortion is a simple linear scaling, thus inverting it implies solving a linear equation. For the transition region inverting the distortion implies solving a quadratic. Using Equation 1 again, for region L the quadratic equation that provides the GPC image coordinate  $u$  of  $P$  is:

$$a_0u^2 + a_1u + a_2 - u_d = 0 \quad (3)$$

As before, the GPC image coordinate  $v$  of  $P$  is obtained using the fact that the line defined by  $(u, v)$  and

$(u_d, v_d)$  passes through the center of the rectangular region C.

GPC rasterization becomes non-linear in the transition region which poses two challenges:

- *bounding box computation*: the axis aligned bounding box (AABB) of the projection of the vertices of a triangle is not a conservative estimate of the projected triangle anymore; in Figure 8 the grey AABB misses the red part of the curved projected triangle  $V_0V_1V_2$ .
- *non-linear rasterization parameter variation*; perspective correction followed by linear screen space interpolation is no longer equivalent to linear interpolation in the triangle plane.

We have investigated two approaches for overcoming these challenges: non-linear rasterization and subdivision.

### Non-linear rasterization

We approximate the bounding box of the projection of a triangle using points on its perimeter. Rasterization parameters are interpolated in the triangle plane by intersecting the ray through the current pixel with the triangle, similarly to the methods described by Mei et al. [38] and Gascuel et al. [36]. The efficiency of the approach is impacted negatively by two factors:

- many perimeter points need to be considered in order to obtain a conservative approximation of the bounding box, and each point implies a non-trivial projection;
- pixels inside the bounding box but outside the triangle are discarded late, after ray/triangle intersection and barycentric coordinate computation, which leads to considerable overdraw.

### Subdivision

A more efficient approach is to subdivide the geometry such that conventional rasterization provides an acceptable approximation to the non-linear rasterization. One possibility is to subdivide uniformly off-line, with the advantage of a simpler on-line algorithm which simply projects with the GPC and then rasterizes conventionally. The disadvantage is excessive subdivision for distant parts of the scene.

We have developed an adaptive scheme that subdivides triangles based on projected edge length. Special care needs to be taken to avoid cracks between triangles that share an edge (Figure 9). If a subdivision scheme decides to subdivide  $V_0V_2V_3$  and not to subdivide  $V_0V_1V_2$ , it can happen that the non-linear projection  $M$  of the midpoint of  $V_0V_2$  does not land on the line  $V_0V_2$ , which creates the crack shown in red. To avoid this problem we subdivide all the edges that exceed the

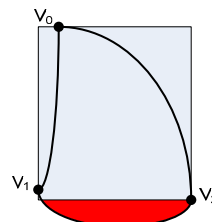


Figure 8. Incorrect bounding box of curved projected triangle.

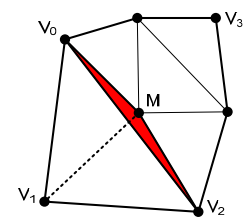


Figure 9. Crack between adjacent projected triangles.

projected length threshold. Depending on how many edges need to be subdivided a triangle is subdivided into 2, 3, or 4 sub-triangles. In Figure 9 the bottom triangle is subdivided according to the dotted line which avoids the crack.

### Display

Once the GPC image is rendered, it is ready to be compressed conventionally and to be sent to the client site. Once received, the client application uses the GPC image to reconstruct visualization frames for the user at interactive rates. Rotations and zoom changes are handled by resampling the GPC image to the PPC modeling the view of the current frame. Each pixel  $p$  of the current frame is set in three steps; the corresponding 3-D point  $P$  on the PPC image plane is computed first, then  $P$  is projected onto the GPC image plane, and finally  $p$  is set to the GPC image color at the projection location. The resampling cost is small and bounded by the output frame resolution. Resampling the GPC image produces correct results because the center of projection of the output frame PPC coincides with the center of projection of the GPC. View dependent rendering effects are supported (e.g. volume rendering, reflections, refractions).

Like any pinhole, the GPC does not support viewpoint translations. In order to allow the user to change the viewpoint we provide approximate translation support in one of two ways. The less expensive but also the more approximate way is to assume all GPC samples lie in a vertical plane. There is no motion parallax within the 3-D dataset, but the approximation enables selecting the next viewpoint. The second way is based on 3-D image warping [39]—the GPC image is enhanced with per pixel depth, which is then used to reproject the GPC samples during viewpoint translation. 3-D warping comes at the cost of the additional channel for the GPC image. Moreover, 3-D warping reuses color as is, thus effects like reflections are not handled correctly, and when new surfaces are exposed disocclusion errors occur (Figure 11). 3-D warping does however provide correct motion parallax, a strong visual cue in 3-D data visualization. During translation a red frame border indicates that the visualization is only approximate. The user can request a new GPC image at any time.

## FOCUS PLUS CONTEXT

### Sampling location selection

A GPC model similar to the one described for remote visualization can also serve for focus plus context visualization. The magnified central rectangular region is equivalent to a focus region. A focus plus context GPC is obtained by extending the remote visualization GPC model as follows:

- the focus region should not necessarily be centered, which adds two parameters  $u_0$  and  $v_0$  defining the rectangle center,

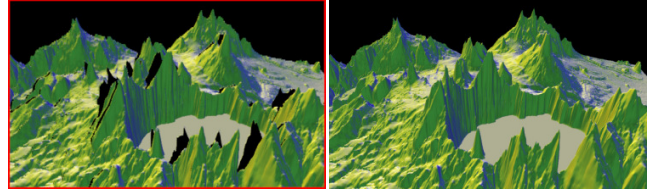


Figure 11. Approximate translation support by 3-D warping (*left*) and ground truth for comparison (*right*).

- the transition to context region should not necessarily extend all the way to the edge of the image, which adds another parameter  $tw$  to encode the width of the transition region,
- more than a single focus region should be allowed; however the focus regions will be kept disjoint and their number will be a small constant, which facilitates interactive rendering.

Since the focus region is now surrounded by context, it is of interest to maintain sampling rate continuity at the outer edge of the focus region. To accommodate this additional constraint a fourth coefficient is needed for the distortion equation (Equation 1):

$$u_d(u) = a_0u^3 + a_1u^2 + a_2u + a_3 \quad (4)$$

The 4 coefficients are found with the following linear system:

$$\begin{aligned} u_d(u_l) &= u_l, \\ u_d(u_r) &= u_0 + (u_r - u_0)/zf, \\ u_d'(u_r) &= 1/zf, \\ u_d'(u_l) &= 1 \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Figure 12 illustrates the sampling rate at the transition region: it starts out at 1.0 (same spacing between first two red lines and the grey lines), then decreases (minimum value here is 0.59), and then increases to match the sampling rate of the central region (here 3.0).

### Rendering and display

Once the GPC is built, ray casting for volume rendering or for surface rendering can proceed like before. For feed-forward rendering the projection operation is slightly more complicated. Like before, a 3-D point  $P$  is first projected with the PPC to  $p$ . Then the focus regions are consulted sequentially and if one contains  $p$ , the GPC image coordinates are computed by solving the cubic equation (4) with unknown  $u$ . Since the focus regions are disjoint, at most one cubic equation is solved per projection. Rasterization does not change. Adaptive subdivision works well for a focus plus context GPC since the context region does not require subdivision. Whereas in the remote visualization case the GPC image was an intermediate data structure used to create the output frame presented to the user, for focus plus context the GPC image is displayed as is.

### EXTREME ANTIALIASING (XAA)

When the resolution of the data to be visualized exceeds the resolution of the output image aliasing artifacts occur. Regularly sampled data (e.g. 2-D image data or 3-



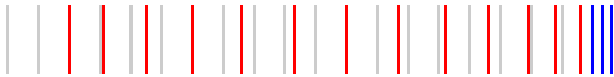


Figure 12. Sampling rate continuity at transition region edges.

D volume data) can be easily downsampled to match the output resolution. Reducing the resolution of geometry is more challenging. Many techniques for computing lower complexity versions of a 3-D geometric model have been proposed, but no perfect solution exists. LoD computation is slow, which is inadequate in real-time visualization, it depends on the specifics of the data, which requires specialized algorithms and manual fine tuning of parameter values, and transitions between LoDs often cause abrupt output image changes.

Instead of reducing geometric complexity to fit the output image, an obvious alternative is to temporarily increase the output image resolution to capture the complex geometry well, and then to convert the auxiliary image into the desired output image. The approach is appealing because the resolution mismatch is resolved in the image domain, where it is straightforward. The approach has two implications. First, the geometry is rendered at full complexity. Whereas employing LoDs also reduces rendering load in addition to improving visual quality, graphics hardware can now handle many datasets at full geometric complexity. For such datasets this first implication does not pose problems.

The second implication is that the framebuffer needs to be supersampled to accommodate the complex geometry. Conventional full-screen antialiasing cannot and should not be used for this purpose. Consider a dataset where high geometric complexity is confined to a few clusters and let's assume that the largest supersampling factor demanded by any of the clusters is 1,000 color samples per pixel. A 1,000x supersampling of the entire output image is and will remain prohibitive for the foreseeable future. We have developed a GPC variant that enables supersampling locally with extreme supersampling factors at small and controllable additional framebuffer memory and rendering costs.

### Sample location selection

Our algorithm assumes that the clusters of high complexity are known. For example the test scene in Figure 13 has two clusters of 10,000 square particles each. The particles are placed randomly and close together in the cluster volume. Conventional hardware supported antialiasing is not sufficient even at high 16x settings (please see accompanying video that illustrates the temporal aliasing that occurs). The screen regions where extreme supersampling levels are needed are defined by the output image projections of the bounding volumes of the clusters. The supersampling factor is determined for each region independently based on cluster geometric complexity, on screen region size, and on available resources (i.e. framebuffer memory and rendering power). For the XAA GPC there is no transition region. For Figure 13 the XAA GPC camera model has two supersampled regions, one for the green-

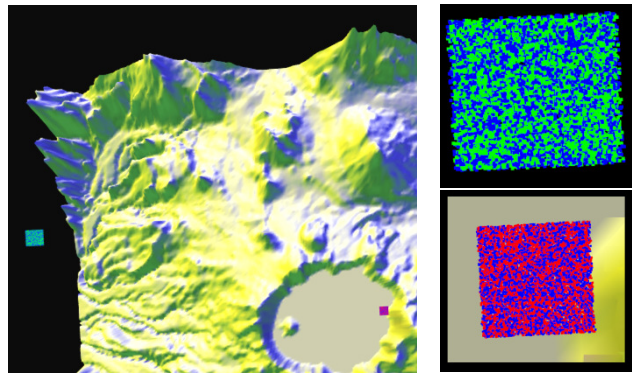


Figure 13. Image rendered using GPC extreme antialiasing (left), and off-screen framebuffer tiles used (right).

blue cluster and one for the red-blue cluster. The supersampling factors are 256x (i.e. 16x16) for the green-blue cluster and 1024x (i.e. 32x32) for the red-blue cluster. When the view changes or if the clusters are dynamic, the GPC is updated to track the clusters.

### Rendering

The rendering algorithm uses off-screen framebuffer space. A rectangular tile is assigned to each supersampled region. A triangle  $t$  is rendered as follows:

- Project  $t$  to  $t'$  conventionally
- If  $t'$  intersects the output image, rasterize conventionally
- For each supersampled region  $SSR_i$  intersected by  $t'$ 
  - If  $t'$  is completely inside  $SSR_i$ , map  $t'$  to the off-screen tile  $T_i$  of  $SSR_i$  and rasterize  $t'$  in  $T_i$
  - If  $t'$  crosses the border of  $SSR_i$ , intersect bounding box of  $t'$  with  $SSR_i$  to obtain  $bb$ , compute rasterization expressions  $E_i(t)$  at the four corners of  $bb$  as well as the barycentric matrix of  $t$   $BM(t)$ , and finally rasterize  $bb$  using  $E_i(t)$  and  $BM(t)$ .

In Figure 13 (right) both tiles are 600x720 pixels in size which is sufficient to host the supersampled projections of the cluster volumes. A triangle is rendered at most  $n+1$  times, where  $n$  is the number of supersampled regions. The algorithm clips with a tile at bounding box level and edge sidedness is enforced during rasterization, which is advantageous since most primitives that map to a tile have a small footprint. The red-blue particles are rasterized conventionally and only a few large background triangles (yellow terrain) are rasterized as clipped bounding-box quads.

### Display

The XAA GPC image is an intermediate representation from which the final image is computed. The screen pixels covered by the clusters are reconstructed by filtering the supersampled tiles. A straightforward approach is to use mipmapping. A more accurate approach is to actually convolve with a high resolution kernel, which remains efficient since the number of output pixels covered by the clusters is small. We use flat kernels with 1 pixel support, which means that an output pixel is reconstructed as the average of  $k$  color samples, where  $k$  is the supersampling factor for the cluster region.



## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We tested our approach with good results (see images in the paper and accompanying video) on several datasets including a Rayleigh-Taylor instability surface (Figure 1) [46], a Ionization Front volume dataset [43] (Figure 10), the Crater Lake terrain dataset [44] (Figure 11), and a DNA molecule triangle mesh [45] (Figure 2). All performance numbers were measured on a 3.16GHz 4GB Intel Xeon workstation with a 1GB NVIDIA GeForce GTX 280 graphics card and a PCI Express x16 interface.

### Remote visualization

#### Rendering performance

All visualization algorithms described in this paper run on the GPU. The adaptive subdivision GPC rendering algorithm uses multiple geometry shader passes to circumvent the bottleneck at emitting primitives. At each pass a triangle is subdivided into at most 4 triangles. The triangle data is piped in from a pass to the next using two vertex buffers. Triangles that do not need subdivision are simply passed through. The subdivision ends if a pass does not subdivide any triangle, or after a maximum number of passes (e.g. 6). The resulting triangles are rasterized with a single fragment shader pass.

Mtris	NLR	ASR	CR
0.12	3.2	15	55
0.5	1.1	9.1	18
2	0.33	5.3	6.7

We have compared the performance of the GPC algorithms for rendering geometry data on several resolutions of the Crater Lake dataset obtained by downsampling the original resolution (see table for average rendering performance in Hz). Non-Linear Rasterization (NLR) is consistently outperformed by Adaptive Subdivision Rasterization (ASR) due to bounding box estimation, geometry to fragment shader communication, and overdraw costs. Compared to the approximate algorithm of GPC projection followed by Conventional Rasterization (CR), the ASR quality advantage comes at a relative cost that is smaller for finer datasets.

For volume rendering the cost of distorting the PPC ray to obtain the GPC ray is dwarfed by the cost of stepping along the ray. For Figure 10, the GPC image resolution is 1200x720, the volume resolution is 700x496x496, the number of ray steps is capped at 1024, and the GPC image is rendered at 3.51Hz. For a comparable PPC the frame rate is 3.93Hz, difference due to a higher average number of steps for the GPC (rays focused at volume center).

Resampling a GPC image to the output frame runs at hundreds of Hz on the GPU and it is even sufficiently light weight to run interactively on the CPU (13Hz for frames in Figure 1). Like resampling, 3-D warping has cost bounded by the resolution of the GPC. On the GPU the 864K points of a 1200x720 GPC are reprojected at over 60fps. Even in software the GPC is warped at 7fps using simple 1x1 splats for reconstruction. The GPU can easily handle more sophisticated reconstructions such as connecting the GPC samples in a triangle mesh.

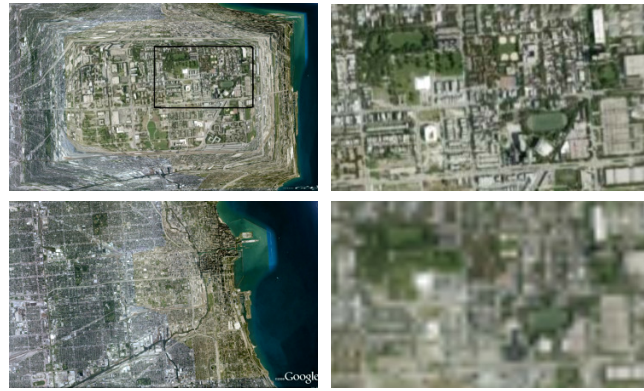


Figure 14. GPC reference image and frame resampled from it (top) and corresponding PPC image and frame for comparison (bottom).

#### Image data

Building GPC images from image data is straight forward. Each pixel in the GPC is looked up in the input PPC by evaluating the second order distortion polynomial given in equation (1). Figure 14 shows a GPC image of the Chicago area which allows the user to zoom in at the center without the pauses needed to download the next level of detail which are common to current applications.

#### Communication performance

We have integrated the GPC framework into an application that sends images between a visualization server and a visualization client via TCP/IP. For a typical path through the Crater Lake dataset, the user requested two GPC reference images, which were used at the client to create 1,800 output frames. The GPC resolution was 2560x1440 and the output frame resolution was 1280x720 (i.e. 720p). The average GPC reference image size was 8MB for color and 7MB for depth, using non-lossy LZW compression. Over the campus 100Mb network the average time for transferring a GPC reference image with depth is 5.04 seconds. All transfer times are measured here from the time the client issues the request to the time the client has finished uncompressing the received image. Once the client receives the GPC the frame rate exceeds 60fps.

We have compared the GPC approach to the conventional approach of sending individual visualization frames. We tested several compression modes: non-lossy LZW and JPEG with 3 quality factors. The results are summarized in Table 1.

When sending each frame from the server the frame rate is below 2fps even when the frame is aggressively compressed (Figure 15), and even with the high bandwidth network. The GPC approach on the other hand provides a frame rate of over 60fps at the cost of

	LZW	JPEG		
		10%	50%	90%
Data [MB]	2.15	0.0338	0.0804	0.184
Time [s]	1.54	0.70	0.74	0.93

Table 1 Average per frame communication performance for conventional remote visualization for various compression settings.

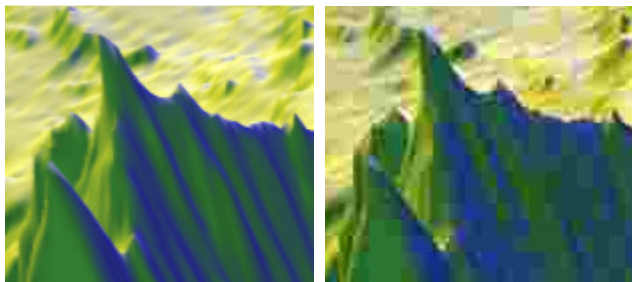


Figure 15. Frame resampled from GPC (*left*) and frame compressed with JPEG with a quality factor of 10% (*right*).

the two 5 second pauses needed to transfer the two GPC reference images. The GPC provides great quality from the viewpoint of the reference image and good quality from translated viewpoints.

We have also tested our system using standard residential broadband connectivity (i.e. cable modem, ~300KB/s average download rate). Transferring the GPC image took on average 105s. Once the transfer completed the laptop on which the client was running was resampling and warping the GPC at over 20fps. For the conventional approach lossless compression is impractical since the frame rate is below 0.1Hz. JPEG compression achieved 0.5-1.0fps.

#### Discussion

Compared to a single conventional PPC image, a GPC image takes longer to render because of the non-linear projection operation. However, we have developed fast feed forward rendering algorithms that make the GPC rendering time negligible compared to network transfer times. Moreover in typical remote visualization scenarios rendering capabilities are distributed asymmetrically between the server and the client, in favor of the server, and the GPC is rendered on the server. A GPC image takes up more space than a single PPC image because it is larger and because it also stores depth per pixel. Assuming that the GPC image is twice as big as the PPC image in each direction and charging 32 bits per depth sample, a GPC image is typically 8 times larger than a conventional PPC image. Even so, bandwidth savings are considerable since hundreds or even thousands of output frames are computed from a single GPC image. In our example 2 GPC images were used to create 1,800 frames.

Rendering quality GPC images requires antialiasing, which is not more complicated than in the case of conventional images. Like for conventional antialiasing, multiple samples are computed per pixel and the samples are blended to produce the final image. The feed-forward algorithms described readily produce antialiased GPC images. If the GPC image is rendered by ray tracing, antialiasing proceeds as usual, with the exception that the additional rays per pixel are defined using the GPC model and not the PPC model, a negligible cost compared to actually tracing the additional rays.

Like in any image-based rendering method, the GPC approach implies an additional resampling step, which reduces the quality of the output image. The quality loss

can be reduced by not antialiasing the GPC image, which allows reconstructing the output frame from point samples. On a GPU the resampling step is essentially free from the performance standpoint (i.e. in our experiments resampling took less than 2ms). Even when no hardware support is present, resampling can be executed on the CPU at interactive rates (e.g. 13Hz in our case). We will test our system on additional client platforms in the future. For platforms such as cell phones the lower compute power is compensated by a lower screen resolution, so software resampling at interactive rates probably remains tractable. Moreover, the main concern for such platforms is the low connectivity bandwidth (e.g. 3G), which makes the GPC approach even more appealing.

GPCs support blurriness-free zoom up to a user chosen factor. Higher zoom factors come at the cost of a lower resolution at the periphery of zoomed out frames (Figure 16). The examples shown here were constructed under the assumption that the most likely zoom center is the center of the image. This assumption is supported by the fact that in interactive visualization the view typically changes smoothly. The view is a function  $V(f, t_x, t_y, t_z, \phi, \theta, \rho)$  where  $f$  is the focal length,  $t_x$ ,  $t_y$ , and  $t_z$  are the translation parameters,  $\phi$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\rho$  are the rotation parameters, and the frame resolution is assumed to be constant. Smooth navigation implies that these parameters change continuously thus views following a reference view will have similar view directions, and thus zooming occurs close to the center of the reference view. The GPC image anticipates small variations of each of the 7 view parameters: the depth channel allows warping the samples to nearby viewpoints, a larger field of view allows panning, tilting and zooming out, and a higher resolution at the center allows zooming in. The GPC essentially covers a 7-D volume of views centered at the reference view. The output frame reconstruction quality decreases towards the periphery of this view volume (i.e. increasing severity of disocclusion errors and increasing blurriness). The GPC buys time to transfer a new reference image. Unlike conventional remote visualization, the GPC approach scales well with the frame rate at the client. The higher the frame rate at the client, the higher the benefit of the GPC. A high frame rate implies a dense sampling of the view volume covered by the GPC image, and more output frames are reconstructed from a single GPC image than in the case of a small frame rate.

The overall size of the view volumes covered by a GPC and a PPC image is comparable, since the two images have the same number of samples. However, the shape of the view volume covered by the GPC is better suited for remote visualization. The reference view is not at the center of the PPC volume of views, but rather at its periphery: the PPC does not support zooming in or forward translation. The GPC volume of views is more evenly distributed around the reference view, at the cost of reducing the pan-tilt range, which is a desirable trade-off. The GPC image is an image-based model that allows rendering multiple output images. Like for all models,



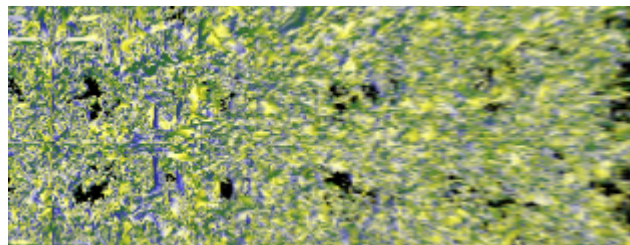


Figure 16. Decrease of resolution from center to periphery of frame resampled from GPC image.

image-based or not, the utility of the model is not synonymous to the user rendering all possible images of the model. If the user never zooms in or never translates forward, the higher resolution at the center of the GPC remains unutilized. However, zooming in and translation forward are likely operations in interactive visualization since they are the mechanisms that allow the user to increase the level of detail.

Let's compare the GPC approach to a simple approach of zooming in mipmapping fashion. Initially the output frame is transferred from the server along with a PPC reference image that has the same view but twice the resolution (4 times the number of pixels). The client reconstructs the output frame by trilinear interpolation between the two images. Once the resolution of the reference PPC image is surpassed, a new image is requested from the server and so on. If the output frame resolution is  $w \times h$ , the approach transfers  $4wh$  pixels for each  $2x$  zoom in sequence. Now let's consider a GPC reference image of  $w \times h$  resolution with a central region of size  $w/2 \times h/2$  and a zoom factor of 2 (Figure 17). The amount of data transferred is reduced 4 fold to  $wh$ , at the cost of a lower peripheral sampling rate. Using Equation 1, we find that the minimum sampling rate for the first ( $F_1$ ) and the last ( $F_n$ ) frame of the zoom in sequence is 0.4 and 0.9, respectively. The sampling rate requirement (e.g. 1.0 for  $F_1$  and 2.0 for  $F_n$ ) is met at the center of the frame throughout the zoom in sequence. The GPC is a flexible camera model that allows trading off periphery sampling rate for zoom in support. For example one could choose a sampling rate of 4.0 at the central region of the GPC image, which suffices for *two*  $2x$  zoom in sequences, reducing the transfer cost 8 fold compared to the mipmapping approach. Another application might choose to enforce a minimum sampling rate of 1.0 for  $F_1$  by increasing the resolution of the GPC image to  $1.6w \times 1.6h$ . In this case the data reduction factor is  $4.0/2.56$ , without any decrease of sampling rate at the periphery. This is of course possible since the mipmapping approach uses a 2.0 sampling rate at the periphery which is never used.

If regions of interest are known for a dataset, the GPC should be built to allocate more samples to those regions, similar to the GPC images constructed for the focus plus context application. Many datasets have intrinsic regions of interest. For example, in a computational molecular dynamics simulation where the goal is to investigate the therapeutic potential of a designed molecule (ligand), the visualization is likely to focus on the biomolecule receptor sites which reveal the

quality of the fit between the ligand and the biomolecule. These receptor sites are known a priori and can be marked as regions of interest. In a computational fluid dynamics application an algorithm for extracting features (e.g. separation surfaces, vortices) produces geometry of variable complexity, and regions with high complexity are likely to be examined by the user at a higher resolution. These regions should be marked as regions of interest anticipating the need for additional samples. Similarly a CAD model of a complex system can have known regions of interest such as complex components, components that are known to fail, or components that are likely to have failed based on diagnostic tests performed by a technician in the field.

A current limitation of our GPC-based remote visualization system is the relatively long GPC transfer times. Several strategies can be employed to reduce this time including progressive refinement of color and depth, not transmitting depth at all and supporting translation by texture mapping the frame onto a quadrilateral, compressing color with various quality factors, or simply letting the user navigate through the current GPC while the next GPC is being transferred.

## Focus plus context

### Rendering performance

For focus plus context GPCs, the cubic equation per distorted vertex is an important performance factor. GPC rendering performance increases for Figure 2 from 7Hz to 10Hz /11Hz if the cubic distortion is replaced with a quadratic/linear distortion.

### Discussion

The GPC provides a focus plus context technique with the important advantages of simplicity, of versatility, of interactive rendering performance, and of sampling rate continuity between focus and context regions. The interactive rendering performance not only supports dynamic scenes, but it also allows the user to modify the focus region parameters at interactive rates. If the focus regions are known a priori, or once the focus regions are found, the user can lock them and continue interactive exploration. A unique strength of our method is the robust and efficient handling of surface geometry data.

## Extreme antialiasing

### Rendering performance

The image in Figure 13 is rendered at 21.2Hz. Increasing

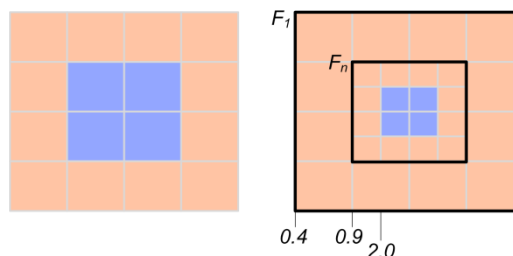


Figure 17. GPC image (left) and image plane sampling rate visualization (right). The black rectangles show the samples used by the first and last visualization frame in a  $2x$  zoom in sequence.





Figure 18. (Left) Off-screen framebuffer tiles (top) and (bottom) comparison between GPC XAA + HWAA 16x (left) and HWAA 16x alone (right). The XAA factors are 361x, 144x, and 25x.

the number of particles in each cluster from  $10^4$  to  $10^5$  and then to  $10^6$  (>4M triangles), the frame rate becomes 14.5Hz and 3.76Hz, respectively. The bulk of the time is spent rendering the GPC image—the kernel-based reconstruction takes negligible time.

#### Quality

Figure 18 shows GPC XAA at work in 3 visualization frames. The camera translates forward so the tree has a larger and larger footprint. The size of the off-screen tile is 640x720 for all three frames, which is sufficient to render the tree well with a single color sample per pixel. The supersampling factor is chosen as to maximize the utilization of the off-screen tile, and it decreases as the tree footprint grows bigger. The size of the tree in the off-screen tile remains approximately the same. The biggest change in size is recorded when the supersampling factor changes from one discrete level to the next (e.g. from 144 to 121). The correct reconstruction prevents transmitting the abrupt change to the output image, where the cluster regions are smooth, have accurate borders, and exhibit good frame to frame stability (please see accompanying video). On the other hand 16x hardware antialiasing alone does not render the correct foliage volume, even when the camera is closest to the tree.

#### Discussion

The GPC allows for a flexible management of framebuffer resources enabling local supersampling factors that are out of reach for full-frame antialiasing. Complex datasets are visualized directly, bypassing problematic offline simplification. GPC XAA works under the assumption that extreme geometric complexity is concentrated in a few screen regions. For example a city scene with a few complex trees or a flow dataset with a few complex turbulences should be rendered using GPC XAA whereas for a forest conventional LoD approaches are still needed. In general any dataset with great complexity variation is suitable for GPC XAA whereas datasets with uniform complexity, low or high, are not.

A current limitation of the GPC XAA algorithm is that the supersampled regions have to be disjoint. In the current implementation overlapping regions have to be merged into a single region with a single supersampling

factor, which can lead to aliasing when the original regions required widely different supersampling factors. This can probably be addressed with an improved reconstruction algorithm that takes into account the depth channel of the off-screen tile to depth-composite the tile into the output image. Another limitation is that the off-screen tiles are uniformly sampled which considerably weakens the antialiasing capability of the algorithm for thin nearly horizontal or nearly vertical features. In such cases a large number of samples can change sidedness from a frame to the next causing temporal aliasing. The solution to this problem is well known and we foresee that the algorithm can be adapted to use jittered sampling locations in the off-screen tile.

## CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The GPC is an effective and efficient tool for producing images with a non-uniform sampling rate. The GPC is ready to be integrated into remote visualization, focus plus context visualization, and high-end visualization systems. Many of the image processing tools developed for conventional images can be readily used on GPC images, including compression.

In this paper we were only concerned with view changes. Like a conventional image, a GPC can be enhanced with additional channels, increasing the number of degrees of freedom for user interaction (e.g. scalar values for modifying color schemes, vector values for showing flow). Another future work direction is providing full translation support by developing a non-pinhole camera model that samples all 3-D data visible from a viewing volume, combined with a scheme for efficient encoding of view dependent color. A GPC, like any image, is a snapshot of the dataset and it can only allow the user to explore the dataset frozen in time. A new GPC is needed to advance time. We plan to investigate extending the concept of an image to integrate short term trajectories for the image samples, a first step towards supporting dynamic datasets.

Our paper describes how the GPC concept is tailored to contribute in three contexts. We advocate that instead of using the same camera model for all visualization applications and datasets, the camera model should instead be designed specifically for each application and dynamically optimized for each dataset. We foresee that this camera model design paradigm will lead to finding solutions for challenging problems in visualization and beyond.

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