Data Parallel Path Tracing with Object Hierarchies

INGO WALD, NVIDIA, USA
STEVEN G PARKER, NVIDIA, USA

(Hardware: 4 worker nodes w/ 2x RTX 8000, low-end head node, 10-Gigabit Ethernet, screen size 2560 × 1080)

PBRT landscape
- 30 K instances, 4.3 B instanced triangles
- 370 unique meshes, 500 MB image textures
- GPU memory usage on most loaded rank: 3.7 GB
- frame rate (averaged): 6.2 FPS (1 path/pixel)

Disney Moana island
- 39 M instances, 41 B instanced triangles
- 7 M unique meshes, 804 MB baked-PTex textures
- GPU memory usage on most loaded rank: 25 GB
- frame rate (averaged): 7.9 FPS (1 path/pixel)

Fig. 1. Two screenshots from a data-parallel path tracer built using the techniques described in this paper; showing multi-bounce path tracing, textures, alpha textures, area- and environment lighting, etc., on two non-trivial models each distributed across 4 nodes and 8 GPUs. Despite intentionally low-end network infrastructure, at 2560 × 1080 pixels and one path per pixel these two examples run at 6.2 and 7.9 frames per second, respectively (images shown are converged over multiple frames).

We propose a new approach to rendering production-style content with full path tracing in a data-distributed fashion—that is, with multiple collaborating nodes and/or GPUs that each store only part of the model. In particular, we propose a new approach to ray-forwarding based data-parallel ray tracing that improves over traditional spatial partitioning, that can support both object-hierarchy and spatial partitioning (or any combination thereof), and that employs multiple techniques for reducing the number of rays sent across the network. We show that this approach can simultaneously achieve higher flexibility in model partitioning, lower memory per node, lower bandwidth during rendering, and higher performance; and that it can ultimately achieve interactive rendering performance for non-trivial models with full path tracing even on quite moderate hardware resources with relatively low-end interconnect.

CCS Concepts: • Computing methodologies → Rendering; Distributed algorithms.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Ray Tracing, Path Tracing, Data Parallel Rendering, Ray Forwarding

ACM Reference Format:

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than the author(s) must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

© 2022 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). Publication rights licensed to ACM.
2577-6193/2022/7-ART $15.00
https://doi.org/10.1145/3543861
1 INTRODUCTION

Data-parallel (or data-distributed) rendering is the process of rendering a model whose constituent components are distributed across the memories of multiple different compute units such as HPC compute nodes or GPUs (which, following MPI parlance, we will often call ranks). This is typically done for one of two reasons: one is that a given model is too large to fit into the memory of a single node, and the user chooses to distribute it across several different nodes (we call this explicit distribution); the second is that for some reason or other the model’s data is already spread across different nodes, and cannot easily be merged for rendering (i.e., it is natively distributed). Data-parallel rendering did attract some attention in the past, but in practice today it is almost entirely confined to scientific visualization (sci-vis), and even there is almost only performed with image compositing-based approaches that are incompatible with effects like path tracing. For the kind of images shown in Figure 1, data parallel rendering today is virtually non-existent. The list of possible explanations for that is long, and a full discussion beyond the scope of this paper. However, we argue that these reasons can be sorted into either one of two groups: one that argues that there is neither need nor demand for data-parallel rendering in production rendering; and one that argues that it is too hard.

For the first one, we argue that data is increasingly moving into the cloud (where parallel resources are easily available), and that content is continuing to grow at a rate that far surpasses the rate at which GPU or even host memories are growing. The second is more interesting, as the data parallel rendering techniques we use in sci-vis today may indeed not be ideally suited for this context: First, sci-vis rendering largely relies on image compositing, but for path tracing we certainly can not. Path tracing requires the frequent forwarding of either rays or data between nodes; and that is expensive. Second, the content used in production rendering is very different than that encountered in visualization, including spatially large yet hard to split instances or meshes with shading data, abundant spatial overlap, etc. As we show below this content does not always do well with spatial subdivision, yet this is what virtually all data-parallel rendering today is built on.

In this paper, we take a closer look at data-parallel path tracing for production style content. In particular, we borrow some of the last few years’ insights on ray tracing acceleration structures, and use that to propose several new techniques that go beyond strictly spatial scene subdivisions. We do this through a combination of two things: First, we describe distributed content through what we call proxies—bounding boxes that describe which parts of the model can be found on which rank(s), and which are allowed to arbitrarily overlap any other proxies. Second, we propose a distributed ray forwarding operator that—using those proxies—enables each ray to easily determine which node/GPU it should next be forwarded to, and that works for both object-hierarchy and spatial partitioning. We describe several techniques that make this efficient, and demonstrate this using a prototype data parallel path tracer built using these techniques (Figure 1).

2 RELATED WORK

Parallel rendering refers to a family of methods where multiple nodes and/or GPUs work together to render one model; data-parallel rendering to where every node has only part of the model. Throughout this paper we adopt the parlance of the Message Passing Interface (MPI) [Gropp et al. 1999; Walker and Dongarra 1996], referring to ranks in groups that can communicate with each other through the passing of messages. MPI can also run multiple ranks on the same node, but we will typically use one rank per GPU.

Today, data parallel rendering is almost entirely confined to scientific visualization, with packages like ParaView [Ahrens et al. 2005] and VisIt [Childs et al. 2012] handling the data distribution, and communication-optimized libraries such as Ice-T [Moreland 2011] handling the compositing. This
is used for both volumetric and polygonal data, but is generally restricted to simple shading where alpha- or Z-compositing can be used. Sci-vis also uses path tracing, but in this case usually relies on data replicated rendering.

In a ray tracing context, parallel rendering is easiest to realize when using replicated rendering, where every rank has access to the entire scene [Wald et al. 2020; Xie et al. 2021]—which obviously works only if every rank (or GPU, in the context of GPU-accelerated rendering) has enough memory to store that scene. Approaches to dealing with models larger than available memory can be classified into three categories: out of core ray tracing, where data is paged in on demand, usually including some form of batching, sorting, scheduling, and caching [Pharr et al. 1997; Burley et al. 2018]; data forwarding, where data is sent to / fetched by whatever node needs it [Wald et al. 2001; DeMarle et al. 2004; Ize et al. 2011; Jaros et al. 2021]; and ray forwarding where rays get scheduled on, and sent to, other node(s) [Salmon and Goldsmith 1989; Reinhard 1995; Kato and Saito 2002; Park et al. 2018; Abram et al. 2018].

An interesting exception to this classification is the concept of hardware-assisted distributed shared memory as recently used by Jaros et al.’s [2021], in their case using CUDA unified memory and NVLink on an NVidia DGX: on the hardware level this uses data fetching over high-bandwidth NVLink, with unified memory giving the appearance of a single replicated address space; on the software side, the authors show that best performance is achieved if the application is aware of which data lives on which physical GPU, and ideally even replicates some of that data.

Looking at the literature on data parallel ray tracing we make two observation: First, that the ray forwarding approach has received but scant attention: some early work has looked at the scheduling part of the problem (see, e.g., [Reinhard 1995] for an overview), but at the time of writing this paper we could only find three recent approaches that forwarded rays: The Kilauea renderer [Kato and Saito 2002] (which forwarded every ray to every node), Park’s SpRay system [2018] (which focuses on scheduling and speculative execution), and TACC’s Galaxy [Abram et al. 2018] (which uses techniques similar to those in SpRay). More recently (and in parallel to this paper) a forwarding based approach has also been Proposed by Fouladi et al. [Fouladi et al. 2022], which targets data-parallel path tracing of large models on many small cloud instances—though without considering either instances or GPUs, and only in an offline context.

A second observation is that across all the different approaches to data parallel rendering taken over the last four decades researchers seem to have taken it for granted that data would necessarily get spatially partitioned using various forms of grids, octrees, kd-trees, etc. The latter is particularly striking given the last decade’s lively discussion around spatial vs object hierarchies in ray tracing. In this field, the community has largely switched from spatial techniques to object hierarchy-based techniques like BVHes [Parker et al. 2010; Wald et al. 2014; Burgess 2020]. These BVHes are often built using spatially influenced techniques like top-down partitioning and the Surface Area Heuristic (SAH) [Karras and Aila 2013], and do best when augmented with optimizations like spatial splits [Stich et al. 2009; Ganestam and Doggett 2016; Ernst and Greiner 2007] and braiding [Benthin et al. 2017]—but they are nevertheless object-space techniques. Since we cannot cover all these techniques in detail in this paper, we also refer the reader to an excellent recent survey on the user of BVHes in ray tracing, by Meister et al. [Meister et al. 2021].

Issues with spatial partitioning (in particular in the context of content with instances and/or attached shading data) have also been pointed out by Zellmann et al. [2020]. Their paper proposed techniques that produce better spatial partitions for heavily instances scenes—but never went beyond spatial partitioning, nor did it look at the kind of algorithms that rendering such non-spatial partitioning would require.
3 DATA PARALLEL RAY TRAVERSAL

In this section, we give a high-level overview of the general concepts and techniques for what we call data-parallel ray traversal in object space. The core idea is to combine two things: first, a more general representation of data-distributed scene content where different pieces of content across different nodes are allowed to spatially overlap other such content, both on the same and/or other nodes; or even to be replicated across multiple nodes if and where desired. Second, the concept of what we call a data-distributed forwarding operator that, in the presence of such object-space distributed content can always tell which other node a given ray needs to be forwarded to next, in a guaranteed correct yet efficient manner that explicitly aims to minimize the number of times that such forwarding needs to happen.

3.1 Goals, Non-Goals, and Key Issues

Our goal is to render—with full path tracing—models that are larger than the memory of any one of our ranks (and in general, larger than the host memory of the nodes that contain these GPUs). We explicitly target assets similar to the island model that—at least with a good partitioner—may today need only on the order of four or eight GPUs; not the “at scale” type visualizations of up to thousands of nodes that are so common in visualization. While we do believe our method will also work in larger scenarios these are not currently our focus; nor is the concept of strong vs weak scaling that is so important in sci-vis. We also observe that such content is very different from that encountered in sci-vis. For example, spatial overlap of different logical objects and instances for our content is quite common.

While we do aim for interactive performance, we do not (yet) aim for fully real-time photo-realistic rendering. We do believe our method to be a first step towards this goal, but this will ultimately require more systems work than entertained in this paper. We expect network bandwidth to be the ultimate bottleneck, but we still need to perform a fair amount of shading and texturing. Thus, though our framework can also be recompiled to a CPU-only back-end using Embree [Wald et al. 2014] for this paper we only consider GPUs.

With the growing gap between compute and bandwidth our main concern is to reduce the amount of network bandwidth required for a given frame. This can lead to un-intuitive situations: in data replicated rendering one can expect that adding more resources will improve performance, but in a data-parallel context the opposite is often the case—adding more ranks also increases the chance that rays need to get forwarded, which is counter-productive.

3.2 Core Idea

With these goals in mind, let us take a look at how state of the art data-parallel ray tracing would work for the kind of content we are targeting: Let us consider a simplified example of a 2D island model shown in Figure 2a: a model made of two base meshes, with two types of trees that each have several instances.

Let us now first consider the state of the art, and let us create an imaginary spatial partitioning of this model into three disjoint regions (Figure 2b): no matter where the splits are placed, almost every spatial domain will be overlapped by almost every base mesh, and will contain at least one copy of each type of tree. The number of instances in each region has decreased, but memory per node barely has. Let us now also look at two hypothetical rays as shown in Figure 2b: traversing these across spatial domains is obvious and trivial, but each of them touches two ranks, despite not even being close to any of the geometry in the first or last rank (this only gets worse in 3D).

Let us now consider that same model with a purely object-space partitioning, and simply assign the first mesh to one rank, the second to another, and all instances of all trees to the third (Figure 2c).
Replication is now gone completely, but overlapping boxes mean that rays are now touching even more ranks’ data; and traversal order is no longer obvious. Now let us take this general idea, but apply some ideas from the last decade’s discussion on BVHes vs kd-trees; in particular, concepts such as *spatial splits* [Stich et al. 2009; Ganestam and Doggett 2016] and *braiding* [Benthin et al. 2017] to reach “into” large instances, and instead represent them with several individual, tight-fitting bounding boxes. If we do this (Figure 2d) an ideal algorithm could now—if it existed—trace both of these rays on the same rank, without any ray forwards at all.

![Figure 2](image-url)

Fig. 2. The core ideas behind our method, illustrated on a 2D sketch of a model very like the *island* model. a) Our model consists of two base meshes (A and B), and three respectively four instances of two types of tree (C and D). b) spatial partitioning on this model runs into two issues: it struggles to properly partition it with spatial splits, and it can end up with large boxes that incur ray forwarding between ranks. c) Object space partitioning allow for non-spatial scene partitions, but if done naïvely ends up with even worse ray traffic. d) we represent objects by more than one—possibly overlapping, but tight-fitting—“proxies”: these are more flexible and general than either spatial or object space techniques, and also require less forwarding.

### 3.3 Proxies and Data-Distributed Traversal

Our initial plan to realize the ideas sketched in the previous section was to assign each instance to exactly one rank, to create exactly one proxy per instance, and to have each rank build exactly the same BVH over those proxies. This suggests an obvious BVH-style traversal through those proxies, sending rays to the nodes that owned the proxies they traversed. To have the next node continue traversal where the previous one left off we had planned on using a stack-free BVH traversal such as described by Hapala [2011] or Vaidyanathan [Vaidyanathan et al. 2019]. This is indeed a useful mental picture of how our method works; however, we can significantly improve upon this as described in the rest of this section.

#### 3.3.1 Traversing nodes, not instances.

Once a ray hitting a given proxy is sent to the node owning that proxy there is no reason to limit intersection to that one instance that generated that proxy. Local geometry intersection is inexpensive compared to sending a ray over the network, so we should always intersect all geometry on that node. We want to ensure that rays are never sent to
the same node twice, no matter which proxies it encounters. This requires tracking the nodes that a ray has already visited; we present two options for that below.

3.3.2 Front to back traversal. A stack-free BVH-style traversal of the proxies sounds easy, but in a distributed context it isn’t, as even minute differences in the ranks’ BVHes can lead to issues\(^1\); nor would it guarantee front-to-back traversal. If, however, rays keep track of which nodes they have already visited, then we can do something that is even simpler: we simply trace the ray into those proxies, and find the closest proxy that belongs to a node that we have not yet traversed.

3.3.3 Intersect local geometry first. For a newly spawned secondary ray, front-to-back traversal does not guarantee that the spawning rank will get picked first; yet that ray would certainly later get sent to that node. We always first trace each ray on the rank that generated that ray, then tag it as having already visited this rank. In particular for shadow rays there is a good chance that this these can find an occluder on that same node, and never have to leave that rank at all.

3.3.4 Generalized proxies. Creating exactly one proxy per instance can lead to very large proxies for some objects, which in turn would require many rays to be sent to that node. We observe that this is very similar to problems that have recently been investigated for BVH traversals, and in particular point to techniques like spatial splits and braiding. Both of these work by representing spatially large objects in a BVH through more than one box, with the entirety of these boxes covering the object more tightly than one single box. We use this to conservatively, but tightly, represent spatially large instances with multiple smaller boxes (see Figure 2d). This allows rays to pass around some geometry whose proxies they would otherwise have hit. Rays can now encounter multiple proxies of the same object, but the previous paragraphs’ techniques skip these, so this is OK. Ultimately this means that proxies no longer represent any particular instance, but just a region of space that a given node has content for. I.e., we can have one proxy represent more than one instance, or use multiple proxies for the same instance, etc. We observe that this use of proxies to represent different (and possibly overlapping) parts of the model is similar to the way that in the times of triangle rasterization some techniques represented scene content for efficient occlusion culling (see, e.g., the paper by Mattausch et al [Mattausch et al. 2008]).

3.3.5 Replicating certain geometry. Just like proxies are not tied to any particular instance, we can generalize the concept of who owns the content behind one proxy. Though we did initially assign exactly one rank to every instance, for some spatially large (and thus, likely to get traversed) yet not memory intensive object(s) we might also want to replicate this object to more than one node, such that rays already on that node would have it available without needing to travel to the node owning it. With our proxies, we can easily do that, by allowing proxies to specify that whatever it may represent, it can be found on more than one node. The traversal logic above does not change at all: trace a ray to find the next proxy and reject all proxies for which the ray has been to any of the nodes listed in that proxy.

3.3.6 Proxy-guided primary ray generation. Above we have described that secondary rays should always be traced on the node that spawned them, but for primary rays we can actually choose where to spawn them. In particular, we can use our proxies to generate each path on exactly the node that owns the closest proxy for the given pixel, thus maximizing the chance that this ray will find its first intersection on exactly the node it was generated on.

\(^1\)Stack-free traversal techniques assume that any attempt to "resume" a ray would operate on exactly the same BVH on both nodes, including exactly the same ordering of all nodes—but if these ranks each use any sort of parallel builder—where node order may depend on the order that threads pick work—this may not be the case.
3.3.7 Tracking which nodes a ray has already been on. In all of the previous techniques we have made the implicit assumption that a ray always known which node(s) it has already been on. For not too large a number of ranks this can be realized through a bit mask (with one bit per rank) that gets attached to each ray. For a large number of ranks this would lead to an explosion in ray size; however, this can be avoided by what we call the “replay” technique: if each ray only ever stores which rank it was generated on, then any node can later re-compute the actual set of visited nodes by simply re-running the above logic until it reaches itself.

In combination, these technique provide a very effective operator that—using only the proxies, the ray, and the ray’s stored history—allows any node to robustly and efficiently determine which other rank to forward that given ray to next; if this comes up empty then that ray’s distributed traversal is complete.

4 PARTITIONING

This paper is not about one particular partitioning strategy; in fact, we believe our method’s greatest strength is its ability to express and ray trace distributed content in a more general way. To demonstrate this flexibility we implemented multiple different partitioners, including both spatial, object space, and hybrid methods. All our variants work similarly in that we start by creating one part containing the whole scene, then iteratively take the respectively largest part, and split that into two. For objects with more than one instance we use the individual instances of that object, for those with only one instance we follow Zellmann [2020] and break that object into its constituent meshes (we could of course also split meshes into individual triangles, but currently do not do this).

Spatial partitioning starts with an initial domain set to the scene’s bounding box, and in each split creates two non-overlapping halves, then checks which objects overlap each half’s domain. Again following Zellmann, after each step each side’s domain gets shrunk to the content it contains, if possible. For deciding where to split we implemented two methods: spatial-simple splits each domain at its spatial median; spatial-sah uses a cost function to pick one among $3 \times 7$ equidistant candidate splits (i.e., 7 split planes in each of the three dimensions). As cost function we first compute how many unique meshes, triangles, vertices, texels, etc., each rank has, then weigh these with an estimated memory cost for each such item; the final cost of a split then is a 50:50 blend between traditional SAH and the sum of these memory estimates. As proxies we eventually use exactly those domain boxes, at which point our method can handle this data. This is, in fact, a powerful finding: the techniques we propose are not the exact opposite of spatial subdivision, but is, in fact, a generalization of how data-parallel content can be expressed and rendered: though we can do more, spatial subdivision can still be represented just as well, and some of our optimizations can even be back-ported into spatial subdivisions.

Object partitioning works on objects, not instances: all instances of an object always go to the same rank. For each object we create one box around all its instances, then use this box to sort this object left or right of any candidate plane. Again we use $3 \times 7$ planes, and our cost function to pick the best one. For computing the proxies we implemented two methods: object-naive uses the same boxes as used for partitioning; object-proxies creates one proxy for every instance, and by default 64 smaller proxies for non-instanced meshes. The latter we compute just like with braiding, by performing a number of BVH build steps on each such mesh.

Hybrid partitioning combines both techniques: we partition based on instances, not objects—so some instances can get replicated, if the cost function so chooses. Otherwise partitioning is similar to object space, using the same cost function. In bvh-style we use one box per instance respectively

---

We could of course also use more than 7 planes, but this is the default value we chose as sweet spot between partitioning time and quality.
non-instanced mesh; these boxes are then also used as proxies. In our currently best partitioner we first—before partitioning—split large objects into multiple boxes, then partition these. This means that some objects can now get assigned to more than one rank if the cost function so chooses. The partitions and proxies resulting from these strategies are shown in Figure 3. We observe that this way of choosing either spatial or object splits in the same splitter is also similar to how some BVH builders work even in a non-data parallel setting (see, e.g., [Hendrich et al. 2017; Wald et al. 2014]).

![Visual depiction of the model partitions that our sample partitioners produce for both landscape and island, with the boxes showing the used proxies’ bounding boxes, and their color encoding the rank they are on (proxies with same color are on the same rank (the reason the two images in the top right look they way they are is because with this technique produces one partition that contains the entire back half of the model, whose bounding box (green in this visualization) covers the entire viewpoint). Proxies with a checkerboard pattern mean that this content is owned on more than one rank.]

5 IMPLEMENTATION

The core contribution of this paper is not any one implementation, but the general concepts of looking beyond purely spatial partitioning, the proxies, and the specific techniques for the data-distributed traversal operating on these proxies. Nevertheless, to prove that these concepts do in fact work we also developed a data-distributed GPU path tracer that uses these concepts.

For communication we use a CUDA-aware build of OpenMPI 4.1.2, which means that we can directly pass device addresses to MPI, which then copies data as required. With better hardware this would also allow RDMA communication between GPUs and network devices, but on our low-end setup this is not the case. The renderer uses a wavefront-design, with all shading, compaction, etc., done in CUDA 11.4, and all tracing done using OptiX 7.4.

That same renderer can also be recompiled to a CPU-only version that uses Embree and TBB. The same concepts work there as well, but for our model the texturing in particular is an issue on that setup. A detailed comparison is beyond the scope of this paper.

5.1 Rays, Paths, Hits, and Ownership Masks

Our framework builds on small, self-contained path nodes that can be forwarded across the network. Each path contains a ray origin and direction, a throughput value [Boksansky and Marrs 2021], and the pixel ID to which it belongs, plus some bits to indicate whether a ray is a shadow ray, in medium, etc. To track already visited nodes we use a bit-field of either 8 or 64 bits depending on
number of ranks; for more ranks we would use the technique described in Section 3.3.7. We use half precision for ray direction and throughput, and encode all bits and pixel ID in a 32-bit integer.

For the currently closest intersection we only store the distance in $ray.t_{\text{max}}$, plus the node mask of the geometry that was hit. This means paths have to be re-traced for shading (to re-compute information like texture coordinates, differential surface, etc., from the mesh that this node now has access to); but this re-tracing is still cheaper than sending every ray’s hit information across the network. We could also have stored the node ID that produced the hit; but using a node mask is better: if the ray were to need forwarding and later terminates on another node, having the node mask of the hit allows this other rank to check if it, too, happens to have that data, thus allowing the ray to be shaded there without it having to be sent back.

Using this encoding, the path struct is a mere 36 bytes in size. We refer to that same structure as either $ray$ or a $path$ depending on context, but always mean that same struct. Paths always get generated and shaded in wavefronts; between two such shading operations each wavefront goes through a distributed traversal until every path is on the node it can be shaded on.

5.2 Distributed Path Tracing

For the forwarding logic we use an OptiX acceleration structure built over the proxies, with an intersection program that rejects all proxies whose ownership mask lists any node that the ray has already visited. If any next proxy was found, we use the proxy’s bit mask to pseudo-randomly pick one of the ranks listed in that mask. Otherwise, the ray is finished traversing, and can go to shading. In that case we check whether that ray can be shaded on the current node, and if not, pseudo-randomly pick one of the ranks listed in its hit mask.

5.2.1 Wavefront Ray Traversal. Our core operation is to take one wavefront of rays, and trace these—across nodes—until each ray has terminated traversal, and is on a node where it can be shaded. We call this the distributed ray traversal, and it proceeds in three stages: We first launch an OptiX program that traces each ray into the rank’s local geometry. This uses an anyhit program to do alpha texturing, and a closest-hit program that updates the ray’s $t_{\text{max}}$ and hit mask if a closer intersection is found. The program then updates the ray’s alreadyVisited mask, traces it into the proxy acceleration structure, and determines which rank that ray needs to be sent to next as described above. We then run a CUDA compaction kernel that rearranges all rays such that those that can be shaded locally go to one place, and those that need forwarding go to another, with the latter sorted by the rank they need to go to.

Once the rays are thus arranged all ranks collaboratively execute an MPI Allgetherv to exchange how many rays each rank wants to send to any other node, followed by an MPI All2all that moves the rays to their respective destinations. These three stages get repeated until no more rays need exchanging, at which point every rank has a wavefront of rays ready to be shaded on that rank.

5.2.2 Wavefront Shading and Secondary Ray Generation. After a wavefront has been traced to completion each rank locally shades its rays. Shadow rays that terminated traversal on the current rank check if that shadow ray did find an occluder, and if so, get discarded; those that didn’t atomically add their throughput value into the rank’s frame buffer. For non-shadow rays, those that did not find an intersection get shaded by either background or environment light, and get accumulated into the frame buffer.

For a non-shadow ray that did have a hit we first re-trace that ray into the local geometry to re-compute the full hit and BRDF data (Section 5.1). We sample the BRDF to produce either a reflected or refracted ray, modify the ray’s throughput value according to the sampled BRDF, and use rejection sampling to avoid tracing rays with too low a throughput value. The secondary ray—if not rejected—gets appended to the next step’s wavefront queue.
Shading can also generate a shadow ray. To prevent possibly unlimited growth of the ray queues we use repeated reservoir sampling [Wyman 2021] and importance sampling to always choose at most one sample from possibly multiple different lights and light types. Thus any pixel can have at most two rays active at any time: one for the path itself, and one for its corresponding shadow ray. Shadow rays first compute the pixel contribution they would have if not occluded, then store that value in their throughput field, and set a bit in the path that flags this as a shadow ray.

---

**landscape** model: max per-rank GPU memory usage 3.7 GB (ours) vs 4.8 GB (spatial)  
(including all shading data, textures, etc, and including non-model data like ray queues, frame buffers, etc.)

```
path: 6.1 fps (ours)  5.2 fps (spatial)  
view-3: 9.1 fps (ours)  4.7 fps (spatial)  
top: 13.3 fps (ours)  10.1 fps (spatial)
```

**island** model: max per-rank GPU memory usage : 25 GB (ours) vs 48 GB (spatial)  
(including all shading data, textures, etc, and including non-model data like ray queues, frame buffers, etc.)

```
default: 7.9 fps (ours) (3.0*) fps (spatial)  
beach: 3.6 fps (ours) (2.8*) fps (spatial)  
overview: 11.1 fps (ours) (3.7*) fps (spatial)
```

---

5.2.3 **Proxy-Guided Primary Ray Generation.** For primary rays we use the technique described in Section 3.3.6: each rank generates every primary ray and traces it into the proxy acceleration structure (which on modern hardware is very cheap). This ray then picks a primary owner based on the bits of the closest proxy, and all but one rank will then discard this ray. For rays that hit proxies stored on more than one rank we use the pixel ID as a tie-breaker, which in the pseudo-color images in Figure 4 can be observed as a checkerboard pattern on those objects that the partitioner chose to replicate.

5.3 **Merging Ranks’ Partial Frame Buffers**

Irrespective of which rank a path was generated on, it—and the secondary rays it may spawn—can terminate on any other node; so, every pixel can get contributed to by any rank. One way to handle that is to send every shading contributions back to the rank that generated the path; but that is expensive. Instead, we have each rank maintain a full frame buffer for all the image contributions computed on that rank. These partial-sum frame buffers eventually need to get added for the final image. For this we use what in visualization is known as parallel direct send compositing [Grosset et al. 2017] (albeit using addition rather than alpha blending): each rank is responsible for one part of the final frame buffer, and receives other ranks’ contributions from those ranks. Each rank then adds up the parts it received, performs tone mapping, and sends the final RGBA pixels to the node responsible for display or storage.
6 EVALUATION

Using the implementation described in the previous sections we can now evaluate how well these techniques work. Since this is the only large production content that is publicly available we focus primarily on the island model, but also include the PBRT landscape for reference. For island we enable the isMountain/xgLowGrowth, and tessellate all curves geometry into 3 linear segments per curve segment. For the original model’s PTex textures [Burley and Lacewell 2008] we perform a baking step that creates a per-mesh texture with $8 \times 8$ texels per quad, with properly created texture coordinates added to each vertex$^3$.

For hardware we use what is called “Beowulf” cluster of, in our case, five similar networked PCs, using one as head node, and four as workers. Each worker is equipped with 64 GBs of RAM, and with two 48 GB RTX 8000 cards; the master only runs the display. For networking we use a commodity at-home 10Gig-E Ethernet, which is well below what modern data center hardware can provide (e.g., a Mellanox ConnectX-7 is rated at 400 GBit/s, vs our 10 GBit/s). Better interconnects also allow RDMA transfers, which our setup does not. Using such low-end network may look counter-intuitive, but is useful to establish a baseline, and forces us to always focus on the main problem: bandwidth.

6.1 Maximum GPU Memory Usage

The ultimate rationale behind data-parallel rendering is to reduce the amount of data per node until it fits per-node memory. As such, we first evaluated how well different partitioning strategies performed in reducing per-rank memory. To do this we took the island model, split it into a varying number of $N$ parts (from $N = 1..128$), and logged the size of the respectively largest part—which is the part that would most exceed the memory budget. To measure this we used the cost function described above; this doesn’t include rendering related data like ray queues, etc., and is an approximation even for model data; but is hardware agnostic and easy to compute.

The result of this experiment are shown in Figure 5: for purely spatial partitioning the first few splits hardly manage to reduce the size of the largest part (which is the one that actually matters!) at all, even when we use multiple candidate planes; and even after splitting into 16 parts the largest

$^3$This baking step is only used because we have no means of directly sampling PTex textures on the GPU; otherwise we would simply have have used the size of the PTex files in the memory estimate during partitioning.

Fig. 5. Estimated memory usage of the largest part when splitting island into any number from 1 to 32 parts, for different partitioning strategies; once with all non-instanced geometry together in one instance (green), and once with non-instanced objects broken into meshes (red).
part has barely shrunk to half the size of the original model. When pre-splitting the single-instance root object into its constituent meshes as proposed by Zellmann et al. [2020] the situation markedly improves (red lines), but even then it takes a lot of partitions to significantly reduce model size. For object partitioning max model size drops rapidly, and even with only 4 parts is almost as good as spatial partition is with 16; it also and eventually reaches a minimum that spatial partitioning cannot reach.

For our renderer that means that the object-space and hybrid partitionings will easily fit on the 8 GPUs we got for this experiment, and even for island only require 25 GBs out of the 48 GBs available\(^4\). For the spatial partitions even with pre-splitting some of the GPUs will temporarily exceed their memory during acceleration structure build, which we currently allow by using CUDA managed memory to temporarily allow paging out of data while the scene is built.

### 6.2 Ray-Bandwidth Per Frame

The promise of our motivational example from Section 3.2 was that our techniques would not only help with how effectively a scene could be partitioned, but would ultimately even reduce ray bandwidth. To evaluate this we instrumented our MPI code to track, across all nodes and ray exchanges, how many such ray forwards were required to render a given frame. In Table 1 we report these numbers for the configurations and viewpoints shown in Figures 3 and 4: Naive object space partitions incurs ray bandwidth several times higher than spatial techniques, but the introduction of proxies can reduce that significantly. Our currently best partitioner—which by default is allowed to replicate up to 5% of the input geometries—can do even better, and eventually requires 2 – 35\(\times\) less ray bandwidth than our best spatial techniques.

This result is important, for two reasons: First, for a system limited by how many rays can be sent across the network, any reduction in bandwidth directly translates into higher frame rate. For the default view of island, using the same hardware our best object-space technique renders at 7.9 frames per second vs only 3 fps for spatial; for the view that captures the whole model, these are 11.1 fps vs 3.7 fps, respectively. When using more than one sample per pixel these speedups are even higher, as the bandwidth required for adding the final frames becomes less relevant.

Second, we observe that since our object space techniques require less GPU memory per rank (25 GB vs 48+GB, see Section 6.1) we could actually have used fewer ranks for these, likely achieving yet higher performance with less resources. For example, for landscape frame rate for our object techniques goes from 6.2 fps to 7.1 fps when going from 4 workers to 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>spatial only</th>
<th>object naive proxies</th>
<th>hybrid bvh-like best</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sp.median</td>
<td>cost fct</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1.** Rays forwarded across all nodes and bounces, for one path per pixel at 2560 × 1080, using the given view and partitioning method (see Figures 3 and 4 for reference).

\(^4\)The 25 GB is after partitioning; the non-partitioned model need much more than the 48 GB that any one GPU has.
6.3 Application to Non-Instanced Models

To ascertain that our method is not limited to heavily instanced models we also developed a separate content pipeline that can handle large non-instanced models in an out of core fashion, creating the same spatial partitioning that existing data parallel renderers (e.g., in sci-vis) would produce. This works just fine; however, a full discussion of this is beyond the scope of this paper.

7 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In this paper, we have argued for taking a closer look at data-distributed rendering beyond its use in scientific visualization, and in particular, in the context of data-parallel path tracing of production-style content with lots of instances, textures, geometry that cannot trivially be partitioned with purely spatial partitioning techniques, etc. We have pointed out some of the issues that arise in that context, and have in particular proposed to look beyond purely spatial partitioning, and instead, to look at some of the techniques recently developed for fast BVH-based ray traversal, and to bring some of these technologies over to a data-parallel object-hierarchy ray traversal.

Building on some of these concepts we have proposed a general representation for data-distributed content that can handle both spatial as well as object-hierarchy partitioning (as well as combinations thereof), combined with the concept of proxies that allow to represent such content in a way that is general yet still tight and efficient. We have described the key algorithms to use these proxies to realize an efficient data-parallel traversal operator that aims at minimizing the number of rays that need sending across a network. We have also sketched a non-trivial data-parallel path tracer using these concepts, and have demonstrated that thanks to the memory and ray bandwidth savings produced by these techniques this prototype renderer can semi-interactively path trace the full island model on but consumer networking infrastructure. We observe that even without those specific techniques this is the first interactive, multi-node and GPU-accelerated rendering of this data that we are aware of.

To evaluate the benefits of our new approach we have compared various different partitioning strategies, and have shown that the best of these produce not only lower per-node memory use, but also significantly lower ray forwarding bandwidth when compared to regular spatial partitioning. However, this paper is not necessarily about one form of partitioning vs the other—instead, we believe that its main benefit is that it allows an application to use whatever scene partitioning it might choose, without being constrained to a single one.

The downside to this generality is that our paper does not automatically define what the “best” partitioning might be, and better understanding how or into how many parts to partition a scene, which proxies to create, what to replicate or not replicate, etc., will require significant follow-up work. In this context, the biggest need is for a good cost function that could predict how much ray bandwidth a given partitioning might incur, similar to how a surface area heuristic can predict traversal cost on a local node; but though there are similarities the problem is more subtle.

Similarly, though the prototypical path tracer we used to evaluate this framework is already pretty advanced, it is certainly nowhere near what a real production renderer might want to do in terms of shading, secondary rays, etc.: Even though we already handle secondary rays, light sources, non-trivial sampling techniques, etc., we currently assume that rays never need to store or re-visit anything on the nodes they have traversed—yet for techniques like multiple importance sampling, photon mapping, or bi-directional path tracing this would not suffice. Production renderers practice may require more data per ray—either higher precision, or additional data like path differentials that cannot be recomputed from the local mesh data—but these would likely also use hardware with better networks.
Even in the context of pure path tracing, moving to newer hardware with possibly more than an order of magnitude faster interconnect would also trigger the need to start looking into techniques like overlapping communication with rendering, or just generally addressing performance issues that are currently overshadowed by communication cost; this is particularly true when considering that some of the GPU infrastructure in the cloud will not have ray tracing cores, at which point the large number of rays we are shooting might become an issue.

Eventually it would also be interesting to back-port some of the techniques we have proposed to large-scale visualization tasks where data is often natively distributed across many more nodes than we have yet even considered; at that point even concepts like our node masks may need revisiting; though we have already sketched techniques that should work in that context, these have yet to be evaluated. Similarly, in the context of sci-vis we would also have to consider volumetric data, which so far we have not looked at at all. The ability to handle spatially overlapping pieces of data might actually be very interesting in particular for unstructured data, data with "ghost cells", etc.; but supporting all that will require some major work.

Finally, though the concept of using proxies as described above is certainly the key to how this method works, if used naïvely the proxies themselves can become a limit to what kind of models our method can handle for a given type of GPU: For example, the island by default we generate on the order of 140 million proxies, and if we only needed order 100 bytes per proxy (which including BVH memory is rather conservative) then this alone is in the order 14 GBs per GPU—and since our method assumes that proxies are replicated across all ranks this would use or exceed almost all the memory available on the kind of GPUs that a typical HPC or cloud node would typically have. This in turn suggests the need to perform some sort of reduction on the generated proxies, where a set of proxies would get (conservatively) represented with fewer boxes, at slightly higher ray bandwidth. Early results indicate that this would indeed allow to render even the island model on GPUs with less than 16 GBs of memory—but a detailed discussion of this would exceed the scope of this paper.

8 CONCLUSION
The methods described in this paper allow for a more general description of how models can be represented in a data-parallel context, and when integrated into a non-trivial path tracer are not only more general, but can also achieve—simultaneously—lower memory use, lower ray bandwidth, and higher performance. Integrating these techniques into actual products will certainly require more research and more engineering work; however, we do believe that these techniques will significantly influence how future data parallel path tracers will be built.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
This research would not have been possible without Disney’s public release the Moana Island model for graphics research—thank you Disney, and in particular Rasmus Tamstorf, which has been a driving force in making that happen. Some of the key ideas have been honed and improved by discussions with lots of different people; we would in particular like to thank Stefan Zellmann, Nate Morrical, and Jeff Amstutz. Finally, we’d like to thank the Texas Advanced Computing Center (TACC), and in particular Paul Navratil, for providing cycles for some of the experiments revolving around this research.

REFERENCES
Ingo Wald and Steven G Parker


