

Neural Network Ambient Occlusion

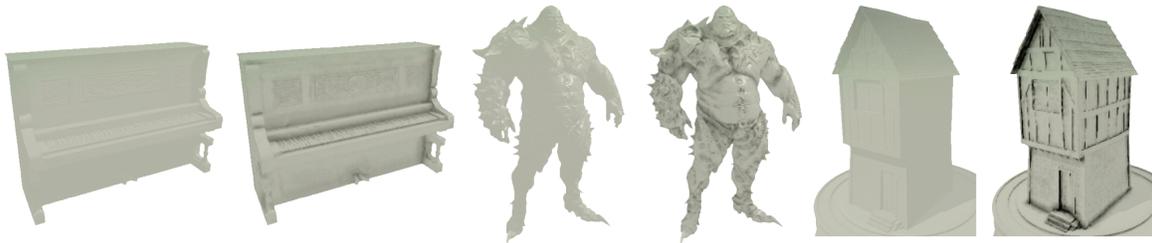


Figure 1: Comparison showing NNAO (our method) enabled and disabled, as implemented in a game engine.

Abstract

We present Neural Network Ambient Occlusion (NNAO), a fast, accurate screen space ambient occlusion algorithm that uses a neural network to learn an optimal approximation of the ambient occlusion effect. Our network is carefully designed such that it can be computed in a single pass - allowing it to be used as a drop-in replacement for existing screen space ambient occlusion techniques.

Keywords: neural networks, machine learning, screen space ambient occlusion, SSAO, HBAO, game development, real time rendering

1 Introduction

Ambient Occlusion is a key component in the lighting of a scene yet is expensive to calculate. By far the most popular approximation used in real-time applications is Screen Space Ambient Occlusion (SSAO), a method which uses the depth buffer and other screen space information to calculate occlusions. Screen space techniques have seen wide adoption because they are independent of scene complexity, simple to implement, and fast to compute.

Yet, calculating effects in screen space often creates artifacts as these techniques lack the full information about the scene. The exact behaviour of these artifacts can be difficult to predict. We use machine learning to learn a SSAO algorithm that minimises these errors with respect to some cost function.

We build a database of camera depths, normals, and *ground truth* ambient occlusion as calculated using an offline renderer, and use a neural network to learn a mapping from the depth and normals surrounding the pixel to the ambient occlusion of that pixel. Once trained we convert the neural network into an optimised shader which is more accurate than existing techniques, has better performance, no user parameters other than the occlusion radius, and can be computed in a single pass allowing it to be used as a drop-in replacement.

Our contribution is:

- A technique for applying machine learning to screen space effects such as SSAO.
- A fast, accurate SSAO shader that can be used as a drop in replacement to existing techniques.

2 Related Work

Screen Space Ambient Occlusion Screen Space Ambient Occlusion (SSAO) was first introduced by [Mittring 2007] for use in *Cryengine2*. The approach samples around the depth buffer in a view space sphere and counts the number of points which are inside the depth surface to estimate the occlusion. This method has seen wide adoption, but often produces artifacts such as dark halos around object silhouettes, or white highlights on object edges. [Filion and McNaughton 2008] (SSAO+) sampled in a hemisphere around the pixel oriented in the direction of the surface normal. This removed the artifact related to white highlights around object edges and reduced the required sampling count, but still sometimes produced dark halos. [Bavoil et al. 2008] introduced Horizon Based Ambient Occlusion (HBAO), a technique which predicts the occlusion amount by estimating how closed or open the horizon is around the sample point. Rays are regularly marched along the depth buffer and the difference in depth used to calculate the horizon estimate. This was extended by [Mittring 2012] improving the performance using paired samples. This produces a more realistic effect but does not account for the fact that the camera depth map is an approximation of the true scene geometric. [McGuire et al. 2011] introduced Alchemy Screen-Space Ambient Obscuration (ASSAO), an effect which substitutes a fixed falloff function into the general lighting equation to create a more physically accurate integration over the occlusion term. ASSAO produces a physically based result, but still does not deal directly with the errors introduced by the screen space approximation.

Machine Learning for Screen Space Effects So far, machine learning has seen very limited application to rendering and screen space effects. In offline rendering [Kalantari et al. 2015] used machine learning to filter the noise produced by monte carlo rendering at low sample rates. [Ren et al. 2015] used neural networks to perform image space relighting of scenes, allowing users to virtually adjust the lighting of scenes even with complex materials. Finally [Johnson et al. 2011] used machine learning alongside a large repository of photographs to improve the realism of renderings - adjusting patches of the output to be more similar to corresponding patches of photographs in the database.

3 Preprocessing

To produce the complex scenes required for training our network we make use of the geometry, props, and scenes of the Open Source first person shooter Black Mesa [Crowbar-Collective]. We take several scenes from the game and add additional geometry and clut-

81 ter to ensure a wide variety of objects and occlusions are present.

82 We produce five scenes in this way, and select 100-150 viewpoints
 83 from which to render each scene using different perspectives and
 84 camera angles. From each viewpoint we use *Mental Ray* to render
 85 scene depth, camera space normals, and global ambient occlusion
 86 at a resolution of 1280×720 . From each render, we randomly pick
 87 1024 pixels, and perform the following process:

88 Given a pixel’s depth we use the inverse camera projection matrix
 89 to calculate the position of the pixel as viewed from the camera (the
 90 *view space position*). We then take $w \times w$ samples in a view space
 91 regular grid centered around this position and scaled by the user
 92 given AO radius r . In this project we set $w = 31$. We reproject each
 93 sample into the screen space using the camera projection matrix
 94 and sample the GBuffer to find the cooresponding pixel normal and
 95 depth. For each sample we take the difference between its normal
 96 and that of the center pixel. Additionally we take the difference
 97 between its view space depth and that of the center pixel. These
 98 values we put into a four dimension vector. We then calculate the
 99 view space distance of the sample to the center pixel, divide it by
 100 the AO radius r , subtract one, and clamp it in the range zero to
 101 one. This value we use to scale the four dimensional input vector
 102 and ensures that samples outside of the occlusion radius are always
 103 zero and cannot have influence over the output. We concatenate
 104 these values from each sample into one large vector. This represents
 105 a single input data point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{w^2 \cdot 4}$. We then take the center pixel
 106 ambient occlusion value as a single cooresponding output data point
 107 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^1$.

108 Once complete we have a final dataset of around 500000 data
 109 points. We normalise the data by subtracting the mean and dividing
 110 by the standard deviation.

111 4 Training

112 Our network is a simple four layer neural network. The operation
 113 of a single layer $\Phi(\mathbf{x})_n$ is described by the following equation

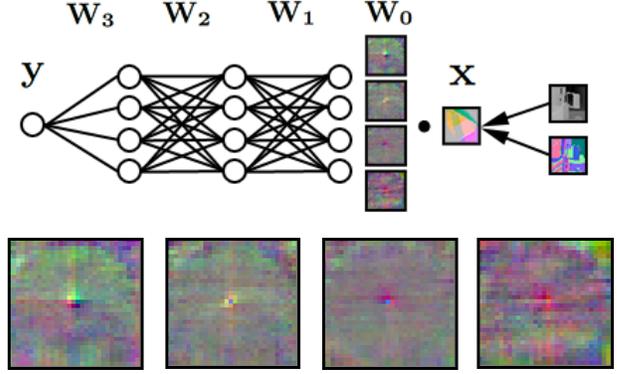
$$\Phi(\mathbf{x})_n = PReLU(\mathbf{W}_n \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}_n, \alpha_n, \beta_n) \quad (1)$$

114 where $PReLU(\mathbf{x}, \alpha, \beta) = \beta \max(\mathbf{x}, 0) + \alpha \min(\mathbf{x}, 0)$ is a vari-
 115 ation on the *Parametric Rectified Linear Unit* first proposed by [He
 116 et al. 2015] but with an additional scaling term β for the posi-
 117 tive activation. The parameters of our network are therefore given
 118 by $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{w^2 \cdot 4 \times 4}, \mathbf{W}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}, \mathbf{W}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}, \mathbf{W}_3 \in$
 119 $\mathbb{R}^{4 \times 1}, \mathbf{b}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \mathbf{b}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \mathbf{b}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \mathbf{b}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^1, \alpha_0 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \alpha_1 \in$
 120 $\mathbb{R}^4, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \alpha_3 \in \mathbb{R}^1, \beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \beta_1 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{R}^4, \beta_3 \in \mathbb{R}^1\}$.

121 The cost function of our network is given by the following, which
 122 consists of the mean squared error and a small regularisation term
 123 controlled by the constant γ which we set to 0.01.

$$Cost(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \theta) = \|\mathbf{y} - \Phi_3(\Phi_2(\Phi_1(\Phi_0(\mathbf{x})))\|^2 + \gamma |\theta| \quad (2)$$

124 Using this function, the parameters of the network are learned via
 125 stochastic gradient descent. In minibatches of 16 random elements
 126 of our dataset are passed through the network and the parameters
 127 updated using derivatives calculated from Theano [Bergstra et al.
 128 2010] and the adaptive gradient descent algorithm *Adam* [Kingma
 129 and Ba 2014]. To avoid overfitting, we use a *Dropout* [Srivastava
 130 et al. 2014] of 0.5 on the first layer. Training is performed for 100
 131 epochs and takes around 10 hours on a NVIDIA GeForce GTX 660
 132 GPU.



133 **Figure 2:** Top: overview of our neural network. On the first layer
 134 independent dot products are performed between the input and
 135 \mathbf{W}_0 represented as four 2D filters. The rest of the layers are stan-
 136 dard neural network layers. Bottom: larger visualisation of \mathbf{W}_0
 137 represented four filters.

133 5 Filters

134 After training, the steps performed in the data preprocessing and
 135 neural network forward pass need to be reproduced in a shader for
 136 use at runtime. The shader is mostly a straight forward translation
 137 of the preprocessing and neural network steps with a few excep-
 138 tions. This shader is provided in the supplementary material for
 139 complete reference.

140 As the total memory required to store the network weight \mathbf{W}_0 ex-
 141 ceeds the maximum memory reserved for local shader variables it
 142 cannot be stored in the shader code. Instead we observe that multi-
 143 plication by \mathbf{W}_0 can be described as four independant dot products
 144 between columns of the matrix and the input \mathbf{x} . As the input \mathbf{x} is
 145 produced by sampled in a grid, these dot products can be performed
 146 in 2D, and the weights matrix \mathbf{W}_0 stored as four 2D textures called
 147 *filters*. These 2D textures are then sampled and multiplied by the
 148 cooresponding parts of the input vector (see Fig. 2).

149 Performing the dot product in 2D also allows us to approximate
 150 the multiplication of \mathbf{W}_0 . We can take fewer samples of the filter
 151 images and afterwards rescale the result using the ratio between the
 152 number of samples taken and the full number of elements in \mathbf{W}_0 .
 153 We use stratified sampling - regularly picking every n th pixel of the
 154 filters and multiplying by the cooresponding input sample, finally
 155 multiplying the result by n . We also introduce a small amount of
 156 2D jitter using random noise to spread the approximation over the
 157 image. This allows us to accurately approximate the multiplication
 158 of \mathbf{W}_0 at the cost of some noise in the output. To cope with this,
 159 as with other SSAO algorithms, the output is post processed using
 160 a bilateral blur.

161 6 Results

162 In Fig. 3 we visually compare the results of our method to SSAO+
 163 (with 16 samples) and HBAO (with 64 samples), and to the ground
 164 truth. HBAO in general produces good results, but in many places
 165 it creates areas which are too dark. See: under the sandbags, behind
 166 the furniture, inside the car, between the railings, on the stairs, be-
 167 hind the pillar to the left of the truck. Additionally HBAO requires
 168 almost twice the runtime of our method to produce acceptable re-
 169 sults (See Fig. 4).

170 In Fig. 1 we implement our method in a game engine. This

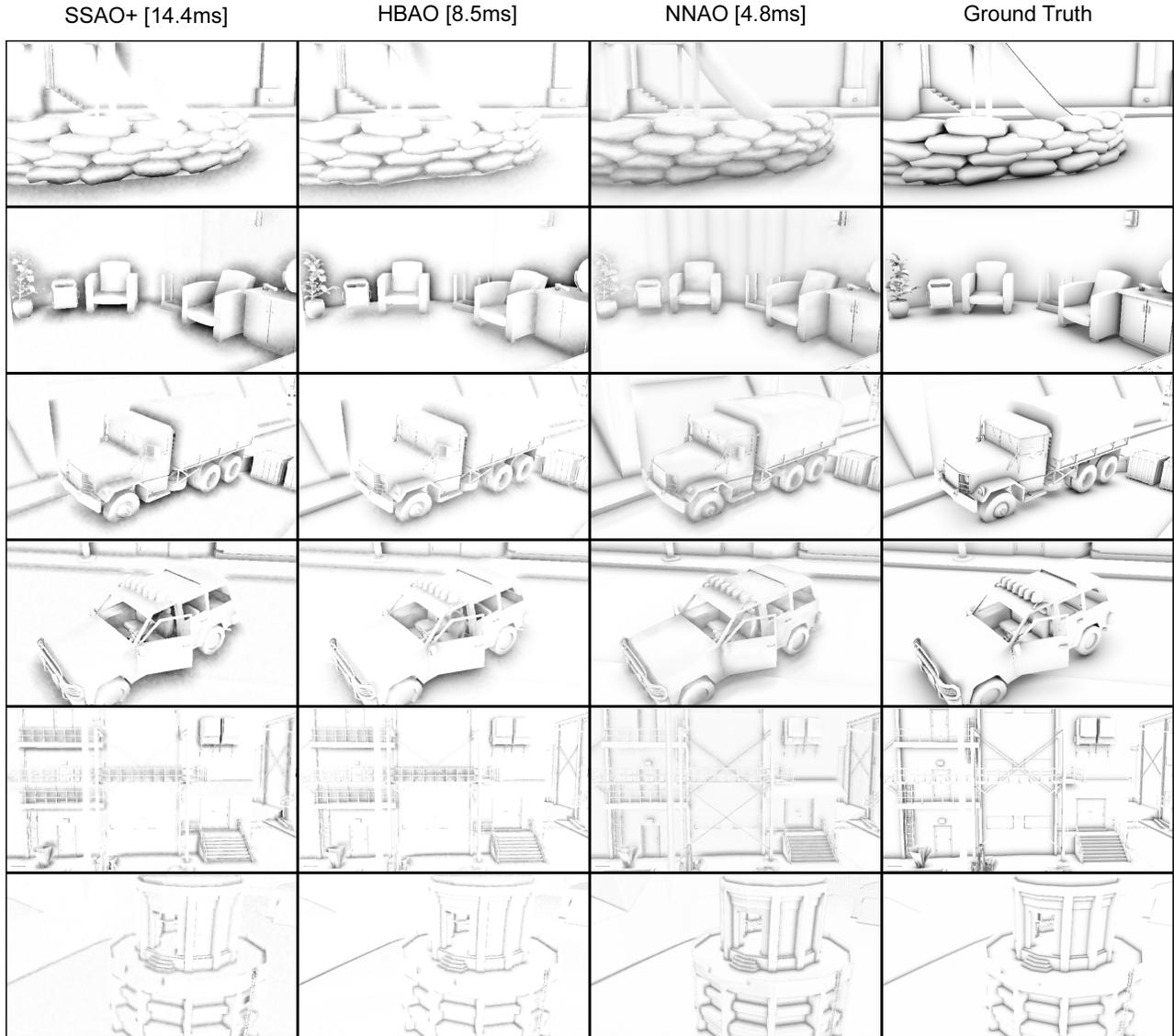


Figure 3: Comparison to other techniques. From left to right: SSAO+, HBAO, NNAO (Our Method), Ground Truth.

171 shows that the trained network is generalisable beyond the situa- 172
 173 tions present in the training data and that it works well in interactive 174
 175 applications. Please see supplementary video for a long demonstra-
 176 tion of this.

175 In Table. 1 we perform a numerical comparison between our 176
 177 method and previous techniques. Our method has a lower mean
 178 squared error on the test set with comparable or better performance
 179 to previous methods. All measurements are taken at half resolu-
 180 tion renderings (640 × 360) on a NVIDIA GeForce GTX 660 GPU.
 181 Due to the unpredictability in measuring GPU performance abso-
 182 lute runtimes may vary in practice, but the quality of NNAO re-
 183 mains high even with a reduced sample count.

7 Discussion

184 In Fig. 5 we visualise what is being learned by the neural network.
 185 We show the activations of the first three hidden units using the
 186 Cyan-Yellow-Magenta channels of the image. Each unit learns a

177 separate component of the occlusion with cyan learning unoccluded 178
 179 areas, magenta learning the occlusion of horizontal surfaces and
 180 yellow learning the occlusion of vertical surfaces.

190 Our method is capable of performing many more samples than 191
 192 other methods in a shorter amount of time. Primarily this is be-
 193 cause it samples in a regular grid, which gives it excellent cache
 194 performance, but also there is no data dependency between samples
 195 which gives it a greater level of parallelism. Finally each sample is
 196 re-used by each filter which results in less noise.

7.1 Limitations & Future Work

197 Our method is training on data that does not includes high detail 198
 199 normal maps in the GBuffer. Although our method can be used on
 200 GBuffers with detailed normals (see Fig. 1) it is likely our method
 201 would perform even better in this case if trained on this kind of data.

202 Reducing the sampling count of our method below 64 does not tend
 to significantly reduce the runtime. This may be due to the opera-

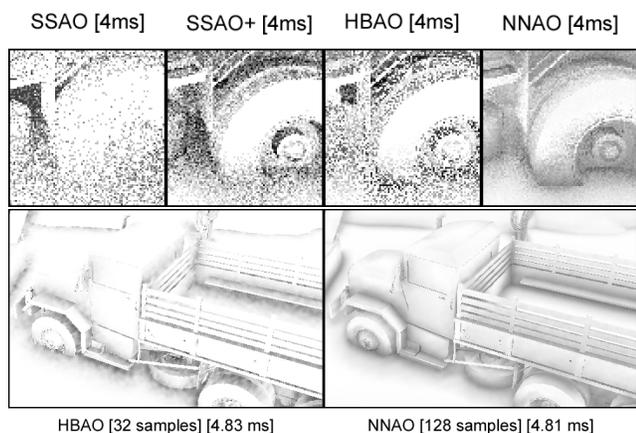


Figure 4: Given similar runtimes, our algorithm can perform more samples producing less noise and a better quality output - as opposed to HBAO which appears blotchy at low sampling rates.

Algorithm	Sample Count	Runtime (ms)	Error (mse)
SSAO	4	1.20	1.765
SSAO	8	1.43	1.558
SSAO	16	14.71	1.539
SSAO+	4	1.16	0.974
SSAO+	8	1.29	0.818
SSAO+	16	14.46	0.811
HBAO	16	3.53	0.965
HBAO	32	4.83	0.709
HBAO	64	8.50	0.666
NNAO	64	4.17	0.516
NNAO	128	4.81	0.497
NNAO	256	6.87	0.494

Table 1: Numerical comparison between our method and others.

tions of the other layers which still need to be performed. For some more constrained applications this may not be ideal. Further control over the performance in this case is something that interests us.

Our technique produces ambient occlusion but we see no reason why it could not be applied to other screen space effects such as Screen Space Radiosity, Screen Space Reflections and more.

7.2 Conclusion

We present a technique for performing Screen Space Ambient Occlusion using a neural network. After training we create an optimised shader that reproduces the network forward pass efficiently and controllably. Our method produces fast, accurate results and can be used as a drop-in replacement to existing Screen Space Ambient Occlusion techniques.

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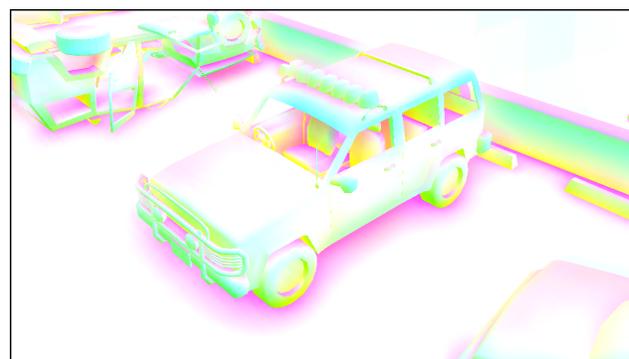


Figure 5: The activations of the first three filters represented by the cyan, yellow, and magenta channels of the image.

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