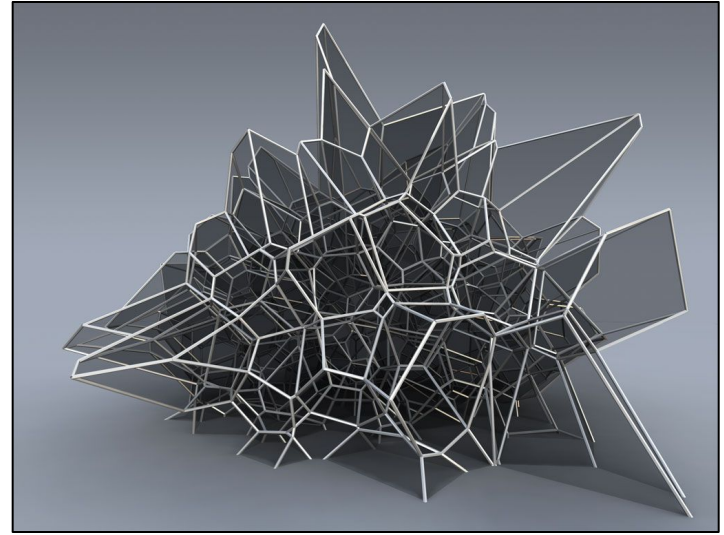
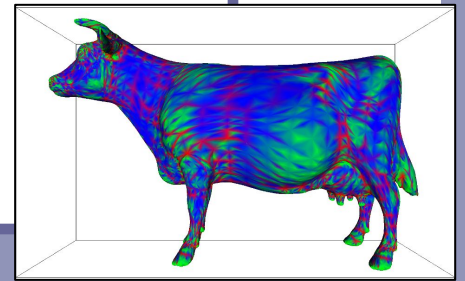
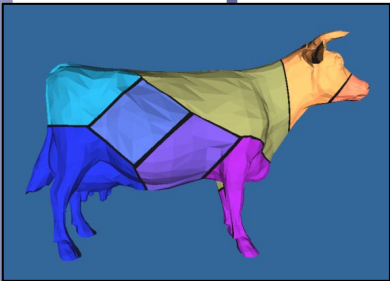


Further Graphics

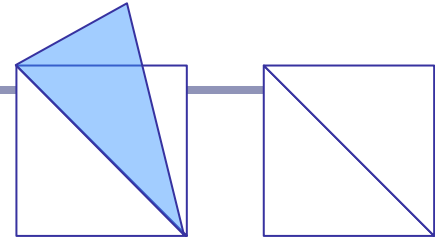


A Brief Introduction to Computational Geometry

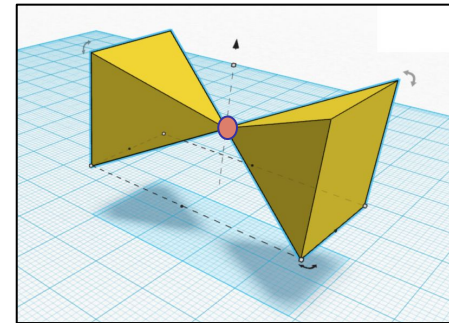


Terminology

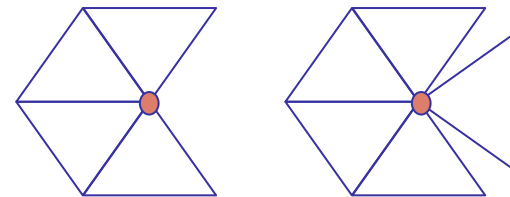
- We'll be focusing on *discrete* (as opposed to continuous) representation of geometry; i.e., polygon meshes
 - Many rendering systems limit themselves to triangle meshes
 - Many require that the mesh be *manifold*
- In a *closed manifold* polygon mesh:
 - Exactly two triangles meet at each edge
 - The faces meeting at each vertex belong to a single, connected loop of faces
- In a *manifold with boundary*:
 - At most two triangles meet at each edge
 - The faces meeting at each vertex belong to a single, connected strip of faces



Edge: Non-manifold vs manifold



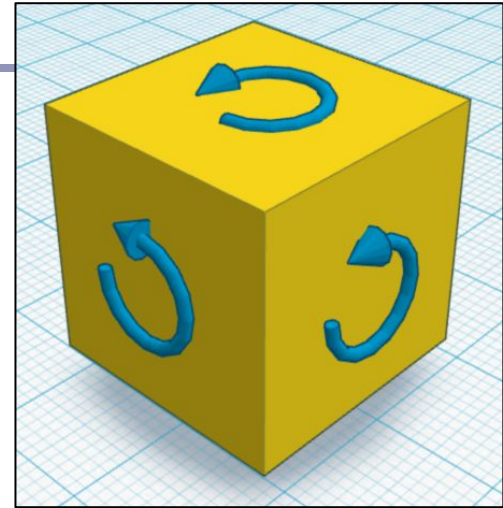
Non-manifold vertex



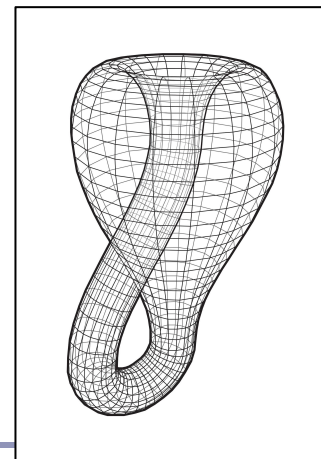
Vertex: Good boundary vs bad

Terminology

- We say that a surface is *oriented* if:
 - a. the vertices of every face are stored in a fixed order
 - b. if vertices i, j appear in both faces $f1$ and $f2$, then the vertices appear in order i, j in one and j, i in the other
- We say that a surface is *embedded* if, informally, “nothing pokes through”:
 - a. No vertex, edge or face shares any point in space with any other vertex, edge or face except where dictated by the data structure of the polygon mesh
- A closed, embedded surface must separate 3-space into two parts: a bounded *interior* and an unbounded *exterior*.



A cube with “anti-clockwise” oriented faces



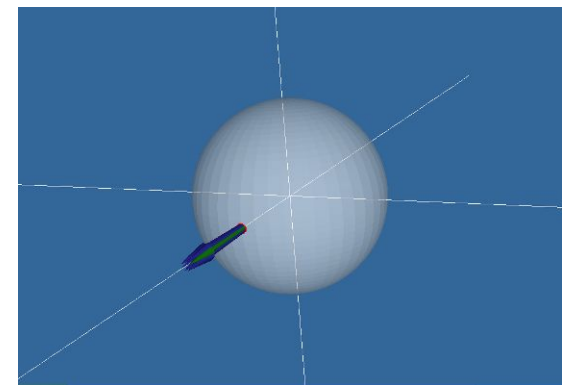
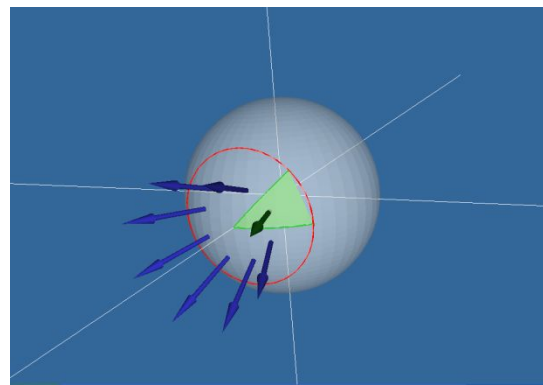
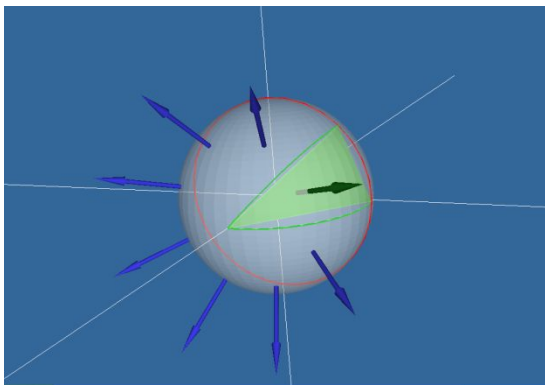
Klein bottle:
not an
embedded
surface.

Also, terrible
for holding
drinks.

Normal at a vertex

Expressed as a limit,

The *normal of surface S at point P* is the limit of the cross-product between two (non-collinear) vectors from P to the set of points in S at a distance r from P as r goes to zero. [Excluding orientation.]



Normal at a vertex

Using the limit definition, is the ‘normal’ to a discrete surface necessarily a vector?

- The normal to the surface at any point on a face is a constant vector.
- The ‘normal’ to the surface at any edge is an arc swept out on a unit sphere between the two normals of the two faces.
- The ‘normal’ to the surface at a vertex is a space swept out on the unit sphere between the normals of all of the adjacent faces.

Finding the normal at a vertex

Take the weighted average of the normals of surrounding polygons, weighted by each polygon's *face angle* at the vertex

Face angle: the angle α formed at the vertex v by the vectors to the next and previous vertices in the face F

$$\alpha(F, v_i) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{v_{i+1} - v_i}{|v_{i+1} - v_i|} \bullet \frac{v_{i-1} - v_i}{|v_{i-1} - v_i|} \right)$$

$$N(v) = \frac{\sum_F \alpha(F, v) N_F}{|\sum_F \alpha(F, v)|}$$

Note: In this equation, *arccos* implies a convex polygon. Why?

Gaussian curvature on smooth surfaces

Informally speaking, the *curvature* of a surface expresses “how flat the surface isn’t”.

- One can measure the directions in which the surface is curving *most*; these are the directions of *principal curvature*, k_1 and k_2 .
- The product of k_1 and k_2 is the scalar *Gaussian curvature*.

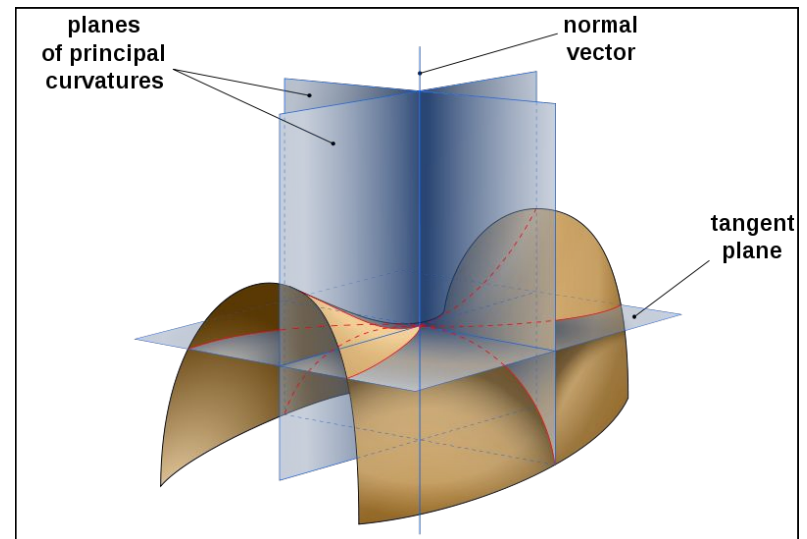
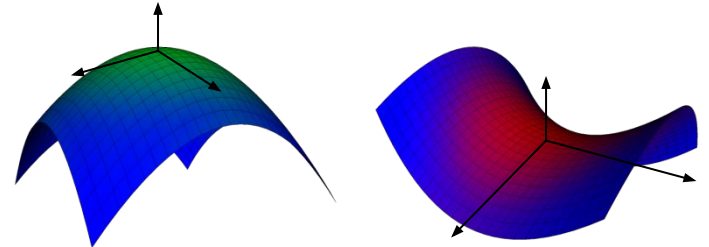


Image by Eric Gaba, from Wikipedia

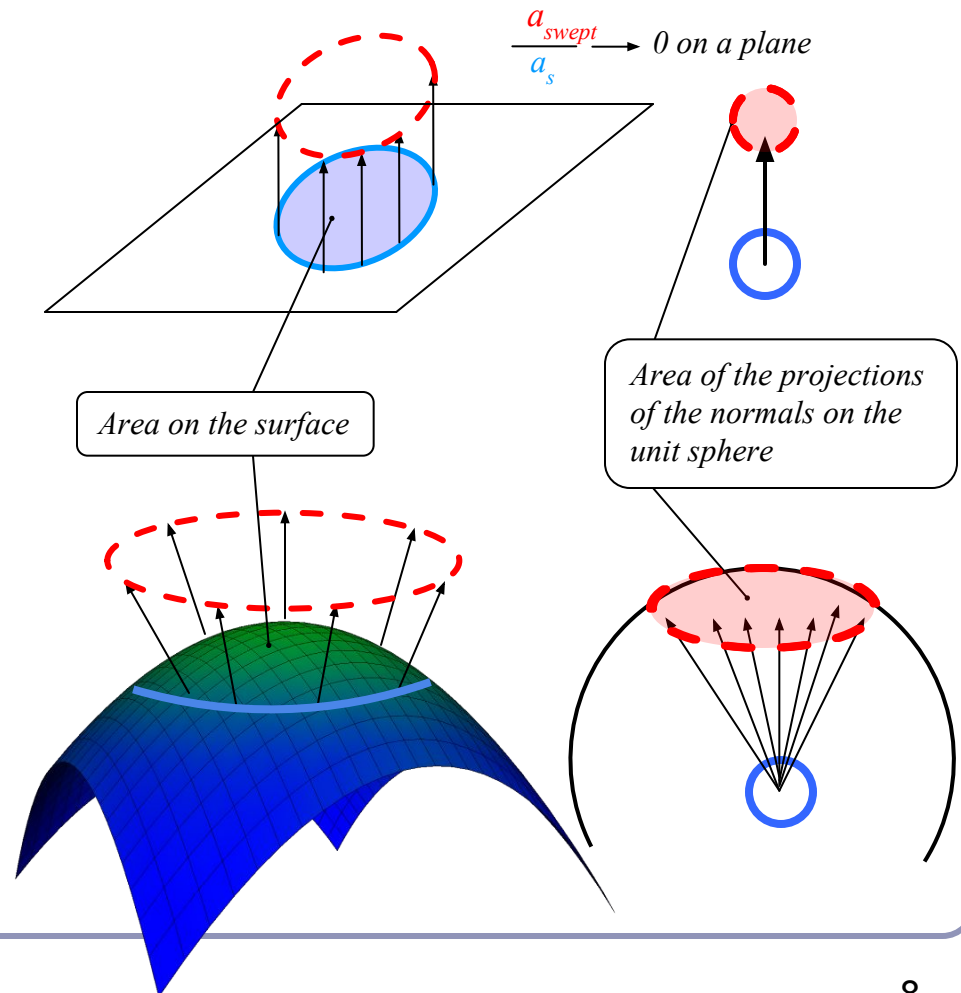
Gaussian curvature on smooth surfaces

Formally, the *Gaussian curvature* of a region on a surface is the ratio between the **area of the surface of the unit sphere swept out by the normals of that region** and the **area of the region itself**.

The Gaussian curvature of a point is the limit of this ratio as the region tends to zero area.

$$\frac{a_{\text{swept}}}{a_s} \rightarrow r^2 \text{ on a sphere of radius } r$$

(please pretend that this is a sphere)



Gaussian curvature on discrete surfaces

On a discrete surface, normals do not vary smoothly: the normal to a face is constant on the face, and at edges and vertices the normal is—strictly speaking—undefined.

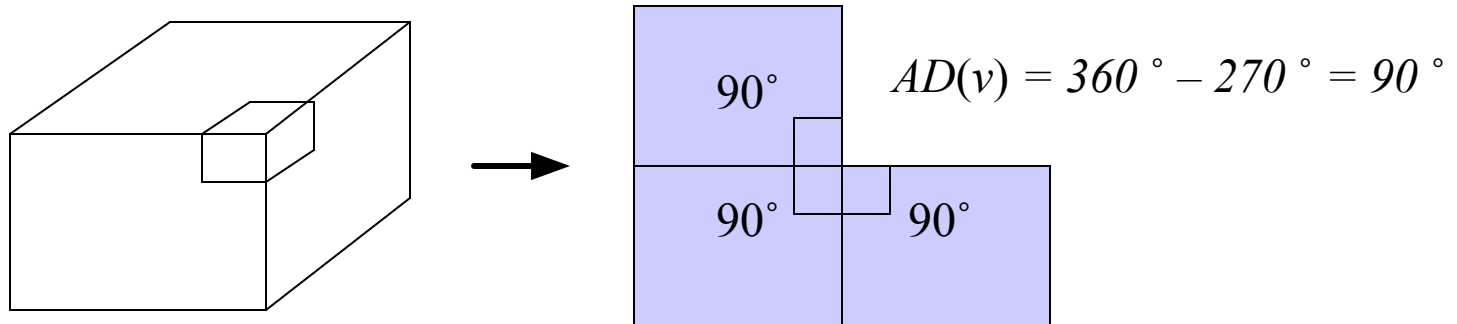
- Normals change instantaneously (as one's point of view travels across an edge from one face to another) or not at all (as one's point of view travels within a face.)

The Gaussian curvature of the surface of any polyhedral mesh is **zero** everywhere except at the vertices, where it is **infinite**.

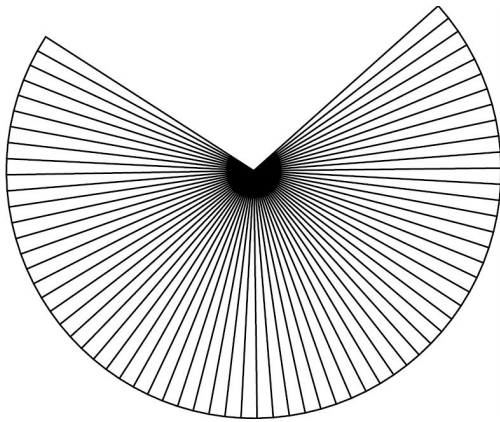
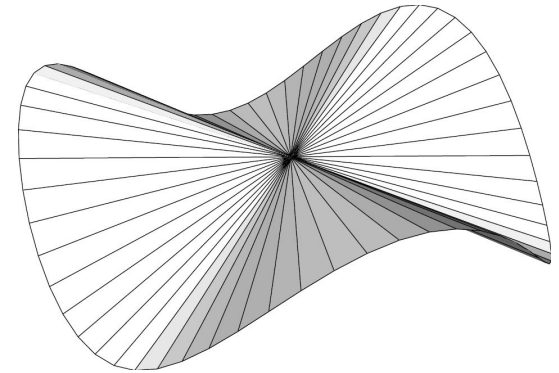
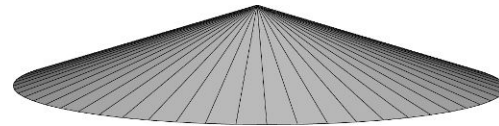
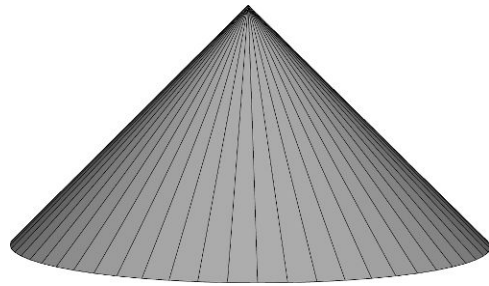
Angle deficit – a better solution for measuring discrete curvature

The *angle deficit* $AD(v)$ of a vertex v is defined to be two π minus the sum of the face angles of the adjacent faces.

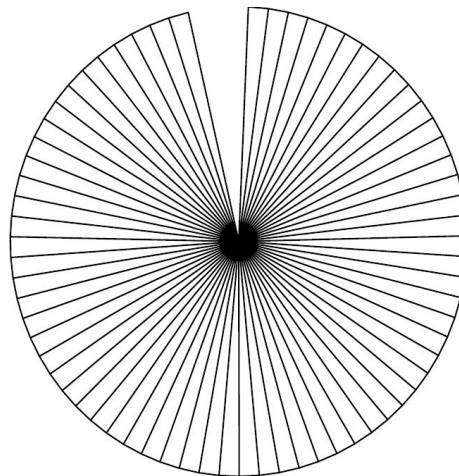
$$AD(v) = 2\pi - \sum_F \alpha(F, v)$$



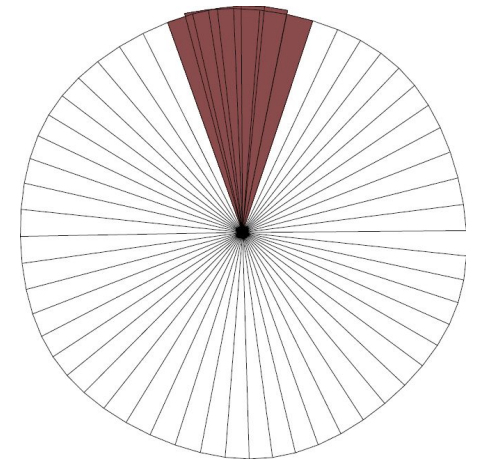
Angle deficit



High angle deficit

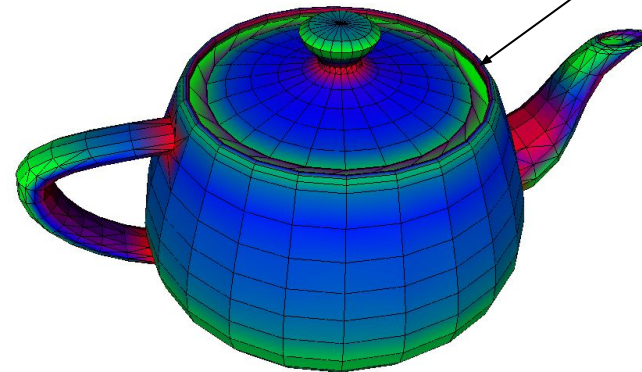
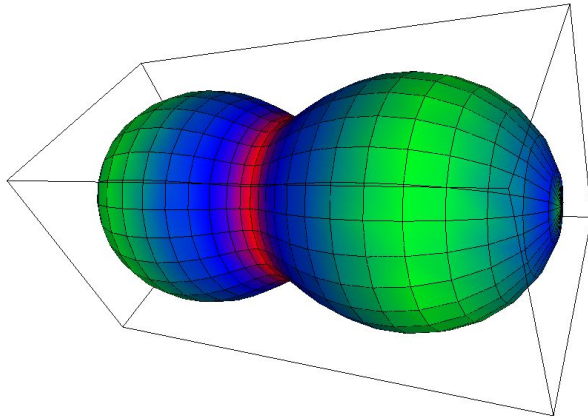
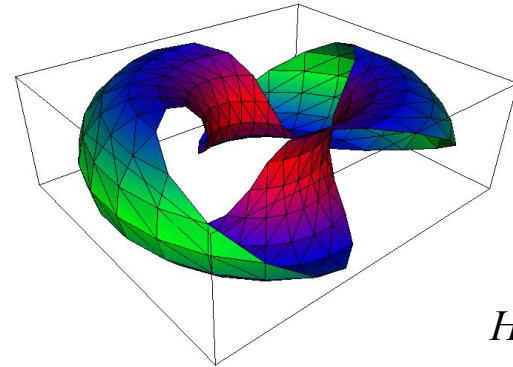
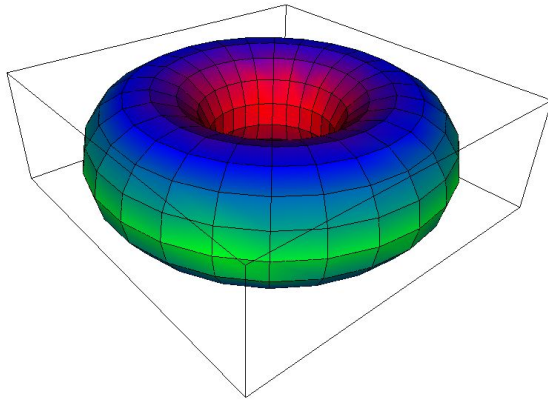


Low angle deficit



Negative angle deficit

Angle deficit



Hmmm...

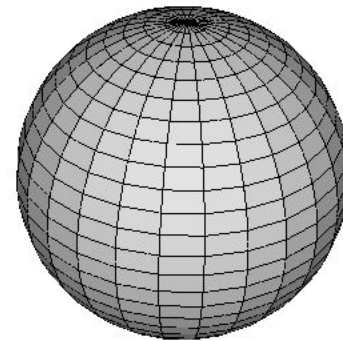
Genus, Poincaré and the Euler Characteristic

- Formally, the *genus* g of a closed surface is

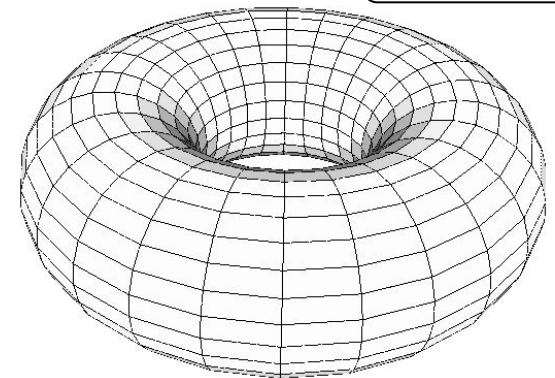
...“a topologically invariant property of a surface defined as the largest number of nonintersecting simple closed curves that can be drawn on the surface without separating it.”

--*mathworld.com*

- Informally, it's the number of coffee cup handles in the surface.



Genus 0



Genus 1

Genus, Poincaré and the Euler Characteristic

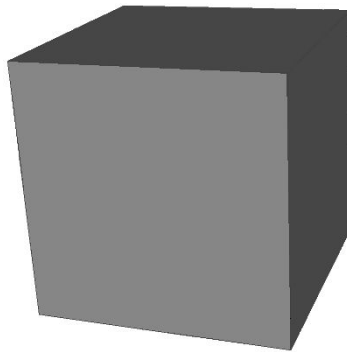
Given a polyhedral surface S without border where:

- V = the number of vertices of S ,
- E = the number of edges between those vertices,
- F = the number of faces between those edges,
- χ is the *Euler Characteristic* of the surface,

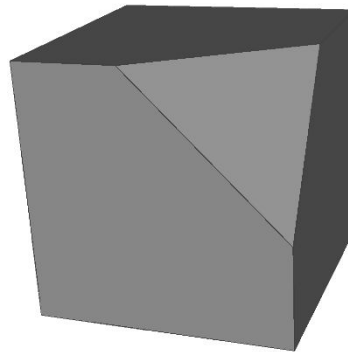
the Poincaré Formula states that:

$$V - E + F = 2 - 2g = \chi$$

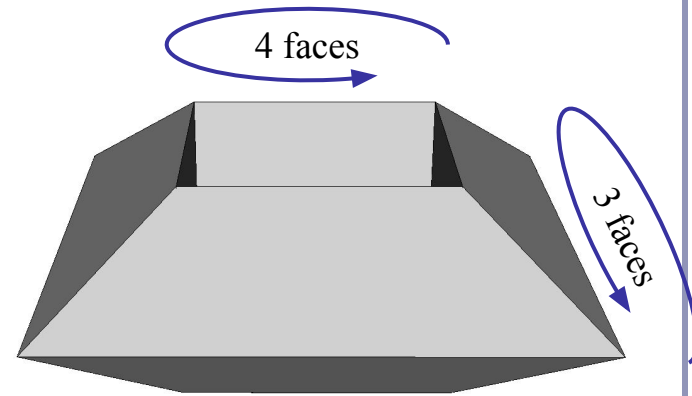
Genus, Poincaré and the Euler Characteristic



$$\begin{aligned}g &= 0 \\E &= 12 \\F &= 6 \\V &= 8 \\ \underline{V-E+F} &= 2-2g = 2\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}g &= 0 \\E &= 15 \\F &= 7 \\V &= 10 \\ \underline{V-E+F} &= 2-2g = 2\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}g &= 1 \\E &= 24 \\F &= 12 \\V &= 12 \\ \underline{V-E+F} &= 2-2g = 0\end{aligned}$$

The Euler Characteristic and angle deficit

Descartes' *Theorem of Total Angle Deficit* states that on a surface S with Euler characteristic χ , the sum of the angle deficits of the vertices is $2\pi\chi$:

$$\sum_S AD(v) = 2\pi\chi$$

Cube:

- $\chi = 2 - 2g = 2$
- $AD(v) = \pi/2$
- $8(\pi/2) = 4\pi = 2\pi\chi$

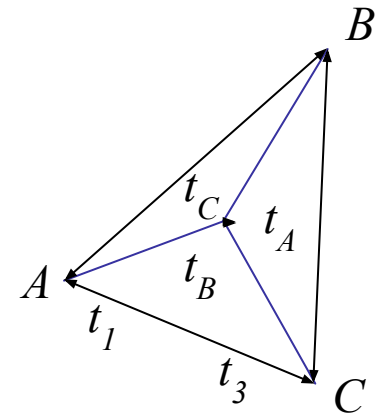
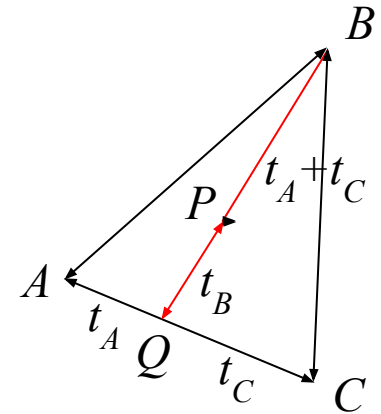
Tetrahedron:

- $\chi = 2 - 2g = 2$
- $AD(v) = \pi$
- $4(\pi) = 4\pi = 2\pi\chi$

Barycentric coordinates

Barycentric coordinates (t_A, t_B, t_C) are a coordinate system for describing the location of a point P inside a triangle (A, B, C) .

- You can think of (t_A, t_B, t_C) as ‘masses’ placed at (A, B, C) respectively so that the center of gravity of the triangle lies at P .
- (t_A, t_B, t_C) are proportional to the subtriangle areas of the three vertices.
 - The area of a triangle is $\frac{1}{2}$ the length of the cross product of two of its sides.

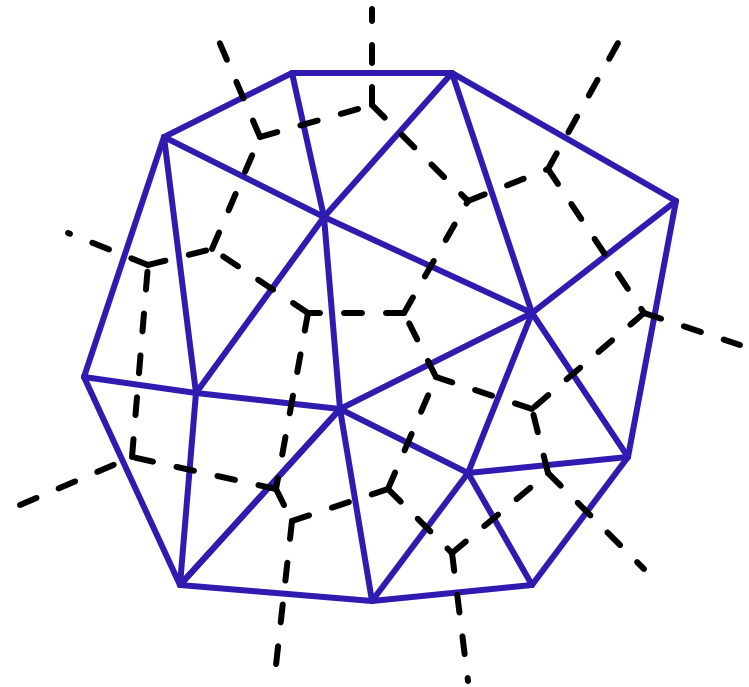


Barycentric coordinates

```
// Compute barycentric coordinates (u, v, w) for
// point p with respect to triangle (a, b, c)
vec3 barycentric(vec3 p, vec3 a, vec3 b, vec3 c) {
    vec3 v0 = b - a, v1 = c - a, v2 = p - a;
    float d00 = dot(v0, v0);
    float d01 = dot(v0, v1);
    float d11 = dot(v1, v1);
    float d20 = dot(v2, v0);
    float d21 = dot(v2, v1);
    float denom = d00 * d11 - d01 * d01;
    float v = (d11 * d20 - d01 * d21) / denom;
    float w = (d00 * d21 - d01 * d20) / denom;
    float u = 1.0 - v - w;
    return vec3(u, v, w);
}
```

Voronoi diagrams

The *Voronoi diagram*⁽²⁾ of a set of points P_i divides space into ‘cells’, where each cell C_i contains the points in space closer to P_i than any other P_j . The *Delaunay triangulation* is the dual of the Voronoi diagram: a graph in which an edge connects every P_i which share a common edge in the Voronoi diagram.



A Voronoi diagram (dotted lines) and its dual Delaunay triangulation (solid).

(2) AKA “Voronoi tessellation”, “Dirichlet domain”, “Thiessen polygons”, “plesiohedra”, “fundamental areas”, “domain of action”...

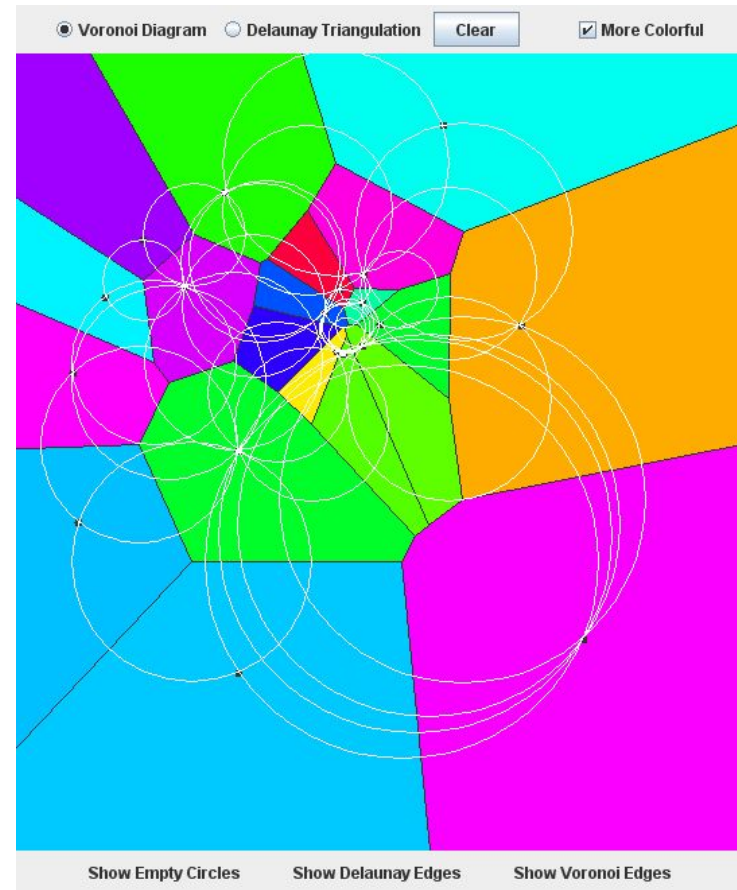
Voronoi diagrams

Given a set $S = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$, the formal definition of a Voronoi cell $C(S, p_i)$ is

$$C(S, p_i) = \{p \in R^d \mid |p - p_i| < |p - p_j|, i \neq j\}$$

The p_i are called the *generating points* of the diagram.

Where three or more boundary edges meet is a *Voronoi point*. Each Voronoi point is at the center of a circle (or sphere, or hypersphere...) which passes through the associated generating points and which is guaranteed to be empty of all other generating points.



Delaunay triangulations and *equi-angularity*

The *equiangularity* of any triangulation of a set of points S is a sorted list of the angles $(\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_{3t})$ of the triangles.

- A triangulation is said to be *equiangular* if it possesses lexicographically largest equiangularity amongst all possible triangulations of S .
- The Delaunay triangulation is equiangular.

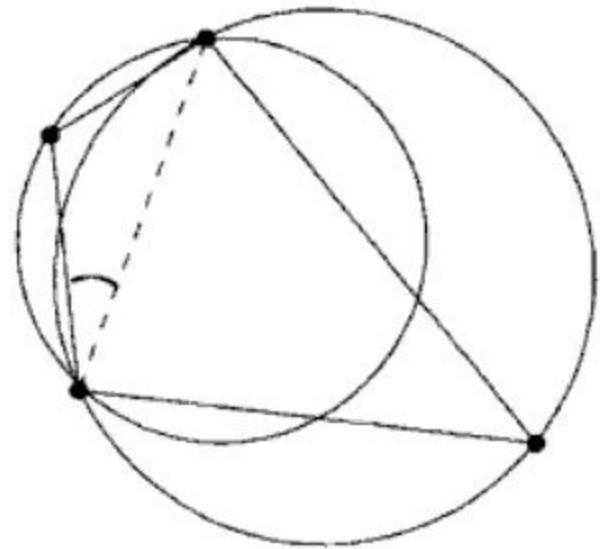


Image from *Handbook of Computational Geometry* (2000) Jörg-Rüdiger Sack and Jorge Urrutia, p. 227

Delaunay triangulations and *empty circles*

Voronoi triangulations have the *empty circle* property: in any Voronoi triangulation of S , no point of S will lie inside the circle circumscribing any three points sharing a triangle in the Voronoi diagram.

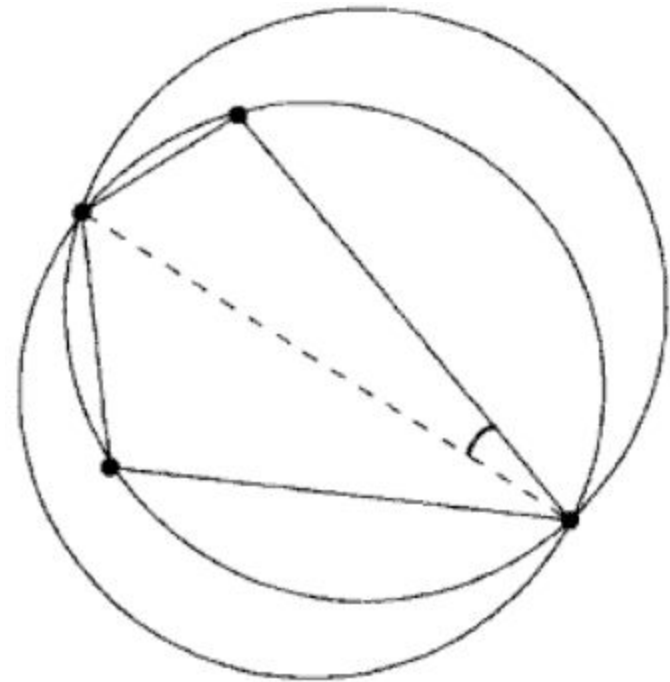


Image from *Handbook of Computational Geometry* (2000) Jörg-Rüdiger Sack and Jorge Urrutia, p. 227

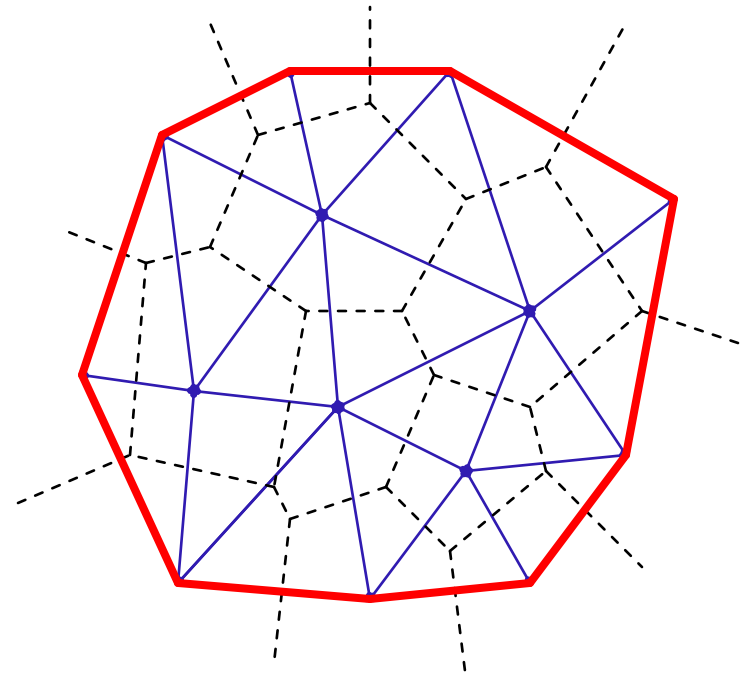
Delaunay triangulations and convex hulls

The border of the Delaunay triangulation of a set of points is always convex.

- This is true in 2D, 3D, 4D...

The Delaunay triangulation of a set of points in R^n is the planar projection of a convex hull in R^{n+1} .

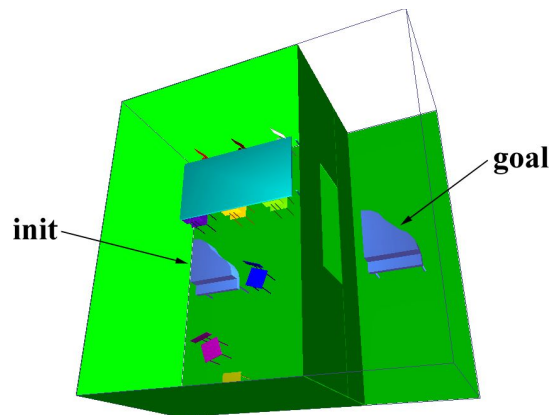
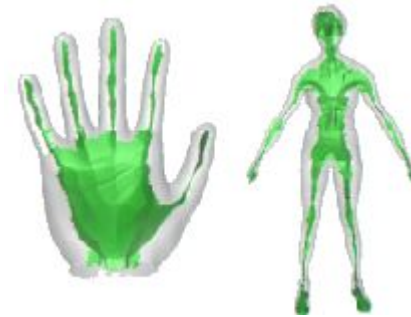
- Ex: from 2D ($P_i = \{x, y\}_i$), loft the points upwards, onto a parabola in 3D ($P'_i = \{x, y, x^2 + y^2\}_i$). The resulting polyhedral mesh will still be convex in 3D.



Voronoi diagrams and the *medial axis*

The *medial axis* of a surface is the set of all points within the surface equidistant to the two or more nearest points on the surface.

- This can be used to extract a skeleton of the surface, for (for example) path-planning solutions, surface deformation, and animation.

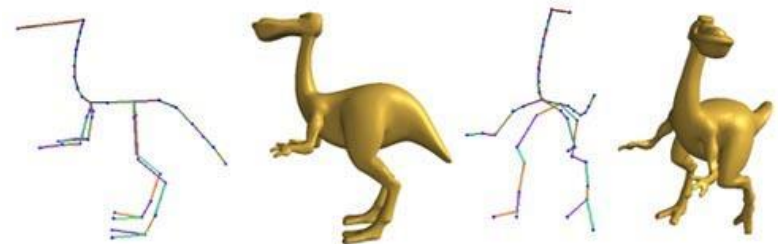


[A Voronoi-Based Hybrid Motion Planner for Rigid Bodies](#)

M Foskey, M Garber, M Lin, DManocha

[Approximating the Medial Axis from the Voronoi Diagram with a Convergence Guarantee](#)

Tamal K. Dey, Wulue Zhao



[Shape Deformation using a Skeleton to Drive Simplex Transformations](#)

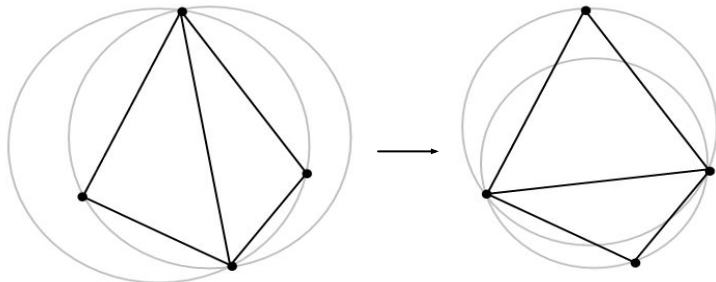
IEEE Transaction on Visualization and Computer Graphics, Vol. 14, No. 3, May/June 2008, Page 693-706

Han-Bing Yan, Shi-Min Hu, Ralph R Martin, and Yong-Liang Yang

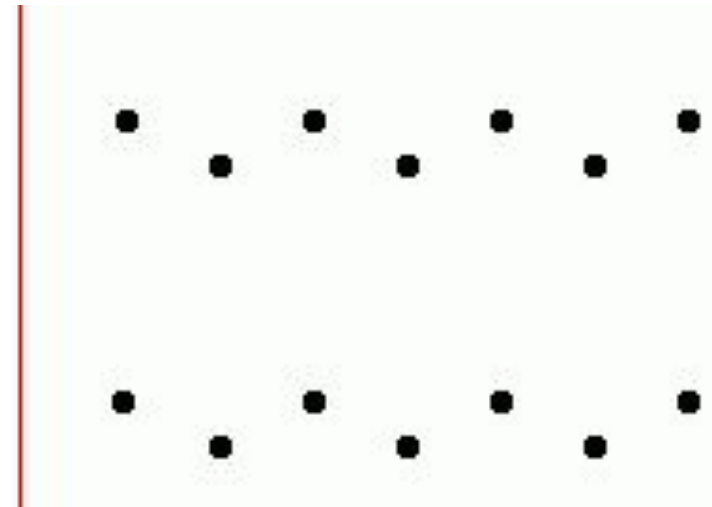
Finding the Voronoi diagram

There are four general classes of algorithm for computing the Delaunay triangulation:

- Divide-and-conquer
- Sweep plane
 - Ex: Fortune's algorithm →
- Incremental insertion
- “Flipping”: repairing an existing triangulation until it becomes Delaunay



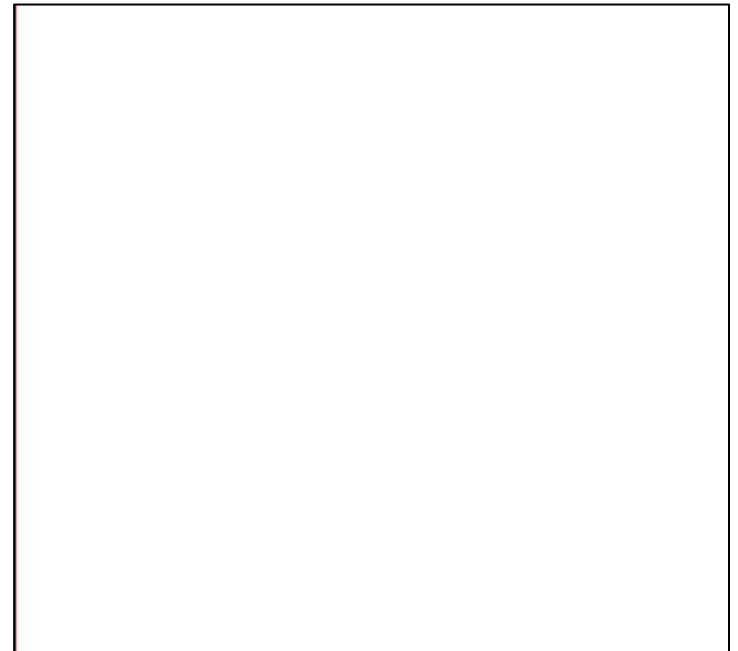
This triangulation fails the circumcircle definition; we flip its inner edge and it becomes Delaunay. *(Image from Wikipedia.)*



Fortune's Algorithm for the plane-sweep construction of the Voronoi diagram (Steve Fortune, 1986.)

Fortune's algorithm

1. The algorithm maintains a sweep line and a “beach line”, a set of parabolas advancing left-to-right from each point. The beach line is the union of these parabolas.
 - a. The intersection of each pair of parabolas is an edge of the voronoi diagram
 - b. All data to the left of the beach line is “known”; nothing to the right can change it
 - c. The beach line is stored in a binary tree
2. Maintain a queue of two classes of event: the addition of, or removal of, a parabola
3. There are $O(n)$ such events, so Fortune's algorithm is $O(n \log n)$



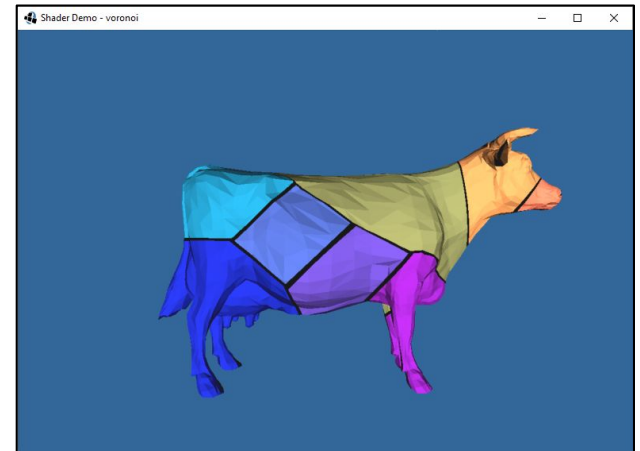
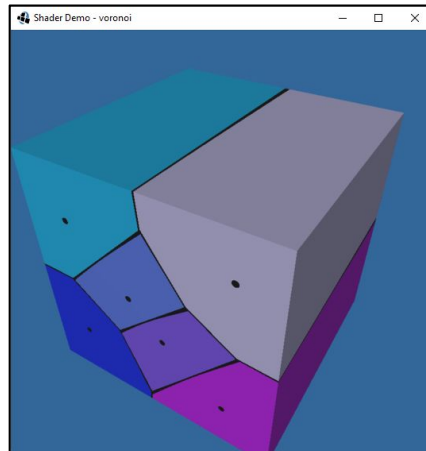
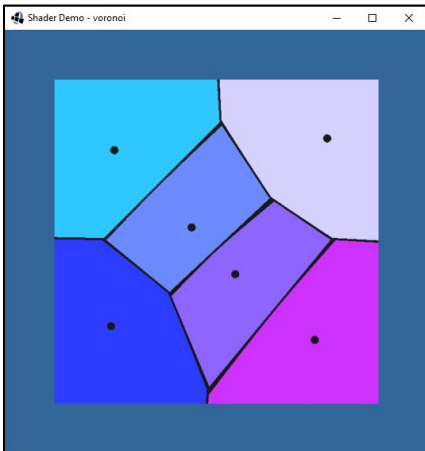
GPU-accelerated Voronoi Diagrams

Brute force:

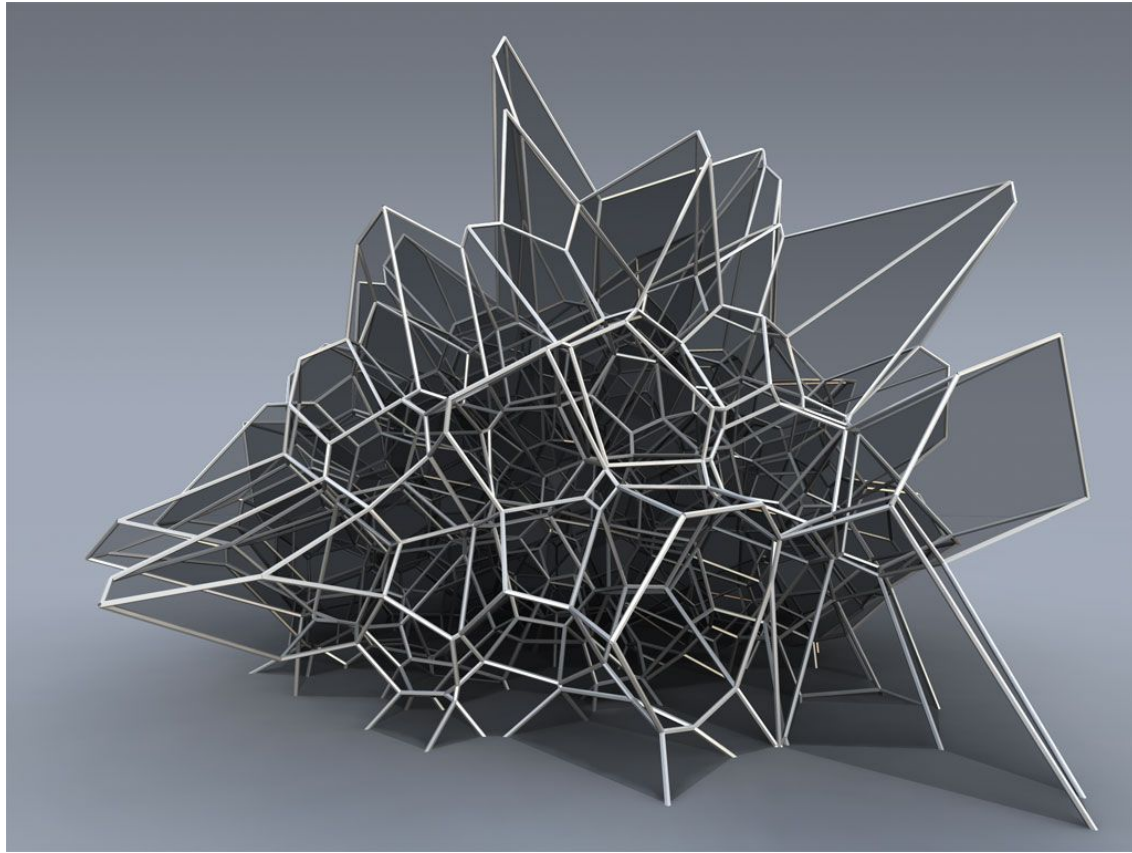
- For each pixel to be rendered on the GPU, search all points for the nearest point

Elegant (and 2D only):

- Render each point as a discrete 3D cone in isometric projection, let z-buffering sort it out



Voronoi cells in 3D



Silvan Oesterle, Michael Knauss

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