



# Advanced Computer Graphics

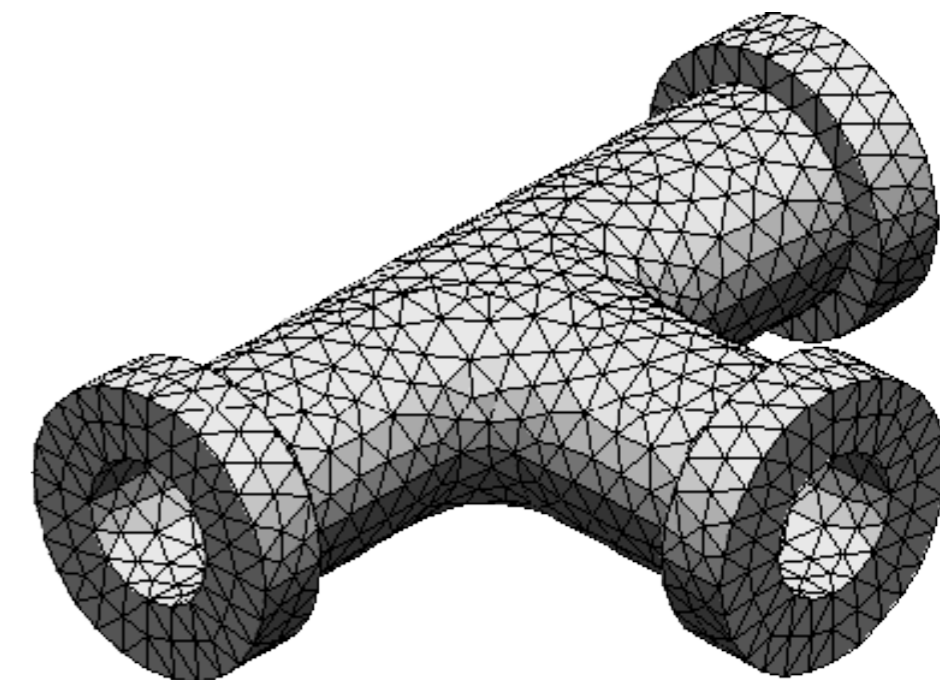
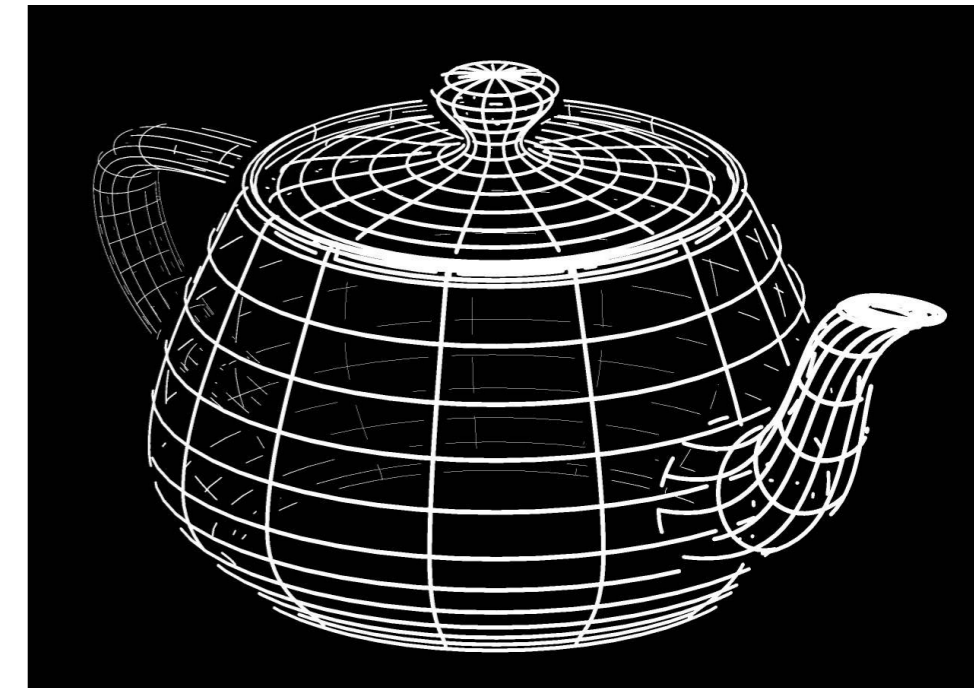
## Boundary Representations for Graphical Models



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- How to store objects in versatile and efficient data structures?
- Definition *Boundary Representation (B-Rep)*:  
Objects "consist" of
  1. Triangles, quadrangles, and polygons, i.e., *geometry*; and
  2. Incidence and adjacency relationships, i.e., *connectivity ("topology")*
- By contrast, there are also representations that try to model the volume directly, or that consist only of individual points

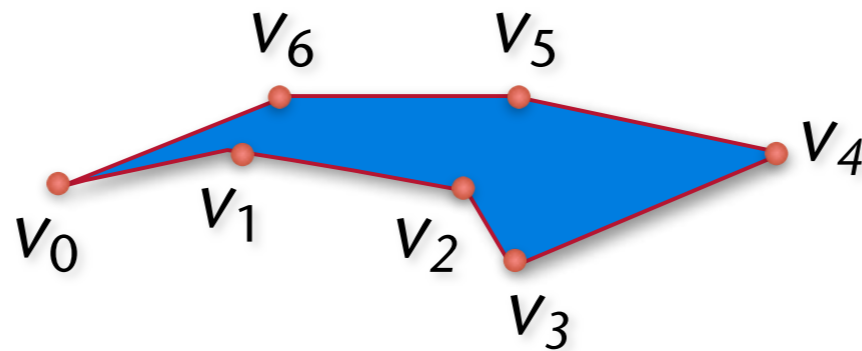


# Definitions: Graphs

- A **graph** is a pair  $G=(V, E)$ , where  $V=\{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$  is a non-empty set of  $n$  different **nodes (points, vertices)** and  $E$  is a set of **edges**  $(v_i, v_j)$
- When  $V$  is a (discrete) subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with  $d \geq 2$ , then  $G=(V, E)$  is called a **geometric graph**
- Two edges/nodes are called **neighboring** or **adjacent**, iff they share a common node/edge
- If  $e=(v_i, v_j)$  is an edge in  $G$ , then  $e$  and  $v_i$  are called **incident** (dito for  $e$  und  $v_j$ ;  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are called **neighboring** or **adjacent**)
- In the following, edges will be *undirected* edges, and consequently we will denote them just by  $v_i v_j$
- The **degree** of a node/vertex := number of incident edges

# Polygons

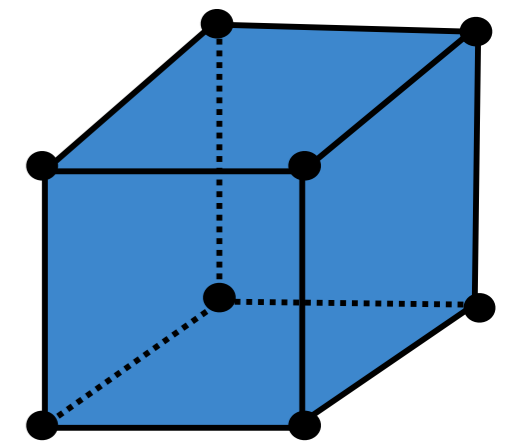
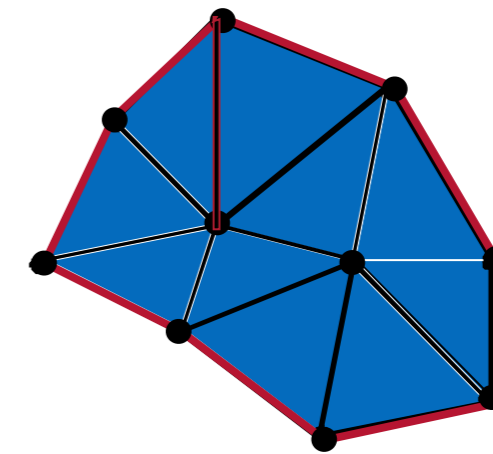
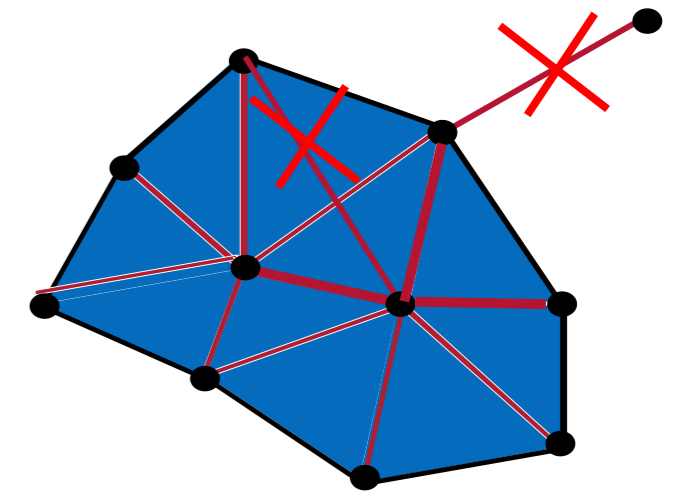
- A **polygon** is a geometric graph  $P=(V, E)$ , with nodes  $V=\{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \geq 2$ , and edges  $E=\{(v_0, v_1), \dots, (v_{n-1}, v_0)\}$ , such that all nodes lie in the same plane.
  - Nodes are called **vertices** (sg. **vertex**)



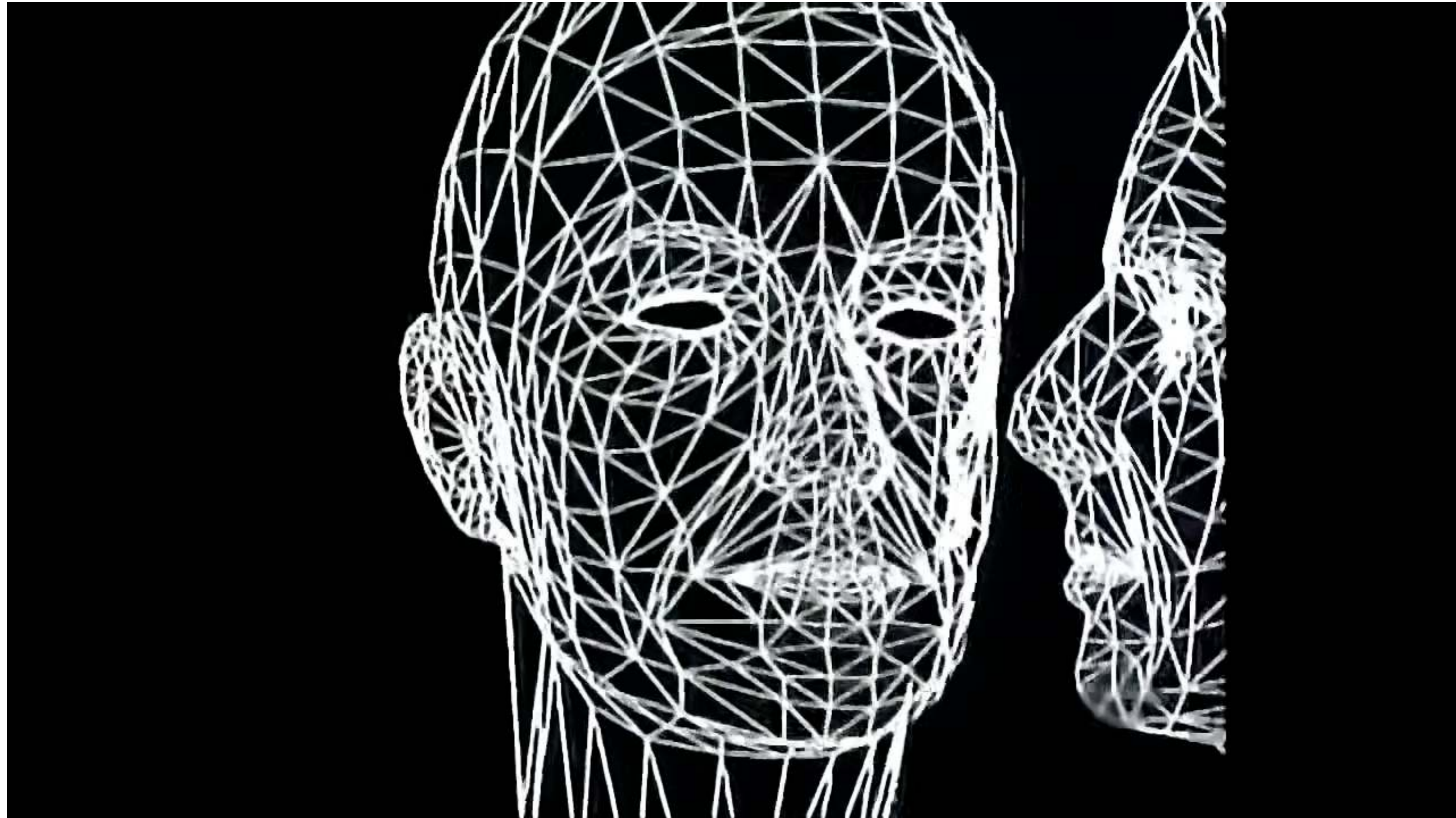
- Almost always we also require it to be **simple** = the *intersection of every two edges* in  $E$  is either empty or a vertex in  $V$ , and every vertex is incident to exactly two edges (i.e., the polygon does not have self-intersections).

# Mesh (Polygonal Mesh)

- Let  $M$  be a set of simple polygons  $P_i$ ;  
let  $V = \bigcup_i V_i$   $E = \bigcup_i E_i$
- $M$  is called a **mesh** iff
  - the intersection of two polygons in  $M$  is either empty, a point  $v \in V$ , or an edge  $e \in E$ ; and
  - each edge  $e \in E$  belongs to at least one polygon (no **dangling** edges)
- The set of all edges, belonging to one polygon **only**, is called the **border** of the mesh
- A mesh with no border is called a **closed** mesh
- The set of all points  $V$  and edges  $E$  of a mesh constitute a graph

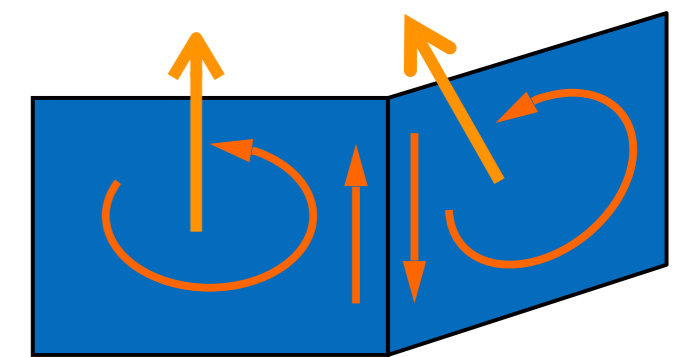
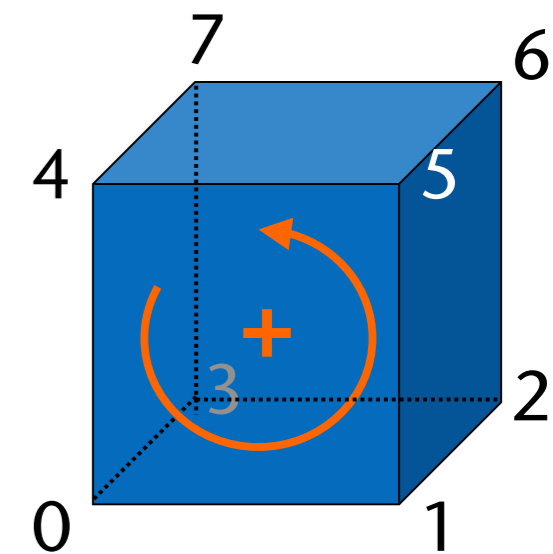
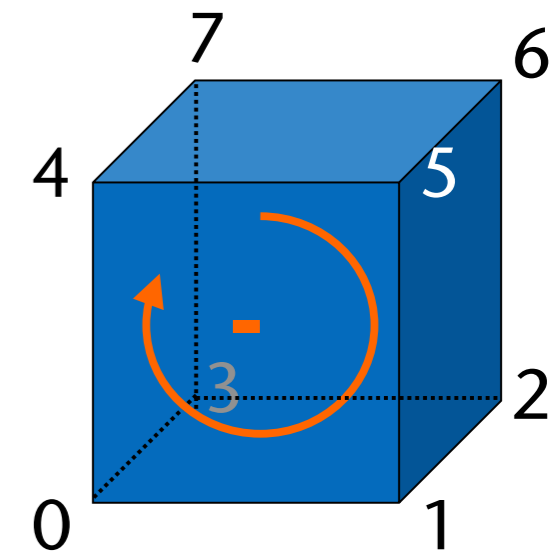


# First Explicit Application of a Mesh for a Music Video :-)

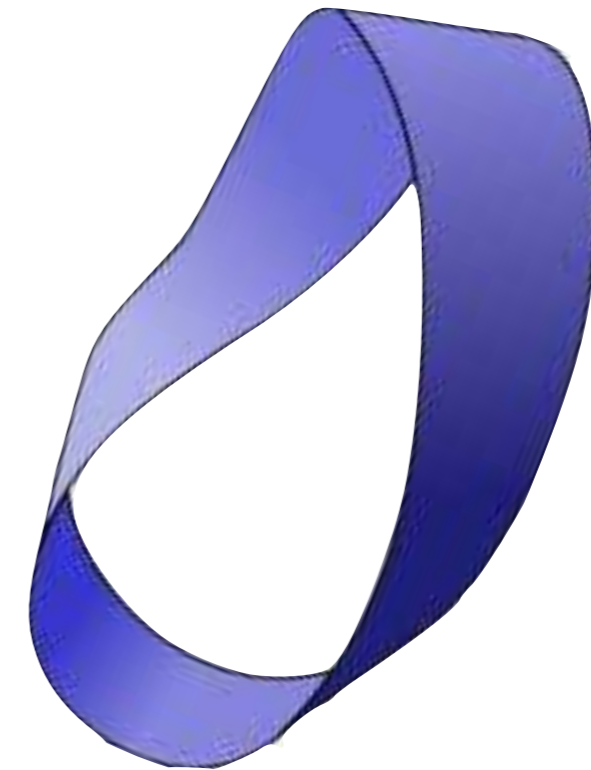


Kraftwerk: *Musique non stop*, 1986. Music video by Rebecca Allen.

- Each polygon of a mesh can be **oriented** by the **vertex order** in which its vertices are listed
  - Positive front face = ( 0, 1, 5, 4 )
  - Negative front face = ( 0, 4, 5, 1 )
- Two adjacent polygons have the **same orientation**, if the common edge is traversed in *opposite* directions, when the two polygons are traversed according to their orientation
- The orientation determines the **surface normal** of a polygon. By convention, it is obtained using the right-hand-rule

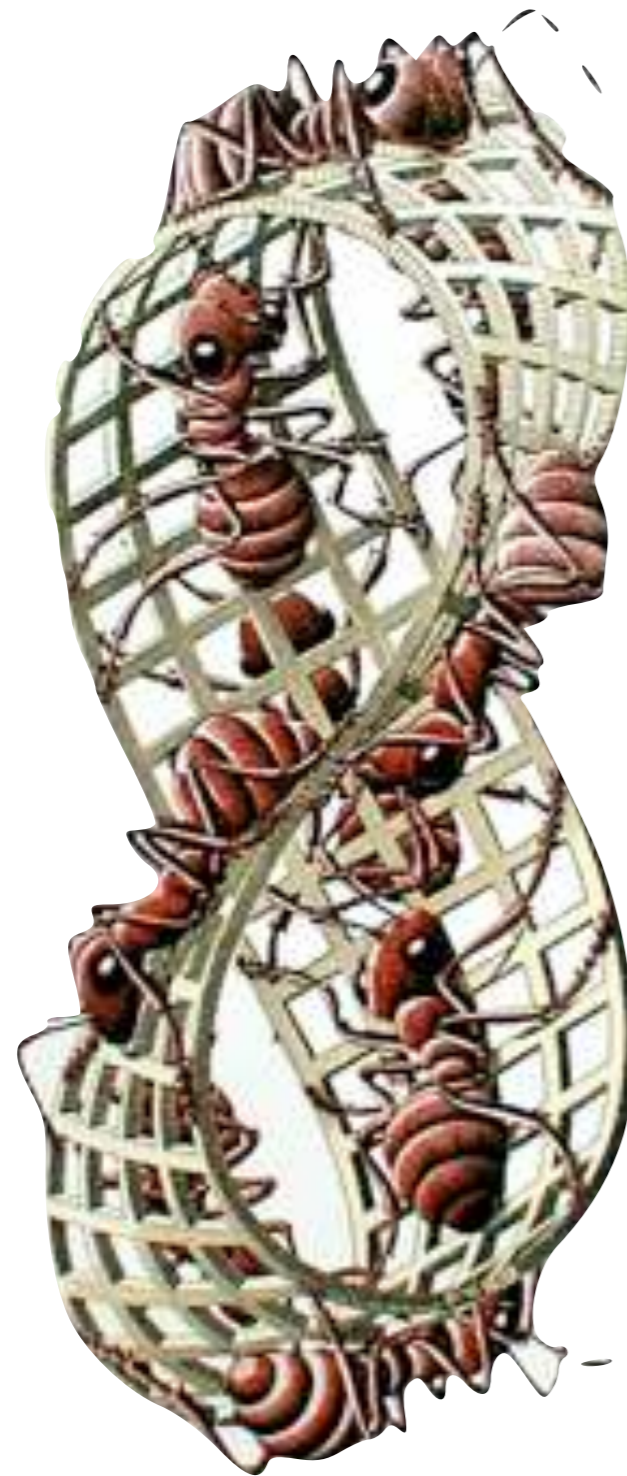


- A mesh is called **orientable**, if all polygons *can* be oriented such that every two adjacent polygons have the **same orientation**
  - The mesh is called **oriented**, if all polygons actually do have the same orientation
- A mesh is called **non-orientable**, if there are **always** two adjacent polygons that have opposite orientation, no matter how the orientation of all polygons is chosen
- Theorems (w/o proof):
  - Each *non-orientable* and closed surface that is embedded in *three-dimensional* space must have a self-intersection.
  - The surface of a polyhedron is always orientable





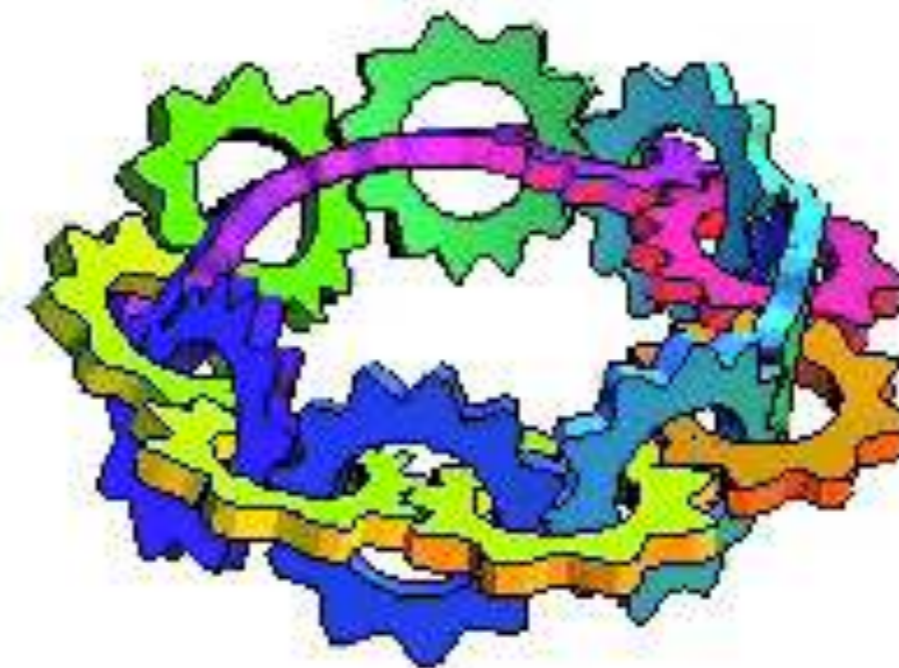
# Digression: the Möbius Strip in the Arts



*Möbius Strip II*, woodcut, 1963

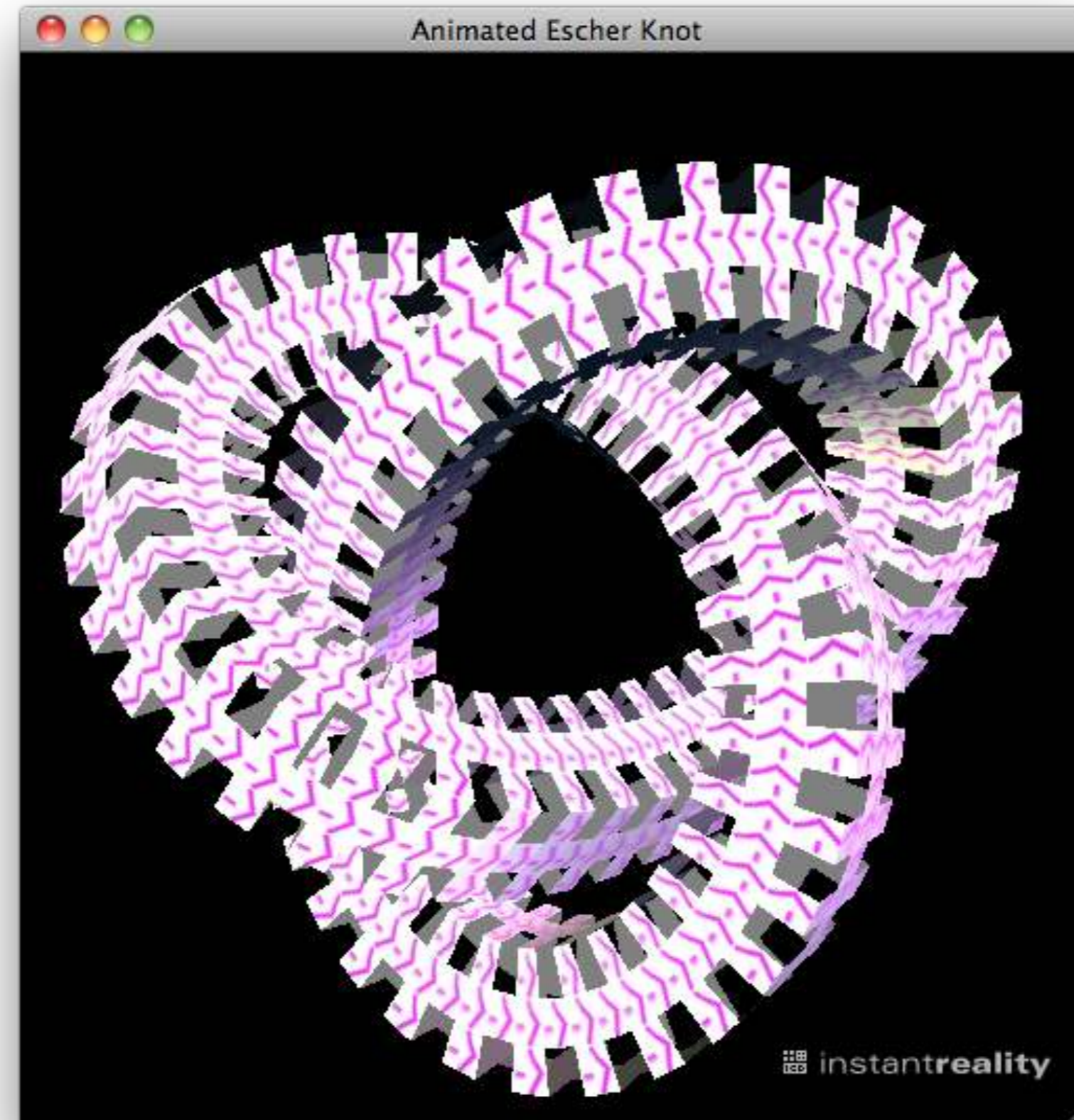


Max Bill



*Interlocked Gears*,  
Michael Trott,  
2001

# Is the Escher Knot an Orientable Mesh or Not?

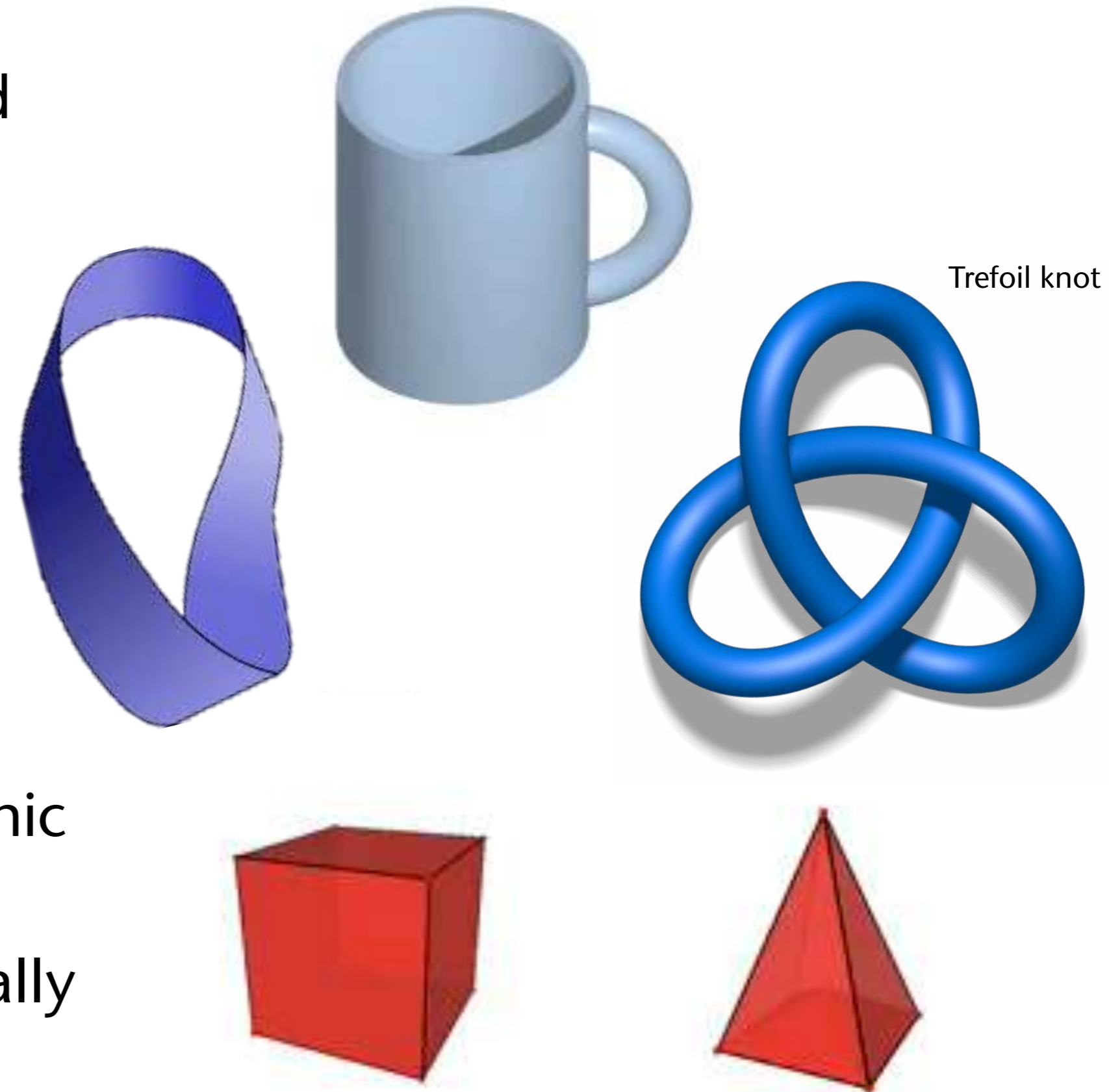


<http://homepages.sover.net/~tlongtin>

# Definition: Homeomorphism

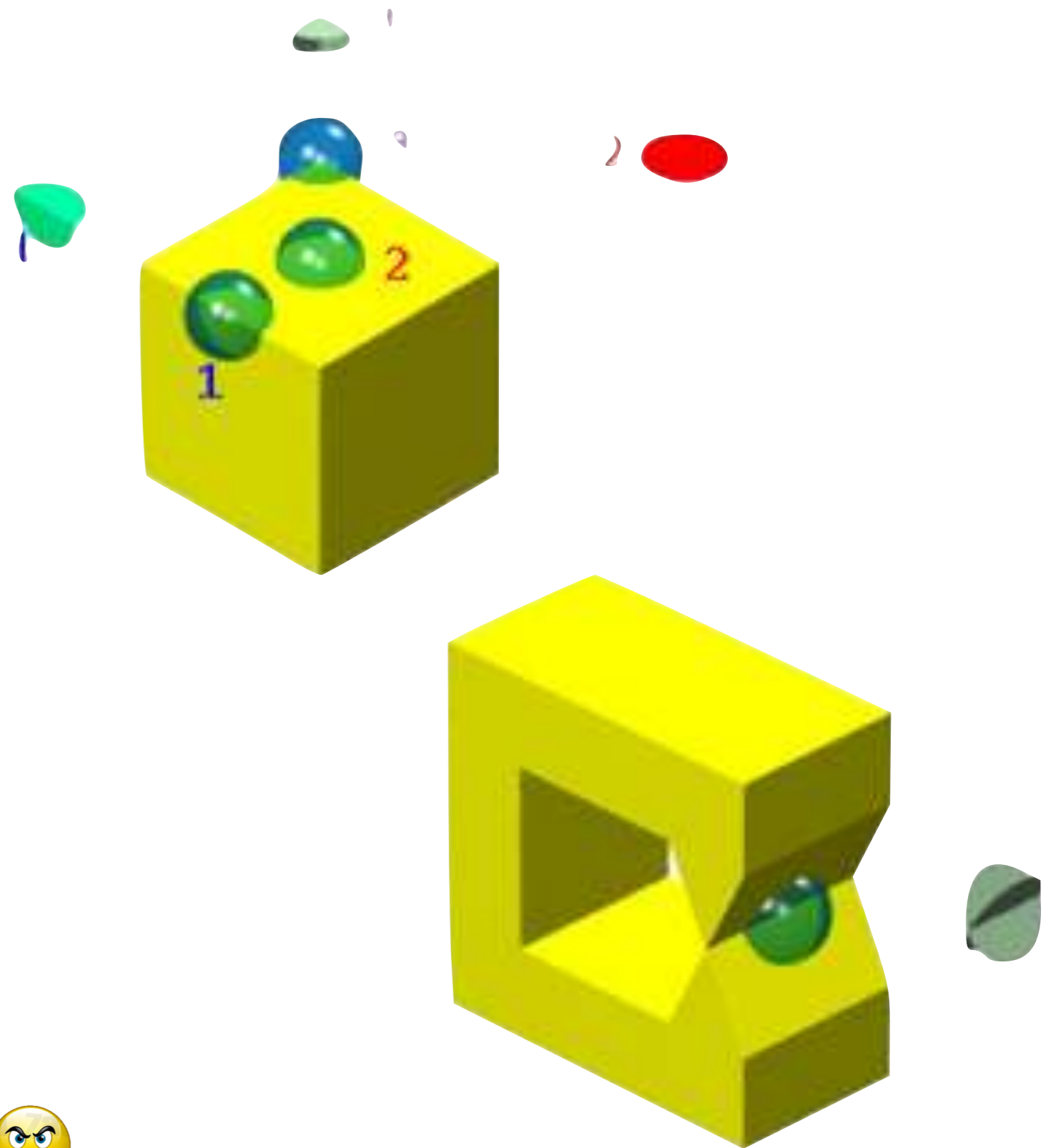
- **Homeomorphism** = bijective, continuous mapping between two "objects" (e.g. surfaces), the inverse mapping of which must be continuous, too
  - Two objects are called **homeomorph** iff there is a homeomorphism between the two
- Colloquial illustrations:
  - Squishing, stretching, twisting is allowed
  - Making holes is *not* allowed
  - Cutting is allowed *only*, if the object is glued together afterwards at *exactly* the same place
- Note: don't confuse this with *homomorphism* or *homotopy*!

- Homeomorphic objects are also called **topologically equivalent**
- Examples:
  - Disc and square
  - Cup and torus
  - An object and its mirror object
  - *Trefoil knot* and .... ?
  - The *border* of the Möbius strip and ... ?
- All *convex* polyhedra are homeomorphic to a sphere
- Many non-convex ones are topologically equivalent to the sphere, too



# Two-Manifolds (Zwei-Mannigfaltigkeiten)

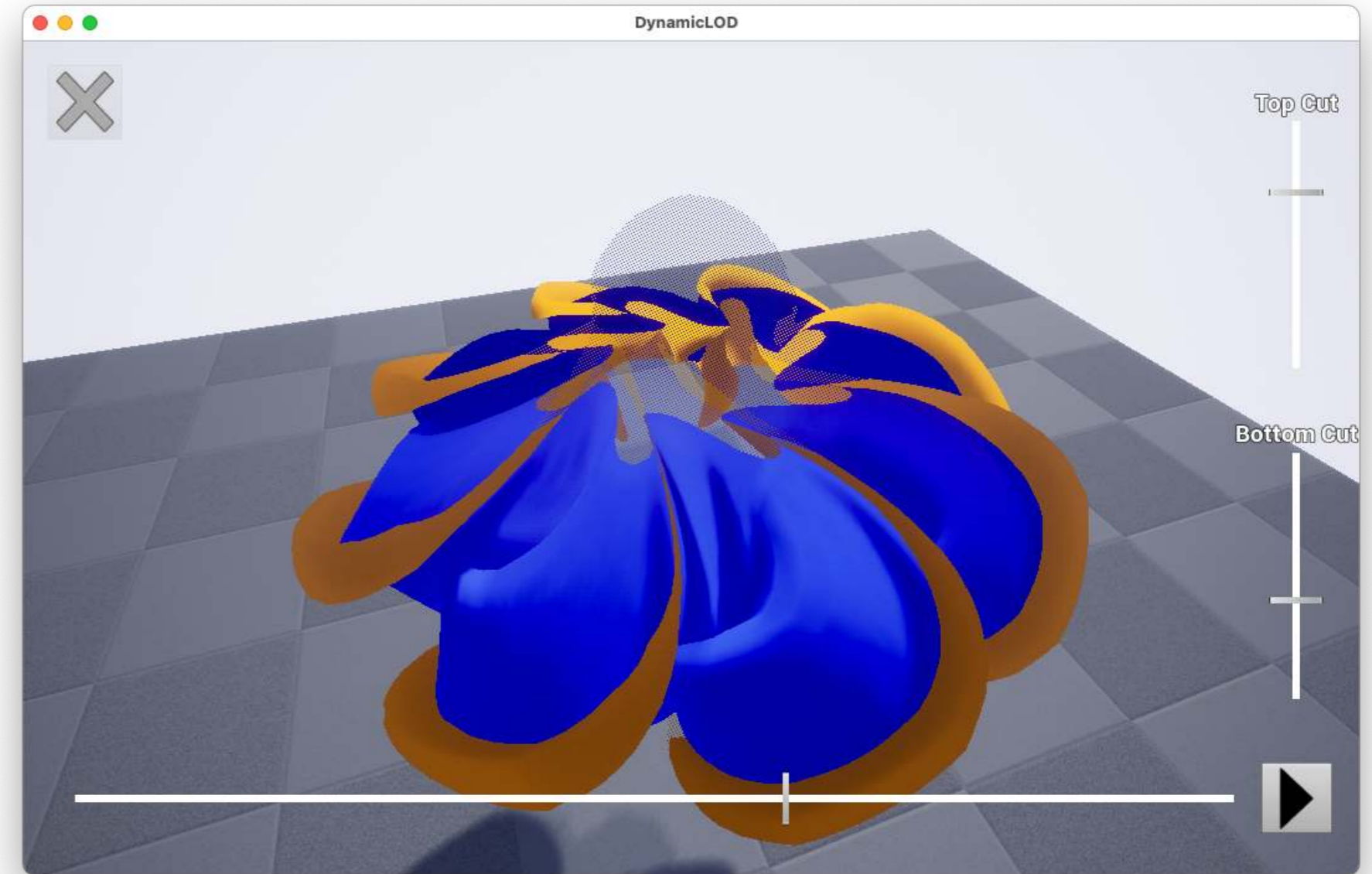
- Definition: a surface is called **two-manifold**, iff for each point on the surface there is an open ball such that the intersection of the ball and the surface is topologically equivalent to a two-dimensional disc
- Examples:
- Notice: in computer graphics, often the term "**manifold**" is used when 2-manifold is meant!
- The term "*piecewise linear manifold*" is sometimes used by people, to denote just a mesh ...



# Digression: Sphere Eversion

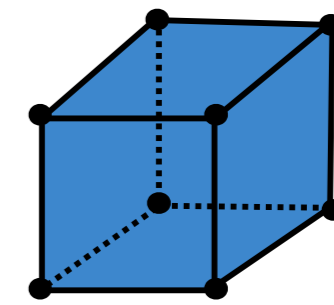


The rules of the game

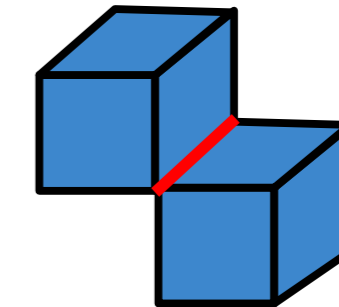


# Definition of Polyhedron

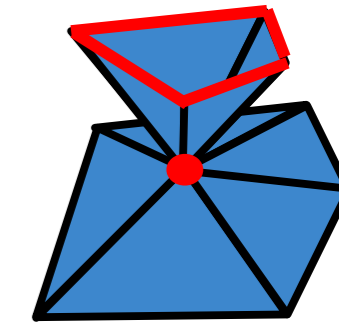
- A **polyhedron** (in CG) is a polygonal mesh in 3D that is
  1. closed,
  2. two-manifold, and
  3. has no self-intersection (sometimes dropped).
- The polygons are also called *facets / faces (Facetten)*
- From the earlier theorem it follows that polyhedra are always orientable
- **Jordan Curve Theorem** (w/o proof):  
Every topological sphere (e.g. polyhedron) partitions space into three subsets: **surface**, **interior**, and (unbounded) **exterior**.
- Warning: definitions differ depending on context!



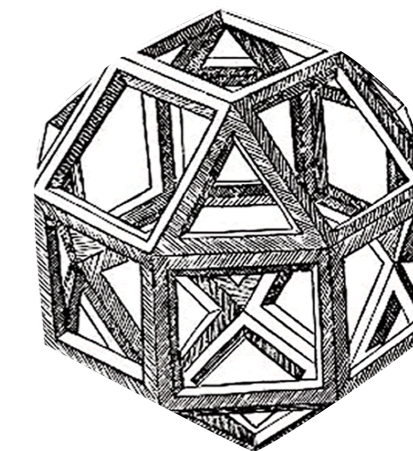
OK



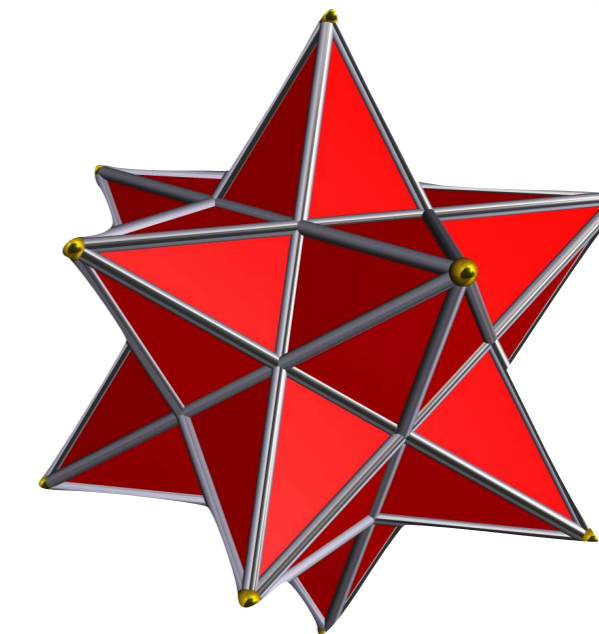
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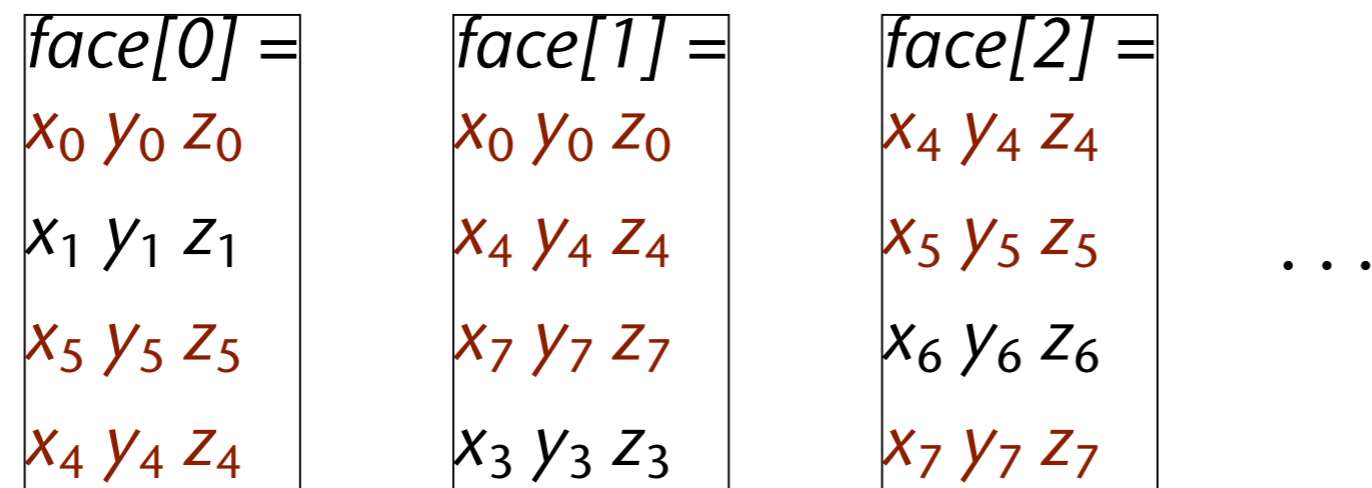
Leonardo da Vinci



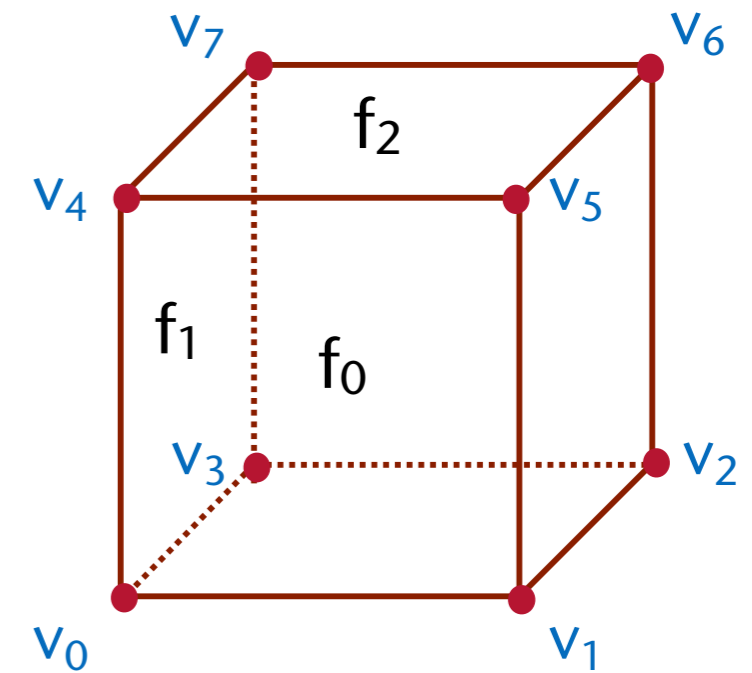
Small stellated dodecahedron

# The Most Naive Data Structure for Meshes

- Array of polygons; each polygon = array of vertices
- Example:



- Problems:
  - Vertices occur several times!
    - Waste of memory, problems with animations, ...
  - How to find all faces, incident to a given vertex?
  - Different array sizes for polygons with different numbers of

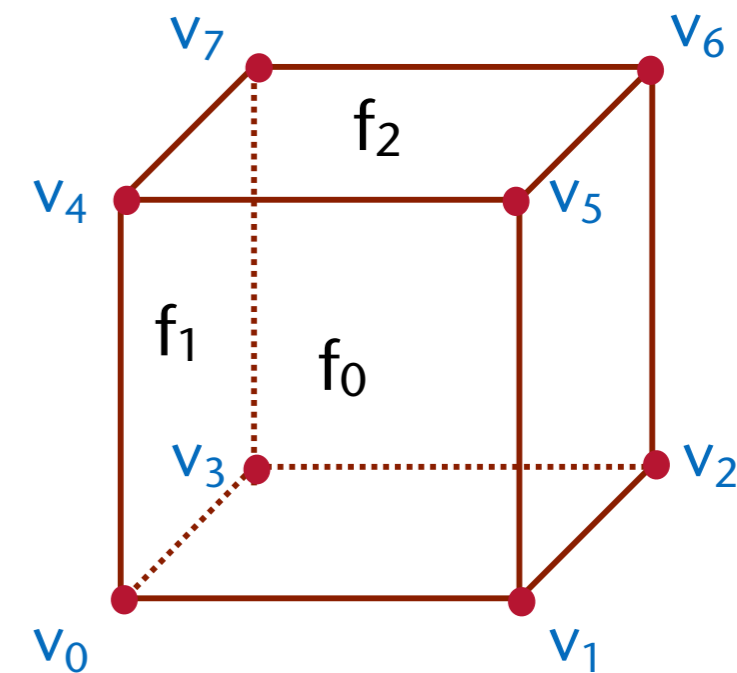




# The Indexed Face Set

- Idea: use common "vertex pool" (*shared vertices*)
- Example:

vertices =	face vertex index
$x_0 y_0 z_0$	0 0, 1, 5, 4
$x_1 y_1 z_1$	1 0, 3, 7, 4
$x_2 y_2 z_2$	2 4, 5, 6, 7
$x_3 y_3 z_3$	...



- Advantage: significant memory savings
  - 1 vertex = 1 point + 1 vector (v.-normal) + uv-texture coord. = 32 bytes
  - 1 index = 1 integer = 4 bytes
- Deformable objects / animations are much easier
- Probably the most common data structure

# The OBJ File Format

- OBJ = indexed face set + further features

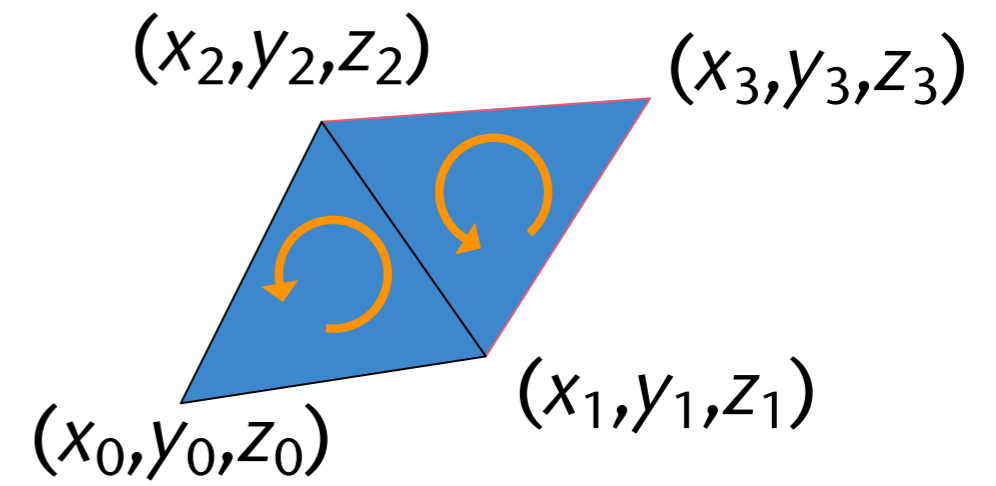
- Line based ASCII format

## 1. Ordered list of vertices:

- Introduced by "v" on the line
- Spatial coordinates x, y, z
- Index is given by the order in the file

## 2. Unordered list of polygons:

- A polygon is introduced by "f"
- Then, ordered list of vertex indices
- Length of list = # of edges
- Orientation is given by order of vertices
- In principle, "v" and "f" can be mixed arbitrarily



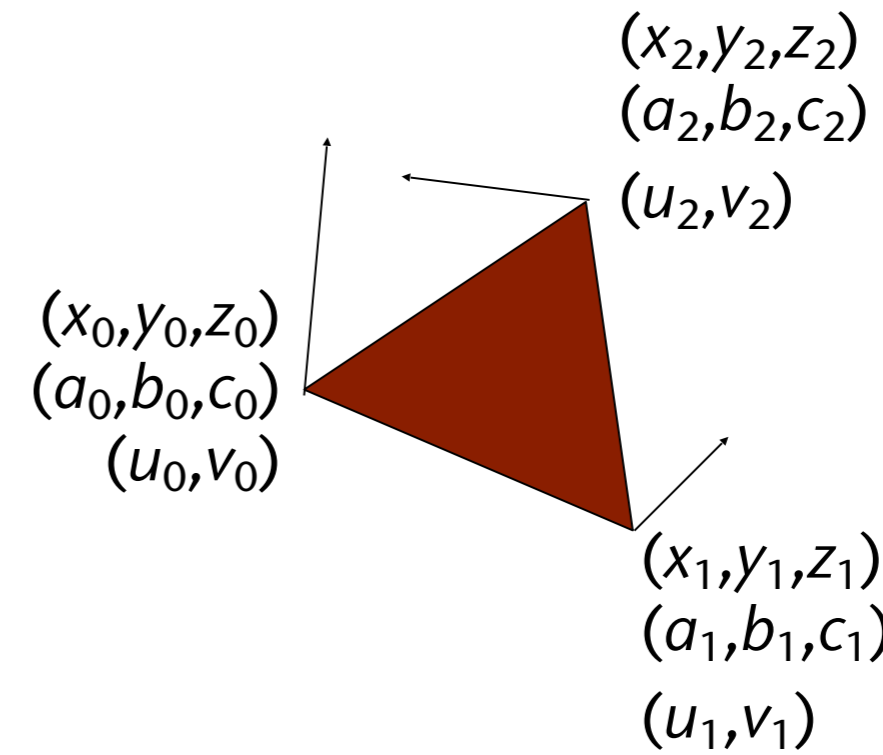
```

v x0 y0 z0
v x1 y1 z1
v x2 y2 z2
v x3 y3 z3

f 0 1 2
f 1 3 2
    
```

# More Attributes

- Vertex normals:
  - prefix "vn"
  - contains x, y, z for the normals
  - not necessarily normalized
  - not necessarily in the same order as the vertices
  - indizes similar to vertex indices
- Texture coordinates:
  - prefix "vt"
  - not necessarily in the same order as the vertices
  - Contains u,v texture coordinates
- Polygons:
  - use "/" as delimiter for the indices
  - vertex / normal / texture
  - normal and texture are optional
  - use "//" to omit normals, if only tex coords are given



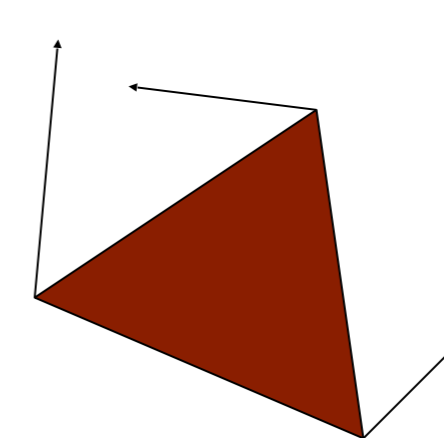
```

v x0 y0 z0
v x1 y1 z1
v x2 y2 z2

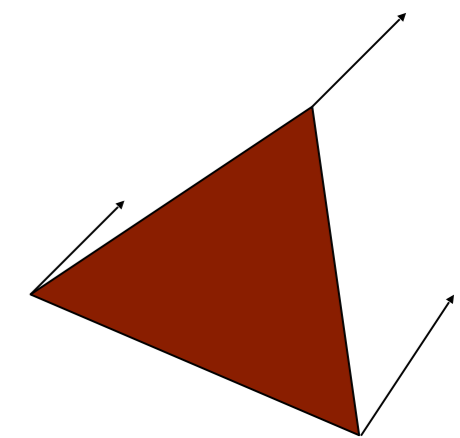
vn a0 b0 c0
vn a1 b1 c1
vn a2 b2 c2

vt u0 v0
vt u1 v1
vt u2 v2

f 0/0/0 ...
f ...
    
```



```
f 0/0/0 1/1/1 2/2/2
```

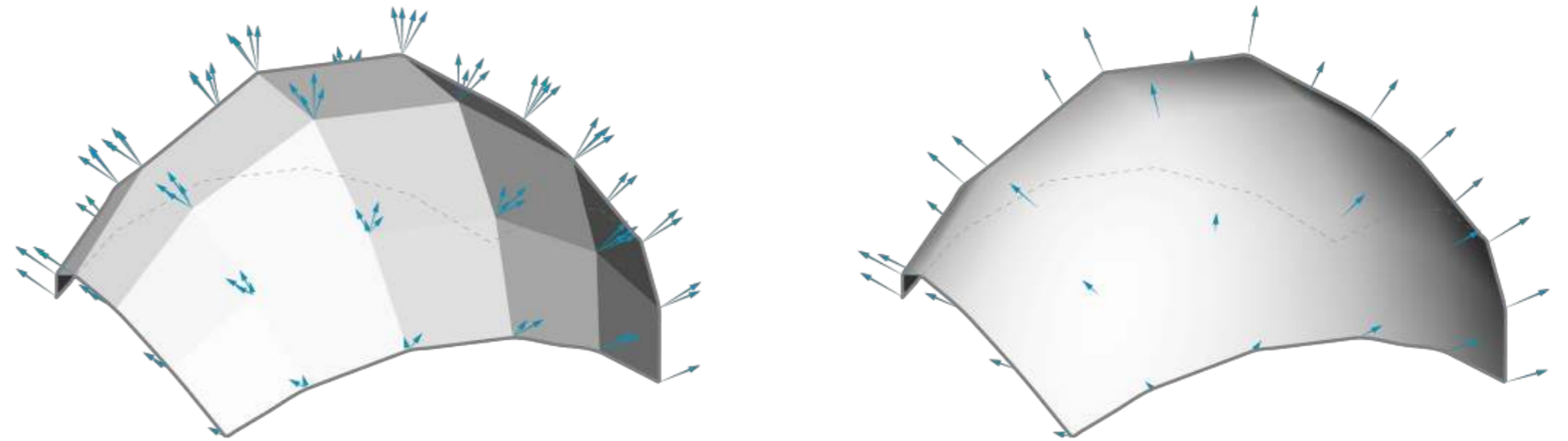


```
f 0/1/0 1/1/1 2/1/2
```

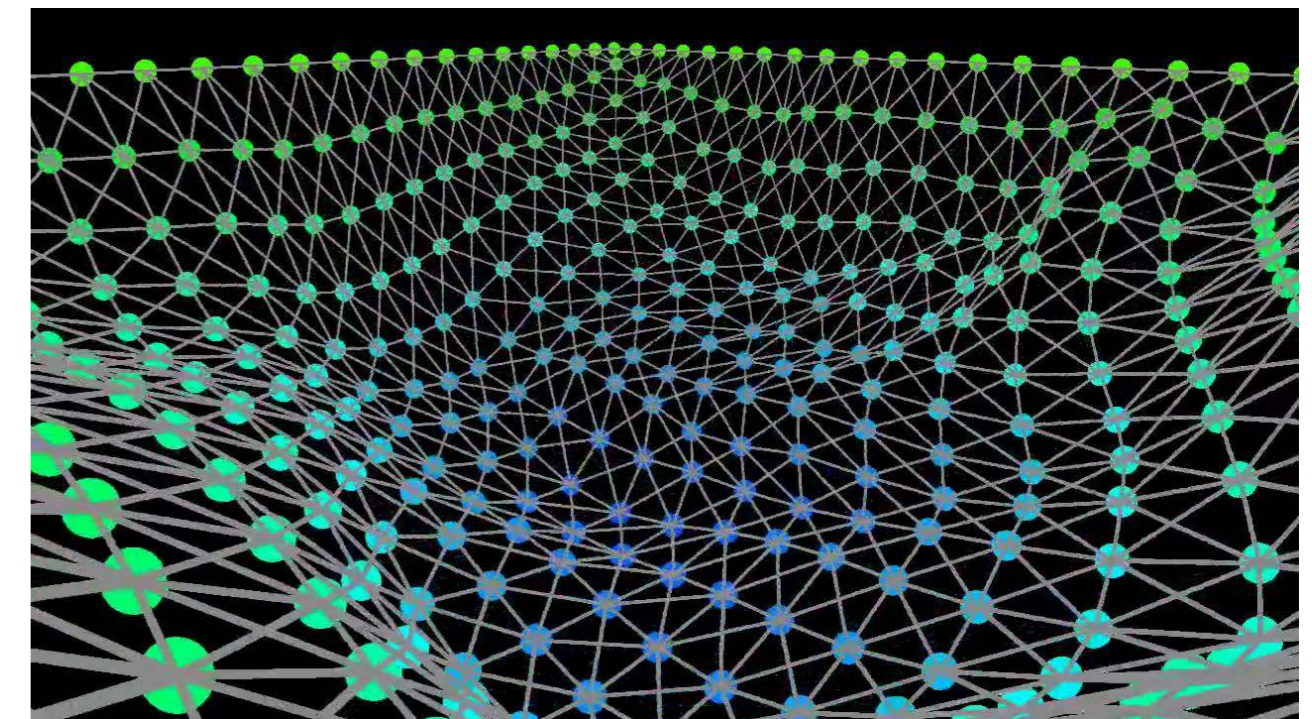
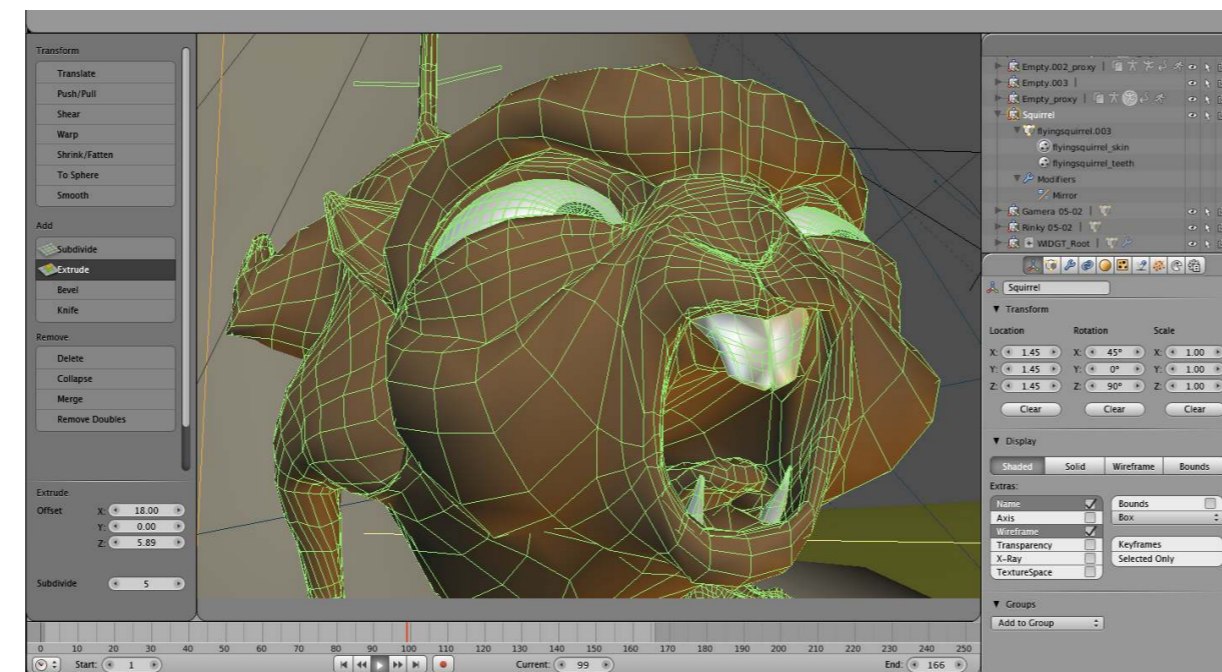
- Problems:
  - Edges are (implicitly) stored *twice*
  - Still no adjacency information (no "topology")
- Consequence:
  - Finding all facets incident to a given vertex takes time  $O(n)$ , where  $n = \#$  vertices of the mesh
  - Dito for finding all vertices adjacent to another given vertex (the 1-ring)
  - A complete mesh **traversal** takes time  $O(n^2)$ 
    - With a mesh **traversal** you can, for instance, test whether an object is closed
    - Can be depth-first or breadth-first

# Examples Where Adjacency Information is Needed

- Computing vertex normals



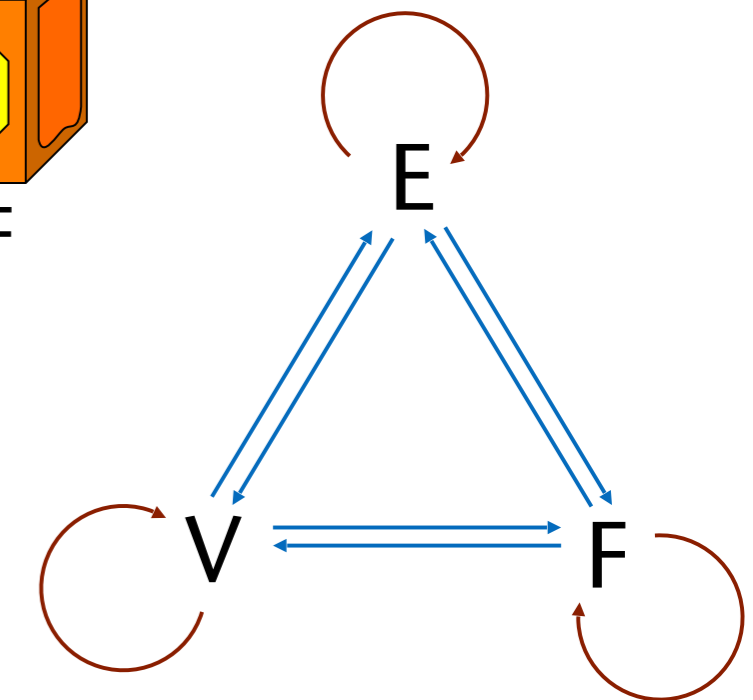
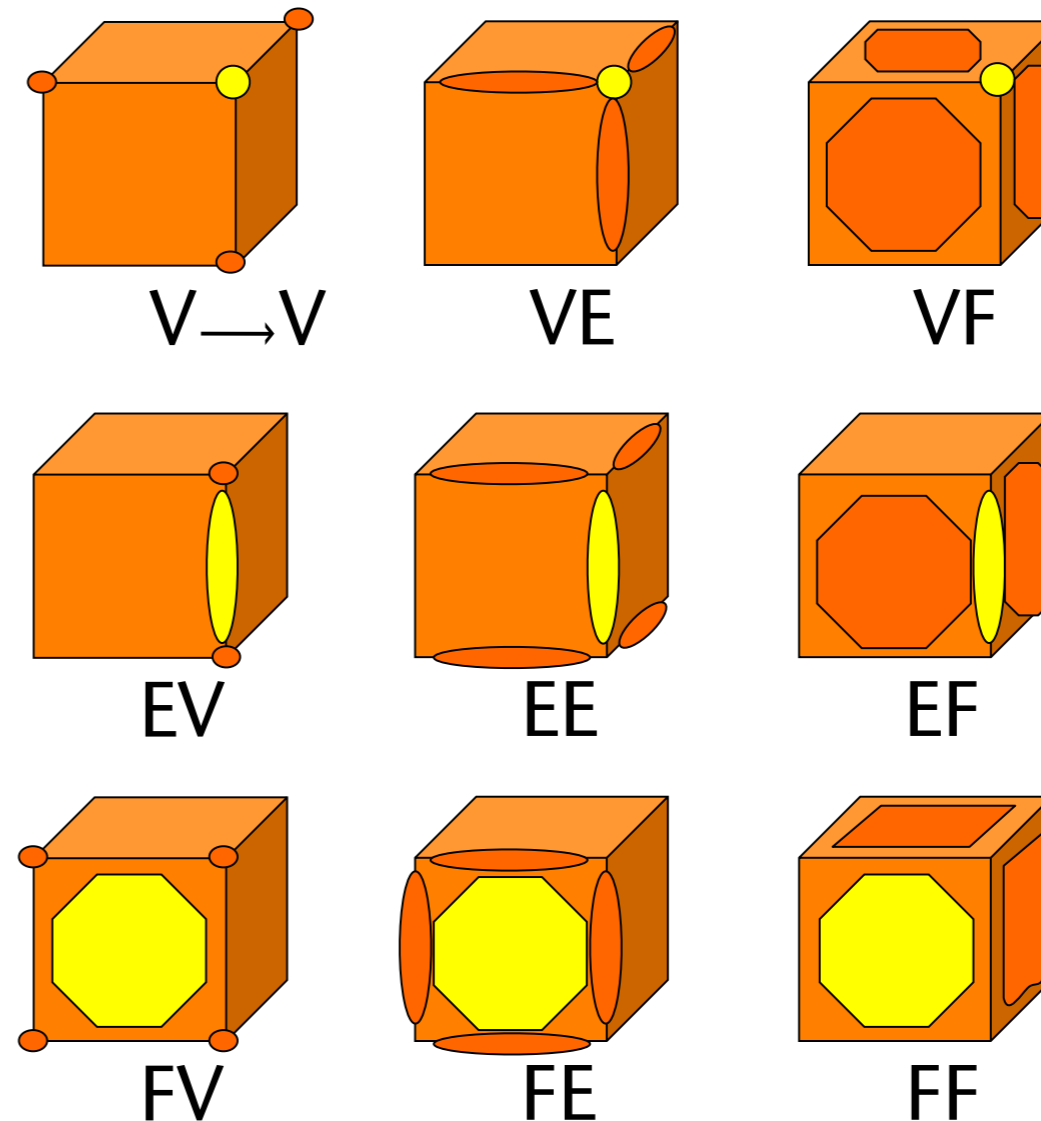
- Editing meshes



- Simulation, e.g., mass-spring systems

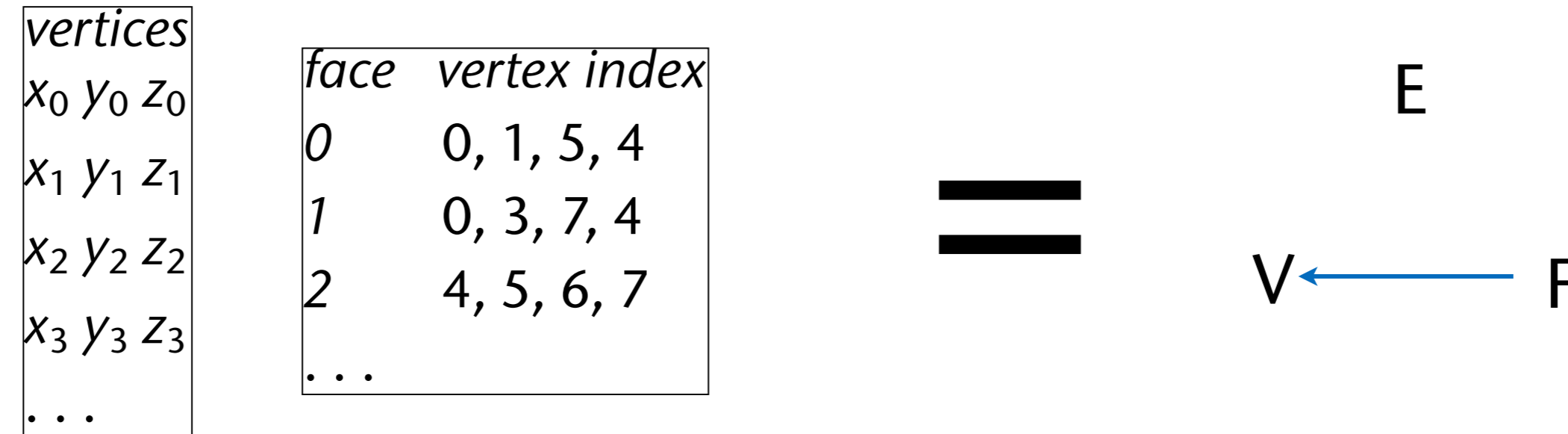
# All Possible Connectivity Relationships

	Given	Looking for (neighboring)	Notation
1	Vertex	Vertices	$V \rightarrow V$
2	Vertex	Edges	$V \rightarrow E$
3	Vertex	Faces	$V \rightarrow F$
4	Edge	Vertices	$E \rightarrow V$
5	Edge	Edges	$E \rightarrow E$
6	Edge	Faces	$E \rightarrow F$
7	Face	Vertices	$F \rightarrow V$
8	Face	Edges	$F \rightarrow E$
9	Face	Faces	$F \rightarrow F$



Abstract notation of a data structure with all connectivity relationships: arrows show the incidence/adjacency info in the DS

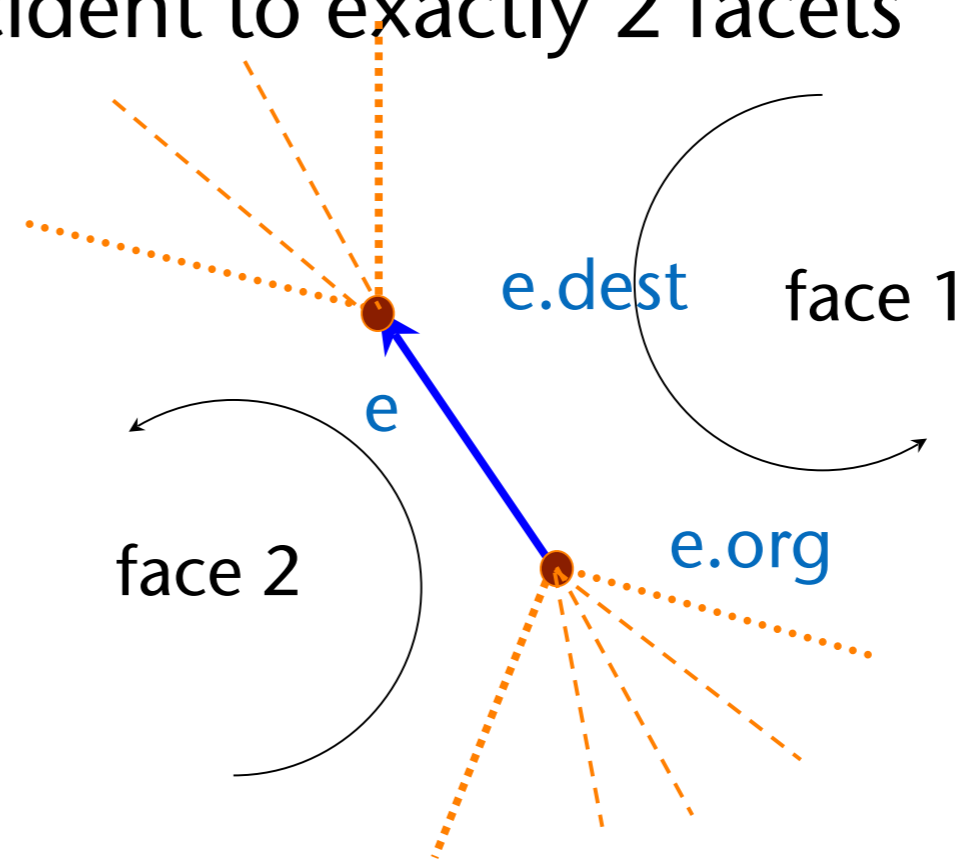
- Example: the Indexed Face Set



- Question: What is the minimal data structure, that can answer all neighboring queries in time  $O(1)$ ?

# The Winged-Edge Data Structure Just FYI

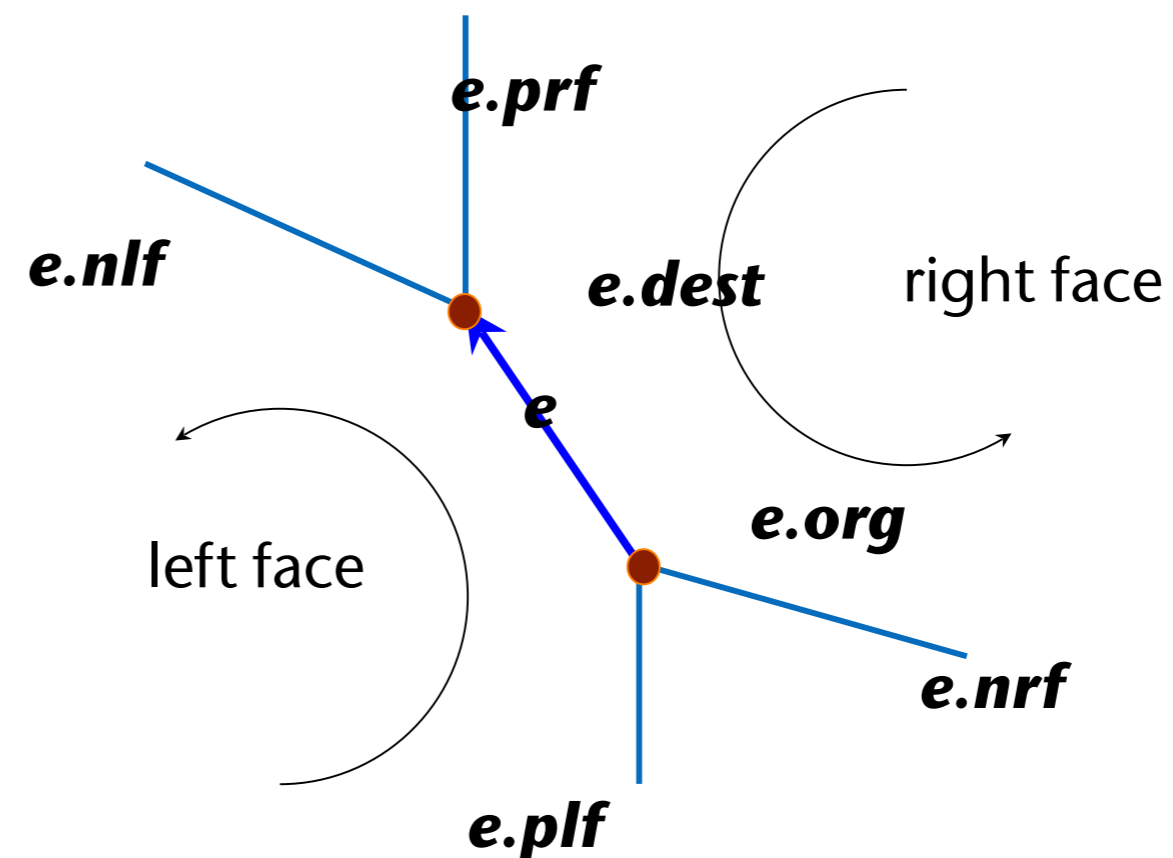
- Idea: **edge-based** data structure (in contrast to face-based)
- Observations:
  - An edge is defined by exactly two vertices: ***e.org***, ***e.dest***  
→ yields an orientation of the edge
  - In a closed polyhedron, each edge is incident to exactly 2 facets
  - If it is oriented, then one of these facets has the same orientation as the edge, the other one is opposite



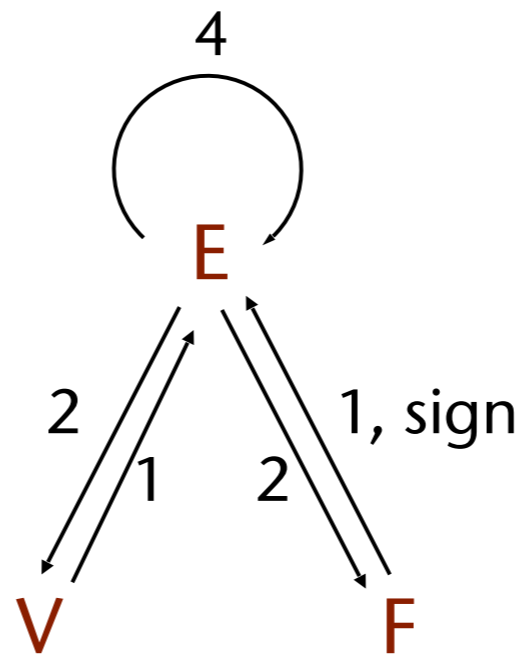


- Each edge has 4 pointers to 4 adjacent edges:
  - 1.  $e.prf$**  = edge incident to  **$e.dest$**  and incident to *right face*  
( $prf$  = "previous right face")
  - 2.  $e.nrf$**  = edge incident to  **$e.org$**  and incident to *right face*  
("next right face")
  - 3./4.  $e.nlf$  /  $e.plf$**  = edge adjacent to  **$e$**  and incident to *left face* ("next/  
previous left face")

- Observation: if all facets are oriented consistently, then each edge occurs once from  $org \rightarrow dest$  and once from  $dest \rightarrow org$



- In addition:
  - Each edge stores *one* pointer to the **left and right facet** (***e.lf***, ***e.rf***)
  - Each facet & each vertex stores *one* pointer to an **arbitrary** edge incident to it
- Abstract representation of the data structure:



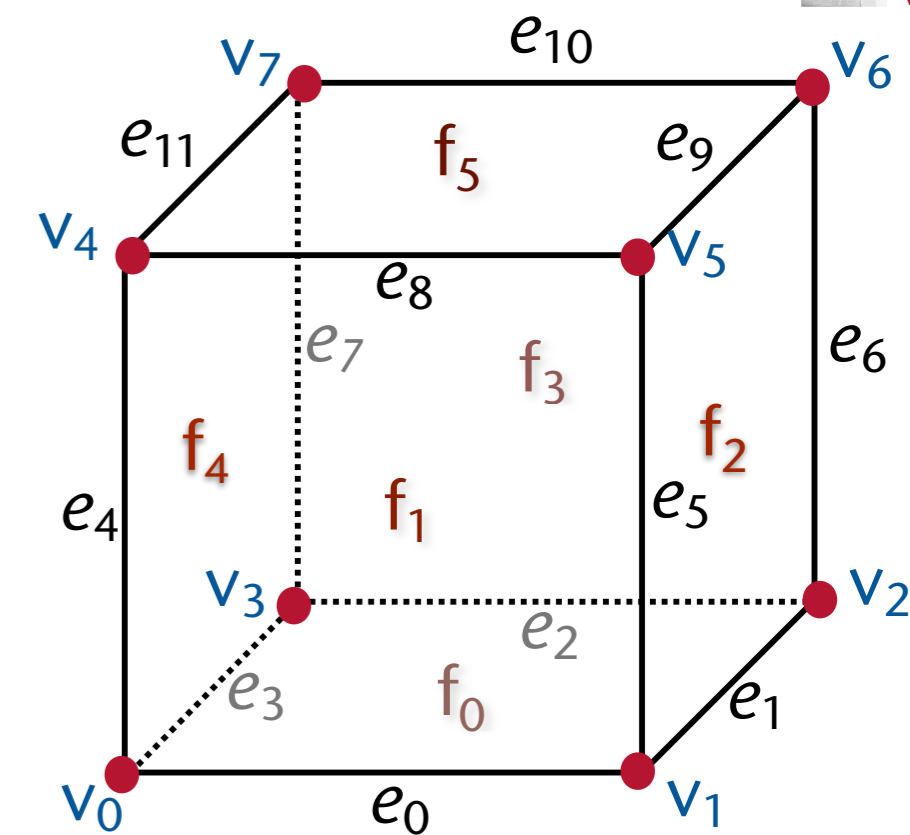
# Example Optional

Edge Table

e	org	dest	ncw	nccw	ncw	pccw	lf	rf
0	v0	v1	e1	e5	e4	e3	f1	f0
1	v1	v2	e2	e6	e5	e0	f2	f0
2	v2	v3	e3	e7	e6	e1	f3	f0
3	v3	v0	e0	e4	e2	e7	f4	f0
4	v0	v4	e8	e11	e0	e3	f4	f1
5	v1	v5	e9	e8	e1	e0	f1	f2
6	v2	v6	e10	e9	e2	e1	f2	f3
7	v3	v7	e11	e10	e3	e2	f3	f4
8	v4	v5	e5	e9	e4	e11	f5	f1
9	v5	v6	e6	e10	e5	e8	f5	f2
10	v6	v7	e7	e11	e9	e6	f5	f3
11	v7	v4	e4	e8	e10	e7	f5	f4

Vertex Table

v	x	y	z	edge
0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
1	1.0	0.0	0.0	1
2	1.0	1.0	0.0	2
3	0.0	1.0	0.0	3
4	0.0	0.0	1.0	8
5	1.0	0.0	1.0	9
6	1.0	1.0	1.0	10
7	0.0	1.0	1.0	11



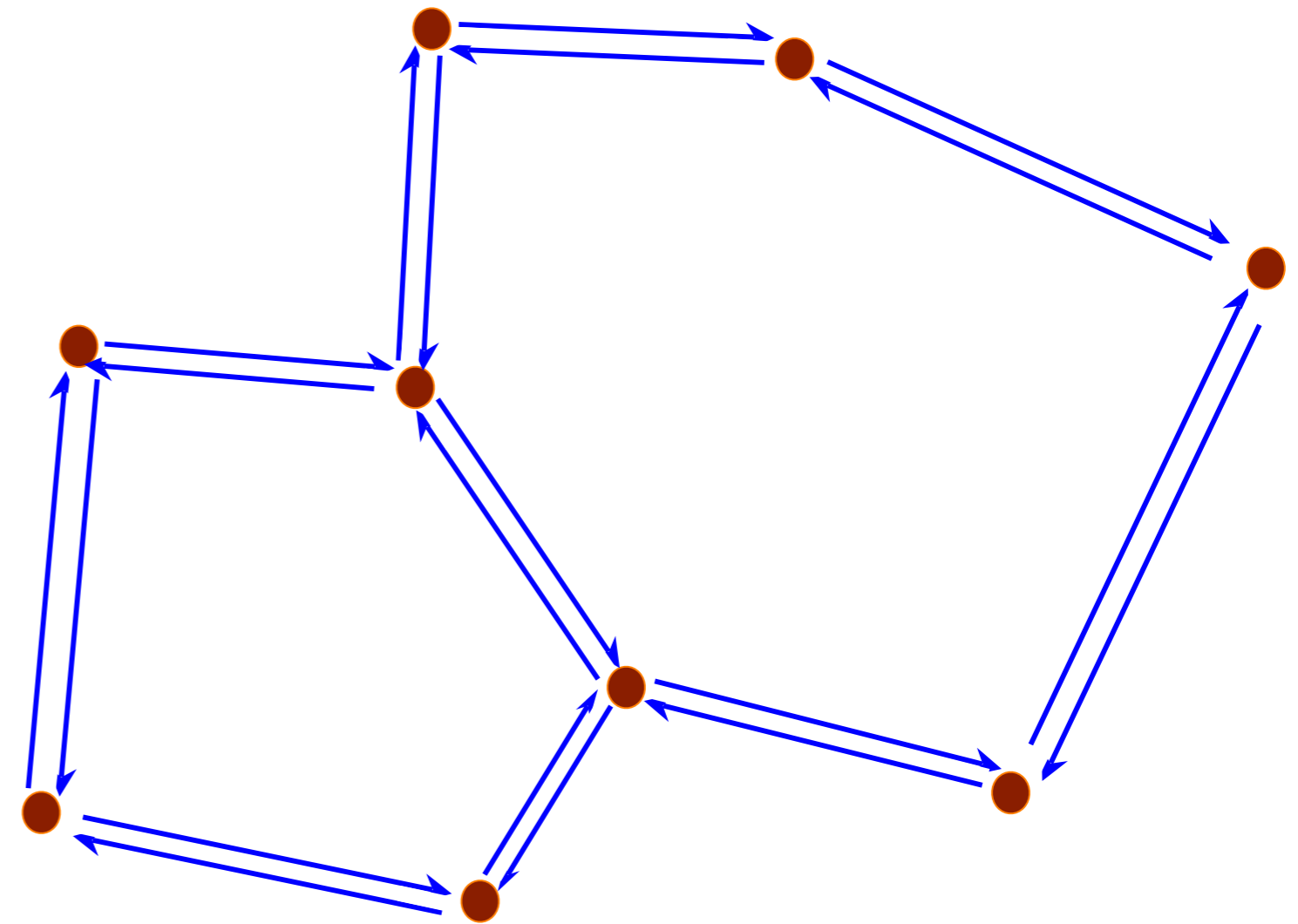
Face Table

f	edge	orient
0	e0	-
1	e8	-
2	e5	-
3	e6	-
4	e11	-
5	e8	+

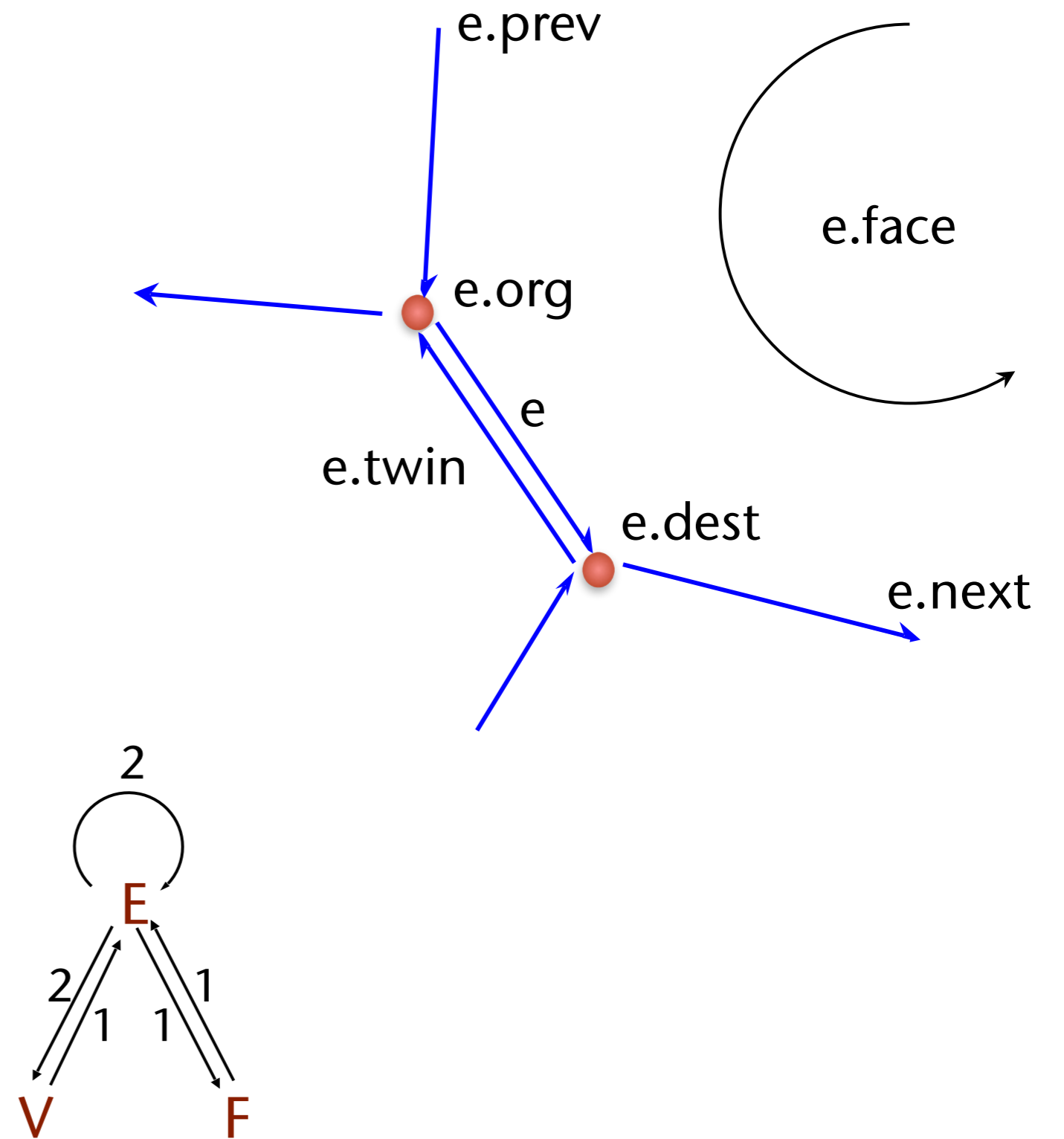
# Optional

- All neighborhood/connectivity queries can be answered in time  $O(k)$  where ( $k$  = size of the output)
- 3 kinds of queries can be answered directly in  $O(1)$ , and 6 kinds of queries can be answered by a local traversal of the data structures around a facet or a vertex in  $O(k)$
- Problem: When following edges, one has to test for each edge *how* it is **oriented**, in order to determine whether to follow  **$n[c]cw$**  or  **$p[c]cw$** !

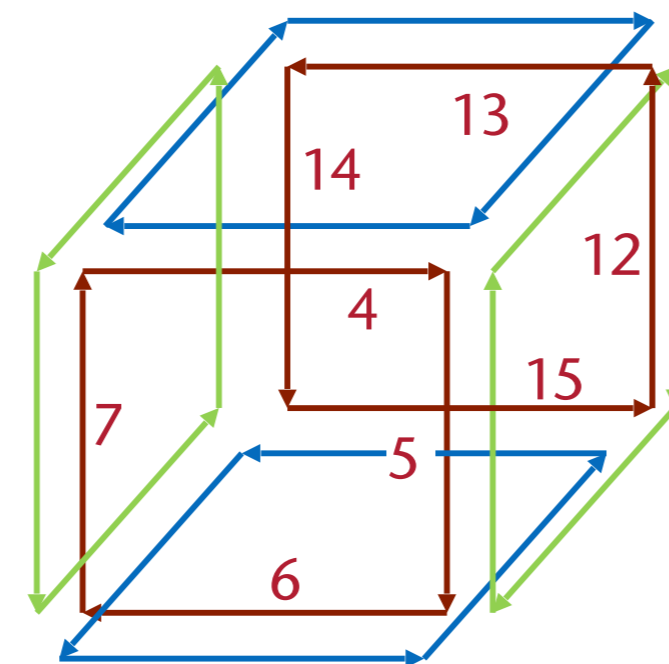
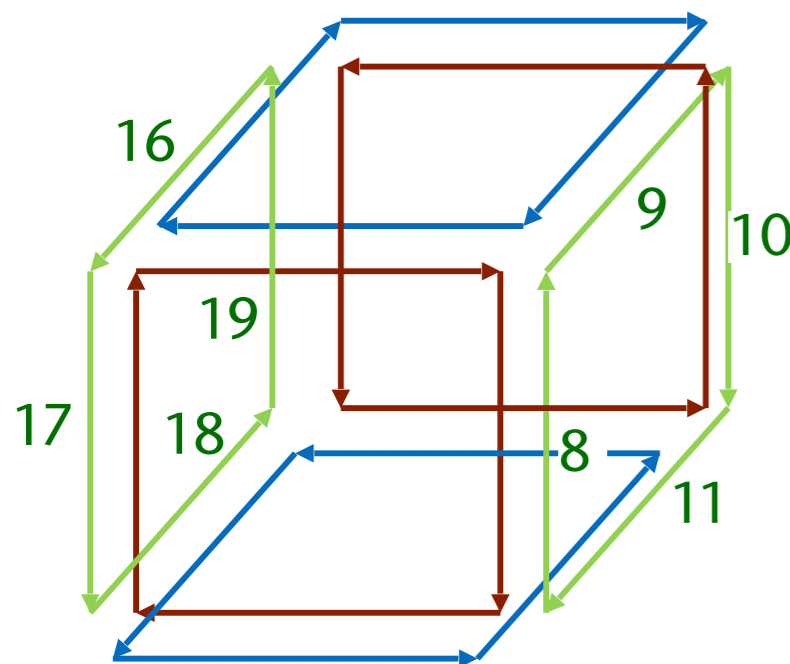
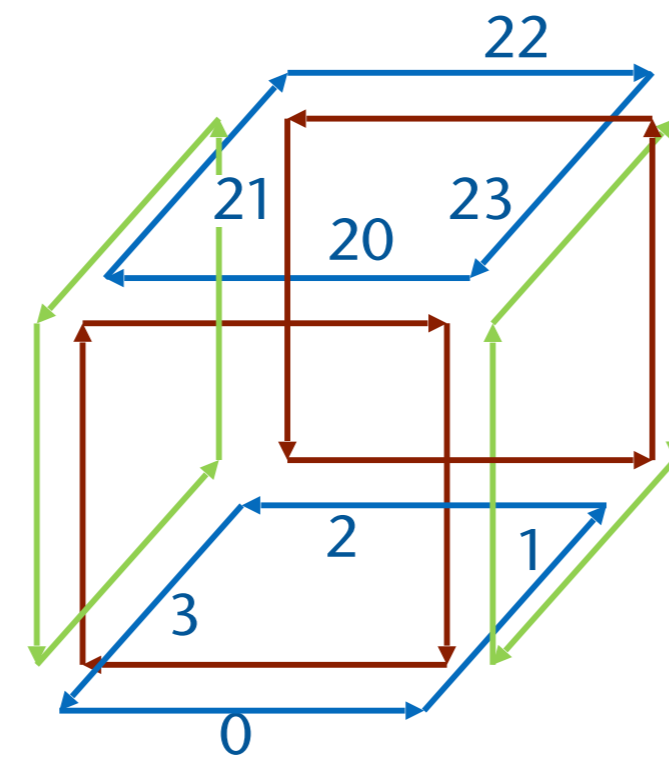
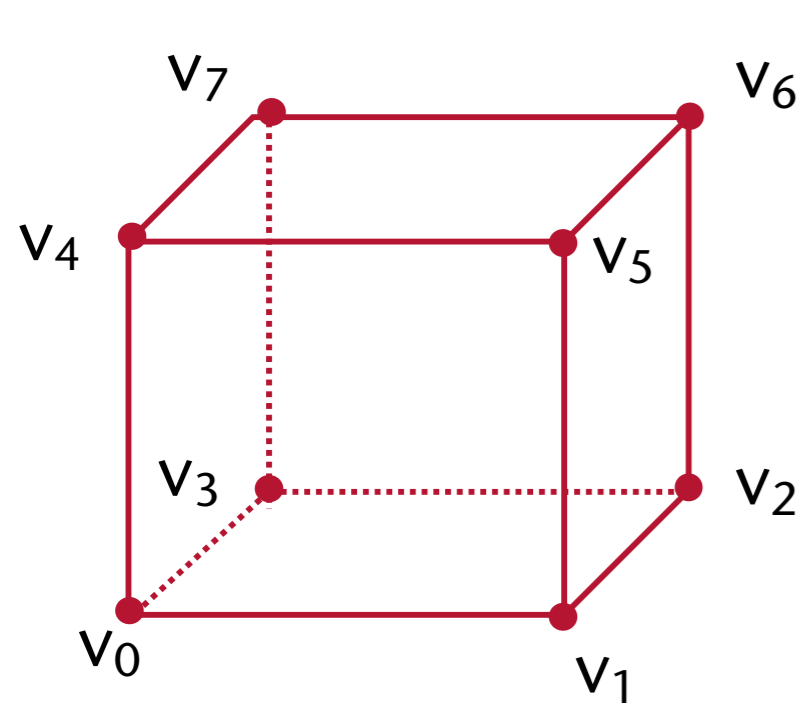
- In computer graphics also known as "*half-edge data structure*"
- Arguably the easiest and most efficient connectivity data structure
- Idea:
  - Edges are the first-class citizens, each edge is split into two *half-edges*
  - One half-edge represents only one direction and one "side" of the complete edge
  - Main data structure = table of half-edges



- The pointers stored with each half-edge:
  - Start (**org**) and end vertex (**dest**)
  - Incident **face** (to the left-hand side, when walking along the half-edge)
  - **Next** und **previous** edge (in traversal order)
  - **Twin** edge
  - (Originating vertex could be omitted, because  $e.org = e.twin.dest$ )
- Abstract notation:



# Example (Here in CW Order!)

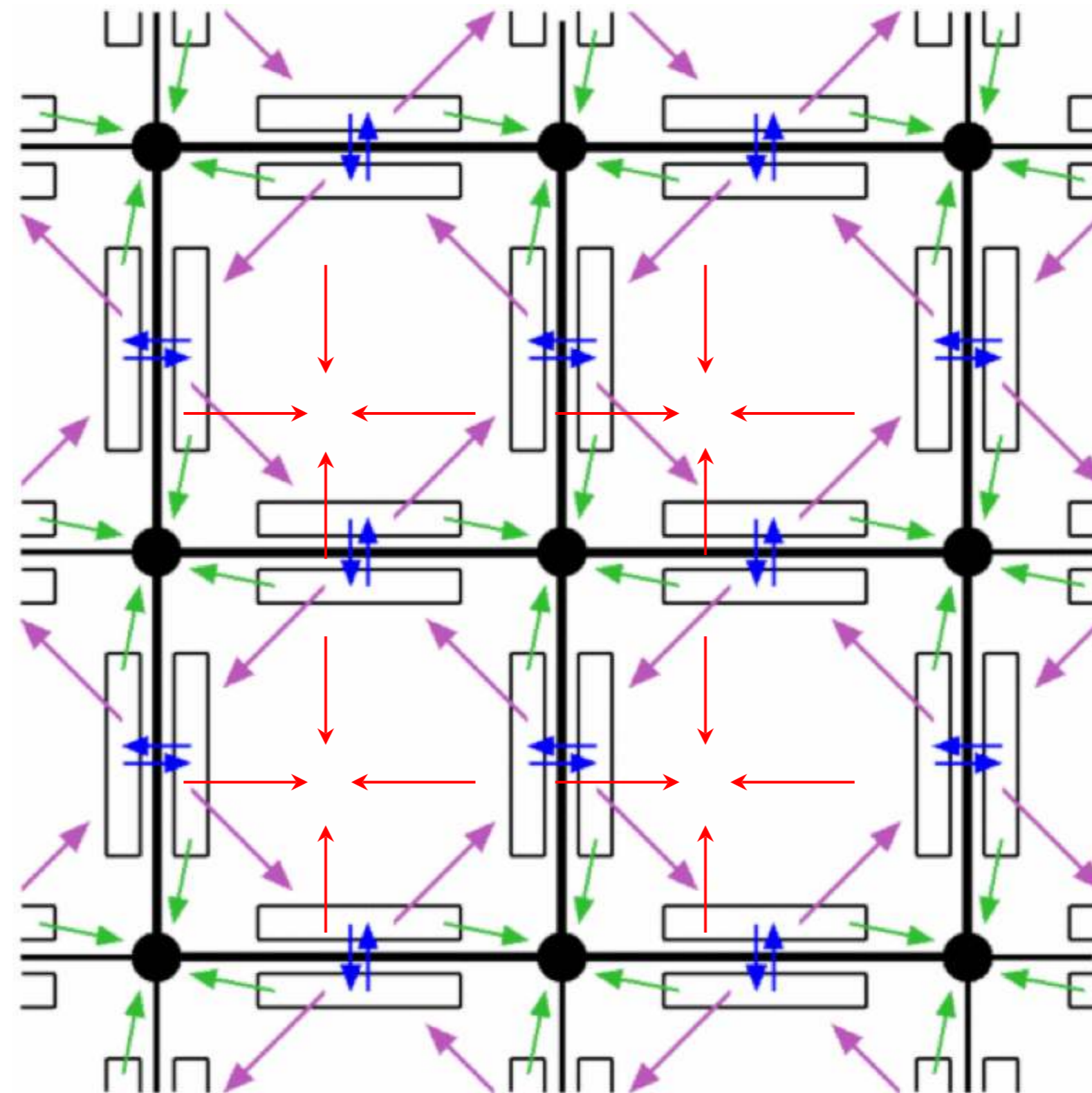


<i>v</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>e</i>
0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
1	1.0	0.0	0.0	1
2	1.0	1.0	0.0	2
3	0.0	1.0	0.0	3
4	0.0	0.0	1.0	4
5	1.0	0.0	1.0	9
6	1.0	1.0	1.0	13
7	0.0	1.0	1.0	16

- 0 e20
- 1 e4
- 2 e0
- 3 e15
- 4 e16
- 5 e8

<i>e</i>	<i>org</i>	<i>next</i>	<i>prv</i>	<i>twin</i>
0	0	1	3	6
1	1	2	0	11
2	2	3	1	15
3	3	0	2	18
4	4	5	7	20
5	5	6	4	8
6	1	7	5	0
7	0	4	6	17
8	1	9	11	5
9	5	10	8	23
10	6	11	9	12
11	2	8	10	1
12	2	13	15	10
13	6	14	12	22
14	7	15	13	19
15	3	12	14	2
16	7	17	19	21
17	4	18	16	7
18	0	19	17	3
19	3	16	18	14
20	5	21	23	4
21	4	22	20	16
22	7	23	21	13
23	6	20	22	9

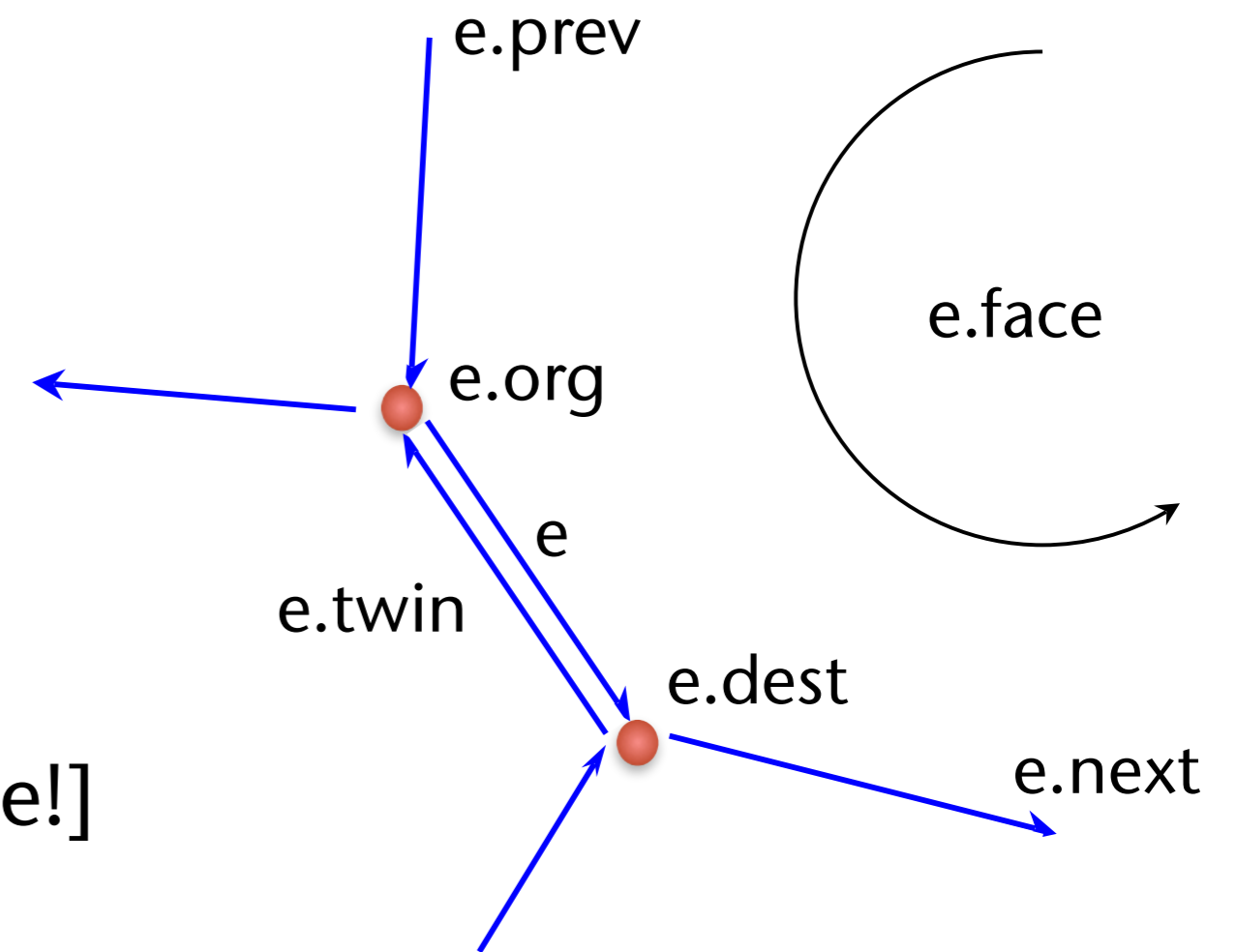
# Visualization of the DCEL for a Quad Mesh





# Invariants in a DCEL

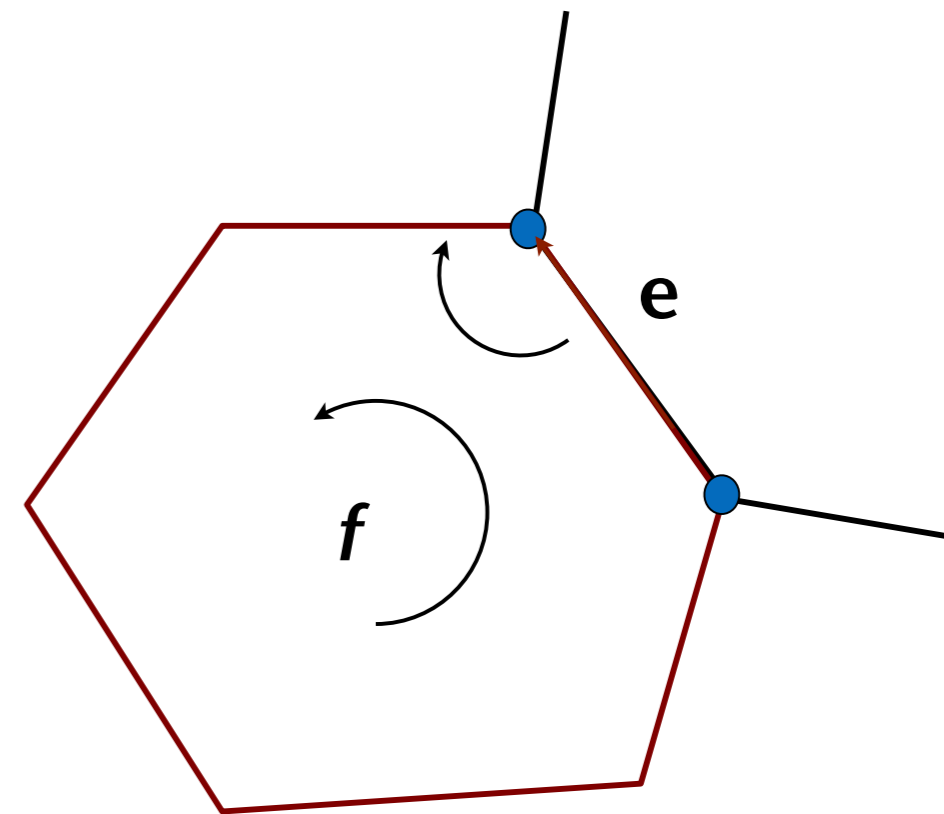
- Here, we will use the "functional notation", i.e.,  $\text{twin}(e) = e.\text{twin}$
- Invariants (= axioms in an *abstract data type* "DCEL"):
  - $\text{twin}(\text{twin}(e)) = e$ ,  
[if the mesh is closed]
  - $\text{org}(\text{next}(e)) = \text{dest}(e)$
  - $\text{org}(e) = \text{dest}(\text{twin}(e))$   
[if  $\text{twin}(e)$  is existing]
  - $\text{org}(v.\text{edge}) = v$   
[provided **v.edge** always points to a leaving edge!]
  - etc. ...



# Face and Vertex Cycling

- Given: a closed, 2-manifold mesh
- Wanted: all vertices incident to a given face  $f$
- Algorithm:

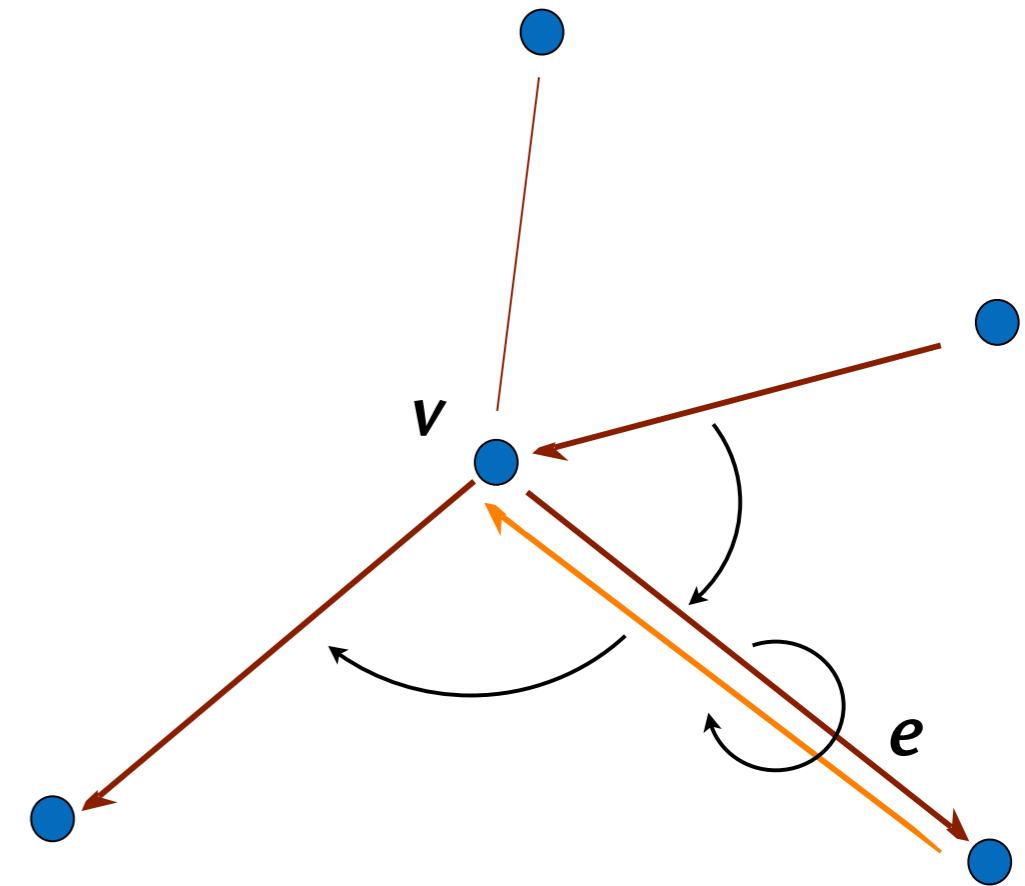
```
e_start = f.edge  
e = e_start  
repeat  
    output e.dest  
    e = e.next  
until e == e_start
```



- Running time is in  $O(k)$ , with  $k = \#$  vertices of  $f$

- Task: report all vertices *adjacent* to a given vertex  $v$
- Algorithm (wlog.,  $v.edge$  points to a leaving edge):

```
e_start = v.edge
e = e_start
repeat
  output e.dest
  e = e.twin.next
until e == e_start
```



- Running time is in  $O(k)$ , where  $k = \#$  neighbours of  $v$

cgvr.informatik.uni-bremen.de/teaching/cg\_literatur/DCEL\_demo/ind

Selfie Quadcopter Conquers. The Idea Is G... Christine Blasey Ford and Brett Kavanaugh... Church sex abuse: 'I was forced to swim... DCEL Visualization

**DCEL Data Structure Visualization** [Show Info](#)

**Current Selection:**

**Edge 235**

Pointers:

- Face: [Face 39](#)
- Next: [Edge 236](#)
- Prev: [Edge 234](#)
- Twin: [Edge 332](#)
- Orig: [Vertex 111](#)
- Dest: [Vertex 103](#)

Animate algorithm:

- ▶ [Edge Ring](#)

**Settings:**

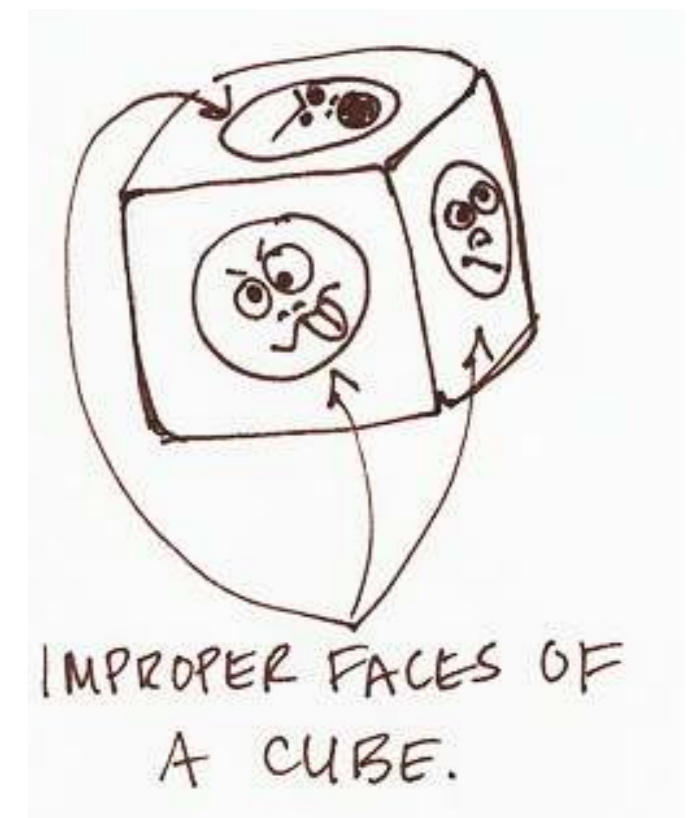
- Rotate Mesh via Trackball
- Zoom Speed:
- Rotation Speed:
- Show DCEL Elements
- Shade Elements  
(enables shading for DCEL elements and pointers)
- X-Ray Vision  
(selection and pointers will shine through the object)
- Show All Pointers  
(not available in animation mode)

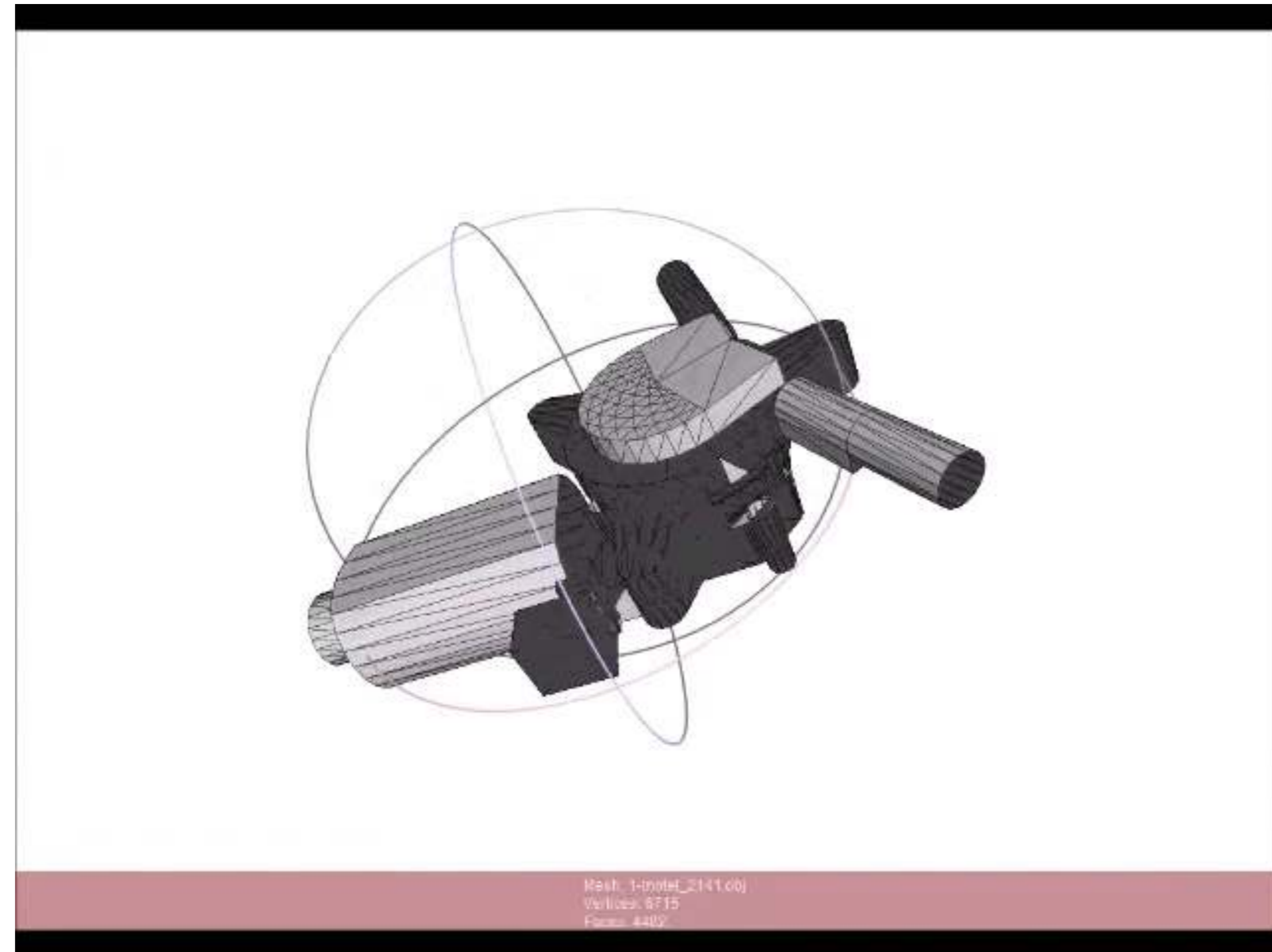
Independent Study by Andre Mühlenbrock.

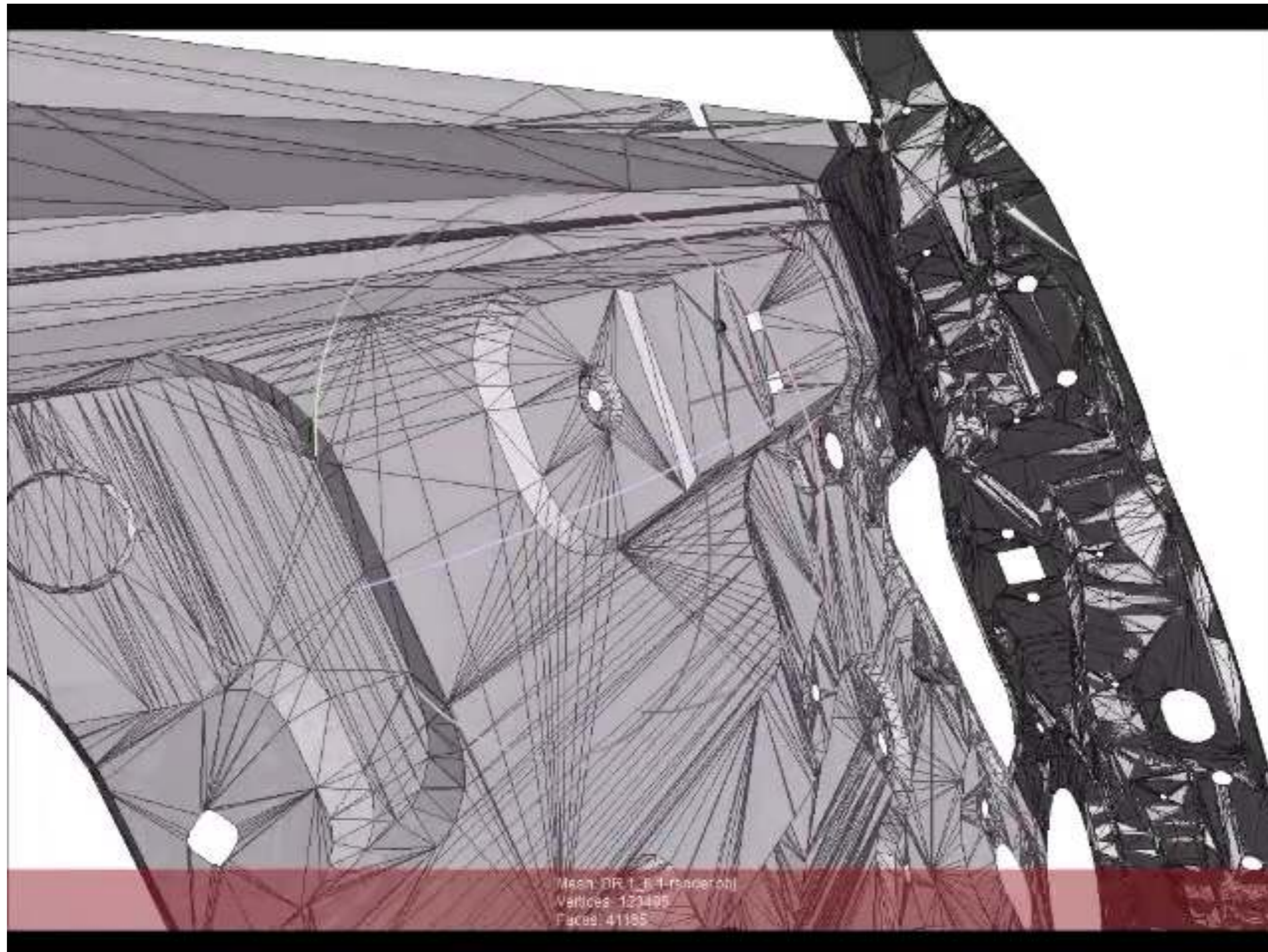
This WebApp uses twgl.js - [License Notice](#)

Display a menu

- Terminology: a **feature** = a vertex, or an edge, or a facet
- Theorem:  
A DCEL over a 2-manifold, oriented mesh supports **all** incidence and adjacency queries for a given feature in time  $O(1)$  or  $O(k)$ , where  $k = \#$  neighbors.
- Crucial property (I learned it the hard way):  
the DCEL must be consistent!
  - all faces must be properly oriented!
  - mesh must be orientable

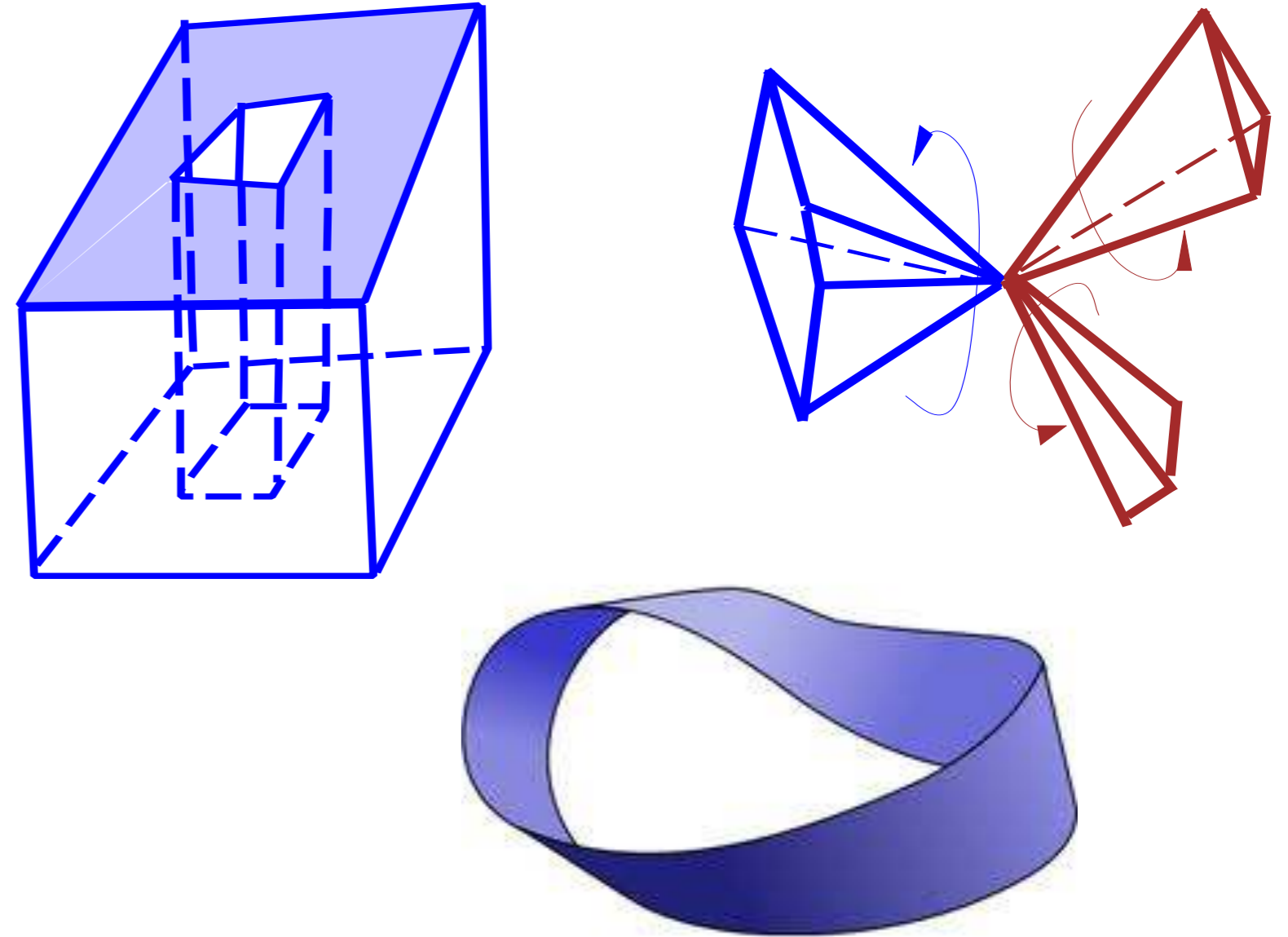






# Limitations / Extensions of the DCEL

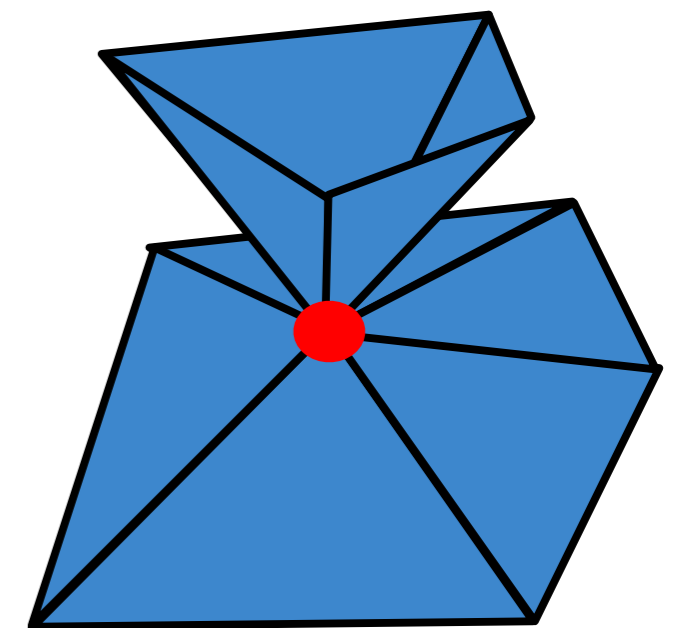
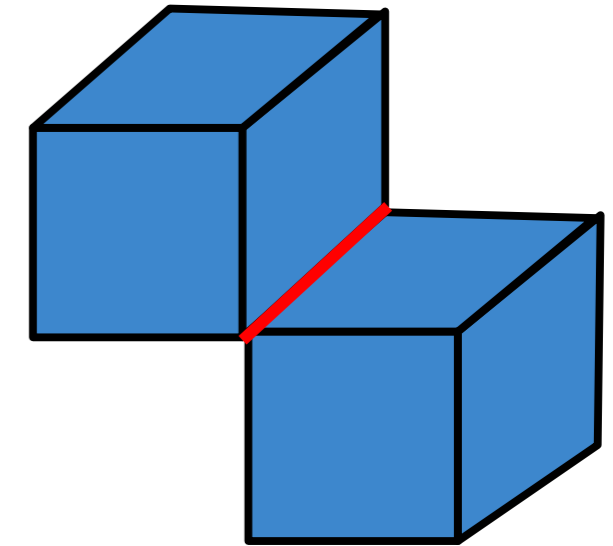
- A DCEL can store only meshes that are ...
  1. two-manifold and
  2. oriented, and
  3. the polygons of which do not have "holes"!
- Extensions: lots of them, e.g. those of Hervé Brönnimann
  - For non-2-manifold vertices, store several pointers to incident edges
  - Dito for facets with holes
  - Yields several **cycles** of edges for such vertices/faces



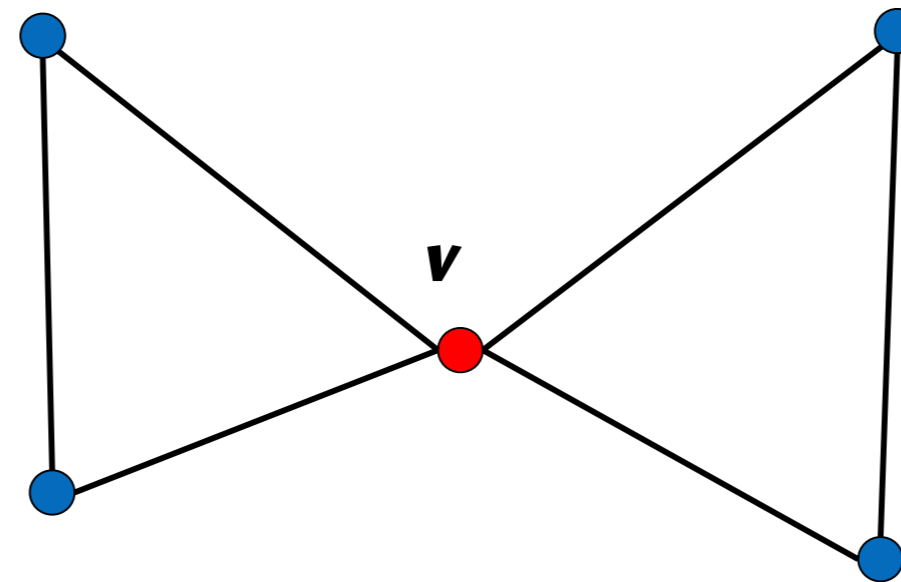


# A DCEL Data Structure for Non-2-Manifolds

- **Directed Edge DS:** extension of half-edge DS for meshes that are not 2-manifold, ideally only at just a few "extraordinary" places
- **Idea:**
  - Store pointers to edges (e.next, e.prev, v.edge, f.edge) as integer indices into the edge array
  - Interpret negative indices as pointers into "overflow" arrays, e.g.,
    - a list of all edges emanating from a vertex; or
    - the connected component accessible from a vertex / edge



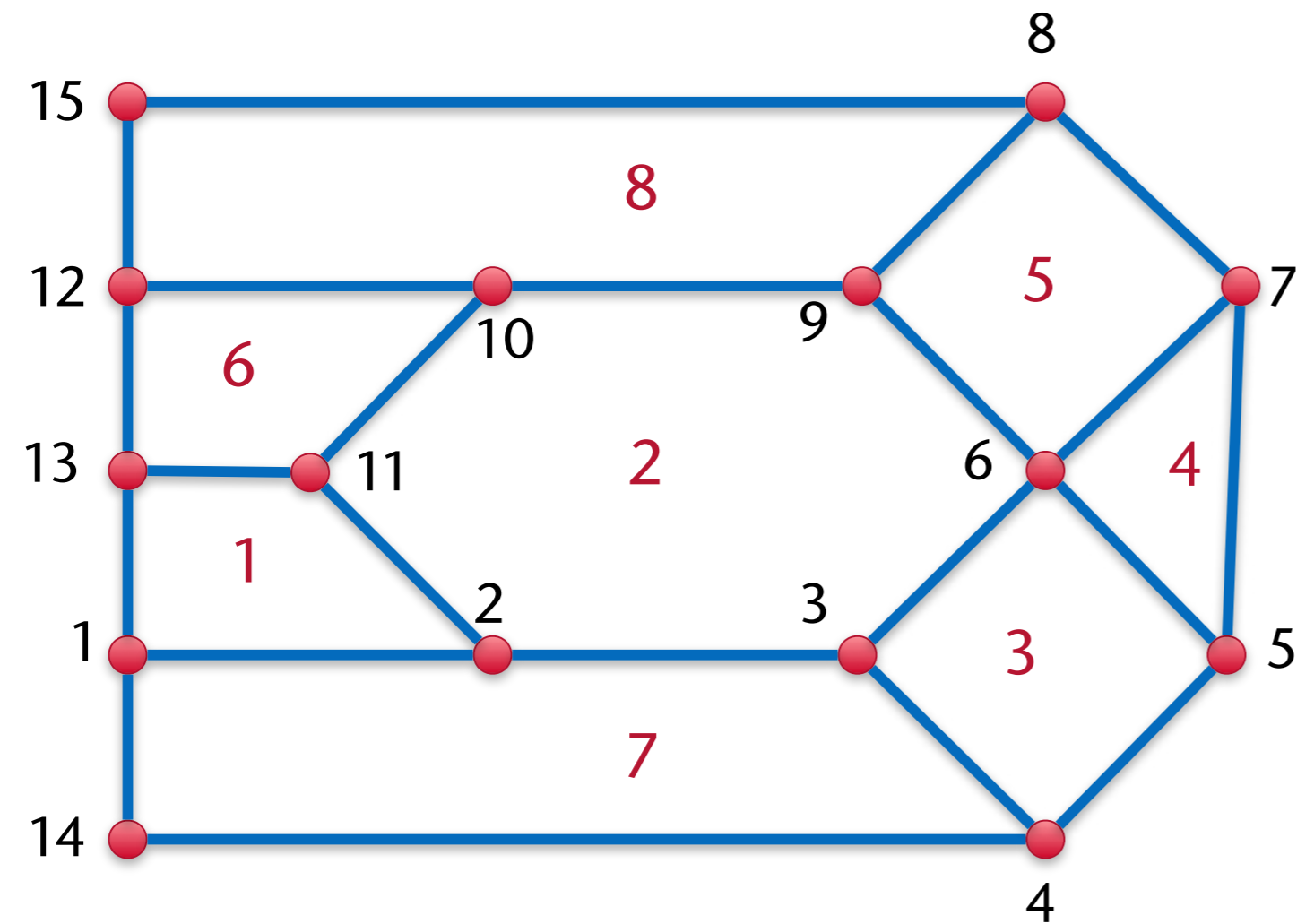
- Why does the conventional DCEL fail for the following example?



# Combinatorial Maps

- Remark: *winged-edge* and *DCEL* data structures are (simple) examples of so-called **combinatorial maps**
- Other combinatorial maps are:
  - Quad-edge data structure (and *augmented quad-edge*)
  - Many extensions of DCEL
  - Cell-chains,  $n$ -Gmaps  
(like DCELs that can be extended to  $n$ -dimensional space)
  - Many more ...

- Starting point: indexed face set



Face	Vertex Index					
1	1	2	11	13		
2	2	3	6	9	10	11
3	4	5	6	3		
4	5	7	6			
5	6	7	8	9		
6	11	10	12	13		
7	1	14	4	3	2	
8	9	8	15	12	10	

...

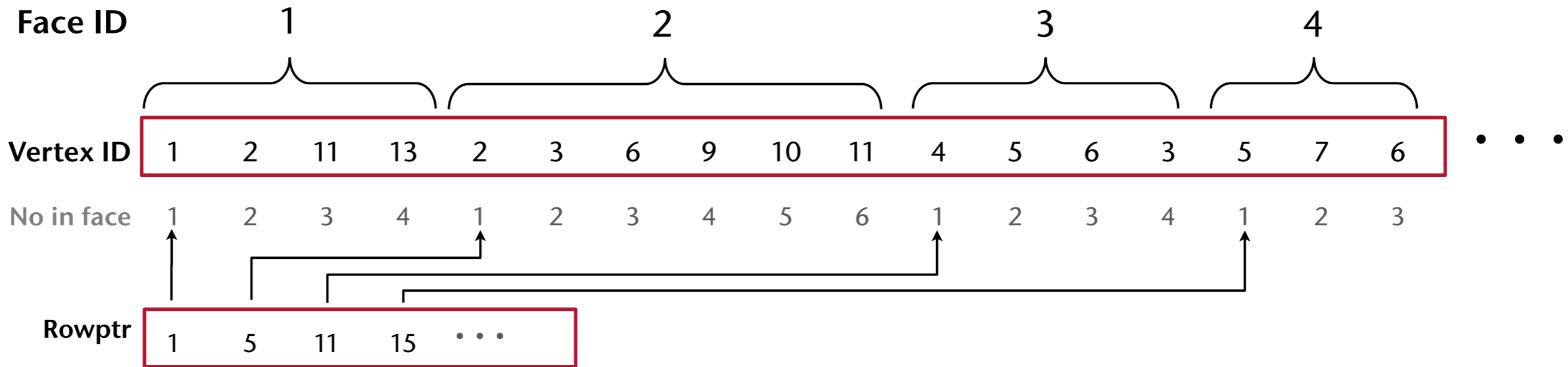
Note: always list vertices in CCW order in each row (= face)!

- Write the face table as a single, linear array (actually, 3 arrays):

Only Vertex-ID and Colptr need to be stored

- This matrix representation is called **CSR** (Compressed Sparse Row)

Face	Vertex Index					
1	1	2	11	13		
2	2	3	6	9	10	11
3	4	5	6	3		
4	5	7	6			
5	6	7	8	9		
6	11	10	12	13		
7	1	14	4	3	2	
8	9	8	15	12	10	

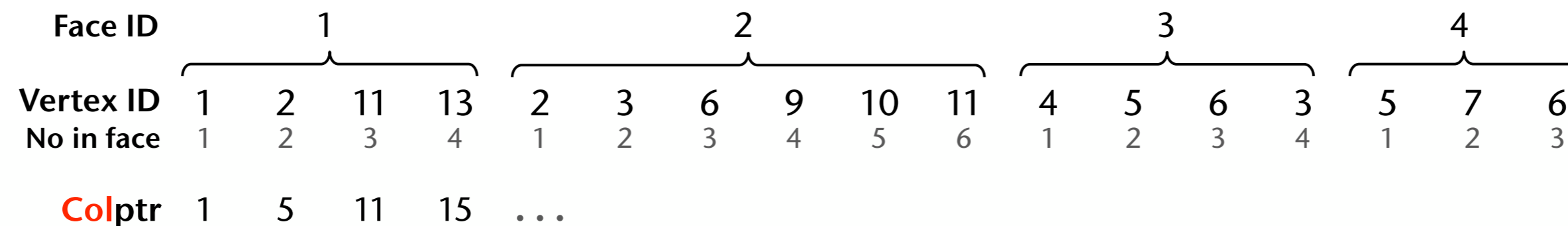


# The Expanded, Sparse Mesh Matrix $M$

- The indexed face set set can also be represented by a **mesh matrix  $M$** 
  - Vertex ID = row index, Face ID = column index, no. within face = value  $M(i,j)$
- Incidentally, the same CSR representation is now a **Compact Sparse Column (CSC)** representation of the mesh matrix!

Face	Vertex Index					
1	1	2	11	13		
2	2	3	6	9	10	11
3	4	5	6	3		
4	5	7	6			
5	6	7	8	9		
6	11	10	12	13		
7	1	14	4	3	2	
8	9	8	15	12	10	

	Face ID							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	2	1						
3		2	4					
4			1					
5			2	1				
6		3	3	3	1			
7				2	2			
8					3			
9		4			4			
10		5						
11	3	6						
12								
13								
14	4							
15								



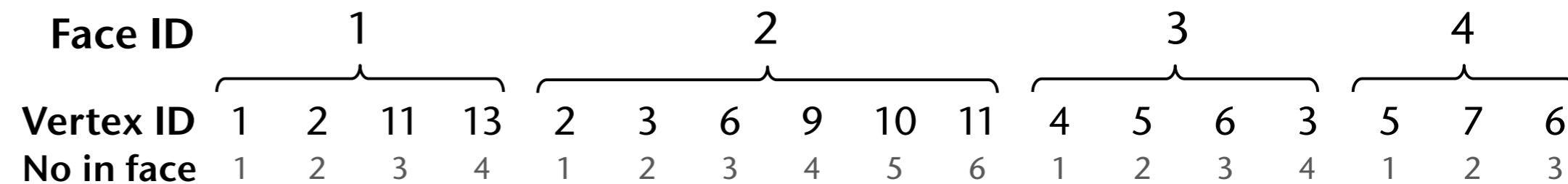
# Equivalence of Cyclic Permutations in Mesh Matrix

- All cyclic permutations of the values ("No in face") within one "Face ID"-block in the CSC describe the same mesh with the same topology!
- So: all cyclic permutations (rotations) of the values within one column (i.e., face) in the mesh matrix (for the non-zero rows) represent exactly the same mesh!

		Face ID															
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8								
Vertex ID	1	1															
	2	2	1														
	3		2	1													
	4			2													
	5			3	1	1											
	6		3	4	3	2											
	7				2	3											
	8					4											
	9		4														
	10		5														
	11	3	6														
	12																
	13	4															
	14																
	15																

		Face ID														
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8							
Vertex ID	1	4														
	2	1	6													
	3		1	4												
	4			1												
	5			2	2	4										
	6		2	3	1	1										
	7				3	2										
	8					3										
	9		3													
	10		4													
	11	2	5													
	12															
	13	3														
	14															
	15															

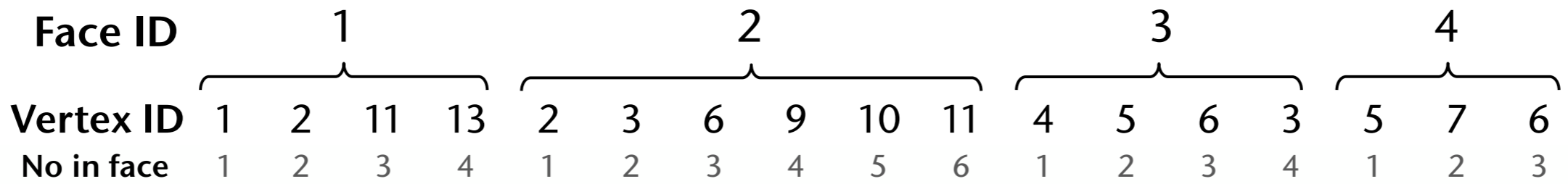


# The defining invariant of a mesh matrix $M$

- Let  $\mathbf{f}_i = (v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_l})$ , where  $v_{i_j} =$  face indices of face  $\mathbf{f}_i$
- Then, for all non-zero entries in  $M$ :

$$M(\mathbf{f}_i(j), i) = j$$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	2	1						
3		2	1					
4			2					
5			3	1	1			
6		3	4	3	2			
7				2	3			
8					4			
9		4						
10		5						
11	3	6						
12								
13	4							
14								
15								





# The Face-Vertex Incidence Matrix $\bar{M}$

- Replace each non-zero entry in  $M$  by 1

Mesh matrix  $M$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	2	1						
3		2	1					
4			2					
5			3	1	1			
6		3	4	3	2			
7				2	3			
8					4			
9		4						
10		5						
11	3	6						
12								
13	4							
14								
15								

Face-vertex incidence matrix  $\bar{M}$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	1	1						
3		1	1					
4			1					
5			1	1	1			
6		1	1	1	1			
7				1	1			
8					1			
9		1						
10		1						
11	1	1						
12								
13	1							
14								
15								

# Examples for Mesh Processing Operations Using Matrices

- Given: triangle mesh
- Task: calculate the barycenter for each triangle
- Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  be the vertices of the mesh,  $\mathbf{v}_i = (x_i, y_i, z_i)$
- "Vector" representation of the mesh's vertices:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & z_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & z_2 \\ \dots & & \\ x_n & y_n & z_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- The incidence matrix allows to compute the vector of **barycenters** per triangle:

$$B = \frac{1}{3} \bar{M}^T P$$

- Definition: matrix vector multiplication *with replacements*

$$M \odot P, \quad \text{with } (a, b, c) \rightarrow (d, e, f)$$

meaning: "perform matrix-vector multiplication, but replace values  $a, b, c$  of  $M$  by  $d, e, f$ , respectively, before the actual multiplication" (note: uses  $M$ , not  $\bar{M}$  !)

- Example: calculate vector of barycenters

$$B = M^T \odot P, \quad \text{with } (1, 2, 3) \rightarrow \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

- Note: this can be implemented directly in the matrix-vector multiplication code

```

for w = 0, 1, 2:           // x,y,z coords
  for j = 0..m-1:        // m = #faces
    s = 0
    for k = 0..n-1:      // with j-th column
      mkj = m[k][j]
      if ( mkj == 1 )   mkj = 0.3
      if ( mkj == 2 )   mkj = 0.3
      if ( mkj == 3 )   mkj = 0.3
      s += mkj * p[k][w]
    b[j][w] = s

```

# Example: Calculate Vertex Normals (Assuming Triangle Mesh)

- Calculate the edge vectors  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$  for each triangle:

$$A = M^T \odot P, \quad \text{with } (1, 2, 3) \rightarrow (-1, 1, 0)$$

$$B = M^T \odot P, \quad \text{with } (1, 2, 3) \rightarrow (-1, 0, 1)$$

- Calculate "row-wise vector product" between  $A$  and  $B$ :

$$N_f = A \otimes B$$

where  $N_f$  = all face normals = "vector" with  $n$  rows and 3 columns  $(x, y, z)$

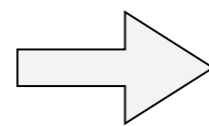
- Calculate un-normalized vertex normals:

$$N_v = M \odot N_f, \quad \text{with } (1, 2, 3) \rightarrow (1, 1, 1)$$

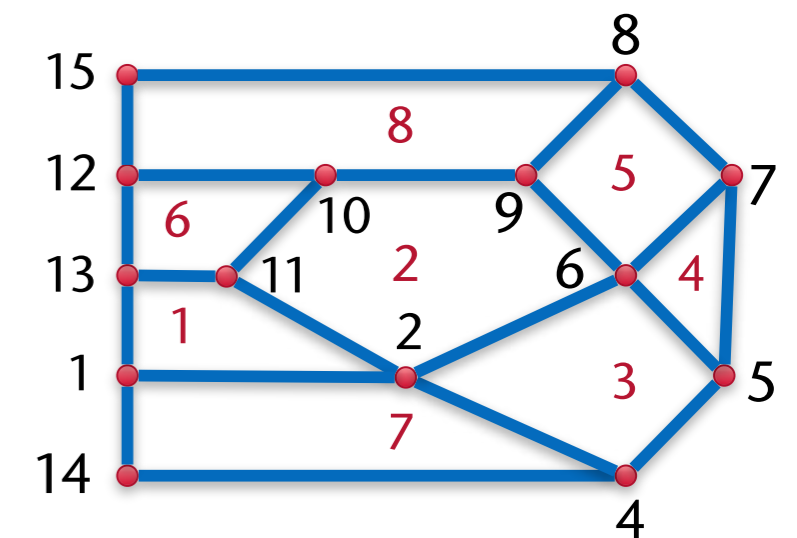
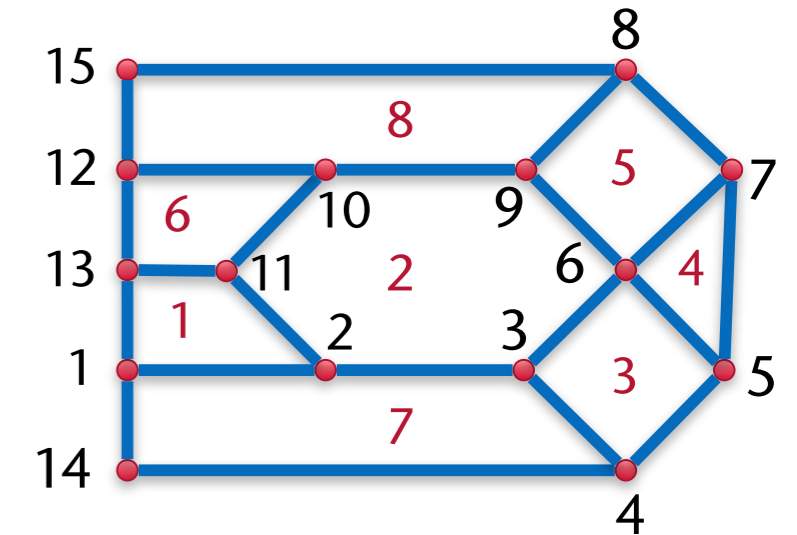
# Example: Mesh Simplification

- For instance, collapse edge (2,3)
- Topology change: remove vertex 3, connect all edges incident to 3 with vertex 2 – except edge (2,3), of course
- Change face-vertex incidence matrix:
  - Add all incidences from row 3 to row 2, then clear row 3

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	1	1						
3		1	1					
4			1					
5			1	1	1			
6		1	1	1	1			
7				1	1			
8					1			
9		1						
10		1						
11	1	1						
12								
13	1							
14								
15								



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1							
2	1	2	1					
3								
4			1					
5			1	1	1			
6		1	1	1	1			
7				1	1			
8					1			
9		1						
10		1						
11	1	1						
12								
13	1							
14								
15								



- Edge collapse  $(i,j)$  (where vertex  $j$  is removed) can be achieved by

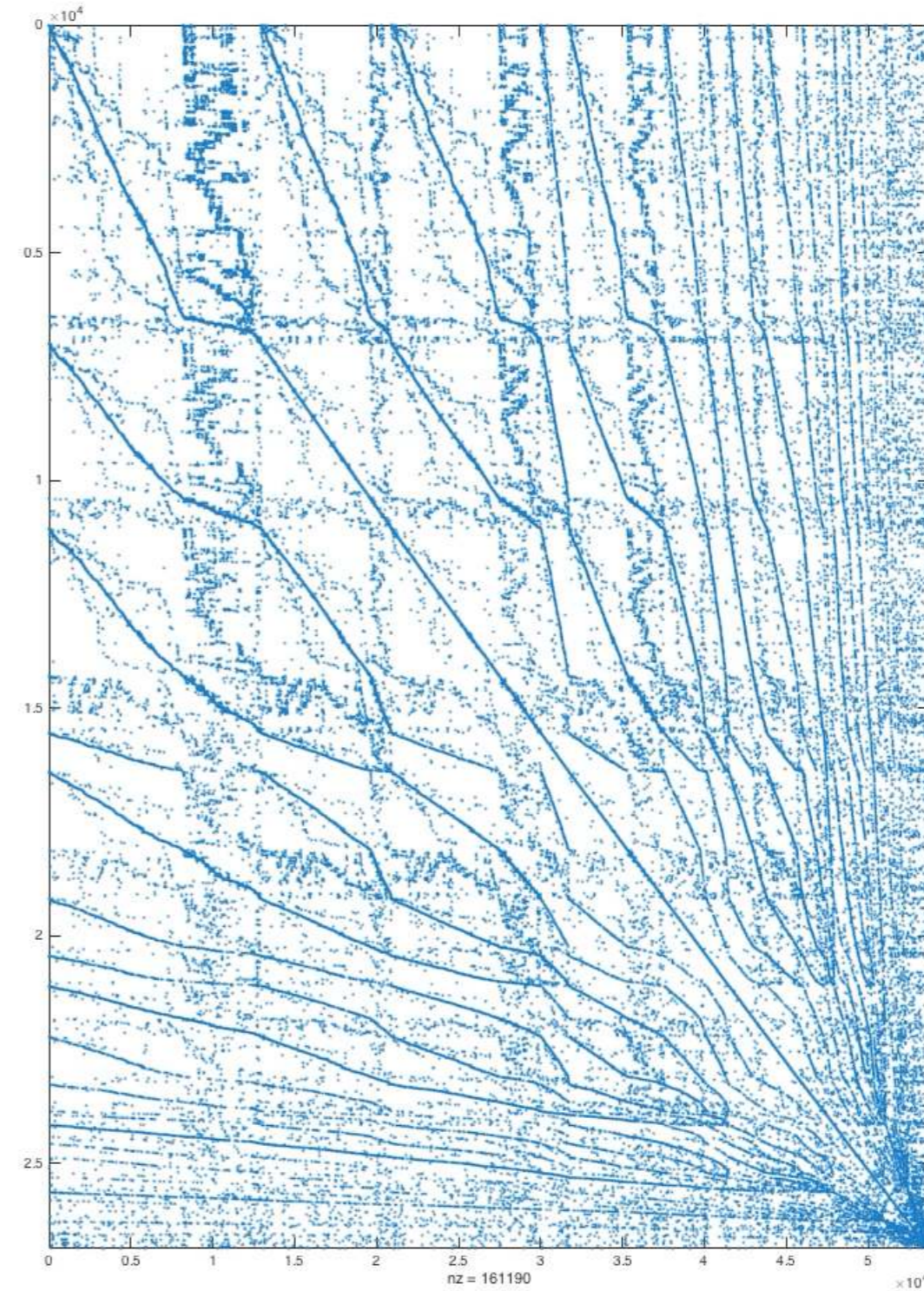
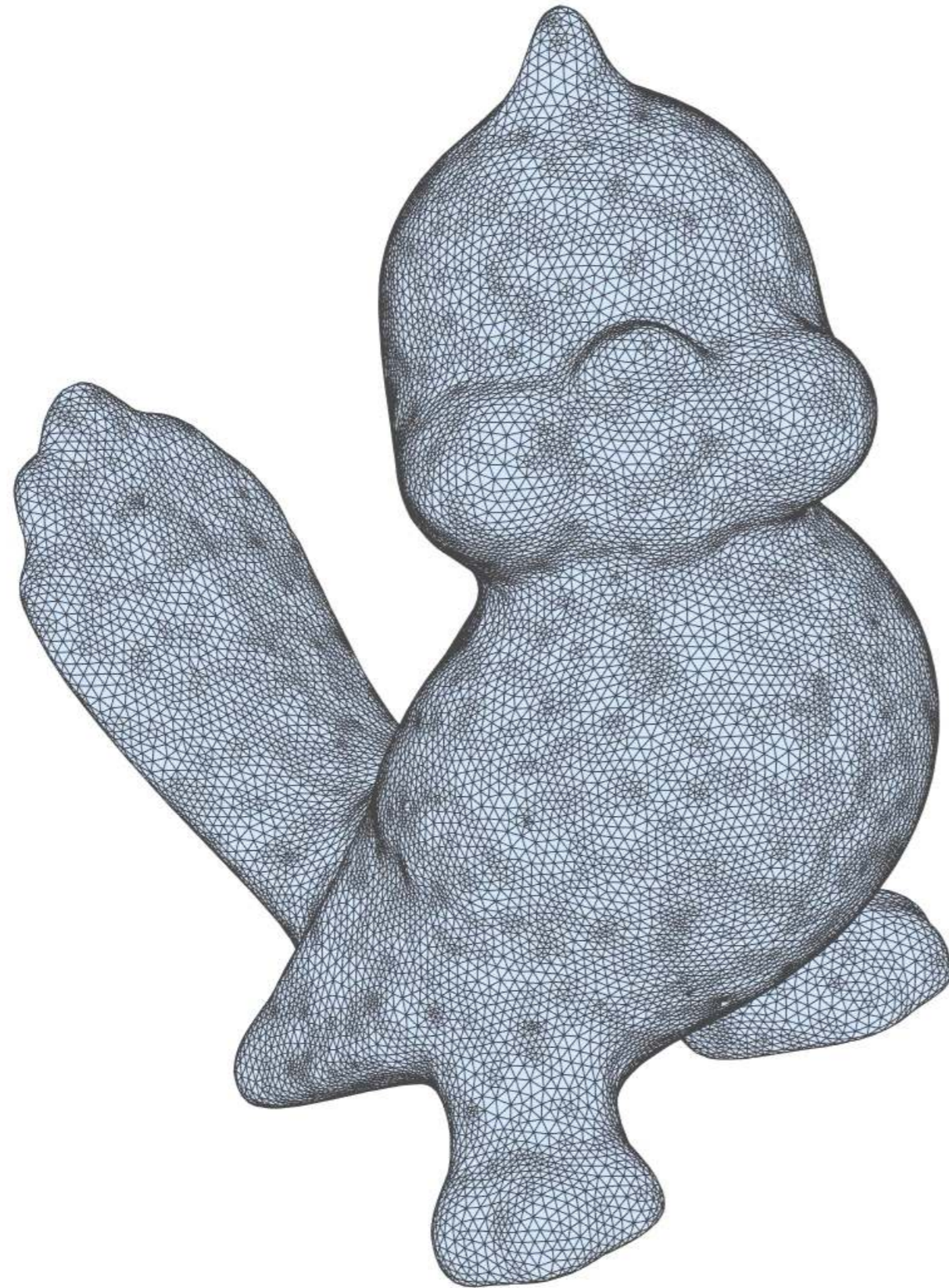
$$\bar{M}' = K \bar{M}$$

where

$$K = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & & & & & \\ & \ddots & & & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & & & \\ & & & 1 & & & & & \\ & & & & 0 & & & & \\ & & & & & 1 & & & \\ & & & & & & \ddots & & \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \leftarrow i \\ \\ \\ \leftarrow j \\ \\ \\ \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ j \end{matrix}$$

# Mesh simplification demo using mesh matrices

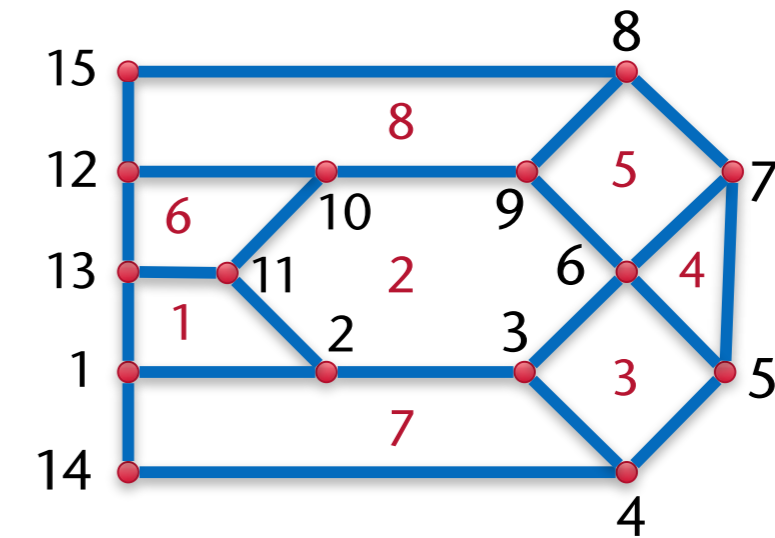


[Rhaleb Zayer, 2017]

# Operations using Matrix-Matrix Multiplication

- Definition: **generalized vertex-vertex adjacency**

$$S_v = \bar{M}\bar{M}^T$$



- Meaning:  $S_v(i,j) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow$  vertex  $i$  and vertex  $j$  are incident to the same face ("share a face") in  $M$  (*not* necessarily do they form an edge!)

- In the case of triangle meshes:

$$S_v(i,j) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow (i,j) \text{ is an edge in } M$$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	2	2	1	1							1		1	1	
2	2	3	2	1		1			1	1	2		1	1	
3	1	2	3	2	1	2			1	1	1			1	
4	1	1	2	2	1	1								1	
5			1	1	2	2	1								
6		1	2	1	2	4	2	1	2	1	1				
7					1	2	2	1	1						
8						1	1	2	2	1		1			1
9		1	1			2	1	2	3	2	1	1			1
10		1	1			1		1	2	3	2	2	1		1
11	1	2	1			1			1	2	3	1	2		
12								1	1	2	1	2	1		1
13	1	1								1	2	1	2		
14	1	1	1	1										1	
15								1	1	1		1			1



- Definition: **generalized face-face adjacency** matrix

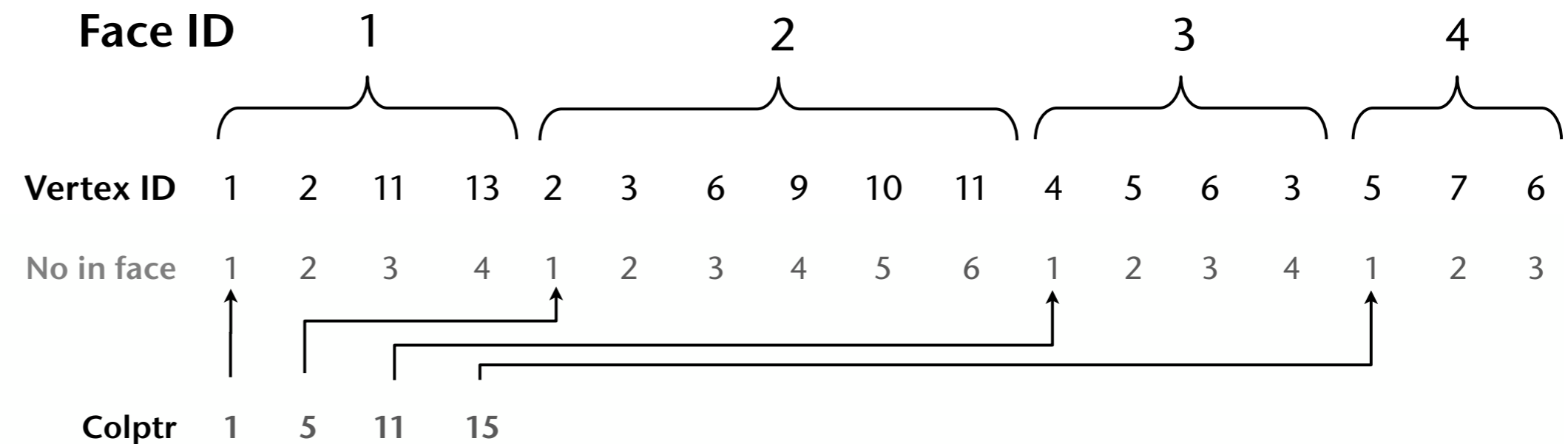
$$S_f = \bar{M}^T \bar{M}$$

- Meaning:
  - $S_f(i,j) = \#$  vertices shared by face  $i$  and face  $j$  in  $M$
  - In particular:  $S_f(i,i) = \#$  vertices of face  $i$
  - And for different faces  $i, j$ :  $S_f(i,j) = 2 \Leftrightarrow i$  and  $j$  share an edge (provided all faces are convex)
  - Face  $i$  is an interior face  $\Leftrightarrow$   
number of off-diagonal elements equaling  $2 = S_f(i,i)$ ;  
otherwise it has an edge on the border of the mesh

# Implementation: Matrix-Vector Multiplication using CSC

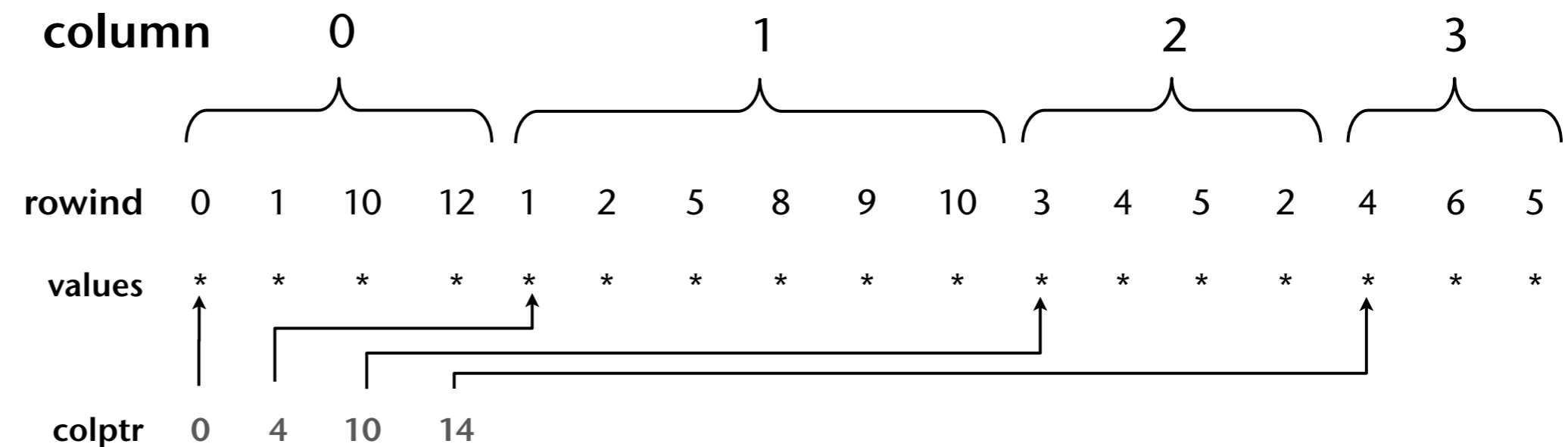
- Consider the case  $y = M^T \cdot x$  ( $M \cdot x$  works similarly)

- Remember the CSC representation



- For generality, rename things and allow arbitrary values

- Also, use *base 0* indices!



# Starting Point: Standard Matrix-Vector Multiplication

$y = M^T \cdot x$  :

```
for j = 0..n-1:  
  s = 0  
  for i = 0..m-1:  
    s += M[i][j] * x[j]  
  y[j] = s
```

$m$  = # rows (vertices) in  $M$   
 $n$  = # columns (faces) in  $M$   
= # entries in colptr

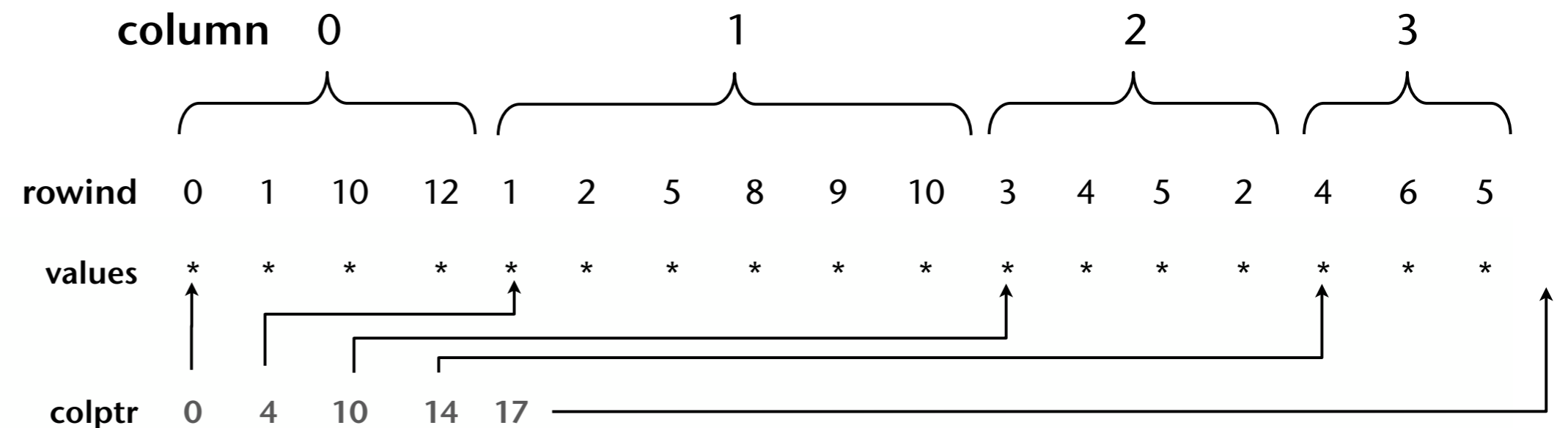
# Sparse Matrix-Vector Multiplication (with Arbitrary Values in $M$ )

$y = M^T \cdot x$  : (SpMV)

```

for j = 0..n-1:
  s = 0
  for k = colptr[j]..colptr[j+1]-1:
    s += values[k] * x[ rowind[k] ]
  y[j] = s
  
```

$n$  = # columns (faces) in  $M$   
 = # entries in colptr



# Sparse Matrix-Vector Multiplication for Mesh Matrices

$y = M^T \cdot x$  :

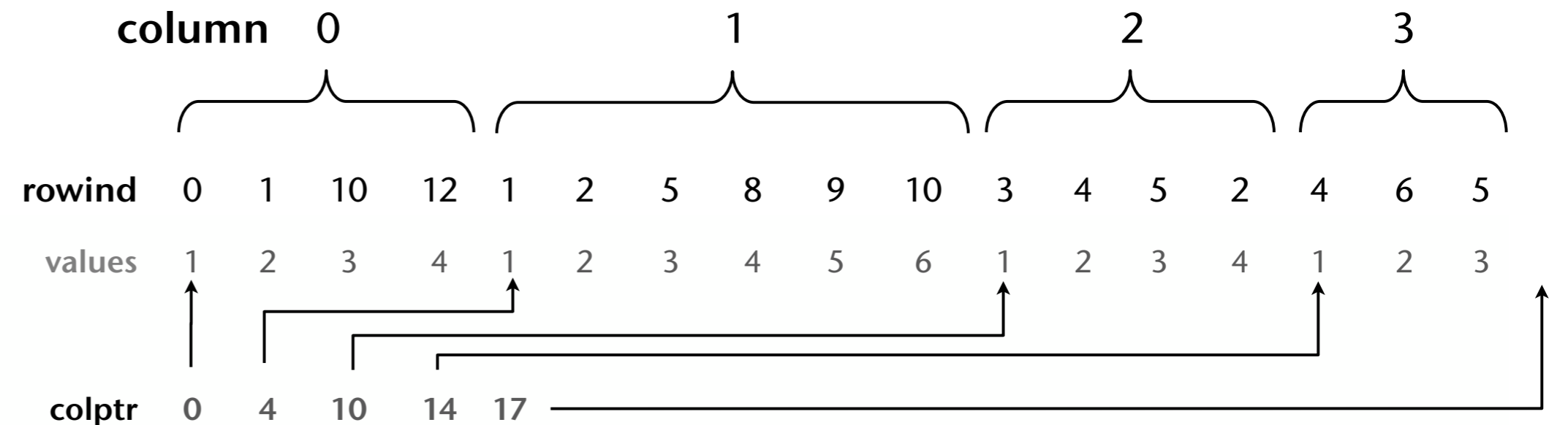
```

for j = 0..n-1:
  s = 0
  value = 1
  for k = colptr[j]..colptr[j+1]-1:
    s += value * x[ rowind[k] ]
    value ++
  y[j] = s
  
```

$n$  = # columns (faces) in  $M$   
 = # entries in colptr

Exploit the fact that

1. values in  $M$  (and, thus, in the values array) are incrementing by 1, starting with 1 in every column; and,
2. all rotations of the values within a column represent the same face



# Sparse Matrix-Vector Multiplication for Triangle Meshes

$y = M^T \cdot x$  :

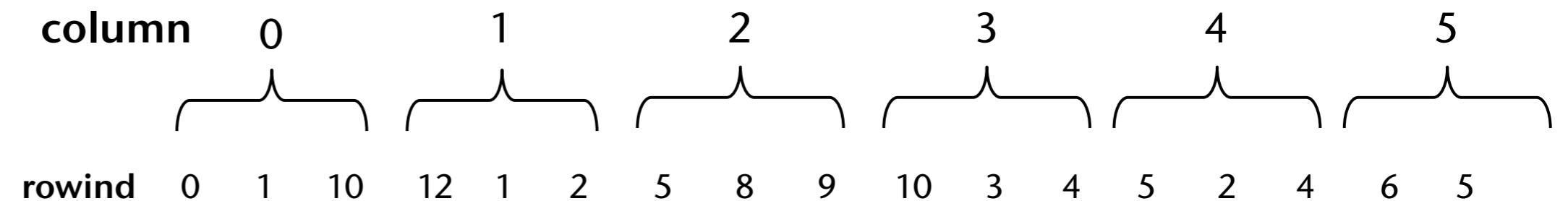
```

for j = 0..n-1:
  s = 0
  value = 1
  for k = 3*j, ..., 3*(j+1)-1:
    s += value * x[ rowind[k] ]
    value ++
  y[j] = s
  
```

$n$  = # columns (faces) in  $M$   
 = # entries in `colptr`

In addition, exploit the fact that all faces have 3 vertices  
 → can omit `colptr`, too.  
 (And good compilers can unroll the inner loop automatically!)

Note: this is just a placeholder,  
 not a real mesh!

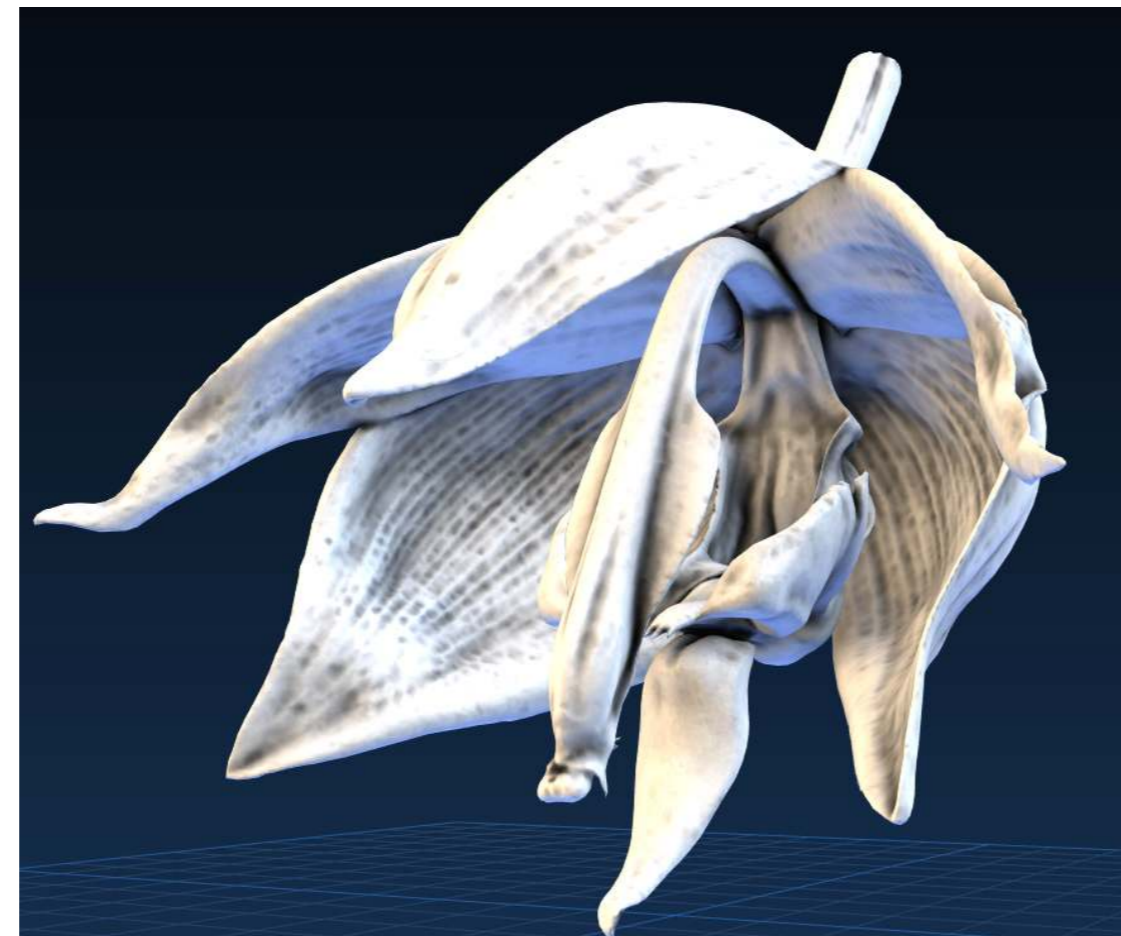


# Implementation Details

- Mult. with replacements: can be integrated into the SpMV routine directly
- *We could* use libraries for general sparse matrix-vector multiplication
- Experience shows: specialized versions for the case of mesh matrices pays off, especially in case of multiplication with replacements
- Parallelization for the GPU:
  - In case of  $y=M^T x$ : every thread  $i$  computes one  $y[i]$  (outer loop), thread  $i$  reads one column of  $M$ , no inter-thread communication and synchronization needed
    - Unfortunately, no coalesced memory access
  - In case of  $y=Mx$ : again one thread per column of  $M$ , but threads accumulate their results into  $y$ , thus atomic add is necessary
  - For more, see the course "Massively Parallel Algorithms"

- Computing vertex normals:

	Trimesh2	ours(CPU)	ours(GPU)
Embreea Orchid ( $4M\Delta$ )	.61	.32	0.0078
Earhart Flight Suit ( $21,5M\Delta$ )	3.31	1.93	0.046
Pergolesi side chair ( $29M\Delta$ )	4.45	2.81	0.073





# The Euler Equation for Graphs / Polyhedra



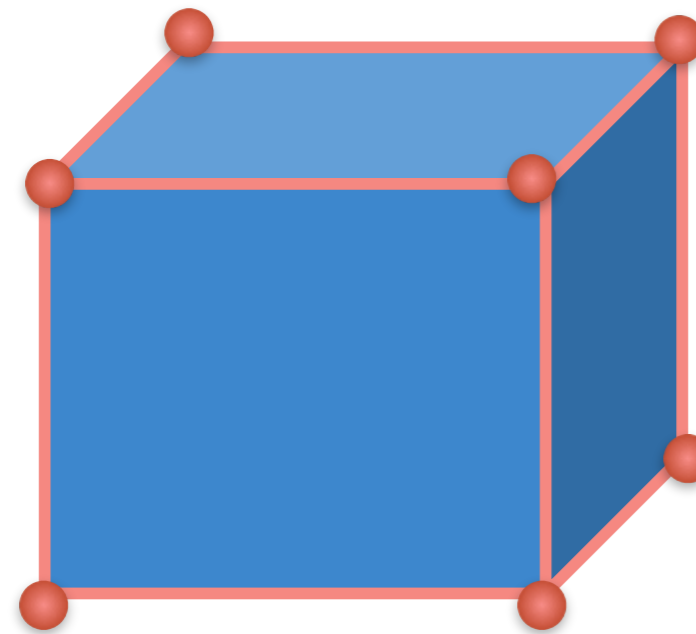
- Theorem (Euler's Equation):

Let  $V, E, F$  = number of vertices, edges, faces in a polyhedron that is homeomorph to a sphere. Then,

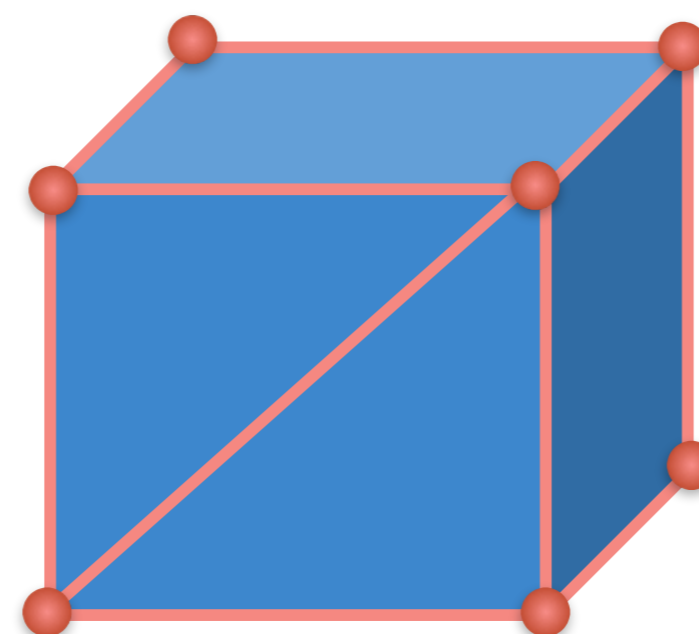
$$V - E + F = 2$$



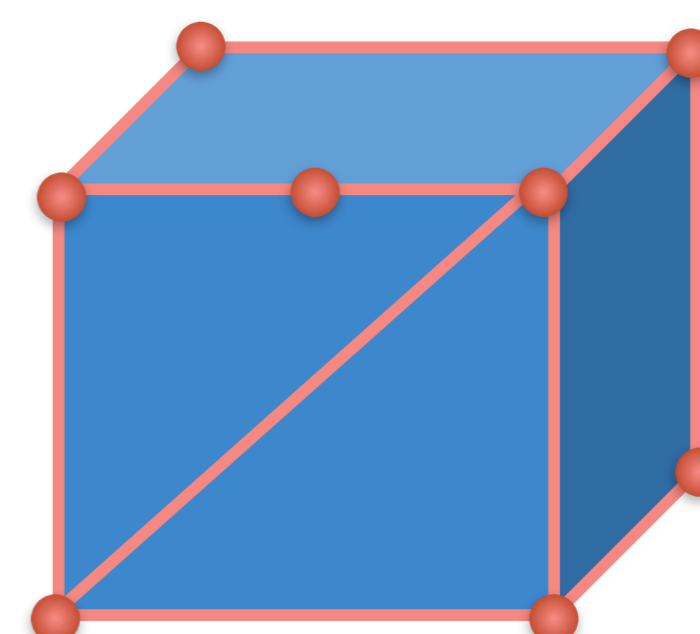
- Examples:



$$\begin{aligned} V &= 8 \\ E &= 12 \\ F &= 6 \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} V &= 8 \\ E &= 12+1 \\ F &= 6 +1 \end{aligned}$$



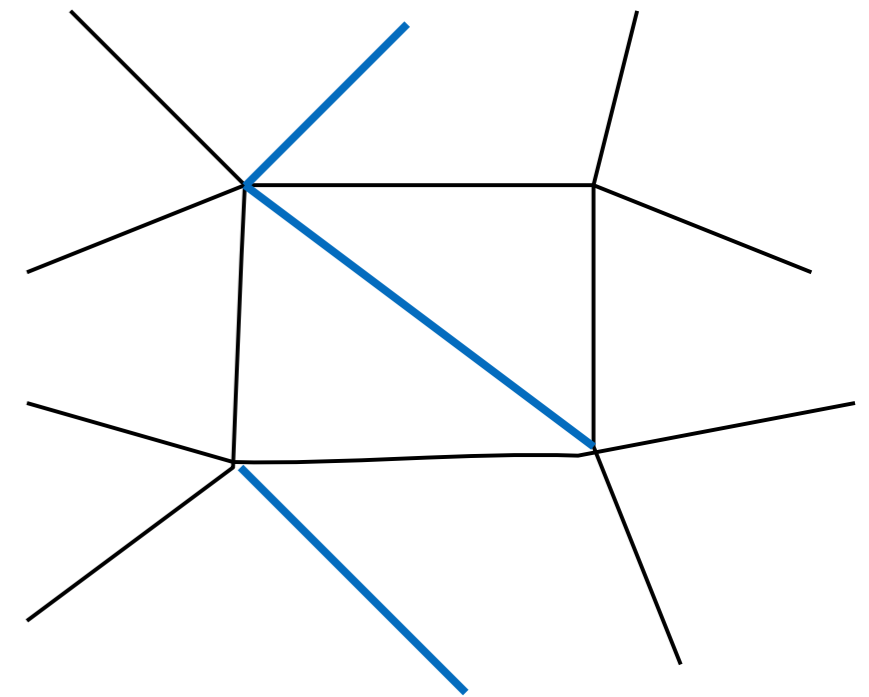
$$\begin{aligned} V &= 8+1 \\ E &= 12+1+1 \\ F &= 6 +1 \end{aligned}$$

# Proof (given by Cauchy)

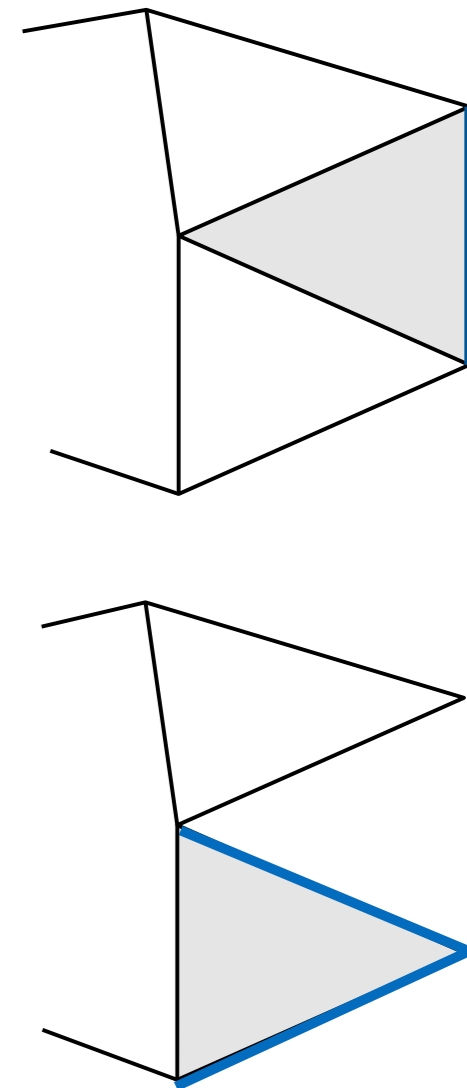


- Given: a closed mesh (polyhedron, equivalent to sphere)
- First idea:
  - Remove one facet  $\rightarrow$  yields an open mesh; the border is exactly the edge cycle of the removed facet)
  - Stretch the mesh by pulling its border apart until it becomes a planar graph (works only if the polyhedron is homeomorph to a sphere)
  - It remains to show:  $V - E + F = 1$
- Second idea: triangulate the graph (i.e., the mesh)
  - Draw diagonals in all facets with more than 3 vertices
  - For each new diagonal, we have

$$V' - E' + F' = V - (E + 1) + (F + 1) = V - E + F$$



- The graph has a border; triangles have 0, 1, or 2 "border edges"
- Repeat one of the following two transformations:
  - If there is a triangle with exactly one border edge, remove this triangle  
It follows that  $V' - E' + F' = V - (E - 1) + (F - 1) = V - E + F$
  - If there is a triangle with exactly two border edges, remove the triangle  
It follows that  $V' - E' + F' = (V - 1) - (E - 2) + (F - 1) = V - E + F$
- Repeat, until only one triangle remains
  - For that triangle, the Euler equation is obviously correct
  - Because the value of  $V-E+F$  is invariant through all above transformations, the equation is also true for the original graph, hence for the original mesh



# Application of Euler's Equation to Meshes

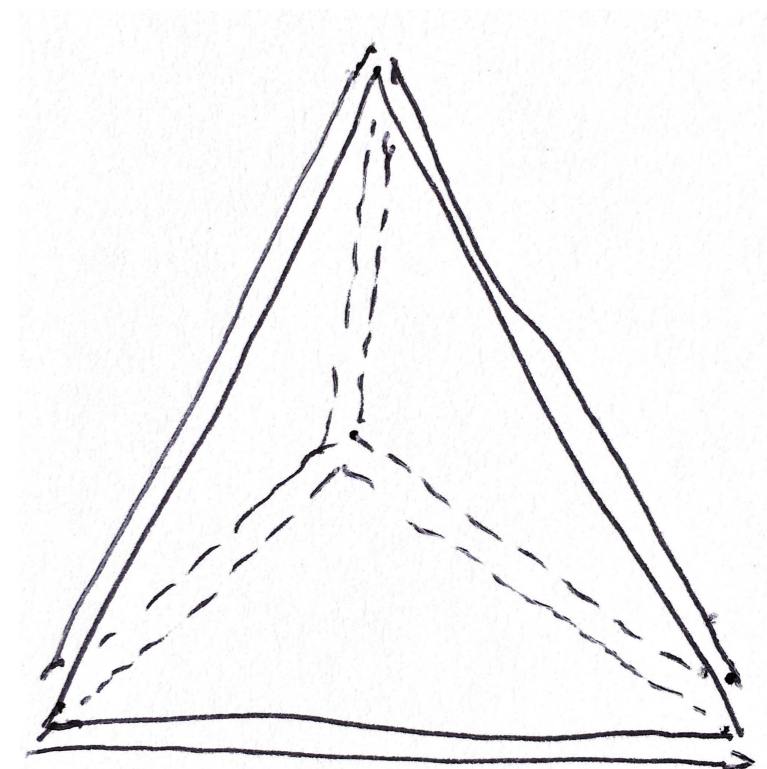
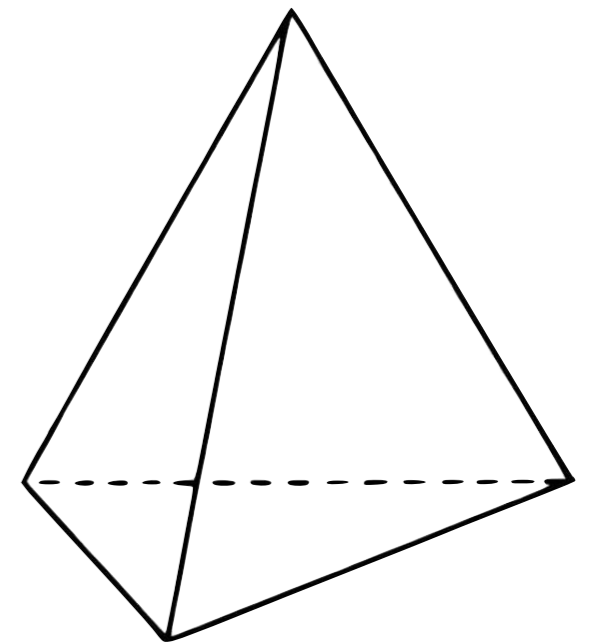
- Euler's Equation  $\rightarrow$  relationship between #triangles and #vertices in a closed *triangle* mesh
- In a closed triangle mesh, each edge is incident to exactly 2 triangles, so

$$3F = 2E$$

- Plug this into Euler's equation:

$$2 = V - \frac{3}{2}F + F \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}F = V - 2$$

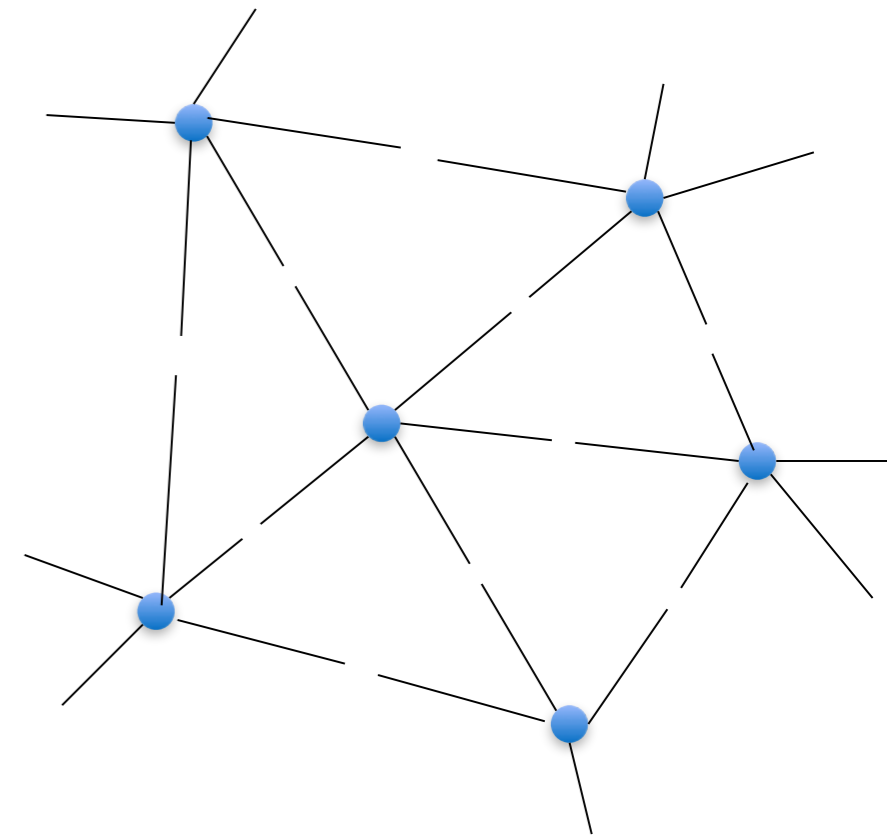
- Therefore, for large *triangle* meshes  $F \approx 2V$



# Average Vertex Degree

- Theorem:  
In all closed, two-manifold, triangle meshes,  
the average vertex degree  $\approx 6$  (even with higher genus).
- Proof:
  - We know:  $3F = 2E$
  - Plugging this into Euler:  $V - E + \frac{2}{3}E = 2$
  - Solve for E:  $E = 3(V - 2)$
  - Calculate average degree by edge-splitting trick:

$$\text{average degree} = \frac{\# \text{ split edges}}{V} = \frac{2E}{V} = \frac{6V - 12}{V} \approx 6$$



# Complexity of Polyhedra

- Similarly, we can derive (for closed triangle meshes)

$$E \approx 3V$$

- Theorem (on the complexity of polyhedra):

For all closed triangle meshes,  $O(F) = O(E) = O(V)$

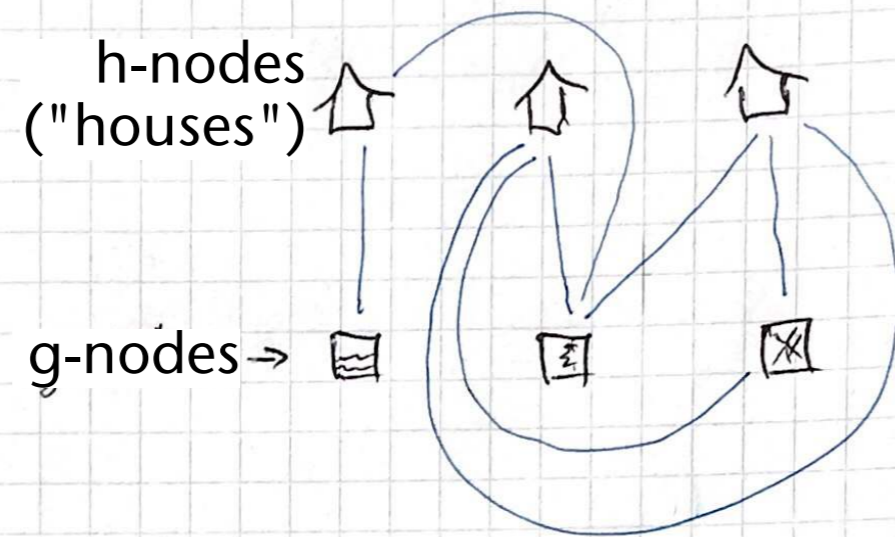
- Analogously, we can prove this for quad meshes
- We can even prove it for all closed meshes!
- Usually, it is also true for open meshes, where the border is not "too long" relative to the total number of edges (i.e., not too many faces are border faces)

# Fun Application of Euler's Equation

## Fun Application of Euler's Equation

Consider this situation:

- 3 houses
- 3 facilities (water, etc)



Task: draw lines

from the g-nodes to the h-nodes, s.t.

- no lines intersect ( $\rightarrow$  planar graph)
- all houses are connected to all facilities
- no other edges ( $\rightarrow$  bipartite graph)

Conjecture: this is impossible

Proof: assume it is possible

B/c of planar graph  $\rightarrow$  Euler applies (graph contains one infinite face)

B/c of bipartite  $\rightarrow$

$$a) E = 3 \cdot 3 = 9$$

b) each face must have  $\geq 2$  h-nodes and  $\geq 2$  g-nodes

$$\text{We have } V=6, E=9 \Rightarrow 6-9+F=2 \Rightarrow F=5$$

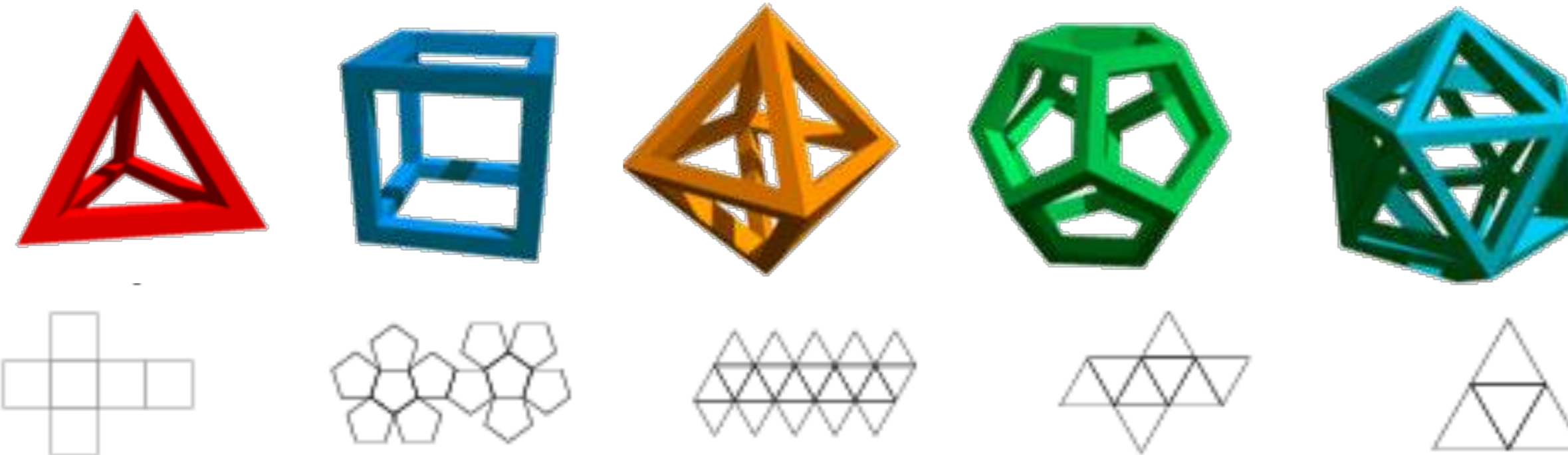
$$\text{Edges per face } \geq 4 \Rightarrow 4F \leq 2E \Rightarrow 20 \leq 18 \quad \text{W!}$$

similar trick as with proof of polyhedron complexity

# The Platonic Solids

- Definition **Platonic Solid**:  
A convex polyhedron consisting of a number of *congruent & regular* polygons, with the same number of faces meeting at each vertex.
- **Regular** polygon = all sides are equal, all angles are equal
- Theorem (Euklid):  
There are exactly *five* platonic solids.

Voted  
4th most  
beautiful  
theorem!





- All facets have the same number of edges =  $n$ ; therefore:

$$2E = nF \Leftrightarrow F = \frac{2}{n}E$$

- All vertices have the same number of incident edges =  $m$ ; therefore

$$2E = mV \Leftrightarrow V = \frac{2}{m}E$$

- Plugging this into Euler's equation:

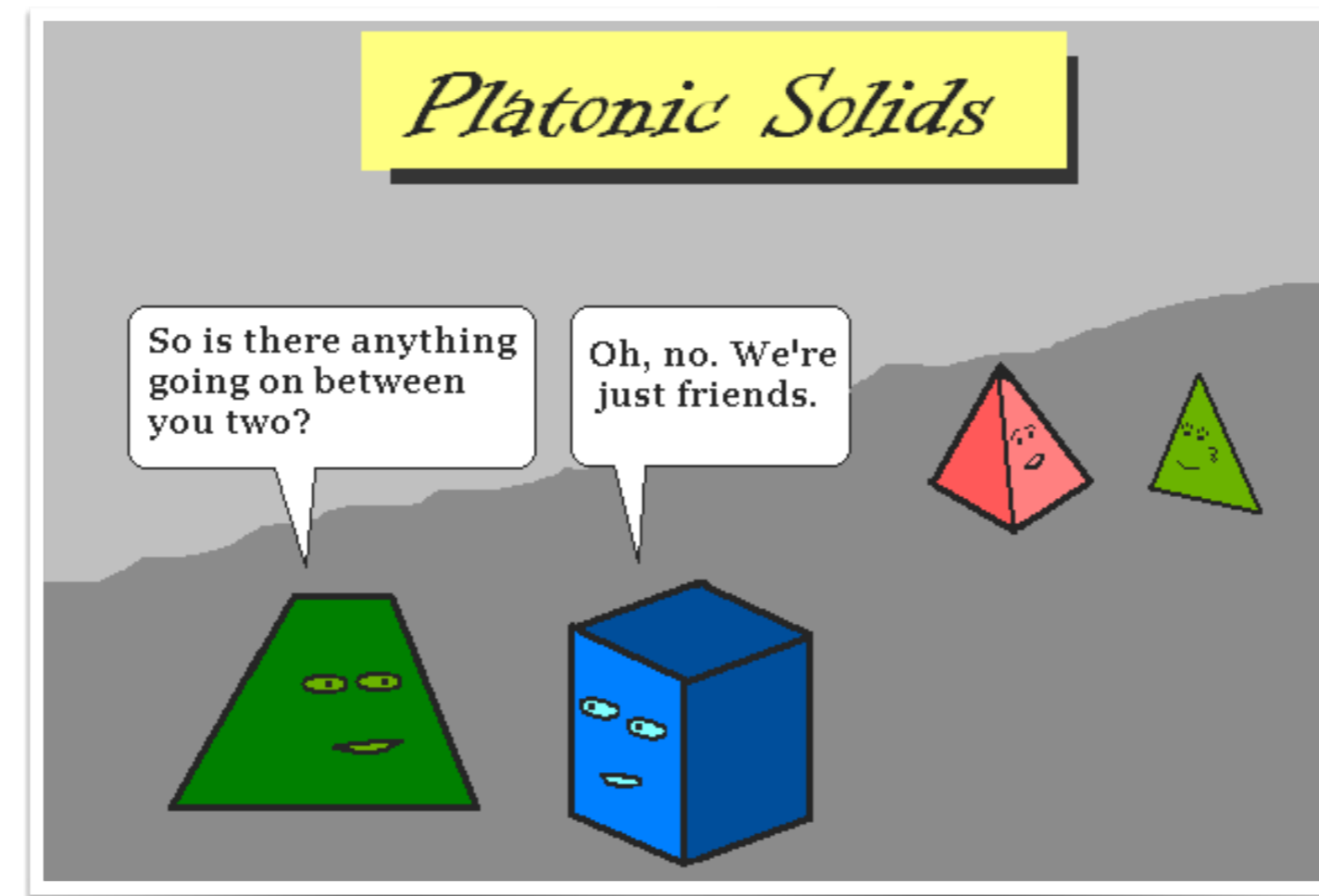
$$2 = V - E + F = \frac{2}{m}E - E + \frac{2}{n}E \Leftrightarrow \frac{2}{E} = \frac{2}{m} - 1 + \frac{2}{n}$$

- Yields the following condition on  $m$  and  $n$ :

$$\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{E} > \frac{1}{2}$$

- Additional condition:  $m$  and  $n$  both must be  $\geq 3$
- Which  $\{m,n\}$  fulfill these conditions:

$\{3,3\}$     $\{3,4\}$     $\{4,3\}$     $\{5,3\}$     $\{3,5\}$    ← Schläfli symbols



C. Burke, 2008

# Digression: Platonic Solids in History & the Arts

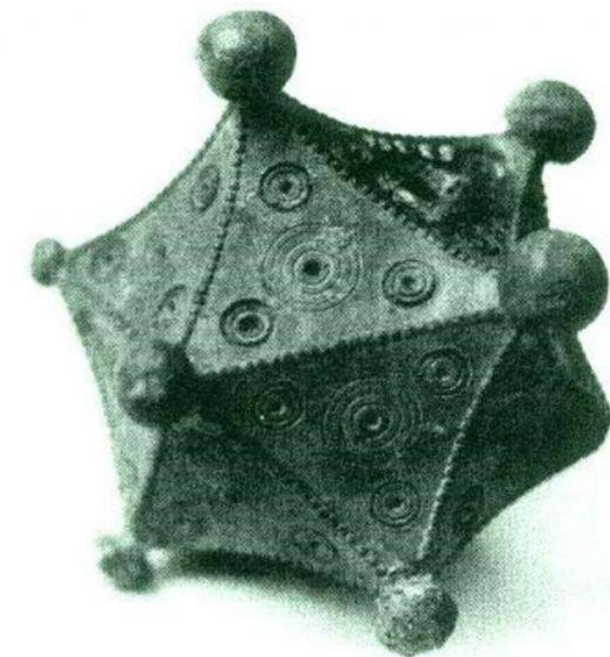
- A specimen of an icosahedron from Egypt, 2nd century B.C. – 4th century A.D.



- The platonic solids have been known at least 1000 years before Plato in Scotland



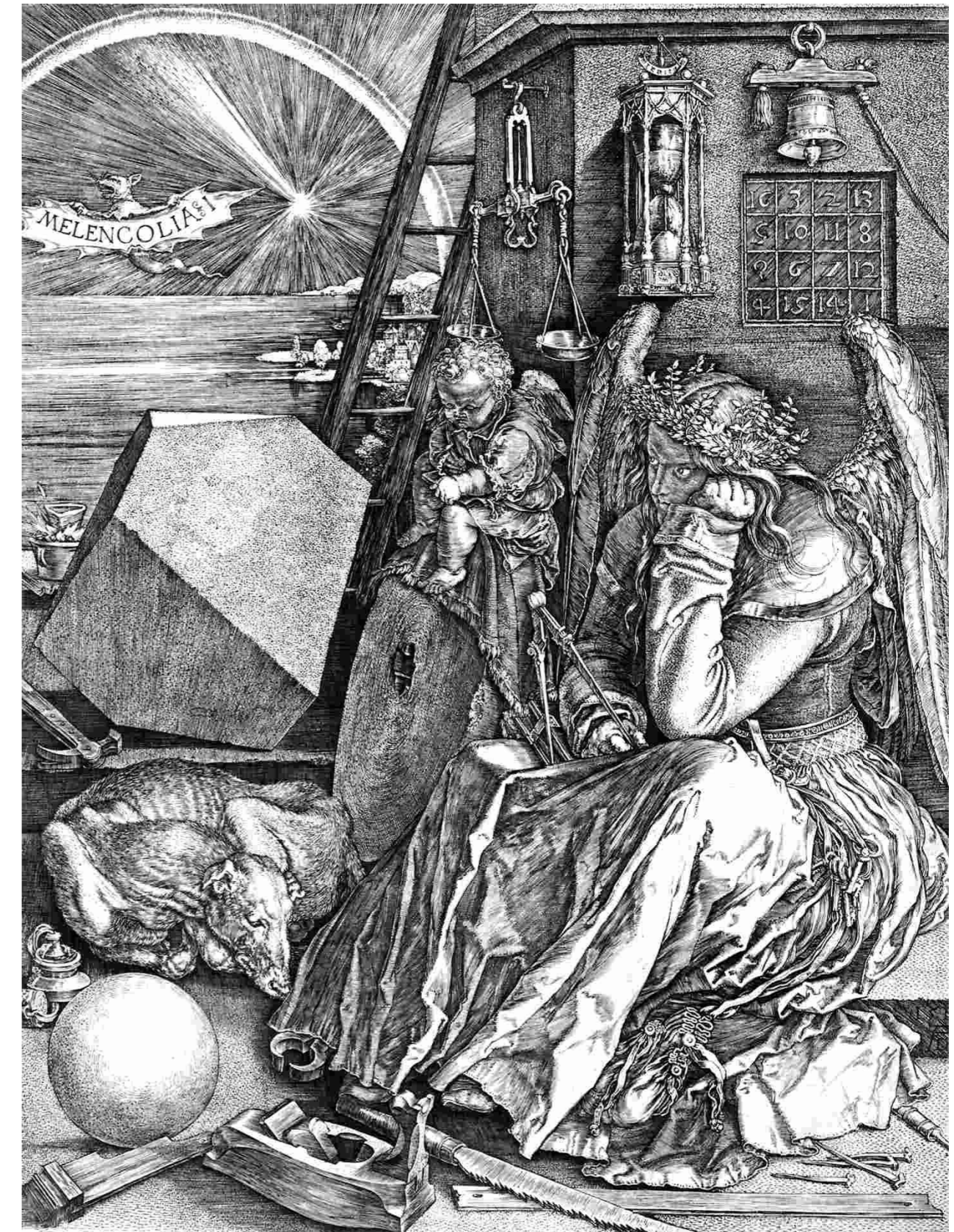
# The Curious Case of the Roman Dodecahedrons



Nobody has a convincing answer as to what their purpose was!

# Platonic Solids in the Arts and Architecture

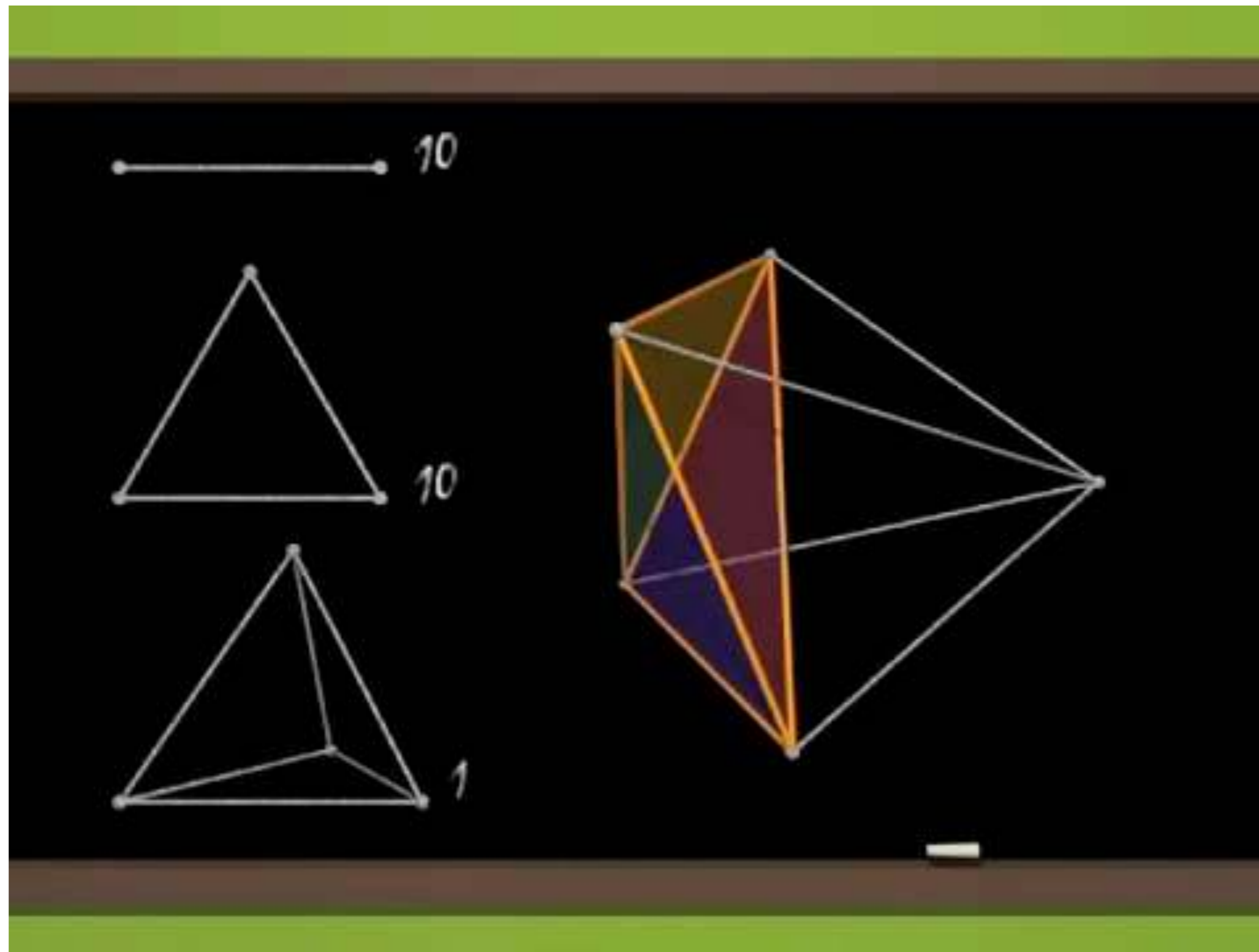
Portrait of Johannes Neudörfer and his Son Nicolas Neufchatel, 1527–1590



Oceano, CA, USA

Dürer: *Melencolia I*

# Regular Polyhedra in 4-Dimensional Space

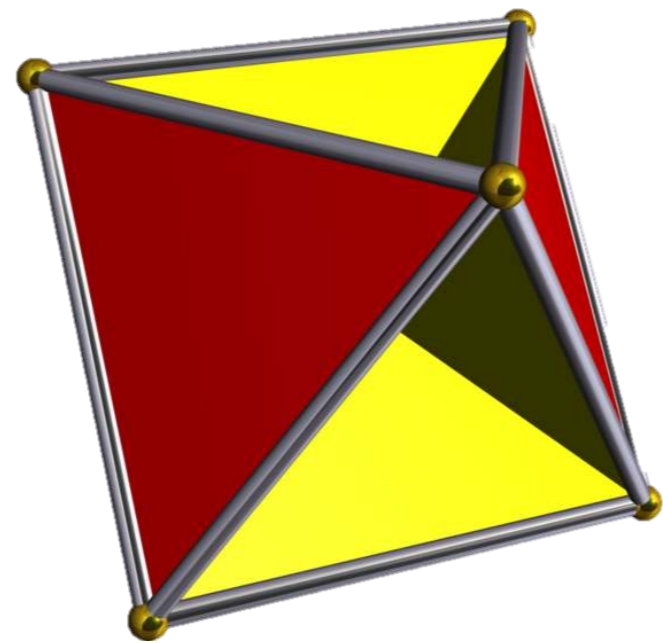


The regular polyhedra (sort of the generalization of Platonic solids in higher dimensions) were discovered by Schläfli.

"Dimensions" by Jos Leys, Étienne Ghys, Aurélien Alvarez  
[http://www.dimensions-math.org/Dim\\_E.htm](http://www.dimensions-math.org/Dim_E.htm)

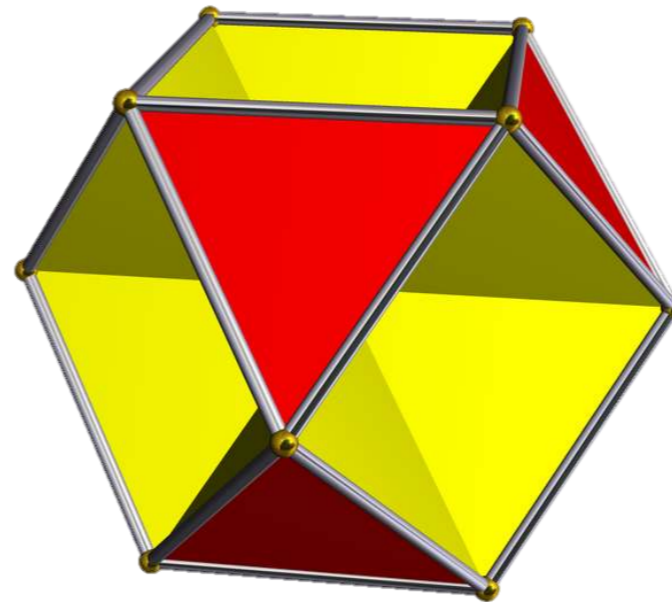
# The Euler Characteristic

- Caution: the Euler equation holds only for polyhedra, that are topologically equivalent to a sphere!
- Examples:



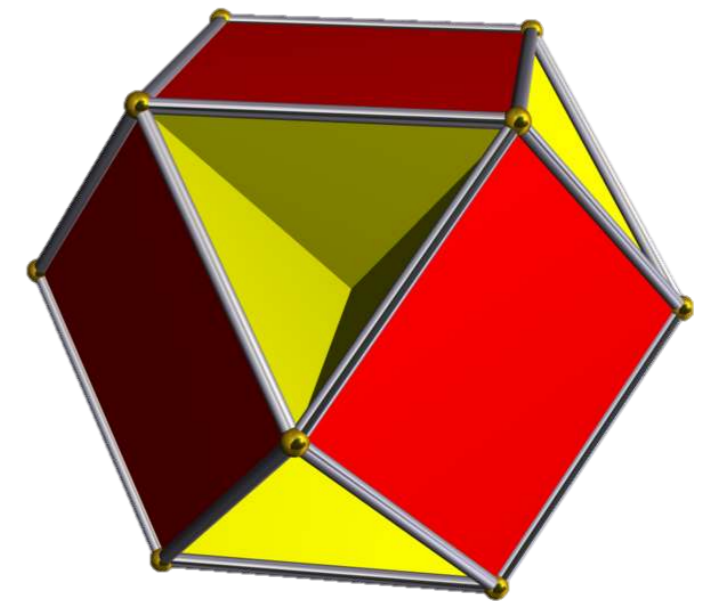
*Tetrahemihexahedron*

$$6 - 12 + 7 = 1$$



*Octahemioctahedron*

$$12 - 24 + 12 = 0$$



*Cubohemioctahedron*

$$12 - 24 + 10 = -2$$

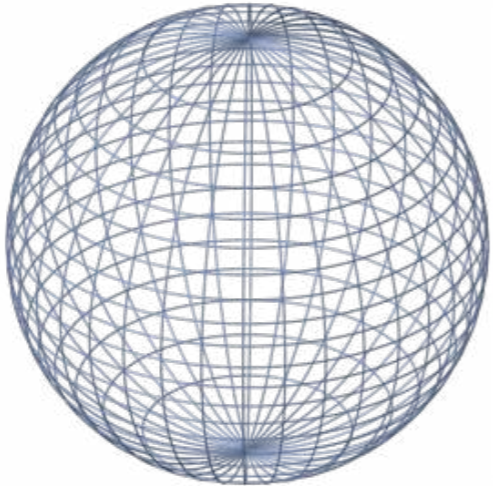
V-E+F

- *But:* the quantity  $V-E+F$  stays the same no matter how any given polyhedron is deformed (homeomorphically!)  
 → so the quantity  $V-E+F$  is a **topologic invariant**

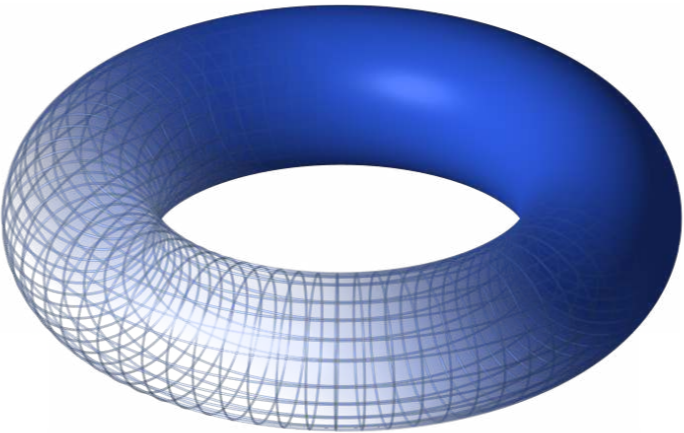
- Definition Euler characteristic:

$$\chi = V - E + F$$

- Examples:



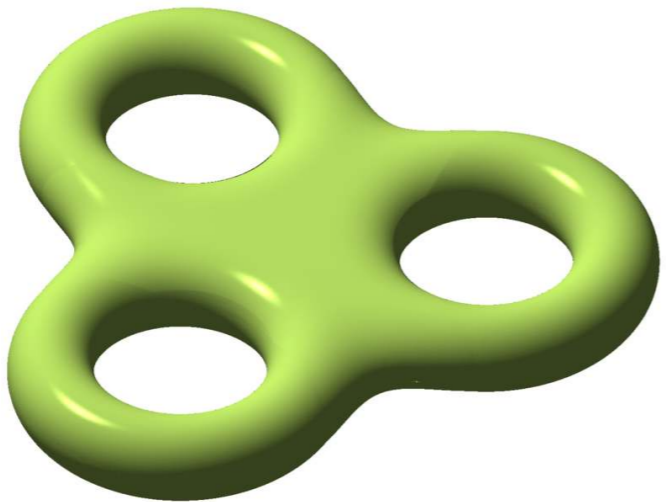
2



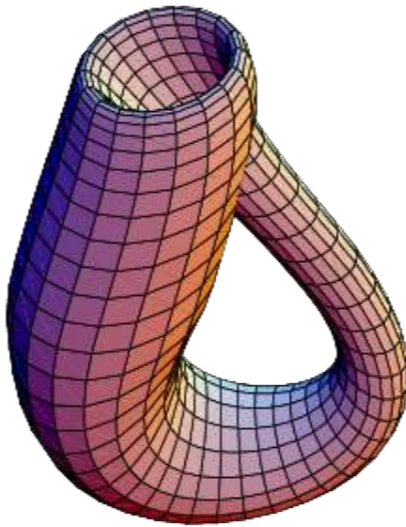
0



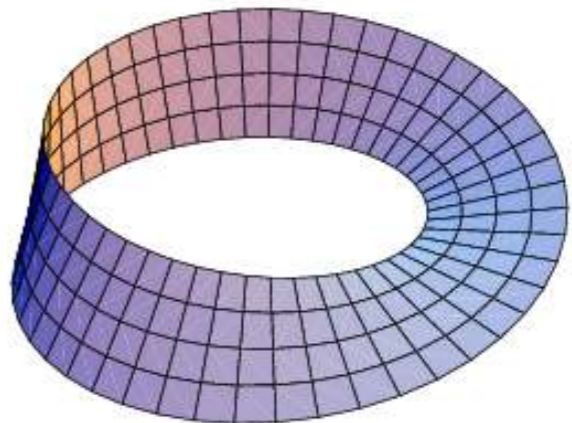
-2



-4



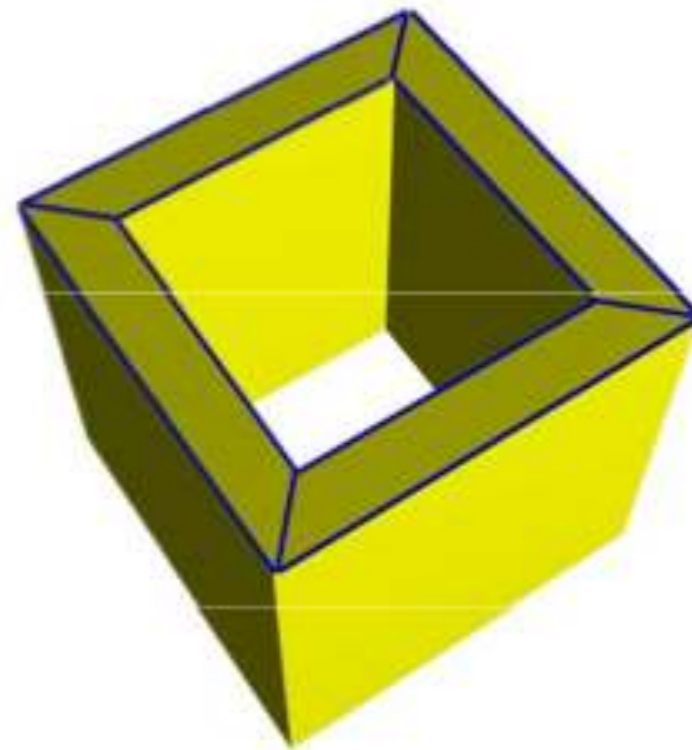
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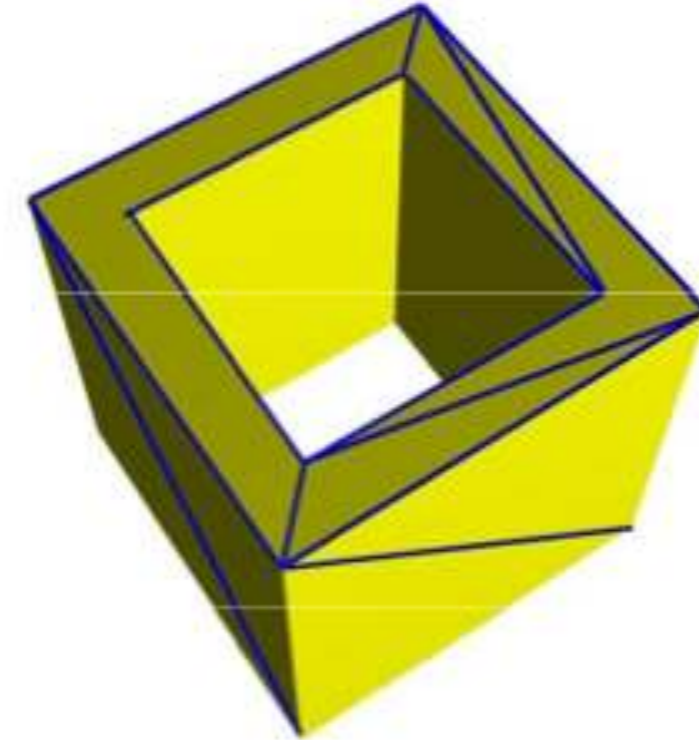
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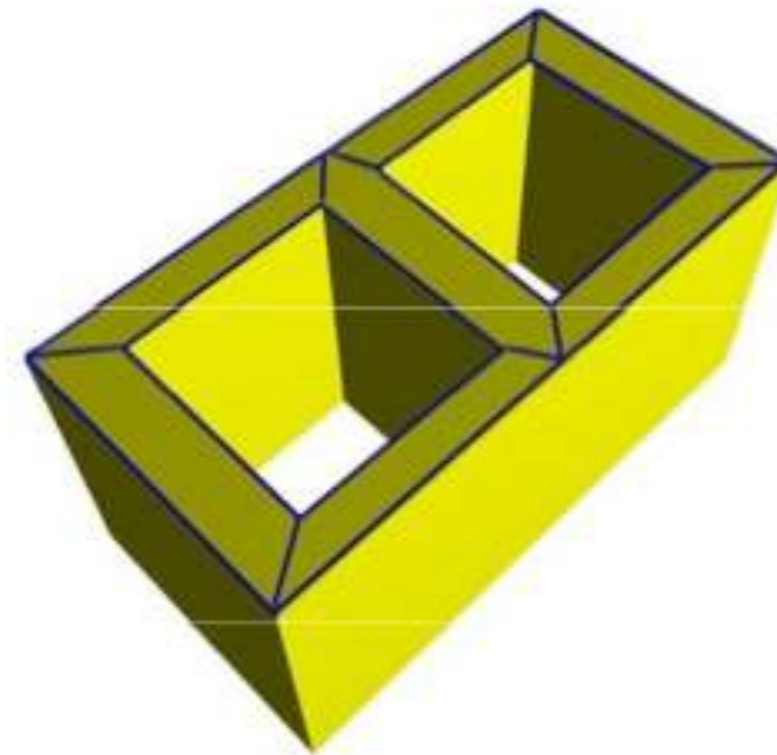
- The Euler characteristic is even independent of the tessellation!



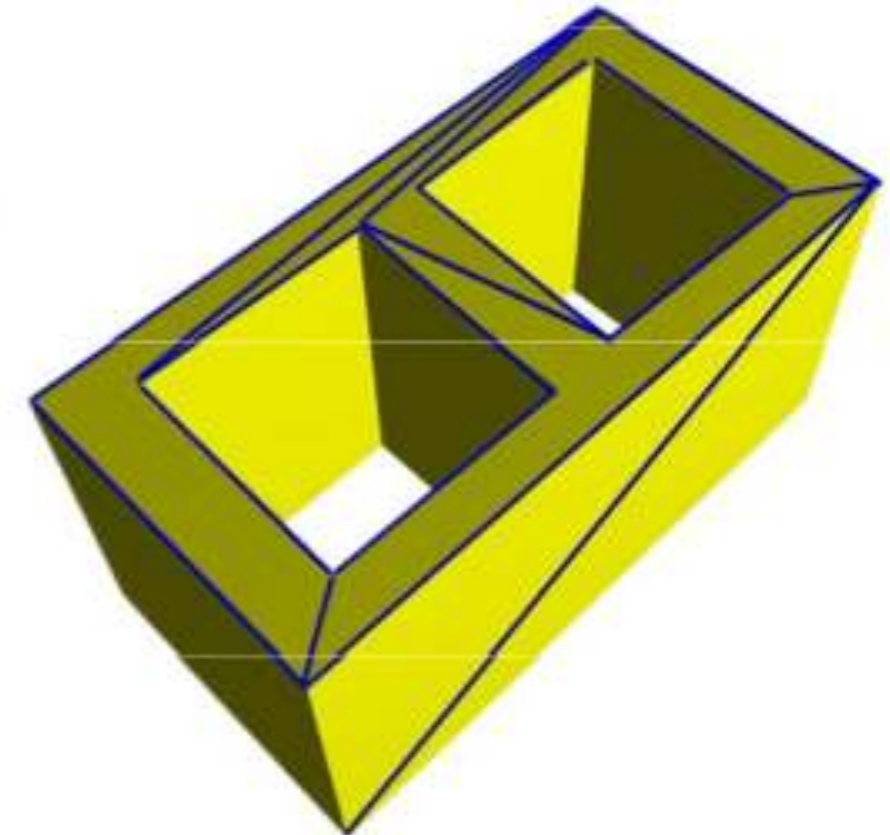
$$\begin{aligned}V &= 16 \\E &= 32 \\F &= 16 \\ \chi &= 0\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}V &= 16 \\E &= 36 \\F &= 20 \\ \chi &= 0\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}V &= 28 \\E &= 56 \\F &= 26 \\ \chi &= -2\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}V &= 24 \\E &= 48 \\F &= 22 \\ \chi &= -2\end{aligned}$$

# The Classification Theorem

Assume we are given a *closed* and *orientable* mesh consisting of just one *shell*.  
Then the following holds:

The Euler characteristic  $\chi = 2, 0, -2, \dots \Leftrightarrow$

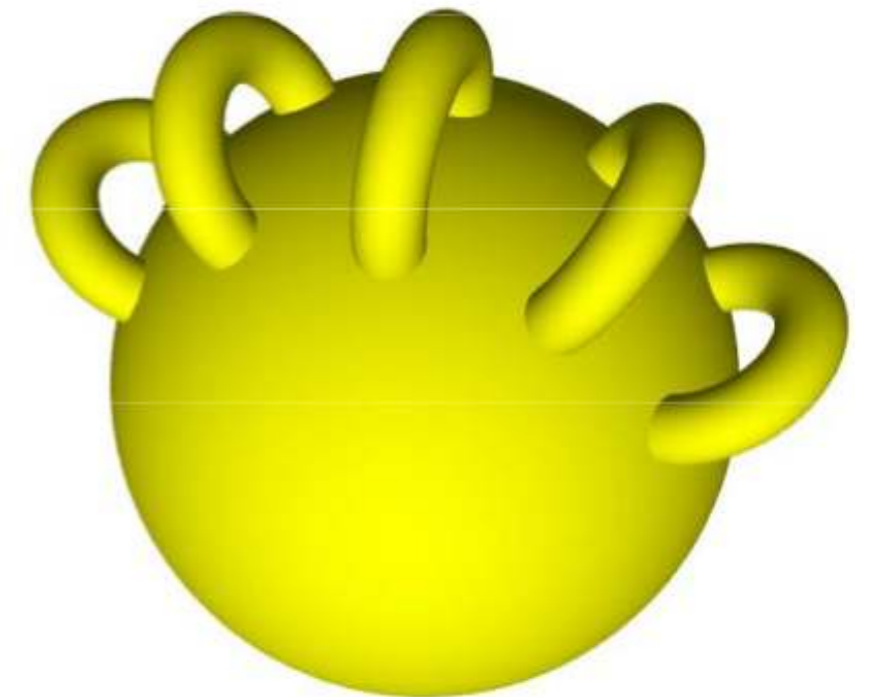
the mesh is topologically equivalent to a sphere, a torus, a double torus, etc.

# The Euler-Poincaré Equation

- Generalization of the Euler equation for 2-manifold, closed objects (possibly with several, non-contiguous "surfaces"):

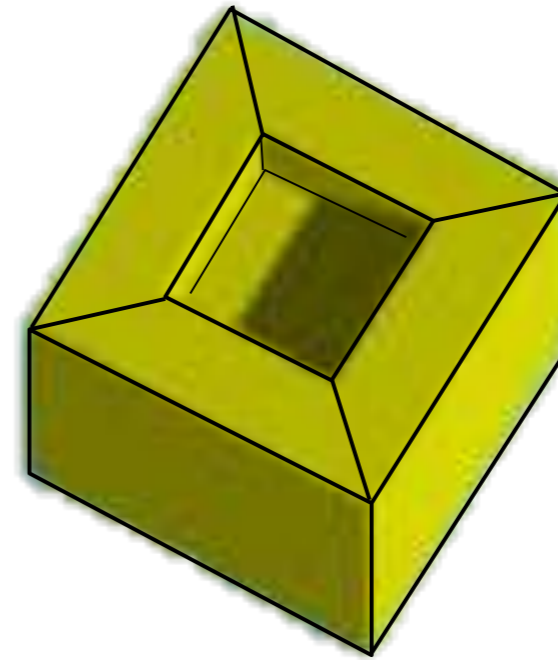
$$V - E + F = 2(S - G)$$

- $G = \#$  handles,  $S = \#$  shells/surfaces (Schalen)
- $G$  is called "Genus"
- **Handle (hole, Loch)**: a piece of rubber string *inside* a handle cannot be shrunk towards a single point
- **Shell (Schale)** = 2-manifold, contiguous surface without self-intersection; by walking on the surface of a shell, *each and every point on it can be reached*, without ever leaving it
- We can cut out so-called "voids" (**Aushöhlungen**) by "inner" shells
  - In CG, we usually consider only meshes consisting of a **single shell!**

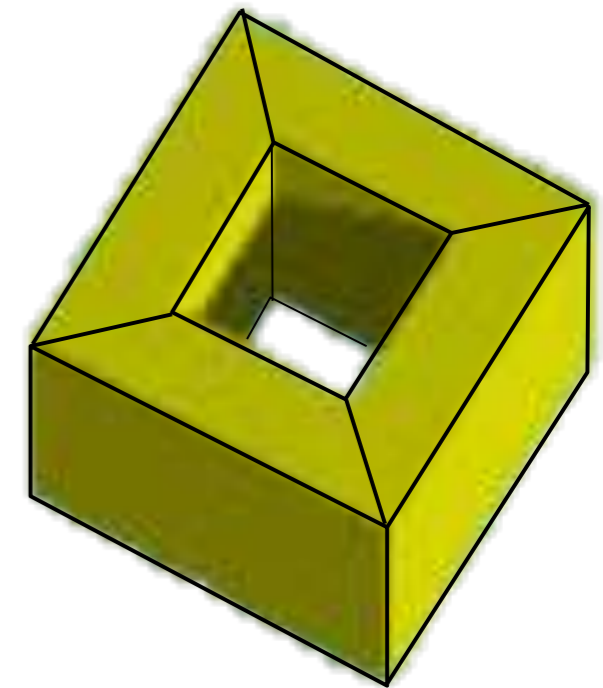


# Examples

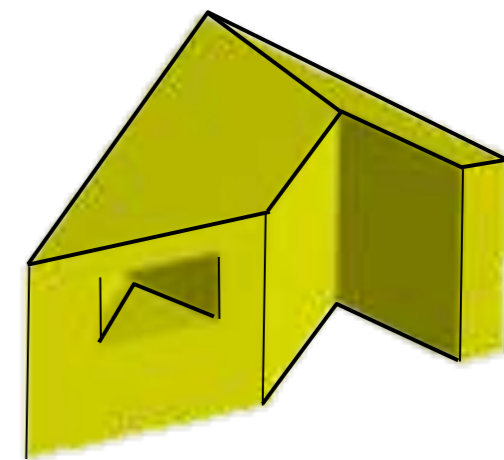
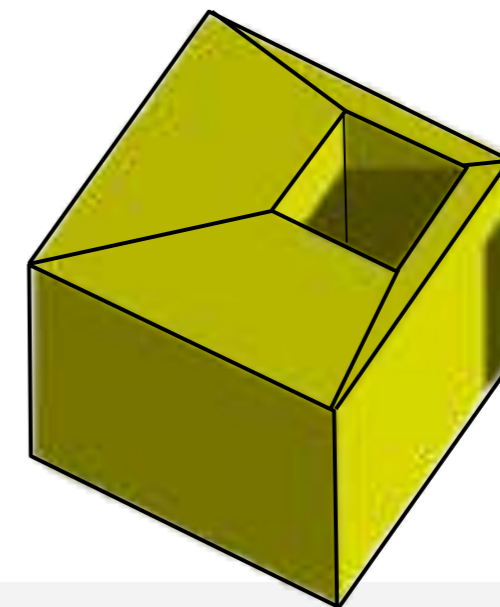
- $V = 16, E = 28, F = 14, S = 1, G = 0$ :  
 $V - E + F = 2 = 2(S - G)$



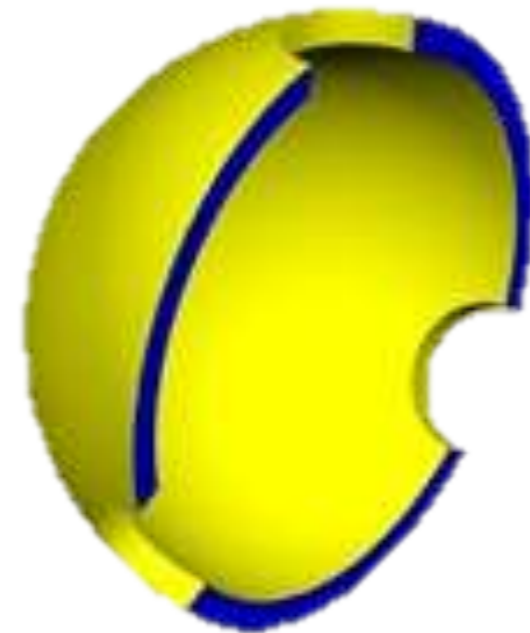
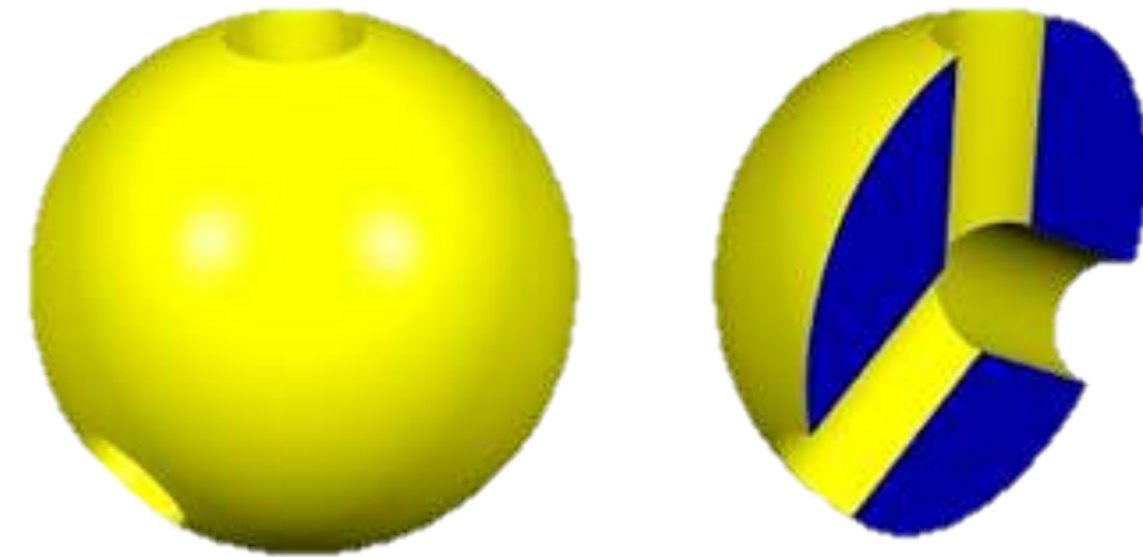
- $V = 16, E = 32, F = 16, S = 1, G = 1$ :  
 $V - E + F = 0 = 2(S - G)$



- $V = 16+8, E = 32+12, F = 16+6, G = 1, S = 2$ :  
 $V - E + F = 2 = 2(S - G)$



- Beware: sometimes it is not obvious to determine the genus!
- Approach: find homeomorphism, so that genus becomes obvious
- Example:



1.



2.



3.

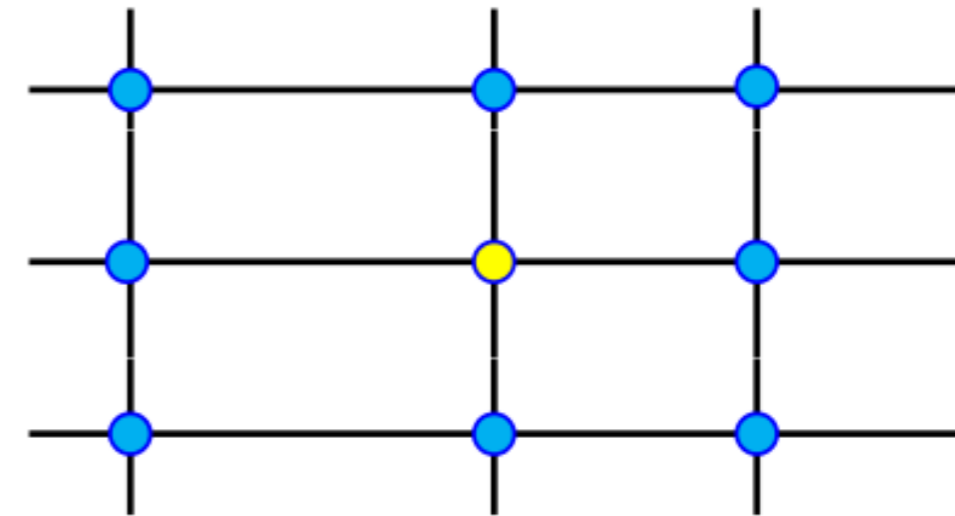
- Genus = 2

- What is the genus of this object?



# Regular Quad Meshes

- Definition "regular quad mesh":  
Each face of the mesh is a quadrangle (a.k.a. *quad*, *quadrilateral*), and each vertex has degree 4.



- Theorem:  
Each closed, orientable, regular quad mesh must be topologically equivalent to a torus



- Proof:
  - In such a mesh we have:  $4V = 2E \rightarrow V = \frac{1}{2} E$
  - By counting the edges via the faces:  $4F = 2E \rightarrow F = \frac{1}{2} E$
  - Therefore  $\chi(M) = V - E + F = 0 \rightarrow \text{mesh} = \text{torus (by previous theorem)}$

# Regular Meshes

- Definition:  
A **regular  $(n,m,g)$ -mesh** is a closed, orientable mesh, with genus  $g$ , where each facet has exactly  $n$  edges, and each vertex has exactly degree  $m$ .
- Examples:
  - The  $(n,m,0)$ -meshes are exactly the Platonic solids
  - The regular quad mesh is a regular  $(4,4,1)$ -mesh



- In a regular mesh we have

$$nF = 2E = mV$$

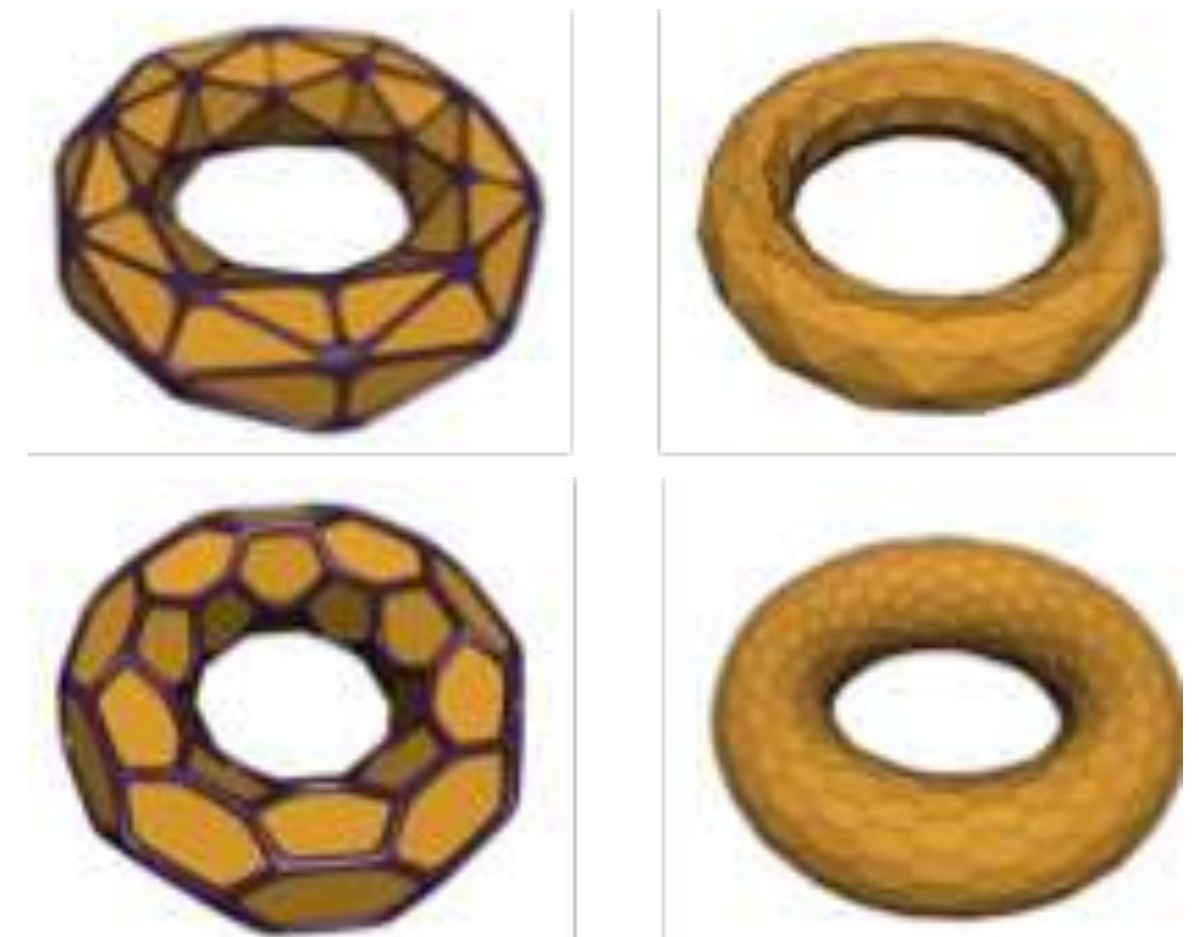
- Plugging that into the Euler equation, we obtain

$$\left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{2}\right) E = 1 - G$$

- For regular genus-1 meshes we have:

$$nm - 2n - 2m = 0$$

- The only possible integer solutions are:  $(4, 4, 1)$   $(3, 6, 1)$   $(6, 3, 1)$



- Theorem:  
There are infinitely many regular  $(n,m,g)$ -meshes for all pairs  $(n,m)$  with  $nm - 2n - 2m > 0$  (genus  $G > 1$ ).
- Proof:
  - Rewrite equations (1) and (2) from previous slide:

$$H = \frac{g - 1}{nm - 2n - 2m} \quad E = 2nmH, \quad F = 4mH, \quad V = 4nH$$

- Let  $g_1 = nm - 2n - 2m$  ;  
then  $E_1 = 2nm, V_1 = 4n, F_1 = 4m$  are solutions of the 3 equations
- Let  $g_k = k(g_1 - 1) + 1$  ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  ;  
then  $E_k = kE_1, V_k = kV_1, F_k = kF_1$  are solutions, too

- Remark: the proof does not tell us how to construct such meshes
- Example of a  $(4,5,2)$ -mesh



- We can add an arbitrary number of such "chain rings" to achieve an arbitrarily high genus and, thus, a  $(4,5,g)$ -mesh with  $g \geq 2$