

Article

Virtual Forestry Generation: Evaluating Models for Tree Placement in Games

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Abstract: A handful of approaches have been previously proposed to generate procedurally virtual forestry for virtual worlds and computer games, including plant growth models and point distribution methods. However, there has been no evaluation to date which assesses how effective these algorithms are at modelling real-world phenomena. In this paper we tackle this issue by evaluating three algorithms used in the generation of virtual forests – a randomly uniform point distribution method (control), a plant competition model, and an iterative random point distribution technique. Our results show that a plant competition model generated more believable content when viewed from an aerial perspective. Interestingly however, we also found that a randomly uniform point distribution method produced forestry which was rated higher in playability and photorealism, when viewed from a first-person perspective. We conclude that the objective of the game designer is important to consider when selecting an algorithm to generate forestry, as the algorithms produce forestry which is perceived differently.

Keywords: Procedural Content Generation; Virtual Forests; Computer Graphics; Video Games

1. Introduction

Procedural content generation is progressively becoming an established tool in the development of video games. This is especially true in the case of virtual environments and landscapes, which is particularly labour-intensive when designed by hand. Due to the advent of procedural generation, content can be automatically generated, tackling this issue by reducing development time and production costs. Furthermore, procedural generation also enables the possibility of pseudo-infinite worlds and on-the-fly content creation, amongst other things. These are just a few reasons which has driven research in this area, with approaches seeking to generate a diverse range of environmental assets. One area which particularly receives little to no attention is the procedural creation of forest and woodland bodies. In the case of natural landscapes, vegetation is a common and important element within the virtual environment. This is especially evident in modern video games, where forestry is frequently used as part of the in-game world. Virtual forests may not only be used as scenery elements, but to enhance game mechanics for, say, providing cover to players in first-person shooter games.

The alternative to a procedural methodology is through a manual or semi-automatic design process. In the case of in-game forest scenes, this would involve the manual distribution of individual trees within the virtual world by an environment artist. However, a few problems arise when following this approach. Namely, this process is not only time-consuming, but the quality of the resulting scene is reliant on the subjective considerations of the designer. One method of circumventing these issues is by randomly sampling positions where trees are subsequently placed at. However, this approach is not representative of the way natural, real-life forests propagate. Instead, natural forests are governed

34 by the developmental cycles of an ecosystem, spanning hundreds of years [1]. Approaches to model
35 the distribution of these trees, should therefore, ideally, reflect this process. As a result, there has been
36 a handful of papers which delve into ecosystem models and methods of generating plant communities,
37 which are explored later in our discussion.

38 This paper extends our previous effort [2] to undertake this challenge, by introducing a handful
39 of generation techniques and placement strategies, followed by a survey, evaluating each method
40 in terms of perceived realism and playability. Furthermore, the attributes of the generated forestry
41 (such as the density of the trees) are also studied to measure their impact on a player's perception
42 of a generated forest. This has a clear application in the games development sector, as forestry is a
43 common asset found in games, and designers need to consider which procedural approach best suits
44 the experience they try to create for a player. With this in mind, the hypotheses for this paper are:

- 45 **H1:** A method which is an approximation of a real-life process (a bio-inspired approach) is perceived to
46 generate more enjoyable and realistic content, over a stochastic method which uses randomness
47 to distribute trees.
48 **H2:** The canopy coverage of each forest is a significant variable in the perceived playability and realism
49 of it.

50 The structure of this paper is as follows: Section 2 provides an overview of procedural content
51 generation algorithms, and a review of their use in generating virtual foliage and flora communities.
52 Section 3 presents three different approaches in procedural forest generation and spatial distribution of
53 trees within a virtual environment. Sections 4 and 5 discuss our pilot and main evaluations respectively,
54 whereas section 6 presents an extended set of results. Section 7 presents a frequency analysis of the
55 user's subjective selection counts and Section 8 concludes, also discussing future work.

56 2. Background

57 In procedural content generation, content is generated stochastically via algorithms [3,4]. This
58 category of approaches has found success in a number of domains, including both research and
59 commercial applications [5,6]. Interest in procedural content generation for games was born from early
60 computer systems of the time and their inherent technical limitations [7]. Today, such approaches can
61 be applied to synthesize a broad spectrum of virtual content, ranging from terrain height-maps [8–11],
62 buildings and their furnishings [12,13], to the placement of assets for an entire level for a video
63 game [14], such as settlements [15] or as in our case, plant ecosystems [16].

64 Procedural generation techniques have been applied specifically to the generation of simulated
65 vegetation. The majority of existing research into procedurally generated vegetation focuses on
66 generating individual items of vegetation, rather than an ecosystem built from individual plants.
67 One of the most prominent methods for generating virtual trees procedurally, is through the use of
68 Lindenmayer Systems (L-Systems) [17]. L-Systems can be used to create fractal-like patterns, using
69 re-writable grammars [18]. These types of system are often used to generate the skeletal branches and
70 stems of virtual trees [19–22]. In the work of Livny et al. [23], the authors even proposed an algorithm
71 which reconstructed the skeletal system of a tree from a point-cloud through the use of L-Systems. The
72 generation of other parts of a tree's structure, such as the bark, can also be generated procedurally.
73 This was demonstrated by Dale et al. [24], in which the authors proposed a procedural technique for
74 generating bark patterns, through a biomechanical physics model which emulated fractures in a tree's
75 surface over time.

76 Procedural methods have also been applied to generate other forms of vegetation, such as
77 mushrooms [25] or lichens [26]. An example of the earliest research in procedurally generating of
78 systems of multiple plants is by Reeves and Blau [27], who explored the problem of how to generate
79 virtual forests. A technique was developed which uses particle systems to approximate individual
80 trees. The designer first defines a few parameters, such as the minimum distance between trees and
81 the height-map of the terrain to place trees on. The algorithm then randomly distributes procedurally

generated trees within the environment suited to the supplied parameters. Another related class of algorithms are point distribution methods. There have been a number of papers which show their use in the procedural placement of objects, including trees and forestry [28,29]. A recent example of this is by Ecormier et al. [30], in which a variance-aware disk-based distribution algorithm is presented. In particular, the authors highlight its usage in synthesising virtual forest scenes.

Other approaches, which consider plant competition models, have been developed. Plant competition models consider the simulation of each plant in an ecosystem, and interactions with its neighbours. Such an approach is presented by Bauer et al. [16] where the authors describe the *field-of-neighbourhood* (FON) model. The FON is a circular radius around each tree which determines the zone in which this tree competes with others in the community. If the FON of a tree overlaps with another tree's FON, then these trees are in competition with each other for resources. Otherwise, if there is no overlap between a tree's FON and another, then this tree is not in competition with any others. An illustration of this can be seen in Figure 1. There are two competition models to consider if the FON of two or more plants overlaps: symmetric competition and asymmetric competition. Alsweis and Deussen [31] define these as:

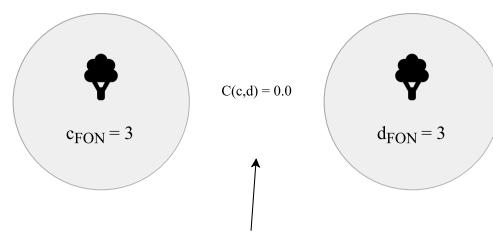
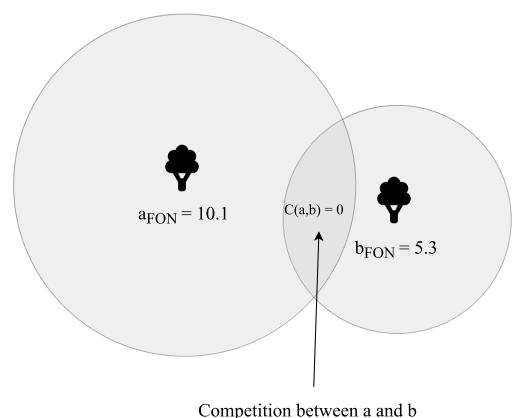


Figure 1. A diagram illustrating the *field-of-neighbourhood* (FON) model as described by Bauer et al. [16]. The top-most image shows arbitrary competition between two plants with different FON radii. The bottom-most image similarly shows two separate trees, but with no competition between them.

- **Symmetric competition:** When considering the competition between two plants, resources are split evenly between the two. This infers that the two plants are of the same size, and pose an equal threat to one another:

$$I(a, b) = \frac{C(a, b)}{2}$$

100

101 where $C(a, b)$ yields the competition/FON-overlap between the two plants.

- 102 • **Asymmetric competition:** In the case of two plants, resources are split unevenly between the
 103 two, based on which FON is larger. This means that the tree with the smaller FON will be
 104 dominated by its competitor, resulting in no access to resources and its eventual death:

$$I(a, b) = \begin{cases} C(a, b) & \text{if } a_{\text{FON}} > b_{\text{FON}} \\ C(a, b) \text{ or } 0 & \text{if } a_{\text{FON}} = b_{\text{FON}} \\ 0 & \text{if } a_{\text{FON}} < b_{\text{FON}} \end{cases}$$

105

106 Alsweis and Deussen [31] use bio-inspired rules coupled with the FON model to generate
 107 plant communities through asymmetric competition. The development of a plant depends on a
 108 designer-supplied map which represents the amount of nutrition found throughout the terrain.
 109 Members of the simulated plant community reproduce by spreading their seed locally once they
 110 reach a certain size. The seed production of each tree also grows alongside its size – as it increases in
 111 size, it produces more seeds as a result. A ‘mortality risk’ is also introduced into the system, in which
 112 plants which fall below the average plant size are culled due to competition. Computer applications
 113 such as GREENLAB [32] have also been developed to generate and study various bio-inspired growth
 114 models. Cournede et al. [33] used this application to study forest growth and propose a software
 115 system to compose virtual forest scenes. Lane and Prusinkiewicz [34] use a similar approach to develop
 116 plant communities. In their method, a plant community is represented as a multiset L-System, in
 117 which individual strings of the L-System represent a tree. This multiset of strings is then added to or
 118 removed from to simulate growth within the forest. The authors also describe similar concepts, such as
 119 a radius around each tree in which it interacts with others (similar to the FON model) and domination
 120 of resources through asymmetric competition. To do this, the authors introduce the following three
 121 steps for each tree in the multiset:

- 122 • **Self-thinning:** A similar notion to asymmetric competition – plants which are in competition
 123 with larger ones are dominated, and are subsequently culled from the population. Competition is
 124 also detected in a similar method to the FON model[31]. That is, if the radii of two trees overlap,
 125 the two plants are in competition with one another.
- 126 • **Succession:** Trees grow over time, and have a random probability of dying at each step once
 127 they reach a certain age. This ensures that old trees are culled from the population.
- 128 • **Plant propagation:** Trees reproduce in a similar method proposed by Alsweis and Deussen [31],
 129 in which seeds are sown locally around the tree chosen for reproduction. This helps to cluster
 130 trees together which are of the same species.

131 Cordonnier et al. [9] draw attention to some scalability issues of FON-based competition models.
 132 In particular, the computational expense of FON models is moderate in smaller-scale simulations, but
 133 infeasible at larger scales. The authors introduce an approach to procedurally generate ecosystems
 134 with combined terrain generation. Instead of using a FON-based model, a non-competitive cell-based
 135 approach is used to simulate growth. In this approach, the landscape is subdivided into cells, and
 136 ecosystem events are generated at random in a given cell. Plant growth, death and germination are
 137 simulated based on plant viability. Plant viability is calculated by taking into account local temperature,
 138 soil moisture and sun exposure, amongst other factors.

139 3. Forest Generation Approaches

140 In this section we introduce three algorithms for the spatial distribution of trees within an
 141 environment. The first, the *Naive* algorithm, is provided as a baseline to evaluate the other methods
 142 against. This algorithm uniformly distributes trees randomly within the environment and is commonly
 143 used in games development. The second method is *Propagation*, based on a asymmetric plant

¹⁴⁴ competition technique, which implements the FON model discussed previously. This algorithm
¹⁴⁵ is a bio-inspired approach intended to approximate how natural forests grow over time. The third
¹⁴⁶ algorithm, the *Clustering* method is provided as an intermediary between the *Naive* and *Propagation*
¹⁴⁷ algorithms by using an iterative random distribution technique. We have selected these three
¹⁴⁸ algorithms to examine the differences between plant competition models and methods which randomly
¹⁴⁹ sample from a distribution.

¹⁵⁰ 3.1. Method 1: *Naive*

¹⁵¹ The *Naive* method randomly distributes trees within a given area. The algorithm distributes
¹⁵² trees by sampling a random (x, y) point in a uniform distribution, and places a tree at the sampled
¹⁵³ point. The algorithm used throughout this paper was adapted slightly to create forests at various
¹⁵⁴ densities. Instead of specifying a number of trees to spawn initially, a target density was specified and
¹⁵⁵ the algorithm ran until this target density was matched. Of all the methods described throughout this
¹⁵⁶ paper, the *Naive* method requires the least computational resources due to its simplicity.

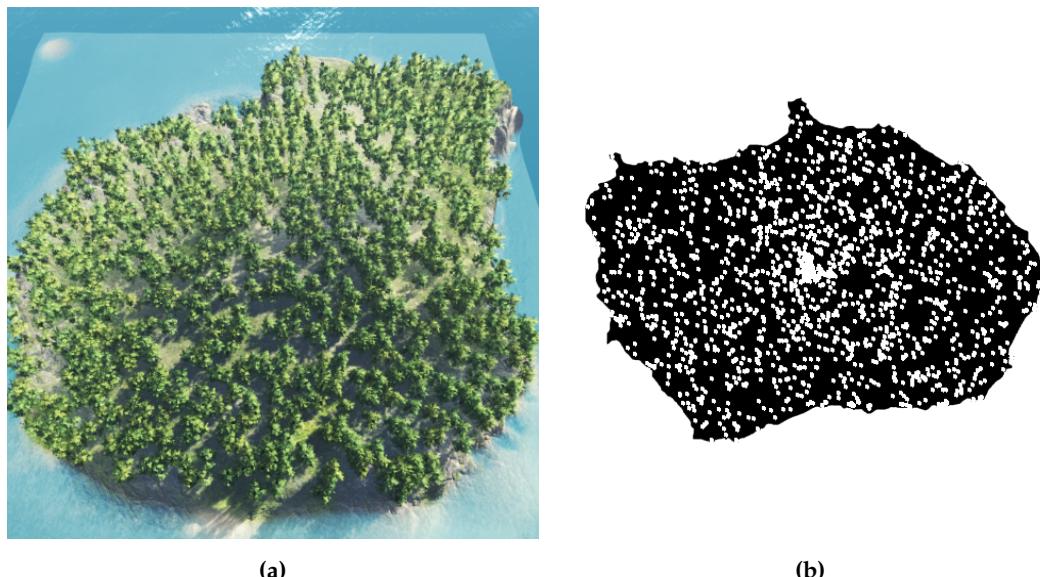


Figure 2. a) An example of a top-down virtual forest generated with the *Naive* algorithm, implemented in Unity 3D. b) An example in 2D.

¹⁵⁷ The algorithms used in our studies are modified slightly to create forests at various densities.
¹⁵⁸ Instead of specifying a number of trees to spawn initially, a target density for the virtual forest is
¹⁵⁹ specified instead, and the algorithm is followed until this target density is matched. For example, the
¹⁶⁰ density d for the virtual forest in Figure 2a is $d \approx 60.08\%$, which is measured as the percentage of
¹⁶¹ canopy cover across the island.

¹⁶² 3.2. Method 2: *Propagation*

¹⁶³ The *Propagation* method takes its inspiration from the rules that govern how forests develop in
¹⁶⁴ nature. This method should not be considered a faithful reflection of a natural process, but rather a
¹⁶⁵ bio-inspired approximation. To do this, this method is based on the asymmetric plant competition
¹⁶⁶ approach described by Lane and Prusinkiewicz [34]. We also similarly make use of a FON-based
¹⁶⁷ approach to represent competition between trees. Furthermore, the three steps introduced by Lane
¹⁶⁸ and Prusinkiewicz within our algorithm are applied:

- ¹⁶⁹ • **Succession:** In each simulation iteration, every tree ages (and grows) until it reaches a mature age. Once a tree reaches a certain age, it dies and is culled from the population.
- ¹⁷⁰ • **Plant propagation:** Once trees have reached a mature age, they can reproduce by sowing seeds locally to their position.

- 173 • **Self-thinning:** If a tree is growing close to another tree, then the oldest (and largest) tree will
 174 outgrow the other, thereby killing it and culling it from the environment. This is an approximation
 175 of asymmetric plant competition.

176 In addition to these rules, the wind direction and wind magnitude are also simulated whilst generating
 177 the virtual forest. It is important to note that this is not an accurate simulation of nature, and various
 178 factors (such as evolutionary forces) are ignored. We accept this, and have simply taken inspiration
 179 from biology to try and generate something which is visually appropriate.

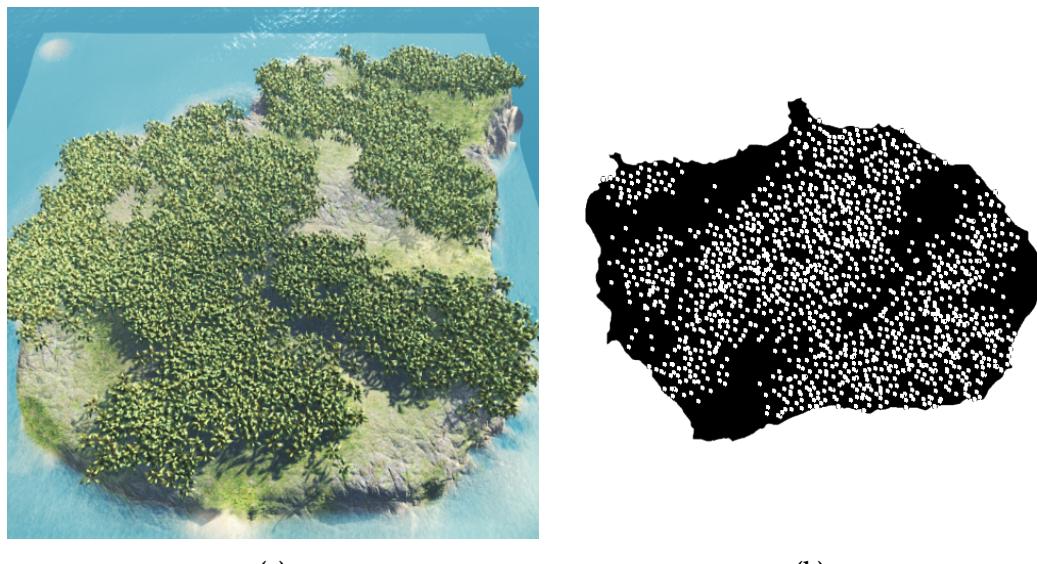


Figure 3. *a)* An example of a top-down forest image created using the Propagation algorithm, in a 3D environment. *b)* Another image generated using the same algorithm, but in a 2D environment. Both *a)* and *b)* were generated over a total of 13 iterations.

180 This method has the advantage of spacing trees in a fairly regular manner, which can be seen in
 181 Figure 3a and 3b. Due to the nature of the approach, trees should remain equidistant, as competition
 182 results in the smaller tree's death. However, this approach is generally more computationally expensive
 183 than point distribution methods, as it requires successive iterations and significantly more computation.
 184 This may be an issue for devices with limited computational power, such as mobile devices.

185 3.3. Method 3: Clustering

186 The *Clustering* method is an iterative random point distribution algorithm, with the goal of
 187 creating clustered areas of trees. To do this, the Clustering method initially selects a handful of random
 188 positions within the map in the first iteration, which we refer to as 'spawn points'. These are chosen
 189 in a similar fashion to the *Naive* approach, sampling from a uniform distribution. In the second and
 190 final iteration, points are randomly chosen within a predefined radius of each spawn point to produce
 191 clusters of trees. Tree meshes are then placed in each of these final points to produce a forest.

192 Likewise to the *Naive* method, the *Clustering* approach has the advantage of requiring very
 193 minimal resources, as the environment is not continuously updated and rules are not considered
 194 for each iteration of the forest's lifetime. This algorithm produces clustered distributions of trees,
 195 rather than an even and uniform distribution. Figures 4a and 4b show two examples of virtual forests
 196 generated with this algorithm, from an aerial perspective.

197 4. First Study: 2D Evaluation

198 An initial study was undertaken to evaluate whether the more complex approaches are preferred
 199 by players. The study consisted of an online survey where participants ranked images of aerial 2D

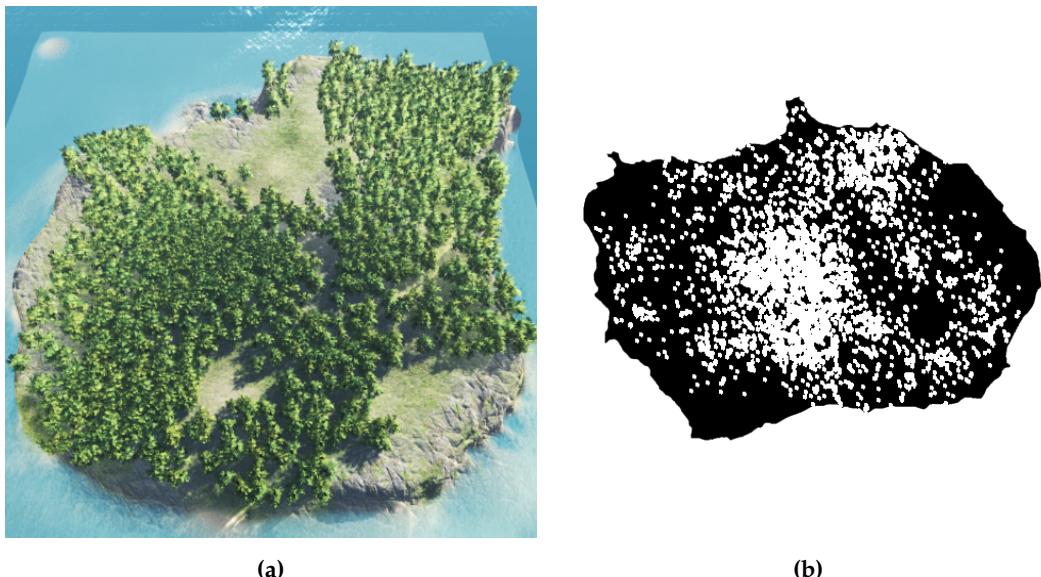


Figure 4. *a)* An example of top-down virtual forest generated with the Clustering algorithm, in a 3D environment. *b)* A similar forest generated with the same algorithm, but in a 2D environment.

200 representations of forests. The objective of this evaluation was to collect preference data regarding the
 201 visual forest representations. For each question in the survey, participants were presented with three
 202 images of forests generated by each algorithm. Each image was randomly ordered on the screen, to
 203 reduce any selection bias between questions. The participant was then required to select one of these
 204 images which best matched the question criteria. The questions presented to each user throughout
 205 the survey evaluated two types of criteria. The first question was focused on the perceived realism of
 206 the environments. For these questions, the participant was asked to select two images (of the same
 207 three images) which they perceive to be the most and least realistic. The second criteria focused on
 208 the perceived suitability of the forest as an in-game environment. For this criteria, the participant
 209 were asked to imagine which environment they would (not) choose if they were to play a game based
 210 within this environment. Both of these metrics are subjective to the observer. The first relies on them
 211 comparing the image to their perception/experience of what a forest should look like. The second by
 212 comparison explores their game-play preferences, assessing whether the environments perceived to be
 213 more (or less) believable are considered more (or less) interesting to play games within.

214 Each participant was presented with five questions for each criteria, yielding a total of 20
 215 individual questions. For each of the five questions, three new images were selected and presented to
 216 the participant.

217 4.1. 2D Study Results

218 The online survey was completed by 86 participants. Of these participants, 53.48% self-identified
 219 as female, with the remaining 46.52% as male. Furthermore, we also captured the general location of
 220 each participant, as the demographic featured participants from around the world.

221 The first and most compelling result found is the performance of the Naive distribution algorithm,
 222 which was comparatively rated higher than its competitors in terms of its perceived playability (see
 223 Figure 5). The Clustering method by comparison was rated as the method which produced the most
 224 forests perceived as most realistic. Figure 5 demonstrates that the Propagation distribution method
 225 was rated the lowest in terms of realism, but produced forests which were similar to the Clustering
 226 method in terms of playability. This same trend can also be seen for the questions which asked for the
 227 most unrealistic and unplayable environments (see Figure 6). For this category of questions, the Naive
 228 algorithm was similarly voted as the algorithm which produced the perceptually most realistic and

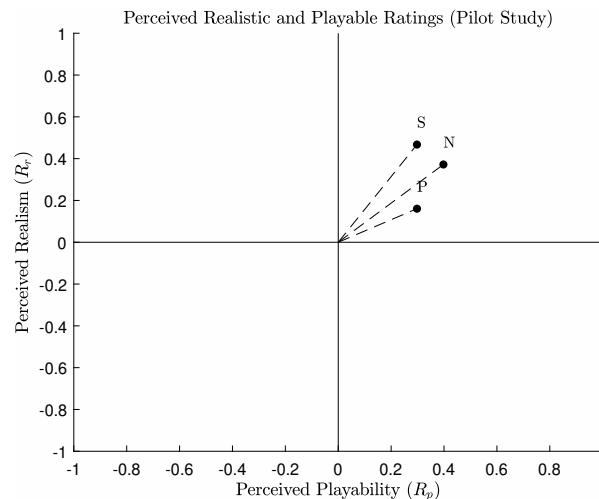


Figure 5. The normalized number of responses from participants when asked to choose the most realistic and playable forest. The letters in this figure correspond to each algorithm used.

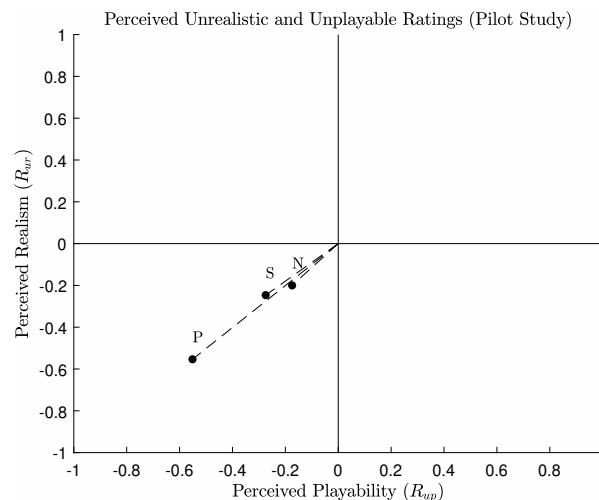


Figure 6. The normalized number of responses from participants when asked to choose the most unrealistic and unplayable forest. The letters in this figure correspond to each algorithm used.

229 playable environments. The Propagation algorithm however was rated as the most unrealistic and
 230 unplayable forest by a considerable margin.

231 Lastly, the number of ratings for each algorithm were used to provide a metric of performance,
 232 to show the overall quality of each algorithm. The metric used is calculated as $P_r = (R_r - R_{ur})$ and
 233 $P_i = (R_p - R_{up})$. R_r is the number of realistic ratings it received, R_{ur} is the number of unrealistic
 234 ratings, R_p is the number of playable ratings received and R_{up} is the number of unplayable ratings.

235 Figure 7 shows these two metrics plotted against each other, showing the overall performance
 236 of each algorithm. Interestingly, the performance of the Propagation algorithm was the poorest,
 237 producing the most unrealistic and unplayable environments. In contrast to this, the Clustering
 238 algorithm produced the most realistic environments, and the Naive algorithm yielded the most
 239 playable environments. It was hypothesised that the application of the Propagation algorithm would
 240 produce more realistic and playable environments, over the other two methods. However, the results
 241 show that the non-deterministic algorithms are rated higher in both categories. A further study is
 242 required to examine if this is the case under different conditions, and whether or not certain variables
 243 (such as forest density) yield similar results.

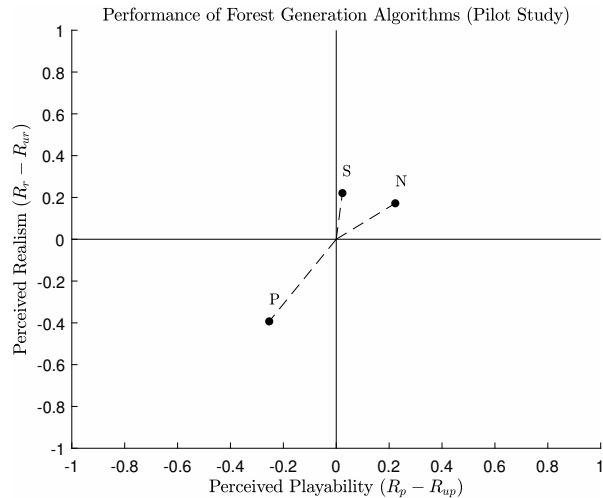


Figure 7. The overall performance of each algorithm. Here the metrics used are the difference between positive and negative ratings.

244 5. Second Study: 3D and Density Evaluation

245 A second study was conducted, in order to explore some of the questions raised by the first and to
 246 provide a more in-depth analysis of the reasoning behind selections. In this study the density of each
 247 virtual forest, along with the algorithm that produces it, were recorded and analysed. The participant
 248 also had the option of providing written feedback at every stage of each question.

249 As with the previous study, for each question asked, the survey presented the participant with
 250 three images to choose from. The participant would then choose the image which best suited the
 251 question that was asked. The questions were tailored in such a way to investigate whether the density
 252 or algorithm used in virtual forest propagation resulted in more playable or realistic selections. When
 253 selecting images to present to the participant, two independent variables were considered.

254 5.1. Algorithm Chosen

255 For these questions, the process started by first randomly selecting a forest density from the list of
 256 available options (Low, Medium or High). This density was then used to select three images for the
 257 participant, each of which was generated with a corresponding algorithm. For example if the randomly
 258 chosen density was 'Low', three low density forest images would be selected – one generated with the
 259 *Naive* algorithm, one with the *Clustering* algorithm, and another with the *Propagation* algorithm.

260 5.2. Forest Density

261 If the independent variable was forest density, then a similar process was followed, but showing
 262 varying forest densities generated with a single algorithm. To elaborate, an algorithm from the list of
 263 available options is randomly chosen (Naive, Clustering or Propagation). If for example, the randomly
 264 chosen algorithm was 'Naive', then three forest images generated by the Naive algorithm would be
 265 displayed to the user – one with a low density, another with a medium density, and another with a
 266 high density.

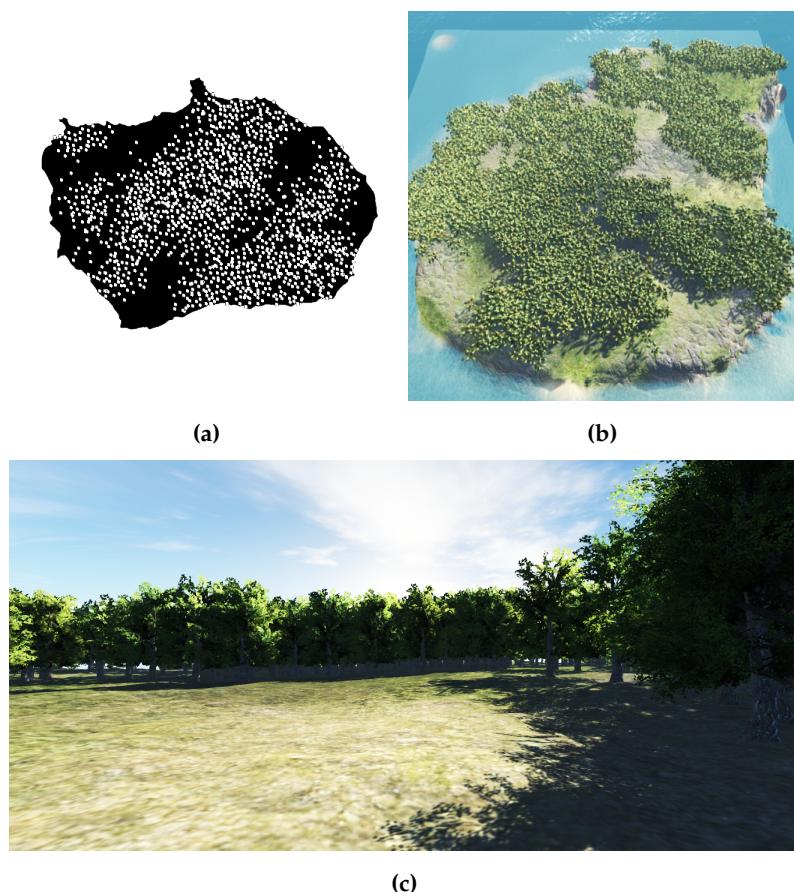
267 Once the three images were selected using these processes, the participant was then asked four
 268 questions about the selected images. These questions involved rating the forest images which best
 269 suited the question that was asked. These four questions were:

- 270 • 'Based on these images, which is the most realistic forest?'
- 271 • 'Based on these images, which is the least realistic forest?'
- 272 • 'If you were to play a game in one of these forests, which environment would you select to play
 273 within based on these top-down images?'

- 274 • 'If you were to play a game in one of these forests, which environment would you not select to
 275 play within based on these top-down images?'

276 *5.3. Image Perspectives*

277 Another limitation of the first study was that the images presented to each participant were from
 278 a single, top-down 2D perspective. This was addressed in the second study by introducing images
 279 which were rendered in 3D from two perspectives. Additionally, these images allowed further analyse
 280 if player perspective had an effect on a participant ratings. The first was a top-down perspective
 281 similar to the images from the pilot study, but rendered photo-realistically in 3D. The second used a
 282 first-person perspective situated within the forest. An example of the perspectives used in images can
 be seen in Figure 8. These perspectives were also used in the question selection process. The same



283 **Figure 8.** *a)* An example of a top-down 2D perspective, *b)* An example of a top-down 3D perspective, *c)*
 284 An example of a first-person 3D perspective.

285 processes outlined earlier involving the isolation of forest density and the generation algorithm were
 286 used, but for every perspective. This means that eight questions were asked for each perspective,
 287 resulting in a total of 24 questions for the participant to complete. The study ran for three weeks in
 288 total, with 71 respondents. Of these 71 respondents, 77.46% were Male, 19.71% were Female, and 2.81%
 did not specify their gender. The following sections analyse responses given for each perspective.

289 **6. Results**

290 *6.1. Top-down 2D Perspective*

291 We plotted participant responses (Figure 9a), which measured the percentage a particular
 292 algorithm/density pairing (images generated with that density and algorithm) was chosen as playable

versus the number of times it was chosen as realistic. The results show that images generated with the Propagation algorithm using a medium density scored higher in terms of both realism and perceived playability. An interesting result here is that the images generated with a medium density were rated similarly, and performed well in terms of both playability and realism. From this we can draw the conclusion that the most enjoyable forests for a top-down 2D perspective are generated with a medium density. It is also interesting to note that images of forests generated with a low density generally received a poor score. The exception however, are images generated with the Clustering algorithm using a low density, which was actually ranked higher in both realism and playability. Forests generated with a high density mostly scored well in terms of realism, but were rated low in terms of playability. Figures 9b and 9c show the amount of responses provided for each particular combination of algorithm and density used to generate imagery. These figures also show in general, how many times a combination was rated negatively or positively. An interesting phenomenon regarding these is the amount of negative votes, which outweigh the number of positive ones. This means that participants who rated images generated with this perspective were more prone to select a negative rating rather than a positive one.

6.2. Top-Down 3D Perspective

Through examination of Figure 10a, it can be seen that the results are similar to the ones found for the top-down 2D perspective (Figure 9a). Most notably, images generated with the Propagation algorithm using a medium density were again rated as the most realistic and playable environments. An interesting note however, is that images created using the Clustering algorithm have generally increased in both metrics, and are in fact some of the best performing results. Figures 10b and 10c show the number of negative and positive ratings for generated images. These results are similar to the Top-down 2D perspective.

Images generated with the Propagation algorithm with a high density were rated well in terms of realism, but poorly in terms of playability. When compared to a lower density using the same algorithm, some intriguing results were found. Images generated with the Propagation algorithm but using a low density were rated high for playability, and low in realism - the opposite of the ratings when using a high density. The same algorithm is used to generate both types of images. The only difference between these two is the change in forest density. This contrast in terms of ratings leads us to believe that there may be a correlation between forest density and the perceived playability of an environment, when using this type of algorithm to generate an image of a virtual forest.

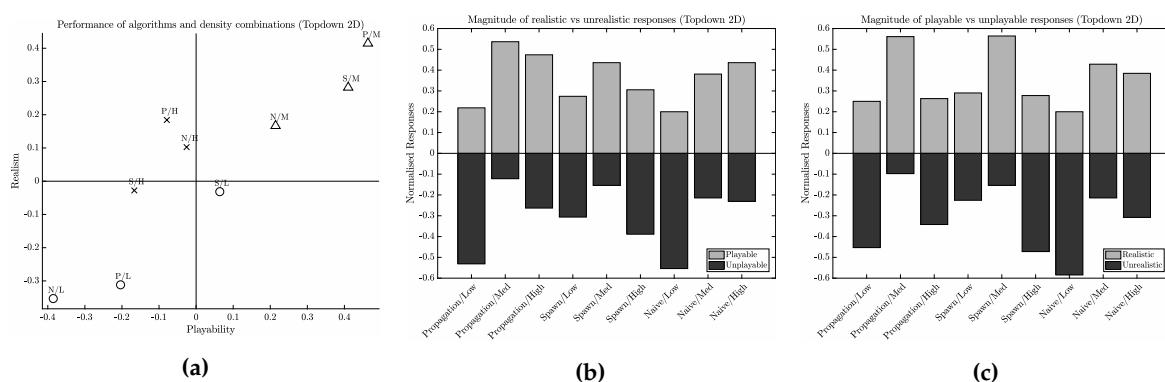


Figure 9. a) Overall performance of all algorithm and densities for top-down 2D images, realistic rating vs playability rating, b) Magnitude of ratings for realistic/unrealistic responses and c) Magnitude of ratings for playable/unplayable responses.

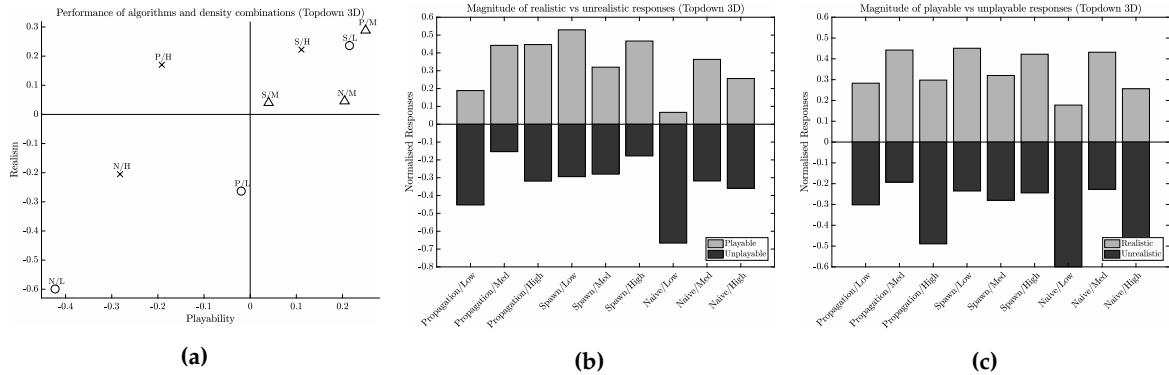


Figure 10. *a)* Overall performance of all algorithm and densities for top-down 3D images, realistic rating vs playability rating, *b*) Magnitude of ratings for realistic/unrealistic responses and *c*) Magnitude of ratings for playable/unplayable responses.

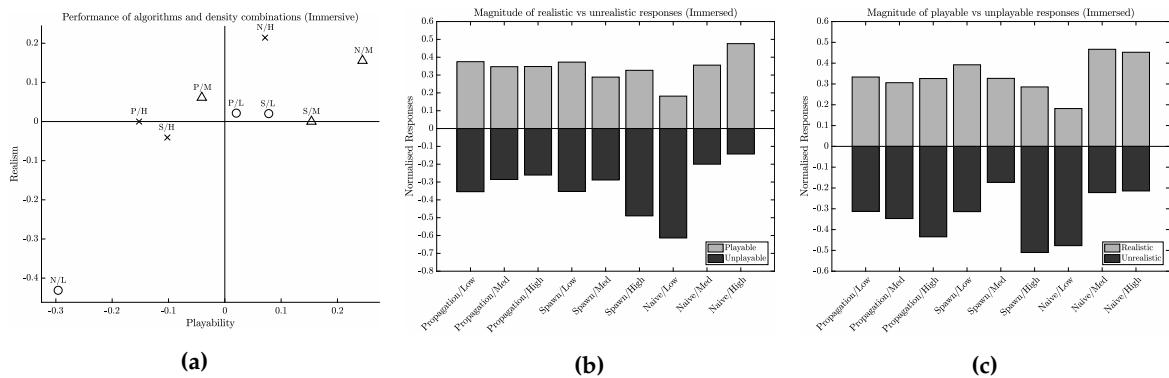


Figure 11. *a)* Overall performance of all algorithm and densities for first-person images, realistic rating vs playability rating, *b*) Magnitude of ratings for realistic/unrealistic responses and *c*) Magnitude of ratings for playable/unplayable responses.

324 6.3. First-person 3D Perspective

325 The results were collated in the same manner as the previous sections. Figure 11a depicts
 326 rated realism and playability of images generated with each combination of algorithm and density.
 327 Interestingly, the results in this case differ from the results for the two other perspectives. The most
 328 compelling of these differences is that images generated using the Naive algorithm with either a
 329 medium or high density were rated the most realistic and playable environments. However, images
 330 generated with the Naive algorithm and a low density were rated lowest in terms of realism and
 331 playability. Comparing the results of using the Naive algorithm with medium and high densities
 332 further confirms the same correlation discovered in the previous section, in which the density used
 333 in the generation process affected its rated playability. In this case, the same relationship is shown –
 334 a higher density is rated as less playable than a medium density. This can also be seen in the same
 335 plot with the Propagation and Clustering algorithms, where a high density is rated less playable
 336 than a medium or low density. Furthermore, these results suggest that using a pseudo-random
 337 distribution strategy results in a more playable and realistic environment for players, at least,
 338 when viewing it from a first-person perspective. This has advantages over other methods, as it is
 339 computationally inexpensive in comparison, yet yields the most believable and playable environments
 340 for this perspective. Figures 11b and 11c show the number of negative and positive votes for images
 341 generated with each combination of algorithm and forest density.

342 7. Frequency Analysis of Selection Counts

343 As mentioned previously, participants could rate images in two criteria: believability and
 344 playability. At each stage, participants are asked to choose which image satisfies them in the most and
 345 least of these criteria. This gives four possible ratings of images: the most/least believable, and the
 346 most/least playable. There are also two variables which influence the generated forest, namely the type
 347 of algorithm and the forest's density. Given these two variables, and the possible ratings each image
 348 can receive, an interesting question arises regarding the distribution of votes for images presented to
 349 participants. Observing frequency distributions will allow for interesting conclusions to be drawn
 350 from the data, for example, potential relationships between forest density and the number of times it
 351 was selected as the most believable. To achieve this, several contingency tables were created, showing
 352 the frequency of selection between different variables. These are each presented and discussed in the
 353 following sections.

354 *7.1. Forest Density and Believability*

355 The first area which was considered was the cross-tabulation of forest density types (low, medium
 356 and high) with other variables, which could highlight some interesting relationships. The first of these
 357 is the perceived realism of images. In particular, the frequency each density was voted by participants
 358 as the most or least believable choice. Cross-tabulations are labelled by image perspective, to explore
 359 how this variable impacted the scores given by participants. It is also worth noting that these selections
 360 were mutually exclusive, disallowing the same image to be selected for both questions.

Table 1. A table showing the number of times each type of forest density was selected as most or least believable. Notice that columns are categorised by image perspective for clarity. The labels +B and -B respectively correspond to the count of most and least believable selections. In contrast, the label U (Unrated) represents the number of times it was not selected as either.

	First-person			Aerial (2D)			Aerial (3D)		
	+B	-B	U	+B	-B	U	+B	-B	U
Low	22	37	12	4	48	19	14	41	16
Medium	23	13	35	38	2	31	31	11	29
High	26	20	25	29	17	25	26	16	29

361 Table 1 presents the number of times each image density was selected as most or least believable,
 362 for each image perspective. Across all three image perspectives, it can be seen that lower density
 363 forests are frequently rated as the least believable selection. This is also true across all densities, with
 364 low densities ranking the lowest in terms of believability from a first-person perspective ($\chi^2 (2) =$
 365 13.38, $p = 0.001$), a 2D aerial perspective ($\chi^2 (2) = 42.28, p < 0.0001$) and a 3D aerial perspective (χ^2
 366 (2) = 19.12, $p < 0.0001$). These results seem to suggest that low density distributions are generally
 367 unsuitable for generating forests which are similar to real-life, regardless of the user's viewpoint.
 368 Interestingly, the opposite effect can be seen in the case of medium densities, with medium densities
 369 being consistently selected as the most believable forest. The distribution of tallies suggests this is the
 370 case is also regardless of image perspective, whether it be first-person ($\chi^2 (2) = 10.25, p = 0.006$), 2D
 371 aerial ($\chi^2 (2) = 30.78, p < 0.0001$) or 3D aerial ($\chi^2 (2) = 10.25352, p = 0.005$).

372 Of the three image perspectives, the 2D aerial perspective shows the most polarised distribution
 373 of positive/negative rating. What is particularly interesting is the differences in perceived realism
 374 across the three forest densities. For this perspective, low density forests received a particularly high
 375 number of votes as the least believable density. Conversely, both medium and high densities were
 376 chosen more frequently as the most believable. However, medium densities were substantially more
 377 polarised. It should also be noted that the same pattern of polarisation with regards to medium and
 378 high densities can be seen across all three image perspectives. This could signify that participants could
 379 more easily determine the believability of medium and low densities, in contrast to high densities.

Another interesting area is the comparison of ratings between the two aerial perspectives. Comparing both aerial perspectives reveals some interesting results. The most noteworthy difference between the two perspectives is the contrast between negative/positive ratings. In this case, 2D aerial perspectives are more polarised with respect to positive/negative selection, suggesting that image dimensionality could impact perceived believability. Curiously, this is not true of high density forests, with little to no difference in selection frequency between 2D and 3D perspectives. However, it is worth noting that a more rigorous investigation is required to conclude if this is the case.

In a similar spirit, how first-person and aerial perspectives differ in selection frequency is another area of consideration. Naturally, it could be assumed that first-person and aerial perspectives receive considerably distinct believability ratings, due to differences in how clearly the distribution of trees can be viewed as a whole. For instance, participants may find it harder to survey distributions wholly from a first-person perspective, due to the lack of a vantage point. A comparison of first-person and aerial perspectives can be seen in Table 1, highlighting a pattern of votes between the two. For example, low densities are considered significantly less believable across both first-person and aerial perspectives. Similarly, medium and high densities are considered more believable when comparing the two types of perspective. However, there is a substantially less polarisation between positive/negative votes in the case of the first-person perspective. This potentially indicates that judgement of believability may be more difficult from a first-person perspective, due to the inability to survey the distribution as a whole. Further work would be required to ascertain if this is the case, however.

7.2. Forest Density and Playability

In the preceding discussion, forest densities were cross-tabulated with believability to investigate the relationship between the two. However, believability is only one of two criteria in which participants were asked to rate images, the other being playability. Whilst believability is an interesting criteria to examine, how suitable a forest is as an environment in a video game is another important factor. For instance, exploring how the density of a generated forest affects its playability could inform level design in commercial games development. With this goal in mind, a cross-tabulation similar to the previous section was created to investigate relationships between forest density and playability. This is reflected in Table 2, which displays the frequency each density was selected as the most/least playable choice.

Table 2. A table showing the number of times each type of forest density was selected as most or least playable. Notice that columns are categorised by image perspective for clarity. The labels +P and -P respectively correspond to the count of most and least playable selections. In contrast, the label U (Unrated) represents the number of times it was not selected as either.

	First-person			Aerial (2D)			Aerial (3D)		
	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U
Low	21	28	22	7	41	23	19	30	22
Medium	27	11	33	46	2	23	33	8	30
High	23	31	17	18	27	26	19	32	20

Perhaps the most noteworthy result is that medium density forests were consistently rated as significantly playable environments, across each of the first-person ($\chi^2 (2) = 10.92, p = 0.004$), 2D aerial ($\chi^2 (2) = 40.92, p < 0.0005$) and 3D aerial ($\chi^2 (2) = 15.75, p = 0.0004$) perspectives. A similar finding was unearthed in the previous section, revealing that medium forest densities were typically selected as the most believable environments. Compounded with this result, it can be concluded that medium densities were selected most frequently in terms of both believability and playability, regardless of image perspective. One similarity between Tables 1 & 2 is that in both, the 2D aerial perspective shows the most polarised results. This suggests that participants could most easily determine both

⁴¹⁷ believability and playability from this perspective. Whilst this is an unexpected and interesting result,
⁴¹⁸ we leave the task of exploring this area to future work.

⁴¹⁹ Another interesting discussion is the differences in playability votes between 2D and 3D aerial
⁴²⁰ perspectives. Generally, the distribution of votes share several similarities between the two perspectives.
⁴²¹ For instance, in each case both low and high densities are rated more times as the least playable
⁴²² environment than the most playable. An interesting observation is the fact that high densities received
⁴²³ more unplayable ratings than playable, with this being the case across all three image perspectives. The
⁴²⁴ fact that high densities are rated so differently in believability and playability could possibly indicate
⁴²⁵ a negative relationship between the two. That is, high density point distributions create believable
⁴²⁶ but unplayable environments. It may be the case for example, that high density forests exhibit low
⁴²⁷ tree interspacing which is considered believable, but does not result in a navigable game level. This
⁴²⁸ may be a fascinating avenue of research for future work. It is worth noting however, that statistical
⁴²⁹ analysis indicates the results for high densities may be subject to noise; across first-person ($\chi^2(2) =$
⁴³⁰ 4.17, $p = 0.12$), 2D aerial ($\chi^2(2) = 2.06$, $p = 0.36$) and 3D aerial ($\chi^2(2) = 4.42$, $p = 0.11$) perspectives.

⁴³¹ The comparison of the first person perspective against the two aerial perspectives reveals similar
⁴³² findings to the believability cross-tabulation. More specifically, the distribution of the most/least
⁴³³ playable selections across all three densities follows a common pattern. In each case, low and high
⁴³⁴ densities were chosen more frequently as the least playable environment. Similarly, medium densities
⁴³⁵ were selected as the most playable environment. However, there is a considerable difference in polarity
⁴³⁶ of negative/positive votes between first-person and aerial perspectives. In particular, the difference
⁴³⁷ in negative/positive selection frequency are less extreme in the case of the first-person perspective.
⁴³⁸ This is a very similar finding to the previous section, which concerned believability. Furthermore, this
⁴³⁹ implies that participants found it harder to judge both believability and playability from first-person
⁴⁴⁰ perspectives. As mentioned earlier, the lack of a vantage point could be the issue. However, further
⁴⁴¹ investigation would be required to identify if this is the case.

⁴⁴² 7.3. Generation Algorithm and Believability

⁴⁴³ So far, the impact of forest density on participant preferences has been discussed. Whilst the
⁴⁴⁴ effects of forest density is an interesting area to explore, another factor in our study was the type of
⁴⁴⁵ procedural algorithm used to generate virtual forests. Identifying how each of the three algorithms
⁴⁴⁶ affects perceived believability/playability could give insights into which is the most preferred by
⁴⁴⁷ players. More importantly, this could be crucial to commercial games development, whose aim
⁴⁴⁸ is to create immersive and playable virtual environments for players. To achieve this, a similar
⁴⁴⁹ methodology is used to the previous sections. As mentioned earlier, there were three procedural
⁴⁵⁰ algorithms used to generate forest images. There were the naive, clustering and propagation algorithms.
⁴⁵¹ A cross-tabulation of generation algorithm and believability ratings can be seen below in Table 3.

Table 3. A table showing the number of times each type of generation algorithm was selected as most or least believable. The labels +B and -B respectively correspond to the count of most and least believable selections. The label U (Unrated) represents the number of times it was not selected as either.

	First-person			Aerial (2D)			Aerial (3D)		
	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U
Naive	28	18	25	28	22	21	24	21	26
Clustering	19	31	21	24	18	29	35	11	25
Propagation	24	21	26	19	29	23	12	38	21

⁴⁵² The first noticeable result is that the naive algorithm generally received more votes in favour of it
⁴⁵³ being the most believable image, rather than the least believable. This is also the case across all three
⁴⁵⁴ image perspectives, which could signify that participants found the naive method to be a method of
⁴⁵⁵ creating realistic forest distributions. However, this may not be the case, as statistical analysis shows

insignificant results across first-person ($\chi^2(2) = 2.225, p = 0.32$), 2D aerial ($\chi^2(2) = 1.21, p = 0.54$) and 3D aerial ($\chi^2(2) = 0.535, p = 0.76$) perspectives. Similarly, the clustering algorithm was rated as more believable for the 2D and 3D aerial perspectives, suggesting potential differences between a first-person and aerial perspective. Although the effect observed for the 2D aerial perspective is likely due to noise ($\chi^2(2) = 2.56, p = 0.277$), there is a significant probability that the 3D aerial perspective is not ($\chi^2(2) = 12.28, p = 0.02$). This is evidence that the clustering algorithm is a feasible alternative to procedurally generating believable tree distributions, from an aerial perspective. This may have potential impacts on games development, especially given that the clustering algorithm provides a more efficient and suitable alternative to plant growth models.

The opposite can be found for the propagation algorithm, with generated images rated significantly as the least believable, for the 3D aerial perspective ($\chi^2(2) = 14.73, p < 0.005$). The same effect is observed for the 2D aerial perspective, but lacks statistical significance ($\chi^2(2) = 2.14, p = 0.34$). Interestingly, the same cannot be said for the first-person perspective, in which the propagation algorithm received more favourable ratings than unfavourable. However, there is a considerable chance this may be due to noise too ($\chi^2(2) = 0.535, p = 0.76$). These findings suggest that generally, the propagation algorithm generates forest distributions which participants deem unbelievable from a 3D perspective. Furthermore, there are some noteworthy results when compared to the previous section, which explored the relationship of forest density and believability. Firstly, the density cross-tabulation featured boldly contrasting results with considerable polarisation between positive/negative selection counts. Furthermore, statistical tests highlighted a number of significant results and relationships. By comparison, cross-tabulating the type of procedural algorithm and selections made by participants reveals very few significant results. One explanation could be that participants find forest density a more distinguishable characteristic in assessing the believability of forest images.

7.4. Generation Algorithm and Playability

Whilst in the previous section the effects on believability were explored, another interesting and related area is how measures of playability are affected by the three algorithms used. Determining this may support games developers to create fun and challenging games, by displaying the most preferred algorithm for creating playable environments. A cross-tabulation of generation algorithm and received playability ratings can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. A table showing the number of times each type of generation algorithm was selected as most or least playable. The labels +P and -P respectively correspond to the count of most and least believable selections. In contrast, the label U (Unrated) represents the number of times it was not selected as either.

	First-person			Aerial (2D)			Aerial (3D)		
	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U	+P	-P	U
Naive	21	28	22	24	21	26	24	22	25
Clustering	22	23	26	25	15	31	34	11	26
Propagation	29	19	24	22	34	15	13	37	21

For the first-person perspective, there are a few contrasting results between the three algorithms. Firstly, forests generated by the Naive algorithm were selected most often as the least playable, of the three algorithms in this perspective. Conversely, forests generated by the Propagation algorithm received the highest number of most playable votes. By the same token, the number of most/least playable selections for the Clustering algorithm are practically identical. These results potentially suggest that plant growth models are the most suitable for creating playable environments from a first-person perspective. On the other hand, uniform point distribution appears to yield the least playable environments in this perspective. Interestingly, almost the opposite effect can be seen

494 from the 2D aerial perspective. Most noticeably, the Propagation algorithm was rated significantly
495 as the algorithm which produces the least playable environments ($\chi^2 (2) = 7.802, p = 0.02$). To
496 contrast, the Clustering algorithm was preferred in creating the most playable environments of the
497 three algorithms, with this perspective in mind. The clear difference in selections between these the
498 first-person and aerial perspectives shows that image perspective is a considerable part of how forests
499 are judged in perceived playability. The 3D aerial perspective also shared a few commonalities to the
500 2D aerial perspective. For example, the Naive algorithm was rated almost identically to the 2D aerial
501 perspective. Furthermore, the Clustering algorithm was considered the most frequently as creating the
502 most playable environments ($\chi^2 (2) = 11.52, p = 0.003$), and the Propagation algorithm as the least (χ^2
503 (2) = 12.61, $p = 0.001$).

504 There is also a considerable difference between selection counts in the first-person and aerial
505 perspectives. Whilst the two aerial perspectives share different selection counts, they are very similar in
506 nature. Perhaps the most glaring result is the selection frequency of the Propagation algorithm, which
507 is generally rated well from the first-person perspective, but negatively in the two aerial perspectives.
508 Further research would be required to ascertain why this is the case.

509 7.5. Summary

510 An in-depth look at forest selection counts has unearthed some results worthy of discussion. The
511 focus of our analysis was to understand how participants perceive generated forests, for different sets of
512 generation parameters. We explored two parameters – forest density and procedural algorithm – which
513 both influence a large part of a forest’s appearance. More specifically, we explored the impacts these
514 two parameters have on the perceived believability and playability of generated forests. Believability
515 and playability were chosen as they represent a desirable goal of procedural environment generation
516 in games development, towards creating realistic immersive worlds, which are fun and engaging to
517 play within.

518 Analysis of selection counts revealed that forests with a medium density were consistently chosen
519 as the most playable and believable environments. This was also true across all image perspectives.
520 It appears that if the aim of a game developer is to generate believable and playable forests, using a
521 medium density produces the most optimal results. Another noteworthy result are the differences in
522 selection between the first-person and aerial perspectives, with regards to forest density. In particular,
523 there is considerably higher polarity between positive/negative votes from an aerial perspective. This
524 indicates that participants could more easily determine the playability and believability of forests from
525 an aerial perspective, as opposed to a first-person perspective.

526 Perhaps the most interesting result of the analysis of how the type of procedural algorithm affected
527 selection counts, is that algorithms which were received positively in the first-person perspective
528 were received negatively in the two aerial perspectives, and vice-versa. This is an unexpected
529 result, as it signifies a considerable distinction and negative relationship between 1st-person and
530 3rd-person perspectives. This may be an interesting direction for further work in this area. In addition,
531 both believability and playability selection counts displayed many similar patterns, with very little
532 difference between the two cross-tabulations. This suggests that participants considered believability
533 and playability very similarly, and perhaps implies a relationship between the two.

534 When comparing the cross-tabulations of forest density and procedural algorithm, there is also
535 a clear distinction in terms of polarity. Specifically, the rankings of different forest densities contain
536 far more polarised positive/negative votes than the type of generation algorithm. This shows that
537 participants could more easily distinguish the playability and believability of forests with distinct
538 densities, rather than distinct types of algorithm. These results may be of importance to the domain
539 of procedural forest generation, since it highlights forest density has a more crucial role in creating
540 forestry than previously expected. There is also a substantial contrast between 1st-person and aerial
541 perspectives throughout our analysis, indicating that the perspective of the generated forest is an
542 important consideration. This could inform future work and the games development sector of how to

543 generate more realistic and engaging virtual forests. Furthermore, comparing how believability and
544 playability are ranked shows considerable differences in polarity throughout.

545 8. Conclusions & Future Work

546 This paper presents a user study into virtual forests, using three different approaches of spatially
547 distributing trees to approximate a plant community. These three approaches consisted of a random
548 uniform distribution algorithm, a asymmetric plant competition model, and an iterative random
549 distribution algorithm for creating clusters of trees. Through this study, the results demonstrate that
550 the asymmetric plant competition model (the '*Propagation*' algorithm) produces forests which were
551 rated the highest in terms of playability and believability, for both 2D and 3D aerial perspectives.
552 This supports H1, suggesting that a bio-inspired plant competition model can produce forests
553 which were rated the highest in these two criteria, but only for aerial image perspectives. This
554 was not found in the case from a first-person perspective. Interestingly however, a method which
555 geometrically approximates asymmetric plant competition using pseudo-randomness to distribute
556 trees (the '*Clustering*' algorithm) received similar ratings for the same perspectives, and has utility as
557 a less expensive alternative to plant competition models. We also found that the algorithms which
558 score highly in the aerial perspective category were not scored as highly when viewed from the
559 perspective of a player situated within the environment. Instead, we found that the control algorithm
560 (pseudo-randomly distributing trees, the *Naive* approach) scored highly for both criteria when using
561 this perspective. This may be advantageous to game designers who require an efficient alternative to
562 expensive plant competition models. We also found a relationship between the forest density used in
563 images and their rated playability by participants. In particular, forests generated with a high density
564 scored low in playability but highly in realism – whereas forests generated with a low density scored
565 low in realism and high in playability.

566 From this, we can say that if the objective of the environment designer is realism and playability,
567 they must consider the perspectives in which the forest is to be viewed when deciding on a procedural
568 algorithm to generate it. If for example, the virtual forest is to be used within a game where the
569 player is situated within the forest, the *Naive* approach could be used to create satisfying content while
570 simultaneously conserving computational resources. On the other hand, if the virtual forest to be
571 created is to be used as scenery from an aerial perspective, then employing the asymmetric plant
572 competition approach may generate more satisfying content.

573 Furthermore, the impacts of forest density and distribution algorithm on participant opinion
574 were explored. More specifically, we were interested how these two parameters affected
575 believability/playability selection frequencies. Several significant results were unearthed from
576 analysing image selection counts, which may be of interest to game designers. For instance, forest
577 density was found to be a more distinguishable characteristic than the type of procedural algorithm.
578 In addition, forests generated with a medium density were consistently chosen as the most believable
579 and playable distributions. These findings may inform both games developers and researchers of how
580 to improve the quality of generated content. These findings support H2, that the canopy coverage
581 (density) of generated forest images is a significant variable in how it perceived in terms of believability
582 and playability.

583 In our experiments, our test group largely consisted of participants who were non-forest experts.
584 One interesting area we would like to investigate in future work is the consideration of forest experts
585 in our experiments. We could then contrast differences in preference between expert and non-expert
586 viewpoints, which could offer some interesting insights. In addition, exploring the impacts of other
587 visual characteristics of forestry is another aspect we are keen to develop in future work. For example,
588 considering elements such as plant types, forest floor coverage, and other types of environment are all
589 interesting questions we which to address through further investigation.

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