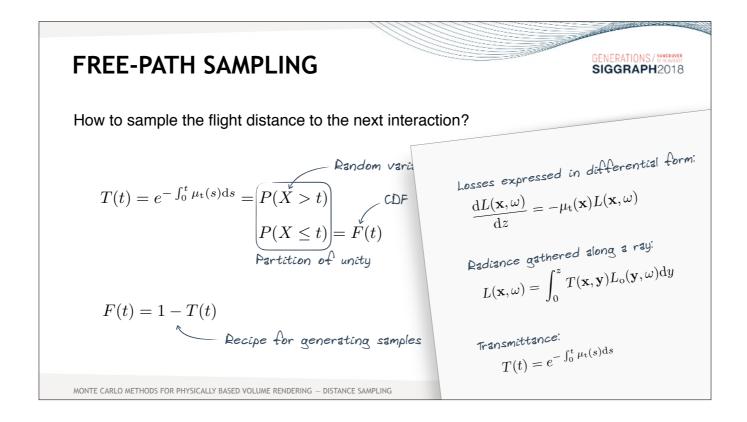


Distance-sampling methods can be classified as either analog or non-analog methods.

The terminology comes from neutron transport and refers to whether the method adheres to the physical process. A particle traced by an analog method is either scattered or absorbed strictly according the optical properties of the material. Such analog methods produce so-called free-path samples that are analogous to photon trajectories in the real world.

In contrast, non-analog methods deviate from the physical process producing distances that can be very different from real free paths. These methods can still achieve unbiased results if the samples are appropriately weighted to counteract the deviations from the physical process.

We will start with analog methods...

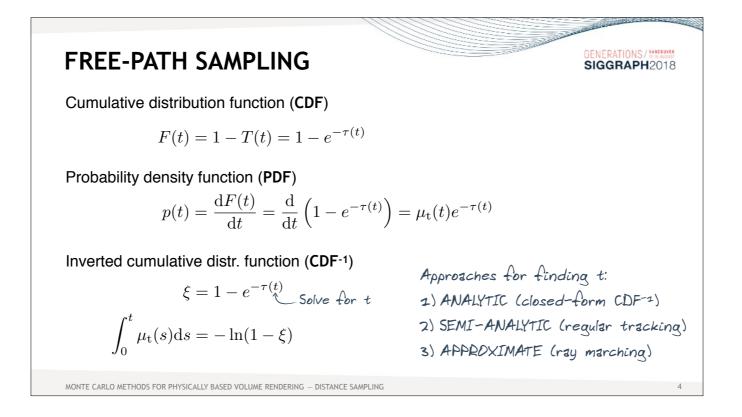


How would one go about sampling the free-flight distance to the next interaction?

If you recall, the interactions of radiance with the medium are described by the differential RTE (in box on the right). Integrating it spatially gives us the relation between the incident and integrated outgoing radiance. And these are related using transmittance, which quantifies the probability that a photon will travel beyond a given distance t.

How can we use this for sampling distances?

Notice, that the complementary probability that a photon will interact before reaching t meets the definition of a cumulative distribution function. Since these probabilities partition unity, we can define the CDF for sampling distances as the complementary probability to transmittance.

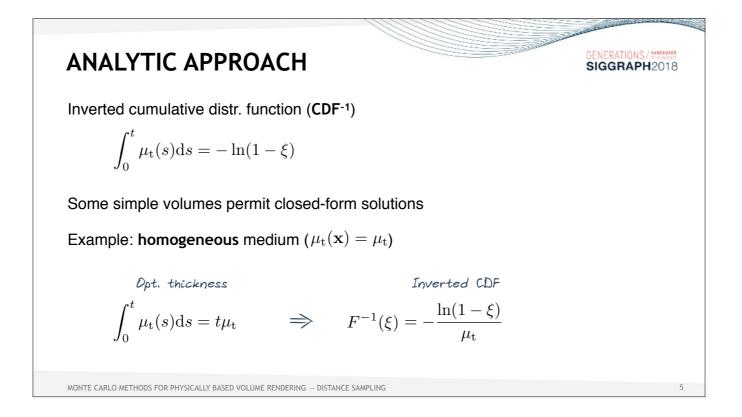


We need two more things...

We need to express the PDF of individual samples, which is achieved by differentiating the CDF.

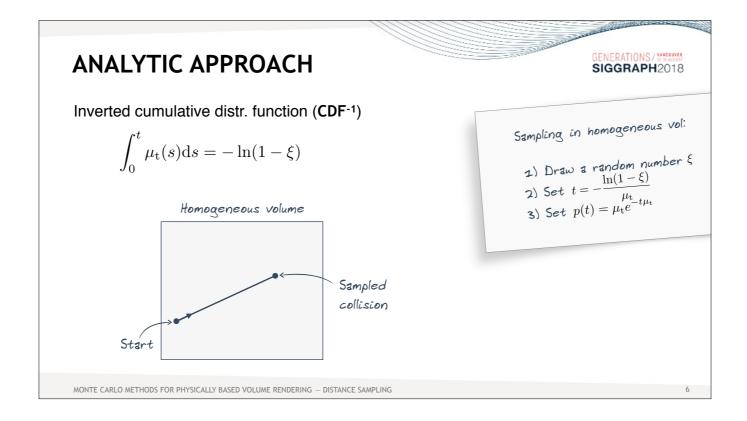
We also need to invert the CDF to obtain a recipe how to get from a random number to a sampled distance t. This leads to an equation, where we have the opticalthickness integral on the LHS, and a natural logarithm on the RHS. In other words, we are looking for a distance t at which the optical thickness equals to the negative logarithm.

Depending on the extinction function mu_t, we can find the distance either analytically, semi-analytically, or in an approximate manner. We will now look at these approaches in detail.



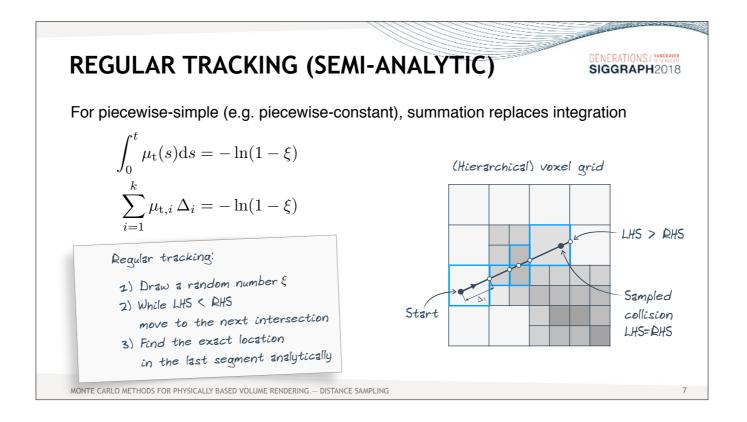
Some extinction functions allow expressing the optical thickness in closed form.

One such examples is a homogeneous medium, where the extinction function is simply a constant. The optical thickness is thus a simple linear function of t. When we plug this back to the CDF equation, we can solve it easily by dividing the RHS by the constant extinction. This yields the inverted CDF.



Sampling the free-flight distance in homogeneous volumes is therefore straightforward: given a position, we draw a random number and compute the free-flight distance to the first collision and the PDF. Everything is analytic and easy to implement.

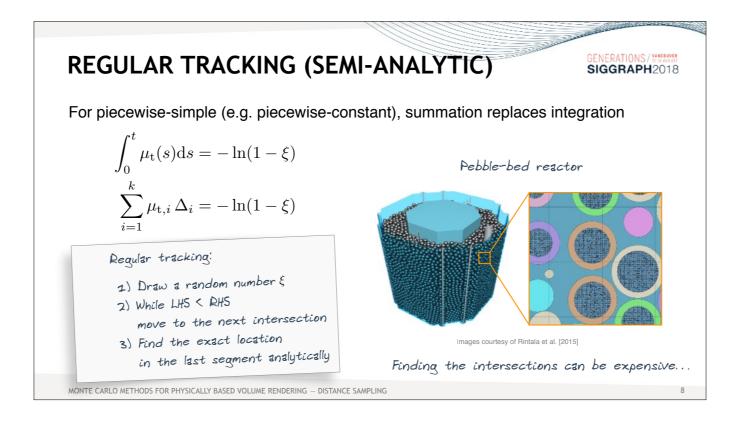
Unfortunately, most volumes do not permit closed-form free-path sampling.



If the volume is can be represented as a collection of simple volumes, for instance a voxel grid where each cell has constant extinction, the integration on the LHS will be replaced by a summation.

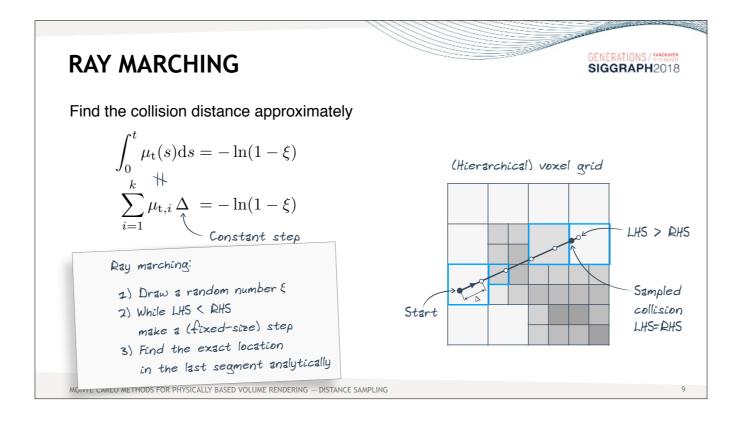
This leads to an iterative algorithm, called regular tracking: we first sample the optical thickness on the RHS, and step through the homogeneous partitions accumulating the optical thickness until the LHS exceeds the sampled value. Once this happens, we know the free-path sample is somewhere within the last partition and since the volume is simple, we can find the exact location analytically.

The main drawback of regular tracking is the necessity to find all the intersections with interfaces that separate individual homogeneous regions—this can be fairly expensive.



Regular tracking is often used in simulations of nuclear reactions pebble-bed reactors, where the environment can be modeled as a collection of spherical homogeneous volumes. It is sometimes referred to as surface tracking in neutron transport literature.

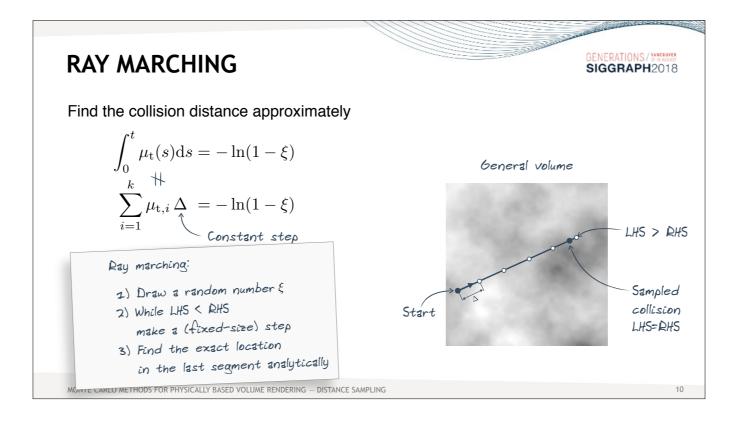
The main drawback of regular tracking is to necessity to find all the intersections with interfaces that separate individual homogeneous regions—this can be fairly expensive.



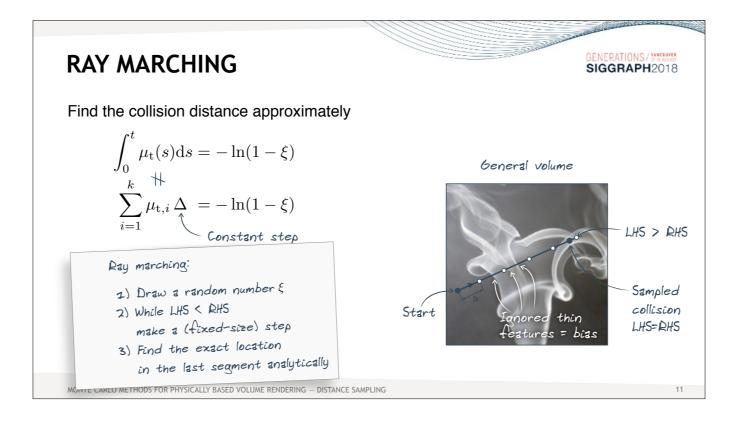
Sometimes, we can justify sampling free paths only approximately, in favor of higher speed. This bring me to the next algorithm, called ray marching.

The idea of ray marching is to ignore the interfaces, and march along the ray with a constant step size. The sum on the LHS thus no longer corresponds exactly to the integral, but it is easy to implement and avoids the need to find the interfaces.

Going back to the voxel-grid example, we march along the ray touching only some of the voxels and assume the extinction is constant (or polynomial) along each step. Once the sum exceeds the RHS, we again retract back finding the location within the last segment analytically.



As long as approximate free paths are acceptable, ray marching can be used with almost any kind of medium.



Ignoring the variation of the extinction function between the steps, however, biases the distribution of free paths—it is no longer a true free-path distribution.

ANALYTIC CDF-1	REGULAR TRACKING	RAY MARCHING
 Efficient & simple, limited to few volumes 	 Iterative, inefficient if free paths cross many boundaries 	 Iterative, inaccurate (or inefficient) for media with high frequencies
 Simple volumes (e.g. homogeneous) 	 Piecewise-simple volumes 	 Any volume
 Unbiased 	 Unbiased 	 Biased

Let's quickly summarize all the analog methods that we discussed until now.

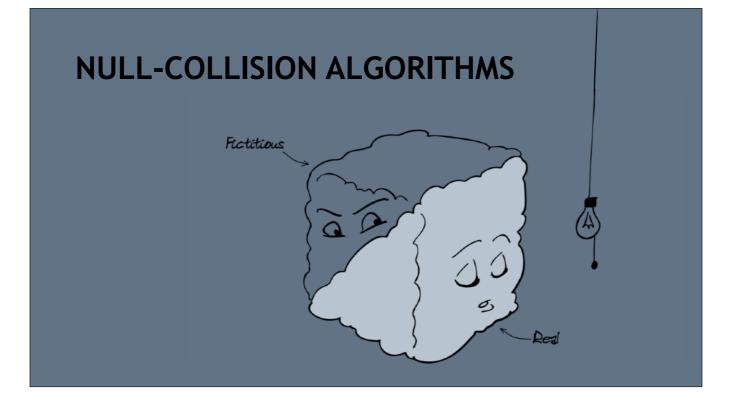
Analytic inversion sampling is certainly preferred, but can be achieved only for very few, rather simple volumes.

If the volume is piecewise-simple, we can iterate through individual volumes along the ray and still find the free-path sample in an unbiased way, but at the cost of finding all the intersections along the ray.

Finally, ray marching avoids this cost by stepping with a constant stride, but introduces bias.

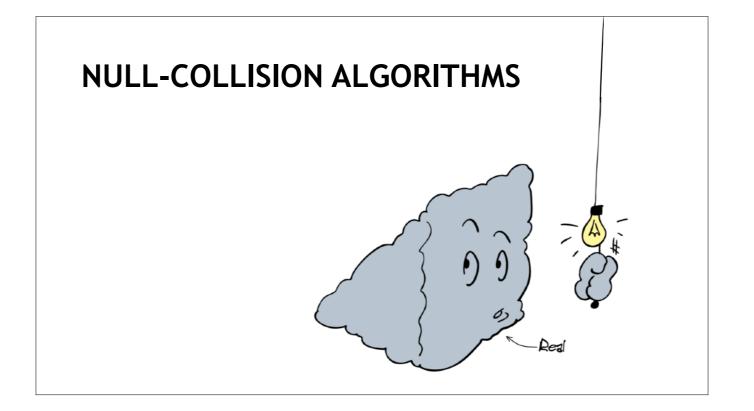
All these methods approach distance sampling in the same manner: they choose a random value of optical thickness and then sweep along the ray searching for the corresponding location.

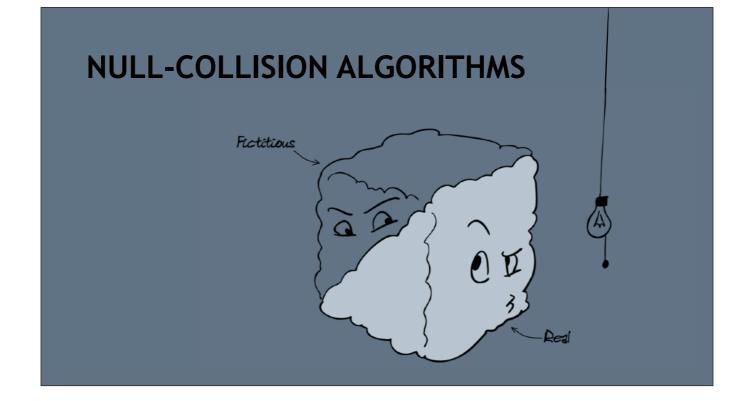
There is a very different approach, which allows sampling free paths in arbitrary volumes without introducing bias.

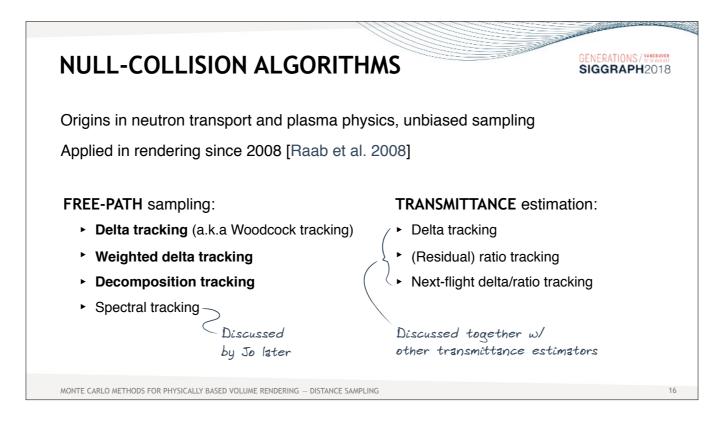


The approach is based on so-called null collisions.

The idea of null-collision algorithms is to add a fictitious material, which is completely transparent to light, but its presence enables closed-form sampling by homogenizing the extinction function.





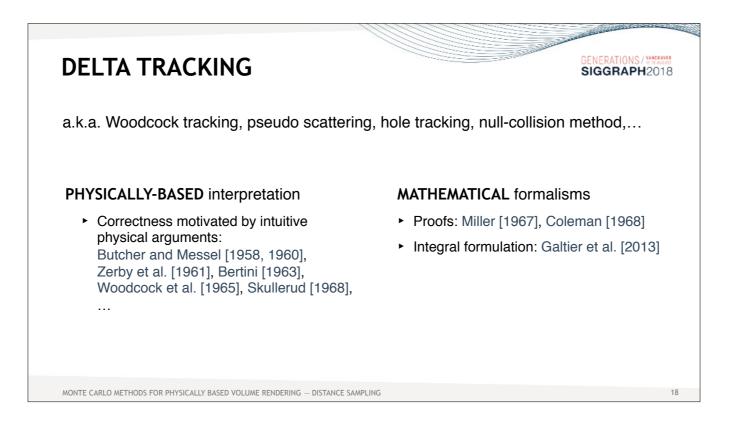


Null-collision methods were developed in neutron transport and plasma physics. They've been in use in computer graphics since 2008 and made it gradually all the way into production at some studios.

We will now discuss derivates of these algorithms for free-path sampling and detail the variants developed for estimating transmittance later.

DELTA TRACKING

WEIGHTED (DELTA) TRACKING DECOMPOSITION TRACKING

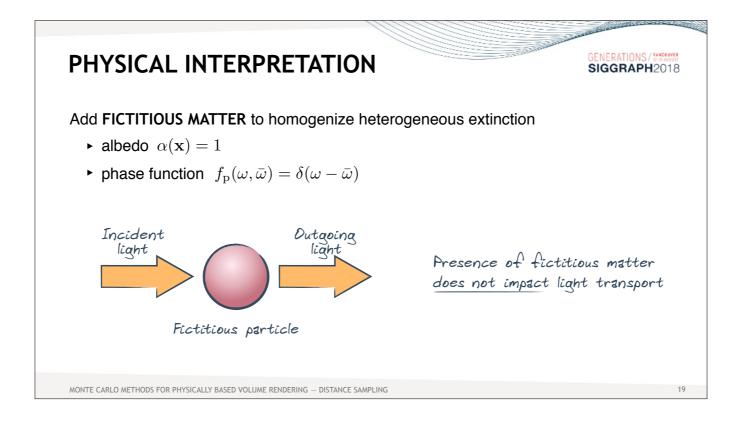


Delta tracking (also known as Woodcock tracking, pseudo scattering, hole tracking) is typically explained in papers using a set of physically-motivated arguments, where we reason about the presence of a fictitious matter and how light interacts with it.

However, there is also a mathematical formalization of the method, which allows us to drop these physical arguments, and reason about the correctness from a purely mathematical standpoint.

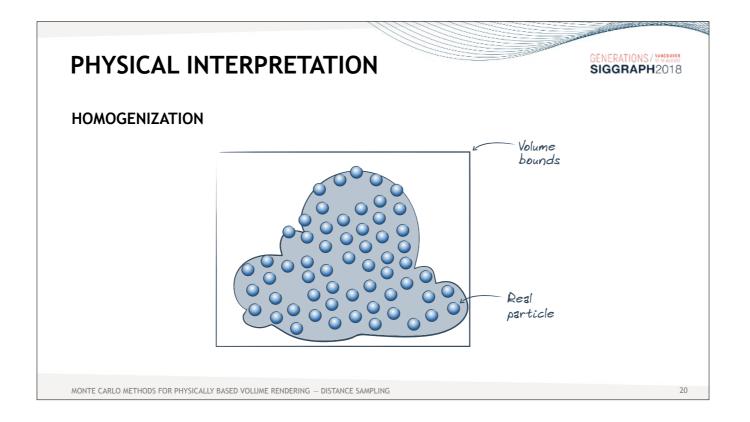
The mathematical approach provides us with a very convenient framework for postulating new variants of null-collision algorithms.

We will look at the physically-based interpretation first, and then discuss the mathematical formalism.

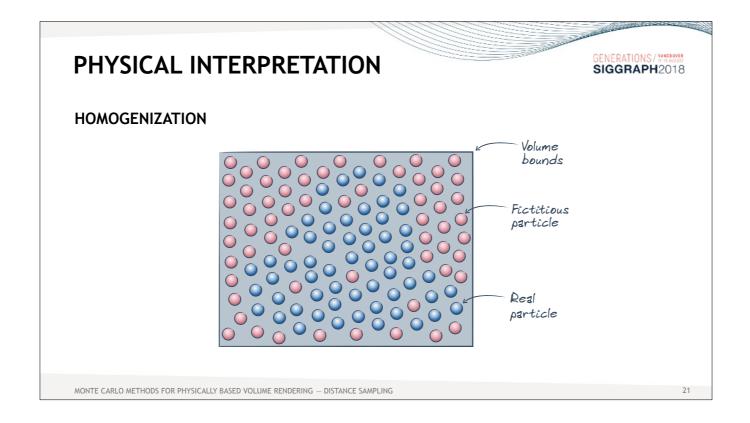


The idea of delta tracking is to add fictitious material, which homogenizes the volume and allows closed-form sampling of distances.

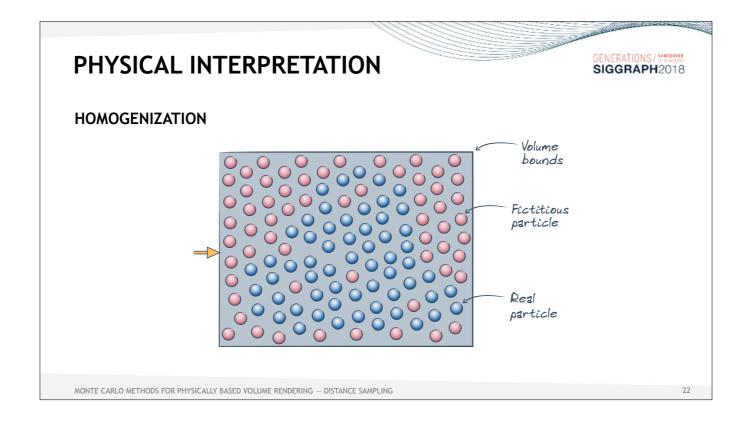
The fictitious material has albedo = 1, and its phase function is a delta function. A fictitious particle thus generates a so-called null-collision, after which all light continues forward, as if there was no collision.



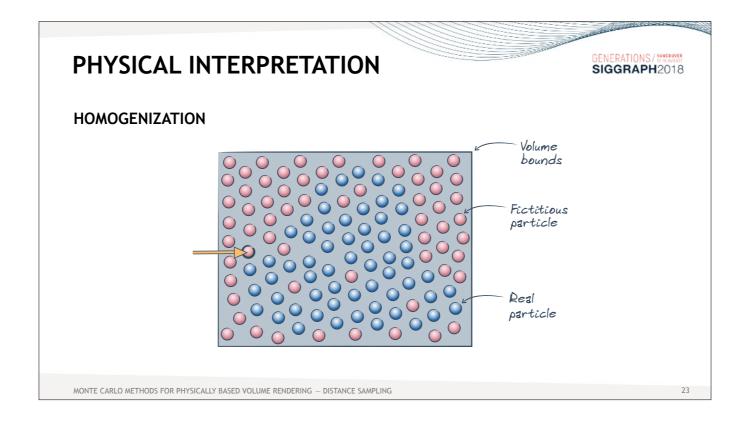
Here is a quick illustration of how the algorithm works. We take a heterogeneous volume, bound it by some geometry (in this example we use a box)...



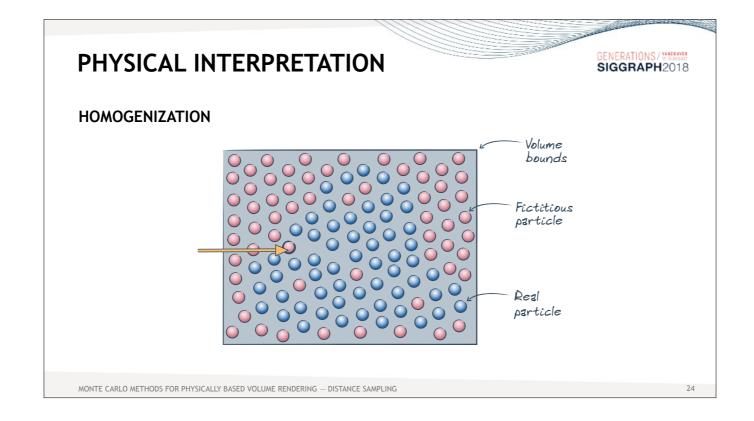
...and fill up the box with fictitious particles, so that the combined density of real and fictitious particles is the same everywhere.

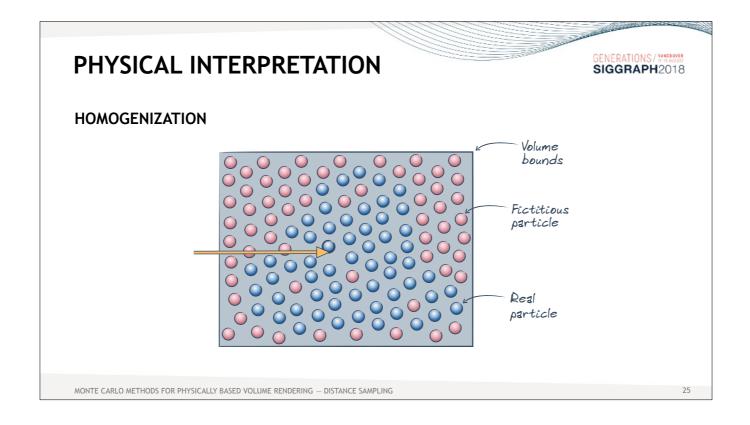


When a beam of light enters the box, it will hit some of the particles.

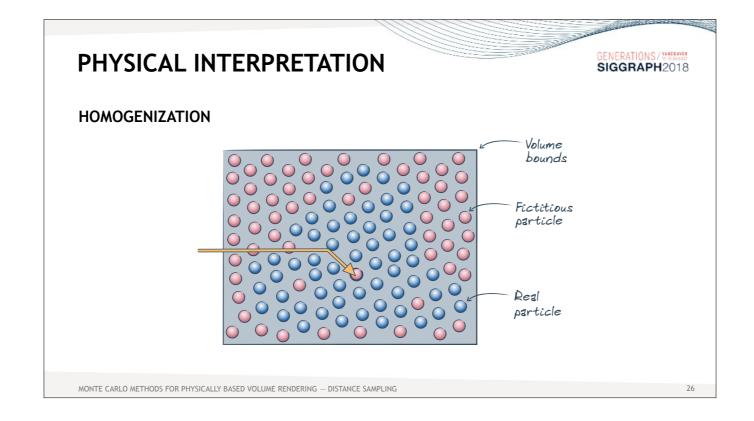


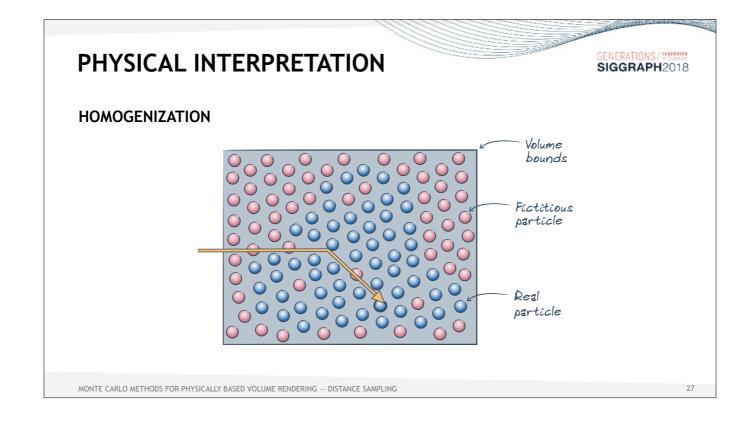
If the particle is fictitious, it produces a null collision upon which the light continues forward.

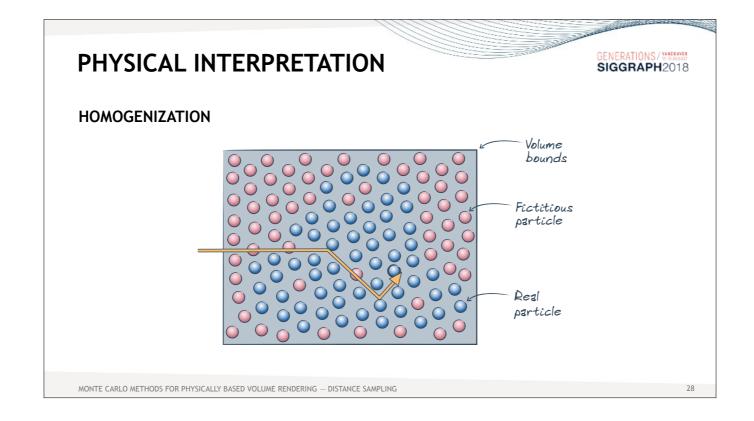


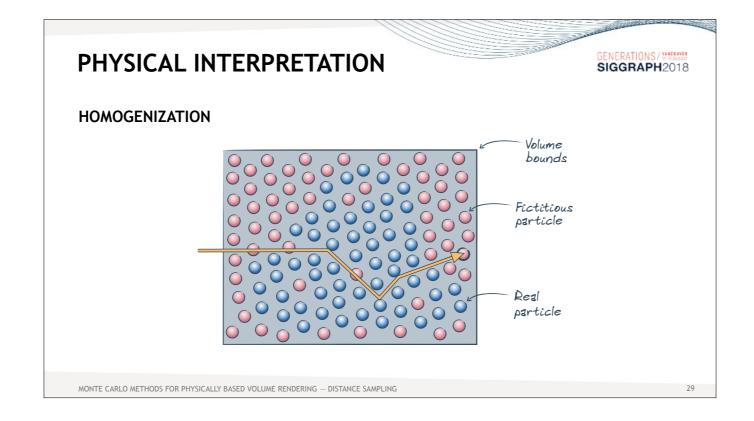


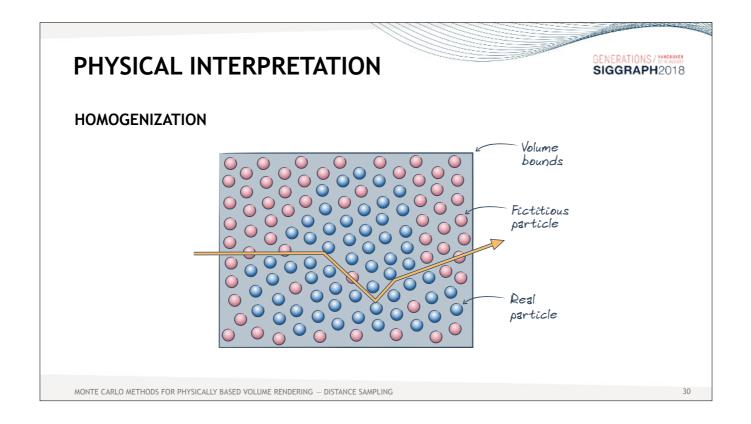
A real particle will absorb or scatter the light, as we see here.



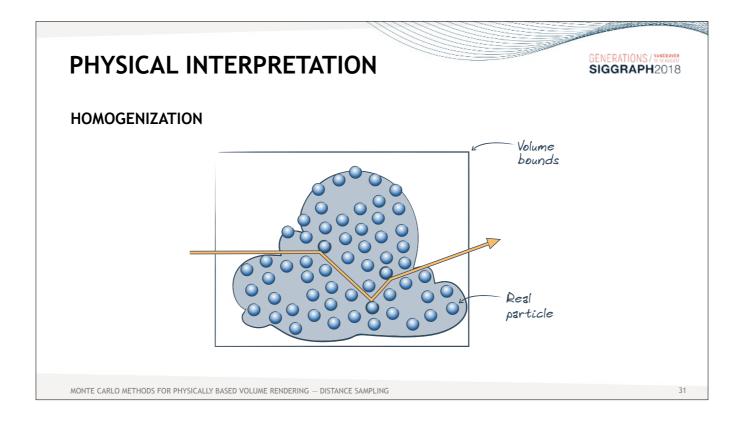






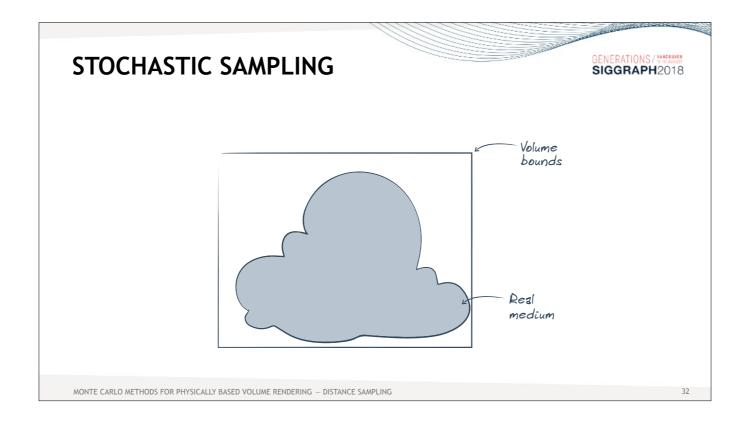


Notice that we have constructed a path through the medium, which, if we remove the fictitious particles...

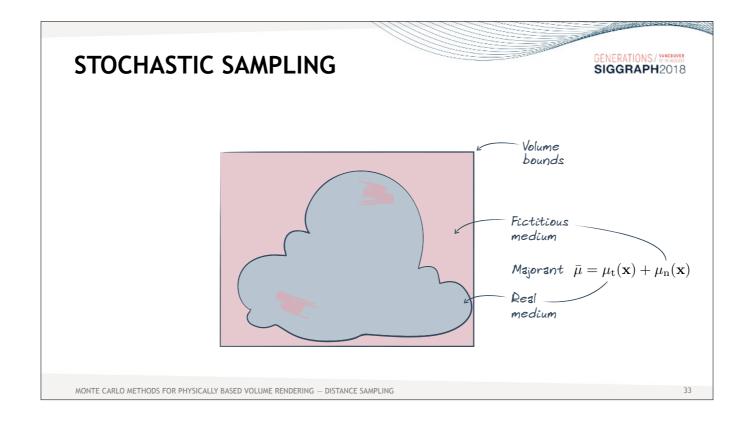


...appears to have interacted only with the real ones.

The fictitious particles did not anyhow alter the light path, but their presence is extremely convenient as they allow sampling distances to collisions analytically.

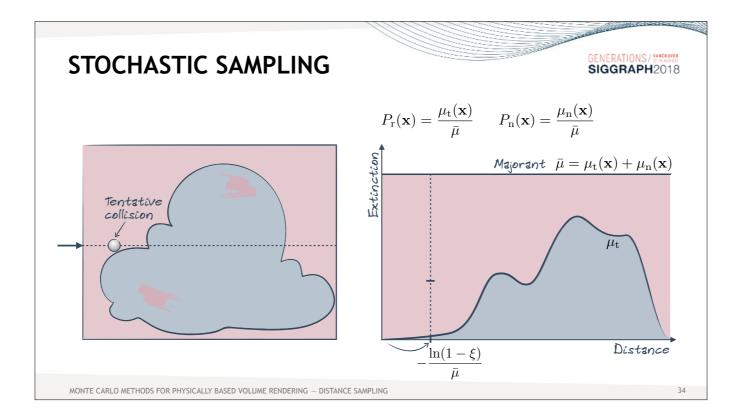


The particles here were only for illustration. In practice, the collisions are sampled stochastically on top of a statistical model of the medium.



In addition to the extinction coefficient of the real medium, we will also have a null-collision coefficient mu_n representing the fictitious medium. We will adjust the null-collision coefficient spatially, so that the sum of the two coefficients is constant everywhere in the medium.

We refer to this sum as the "majorant of the extinction function", or simply the "majorant".

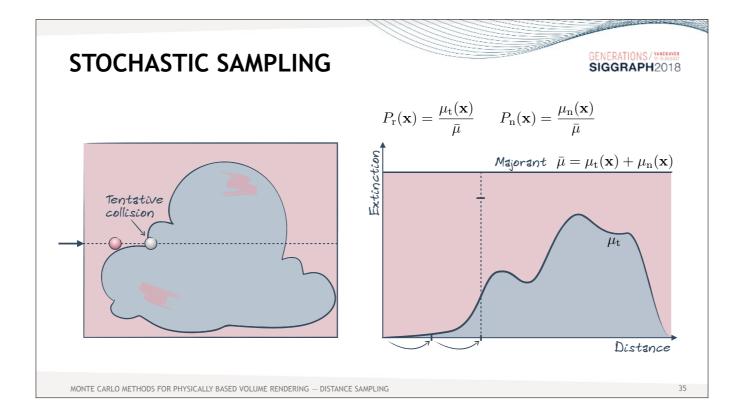


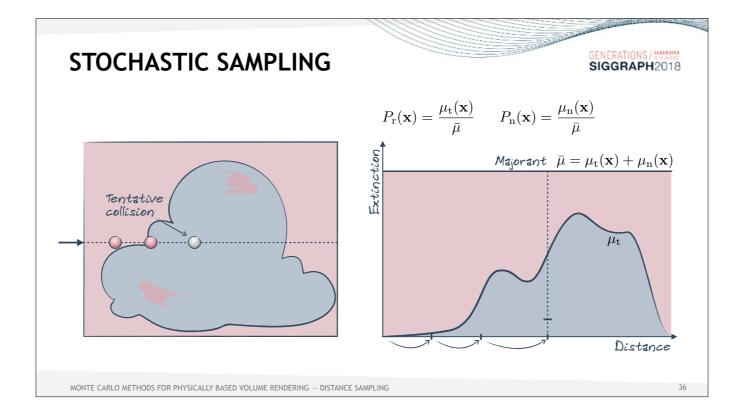
In order to sample the free path, we use the analytic inverse CDF derived from the constant majorant to obtain a distance to the first (tentative) collision.

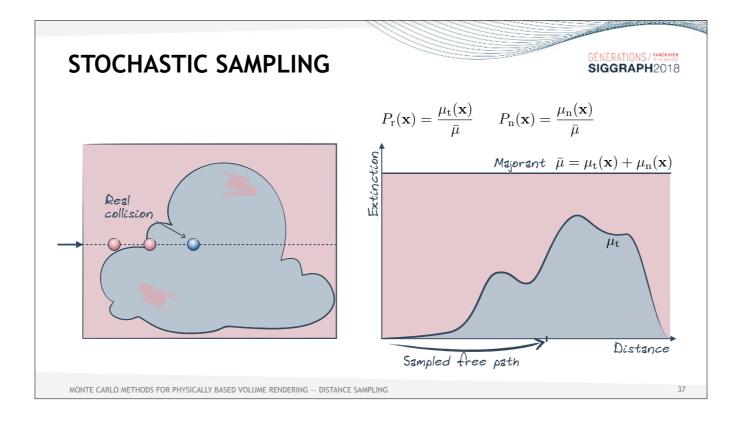
Next, we need to decide whether the collision is real or null. This is done stochastically using the following probabilities. The probability of a real collision is proportional to the extinction coefficient, analogously, the probability of a null collision is proportional to the null-collision coefficient.

The probabilistic classification can be visualized as picking a random height along the dashed line. Here, the random number selected a null collision.

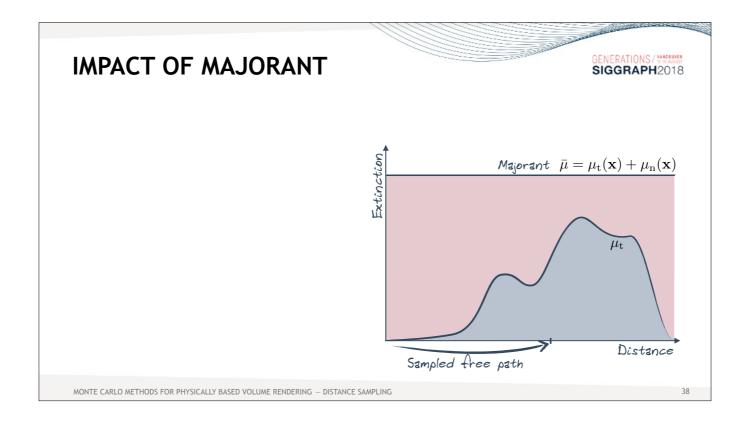
We repeat the distance sampling and probabilistic classification, until a real collision is found.



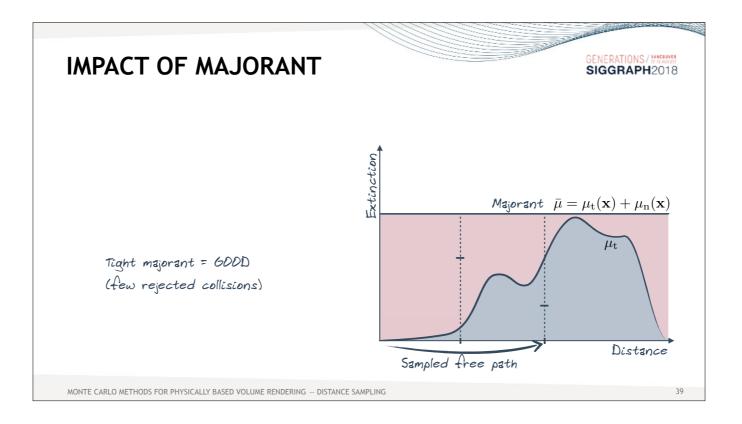




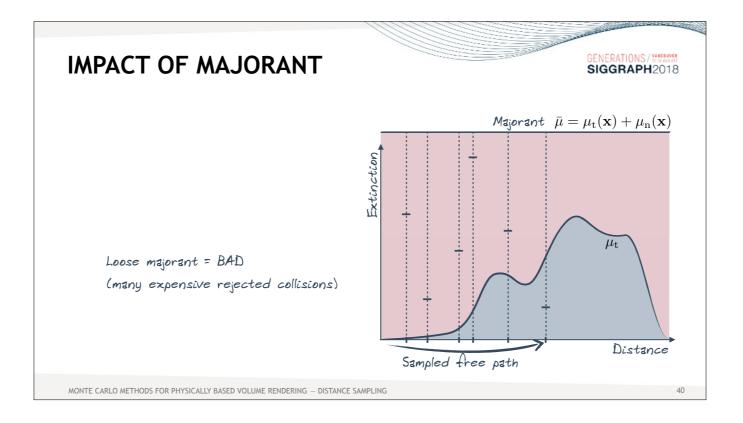
The distance to the first real collision represents the free-path sample. This is how delta tracking works: we move forward sampling distances in the combined medium and probabilistically classify each tentative collision is either real or null. The algorithm can be interpreted as a form of rejection sampling.



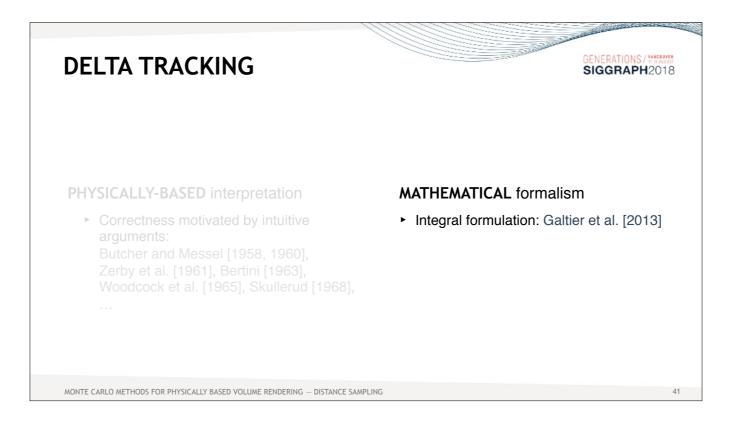
Let's quickly look how the value of the majorant impacts the algorithm.



If the majorant is tight, there will be only very few null collisions... this is good.



If the majorant is loose, there will be many null collisions, many rejections, and the free-path sample becomes expensive to construct. The majorant only impacts the efficiency though, the distribution of free paths is always correct with bounding majorants.



This was the physical interpretation of delta tracking: we add some matter, the photon interacts either with the original, or the new matter, but since the net impact of the new matter on light transport is null, we still obtain the correct free-path distribution. The physically-based interpretation can be somewhat limiting though.

We will now look at the algorithm from a rather mathematical perspective, which is inspired by the integral formulation of null-collision algorithms by Galtier and colleagues.

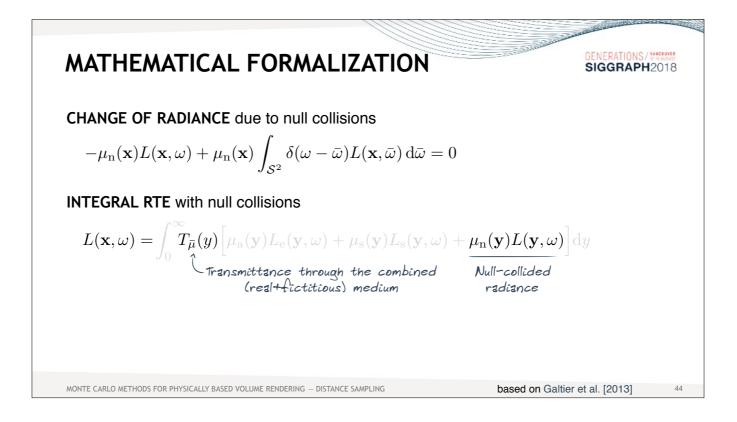
DELTA TRACKING WEIGHTED (DELTA) TRACKING DECOMPOSITION TRACKING

The mathematical formalization will essentially provide us with a family of weighted trackers, that can be more efficient and robust than delta tracking.

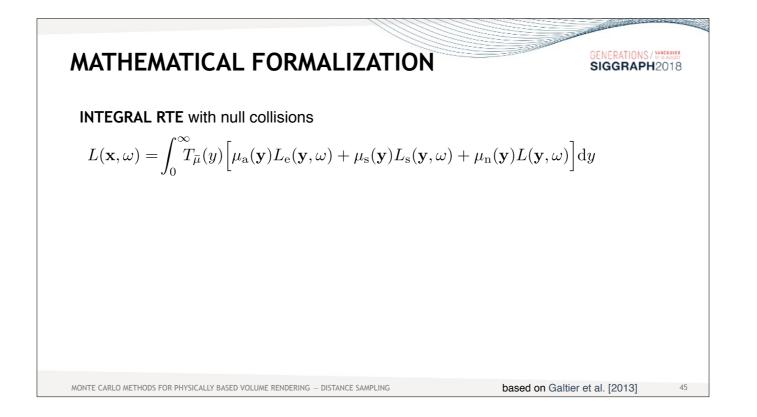
MATHEMATICAL FORMALIZATION	GENERATIONS / WICHWEIGHT
CHANGE OF RADIANCE due to null collisions	
$-\mu_{n}(\mathbf{x})L(\mathbf{x},\omega) + \mu_{n}(\mathbf{x})\int_{\mathcal{S}^{2}}\delta(\omega - \bar{\omega})L(\mathbf{x},\bar{\omega})\mathrm{d}\bar{\omega} = 0$ Losses ("in-scattering")	
Losses ("in-scattering")	
Cancel each other	
MONTE CARLO METHODS FOR PHYSICALLY BASED VOLUME RENDERING — DISTANCE SAMPLING	based on Galtier et al. [2013] 43

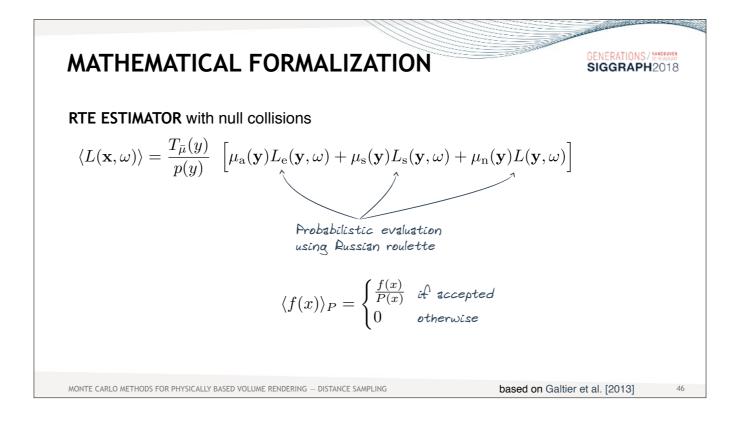
Let's start by formalizing the change of radiance due to null collisions. We said that the losses and the gains due to the null-collisions perfectly cancel out—they have to add up to zero not to impact light transport.

The differential equation formalizing the null collisions can be added to the RTE, which then changes in two places.

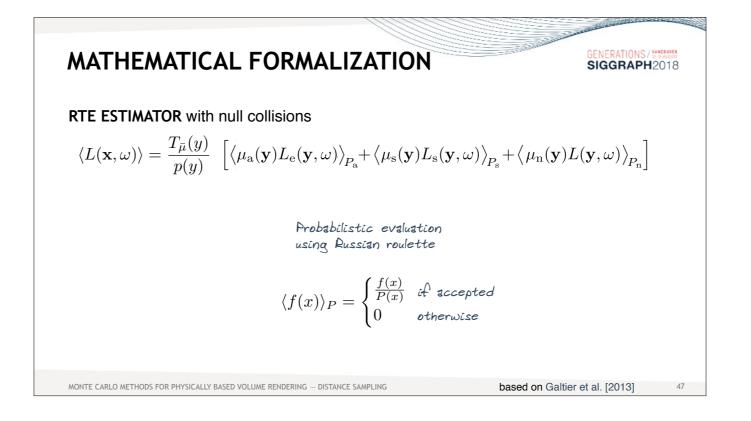


The transmittance here is with respect to the combined medium. It will be a bit lower than in the real medium, but this is compensated by the null-collided radiance, which counteracts the lower transmittance.





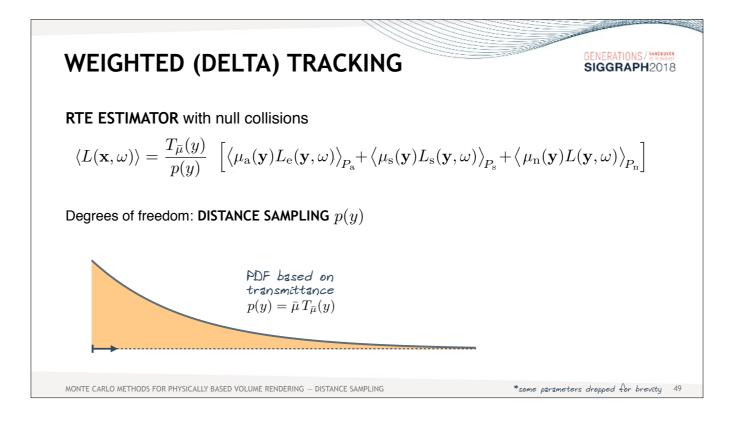
We now apply a Monte Carlo estimator and we will introduce one more concept here: the concept of probabilistic evaluation of the gains we have in the brackets, such that only one of them is selected for evaluation.



This can be done by invoking the Russian roulette on each of the gains.

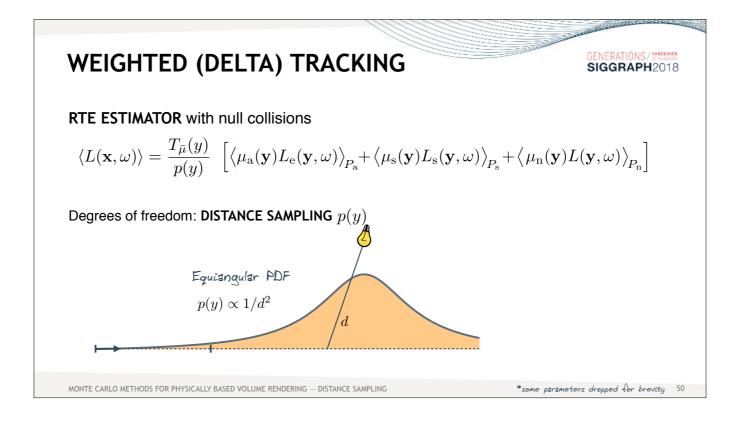
MATHEMATICAL FORMALIZATION	
RTE ESTIMATOR with null collisions	
$\langle L(\mathbf{x},\omega)\rangle = \frac{T_{\bar{\mu}}(y)}{p(y)} \left[\left\langle \mu_{\mathrm{a}}(\mathbf{y})L_{\mathrm{e}}(\mathbf{y},\omega)\right\rangle_{P_{\mathrm{a}}} + \left\langle \mu_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathbf{y})L_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathbf{y},\omega)\right\rangle_{P_{\mathrm{s}}} + \left\langle \mu_{\mathrm{n}}(\mathbf{y})L(\mathbf{y},\omega)\right\rangle_{P_{\mathrm{n}}} \right]$	
Represents an entire family of (weighted) trackers that all solve RTE! Delta tracking is just one specific instance.	
see EG STAR or Galtier et al. [2013] for complete derivation	
MONTE CARLO METHODS FOR PHYSICALLY BASED VOLUME RENDERING - DISTANCE SAMPLING	48

This mathematical formulation represents an *entire family* of weighted trackers that all solve the radiative transfer equation. The formalism here provides us with a convenient framework for developing new (weighted) trackers tailored to specific problems.

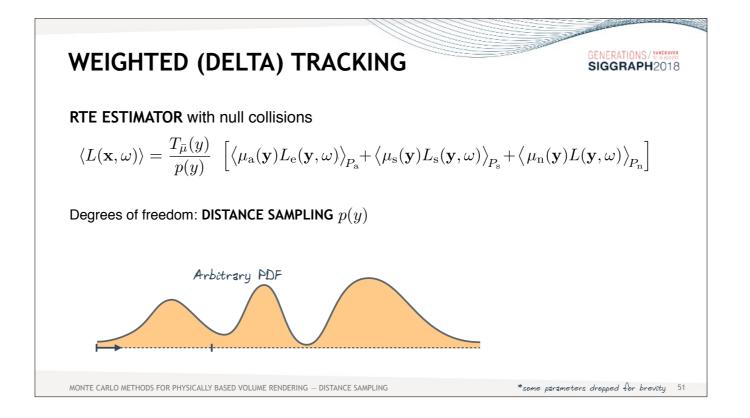


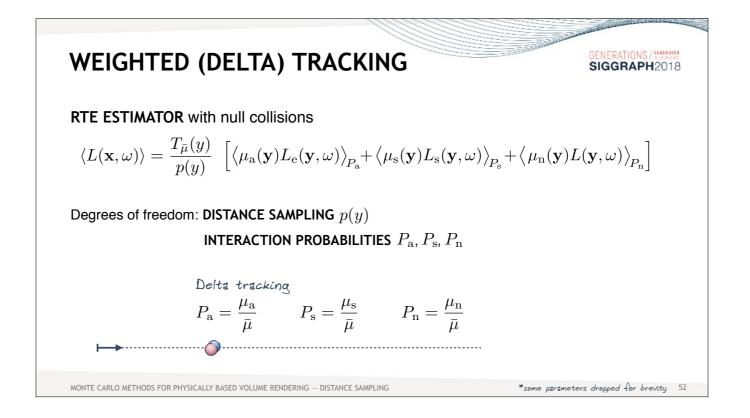
In particular, the estimator exposes two key degrees of freedom.

The first one is the distance sampling PDF for generating tentative collisions. Until now, we assumed the PDF to be derived from the homogenized combined medium.



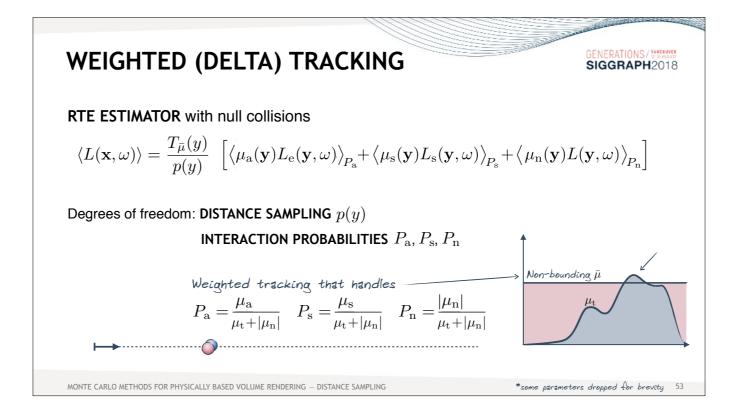
But the PDF can be arbitrary. It can take into account the light source, for instance, or some other knowledge we may have about the scene.



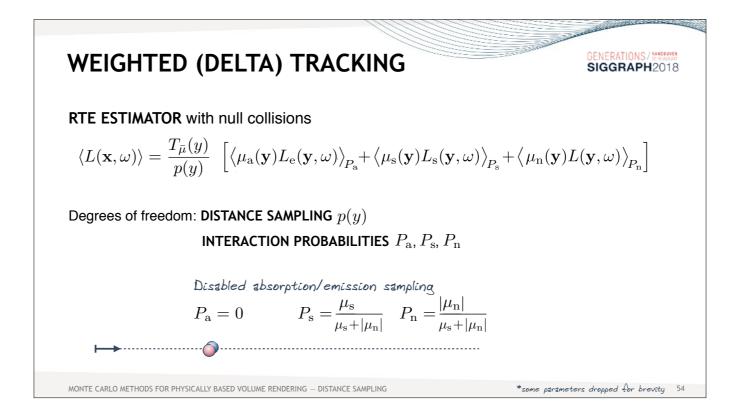


The second degree of freedom are the interaction probabilities. As long as we do not violate the definition of probability, we can set these arbitrarily.

Delta tracking derives them from collision coefficients using physical arguments. This limits the applicability of delta tracking, for instance we cannot handle negative values of these coefficients. While negative collision coefficient may not sound physically plausible (which should we care then?), they may occur in practice. For instance, when the "majorant" is computed only approximately (e.g. for procedural volumes) it may occasionally underestimate the extinction coefficient. The density of fictitious particles is then negative and the ratios of collision coefficients to the majorant (as defined in delta tracking) are outside of the [0,1] range—the do not represent valid probabilities.

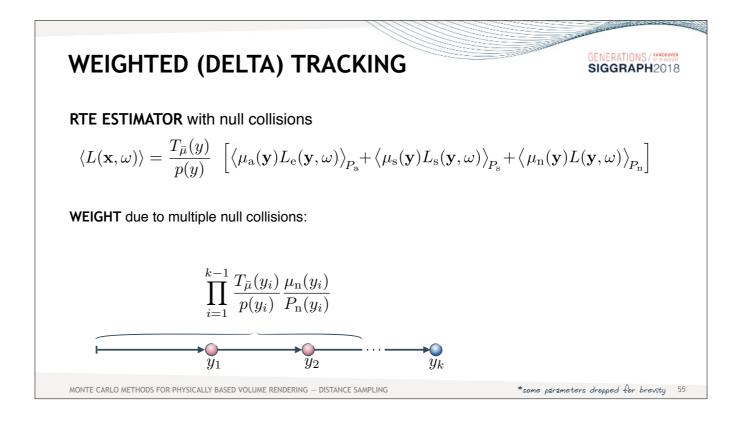


We can adjust the probabilities to accommodate for such situations and make the algorithm more robust.



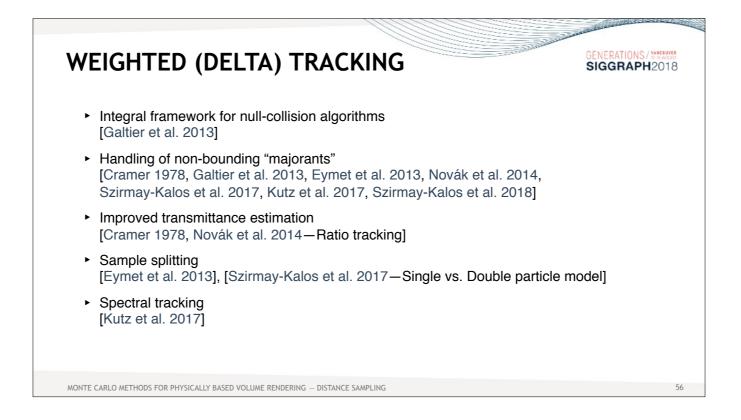
Another option is, for instance, to disable absorption/emission sampling if we know there is no emission in the volume.

One can imagine many other schemes of biasing the collision probabilities in order to reduce estimation variance in various situations; this is an active area of research.

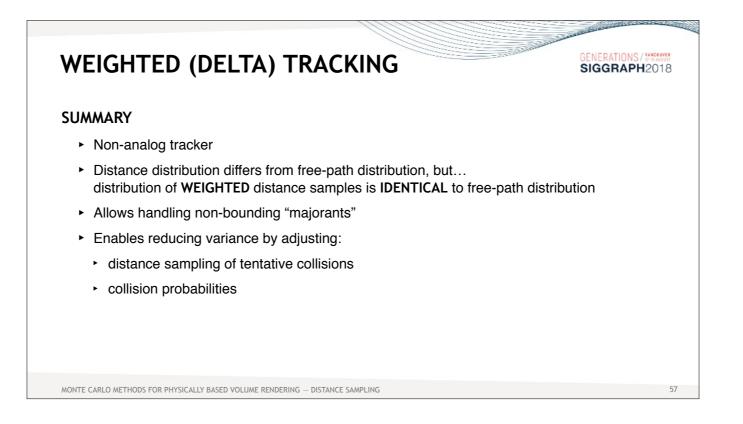


In all of these situations, the deviations from the analog process are compensated for by a weight at each collision. The weight amounts to the transmittance divided by the PDF, multiplied by the collision coefficient divided by the respective probability.

In the case of multiple null collisions, we then end up with a product of these local collision weights. This product is essentially the path throughput along a chain of null collisions.



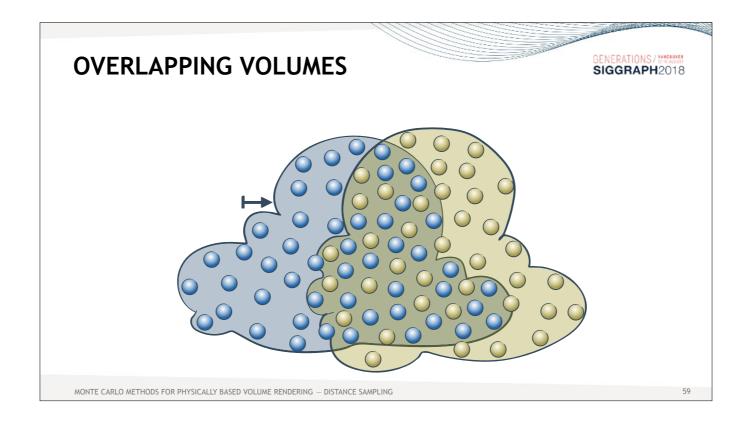
There are many approaches for setting these probabilities and PDFs. Some for handling non-bounding majorants, others that improve transmittance estimation or balance the evaluation of individual gains. Probably the most useful feature of weighted delta tracking is that it can handle multiple wavelengths at the same time, so we no longer need to execute delta tracking for each color channel independently.



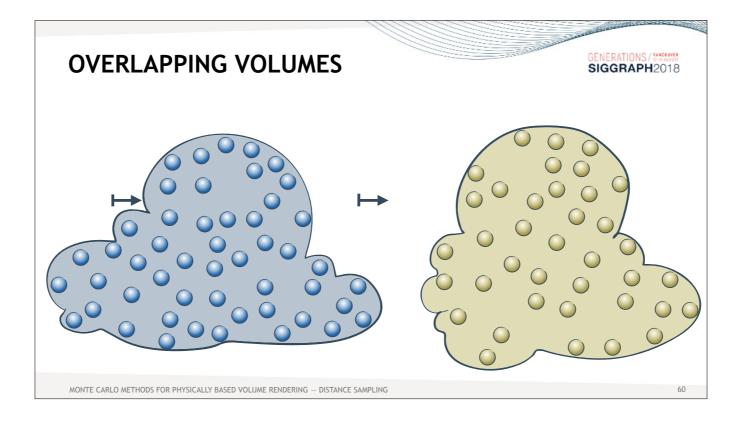
In summary, weighted tracking is a non-analog tracker, which weights distance samples to yield the correct distribution. In my opinion, there are still many unexplored variants of the algorithm that could be tailored to various problems, and the mathematical formalism that we reviewed is extremely useful—it provides us with a common language for discussing and comparing new algorithms across fields.

DELTA TRACKING WEIGHTED (DELTA) TRACKING DECOMPOSITION TRACKING

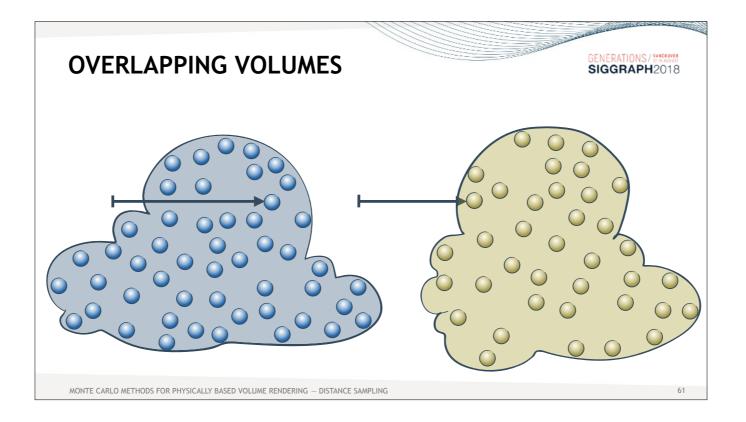
The last tracker that I will briefly discuss is called decomposition tracking.



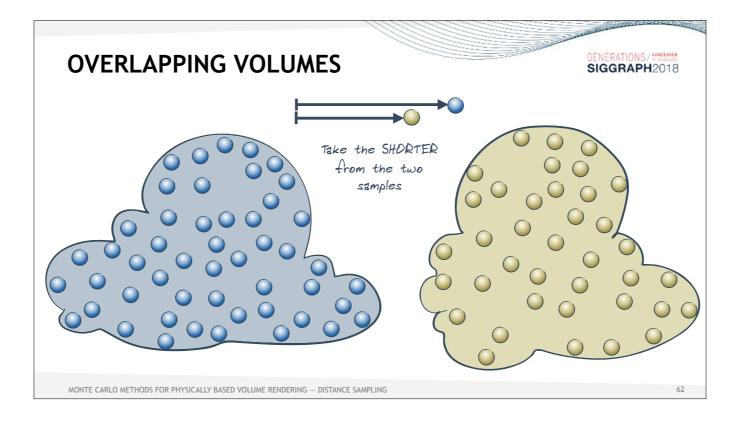
Before we look at the tracker, let's talk about how to sample free paths in overlapping volumes.



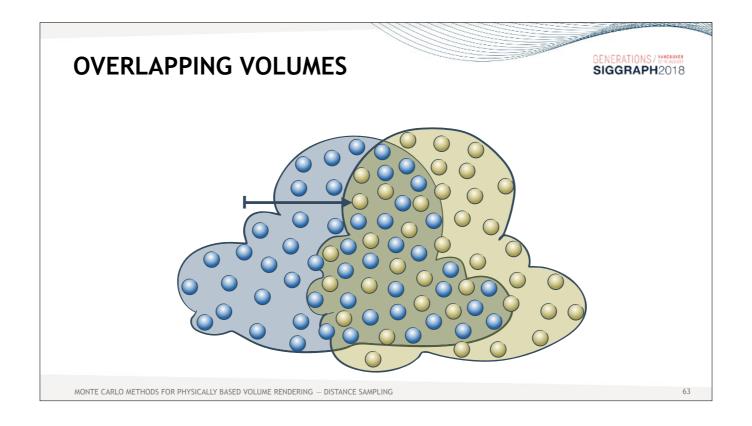
Let us assume we can only handle each volume in isolation.



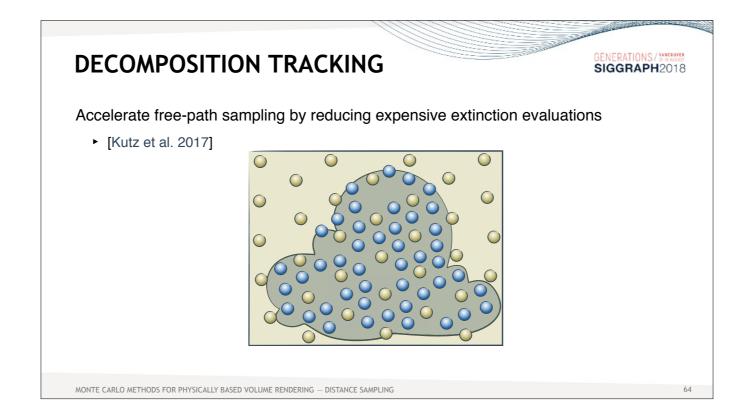
To sample a free path in the composite, we can sample a free path in each volume independently...



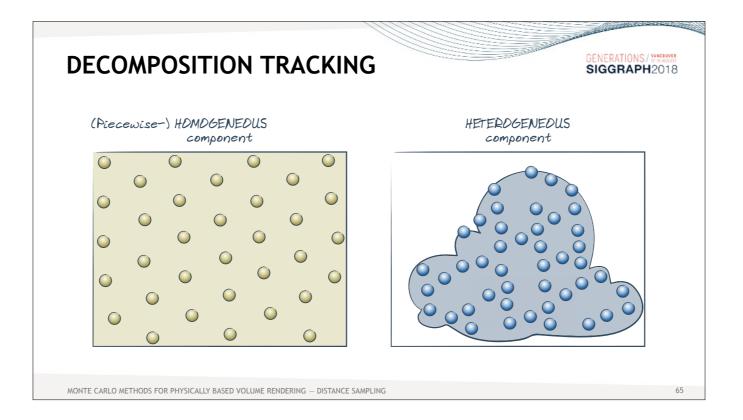
...and then take the shorter of the two samples.



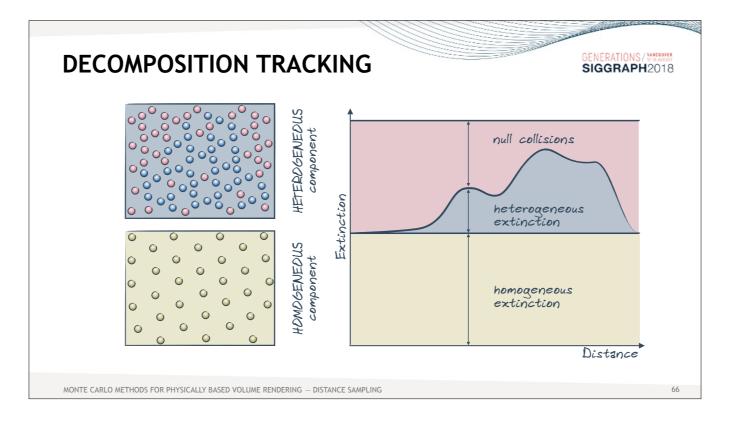
This will become the free path sample in the combined volume.



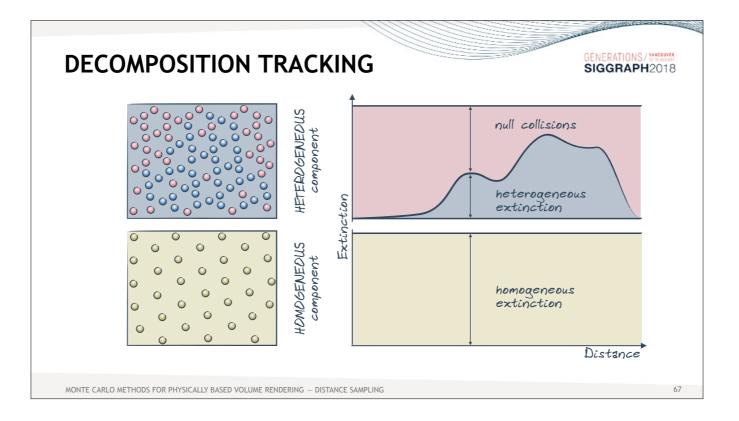
Peter Kutz at Disney Animation made the observation that decomposing the volume into overlapping volumes can actually be used to reduce the cost of tracking, specifically, we can lower the number of evaluations of spatially varying coefficients.



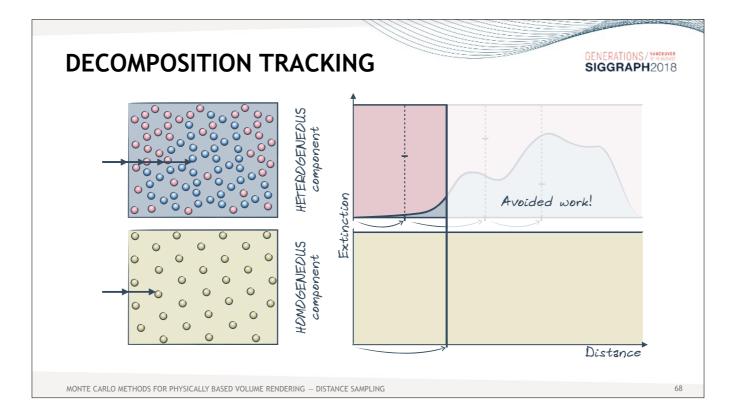
Let's assume the volume can be decomposed into a homogeneous part, on the left, and a residual heterogeneous part on the right.



The extinction function then consists of a homogeneous component, a heterogeneous component, and fictitious matter to enable delta tracking.

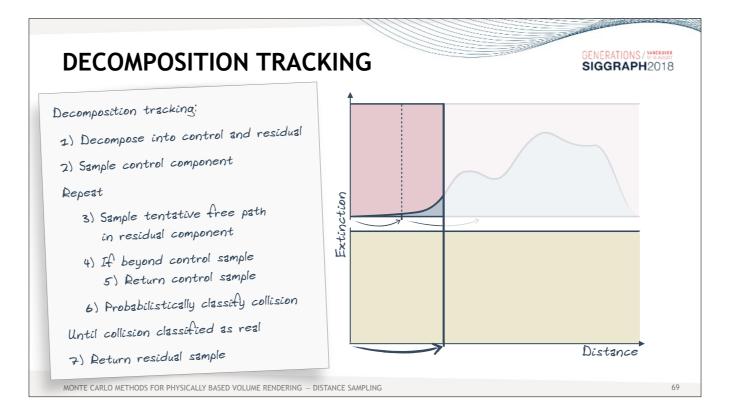


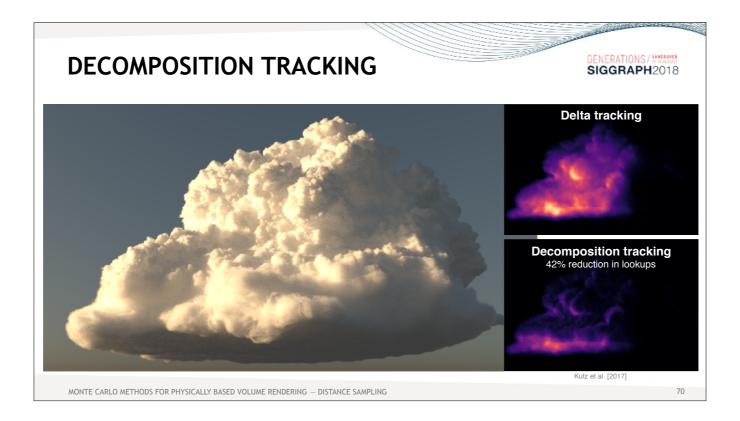
The idea of decomposition tracking is to sample each component independently and take the shorter of the two samples.



We start with the homogeneous component, obtaining a distance sample analytically. We then use this as the upper bound for delta tracking in the heterogeneous component. If the tracker is about to exceed this bound, then we terminate the tracking without continuing further since we know that the distance sample in the homogeneous volume is shorter and will be used as the free-path sample.

This way we can save a lot of delta tracking steps, which can be fairly expensive.





Here is an example. The cloud was subdivided using an octree where each cell contains a homogeneous and a residual heterogeneous component. Decomposition tracking reduces the number of extinction lookups by 42% yielding the same free-path samples as delta tracking.

