

# Lecture 5: Monte Carlo Rendering

**CS 6620, Spring 2009**

**Kavita Bala**

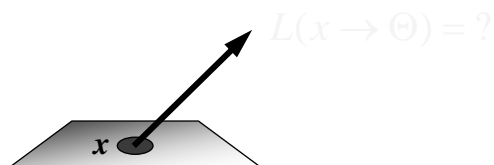
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## Radiance evaluation

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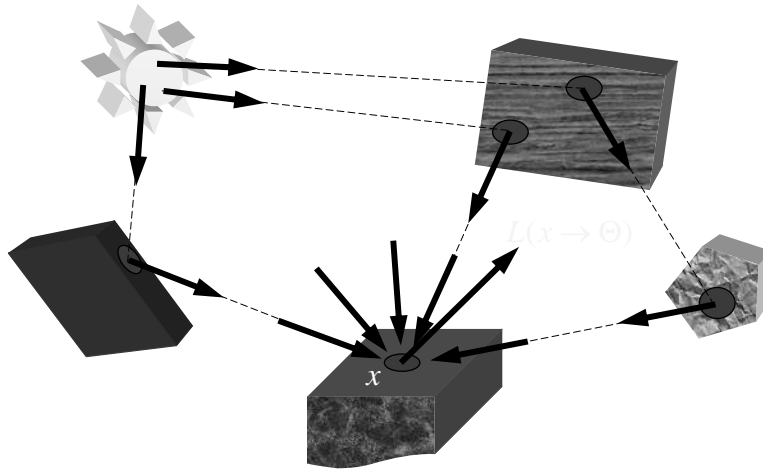
- Fundamental problem in GI algorithms
  - Evaluate radiance at a given surface point in a given direction
  - Invariance defines radiance everywhere else



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## Radiance evaluation

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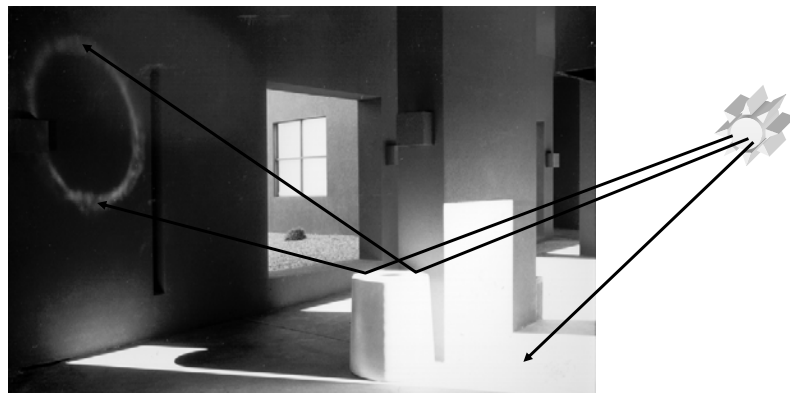


... find paths between sources and surfaces to be shaded

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## Hard to find paths

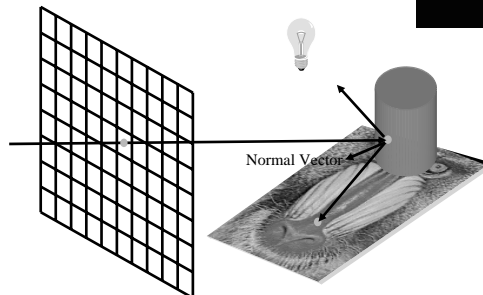
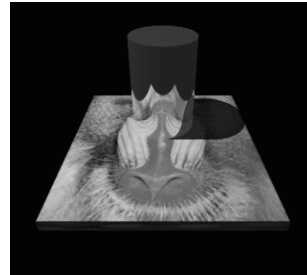
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## Classic Whitted Ray Tracing

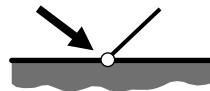
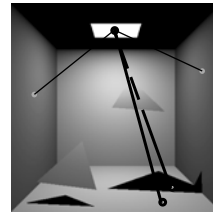
- Shoot ray from eye
  - Find closest visible object
- For each visible point
  - shoot one shadow ray
  - shoot one reflected/refracted ray



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## Classic Whitted Ray Tracing

- Point lights
  - Unrealistic
  - Hard shadows
- BRDF is simple
  - Pure specular
- Ignores many paths
  - Including diffuse inter-reflections
  - Does not solve the Rendering Equation



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## Review: Rendering Equation

- Hemisphere integration

$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = \underbrace{L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta)}_{\text{Reflected Energy}} + \int_{\Omega_x} \underbrace{f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta)}_{\text{Bidirectional Reflectance}} \cdot \underbrace{L(x \leftarrow \Psi)}_{\text{Self-Emitted Energy (Light sources)}} \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi$$

*Reflected Energy*
*Self-Emitted Energy (Light sources)*
*Bidirectional Reflectance*
*Incoming Energy*

- Area integration (over polygons from set A)

$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta) +$$

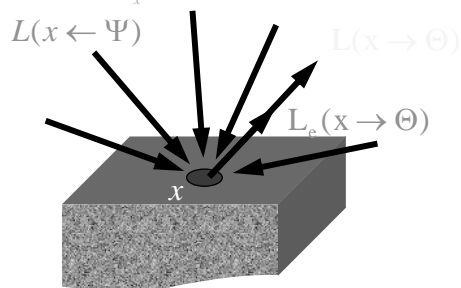
$$\int_A f_r(x, \Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot L(y \rightarrow -\Psi) \cdot \frac{\cos \theta_x \cdot \cos \theta_y}{r_{xy}^2} \cdot V(x, y) \cdot dA_y$$

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## Why Monte Carlo?

- Radiance is hard to evaluate

$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta) + \int_{\Omega_x} f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot L(x \leftarrow \Psi) \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi$$



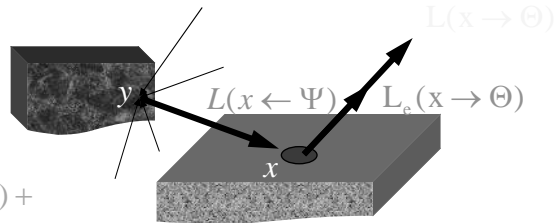
- Sample many paths: integrate over all incoming directions

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## Why Monte Carlo?

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$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta) + \int_{\Omega_x} f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot L(x \leftarrow \Psi) \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi$$



$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta) +$$

$$\int_{\Omega_x} L_e(y \rightarrow -\Psi) f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi +$$

$$\int_{\Omega_x} \int_{\Omega_y} f_r(\Psi' \rightarrow -\Psi) \cos(\Psi', n_{y'}) L(y \leftarrow \Psi') d\omega_{\Psi'} f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi$$

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## Why Monte Carlo?

---

$$L(x \rightarrow \Theta) = L_e(x \rightarrow \Theta) +$$

$$\int_{\Omega_x} L_e(y \rightarrow -\Psi) f_r(\Psi \leftrightarrow \Theta) \cdot \cos(\Psi, n_x) \cdot d\omega_\Psi +$$

.....

- Analytical integration is difficult
- Therefore, need numerical techniques

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## Monte Carlo Integration

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- Numerical tool to evaluate integrals
- Use sampling
- Stochastic errors
- Unbiased
  - on average, we get the right answer!

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## Probability

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- Random variable  $x$
- Possible outcomes:  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ 
  - each with probability:  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$
- E.g. ‘average die’: 2,3,3,4,4,5
  - outcomes:  $x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3, x_3 = 4, x_4 = 5$
  - probabilities:

$$p_1 = 1/6, p_2 = 1/3, p_3 = 1/3, p_4 = 1/6$$

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## Expected value

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- Expected value = average value

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

- E.g. die:

$$E[x] = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 3.5$$

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## Variance

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- Expected 'distance' to expected value

$$\sigma^2[x] = E[(x - E[x])^2]$$

- E.g. die:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2[x] &= (2-3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + (3-3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + (4-3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + (5-3.5)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} \\ &= 0.916 \end{aligned}$$

- Property:  $\sigma^2[x] = E[x^2] - E[x]^2$

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## Continuous random variable

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- Random variable  $x \in [a, b]$
- Probability density function (pdf)  $p(x)$
- Probability that variable has value  $x$ :  $p(x)dx$

$$\int_a^b p(x)dx = 1$$

- Cumulative distribution function (CDF)
  - CDF is non-decreasing, positive

$$\Pr(x \leq y) = CDF(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(x)dx$$

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## Continuous random variable

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- Expected value:  $E[x] = \int_a^b xp(x)dx$

$$E[g(x)] = \int_a^b g(x)p(x)dx$$

- Variance:

$$\sigma^2[x] = \int_a^b (x - E[x])^2 p(x)dx$$

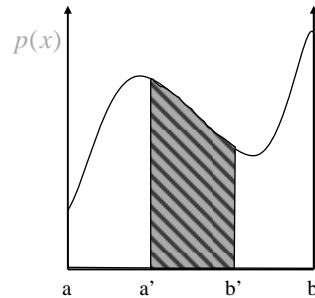
$$\sigma^2[g(x)] = \int_a^b (g(x) - E[g(x)])^2 p(x)dx$$

- Deviation:  $\sigma[x], \sigma[g(x)]$

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## Continuous random variable



$$\int_a^b p(x) dx = 1$$

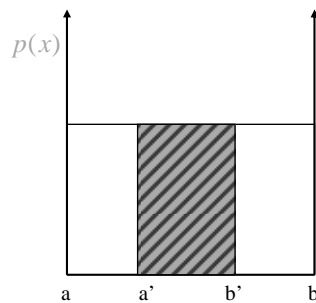
$$\Pr(x \leq y) = CDF(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(x) dx$$

Probability that  $x$  belongs to  $[a', b'] = \Pr(x \leq b') - \Pr(x \leq a')$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{b'} p(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^{a'} p(x) dx = \int_{a'}^{b'} p(x) dx$$

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## Uniform distribution



$$\int_a^b p(x) dx = 1$$

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

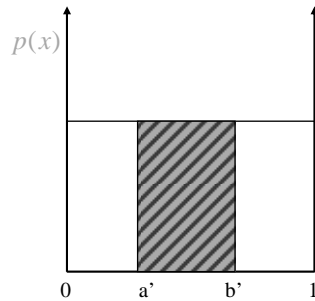
$$\text{Probability that } x \text{ belongs to } [a', b'] = \int_{a'}^{b'} \frac{1}{(b-a)} dx = \frac{(b'-a')}{(b-a)}$$

$$\Pr(x \leq y) = CDF(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(x) dx = \frac{(y-a)}{(b-a)}$$

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## Uniform distribution

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$$\int_a^b p(x) dx = 1$$

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{1-0} = 1$$

$$\Pr(x \in [a', b']) = \int_{a'}^{b'} 1 dx = (b' - a')$$

$$\Pr(x \leq y) = CDF(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(x) dx = y$$

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## More than one sample

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- Consider the weighted sum of N samples

- x are iids

- Expected value  $E\left[\frac{1}{N}(x^1 + x^2 + x^3 + \dots x^N)\right] = E[x]$

- Variance  $\sigma^2\left[\frac{1}{N}(x^1 + x^2 + x^3 + \dots x^N)\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sigma^2[x]$

- Deviation  $\sigma\left[\frac{1}{N}(x^1 + x^2 + x^3 + \dots x^N)\right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\sigma[x]$

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## More than one sample

---

- Consider the weighted sum of N samples

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{N}(f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3) + \dots + f(x_N))$$

- Expected value

$$E[g(x)] = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N f(x_i)\right] = E[f(x)]$$

- Variance

$$\sigma^2[g(x)] = \sigma^2\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N f(x_i)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sigma^2[f(x)]$$

- Deviation  $\sigma[g(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sigma[f(x)]$

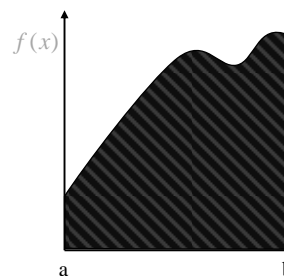
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## Numerical Integration

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- A one-dimensional integral:

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

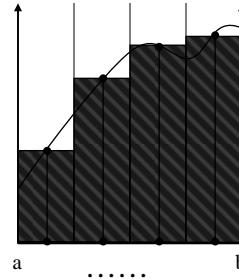


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## Deterministic Integration

- Quadrature rules:

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$
$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^N w_i f(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{b-a}{N} f(x_i)$$



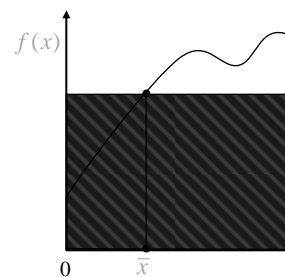
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## Monte Carlo Integration

An estimator:

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$I_{prim} = f(\bar{x})$$



$$E(I_{prim}) = \int_0^1 f(x) p(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) 1 dx = I$$

Unbiased estimator!

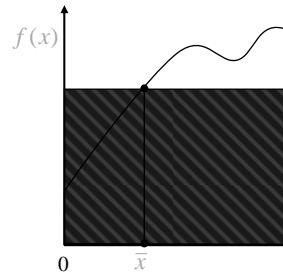
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# Monte Carlo Integration

Called primary estimator:

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$I_{prim} = f(\bar{x})$$



$$E(I_{prim}) = \int_0^1 f(x) p(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) 1 dx = I$$

Unbiased estimator!

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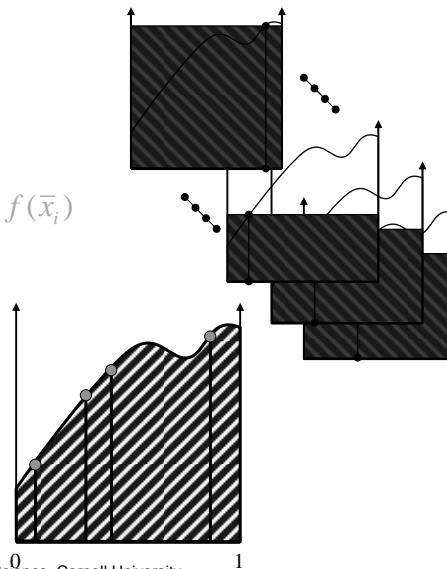
# More samples

**Secondary estimator**

Generate N random samples  $x_i$

$$\text{Estimator: } \langle I \rangle = I_{sec} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(\bar{x}_i)$$

$$\text{Variance } \sigma_{sec}^2 = \sigma_{prim}^2 / N$$



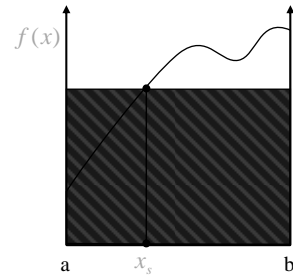
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# Monte Carlo Integration

Primary estimator:

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$I_{prim} = f(x_s)(b-a)$$



$$E(I_{prim}) = \int_a^b f(x)(b-a)p(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)(b-a)\frac{1}{(b-a)}dx = I$$

Unbiased estimator!

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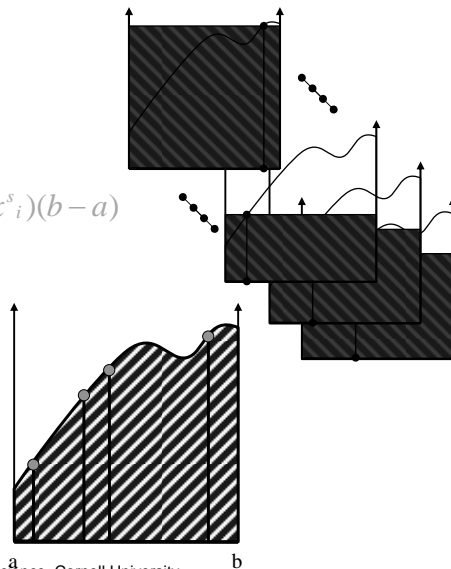
# More samples

Secondary estimator

Generate N random samples  $x_i$

$$\text{Estimator: } \langle I \rangle = I_{sec} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x^s_i)(b-a)$$

$$\text{Variance } \sigma_{sec}^2 = \sigma_{prim}^2 / N$$



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## Monte Carlo Integration

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- Expected value of estimator

$$\begin{aligned} E[\langle I \rangle] &= E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}\right] = \frac{1}{N} \int \left(\sum_i \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}\right) p(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \int \left(\frac{f(x)}{p(x)}\right) p(x) dx \\ &= \frac{N}{N} \int f(x) dx = I \end{aligned}$$

– on ‘average’ get right result: **unbiased**

- Standard deviation  $\sigma$  is a measure of the stochastic error

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \int_a^b \left[\frac{f(x)}{p(x)} - I\right]^2 p(x) dx$$

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## Convergence Rates

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- RMS error converges at a rate of  $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\right)$
- Unbiased
- Chebychev’s inequality

$$\Pr\left[|F - E(F)| \geq \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta}} \sigma\right] \leq \delta$$

$$\Pr\left[|I_{estimator} - I| \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\delta}} \sigma\right] \leq \delta$$

- Strong law of large numbers

$$\Pr\left[\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} = I\right] = 1$$

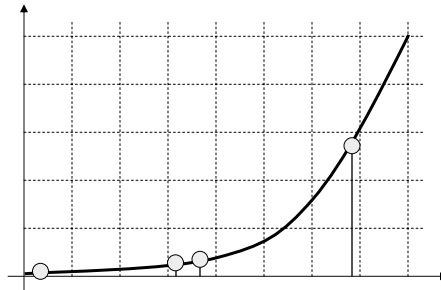
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## MC Integration - Example

– Integral  $I = \int_0^1 5x^4 dx = 1$

– Uniform sampling

– Samples :



$x_1 = .86$        $\langle I \rangle = 2.74$

$x_2 = .41$        $\langle I \rangle = 1.44$

$x_3 = .02$        $\langle I \rangle = 0.96$

$x_4 = .38$        $\langle I \rangle = 0.75$

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## MC Integration - Example

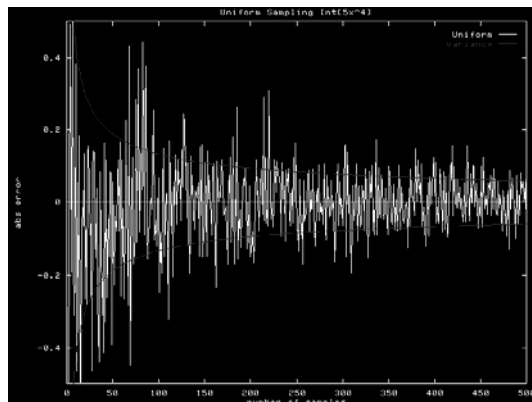
– Integral

$$I = \int_0^1 5x^4 dx = 1$$

– Stochastic error

– Variance

- What is it?



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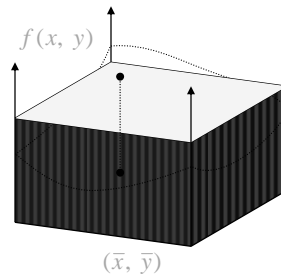


## MC Integration: 2D

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- Primary estimator:

$$\bar{I}_{prim} = \frac{f(\bar{x}, \bar{y})}{p(\bar{x}, \bar{y})}$$



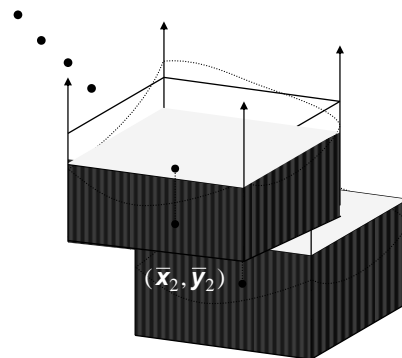
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## MC Integration: 2D

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- Secondary estimator:

$$I_{sec} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i)}{p(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i)}$$



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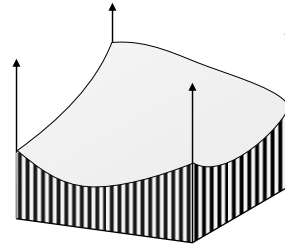
## Monte Carlo Integration - 2D

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- MC Integration works well for higher dimensions
- Unlike quadrature

$$I = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dx dy$$

$$\langle I \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i, y_i)}{p(x_i, y_i)}$$



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## MC Advantages

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- Convergence rate of  $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\right)$
- Simple
  - Sampling
  - Point evaluation
  - Can use black boxes
- General
  - Works for high dimensions
  - Deals with discontinuities, crazy functions,...

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