Keywords: Batching, Texture-array Processing, Real-time Rendering.

Abstract: High-quality rendering of 3D virtual environments typically depends on high-quality 3D models with significant geometric complexity and texture data. One major bottleneck for real-time image-synthesis represents the number of state changes, which a specific rendering API has to perform. To improve performance, batching can be used to group and sort geometric primitives into batches to reduce the number of required state changes, whereas the size of the batches determines the number of required draw-calls, and therefore, is critical for rendering performance. For example, in the case of texture atlases, which provide an approach for efficient texture management, the batch size is limited by the efficiency of the texture-packing algorithm and the texture resolution itself. This paper presents a pre-processing approach and rendering technique that overcomes these limitations by further grouping textures or texture atlases and thus enables the creation of larger geometry batches. It is based on texture arrays in combination with an additional indexing schema that is evaluated at run-time using shader programs. This type of texture management is especially suitable for real-time rendering of large-scale texture-rich 3D virtual environments, such as virtual city and landscape models.

1 INTRODUCTION

Complex virtual environments, especially 3D geovirtual environments, such as virtual 3D city and landscape models, can often be characterized by a high number of geometric primitives and a high amount of texture data (Fig. 2). The increasing (semi-)automatic generation of such models does not reflect their efficient real-time rendering that is influenced by a number of limitations.

Texture Batching and Atlases. An important performance limiting factor are API (Application Programming Interface) draw-calls that issues streams of commands from the application, via driver to the GPU (Graphics Processing Unit) during rendering. To reduce the number of draw-calls required, the concept of batching can be used. Batching denotes the grouping of meshes instead of drawing each separately. In particular, this is efficient for large batch sizes. The grouping can be performed with respect to different criteria, e.g., textures or shader programs that are shared by meshes. In the context of this paper, a batch represents a group of rendering primitives that share the same textures.

To reduce texture state-changes and batch counts, Wloka (Wloka, 2005) introduces a concept that uses texture atlases for selecting and packing multiple batch-breaking textures and packs them into one or more texture atlases. Afterwards, the texture coordinates (UV mapping or parametrization) of the models are updated respectively. The field of texture atlas generation has been well exploited in the recent years. The developed algorithms work on piecewise linear surface representations (Velho and Sossai Jr., 2007), parametric surfaces such as NURBS (Guthe
and Klein, 2003), as well as point-sets (Degener and Klein, 2007).

Causes of Batch Size Limitations. As GPUs become faster and more flexible to program, it is important to facilitate the grouping of geometry into large batches. This results into fewer draw calls and reduced state changes; allowing the GPU to achieve higher performance. Thus, the main goal is to increase the batch size and, thus, enabling optimal batch sizes for specific target platforms. Considering textures, especially texture atlases, the batch size, i.e., the number of rendering primitives within a batch, is limited by the following two conditions that reflects a space/quality trade-off: (1) the segmentation algorithm for a texture atlas defines how many primitives of the input model are covered by a texture atlas and therefore form a batch; and (2) even with optimal segmentation algorithms or texture atlases that are created by artists, the number of primitives of an associated batch is limited by the maximal available texture resolution.

Batching using Texture-arrays. Batching for performance improvement is not a new idea. The proposed texture-array batching (TAB) approach is based on texture arrays, a generalization of the cube map and 3D texture concept. The basic principle of texture arrays is to minimize batch counts by packing as many materials as possible into a texture array and render as much of the scene’s geometric primitive without the occurrence of texture state-changes. Texture arrays can further be used for multi-texturing effects for 3D digital terrain models (Dudash, 2007): in this approach, the indexing into the layers of a texture array is hard-coded into the respective shader programs and thus prevents its general application. Recent developments in rendering hardware and its unified programming can be used to overcome the above limitations by managing texture data and geometry batches using an alternative texture representation and indexing scheme suitable for programmable GPUs. The presented approach organizes 2D textures or texture atlases using arrays that are efficiently represented on the GPU using 3D textures or 2D texture arrays. Therefore, it aggregates textures of the same format and resolution into a single texture array. This approach has a number of advantages:

State-change Reduction. It enables the application of the complete texturing setup before rendering all geometry batches. This reduces the number of texture state-changes significantly.

No Batch-size Constraints. The estimation and implementation of so-called batch budgets is an important strategy for applications to ensure real-time rendering capabilities. Often, these budgets are planned in the conceptual phase of the application design.

Texture Sharing. This is important for hardware-accelerated geometry instancing. For example, the diffuse and normal component are global for a set of columns in a temple model but only the pre-computed light map (Ray et al., 2003) may change for each instance.

This approach is especially suitable for 3D scenes comprising a large number of textures of similar resolution and format. To summarize, this paper presents the following contributions to the challenges described in the above section: (1) it presents a pre-processing approach and rendering technique for performing geometry batching using 2D texture arrays which enable the usage of larger batch sizes; (2) it supports a detailed description of a fully hardware-accelerated implementation and rendering using OpenGL and the OpenGL Shading Language; and (3) it compares the improvement of rendering performance over texture atlases only by means of virtual 3D city models.
The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews existing techniques for texturing and geometry batching. Section 3 introduces the concept of texture-atlas packing to improve batch sizes. Section 4 presents details for integration, implementation, and rendering packed texture atlases. Section 5 discusses the results of our performance evaluation, the conceptual limitations as well as problems, and gives ideas for future work. Finally, Section 6 concludes this paper.

2 RELATED WORK

There are different related research projects in the field of terrain and geovisualization that cover the rendering of large-scale static and dynamic textures using virtualization as well as out-of-core techniques and frameworks. However, only few of them focus on the main application or respect modern GPU capability for simple implementation and integration into existing rendering frameworks.

For terrain visualization, multi-resolution models for terrain textures can be applied (Döllner and Baumann, 2000). The rendering algorithm simultaneously traverses a multi-resolution geometry model and a multi-resolution texture model, and takes geometric and texture approximation errors into account. In contrast to our approach, it uses multi-pass rendering and exploits multi-texturing to achieve real-time performance. This approach can be extended for managing multi-resolution textures in multiple caching levels exhibiting frame-to-frame coherency (Hua et al., 2004; Okamoto et al., 2008).

With respect to virtual 3D city models, the problem of large numbers of texture switches and limited graphics memory was addressed in (Buchholz and Döllner, 2005). They present a level-of-detail texturing technique that is based on a hierarchical data structure of all textures used by scene objects and is created in a preprocessing step. At runtime, it requires only a small set of these texture atlases that represent scene textures in an appropriate size depending on the current camera position and screen resolution.

In (Boubekeur and Schlick, 2006) an interactive out-of-core texturing approach is presented that enables interactive modification of large textures using point-sampled textures at various scales, without requiring additional parametrizations. Therefore, an adaptive in-core point-based approximated geometry is required that uses an out-of-core point-sampling algorithm. This approximation is used for interactive and multi-scale point-based texturing in combination feature-preserving kernel to convert the point-based model into a global 3D texture.

Based on previous approaches, sparse virtual texturing (Mittring and Crytek, 2008) simulates large textures efficiently using less texture memory than these would actually require. On a per-frame bases, it uploads only required texture data to video memory. A fragment shader is used to perform the mapping from the virtual large texture coordinates to the actual physical texture coordinates using an indirection texture. This technique can also be applied to texturing for large quantities of smaller textures (texture atlases).

Taibo et al. present an approach for high resolution, real-time texturing from dynamic texture data sources (Taibo et al., 2009). An out-of-core texture visualization uses per-fragment texture LOD computation, is independent from the geometry engine, and thus can be integrated into existing terrain geometry engines. Feldmann et al. extend the concept of geometry independent texture clipmaps (Tanner et al., 1998) to handle dynamic texture data (Feldmann et al., 2011). Their approach incrementally generates a clipmap from a large virtual texture of dynamically changing content and extent, using of a tile-based clip-map approach and spatial indexing data structure for access.

3 TEXTURE-ARRAY BATCHING

Figure 3 shows an overview to our concept and its components. It basically consists mainly of three stages: a preprocessing step (A) generates an input data structure for our batching algorithm from a number of given data sets. It extracts texture meshes and sorts the textures used for these meshes. It further converts all input meshes into a common format, i.e., a common vertex attribute configuration, to facilitate merging into new batches. Subsequently, the actual batching process (B) creates new batches of geometry and texture data. It therefore creates a mapping between newly created geometry batches and their associated textures, grouped by texture arrays. Finally, during the rendering step (C), the mapping, which is basically an additional indirection during the texture mapping process, is evaluated at run-time using shader programs.

Preparation of Input Data. The creation of texture arrays and geometry batches can be performed in a pre-processing step based on a texture hierarchy. A texture hierarchy is a data structure that can be derived both from scene graph or manager-based rendering systems. In a scene-graph based rendering system, one can assume an implicit texture hierarchy is

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Batching Algorithm. Based on the sorted input data \( B_I \), our batching algorithm (Alg. 1) performs re-grouping of rendering primitives with respect to the following three parameters, which can be used to adapt the output to the hardware constraints of different target platforms: (1) the output batch size can be limited by \( b_{\text{max}} \) primitives. This is useful to adapt the output sizes of vertex buffer objects to apply techniques such as vertex caching (Hoppe, 1999) or to prevent memory allocation errors during rendering; (2) choosing the texture array depth \( d_{\text{max}} \) controls the number of textures within a texture array. A small value increases the number of output-batches, thus, the number of draw-calls; and (3) to reflect the simultaneously accessible texture units provided by the rendering hardware, \( a_{\text{max}} \) can be set accordingly to limit the maximal number of texture-array per output-batch.

Algorithm 1: Texture-Array Batching.

Require: \( d_{\text{max}} > 0 \land b_{\text{max}} > 3 \land a_{\text{max}} > 0 \)

\[ b \leftarrow 0 \] (set batch size to zero)

for all \( B_i \in B_I \) do

\( B_{\text{current}} \leftarrow \text{newBatch()} \)

for all \( I \in B_i \) do

5: \( TA \leftarrow \text{matchTextureArray}(T A, T) \)

if layers(TA) > \( d_{\text{max}} \) then

\( TA \leftarrow \text{createNewTextureArray}(T) \)

add(TA, TA)

end if

10: \( l \leftarrow \text{addTexture}(T A, T) \) \{ Add to array \}

\( \text{TAE} \leftarrow (T A, l) \) \{ Create texture-array entry \}

\( \text{t}_T A E \leftarrow \text{add}(\text{TAM}, \text{TAE}) \)

update(B, \text{TAE})

if size(TA) > \( a_{\text{max}} \) then

15: \( B_{\Omega} \leftarrow (B_{\text{current}}, T A, \text{TAM}) \)

add(b, \( B_{\Omega} \))

end if

end for

if \( b + \text{size}(M) > b_{\text{max}} \) then

20: \( B_{\Omega} \leftarrow (B_{\text{current}}, T A, \text{TAM}) \)

add(b, \( B_{\Omega} \))

\( B_{\text{current}} \leftarrow \text{newBatch()} \)

end if

25: \( B_{\text{current}} \leftarrow \text{merge}(M, B_{\text{current}}) \)

\( b \leftarrow b + \text{size}(M) \) \{ Update batch size \}

end for
For the above parameters a number of output batches \( B_0 = B_0, \ldots, B_{o_k} \) are created with \( B_0 = \{ G_i \}, \mathcal{T}A, \mathcal{TAM} \). An output batch \( B_0 \) comprises the following components: (1) for \( n \) given input batches, the batching process creates a number \( m \) of geometry batches \( G_0, \ldots, G_m \) with \( m \leq n \); (2) the original textures are stored into different texture arrays \( \mathcal{T}A = \mathcal{T}A_0, \ldots, \mathcal{T}A_k \) where \( k \leq a_{\text{max}} \). Each array contains textures of the same resolution. The texture arrays can have different resolutions; and (3) the algorithm outputs a texture-array mapping \( \mathcal{TAM} \) that basically represents an indirection and is defined as follows: \( \mathcal{TAM} = \mathcal{TAE}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{TAE}_m \) with \( \mathcal{TAE}_i = (\mathcal{T}A_i, \ell_i) \), which is an ordered list of texture-array entries \( \mathcal{TAE}_i \) that is generated for each input mesh \( M_i \). A texture-array entry is a tuple that stores a reference to a texture array \( \mathcal{T}A_i \in \mathcal{T}A \) and the layer/slice \( \ell_i \) within this array (Fig. 4).

The presented algorithm iterates over all given input batches \( B_i \) and constructs texture-arrays by matching existing textures to texture arrays (Line 5). The matchTextureArray() function selects a texture array with the appropriate texture resolution and texture format. If this criteria cannot be matched, a new texture-array is created.

4 RENDERING BATCHES

After the presentation of the texture-array batching concept and algorithm, this section focuses on rendering the output batches \( B_0 \) (Sec. 4.1). Our prototypical implementation uses OpenGL with the support of shader programs and is applicable within a single rendering pass. Therefore, it is necessary to encode the texture arrays \( \mathcal{T}A \) and the texture-array mappings \( \mathcal{TAM} \) into suitable GPU data structures (Sec. 4.2).

4.1 Overview of Rendering Algorithm

Based on above representations, the rendering is performed as depicted in Algorithm 2. In contrast to existing approaches, our rendering technique binds all texture arrays \( \mathcal{T}A \) at the start of the rendering pass (Line 2-4). Following to that, the texture-array mapping \( \mathcal{TAM} \) is bound (Line 5). After these state changes are performed, the algorithm renders all geometry batches \( G_i \) successively (Line 7-9).

4.2 GPU Data Structures

This section describes the data structures used to enable a fully hardware-accelerated implementation with a minimal number of texture state-changes. Figure 4 gives an overview of the components as well as the respective dependencies.

Text-array Representation. One choice for representing 2D texture stacks on the GPU are 3D textures, whereas an input texture \( T_i \) is stored in a particular z-slice. The advantage of this approach is the compliance with older rendering hardware. To avoid interpolation artifacts between the texture slices, one has to offset the \( r \) component of the 3D texture coordinates. To avoid offsetting, 2D texture arrays are used for representation. A 2D texture array is similar to a 3D texture without the bi-linear interpolation between and with direct access to the z-slices using an integer layer-index \( l \). Texture arrays can store a number of 2D texture layers addressed by a single texture handle. These textures can be updated on a per-layer basis.

Representation of Texture-array Mappings. A texture-array mapping \( \mathcal{TAM} \) is basically represented as an array of texture-array entries \( \mathcal{TAE}_e \) that must be accessible by a shader program at runtime. Since the number of texture-array mapping entries depends on the number of input meshes \( M_i \) and the used texture units \( t \), their encoding into compile-time shader constants (uniform arrays) would easily exceed the register limits of rendering hardware. The presented implementation uses texture buffer objects to encode the texture array mapping without limitations in length and size. The encoding is performed on CPU. The texture array entries \( \mathcal{TAE}_e \) are stored successively within a single texture buffer that is accessed via indexing during shader execution (Listing 1, Line 9).

Representation of Index-mapping. Since the original batches \( M_i \) are merged to new batches \( G_i \), the index \( i_{\mathcal{TAM}} \) into the mapping \( \mathcal{TAM} \) must be available on a per-vertex and per-texture unit basis. The mapping representation has to take into account that the

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**Algorithm 2: Rendering of Texture-Array Batches.**

```plaintext
for all \( B_0 \in B_0 \) do
  for all \( \mathcal{T}A \in \mathcal{T}A \) do
    bind(\( \mathcal{T}A \)) \{ Texture State-Change \}
  end for
  bind(\( \mathcal{TAM} \))
end for
for all \( G_i \in B_0 \) do
  render(\( G_i \)) \{ Draw-Call \}
end for
```

243
texture coordinates of an input mesh $M_i$ are generated at run-time (Case A) or already available due to a prior UV-mapping (Case B). Considering this, there are mainly two different possibilities to represent the index $i_{TAM}$: (1) representing the indices for each texture unit as per-vertex attribute is an effective solution for Case A and B. However, this has a major disadvantage: It introduces a number of additional vertex buffers as well as the respective stream mappings to the implementation; alternatively (2) assuming an existing UV mapping for all input meshes, we can apply the implementation; the respective stream mappings to the implementation; alternatively (2) assuming an existing UV mapping for all input meshes, we can apply

To avoid an additional buffer stream mapping and to simplify the implementation, we choose to store the existing UV mapping for all input meshes, we can apply only a relatively small memory overhead (Sec. 5.1).

### 4.3 Sampling of Texture Arrays

After the discussion of the efficient representation of texture arrays and array mapping on the GPU, we now present the evaluation of the texture-array mapping $TAM$ at runtime (Fig. 4). Listing 1 shows an exemplary OpenGL shading language (GLSL) source code for sampling a number of texture arrays $TA$. Assuming an unified shader model compliant hardware, it can be used in vertex, geometry, or fragment shader.

The sampling process is performed as follows: The shader first extracts the indexTAM into the texture-array mapping (TAM), which is represented by a texture buffer object. Using this index, the respective texture array entry (TAE) is fetched, which consists of the reference in the texture array $TA_k$ (arrayID) and the particular layer index $l_k$ (layerID). To enable an efficient access to the texture arrays via their respective samplers, bound to different texture units, we use an array of sampler that is indexed by the TA component of the array mapping entry, e.g., using bindless textures. Finally, the texture value is fetched from the indexed texture array using the layer index $l_k$ and original 2D texture coordinates $(s,t)$. The number of textures (#Texture), as well as the average batch size of the input meshes ($b_{average}(B_i)$) and output meshes ($b_{average}(R_i)$), the texture atlases (ambient occlusion light maps) of the test scenes are the results of an automatic computation process (Mcgraw and Sowers, 2008).

#### Test Environment.

We use two test platforms to conduct the performance tests: a NVIDIA GeForce GTX 680 with 640 MB video memory on an Athlon 64 X2 Dual Core 4200+ with 2.21 GHz and 2 GB of main memory (test platform 1), as well as a NVIDIA GeForce GTX 970 on an Intel Core Duo E 8400, with 3GHz and 3.25 GB main memory and 1GB video memory (test platform 2). The performance tests are captured at a viewport resolution of 1600 × 1200 pixels without vertical synchronization and multi-sampling. The 32bit Windows XP test application does not utilize the second CPU core. All textures are uncompressed and all input meshes are not indexed. In our examples, we use luminance-alpha texture buffers with 32bit precision to represent the texture-array mappings. The indices are encoded in the respective texture coordinates.

#### Performance Results.

Table 2 provides the results of the performance comparison. Except the test data set A, which comprises two geometry batches, our approach enables the storage of all input meshes within a single geometry batch. The measurements show an average speed-up of 11.1 for test platform 1 and an average speed-up of 2.8 for test platform 2. This is caused by the different CPU speeds of the test-platforms. However, the non-batched version of test scene A could not be rendered in real-time on both platforms, so the impact on the speed-up factors was
not taken into account. Following to the comparison, our approach is especially suitable for a high number of textures that bound small geometry batches respectively.

Table 2: Performance comparison of the rendering speed in frames-per-second (FPS) between batched (w) and non-batched (w/o) scene representations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scene</th>
<th>FPS</th>
<th>w/o TAB</th>
<th>w TAB</th>
<th>FPS</th>
<th>w/o TAB</th>
<th>w TAB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>98.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>188.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>156.2</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>319.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>427.4</td>
<td>203.7</td>
<td>561.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Memory Requirements. The additional memory required for the texture-array mapping depends linearly on the number of input meshes \( M_i \) and their texture units \( \text{units}(M_i) \). The space complexity \( O_{T \& A M} \) for all generated array mappings can be computed by:

\[
O_{T \& A M}(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} p \cdot \text{units}(M_i) \quad \text{with} \quad M_i \in B_i.
\]

The value of the coefficient \( p \) depends on the additional texture coordinate to index a TAE, as well as the used precision for the texture-array mapping values \( T \& \) and \( l_e \). The space complexity for each of the test data sets is displayed in column six in Table 1.

### 5.2 Limitations & Future Work

The presented concept is not of a general nature. It mainly profits from uniform texture resolutions and formats. Under these assumptions, which are usually the case in most gaming applications, the approach can be used to accelerate rendering as described in the above sections. However, the concept has a number of limitations that prevent its broader application. For a high number of input meshes with varying texture resolutions and formats, the number of texture arrays increases and may exceed the number of available hardware texture bindings offered by bindless texturing functionality. Further, our approach currently supports only 2D texture targets but can easily be extended.

For future work, we would like to extend our approach to support view-dependent multi-resolution texture atlases (Buchholz and Döllner, 2005). Therefore, the array mapping must be extended to support transformation matrices for the respective texture coordinates. Further, we like to add repeat or mirror warp modes for texture coordinates and atlases to enable our approach to render generic textured or procedurally generated 3D virtual city models. Furthermore, we strive towards the support of 1D and 3D volumetric textures. In the latter case, the array mapping can be extended with a start- and end-layer ID. In contrast to 2D textures, the texture array mapping may need resorting of the texture array contents, which can result in heavy computational overhead at run-time.

### 6 CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents an approach for batching geometry based on texture arrays. It facilitates a flexible partitioning of geometry, i.e., the choice of geometry batch size, which is now only limited by the available video memory, as well as the reduction of texture state-changes during rendering. The proposed implementation shows a significant increase in rendering speed due to an optimal utilization of the GPU that is documented in a performance evaluation and comparison.

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