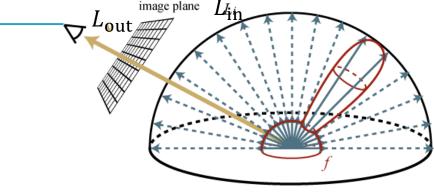
Advanced 3D graphics for movies and games (NPGR010)

Monte Carlo integration & Direct illumination

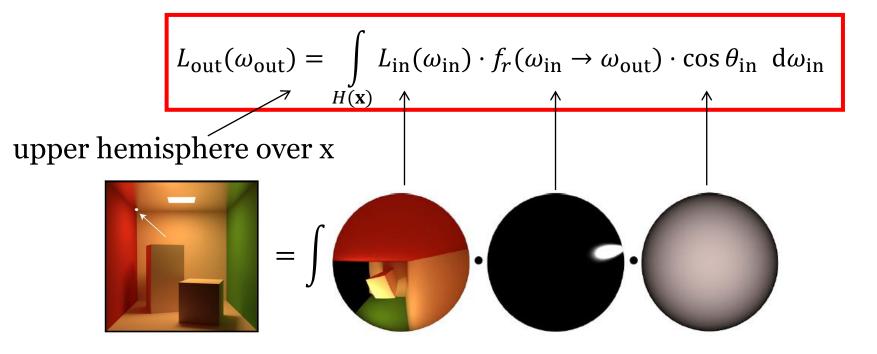
Jiří Vorba, MFF UK/Weta Digital jirka@cgg.mff.cuni.cz

Slides of prof. Jaroslav Křivánek, minor edits by Jiří Vorba

Entire the lecture in 5 slides



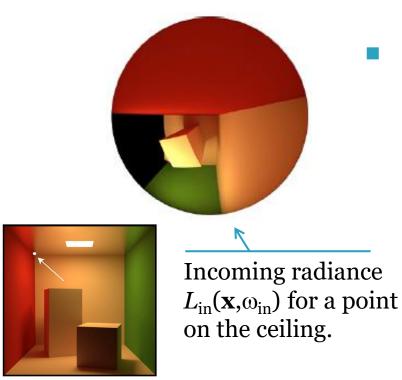
• Total reflected radiance: integrate contributions of incident radiance, weighted by the BRDF, over the hemisphere



Reflection equation

Rendering = Integration of functions

$$L_{\text{out}}(\omega_{\text{out}}) = \int_{H(\mathbf{x})} L_{\text{in}}(\omega_{\text{in}}) \cdot f_r(\omega_{\text{in}} \to \omega_{\text{out}}) \cdot \cos \theta_{\text{in}} \, \mathrm{d}\omega_{\text{in}}$$

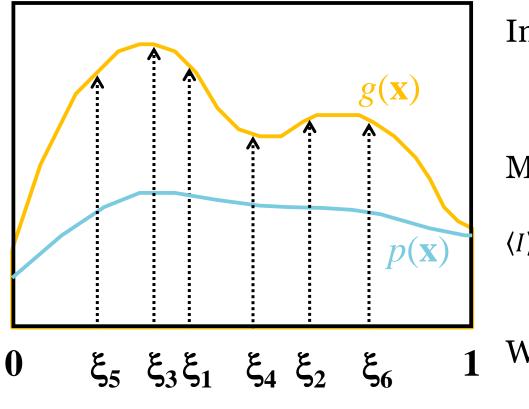


Problems

- Discontinuous integrand (visibility)
- Arbitrarily large integrand values (e.g. light distribution in caustics, BRDFs of glossy surfaces)
 - Complex geometry

Monte Carlo integration

General tool for estimating definite integrals



Integral:

$$I = \int g(\mathbf{x}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}$$

Monte Carlo estimate *I*:

$$\langle I \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{g(\xi_k)}{p(\xi_k)}; \quad \xi_k \propto p(\mathbf{x})$$

Works "on average": $E[\langle I \rangle] = I$

Application of MC to reflection eq: Estimator of reflected radiance

Integral to be estimated:

 $\int_{H(\mathbf{x})} L_{in}(\omega_{in}) f_r(\omega_{in} \to \omega_{out}) \cos \theta_{in} d\omega_{in}$ integrand(ω_{in}) pdf for cosine-proportional sampling:

$$p(\omega_{\rm in}) = \frac{\cos \theta_{\rm in}}{\pi}$$

MC estimator (formula to use in the renderer):

$$\hat{L}_{out} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\operatorname{integrand}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k})}{\operatorname{pdf}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k})}$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} L_{\mathrm{in}}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k}) f_r(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k} \to \omega_{\mathrm{out}})$$

Estimator of reflected radiance: Implementation

// input variables

```
x...shaded point on a surface
normal...surface normal at x
omegaOut...viewing (camera) direction
estimatedRadianceOut := Rqb(0,0,0);
for k = 1 \dots N
         [omegaInK, pdf] := generateRndDirection();
        // evaluate integrand
        radianceInEst := getRadianceIn(x, omegaInK);
        brdf := evalBrdf(x, omegaInK, omegaOut);
        cosThetaIn := dot(normal, omegaInK);
        integrand := radianceInEst * brdf * cosThetaIn;
        // evaluate contribution to the outgoing radiance
        estimatedRadianceOut += integrand / pdf;
```

end for

```
estimatedRadianceOut /= N;
```

Variance => image noise



... and now the slow way

Digression: Numerical quadrature

Quadrature formulas for numerical integration

• General formula in 1D:

$$\hat{I} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} w_k g(x_k)$$

gintegrand (i.e. the integrated function)Nquadrature order (i.e. number of integrand samples) x_k node points (i.e. positions of the samples) $g(x_k)$ integrand values at node points w_k quadrature weights

Quadrature formulas for numerical integration

- Quadrature rules differ by the choice of node point positions x_k and the weights w_k
 - E.g. rectangle rule, trapezoidal rule, Simpson's method, Gauss quadrature, ...
- The samples (i.e. the node points) are placed deterministically $f(x_{i+1})$ $f(x_{i+1})$ $f(x_i)$ $f(x_i)$

Quadrature formulas in multiple dimensions

General formula for quadrature of a function of multiple variables:

$$\hat{I} = \sum_{k_1=1}^{N} \sum_{k_2=1}^{N} \dots \sum_{k_d=1}^{N} w_{k_1} w_{k_2} \dots w_{k_s} f(x_{k_1}, x_{k_2}, \dots, x_{k_d})$$

- Convergence speed of approximation error *E* for a *d*-dimensional integral is $E = O(N^{-1/d})$
 - E.g. in order to cut the error in half for a 3-dimensional integral, we need 2³ = 8 times more samples
- Unusable in higher dimensions
 Dimensional explosion

Quadrature formulas in multiple dimensions

Deterministic quadrature vs. Monte Carlo

- In 1D deterministic better than Monte Carlo
- □ In 2D roughly equivalent
- □ From 3D, MC will always perform better
- Remember, quadrature rules are NOT the Monte Carlo method

Monte Carlo

History of the Monte Carlo method

- Atomic bomb development, Los Alamos 1940 John von Neumann, Stanislav Ulam, Nicholas Metropolis
- Further development and practical applications from the early 50's

Monte Carlo method

- We simulate many random occurrences of the same type of events, e.g.:
 - Neutrons emission, absorption, collisions with hydrogen nuclei
 - **Behavior of computer networks, traffic simulation.**
 - Sociological and economical models demography, inflation, insurance, etc.

Monte Carlo – applications

- Financial market simulations
- Traffic flow simulations
- Environmental sciences
- Particle physics
- Quantum field theory
- Astrophysics

. . .

- Molecular modeling
- Semiconductor devices
- Optimization problems
- Light transport calculations

Slide credit: Iwan Kawrakov

Example: calculation of π



Area of square: $A_s = 4$ Area of circle: $A_c = \pi$ Fraction p of random points inside circle:

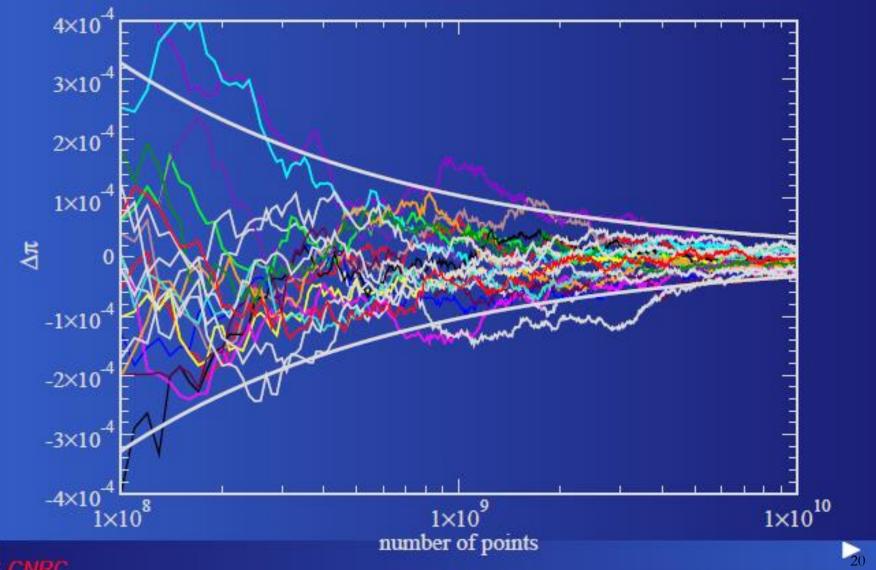
$$p = rac{A_c}{A_s} = rac{\pi}{4}$$

Random points: NRandom points inside circle: N_c

 $\Rightarrow \pi = \frac{4N_c}{N}$

Slide credit: Iwan Kawrakov

Calculation of π (cont'd)



Variance => image noise



Monte Carlo integration

- Samples are placed randomly (or pseudo-randomly)
- Convergence of standard error: std. dev. = $O(N^{-1/2})$
 - Convergence speed independent of dimension
 - Faster than classic quadrature rules for 3 and more dimensions
- Special methods for placing samples exist
 - Quasi-Monte Carlo
 - Faster asymptotic convergence than MC for "smooth" functions

Monte Carlo integration

Pros

- Simple implementation
- Robust solution for complex integrands and integration domains
- Effective for high-dimensional integrals

Cons

- Relatively slow convergence halving the standard error requires four times as many samples
- In rendering: images contain noise that disappears slowly

Review – Random variables

Random variable

- *X* ... random variable
- X assumes different values with different probability
 Given by the probability distribution D
 X ~ D

Discrete random variable

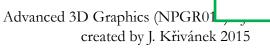
- Finite set of values of *x*_i
- Each assumed with prob. p_i

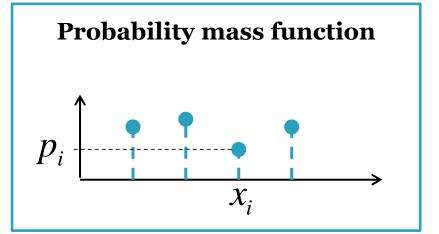
$$p_i \equiv \Pr(X = x_i) \ge 0$$

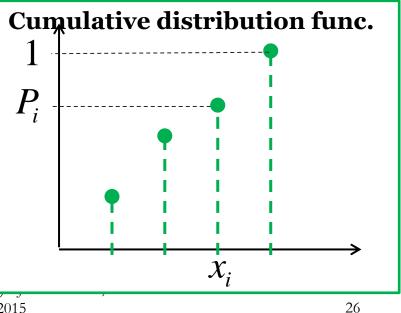
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1$$

 Cumulative distribution function

$$P_i \equiv \Pr(X \le x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^i p_j \qquad P_n = 1$$







Probability density function, **pdf**, *p*(*x*)

$$\Pr(X \in D) = \int_D p(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

In 1D:

$$\Pr(a < X \le b) = \int_a^b p(t) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

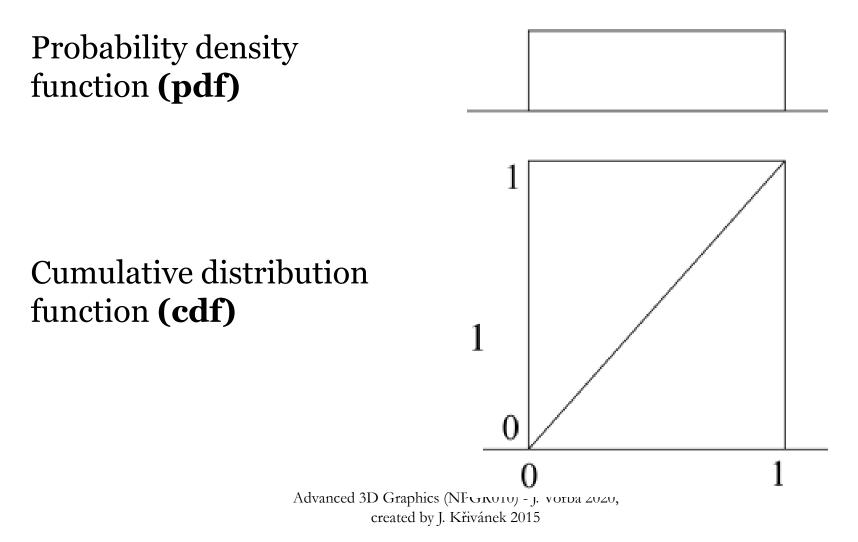
Cumulative distribution function, cdf, P(x)

In 1D:

$$P(x) \equiv \Pr(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} p(t) dt$$

$$\Pr(X=a) = \int_a^a p(t) \, \mathrm{d}t = 0 \, !$$

Example: Uniform distribution



Gaussian (normal) distribution

Probability density function **(pdf)**

Cumulative distribution function (cdf)

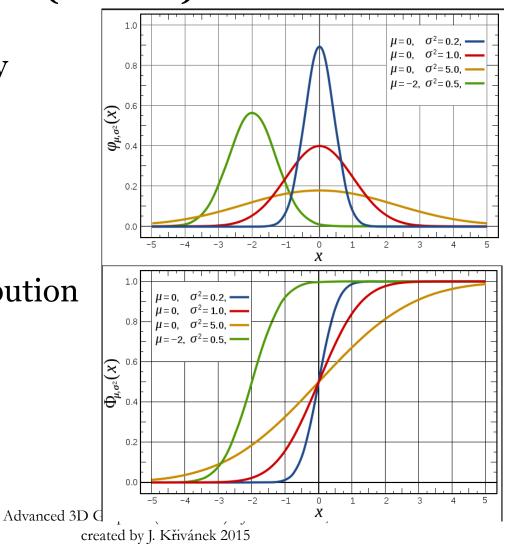


Image: wikipedia

Expected value and variance

Expected value

$$E[X] = \int_D \mathbf{x} \ p(\mathbf{x}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}$$

• Variance

$$V[X] = E[(X - E[X])^{2}]$$

= $E[X^{2} - 2XE[X] + E[X]^{2}]$
= $E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2}$

Properties of variance

$$V[\sum_{i} X_{i}] = \sum_{i} V[X_{i}] \quad \text{(if } X_{i} \text{ are independent)}$$

$$V[aX] = a^{2}V[X]$$
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Transformation of a random variable

$$Y = g(X)$$

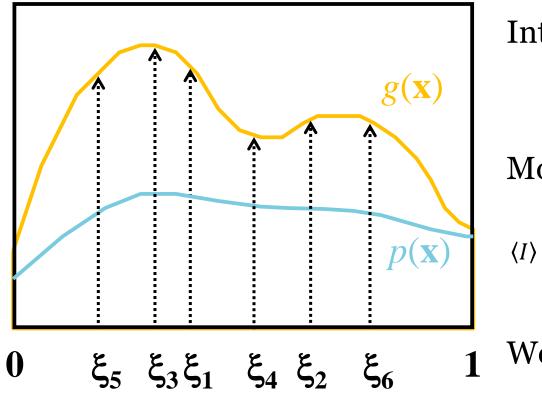
- *Y* is a random variable
- Expected value of *Y*

$$E[Y] = \int_{D} g(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x}$$

Monte Carlo integration

Monte Carlo integration

General tool for estimating definite integrals



Integral:

 $I = \int g(\mathbf{x}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}$

Monte Carlo estimate *I*:

$$\langle I \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{g(\xi_k)}{p(\xi_k)}; \quad \xi_k \propto p(\mathbf{x})$$

Works "on average": $E[\langle I \rangle] = I$

Primary estimator of an integral

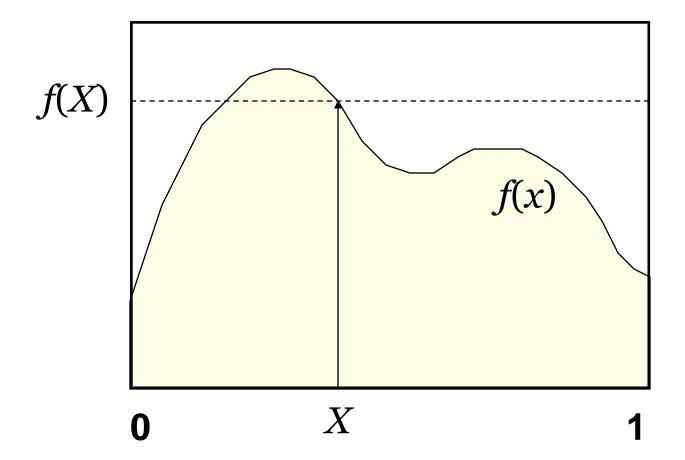
Integral to be estimated:

$$I = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

Let *X* be a random variable from the distribution with the pdf p(x), then the random variable F_{prim} given by the transformation f(X)/p(X) is called the **primary estimator** of the above integral.

$$F_{\text{prim}} = \frac{f(X)}{p(X)}$$

Primary estimator of an integral



Estimator vs. estimate

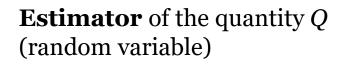
Estimator is a random variable

- It is defined though a transformation of another random variable
- **Estimate** is a concrete realization (outcome) of the estimator

 No need to worry: the above distinction is important for proving theorems but less important in practice

Unbiased estimator

- A general statistical estimator is called **unbiased** if "on average" – it yields the correct value of an estimated quantity *Q* (without systematic error).
- More precisely:



Estimated quantity

(In our case, it is an integral, but in general it could be anything. It is a number, not a random variable.)

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Unbiased estimator

The primary estimator F_{prim} is an unbiased estimator of the integral *I*.

Proof:

$$E[F_{\text{prim}}] = \int_{\Omega} \frac{f(x)}{p(x)} p(x) dx$$
$$= I$$

Variance of the primary estimator

For an unbiased estimator, the error is due to **variance**:

$$V[F_{\text{prim}}] = \sigma_{\text{prim}}^2 = E[F_{\text{prim}}^2] - E[F_{\text{prim}}]^2 = \int_{\Omega} \frac{f(x)^2}{p(x)} \, \mathrm{d}x - I^2$$

(for an unbiased estimator)

If we use only a single sample, the variance is usually too high. Depends on p(x). We need more samples in practice => secondary estimator.

Secondary estimator of an integral

- Consider *N* independent random variables X_k
- The estimator F_N given be the formula below is called the **secondary estimator** of *I*.

$$F_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{f(X_k)}{p(X_k)}$$

• The secondary estimator is unbiased.

Variance of the secondary estimator

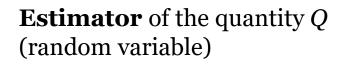
$$V[F_N] = V\left[\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{f(X_k)}{p(X_k)}\right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{N^2} \cdot N \cdot V\left[\frac{f(X_k)}{p(X_k)}\right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{N}V\left[F_{\text{prim}}\right]$$

... standard deviation is $\sqrt{N-\text{times smaller}}$ (i.e. error converges with $1/\sqrt{N}$)

Properties of estimators

Unbiased estimator

- A general statistical estimator is called **unbiased** if "on average" – it yields the correct value of an estimated quantity *Q* (without systematic error).
- More precisely:



Estimated quantity

(In our case, it is an integral, but in general it could be anything. It is a number, not a random variable.)

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Bias of a biased estimator

If

$E[F] \neq Q$

then the estimator is "biased" (cz: vychýlený).

Bias is the systematic error of the estimator:

$$\beta = Q - E[F]$$

Consistency

• Consider a secondary estimator with *N* samples:

$$F_N = F_N(X_1, X_2, ..., X_N)$$

• Estimator F_N is **consistent** if

$$Pr\left\{\lim_{N\to\infty}F_N=Q\right\} = 1$$

i.e. if the error $F_N - Q$ converges to zero with probability 1.

Consistency

Sufficient condition for consistency of an estimator:

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \beta[F_N] = \lim_{N \to \infty} V[F_N] = 0$$

$$\uparrow$$
bias

- Unbiasedness is not sufficient for consistency by itself (if the variance is infinite).
- But if the variance of a primary estimator finite, then the corresponding secondary estimator is necessarily consistent.

Rendering algorithms

Unbiased

- Path tracing
- Bidirectional path tracing
- Metropolis light transport

Biased & Consistent

Progressive photon mapping

Biased & not consistent

- Photon mapping
- Irradiance / radiance caching

Mean Squared Error – MSE (cz: Střední kvadratická chyba)

Definition

$$MSE[F] = E[(F-Q)^2]$$

Proposition

$$MSE[F] = V[F] + \beta[F]^2$$

Proof

 $MSE[F] = E[(F-Q)^2]$

 $= E[(F - E[F])^{2}] + 2E[F - E[F]](E[F] - Q) + (E[F] - Q)^{2}$

 $= V[F] + \beta[F]^2,$

Mean Squared Error – MSE (cz: Střední kvadratická chyba)

• If the estimator *F* is unbiased, then

MSE[F] = V[F]

- i.e. for an unbiased estimator, it is much easier to estimate the error, because it can be estimated directly from the samples $Y_k = f(X_k) / p(X_k)$.
- Unbiased estimator of variance

$$\hat{V}[F_N] = \frac{1}{N-1} \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} Y_k^2 \right) - \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} Y_k^2 \right)^2 \right\}$$

Why divide by N-1 instead of N?

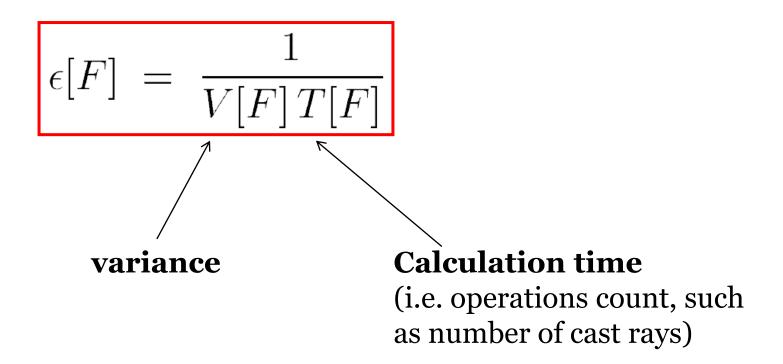
- To get an unbiased estimate
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bessel%27s_correction

Root Mean Squared Error – RMSE

$$RMSE[F] = \sqrt{MSE[F]}$$

Efficiency of an estimator

• Efficiency of an unbiased estimator is given by:



MC estimators for illumination calculation

Estimator of reflected radiance (1)

Integral to be estimated:

 $\int_{H(\mathbf{x})} L_{in}(\omega_{in}) f_r(\omega_{in} \to \omega_{out}) \cos \theta_{in} d\omega_{in}$ integrand(ω_{in}) ■ pdf for uniform hemisphere sampling:

$$p(\omega_{\rm in}) = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

MC estimator (formula to use in the renderer):

$$\hat{L}_{out} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\operatorname{integrand}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k})}{\operatorname{pdf}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k})}$$
$$= \frac{2\pi}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} L_{\mathrm{in}}(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k}) f_r(\omega_{\mathrm{in},k} \to \omega_{\mathrm{out}}) \cos \theta_{\mathrm{in},k}$$

Application of MC to reflection eq: Estimator of reflected radiance

Integral to be estimated:

 $\int_{H(\mathbf{x})} L_{in}(\omega_{in}) f_r(\omega_{in} \to \omega_{out}) \cos \theta_{in} d\omega_{in}$ integrand(ω_{in})

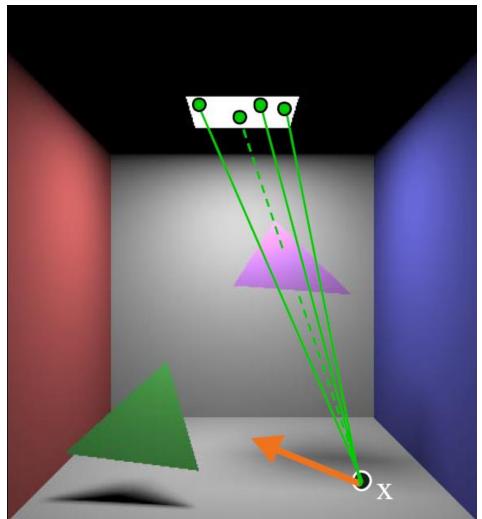
pdf for cosine-proportional sampling:

$$p(\omega_{\rm in}) = \frac{\cos \theta_{\rm in}}{\pi}$$

MC estimator (formula to use in the renderer):

$$\hat{L}_{\text{out}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\text{integrand}(\omega_{\text{in},k})}{\text{pdf}(\omega_{\text{in},k})}$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} L_{\text{in}}(\omega_{\text{in},k}) f_r(\omega_{\text{in},k} \to \omega_{\text{out}})$$

Irradiance estimate – light source sampling



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Irradiance estimate – light source sampling

Reformulate the reflection integral (change of variables)

$$E(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{H(\mathbf{x})} L_{i}(\mathbf{x}, \omega_{i}) \cdot \cos \theta_{i} \, d\omega_{i}$$

$$= \int_{A} L_{e}(\mathbf{y} \to \mathbf{x}) \cdot V(\mathbf{y} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\cos \theta_{y} \cdot \cos \theta_{x}}{\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|^{2}} \, dA$$

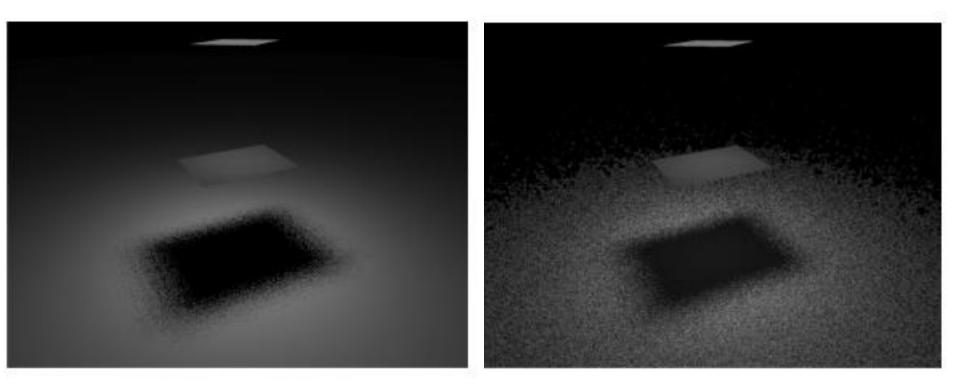
PDF for uniform sampling of the surface area:

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{|A|}$$

Estimator

$$F_{N} = \frac{|A|}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} L_{e}(\mathbf{y}_{k} \rightarrow \mathbf{x}) \cdot V(\mathbf{y}_{k} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}) \cdot G(\mathbf{y}_{k} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x})$$

Light source vs. cosine sampling

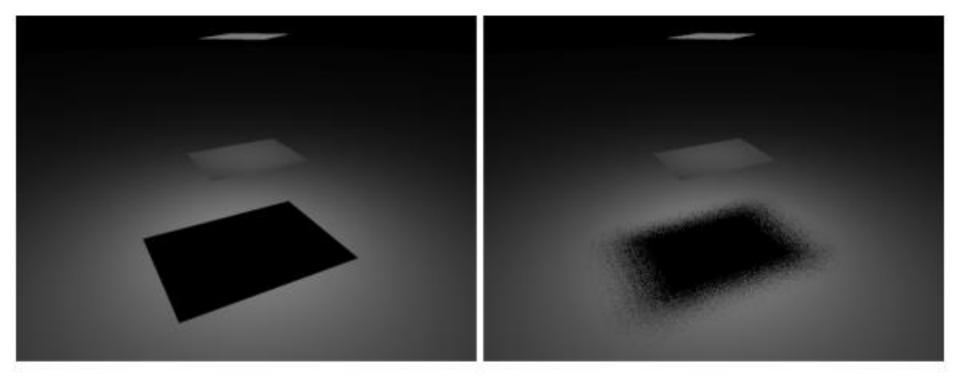


Light source area sampling

Cosine-proportional sampling

Images: Pat Hanrahan

Example – Area Sampling



1 shadow ray per eye ray

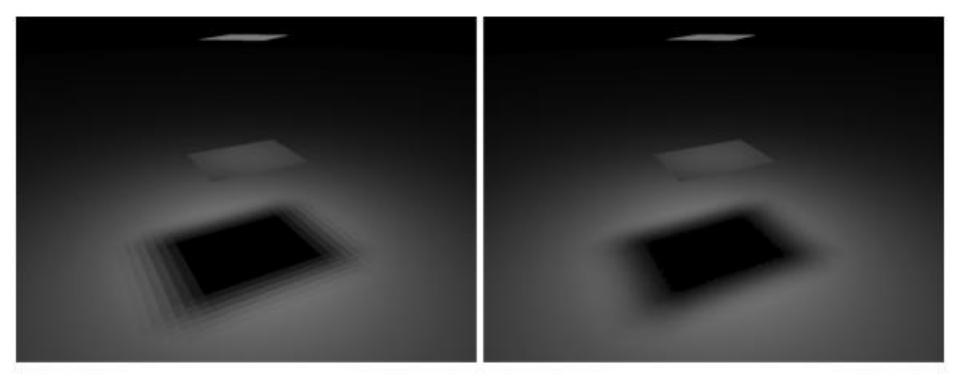
Center

Random

CS348B Lecture 6

Pat Hanrahan, Spring 2011

Example – Area Sampling



16 shadow rays per eye ray

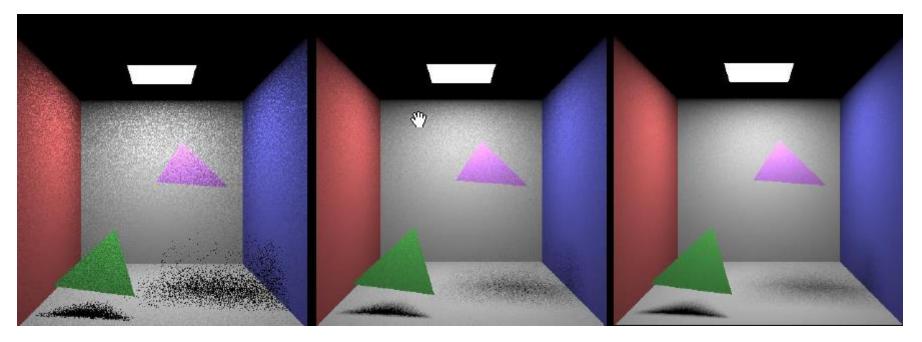
Uniform grid

Stratified random

CS348B Lecture 6

Pat Hanrahan, Spring 2011

Area light sources



1 sample per pixel

9 samples per pixel

36 samples per pixel

Direct illumination on a surface with an arbitrary BRDF

Integral to be estimated

$$L_{o}(\mathbf{x}, \omega_{o}) = \int_{A} L_{e}(\mathbf{y} \to \mathbf{x}) \cdot f_{r}(\mathbf{y} \to \mathbf{x} \to \omega_{o}) \cdot V(\mathbf{y} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}) \cdot G(\mathbf{y} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}) \, \mathrm{d}A$$

• Estimator based on uniform light source sampling

$$F_{N} = \frac{|A|}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} L_{e}(\mathbf{y}_{k} \to \mathbf{x}) \cdot f_{r}(\mathbf{y}_{k} \to \mathbf{x} \to \omega_{o}) \cdot V(\mathbf{y}_{k} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}) \cdot G(\mathbf{y}_{k} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{x})$$