Fast and Efficient Vertex Data Representations for the Web

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Abstract: Supporting decision processes via fast and accurate visualization of 3D data is an important aspect in many scientific fields, ranging from mathematics and engineering through medical data analysis. Due to their high flexibility and platform-independence, 3D Web technologies have become more and more important for such visualization purposes. Within this paper, we concentrate on the accurate rendering of 3D surface models inside Web browsers and show efficient techniques that enable fast and precise visualization and interaction using state-of-the-art Web technologies. We introduce a smart vertex data storage format, which fits very well with the requirements of modern mobile graphics hardware. Furthermore, we discuss methods to partition models of high complexity. Finally, we present an hardware-accelerated picking algorithm that enables a high precision inspection of 3D objects and their vertex attributes.

1 INTRODUCTION

Web-based setups to support decision making processes are getting rather attractive, since distributed data-centered applications are now one of the common implementation concepts for large-scale visualization solutions. This trend towards fast, lightweight and ubiquitous rendering technology is also supported by emerging web client APIs and standards for high-performance graphics. As a result, a convergence of web-based application platforms, using e.g. W3C WebApps and HTML5 technologies, can be identified. But the wide variety of application platforms comes along with very different soft- and hardware requirements, ranging from smart phones through desktop systems and cloud-based architectures.

Within this position paper, we discuss some important aspects that we think are worth to be considered when realizing a web-based 3D visualization for multiple target platforms. Our work provides the following contributions: first of all, we present a compact and simple vertex data format that does not involve any CPU-based client-side decoding. The encoding method fits especially well with the alignment requirements of mobile graphics chips. Second, we demonstrate which problems can occur when visualizing large meshes in a web-based context, and how such problems can be solved.

Third, we show how a standard single-pass picking buffer approach, using an 8 bit RGBA buffer, can be efficiently modified to provide position data, surface normals or other vertex attributes with 16 bits of precision while likewise being able to distinguish up to 64K objects. That is especially of interest, since during the inspection of the visualized data, the possibility to interact with the dataset in an intuitive way is of high importance, too. This includes picking parts of the model or probing single data values at a location in 3D space via mouse events.

2 RELATED WORK

3D Visualization in general and for decision support in particular places several specific demands on the rendering pipeline. In contrast to 3D applications like games, achieving realism and sophisticated visual effects are not the major goals. Instead, getting fast, meaningful and precise insight to the data is of high importance (Bürger and Hauser, 2007). Ideally, the data is not only provided to a small expert group but to various decision makers with different backgrounds. Today’s Web technologies such as HTML5, WebGL, JavaScript, and CSS3 offer a wide range of scripting and styling functionalities and are therefore attractive for developing such applications. Moreover, a high-quality visualization of 3D content inside common web browsers became possible through the advent
of APIs for hardware-accelerated rendering. WebGL (Marrin, 2012), based on OpenGL ES 2.0, is already supported by most of the major Browsers.

Additionally, the great advantage of a web-based 3D visualization is the ability to run it on a wide range of different platforms without the need for native solutions or plugins, why existing Web standards and browser technologies should be preferred (Behr et al., 2010). For being able to really use and smoothly combine Web technologies, declarative 3D approaches such as XML3D (Sons et al., 2010) or X3DOM (Behr et al., 2010) are therefore embedding 3D content directly into HTML documents. This is currently done using a so-called “polyfill layer”: the aim of such approaches is to mimic native web browser support for declarative 3D contents, as there is no declarative 3D Web standard yet. However, such a standard is being actively developed (W3C Community Group, 2012). Nevertheless, one important aspect when using declarative 3D approaches for large and medium-scale model visualization is that unstructured vertex data should be separated from the structured scene information by storing vertex data in external binary containers outside the DOM (Behr et al., 2012).

Picking of 3D data has been extensively studied, with the “Virtual Pointer” (Poupyrev et al., 1998) being one of the most popular metaphors for 3D interaction. Extensive research has been performed to improve this basic technique, e.g., towards better usability and performance through the use of an object buffer in screen space implemented with standard OpenGL (Elmqvist and Fekete, 2008). Picking attributes of vertex data within a browser-based setup using WebGL has been discussed in (Behr et al., 2010; Blume et al., 2011). The latter uses a method that spreads a 32 bit object ID over the 4 RGBA components to overcome several limitations of WebGL like missing buffer accessors. However, this comes at the cost of not storing any object position information in the picking buffer. Independent from such picking buffers, a 16-bit signed number format that generalizes existing 8-bit formats using RGBA8 textures was presented in (Strzodka, 2002).

3 AN EFFICIENT VERTEX DATA REPRESENTATION

Using declarative 3D approaches for the rendering of large models, it is crucial to externalize vertex data from the HTML document by using binary containers (Behr et al., 2012). Attribute data can be concurrently fetched by the Browser via Ajax calls or image downloads and is ideally “as is” transferred directly to GPU memory for rendering. Such a straightforward approach significantly reduces the memory and processing overhead, which is of high importance on mobile devices with limited CPU power. Within this section, we demonstrate how a compact vertex data representation for efficient visualization of large models inside a web-based environment can be implemented.

3.1 Large Data Partitioning and Paging

Since WebGL only supports 16-bit indices, indexed rendering only allows addressing a maximum of 64K vertices per draw call (or, to be precise, $2^{16} = 65,536$ vertices). Larger meshes thus have to be cut into several patches, each containing 64K vertices or less. We have currently implemented two methods for preprocessing such meshes: a simple KD tree as well as a vertex-cache-based approach. Both methods first merge all meshes with the same material (i.e., color and texture) into one big, flattened mesh.

The KD tree method (Wald and Havran, 2006) splits the mesh recursively into two parts by sorting each triangle either left or right of an axis-aligned splitting plane. The splitting plane is chosen in such a way that both parts contain nearly the same amount of triangles. If one mesh part has fewer triangles than a given threshold, the function stops. The result is that, using the right threshold, every generated patch of the mesh has less than 64K vertices. The other method...
of common compact mesh formats, we found integer coordinates with much less than 32 bit precision sufficient; for a recent work see (Maglo et al., 2012). While related work considered precisions of 12 bits or even 10 bits sufficient to encode vertex positions without a loss of visual quality, we are always using 16 bits. The reason is that the GPU will accept data in 32-, 16- or 8-bit precision, so we would have to pad 12 bit data to 16 bit anyway. We want to avoid such a step on the client to save the CPU overhead. Therefore, vertex positions are always encoded more precisely with 16 bits, while for vertex colors and normals even 8 bit are sufficient. This not only drastically reduces the file sizes of the externalized vertex attributes, but it also does not require any decoding process on the CPU, which is crucial on mobile devices.

The vertex positions, given as 16 bit integer values, are always encoded and decoded with respect to the bounding box of the corresponding patch of the model, though it is worth noting that per-patch bounding volumes can introduce cracks at patch boundaries due to precision errors. After that, the decoding on the client side can be efficiently performed inside a vertex shader: each integer coordinate is converted into a normalized float value in \([-1, 1]\) by dividing by half of the maximum short int value. The result is then multiplied by the size of the corresponding bounding box and translated to the bounding box’ center.

To further decrease the amount of loaded data, we encode the vertex normal into the fourth component \(w\) of the 16 bit vertex position, which would otherwise remain unused due to the requirement that on many GPUs, such as ATI or PowerVR, the vertex data even in interleaved representation needs to be 32-bit-aligned (Apple, 2011). Table 1 shows a comparison for non-aligned (first column) vs. aligned buffer data (other columns). Therefore, using \(xyz\) coordinates at 16 bit precision usually would require the use of an extra padding component \(w\) for alignment.

Thus, to obtain a meaningful value of \(w\) for a given vertex, we first convert the 3D normal vector \((n_x, n_y, n_z)\) into 2D spherical coordinates \((\theta, \phi)\), which we then map to the 8 bit unsigned char range \([0, 255]\). Several authors of compact mesh compression formats (cf. e.g. (Hoppe, 1998)) have already proposed this method as it has no visible impact in common rendering setups, as long as normals are simply used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bytes encoding</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>256</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{ld, w/o extra padding})</td>
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<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
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<td>(\text{ld, w/ extra padding})</td>
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<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2 Compact Vertex Data Encoding

Visualizing large meshes as for instance required in the scientific visualization or CAD domain, where typical 3D models can have 50 - 100 million triangles and even much more, the proposed techniques have to be improved to minimize the numbers of bytes per primitive (triangle or point) even further, with the primary aim to significantly reduce the corresponding GPU memory footprints. Like many other authors

![Figure 2: Partitioning of a 883K vertices turbine blade model for rendering with WebGL. Left: Kd-tree-based approach, 32 patches. Right: Vertex cache optimization approach, using the minimum of 14 patches.](image)

is based on a vertex cache optimization algorithm (Forsyth, 2006). Simply put, the method combines local clusters of triangles who share a lot of vertices into one mesh. The function adds triangles one by one and the vertices of the added triangle into a vertex cache. Other triangles with vertices in the cache are likely to be added next. During this process, a mesh patch is considered to be complete if the amount of shared vertices has reached the threshold of 64K. The result is the minimum amount of patches with 16 bit indices, generated from one far larger mesh. Figure 2 shows a comparison of results for both methods.

However, depending on the size of the model and the memory capacity of the target device, another problem has to be solved: the complete vertex data might be too large to fit into GPU memory at all. We thus use a fixed limit for the number of patches that are drawn simultaneously. This limit is chosen with respect to the target platform. In addition, each patch is assigned a time stamp that stores the last time the patch was rendered. If the time stamp indicates that a patch has not been rendered for a duration greater than a fixed threshold, the patch is evicted from memory. This corresponds to a very basic Least Recently Used (LRU) strategy, as it is used for common large model visualization approaches – compare e.g. (Bruderlin et al., 2007; Cignoni et al., 2004).
to encode surface directions. Both of the 8 bit spherical coordinates are then converted into one 16 bit value \( w = 256 \cdot \theta + \phi \) arithmetically to avoid endianness issues. Note that the multiplication corresponds to an 8 bit binary left-shift, which moves the \( \theta \) component to the upper byte of \( w \), while the \( \phi \) component remains in the lower byte respectively (Figure 3).

For presentation, the converted vertex buffers are loaded to the GPU using the standard WebGL API and then decoded in a special vertex shader. First, the encoded low and high byte of \( \text{pos}.w \) need to be retrieved. Using programming languages like C/C++, this could be easily done using bit shifting and a binary AND. However, in our case the solution is a bit tricky since bit operations are not possible in the WebGL profile of GLSL. Moreover, \( w \) will be given in floating-point precision inside the shader. Thus, the following vertex shader code is used for decoding:

```glsl
vec2 nor = vec2(pos.w / 256.0);
nor.x = floor(nor.x) / 255.0;
nor.y = fract(nor.y) * (256.0 / 255.0);
vec2 thetaPhi = PI*vec2(nor.x, nor.y*2.0-1.0);
```

First, \( w \) gets shifted eight bits to the right through dividing by 256. This leads to the higher byte of \( w \) being represented as the integer part, while the lower byte is represented as the fractional part. Those two components are then obtained by using the GLSL’s built-in functions that isolate the integer part (floor) and fractional part (fract) respectively. After this, both values are mapped from their integer representation to the normalized floating point range \([0, 1]\) and finally to the original range of \( \theta \) and \( \phi \).

To convert the spherical values back to a vector \( (n_x, n_y, n_z) \), we make use of the well-known fact that \( \cos(x) = \sin(x + \pi/2) \). Exploiting the SIMD GPU architecture, we can calculate the sine and cosine of \( \theta \) and \( \phi \) in only one single shader instruction as shown next. The required values for converting \( (\theta, \phi) \) back to \( (n_x, n_y, n_z) \) are now contained in the resulting vec4.

```glsl
vec4 v = vec4(thetaPhi, thetaPhi + PI_HALF);
vec4 sinCosThetaPhi = sin(v);
```

Although this is very fast on desktop GPUs, on mobile graphics chips like the PowerVR used in Apple’s iPad even a simple sine operation is still rather expensive. Therefore, we further optimized this code for mobile environments by replacing the sine operation with a cheaper Taylor series approximation (see Table 1, right). Nevertheless, this method needs at least five terms to avoid unpleasant shading artifacts due to a poor function approximation.

### 4 FAST AND PRECISE PICKING

Gaining insight from visualized 3D data requires several interaction possibilities including interacting directly with the data via UI events, where picking techniques can be used for a detailed inspection. In the following, we show how to realize precise picking efficiently inside a web-based rendering system.

#### 4.1 Picking Buffers

Picking objects is often implemented via ray intersect by traversing the scene-graph, checking the bounding boxes and testing candidate triangles, which unfortunately is not fast enough with JavaScript in a Web Browser. Thus, a render-buffer-based approach instead of standard intersection tests should be preferred. However, the old school OpenGL selection and feedback functionality (McReynolds and Blythe, 2005) is not available in WebGL. Therefore, e.g. in (Behr et al., 2010) the picking buffer is implemented by first rendering the scene into an RGBA texture attached to a framebuffer object (FBO): the normalized world coordinates are encoded in the RGB channels, and the alpha channel contains the object ID reference. Occlusions are automatically handled by the depth buffer. By retrieving the values located under the mouse pointer via the WebGL function `readPixels()`, the ID of the picked object is obtained with 8 bits of precision.

#### 4.2 Distance-based Picking

Due to the mentioned 8-bit RGBA representation, the main problem of the picking buffer method is missing precision for the picked positions and the fact that only 255 objects could be identified within one picking pass. For higher precision or more identifiable objects several picking buffers and render passes would be necessary, which would lead to a significant drop of the frame-rate during rendering. While

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**Figure 3**: Compact vertex data storage in blocks of 16 bits.

**Figure 4**: Picked surface normal estimation. Left: A simple demonstration. Right: Example from the cultural heritage domain, with an unoriented annotation marker (green) and an oriented, cylindrical one (red), auto-oriented through our normal estimation method. Note how the oriented marker helps to specify the exact location on the surface.
there exists a WebGL extension for floating-point-precision textures, this feature is not yet available for mobile systems like the iPad or the new Nexus 7 tablet, which supports WebGL with Opera and Firefox mobile. Even worse, floats can only be used on the GPU (e.g., depth maps for shadow calculations), since the only allowed format and type combination for readPixels() in WebGL is still RGBA and UNSIGNED_BYTE (Marrin, 2012, Section 5.14.12).

Hence, we propose a new approach that supports 64K different objects (to be exact: $2^{16} - 1$, as 0 represents the absence of objects). Furthermore, within the same pass, we obtain a high-precision 16-bit pick position, as well as the normal at the picked position (both in world space) for all mouse or touch events. Despite the improved precision, we still employ a single-pass render-buffer-based approach with a standard 8-bit RGBA buffer due to WebGL’s FBO limitations.

Instead of rendering the normalized world position directly into an FBO-texture’s 8-bit RGB channels and the internal object ID into the 8-bit alpha channel, we just render the distance from the picked point to the camera position into the RG channels. This distance value is computed and encoded as a 16-bit value inside the special fragment shader used by the picking pass. Having the distance $d$ between the camera and the picked position provides enough information to calculate the full 3D position. This is simply achieved by computing the viewing ray from the eye through the picked 2D pixel position $(x, y)$.

The corresponding object’s ID is rendered accordingly into the texture’s BA channels, also using 16 bits. After having rendered the picking pass, the 16-bit ID and picking distance are decoded on the CPU in JavaScript, analogously to how the normal values are decoded from a single 16-bit value (Section 3.2). However, flattening the original graph as outlined in Section 3.1 poses another problem, since the original graph structure is lost. To alleviate this issue, a numeric identifier denoting the original geometry is encoded in an additional vertex attribute during preprocessing along with a name-id map exported as JSON file. In the picking pass we then simply use the per-vertex ID instead of the object ID, while the original object name, including the mapping between flattened and original meshes, is derived from the JSON object.

### 4.3 Picked Normal Estimation

Instead of just reading back one single 8-bit RGBA value at the picked pixel position $(x, y)$, we read back a small $2 \times 2$ window, which enables us to directly compute the object’s normal. We do so by taking the cross product of the decoded world space position above the pick point $(x, y - t)$ and to the right $(x + t, y)$ of it. Since for performance optimizations we render the picking buffer with only half of the render buffer size, the neighbor pixels are accessed using an accordingly scaled pixel offset $t$. Having the normal data at the picked position at hand is especially essential for more advanced forms of interaction. For example, annotation markers that can be added by the user, as shown in Figure 1, can be oriented and positioned correctly this way. Figure 4 shows two other examples using our normal estimation method.

<table>
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<th>Model</th>
<th>#Triangles</th>
<th>X3DB</th>
<th>Our format</th>
</tr>
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<td>7.21 MB</td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

### 5 DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

We have provided hints that are useful for the efficient and meaningful visualization of even complex 3D models inside common Web browsers, running on different platforms. First, we have shown that large models with more than $2^{16}$ vertices need to be split into several patches for rendering with WebGL. To construct those patches, we have compared two methods: A kd-tree-based approach as well as an approach based on vertex cache optimization.

The kd tree method has the advantage that each patch has a tight bounding box, which is almost not overlapping at all with the bounding boxes of other patches. This is especially useful for view frustum culling. Although the method is easy to implement, the drawback is that the amount of vertices per patch and draw call is far from optimal. In contrast, the vertex-cache-based approach always constructs patches with nearly the optimal amount of 64K vertices. Along with the improved GPU vertex cache coherency, the smaller number of draw calls ensures an optimal rendering performance. The only drawback here is that the bounding boxes of the patches can become larger than for the kd-tree-based approach (see Figure 2, right). However, this depends on the mesh and the number of shared vertices.

Our implementation is able to render the 91M triangles model shown in Figure 1 in a standard web browser. Table 2 shows a comparison of file sizes for several models, stored in the X3D binary format x3db (Web3D Consortium, 2011) and with our compact binary encoding. As can be seen, we need less than 30% of disk space compared to x3db. Moreover, the model
can be loaded much faster, and even in parallel, as we can exploit the browser’s capability to download several patches of the mesh at a time. In contrast to other web-based formats like X3D, the data can directly be transferred “as is” to the GPU, without any further CPU-based processing inside the client’s JavaScript layer. While our vertex data format is more compact than previous ones, the client’s GPU memory must still be able to hold all data that is currently rendered. Otherwise, constant paging of data packages totally breaks performance. Luckily, for typical large models like this car, it mostly makes no sense to display all its components simultaneously: e.g. one will either display the car’s body or the interior of the motor compartment, but never both at the same time.

The identification of one out of up to 64K objects during picking is made possible through our improved single-pass picking buffer algorithm, providing 16 bits of precision for picked vertex attributes. All proposed model processing, rendering, and interaction methods have been integrated into the open-source framework X3DOM (Behr et al., 2010; Behr et al., 2012) and the publicly available Mixed Reality framework instantReality (FhG, 2012).

6 CONCLUSIONS

Within this paper, we have discussed some important aspects of our approach towards fast and precise visualization of – and interaction with – 3D model data inside a Web Browser. Our methods are straightforward to implement, easy to use, and enable visualizations of various kinds of input data, ranging from scientific visualization to highly complex CAD models.

For the future, we would like to investigate the possibility of using a progressive loading mechanism that does not introduce too much CPU processing overhead on the client side. This could lead to a significantly improved user experience. Visualizing extremely large models with many millions of polygons also requires more sophisticated techniques for out-of-core rendering. The integration of such methods into browser-based visualizations, especially on mobile devices, is thus another interesting challenge.

REFERENCES


