Monte Carlo integration



15-468, 15-668, 15-868 Physics-based Rendering Spring 2022, Lecture 8

Course announcements

- Programming assignment 1 posted, due Friday 2/11 at 23:59.
 - How many of you have looked at/started/finished it?
 - Any questions?
- Take-home quiz 3 posted, due Tuesday 2/15 at 23:59.
 - How many of you have looked at/started/finished it?
 - Any questions?
- Materials from second recitation posted on Canvas.
- Propose topics for second reading on Friday 2/18, 4-6 pm.

Overview of today's lecture

- Leftover from BRDFs.
- Monte Carlo integration.
- Sampling techniques.
- Importance sampling.
- Ambient occlusion.

Slide credits

Most of these slides were directly adapted from:

Wojciech Jarosz (Dartmouth).

Numerical Integration - Motivation

For very, very simple integrals, we can compute the solution analytically

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{3} x^2 \, \mathrm{d}x = \left[x^3 \right]_0^1 = 1$$

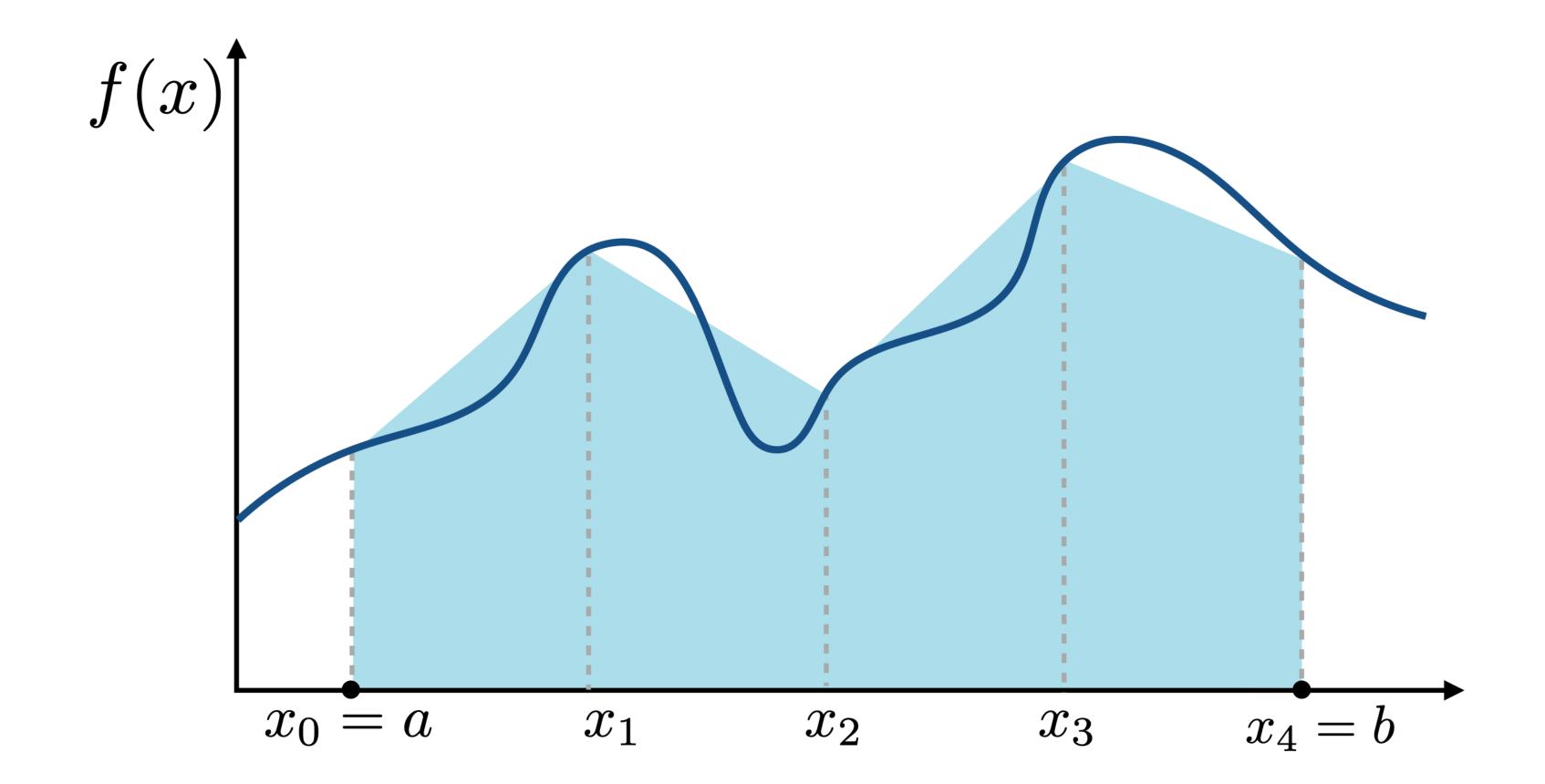
But ours are a bit more complicated:

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_r) = \int_{H^2} f_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i, \vec{\omega}_r) L_i(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i \, d\vec{\omega}_i$$

Typical quadrature: Trapezoid rule

Approximate integral of f(x) by assuming function is piecewise linear

For equal length segments: $h = \frac{b-a}{n-1}$



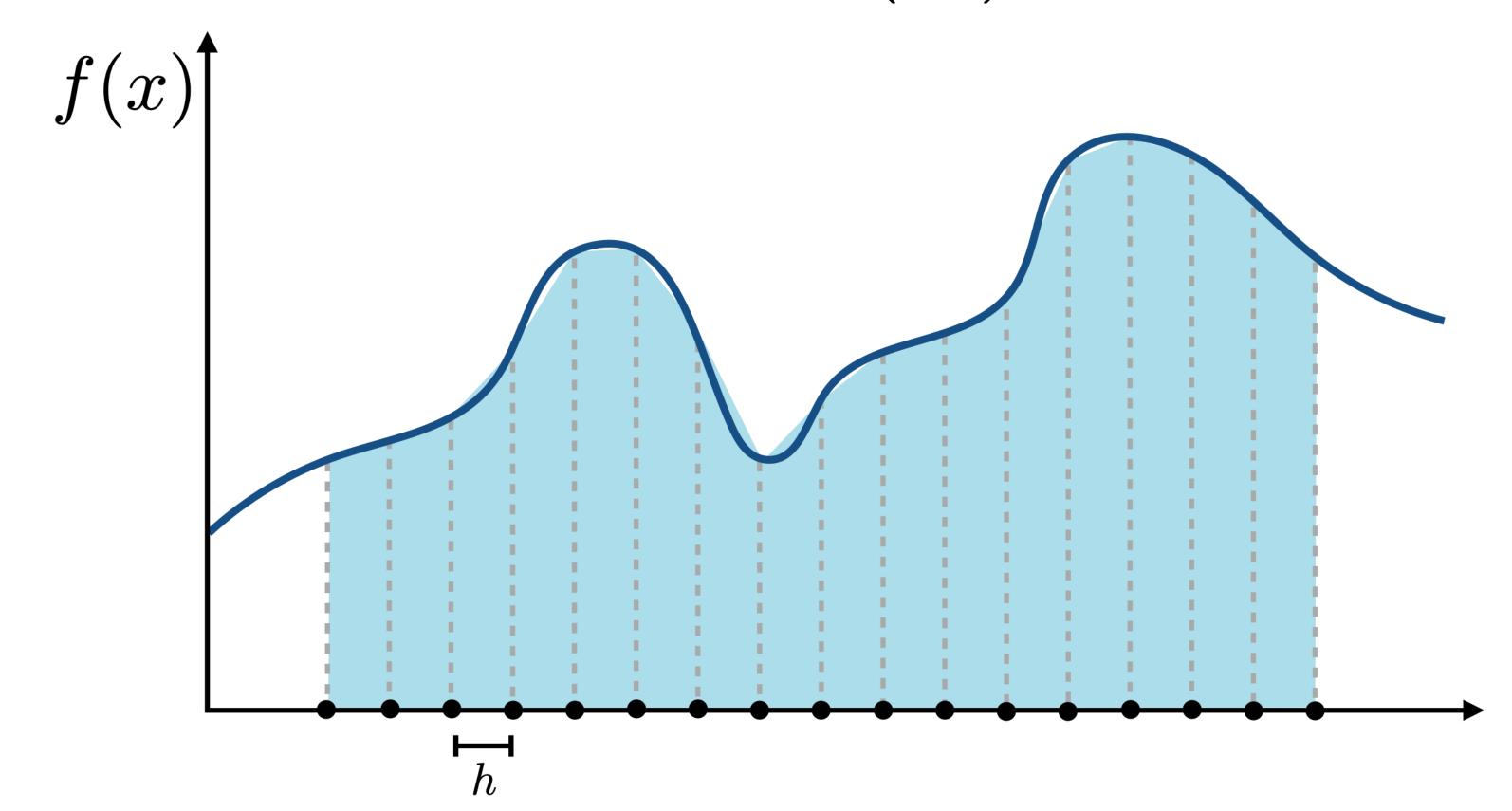
Typical quadrature: Trapezoid rule

Consider cost and accuracy as $n \to \infty$ (or $h \to 0$)

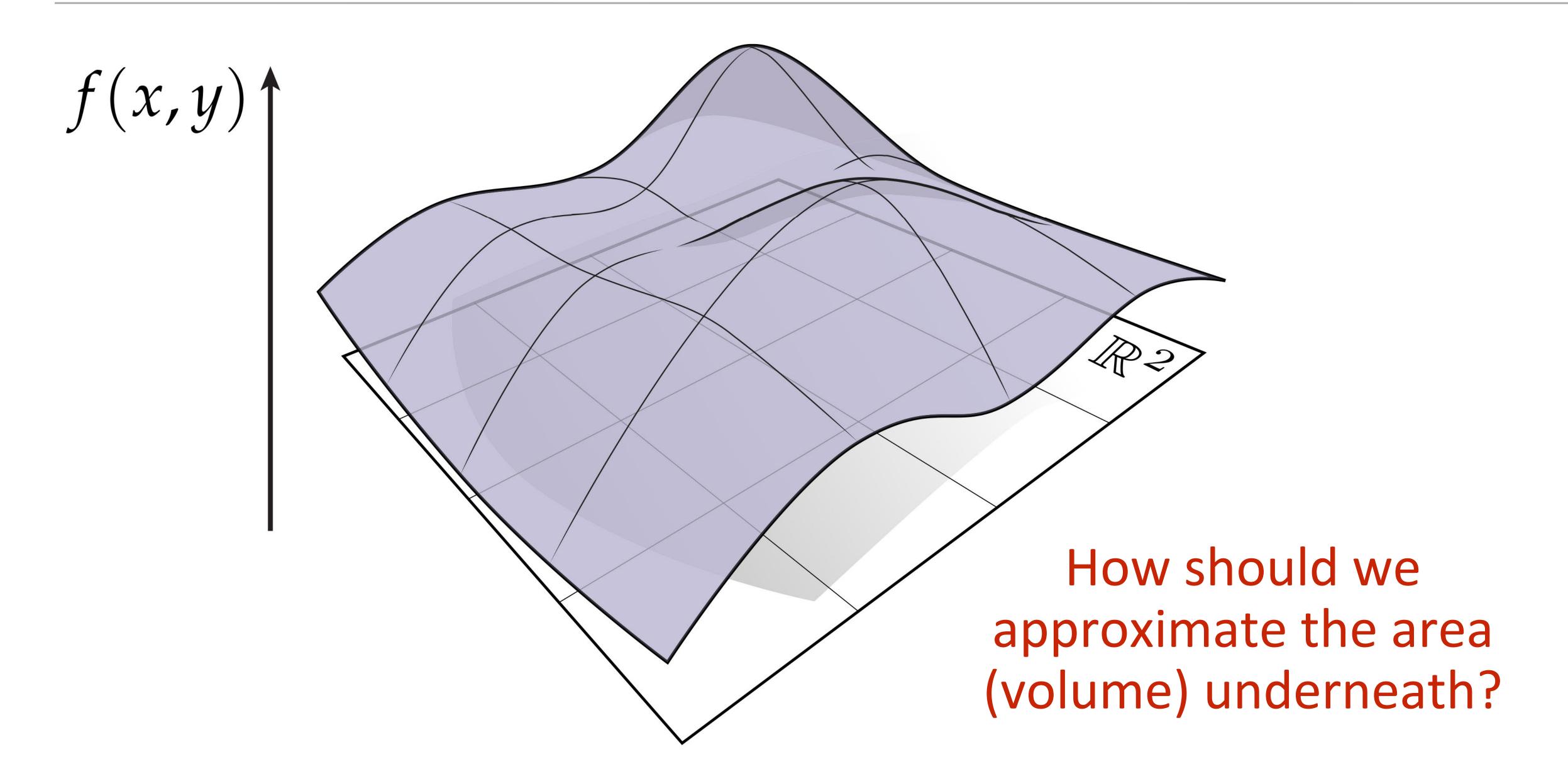
Work: O(n)

Error can be shown to be:

$$O(h^2) = O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$
 (for f(x) with continuous second derivative)



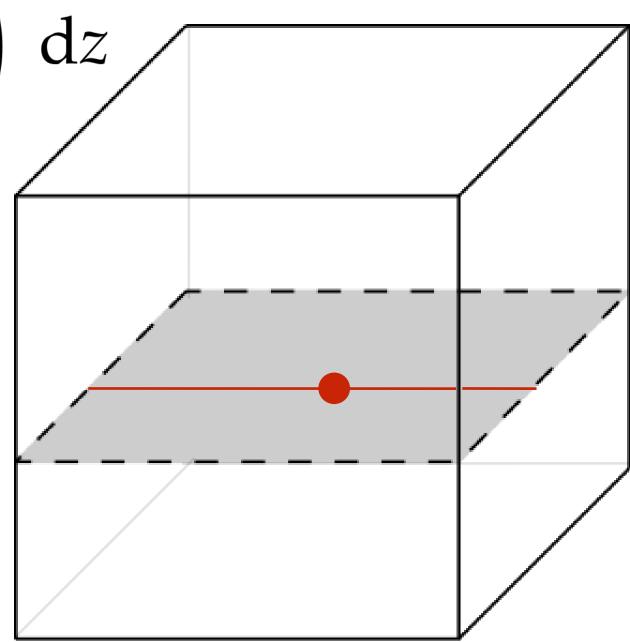
What about a 2D function?



Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

$$\int_{X\times Y\times Z} f(x,y,z) d(x,y,z) = \int_{X} \left(\int_{Y} \left(\int_{Z} f(x,y,z) dx \right) dy \right) dz$$

Apply the trapezoid rule repeatedly



Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

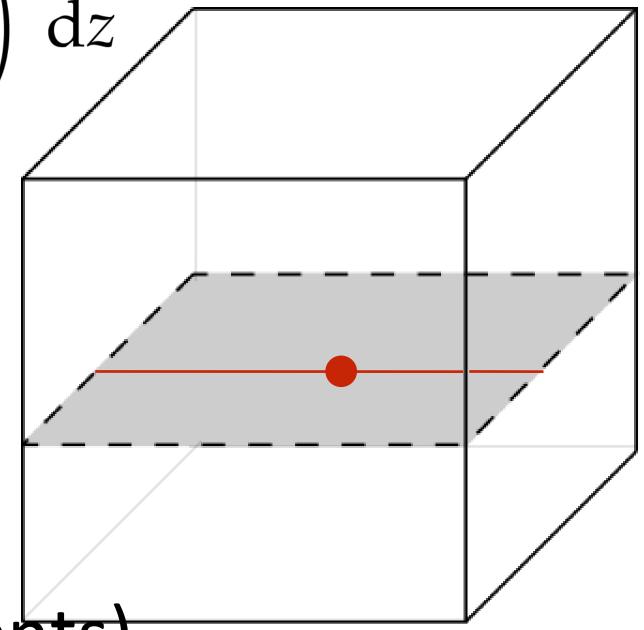
$$\int_{X\times Y\times Z} f(x,y,z) d(x,y,z) = \int_{X} \left(\int_{Y} \left(\int_{Z} f(x,y,z) dx \right) dy \right) dz$$

Apply the trapezoid rule repeatedly

Can show that:

- Errors add, so error still: $O(h^2)$

- But work is now: $O(n^2)$ ($n \times n$ set of measurements)



Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

$$\int_{X\times Y\times Z} f(x,y,z) d(x,y,z) = \int_{X} \left(\int_{Y} \left(\int_{Z} f(x,y,z) dx \right) dy \right) dz$$

Apply the trapezoid rule repeatedly

Can show that:

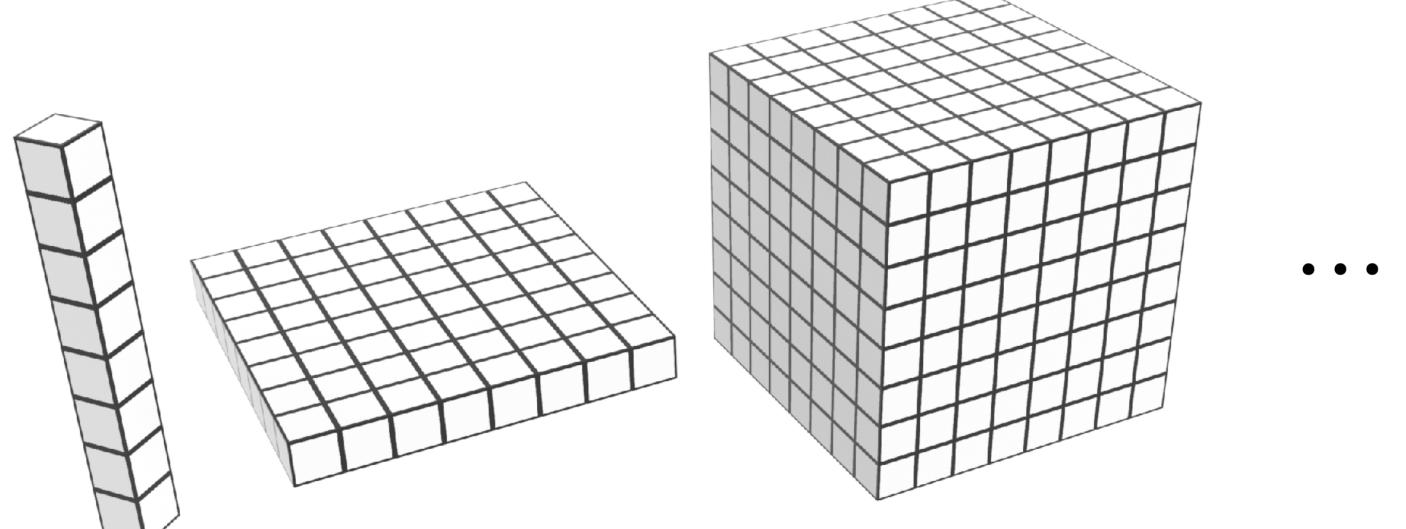
- Errors add, so error still: $O(h^2)$
- But work is now: $O(n^2)(n \times n \text{ set of measurements})$

Must perform much more work in 2D to get same error bound!

Curse of Dimensionality

How much does it cost to apply the trapezoid rule as we go up in dimension?

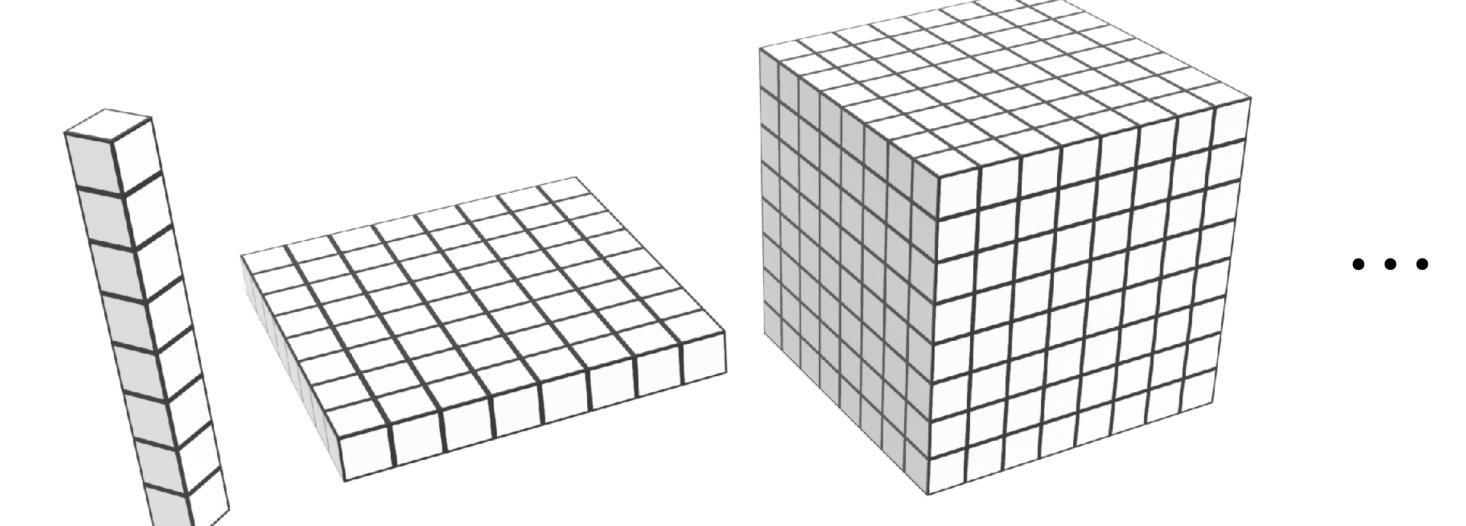
- 1D: O(n)
- 2D: $O(n^2)$
- -
- $kD: O(n^k)$



Curse of Dimensionality

How much does it cost to apply the trapezoid rule as we go up in dimension?

- 1D: O(n)
- 2D: $O(n^2)$
- -
- $kD: O(n^k)$



Deterministic quadrature does not scale to higher dimensions!

Need a fundamentally different approach...

Monte Carlo Integration

Monte Carlo vs Las Vegas



Random variation creeps into the results



Always gives the correct answer, e.g., a randomized sorting algorithm

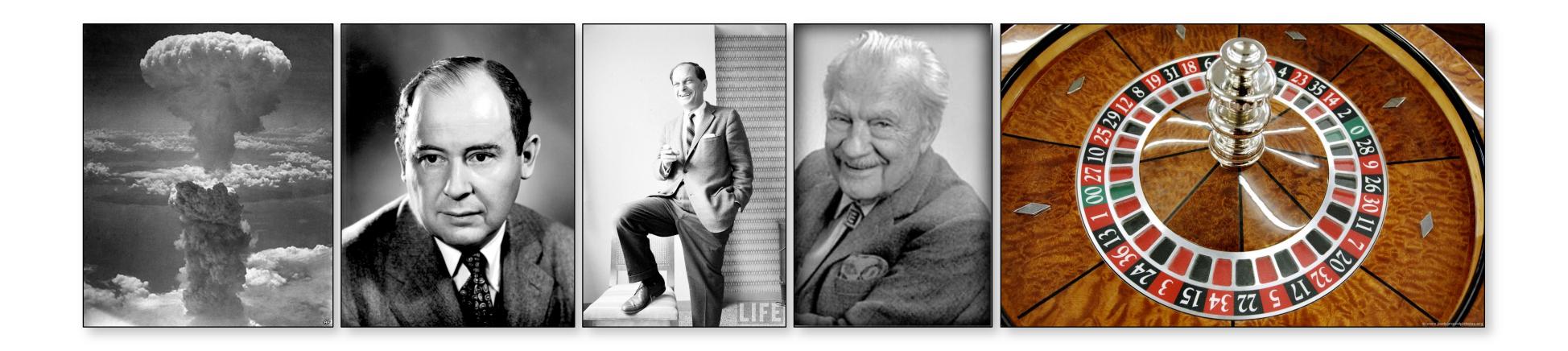
Monte Carlo History

Use random numbers to solve numerical problems

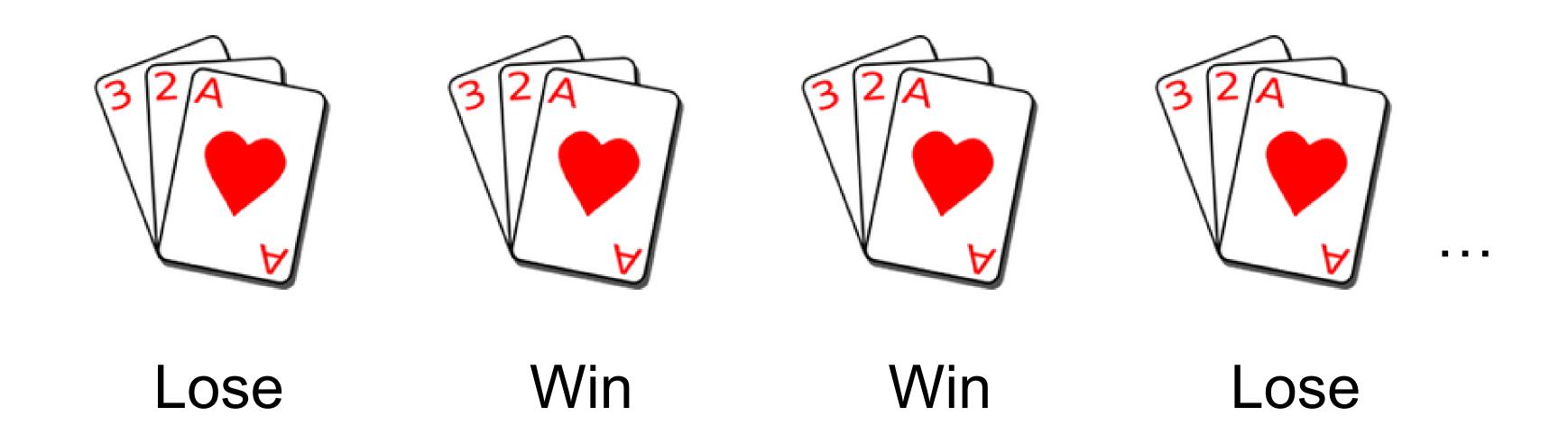
Early use during development of atomic bomb

Von Neumann, Ulam, Metropolis

Named after the casino in Monte Carlo



Playing Solitaire



What's the chance of winning with a properly shuffled deck?

Playing Solitaire

$$P_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \begin{cases} 1, & \text{game } i \text{ is won,} \\ 0, & \text{game } i \text{ is lost} \end{cases}$$

$$P = \lim_{n \to \infty} P_n$$

Monte Carlo Integration

Estimate value of integral using random sampling of function

- Value of estimate depends on random samples used
- But algorithm gives the correct value "on average"

Monte Carlo Integration Advantages

Only requires function to be evaluated at random points on its domain

- Applicable to functions with discontinuities, functions that are impossible to integrate directly

Error is independent of dimensionality of integral!

$$- O(n^{-0.5})$$

Review: random variables

X: random variable. Represents a distribution of potential outcomes. Assigns a value of each outcome.

Two types: discrete vs. continuous

Discrete Random Variables

Discrete Random Variable: countable set of outcomes

Discrete Random Variables

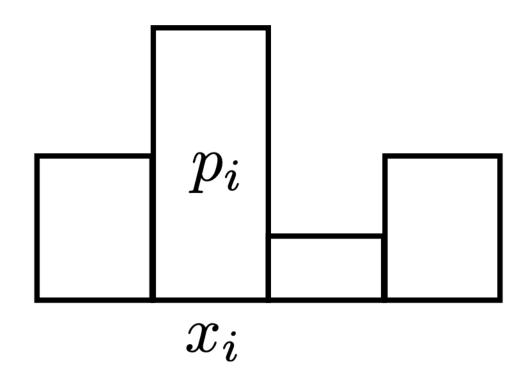
Discrete Random Variable: countable set of outcomes

Probability mass function (pmf) of X:

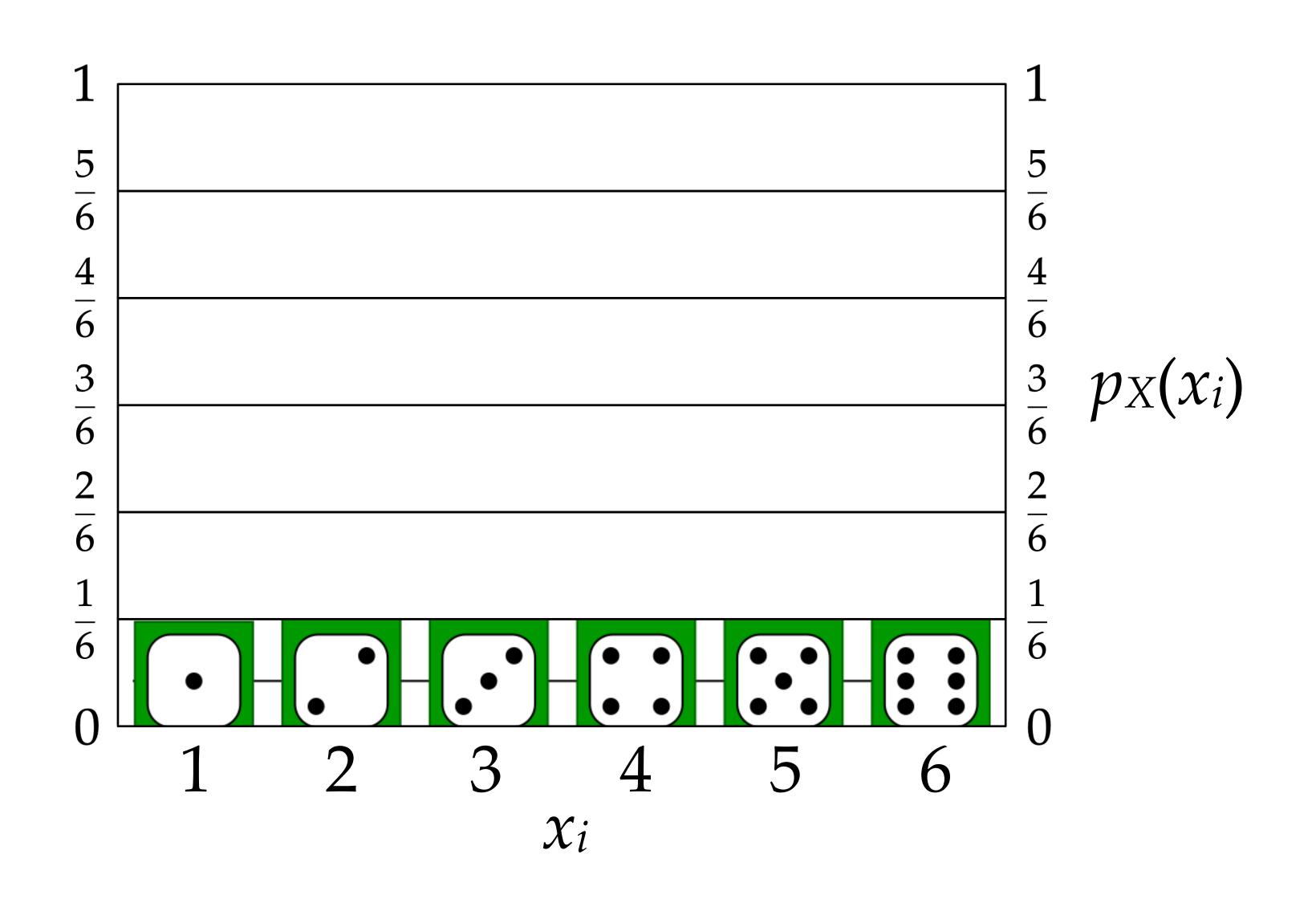
-
$$p_X(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$$
, or simply $p_i = p(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$

$$- p(x_i) \ge 0$$

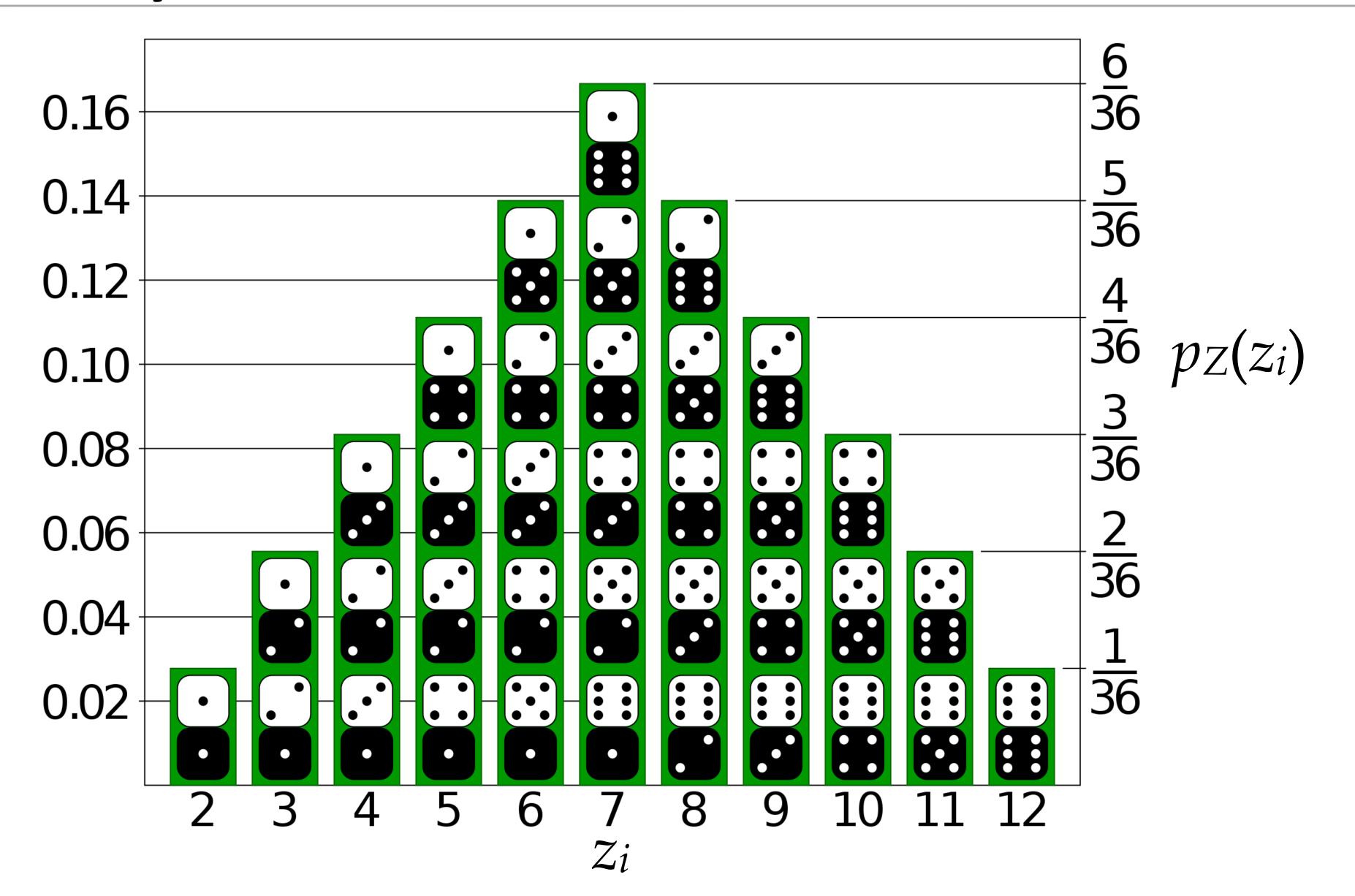
- Sums to one:
$$\sum_{a} p(a) = 1$$



Probability mass function

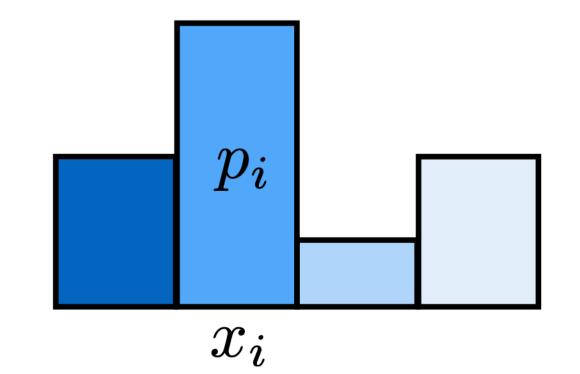


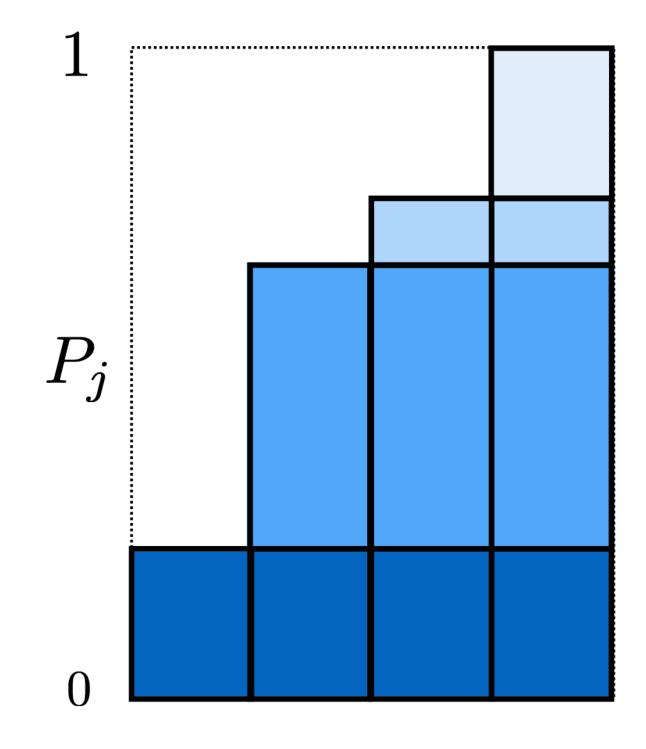
Probability mass function



Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

Cumulative pmf: $P(j) = \sum_{i=1}^{j} p(i)$ where: $0 \le P(i) \le 1$ $P_n = 1$





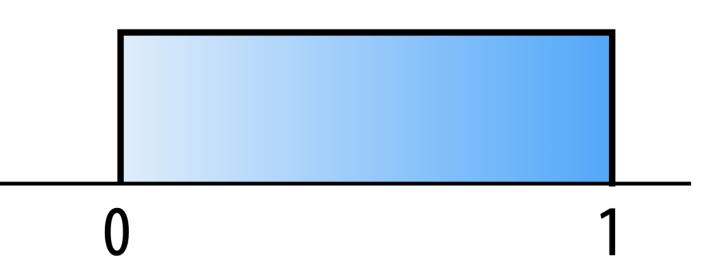
Continuous Random Variables

Probability density function (pdf) of X: p(x)

- $p(x) \ge 0$
- No restriction that p(x) < 1 (Not a probability!)

Uniform distribution

(for random variable X defined on [0,1] domain)



Continuous Random Variables

Probability density function (pdf) of X: p(x)

- $p(x) \ge 0$
- No restriction that p(x) < 1 (Not a probability!)

Cumulative distribution function (cdf): P(x)

$$P(x) = \int_0^x p(x') dx'$$

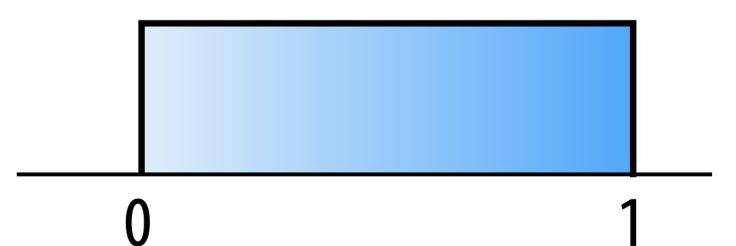
$$P(x) = \Pr(X < x)$$

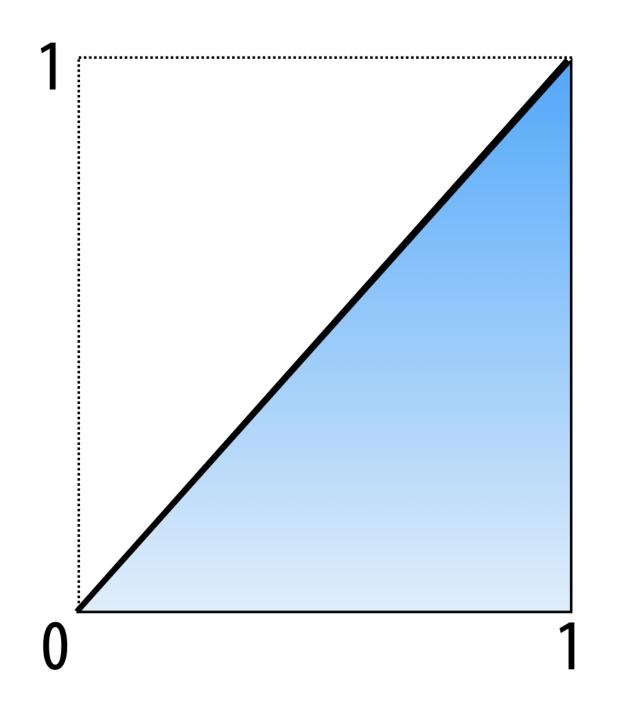
$$\Pr(a \le X \le b) = \int_a^b p(x') dx'$$

$$= P(b) - P(a)$$

Uniform distribution

(for random variable X defined on [0,1] domain)





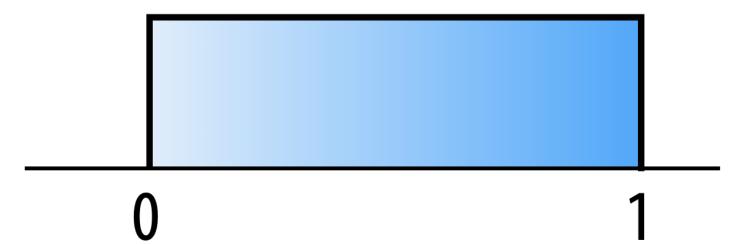
Continuous Random Variables

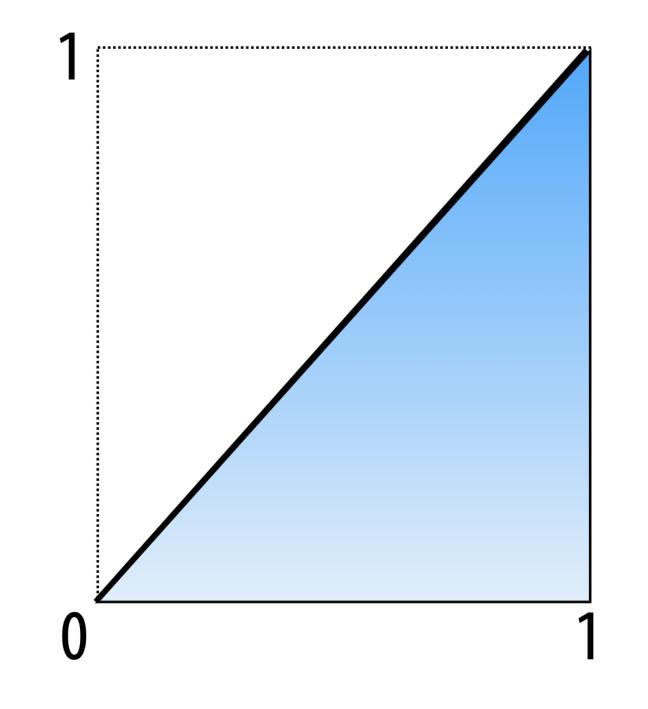
Canonical uniform random variable

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in [0, 1], \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Uniform distribution

(for random variable X defined on [0,1] domain)





Ingredient: Uniform variates

Need: realizations of a uniformly distributed variable on the interval [0.0, 1.0]

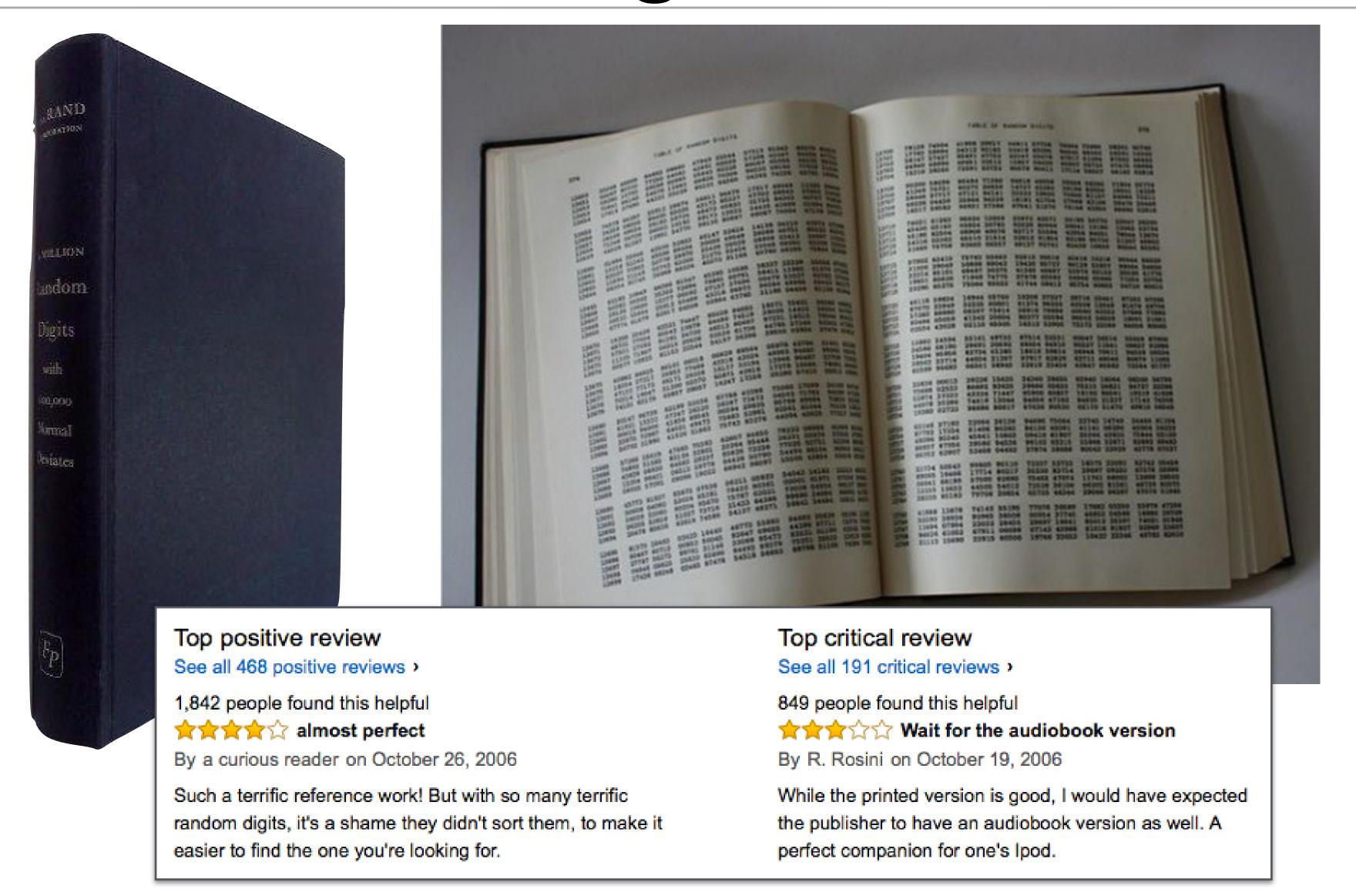
Desired properties:

- sequence should pass statistical tests of randomness
- sequence should have a long period
- efficient to compute, requires only little storage
- repeatability: always produce the same sequence (different compilers, operating systems, processors)

Sources of randomness

3.141592653589793238462643383279502884197169399375105820974944592307816406286208998628034825342117067982148086 **35587640247496473263914199272**604269922796782354781636009341721641219 **58858692699569092721079750930295**532116534498720275596023648066549911988 **175746728909777727938000816470600**161452491921732172147723501414419735685 **3323**90739**414**3333454776**2416**862518983569485562099219222184272550254256887671 **784**3838279**679**766814541**0095**388378636095068006422512520511739298489608412848 **42**78622039**194**945047123**7137**869609563643719172874677646575739624138908658326 **259**57098258**2262**0522489407726719478268482601476990902640136394437 **509**37221696**4615**1570985838741059788595977297549893016175392846813 **2524**68084598**7273**6446958486538367362226260991246080512438843904512 **9486**85558484**0635**3422072225828488648158456028506016842739452267467 **4886**230577456**4980**3559363456817432411251507606947945109659609402522 **1792**868092087**4760**9178249385890097149096759852613655497818931297848 **96414**515237462**3436**45428584**4**4795265867821051141354735739523113427166 **59027**9934403742**00731**057853**90**6219838744780847848968332144571386875194 **2781911**9793995206**1419663428754**4406437451237181921799983910159195618146 **809514**655022523160**38819301420**93762137855956638937787083039069792077346 **026054**1466592520149**74428507**3251866600213243408819071048633173464965145 **840**52571459102897064**1401**109712062804390397595156771577004203378699360

A Million Random Digits



A modern example: PCG32

```
struct pcg32_random_t { uint64_t state; uint64_t inc; };

uint32_t pcg32_random_r(pcg32_random_t* rng) {
    uint64_t oldstate = rng->state;
    rng->state = oldstate * 6364136223846793005ULL + (rng->inc | 1);
    uint32_t xorshifted = ((oldstate >> 18u) ^ oldstate) >> 27u;
    uint32_t rot = oldstate >> 59u;
    return (xorshifted >> rot) | (xorshifted << ((-rot) & 31));
}</pre>
```

[http://www.pcg-random.org/]

Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

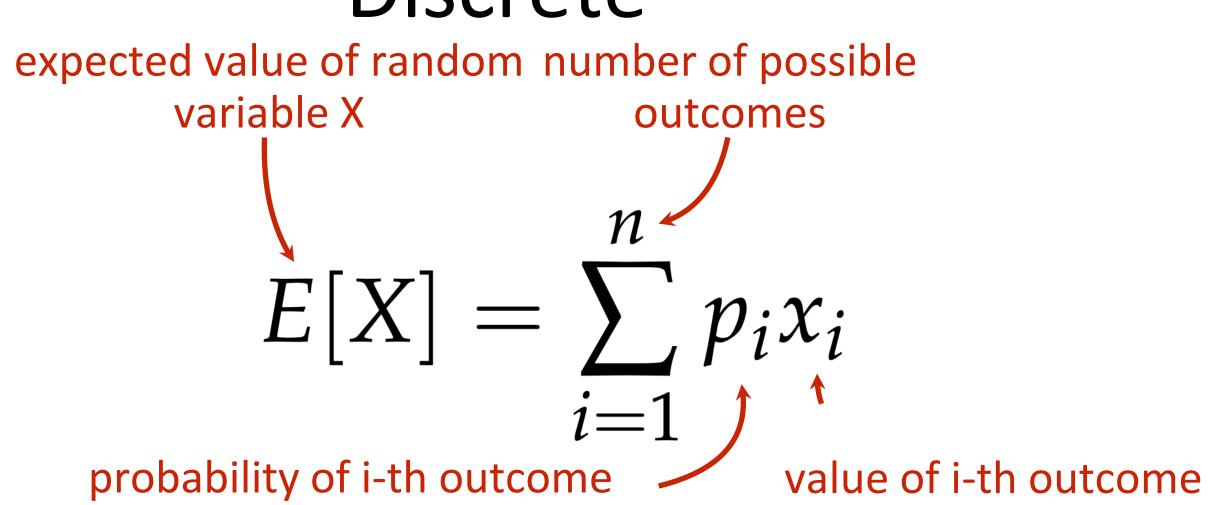
- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
- Equal probability (1/2 both)
- Expected value is then $(1/2) \times 1 + (1/2) \times 0 = 1/2$

Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
- Equal probability (1/2 both)
- Expected value is then $(1/2) \times 1 + (1/2) \times 0 = 1/2$

Discrete



Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
- Equal probability (1/2 both)
- Expected value is then $(1/2) \times 1 + (1/2) \times 0 = 1/2$

Discrete

Continuous

expected value of random number of possible variable X outcomes $E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i \qquad E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) x \ \mathrm{d}x$ probability of i-th outcome

Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
- Equal probability (1/2 both)
- Expected value is then $(1/2) \times 1 + (1/2) \times 0 = 1/2$

Discrete expected value of random number of possible variable X outcomes $E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$

probability of i-th outcome

Continuous

Properties

$$E[X_1 + X_2] =$$

$$E[aX] =$$

$$\Xi[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) x \, \mathrm{d}x$$

value of i-th outcome

Expected value

Intuition: what value does the random variable take, on average?

- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
- Equal probability (1/2 both)

probability of i-th outcome

- Expected value is then $(1/2) \times 1 + (1/2) \times 0 = 1/2$

Discrete Continuous expected value of random number of possible variable X outcomes $E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i \qquad E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) x \, \mathrm{d}x$

value of i-th outcome

Properties

$$E[X_1 + X_2] = E[X_1] + E[X_2]$$

 $E[aX] = aE[X]$

Motivation: want to compute the integral

$$F = \int_D f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

Could we approximate F by averaging a number of realizations x_i of a random process?

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i)$$

$$E\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}f(X_{i})\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}E[f(X_{i})]$$

$$= E[f(X_{i})]$$

$$= \int_{D}f(x) p_{X_{i}}(x) dx$$
(oops, that's not what we wanted!)

Motivation: want to compute the integral

$$F = \int_{D} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

Solution: Approximate F by averaging realizations of a random variable X, and explicitly accounting for its PDF:

$$F \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

$$E\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}E\left[\frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}\right]$$

Monte Carlo integration is correct on average.

- This assumes that $p(X_i) \neq 0$ when $f(X_i) \neq 0$.
- This property is called unbiasedness.

$$= E\left[\frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}\right]$$

$$= \int_D \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)} p(X_i) dx$$

$$= \int_D f(X_i) dx = F$$

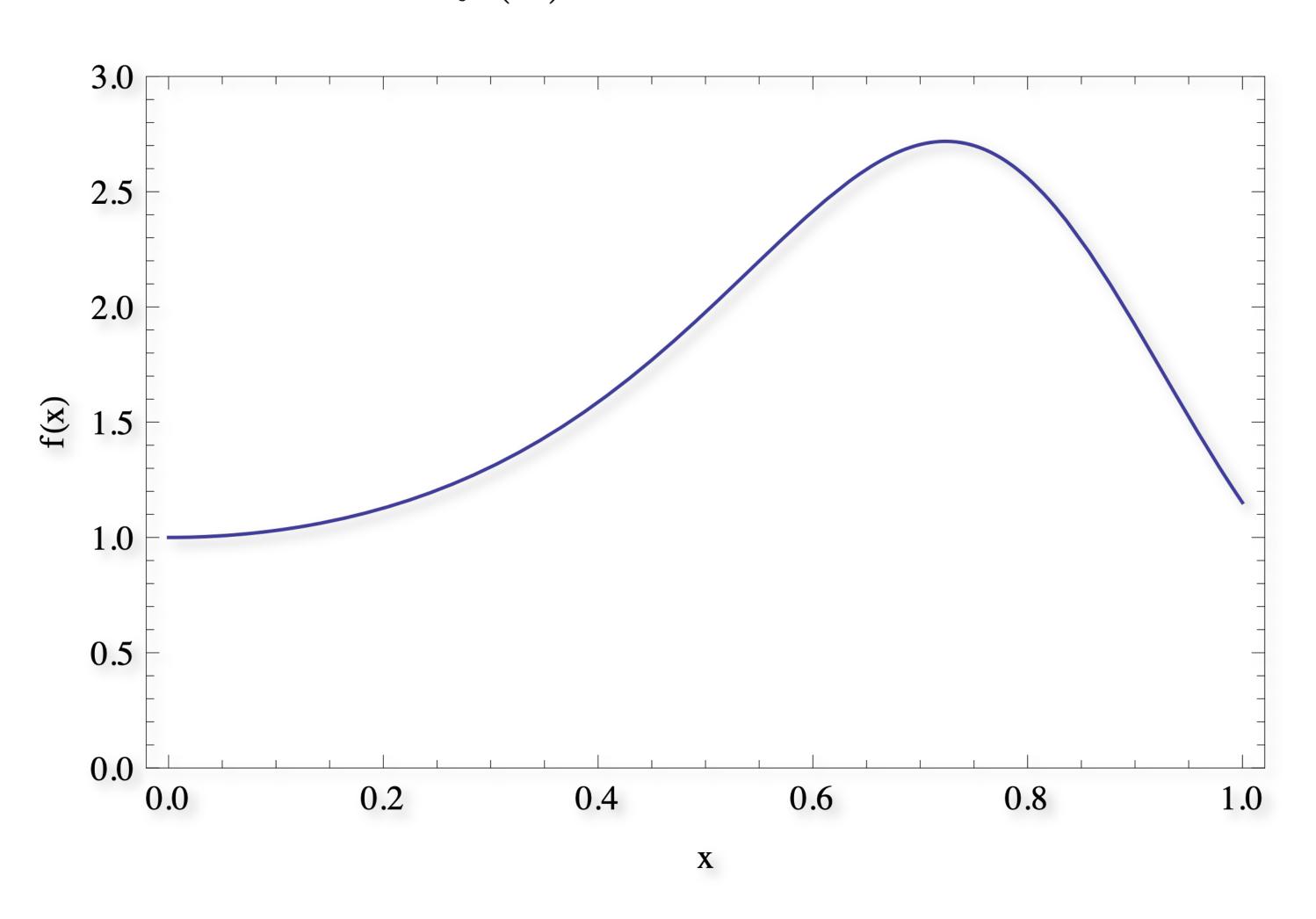
Requirement (why?)

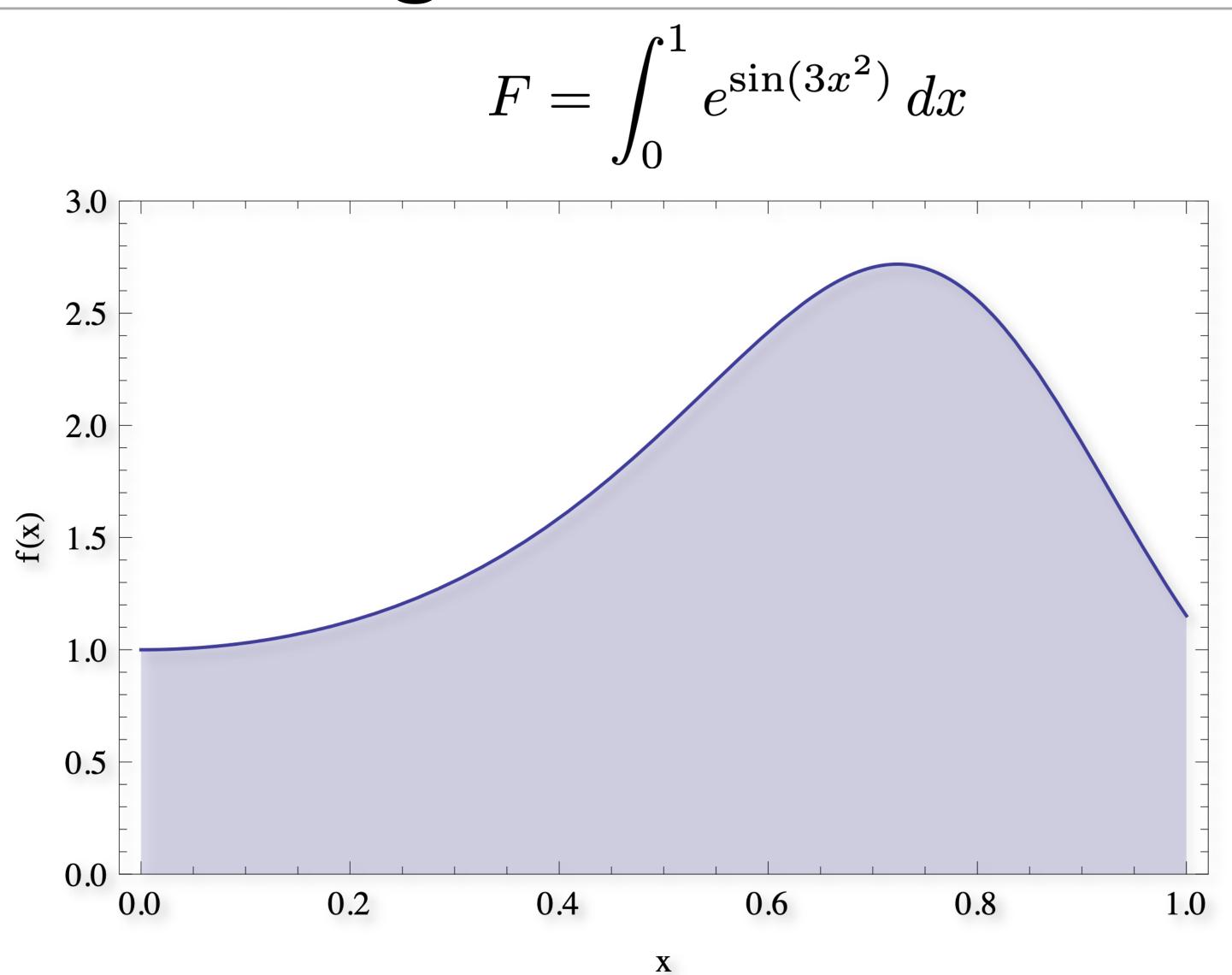
$$f(x) \neq 0 \Rightarrow p(x) > 0$$

Domain ${\cal D}$ might be: plane, sphere, hemisphere, surface of an object

Reasonable default for p(x): uniform distribution

$$f(x) = e^{\sin(3x^2)}$$





```
F = \int_0^1 e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)
double integrate(int N)
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
                                                    p(x_{i}) = 1
         x = randf();
         sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    return sum / double(N);
```

```
F = \int_{a}^{b} e^{\sin(3x^{2})} dx \approx F_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(x_{i})}{p(x_{i})}
double integrate(int N, double a,
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = randf();
        sum += \exp(\sin(3*x*x));
    return sum / double(N);
```

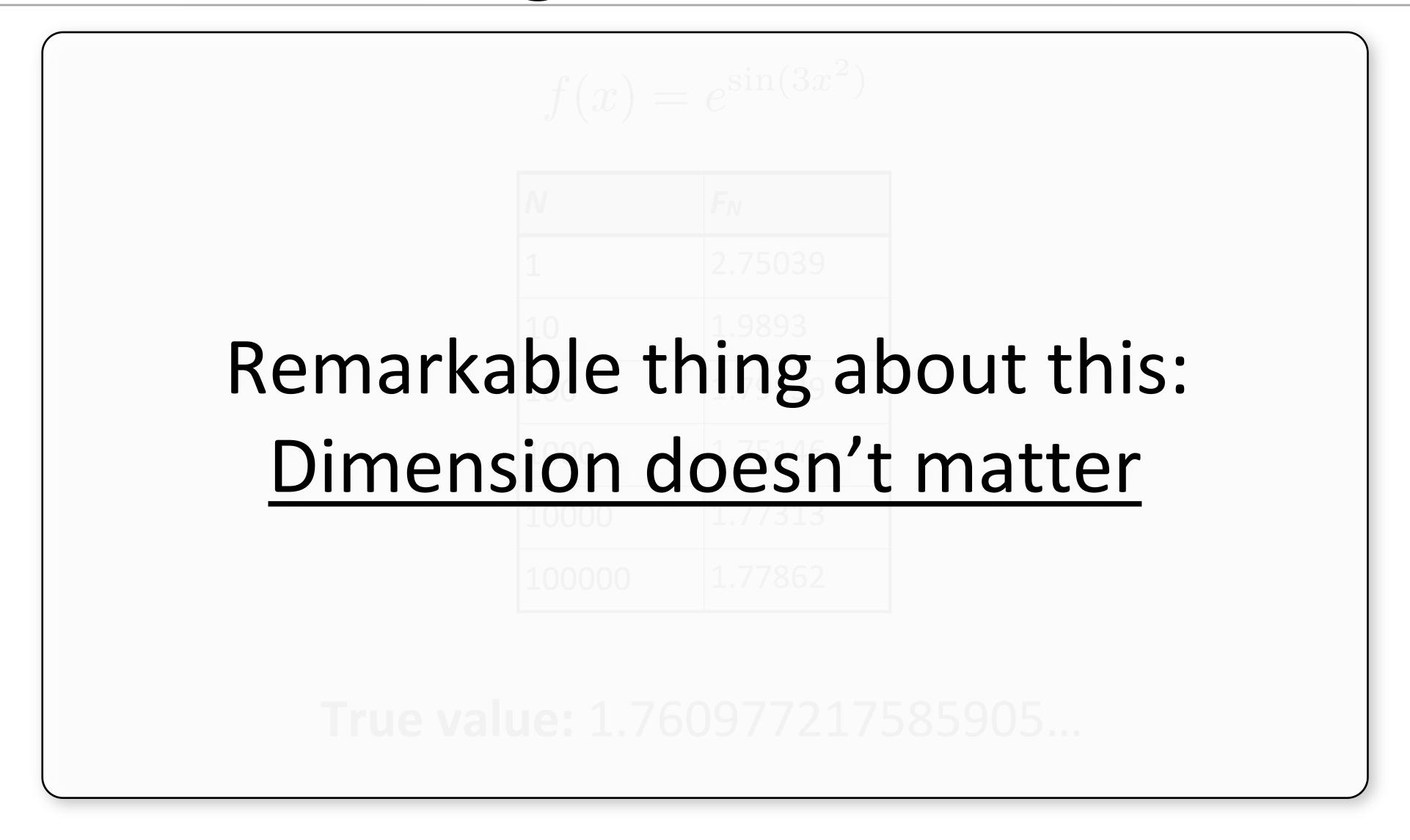
```
F = \int_{a}^{b} e^{\sin(3x^{2})} dx \approx F_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(x_{i})}{p(x_{i})}
double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
                                                              p(x_i) = \frac{1}{h - a}
        x = a + randf()*(b-a);
        sum += \exp(\sin(3*x*x));
    return sum / double(N);
```

```
F = \int_{a}^{b} e^{\sin(3x^{2})} dx \approx F_{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(x_{i})}{p(x_{i})}
double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = a + randf()*(b-a);
                                                           p(x_i) = \frac{1}{b - a}
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x)) / (1/(b-a));
    return sum / double(N);
```

$$f(x) = e^{\sin(3x^2)}$$

N	F _N
1	2.75039
10	1.9893
100	1.79139
1000	1.75146
10000	1.77313
100000	1.77862

True value: 1.760977217585905...



Intuition: how far are the samples from the average, on average?

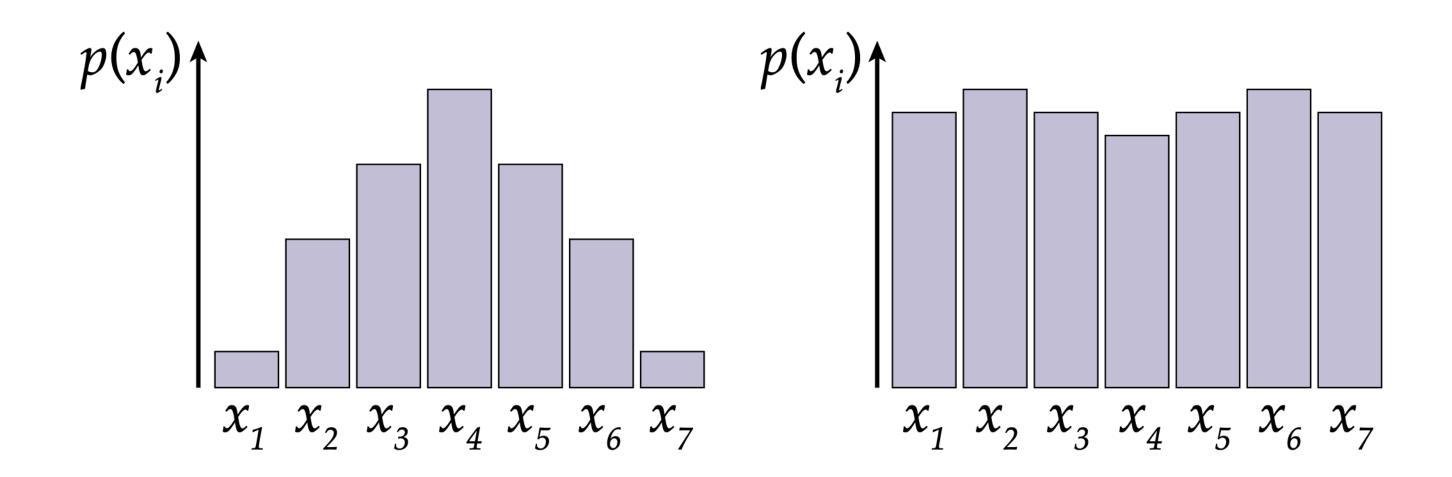
Intuition: how far are the samples from the average, on average?

Definition:
$$V[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

Intuition: how far are the samples from the average, on average?

Definition:
$$V[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

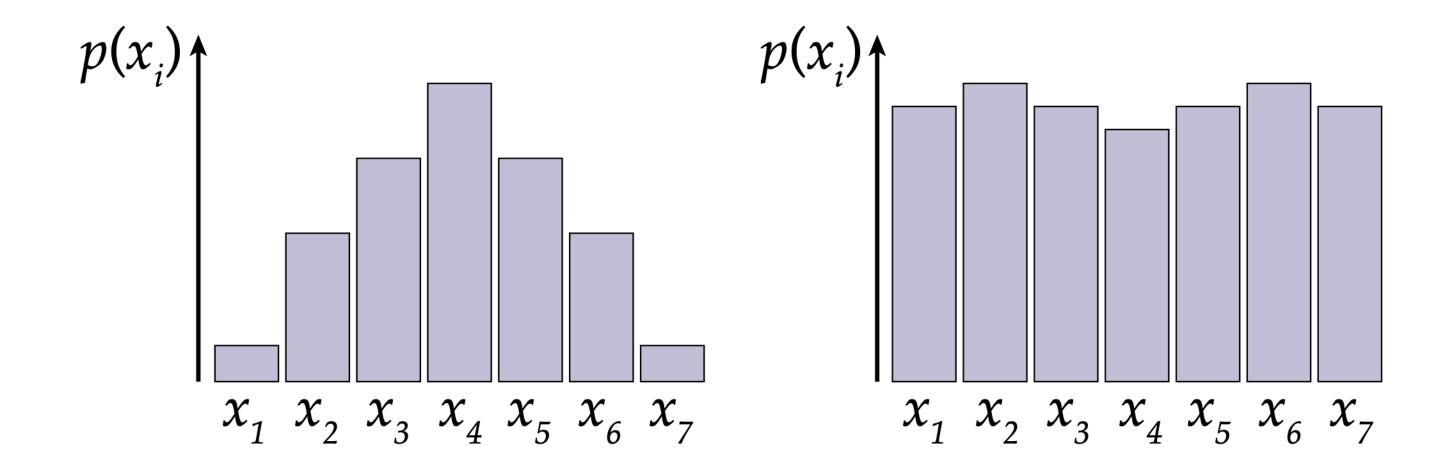
Q: Which of these has higher variance?



Intuition: how far are the samples from the average, on average?

Definition:
$$V[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

Q: Which of these has higher variance?



Properties

$$V[X] =$$

$$V[X_1 + X_2] =$$

$$V[aX] =$$

only if uncorrelated!

Monte Carlo Error

$$E[||F_N - F||^2] = E[F_N^2 - 2F_N F + F^2]$$

For an *unbiased* estimator, its average error is equal to its variance!

$$= E[F_N^2] - E[2F_NF] + E[F^2]$$

$$= E[F_N^2] - 2E[F_N]F + F^2$$

$$= E[F_N^2] - 2FF + F^2$$

$$= E[F_N^2] - F^2$$

$$= E[F_N^2] - E[F_N]^2 = V[F_N]$$

Monte Carlo error

Variance:

$$egin{aligned} V\left[\left\langle F^N
ight
angle
ight] &= V\left[rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}rac{f(X_i)}{\mathrm{pdf}(X_i)}
ight] - assume uncorrelated samples \ &= rac{1}{N^2}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}V\left[rac{f(X_i)}{\mathrm{pdf}(X_i)}
ight] \ &= rac{1}{N^2}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}V\left[Y_i
ight] \ &= rac{1}{N}V\left[Y
ight] \end{aligned}$$

Monte Carlo error

Variance:

$$V\left[\left\langle F^{N}
ight
angle
ight] = V\left[rac{1}{N}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}rac{f(X_{i})}{\mathrm{pdf}(X_{i})}
ight]$$
 — assume uncorrelated samples $=rac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}V\left[rac{f(X_{i})}{\mathrm{pdf}(X_{i})}
ight]$ $=rac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}V\left[Y_{i}
ight]$ $=rac{1}{N}V\left[Y
ight]$

Std. deviation:

$$\sigma\left[\left\langle F^{N}\right\rangle\right] = \boxed{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sigma\left[Y\right]}$$

Monte Carlo Methods

Pros

- Flexible
- Easy to implement
- Easily handles complex integrands
- Efficient for high dimensional integrands
- *Unbiased* estimator

Cons

- Variance (noise)
- Slow convergence*

$$O(1/\sqrt{N})$$

Monte Carlo Integration Summary

Goal: evaluate integral $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

Random variable $X_i \sim p(x)$

$$X_i \sim p(x)$$

Monte Carlo Estimator
$$F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}$$

$$E[F_N] = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

Remaining Agenda

$$F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}$$

Main practical issues:

- How to choose p(x)
- How to generate x_i according to p(x)

Ambient Occlusion

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_r) = \int_{H^2} f_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i, \vec{\omega}_r) L_i(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i \, d\vec{\omega}_i$$

Sampling Random Variables

Sampling the function domain:

- Uniform unit interval (0,1)
- Uniform interval (a,b)
- Circle?
- Sphere?
- Hemisphere?
- More complex domains?

Example: uniformly sampling a disk

Uniform probability density on a unit disk

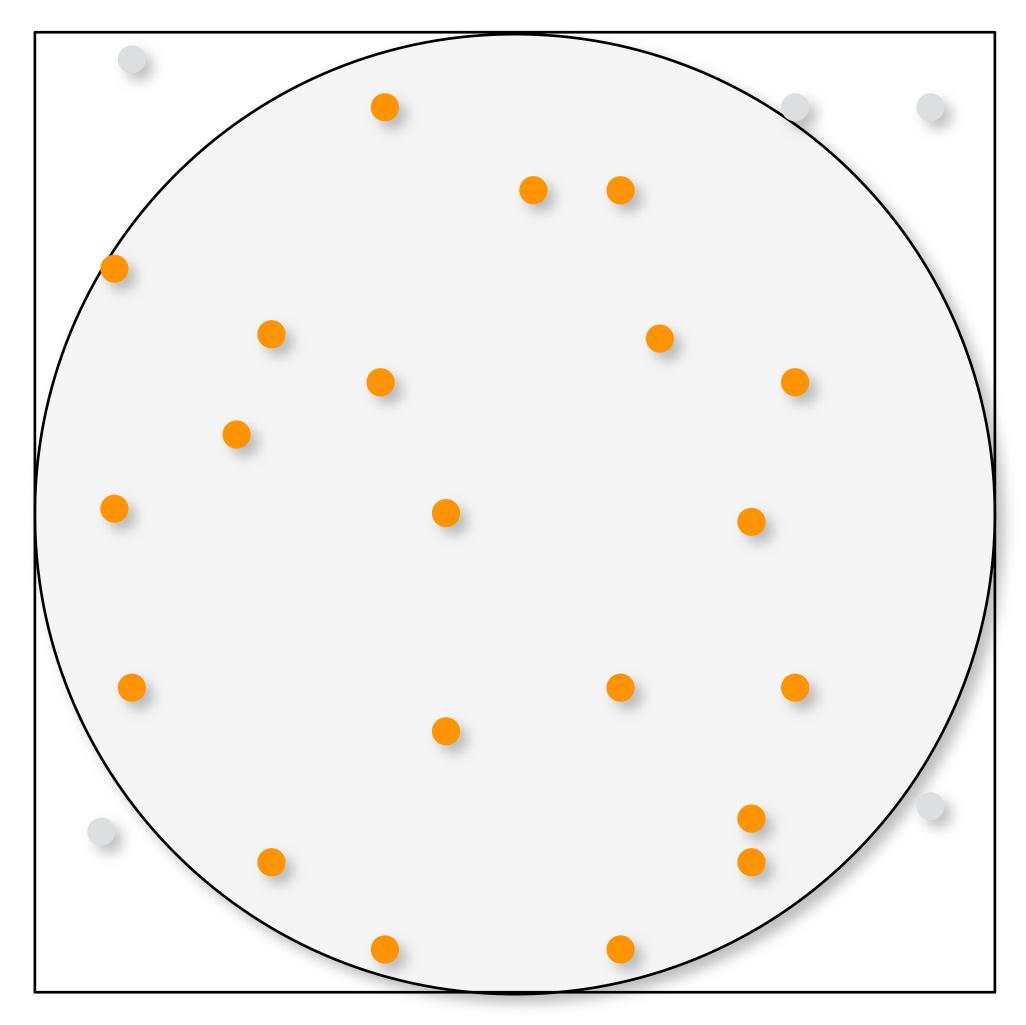
$$p(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi} & x^2 + y^2 < 1\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Goal: draw samples X_i, Y_i that are distributed as:

$$(X_i, Y_i) \sim p(x, y)$$

Problem: pseudo-random number generator only allows us to draw samples from a canonical uniform distribution

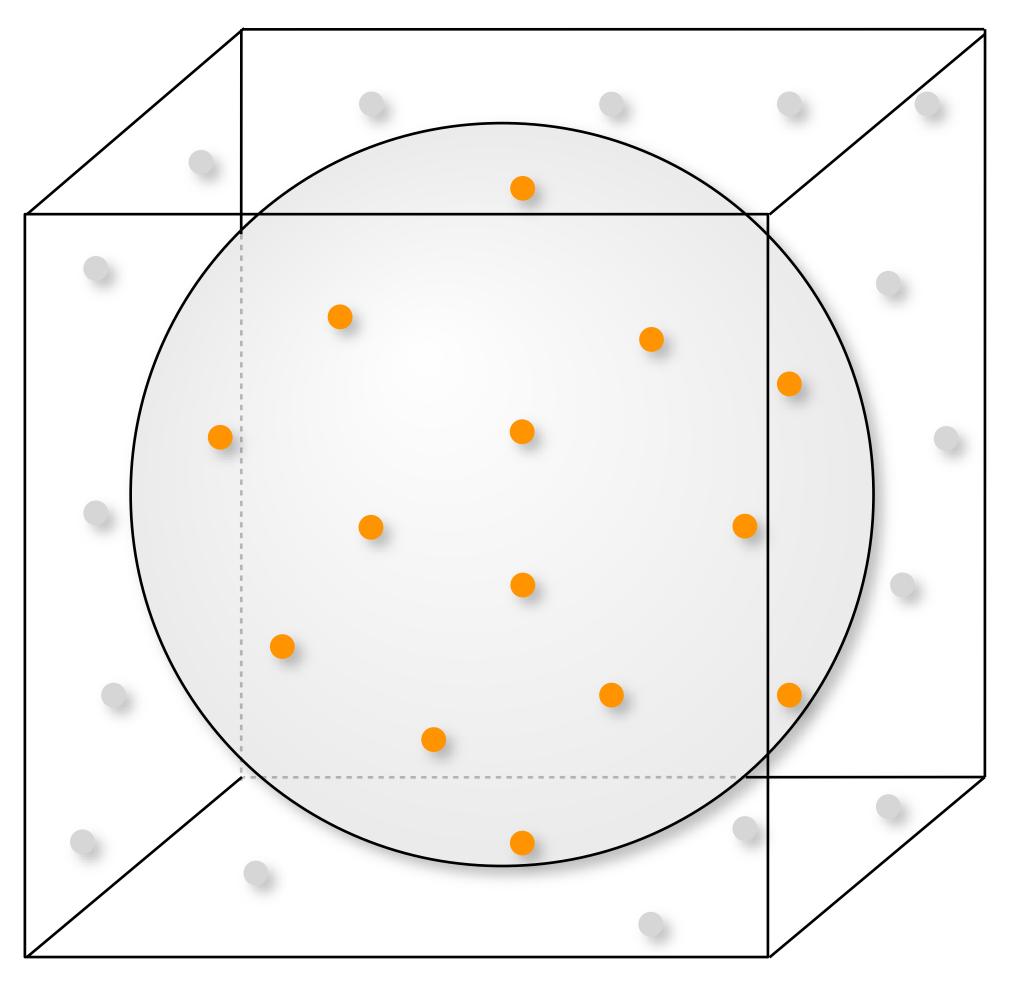
Rejection Sampling in a Disk



```
Vector2 v;
do
{
    v.x = 1-2*randf();
    v.y = 1-2*randf();
} while (dot(v,v) > 1)
```

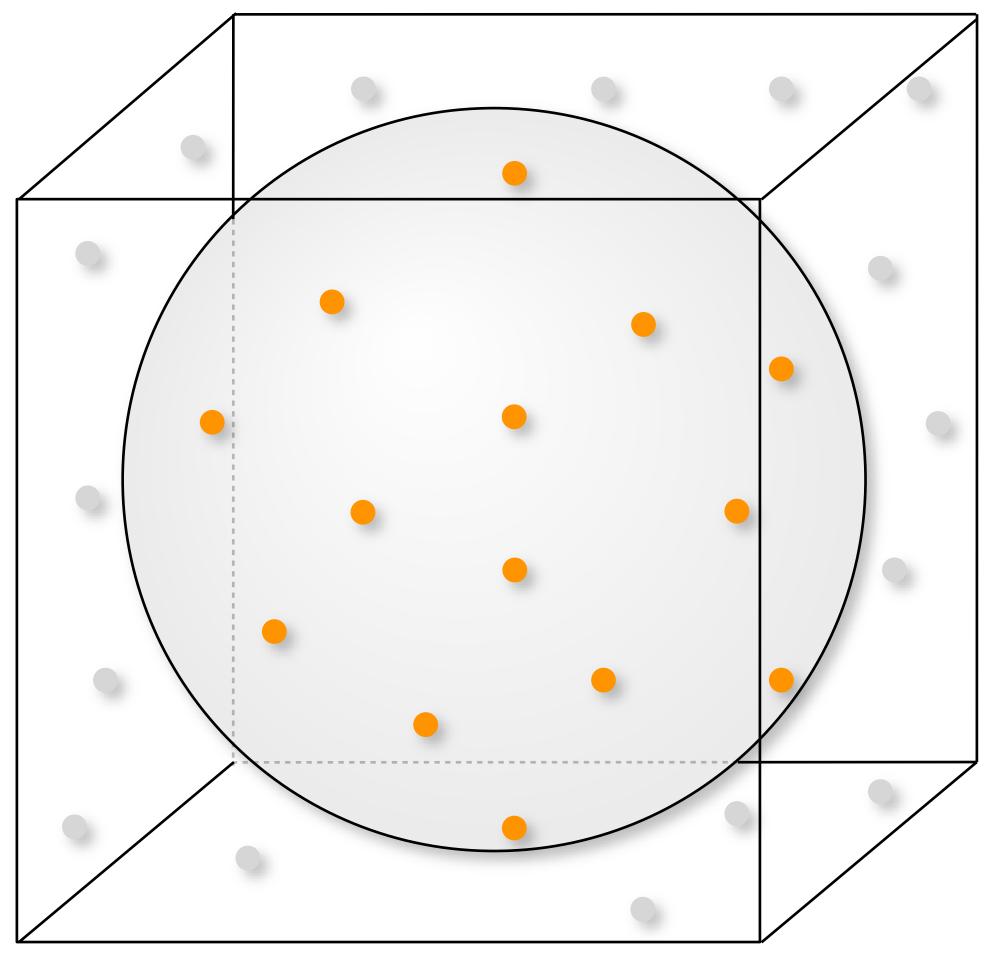
 Similar technique for sampling a sphere

Rejection Sampling in a Sphere

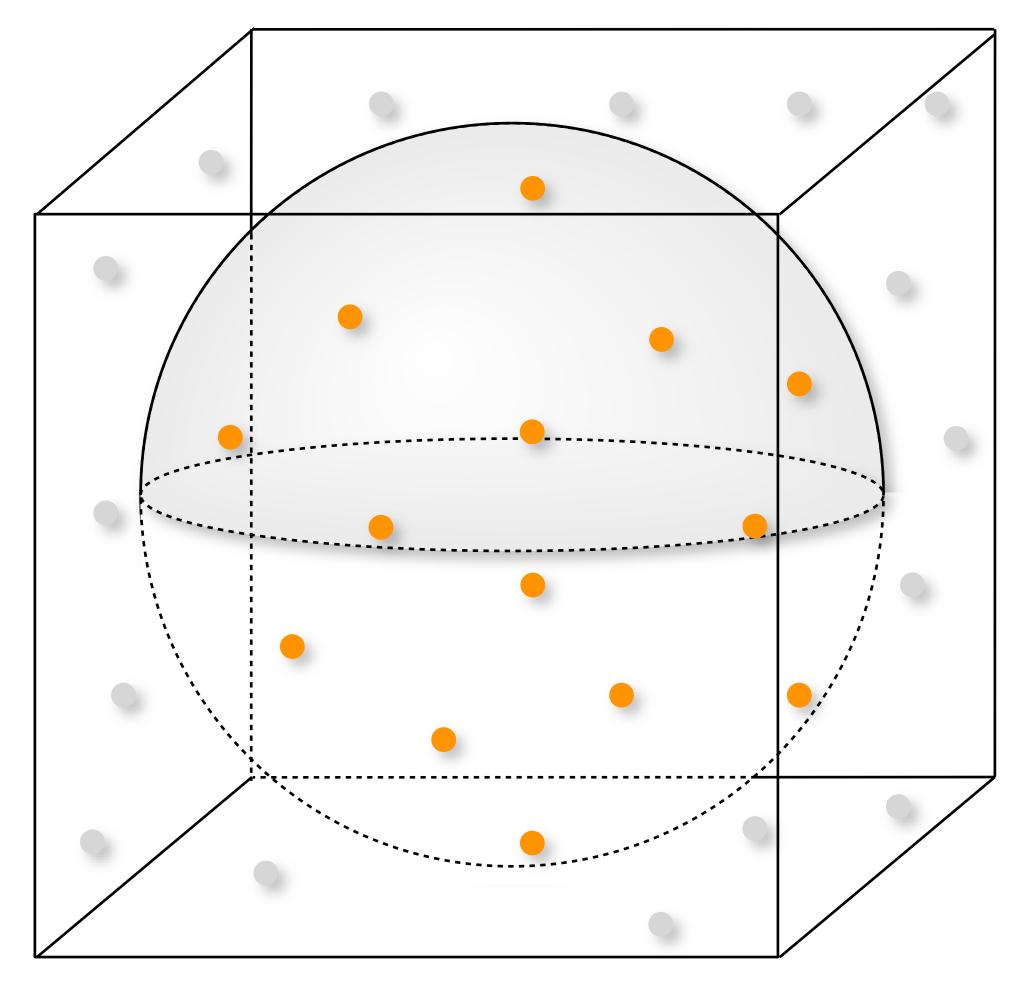


```
Vector3 v;
do
{
    v.x = 1-2*randf();
    v.y = 1-2*randf();
    v.z = 1-2*randf();
} while(dot(v,v) > 1)
```

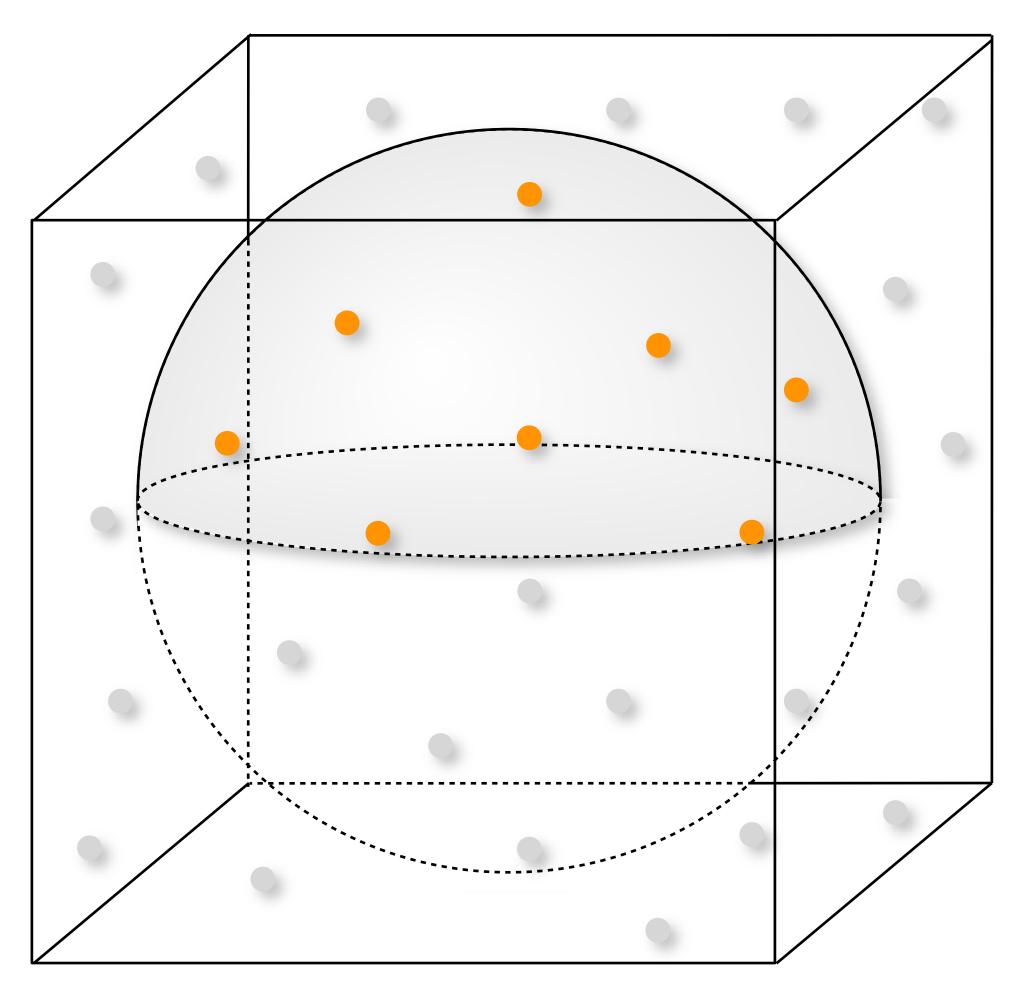
Rejection Sampling on a Sphere



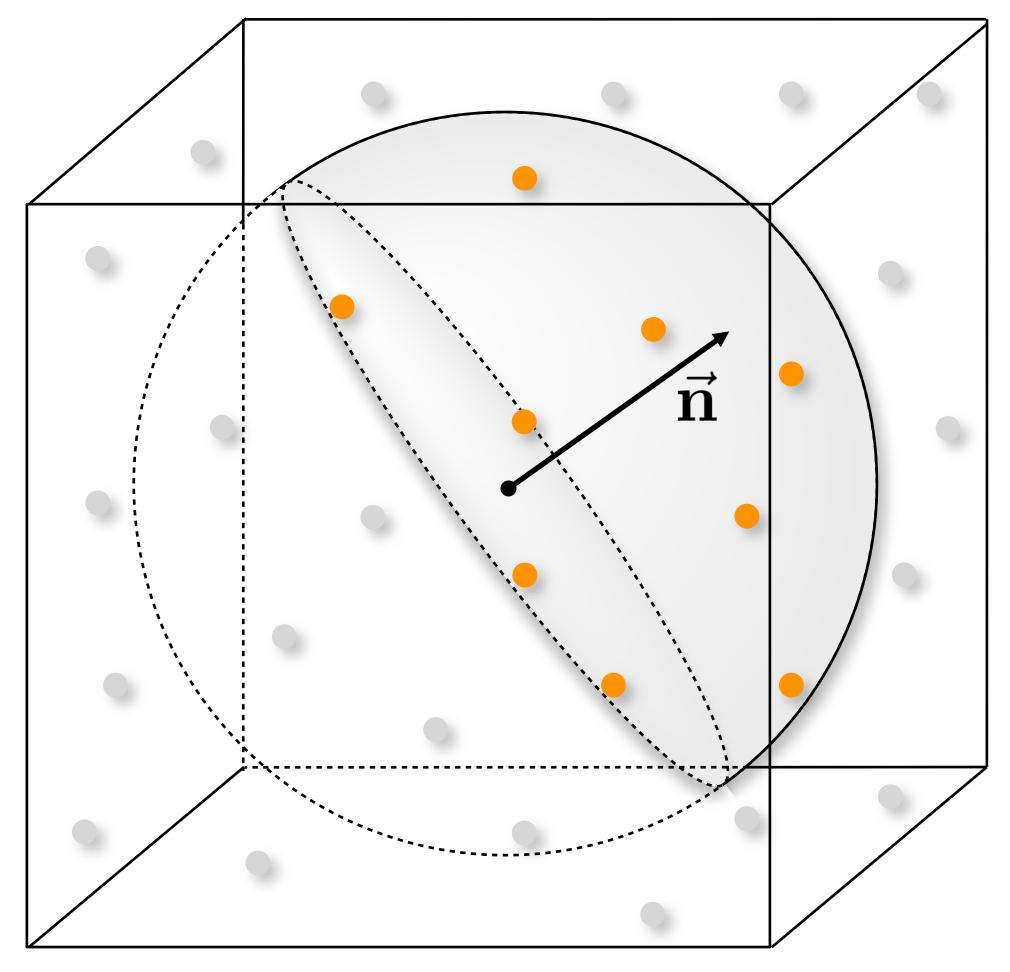
```
Vector3 v;
do
   v.x = 1-2*randf();
   v.y = 1-2*randf();
   v.z = 1-2*randf();
} while(dot(v,v) > 1)
// Project onto sphere
v = v/length(v);
```



```
Vector3 v;
do
{
    v.x = 1-2*randf();
    v.y = 1-2*randf();
    v.z = 1-2*randf();
} while(dot(v,v) > 1)
```

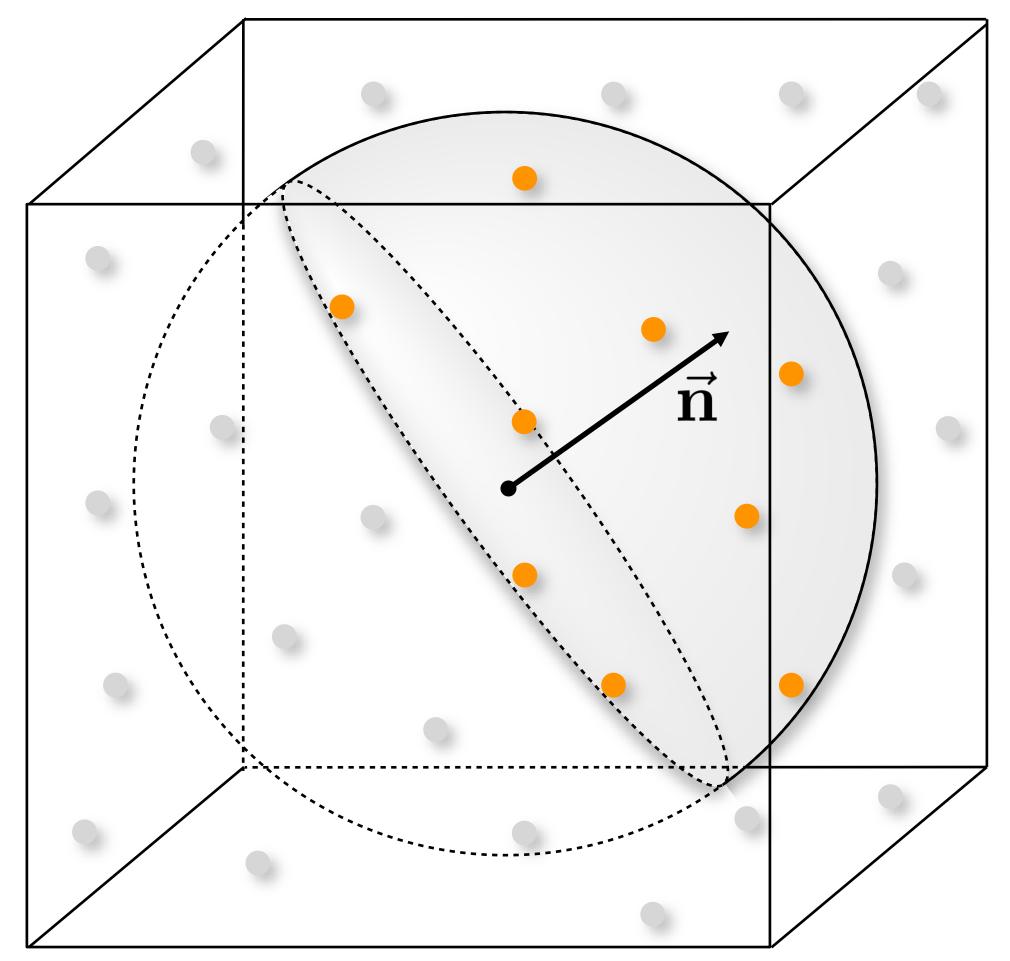


```
Vector3 v;
do
{
    v.x = 1-2*randf();
    v.y = 1-2*randf();
    v.z = 1-2*randf();
} while(dot(v,v) > 1 ||
    v.z < 0)</pre>
```

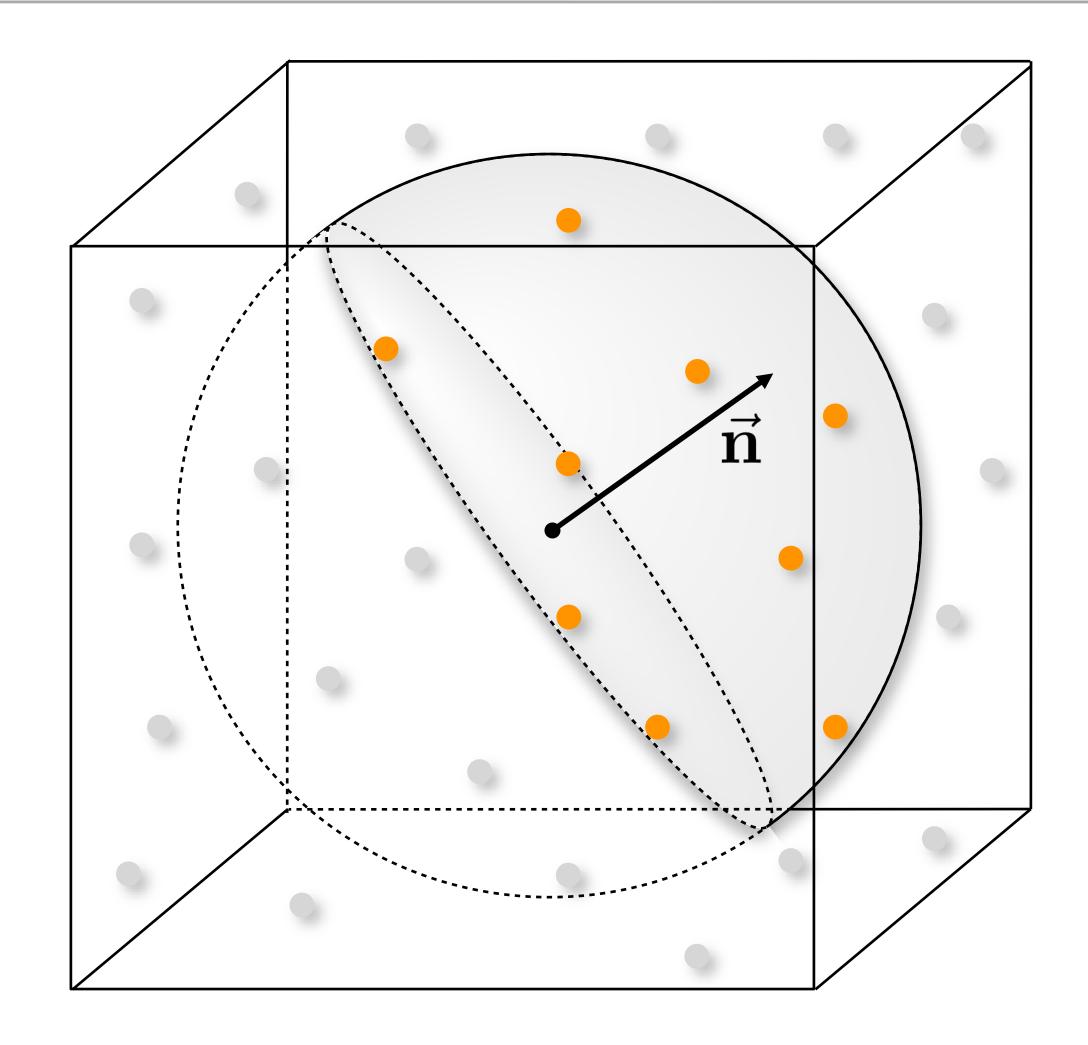


```
Vector3 v;
do
{
    v.x = 1-2*randf();
    v.y = 1-2*randf();
    v.z = 1-2*randf();
} while(dot(v,v) > 1 ||
    v.z < 0)</pre>
```

Arbitrary orientation?



Arbitrary orientation?



• Or, just generate in canonical orientation, and then rotate

Rejection Sampling

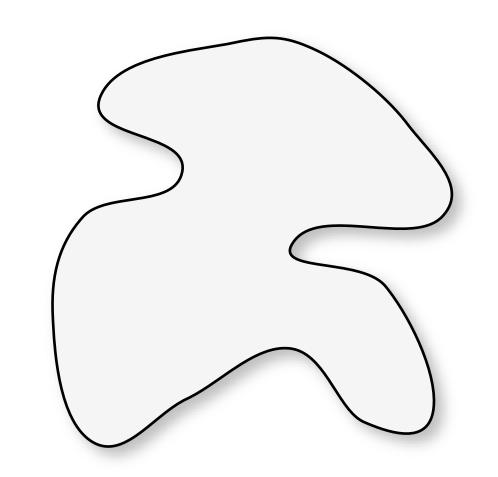
More complex shapes

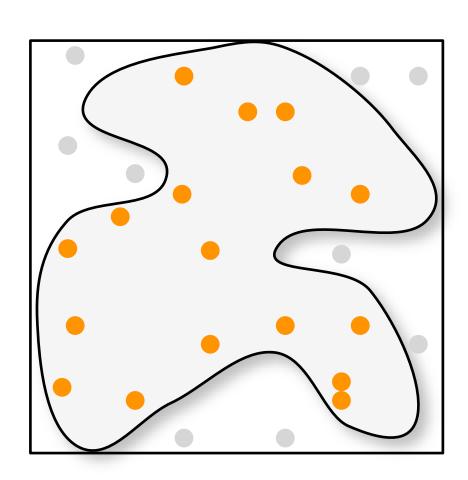
Pros:

- Flexible

Cons:

- Inefficient



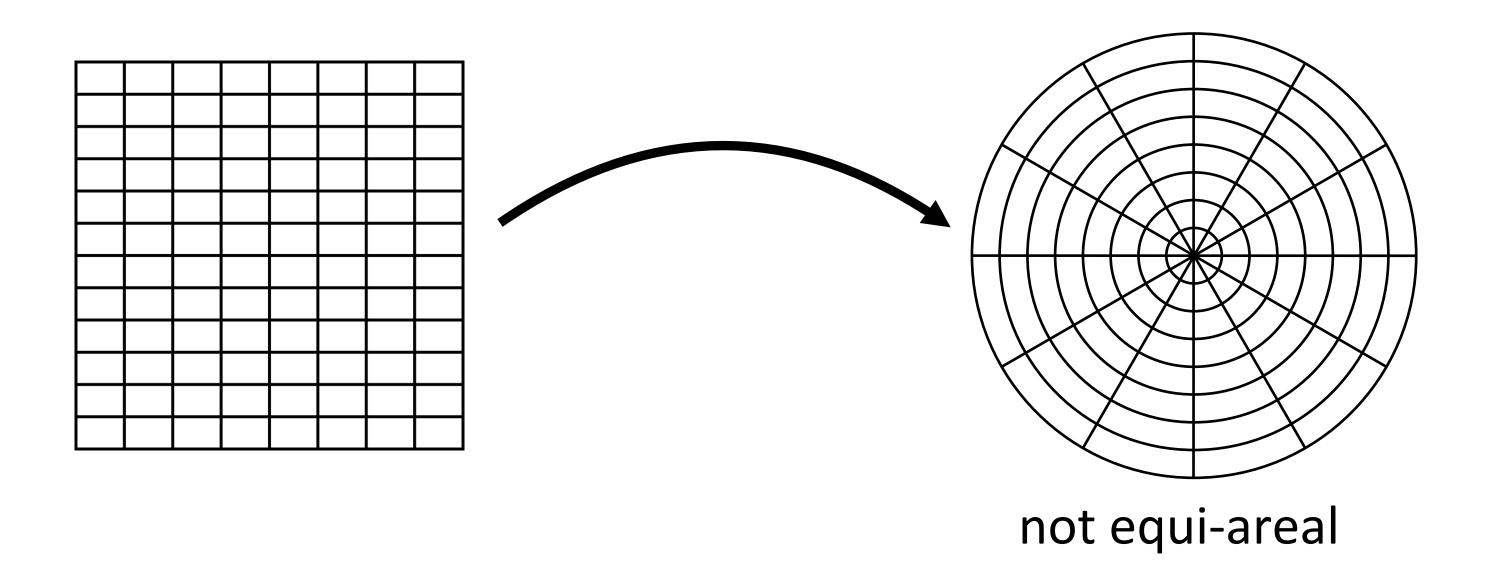


- Difficult/impossible to combine with stratification or quasi-Monte Carlo

Directly sampling a disk?

Idea: transform samples to polar coordinates:

- pick two uniform random variables ξ_1, ξ_2
- select point at (r,ϕ) with $r=\xi_1$ and $\phi=2\pi\xi_2$
- This algorithm does not produce the desired uniform sampling of the disk.
 Why?

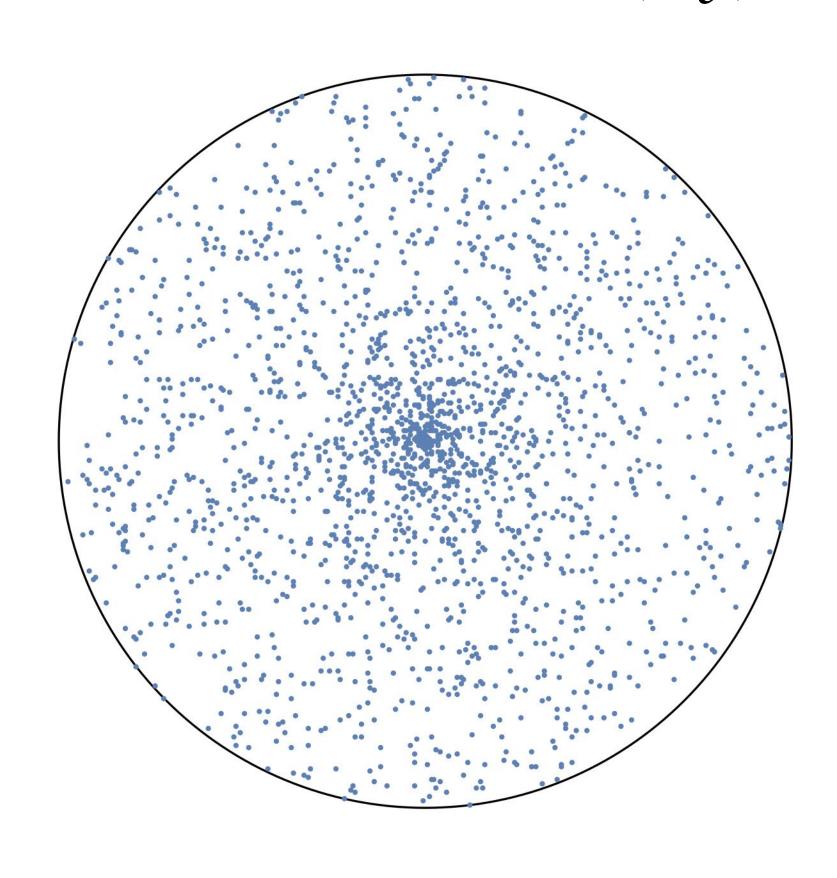


Wrong!

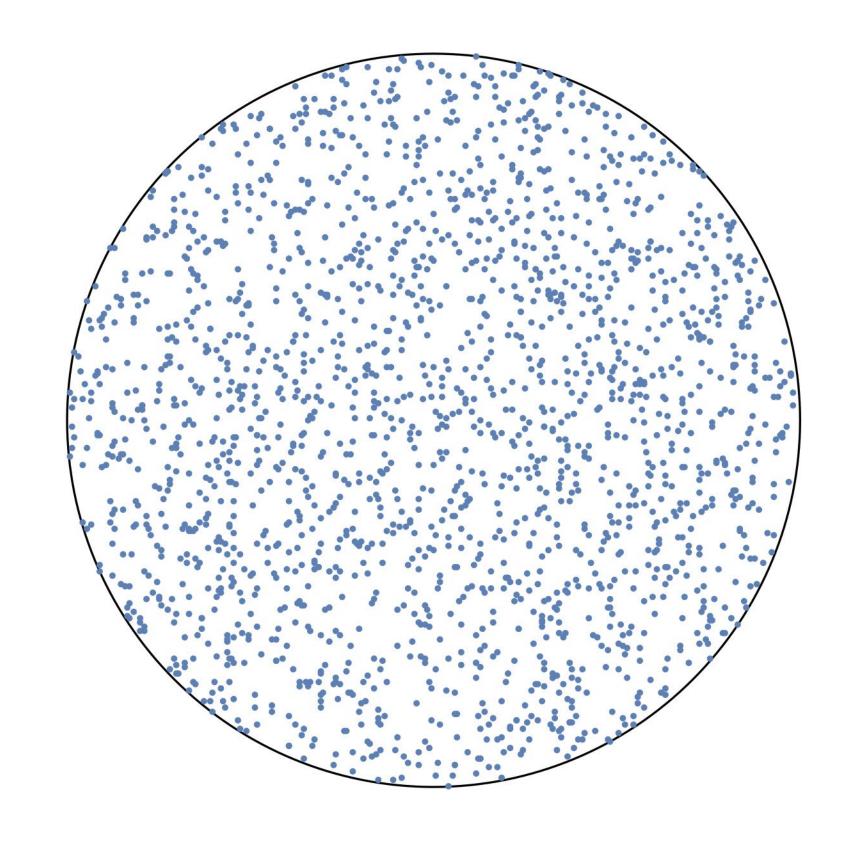
Samples are uniform in (θ, r) , but non-uniform in (x,y)!

Right!

Samples are non-uniform in (θ, r) , but uniform in (x,y)!



This can be corrected by choosing r non-uniformly!



$$\theta = 2\pi \xi_1$$

$$r=\xi_2$$

$$\theta = 2\pi \xi_1$$

$$r=\sqrt{\xi_2}$$

Transforming Between Distributions

Given a random variable $X_i \sim p(x)$

 $Y_i = T(X_i)$ is also a random variable

- but what is its probability density?

$$p_y(y) = p_y(T(x)) = \frac{p_x(x)}{|J_T(x)|}$$

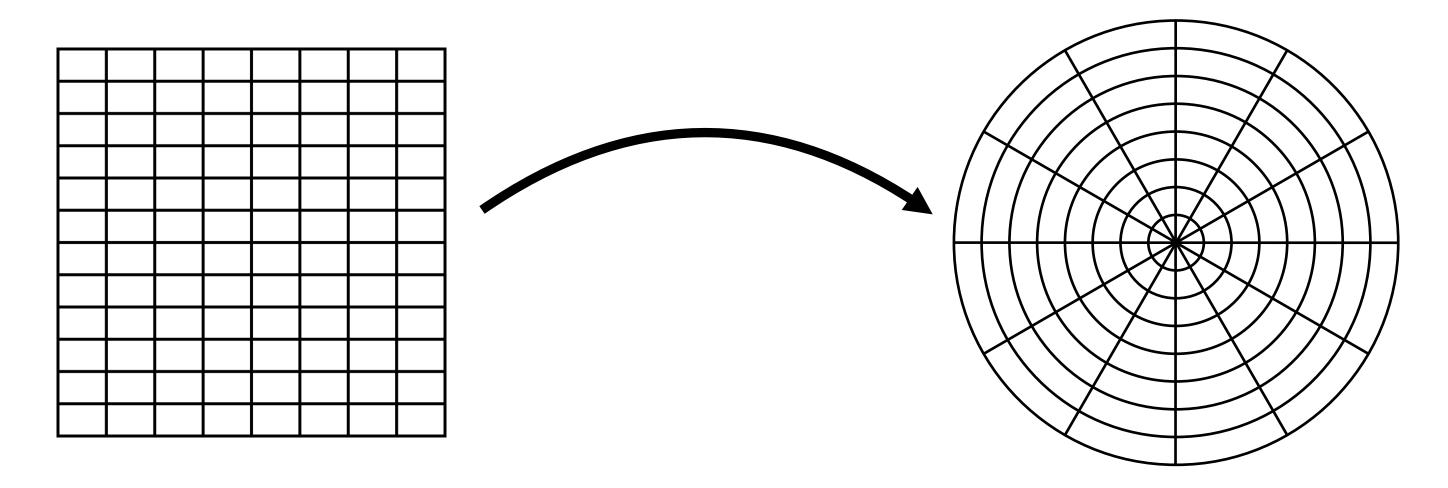
- where $|J_T(x)|$ is the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian of T

Polar coordinate parameterization

$$T(r,\phi) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} r\cos\phi \\ r\sin\phi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J_T(r,\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial T_x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial T_x}{\partial \phi} \\ \frac{\partial T_y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial T_y}{\partial \phi} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -r \sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & r \cos \phi \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\det J_T(r,\phi)| = r$$



Account for parameterization

Desired distribution on target domain

$$p(x,y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi}, & x^2 + y^2 < 1\\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If we sample in spherical coordinates:

target domain
$$p(x,y) = p(T(r,\phi)) = \frac{p(r,\phi)}{|\det J_T(r,\phi)|}$$

Thus, need this distribution on source domain:

$$p(r,\phi) = \underbrace{p(T(r,\phi))}_{=1/\pi} \cdot \underbrace{|\det J_T(r,\phi)|}_{=r} = \frac{r}{\pi}$$

Sampling 2D Distributions

Draw samples (X, Y) from a 2D distribution p(x, y)

If p(x, y) is separable, i.e., p(x, y) = p(x) p(y), we can independently sample p(x), and p(y)

Otherwise, compute the marginal density function:

$$p(x) = \int p(x,y) \, dy$$

and, the conditional density:

$$p(y \mid x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)}$$

Procedure: first sample $X_i \sim p(x)$, then $Y_i \sim p(y \mid X_i)$

Account for parameterization

Thus: need this distribution on source domain

$$p(r,\phi) = \underbrace{p(T(r,\phi))}_{=1/\pi} \cdot \underbrace{|\det J_T(r,\phi)|}_{=r} = \frac{r}{\pi}$$

Step 1: generate φ proportional to

$$p_1(\phi) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \quad (\phi \in [0, 2\pi])$$

Step 2: generate r proportional to

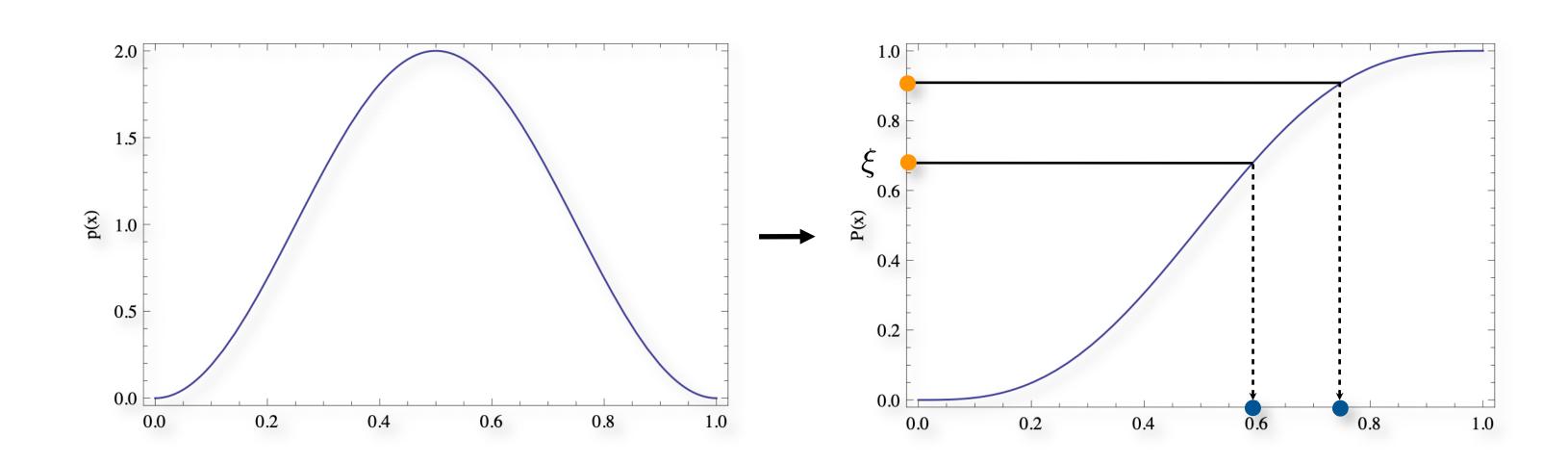
$$p_2(r) \propto r = 2r \quad (r \in [0, 1])$$

Constant PDF in φ , linearly increasing PDF in r

Sampling arbitrary distributions

The inversion method:

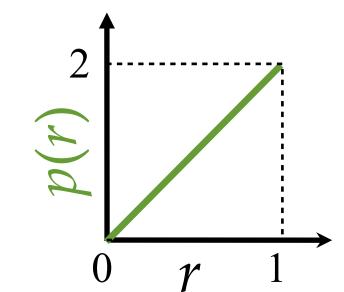
- 1. Compute the CDF $P(x) = \int_0^x p(x') dx'$ 2. Compute its inverse $P^{-1}(y)$
- 3. Obtain a uniformly distributed random number ξ
- 4. Compute $X_i = P^{-1}(\xi)$



Sampling a linear ramp

Goal: sample with PDF: p(r) = 2r

$$p(r) = 2r$$



Step 1:
$$P(r) = r^2$$

Step 2:
$$P^{-1}(y) = \sqrt{y}$$

Step 3:
$$r_i = \sqrt{\xi}$$

Uniformly Sampling a Disk

Pick two uniform random variables ξ_1, ξ_2

Sample in polar coordinates with:

$$(r, \psi) = (\varsigma_1, z/\iota \varsigma_2)$$

$$(r, \psi) = (\varsigma_1, z$$

$$(r,\phi)=(\xi_1,\,2\pi\xi_2)$$
 $(r,\phi)=\left(\sqrt{\xi_1},\,2\pi\xi_2\right)$ not equi-area

Recipe

- 1. Express the desired distribution in a convenient coordinate system
- 2. Account for distortion by coordinate system
- Requires computing the determinant of the Jacobian
- 3. Compute marginal and conditional 1D PDFs
- 4. Sample 1D PDFs using the inversion method

Directly Sampling on a Sphere

Can we use this?

Given a random variable $X_i \sim p(x)$

 $Y_i = T(X_i)$ is also a random variable

- but what is its probability density?

$$p_y(y) = p_y(T(x)) = \frac{p_x(x)}{|J_T(x)|}$$

- where $|J_T(x)|$ is the absolute value of the determinant of the Jacobian of T

Directly Sampling on a Sphere

Different transformation rule:

$$p_{x}(x(u,v)) = \frac{p_{(u,v)}(u,v)}{\|x_{u}(u,v) \times x_{v}(u,v)\|}$$

Where does this come from?

• Expression for differential area (e.g., as in area integral):

$$dA(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{x}_v(u, v)\| dudv$$

Directly Sampling on a Sphere

Pick two uniform random variables ξ_1, ξ_2

Idea: select point at (θ, φ) with $\theta = \pi \xi_1$ and $\varphi = 2\pi \xi_2$

- Problem: not uniform with respect to surface area!

Correct solution: $\theta = \cos^{-1}(2\xi_1 - 1)$ and $\varphi = 2\pi\xi_2$

Algorithm
$$\theta = \cos^{-1}(2\xi_1 - 1)$$

$$\phi = 2\pi\xi_2$$

$$\vec{\omega}_x = \sin\theta\cos\phi$$

$$\vec{\omega}_y = \sin\theta\sin\phi$$

$$\vec{\omega}_z = \cos\theta$$
Better
$$\vec{\omega}_z = 2\xi_1 - 1$$

$$r = \sqrt{1 - \vec{\omega}_z^2}$$

$$\phi = 2\pi\xi_2$$

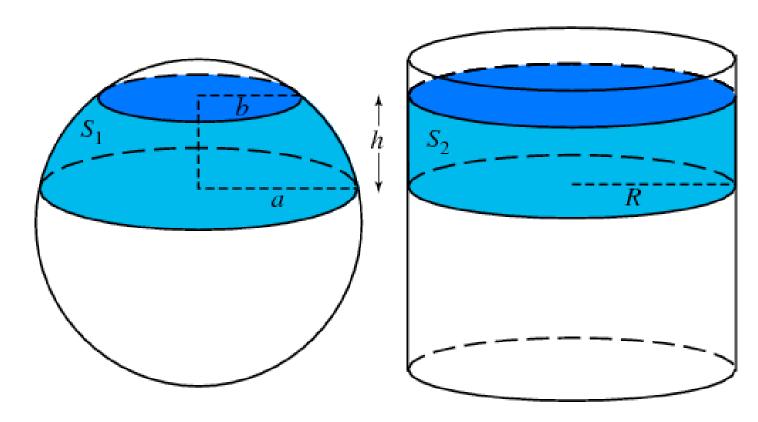
$$\vec{\omega}_x = r\cos\phi$$

$$\vec{\omega}_y = r\sin\phi$$

Archimedes' Hat-Box Theorem

The surface area of a sphere between any two horizontal planes is equal to the corresponding area on the circumscribing cylinder.

- i.e.: uniform areas on a cylinder map to uniform areas on a sphere
- What is $|J_T|$ for cylindrical mapping?





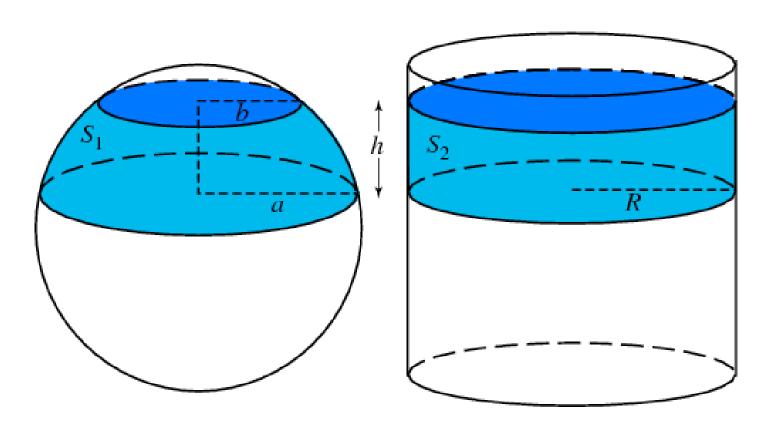
Archimedes' Hat-Box Theorem

The surface area of a sphere between any two horizontal planes is equal to the corresponding area on the circumscribing cylinder.

- i.e.: uniform areas on a cylinder map to uniform areas on a sphere

$$egin{aligned} ec{\omega}_z &= 2 \xi_1 - 1 \ r &= \sqrt{1 - ec{\omega}_z^2} \ \phi &= 2 \pi \xi_2 \ ec{\omega}_x &= r \cos \phi \ ec{\omega}_y &= r \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

- What is $|J_T|$ for cylindrical mapping?



- point on unit cylinder
- projection onto sphere

Directly Sampling a Hemisphere

Just like a sphere

Use Hat-Box theorem with shorter cylinder

More Random Sampling

Other useful sampling domains:

- triangles
- 1- or 2-D discrete PDFs (e.g. environment maps)

Much more!

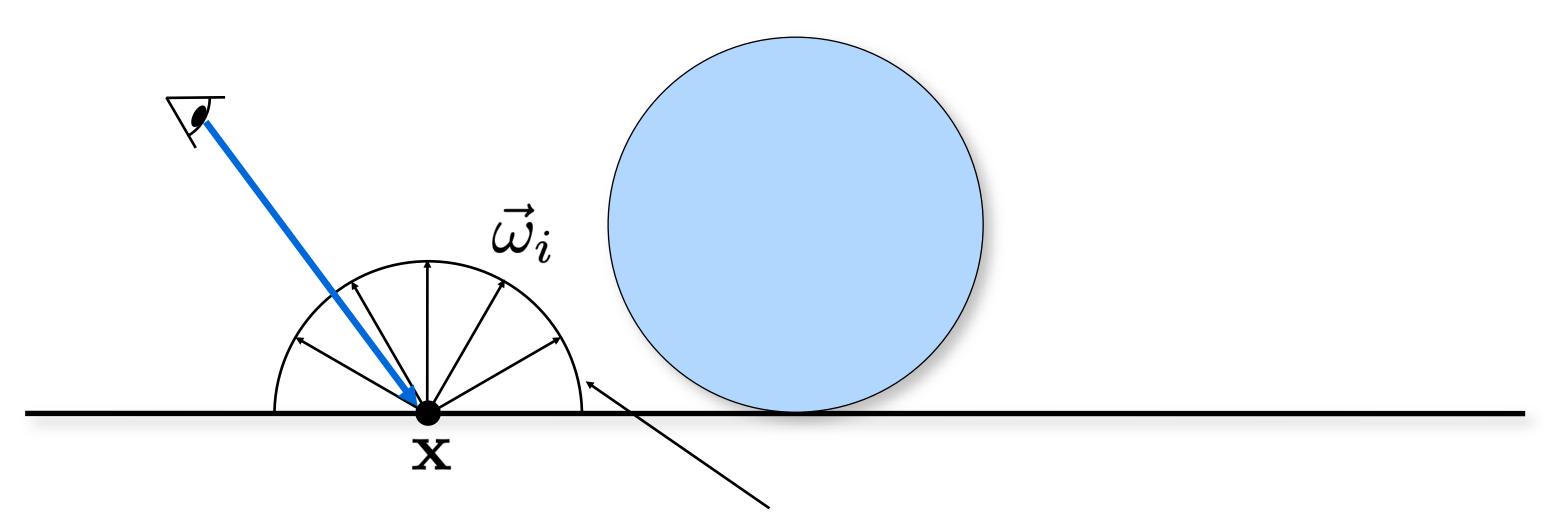
Sampling Various Distributions

Target space	Density	Domain	Transformation
Radius R disk	$p(r, \theta) = \frac{1}{\pi R^2}$	$\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ $r \in [0, R]$	$\theta = 2\pi u$ $r = R\sqrt{v}$
Sector of radius R disk	$p(r,\theta) = \frac{2}{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$	$\theta \in \left[\theta_1, \theta_2\right]$ $r \in \left[r_1, r_2\right]$	$\theta = \theta_1 + u(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$ $r = \sqrt{r_1^2 + v(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$
Phong density exponent n	$p(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n+1}{2\pi} \cos^n \theta$		$\theta = \arccos((1-u)^{1/(n+1)})$ $\phi = 2\pi v$
Separated triangle filter	p(x,y)(1- x)(1- y)	$x \in [-1,1]$	$x = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1-u)} & \text{if } u \ge 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2u} & \text{if } u < 0.5 \end{cases}$
		$y \in [-1,1]$	$y = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1-v)} & \text{if } v \ge 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2v} & \text{if } v < 0.5 \end{cases}$
Triangle with vertices a_0 , a_1 , a_2	$p(a) = \frac{1}{\text{area}}$	$s \in [0,1]$ $t \in [0,1-s]$	$s = 1 - \sqrt{1 - u}$ $t = (1 - s)v$ $a = a_0 + s(a_1 - a_0) + t(a_2 - a_0)$
Surface of unit sphere	$p(\theta,\phi)=\frac{1}{4\pi}$	$\theta \in [0, \pi]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$	$\theta = \arccos(1 - 2u)$ $\phi = 2\pi v$
Sector on surface of unit sphere	$p(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{(\phi_2 - \phi_1)(\cos \theta_1 - \cos \theta_2)}$	$\theta \in [\theta_1, \theta_2]$ $\phi \in [\phi_1, \phi_2]$	$\theta = \arccos[\cos \theta_1 \\ + u(\cos \theta_2 - \cos \theta_1)]$ $\phi = \phi_1 + v(\phi_2 - \phi_1)$
Interior of radius R sphere	$p = \frac{3}{4\pi R^3}$	$\theta \in [0, \pi]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$ $R \in [0, R]$	$\theta = \arccos(1 - 2u)$ $\phi = 2\pi v$ $r = w^{1/2}R$

⁶ The symbols u, v, and w represent instances of uniformly distributed random variables ranging over [0, 1].

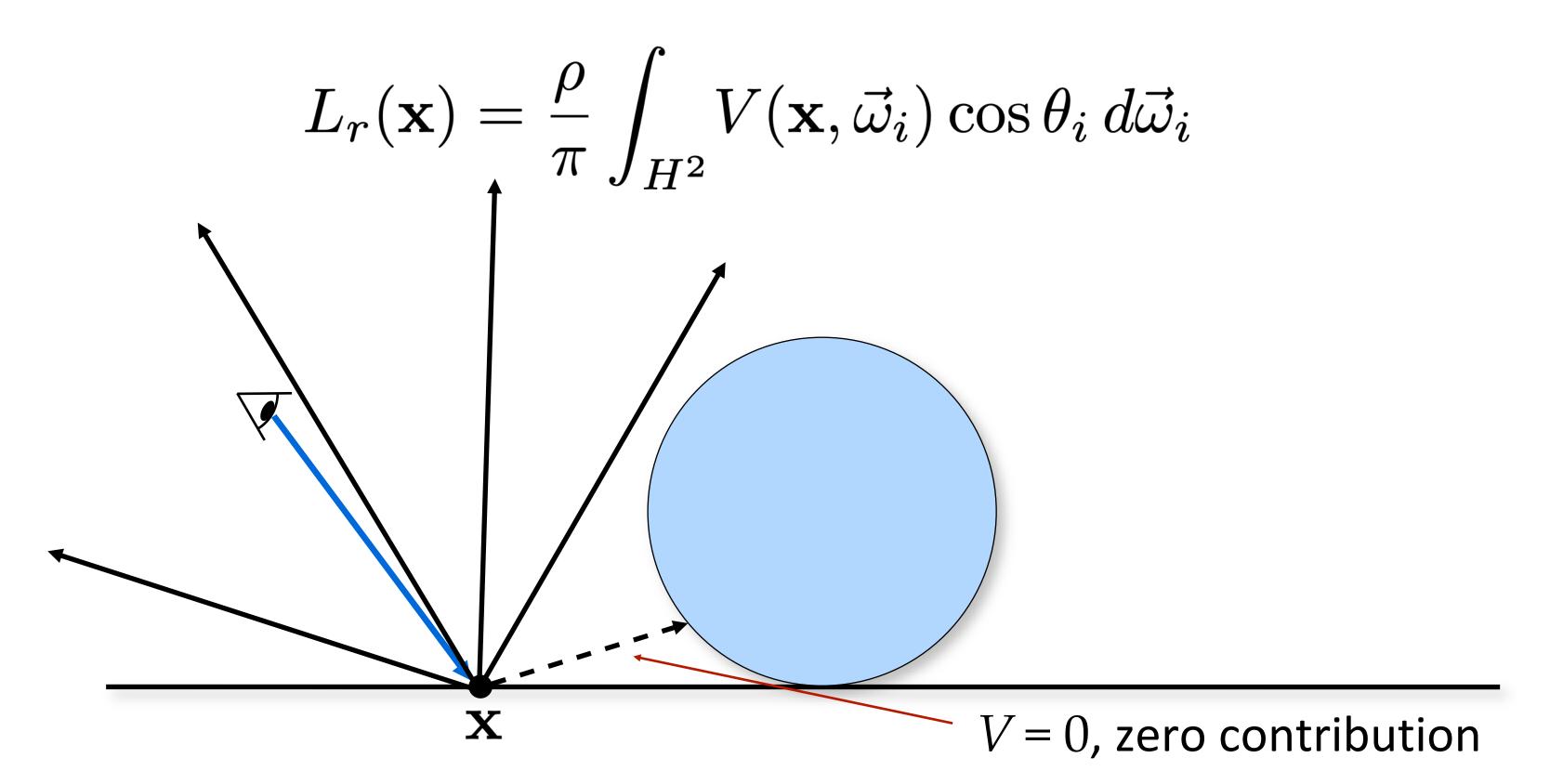
Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_r) \equiv \int_{\pi} f_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i, \vec{\omega}_i) L_i(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i \, d\vec{\omega}_i$$

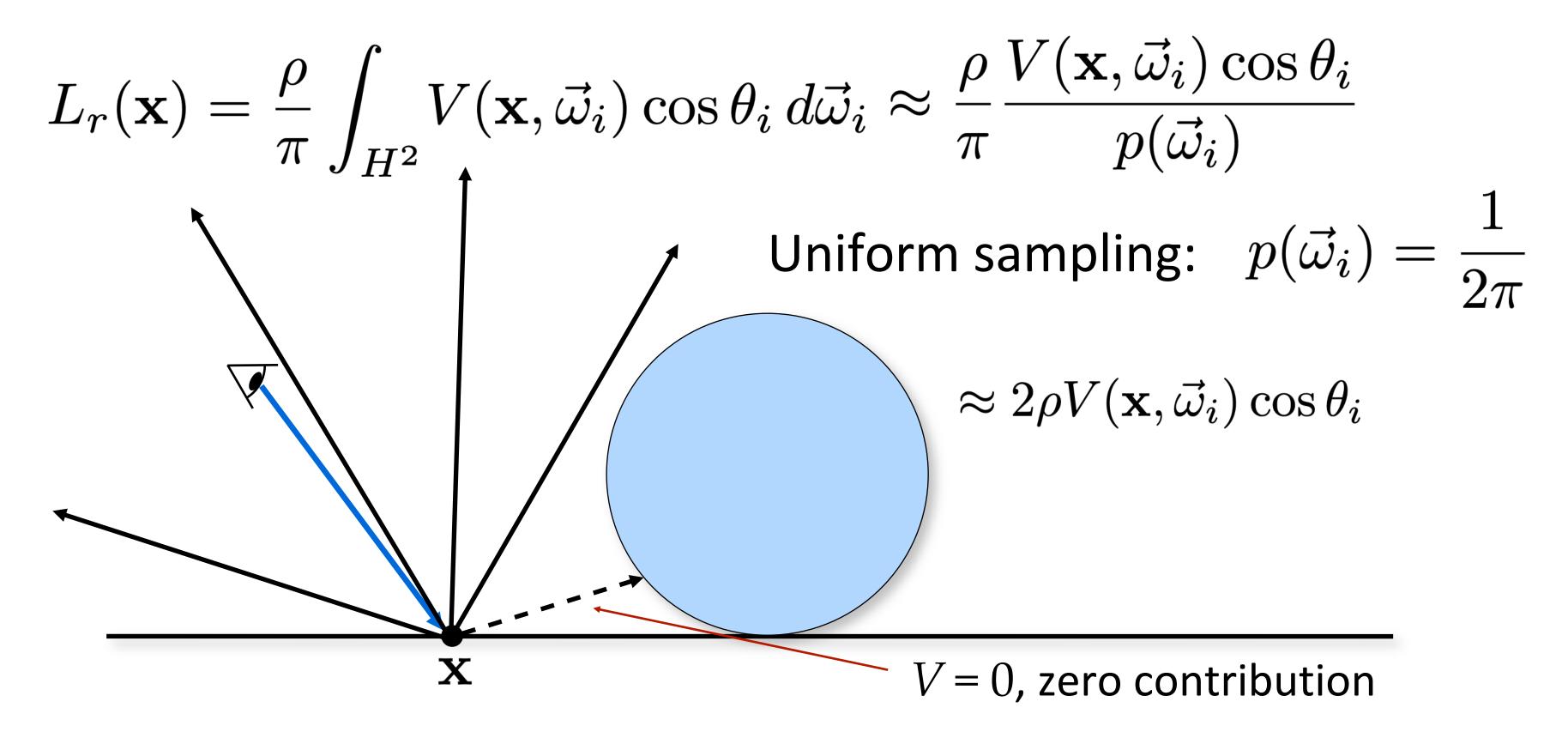


integral over hemisphere

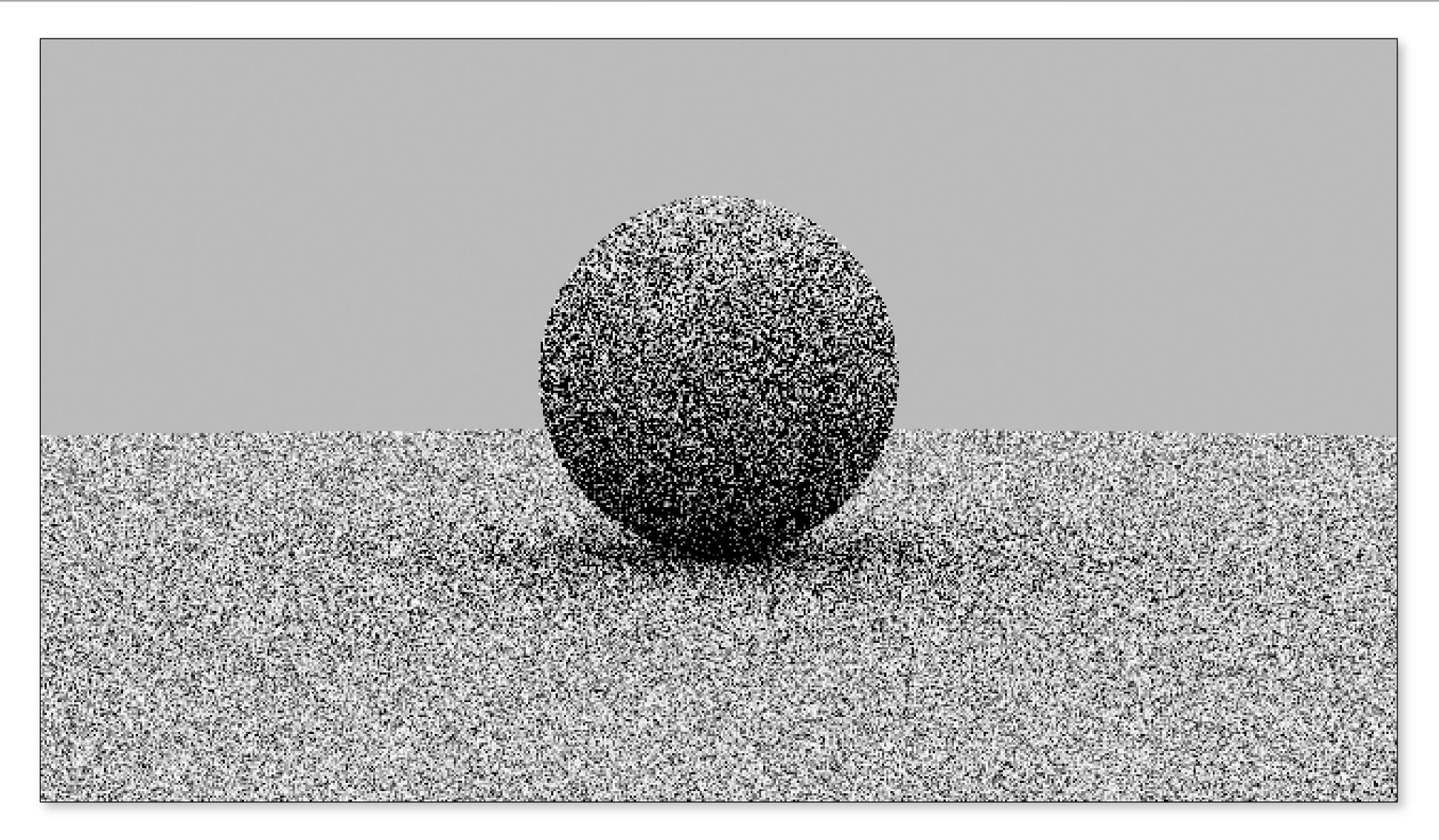
Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky



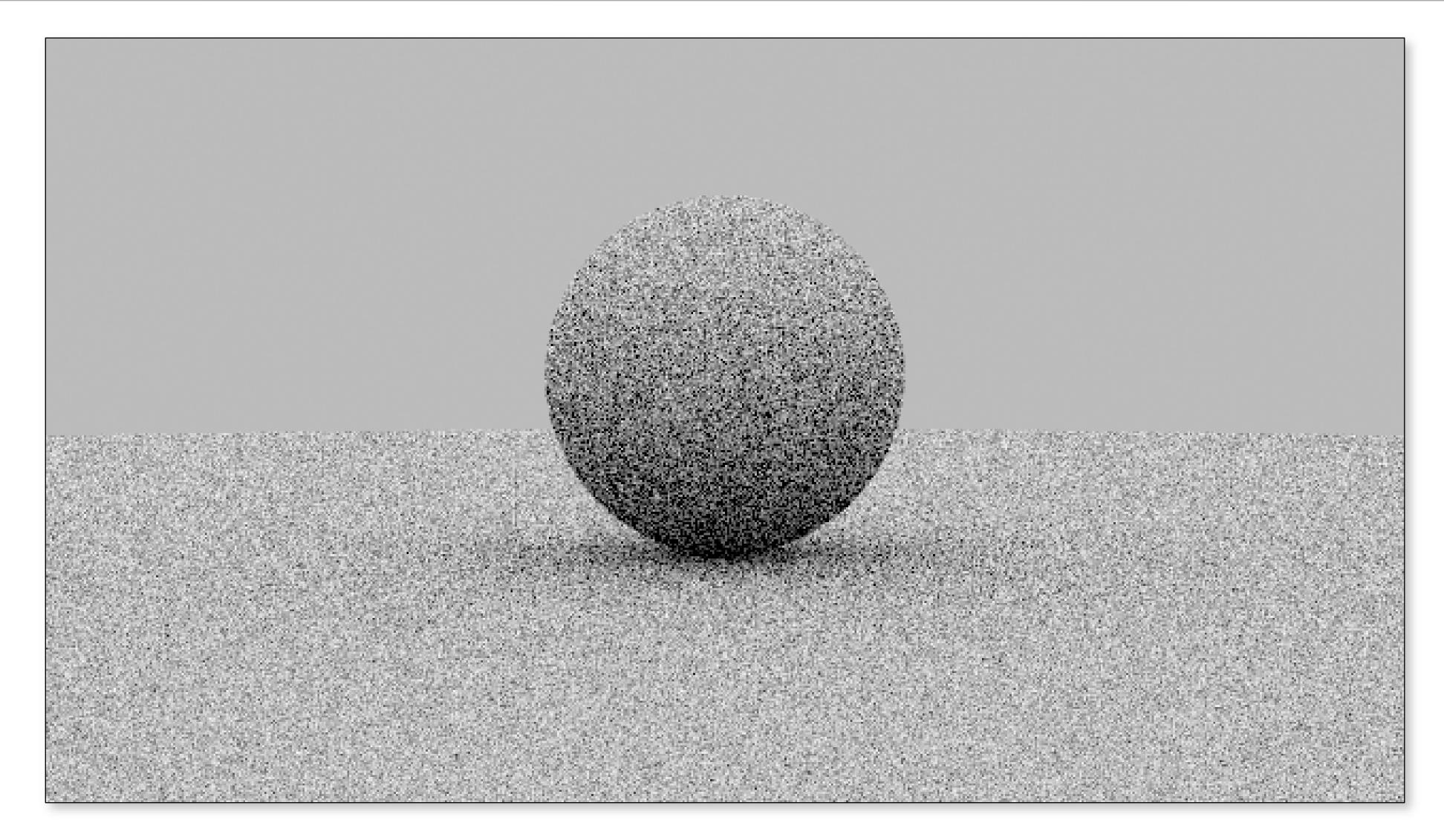
Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky



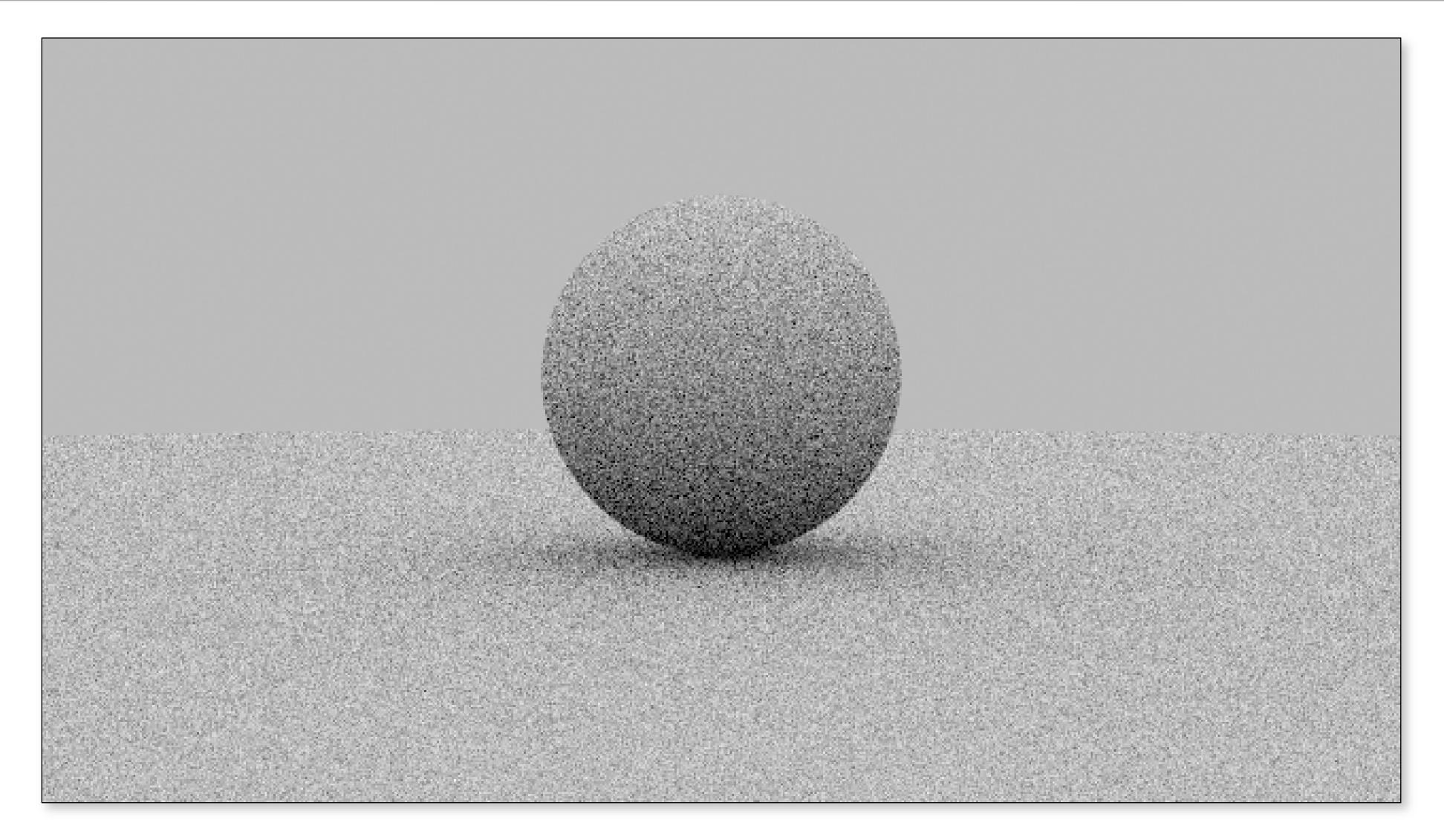
Hemispherical Sampling (1 Sample)



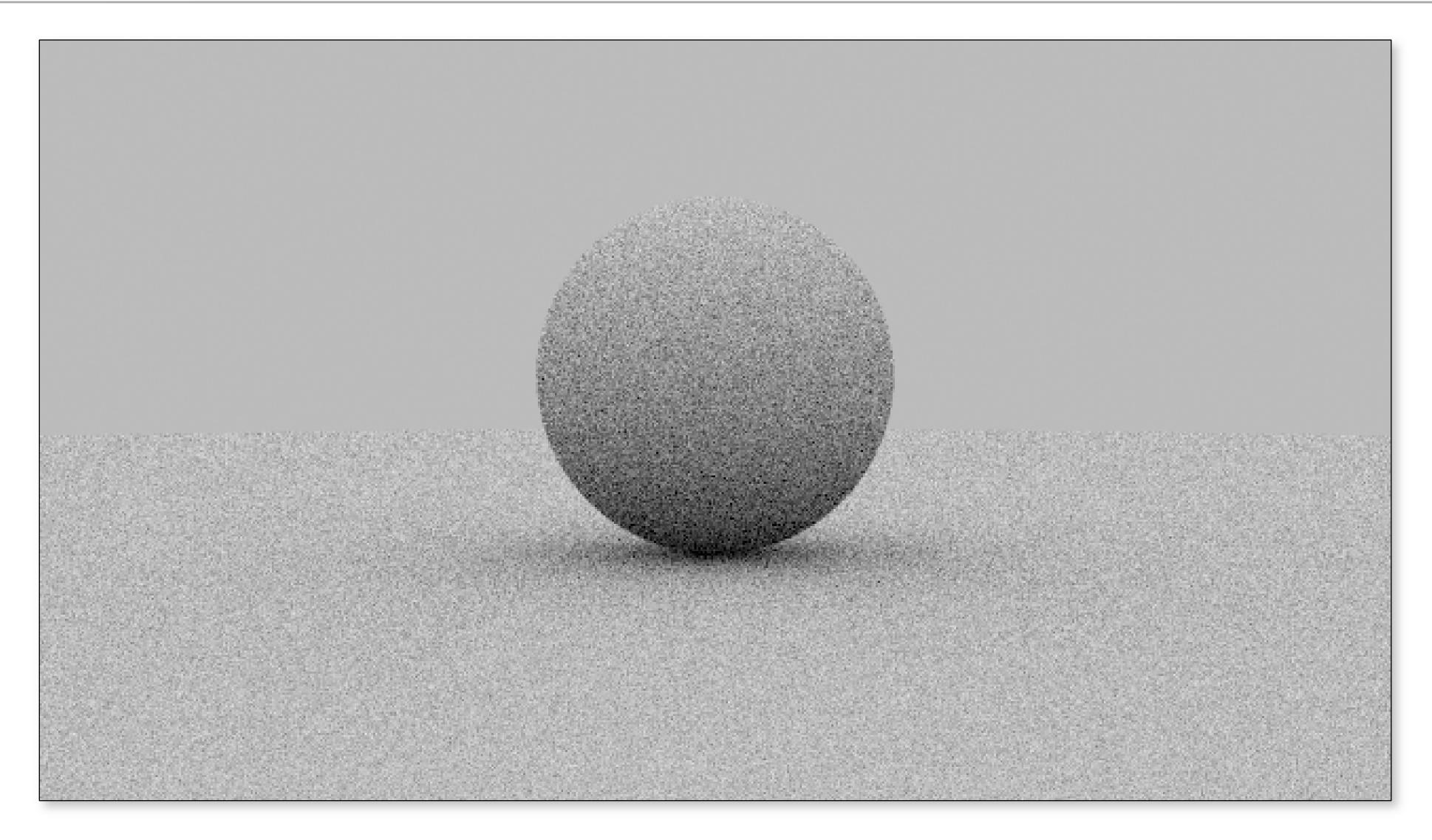
Hemispherical Sampling (4 Samples)



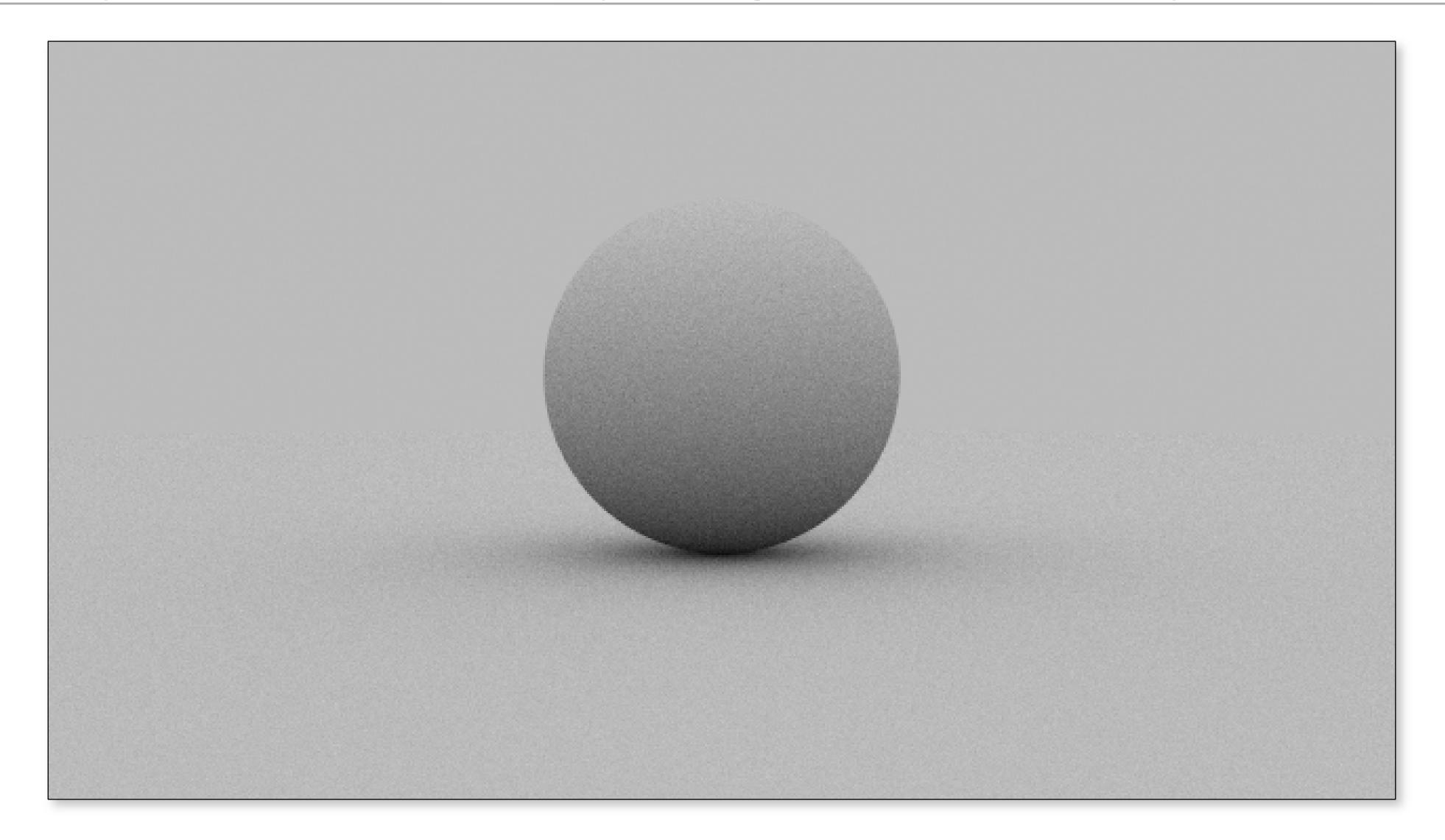
Hemispherical Sampling (9 Samples)



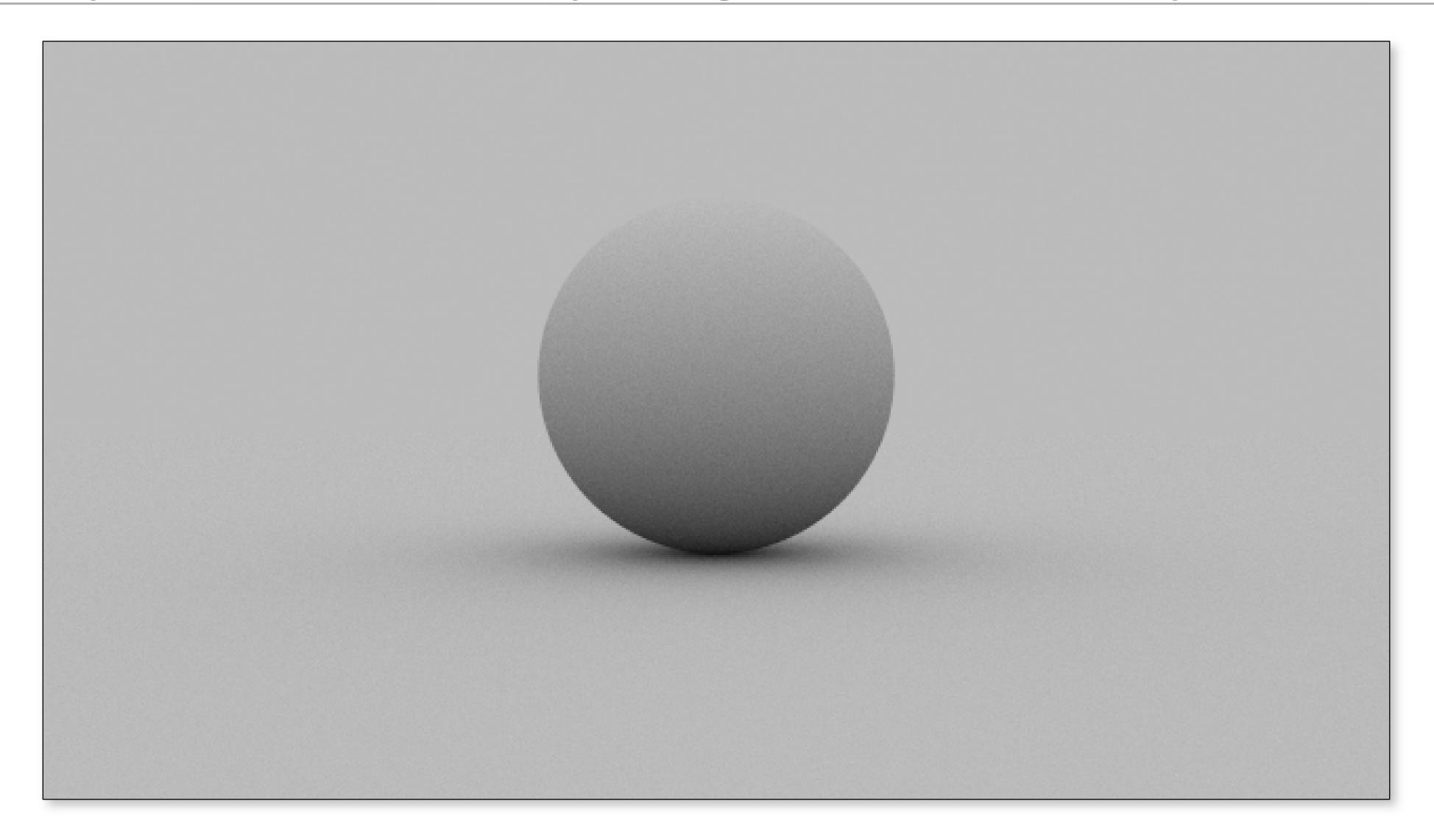
Hemispherical Sampling (16 Samples)



Hemispherical Sampling (256 Samples)

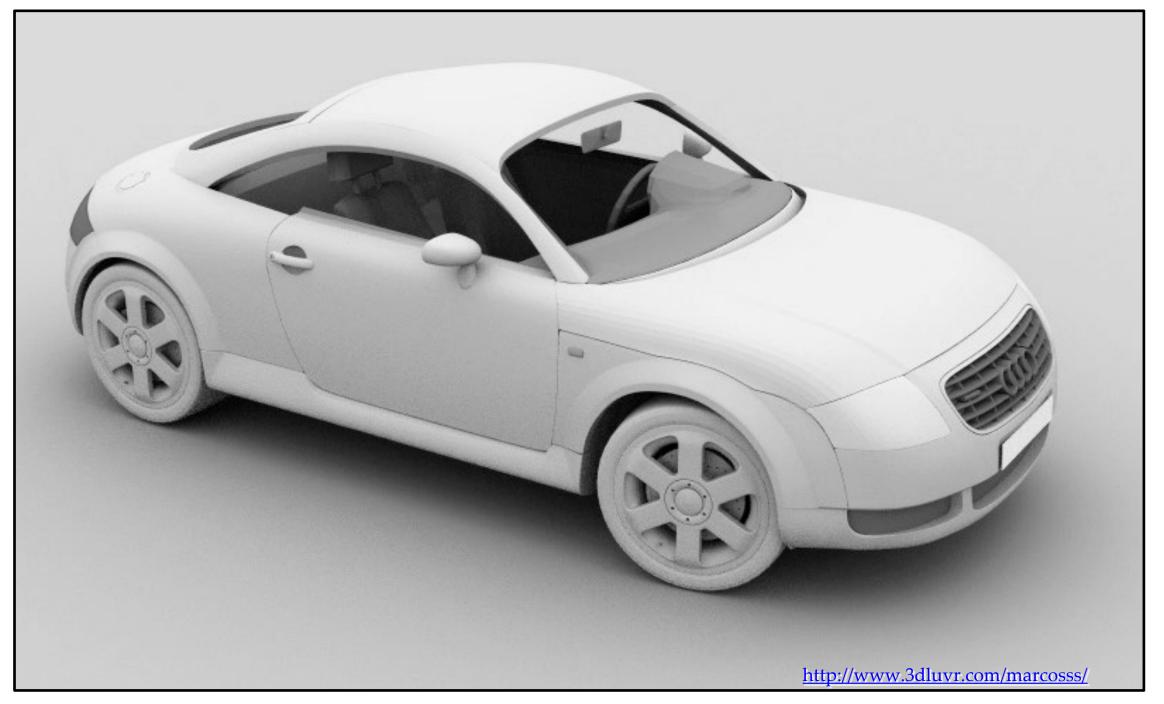


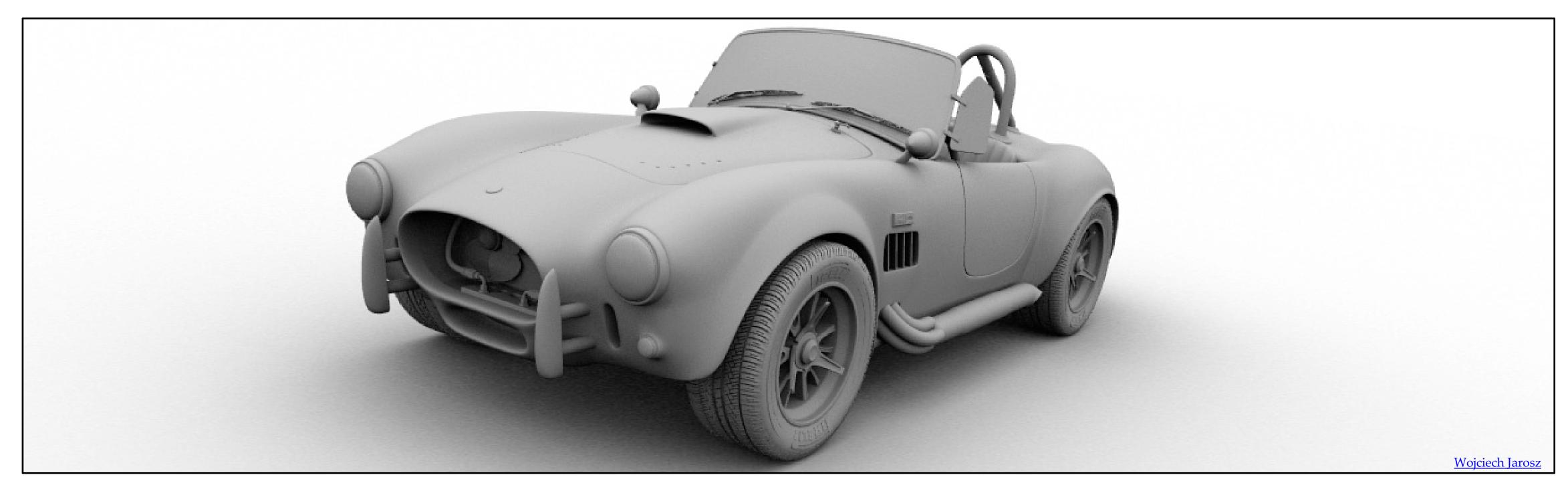
Hemispherical Sampling (1024 Samples)











Strategies for reducing variance

The standard MC estimator:

$$F = \int_{\mu(x)} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}\mu(x)$$

$$\langle F^N \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{f(X_i)}{\operatorname{pdf}(X_i)}$$

$$\sigma\left[\left\langle F^{N}\right\rangle\right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sigma\left[Y\right]$$

How do we reduce the variance of Y?

- Importance sampling

Importance sampling

Importance sampling

$$\int f(x)dx$$

$$\int f(x)dx \qquad F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)}$$

assume

$$p(x) = cf(x)$$

$$\int p(x)dx = 1 \quad \to \quad c = \frac{1}{\int f(x)dx}$$

estimator

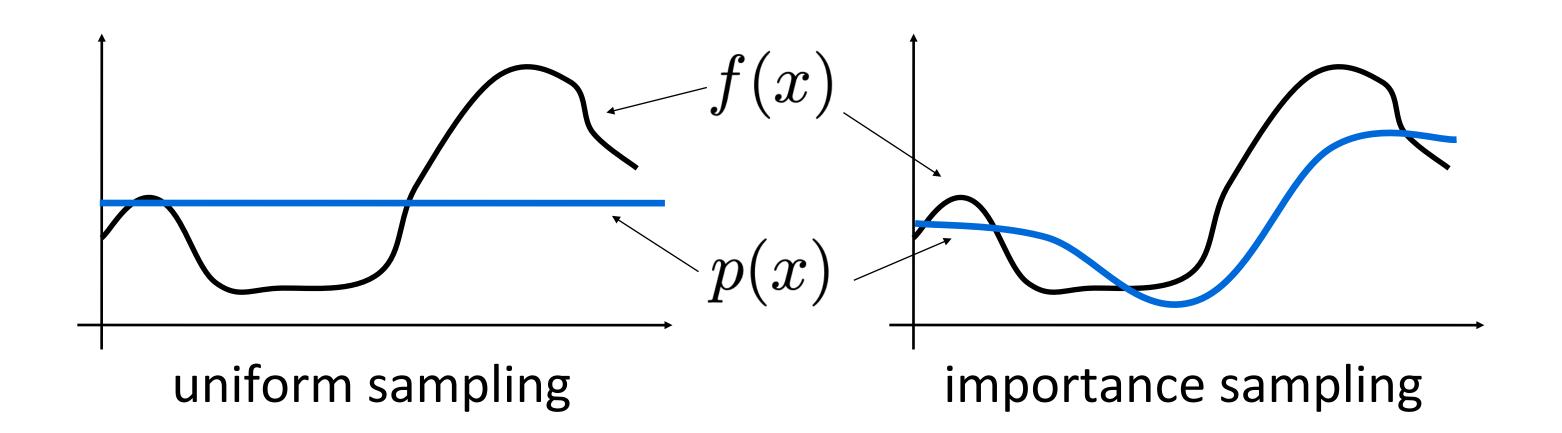
$$\frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)} = \frac{1}{c} = \int f(x)dx$$
 zero variance!

Importance sampling

p(x) = cf(x) requires knowledge of the integral we are trying to compute in the first place!

But: If PDF is similar to integrand, variance can be significantly reduced

Common strategy: sample according to part of the integrand



$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\rho}{\pi} \int_{H^2} V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i \, d\vec{\omega}_i$$

What terms can we importance sample?

- incident radiance
- cosine term

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\rho}{\pi} \int_{H^2} V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i d\vec{\omega}_i$$

What terms can we importance sample?

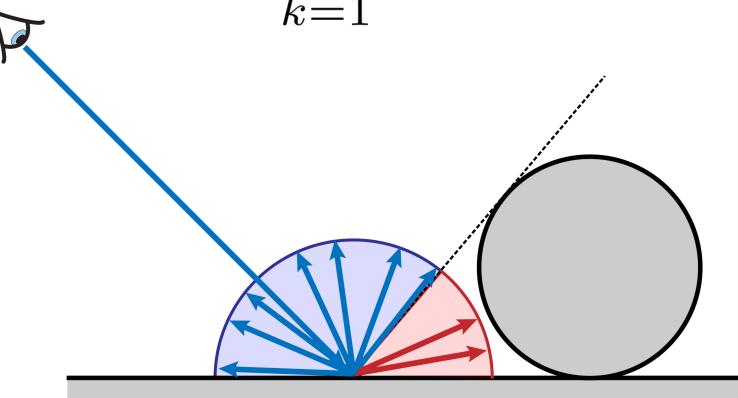
- incident radiance
- cosine term

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{\rho}{\pi N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_{i,k}) \cos \theta_{i,k}}{p(\vec{\omega}_{i,k})}$$

Uniform hemispherical sampling

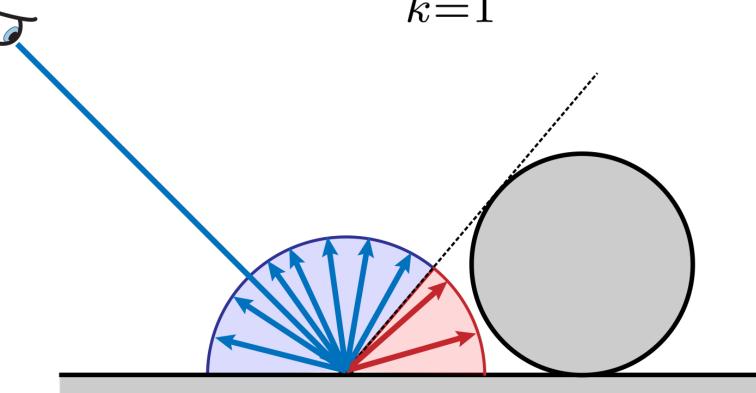
$$p(\vec{\omega}_{i,k}) = 1/2\pi$$

$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{2\rho}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_{i,k}) \cos \theta_{i,k}$$
 $L_r(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{\rho}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_{i,k})$



$$p(\vec{\omega}_{i,k}) = \cos \theta_{i,k} / \pi$$

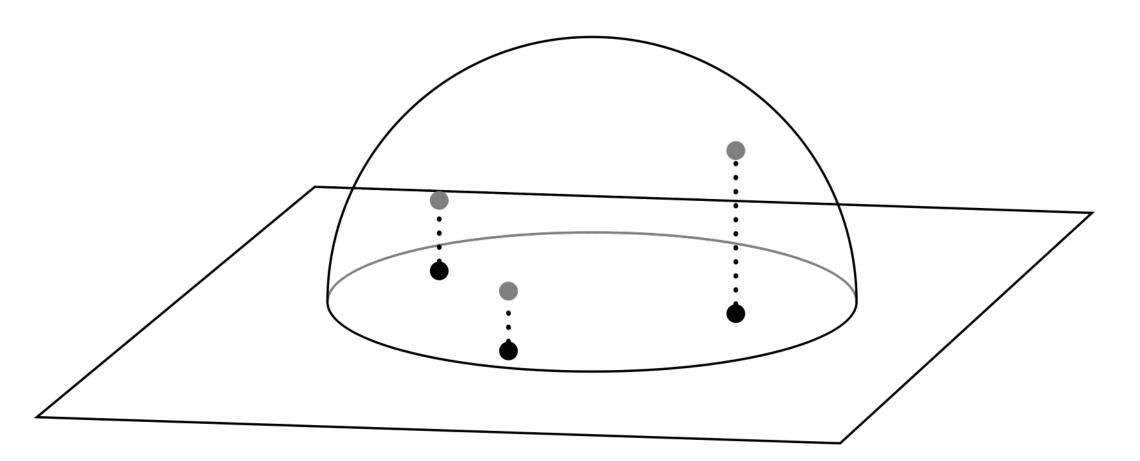
$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{\rho}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_{i,k})$$



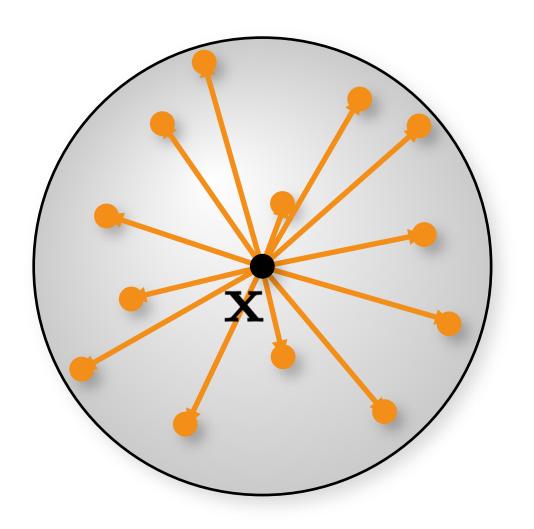
Could proceed as before: compute marginal and conditional densities, then use inversion method.

It turns out that:

- Generating points uniformly on the disc, and then project these points vertically onto the hemisphere produces the desired distribution.

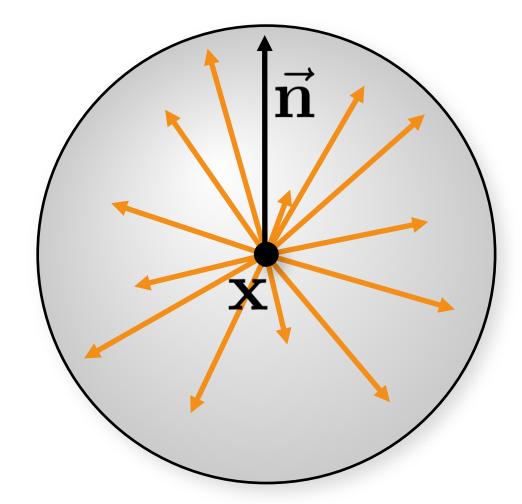


Generate points on sphere (unit directions)

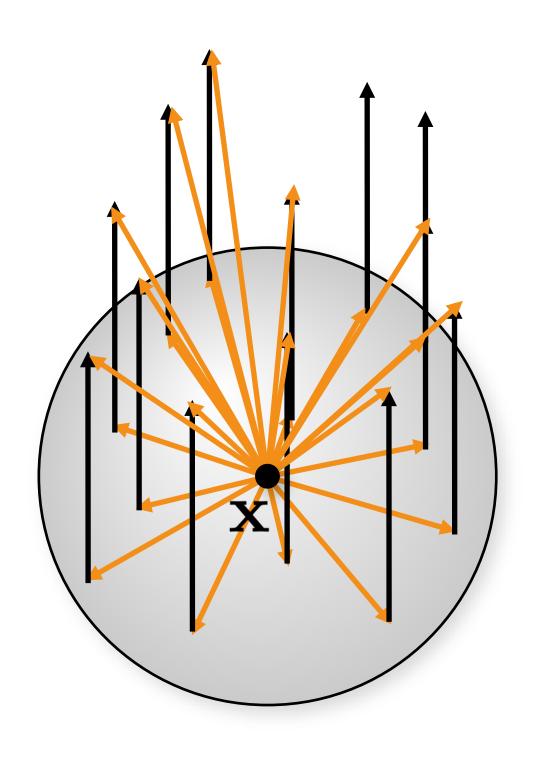


Generate points on sphere (unit directions)

unit normal



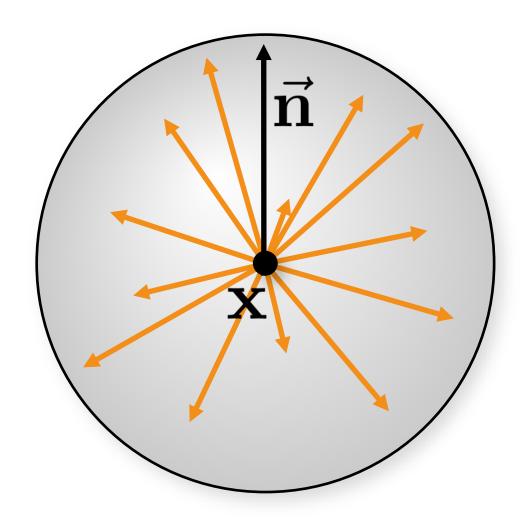
Add unit normal

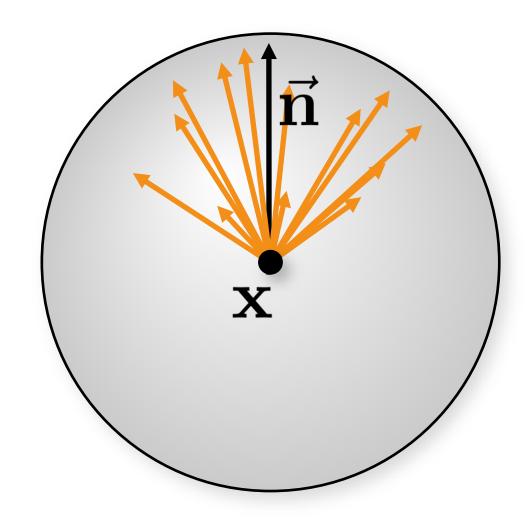


Generate points on sphere (unit directions)

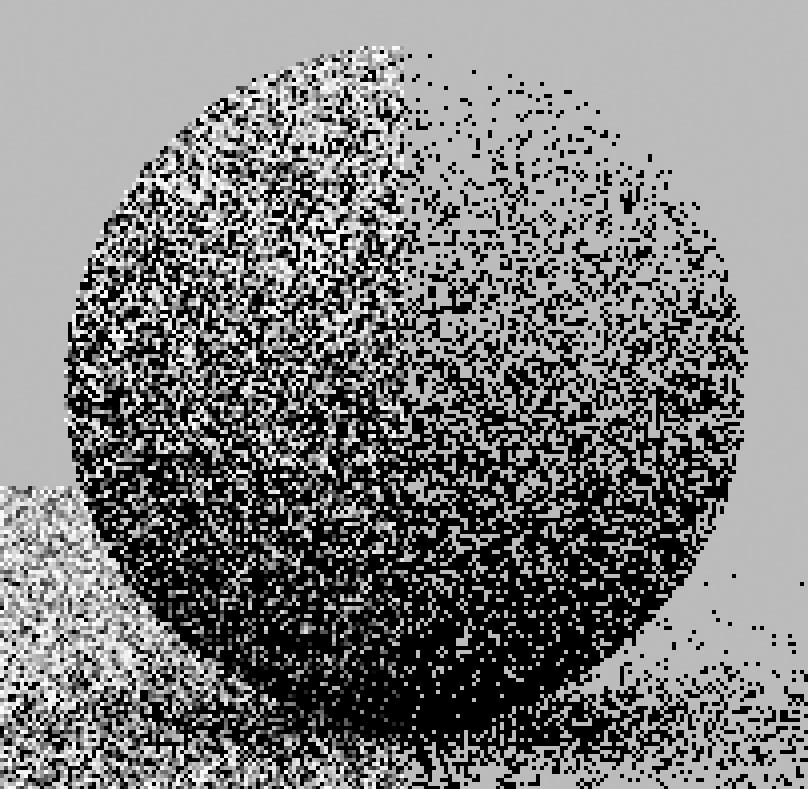
Add unit normal normalize

unit normal

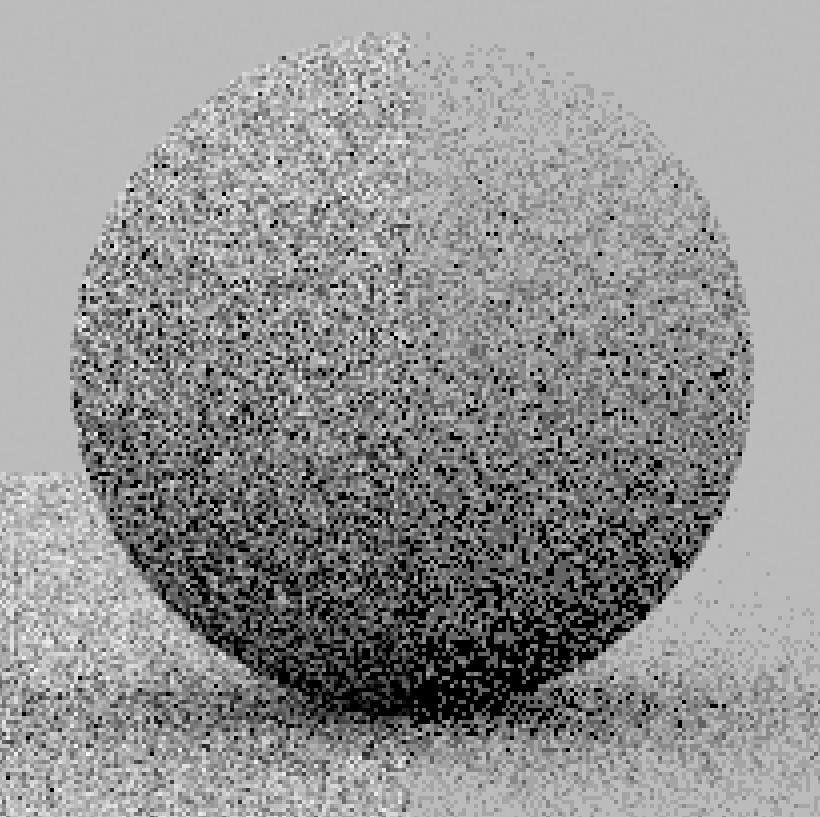




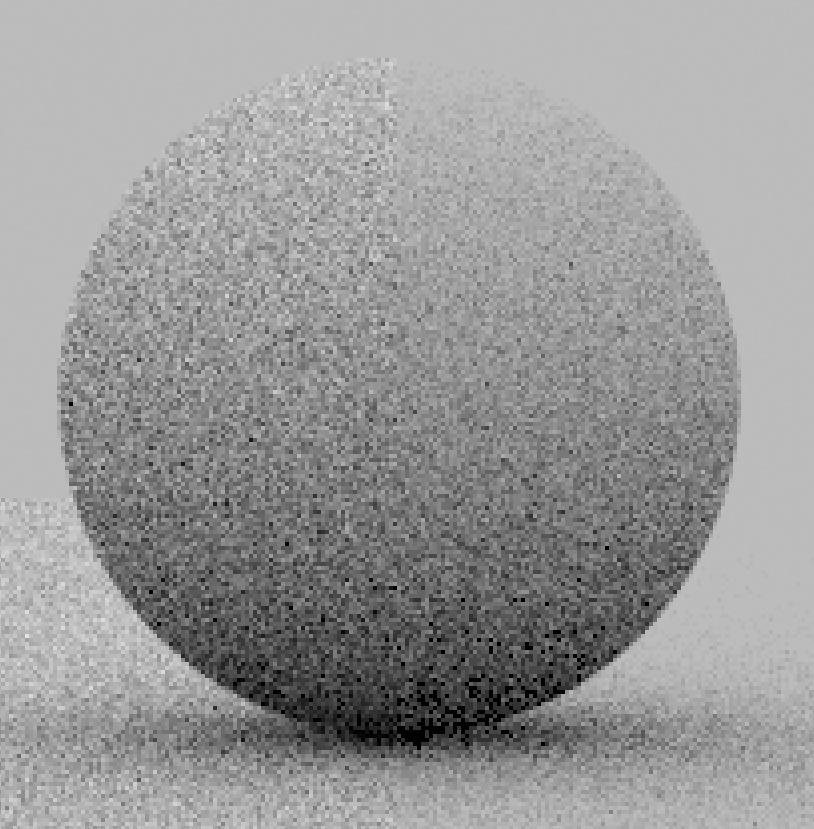
1 sample/pixel



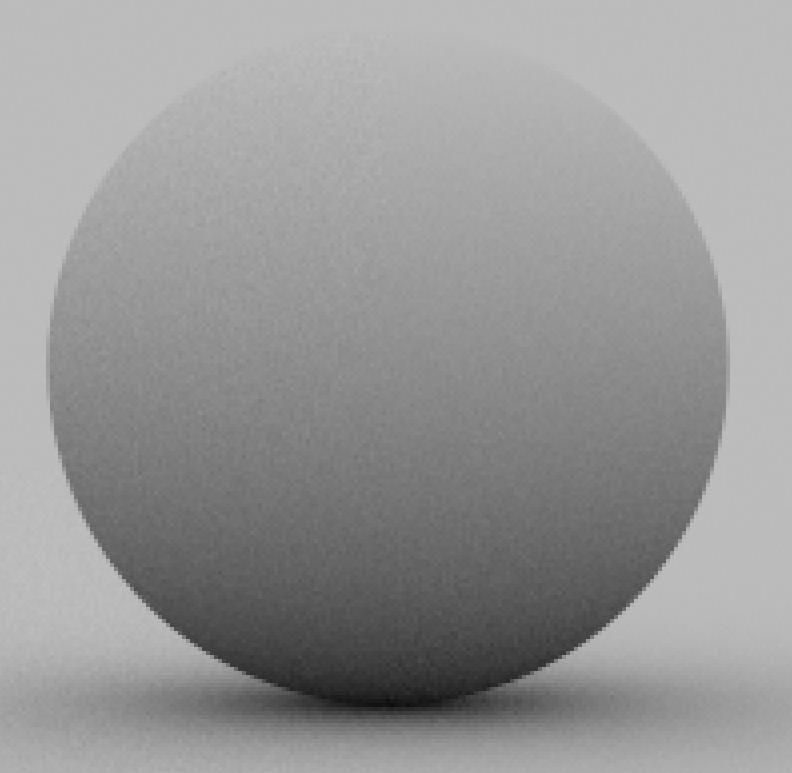
4 sample/pixel



16 sample/pixel



1024 sample/pixel



More Integration Dimensions

Anti-aliasing (image space)

Light visibility (surface of area lights)

Depth-of-field (camera aperture)

Motion blur (time)

Many lights

Multiple bounces of light

Participating media (volume)