

# Monte Carlo integration



15-468, 15-668, 15-868  
Physics-based Rendering  
Spring 2025, Lecture 8

# Course announcements

- Programming assignment 2 will be posted on Friday.

# 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

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

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

But ours are a bit more complicated:

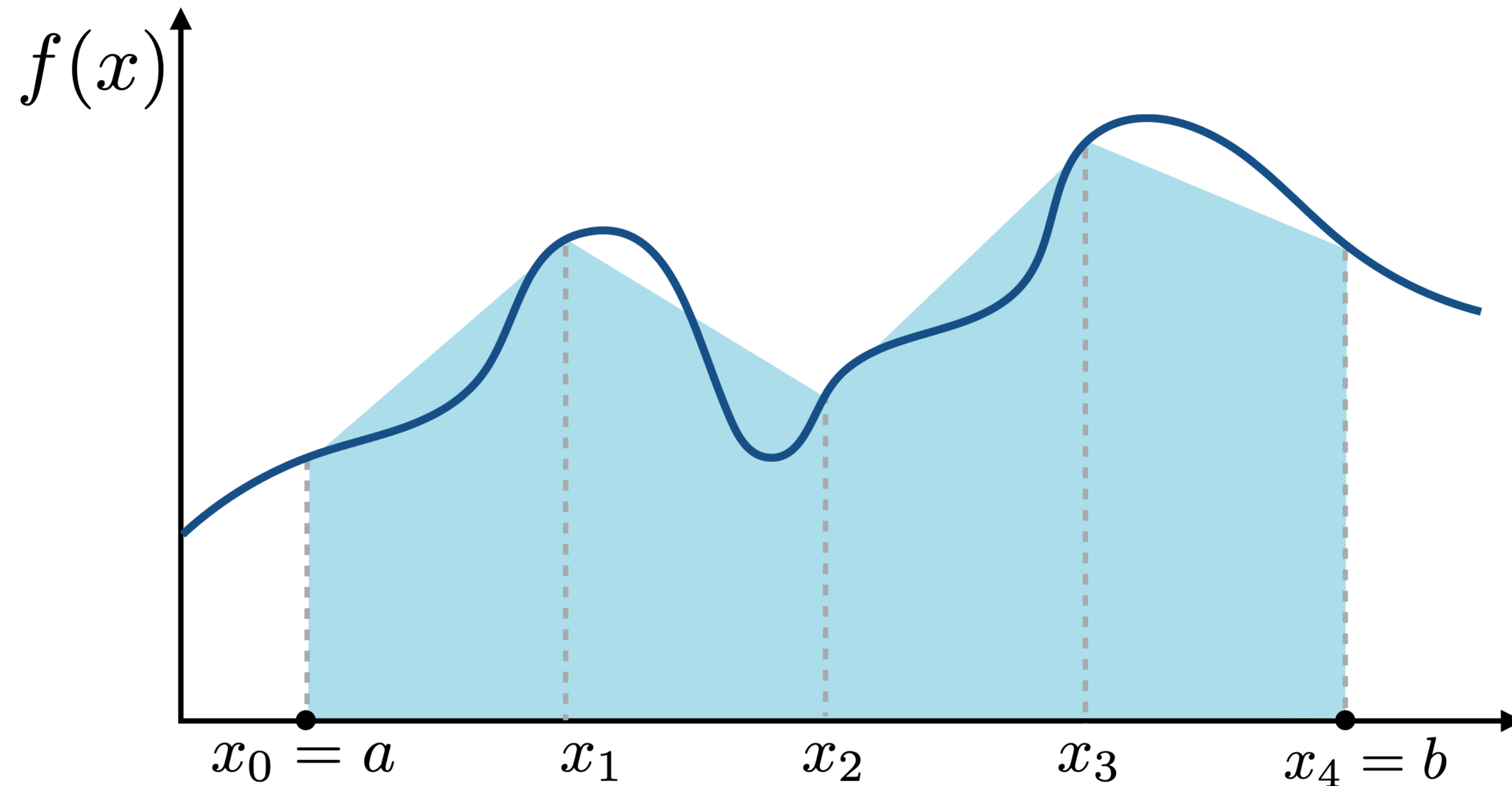
$$L_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_r) = \int_{H^2} f_r(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i, \vec{\omega}_r) L_i(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i \, d\vec{\omega}_i$$

# Typical quadrature: Trapezoid rule

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

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



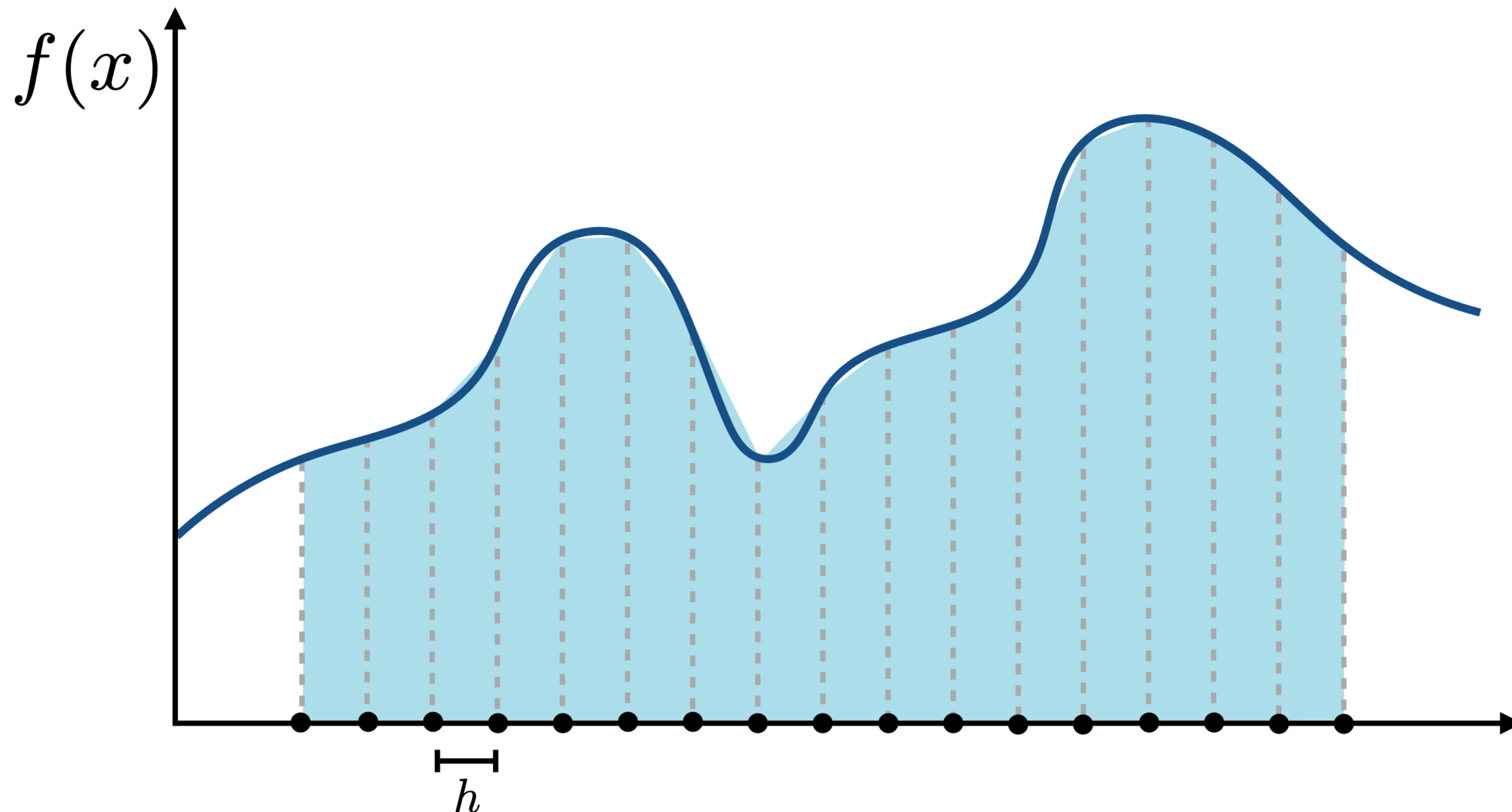
# Typical quadrature: Trapezoid rule

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

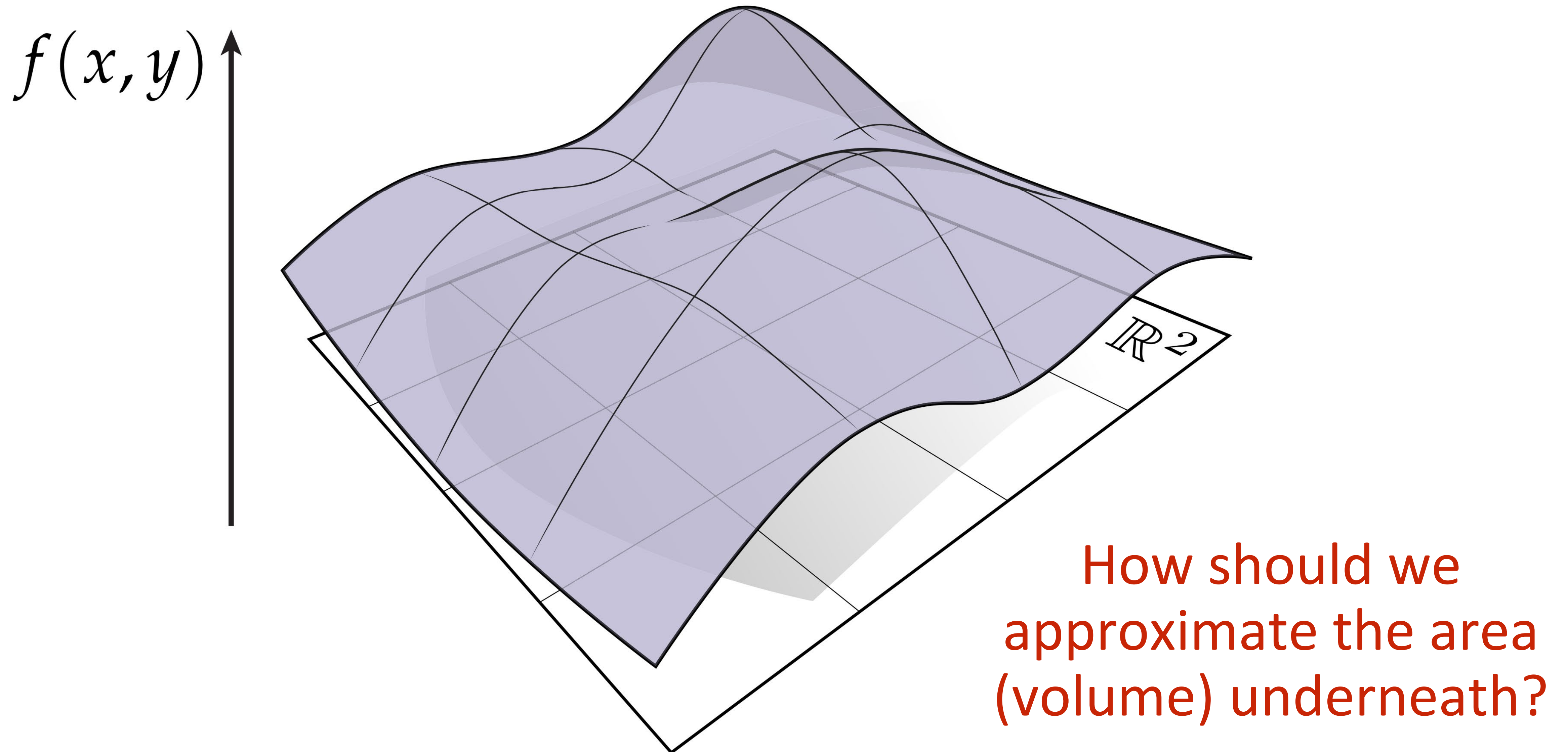
Work:  $O(n)$

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?

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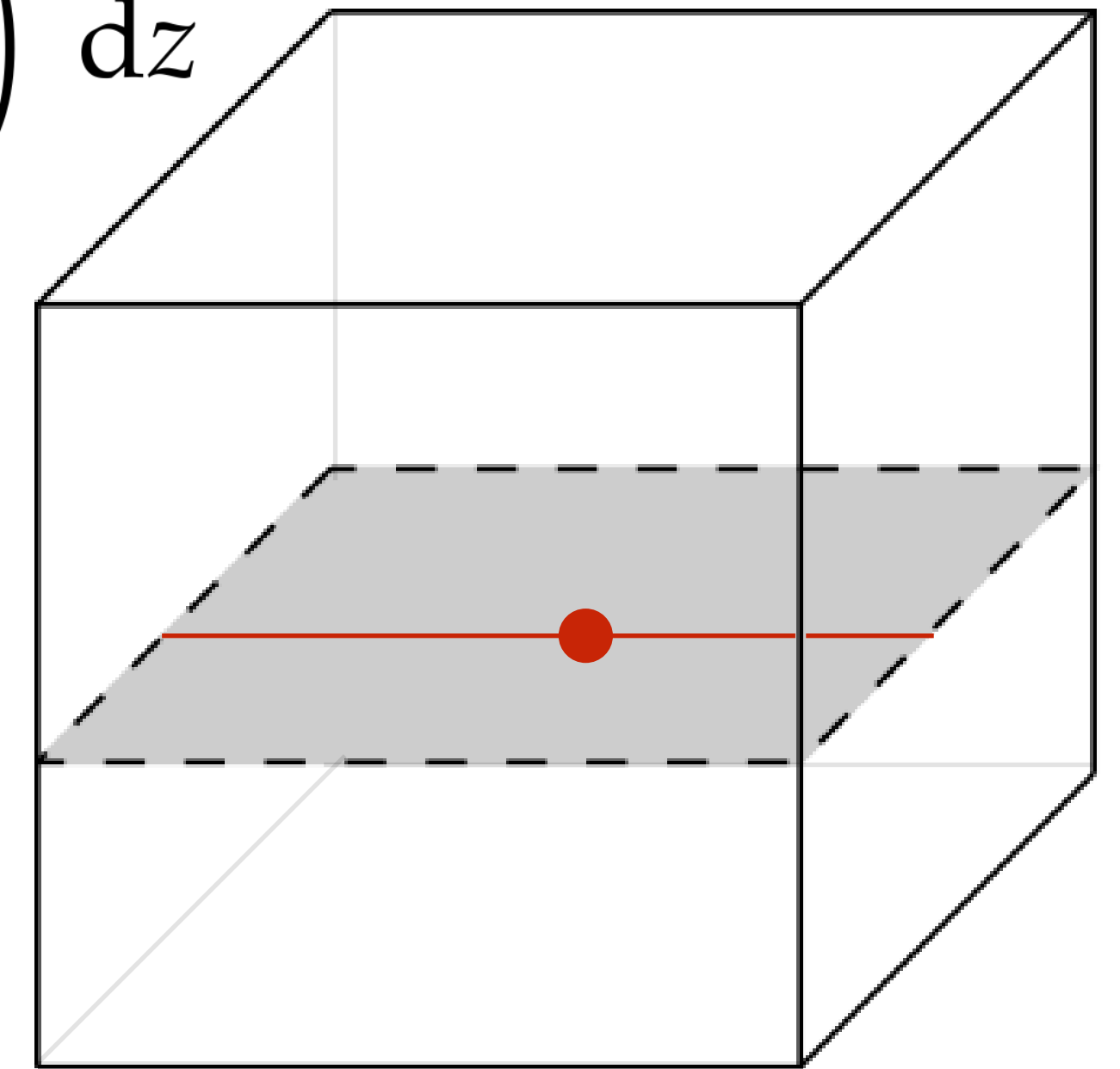


# Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

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

Apply the trapezoid rule repeatedly



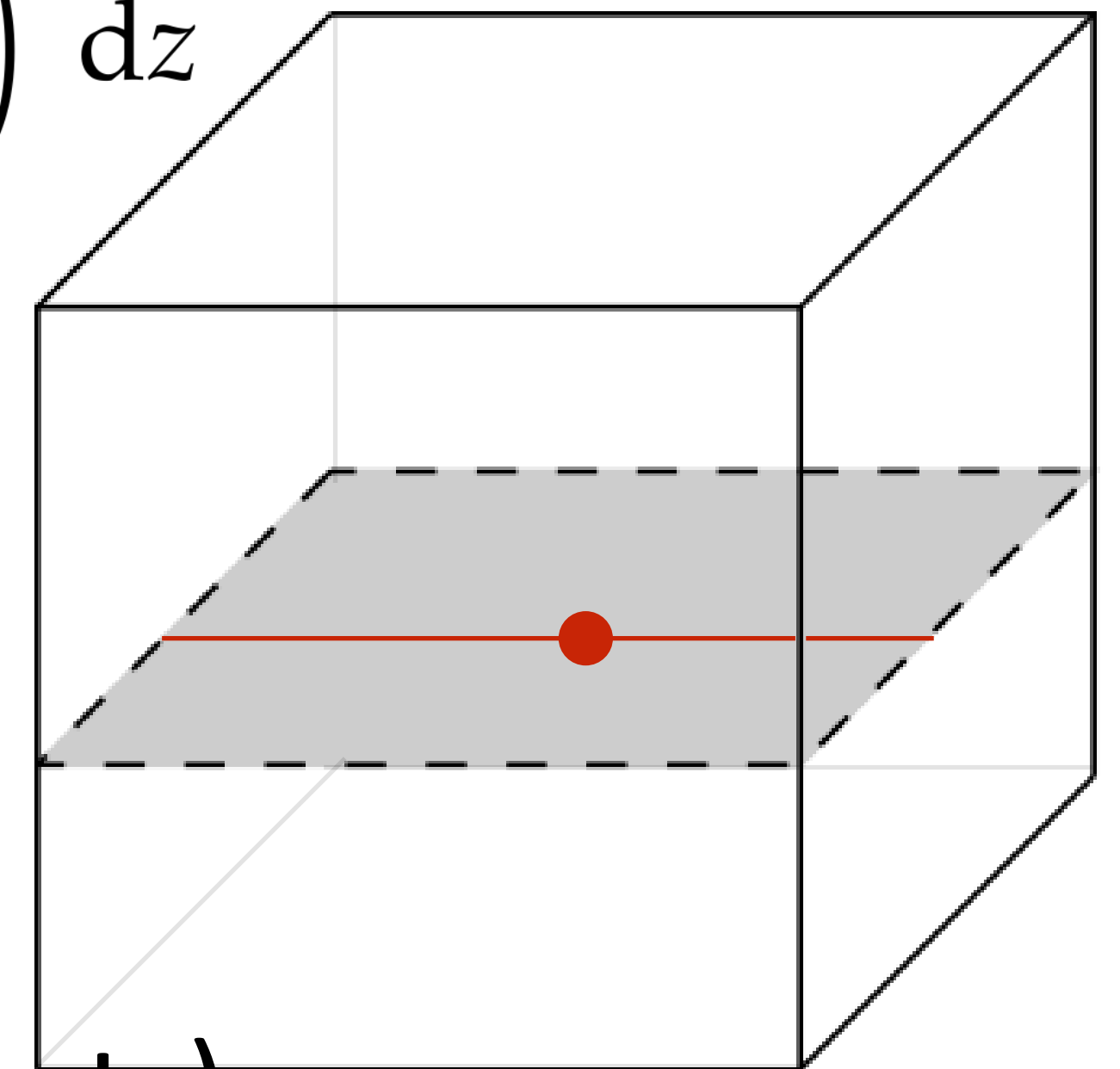
# Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

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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)





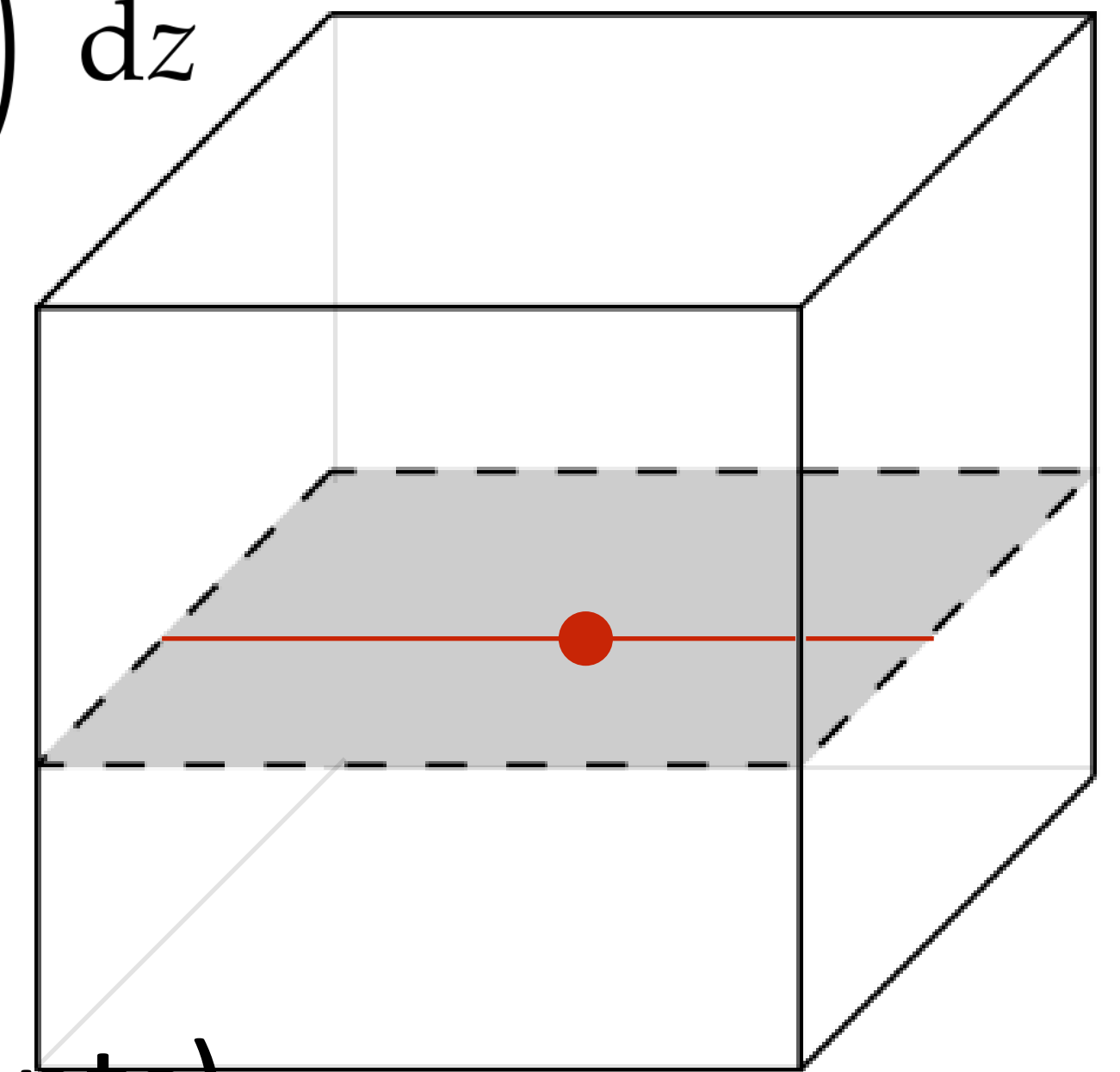
# Multidimensional integrals & Fubini's theorem

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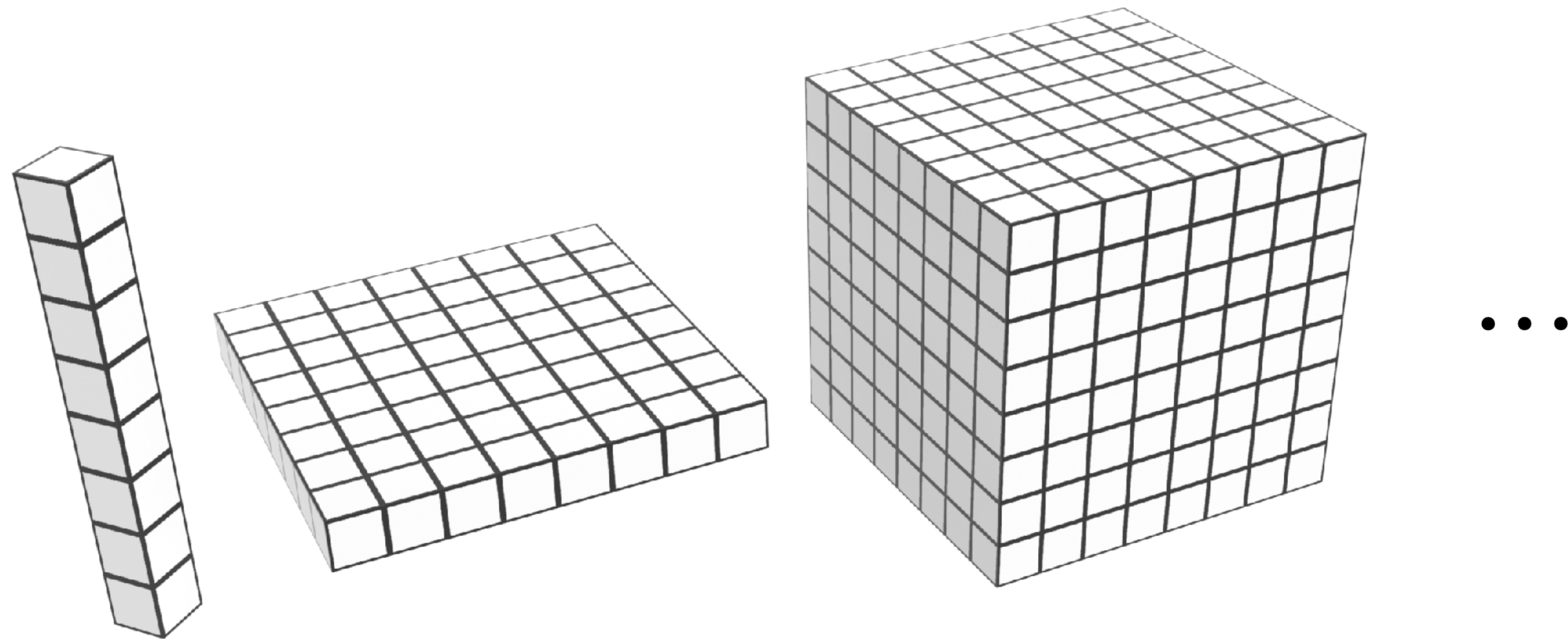
Must perform **much** more work in 2D to get same error bound!

# Curse of Dimensionality

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

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



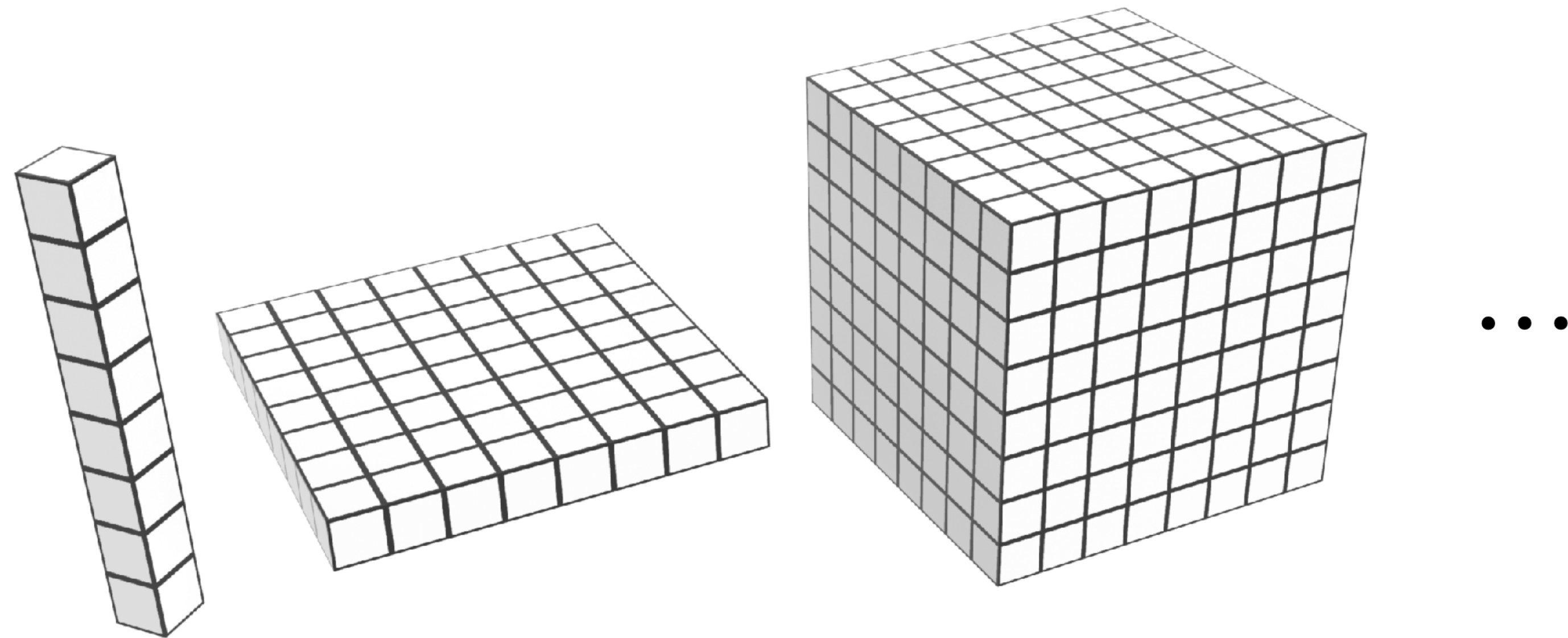


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Deterministic quadrature does not scale to higher dimensions!

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

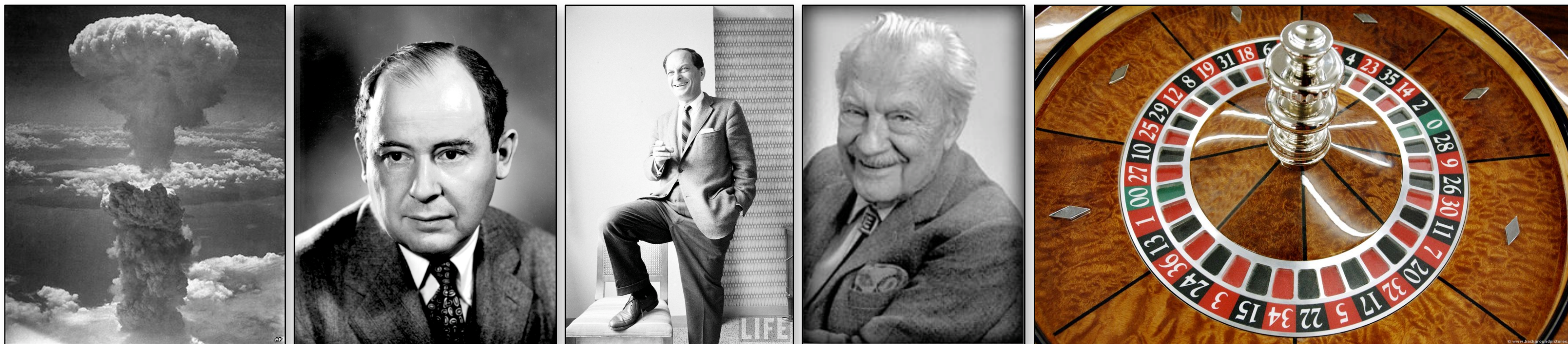
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Use random numbers to solve numerical problems

Early use during development of atomic bomb

Von Neumann, Ulam, Metropolis

Named after the casino in Monte Carlo



# Playing Solitaire

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Lose



Win



Win



Lose

...

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



# Playing Solitaire

---

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

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

# Monte Carlo Integration

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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

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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

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

Two types: discrete vs. continuous

# Discrete Random Variables

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**Discrete Random Variable:** countable set of outcomes

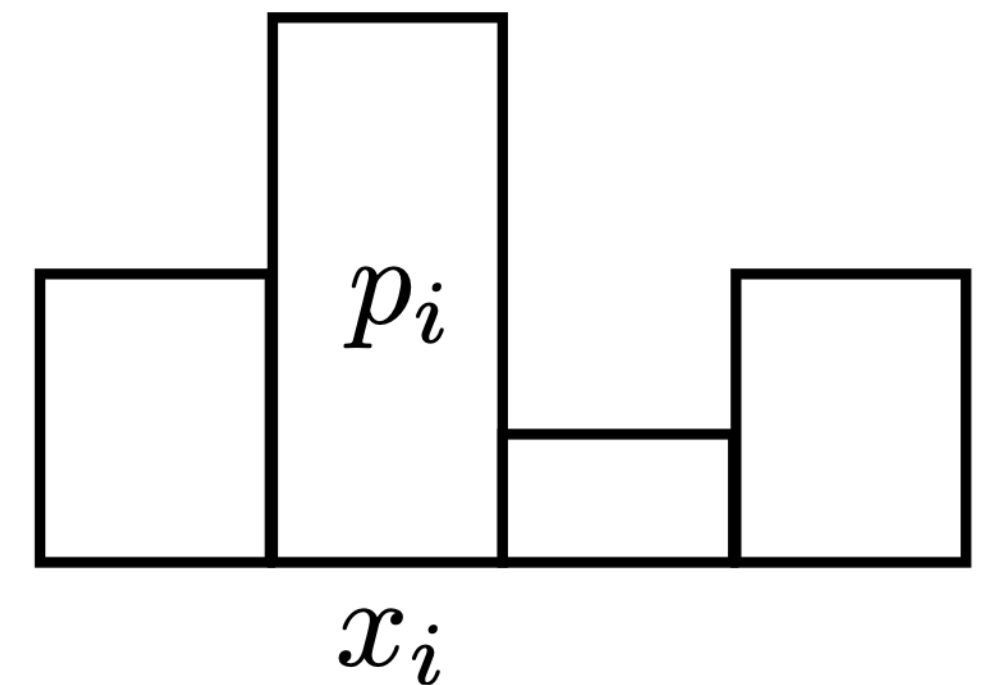
# Discrete Random Variables

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**Discrete Random Variable:** countable set of outcomes

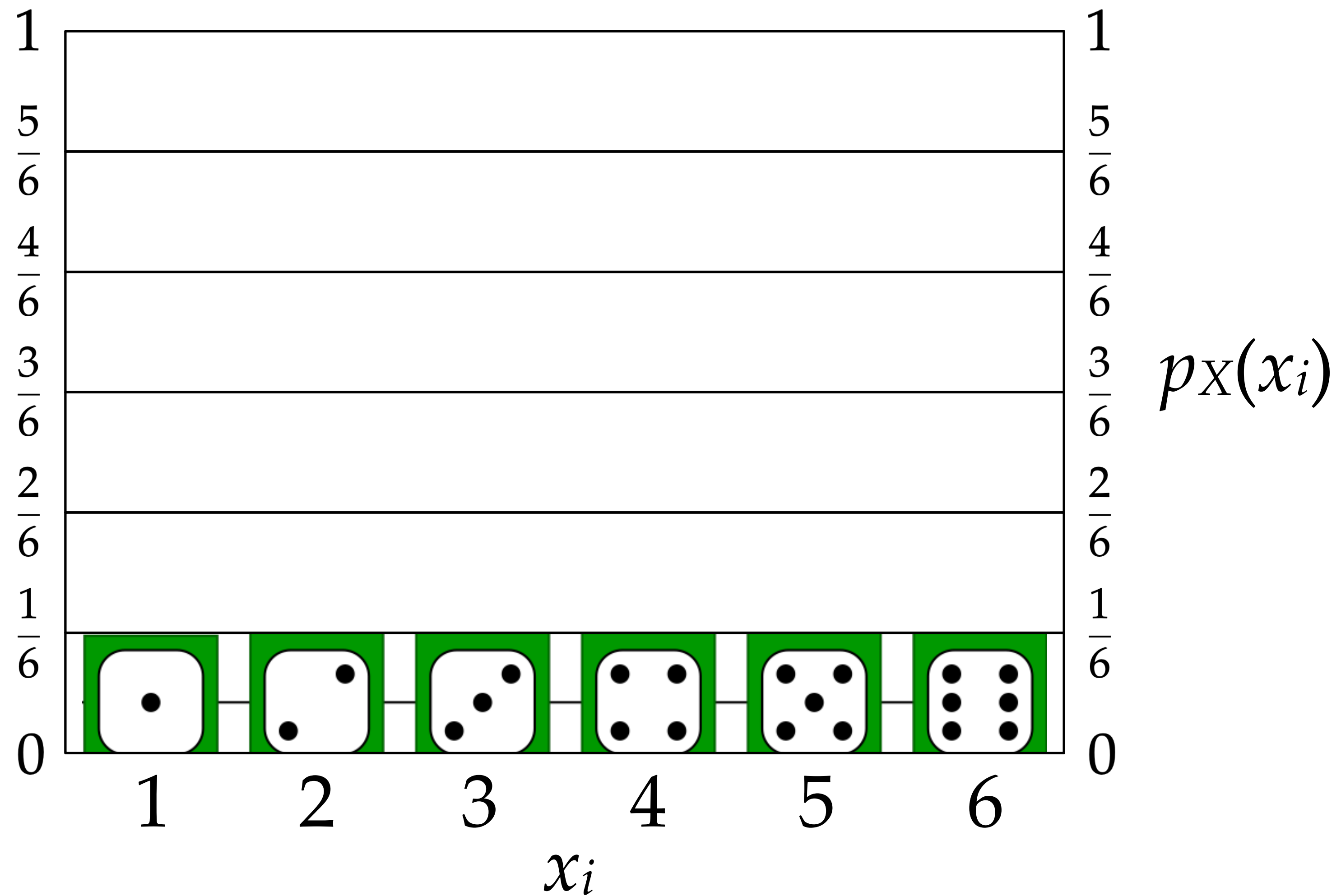
**Probability mass function (pmf) of  $X$ :**

- $p_X(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$ , or simply  $p_i = p(x_i) = P(X = x_i)$
- $p(x_i) \geq 0$
- Sums to one:  $\sum_a p(a) = 1$

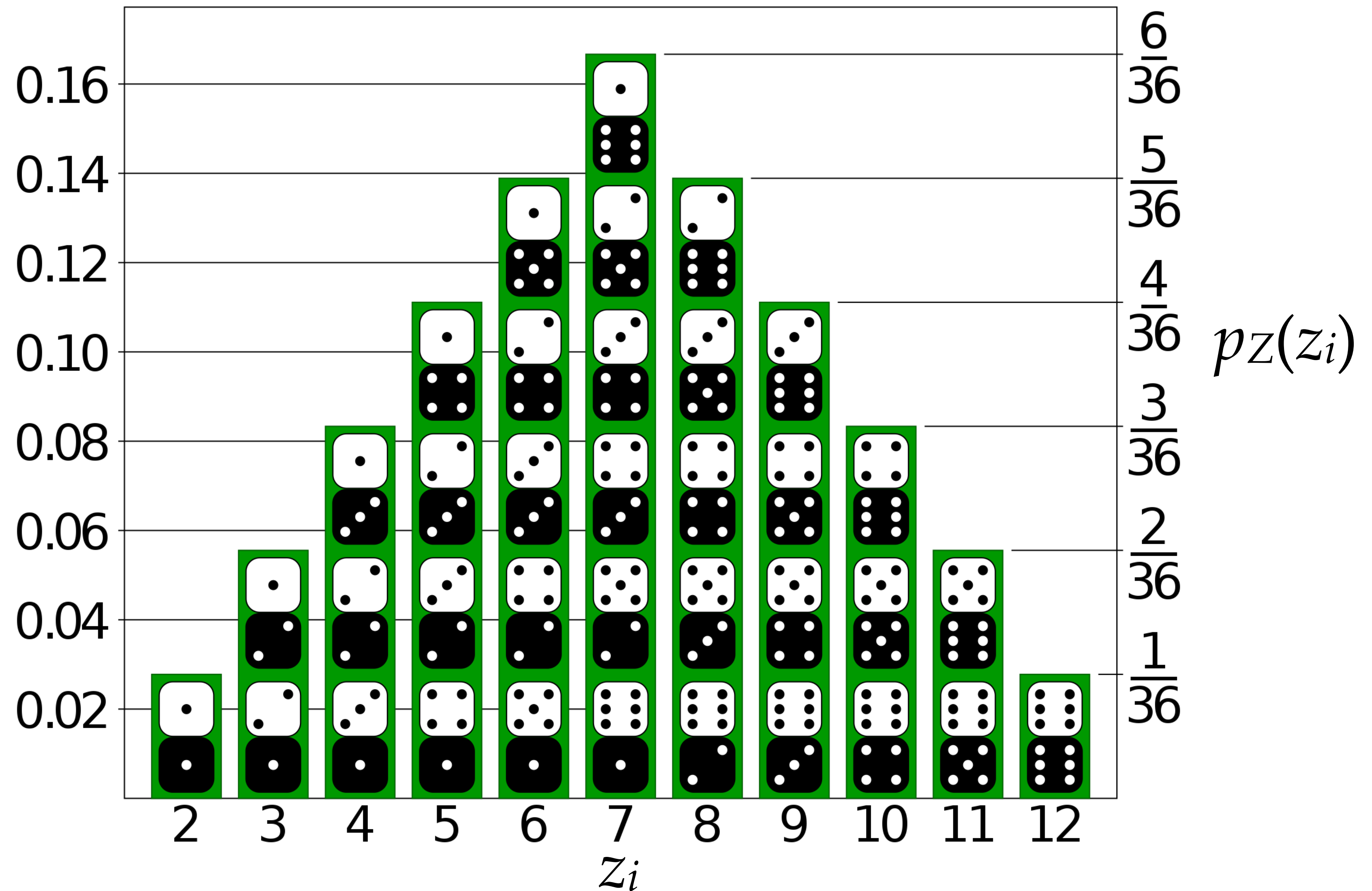


# Probability mass function

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# Probability mass function

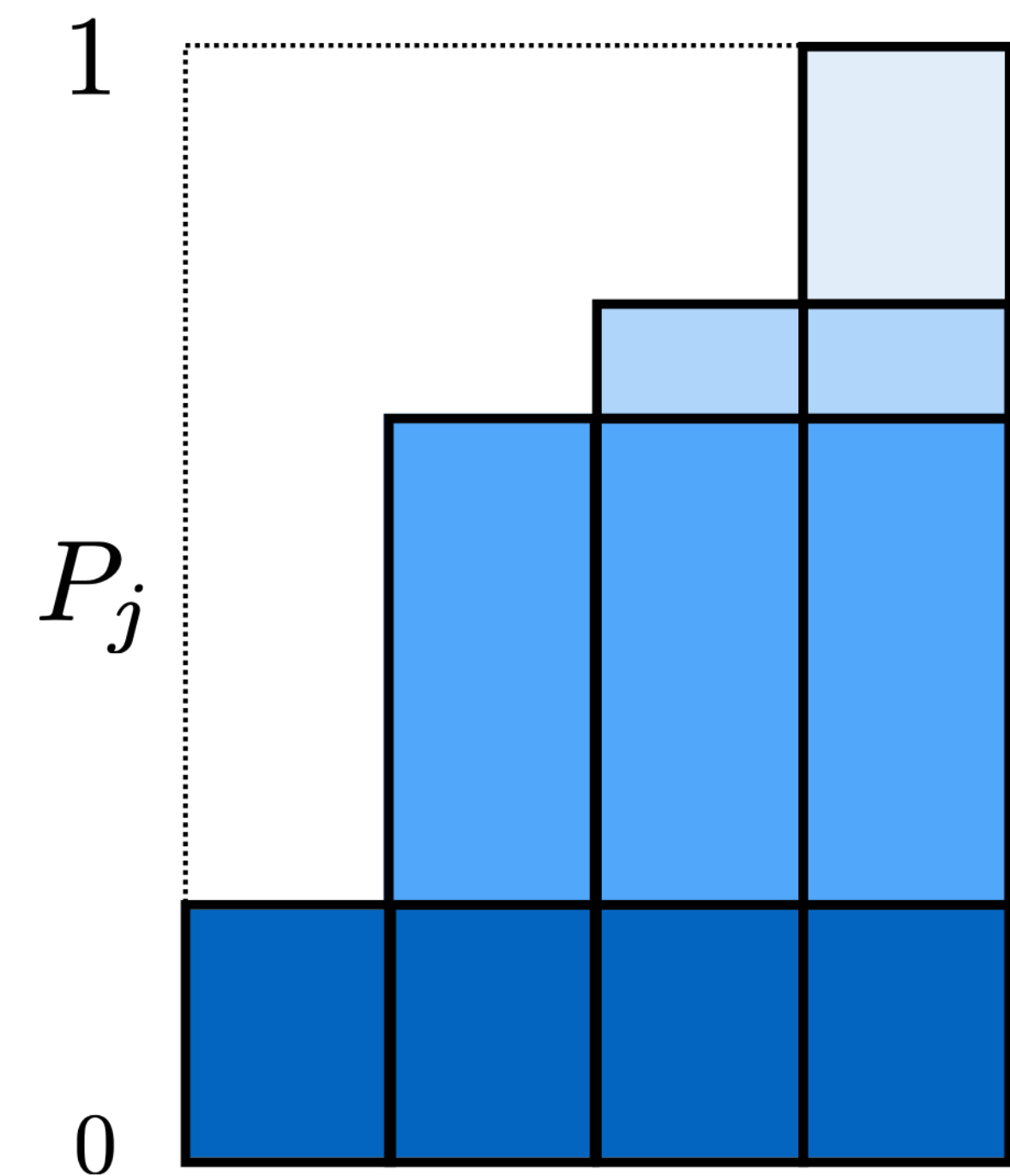
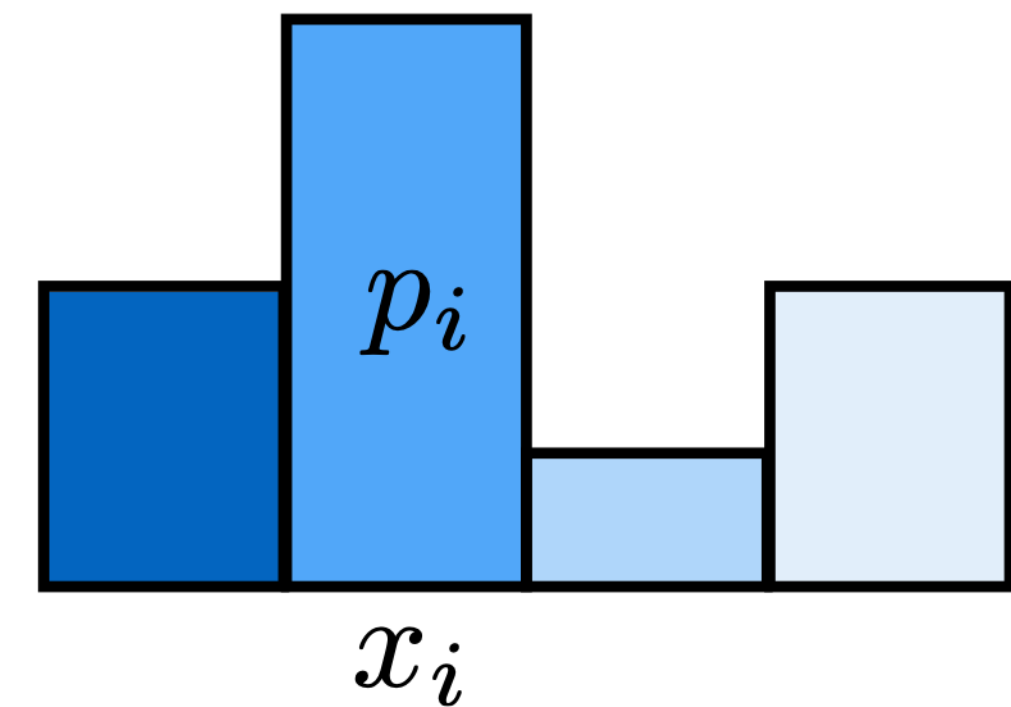


# Cumulative distribution function (CDF)

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

where:  $0 \leq P(i) \leq 1$

$$P_n = 1$$



# Continuous Random Variables

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

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

**Uniform distribution**  
(for random variable  $X$  defined on  $[0,1]$  domain)



# Continuous Random Variables

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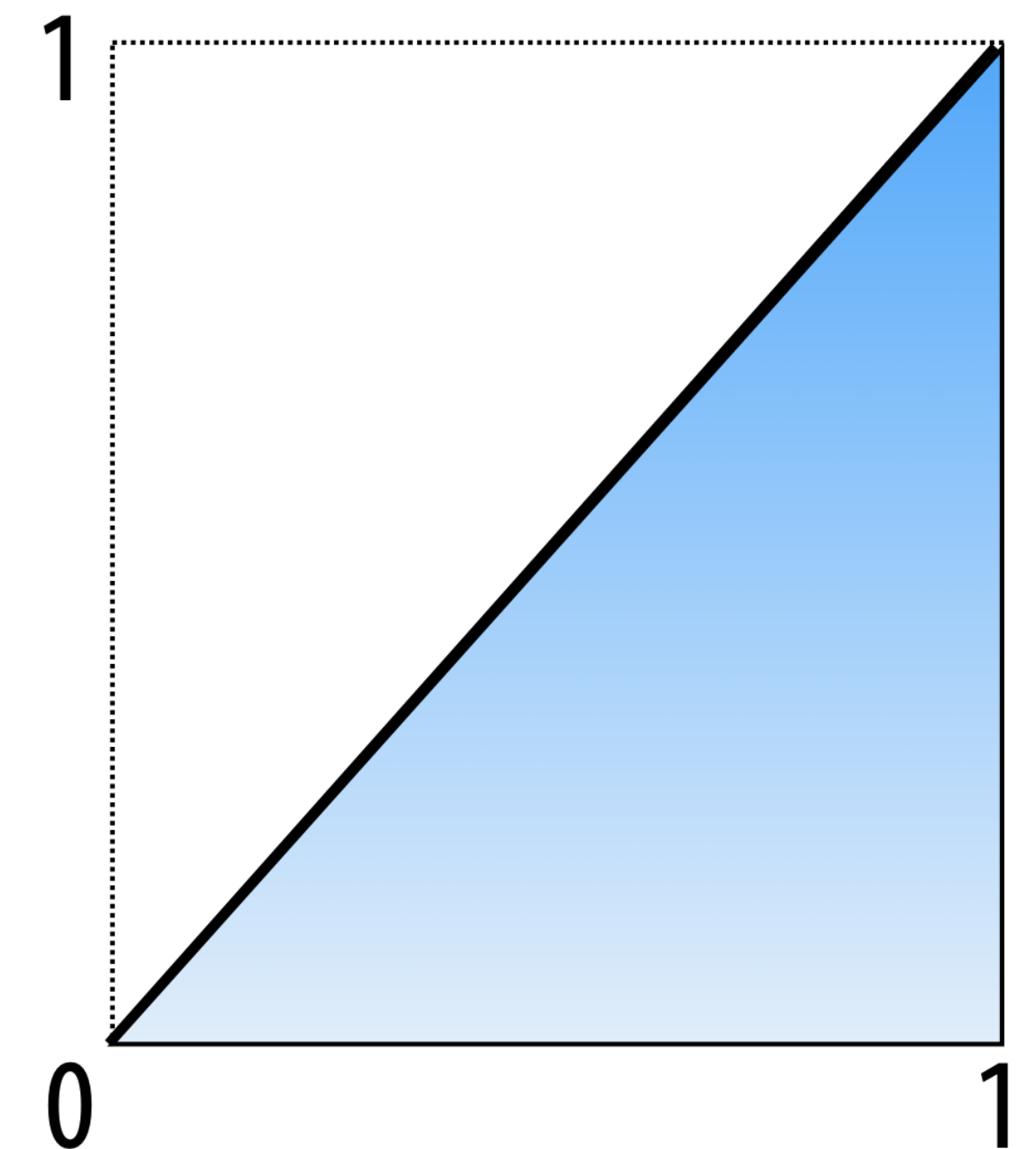
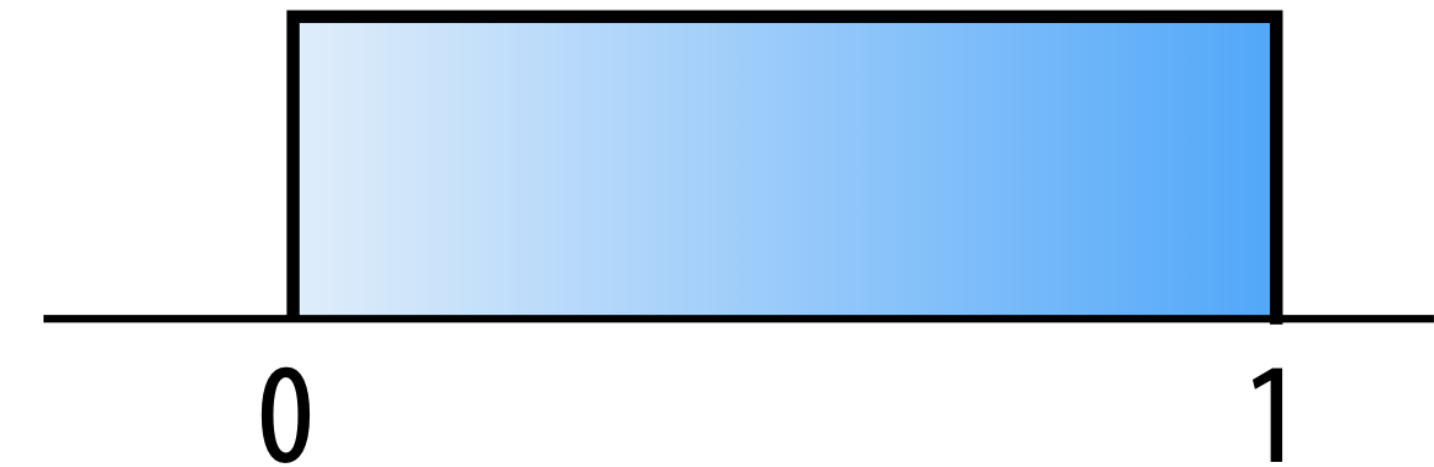
$$P(x) = \int_0^x p(x') \, dx'$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(a \leq X \leq b) &= \int_a^b p(x') \, dx' \\ &= P(b) - P(a) \end{aligned}$$

## Uniform distribution

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



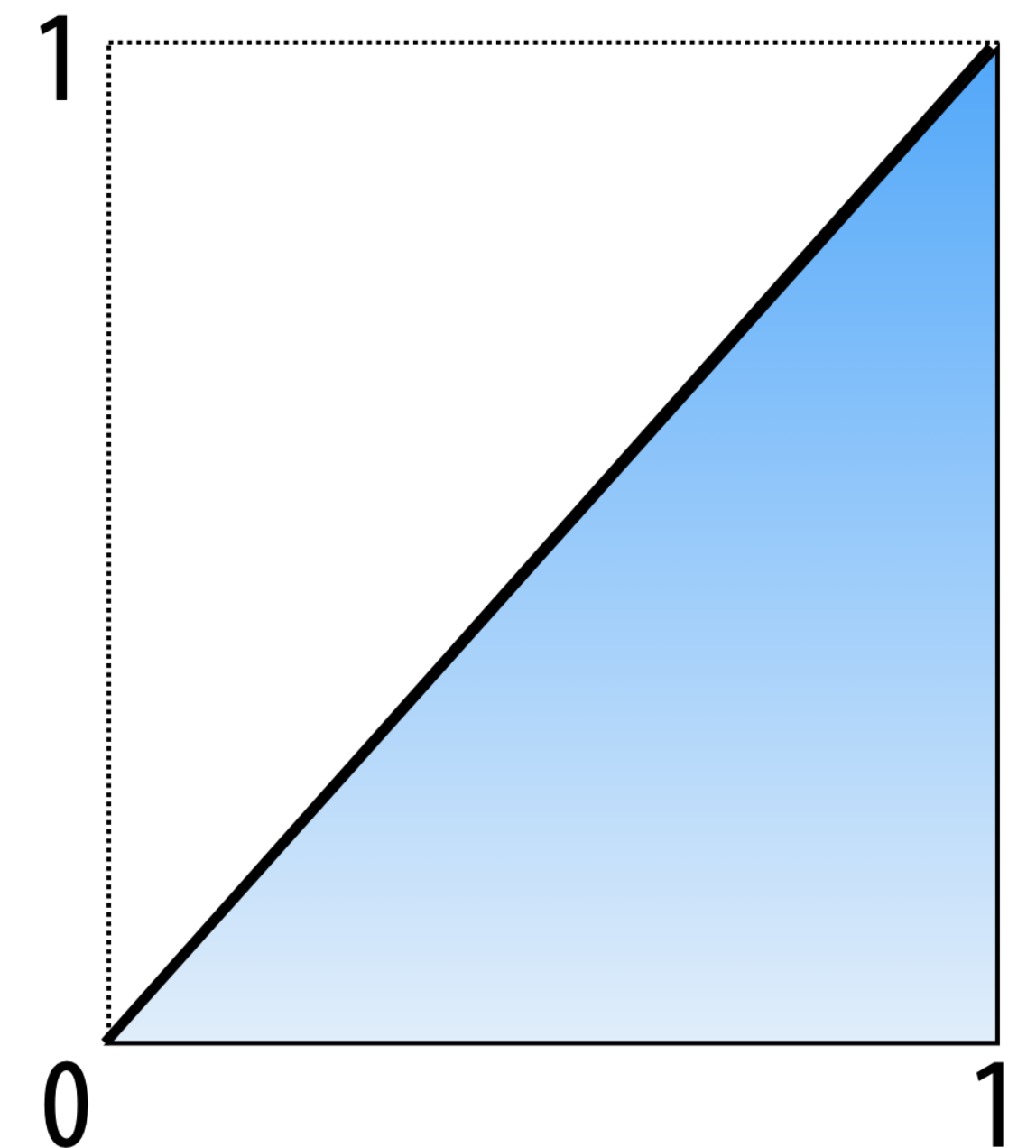
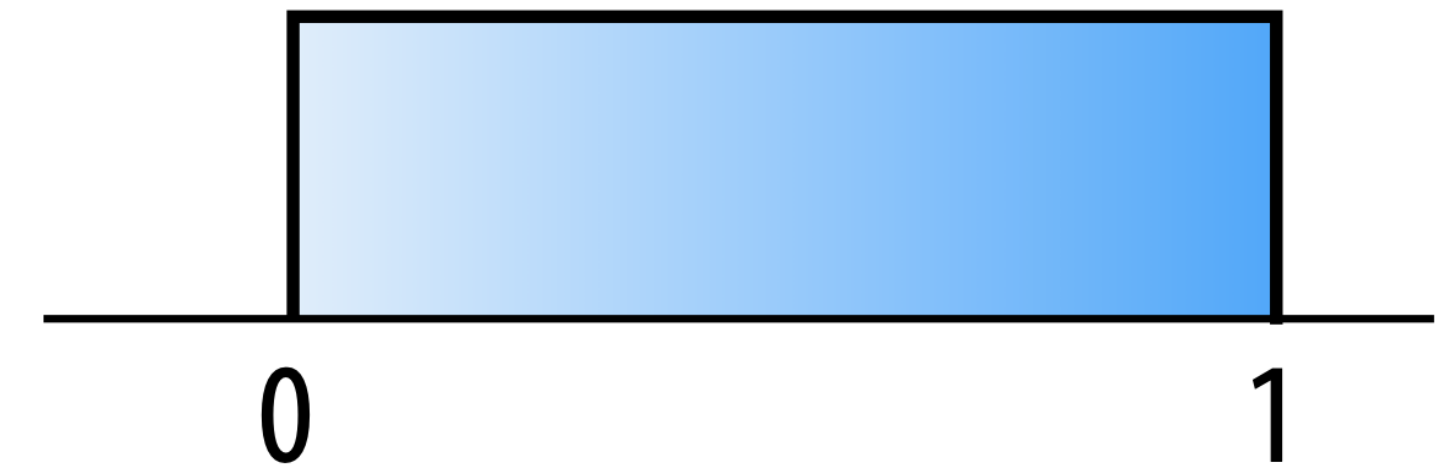


# Continuous Random Variables

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

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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)





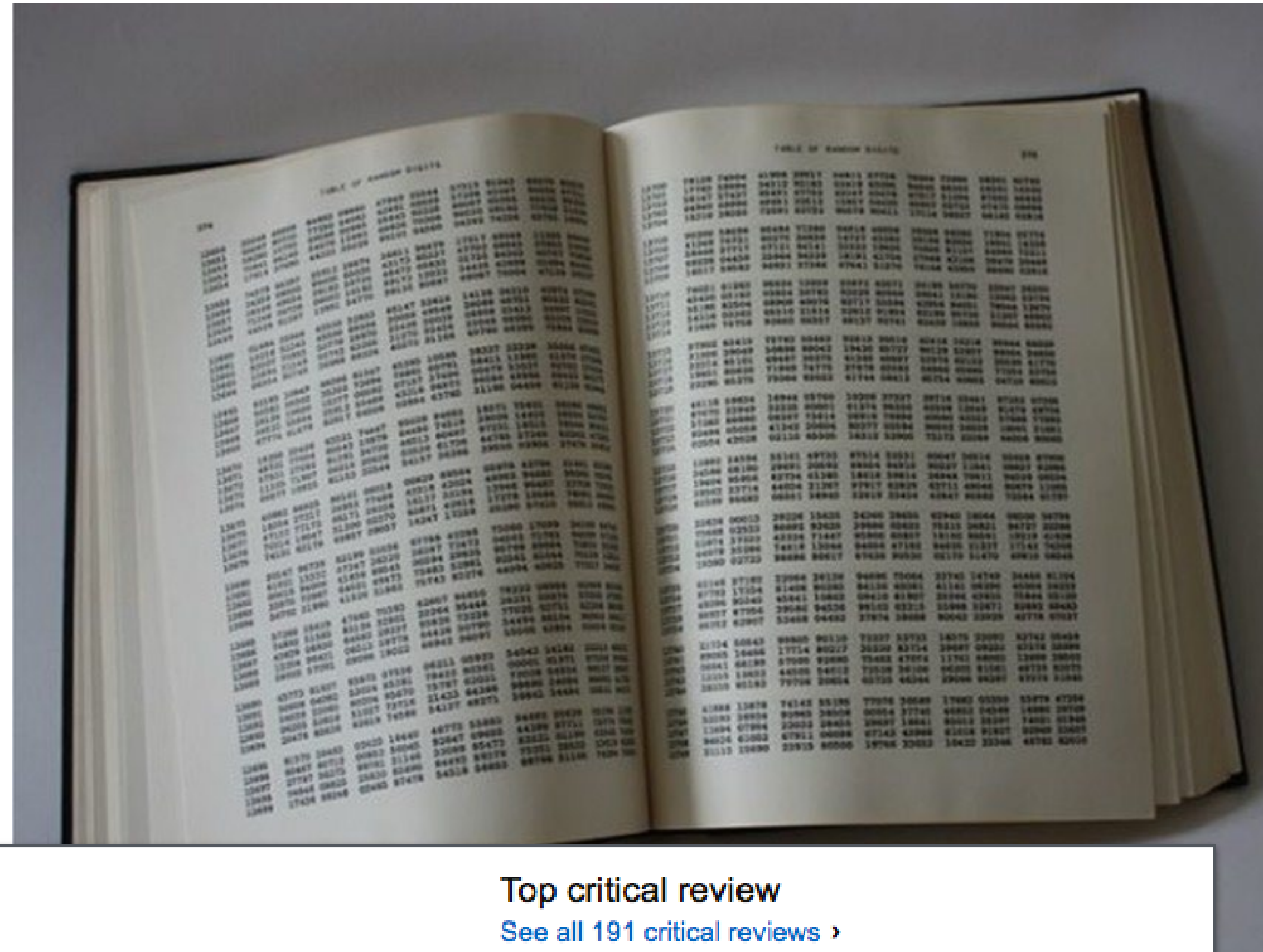
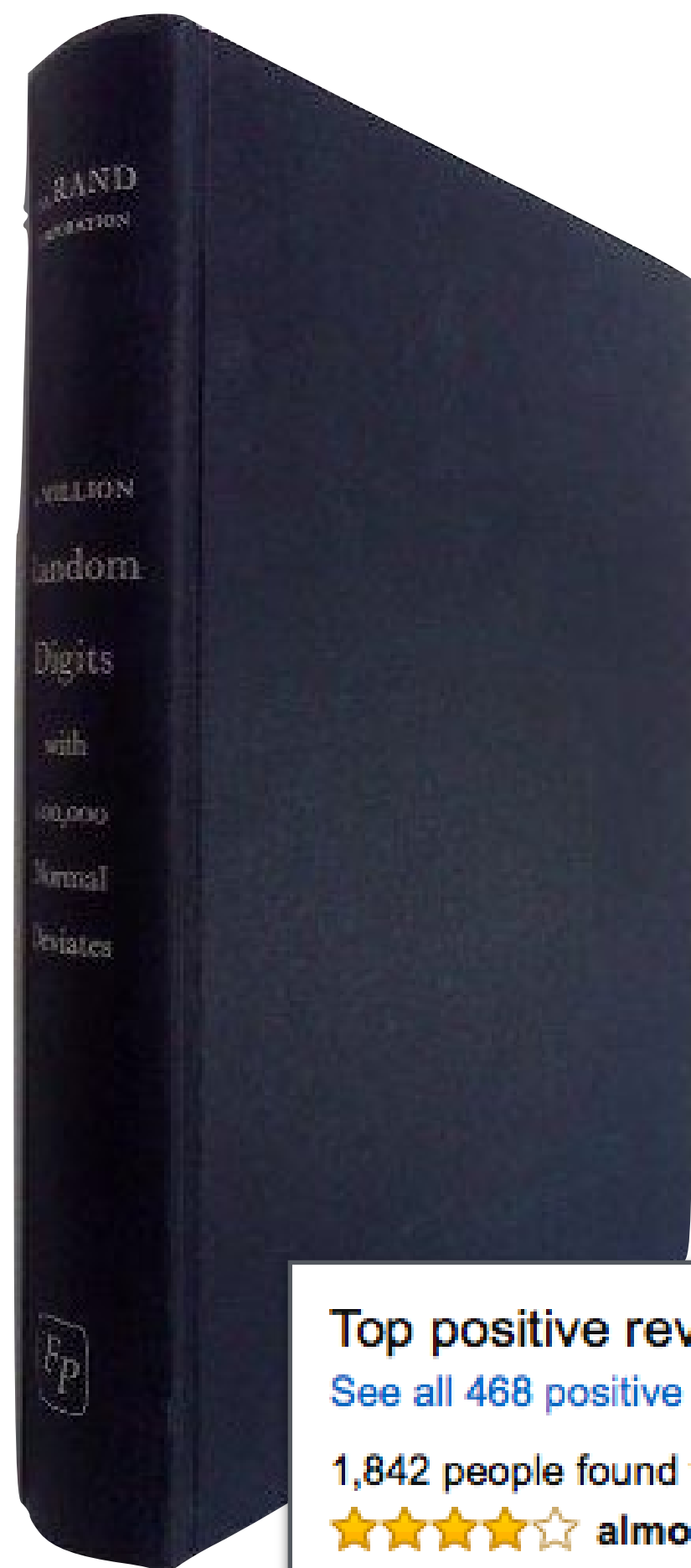
# Sources of randomness

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3.141592653589793238462643383279502884197169399375105820974944592307816406286208998628034825342117067982148086  
51328230664709384460955058223172535940812848111745028410270193852110555964462294895493038196442881097566593344  
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11790429782856475032031986915140287080859904801094121472213179476477726224142548545403321571853061422881375850



# A Million Random Digits



## Top positive review

[See all 468 positive reviews >](#)

1,842 people found this helpful

★★★★☆ almost perfect

By a curious reader on October 26, 2006

Such a terrific reference work! But with so many terrific random digits, it's a shame they didn't sort them, to make it easier to find the one you're looking for.

## Top critical review

[See all 191 critical reviews >](#)

849 people found this helpful

★★★★☆ Wait for the audiobook version

By R. Rosini on October 19, 2006

While the printed version is good, I would have expected the publisher to have an audiobook version as well. A perfect companion for one's Ipod.

# 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));
}
```

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

# Expected value

---

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

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- e.g., consider a fair coin where heads = 1, tails = 0
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## Discrete

expected value of random variable X

number of possible outcomes

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i$$

probability of i-th outcome

value of i-th outcome

The diagram illustrates the formula for the expected value of a discrete random variable,  $E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i x_i$ . Red arrows point from descriptive text to parts of the formula: from 'expected value of random variable X' to  $E[X]$ ; from 'number of possible outcomes' to the upper limit  $n$ ; from 'probability of i-th outcome' to  $p_i$ ; and from 'value of i-th outcome' to  $x_i$ .



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## Discrete

## Continuous

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$$E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) x \, dx$$

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## Properties

$$E[X_1 + X_2] =$$

$$E[aX] =$$

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expected value of random variable  $X$       number of possible outcomes

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## Continuous

$$E[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) x \, dx$$

## Properties

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

$$E[aX] = aE[X]$$

# Variance

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

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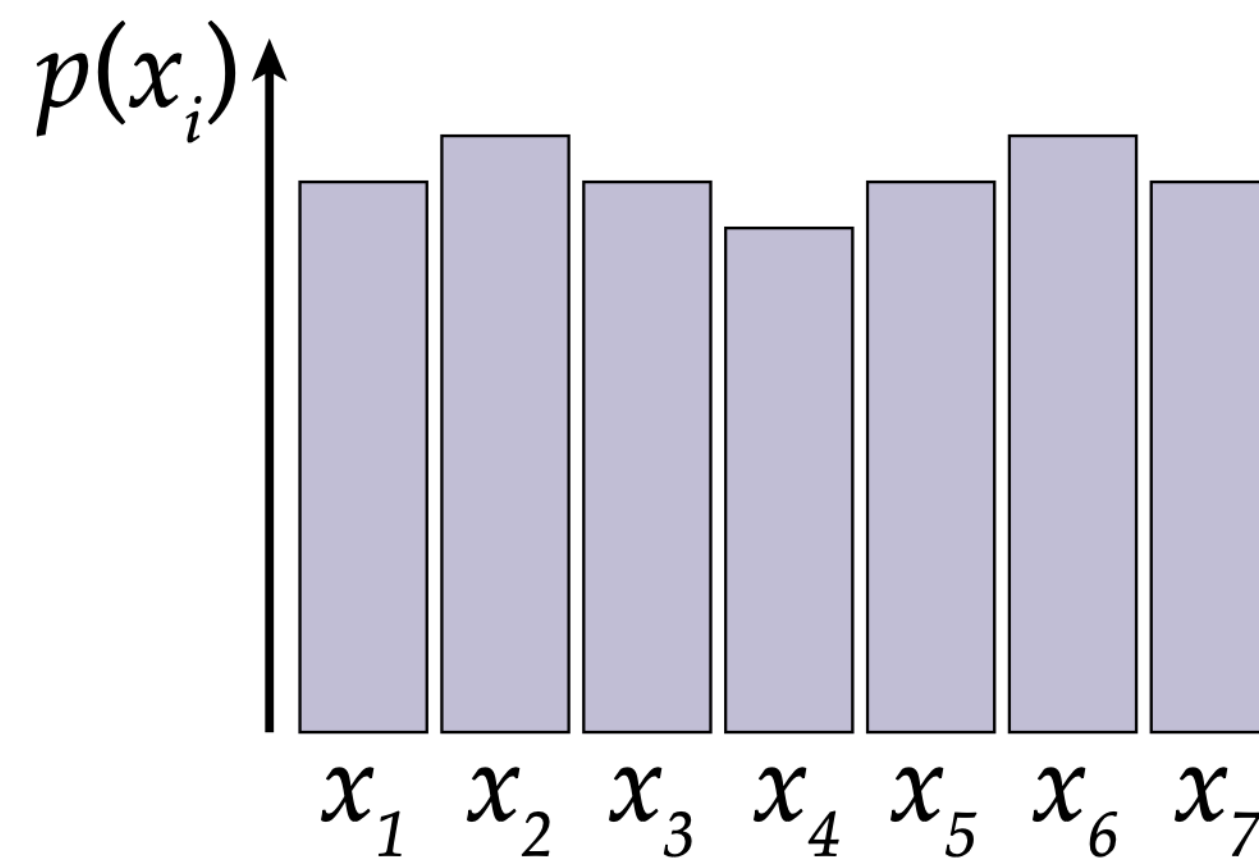
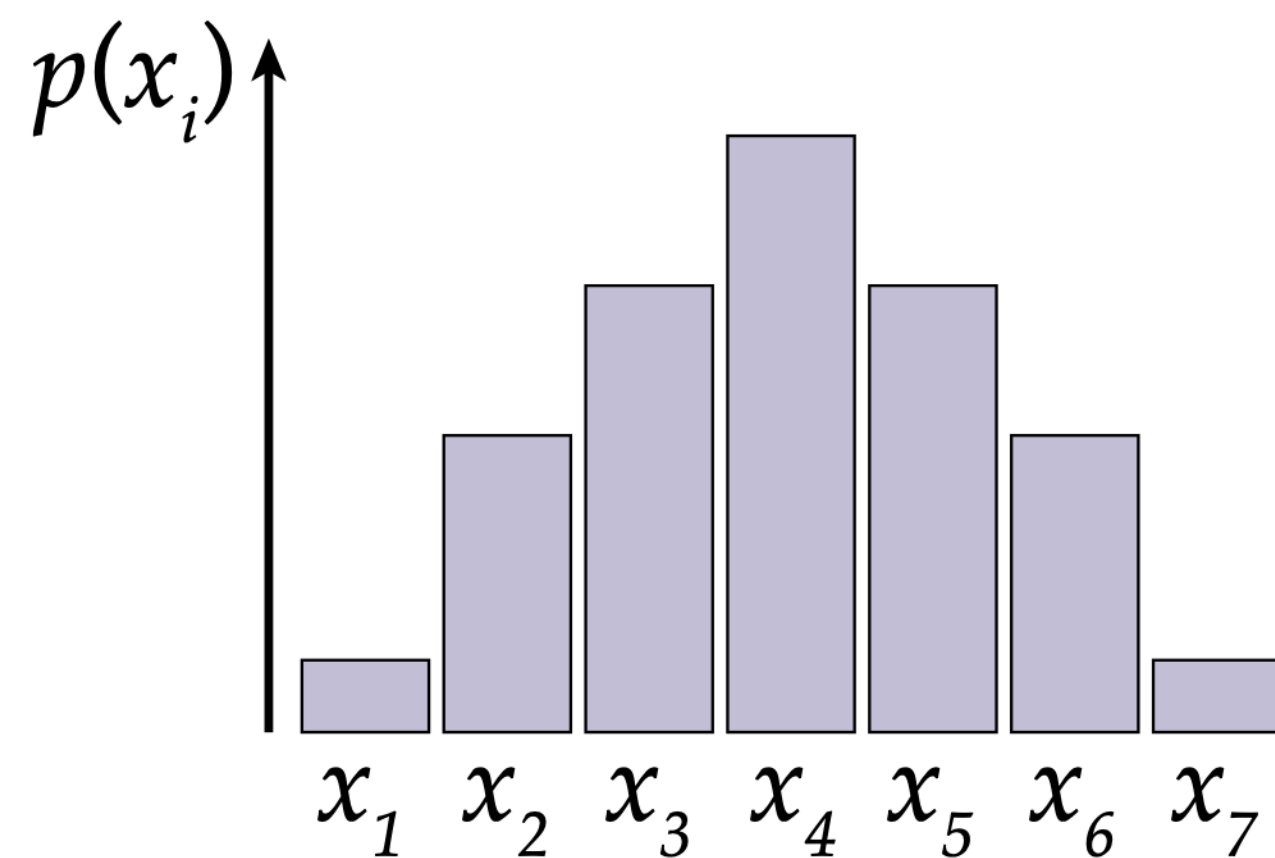
Definition:  $V[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$

# Variance

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**Q: Which of these has higher variance?**

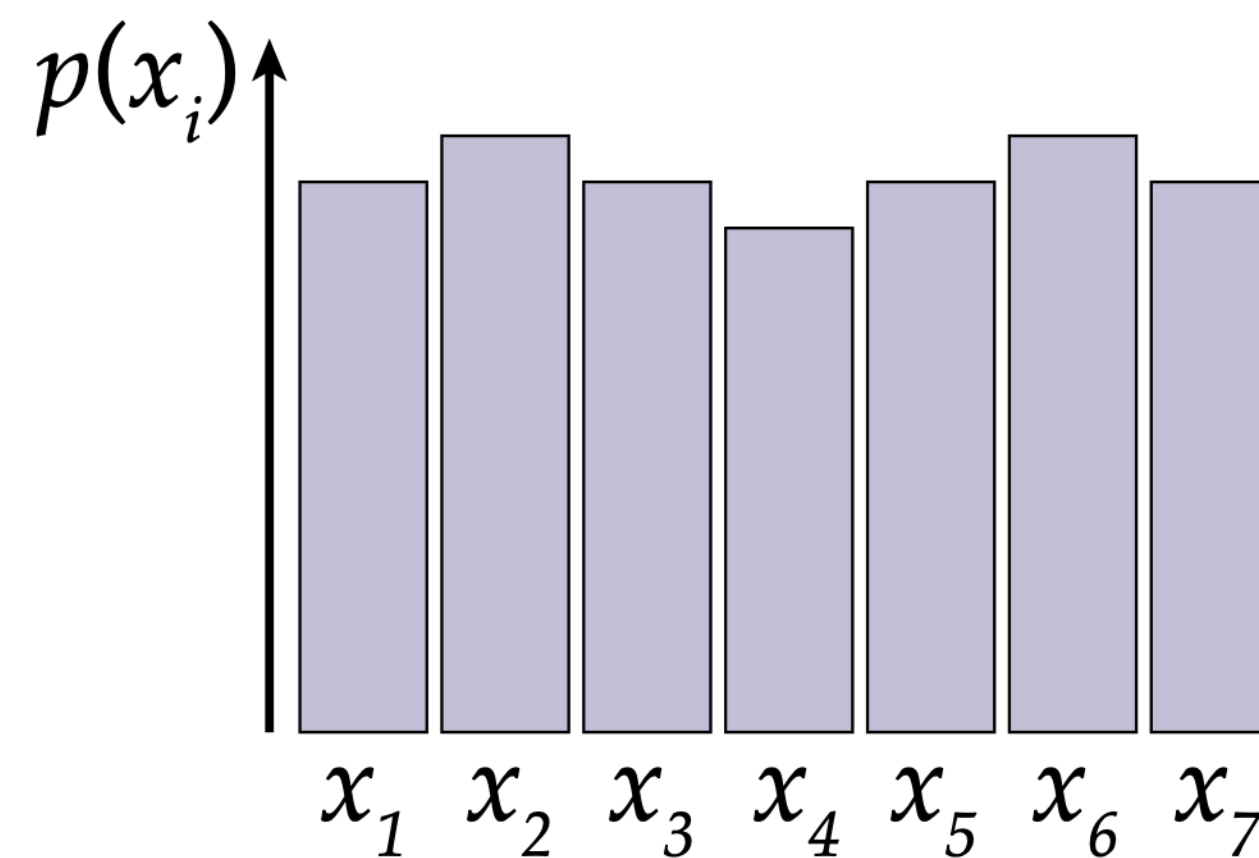
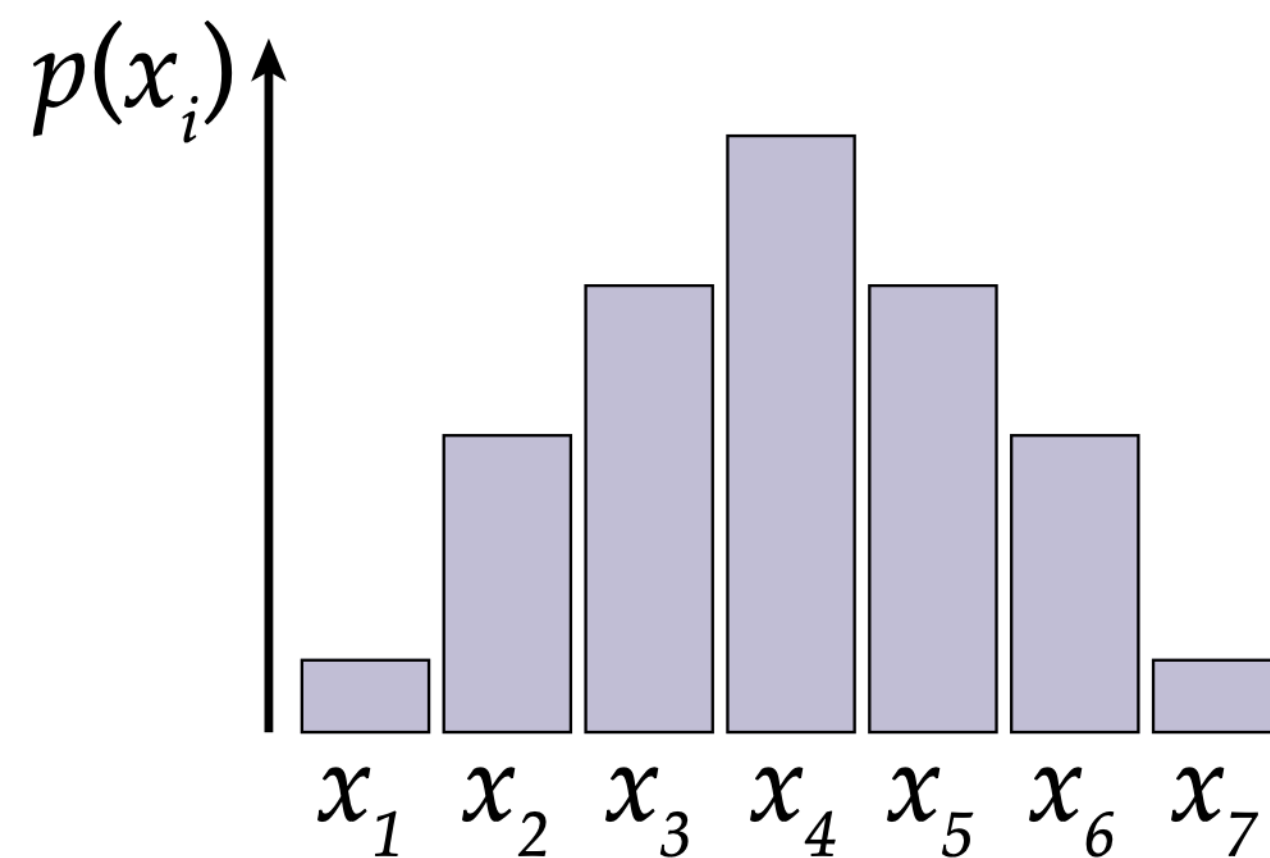


# Variance

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Properties

$$V[X] =$$

$$V[X_1 + X_2] =$$

$$V[aX] =$$

only if uncorrelated!

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

Motivation: want to compute the integral

$$F = \int_D f(x) \, dx$$

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

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



# Monte Carlo Integration

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$$\begin{aligned} E \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(X_i) \right] &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E[f(X_i)] \\ &= E[f(X_i)] \\ &= \int_D f(x) p_{X_i}(x) \, dx \end{aligned}$$

(oops, that's not  
what we wanted!)

Aside: why can we do this?  
Law of the unconscious  
statistician (LOTUS)

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

Motivation: want to compute the integral

$$F = \int_D f(x) \, dx$$

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

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

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

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

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*.

$$\begin{aligned} &= E \left[ \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)} \right] \\ &= \int_D \frac{f(X_i)}{p(X_i)} p(X_i) dx \\ &= \int_D f(X_i) dx = F \end{aligned}$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

Requirement (why?)

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

Domain  $D$  might be: plane, sphere, hemisphere, surface of an object

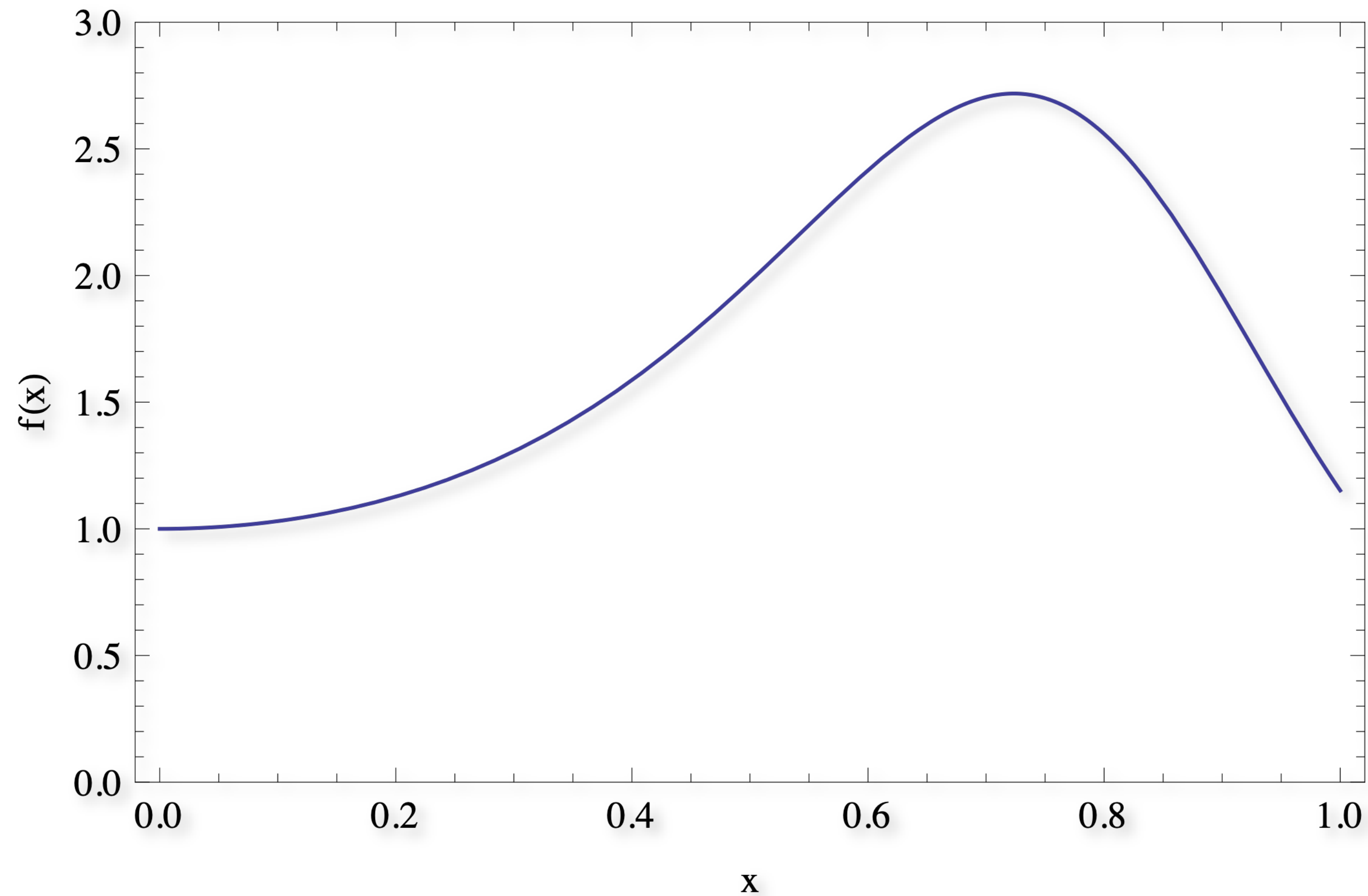
Reasonable default for  $p(x)$ : uniform distribution



# Monte Carlo Integration

---

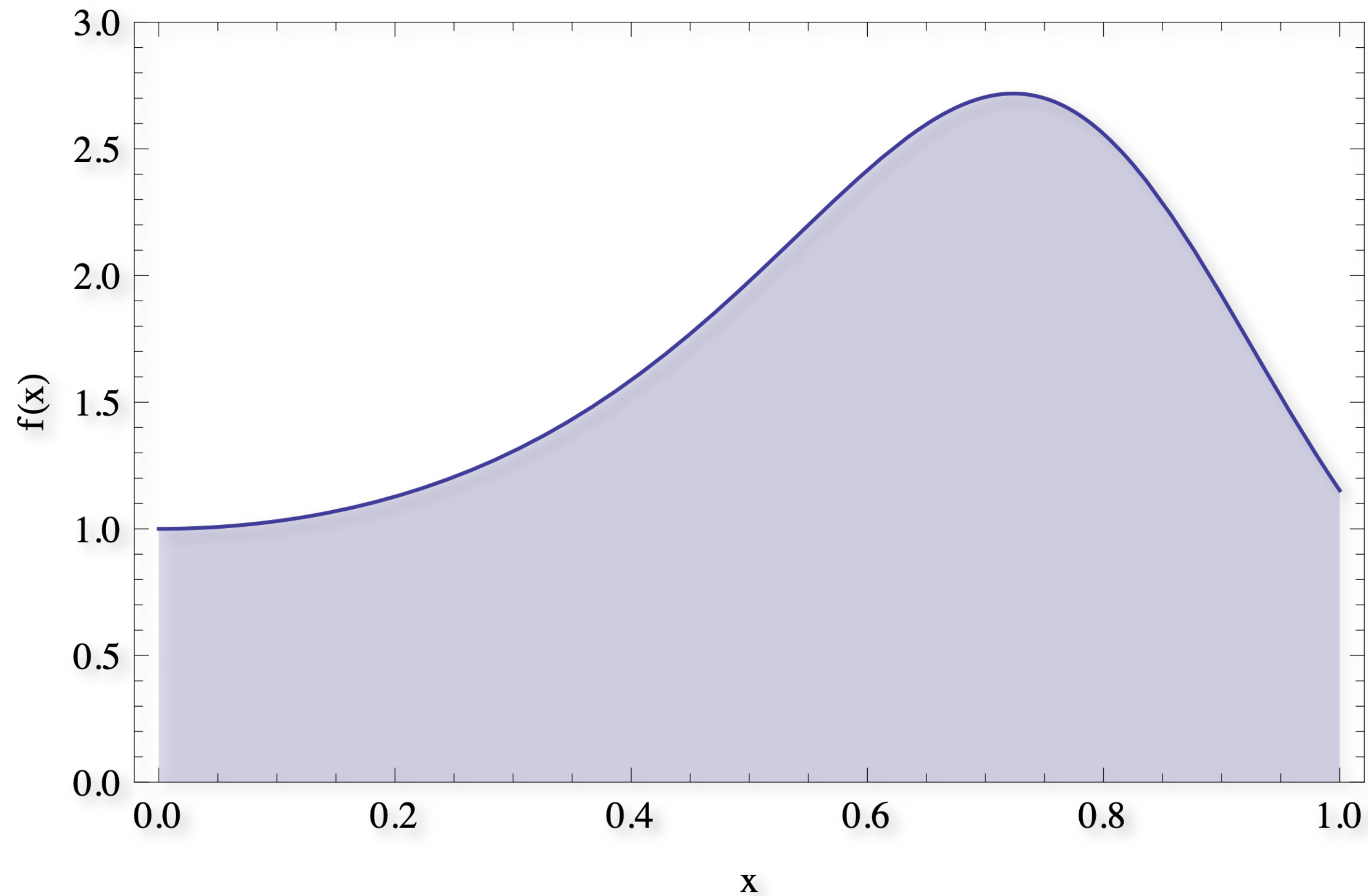
$$f(x) = e^{\sin(3x^2)}$$



# Monte Carlo Integration

---

$$F = \int_0^1 e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx$$



# Monte Carlo Integration

---

$$F = \int_0^1 e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

```
double integrate(int N)
{
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = randf();
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

$p(x_i) = 1$

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

$$F = \int_a^b e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

```
double integrate(int N, double a, double b)
{
    double x, sum=0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < N; ++i) {
        x = randf();
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```



# Monte Carlo Integration

---

$$F = \int_a^b e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

```
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);
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

$$F = \int_a^b e^{\sin(3x^2)} dx \approx F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

```
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);
        sum += exp(sin(3*x*x)) / (1/(b-a));
    }
    return sum / double(N);
}
```

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

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

$N$	$F_N$
1	2.75039
10	1.9893
100	1.79139
1000	1.75146
10000	1.77313
100000	1.77862

**True value: 1.760977217585905...**

# Monte Carlo Integration

---

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

$N$	$F_N$
1	2.75039
10	1.9893
100	1.7989
1000	1.75146
10000	1.77313
100000	1.77862

Remarkable thing about this:  
Dimension doesn't matter

True value: 1.760977217585905...



# Monte Carlo Error

---

$$\begin{aligned} E[\|F_N - F\|^2] &= E[F_N^2 - 2F_N F + F^2] \\ &= E[F_N^2] - E[2F_N F] + E[F^2] \\ &= E[F_N^2] - 2E[F_N]F + F^2 \\ &= E[F_N^2] - 2FF + F^2 \\ &= E[F_N^2] - F^2 \\ &= E[F_N^2] - E[F_N]^2 = V[F_N] \end{aligned}$$

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

# Monte Carlo error

---

Variance:

$$\begin{aligned} V [\langle F^N \rangle] &= V \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{f(X_i)}{\text{pdf}(X_i)} \right] \leftarrow \text{assume uncorrelated samples} \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} V \left[ \frac{f(X_i)}{\text{pdf}(X_i)} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} V [Y_i] \\ &= \frac{1}{N} V [Y] \end{aligned}$$

# Monte Carlo error

Variance:

$$V [\langle F^N \rangle] = V \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \frac{f(X_i)}{\text{pdf}(X_i)} \right] \leftarrow \text{assume uncorrelated samples}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} V \left[ \frac{f(X_i)}{\text{pdf}(X_i)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} V [Y_i]$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} V [Y]$$

What happens if  
samples are correlated?

Std. deviation:  $\sigma [\langle F^N \rangle] = \boxed{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sigma [Y]}$

- Error scaling is independent of dimensionality!
- Error converges to zero as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .
- This property is called *consistency*.

# Unbiasedness and consistency

---

Both are desirable, but different, properties of an estimator.

- An estimator can be consistent but not unbiased.

Unbiasedness: You can reduce error by averaging rendered images from independent finite-sample rendering runs. As the number of images grows infinite, the error goes to zero.

Consistency: You can reduce error by increasing the number of samples in a single rendering run. As the number of samples grows infinite, the error goes to zero.



# Monte Carlo Methods

---

## Pros

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

## Cons

- Variance (noise)
- "Slow" convergence\* [but independent of dimension, so it's actually pretty fast at higher dimensions]

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

# Monte Carlo Integration Summary

---

Goal: evaluate integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

Random variable  $X_i \sim p(x)$

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

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

# 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

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

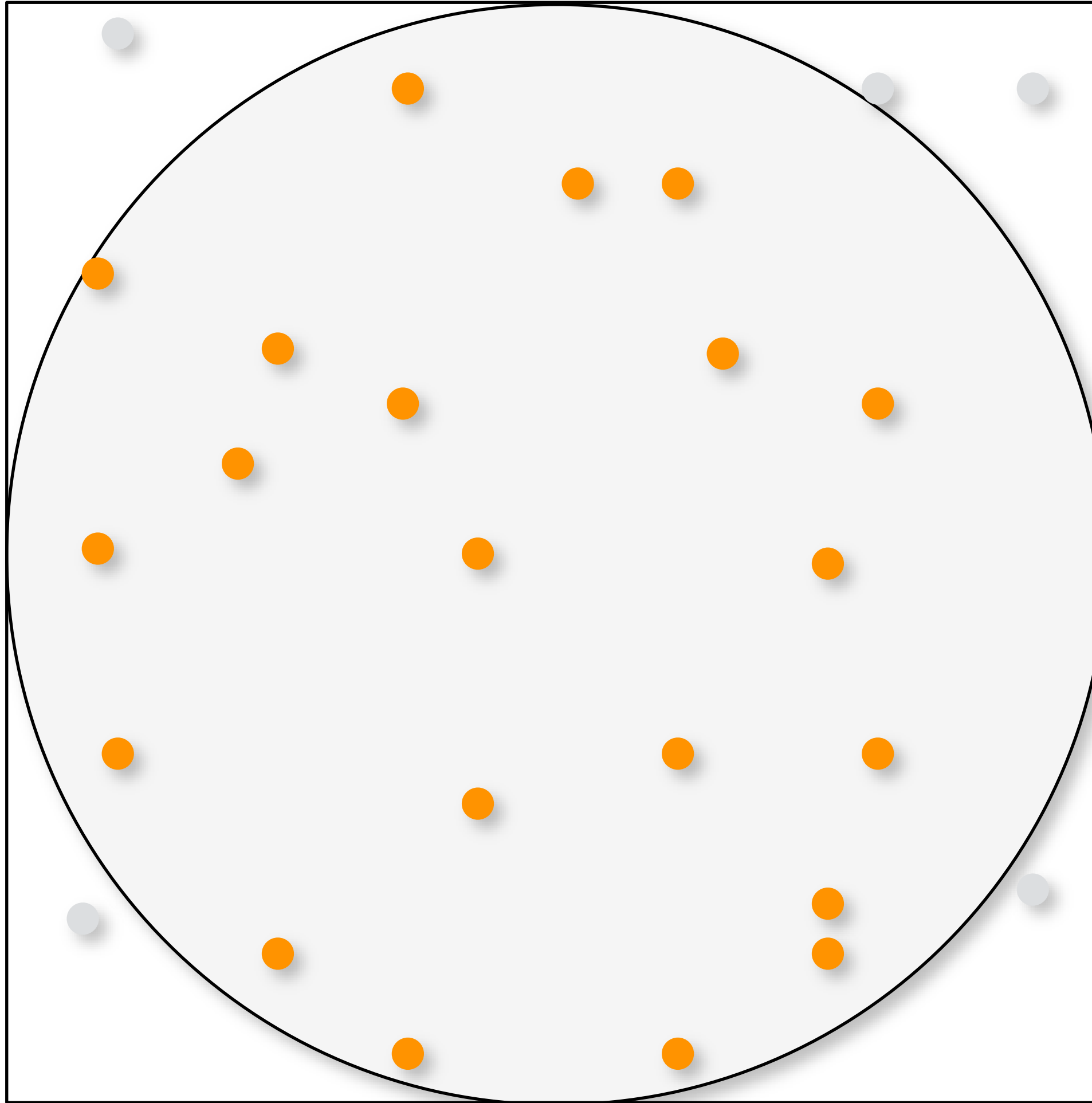
Goal: draw samples  $X_i, Y_i$  that are distributed as:

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

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



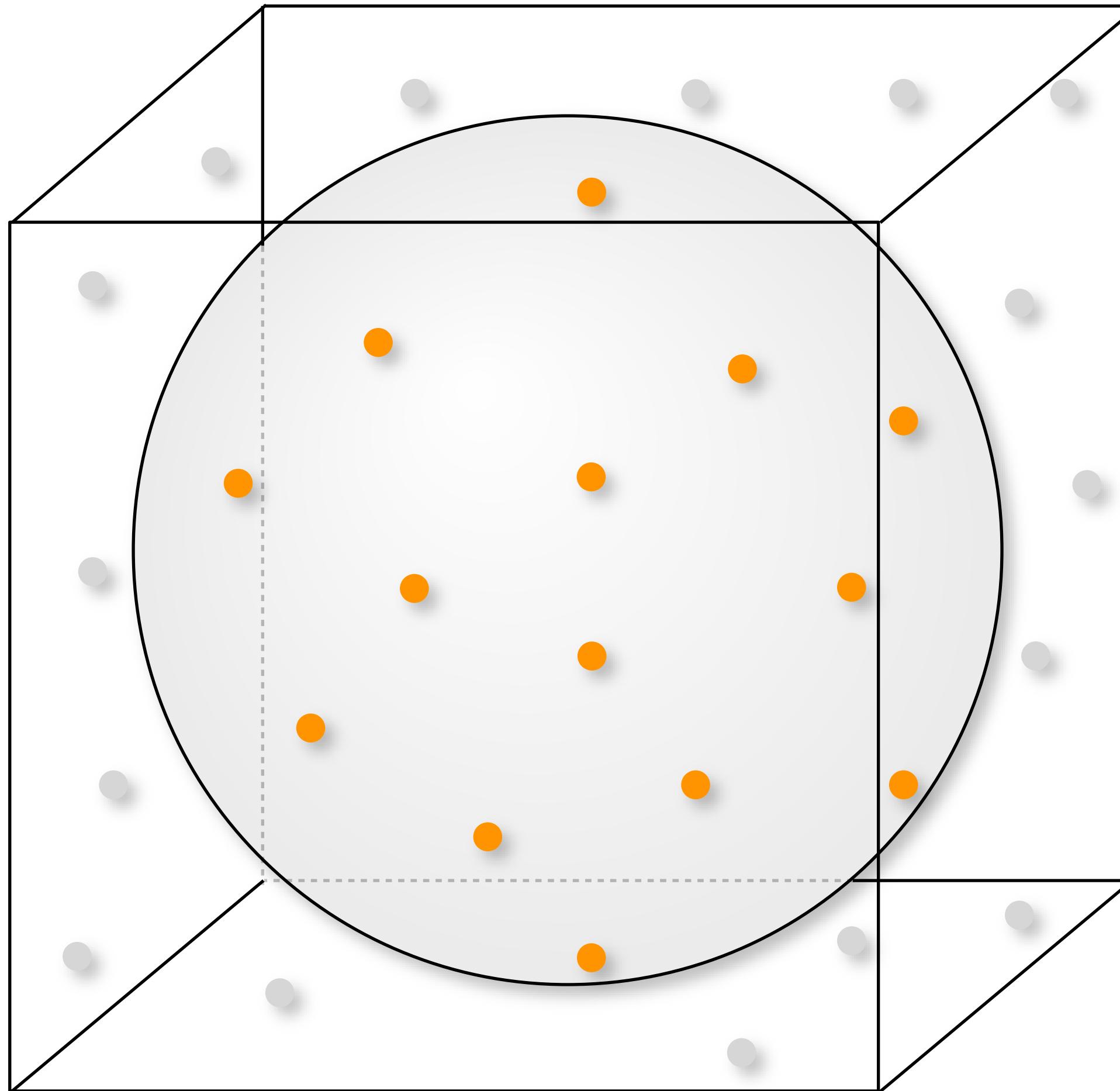
# Rejection Sampling in a Disk



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

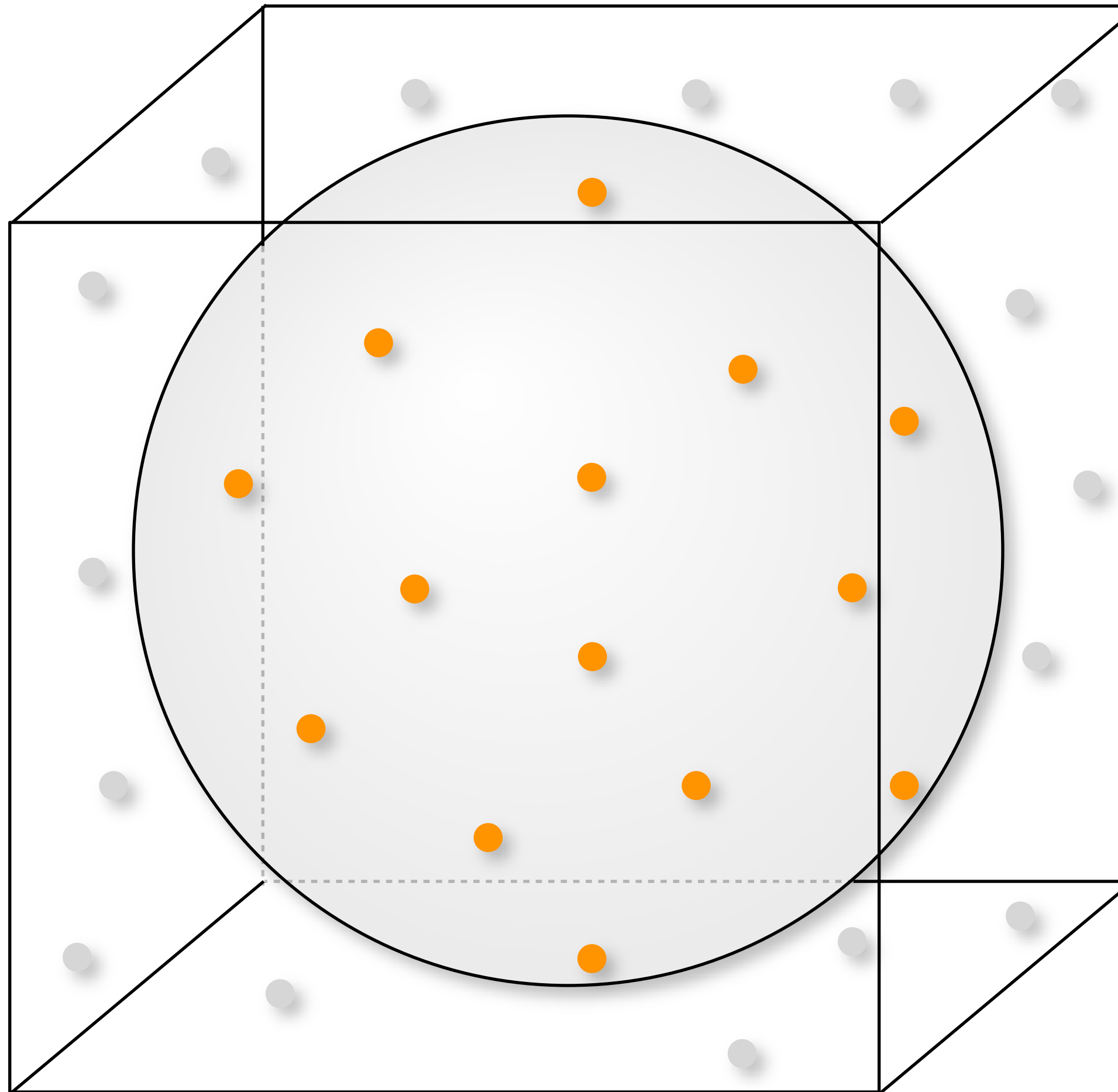
- Similar technique for sampling a sphere

# Rejection Sampling in a Sphere



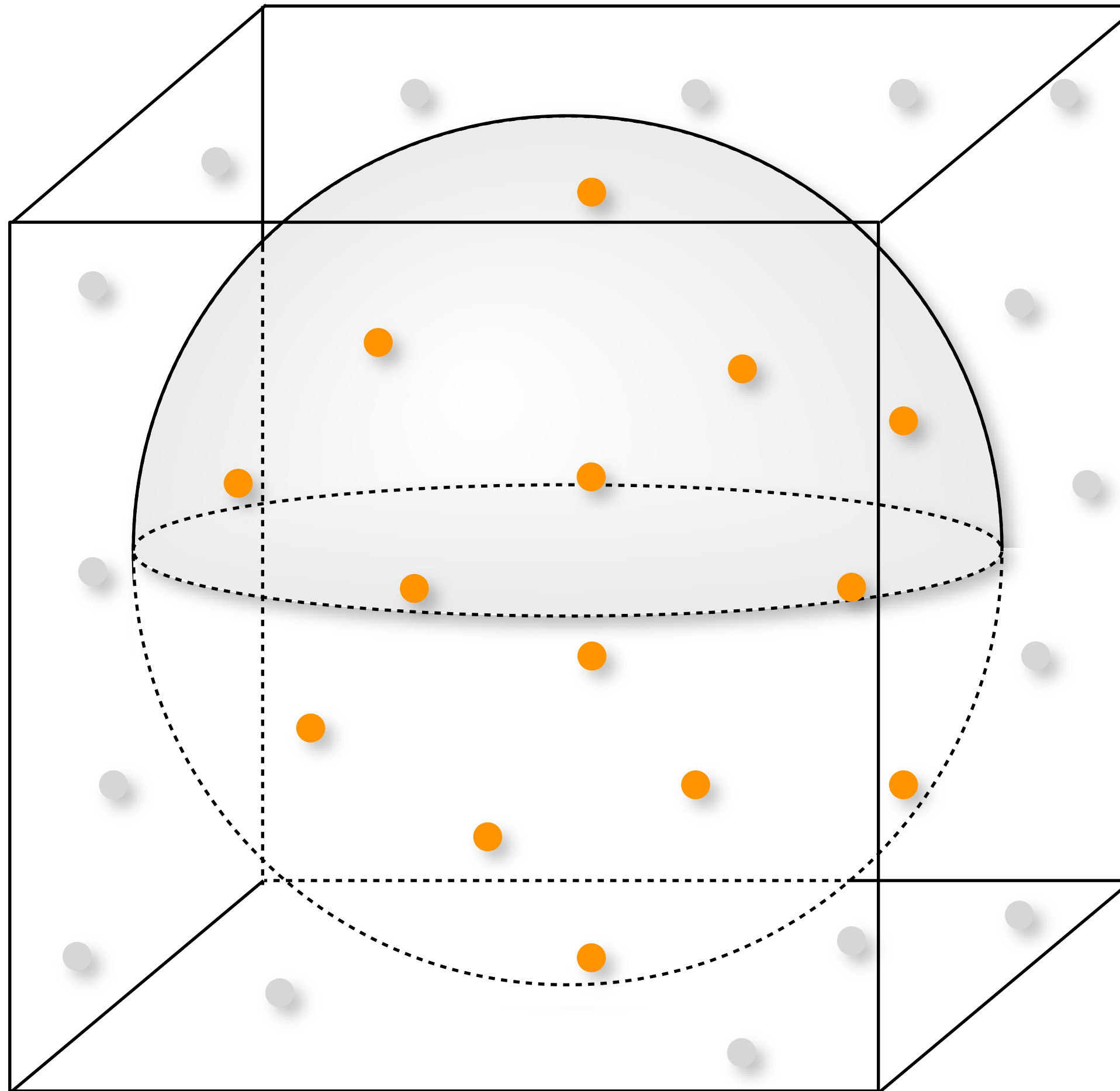
```
Vector3 v;  
do  
{  
    v.x = 1-2*randf();  
    v.y = 1-2*randf();  
    v.z = 1-2*randf();  
} while(dot(v,v) > 1)
```

# Rejection Sampling on a Sphere



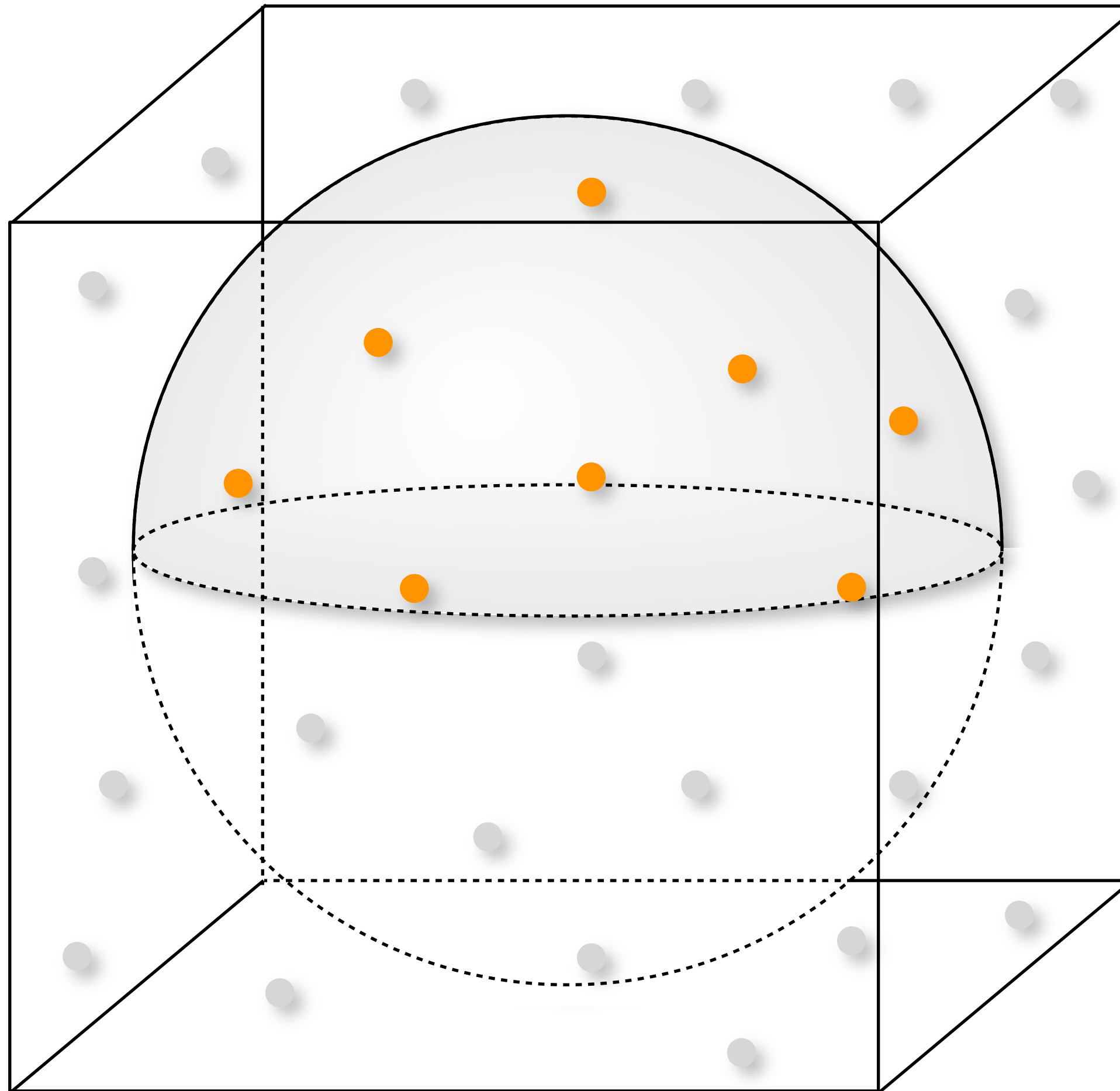
```
Vector3 v;  
do  
{  
    v.x = 1-2*randf();  
    v.y = 1-2*randf();  
    v.z = 1-2*randf();  
} while(dot(v,v) > 1)  
  
// Project onto sphere  
v = v/length(v);
```

# Rejection Sampling a Hemisphere



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

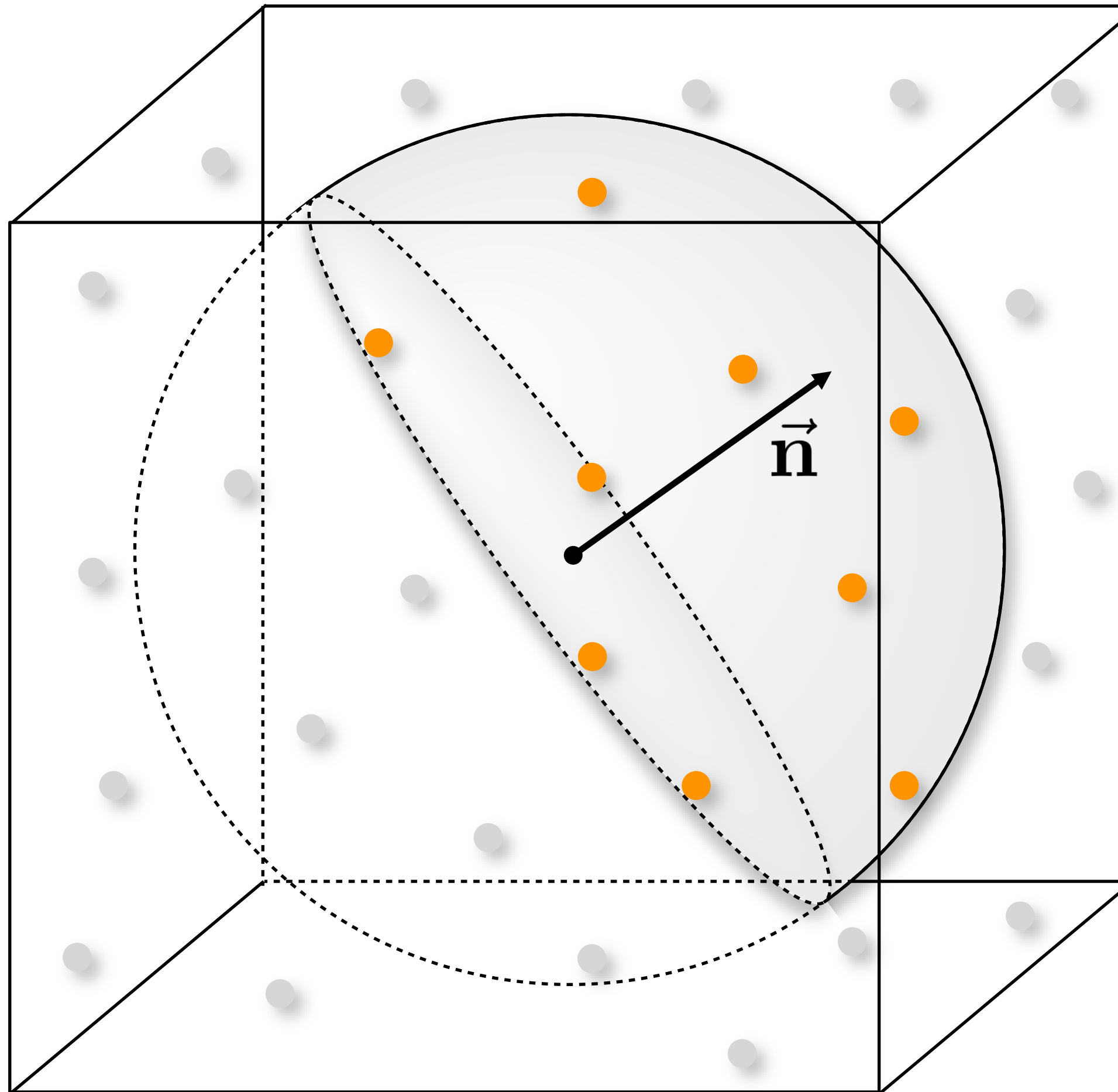
# Rejection Sampling a Hemisphere



```
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)
```



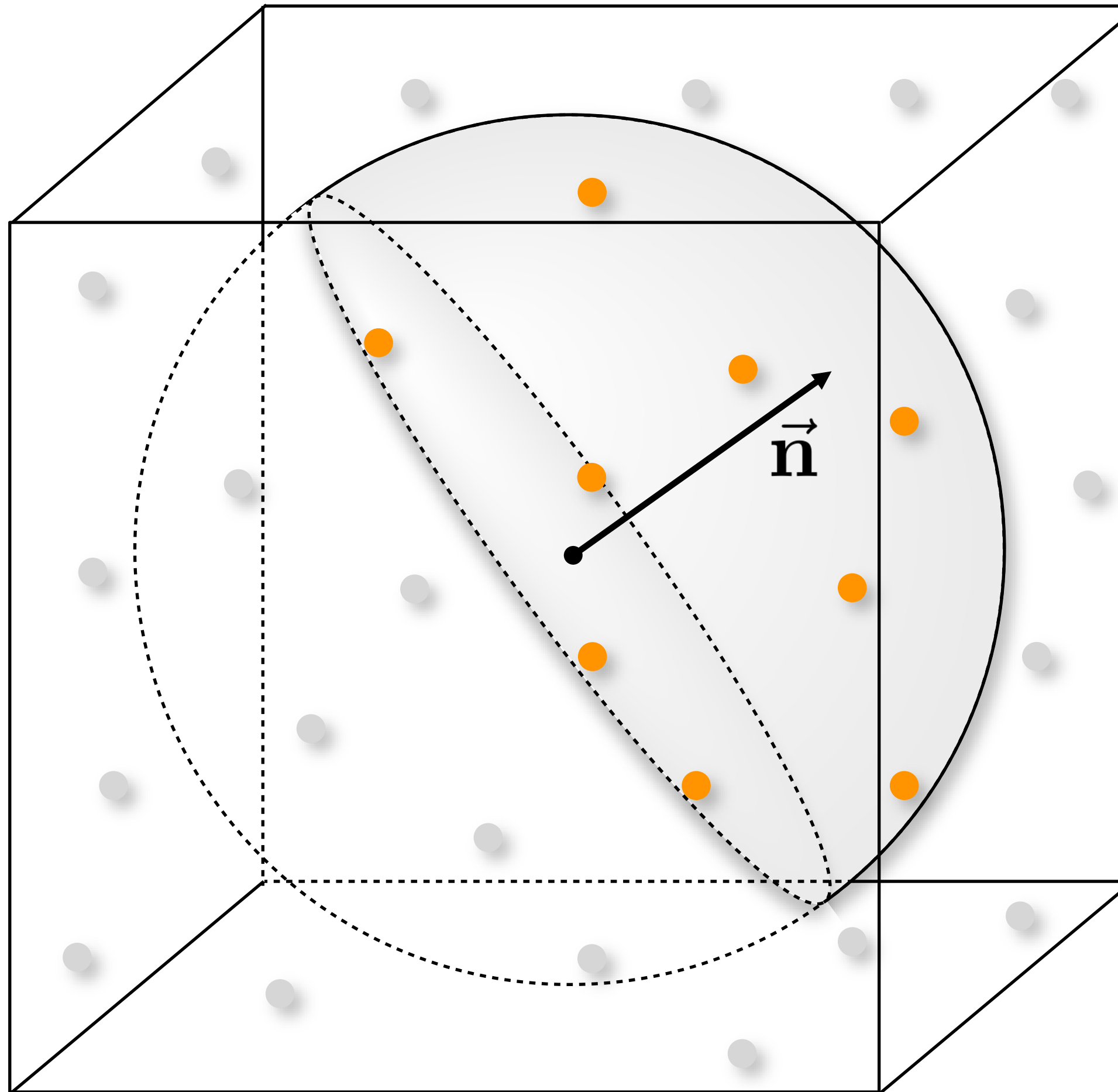
# Rejection Sampling a Hemisphere



```
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)
```

- Arbitrary orientation?

# Rejection Sampling a Hemisphere

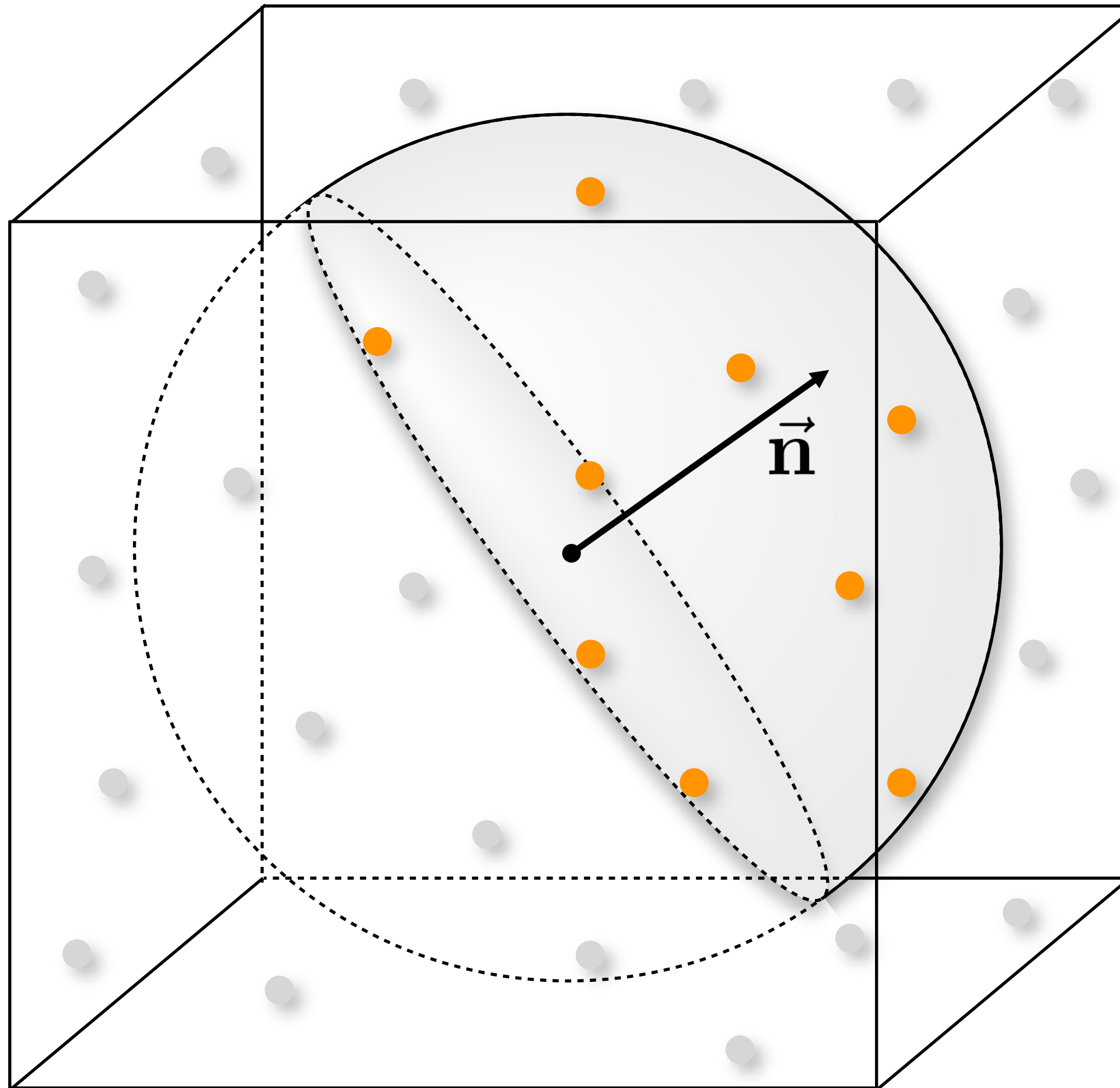


```
Vector3 v;  
do  
{  
    v.x = 1-2*randf();  
    v.y = 1-2*randf();  
    v.z = 1-2*randf();  
} while(dot(v,v) > 1 ||  
        dot(v,n) < 0)
```

- Arbitrary orientation?

# Rejection Sampling a Hemisphere

---



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

# Rejection Sampling

---

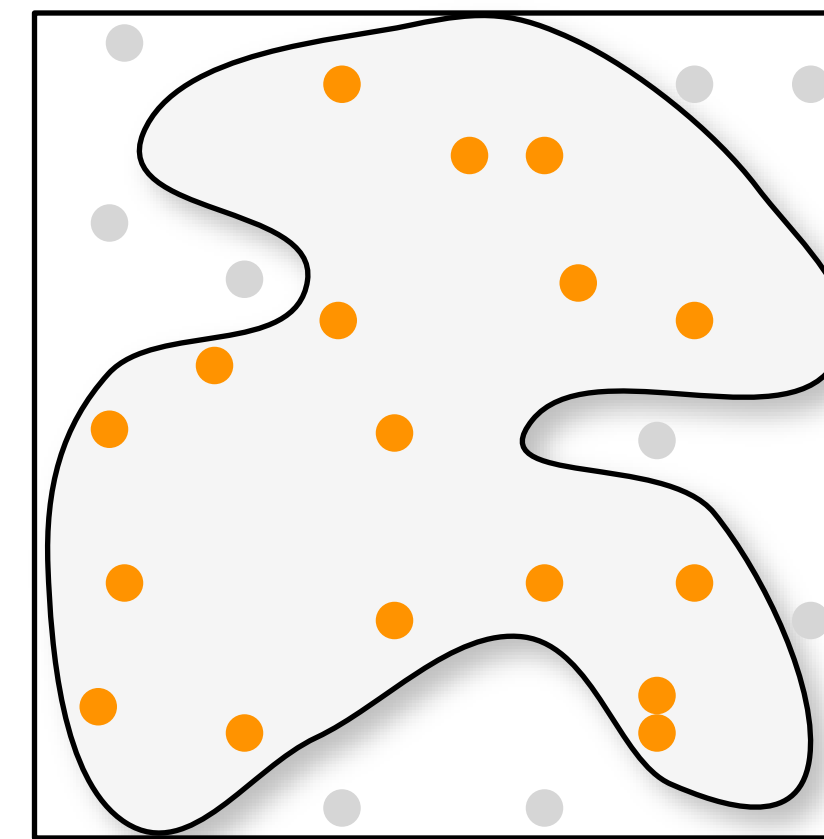
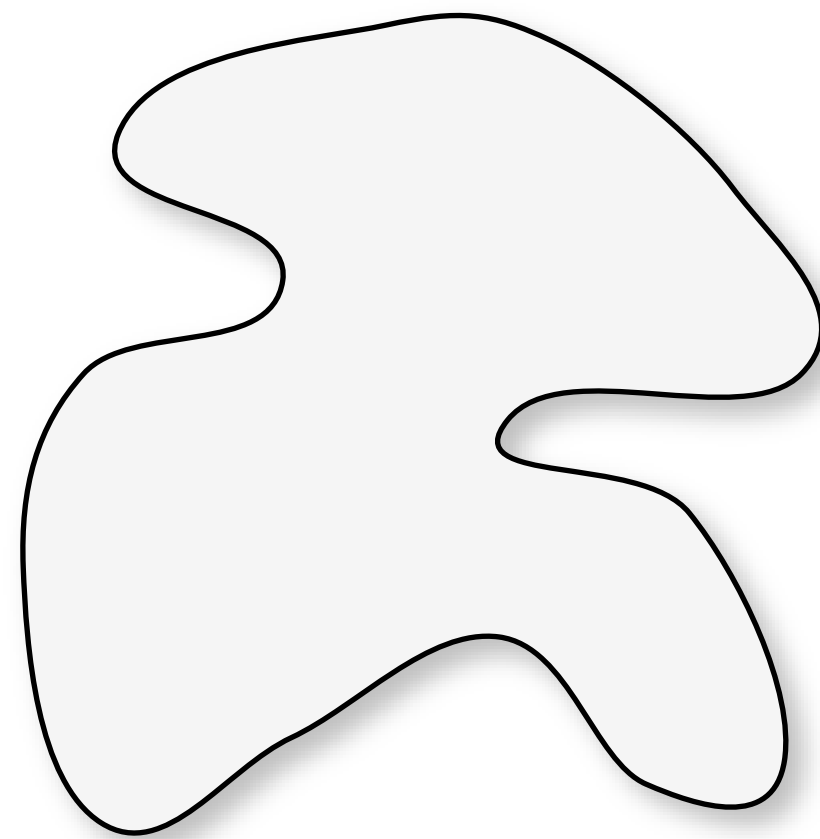
More complex shapes

Pros:

- Flexible

Cons:

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

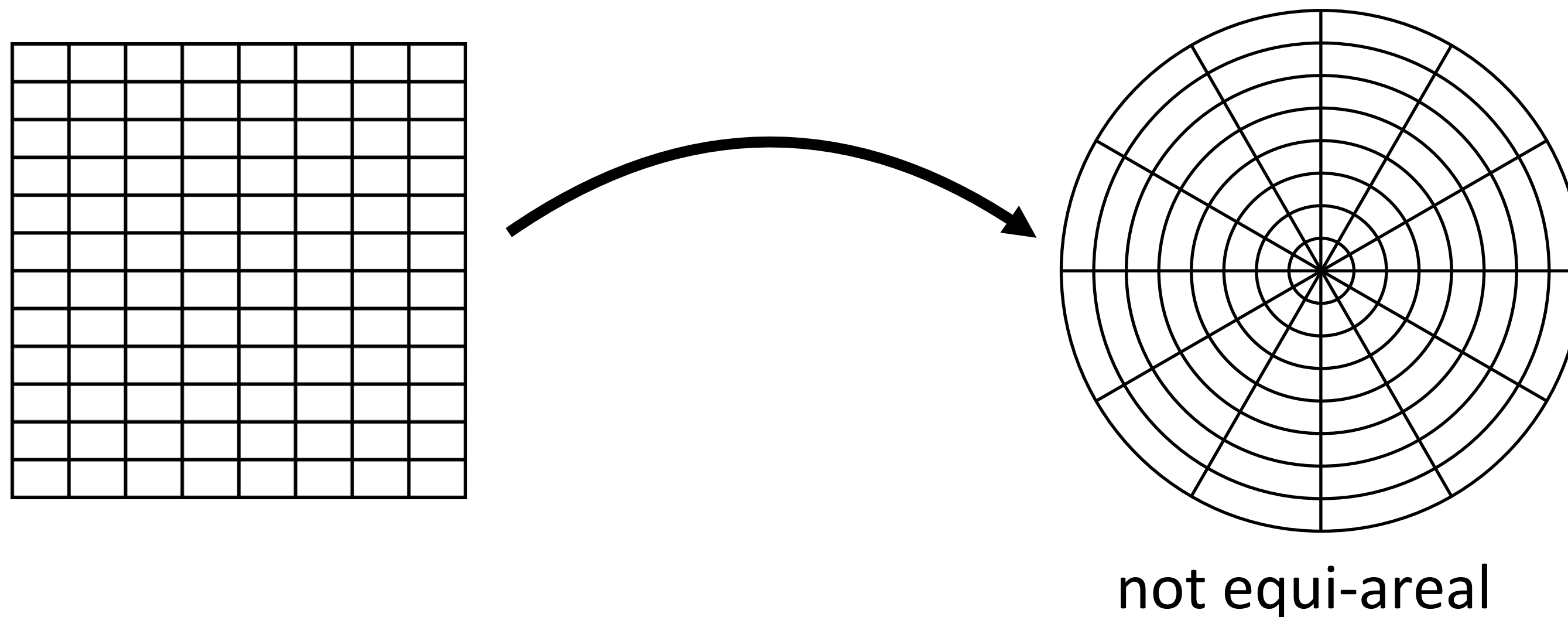


# Directly sampling a disk?

---

Idea: transform samples to polar coordinates:

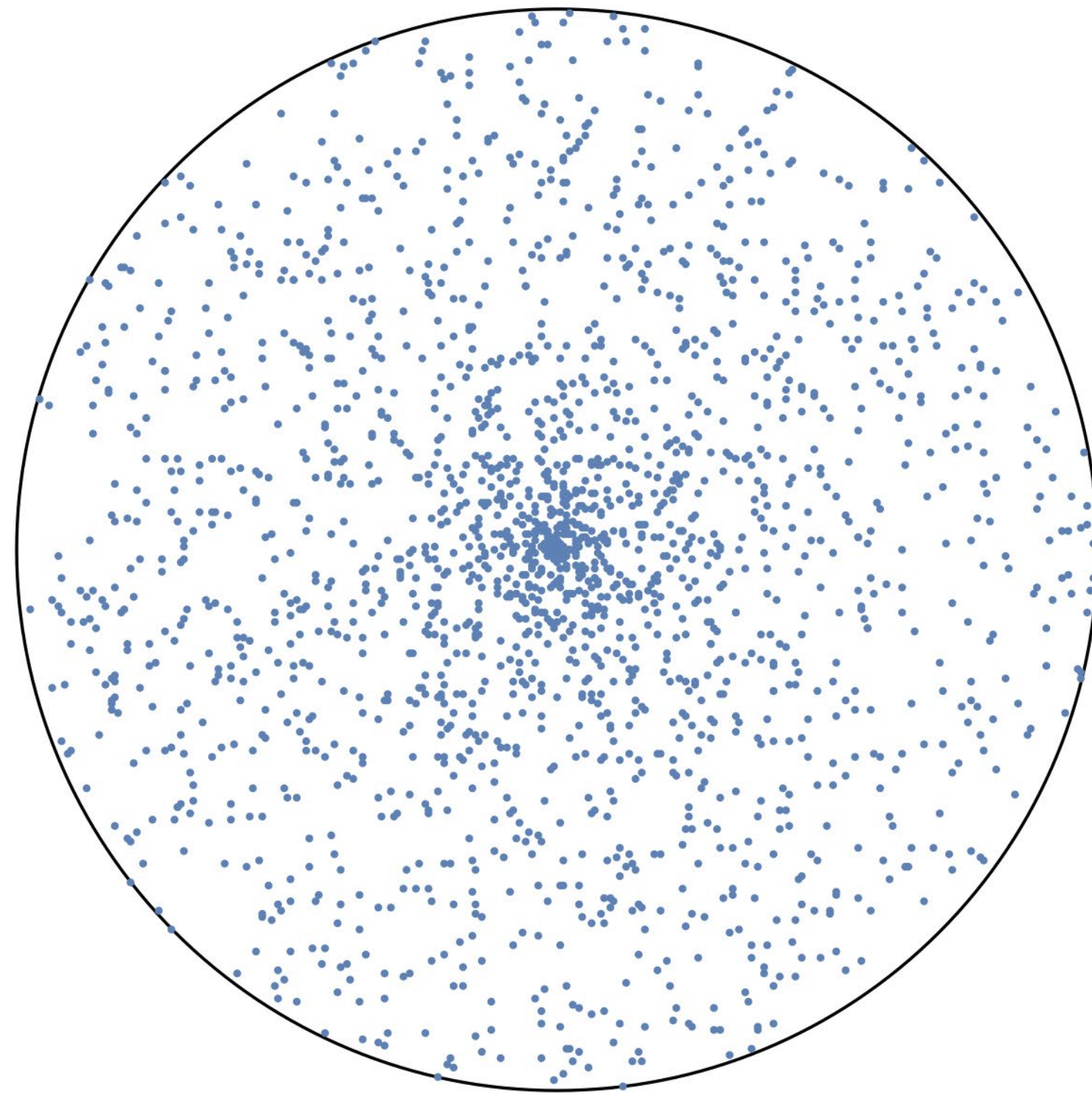
- pick two uniform random variables  $\xi_1, \xi_2$
- select point at  $(r, \phi)$  with  $r = \xi_1$  and  $\phi = 2\pi\xi_2$
- This algorithm **does not** produce the desired uniform sampling of the disk.  
Why?





**Wrong!**

Samples are uniform in  $(\theta, r)$ ,  
but non-uniform in  $(x, y)$ !

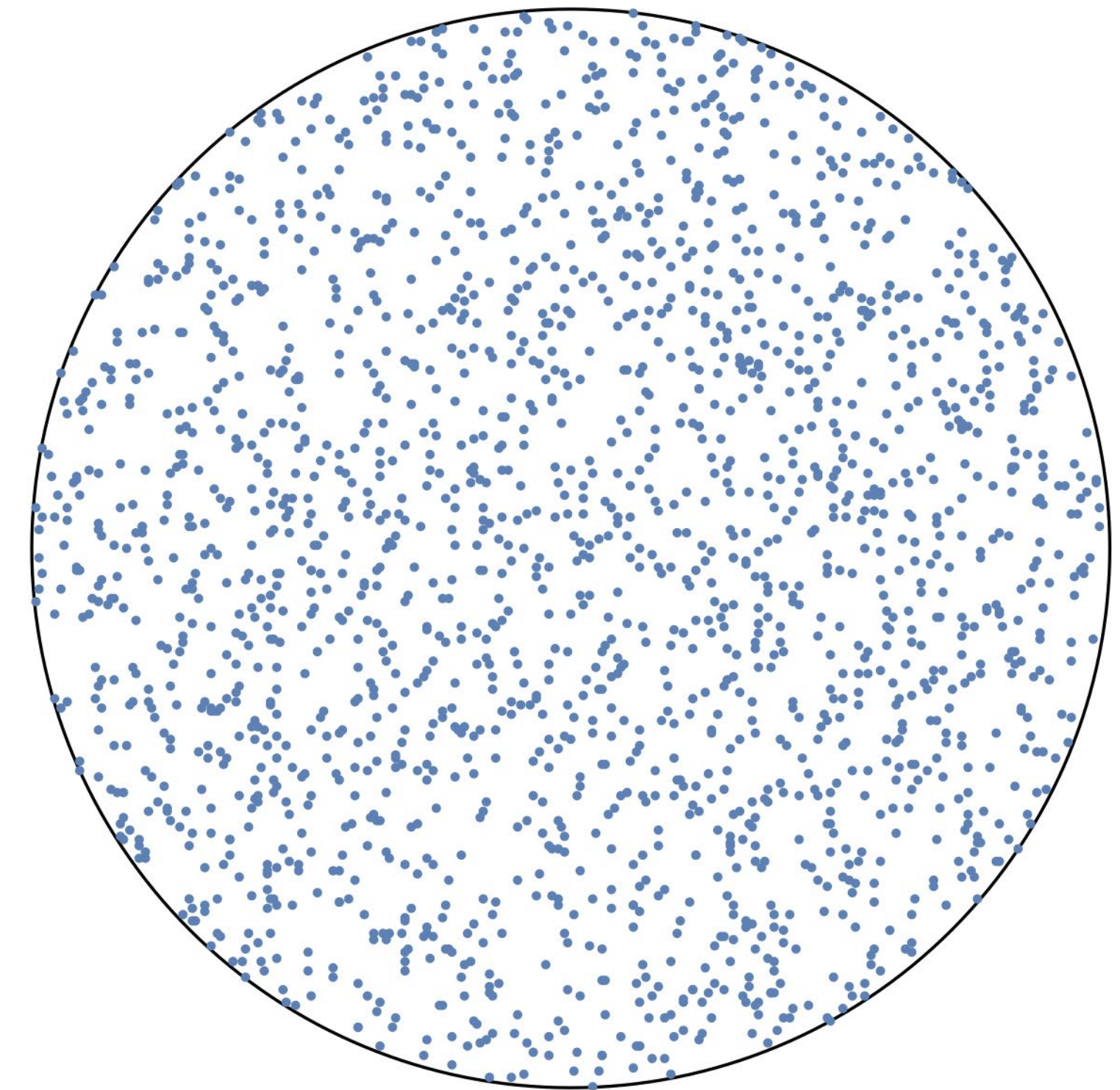


$$\theta = 2\pi\xi_1$$

$$r = \xi_2$$

**Right!**

Samples are non-uniform in  $(\theta, r)$ ,  
but uniform in  $(x, y)$ !



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

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

This can be  
corrected by  
choosing  $r$  non-  
uniformly!



# 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  $T$

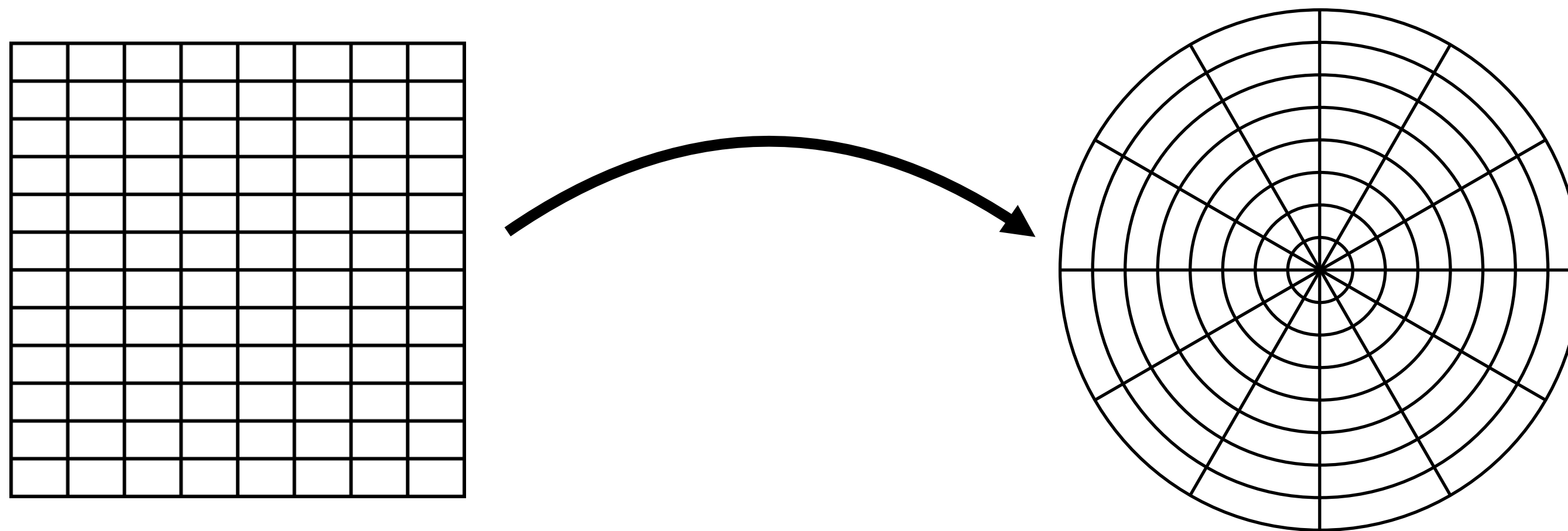
# Polar coordinate parameterization

---

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

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

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



# 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:

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

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:

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

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



# 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  $\phi$  proportional to

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

Step 2: generate  $r$  proportional to

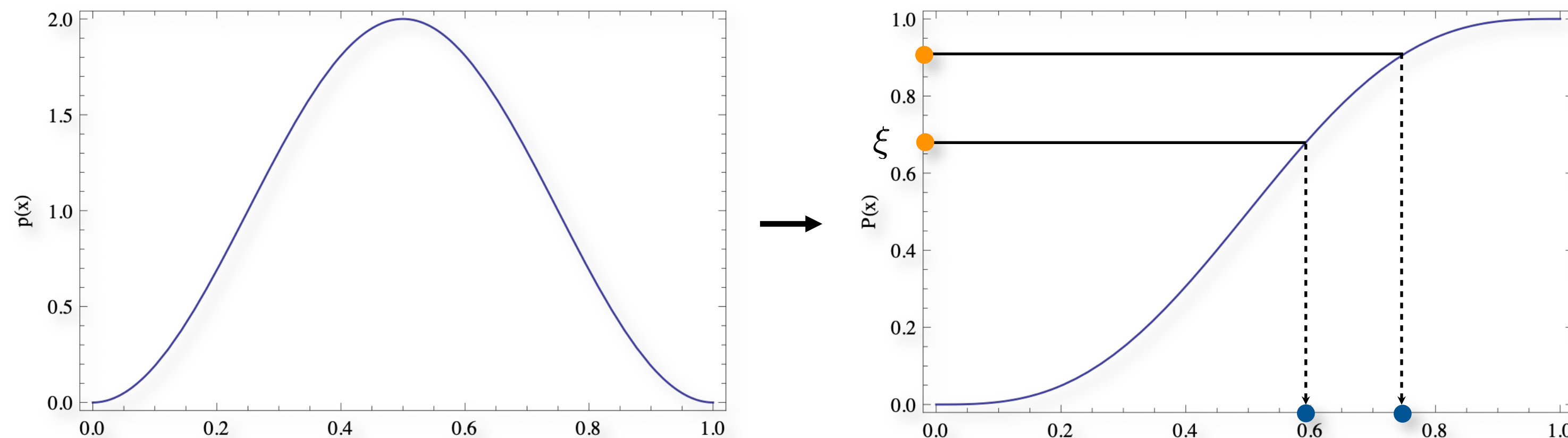
$$p_2(r) \propto r = 2r \quad (r \in [0, 1])$$

Constant PDF in  $\phi$ , 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  $\xi$
4. Compute  $X_i = P^{-1}(\xi)$



# Sampling a linear ramp

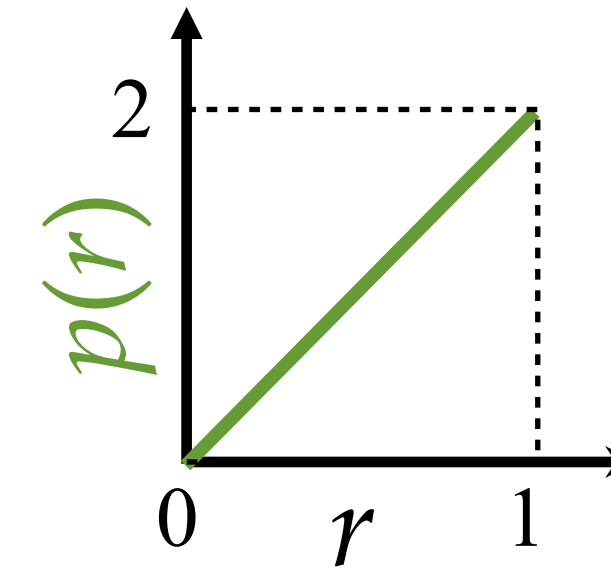
---

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

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

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

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



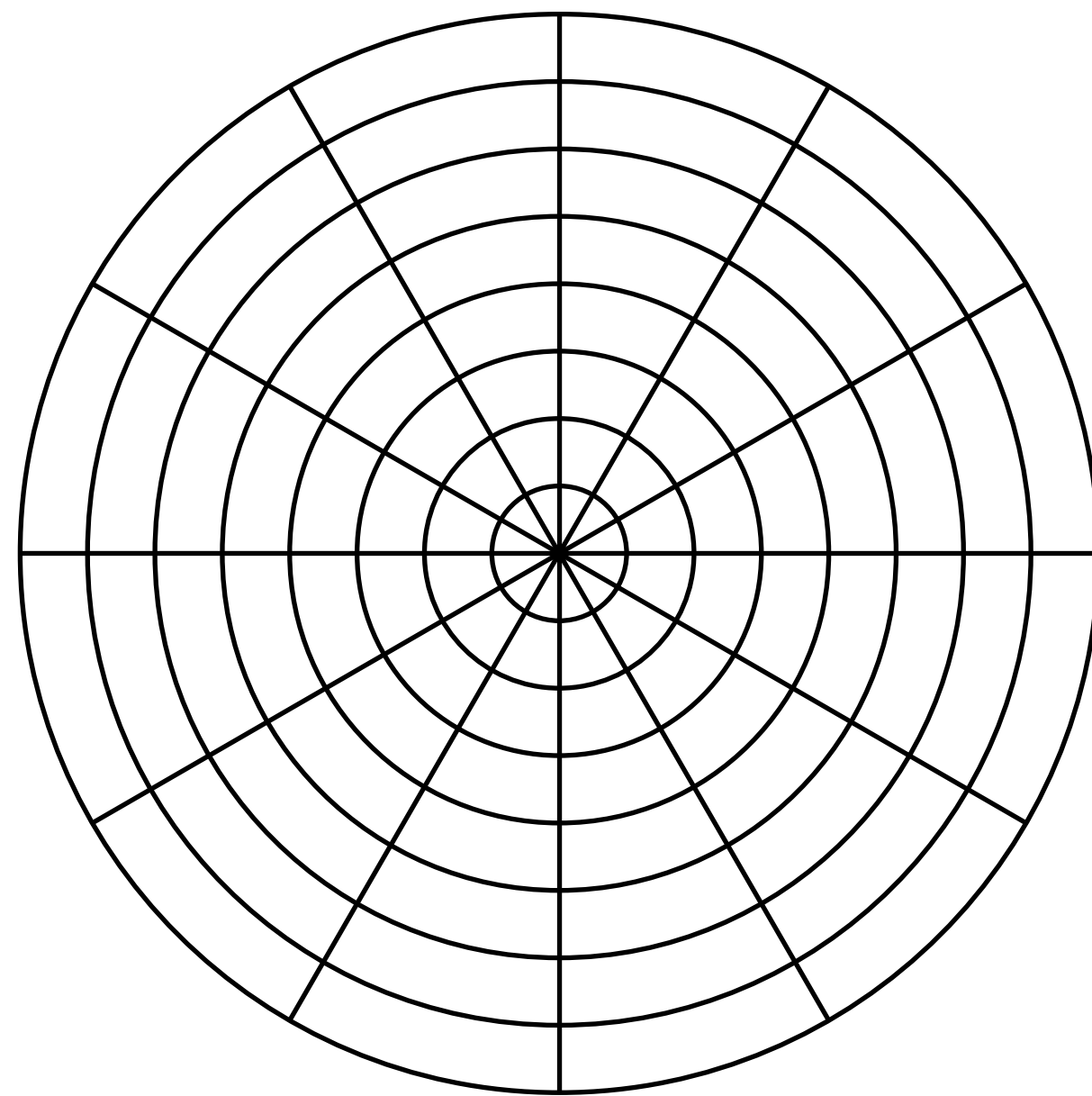
# Uniformly Sampling a Disk

---

Pick two uniform random variables  $\xi_1, \xi_2$

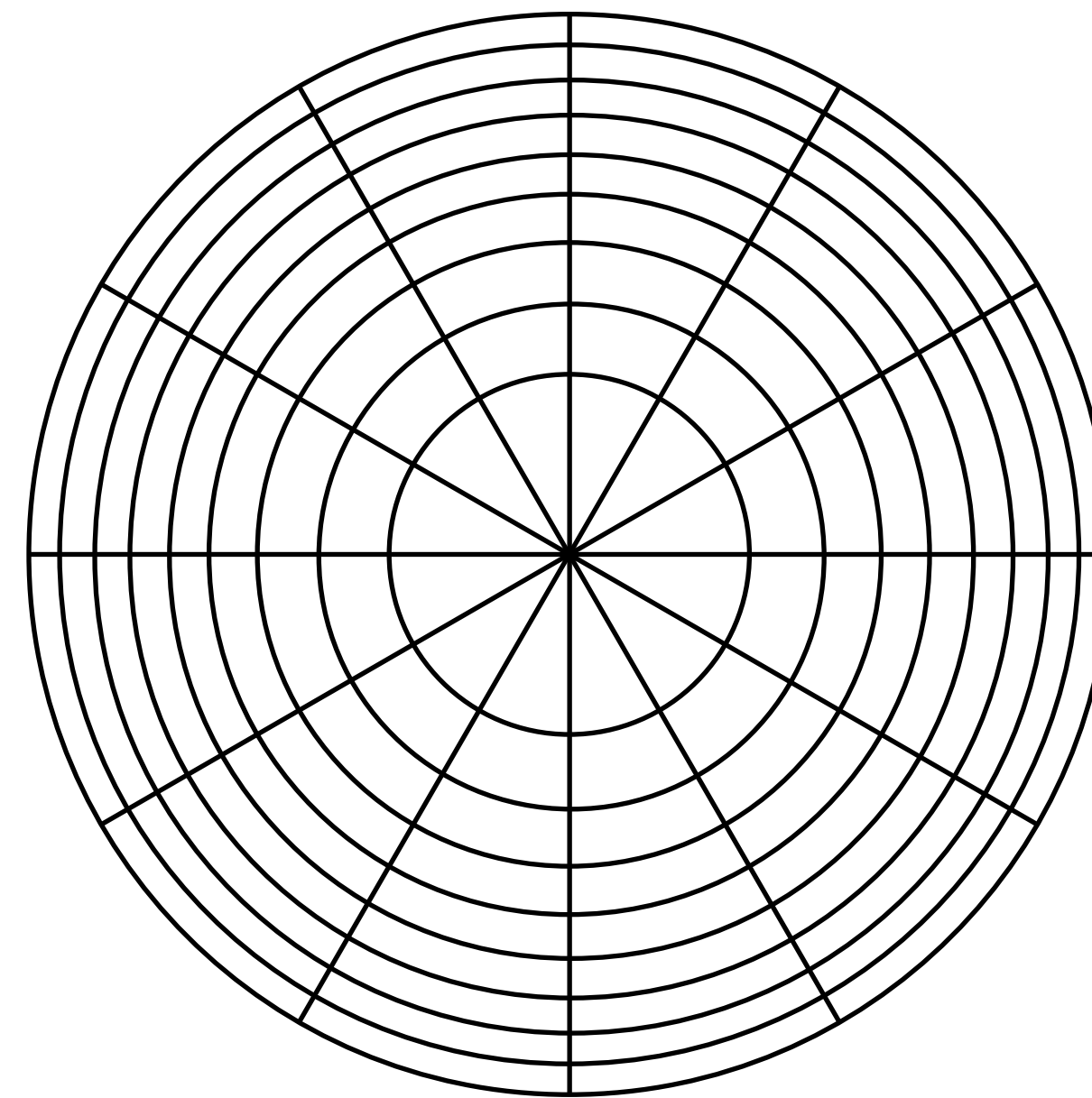
Sample in polar coordinates with:

$$(r, \phi) = (\xi_1, 2\pi\xi_2)$$



not equi-area

$$(r, \phi) = (\sqrt{\xi_1}, 2\pi\xi_2)$$



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:

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

Where does this come from?

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

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

# Directly Sampling on a Sphere

---

Pick two uniform random variables  $\xi_1, \xi_2$

Idea: select point at  $(\theta, \varphi)$  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

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

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

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

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

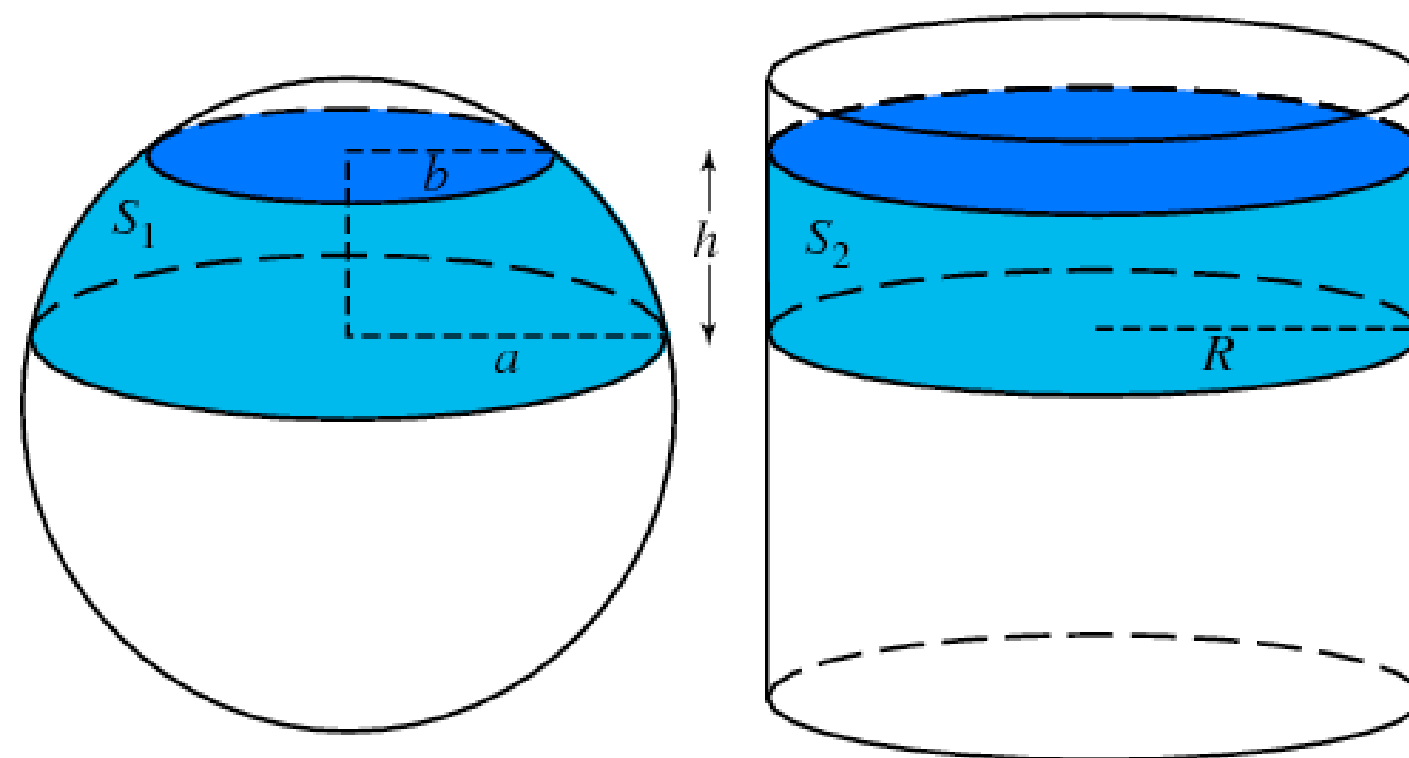
$$\vec{\omega}_y = r \sin \phi$$



# 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.

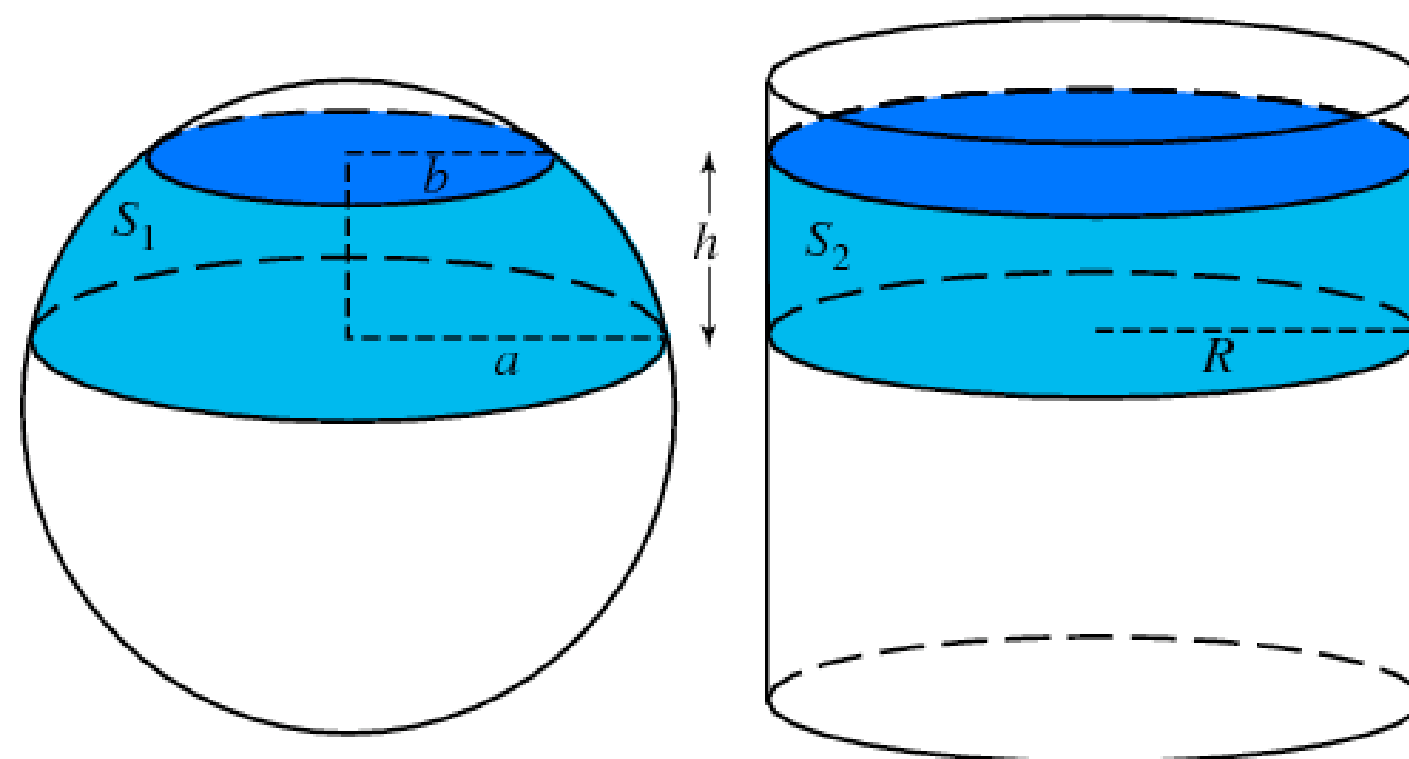
- i.e.: uniform areas on a cylinder map to uniform areas on a sphere
- What is  $|J_T|$  for cylindrical mapping?



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



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

- 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

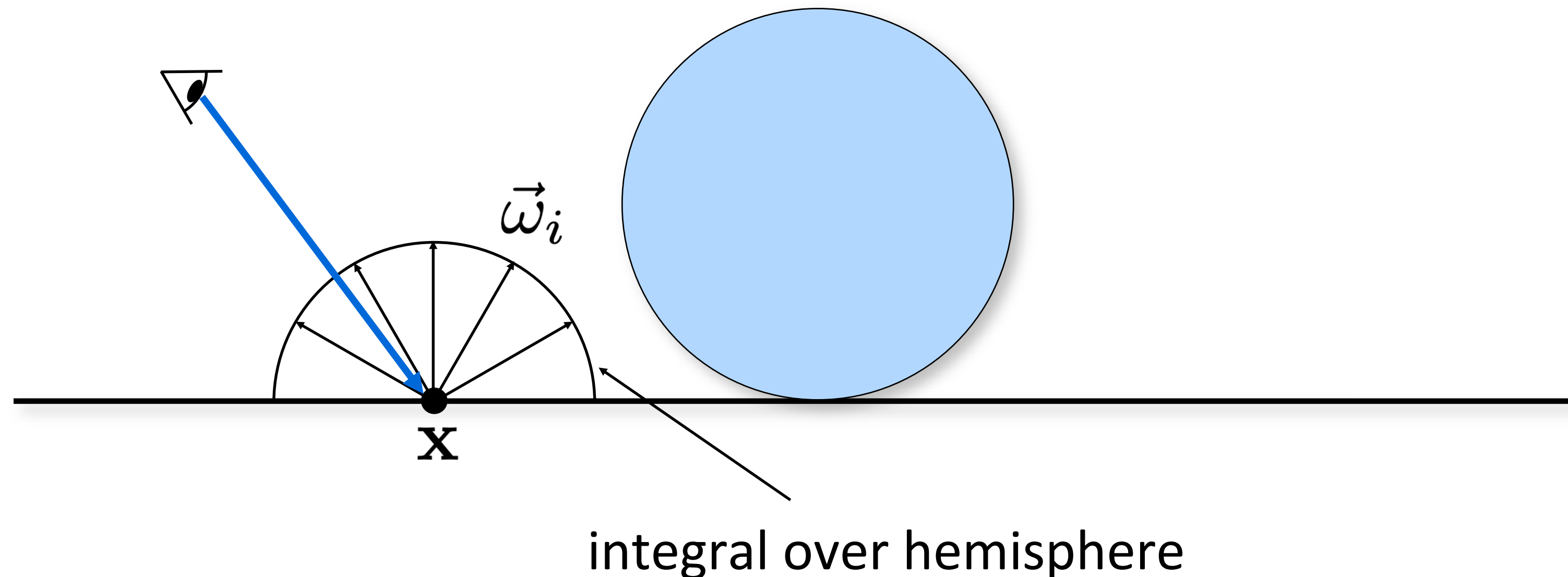
Target space	Density	Domain	Transformation
Radius $R$ disk	$p(r, \theta) = \frac{1}{\pi R^2}$	$\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ $r \in [0, R]$	$\theta = 2\pi u$ $r = R\sqrt{v}$
Sector of radius $R$ disk	$p(r, \theta) = \frac{2}{(\theta_2 - \theta_1)(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$	$\theta \in [\theta_1, \theta_2]$ $r \in [r_1, r_2]$	$\theta = \theta_1 + u(\theta_2 - \theta_1)$ $r = \sqrt{r_1^2 + v(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}$
Phong density exponent $n$	$p(\theta, \phi) = \frac{n+1}{2\pi} \cos^n \theta$	$\theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$	$\theta = \arccos((1-u)^{1/(n+1)})$ $\phi = 2\pi v$
Separated triangle filter	$p(x, y) \propto (1 -  x )(1 -  y )$	$x \in [-1, 1]$    $y \in [-1, 1]$	$x = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1-u)} & \text{if } u \geq 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2u} & \text{if } u < 0.5 \end{cases}$    $y = \begin{cases} 1 - \sqrt{2(1-v)} & \text{if } v \geq 0.5 \\ -1 + \sqrt{2v} & \text{if } v < 0.5 \end{cases}$
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	$p = \frac{3}{4\pi R^3}$	$\theta \in [0, \pi]$ $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$ $R \in [0, R]$	$\theta = \arccos(1-2u)$ $\phi = 2\pi v$ $r = w^{1/3}R$

<sup>a</sup>The symbols  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$  represent instances of uniformly distributed random variables ranging over  $[0, 1]$ .

# Ambient Occlusion

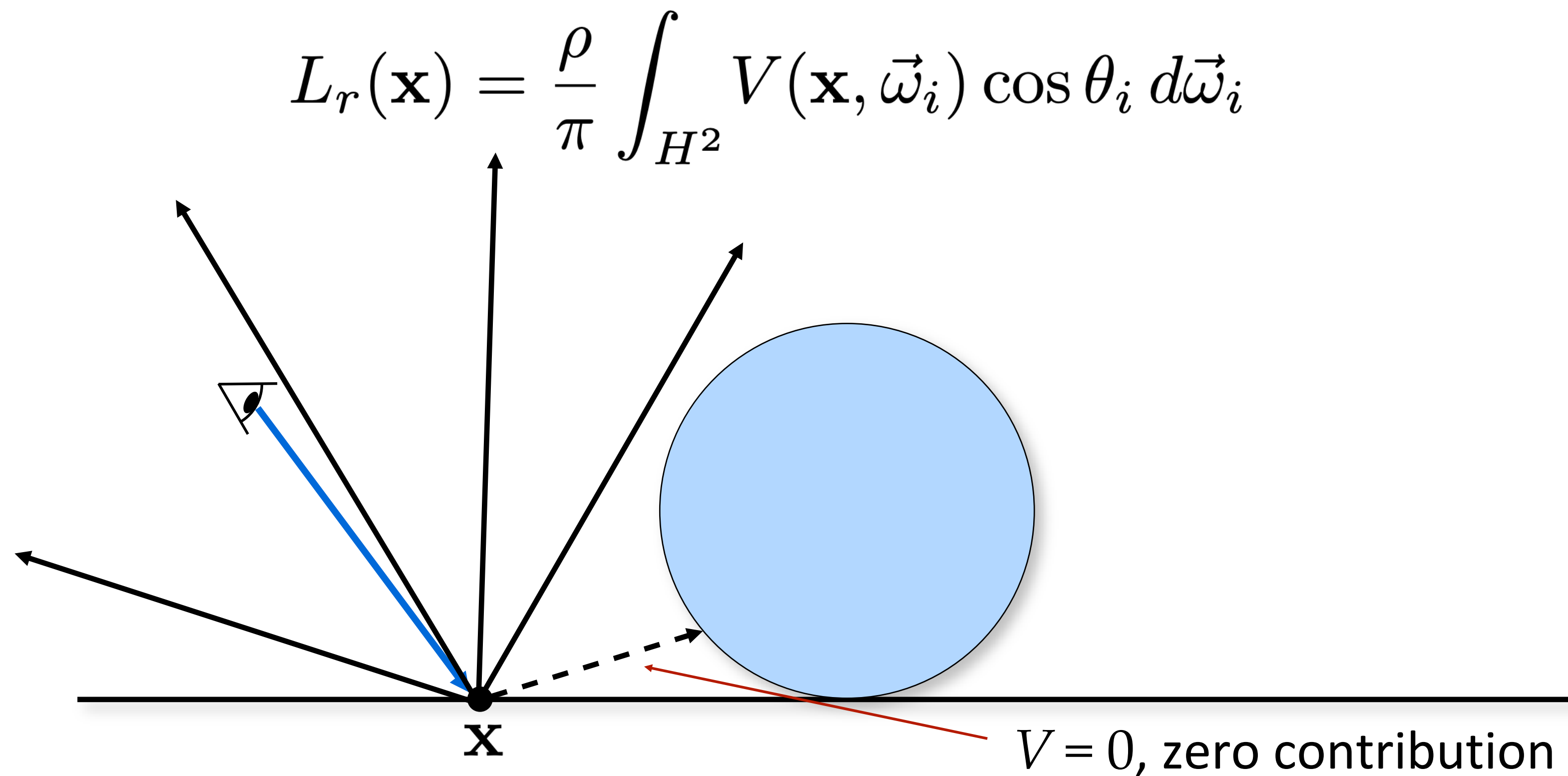
Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky

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



# Ambient Occlusion

Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky



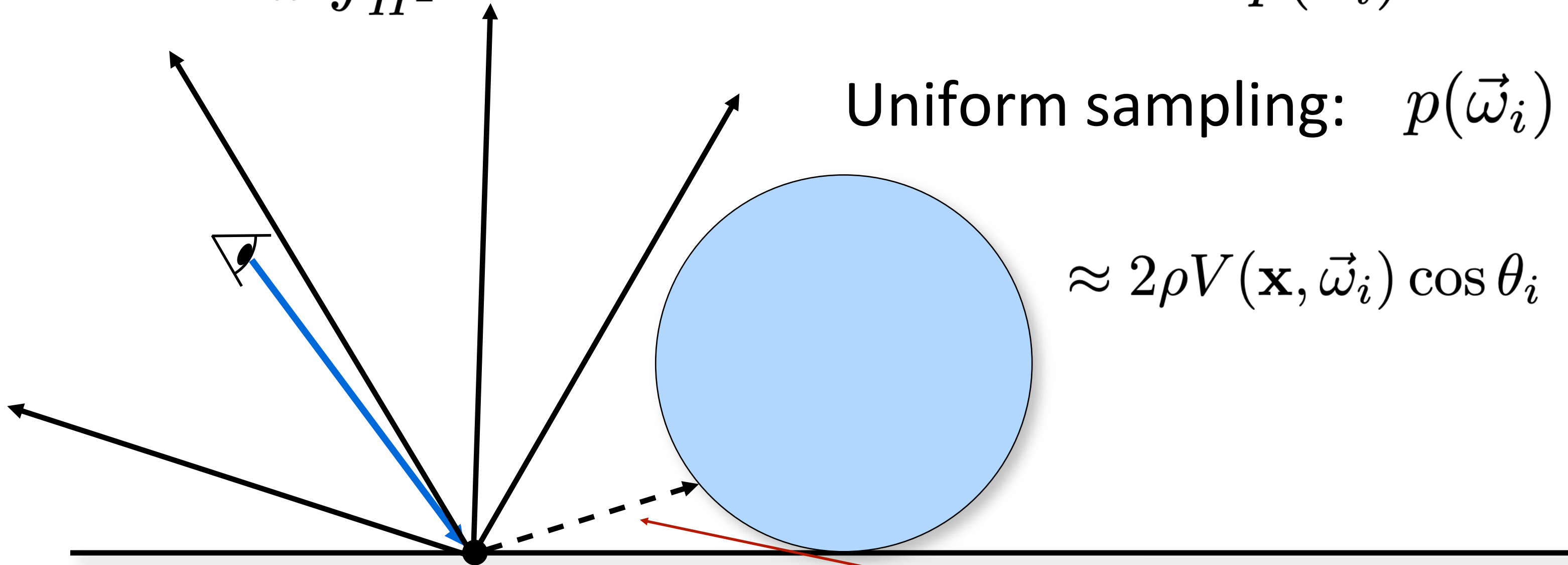
# Ambient Occlusion

Consider diffuse objects illuminated by an ambient overcast sky

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

Uniform sampling:  $p(\vec{\omega}_i) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$

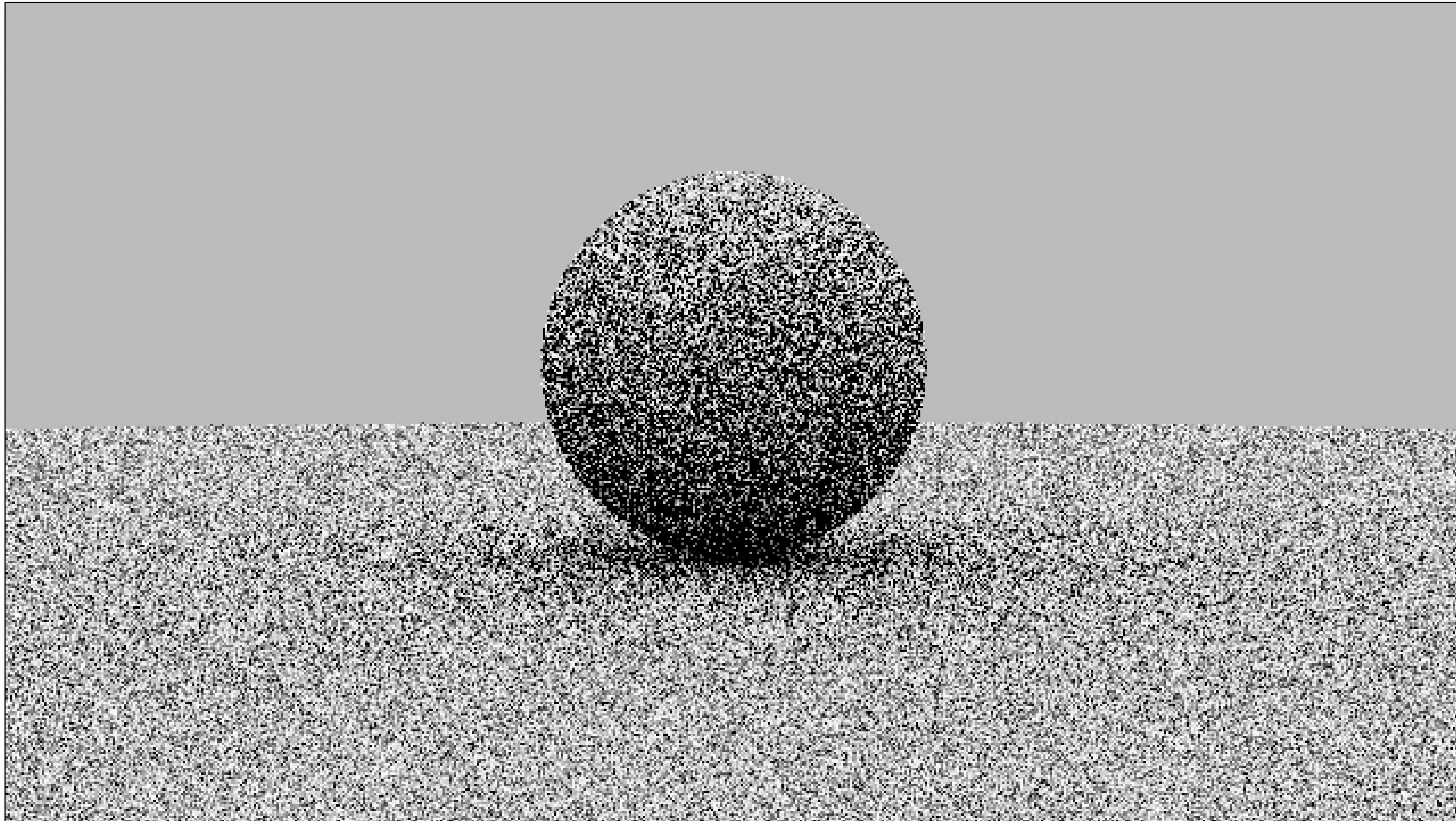
$\approx 2\rho V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_i) \cos \theta_i$



$V = 0$ , zero contribution

# Hemispherical Sampling (1 Sample)

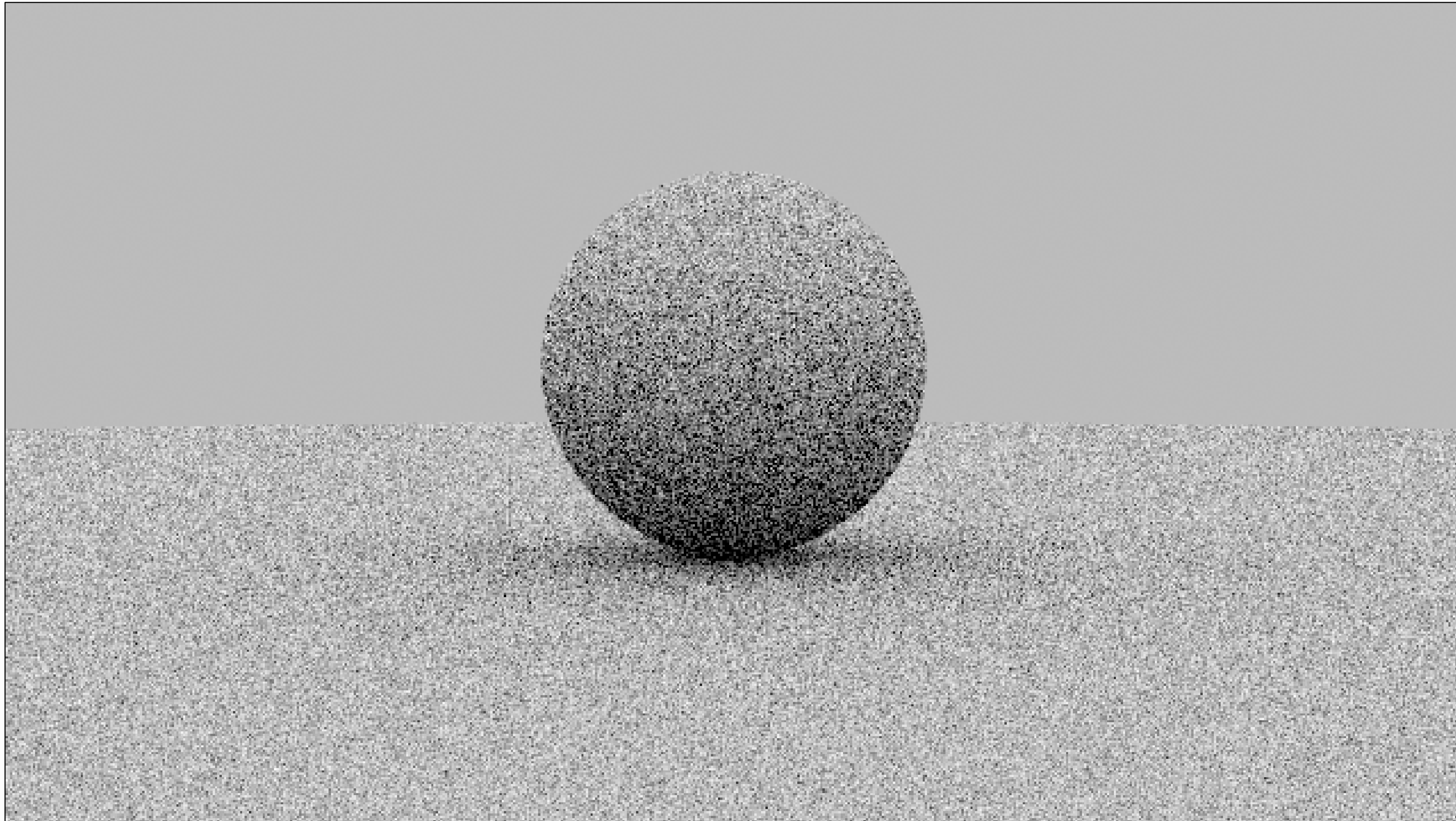
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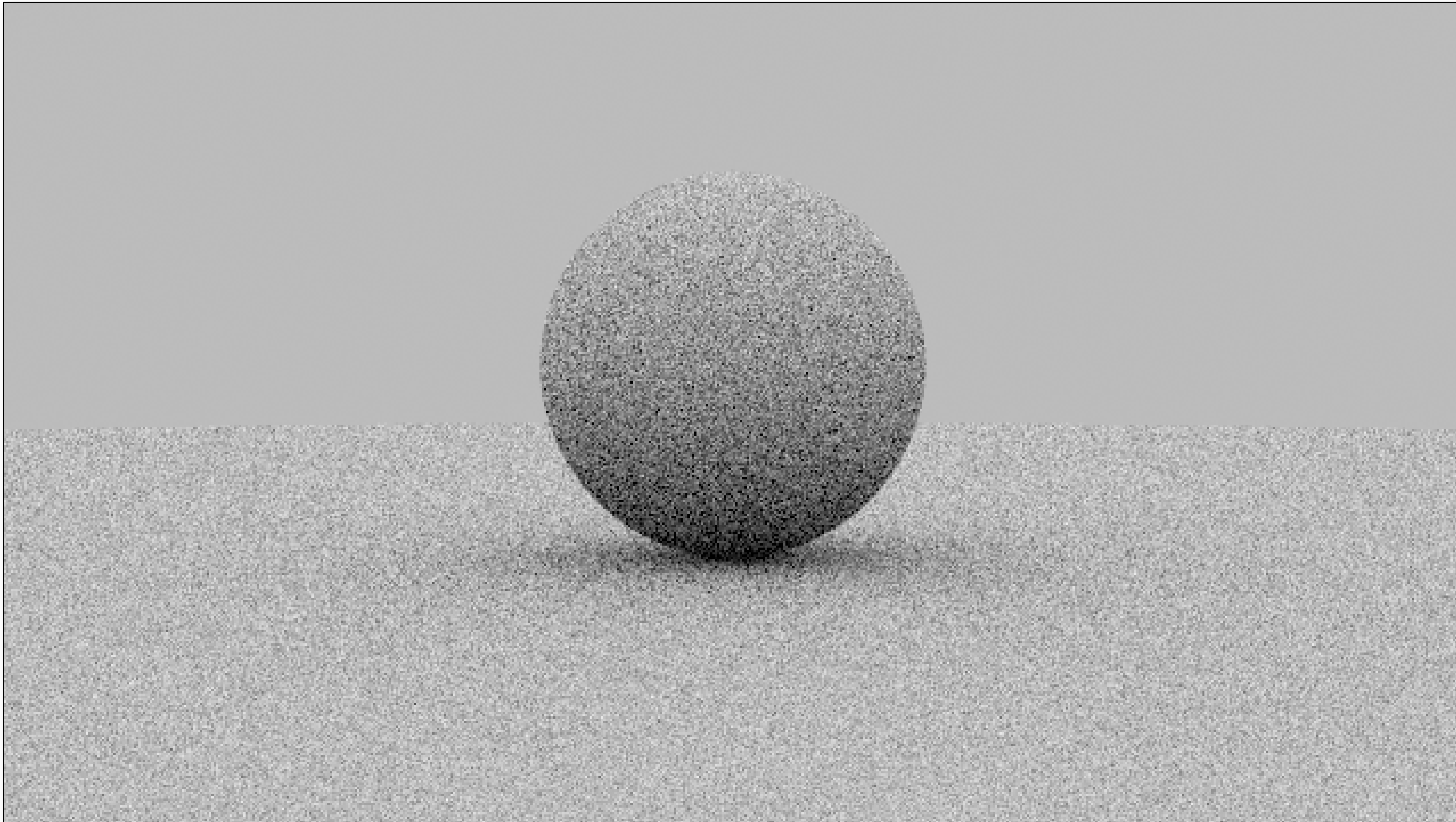
# Hemispherical Sampling (4 Samples)

---



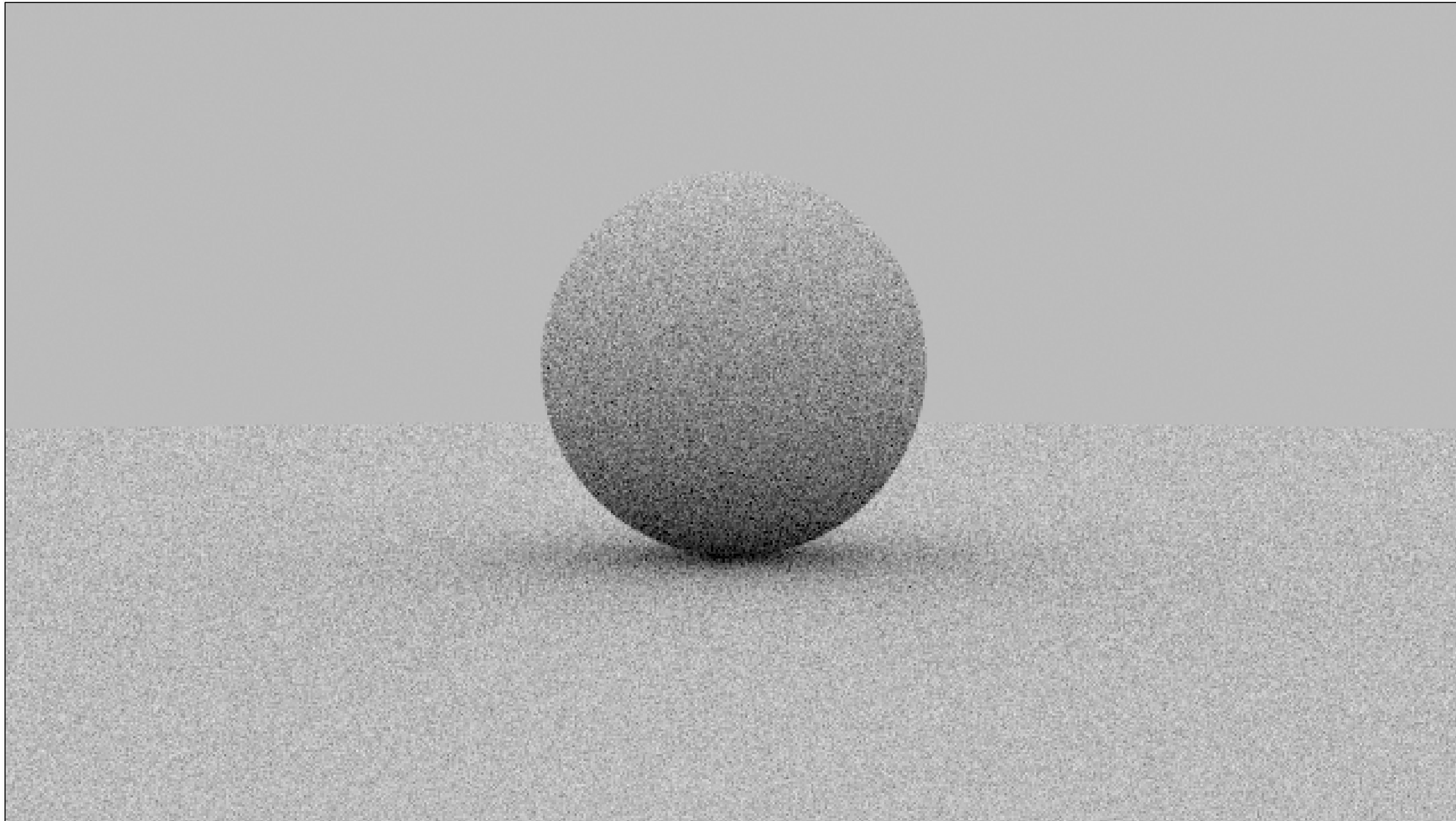
# Hemispherical Sampling (9 Samples)

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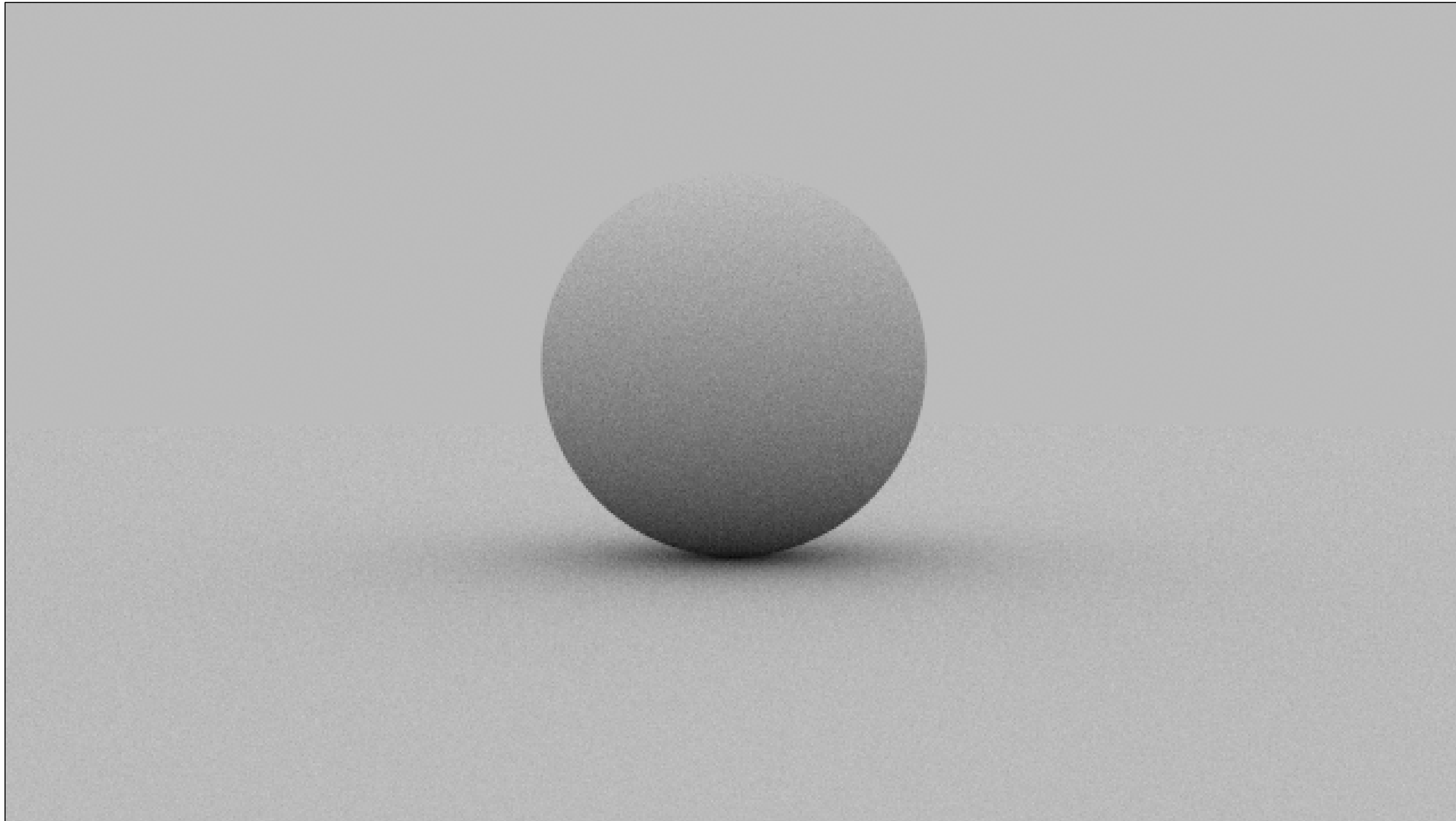
# Hemispherical Sampling (16 Samples)

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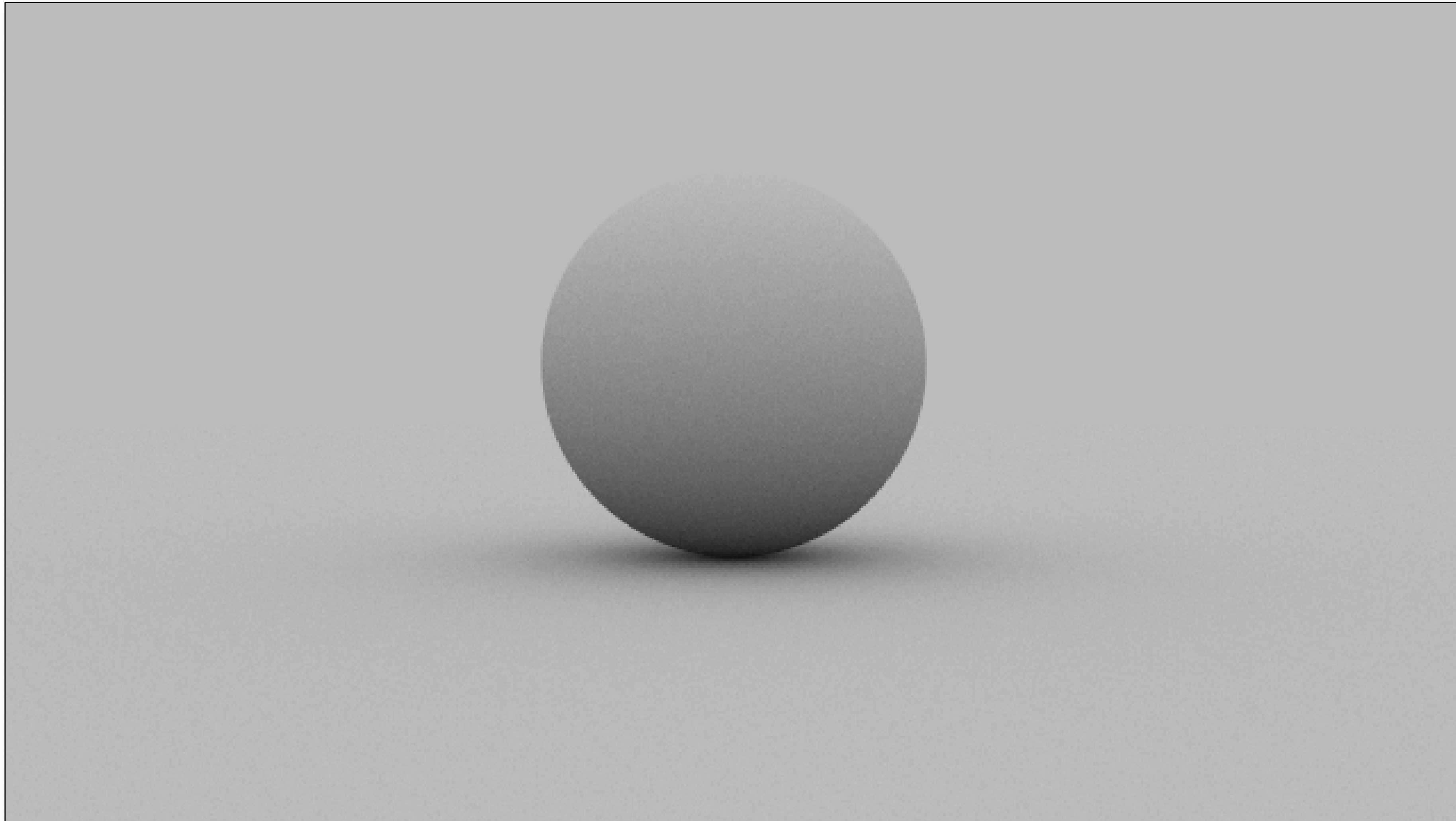
# Hemispherical Sampling (256 Samples)

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# Hemispherical Sampling (1024 Samples)

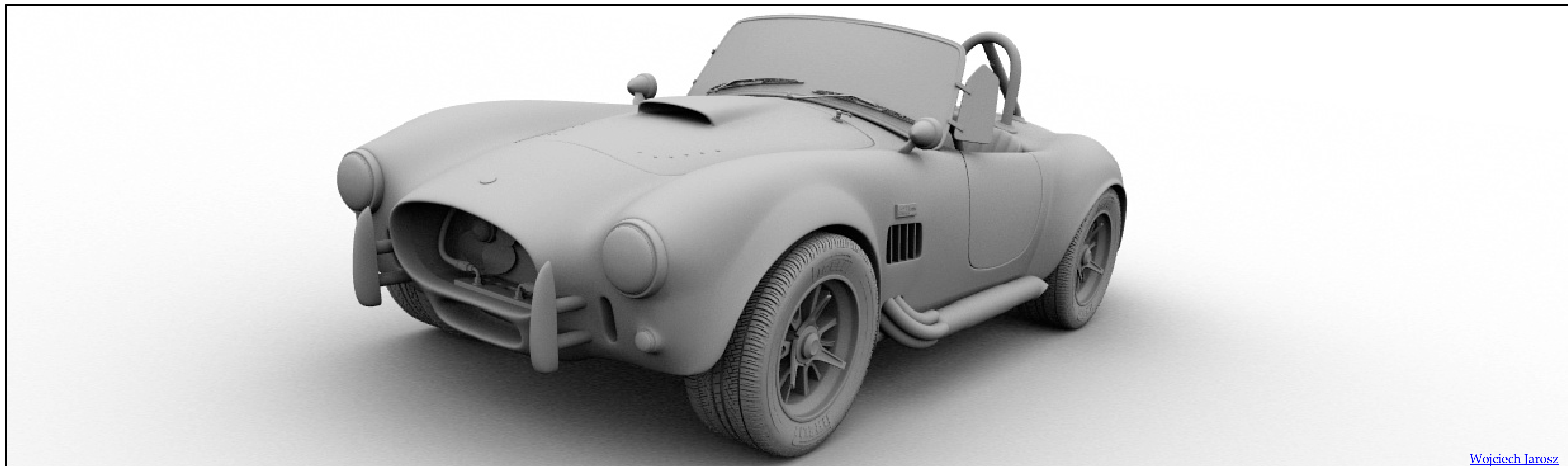
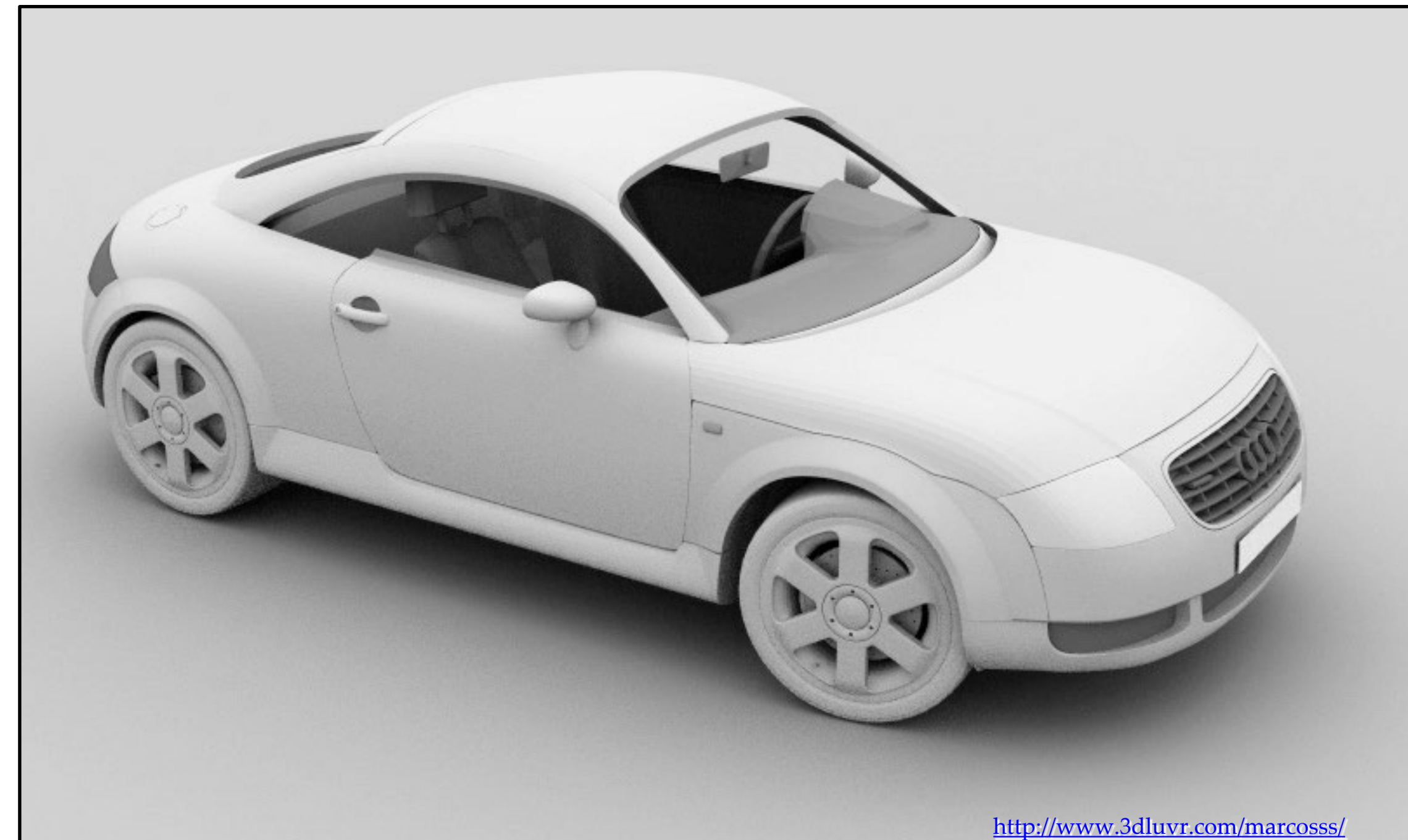
---







# Ambient Occlusion



# Strategies for reducing variance

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The standard MC estimator:

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

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

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

How do we reduce the variance of  $Y$ ?

- Importance sampling

# Importance sampling

---

Importance sampling

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

assume

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

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

estimator

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

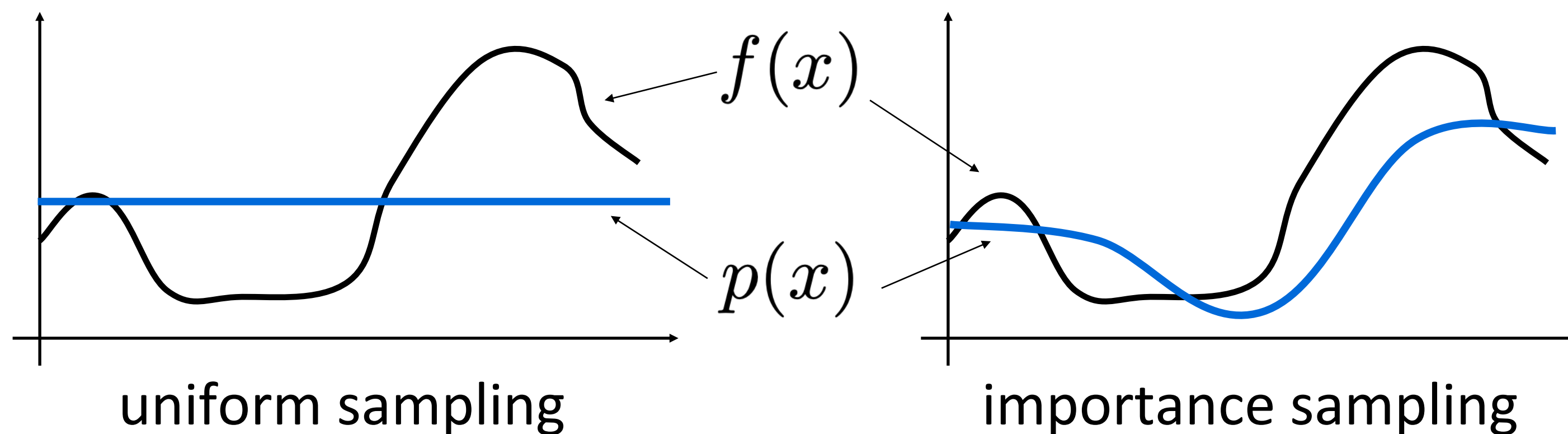
# Importance sampling

---

$p(x) = cf(x)$  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





# Ambient occlusion

---

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

What terms can we importance sample?

- incident radiance
- cosine term



# Ambient occlusion

---

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

What terms can we importance sample?

- incident radiance
- cosine term

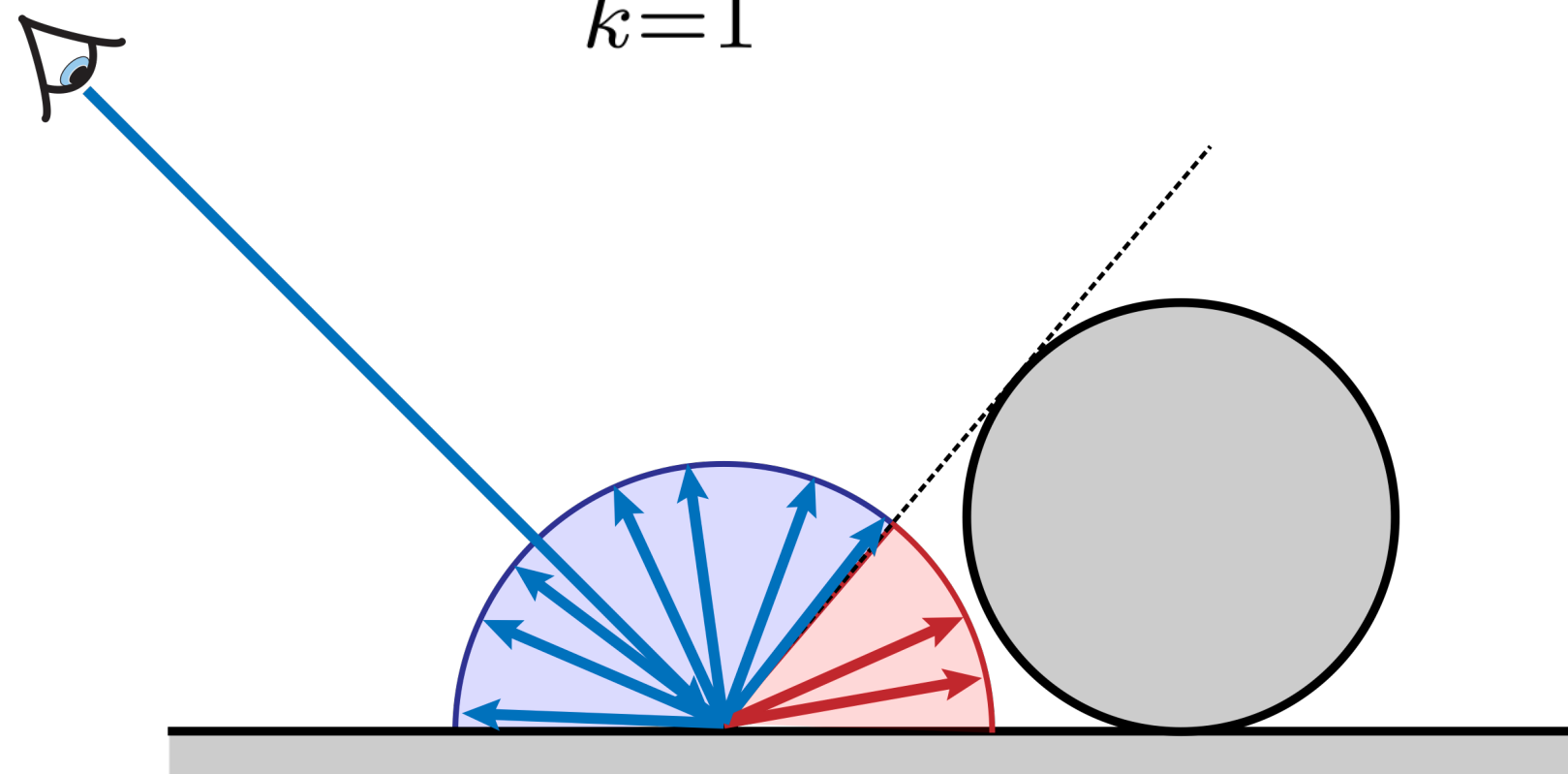
# Ambient Occlusion

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

**Uniform hemispherical  
sampling**

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

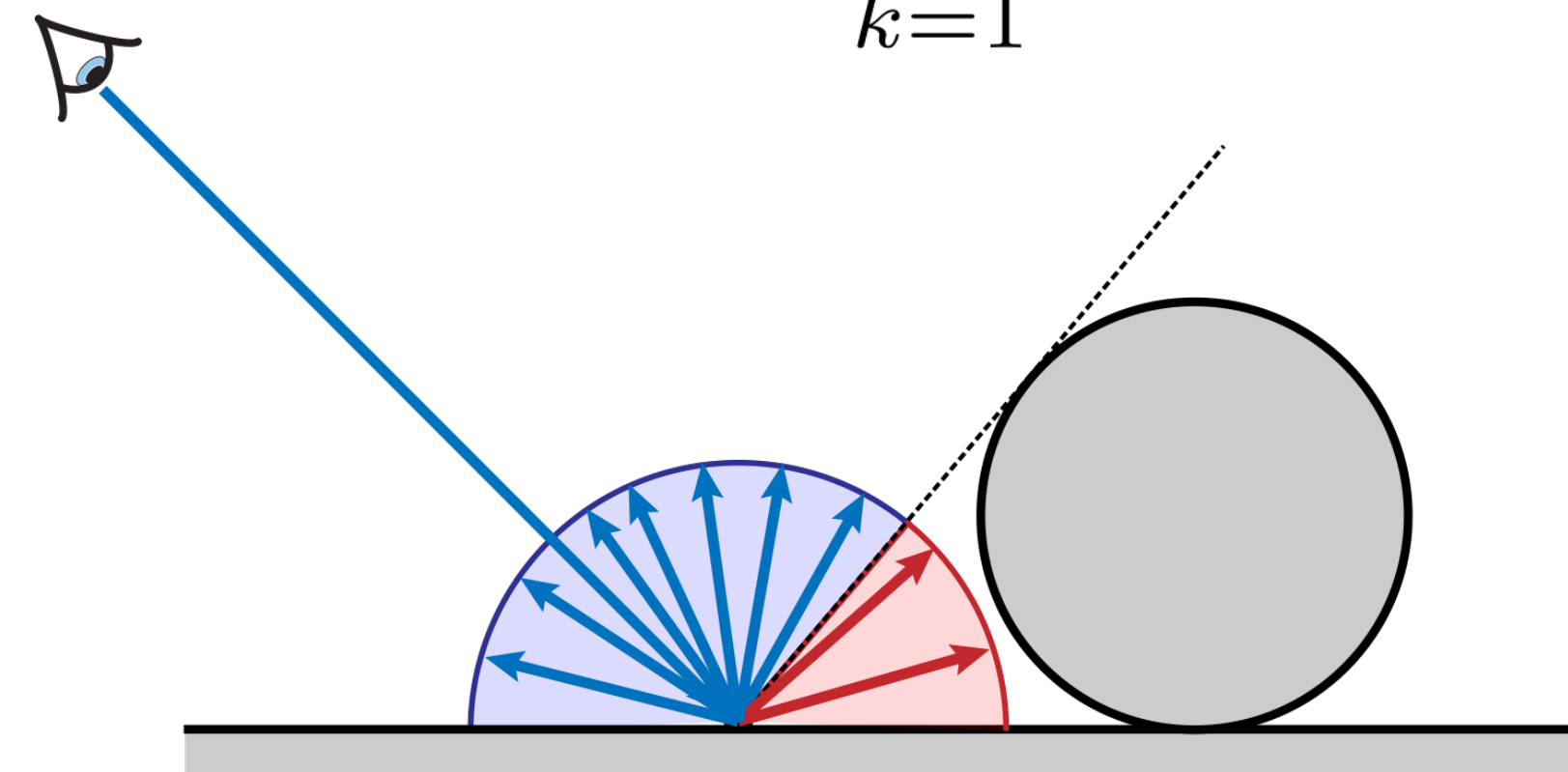
$$L_r(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{2\rho}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N V(\mathbf{x}, \vec{\omega}_{i,k}) \cos \theta_{i,k}$$



**Cosine-weighted  
importance sampling**

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

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



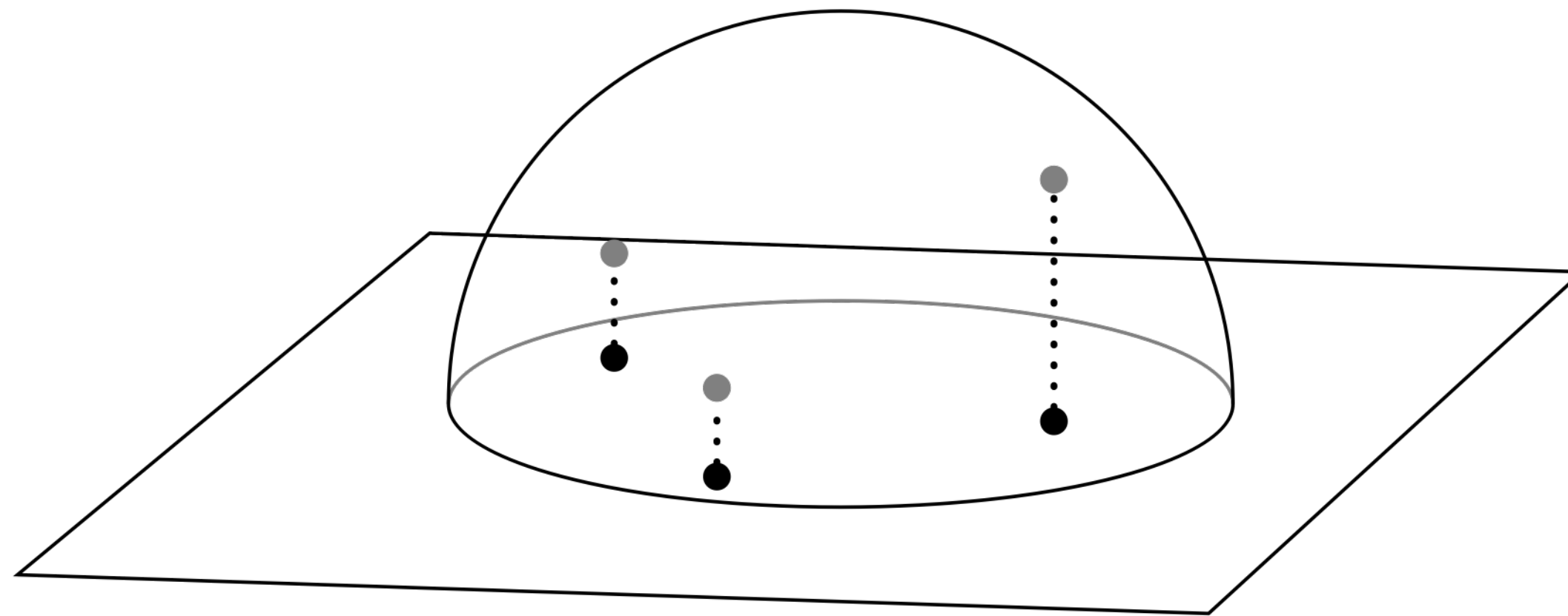
# Cosine-weighted Hemispherical Sampling

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

It turns out that:

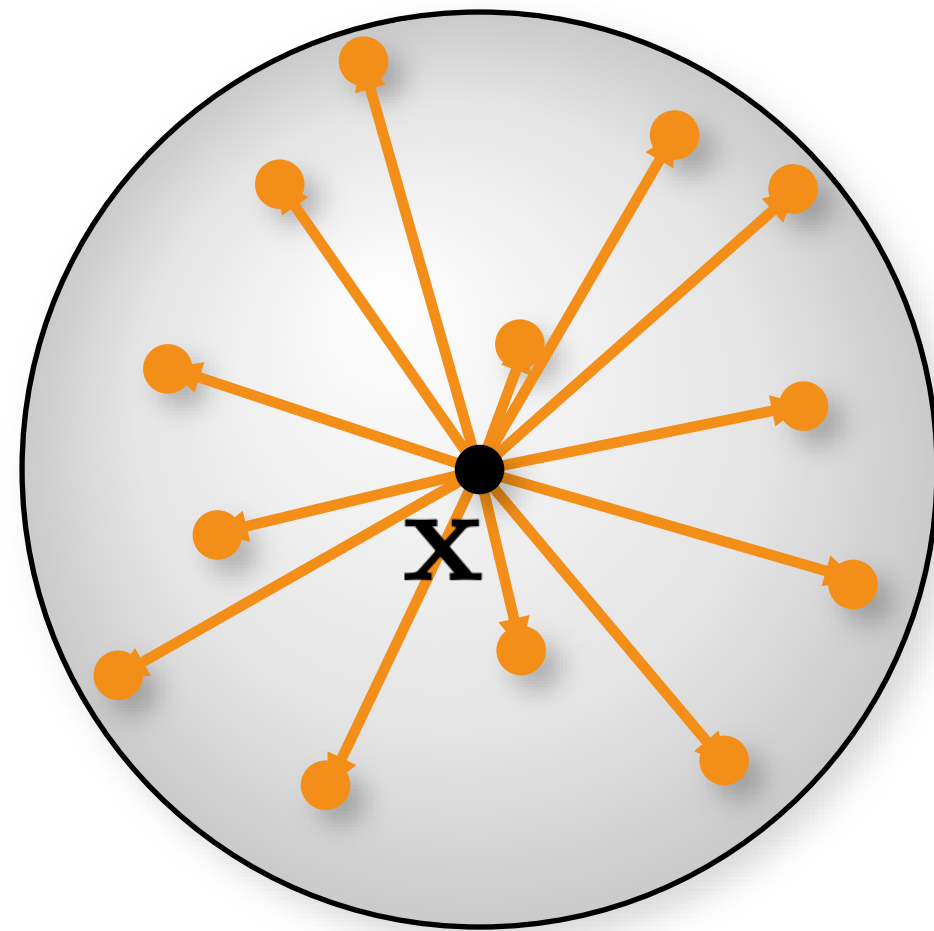
- Generating points uniformly on the disc, and then project these points vertically onto the hemisphere produces the desired distribution.



# Cosine-weighted Hemispherical Sampling

---

Generate points on sphere  
(unit directions)

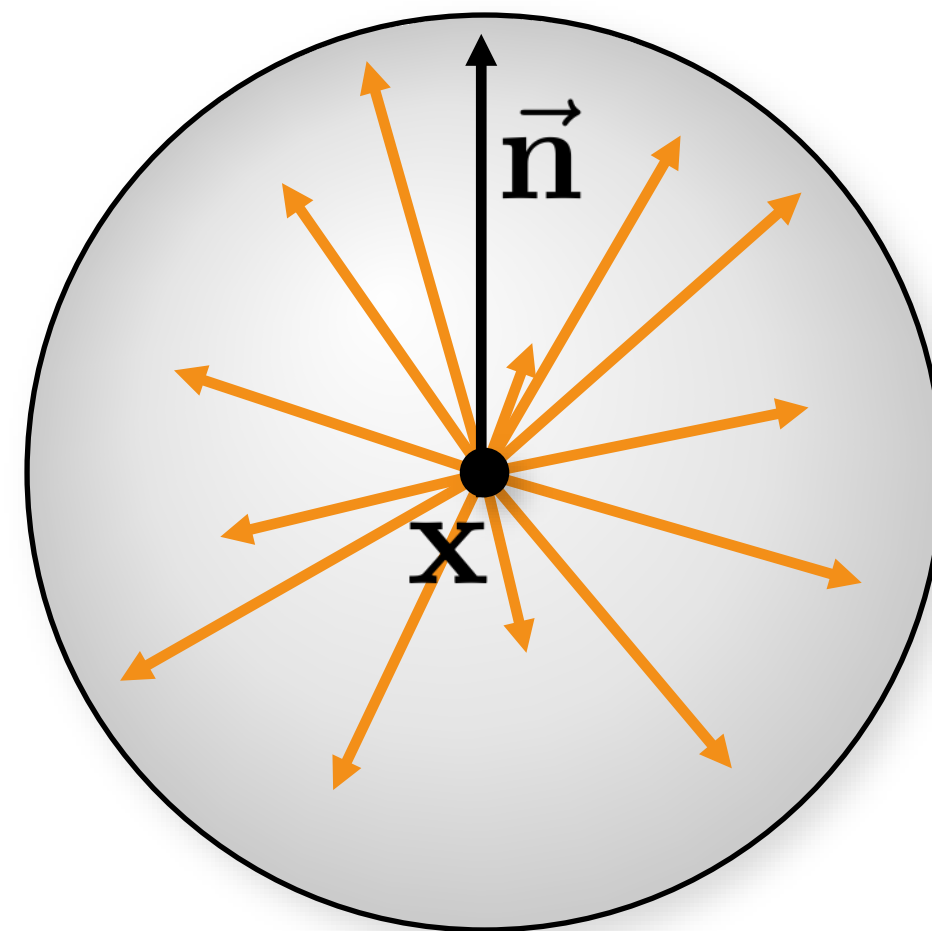


# Cosine-weighted Hemispherical Sampling

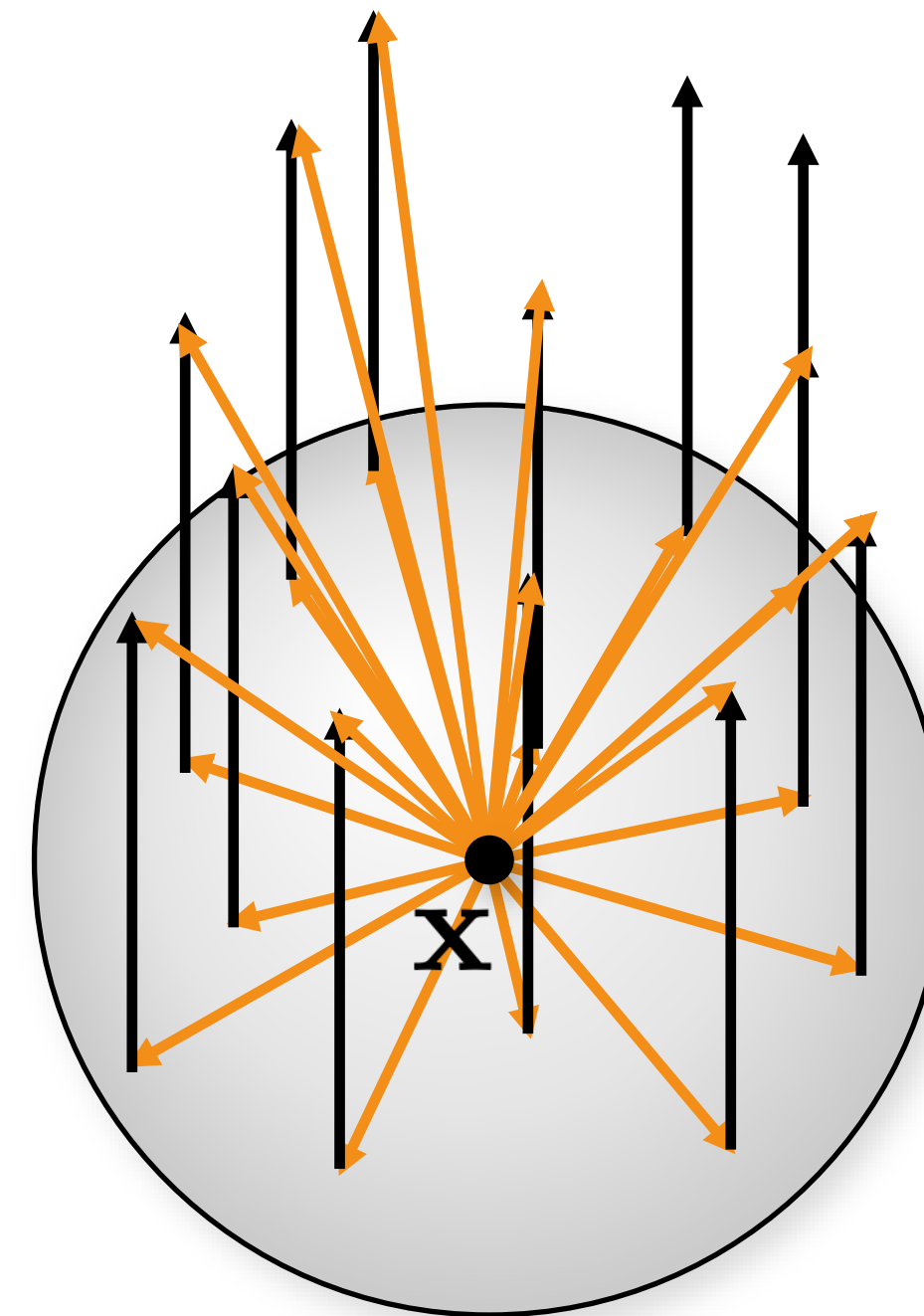
---

Generate points on sphere  
(unit directions)

unit normal



*Add* unit normal



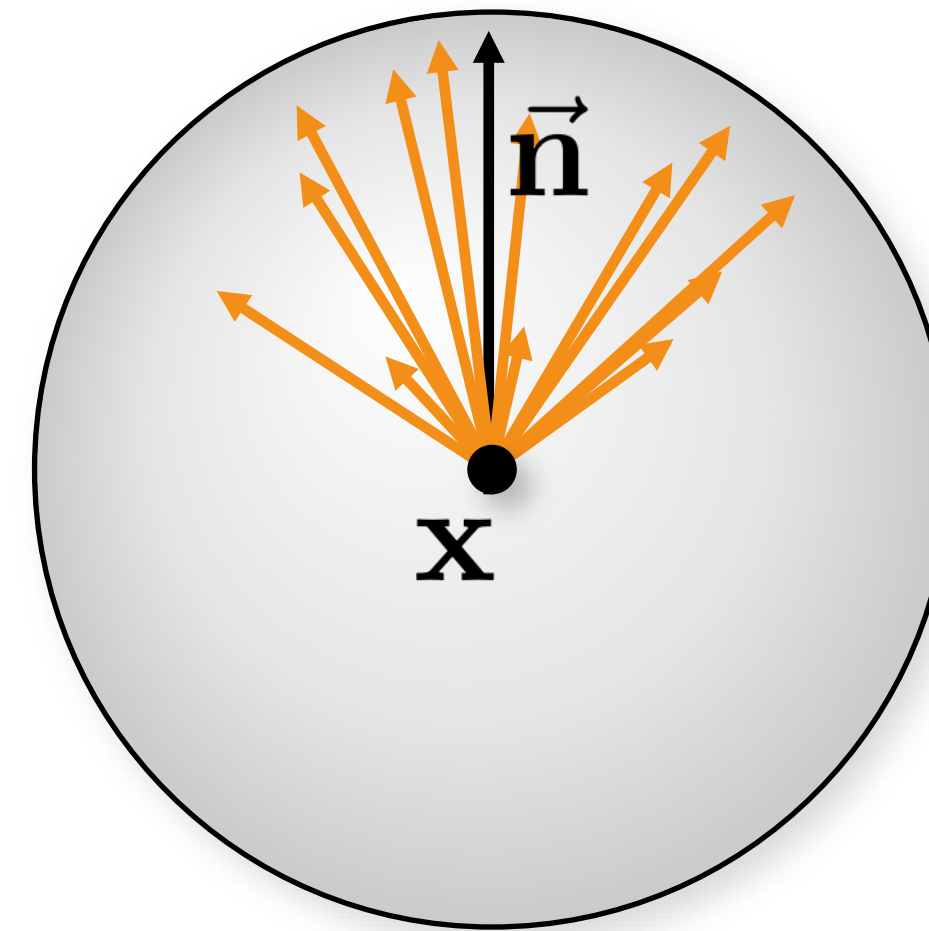
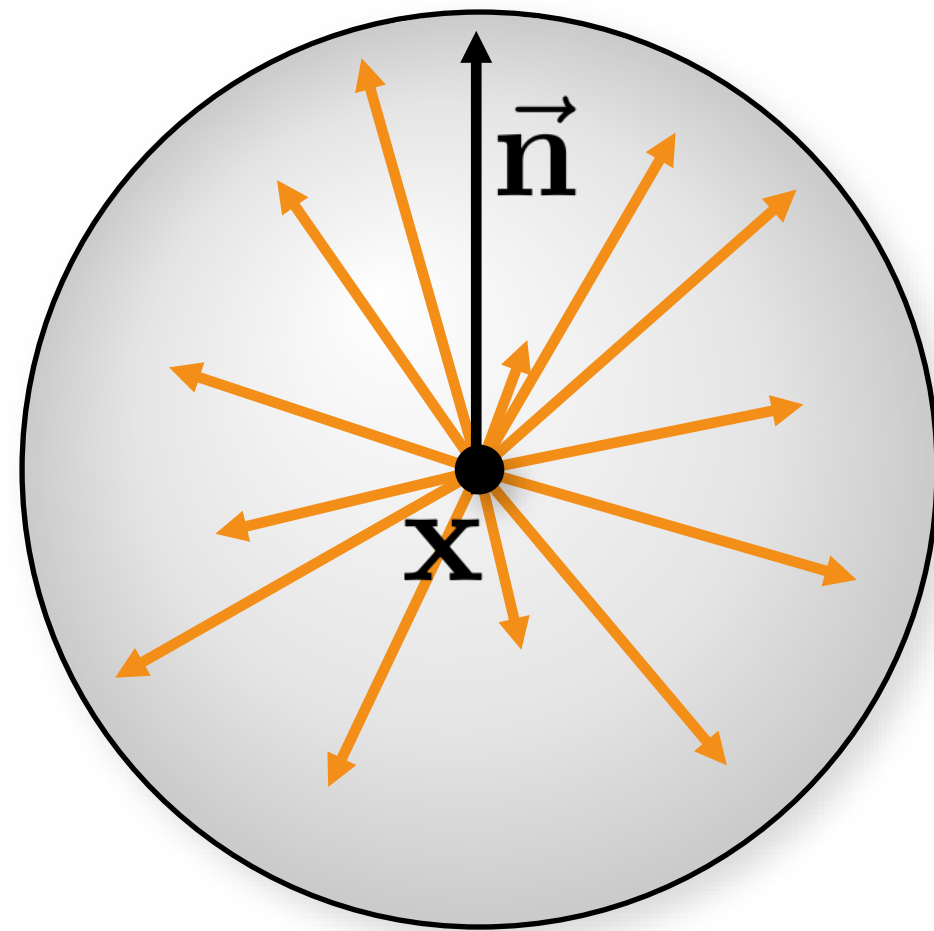
# Cosine-weighted Hemispherical Sampling

---

Generate points on sphere  
(unit directions)

*Add* unit normal  
normalize

unit normal

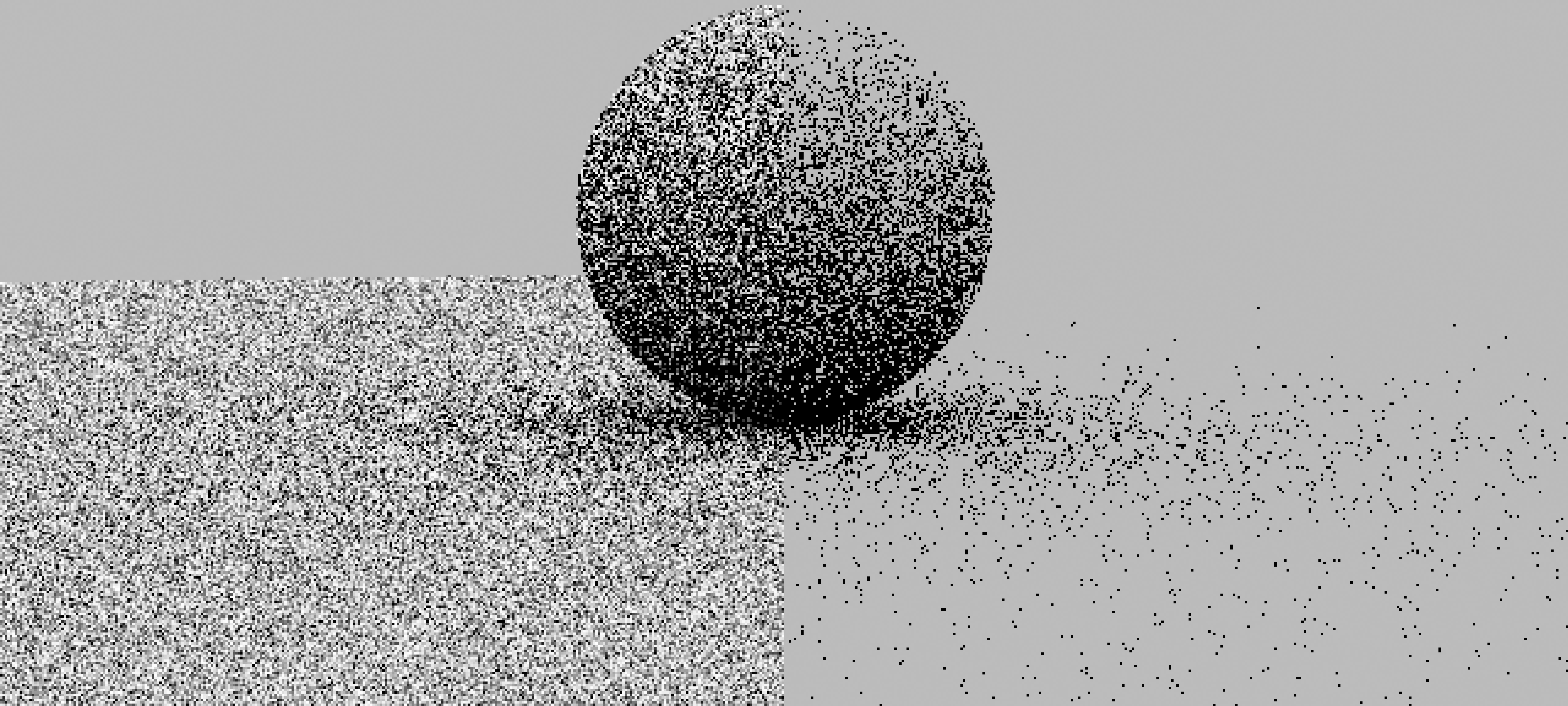




**Uniform hemispherical  
sampling**

1 sample/pixel

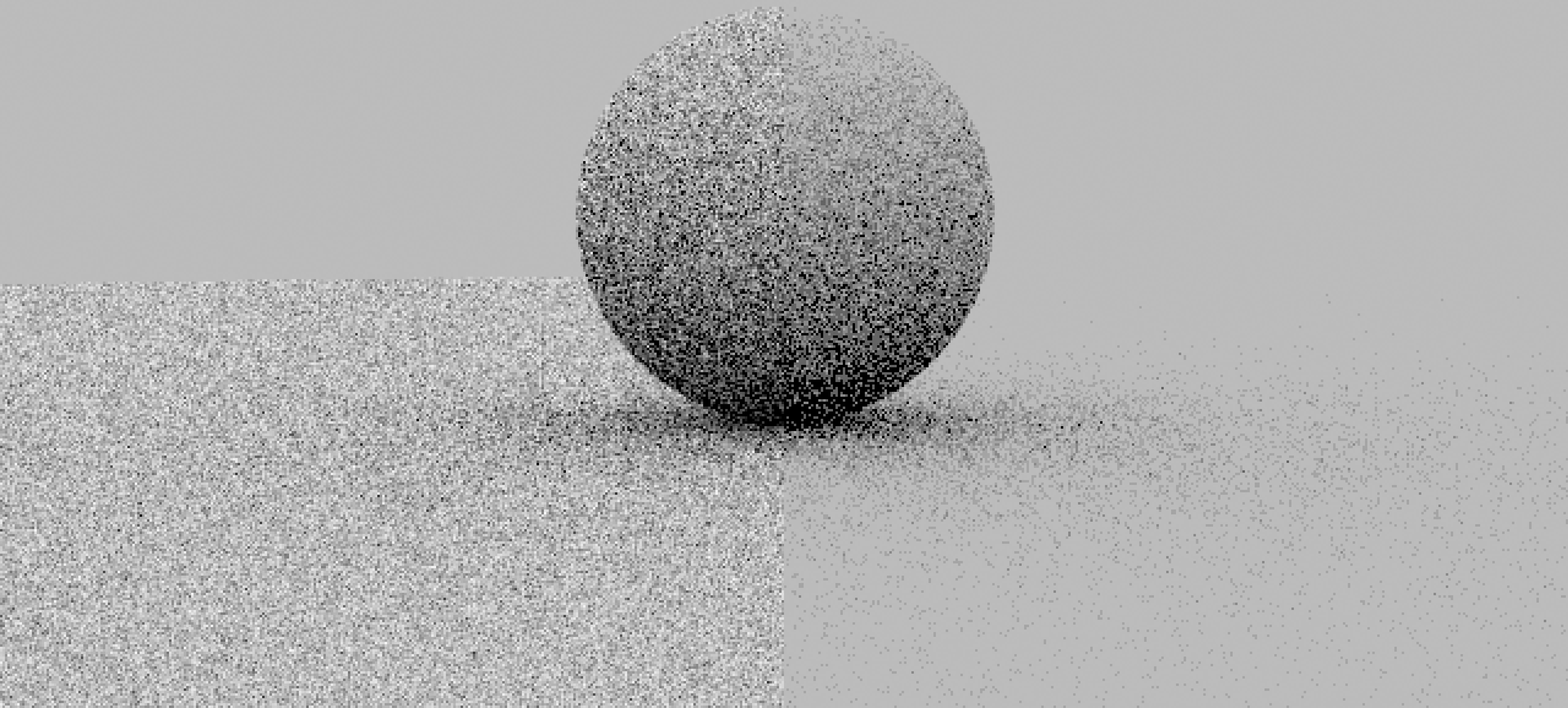
**Cosine-weighted  
importance sampling**



**Uniform hemispherical  
sampling**

4 sample/pixel

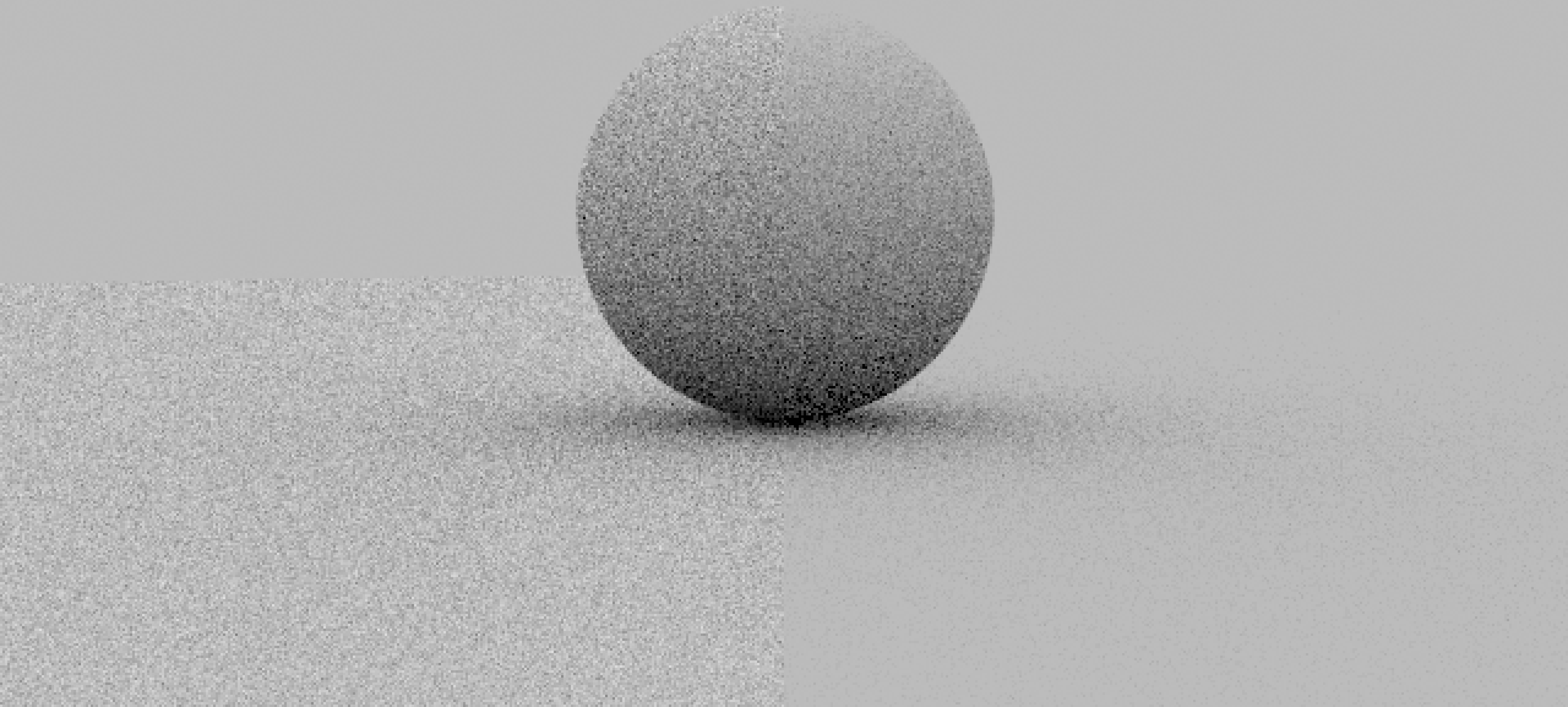
**Cosine-weighted  
importance sampling**



**Uniform hemispherical  
sampling**

16 sample/pixel

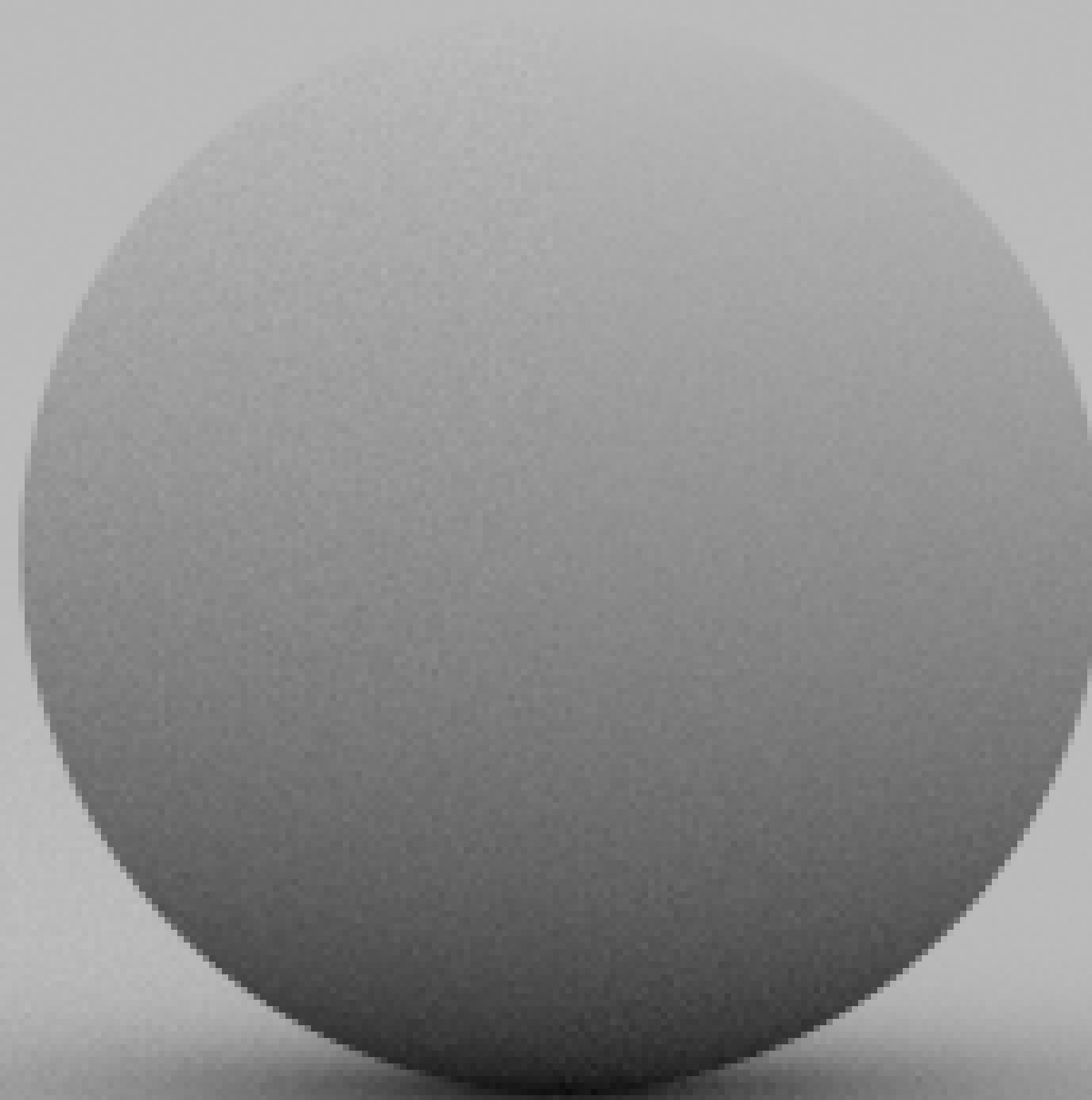
**Cosine-weighted  
importance sampling**



**Uniform hemispherical  
sampling**

1024 sample/pixel

**Cosine-weighted  
importance sampling**



# Strategies for reducing variance

---

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

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

How do we reduce the variance of  $Y$ ?

- Importance sampling

# Equal-sample versus equal-time comparisons

---

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

- Importance sampling improves the  $\sigma[Y]$  term
- But an importance sampling technique may be more expensive to run than naive uniform sampling, reducing the  $N$  term given fixed runtime.

Cost of an estimator:

$$C = N \cdot T \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{time to draw one sample for a} \\ \text{given sampling technique} \end{array}$$

↖ number of samples

- Equal-sample (fixed  $N$ ) comparisons can be misleading.
- Equal-time comparisons (fixed total runtime, which is equivalent to fixed cost  $C$ ) are more representative of performance.
  - At equal time, a naive sampling technique that draws very many bad samples can result in less variance than a sophisticated technique that draws very few great samples.



# More Integration Dimensions

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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)