Fast Multiresolution Surface Meshing *

M. H. Gross, R. Gatti, O. Staadt
Institute for Information Systems
Computer Science Department
Swiss Federal Institute of Technology
ETH–Zentrum
8092 Zürich
Tel: +41 1 632 7114
Fax: +41 1 632 1172
E–mail: grossm@inf.ethz.ch

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Abstract

We are presenting a new method for adaptive surface meshing and triangulation which controls the local level–of–detail of the surface approximation by local spectral estimates. These estimates are figured out by a wavelet representation of the surface data. The basic idea is to decompose the initial data set by means of an orthogonal or semi–orthogonal tensor product wavelet transform (WT) and to analyze the resulting coefficients. In surface regions, where the partial energy of the resulting coefficients is low, the polygonial approximation of the surface can be performed with larger triangles without loosing too much fine grain details. However, since the localization of the WT is bound by the Heisenberg principle the meshing method has to be controlled by the detail signals rather than directly by the coefficients. The dyadic scaling of the WT stimulated us to build an hierachical meshing algorithm which transforms the initially regular data grid into a quadtree representation by rejection of unimportant mesh vertices. The optimum triangulation of the resulting quadtree cells is carried out by selection from a look–up table. The tree grows recursively as controlled by detail signals which are computed from a modified inverse WT.
Variations of the thresholds of the wavelet coefficients allow the control of the error of the surface approximation and of the selection of a specific ratio of triangle reduction. Moreover, the framework of the wavelet transform enables an elegant focus on the local level–of–detail of any particular region of interest within the data set. For this purpose, we introduce a new class of wavelet space filters acting as ”magnifying glasses” for the data. Due to the low algorithmic complexity, surface meshing can be achieved at interactive rates, such as required by flight simulators.

In our case the method was applied on digital terrain data from the Swiss Alpes, but other applications are possible as well, such as mesh reduction in complex data, FEM or radiosity meshing.

1 Introduction

Polygonial surface approximations are an essential preprocessing step in scientific visualization, since most modern graphics hardware support the display of shaded and textured triangles. Nevertheless, in order to treat complex data sets efficiently, methods have to be found to reduce the number of triangles representing the data. This problem is not only striking in the field of digital terrain modeling and flight simulation, but also in many other applications, such as finite element [24], radiosity [1] or parametric surface meshing [6]. Hence, adaptive triangle reduction techniques were established in the past. Most of them try to find mathematical criteria for the importance of a particular mesh vertex, remove it if applicable and perform a local retriangulation of the mesh. [22] for instance analyzes single vertices in the mesh and defines a planarity criterion to decide on the removal of the vertex. In order to avoid cracks in the surface, a local Delaunay triangulation has to be performed. Quadtree–based methods [21] were proposed mostly for radiosity meshing, where the mesh is controlled by the illumination gradient. Other implementations are used for representing rectangular B–spline patches [6].

A lot of work has also been done for the topologically more challenging case of 3D isosurfaces. Based on analysis of topological problems [8], [18] arising with the marching cubes method, different approaches have been published computing adaptive triangulations or reductions of an existing isosurface mesh. Specifically, [19] used octrees to efficiently manage the surface polygons. As a result, the octree is usually built from the volume data set.

Although most of the existing methods work well within the above limitations and can be found in a broad range of applications, the basic issues arising from these approaches are as follows:
I. The criteria employed to thin the triangle mesh are usually based on simple local geometric surface features, such as planarity or Gaussian curvature. It is difficult to quantify global error bounds of the overall approximation.

II. The reduction of the triangle mesh is computationally expensive and once local retriangulations are performed, extensive work on data structures and list management is required.

III. There is no elegant way to focus the level–of–detail locally onto interesting data features – a property of increasing importance in complex data sets.

On the other hand, the wavelet transform, as presented in [5], [15] or [3] has been discovered for computer graphics: [12] and [17] proposed volume rendering techniques, whereas [13] published a volume morphing method. Even approximate solutions of the radiosity equation can be achieved using WTs [9], as well as visualization of multidimensional features, such as in [10]. All of these approaches employ the WT to expand the data and to control the parameters of the approximation within the mathematical bounds of the $L^2$–energy norm.

The goal of the following paper is to point out an alternative approach to the adaptive triangulation problem: the usage of the wavelet transform as an overall mathematical framework which controls the data approximation. In some sense, the WT provides a local spectral estimate of the data and describes local variations which can be harvested to govern the courseness of a surface mesh. The uncertainty, however, prevents the immediate usage of the wavelet coefficients. Consequently, the triangulation step has to be embedded in a modified inverse wavelet transform which carries out the detail signals. A quadtree representation grows iteratively as the data is transformed back into the spatial domain. Due to some symmetries within the quadtree cells, the local triangulations can be computed from a look–up table. Thus, we avoid complex list management and perform the triangulation at nearly interactive rates. This concept is particularly well suited for real–time applications, such as in flight simulation or virtual reality.

The concept of our method is illustrated in Fig. 1. The overall goal is to transform the initially regular surface data grid into a quadtree structure and to triangulate each quadtree cell using a look–up table. In order to decide, whether a particular mesh vertex can be removed, we first apply a WT onto the data and then iteratively reconstruct the detail signals. The amplitude of the detail signal is taken as a measure for the local frequency characteristics and decides on the removal of points. The dyadic scale of the standard WT stimulates the reconstruction of the detail signals.
from the different frequency channels in a single step mode. After the first step each second data vertex of the grid is analyzed. Then, as the iteration proceeds the next detail signal is reconstructed and each fourth vertex is analyzed and so forth. This scheme enforces a loop consisting of a single–step inverse WT to recover a particular detail signal and an analysis step to label unimportant coefficients. Applying wavelet space filtering allows an elegant control of the local level–of–detail of the triangulation and acts as a local ”magnifier”.

Although the scope of our paper is to present a method for 2D surface meshing, it can also be extended to 3D to handle isofurfaces or volumes with tedrahedrizations [2]. Moreover, some of the different ideas encompassed by this method, such as the detail signal criterion and the wavelet space filters can also be used to govern existing meshing methods.

The organization of the paper is as follows: First of all, we describe the mathematical framework of the 2D wavelet transform for surface approximation. Since the standard WT can be found in the corresponding literature, particular emphasis is given to the required extensions, such as modifications of the QM–Filter pyramids to figure out the inverse WT. Furthermore, mathematical formulations of filters in wavelet space are explained and their importance for level–of–detail control is stressed. The next section sheds light on the quadtree–based mesh representation we propose and shows how to derive local optimal cell triangulations from a look–up table. The algorithmic complexity of the method as well as an error analysis is elaborated in chapter 4. Finally, some examples from a digital terrain model of the Swiss Alpes illustrate the superiority of the proposed method.
Fig. 1  Illustration of the basic concepts of the method: estimation of the surface parameters using the local detail signal of the WT, point removal and quadtree–based meshing of the remaining surface points.

2 Surface Approximation using Wavelets

2.1 The 2D Wavelet Transform
The 2D version of the wavelet–transform (WT) expands any finite energy function \( f(x,y) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \) using a set of similar basis functions \( \psi_{a,b}(x,y) \). Its generic continuous form description is provided as the following inner product:
\[ \text{WT}_{f\psi}(a_x, a_y, b_x, b_y) = \langle f, \psi_{a,b} \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{a,b}(x,y) f^*(x,y) \, dx \, dy \quad a_x, a_y, b_x, b_y \in \mathbb{R} \quad (1) \]

The basis functions are derived from each other by scaling and shifting one prototype function \( \psi(x,y) \) controlled by the parameters \( a_x, a_y \) and \( b_x, b_y \) respectively [5].

\[
\psi_{a,b}(x,y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|a_x a_y|}} \psi\left( \frac{x - b_x}{a_x}, \frac{y - b_y}{a_y} \right) \tag{2}
\]

Important properties of the basis functions are band-pass behavior, as expressed in

\[
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{a,b}(x,y) \, dx \, dy = \Psi_{a,b}(0,0) = 0, \tag{3}
\]

\( \Psi_{a,b}(u,v) : \text{Fourier Transform of } \psi_{a,b}(x,y) \)

Note, that due to Parseval’s energy equivalent, the Fourier transforms of the basis functions have to be scaled in an appropriate way.

\[
\Psi_{a,b}(u,v) = \sqrt{|a_x a_y|} \, e^{-2\pi j(b_x + b_y)} \Psi(a_x u, a_y v) \tag{4}
\]

The spatial shifts cause some phase shifts in frequency. In most cases, orthonormality further constraints the bases:

\[
\langle \psi_l , \psi_k \rangle = \delta(l - k), \quad \delta : \text{Kronecker–delta–function} \quad (5)
\]

Most discrete formulations of the 2D–WT comprise a dyadic scaling of the bases with \( a_x = a_y = 2 \) and a unit shift \( b_x = b_y = 1 \), by which the respective bases are derived:
\[
\phi_{mpq}^2(x, y) := 2^{-m}\phi(2^{-m}x - p)\phi(2^{-m}y - q)
\]
\[
\psi_{mpq}^{2,1}(x, y) := 2^{-m}\psi(2^{-m}x - p)\phi(2^{-m}y - q)
\]
\[
\psi_{mpq}^{2,2}(x, y) := 2^{-m}\phi(2^{-m}x - p)\psi(2^{-m}y - q)
\]
\[
\psi_{mpq}^{2,3}(x, y) := 2^{-m}\psi(2^{-m}x - p)\psi(2^{-m}y - q)
\]

\[m : 1, \ldots, M \text{ iteration step}\]

The upper definition of the 2D–basis functions accounts for a separable extension. In this case, the respective multiresolution function spaces are built from tensor products of the 1D case.

\[
V_m^2 = V_m \otimes V_m
\]
\[
V_m^2 = (V_{m+1} \oplus U_{m+1}) \otimes (V_{m+1} \oplus U_{m+1})
\]
\[
V_m^2 = V_{m+1}^3 \oplus U_{m+1}^{3,1} \oplus U_{m+1}^{3,2} \oplus U_{m+1}^{3,3}
\]

Here, \(V_m\) renders an approximation of all \(f(x) \in L^2(\mathbb{R})\). The space of resolution \(m\) is derived from the higher resolution step by adding the orthogonal complement \(U_m\). The scaling functions \(\phi_{mpq}^2(x, y) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)\) provide orthonormal bases of the functions spaces \(V_m^2\) in each resolution step \(m\), whereas the wavelets \(\psi_{mpq}^{2,1}(x, y), \psi_{mpq}^{2,2}(x, y)\) and \(\psi_{mpq}^{2,3}(x, y) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)\) represent bases of the orthogonal complements \(U_m^{2,1}, U_m^{2,2}\) and \(U_m^{2,3}\).

Thus the transform with discrete orthonormal wavelets can be mathematically described as a set of coefficients \(\{c_{mpq}^{m,1,2,3}\}\) which are derived from inner products of the function \(f(x, y)\) with the upper bases.

\[
c_{mpq}^{m,i} = \begin{cases} 
(f(x,y) , \psi_{mpq}^{2,i}(x,y)) & 0 \leq m \leq M - 1, \ i = 1, 2, 3 \\
(f(x,y) , \phi_{mpq}^2(x,y)) & m = M 
\end{cases}
\]

Conversely, any finite energy function \(f(x,y) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)\) can be approximated by the bases elucidated above.

\[
f(x, y) = \sum_{p} \sum_{q} c_{mpq}^{M,2} \phi_{mpq}^{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{M-1} \left( c_{mpq}^{m,1} \psi_{mpq}^{2,1} + c_{mpq}^{m,2} \psi_{mpq}^{2,2} + c_{mpq}^{m,3} \psi_{mpq}^{2,3} \right)
\]
Note, that the upper equation provides a multiresolution hierarchy enabling the control of the bounds of any approximation. For convenience, we will denote the coefficients simply with $c_i$.

### 2.2 Biorthogonal Wavelets

The final design of the wavelet bases is usually figured out by further constraining the function’s shape and mathematical properties. In most computer graphics applications [11] and [7] we require strict local support along with an appropriately smooth shape, symmetry and fast decay in frequency domain. Unfortunately, these competing properties cannot be satisfied with orthonormal wavelets. Chui [3] and Unser [23], however, independently developed a class of B–spline wavelets which meet the upper requirements. The bases are not orthogonal to each other, but it is possible to set up a so–called dual frame to perfectly reconstruct the signal from the transform. Specifically, besides of scaling function $\phi$ and wavelet $\psi$ the entire transform is defined by a dual scaling function $\tilde{\phi}$ and a dual wavelet $\tilde{\psi}$. They span the subspaces $\tilde{V}_m$ and $\tilde{U}_m$ with the following properties:

$$\tilde{V}_m \perp U_m \quad V_m \perp \tilde{U}_m \quad \tilde{U}_m \perp U_{m'}, \quad m \neq m'$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

The description of the 1D version follows [3], in which the dual bases have to satisfy:

$$\langle \tilde{\phi}_l, \tilde{\phi}_k \rangle = \delta(l - k), \quad \langle \tilde{\psi}_l, \tilde{\psi}_k \rangle = \delta(l - k)$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

$$\tilde{\phi}(x) = 2 \sum_k \tilde{h}_k \phi(2x - k) \quad \tilde{\psi}(x) = 2 \sum_k \tilde{g}_k \psi(2x - k)$$

$\tilde{h}_k, \tilde{g}_k$ : Filter responses of the dual QM – pyramid

The biorthogonal B–spline bases of order $j$ can be defined recursively:

$$\phi_j(x) := (\phi_{j-1} * \phi_1)(x) = \int_0^1 \phi_{j-1}(x - t) \, dt, \quad j \geq 2. \quad (12)$$

That is, the bases are derived from each other by self–convolution of an initial basis of order 1, where:

$$\phi_j(x) = \frac{1}{(j-1)!} \sum_{k=0}^j (-1)^k \binom{j}{k} (x - k)^{j-1} \quad \begin{cases} x_+ := \max(0, x) \\ x_+^{j-1} := (x_+)^{j-1}, \quad j \geq 2 \end{cases}$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)
Note, that the support of a B–spline basis is always bound by \([0, j]\). Furthermore, the scaling functions are symmetric with respect to the center of support.

The respective wavelets are given by:

\[
\psi_j(x) := \sum_p q_p \phi_j(2x - p). \tag{14}
\]

with

\[
q_p = \frac{(-1)^p}{2^{j-1}} \sum_{\ell=0}^j \binom{j}{\ell} \phi_{2j}(p + 1 - \ell), \quad p = 0, \ldots, 3j - 2 \tag{15}
\]

The symmetry of the wavelet is restricted to an even order. Fig. 2 shows the functional course of B–spline wavelets of increasing order. The first order type is orthogonal and known as the Haar wavelet.

The Fourier transforms of B–spline wavelets turn out to become sinc–polynomials and the dual set \(\tilde{\psi}_j\) is defined in frequency space by

\[
\tilde{\Phi}_j(\omega) = \frac{\Phi_j(\omega)}{-\sin(\frac{\omega}{2})} \left(\frac{1}{(2j-1)!} \frac{d^{2j-1}}{d\omega^{2j-1}} \cot(\frac{\omega}{2})\right) \tag{16}
\]

\[
\tilde{\Psi}_j(\omega) := \frac{\Psi_j(\omega)}{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi_j(\omega + 2\pi k)|^2} \tag{17}
\]

The implementation of biorthogonal wavelet transforms employs the well known QM–Filter pyramids [23], as depicted in Fig. 3. The dualism of the frames, however, forces us to apply different filter sequences for the decomposition \((H(\omega) \text{ and } G(\omega))\) providing approximations \(A_{m,f}\) and detail \(D_{m,1}^2 f, D_{m,2}^2 f, D_{m,3}^2 f\) as well as \(\tilde{A}_{m,f}, \tilde{D}_{m,1}^2 f, \tilde{D}_{m,2}^2 f \text{ and } \tilde{D}_{m,3}^2 f\) for the reconstruction \((\tilde{H}(\omega) \text{ and } \tilde{G}(\omega))\).

Fast implementations of the WT can be found in [20] and are modified appropriately.

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2.3 How to recover Detail Signals

One problem arising with the fast QMF implementations of the wavelet transform is, that we need access to the difference signal in each iteration step $m$ of the reconstruction. This is necessary because the detail signal at a particular mesh vertex finally decides whether or not it can be removed. For this purpose, the reconstruction pyramid has to be modified, as indicated in Fig. 4.

The procedure recovers the full size detail signals $A_{mf}$ represented by all wavelets at $m = 1,..,M$ and by the scaling functions. This can be accomplished by reversing the trace of each detail signal.
from the original down the decomposition pyramid. In other words, any detail signal $\Delta_m f$ at iteration depth $m$ can be obtained from the respective wavelet coefficients by subsequent filtering and upsampling. The final output results from superimposing all detail signals:

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{m=1}^{M} \Delta_m f(x, y)$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

The required extensions of the QM–filterbank are straightforward.

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**Fig. 4** Modified 1D–version of a QM–Filterbank to recover the detail signals

Note, that this procedure requires additional computation, but although the wavelet coefficients are arranged on a dyadic grid, the Heisenberg principle prevents taking them as a direct criterium for vertex removal. We will address this problem again in chapter 3.

### 2.4 Significance of Wavelet Coefficients

Once the data set is transformed into wavelet space, it is necessary to find appropriate criteria to control the accuracy of the surface approximation provided by the wavelet bases. Furthermore, a norm has to be found as a framework for the definition of error bounds. This can be accomplished using the signal energy $E_{ges}$ which is defined by the $L^2$–norm:

$$E_{ges} = \|f\|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy$$  \hspace{1cm} (19)
That is, in the discrete case of an \( N \times N \) data set with values \( (x_1, \ldots, x_{N^2}) \) the squared sum of the data values represents the signal energy. Due to the Parseval theorem, it equals the squared sum of the wavelet coefficients \( c_i \).

\[
E_{ges} = \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} |x_i|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N^2} |\hat{c}_i|^2
\]  

(20)

This relationship, however, is only valid for orthonormal function systems. In the case of biorthogonal wavelets, their norm \( \| \| \) is \( > 1 \) and modifies eq. (20). Nevertheless, the upper relations prove that any squared wavelet coefficient is a measure for the fraction of energy provided by its basis functions. It is clear that we can now formulate a simple criterion for the significance of particular wavelet coefficients introducing a threshold \( \tau \). Hence, we filter the coefficients according to:

\[
\tilde{c}_i := \begin{cases} 
0, & |\hat{c}_i|^2 < \tau \\
|\hat{c}_i|^2, & |\hat{c}_i|^2 \geq \tau
\end{cases}
\]  

(21)

Increasing \( \tau \) will result in increasing the error bounds of the approximation and decreasing \( \tau \) will also decrease the approximation error. A canonical quantification of the error is given by the ratio of the remaining energy \( E_r \) and \( E_{ges} \).

2.5 Level–of–detail Filtering in Wavelet Space

The introduction of an energy threshold provides a tool for globally influencing the approximation of the wavelets. However, one of the major strengths of the WT has not been harvested so far: the localization properties. The local support of the basis functions allows us to localize them both in spatial and in frequency domain and rejecting a particular basis will only affect its area of support. This important property enables an elegant control of the local level–of–detail of the approximation. For this purpose, the coefficients have to be weighted according to the definition of the ROI which corresponds to a filter operation in wavelet space. It can be defined in analogy with the well known filters in spatial or frequency domain. Since the filter affects the local frequency characteristics of the signal, we propose to call it wavelet space filter.
Let \( g(x,y) \) be a Gaussian weighting function, centered at \((x_0, y_0)\), scaled by \((\sigma_x, \sigma_y)\) and rotated by \(\Theta\) which quantifies the level–of–detail around some location in space \((x_0, y_0)\) and whose elliptical shape is depicted in Fig. 5a.

In order to compute its transformation into wavelet space, we have to note that any point \((x_0, y_0)\) in spatial domain can only be located within the Heisenberg bound in wavelet domain. Furthermore, the spatial localization decreases with increasing iteration depth \(m\).

With the dyadic scale of our 2D–WT, however, the Gaussian splits into all frequency channels and their centers are transformed into wavelet space according to:

\[
x_m^m := \frac{x_0}{2^m}, \quad y_m^m := \frac{y_0}{2^m}
\]

where \(x_m^m\) and \(y_m^m\) denote the local coordinates of the frequency channels of depth \(m\), as presented in Fig. 5. Their variances scale according to:

\[
x^m_m :\quad \sigma_x^m := \frac{\sigma_x}{2^m}, \quad \sigma_y^m := \frac{\sigma_y}{2^m}
\]

\( m = 1, 2, 3, \ldots \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma_x^1 & = \frac{\sigma_x}{2}, & \sigma_y^1 & = \frac{\sigma_y}{2} \\
\sigma_x^2 & = \frac{\sigma_x}{4}, & \sigma_y^2 & = \frac{\sigma_y}{4} \\
\sigma_x^3 & = \frac{\sigma_x}{8}, & \sigma_y^3 & = \frac{\sigma_y}{8}
\end{align*}
\]

\( \Theta \) quantifies the level–of–detail around some location in space \((x_0, y_0)\) and whose elliptical shape is depicted in Fig. 5a.

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\]

\( m = 1, 2, 3, \ldots \)

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\sigma_x^2 & = \frac{\sigma_x}{4}, & \sigma_y^2 & = \frac{\sigma_y}{4} \\
\sigma_x^3 & = \frac{\sigma_x}{8}, & \sigma_y^3 & = \frac{\sigma_y}{8}
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \sigma_x^m := \frac{\sigma_x}{2^m}, \quad \sigma_y^m := \frac{\sigma_y}{2^m} \]  \hspace{1cm} (23)

and the rotation angle \( \Theta \) is invariant to the transform.

The set of Gaussian weighting functions \( \{g^m(x^m, y^m)\} \) in wavelet space can be elegantly described by using homogenous coordinates:

\[
g^m(x^m, y^m) = e^{-(Rm \cdot p^m)^T(Rm \cdot p^m)} + 1 \]  \hspace{1cm} (24)

The matrix \( R^m \) stands for the affine transform of the Gaussian:

\[
R^m = \begin{bmatrix}
\cos \Theta & -\sin \Theta & -x^m_0 \\
\frac{\sin \Theta}{\sigma_x^m} & \frac{\cos \Theta}{\sigma_x^m} & \frac{x^m_0}{\sigma_x^m} \\
\frac{\sin \Theta}{\sigma_y^m} & \frac{\cos \Theta}{\sigma_y^m} & \frac{y^m_0}{\sigma_y^m} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]  \hspace{1cm} (25)

and \( p^m = (x^m, y^m, 1)^T \) denotes a position in homogenous coordinates.

To summarize this section: the control of the local level–of–detail of the wavelet approximation can be accomplished by using one single Gaussian weighting function which surrounds the region of interest in the initial data set. This Gaussian can be interpreted as a filter which is transformed into multiple Gaussians, one in each frequency channel in wavelet space. Premultiplying the coefficients with these Gaussian maps forces any subsequent thresholding to pass only coefficients located within the selected ROI. All others will be removed and hence the reconstructed signal will be most accurate within the ROI along with a Gaussian smoothing of the boundaries.

Figure 6 stresses the effect of level–of–detail filtering. The digital terrain model is decomposed with Haar wavelets and filtered with Gaussians of different locations and parameters. The model is perfectly reconstructed within the focus of the Gaussian, whereas only the scaling functions represent the data outside. In the boundary region, less and less high frequency information is provided and the data becomes more and more "boxlike". Obviously, the proposed wavelet space filter acts as a "magnifying glass" onto the data.
We recommend applying the Gaussian filter and the thresholds only to the wavelets and keeping all coefficients of the scaling function, because they carry the DC portion of the signal.

![Example for filtering in wavelet space: Decomposition of Mount Matterhorn with Haar wavelets and filtering with different space–frequency filters.](image)

**Fig. 6** Example for filtering in wavelet space: Decomposition of Mount Matterhorn with Haar wavelets and filtering with different space–frequency filters. 

a) Gaussian with $x_0=123$, $y_0=-34$, $\alpha_x=25$, $\alpha_y=25$, $\Theta=0$.

b) Gaussian with $x_0=130$, $y_0=-30$, $\alpha_x=45.5$, $\alpha_y=14.75$, $\Theta=0$.

c) Gaussian with $x_0=130$, $y_0=-30$, $\alpha_x=12.5$, $\alpha_y=50$, $\Theta=0.217$.

3 Quadtree Meshing

3.1 Point Removal in Regular Triangle meshes

So far, we elaborated some mathematical criteria for approximating a surface data set, sampled on a regular grid, using a multiresolution hierarchy. In order to build an adaptive surface triangulation, however, it is necessary to remove unimportant mesh vertices and to find a triangulation of the remaining ones. The basic criterium, by which a mesh vertex is labeled as unimportant is given by the mathematical framework of the wavelet transform. Keeping in mind that any trian-
gulation of the surface provides a planar approximation, we only have to bound the error between the original surface function \( f(x,y) \) and the bilinear interpolant provided by a triangle. Supposing furthermore that the initial data is sampled from a bandlimited function, because of Shannon’s theorem [16], the surface function \( f(x,y) \) can be perfectly recovered using sinc–bases. Hence, any initial triangulation of the regular grid provides a bilinear approximation of some sinc–functions located at each data sample. Now, using the wavelet decomposition, the detail signal in iteration \( m \) helps us to decide whether or not each \( 2^m+1 \)th mesh vertex is necessary for the triangle approximation. First, we visit each second vertex and analyze the value of the detail signal of iteration \( m=1 \). If, let’s say, the detail signal \( \Delta f \) of vertex \( n \) is sufficiently low, then the vertex is not important and the approximation can be accomplished by a linear interpolation between vertex \( n-1 \) and \( n+1 \). This scheme can now be applied recursively by subsequent computation of the detail signals \( \Delta^m f, m=1,...,M \) and by visiting all dyadic vertices at positions \( n = 2^{mk}+1 \). Once the detail signal is sufficiently small and the adjacent vertices in step \( m-1 \) are already removed, we are allowed to label the current vertex as well.

As a consequence, our procedure results in recursively building a quadtree representation of the initial mesh by removing dyadic vertices. Fig. 7 again illustrates the thinning method which finally figures out the symbolic quadtree representation of the mesh vertices which is depicted as an example in Fig. 8. The nodes of the quadtree contain either pointers to some child–nodes, or in case of leaves, point to the entries of a vertex list.

Note again here that the growing of our quadtree is entirely controlled by a single energy threshold \( \tau \) embedded in the function space of the wavelets. The final maximum depth of the tree depends on the upper decomposition bound \( M \) of the WT.
Fig. 7  Recursive growth of a quadtree from the regular mesh by analyzing the detail signals of the WT at each dyadic vertex.

Fig. 8  Symbolic representation of the mesh using a quadtree data structure.

In order to finally decide whether or not a mesh vertex can be removed, we have to consider the following criteria which help to preserve the topology of the tree. Only in cases, where all criteria are TRUE, can the vertex be removed:
- **Wavelet–criterion**: a vertex at iteration \( m \) can be removed, if the sum of the squares of its difference signal and those within a 4–neighborhood at resolution \( m \) is less than an upper bound \( \epsilon \). (Fig. 9a)

- **Resolution–criterion**: a vertex at iteration \( m \) can be removed, if the four surrounding vertices at resolution \( m–1 \) were previously removed (Fig. 9b).

- **\( m \) to \( m–2 \)-criterion**: a vertex can be removed, if the resulting cell is not adjacent to any cell with higher resolution than \( m–2 \). Thus, we restrict the growth to cell transitions from \( m \) to \( m–2 \) which simplifies the triangulation algorithm (Fig. 9c).

![Fig. 9](image-url)  
Illustration of the different criteria to decide on the vertex removal.

Another aspect of the method is illustrated in Fig. 10a, where vertex \( P \) is analyzed. Suppose \( P \) survives all of the above criteria. If we remove \( P \), however **and** if \( P_U \) and \( P_L \) are already removed, i.e. if two adjacent cells have the same resolution, then we must reject the vertices A and B on the cell boundaries, too. Hence, when traversing the vertex array from upper left to lower right, one has to keep track of upper and left vertices of the same iteration step \( m \) as well.
Fig. 10  a) Criteria to remove vertices on the edges of adjacent cells of the same resolution.
   b) Resulting partitioning of the initial array.

This additional criterion ends up with a partitioning of the initial array into different regions (see Fig. 10b). Within these different regions, we have to check only left, upper or both adjacent vertices.

3.2 Look–up Tables for Local Triangulations

Once the tree is built from the above procedure, the quadtree cells have to be triangulated. A generic problem arising from meshing hierarchies of rectangular surface patches is the occurrence of cracks [1]. A crack occurs if we do not take care of adjacency of quadtree cells of different depth and, hence different resolution. The surface may break up, holes may appear and any consistency required for normal interpolation gets lost. Fig.11 shows a crack and also shows how to modify the triangulation to get rid of it.

Fig. 11  The occurrence of cracks at the boundaries of adjacent quadtree cells of different resolution.

The scheme we introduce here for fast and consistent cell triangulation is based on the following observation: consider Fig. 12, where two adjacent cells are depicted along with topological ar-
rangements that may occur for transitions from resolution $m$ to $m-1$ and $m-2$. There are only 5 cases at the respective cell boundary. Let’s presume that we restrict the growth of the quadtree so that only transitions up to $m-2$ are possible (resolution criterion). Consequently, the set of possible arrangements of vertices at the four cell boundaries can now be derived from Fig. 12. Moreover, some look–up tables may be built containing the triangulations as explained below.

For cell transitions from $m$ to $m-1$ a look–up table with 16 entries is built as presented in Fig. 13. The central idea of the algorithm is to first solve the triangulation within each cell for $m$ to $m-1$. This is accomplished by analyzing the mesh vertices along each cell edge.

The fast computation of the look up table entry can be accomplished by a binary outcode, generated from bitwise addition of the flags of the respective edge vertices, as indicated in Fig. 13. Once the corresponding look–up table entry is identified, we then consider mesh vertices which account for the $m-2$ transitions. This may cause some triangles to be split up into two pieces, as shown in Fig. 14. Consequently, the algorithm first computes the case for $m$ to $m-1$ and then it decides on the corresponding subcase, by simply analyzing the flags of all intermediate vertices responsible for transitions from $m$ to $m-2$. Although we get 625 possible cases, the total number of triangles required does not exceed 96. They are stored in a look–up table depicted in Fig. 15.
All subcases are hardcoded and contain references to the look–up table entries of Fig. 15. Note, that although there are 625 cases only one computation of the outcode and at most 8 additional tests are necessary to compute the triangulation. It is clear that we end up with a very efficient algorithm by doing the meshing without any geometric computation but by just checking vertices at the cell edges.

A corresponding pseudocode for the recursive quadtree traversal and meshing is given with:
// The initial array has a size of \((N+1)(N+1)\). Let \(N\) be a
power of 2, \(N = 2^I\).
Each cell is addressed by its upper left corner vertex. //
x = y = 0; // root cell
i = I;
traverse_quadtree(x,y,i);

\begin{verbatim}
procedure traverse_quadtree(x,y,i)
{
    mh = 2^{i-1} // compute center vertex of son cells
    xmh = x+mh;
    ymh = y+mh;
    if (i>0) and flag(xmh,ymh)
    {
        i = i-1;
        traverse_quadtree(x,y,i); // analyze the son cells
        traverse_quadtree(xmh,y,i);
        traverse_quadtree(x,ymh,i);
        traverse_quadtree(xmh,ymh,i);
    }
    else
        triangulate(x,y,i);
}
\end{verbatim}

4 Errors and Complexity

4.1 Error Analysis of Planar Approximations

One important aspect, when dealing with surface approximations is to quantify the error of the
method. In our approach, error quantification is figured out by the following mean–square mea-
sure. Let \(f(x,y)\) be the original surface and \(g(x,y)\) be an approximation. We define the mean–square
error \(\overline{\Delta^2}\), as:

\[
\overline{\Delta^2} = \frac{1}{(\Delta x \Delta y)} \int_A \int \left| f(x,y) - g(x,y) \right|^2 \, dx \, dy
\]

(26)

Note, that the error is normalized to the projected surface area \(\Delta x \Delta y\). In the discrete case, where
\(K\) samples \(f_i(x_i,y_i)\) of the surface are provided at locations \((x_i,y_i), i=1,...,K\) the mean–square error
is approximated by the following relation:
Fig. 15  Look-up-table with 96 possible triangles for transitions from $m$ to $m - 2$
\[ \overline{A^2} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} A(x_i, y_i)^2 \]  

(27)

where, \( A(x_i, y_i) = f(x_i, y_i) - g(x_i, y_i) \).

Finally, in our triangle meshes the error integral of eq. 26 is evaluated using Monte Carlo methods. For this purpose, we compute a set of \( K \) randomized locations within each of our triangles and calculate the surface value \( g_i(x_i, y_i) \) by bilinear interpolation. The respective reference value for the surface \( f_i(x_i, y_i) \) is obtained by bilinear interpolation of the four mesh vertices in the initial data grid as depicted in Fig. 16. The constant number of samples taken from each triangle forces the overall number of samples for the evaluation to be distributed according to the single triangle surface areas. Due to the adaptive triangulation, we end up with more samples in surface regions of high curvature and accomplish a reasonable distribution. Thus, the local mean square errors of each triangle have to be weighted with their corresponding surface area \( A_T^{2D} \) projected into 2D. The final expression of the overall mean square error of the surface yields:

![Diagram showing computation of the mean square error using Monte Carlo methods.](image)
4.2 Some remarks on Algorithmic Complexity

One of the very advantages of our method is the low algorithmic complexity for both computation of the respective transforms and for the quadtree meshing. Whereas 2D–FFT based transforms usually require $O(N^2 \log_2(N))$ computations, the 2D–WT benefits from the dyadic scaling and requires only $O(N^2)$ computations. Although we have to modify the initial QMF–pyramide to compute the detail signal, the complexity still remains $O(N^2)$. The final expression for the complexity $C^{WT}$ of a D–dimensional WT, however, depends both on the support $S$ of the wavelet and on the iteration depth $M$.

$$C^{WT} = D^N S \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left( \frac{1}{2^{D(m-1)}} \right) < \frac{2^D D^N S}{2D - 1} = O(N^D)$$

This is another important reason for the use of strict compact support wavelets such as the biorthogonal ones we recommend here.

Similar investigations can be figured out for the complexity of the array traversal for building up the quadtree: If the traversal is done to the maximum depth of the WT $M$, we have to perform at worst $4$ energy tests for the wavelet criterion, $4$ resolution tests and $16$ tests for the $m$ to $m-2$ criterion. Due to the dyadic structure of the vertices to be analyzed, we end up with

$$C^A = 24 \sum_{m=1}^{M} 2^{2l-2m} = 2^{2l}(8 - \frac{8}{4^M}) = N^2(8 - \frac{8}{4^M}) = O(N^2)$$

which is still linear with respect to the overall number of mesh vertices $N^2=2^{2l}$.

5 Applications

5.1 Mesh Reduction and Error Analysis

For the following investigation, a digital terrain model of the Swiss Alpes, Matterhorn/Zermatt DHM 1:25000 was selected. The initial resolution of the mesh is $256 \times 256$. The altitudes range
from 1855.1 m (La Monta) to 4431.9 m (Matterhorn). We used cubic B–spline wavelets to decompose the data and the corresponding dual frames to approximate the reconstructions. The iteration depth was $M=4$, and $K=3$ samples were taken at each triangle to compute the mean square error. Fig. 17 illustrates, how the ratio of triangle reduction behaves as a function of the threshold $r$. Furthermore, the ratio of remaining wavelet coefficients is recorded which can be interpreted as some kind of coding gain. Finally, the root of the mean–square error is plotted as well in [m]. Note, that due to the logarithmic scale of the threshold, the functional behavior of both percentage of coefficients and triangles is approximately linear.

![Figure 17](image)

**Fig. 17** Number of triangles, wavelet coefficients and mean–square error of the digital terrain model as functions of the threshold.

This relation is further stressed in Fig. 18, where number of triangles and the mean square error are recorded as a function of the percentage of coefficients employed for the approximation. Some results of intermediate steps of the triangle reduction are depicted for the increasing threshold in Fig. 19a–c. The criteria which we defined to reject unimportant mesh vertices thins in particular in those regions of low surface curvature. This is due to the wavelet criterion which provides an estimate of the local spectral energy of the data in different frequency channels. Thus, local high frequency variations in our data force the meshing to be more dense.
The corresponding Gouraud–shaded models are also presented in Fig. 19d–f where the altitude is encoded using pseudocoloring.

5.2 Level–of–Detail Control

The effect of wavelet space filtering using the Gaussian is illustrated in the images of Fig. 20. Changing the parameters of the Gaussian ellipse allows us to concentrate on the triangulation of local regions of interest. Hence, for real time animations, such as flight simulation, our method enables us to move the Gaussian for each frame according to the pilots field of vision or line of sight and to adapt the approximation to these parameters. Finally, Fig. 20d presents the Gouraud–shaded image corresponding to Fig 20a. Obviously, the Gaussian enables the user to interact with a local ”magnifying glass”

6 Conclusions

We presented a method for fast and efficient surface meshing which benefits from two basic ideas: First, any control of the surface mesh is computed by using an initial wavelet decomposition of the data samples. The mathematical framework of the WT allows us to bound the errors of the approximation and efficient criteria on whether or not single mesh vertices can be removed are provided by analyzing WT outputs. Furthermore, wavelet space filters allow a control of the quality of the surface approximation within local regions of interest and act as local ”magnifying glasses”. Secondly, the dyadic structure of the 2D–WT motivated us to build a quadmesh from
the initial regular grid. Any triangulation of each quadtree cell is obtained by using a look–up table and hence no additional computation is required for the triangulation, as with standard Delaunay–based methods.
Due to the low complexity of this algorithm, we can achieve retriangulations of the surface at nearly interactive rates on SGI workstations. Thus, we guess that our method is particularly well suited for real-time applications, as virtual reality or flight and driving simulation. Especially, when considering low altitude flights the Gaussian filter could help to control the level-of-detail of the pilot’s field of vision. Moreover, any object instance of a geometric data base related to the terrain might also be controlled by the wavelet transform. For this purpose, the actual depth of the quadtree at the object’s location on the terrain is used to govern the data base and to select the object instance to be rendered.

Although the method requires an inverse WT with each new triangulation, we have proven the algorithmic complexity is still low. It is clear that we can map the WT onto special purpose hard-
ware, such as signal processors. Currently, the method is implemented in terms of different AVS modules.

Future research has to be conducted towards extensions of the method for 3D isosurfaces in volume data using tetrahedrizations of an octree built from the WT. Additional tuning of the mesh could also be carried out by using the directional selectivity of the WT.

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8 References


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