

AN OVERVIEW OF  
QUASI-RANDOM  
SEQUENCES / SETS

Colas Schretter

*Brussels Summer School of  
Mathematics, August 1-7, 2013*

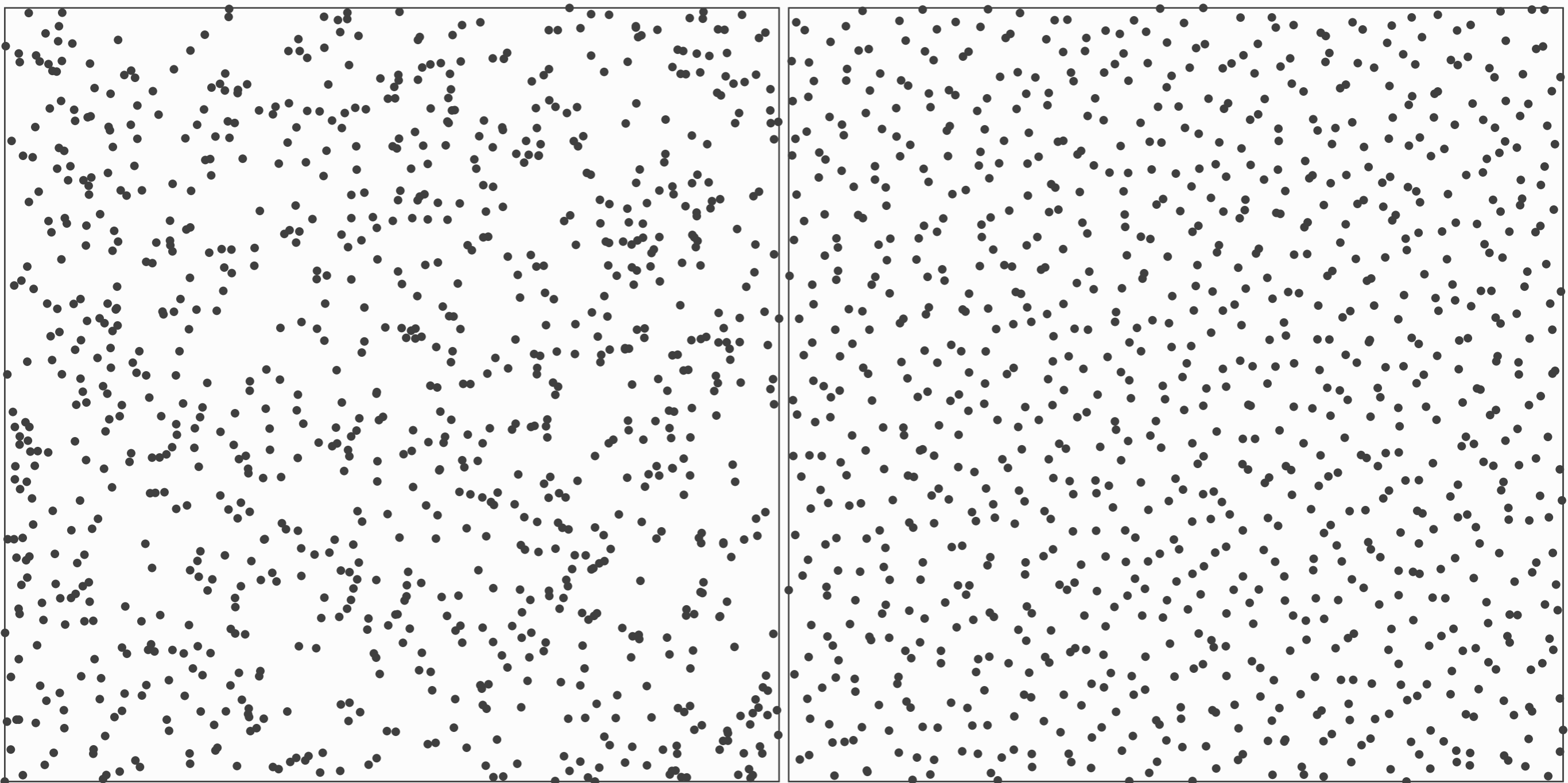
**quasi-** (*comb. form*)

seemingly; apparently but not really

EXAMPLE *quasi-American* | *quasi-scientific*

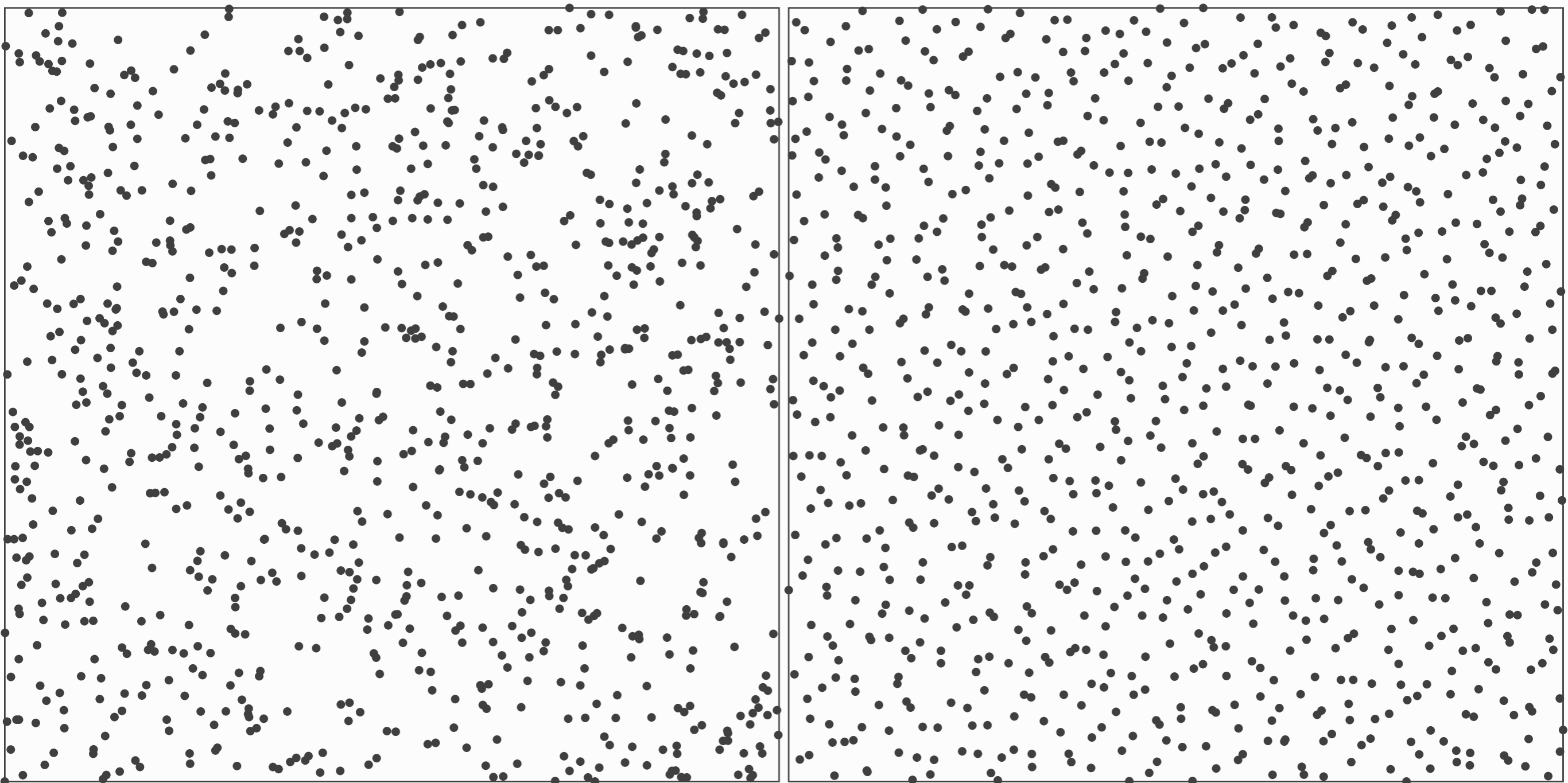
ORIGIN *from Latin quasi 'as if, almost.'*

# GEOMETRICAL INTUITION



**QUESTION** Which of the two patterns is non-random and contains correlations among points?

# GEOMETRICAL INTUITION

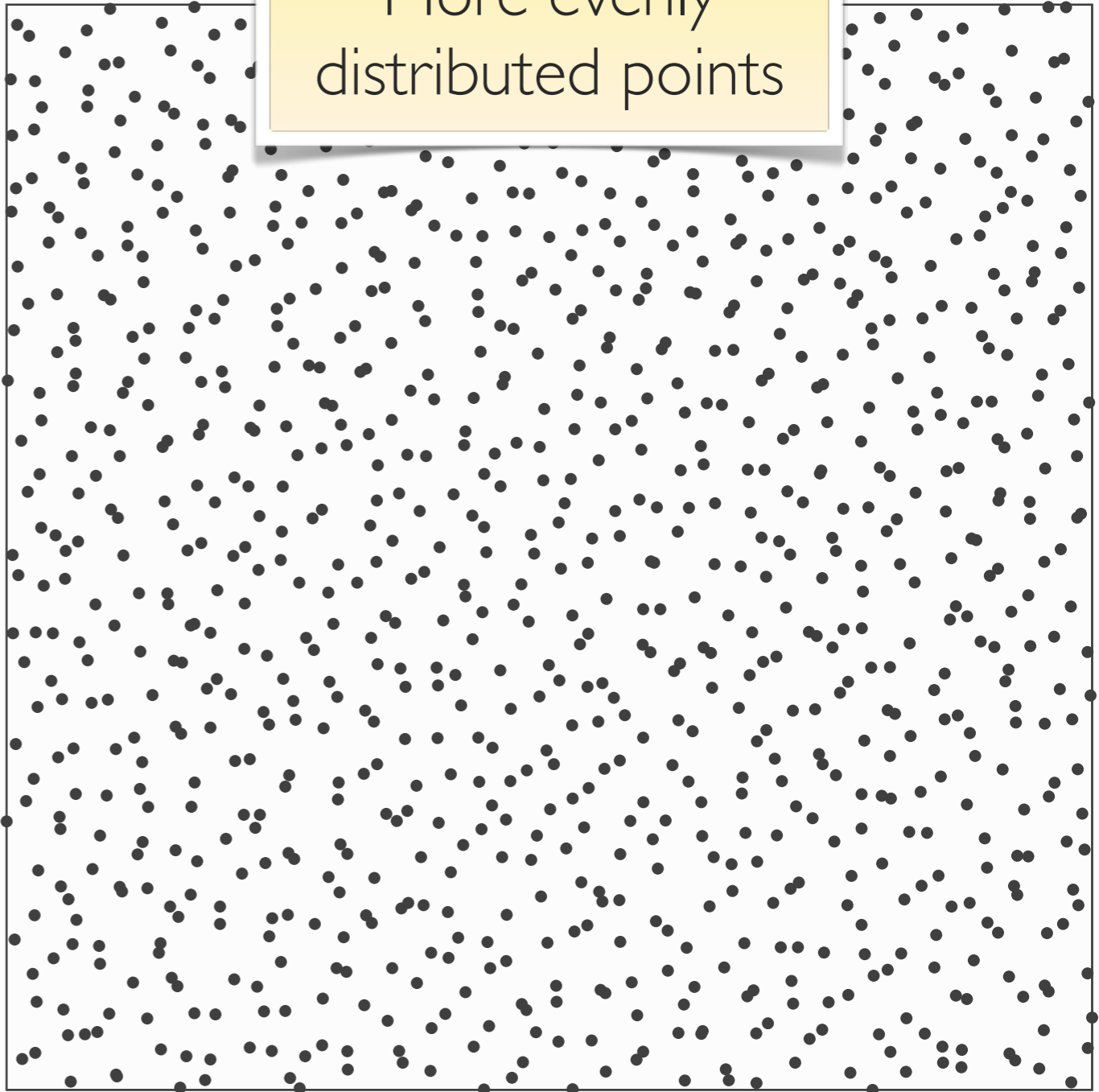
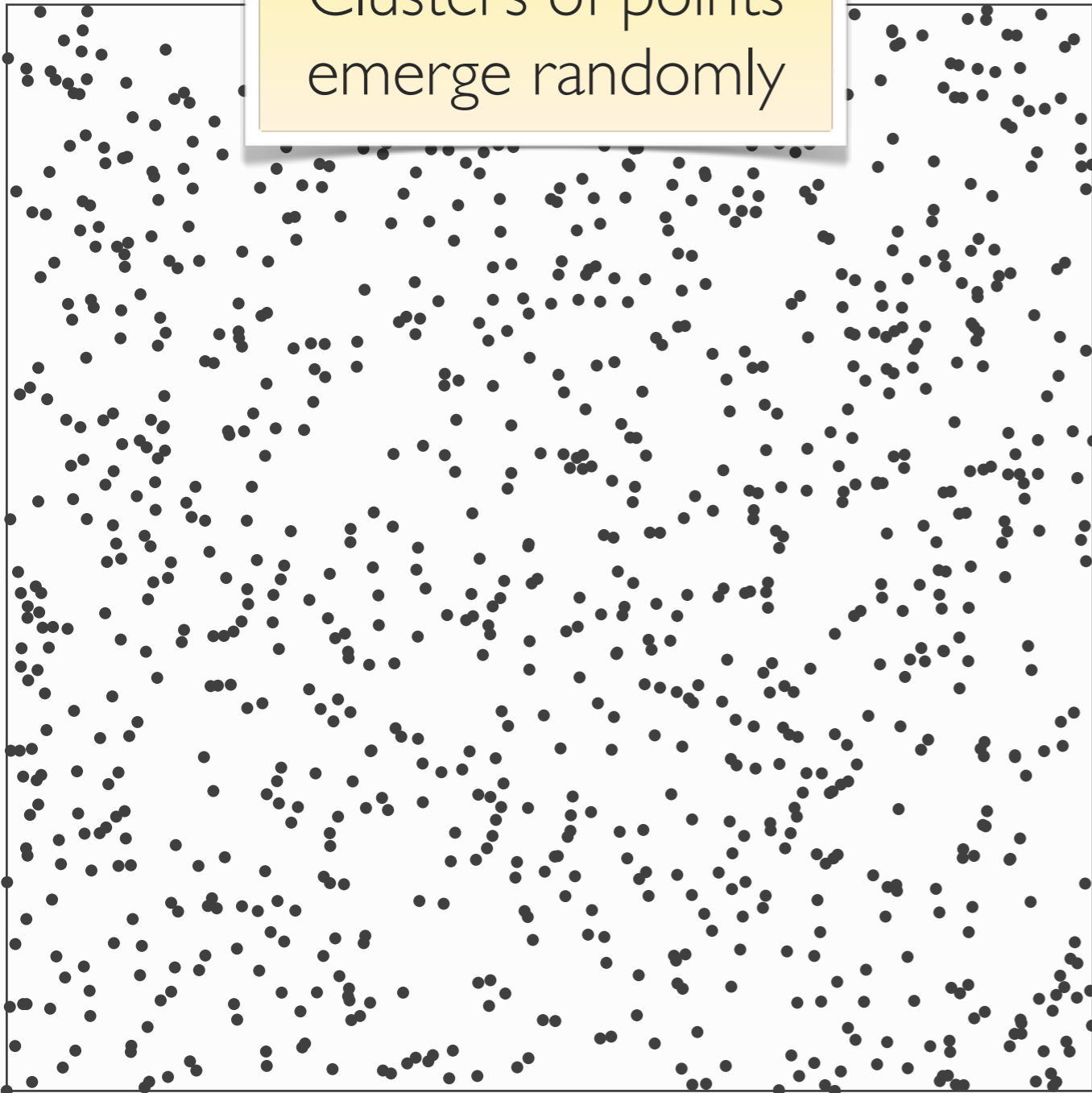


**QUESTION** If you scatter black grains on a white plate, how will look the distribution of grains?

# GEOMETRICAL INTUITION

Clusters of points  
emerge randomly

More evenly  
distributed points



Random (no correlation)

Quasi-random

# VOCABULARY

MONTE CARLO • PSEUDO-RANDOM  
LOW-DISCREPANCY • HAMMERSLEY  
HALTON • VAN DER CORPUT • GRID  
SEQUENCE • SET • GOLDEN RATIO  
LATTICE • BLUE NOISE • STRATIFIED  
SAMPLES • NONUNIFORM SAMPLING  
INVERSION METHODS • THE HILBERT  
SPACE FILLING CURVE...

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

## *Collaborators*

Leif Kobbelt, RWTH University, Germany

Paul-Olivier Dehaye, ETH Zürich, Switzerland

Harald Niederreiter, RICAM Institute, Austria

## *Sponsors*

FP7 Marie Curie ERG (PERG06-GA-2009-256519)

Madrid-MIT M+Vision Consortium Fellowship

# COMPUTER RENDERING

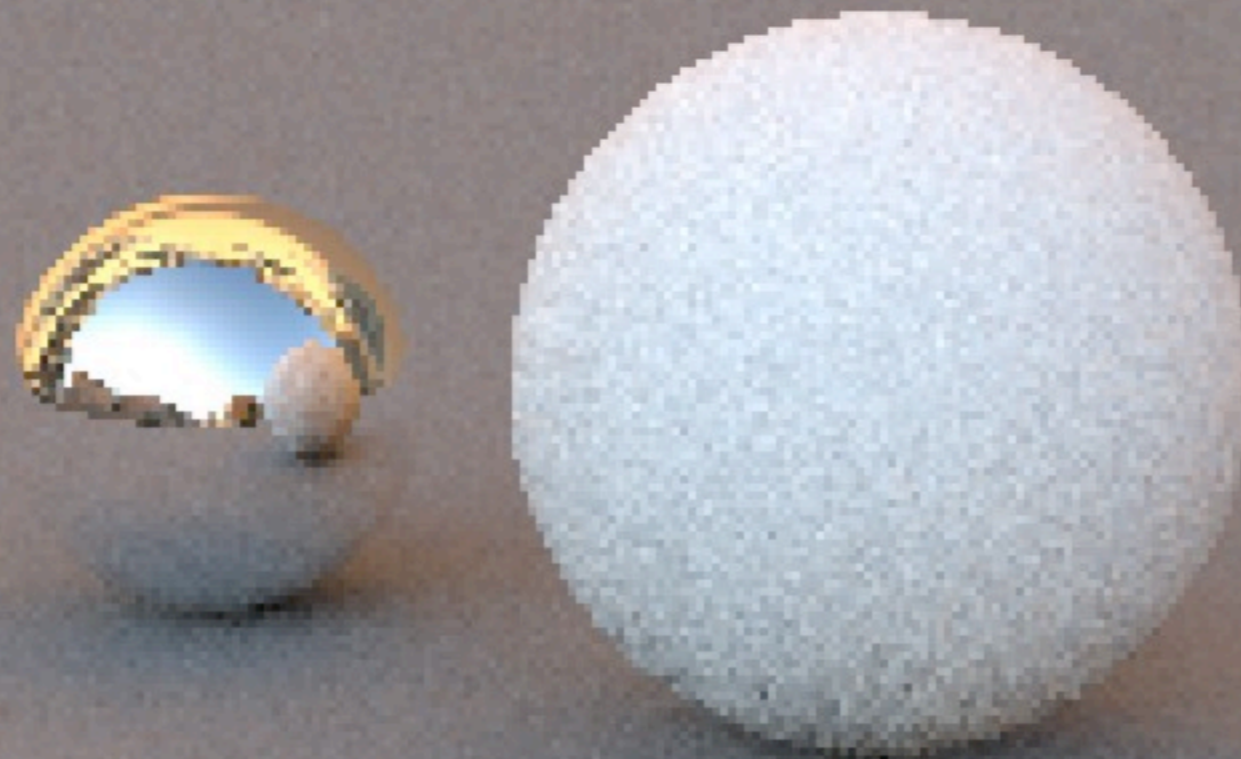
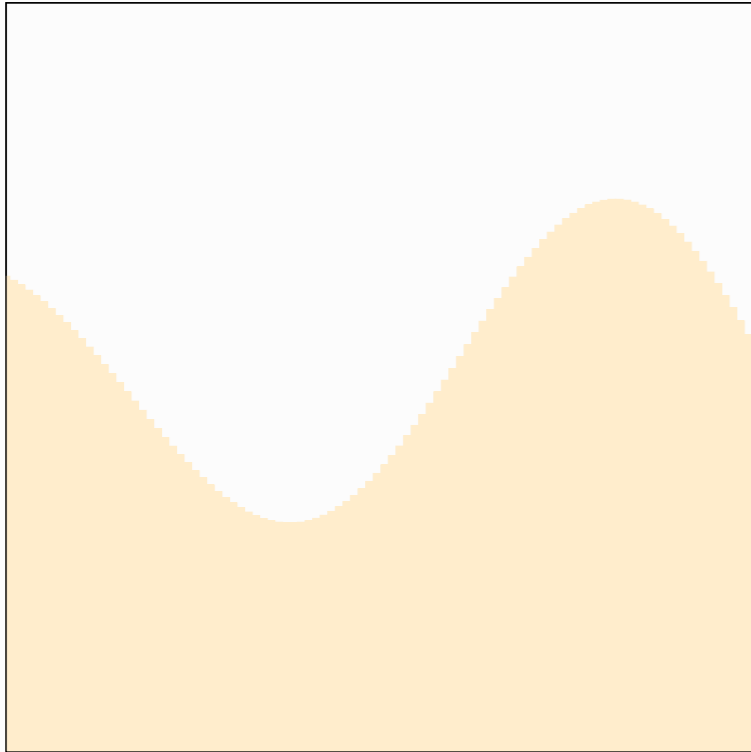


Image-based lighting, 64 quasi-random samples per pixel



# MONTE CARLO INTEGRAL

# MONTE CARLO INTEGRAL

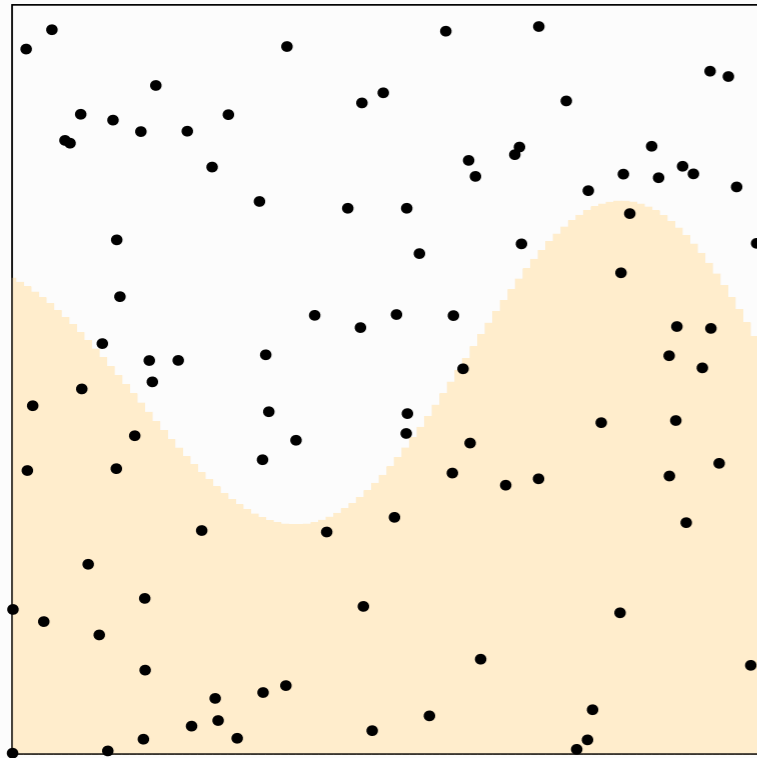


2D function  
defined on  $\mathbf{D} = [0, 1) \times [0, 1)$

$$I = \iint_D f(x, y) dx dy$$

Is analytical integration always possible?

# MONTE CARLO INTEGRAL



2D function  
defined on  $\mathbf{D} = [0, 1) \times [0, 1)$

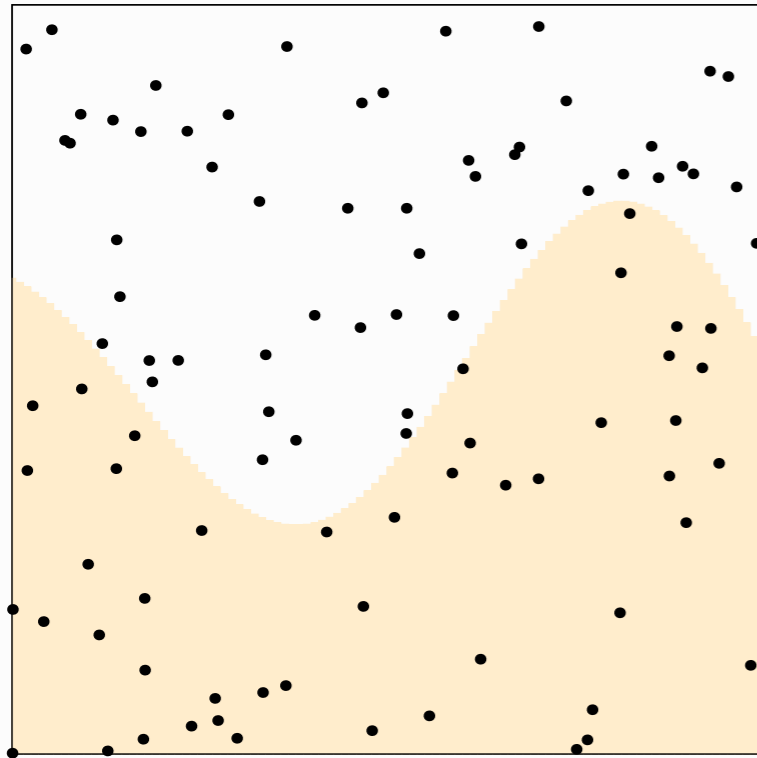
$$I = \iint_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i, y_i) = \hat{I}_N$$

$$\text{with } (x_i, y_i) \in D \quad \forall i \in [1..N]$$

Approximation with a discrete sum

# MONTE CARLO INTEGRAL



2D function  
defined on  $\mathbf{D} = [0, 1) \times [0, 1)$

$$I = \iint_D f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i, y_i) = \hat{I}_N$$

$$\text{with } (x_i, y_i) \in D \quad \forall i \in [1..N]$$

Approximation with a discrete sum

**QUESTION** What is the expected mean integration error when the  $N$  *point samples* are chosen at random?

# RATE OF CONVERGENCE

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(f) = \iint_D [f(x, y) - I]^2 dx dy$$

# RATE OF CONVERGENCE

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(f) = \iint_D [f(x, y) - I]^2 dx dy$$

$$\rightarrow E \left[ \left( I - \hat{I}_N \right)^2 \right] = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

*Assume a constant mean squared error (MSE) that is averaged over all  $N$  samples.*

# RATE OF CONVERGENCE

$$\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(f) = \iint_D [f(x, y) - I]^2 dx dy$$

$$\rightarrow E \left[ \left( I - \hat{I}_N \right)^2 \right] = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$$

*Assume a constant mean squared error (MSE) that is averaged over all  $N$  samples.*

**Result:** The squared error between the true integral and the Monte Carlo approximation decreases linearly with the number of samples.

**QUESTION** Is this a “fast” rate of convergence?

# BERNOULLI TRIALS

We want to approximate the mean value by flipping coins and counting 0 for **heads** (H) and 100 for **tails**

**QUESTION** How many times do you need to flip the coin to approach the mean value 50 with 1% error?



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*One flip*

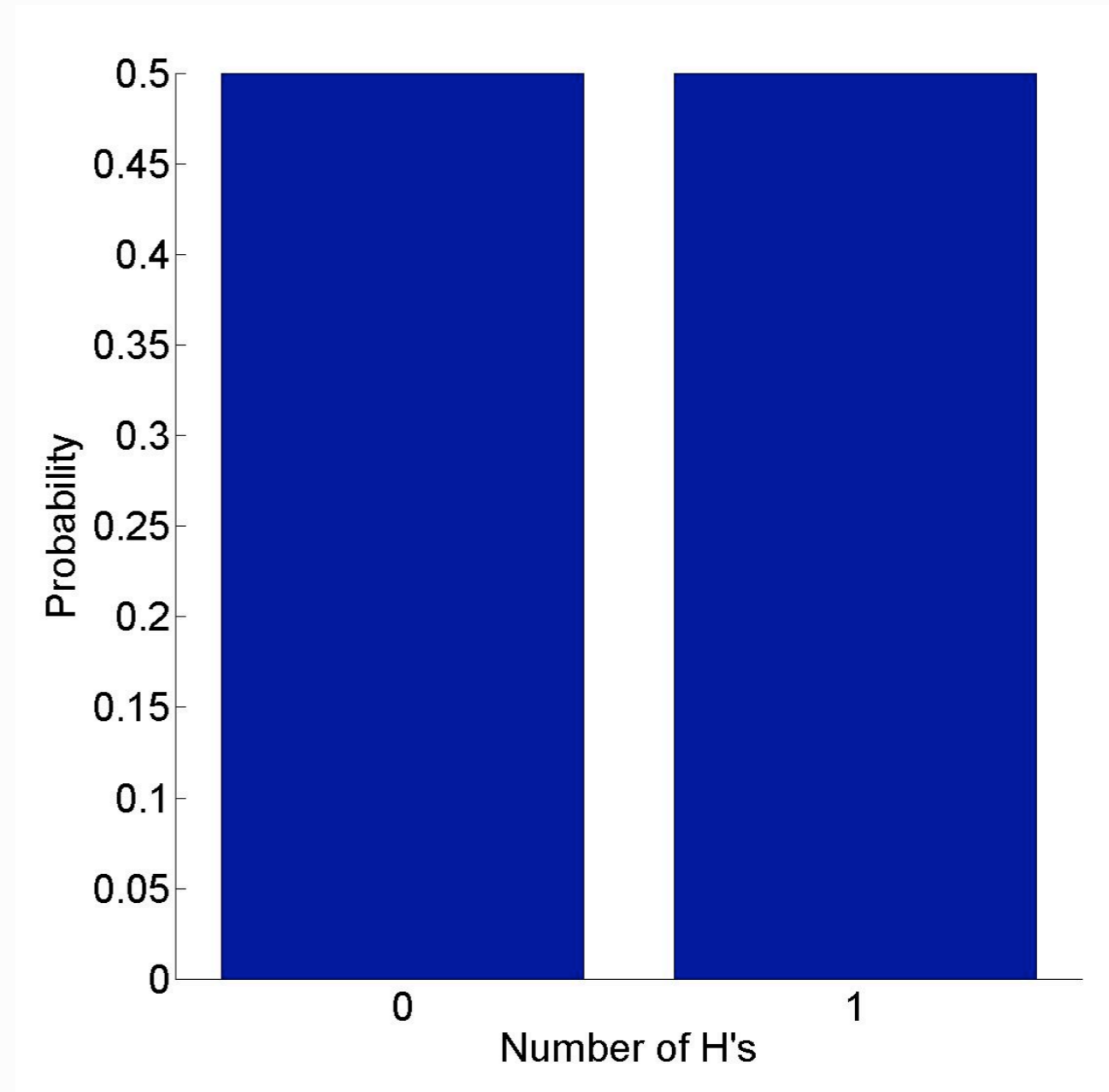
Mean:

0 or 100

Average error:

$$(50 + 50) / 2$$

$$= \mathbf{50}$$



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Two flips*

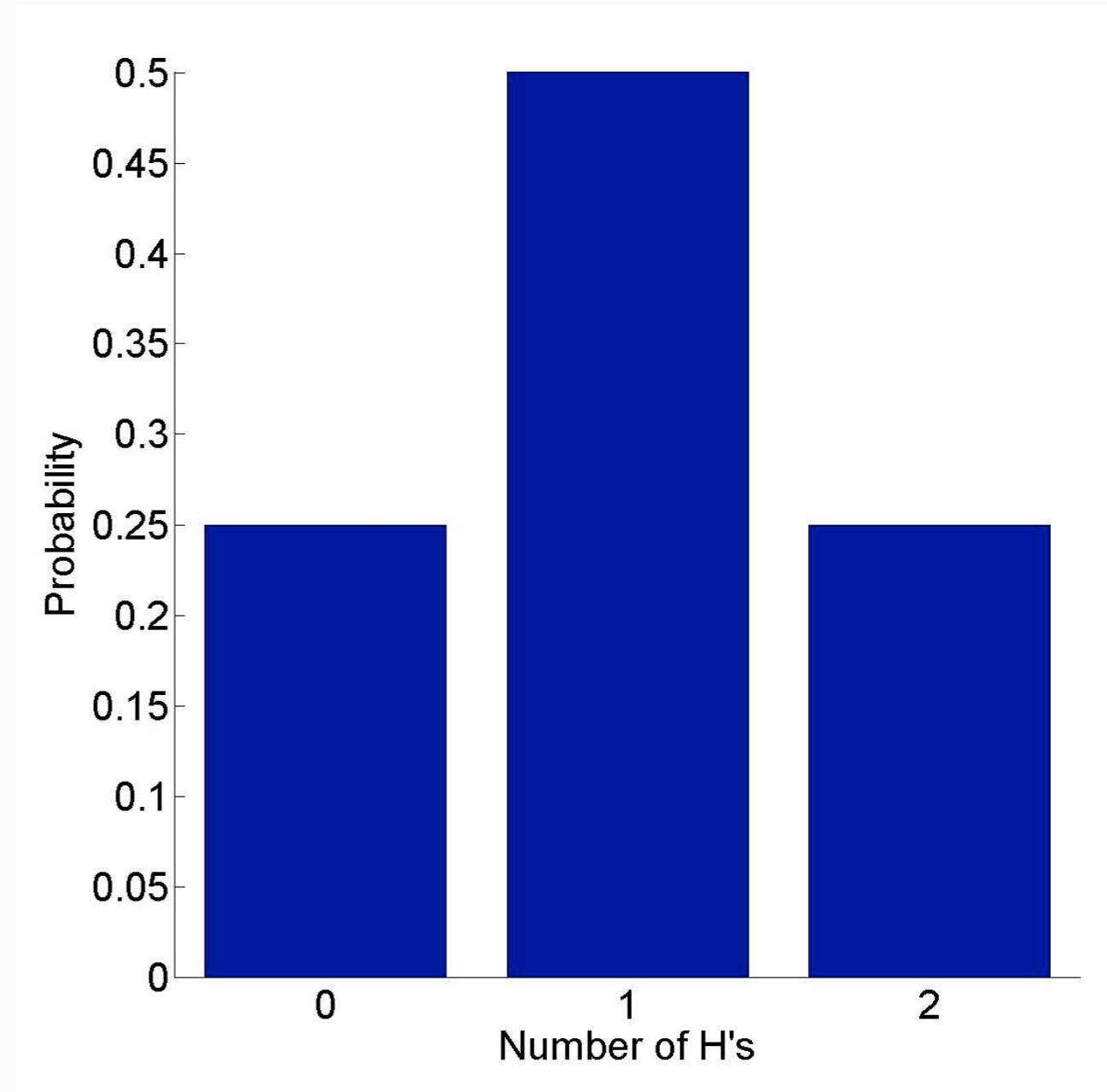
Mean:

0, 50(x2) or 100

Average error:

$$(50 + 0(x2) + 50) / 2^2$$

**= 25**



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Three flips*

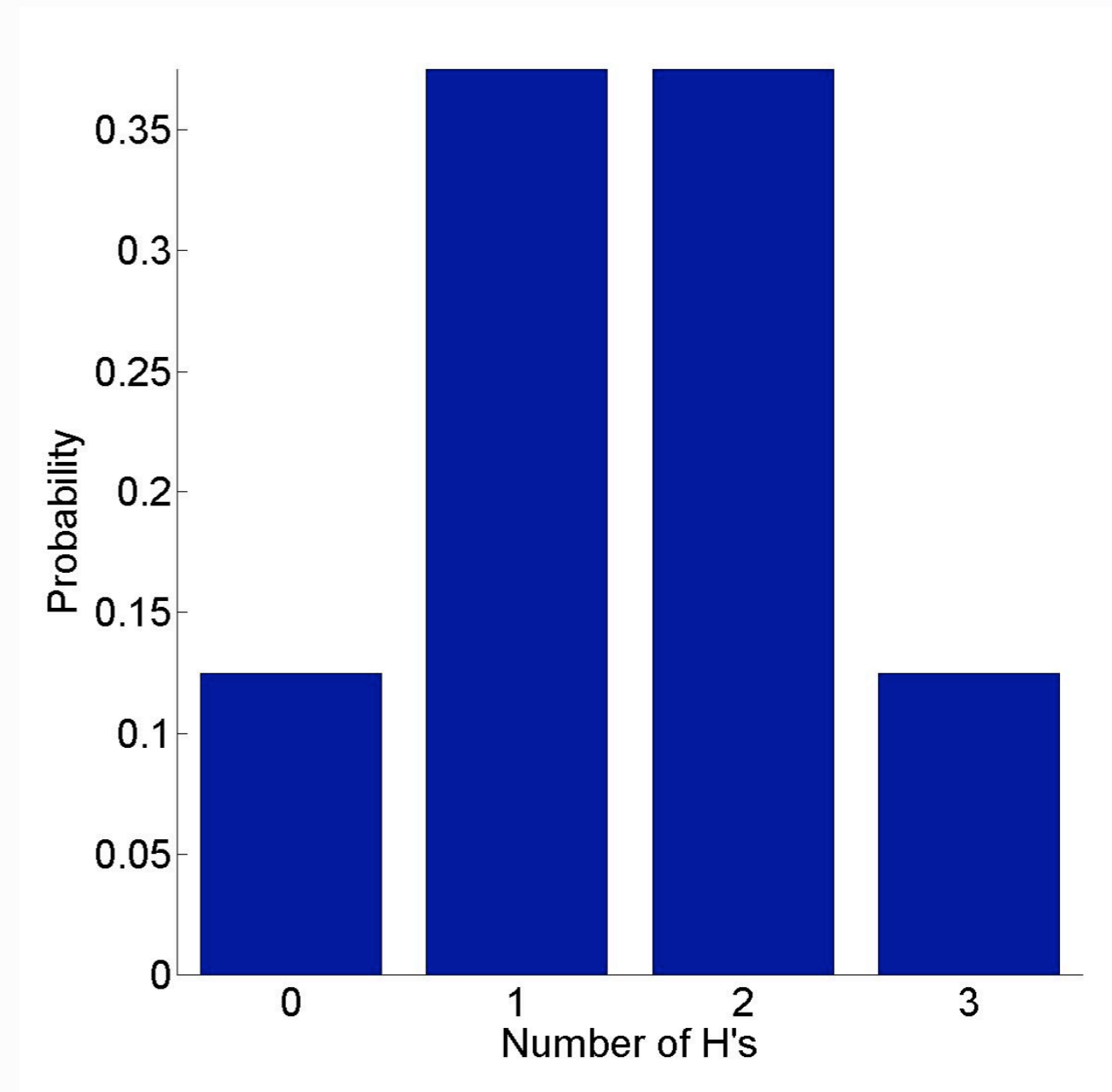
Mean:

0, 33.3(x3), 66.6(x3) or  
100

Average error:

$$(50 + 16.6(x6) + 50) / 2^3$$

**= 25**



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Three flips*

Mean:

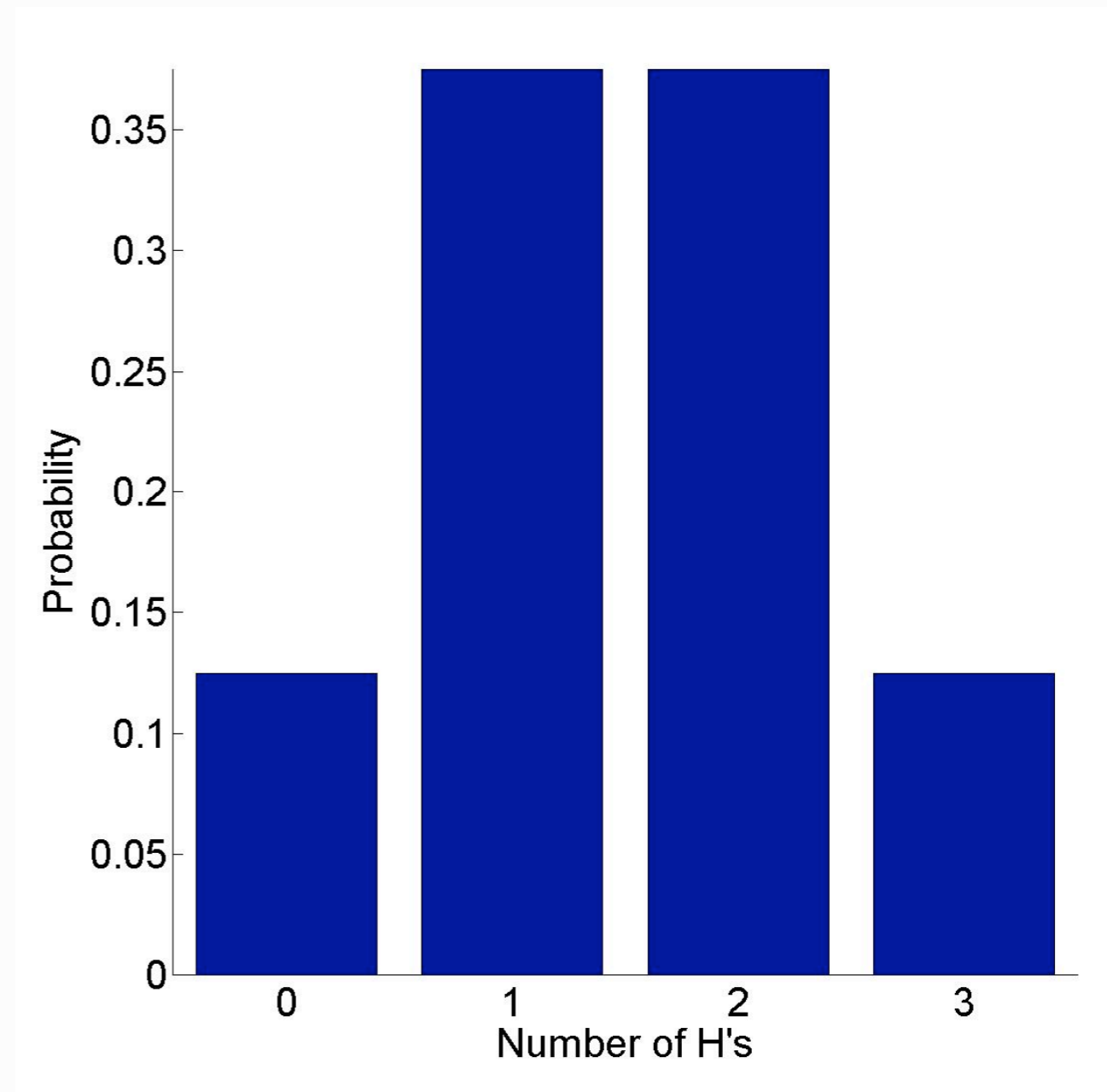
0, 33.3(x3), 66.6(x3) or  
100

Average error:

$$(50 + 16.6(x6) + 50) / 2^3$$

**= 25**

Flipping 3 instead of 2 coins, does not improve the average error!



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Four flips*

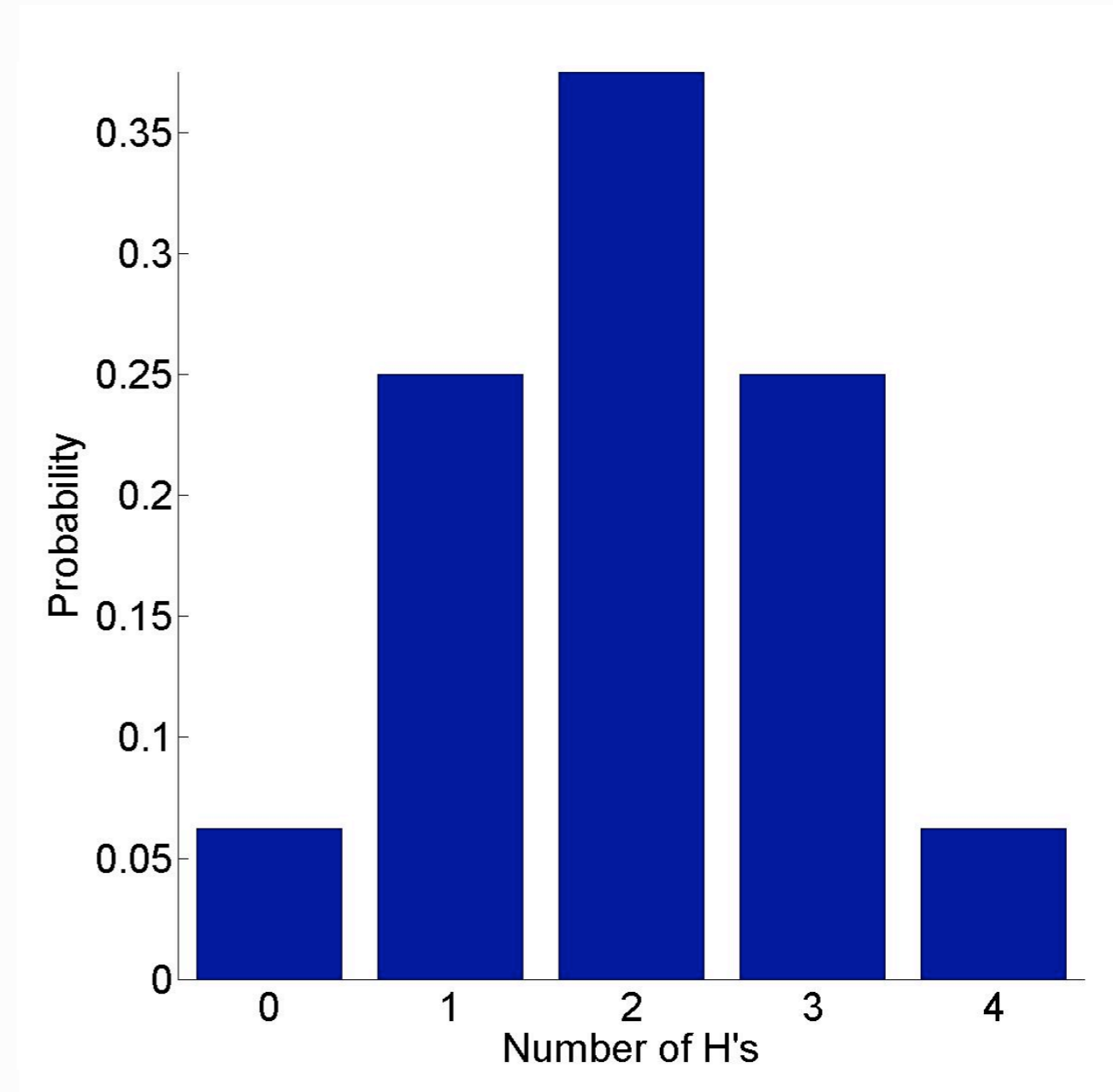
Mean:

0, 25(x4), 50(x6), 75(x4) or  
100

Average error:

$$(50(\times 2) + 25(\times 8)) / 2^4$$

$$= 18.75$$



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Five flips*

Mean:

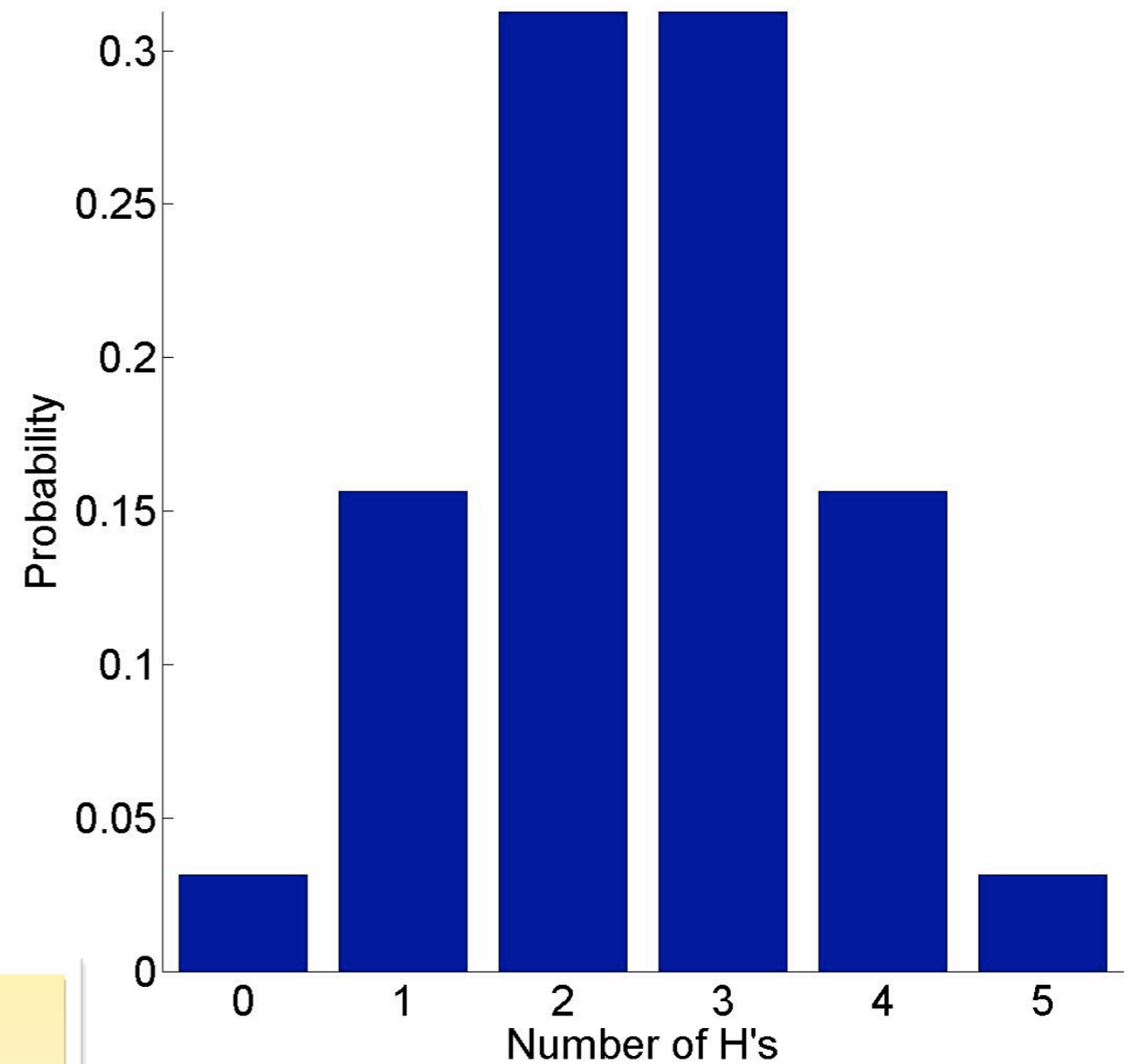
0, 20(x5), 40(x10), 60(x10),  
80(x5) or 100

Average error:

$(50(\times 2) + 30(\times 10) +$   
 $10(\times 20)) / 2^5$

**= 18.75**

Flipping 5 instead of 4  
coins, does not improve  
the average error!



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Six flips*

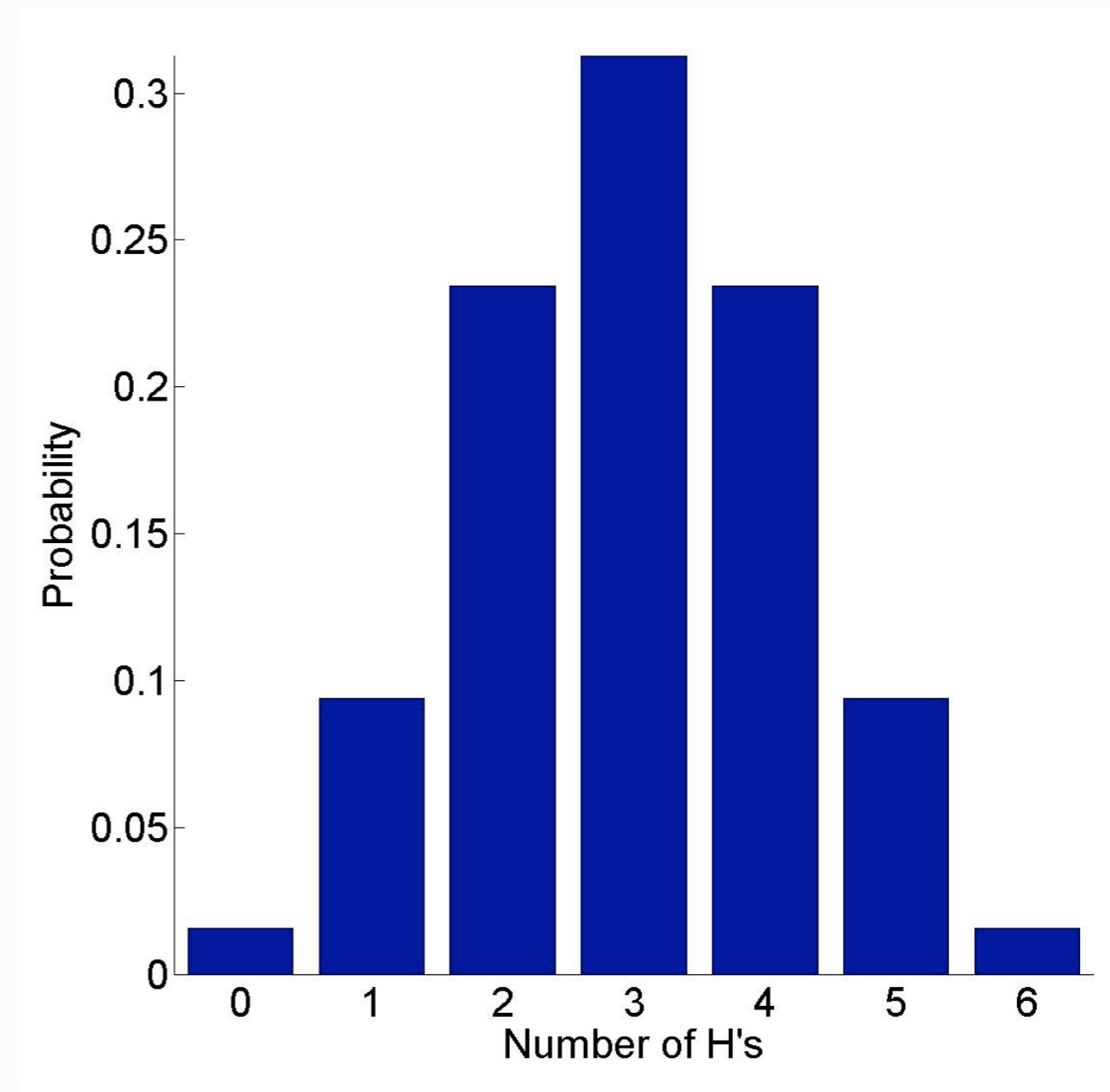
Mean:

0, 16.6(x6), 33.3(x15),  
50(x20), 66.6(x15),  
83.3(x6) or 100

Average error:

$$(50(x2) + 33.3(x12) + 16.6(x30)) / 2^6$$

**= 15.625**



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

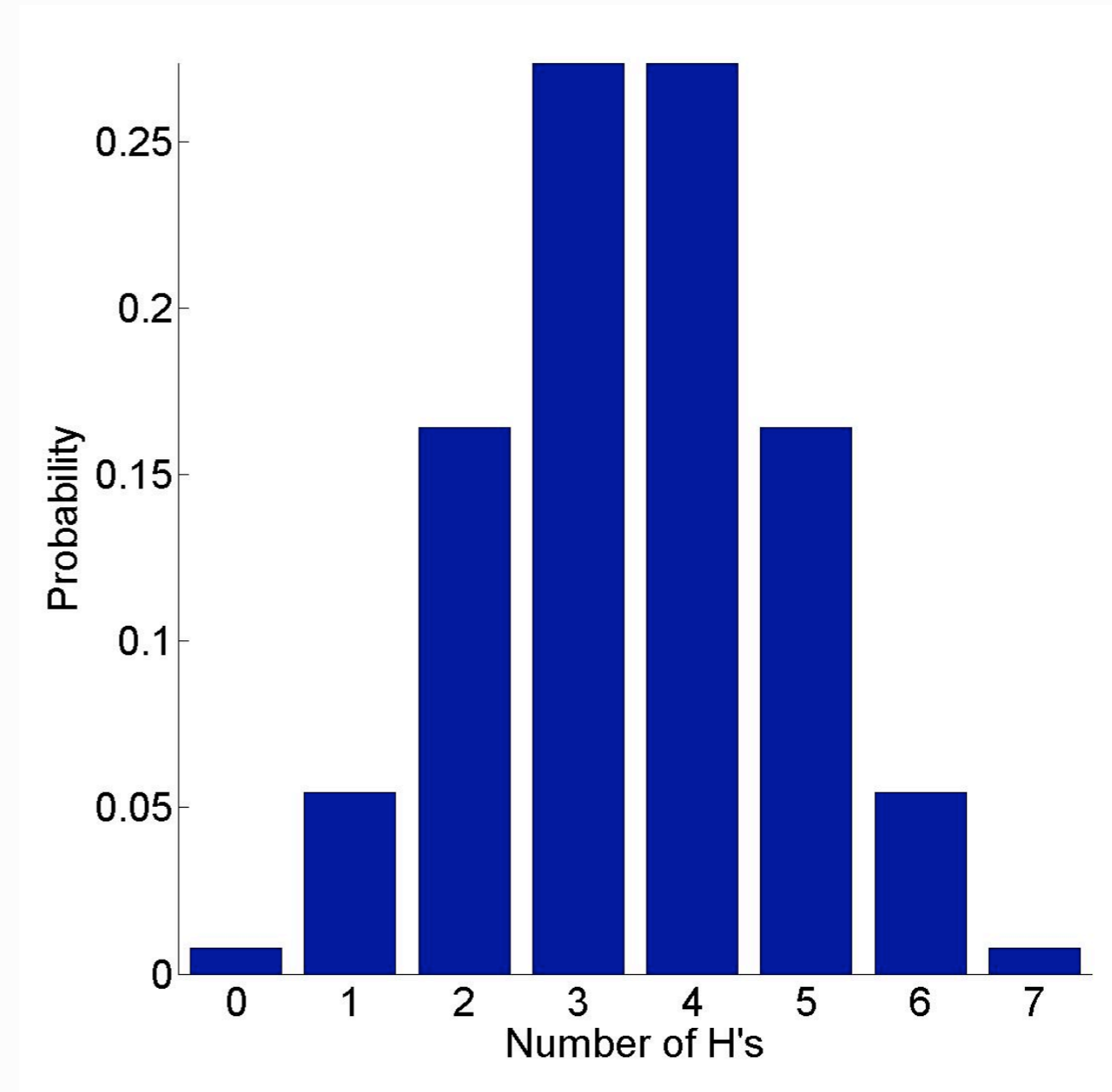
*Seven flips*

Mean:

0, 14.3(x7), 28.6(x21),  
42.6(x35), 57.1(x35),  
71.4(x21), 85.7(x7) or 100

Average error:

$$\begin{aligned} & (50(x2) + 85.7(x14) + \\ & 71.4(x42) + 14.3(x70)) / 2^7 \\ & = \mathbf{15.625} \end{aligned}$$





# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Eight flips*

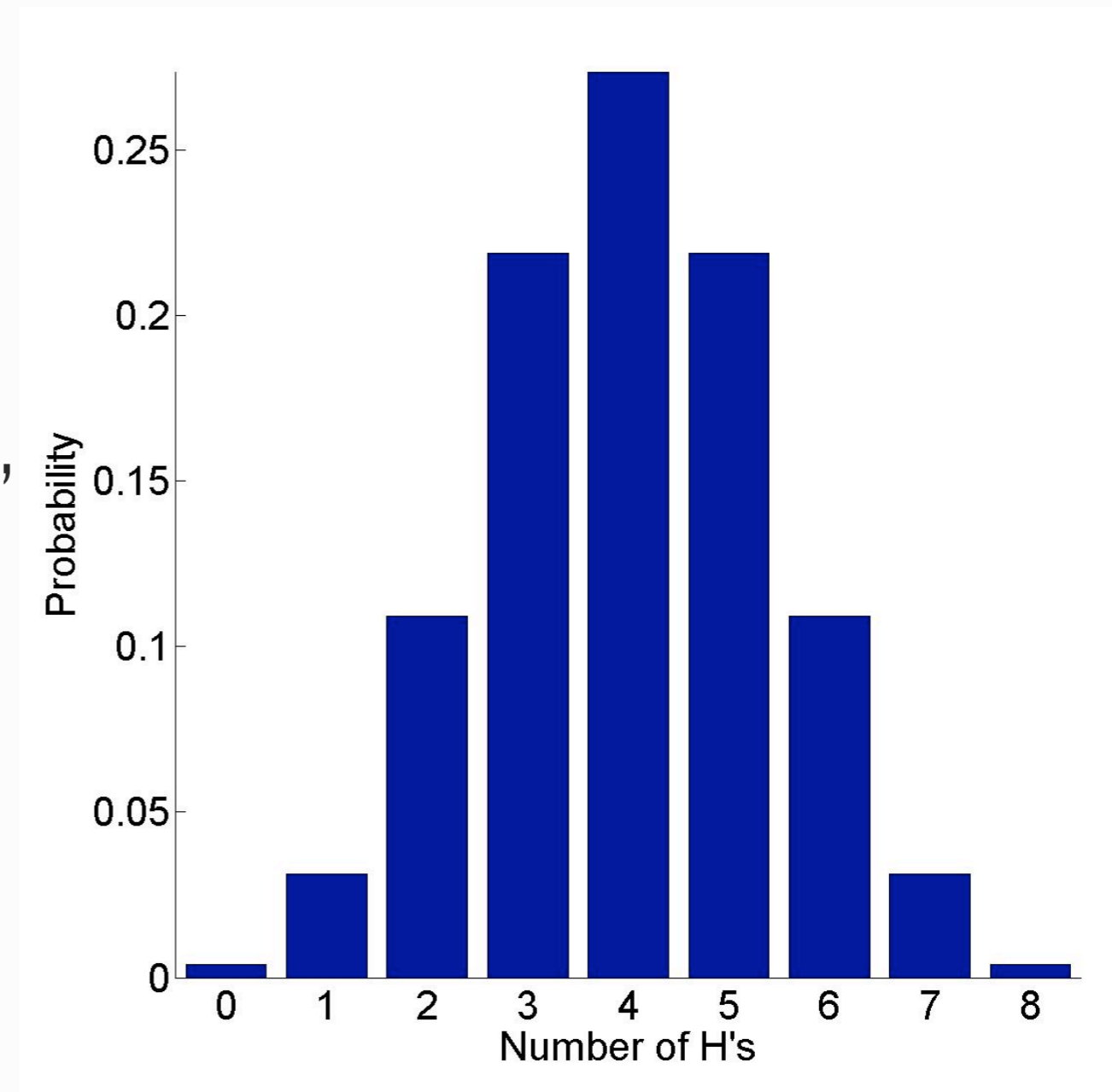
Mean:

0, 12.5(x8), 25(x28),  
37.5(x56), 50(x70), 62.5(x56),  
75(x28), 87.5(x8) or 100

Average error:

$$(50(\times 2) + 37.5(\times 16) + 25(\times 56) + 12.5(\times 112) + 0(\times 70)) / 2^8$$

**= 13.671875**



# BERNOULLI TRIALS

*Hundred flips*

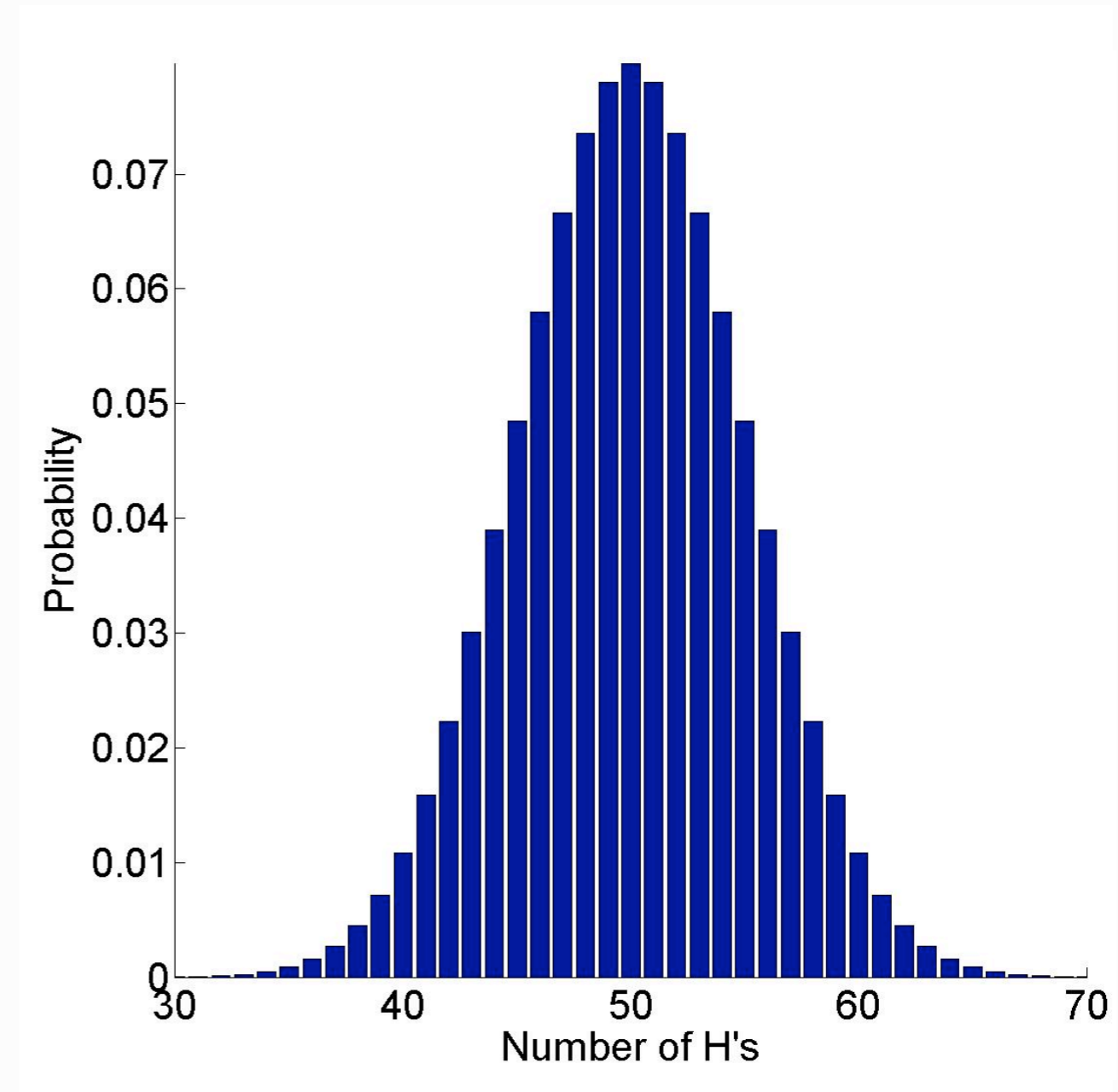
Mean:

...

Average error:

...

**= 3.979462**



# AVERAGE ERROR

**QUESTION** How many times do you need to flip the coin to approach the mean value 50 with 1% error?

1 flip: avg. error = **50**

2 flips: avg. error = **25** =  $50 - 50 / 2$

4 flips: avg. error = **18.75** =  $25 - 25 / 4$

6 flips: avg. error = **15.625** =  $18.75 - 18.75 / 6$

8 flips: avg. error = **13.671875** =  $15.625 - 15.625 / 8$

**Observation:** The relative error improvement is inversely proportional to the number of samples drawn so far.

# AVERAGE ERROR

**QUESTION** How many times do you need to flip the coin to approach the mean value 50 with 1% error?

1 flip: avg. error = **50**

2 flips: avg. error = **25** =  $50 - 50 / 2$

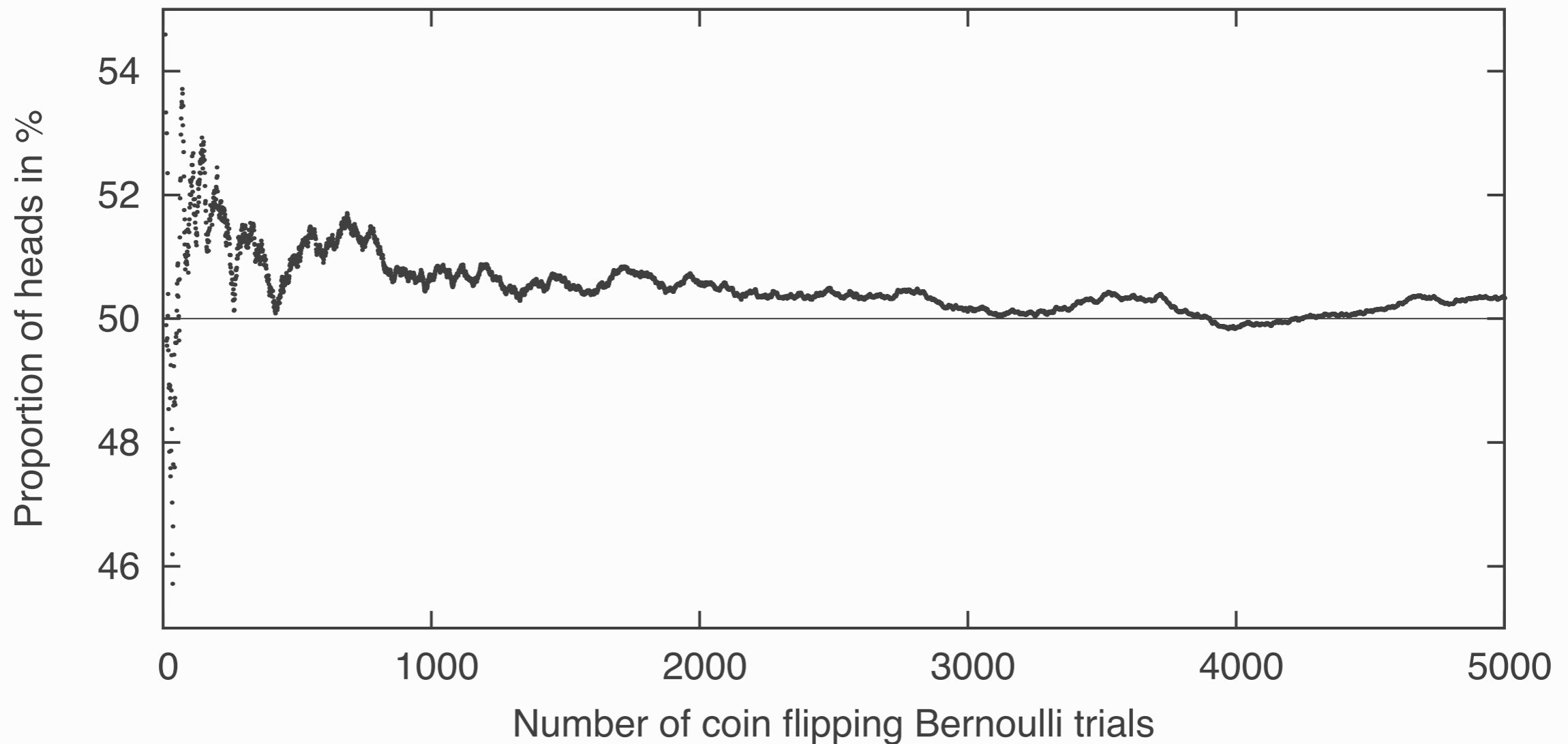
4 flips: avg. error = **18.75** =  $25 - 25 / 4$

6 flips: avg. error = **15.625** =  $18.75 - 18.75 / 6$

8 flips: avg. error = **13.671875** =  $15.625 - 15.625 / 8$

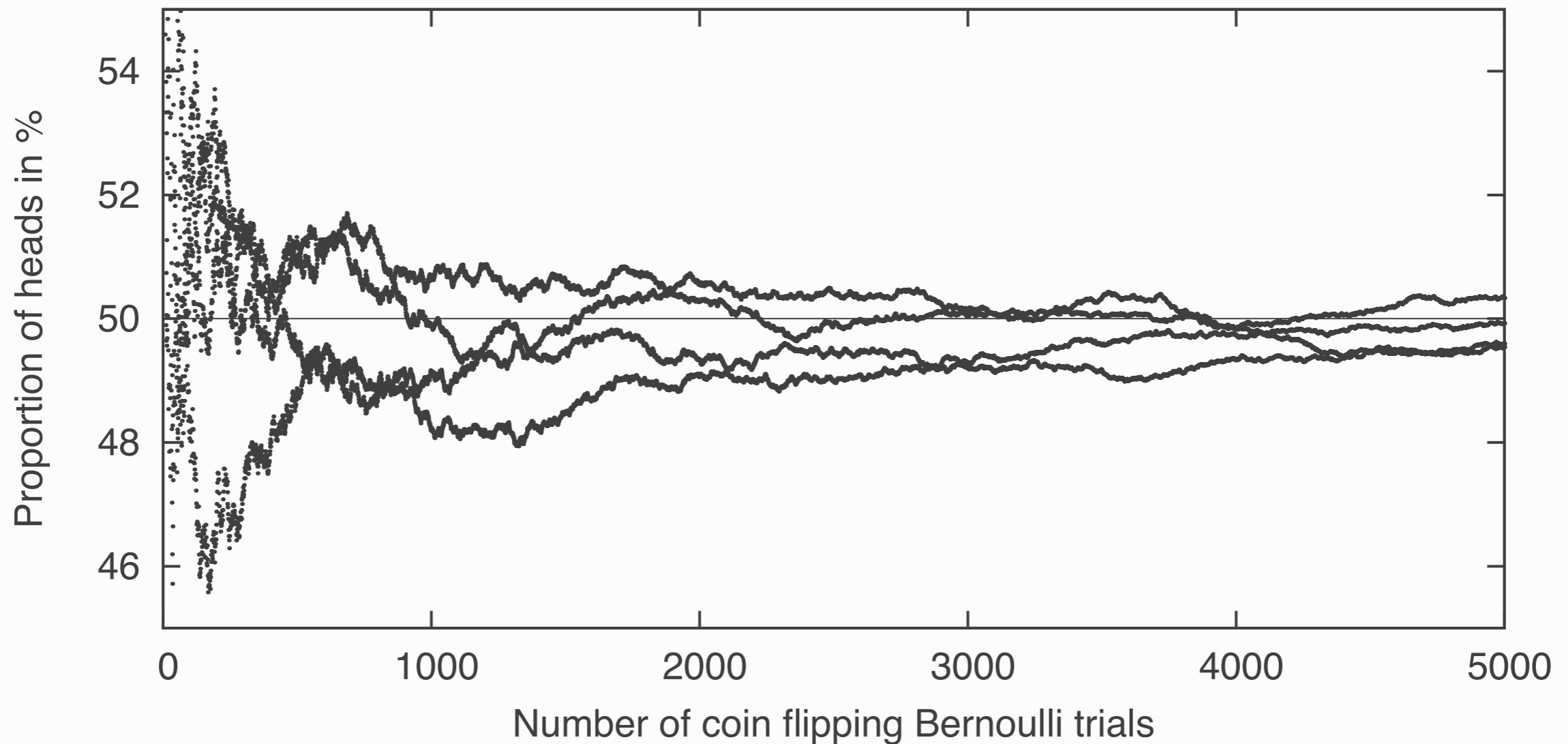
1592 flips: avg. error = **0.9997015** =  $1.00033 - 1.00033 / 1592$

# LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS



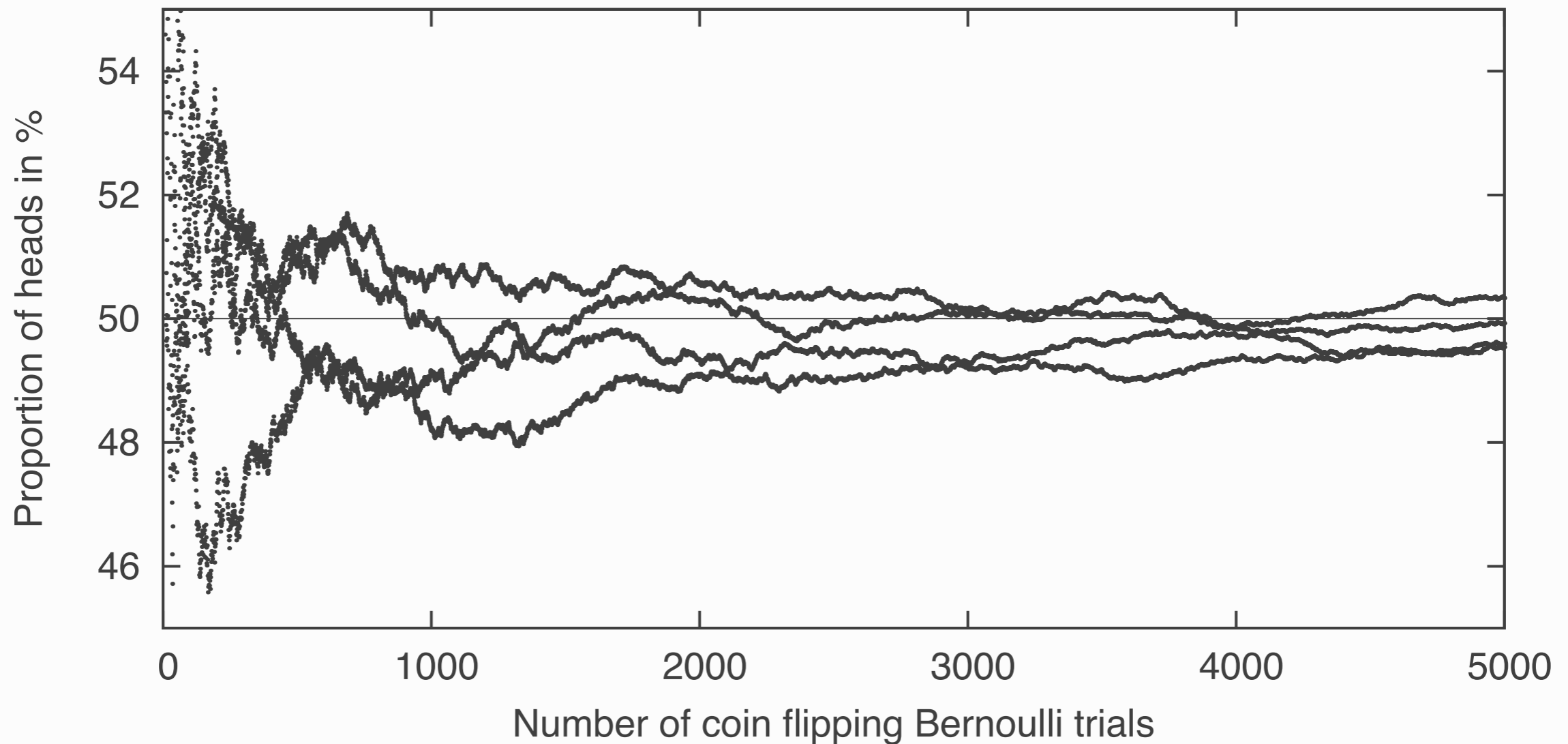
As the number of independent *randomly* generated trials increases, their average tends to their theoretical mean.

# LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS



As the number of independent *randomly* generated trials increases, their average tends to their theoretical mean.

# LAW OF LARGE NUMBERS



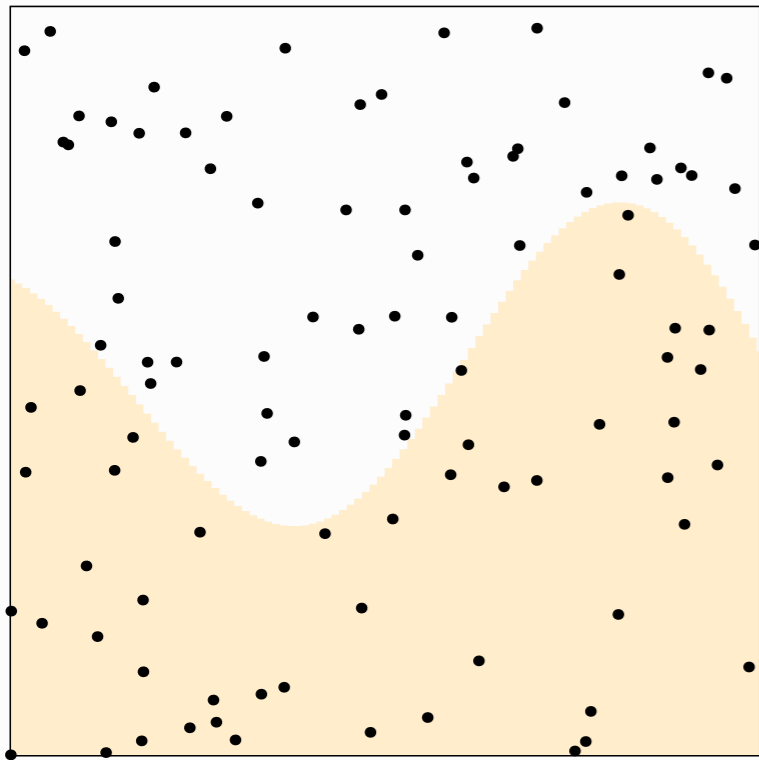
As the number of independent *randomly* generated trials increases, their average tends to their theoretical mean.

**Consequence:** If it is possible to improve the convergence rate, then there is only one way: *Do not pick point samples at random!*

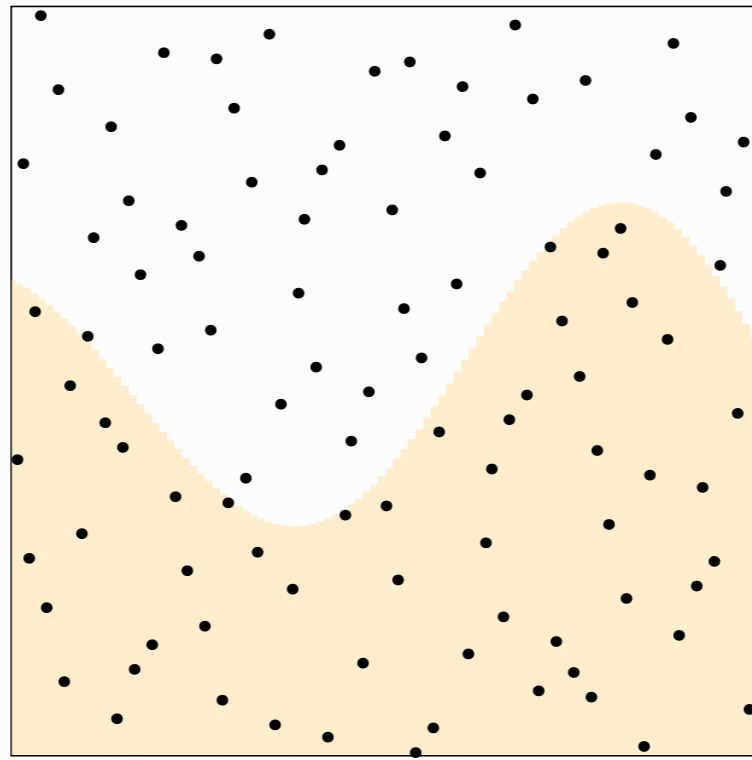
# QUASI-RANDOM POINTS



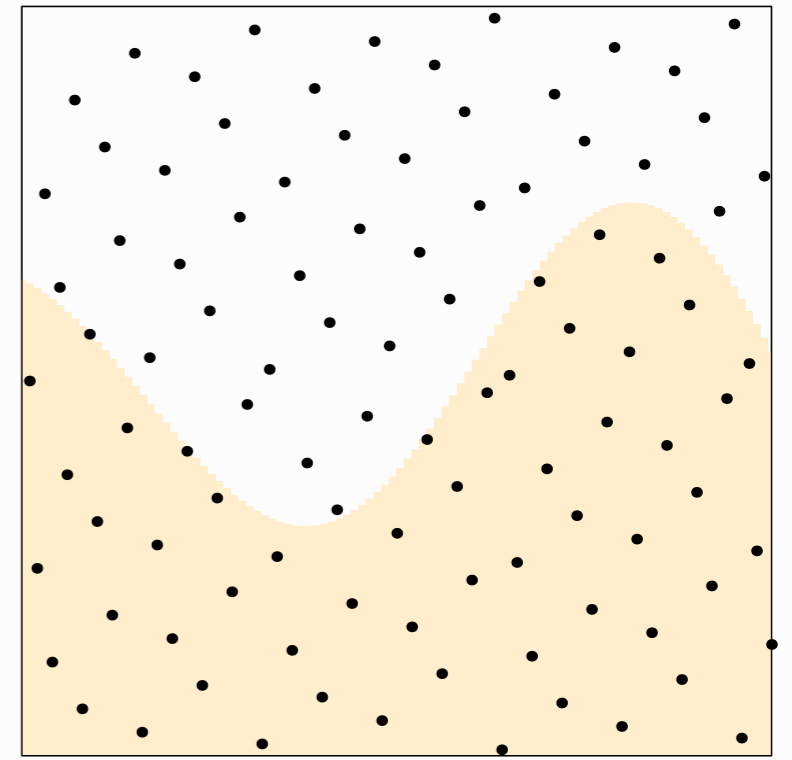
# QUASI-RANDOM POINTS



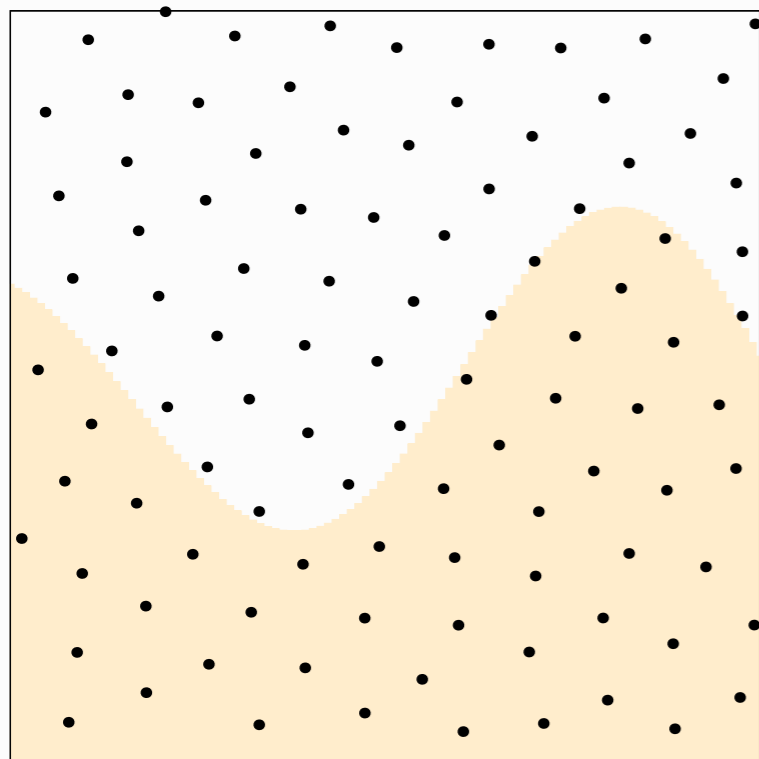
Random



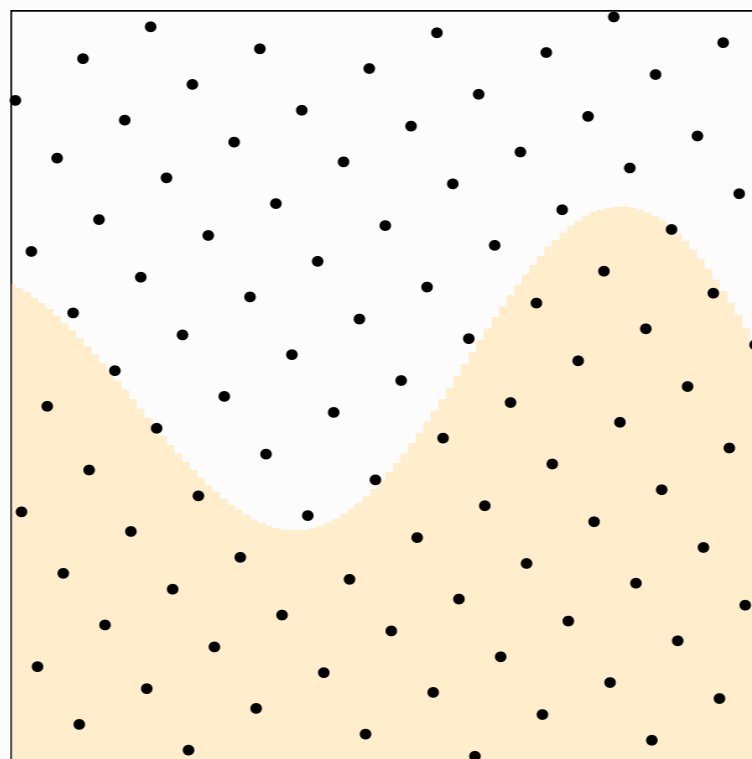
Halton sequence



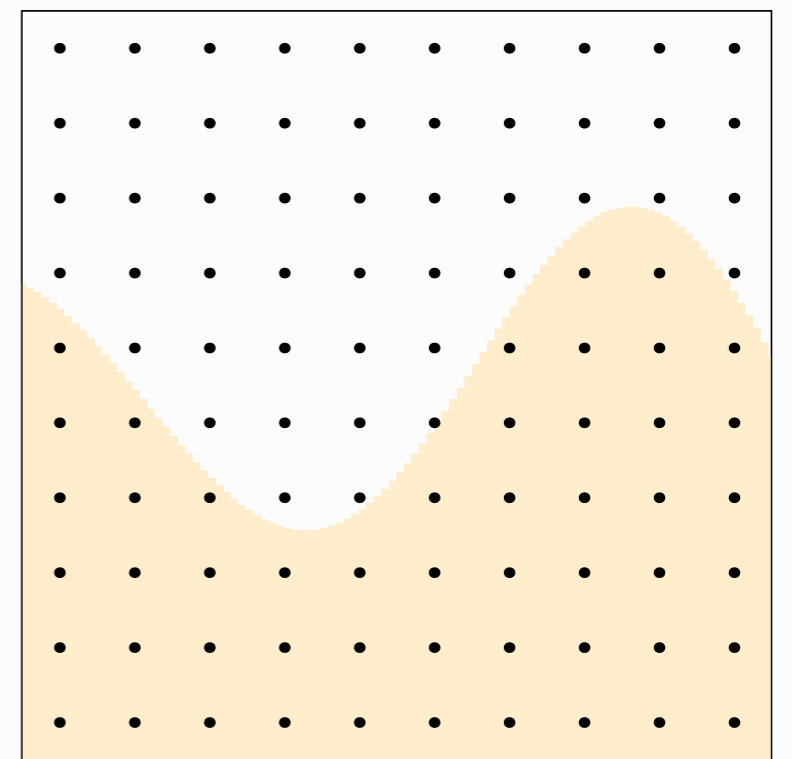
Hammersley set



Blue noise points

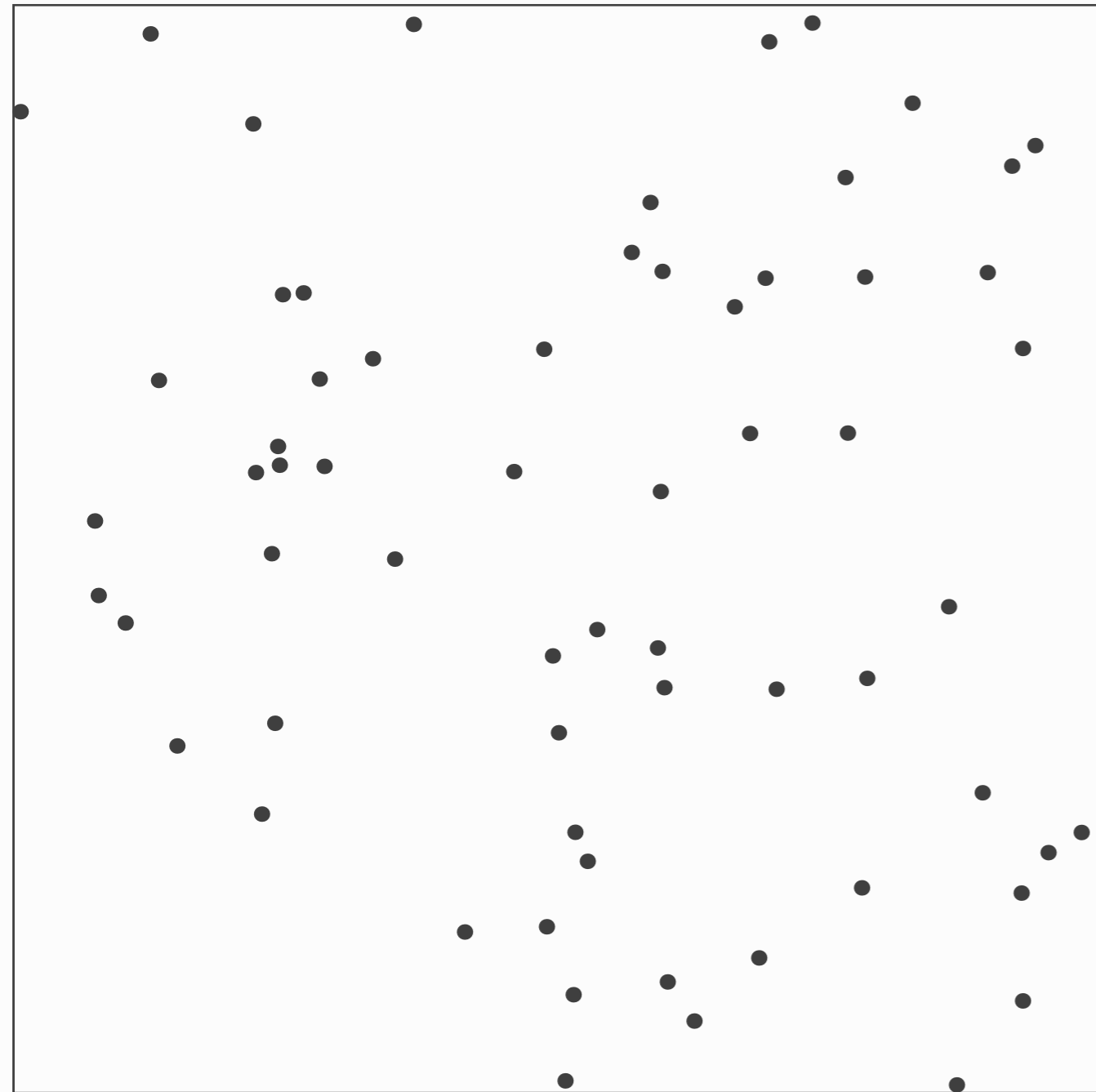


Lattice rule

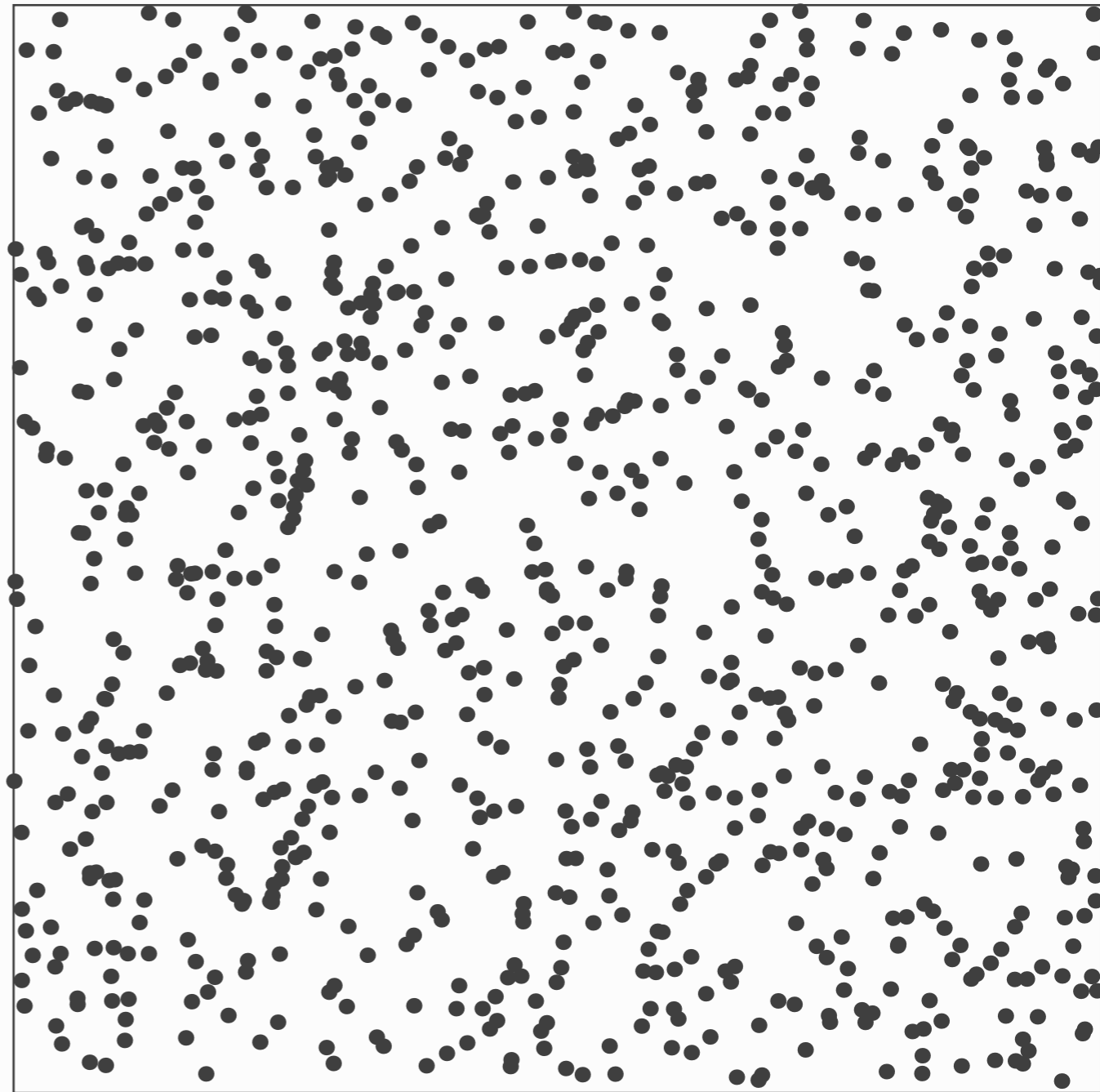


Cartesian grid

# RANDOM SAMPLING



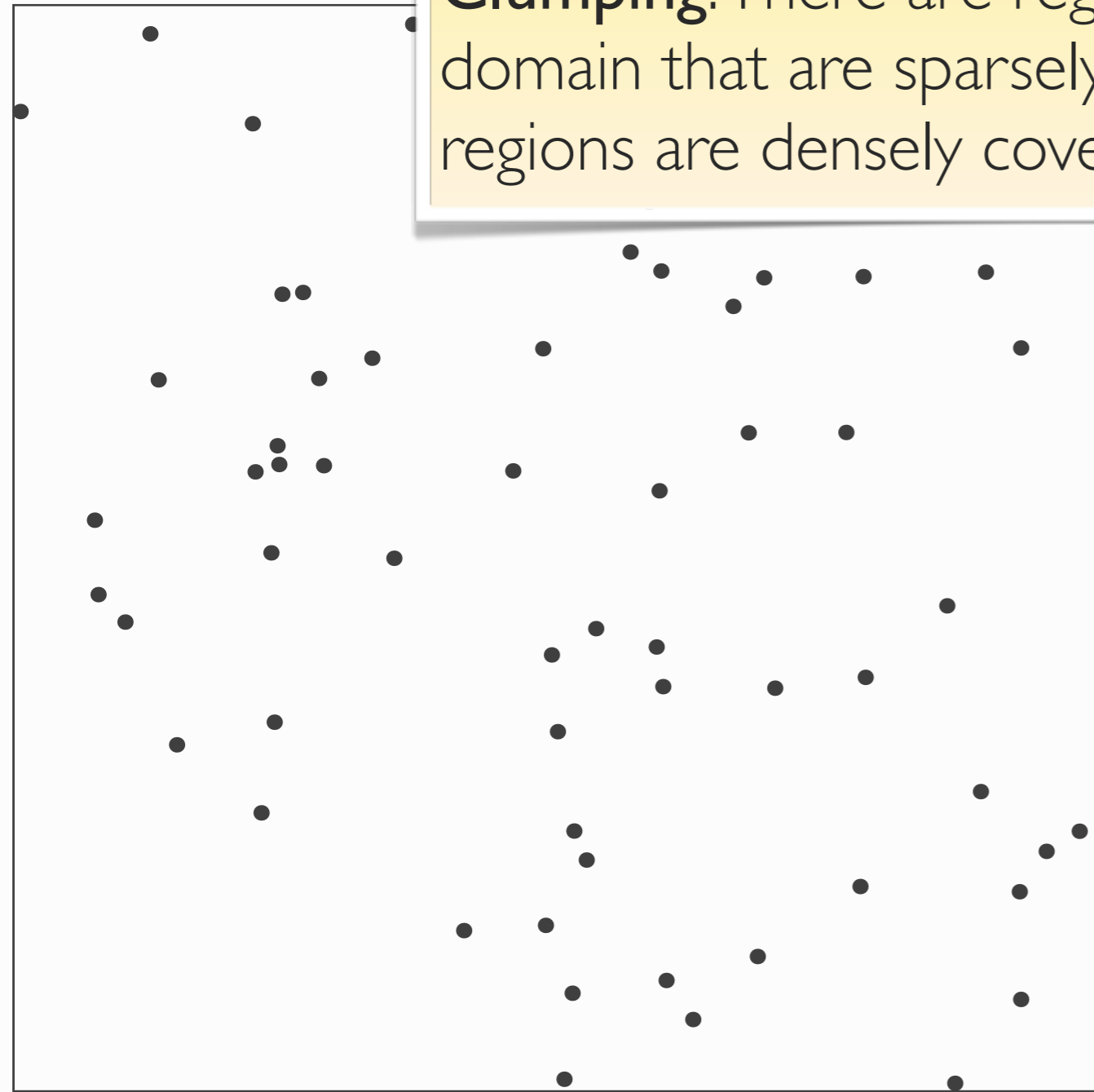
64 random points



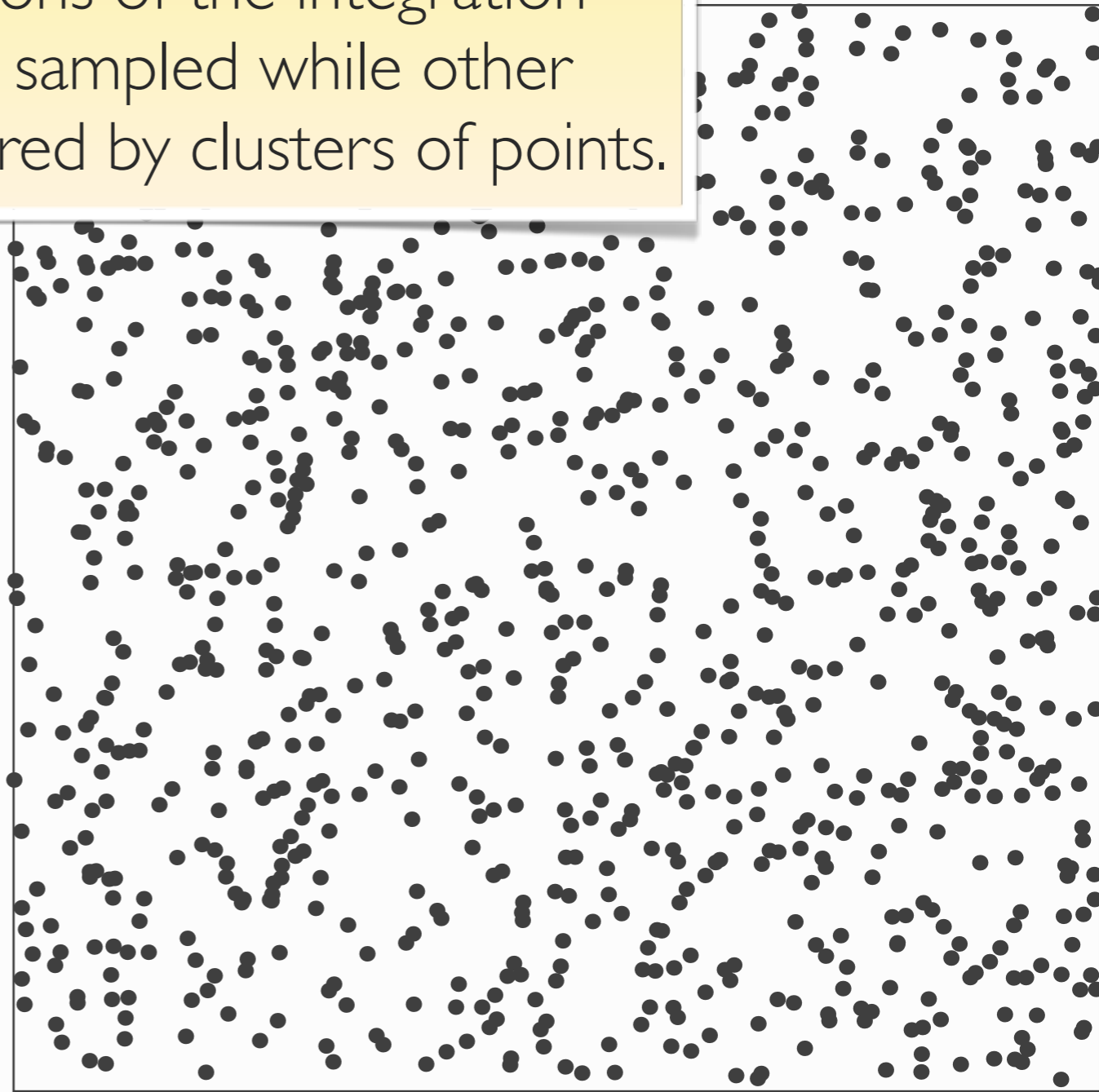
1000 random points

# RANDOM SAMPLING

**Clumping:** There are regions of the integration domain that are sparsely sampled while other regions are densely covered by clusters of points.

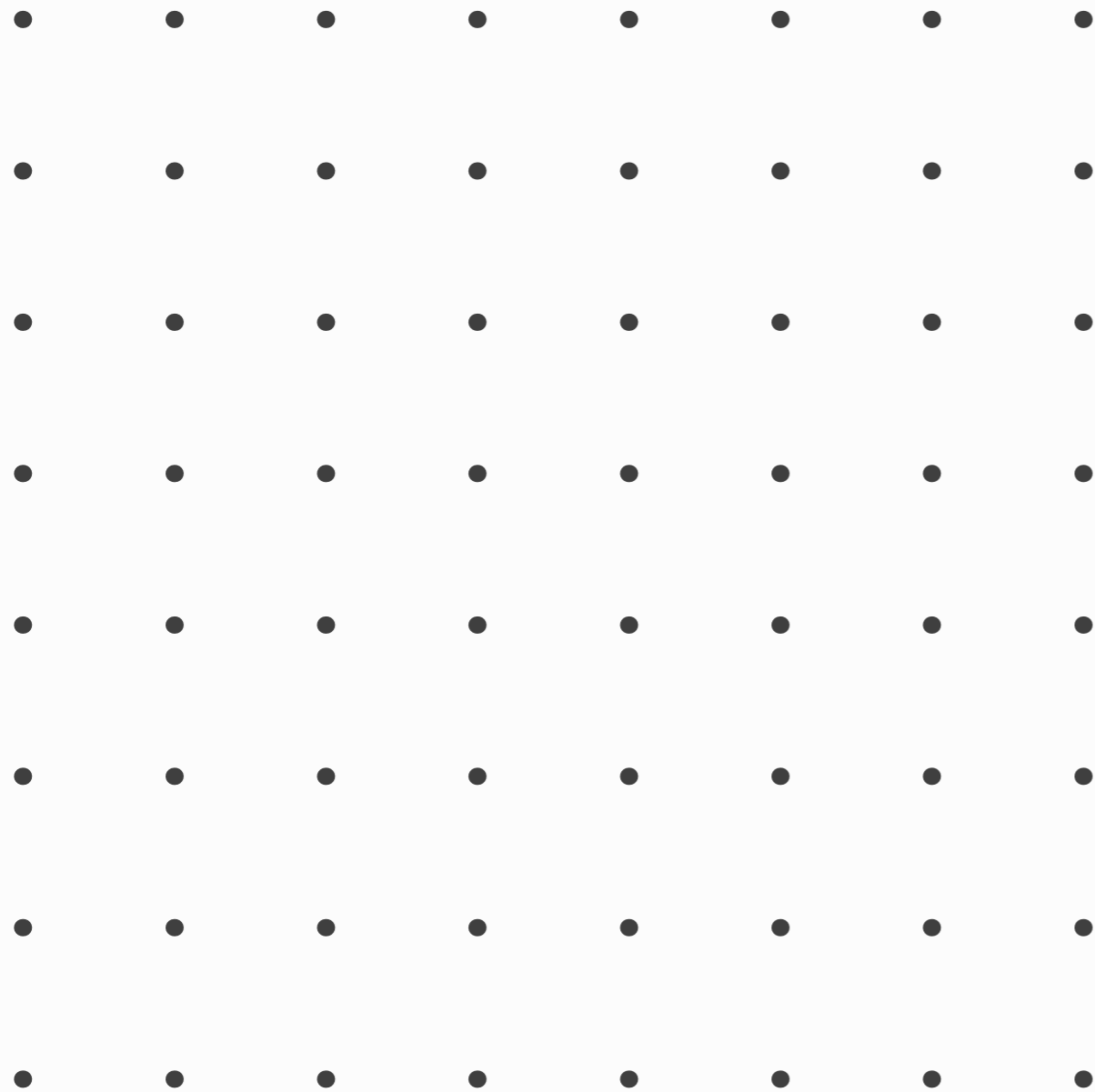


64 random points

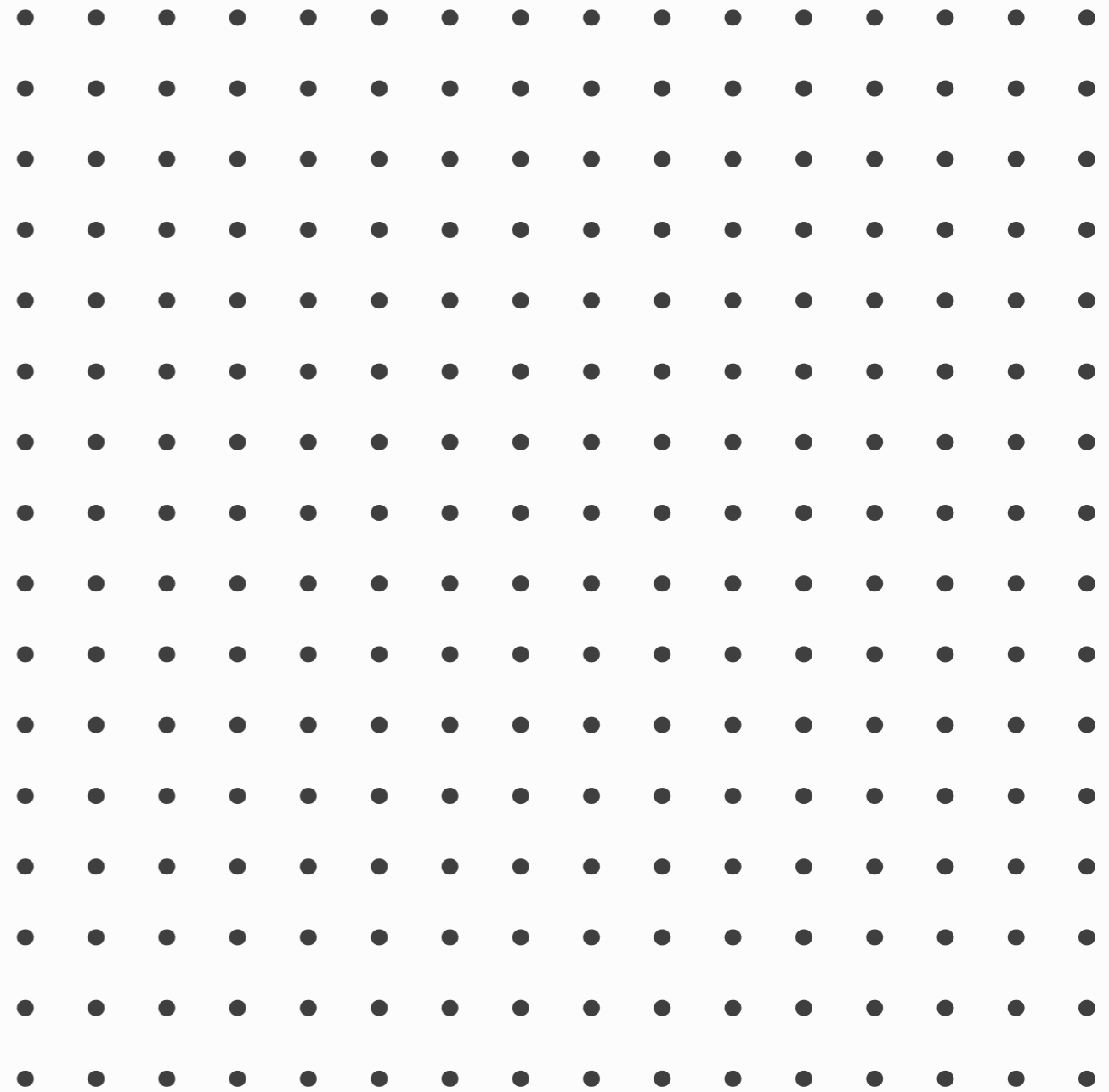


1000 random points

# REGULAR GRIDS



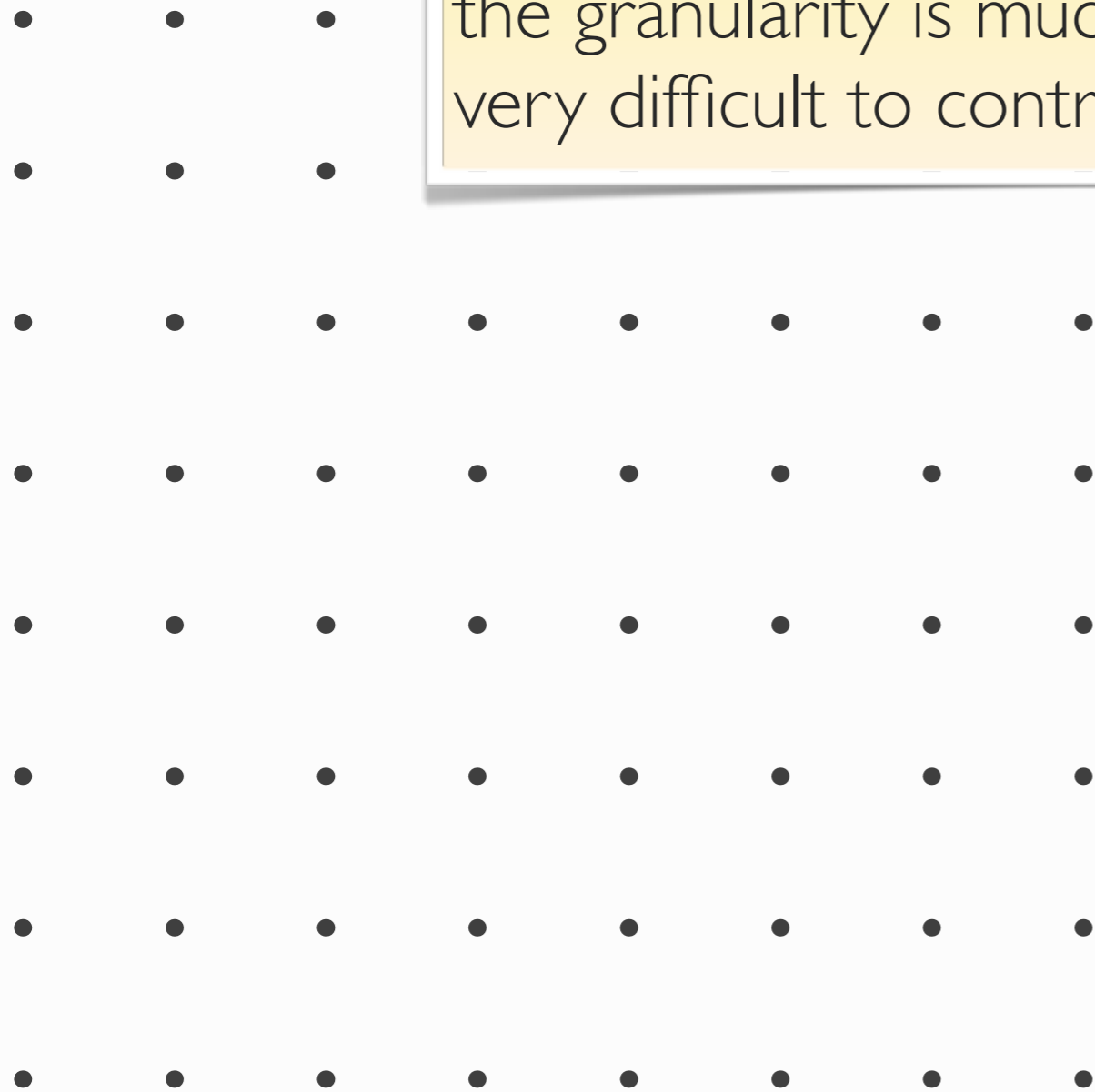
Cartesian grid,  $8^2 = 64$  points



Cartesian grid,  $16^2 = 256$  points

# REGULAR GRIDS

**Curse of dimensionality:** In higher dimensions, the granularity is much coarser and it becomes very difficult to control the number of samples.

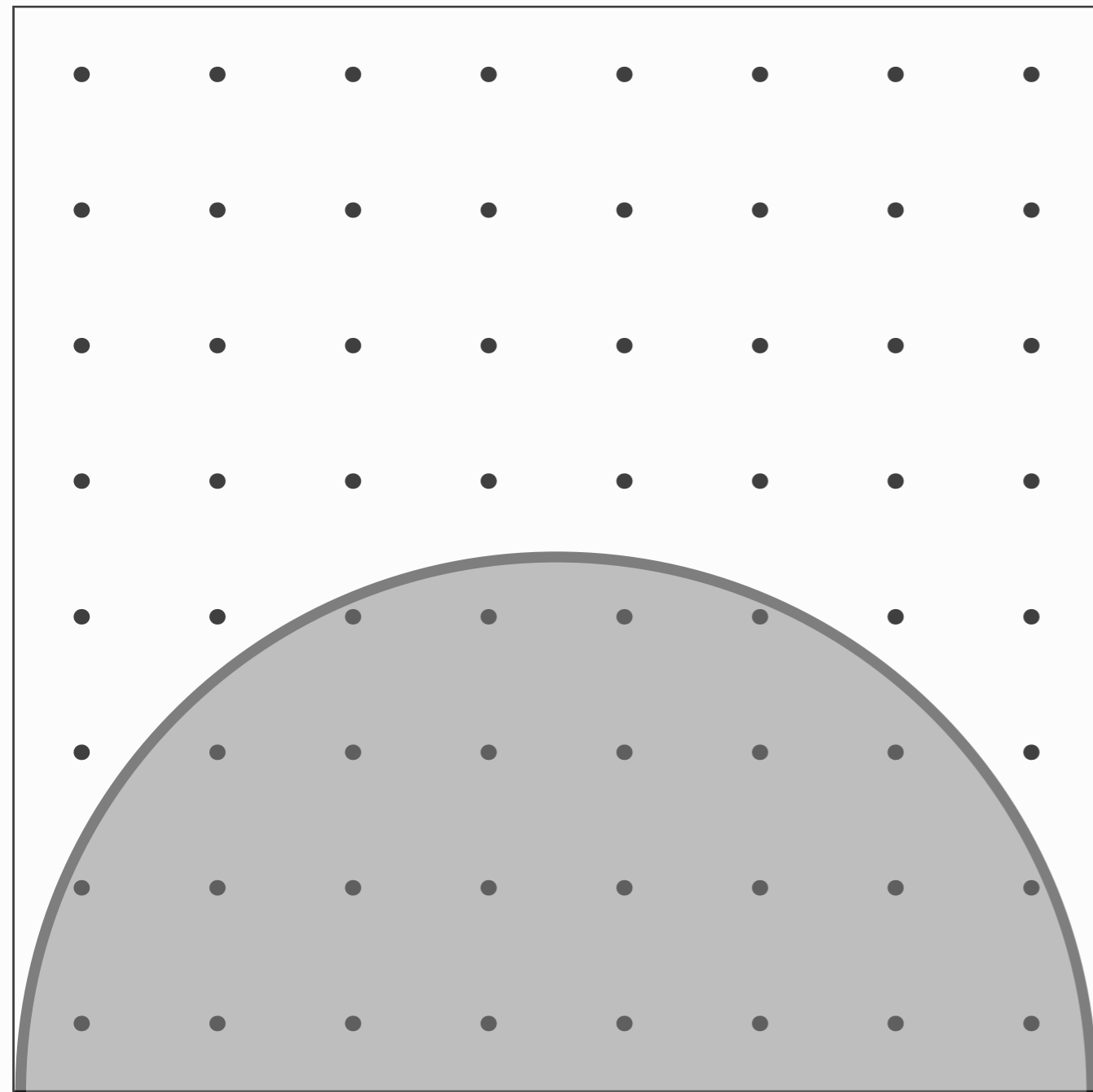


Cartesian grid,  $8^2 = 64$  points

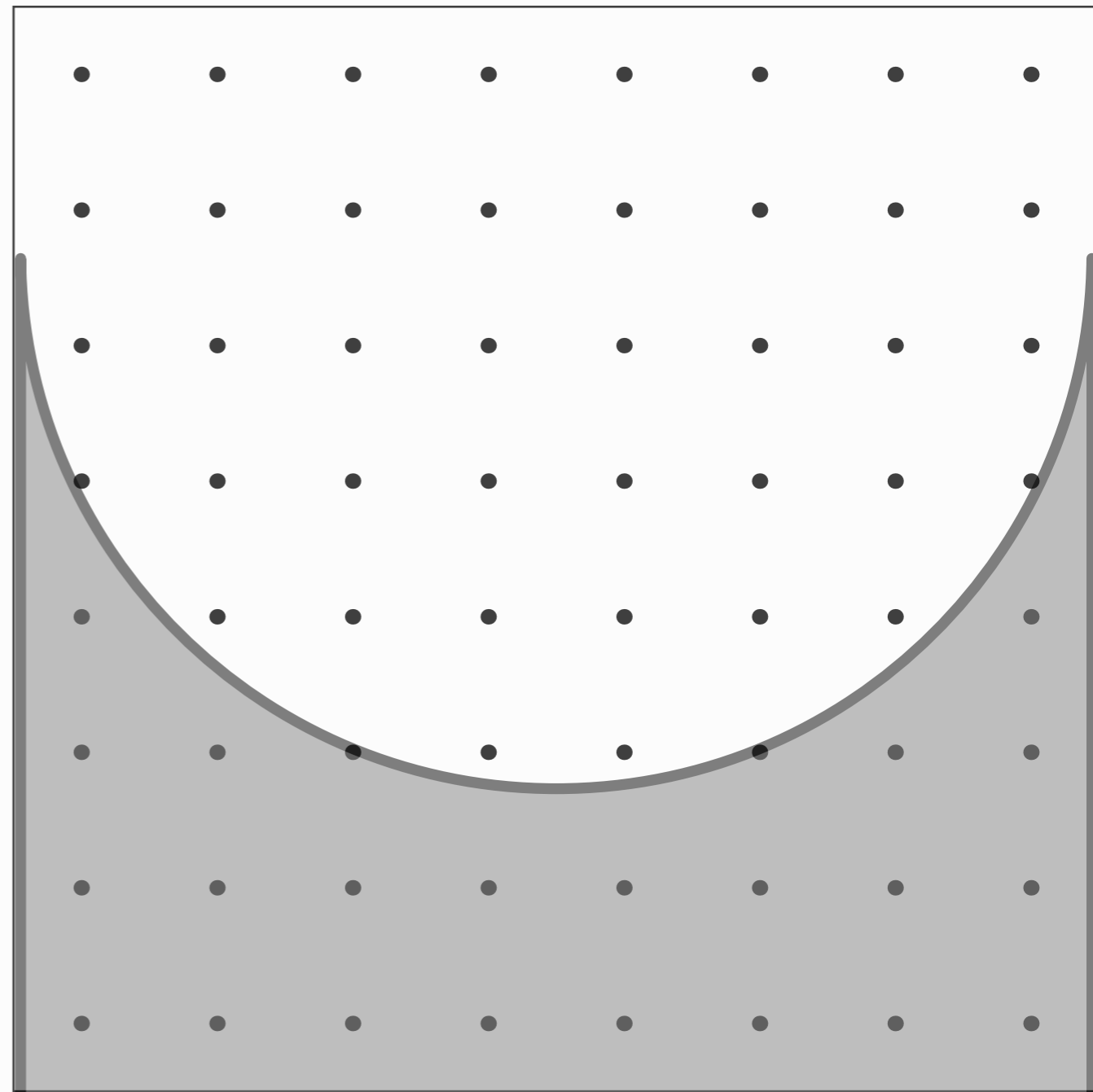


Cartesian grid,  $16^2 = 256$  points

# CONCAVITY - VEXITY BIAS



26 points inside a *concave* function



24 points inside a *convex* function

# CONCAVITY -VEXITY BIAS

We want to integrate the area of a half unit disc (area:  **$\text{Pi}/2$** ) enclosed in a unit box (area:  **$2^2 = 4$** )

- Note that the ratio these two is  **$(\text{Pi}/2)/4 = \text{Pi}/8$**

- When approximating the integral with  **$8^2 = 64$**  samples, the proportion of samples inside the shapes should be close to  **$64 \times \text{Pi}/8 = 25.132$**  (not 24 or 26)

# CONCAVITY -VEXITY BIAS

We want to integrate the area of a half unit disc (area:  $\mathbf{\Pi/2}$ ) enclosed in a unit box (area:  $\mathbf{2^2 = 4}$ )

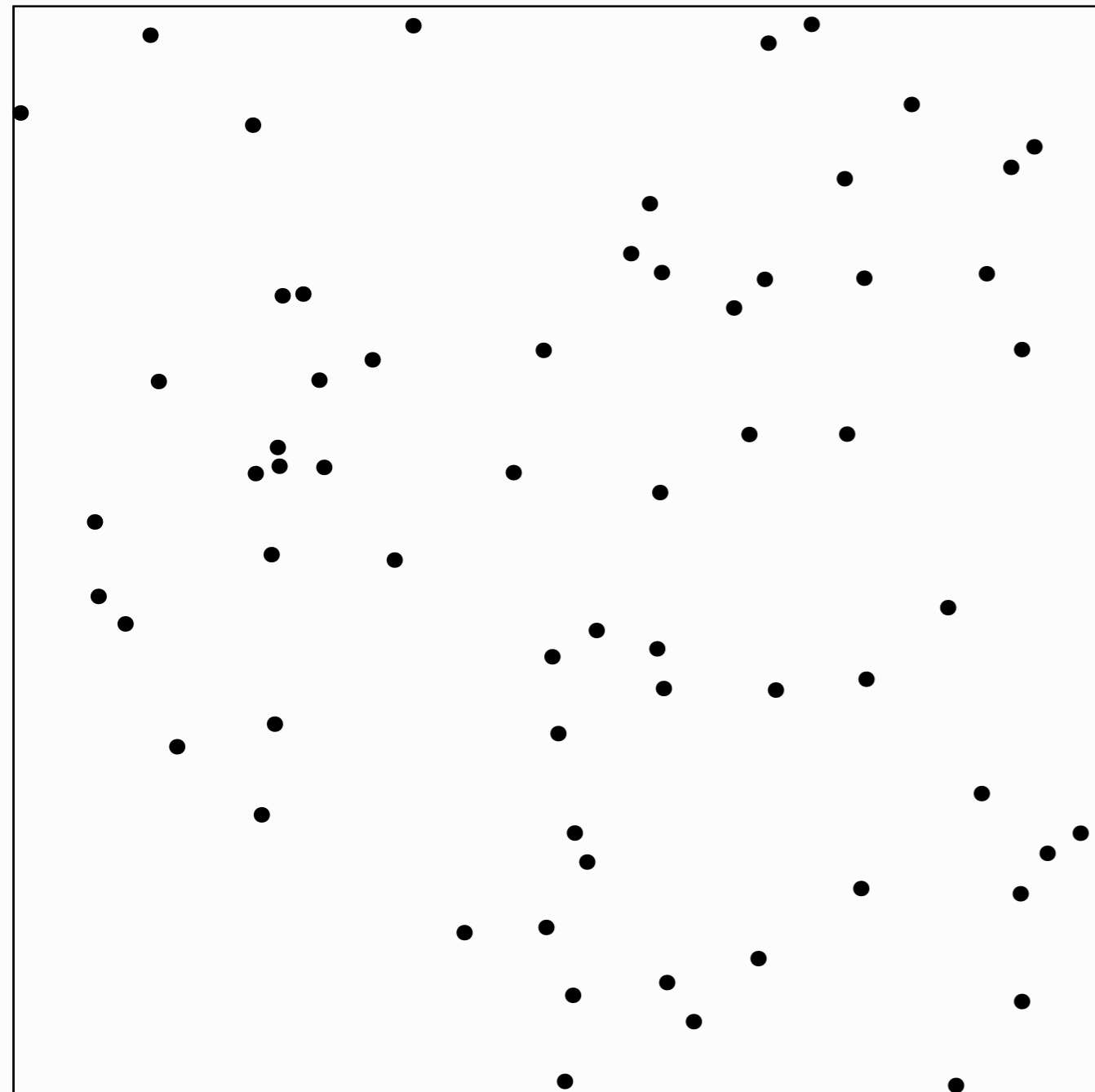
- Note that the ratio these two is  $\mathbf{(\Pi/2)/4 = \Pi/8}$

- When approximating the integral with  $\mathbf{8^2 = 64}$  samples, the proportion of samples inside the shapes should be close to  $\mathbf{64 \times \Pi/8 = 25.132}$  (not 24 or 26)

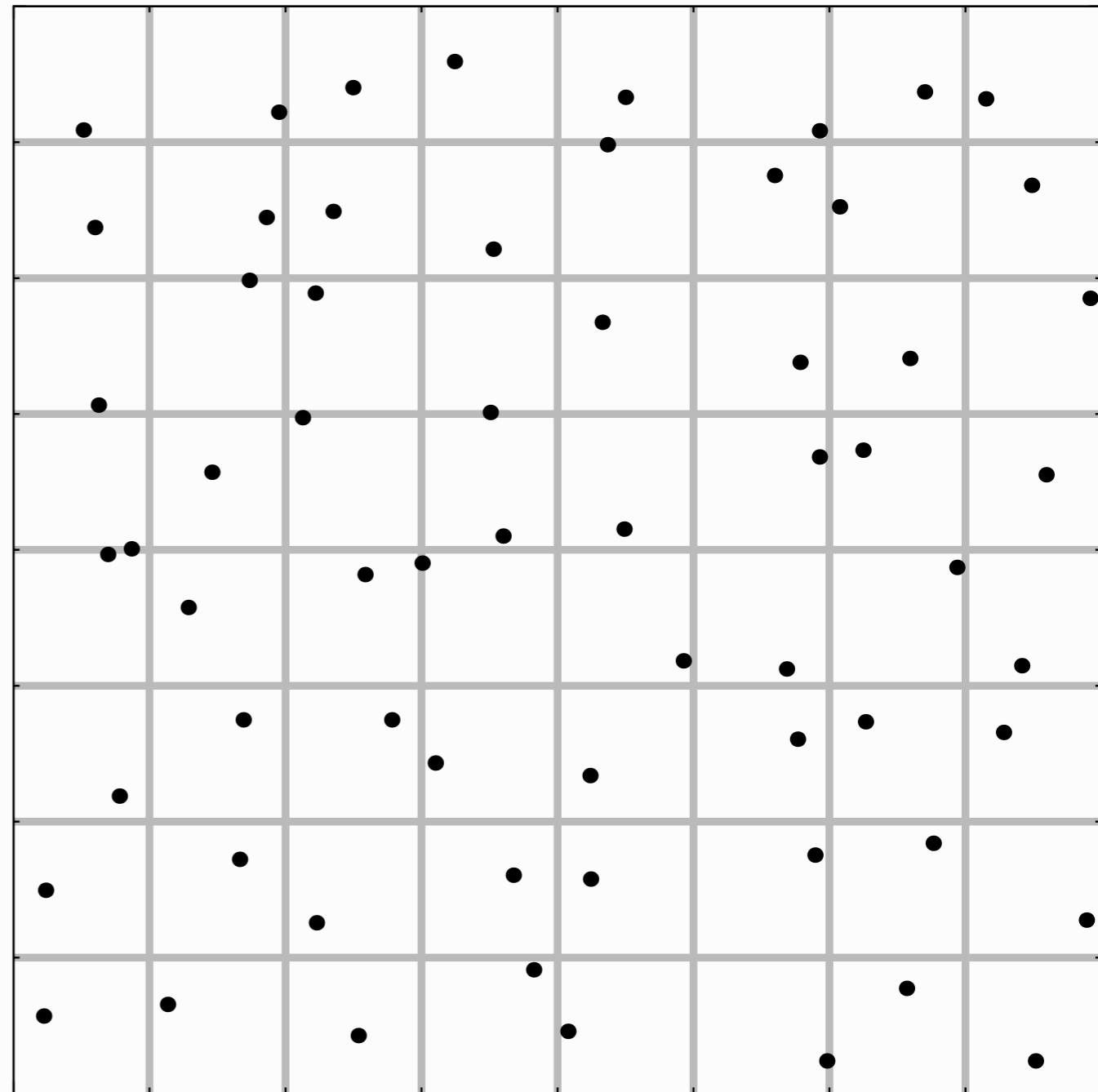
**Bias:** When using regular grids, the integral is systematically over or under estimated for globally concave or convex functions, respectively (*Dupire & Savine, 1998*)



# STRATIFIED SAMPLES

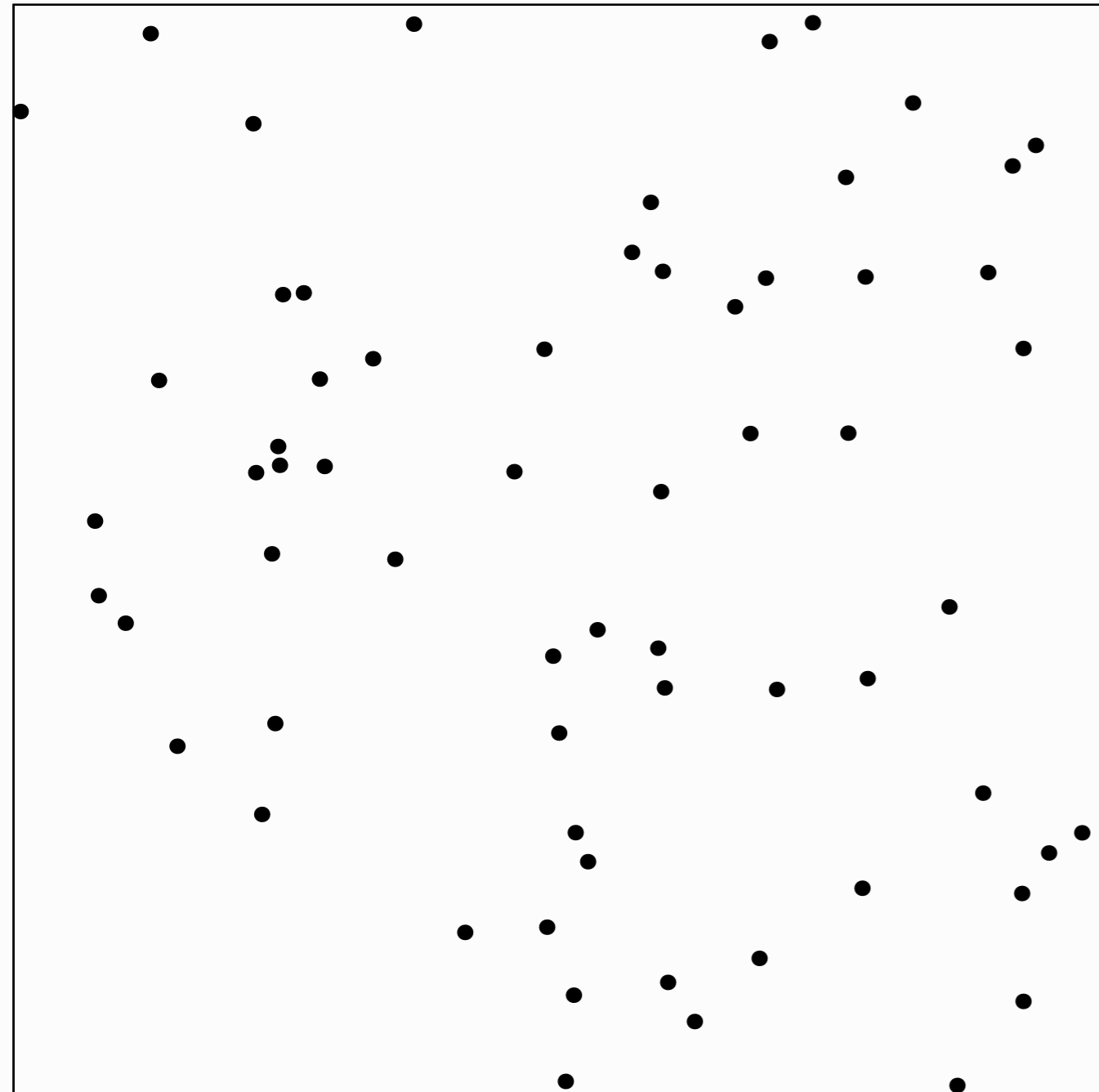


Random samples, 64 points

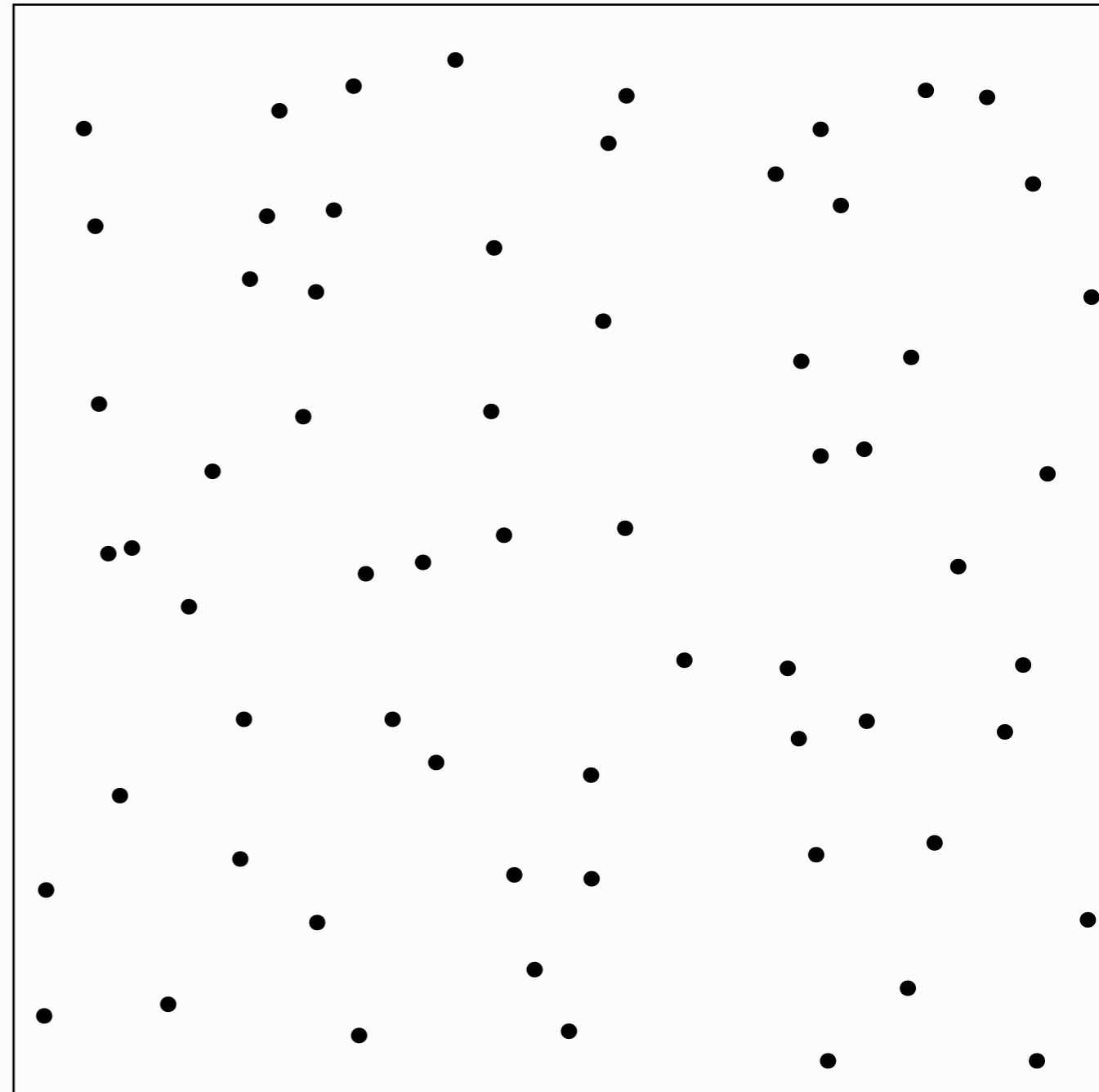


Stratified samples and strata , 64 points

# STRATIFIED SAMPLES



Random samples, 64 points



Stratified samples, 64 points

# PSEUDO-RANDOM

```
unsigned int state[624];
unsigned int index;

unsigned int twist(const unsigned int u, const unsigned int v) {
    const unsigned int twisted = ((u & 0x80000000) | (v & 0x7FFFFFFF)) >> 1;
    if(v & 1) return twisted ^ 2567483615ul;
    return twisted;
}

void update() {
    index = 0;
    for(unsigned int i = 0; i < 624 - 397; ++i)
        state[i] = state[i + 397] ^ twist(state[i], state[i + 1]);

    for(unsigned int i = 624 - 397; i < 623; ++i)
        state[i] = state[i + 397 - 624] ^ twist(state[i], state[i + 1]);

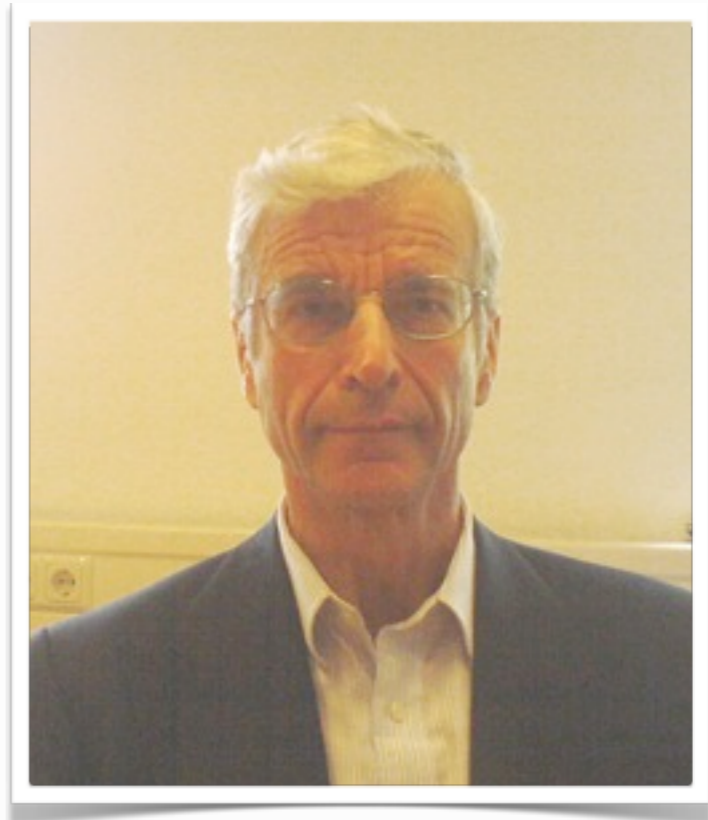
    state[623] = state[396] ^ twist(state[623], state[0]);
}

unsigned int random() {
    if(index == 624) update();
    unsigned int r = state[index++];
    r ^= (r >> 11);
    r ^= (r << 7) & 2636928640ul;
    r ^= (r << 15) & 4022730752ul;
    r ^= (r >> 18);
    return r;
}
```

Mersene twister number generator (*Matsumoto & Nishimura 2002*)

*“For every randomized algorithm,  
there is a clever deterministic one.”*

Harald Niederreiter, 1998



# LOW-DISCREPANCY POINTS

**dis·crep·an·cy** (*noun*)

A lack of compatibility or similarity  
between two or more facts

ORIGIN *early 17<sup>th</sup> cent.: from Latin **discrepantia**,  
from **discrepare** ‘be discordant,’ from **dis-** ‘apart,  
away’ + **crepare** ‘to creak.’*

**dis·crep·an·cy** (*noun*)

A lack of ~~compatibility~~ or similarity  
between ~~two or more~~ facts

ORIGIN *early 17<sup>th</sup> cent.*: from Latin *discrepantia*,  
from *discrepare* ‘be discordant,’ from *dis-* ‘apart,  
away’ + *crepare* ‘to creak.’

**dis·crep·an·cy** (*noun*)

A lack of ~~compatibility~~ or similarity  
between ~~two or more~~ ~~facts~~ points

ORIGIN *early 17<sup>th</sup> cent.: from Latin **discrepantia**,  
from **discrepare** ‘be discordant,’ from **dis-** ‘apart,  
away’ + **crepare** ‘to creak.’*



# DISCREPANCY CRITERIA

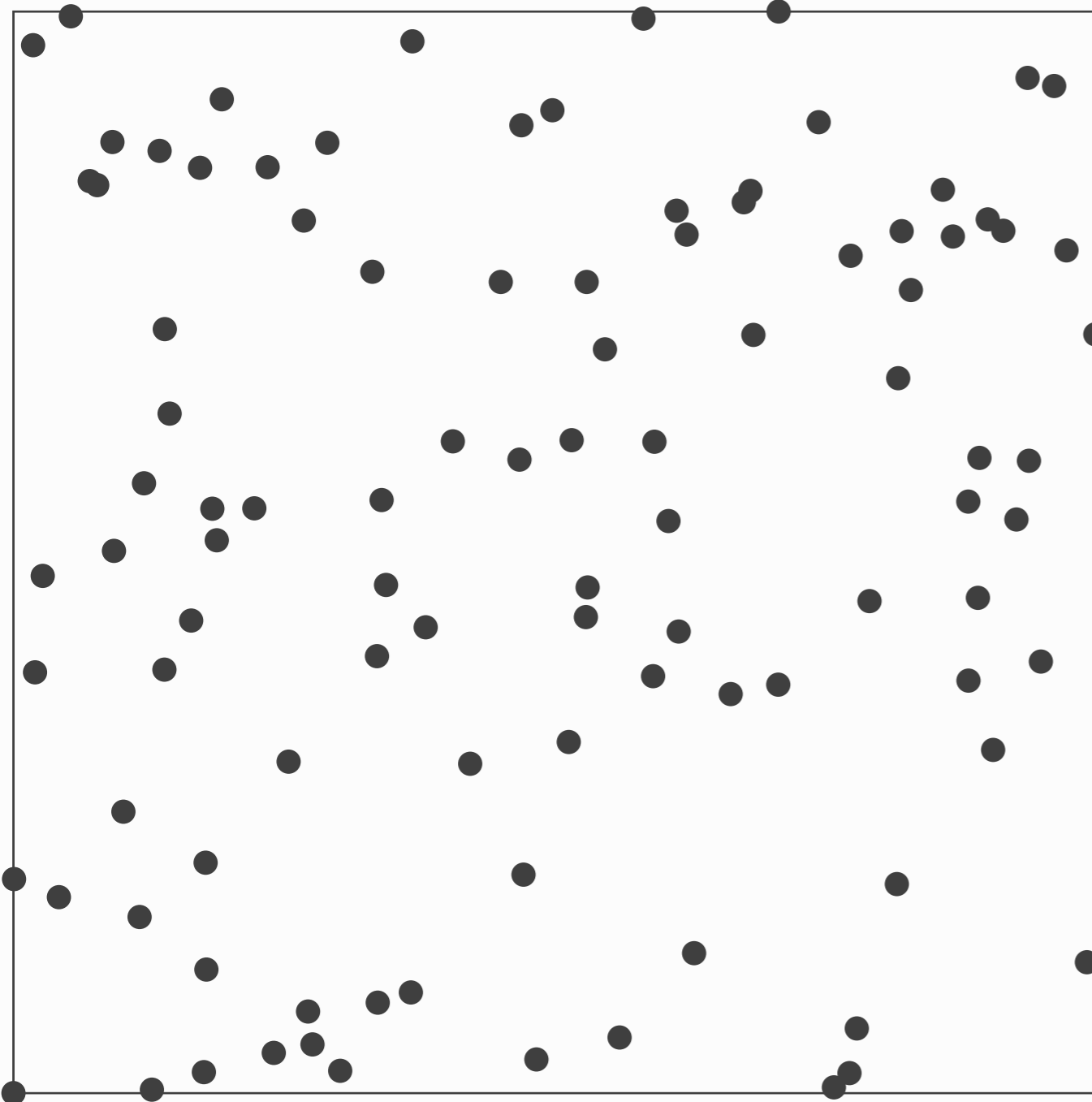
## *Number Theory*

Box discrepancy, local discrepancy, star discrepancy, half-plane discrepancy, edge discrepancy, strip discrepancy, ...

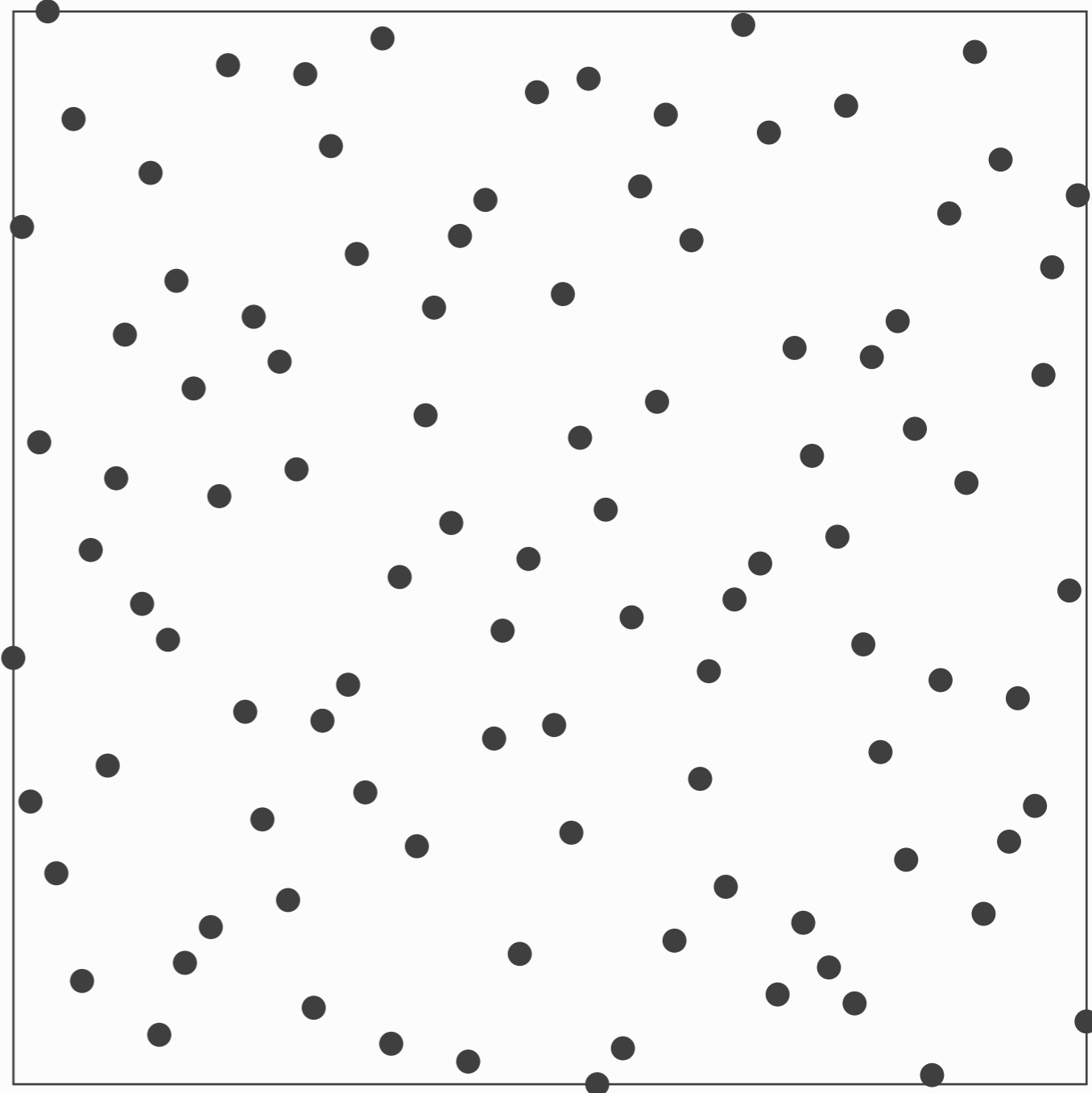
## *Computer Graphics*

Stratified samples, jittering, n-rooks, halftoning, Blue noise spectrum, Poisson disk sampling, minimum maximum distance, ...

# BOX DISCREPANCY

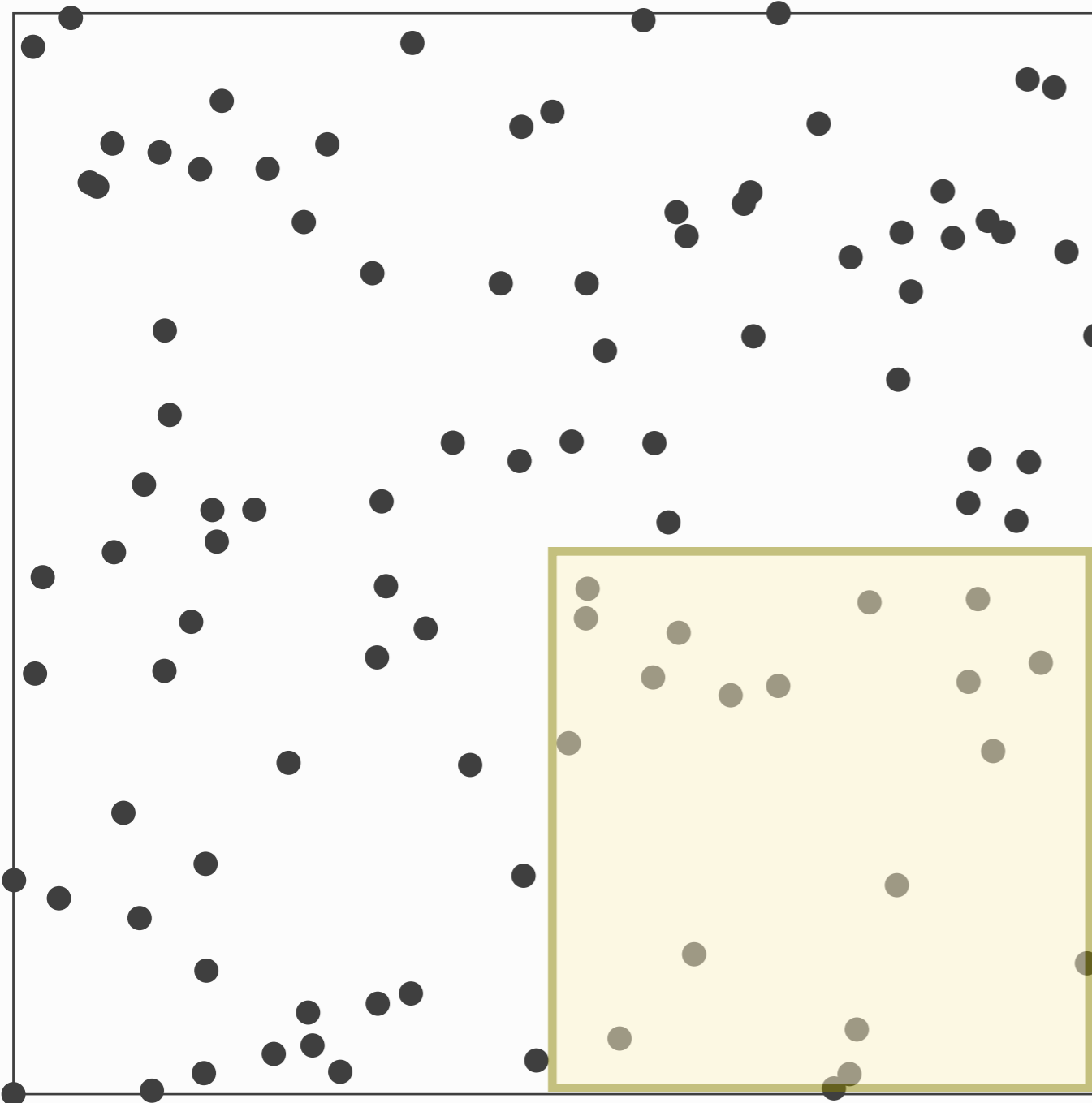


Random (100 points)

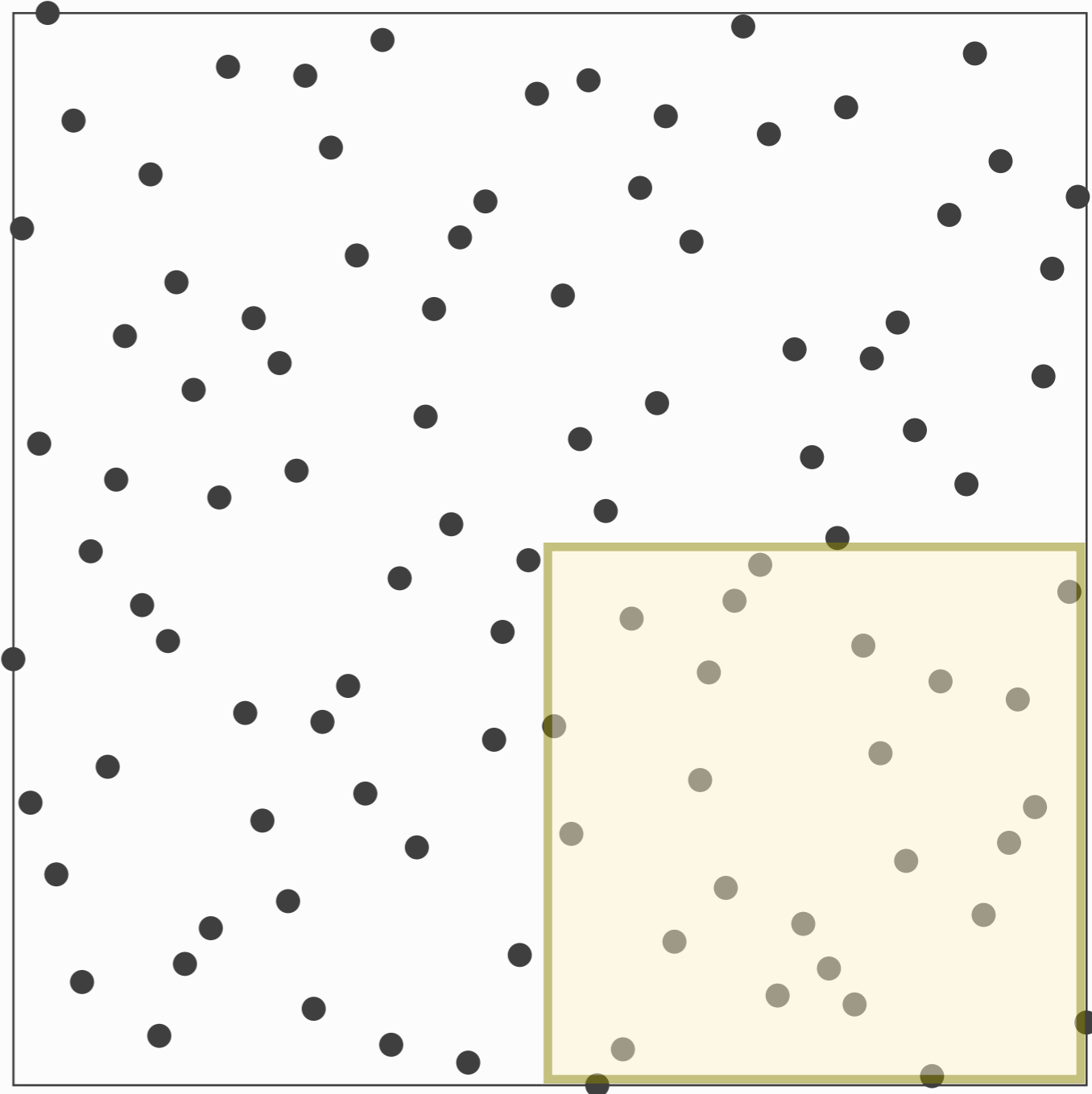


Halton sequence (100 points)

# BOX DISCREPANCY

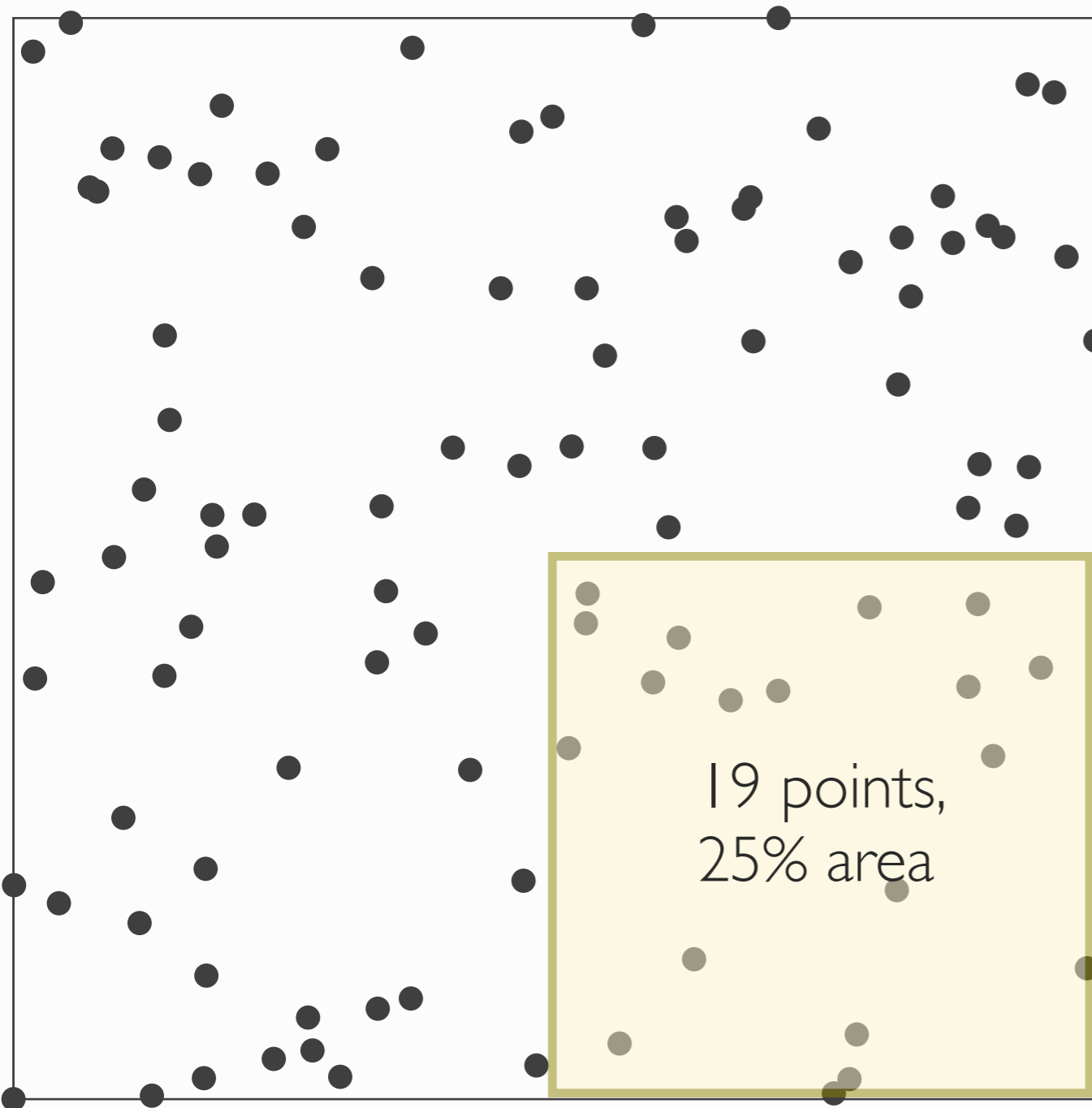


Random (100 points)

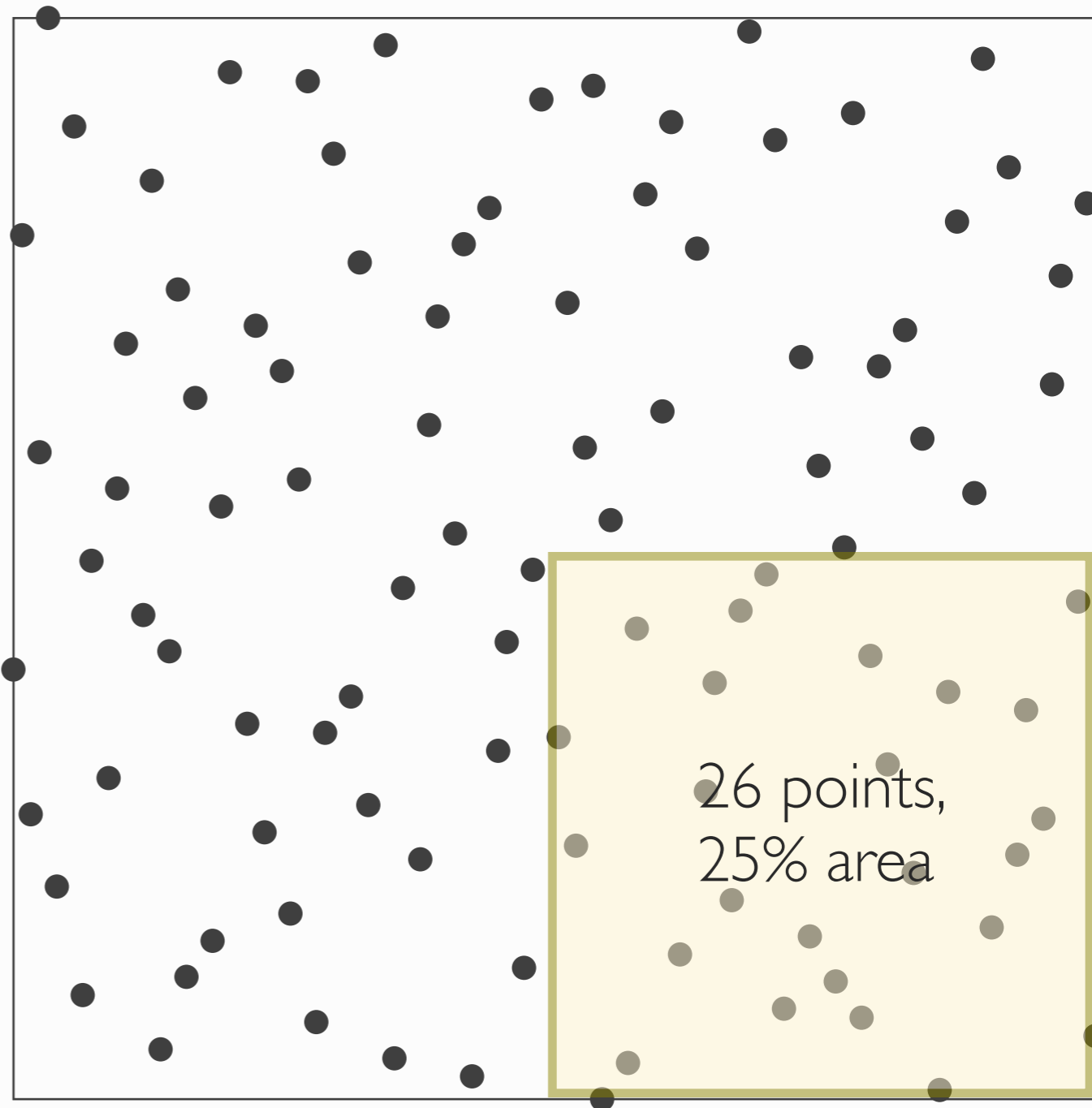


Halton sequence (100 points)

# BOX DISCREPANCY

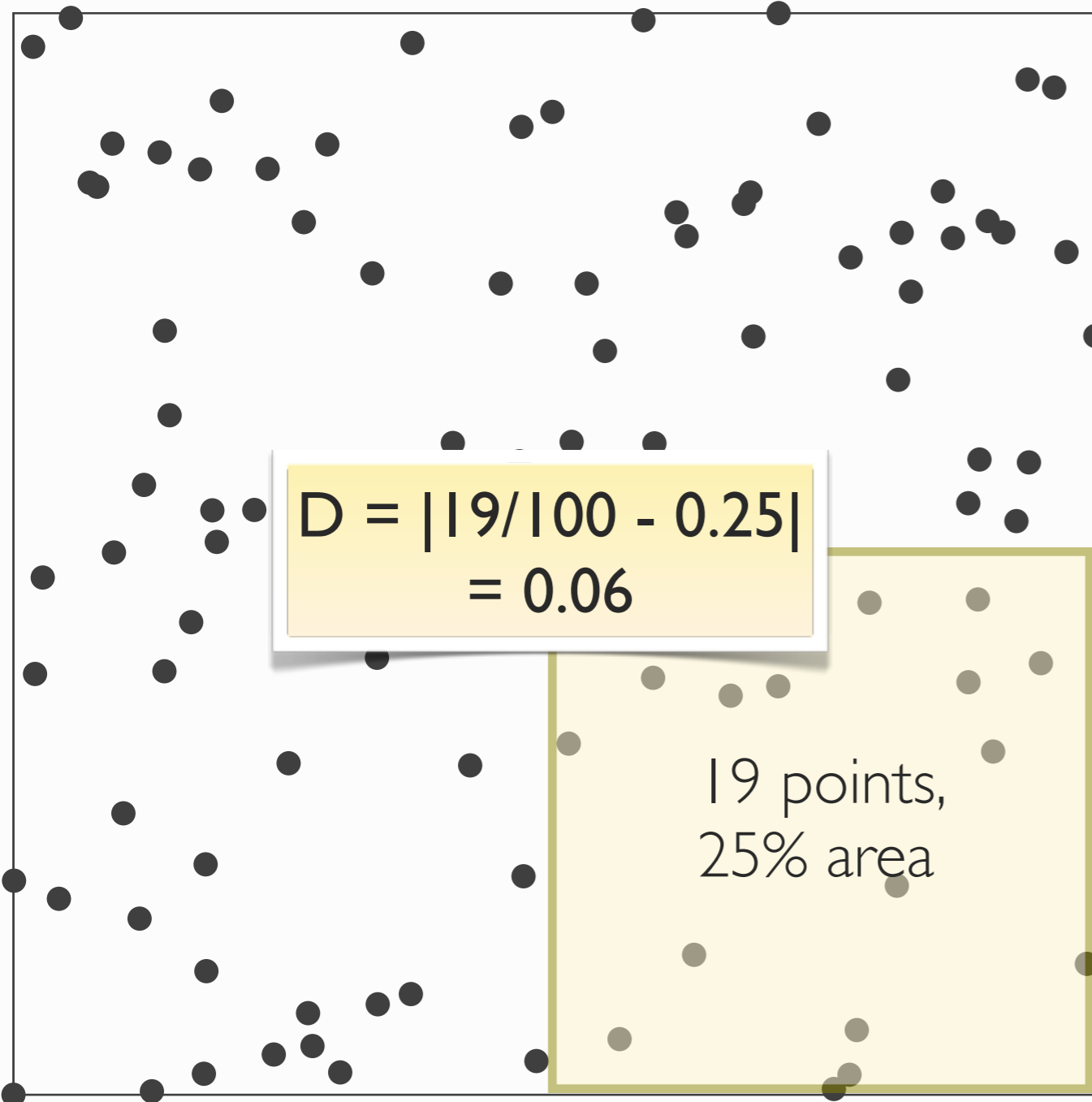


Random (100 points)

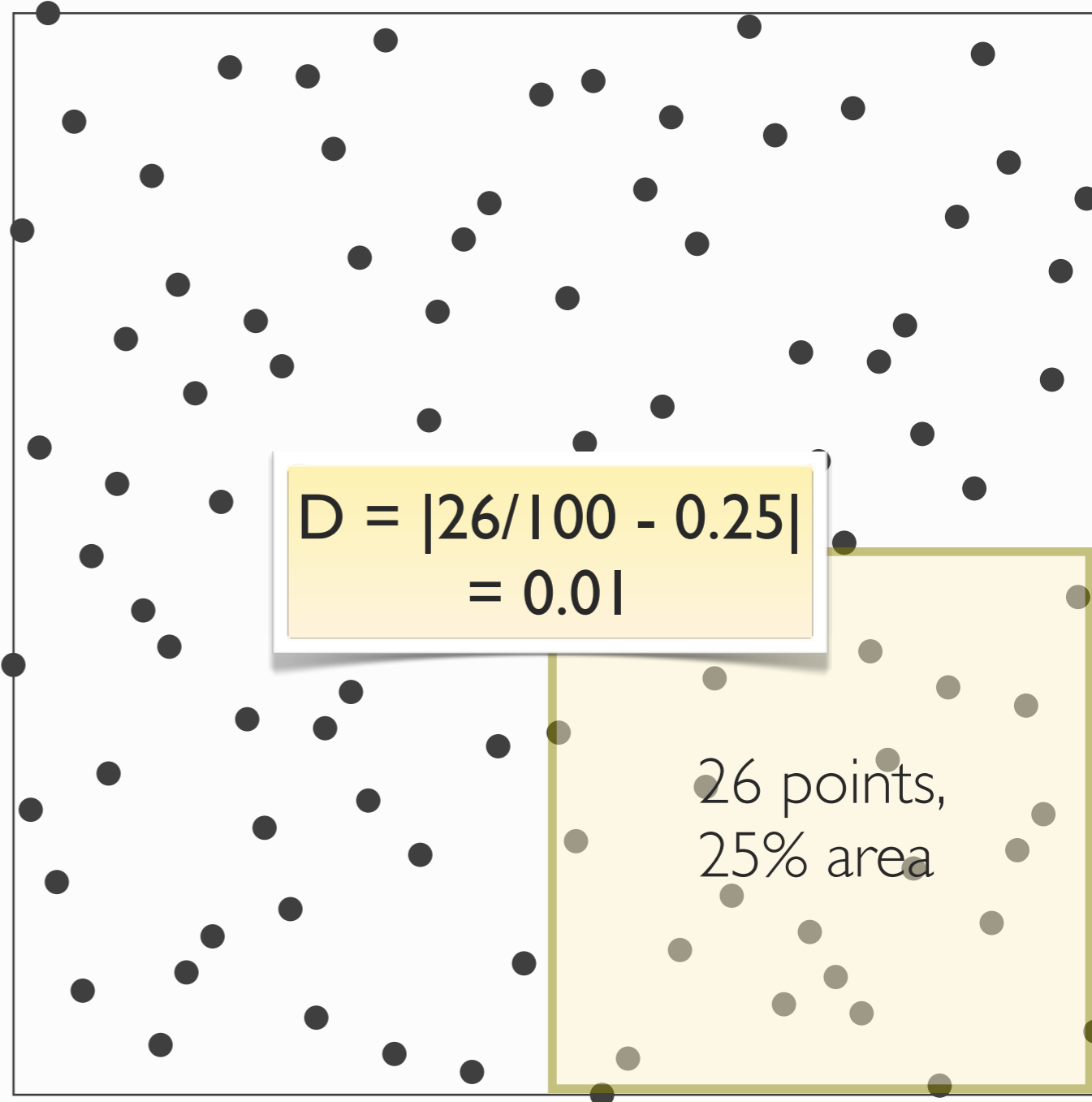


Halton sequence (100 points)

# BOX DISCREPANCY

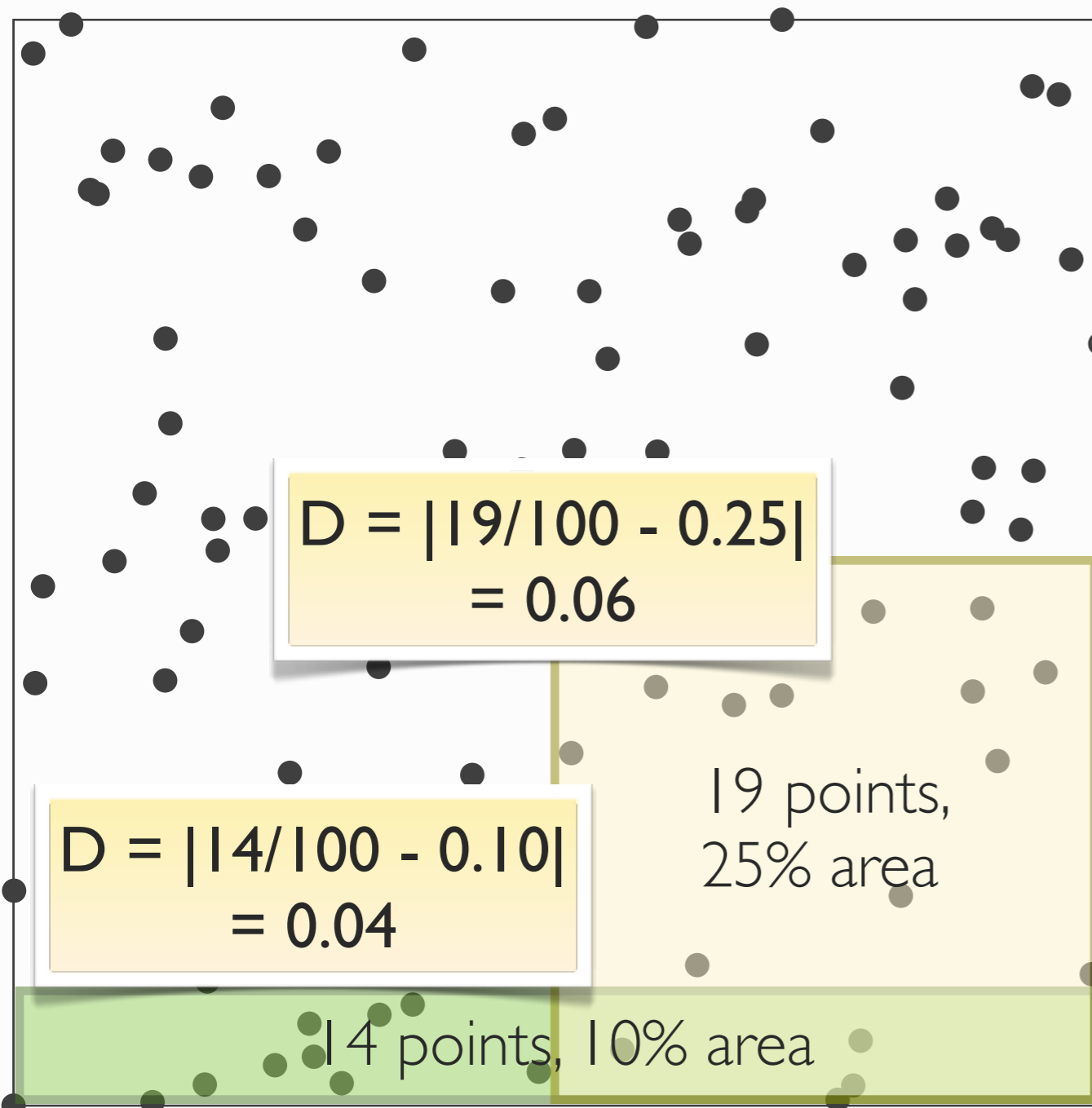


Random (100 points)

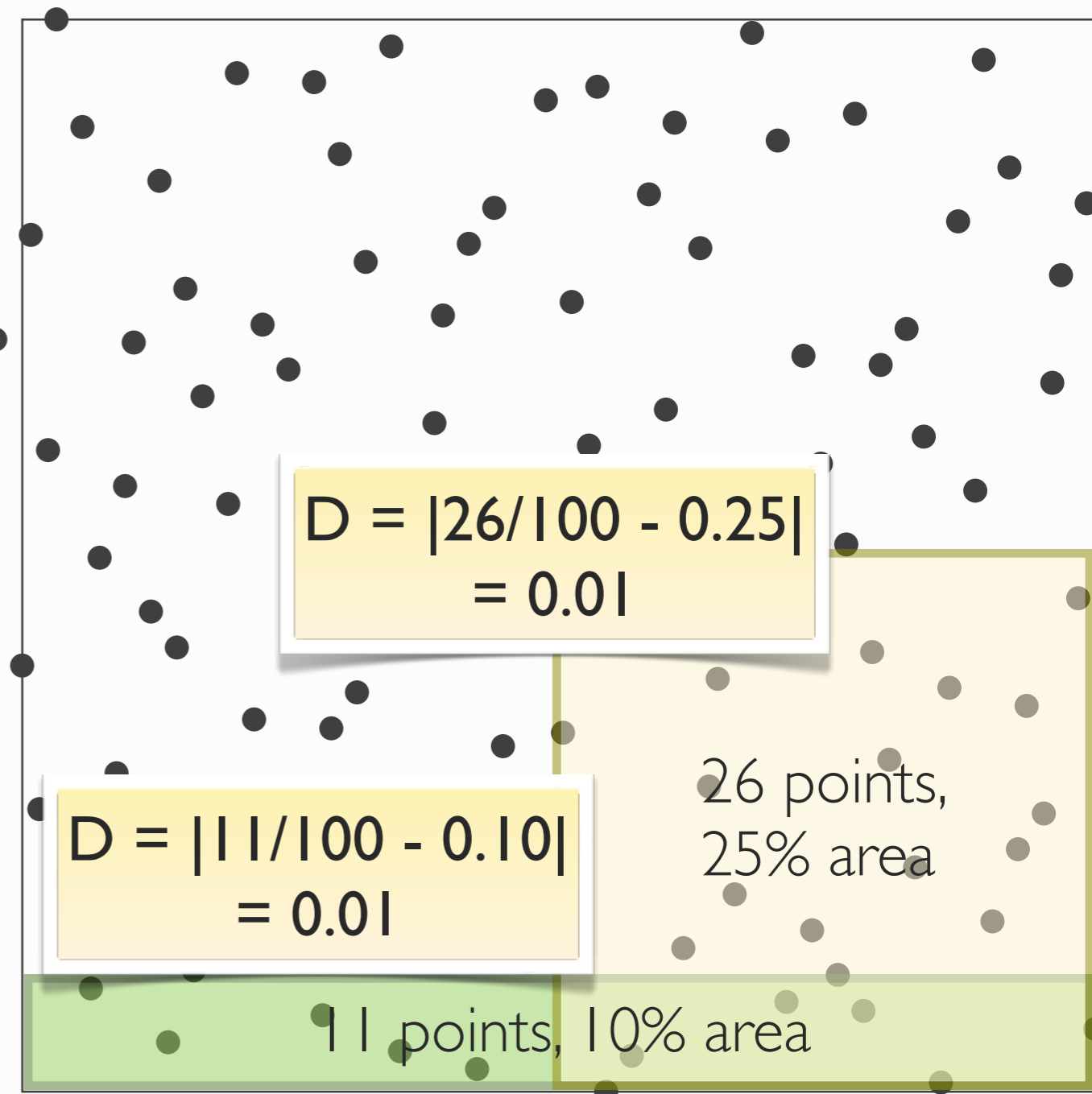


Halton sequence (100 points)

# BOX DISCREPANCY



Random (100 points)



Halton sequence (100 points)

# STAR DISCREPANCY

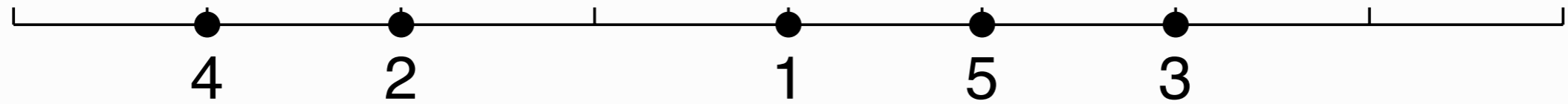
The discrepancy of the point set  $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$  relative to a collection  $A$  of axis-aligned boxes in  $[0, 1)^d$  is

$$D^*(S; A) = \sup_{a \in A} \left| \frac{\#\{x_i \in a\}}{N} - \text{vol}(a) \right|$$

IN ONE DIMENSION

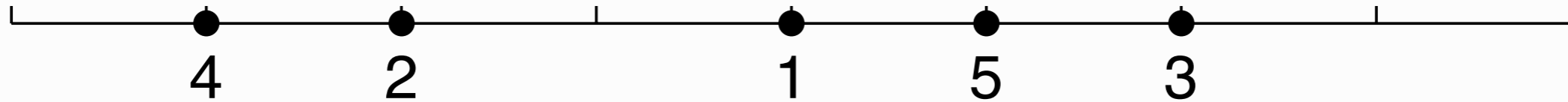


# VAN DER CORPUT SEQ.



van der Corput sequence

# VAN DER CORPUT SEQ.



van der Corput sequence

$$H_2(i) =$$

```
FUNCTION Halton(index)
  result = 0
  f = 1 / 2
  i = index
  WHILE(i > 0)
    result += f * (i % 2)
    i = floor(i / 2)
    f = f / 2;
  END
  RETURN result
END
```

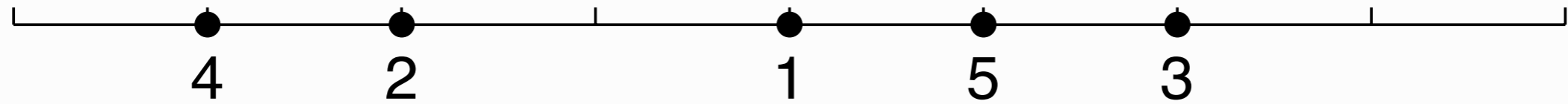
$$= \begin{aligned} & \text{result} += f * (i \% 2) \\ & i = \text{floor}(i / 2) \\ & f = f / 2; \end{aligned} =$$

```
// Implementation with bitwise operations, Kollig & Keller 2002
double RI_vdC(uint bits, uint s = 0) {
  bits = (bits << 16) | (bits >> 16);
  bits = ((bits & 0x00ff00ff) << 8) | ((bits & 0xff00ff00) >> 8);
  bits = ((bits & 0x0f0f0f0f) << 4) | ((bits & 0xf0f0f0f0) >> 4);
  bits = ((bits & 0x33333333) << 2) | ((bits & 0xcccccccc) >> 2);
  bits = ((bits & 0x55555555) << 1) | ((bits & 0xaaaaaaaa) >> 1);

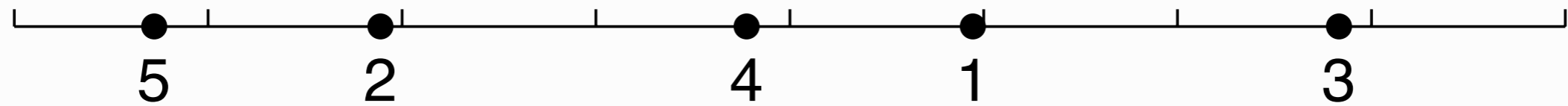
  // facultative scrambling for randomization
  bits ^= s;

  // final normalization in the range [0,1)
  return (double) bits / (double) 0x100000000LL;
}
```

# GOLDEN RATIO SEQ.

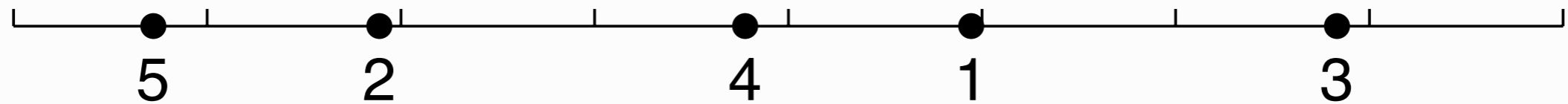


van der Corput sequence



Golden ratio sequence

# GOLDEN RATIO SEQ.



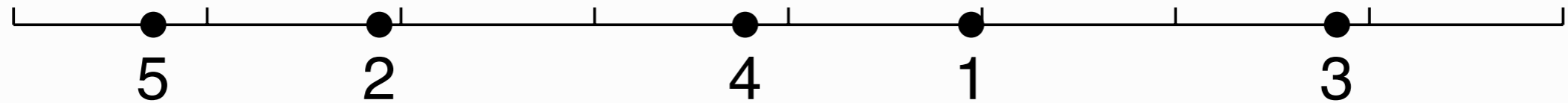
Golden ratio sequence

$$G_s(i) = \{s + i \cdot \phi\}, \quad \forall i \geq 1$$

$$\{x\} = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$$

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618034\dots$$

# GOLDEN RATIO SEQ.



Golden ratio sequence

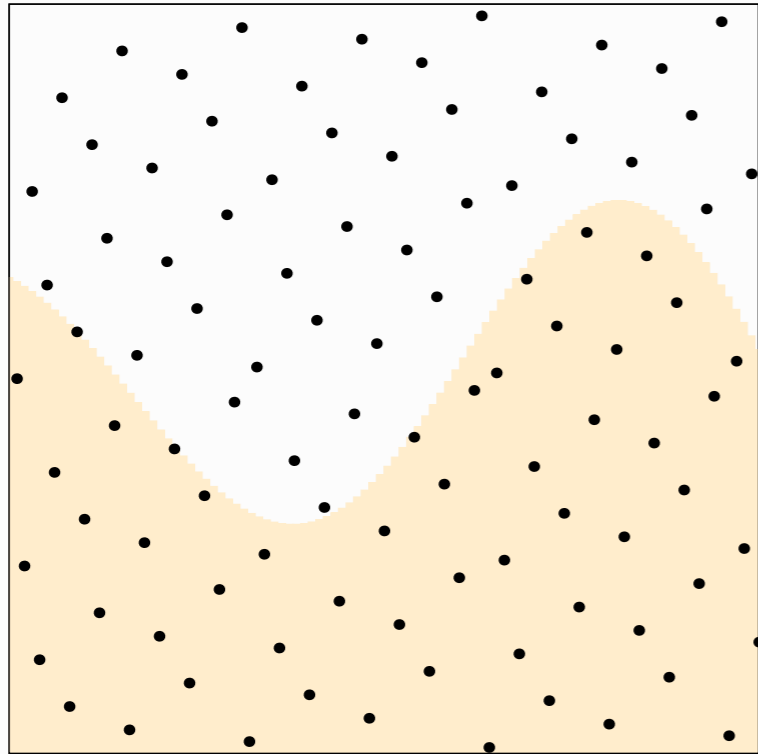
$$G_s(i) = \{s + i \cdot \tau\}, \quad \forall i \geq 1$$

$$\{x\} = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$$

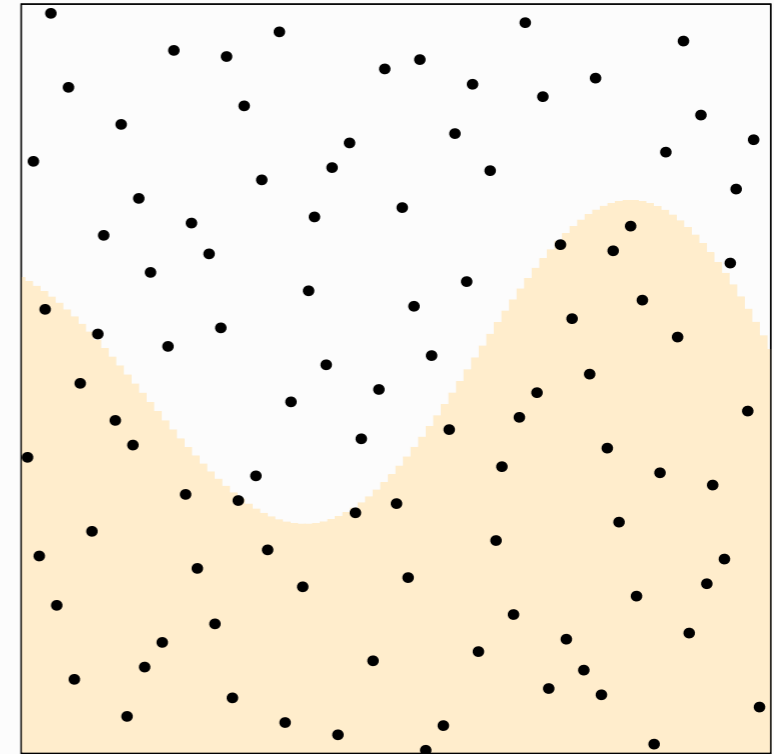
$$\tau = \frac{1}{\phi} = \phi - 1 = \frac{\sqrt{5} - 1}{2} \approx 0.618034 \dots$$

IN TWO DIMENSIONS

# HAMMERSLEY AND HALTON



Hammersley set

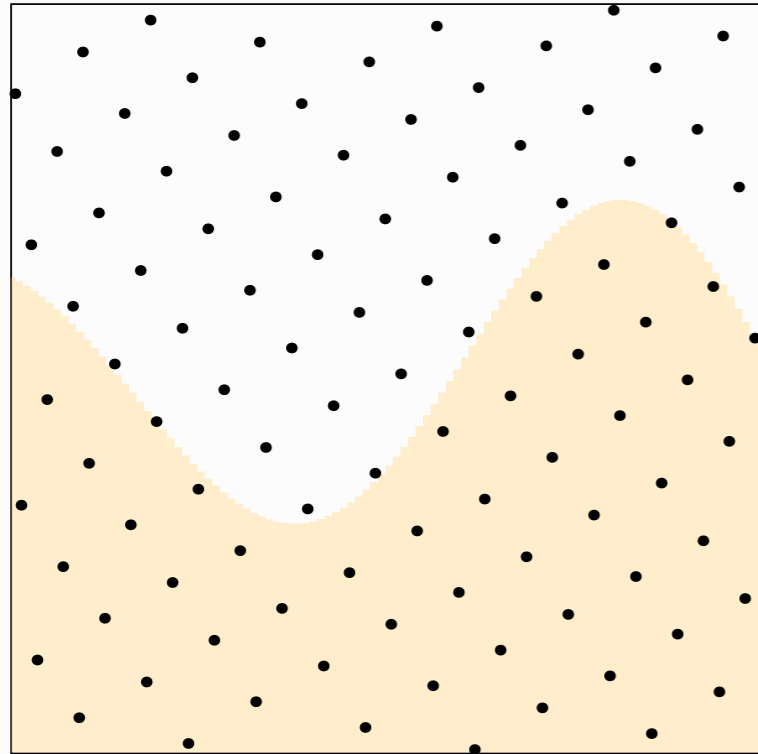


Halton sequence

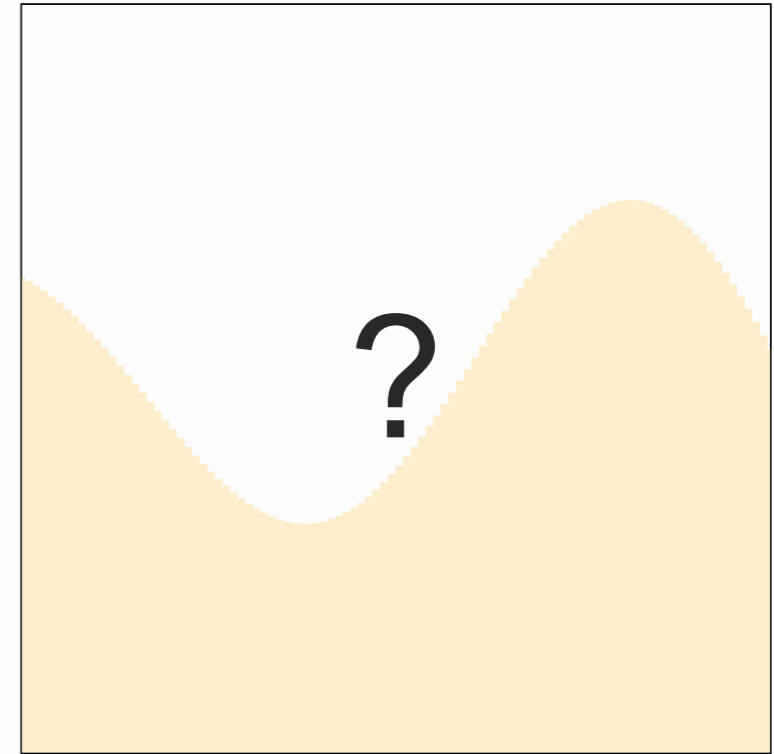
$$\left\{ \left( \frac{i}{N}, H_2(i) \right) \right\}_{i=1}^N$$

$$(H_2(i), H_3(i)), \quad \forall i \geq 1$$

# GOLDEN LATTICE RULE



Golden lattice



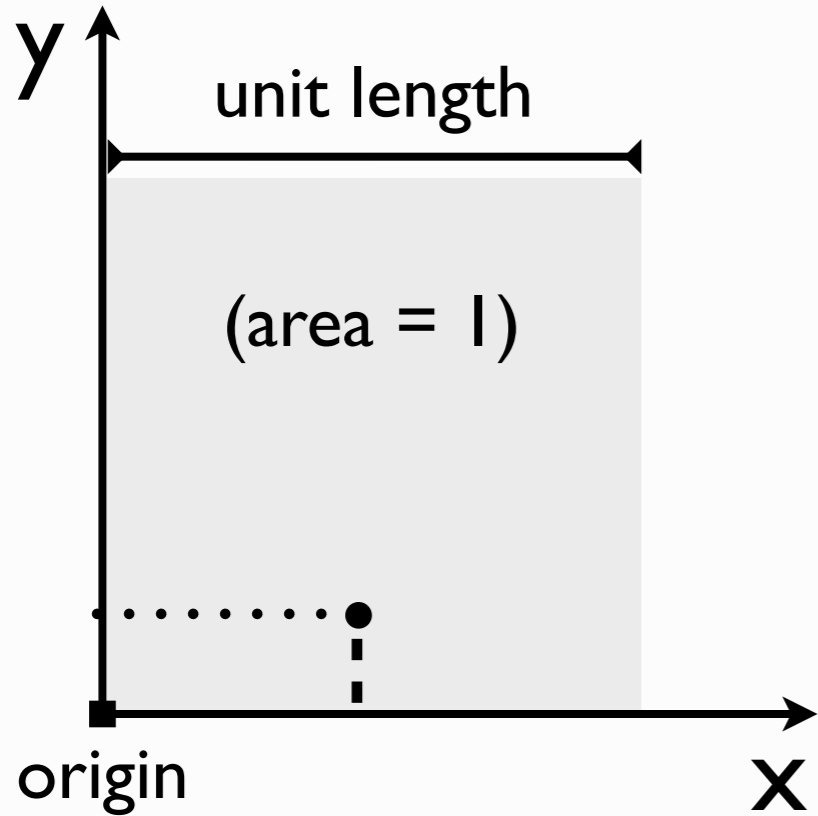
Golden sequence

$$\left\{ \left( \frac{i}{N}, G_s(i) \right) \right\}_{i=1}^N$$

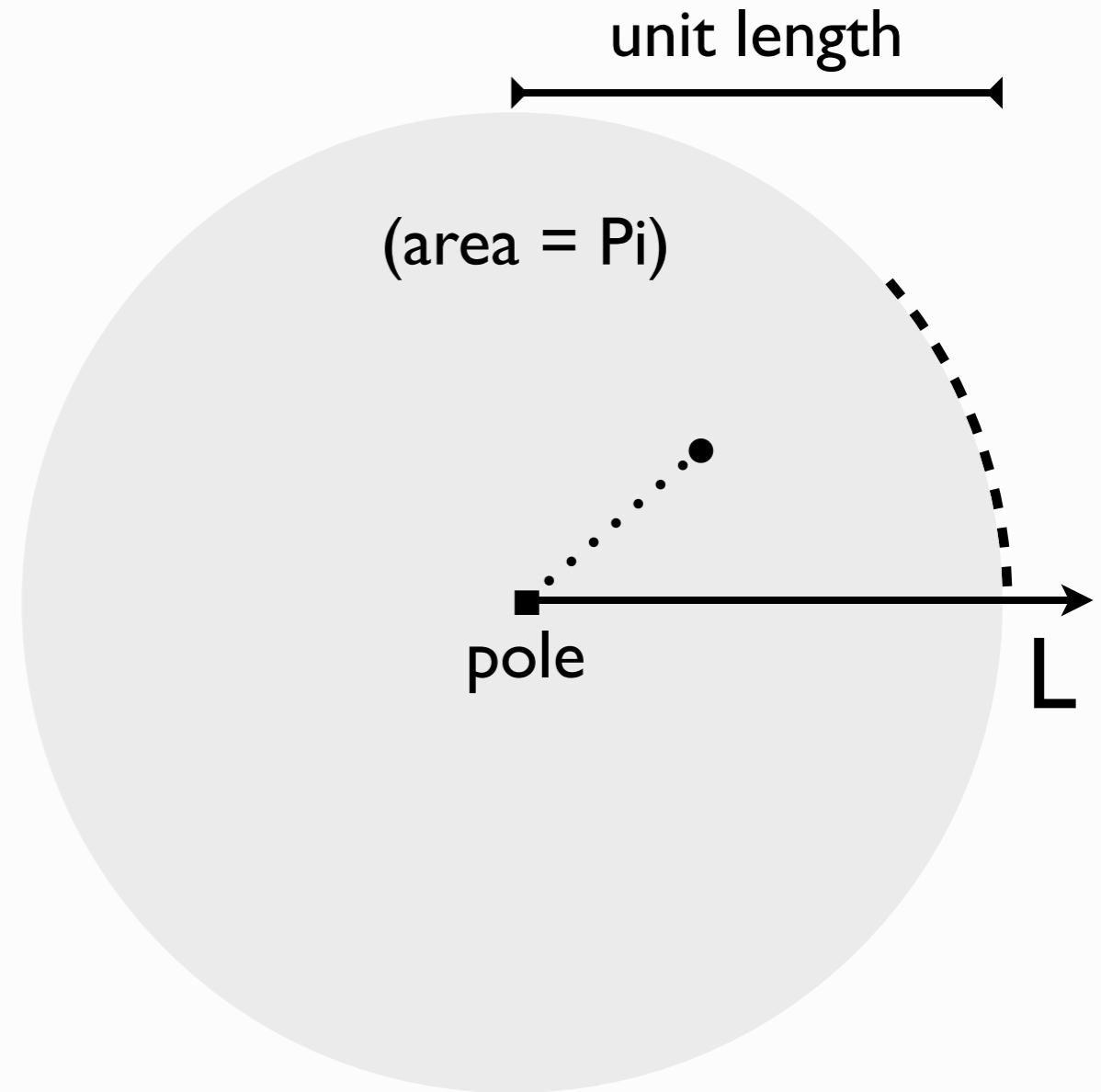
$$(G_s(i), ?), \quad \forall i \geq 1$$



# CARTESIAN/POLAR SYSTEMS

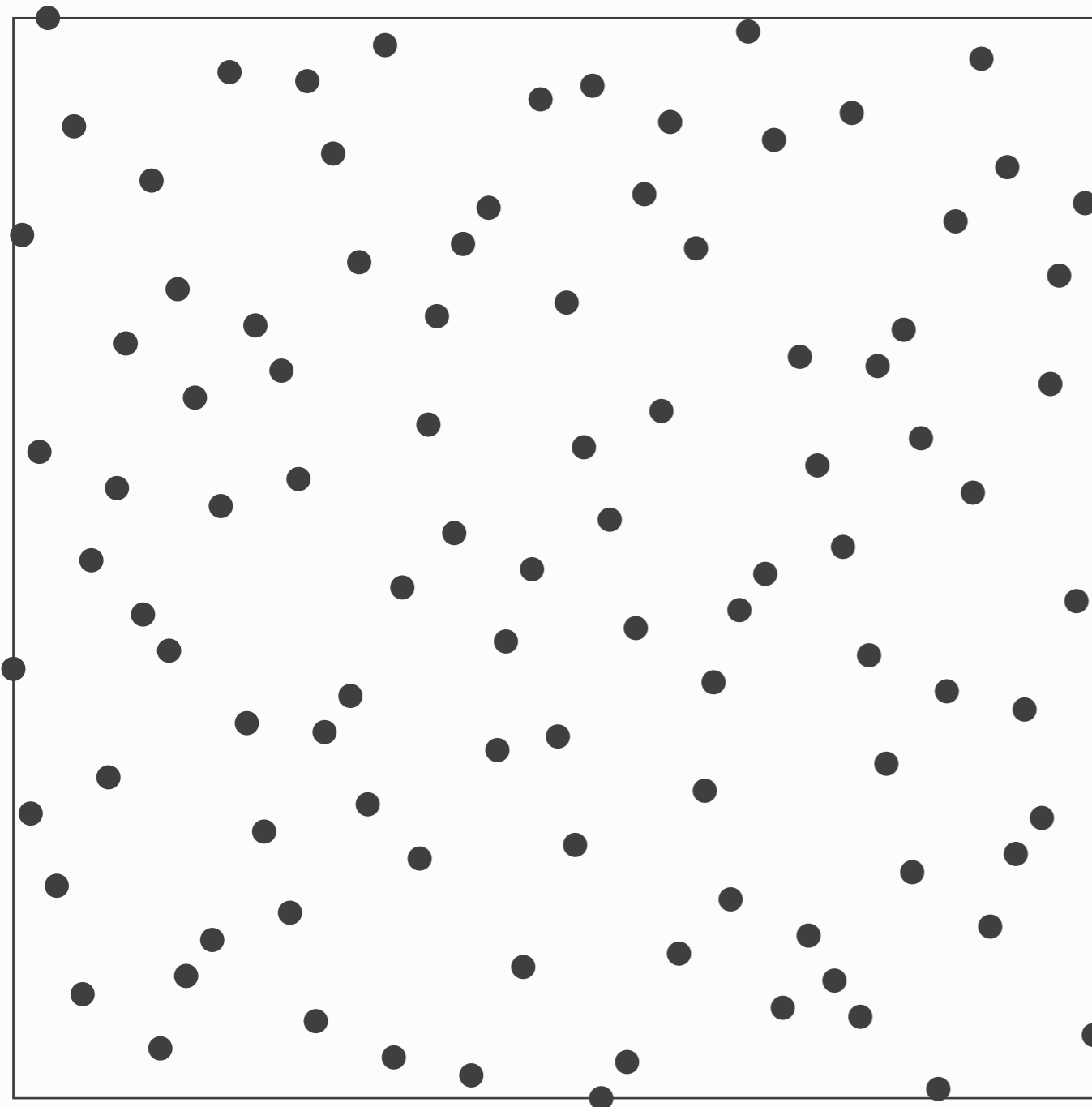


vertical coordinate .....  
 horizontal coordinate - -  
 Cartesian coordinate system

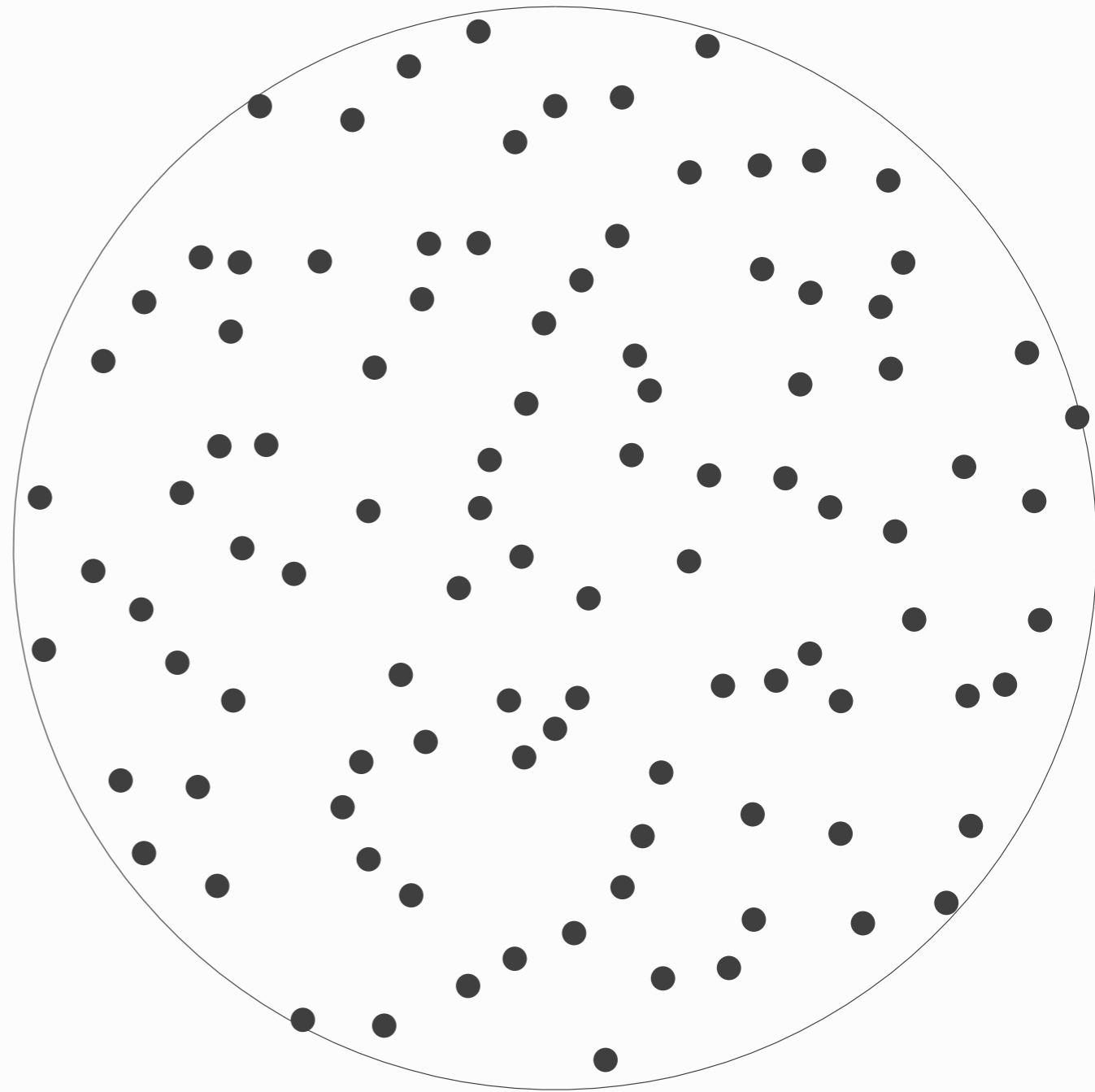


radius .....  
 polar angle - - - - - ( $2 \times \text{Pi}$ )  
 Polar coordinate system

# HALTON SEQUENCE

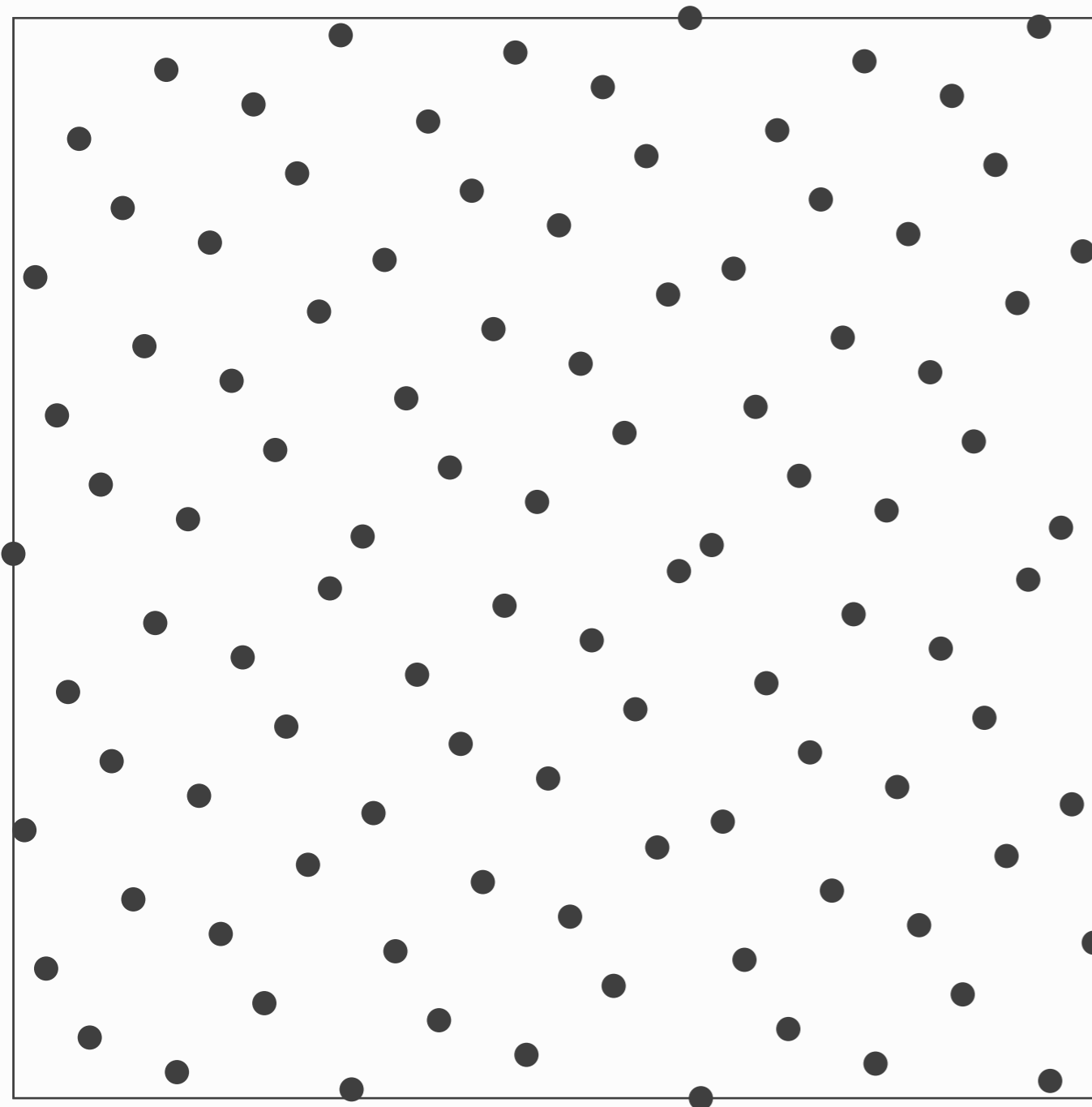


Cartesian coordinates

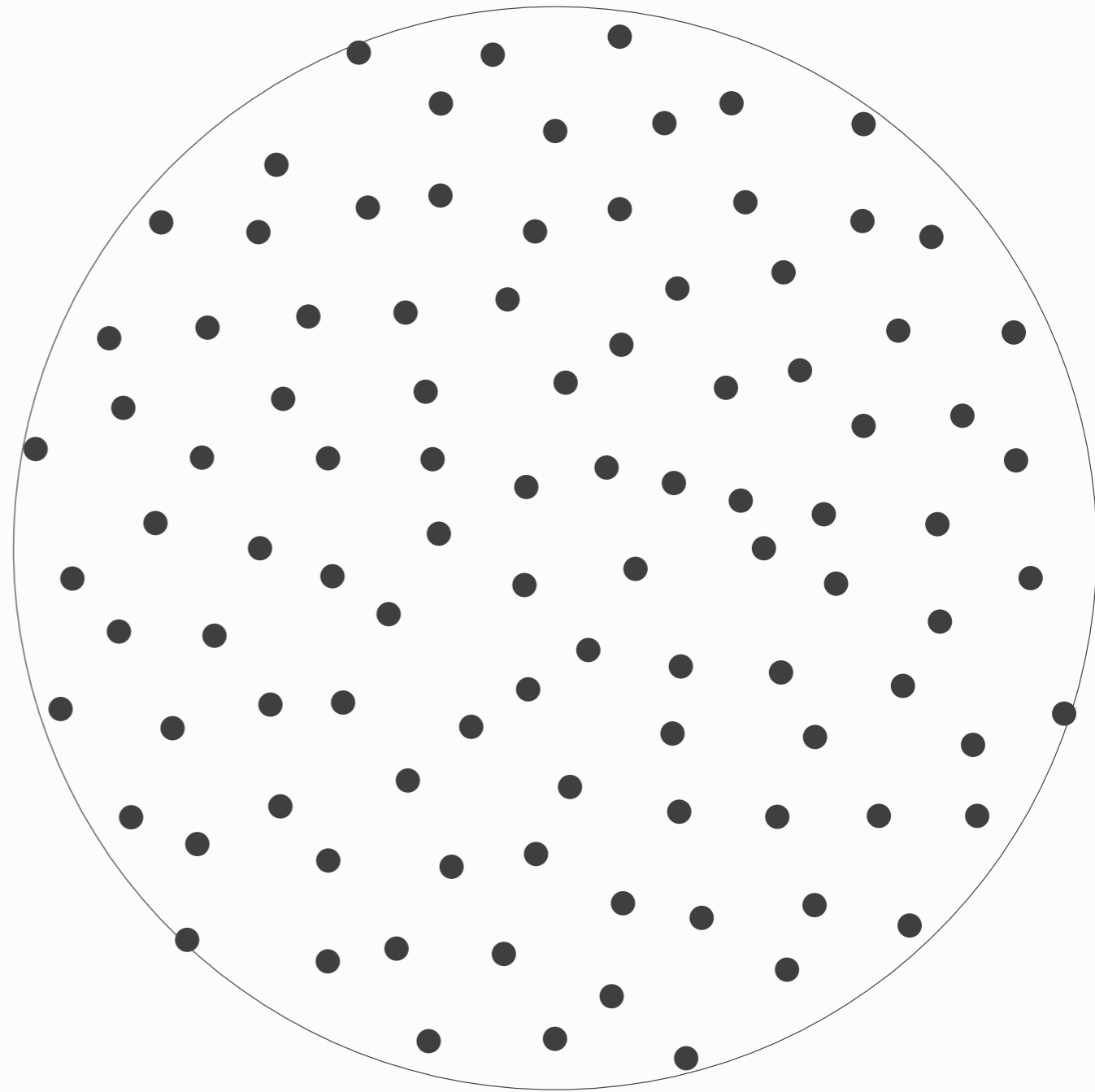


Polar coordinates

# HAMMERSLEY SET

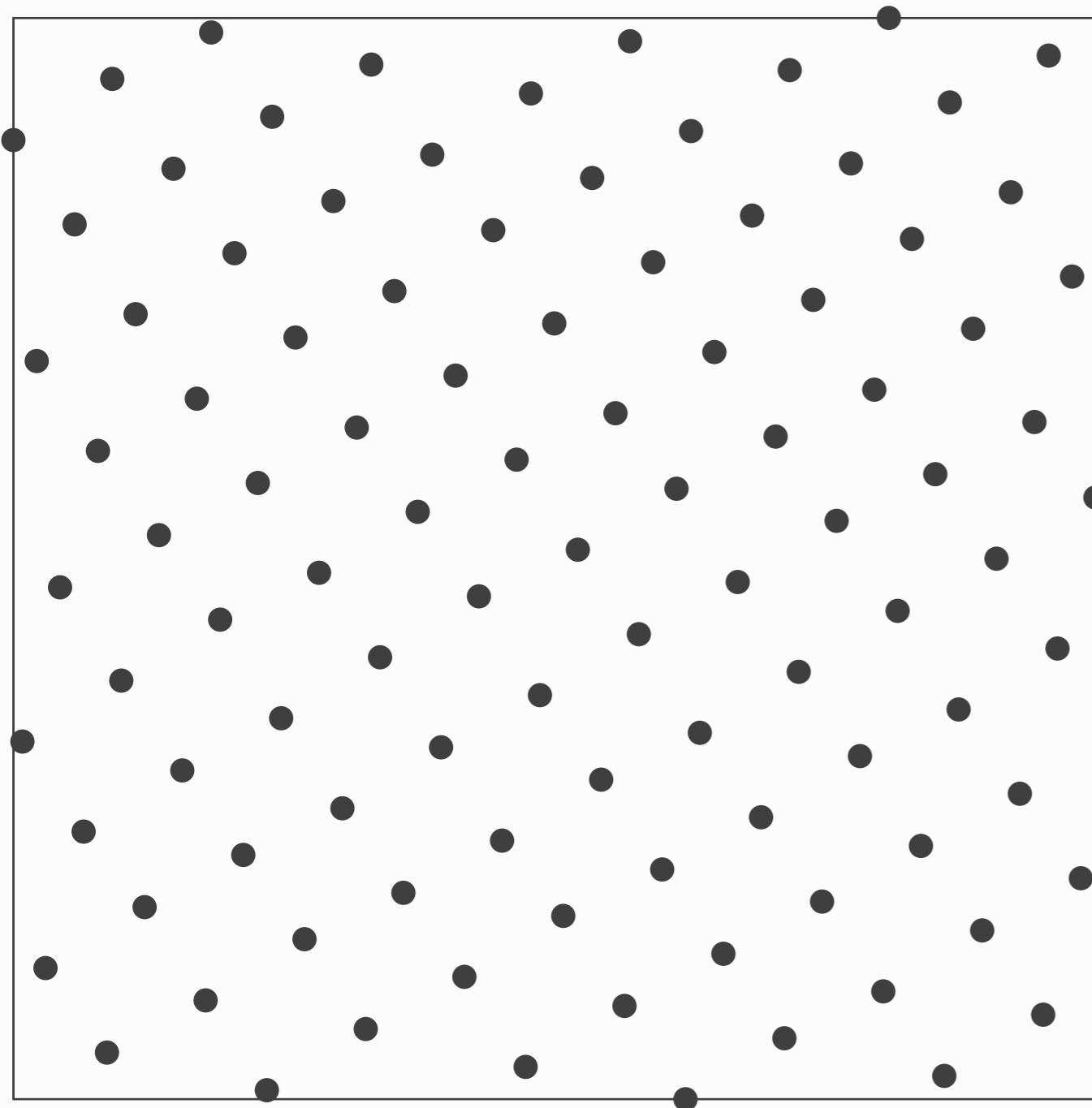


Cartesian coordinates

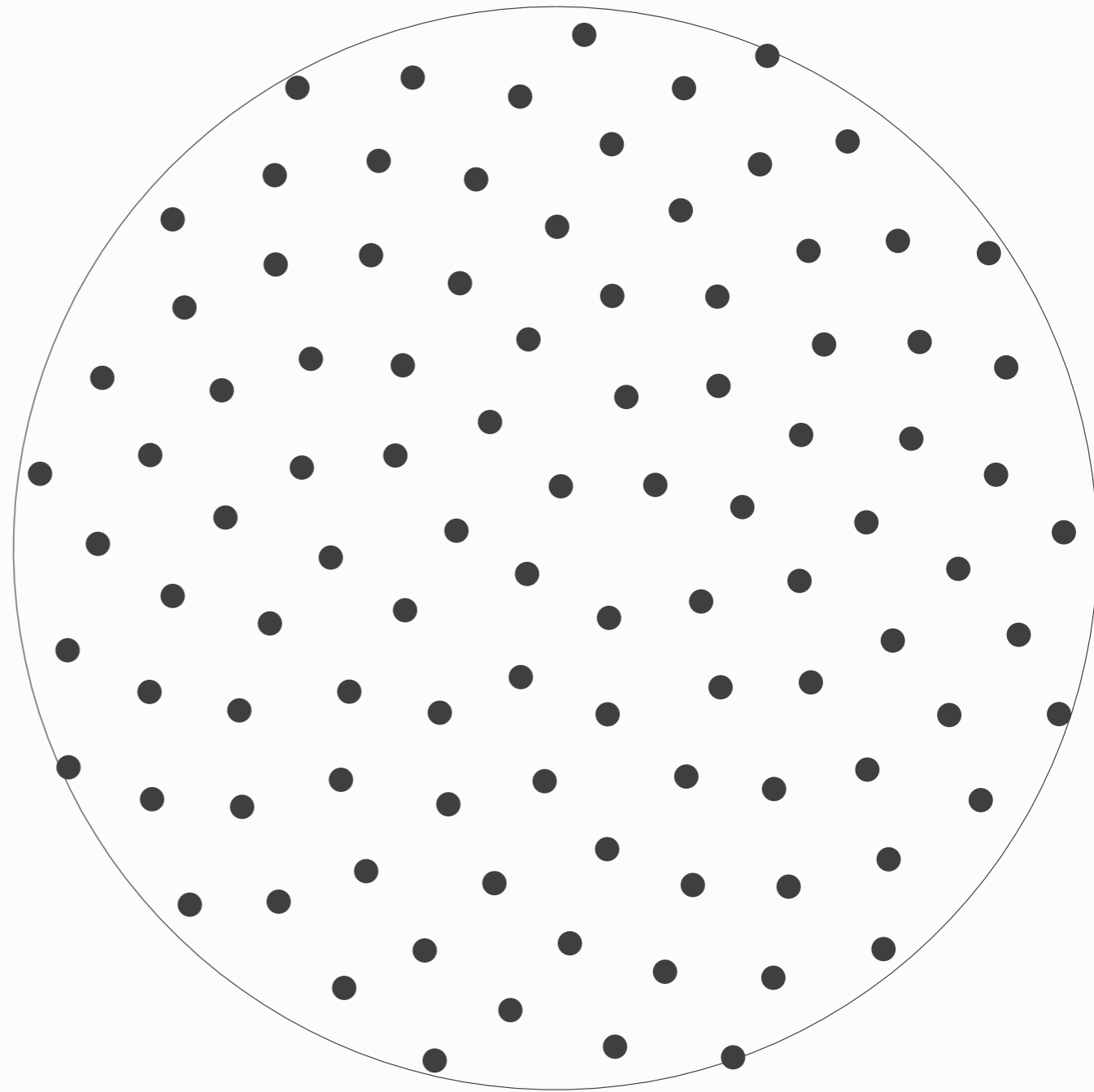


Polar coordinates

# GOLDEN LATTICE



Cartesian coordinates



Polar coordinates

# PHYLLOTAXIS INSPIRATIONS



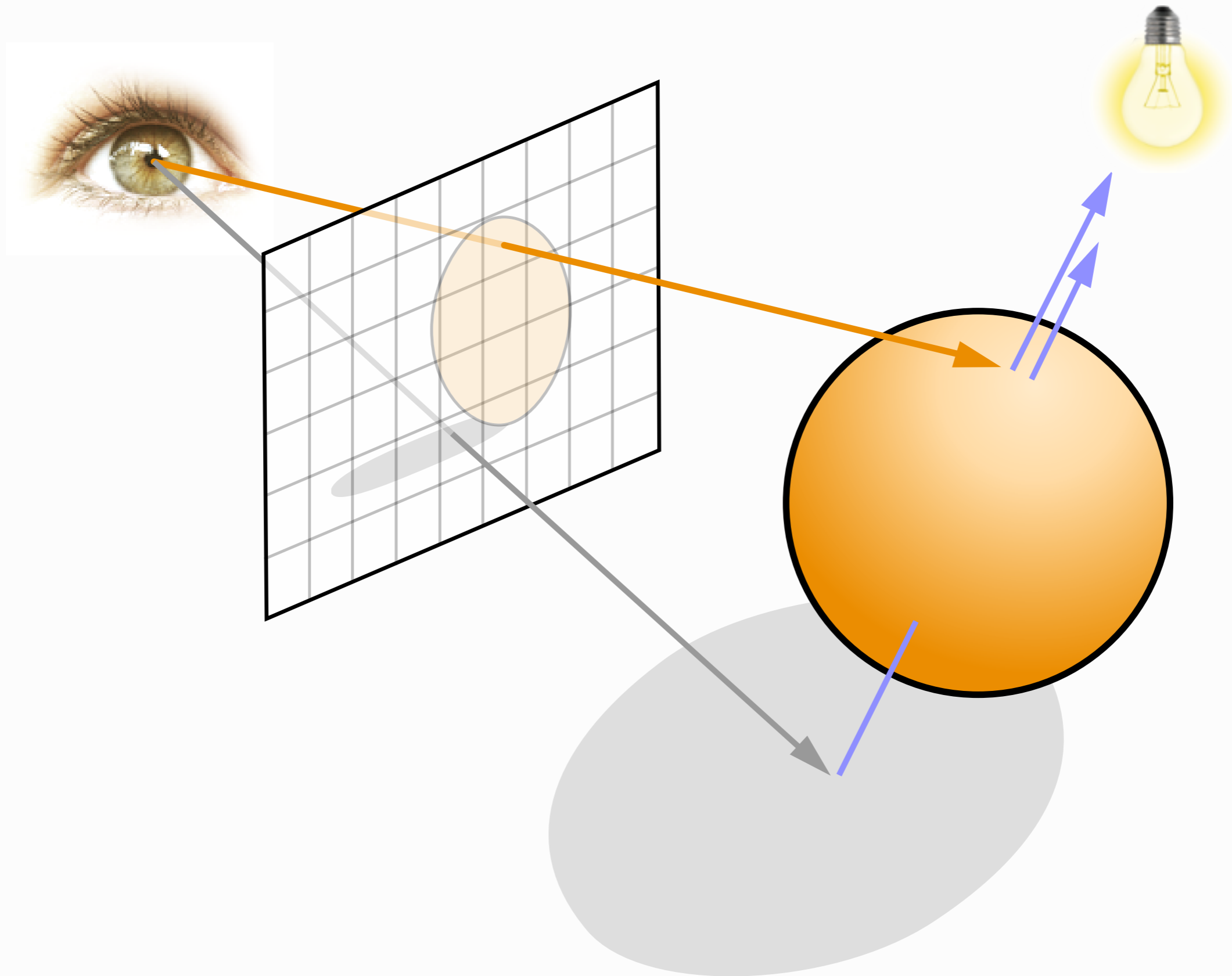
Strawberry seeds



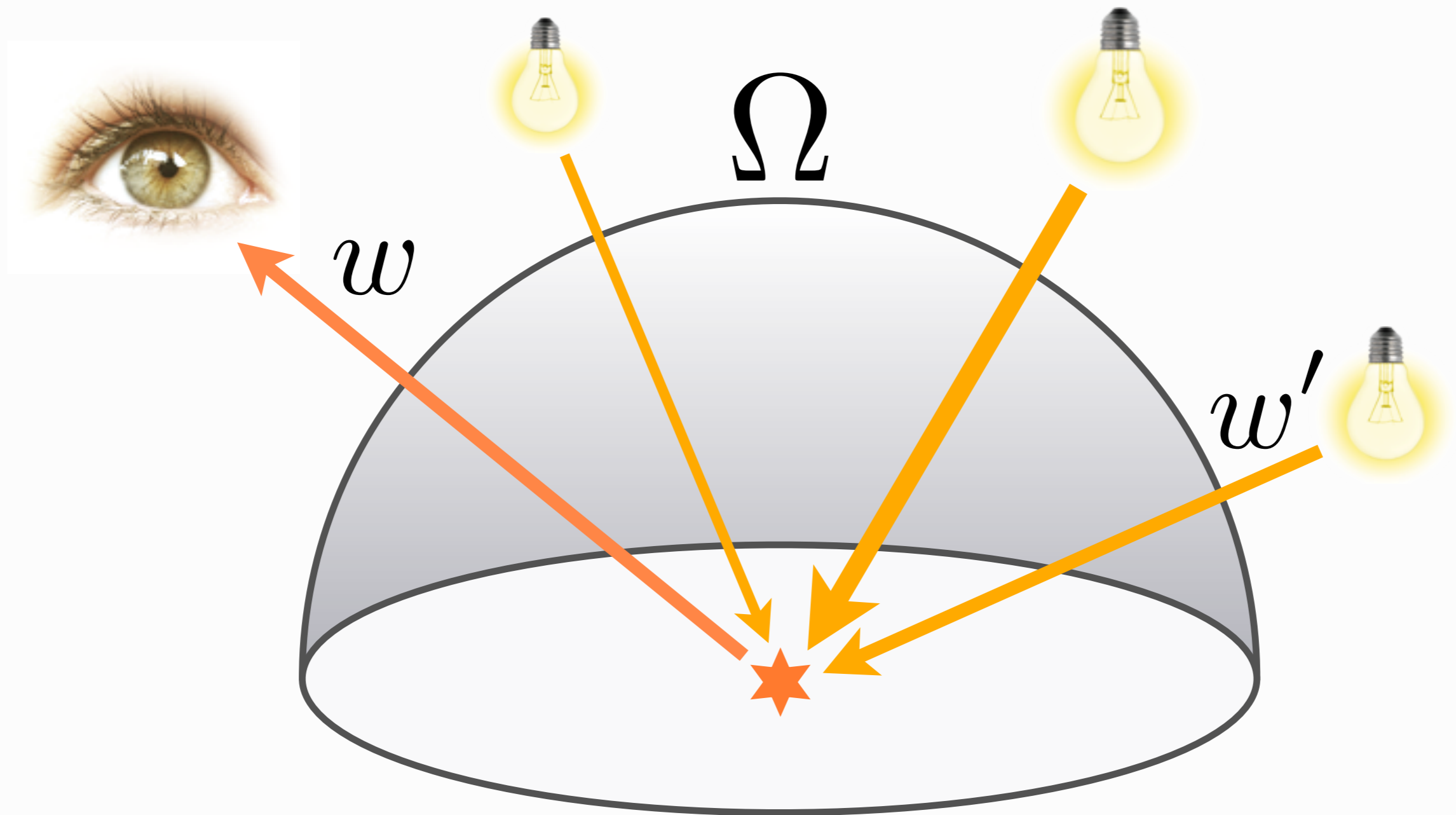
Flower seeds

# COMPUTER RENDERING

# RAY-TRACING IN 3D SCENES



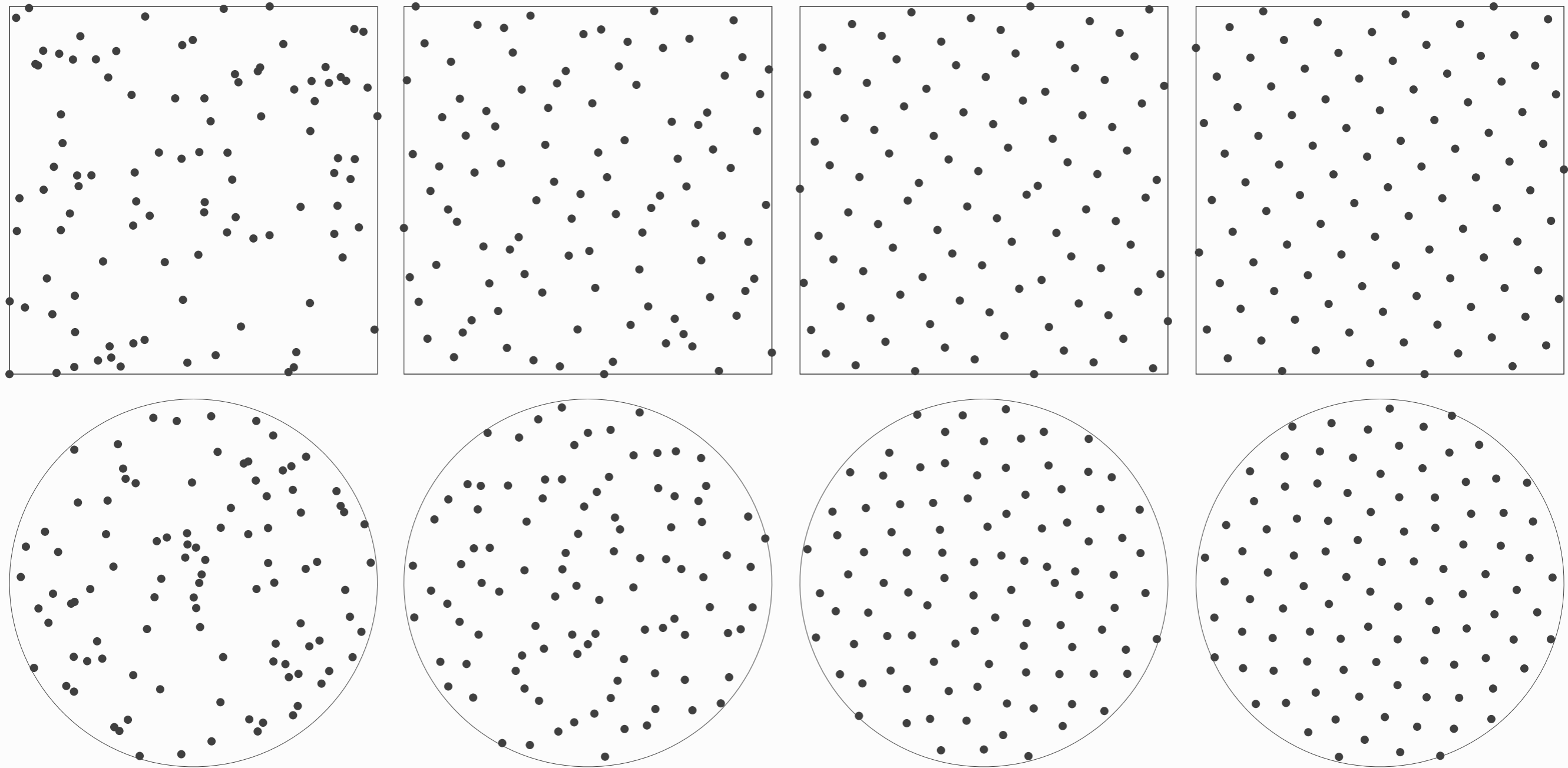
# RENDERING EQUATION



$$L_w(x, w) = \int_{\Omega} L_i(w') V(x, w') \beta_r(w, w') \cos(w, w') dw'$$



# QUASI-RANDOM SAMPLING



Random

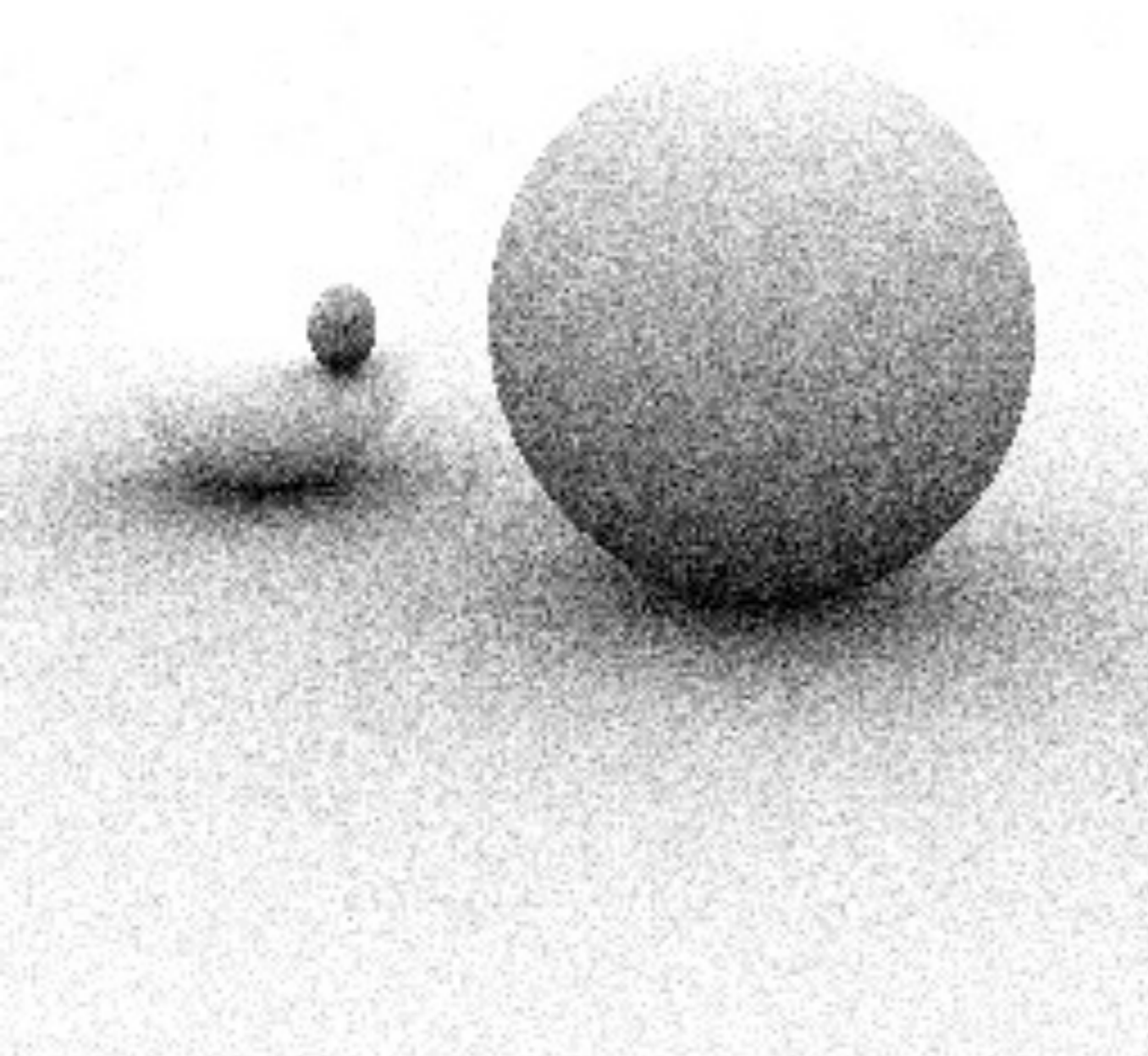
Halton sequence

Hammersley set

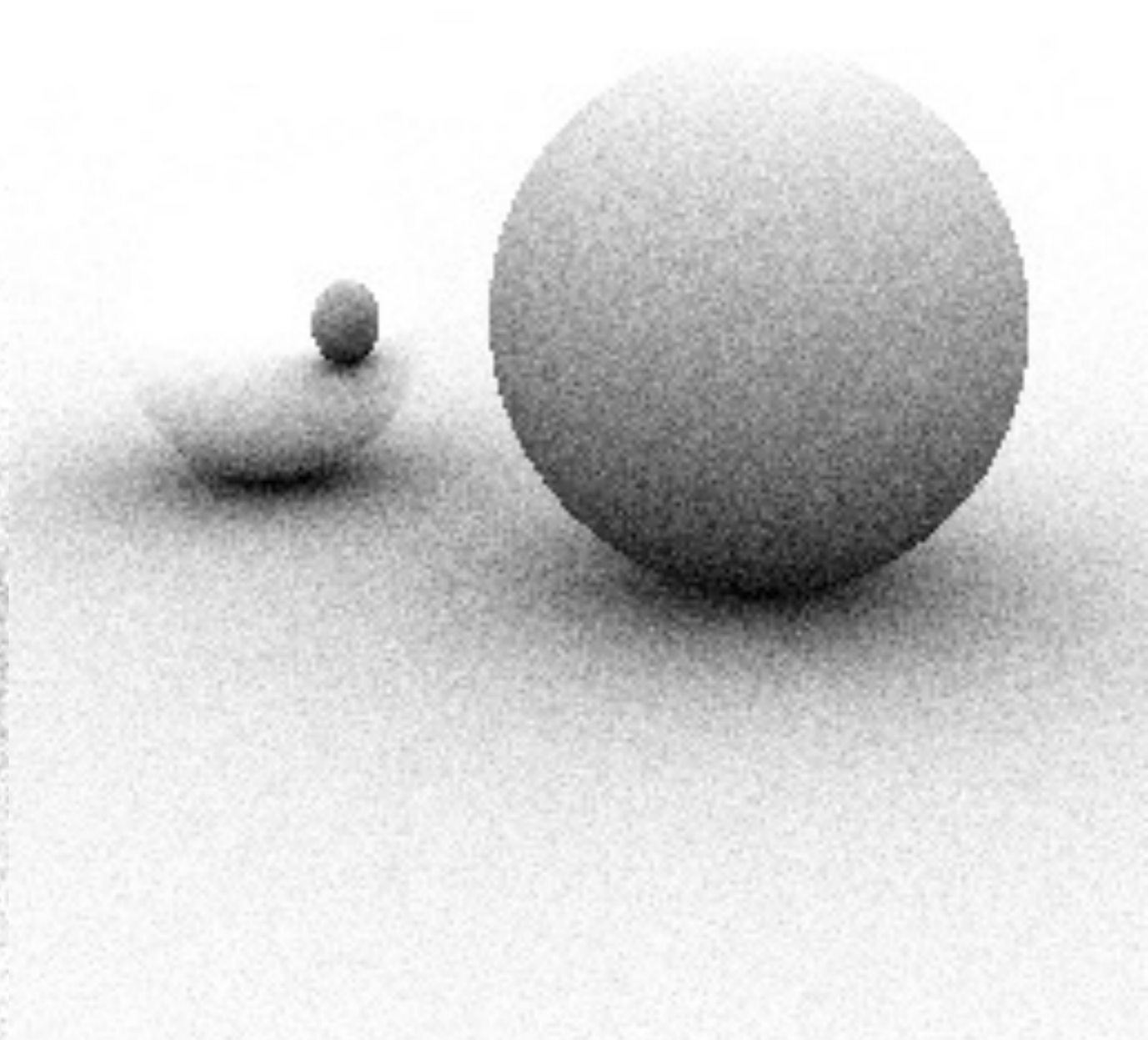
Golden lattice

Figure from *Schretter, Dehaye and Kobbelt, 2012*

# AMBIENT OCCLUSION

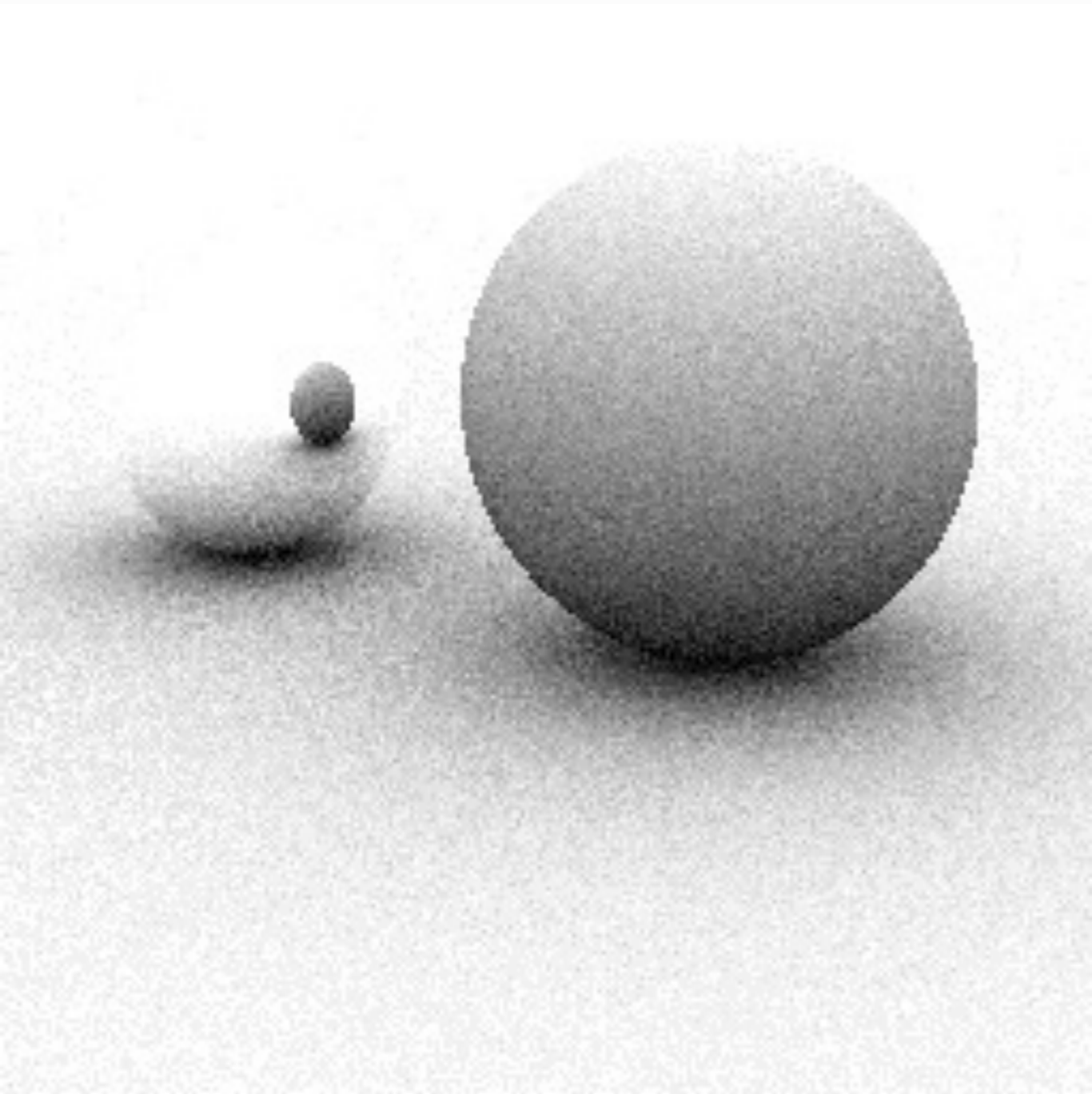


Random (16 spp)

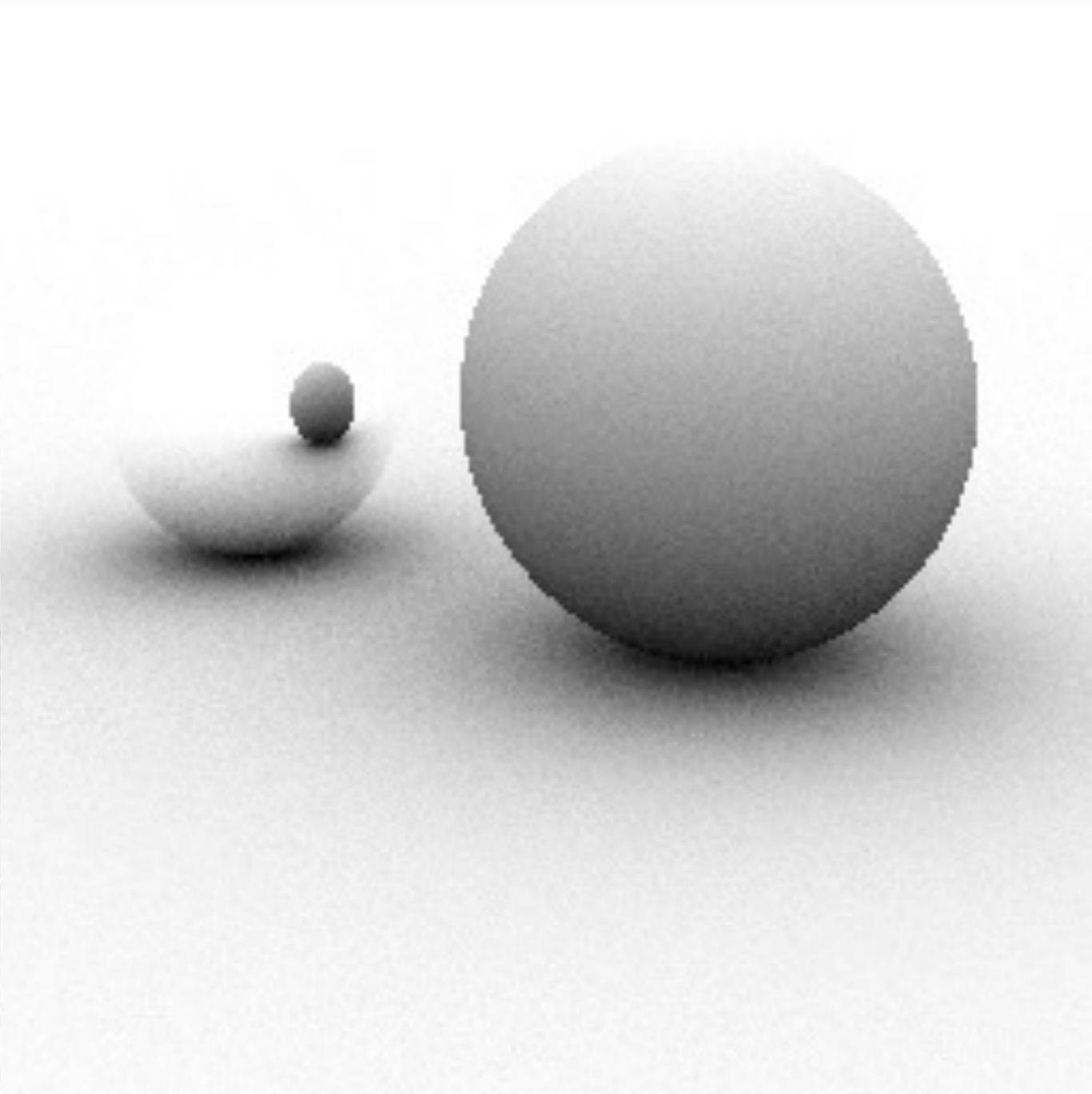


Random (64 spp)

# AMBIENT OCCLUSION



Golden lattice (16 spp)



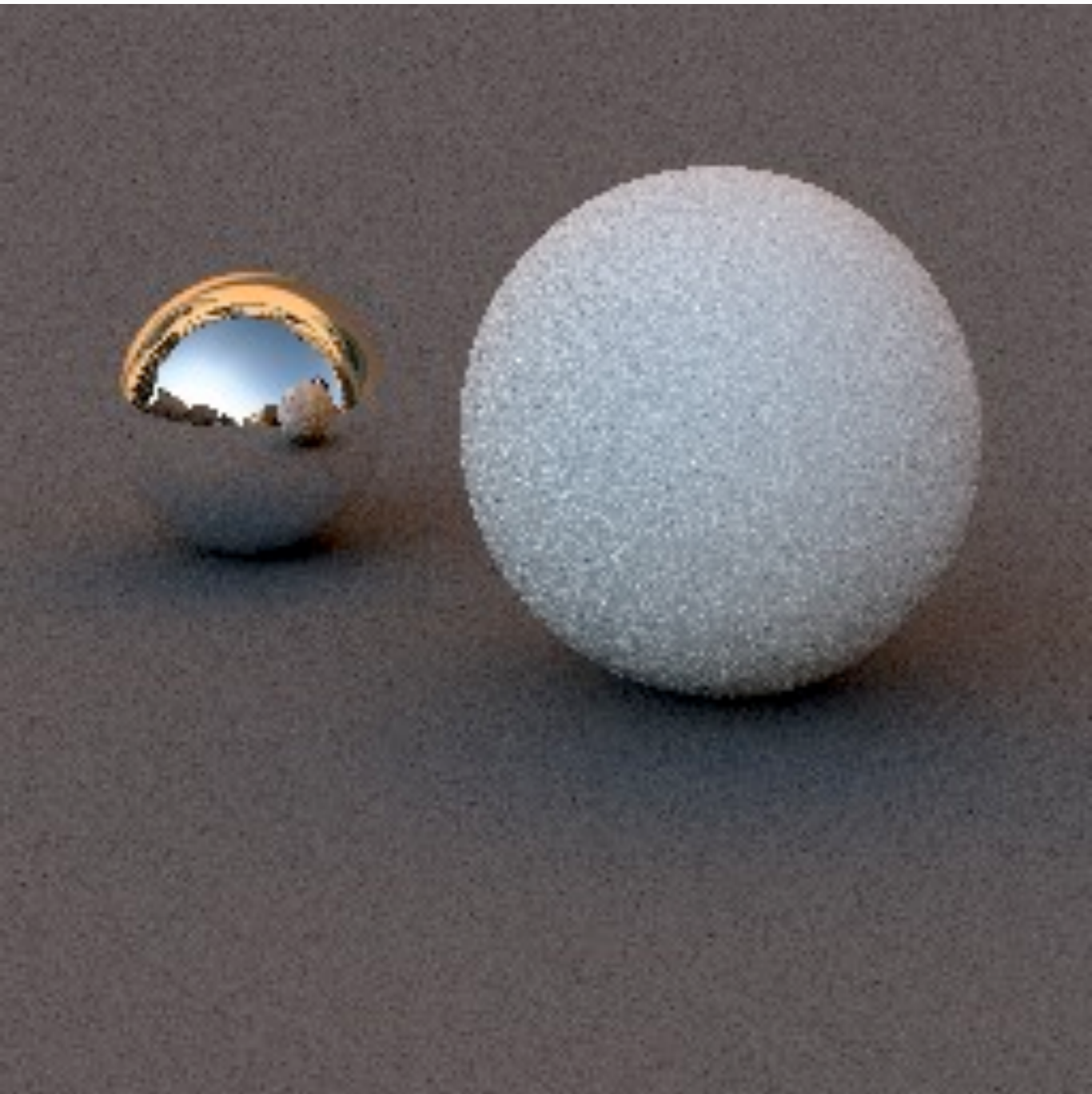
Golden lattice (64 spp)

# HDR LIGHT PROBE

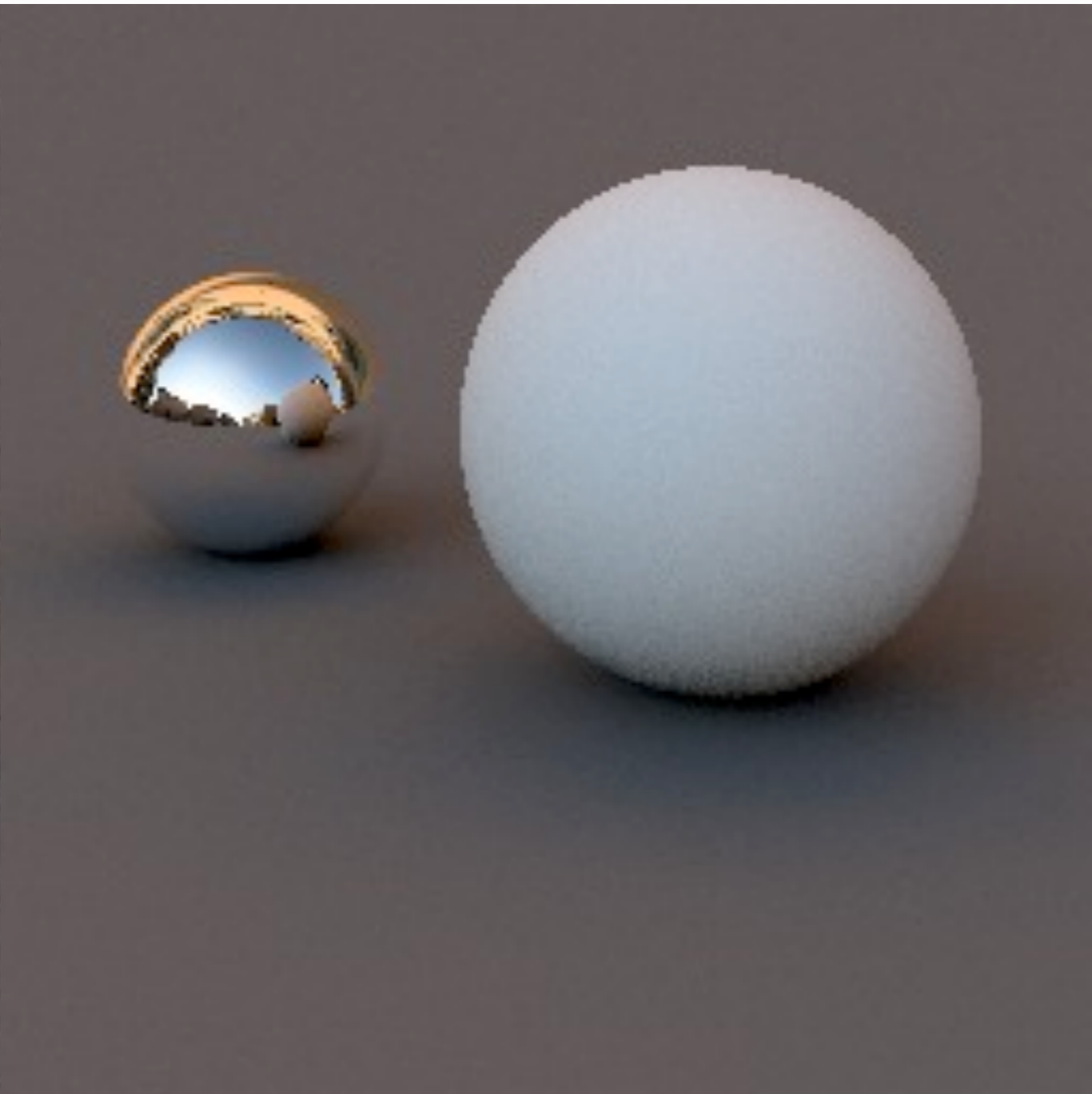


Pisa light probe, *courtesy of Paul Debevec*

# IMAGE-BASED LIGHTING



Golden lattice (64 spp)



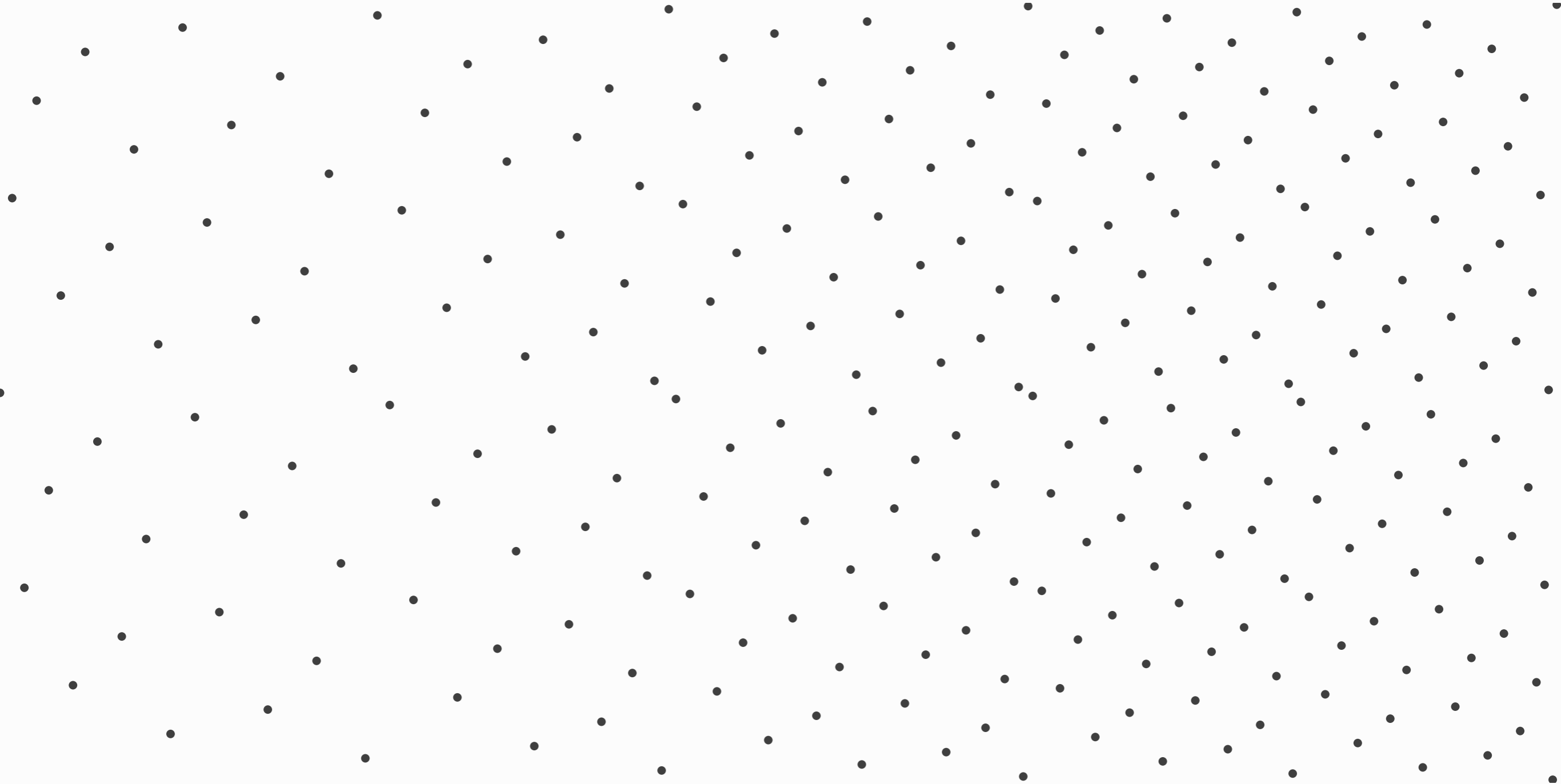
Golden lattice (256 spp)

# NON-UNIFORM SAMPLING

# PROBABILITY DENSITY

Piecewise-linear ramp gradient

# WARPED POINT SET



Warped Hammersley set (256 points)



# WARPED POINT SET

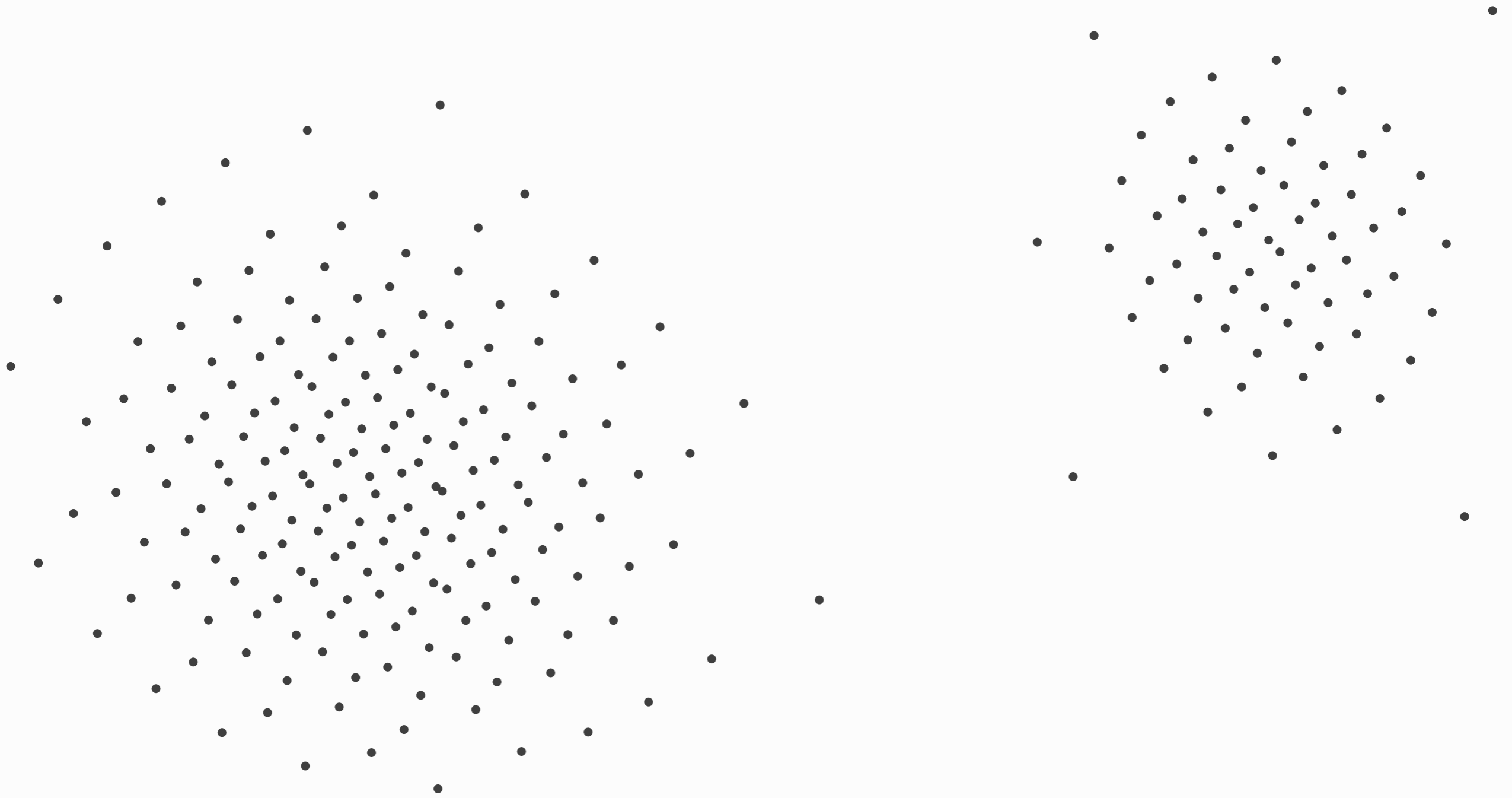


Warped golden lattice (256 points)

# PROBABILITY DENSITY

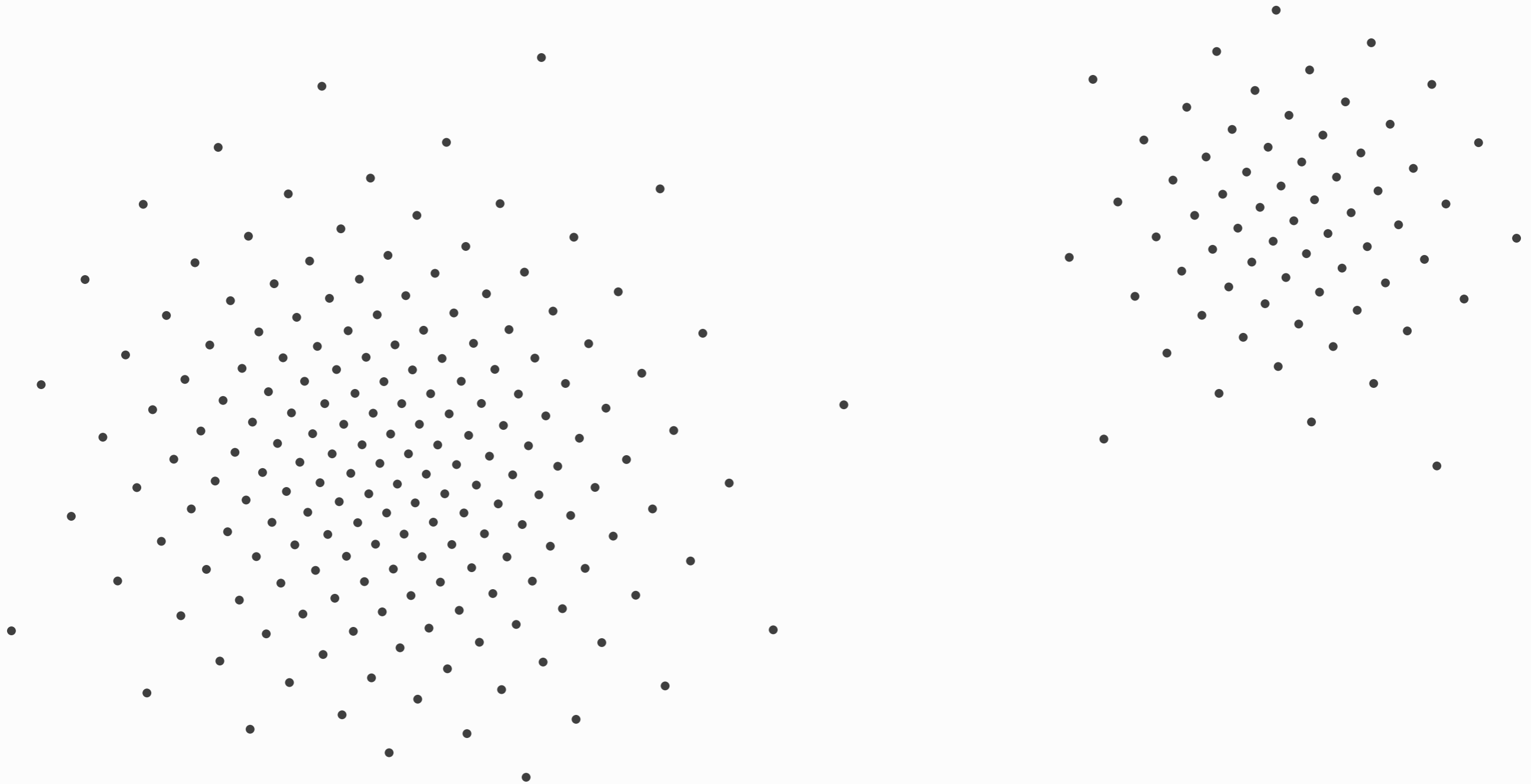
Mixture of two multivariate Gaussians

# WARPED POINT SET



Warped Hammersley set (256 points)

# WARPED POINT SET



Warped golden lattice (256 points)

# HDR LIGHT PROBE



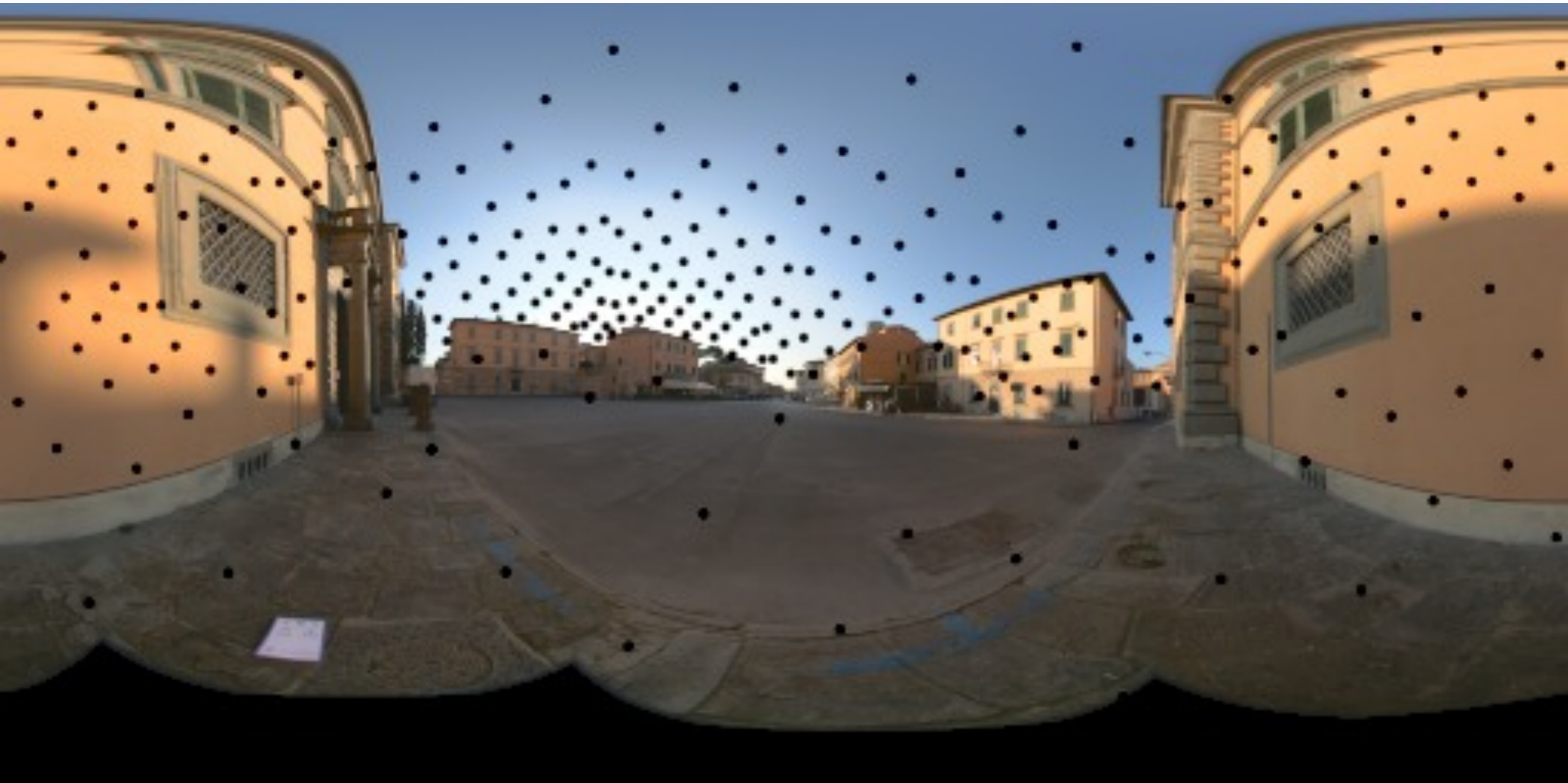
Pisa light probe, *courtesy of Paul Debevec*

# WARPED POINT SET



Warped Hammersley set (256 points)

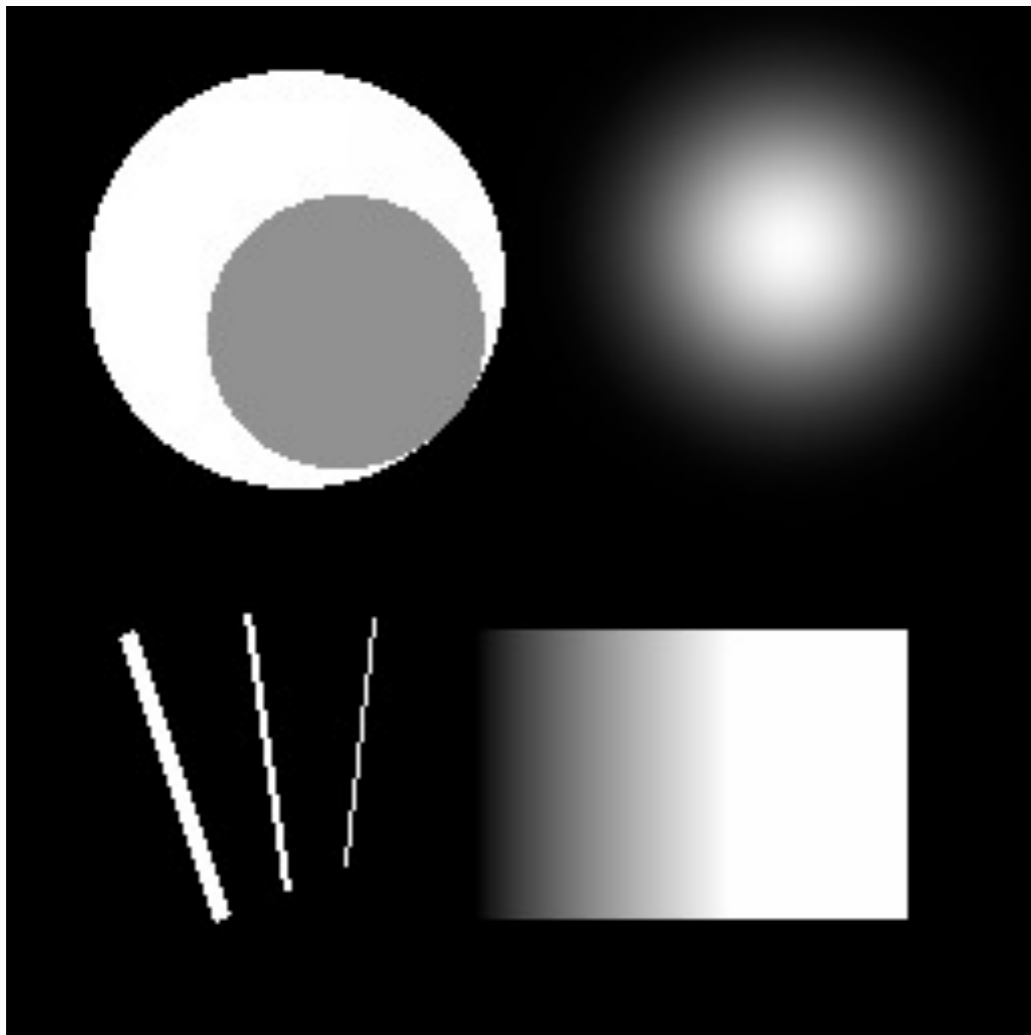
# WARPED POINT SET



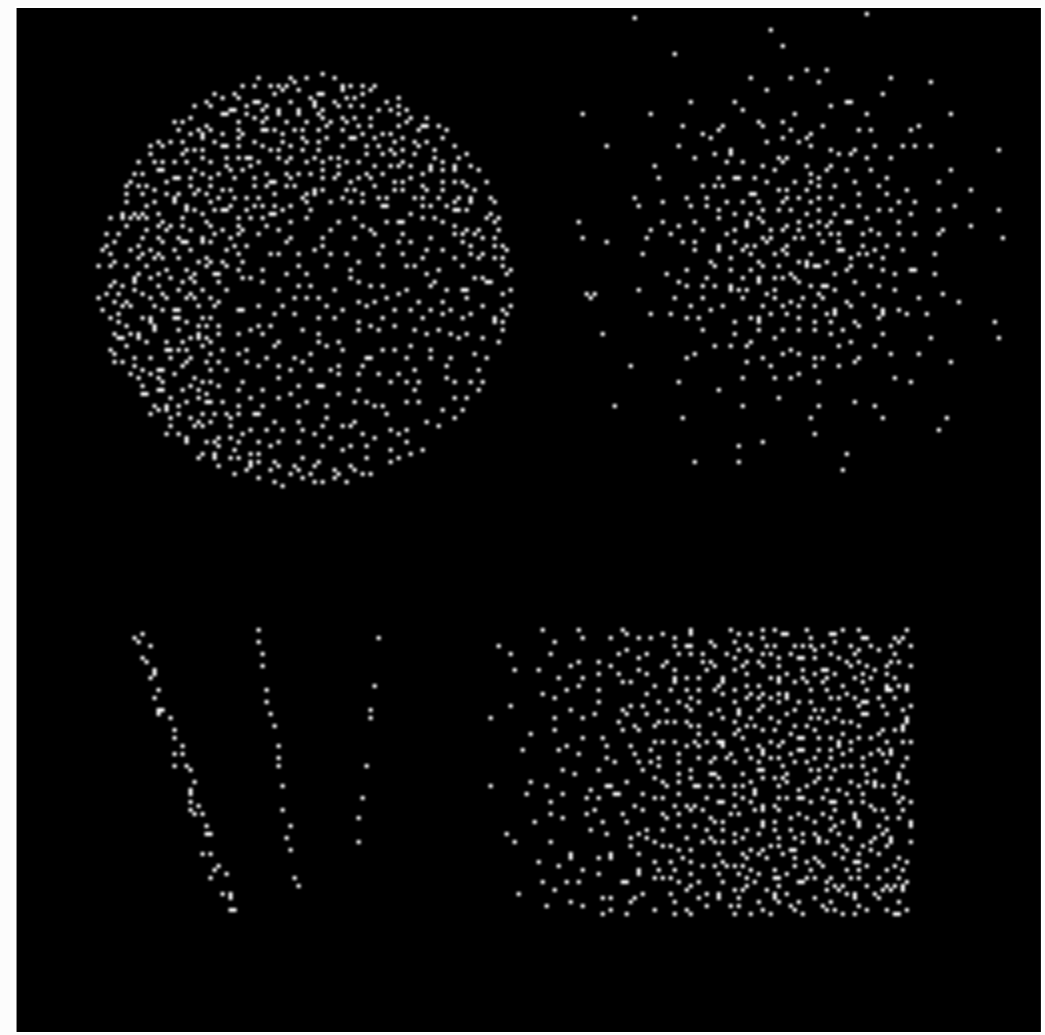
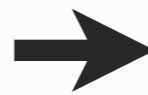
Warped golden lattice (256 points)

# PROBLEM STATEMENT

**Problem:** Generate a *sequence* of low-discrepancy points from a given probability density function (PDF) represented as a discrete grayscale intensity image.



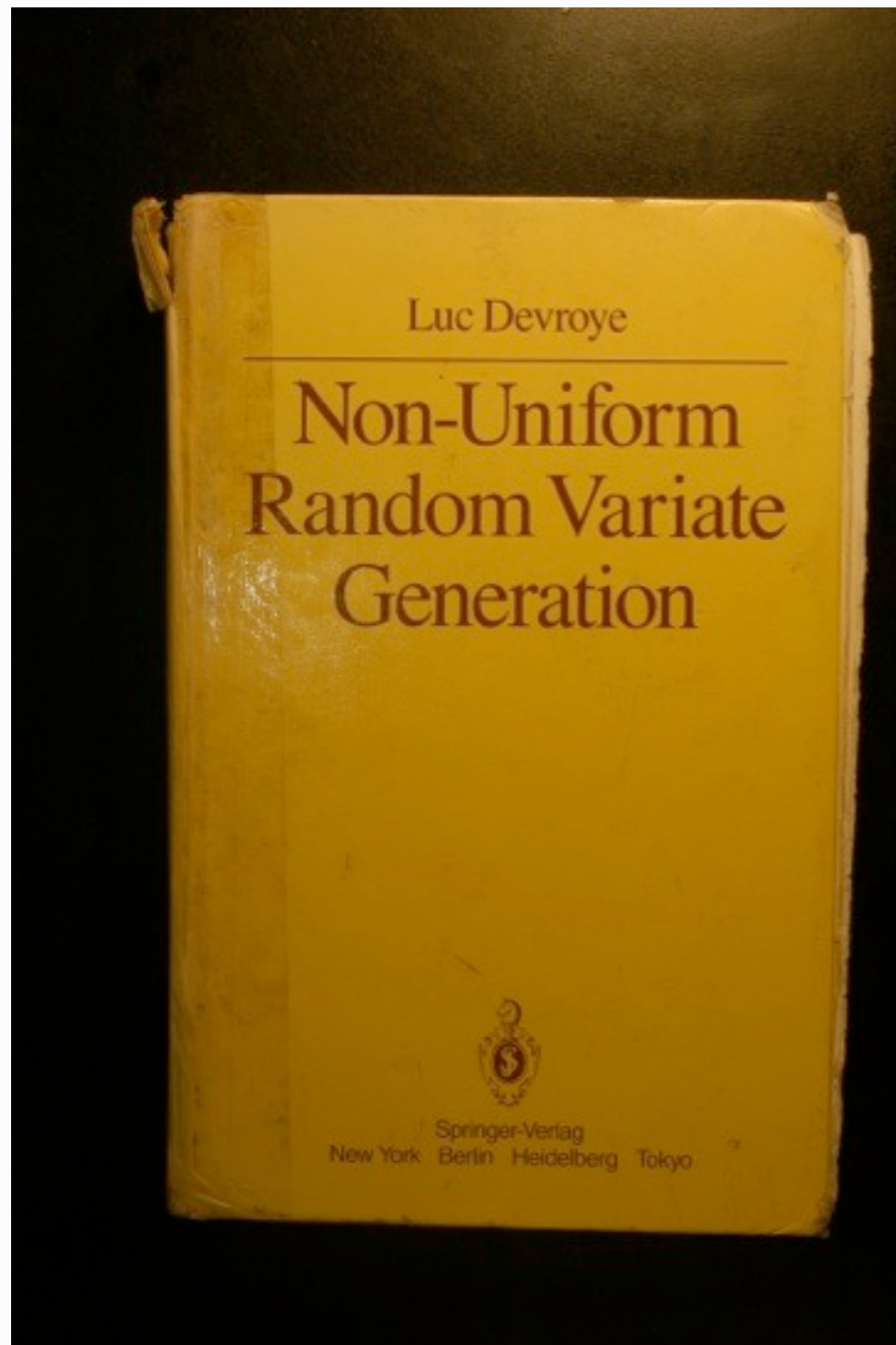
Input: density image



Output: point sequence



# THE INVERSION METHOD



5.3. Acceleration by avoiding the ratio computation.	78
5.4. An example : nearly flat densities on $[0,1]$ .	79
5.5. Exercises.	81
<b>III. DISCRETE RANDOM VARIATES</b>	<b>83</b>
1. Introduction.	83
2. The inversion method.	85
2.1. Introduction.	85
2.2. Inversion by truncation of a continuous random variate.	87
2.3. Comparison-based Inversions.	88
2.4. The method of guide tables.	96
2.5. Inversion by correction.	98
2.6. Exercises.	101
3. Table look-up methods.	102
3.1. The table look-up principle.	102
3.2. Multiple table look-ups.	104
4. The alias method.	107
4.1. Definition.	107
4.2. The alias-urn method.	110
4.3. Geometrical puzzles.	111
4.4. Exercises.	112
5. Other general principles.	113
5.1. The rejection method.	113
5.2. The composition and acceptance-complement methods.	116
5.3. Exercises.	116
<b>IV. SPECIALIZED ALGORITHMS</b>	<b>118</b>
1. Introduction.	118
1.1. Motivation for the chapter.	118
1.2. Exercises.	118
2. The Forsythe-von Neumann method.	121
2.1. Description of the method.	121
2.2. Von Neumann's exponential random variate generator.	125

# THE INVERSION METHOD

Given the cumulative density function  $F$  from the probability density function (PDF)  $f$

1. Generate a uniform *random* number  $u$  in the interval  $[0, 1)$
2. With numerical integration, compute  $x$  such that  $F(x) = u$
3. Take  $x$  to be a non-uniform *random* number drawn from  $f$

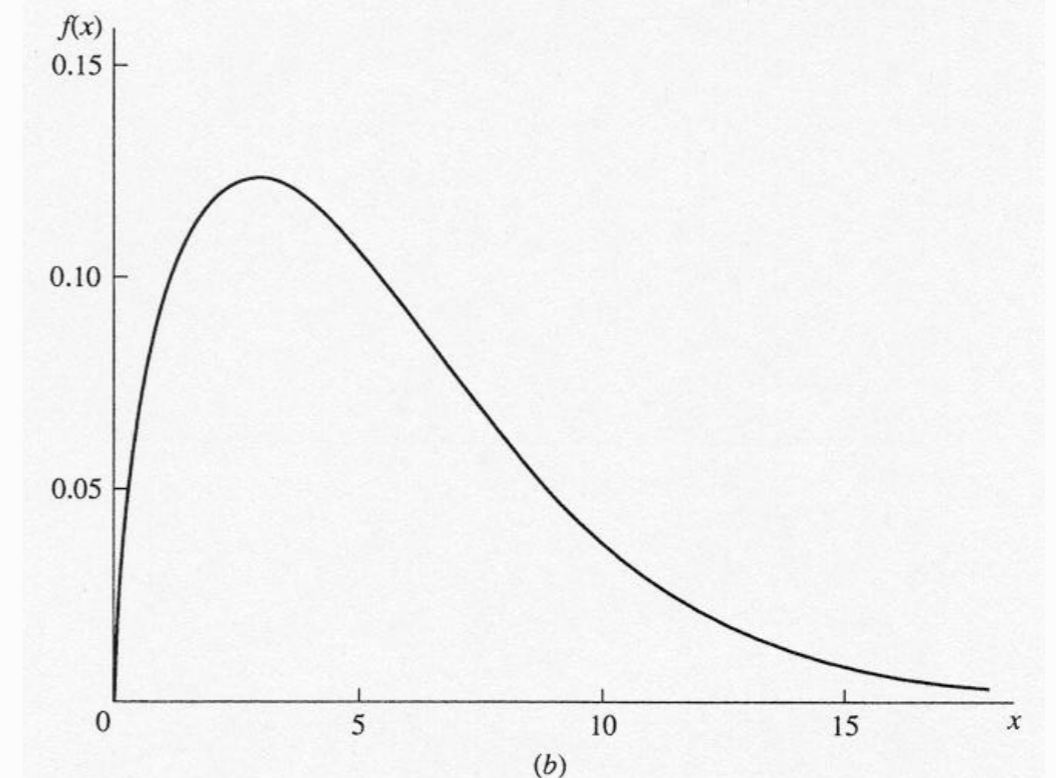
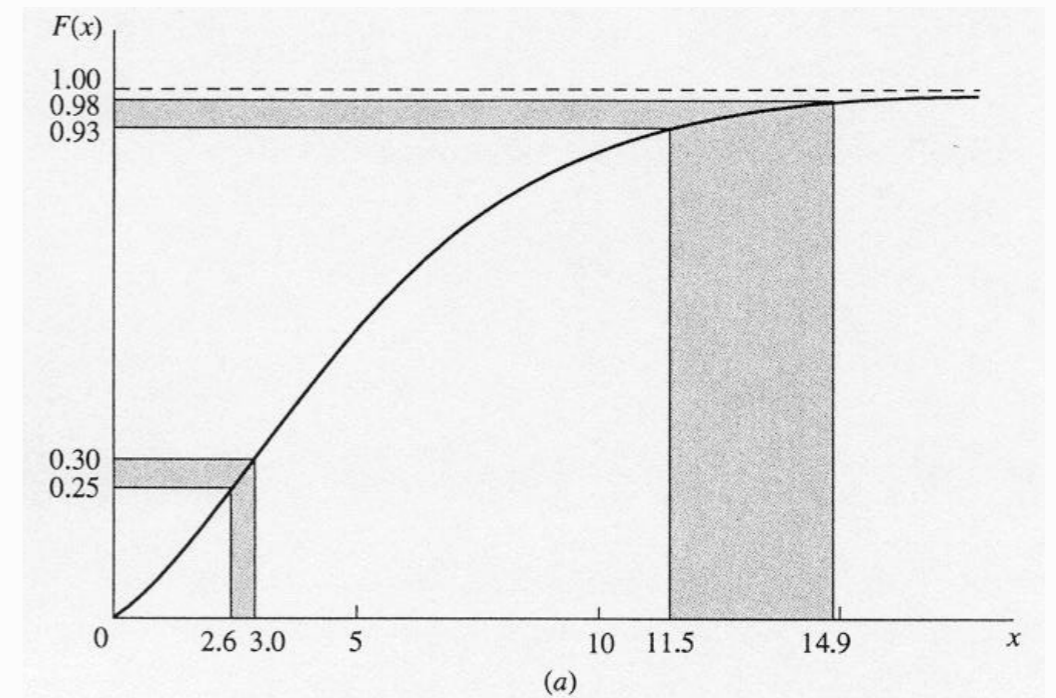


Illustration from D. Kelton, 2002

# THE INVERSION METHOD

Given the cumulative density function  $\mathbf{F}$  from the probability density function (PDF)  $\mathbf{f}$

1. Generate a uniform *random* number  $\mathbf{u}$  in the interval  $[0,1)$
2. With numerical integration, compute  $\mathbf{x}$  such that  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u}$
3. Take  $\mathbf{x}$  to be a non-uniform *random* number drawn from  $\mathbf{f}$

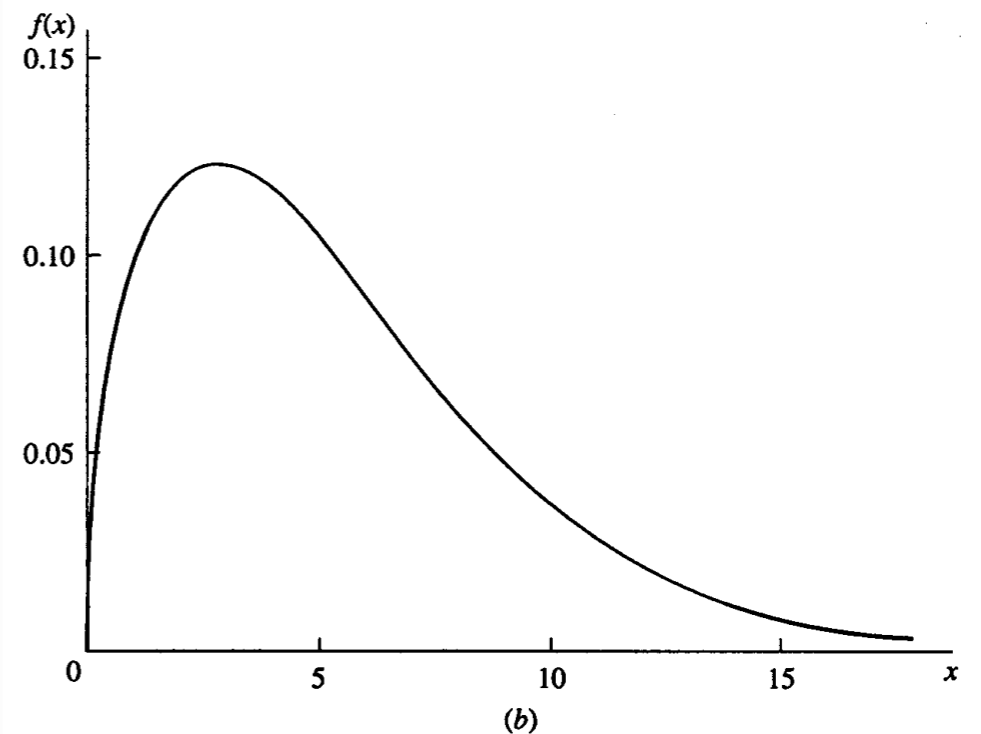
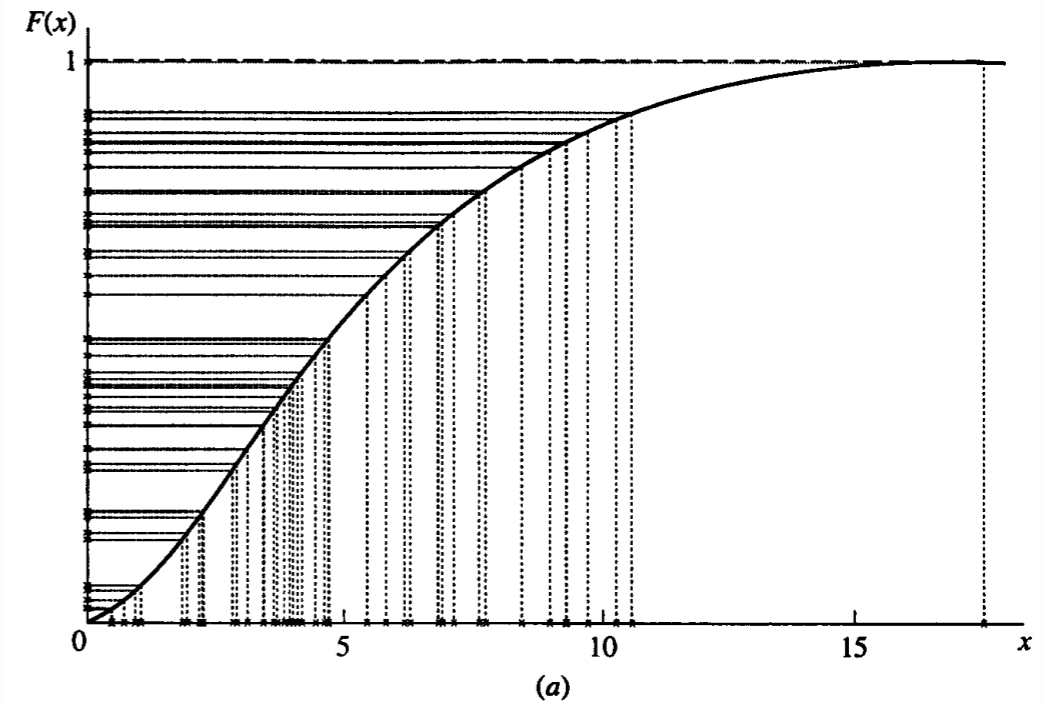


Illustration from D. Kelton, 2002

# 2D INVERSION METHODS

# A- DUAL STEPS METHOD

Generate a low-discrepancy 2D point sequence, e.g. the Halton sequence.

Then, transform the first coordinate with a marginal distribution function and the inversion method.

Then, transform the second coordinate with the corresponding conditional distribution function.

*(Devroye, p. 96, 1986)*

# B- SINGLE STEP METHOD

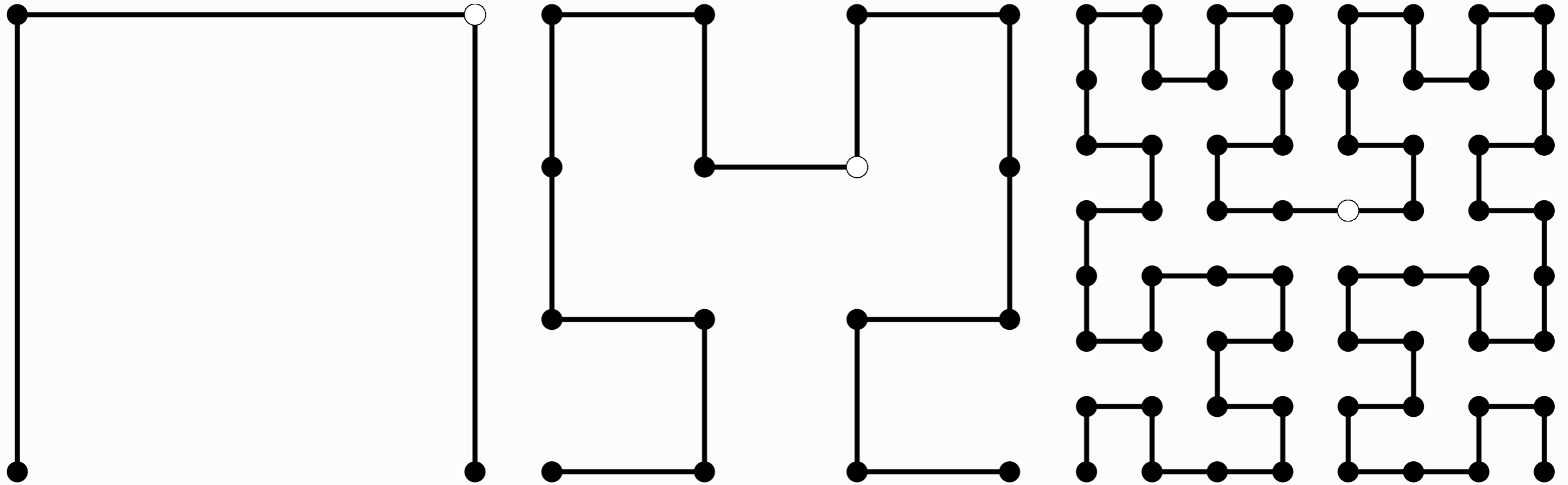
Generate a suitable low-discrepancy 1D sequence, e.g. the Golden ratio sequence.

Then, transform the 1D coordinate along a suitable unfolded image, with the inversion method.

Then, map the coordinate to a higher-dimensional point with the inverse Hilbert space filling curve.

*(Schretter and Niederreiter, 2012)*

# SPACE FILLING CURVE



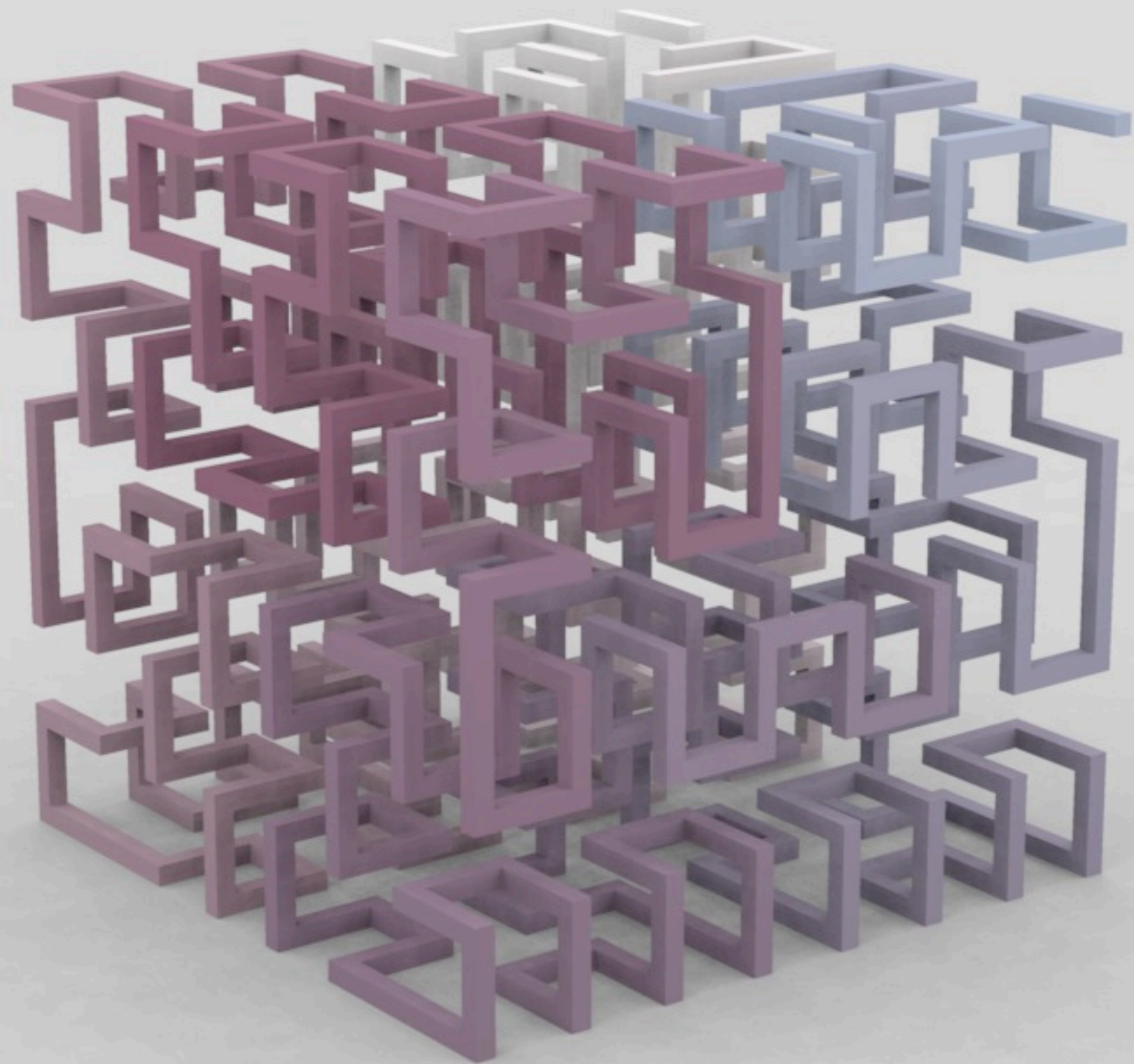
1<sup>st</sup> order Hilbert SFC

2<sup>nd</sup> order Hilbert SFC

3<sup>rd</sup> order Hilbert SFC

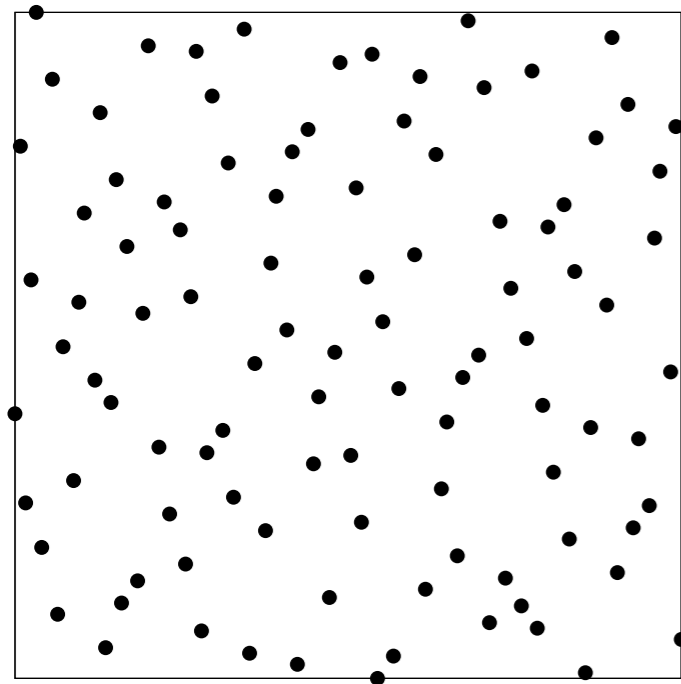
The position of the hollow point corresponds to the middle position along the path of the Hilbert SFC.

Arbitrary spatial precision can be reached with a sufficient order of recursion (*order 24 for IEEE floats*).

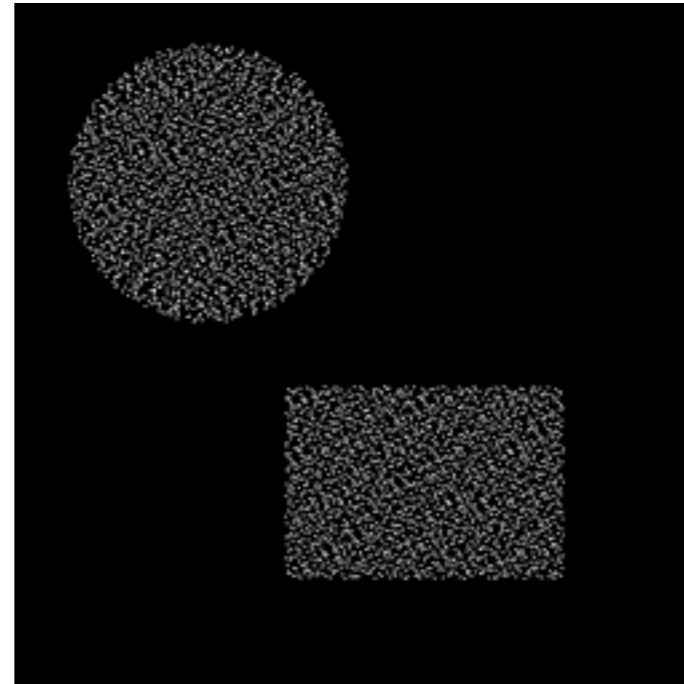




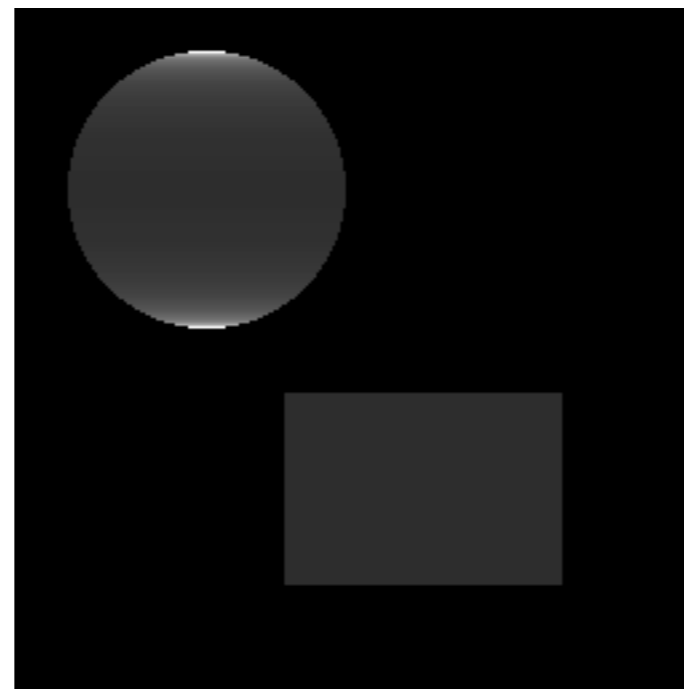
# A- DUAL STEPS METHOD



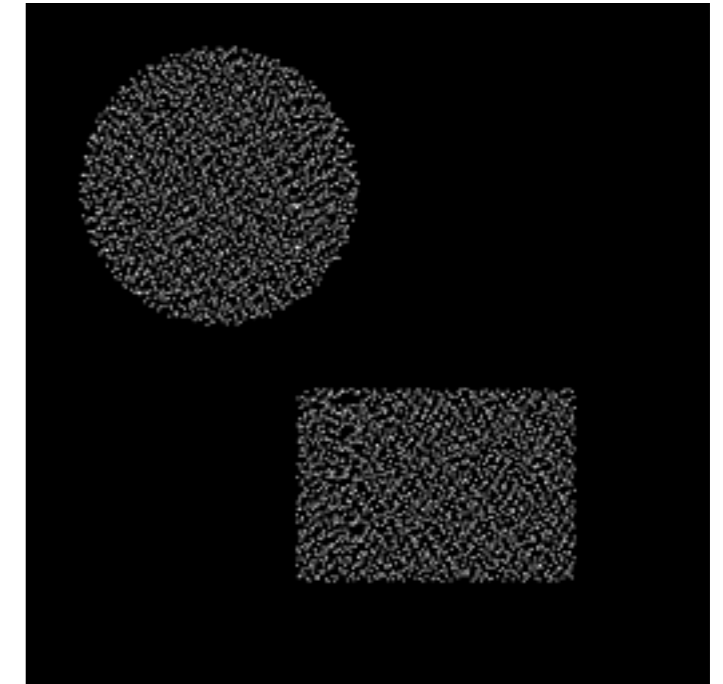
Halton sequence



Density image

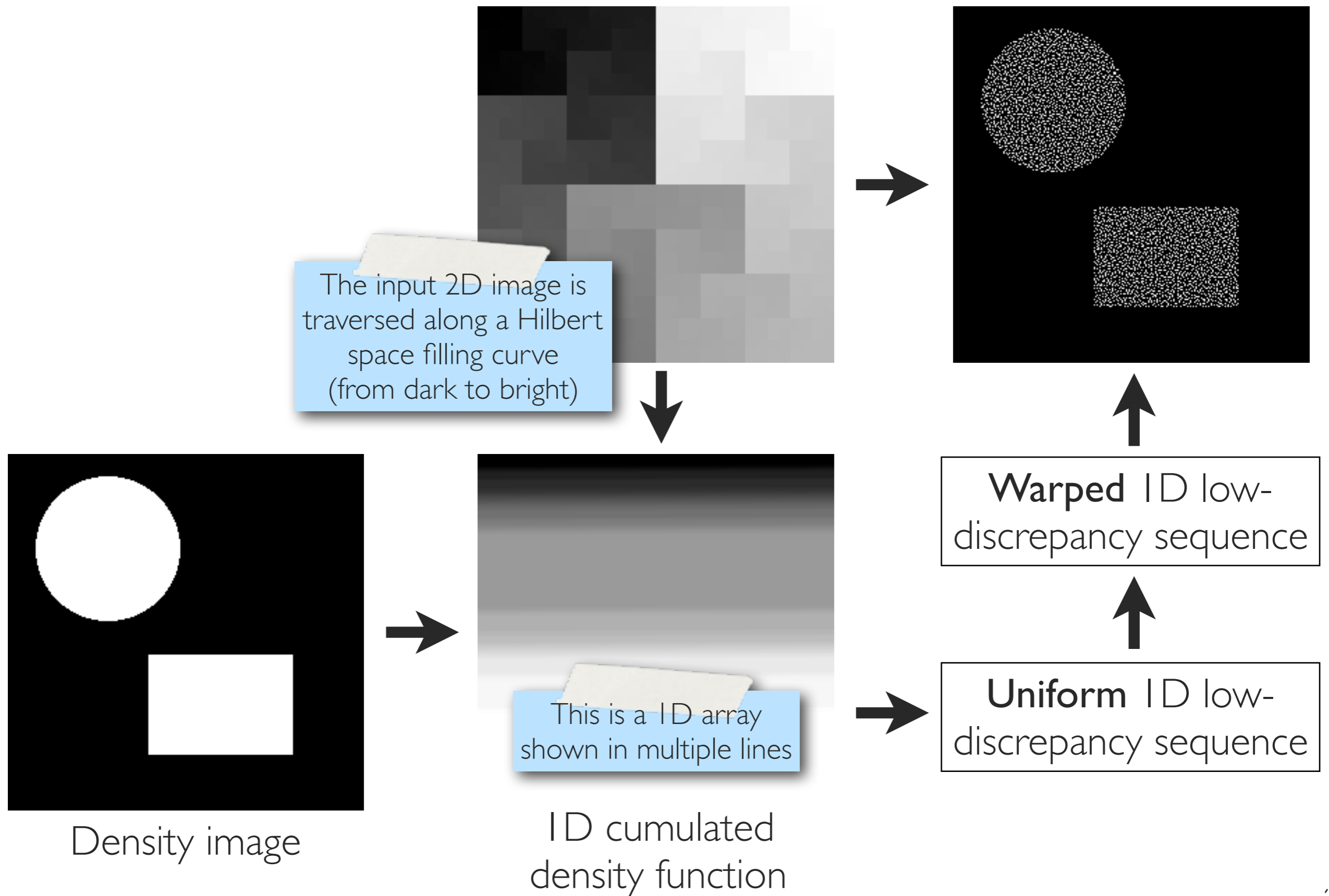


ID marginal (y) and conditional (x) PDFs

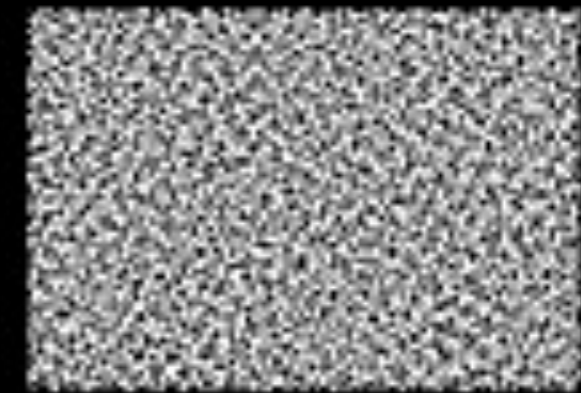
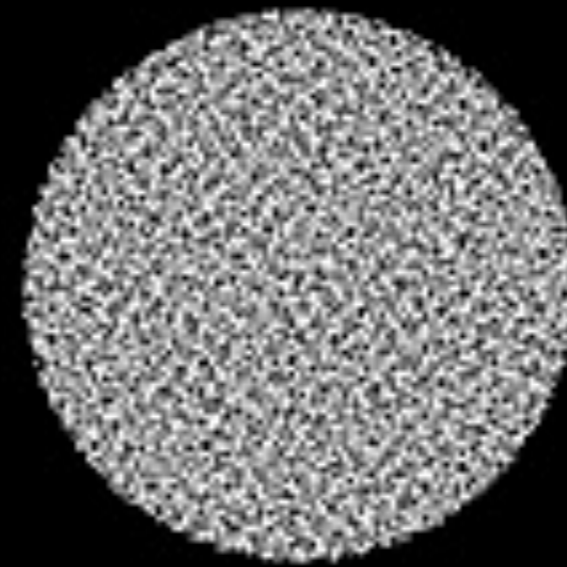
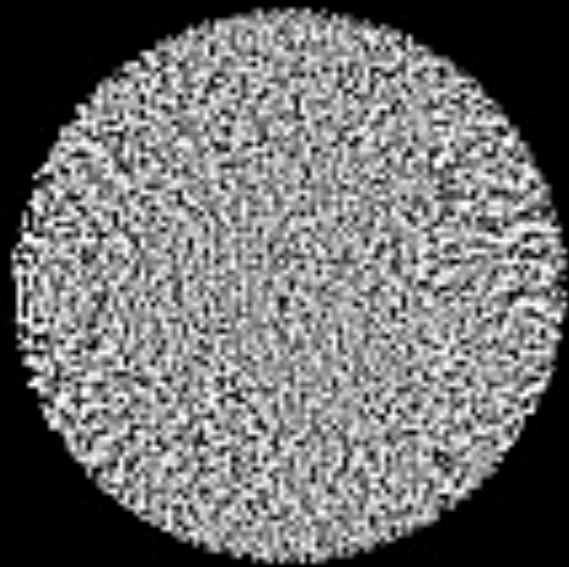


ID marginal (x) and conditional (y) PDFs

# B- SINGLE STEP METHOD



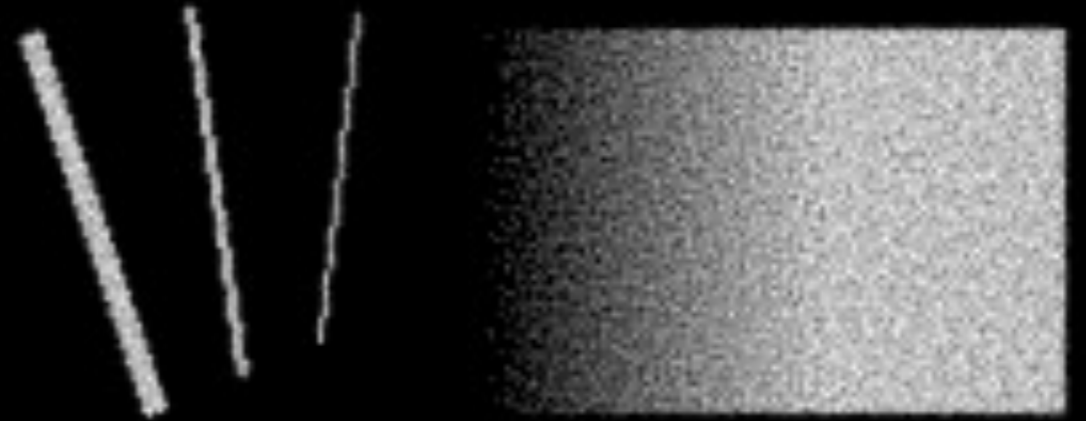
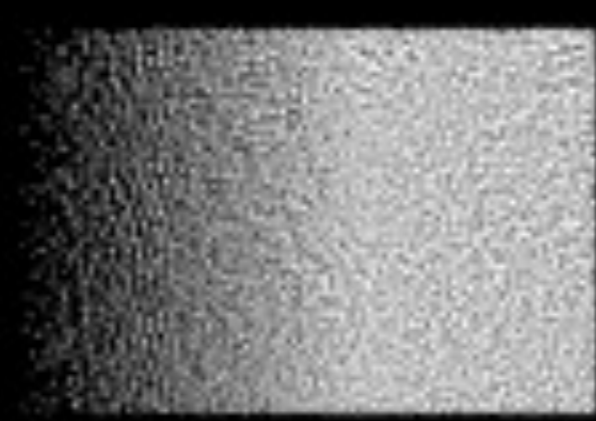
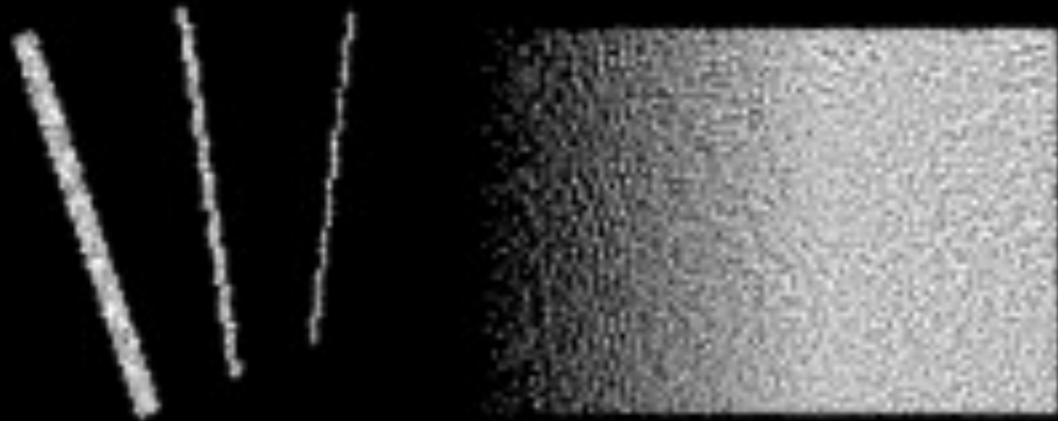
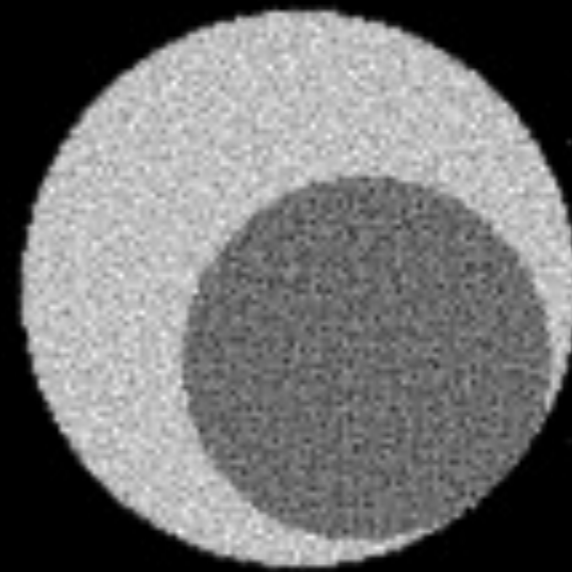
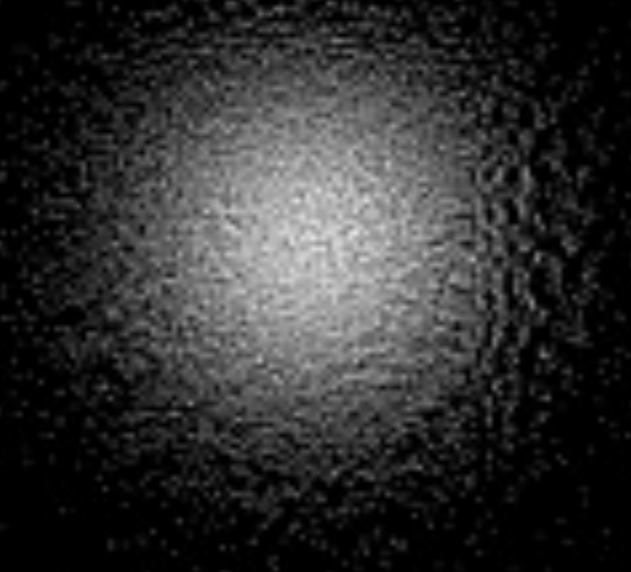
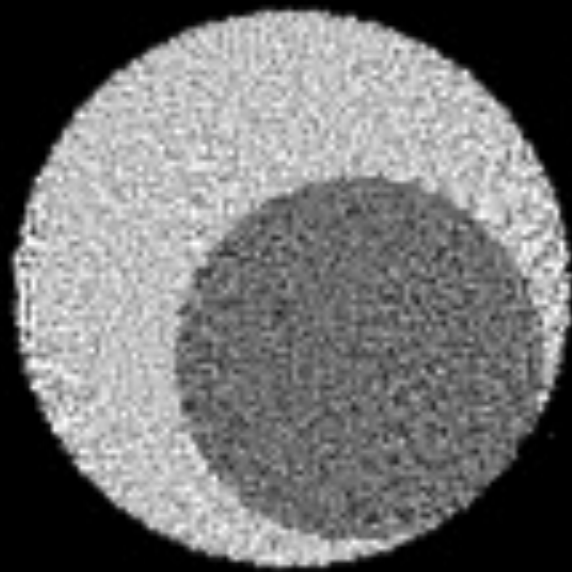
# INVERSION RESULTS



Dual inversion, 65536 points

Single inversion, 65536 points

# INVERSION RESULTS

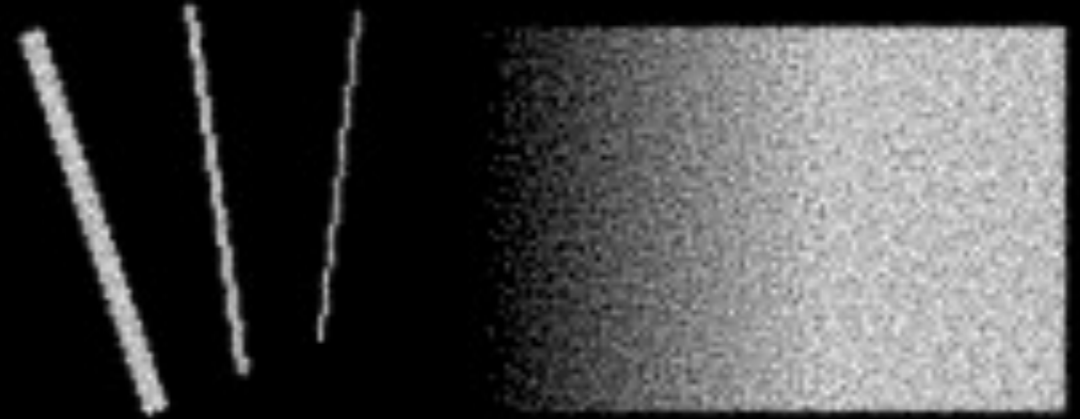
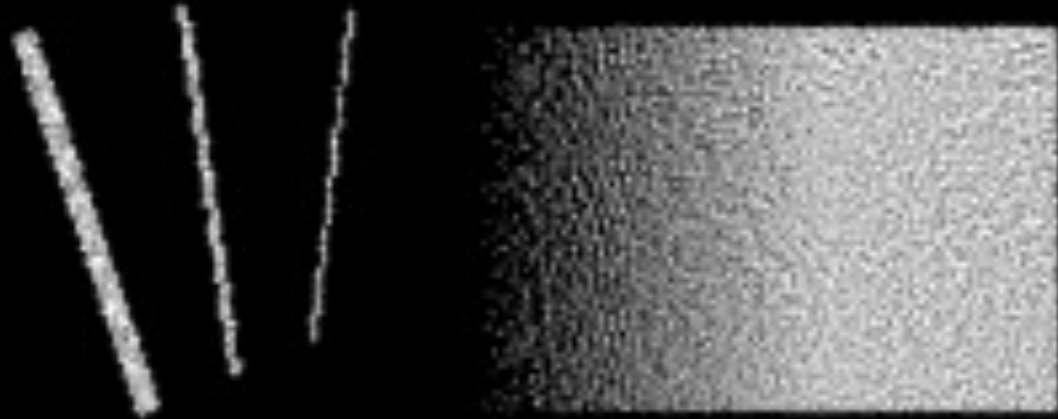
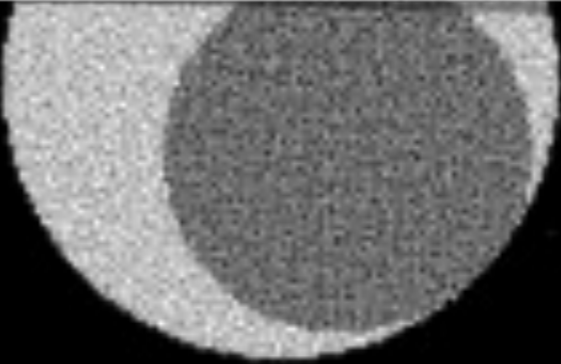
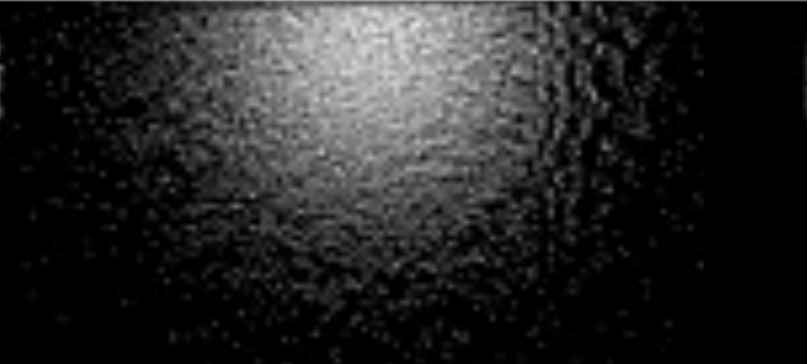


Dual inversion, 65536 points

Single inversion, 65536 points

# INVERSION RESULTS

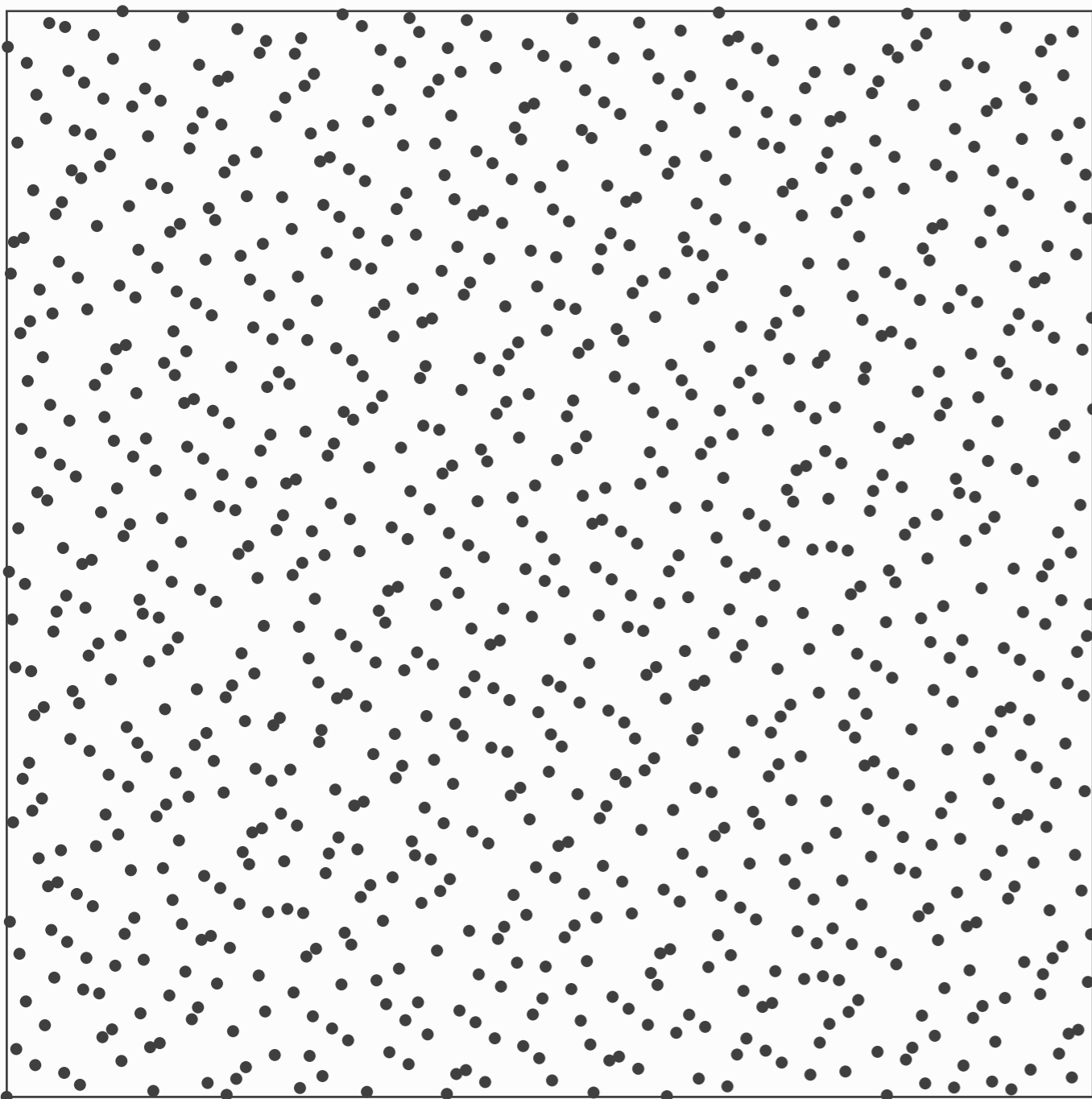
**Artifacts:** Sudden variations among conditional density functions profiles result in visible structures (artifacts) after dual steps inversion.



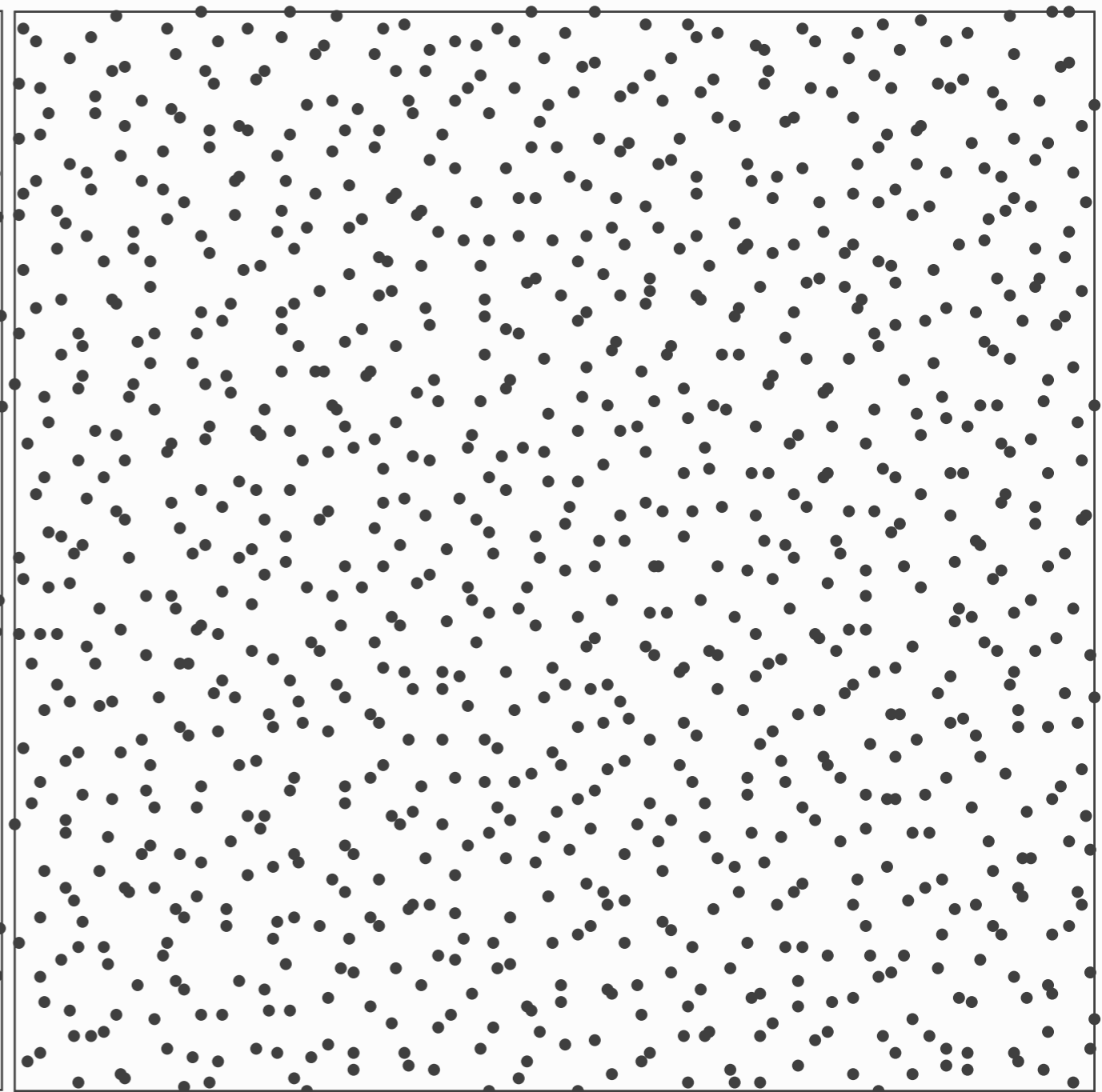
Dual inversion, 65536 points

Single inversion, 65536 points

# UNIFORM DENSITY



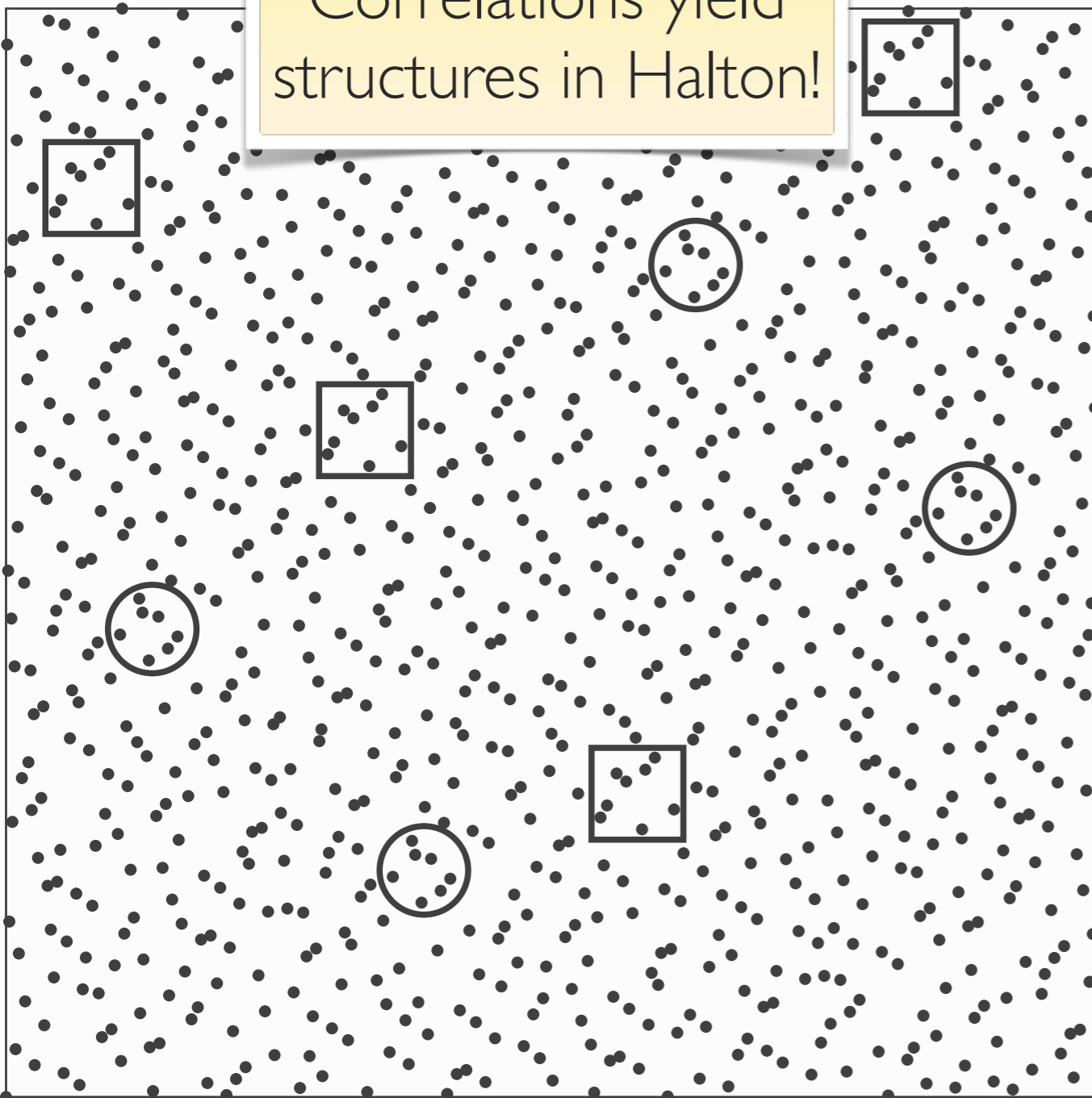
Halton sequence



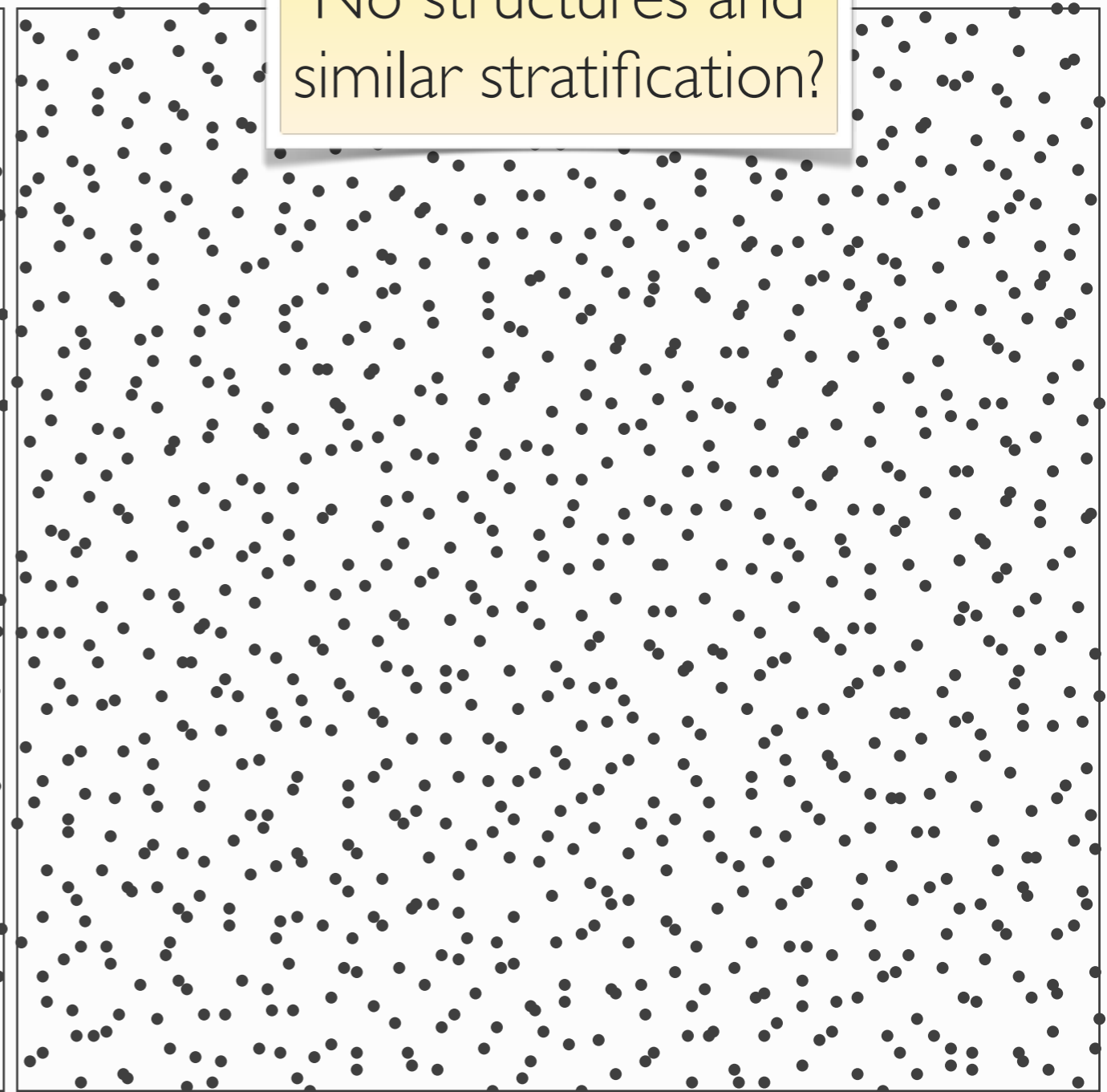
Golden sequence + Hilbert mapping

# UNIFORM DENSITY

Correlations yield structures in Halton!



No structures and similar stratification?

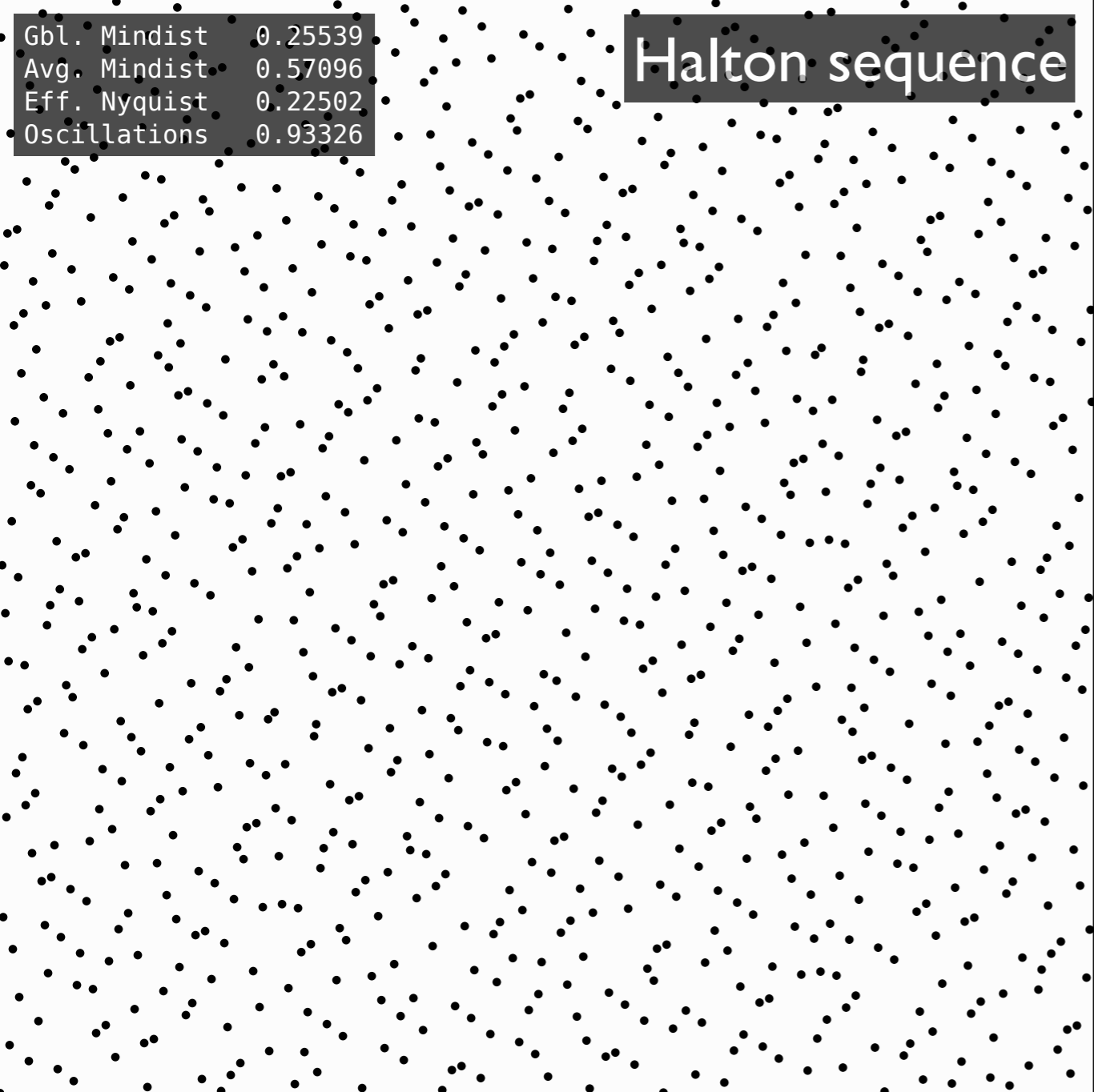


Halton sequence

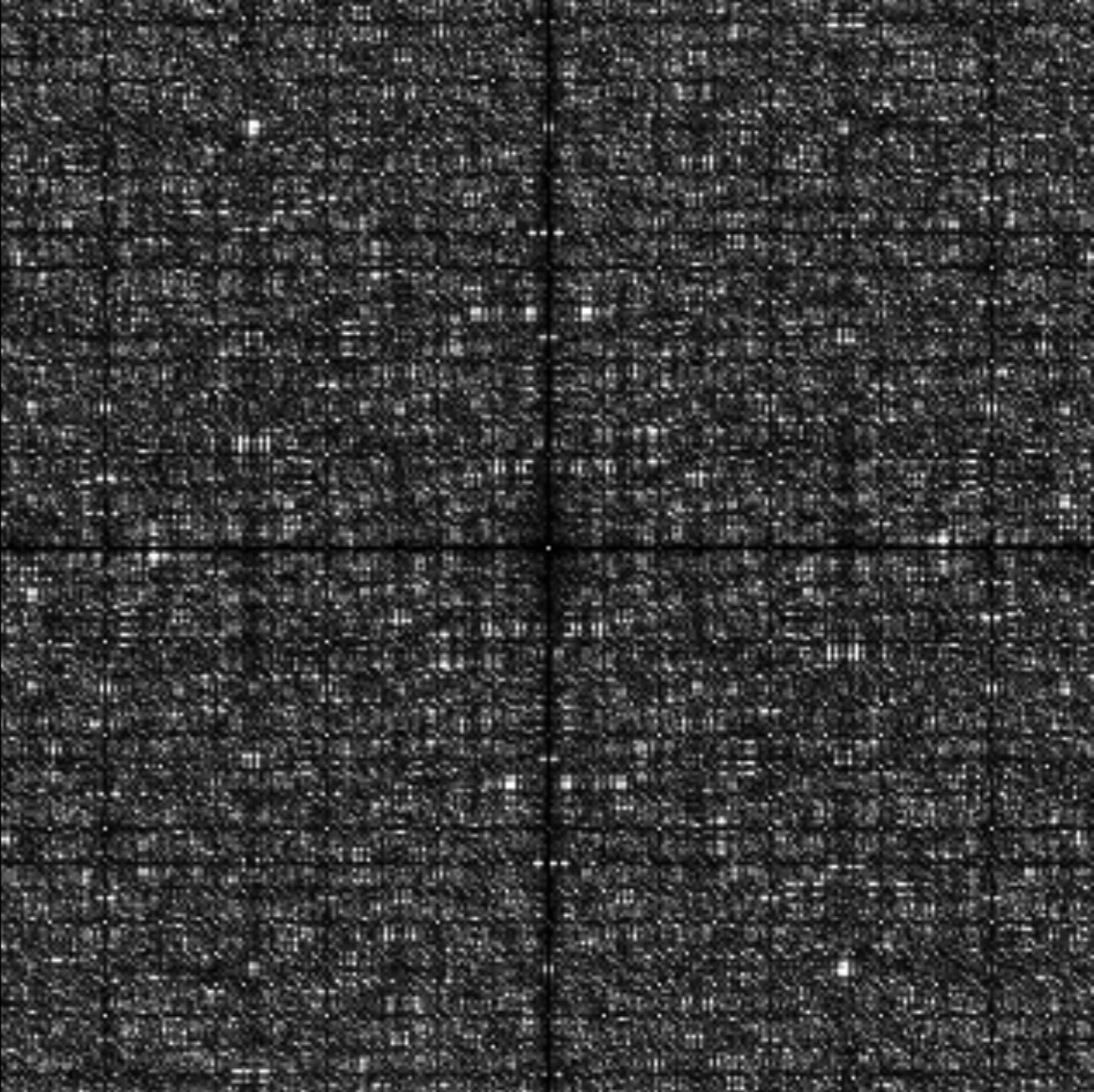
Golden sequence + Hilbert mapping

Gbl. Mindist 0.25539  
Avg. Mindist 0.57096  
Eff. Nyquist 0.22502  
Oscillations 0.93326

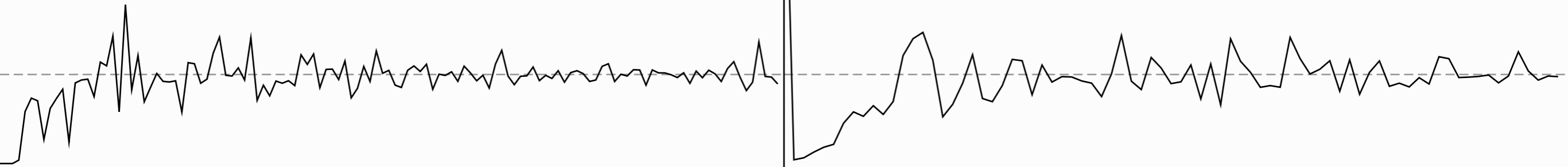
# Halton sequence



RDF



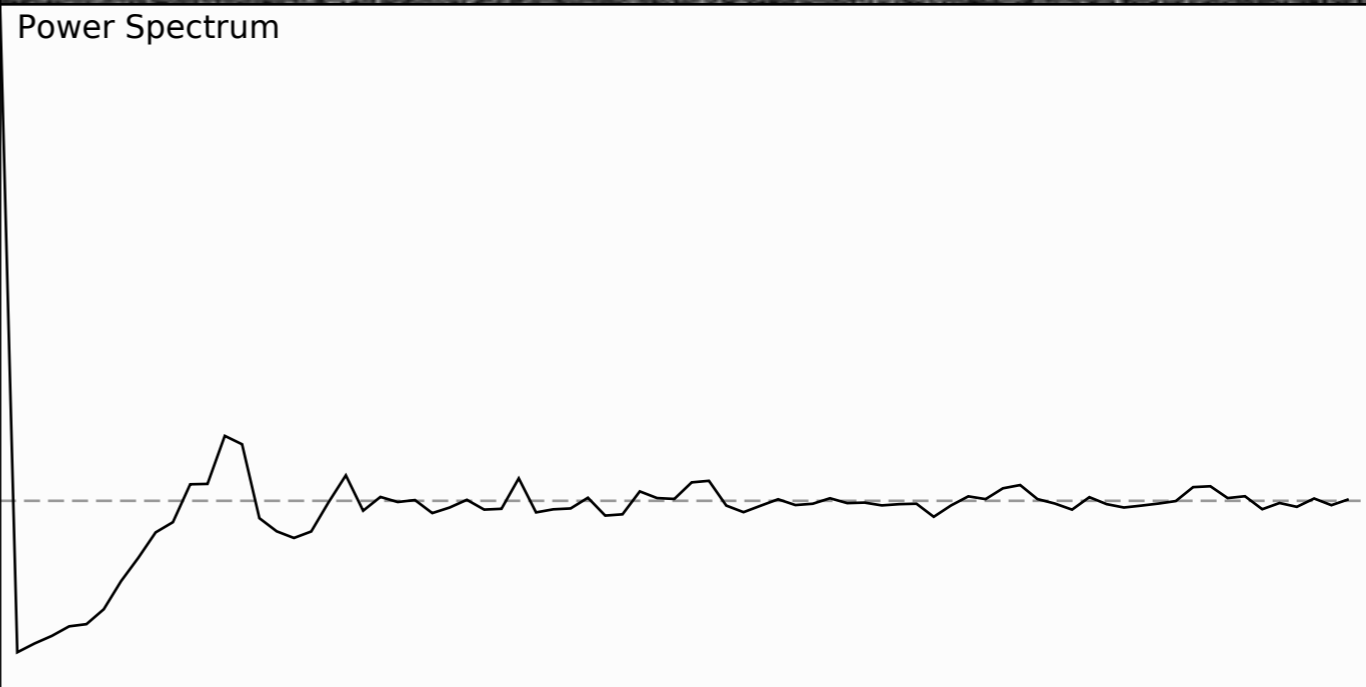
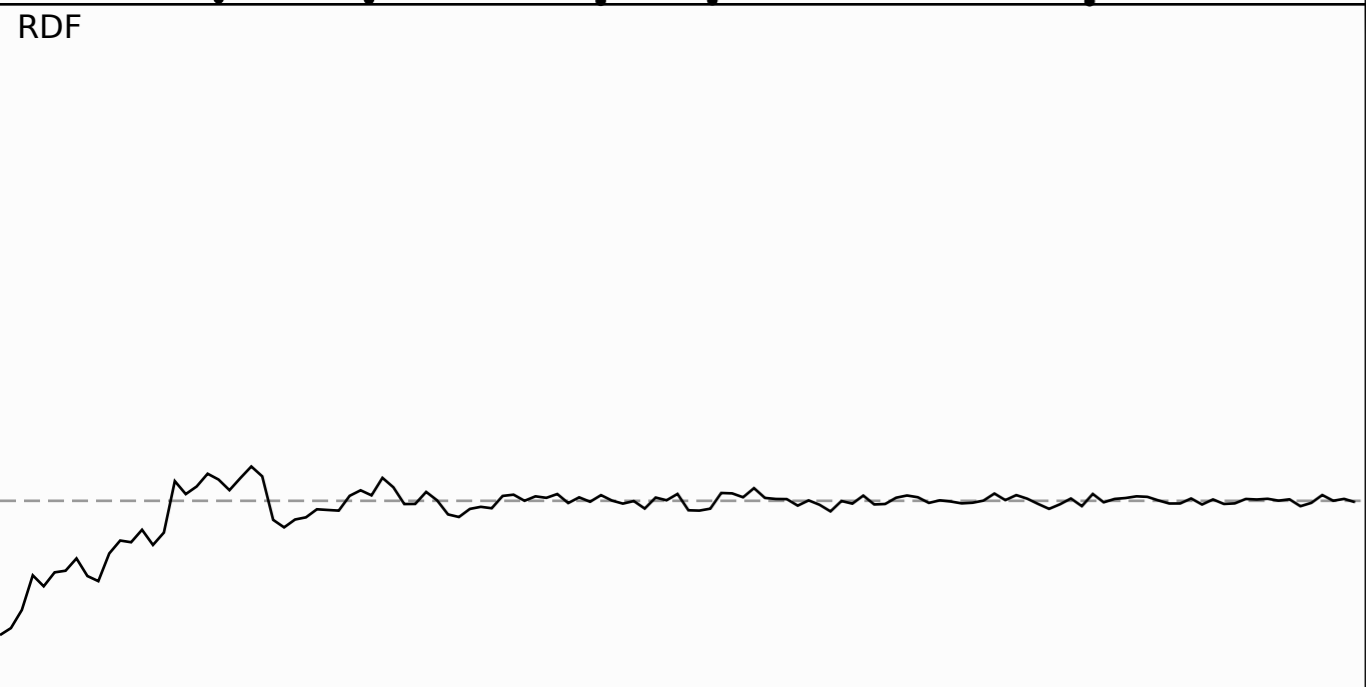
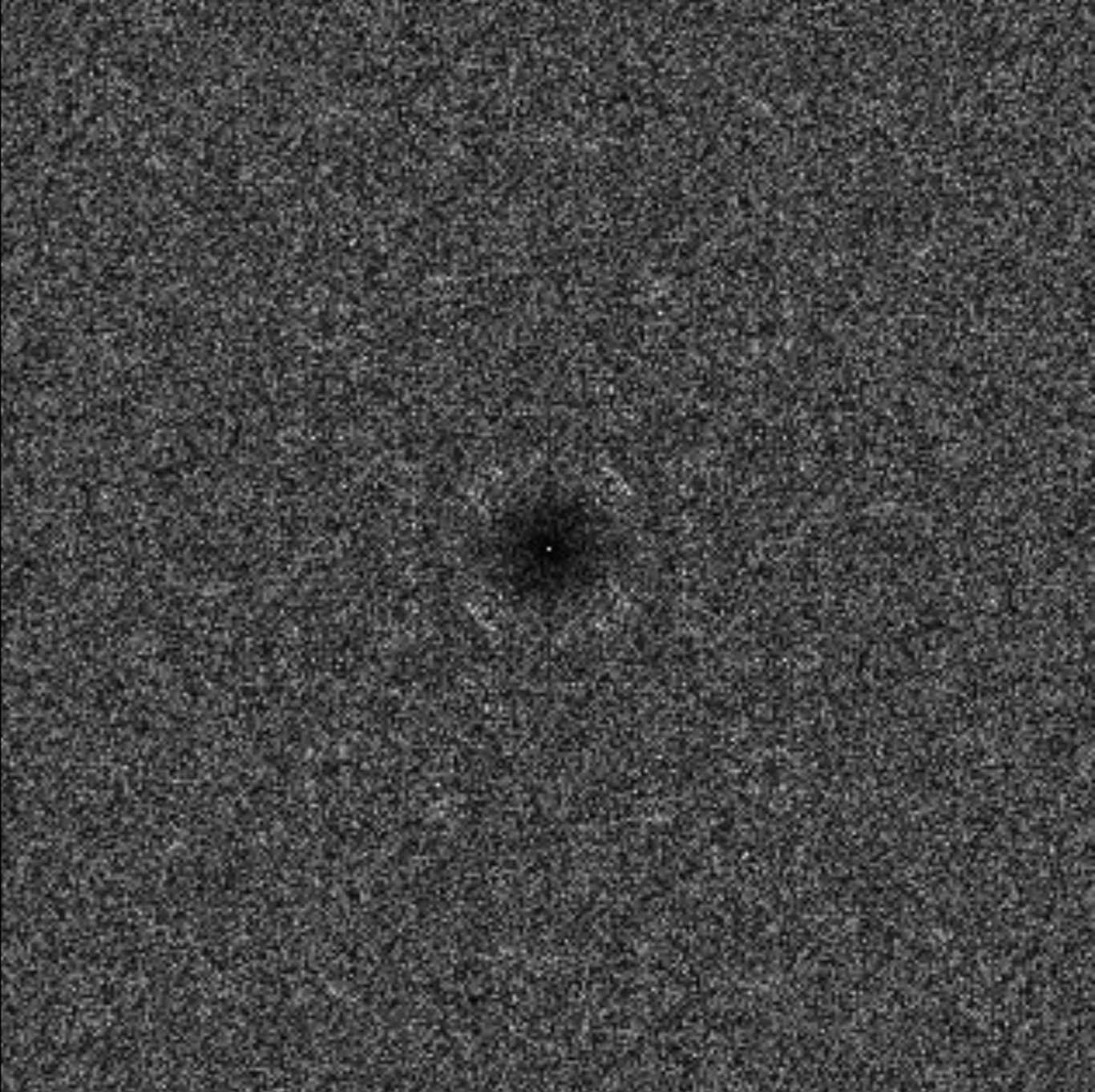
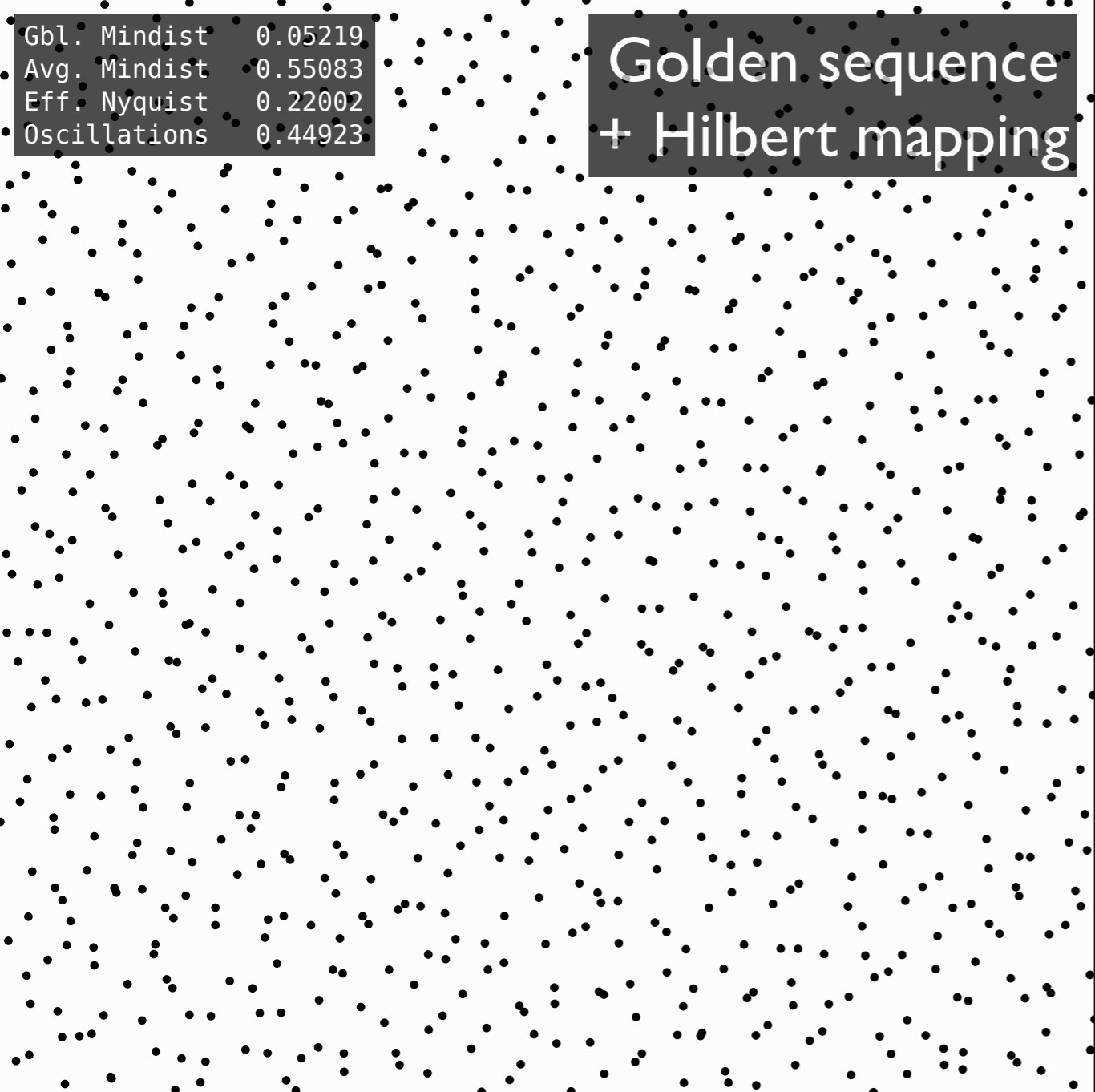
Power Spectrum





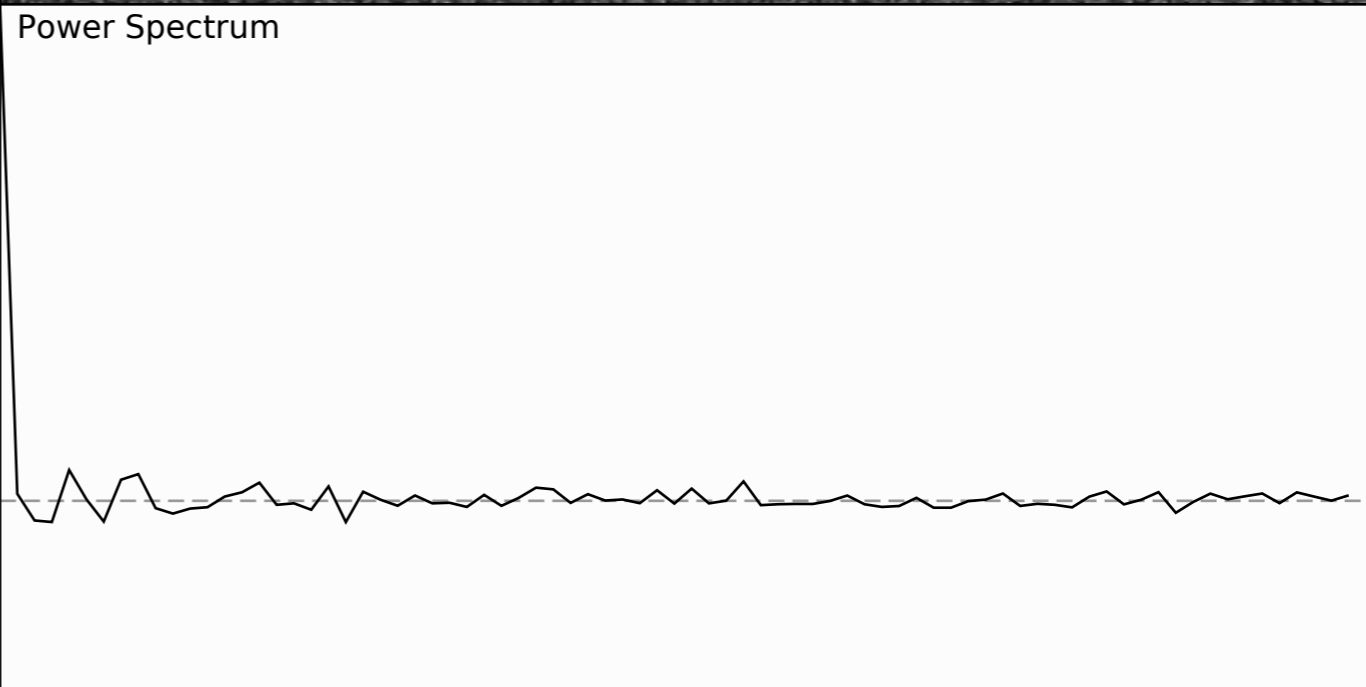
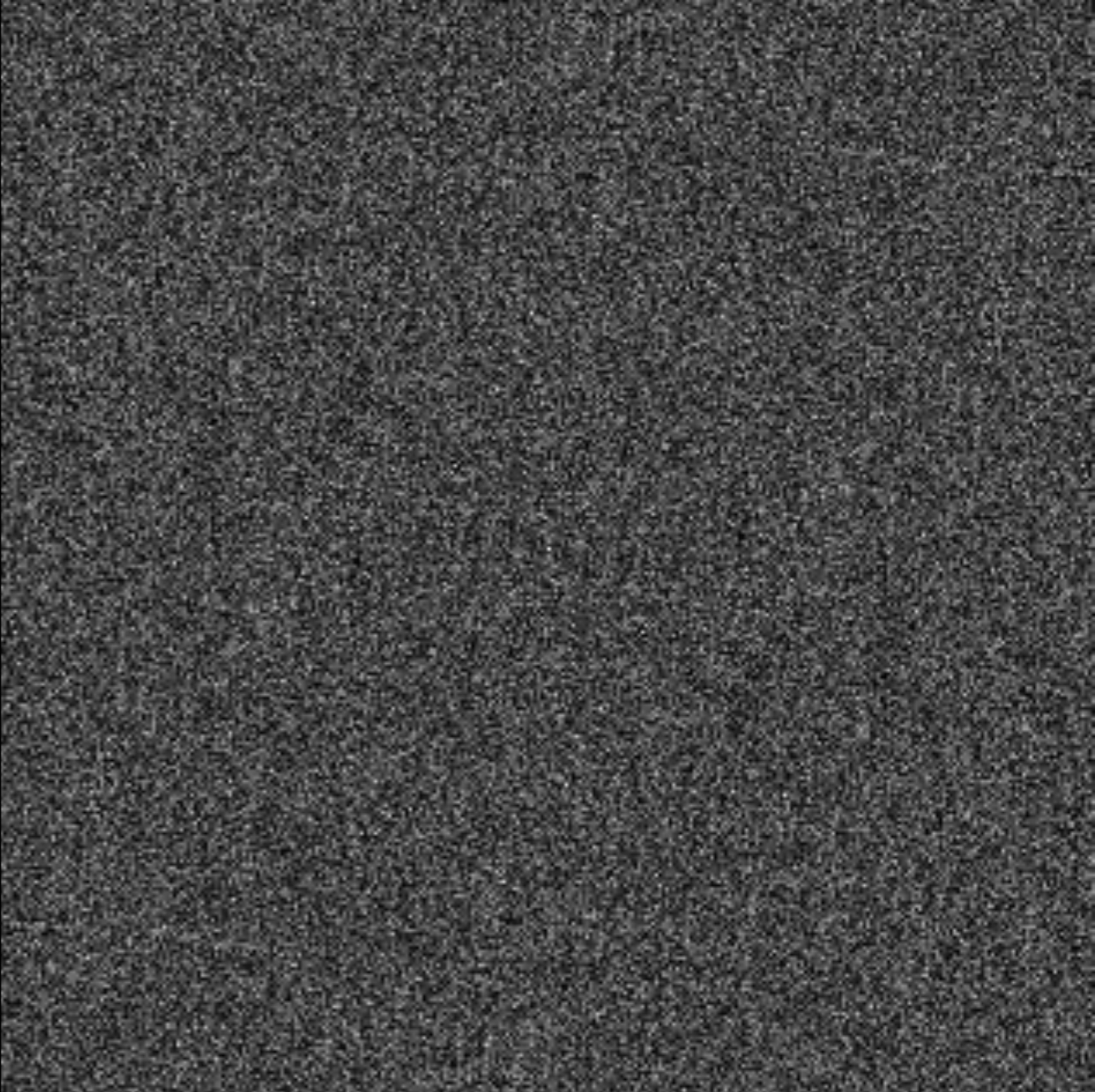
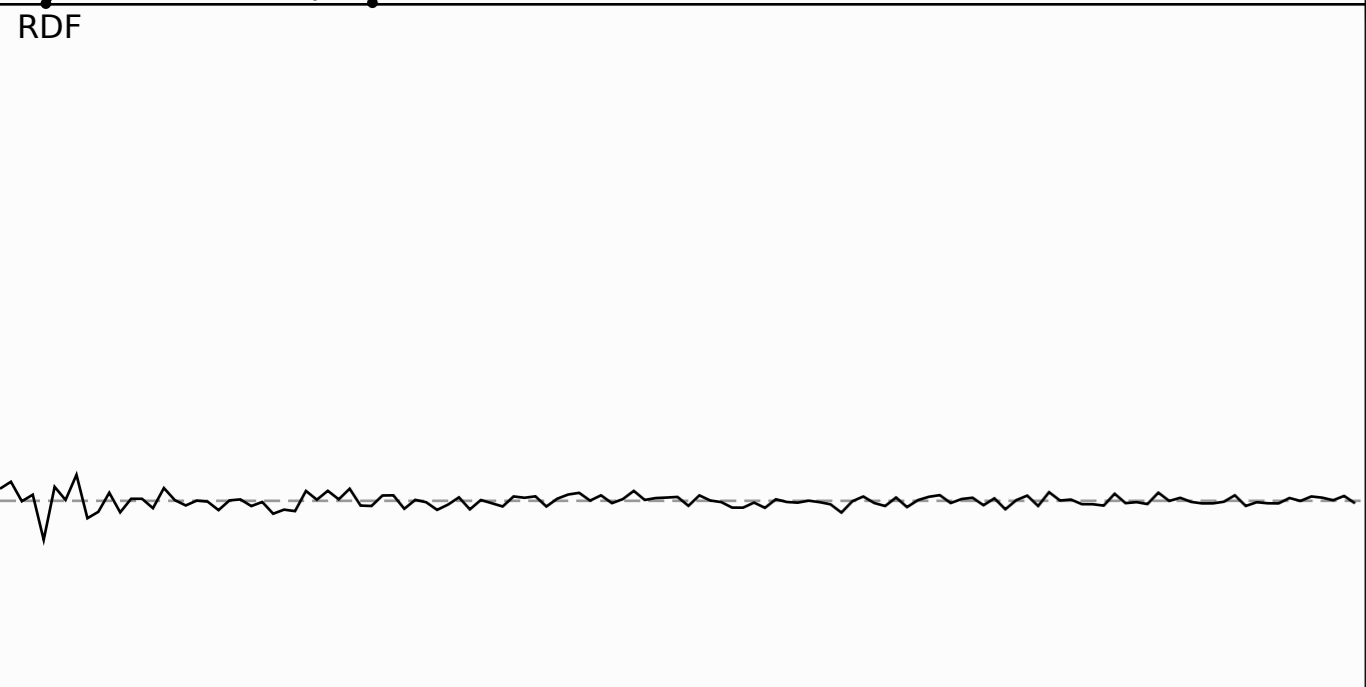
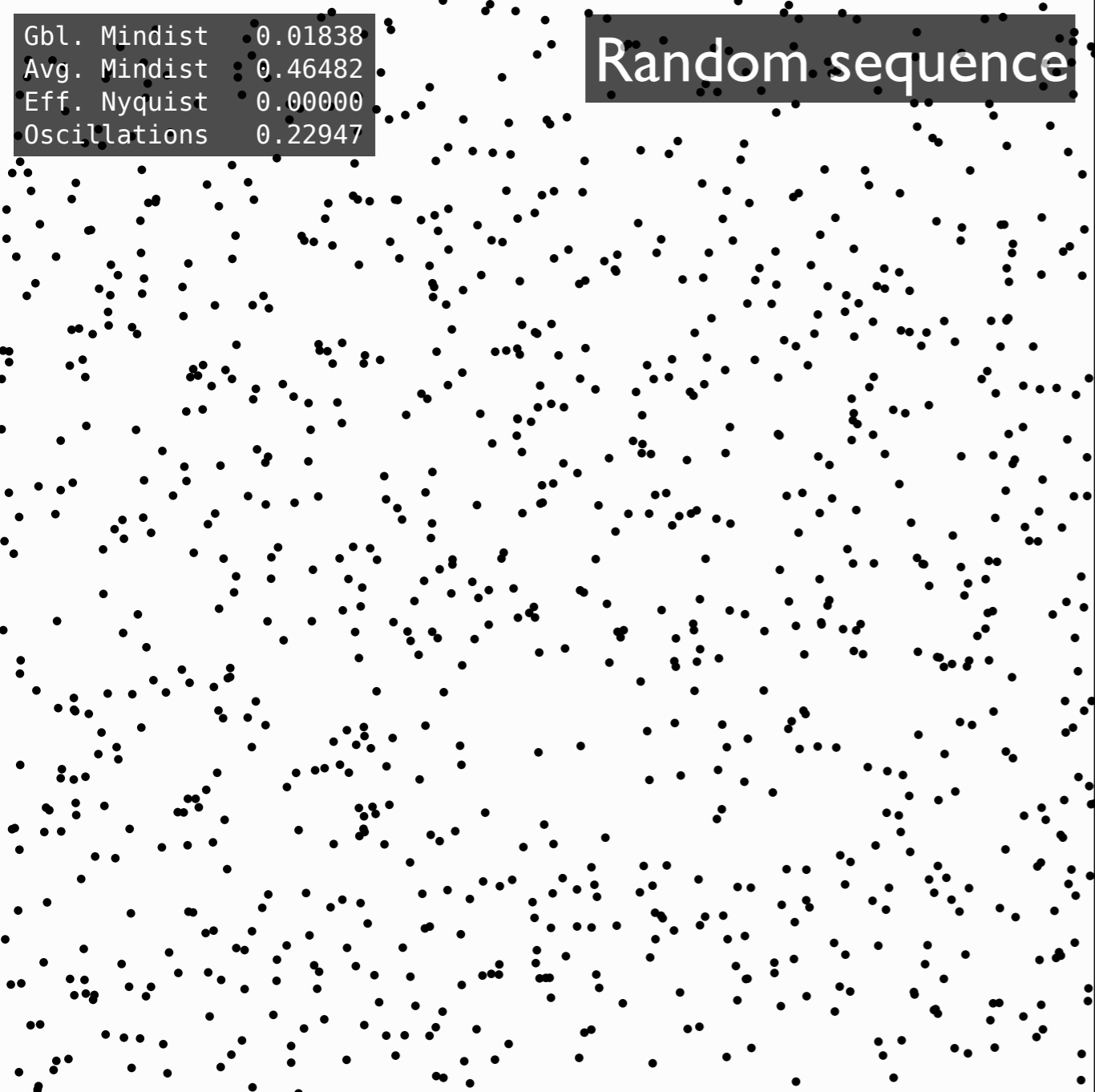
Gbl. Mindist 0.05219  
Avg. Mindist 0.55083  
Eff. Nyquist 0.22002  
Oscillations 0.44923

# Golden sequence + Hilbert mapping



# Random sequence

Gbl. Mindist	0.01838
Avg. Mindist	0.46482
Eff. Nyquist	0.00000
Oscillations	0.22947

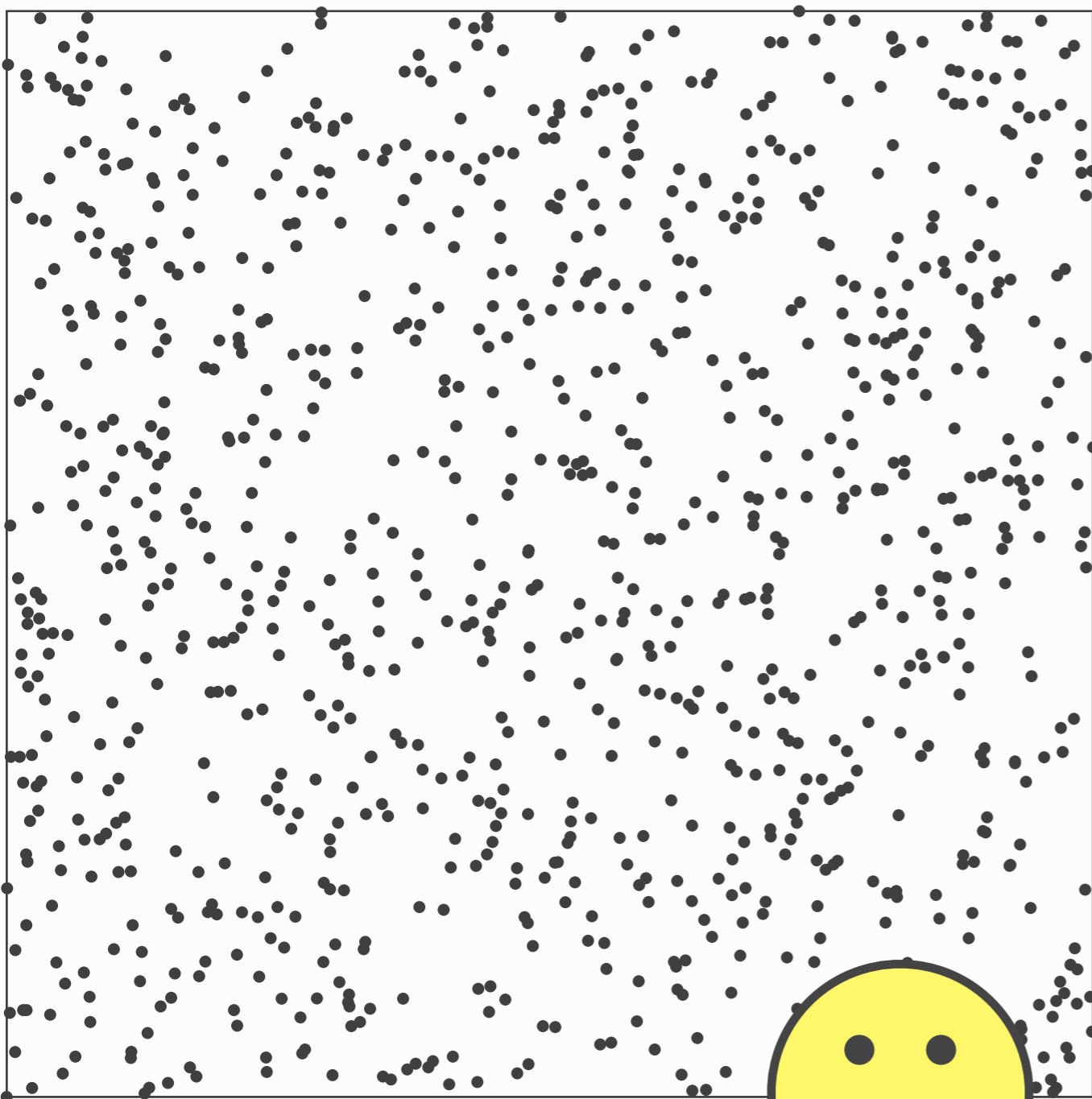


RDF

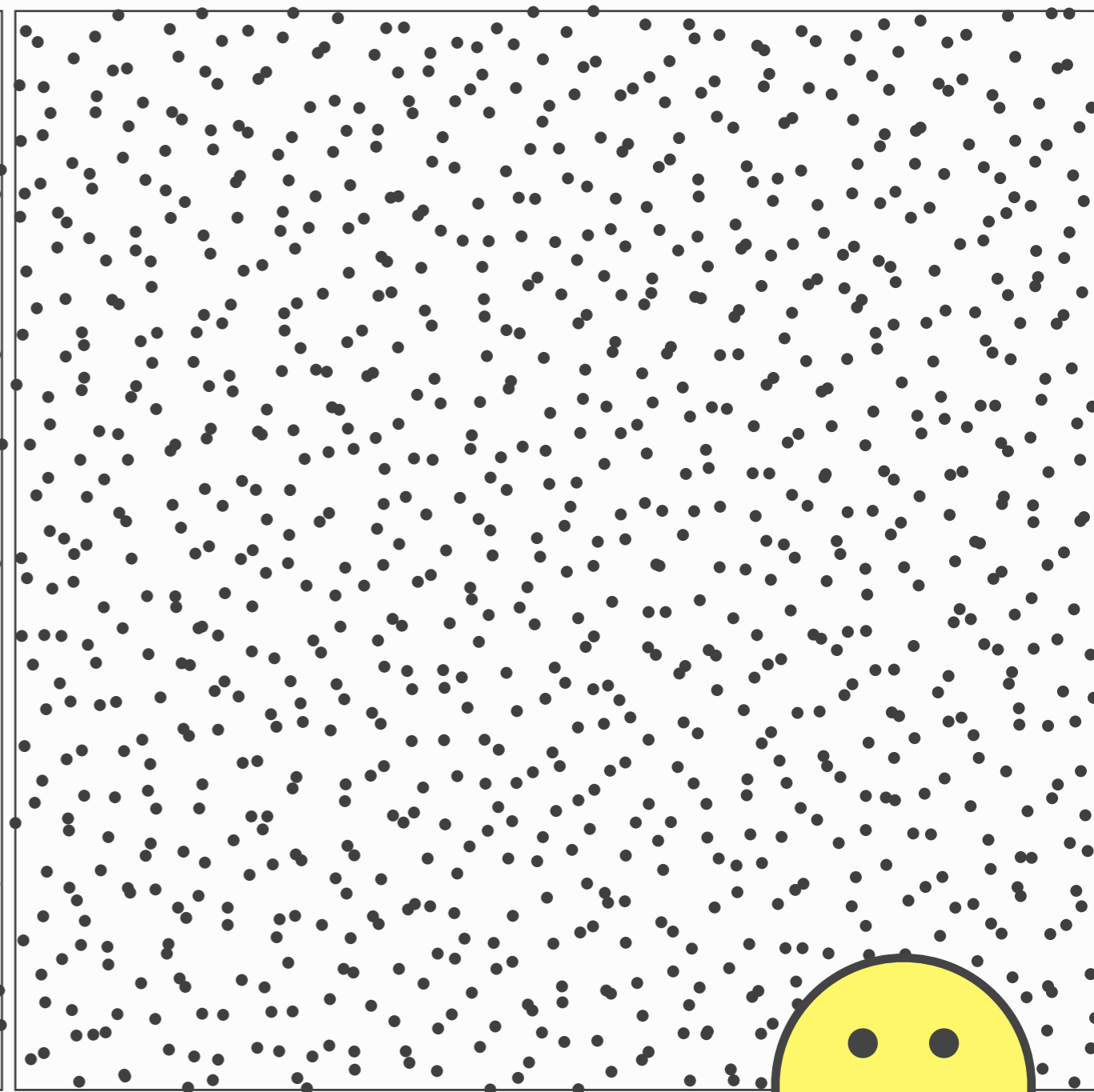
Power Spectrum

# THE FINAL WORDS

# CONCLUSION



Random



Quasi-random



# SUGGESTED BOOKS

63

## Random Number Generation and Quasi-Monte Carlo Methods

HARALD NIEDERREITER  
Austrian Academy of Sciences

CBMS-NSF  
REGIONAL CONFERENCE SERIES  
IN APPLIED MATHEMATICS

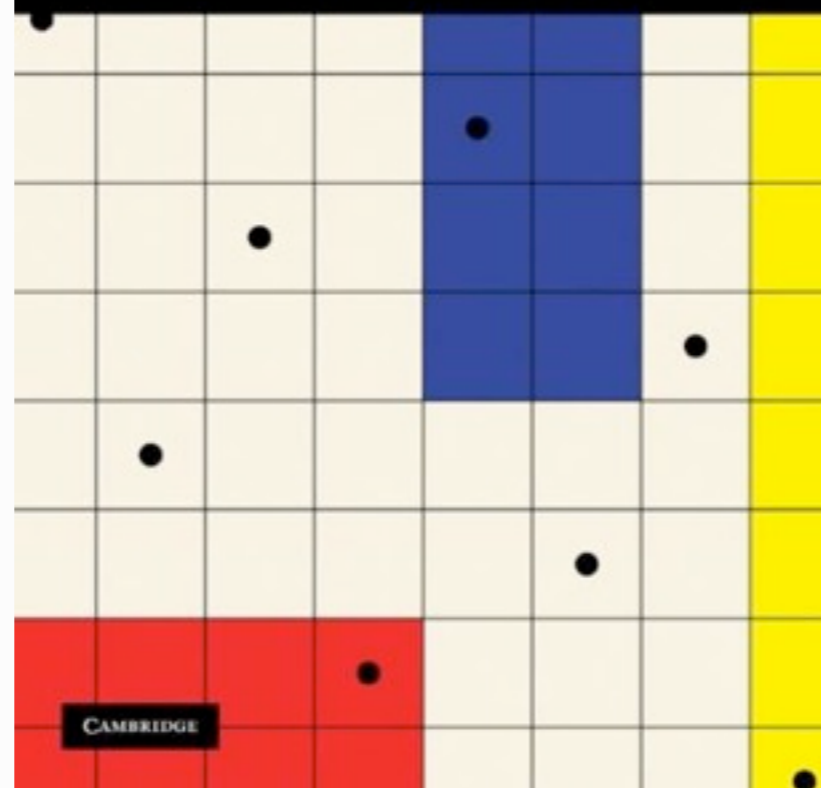
SPONSORED BY  
CONFERENCE BOARD OF  
THE MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES

SUPPORTED BY  
NATIONAL SCIENCE  
FOUNDATION

Josef Dick and Friedrich Pillichshammer

## Digital Nets and Sequences

Discrepancy and Quasi Monte Carlo Integration

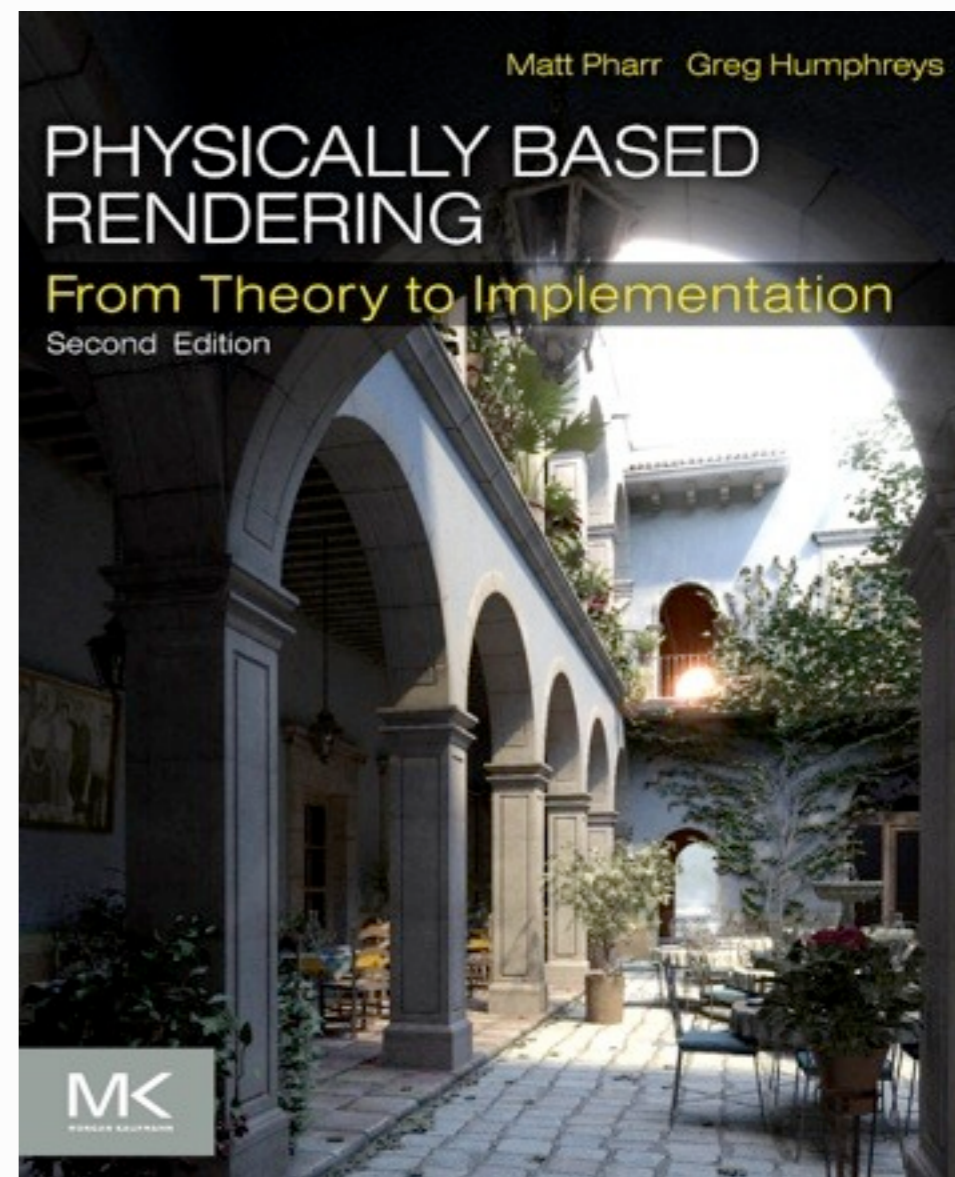


Matt Pharr Greg Humphreys

## PHYSICALLY BASED RENDERING

### From Theory to Implementation

Second Edition



THANK YOU  
FOR NOT USING *random()*

Colas Schretter

[colas.schretter@gmail.com](mailto:colas.schretter@gmail.com)

<http://homepages.ulb.ac.be/~cschrett/>