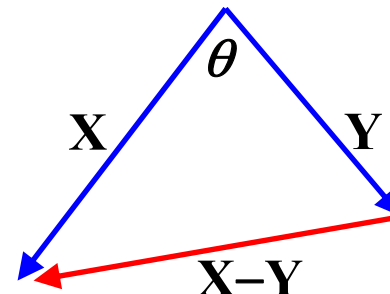
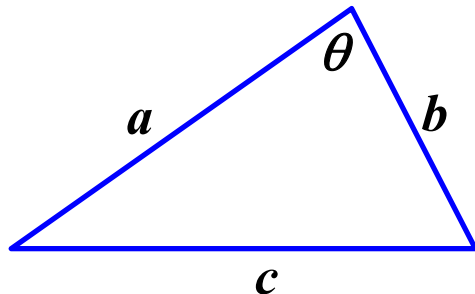


Mesh Simplification

The Law of Cosine

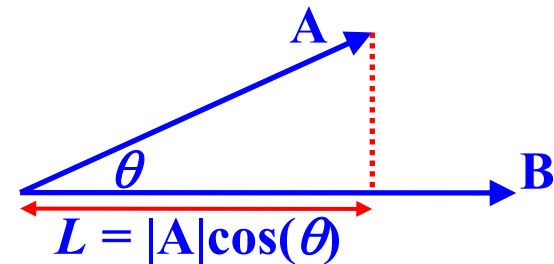
- Here are some commonly used formulas.
- First, we learn that $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos(\theta)$, where θ is the angle opposite to side c .
- Vector form: $|\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{Y}|^2 = |\mathbf{X}|^2 + |\mathbf{Y}|^2 - 2|\mathbf{X}||\mathbf{Y}|\cos(\theta)$.
- Note that $|\mathbf{X}|^2 = \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{X}$, where $\cdot$ is the inner product.
- Since $(\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{Y}) \cdot (\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y} \cdot \mathbf{Y} - 2\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{Y}$, we have $\mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{Y} = |\mathbf{X}||\mathbf{Y}|\cos(\theta)$.



Projection of a Vector to Another

- Let **A** and **B** be two vectors. We wish to compute the length of projecting **A** to **B**.
- It is obvious that the length is $L = |\mathbf{A}|\cos(\theta)$.
- Since $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} = |\mathbf{A}| \cdot |\mathbf{B}| \cos(\theta)$, we have

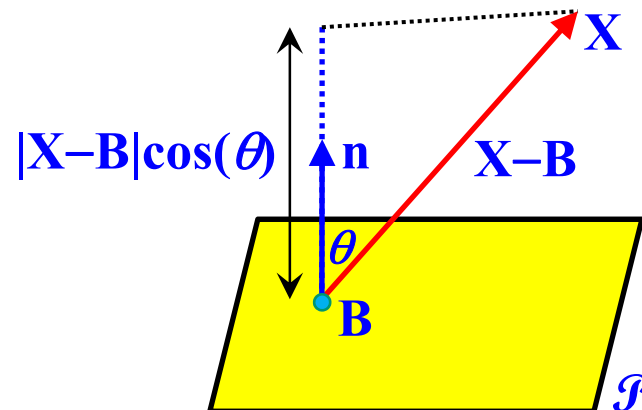
$$L = |\mathbf{A}| \cos(\theta) = |\mathbf{A}| \frac{\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B}}{|\mathbf{A}| \cdot |\mathbf{B}|} = \frac{\mathbf{B}}{|\mathbf{B}|} \cdot \mathbf{A}$$



Point to a Plane Distance: 1/2

- Let a plane $\mathcal{P}$ be represented by a base point B and a normal vector $\mathbf{n}$, where $|\mathbf{n}| = 1$.
- Compute the distance from a point X to $\mathcal{P}$.
- Projecting X to $\mathbf{n}$ yields the distance $|\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}|\cos(\theta)$.
- Since $\cos(\theta) = (\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{n} / (|\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}| \cdot |\mathbf{n}|) = (\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{n} / |\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}|$, the distance is simply $(\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{B}) \cdot \mathbf{n}$.

Compute the perpendicular foot from X to plane $\mathcal{P}$. Easy!



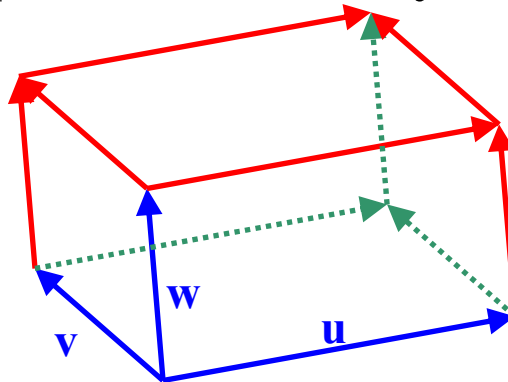
Point to Plane Distance: 2/2

- Sometimes the plane is given by $ax+by+cz+d=0$, where $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 1$ (i.e., normalized).
- The normal vector of this plane is $\mathbf{n} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$.
- If $\mathbf{B} = \langle u, v, w \rangle$ is a point in this plane, we have $au + bv + cw + d = 0$ and $au + bv + cw = -d$.
- The distance from $\mathbf{X} = \langle x, y, z \rangle$ to this plane is $(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{B}) \bullet \mathbf{n}$.
- Plugging $\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{n}$ into this equation yields:

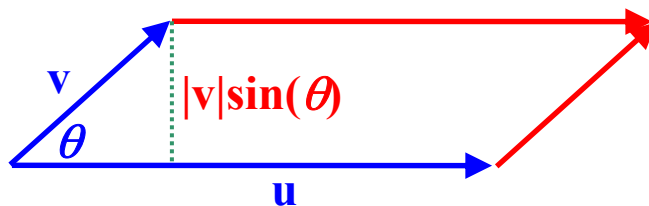
$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{B}) \bullet \mathbf{n} &= (\langle x, y, z \rangle - \langle u, v, w \rangle) \bullet \langle a, b, c \rangle \\&= \langle x, y, z \rangle \bullet \langle a, b, c \rangle - \langle u, v, w \rangle \bullet \langle a, b, c \rangle \\&= (ax+by+cz) - (au+bv+cw) \\&= (ax+by+cz) - (-d) \\&= ax + by + cz + d\end{aligned}$$

Volume of a Parallelepiped: 1/2

- A parallelepiped is defined by three vectors **u**, **v** and **w**.



- The parallelogram defined by **u** and **v** has an area of $|\mathbf{u}| \cdot |\mathbf{v}| \sin(\theta)$, which is the length of vector $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$, where θ is the angle between **u** and **v**.

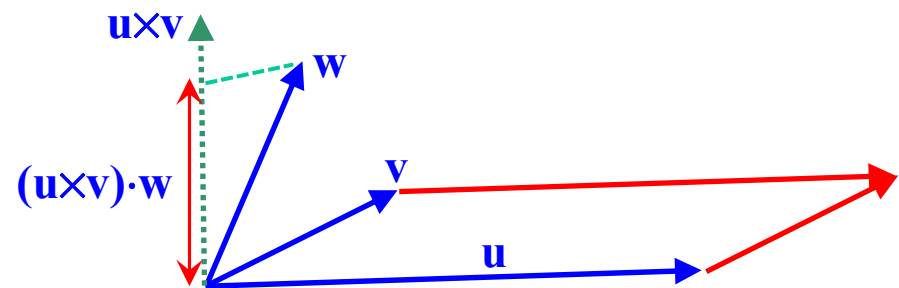


$$\begin{aligned} \text{area} &= \text{base} \times \text{height} = |\mathbf{u}|(|\mathbf{v}| \sin(\theta)) \\ &= |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \sin(\theta) = |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| \end{aligned}$$

Volume of a Parallelepiped: 2/2

- The volume of a parallelepiped is the product of its base area and its height.
- The base area is $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$.
- Projecting $\mathbf{w}$ to $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ yields the height $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} / |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$.
- Therefore, the volume is:

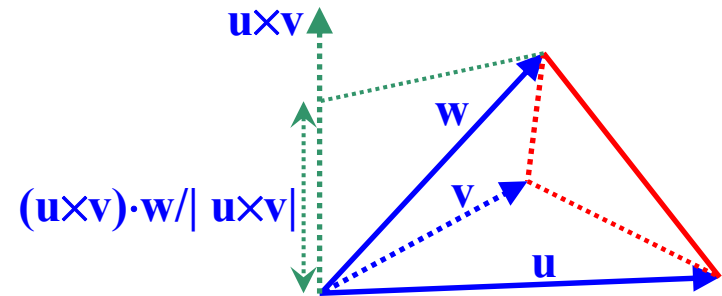
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Volume} &= \text{BaseArea} \times \text{Height} \\ &= |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| \frac{(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}}{|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|} \\ &= (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}\end{aligned}$$



Volume of a Tetrahedron

- A tetrahedron is also defined by three vectors **u**, **v** and **w**.
- The volume of a tetrahedron is **(BaseArea×Height)/3**.
- Base area is half of the parallelogram defined by **u** and **v**, and is equal to **$|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|/2$** .
- Height is our old friend, projecting **w** to **$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$** , which is **$(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} / |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|$** .
- Therefore, the volume is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Volume} &= \frac{1}{3} \text{BaseArea} \times \text{Height} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| \right) \frac{(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}}{|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w}\end{aligned}$$



Mesh Simplification: 1/2

- ❑ *Mesh simplification/decimation* is a class of algorithms that transform a given polygonal mesh into another with fewer faces, edges, and vertices.
- ❑ The simplification process is usually controlled by a set of *user-defined quality criteria* that can preserve specific properties of the original mesh as much as possible (*e.g.*, geometric distance, visual appearance , etc).
- ❑ Mesh simplifications *reduces the complexity* of a given mesh.

Mesh Simplification: 2/2

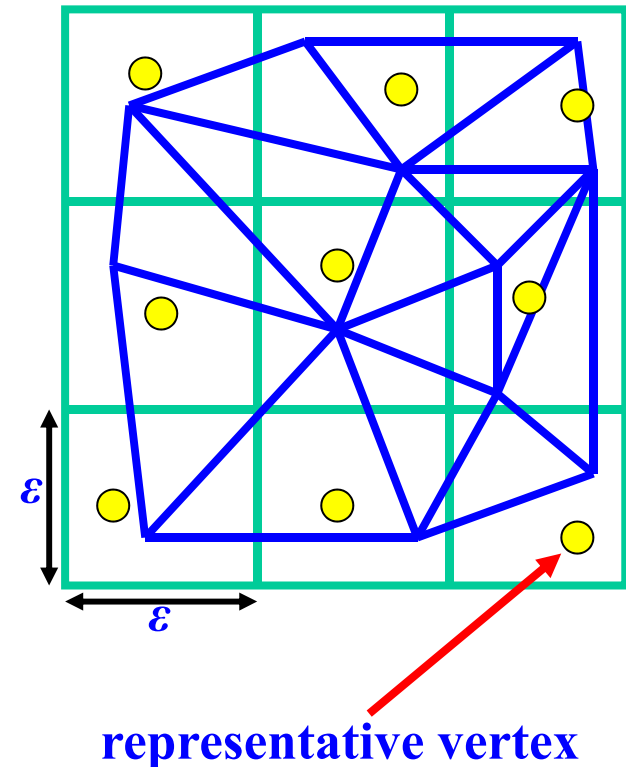
- Simplification schemes usually work iteratively (*i.e.*, removing a vertex/edge at a time) and can be reversed. Thus, one can transmit the final result followed by the “reversed” operators.
- A mesh simplification scheme can be viewed as a *decomposition operator* to obtain a **low frequency** component (*i.e.*, the decimated mesh) and a **high frequency** component (*i.e.*, the difference between the original and decimated meshes). Then, a *reconstruction operator* can perform the inverse decimation to recover the original data from its low frequency component.

Mesh Simplification Approaches

- ❑ **Vertex Clustering:** It is in general fast, robust and of $O(n)$, where n is the number of vertices; however, quality is not always satisfactory.
- ❑ **Incremental Decimation:** It can deliver higher quality meshes in most cases, and can take arbitrary user-defined criteria into account according to how the next removal operation is chosen. However, complexity may be $O(n \log_2 n)$ or even $O(n^2)$.
- ❑ **Resampling:** The most general approach; however, new samples may be freely distributed.

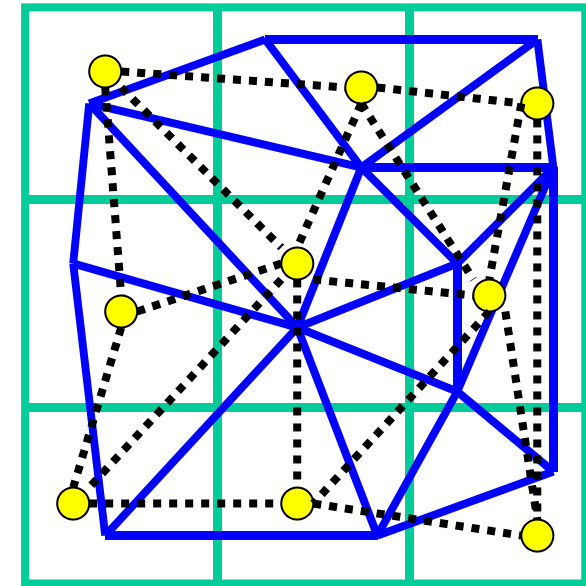
Vertex Clustering: 1/4

- Given a **tolerance** $\varepsilon > 0$, the bounding space of the given mesh is partitioned into cells with diameter $\leq \varepsilon$.
- For each cell a *representative vertex* is computed (will talk about this later). If a cell has more than one vertices, they are all mapped to this representative vertex.



Vertex Clustering: 2/4

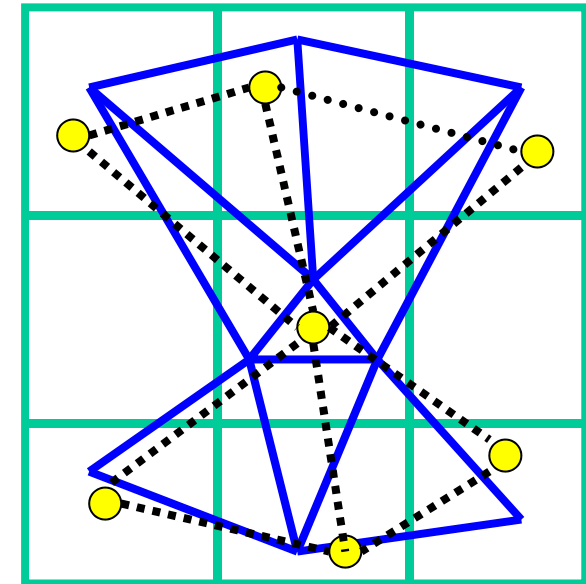
- Then, degenerate triangles are removed.
- If **P** and **Q** are the representative vertices of $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_m$ and $q_0, q_1, \dots, q_n$, respectively, **P** and **Q** are connected in the decimated mesh if at least one pair of vertices (p_i, q_j) was connected in the original mesh.



solid: original mesh
dotted: new mesh

Vertex Clustering: 3/4

- ❑ The resulting mesh may not be a 2-manifold even though the original one is, because **a portion of a surface could collapse to a point.**
- ❑ However, it can reduce the complexity of a mesh significantly, and guarantee a global approximation of the original mesh.



solid: original mesh
dotted: new mesh

Vertex Clustering: 4/4

□ How to compute those representatives?

- The easiest way is to average the vertices in the same cell. If $\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \dots, \mathbf{P}_k$ are vertices in the same cell, then the representative is $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{P}_1 + \mathbf{P}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{P}_k)/k$.
- Or, depending on the importance of each vertex (of the mesh) one might assign a weight $w_i \geq 0$ to vertex $\mathbf{P}_i$. Then, the representative of $\mathbf{P}_1, \mathbf{P}_2, \dots, \mathbf{P}_k$ in the same cell is their *weighted* average:

$$\mathbf{P} = \frac{w_1 \mathbf{P}_1 + w_2 \mathbf{P}_2 + \dots + w_k \mathbf{P}_k}{w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_k}$$

Incremental Decimation: 1/2

- ❑ **Incremental algorithms** remove one vertex or edge at a time based on user-specified criteria.
- ❑ Criteria can be **binary** or **continuous**.
- ❑ **Binary** criteria determine if a vertex is allowed to remove (*i.e.*, **yes** or **no**), while a **continuous** one rates the quality of the mesh (*i.e.*, roundness of triangles, small normal changes between neighboring triangles) before/after removal.

Incremental Decimation: 2/2

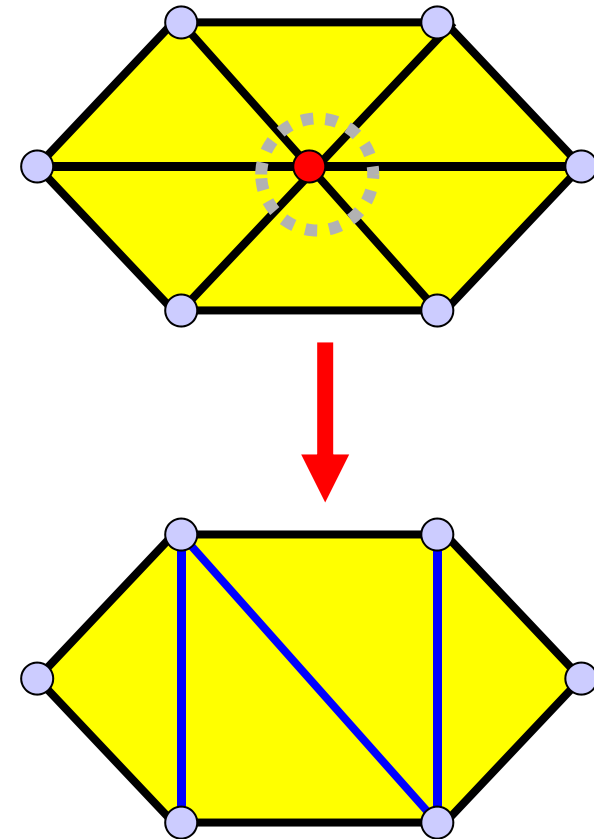
- ❑ The surface geometry changes in the neighborhood of the removed vertex/edge, and the quality criteria have to be re-evaluated.
- ❑ To make the re-evaluation process more efficient, the candidates for removal are usually stored in a heap with the best removal operation on top.
- ❑ In this way, each update only costs $O(\log n)$ for large meshes if the criteria evaluation has constant time complexity.

Topological Operators

- There are a number of removal operators, some of which can preserve the mesh topology. These decimation operators are referred to as *Euler-Operators*. See CS3621 course page.
- Commonly used topological operators include:
 - ❖ Vertex removal (inverse: vertex insertion)
 - ❖ Edge collapse (inverse: edge split)
 - ❖ Half edge collapse (inverse: restricted vertex split)

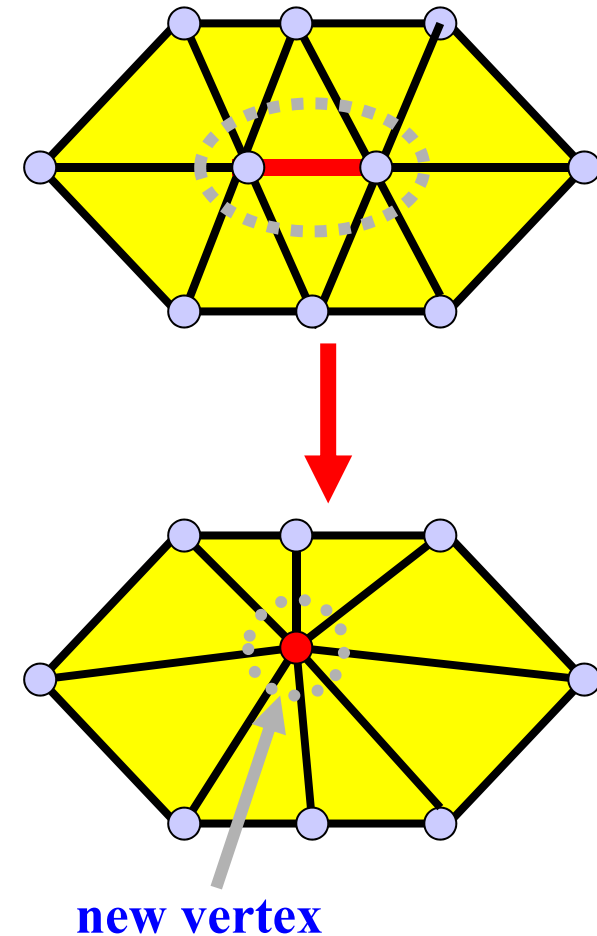
Vertex Removal

- ❑ **Vertex removal** deletes a vertex and its adjacent edges and faces, creating a k -side hole, where k is the valence of the vertex.
- ❑ This hole is triangulated by adding $k-2$ triangles back.
- ❑ Thus, the # of vertices and # of triangles are reduced by 1 and 2, respectively.



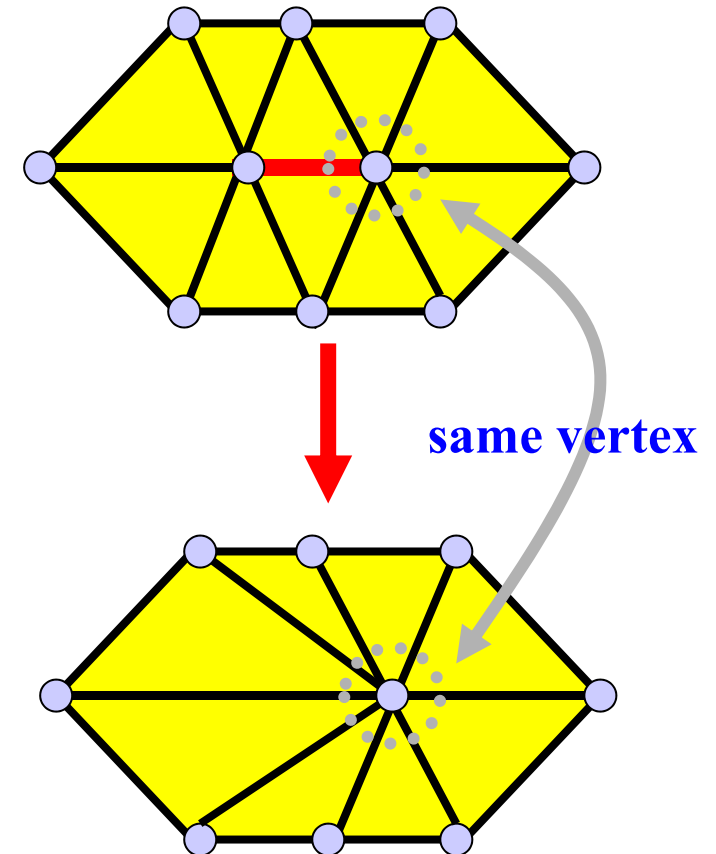
Edge Collapse

- ❑ **Edge collapse** selects an edge and collapses it to a new vertex. Its two adjacent triangles also collapse to two edges.
- ❑ Thus, the # of vertices and # of triangles are reduced by 1 and 2, respectively.
- ❑ However, we are **allowed to choose a *new* vertex!**



Half-Edge Collapse

- Given a selected edge with adjacent vertices **p** and **q**, the **half-edge collapse** operator moves **p** to **q** or **q** to **p**.
- This is a special case of the edge collapse operator.
- Note that moving **p** to **q** and moving **q** to **p** are *two* different operations.
- Note also that no degree of freedom is available.



Decimation Operator Notes: 1/2

- While the **half-edge collapse** operator is a special case of the **edge collapse** operator, its effect becomes noticeable only for extremely strong decimation where the exact location of individual vertices really matters.
- The global optimization that uses user specified criteria to make selections is completely separate from the decimation operator. This makes the design of decimation more orthogonal.

Decimation Operator Notes: 2/2

- ❑ All three operators preserve mesh topology and the topology of the underlying surface may change near the end of decimation.
- ❑ **Non-Euler** operators **CAN** change mesh topology.
- ❑ The **vertex contraction** operator merges two *arbitrary* vertices into one even if they are not connected by an edge is a good example.
- ❑ The vertex contraction operator reduces the # of vertices by 1 but preserves the # of faces/edges.

A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 1/15

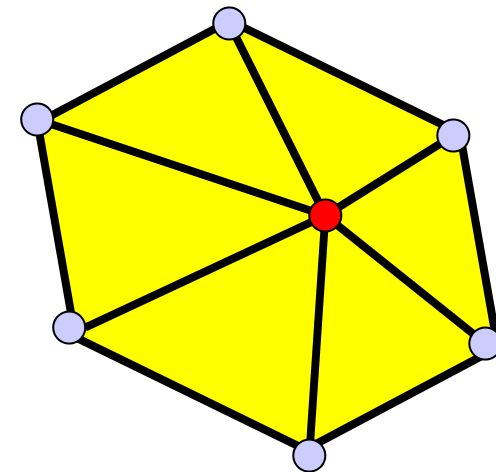
- ❑ One of the earliest decimation algorithm was due to Schroeder, Zarge and Lorensen published in *SIGGRAPH 1992*.
- ❑ This algorithm uses **vertex removal** only and has a scheme as follows.

```
while there is a vertex X that can be removed do  
  begin  
    apply the vertex removal operator to X;  
    this creates a hole, not necessary planar;  
    re-triangulate the hole;  
  end
```

A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 2/15

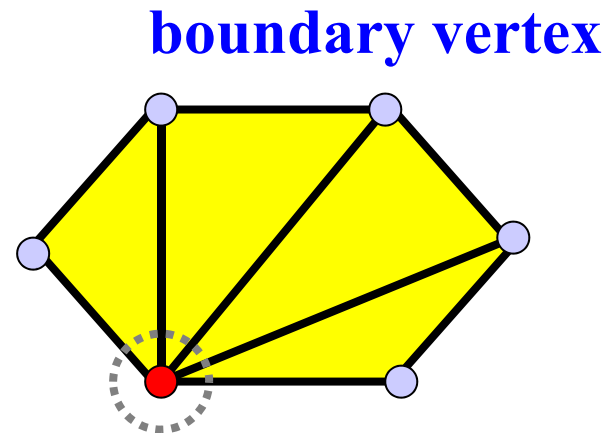
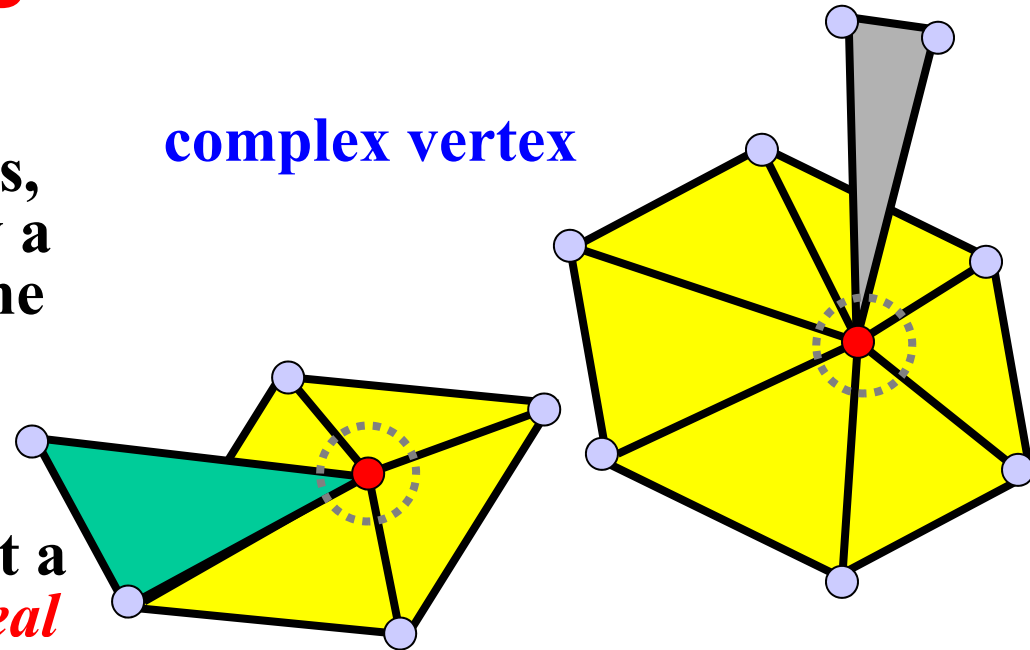
- ❑ Not all vertices are candidates for decimation.
- ❑ Each vertex is assigned one of five possible classifications: **simple**, **complex**, **boundary**, **interior edge**, or **corner vertex**.
- ❑ A **simple vertex** is surrounded by a closed fan of triangles.

a simple vertex



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 3/15

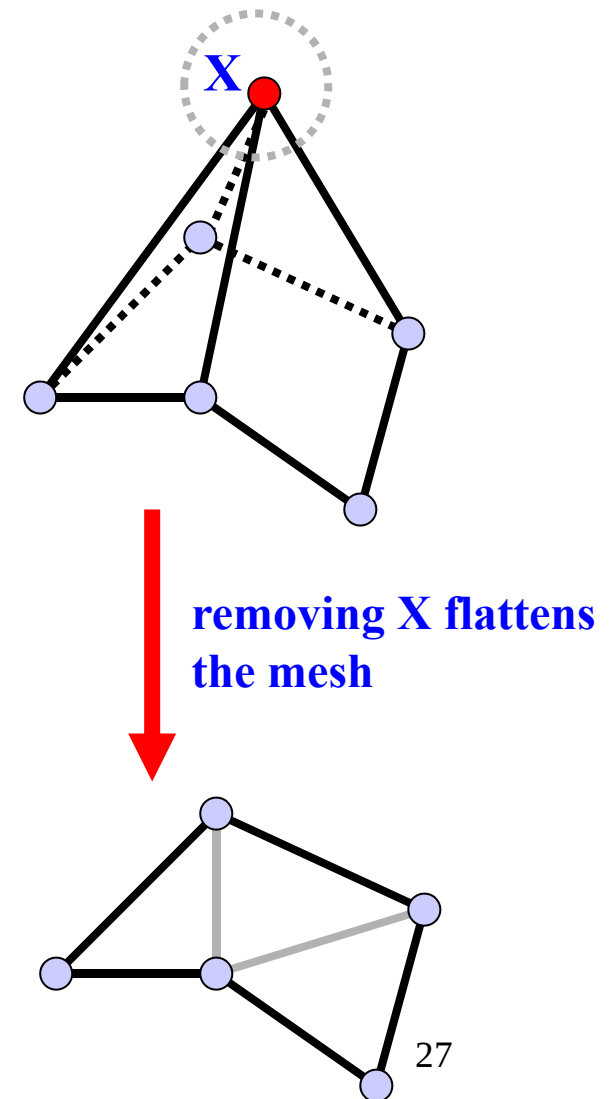
- ❑ If an edge is shared by more than two triangles, or if a vertex is used by a triangle that is not in the fan, this vertex is a **complex vertex**.
- ❑ If a mesh contains a complex vertex, it is not a 2-manifold. *We only deal with 2-manifolds in this course.*
- ❑ If a vertex is on the boundary of a mesh, it is a **boundary vertex**.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 4/15

□ User Specified Criteria (Basic Idea):

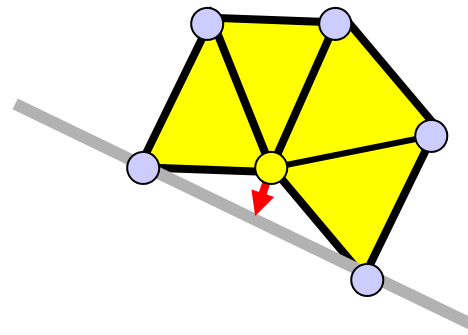
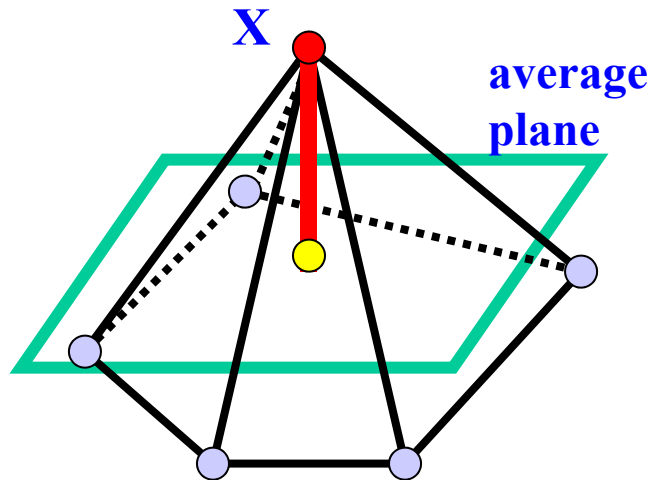
- *Do not remove sharp corners*
- If vertex **X** is “far” away from its adjacent vertices, **X** should not be removed because removing **X** flattens the vicinity of vertex **X**.
- Thus, good candidates should be vertices in “flat” regions.
- The “flatness” is measured by a plane, an **average plane**, representing the vicinity of **X**’s adjacent vertices.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 5/15

□ User Specified Criteria:

- ❖ If X is a simple vertex, the distance from X to an “average” plane is computed. If this distance is smaller than the given distance (*i.e.*, reasonably flat), X is removed.
- ❖ If X is a boundary vertex, then use the distance from this vertex to the *boundary edge line*.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 6/15

□ Compute the “Average Plane”:

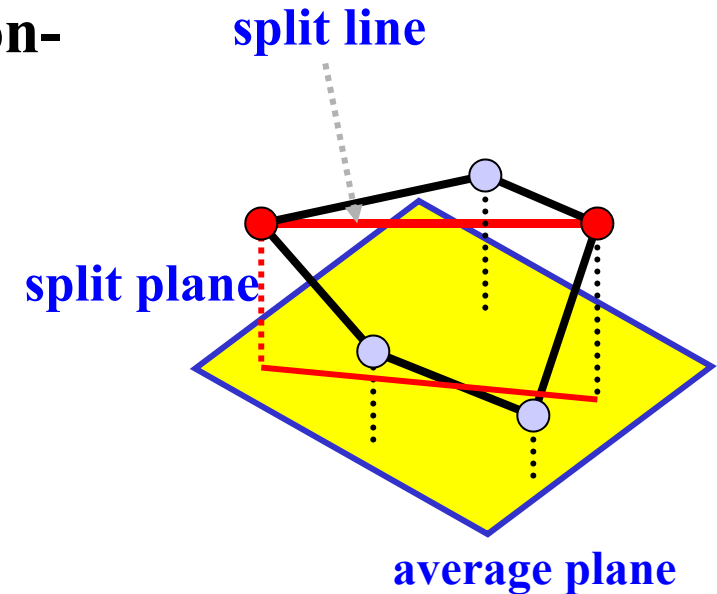
- ❖ Let $\mathbf{X}$ be the vertex under consideration.
- ❖ Let $\mathbf{T}_i$ be a triangle in the fan of $\mathbf{X}$.
- ❖ Let $\mathbf{c}_i$, A_i and $\mathbf{n}_i$ be the center, area and normal vector of triangle $\mathbf{T}_i$, respectively.
- ❖ The base point $\mathbf{B}$ and normal vector $\mathbf{n}$ of the average plane are calculated as follows:

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{\sum A_i \times \mathbf{c}_i}{\sum A_i} \quad \mathbf{n} = \frac{\sum A_i \times \mathbf{n}_i}{\sum A_i}$$

A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 7/15

□ Split Line and Split Plane:

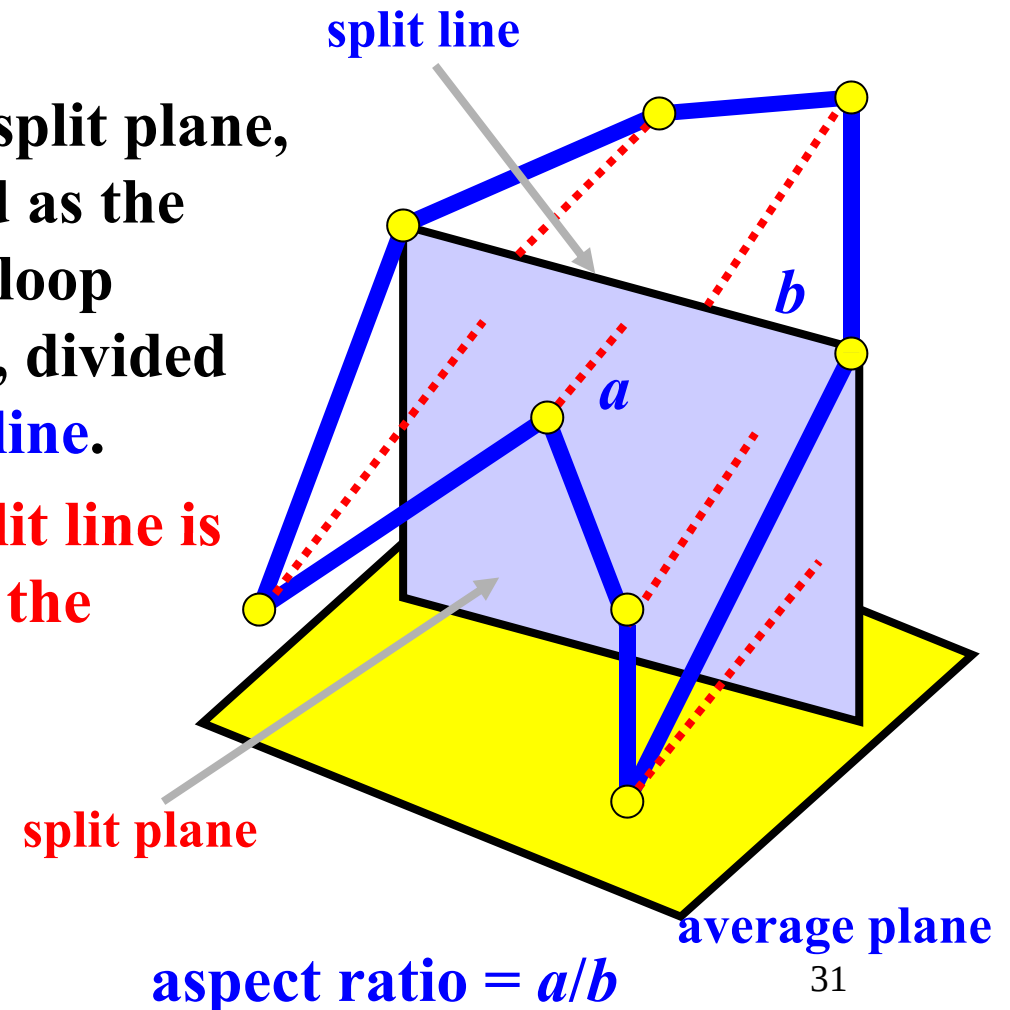
- ❖ A **split line** is a line joining two non-adjacent vertices.
- ❖ A **split plane** is the plane that satisfies two conditions:
 - 1) it contains a **split line** and is perpendicular to the chosen **average plane**
 - 2) it divides the loop into **two separate** links such that all vertices of one link are in one side of the split plane and the remaining vertices are in the other.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 8/15

□ Aspect Ratio:

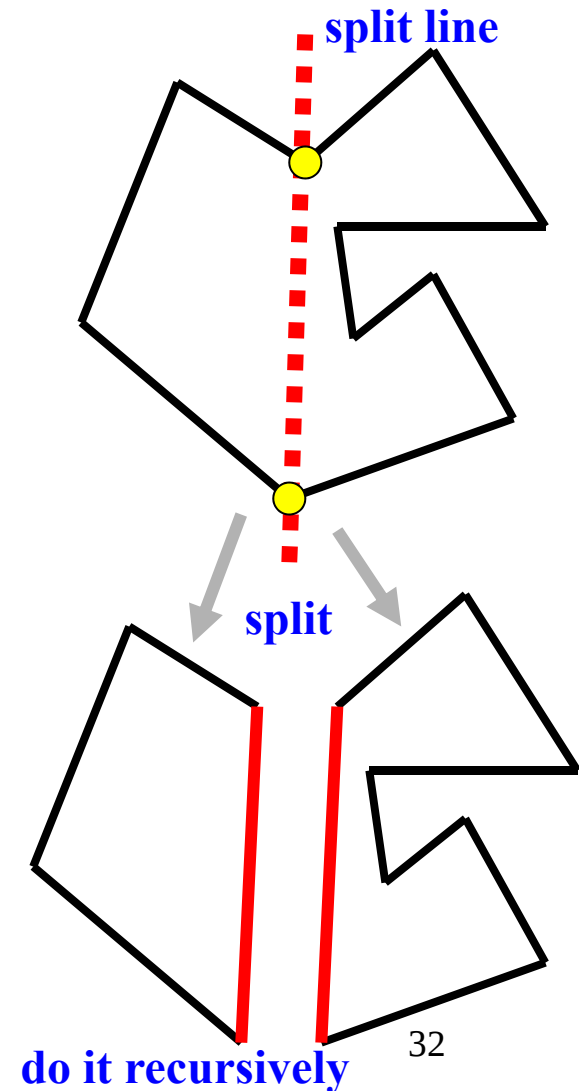
- ❖ Given a split line and its split plane, the **aspect ratio** is defined as the **minimum** distance of the loop vertices to the **split plane**, divided by the length of the **split line**.
- ❖ The “best” choice of a split line is the one that can produce the maximum aspect ratio.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 9/15

□ Re-triangulation

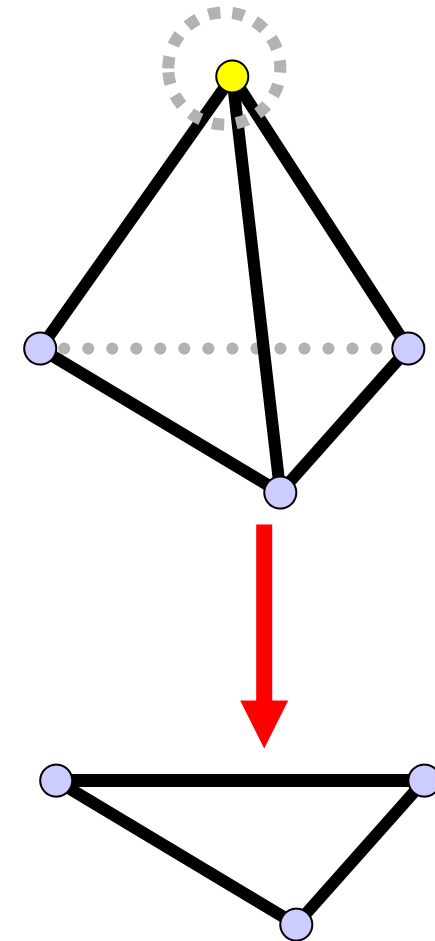
- ❖ Find a split line with a maximal aspect ratio.
- ❖ Each of these two links and the split line forms a loop.
- ❖ Recursively re-triangulate each loop.
- ❖ If re-triangulation fails, do not remove this vertex.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 10/15

□ A Few Notes: 1/5

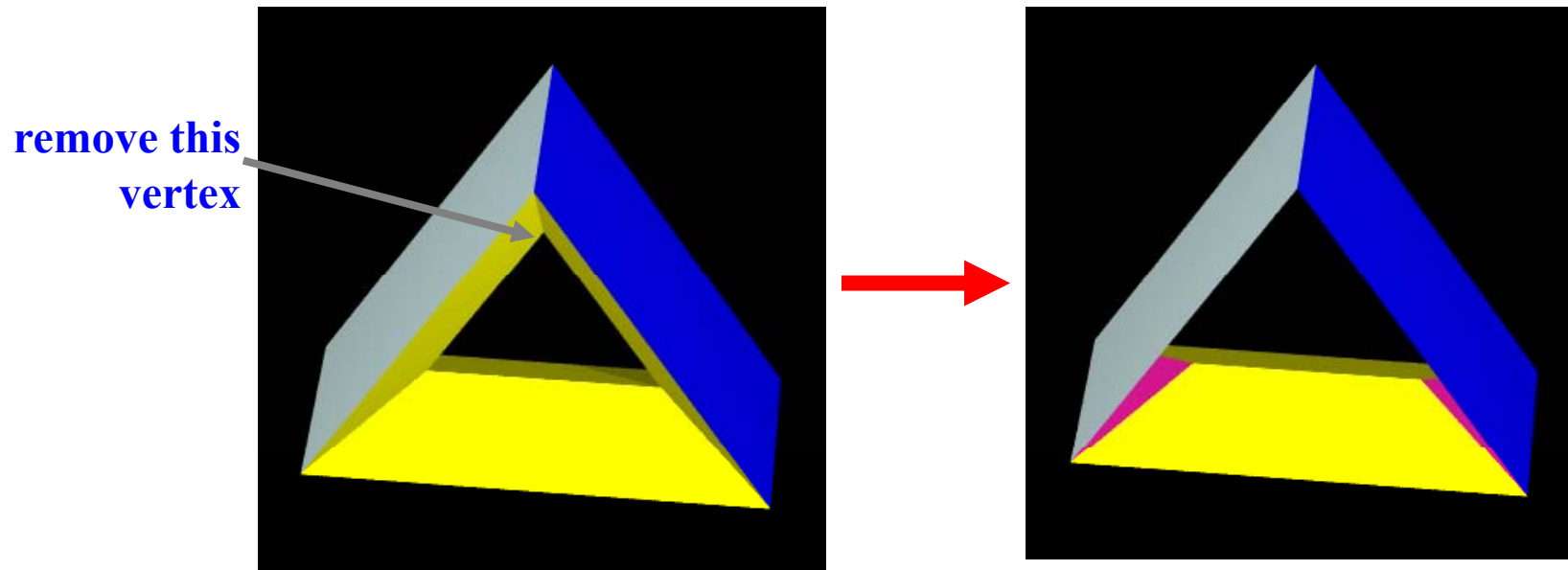
- ❖ Repeated decimation may produce a tetrahedron. Further decimation reduces it to a triangle. So, we have *two* identical triangles!
- ❖ This is a change of topology.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 11/15

□ A Few Notes: 2/5

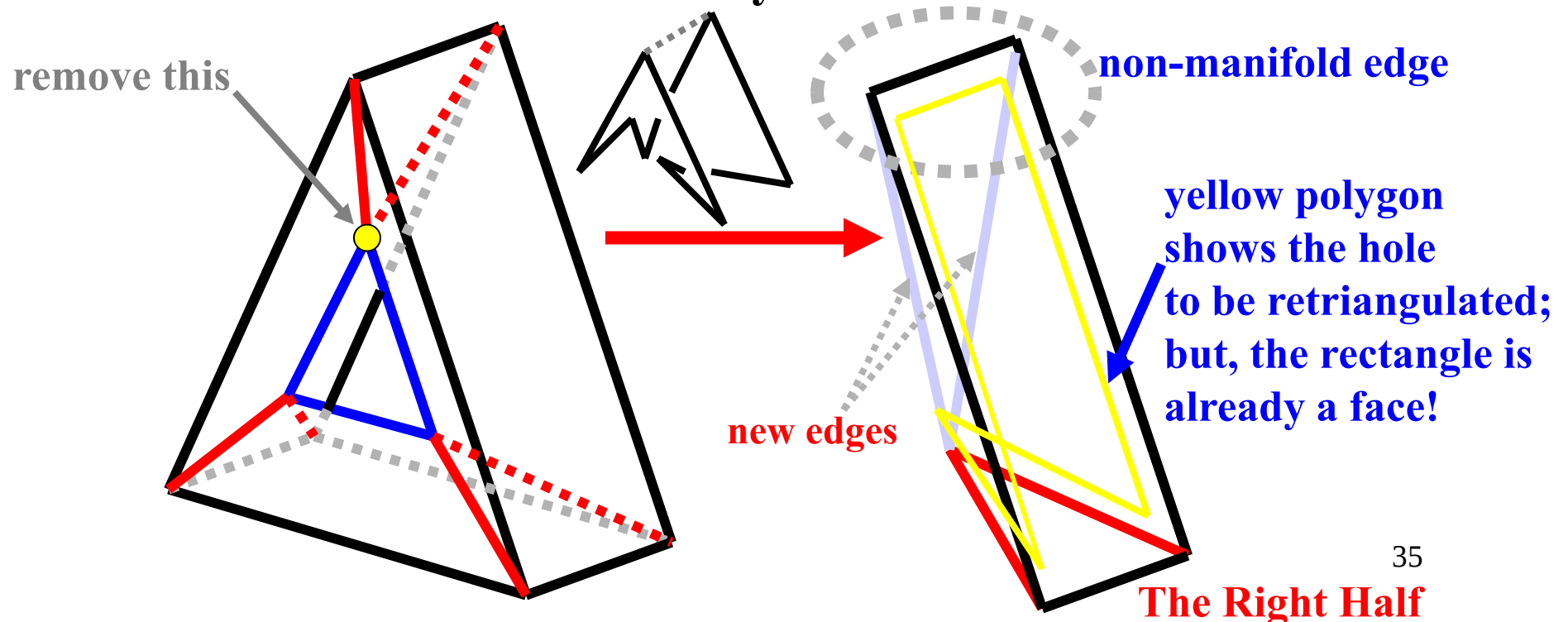
- ❖ If a mesh has holes like a torus, the boundary of a hole could reduce to a triangle (*i.e.*, triangular hole). Removing a vertex from the boundary could create a non-manifold.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 12/15

□ A Few Notes: 3/5

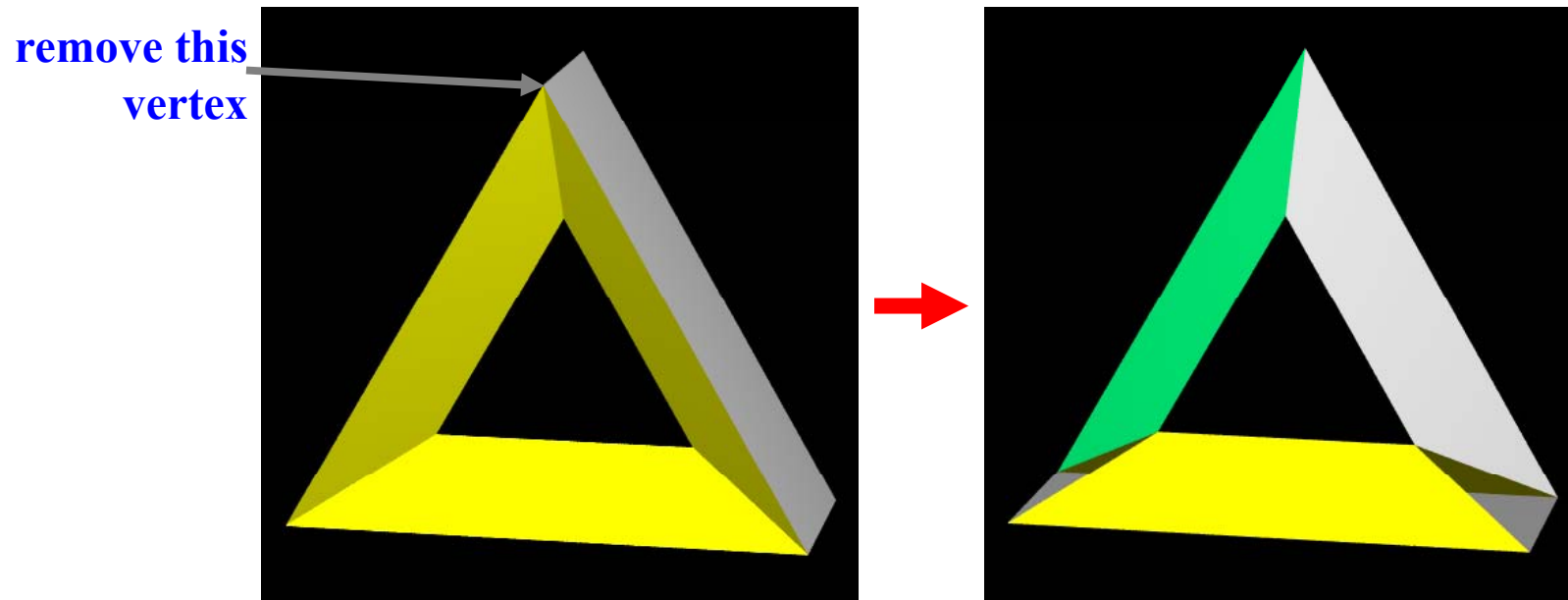
- ❖ If a mesh has holes like a torus, the boundary of a hole could reduce to a triangle (*i.e.*, triangular hole). Removing a vertex from the boundary could create a non-manifold.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 13/15

□ A Few Notes: 4/5

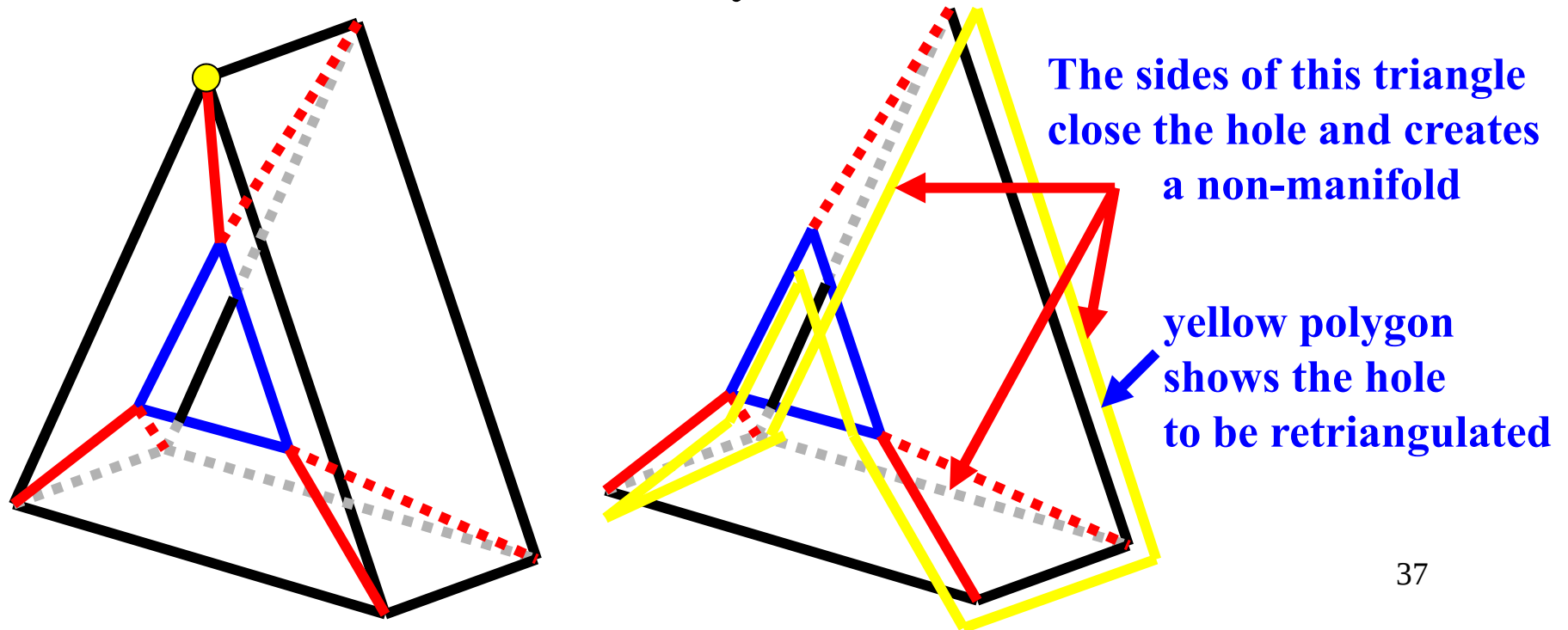
- ❖ If a mesh has holes like a torus, the boundary of a hole could reduce to a triangle (*i.e.*, triangular hole). Removing a vertex from the boundary could create a non-manifold.



A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 14/15

□ A Few Notes: 5/5

- ❖ If a mesh has holes like a torus, the boundary of a hole could reduce to a triangle (*i.e.*, triangular hole). Removing a vertex from the boundary could create a non-manifold.

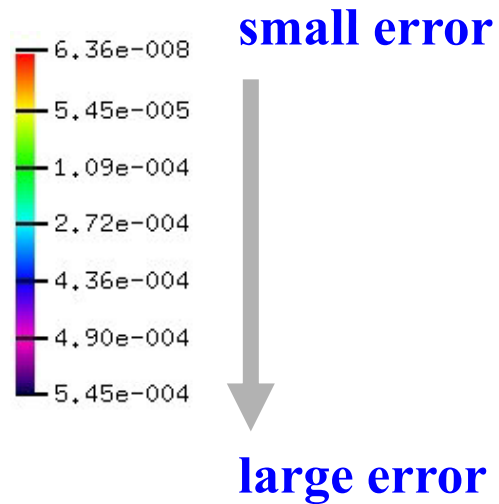


A Vertex Decimation Algorithm for Triangular Mesh: 15/15

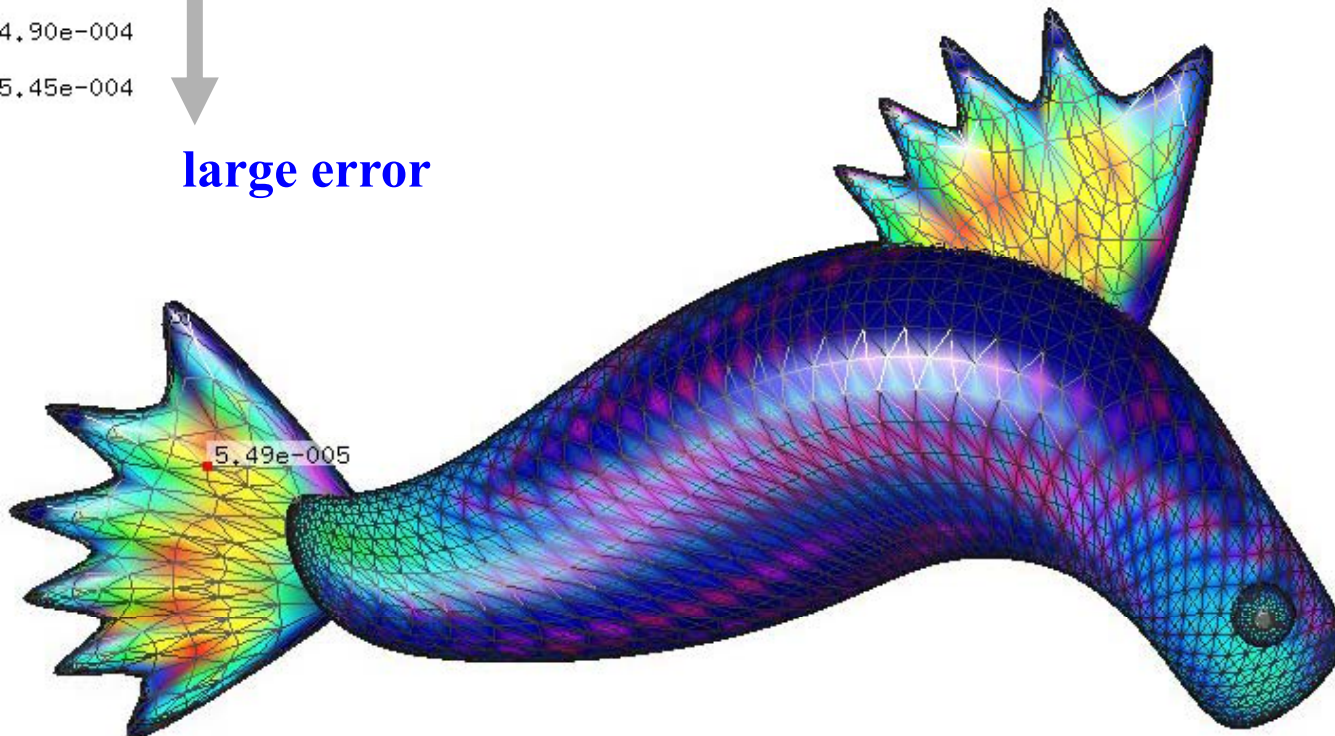
□ A Few Notes: 4/4

- ❖ Thus, in the decimation process, a check must be made to prevent duplicated triangles and triangle edges. In this way, the topology of the mesh can be preserved.

Vertex Error

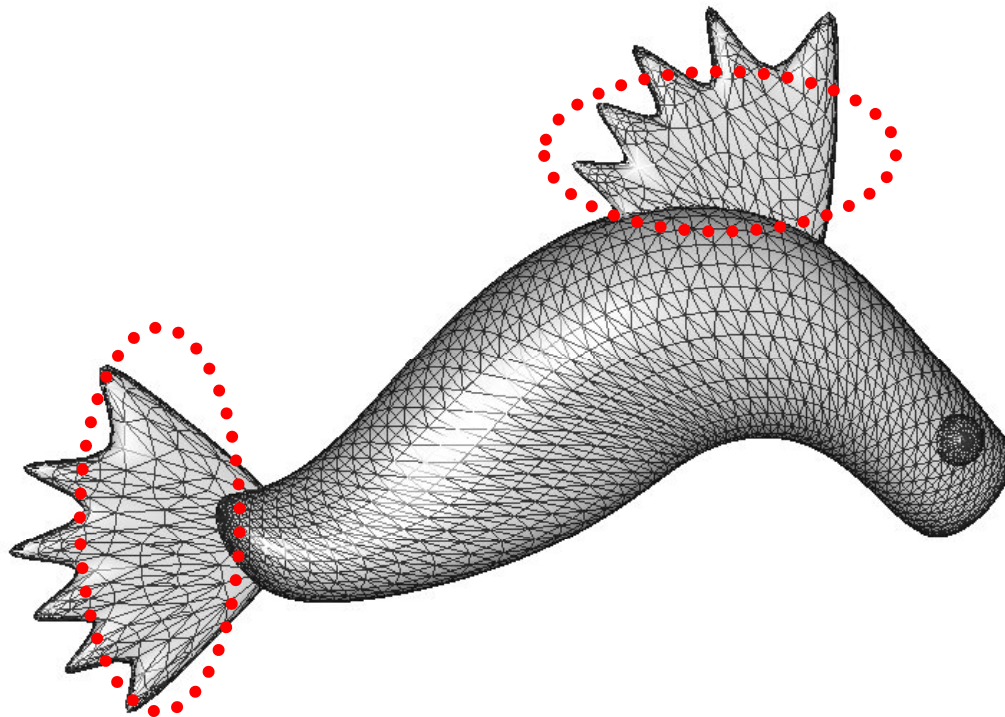


Small vertex error means flat area, and can be simplified first.



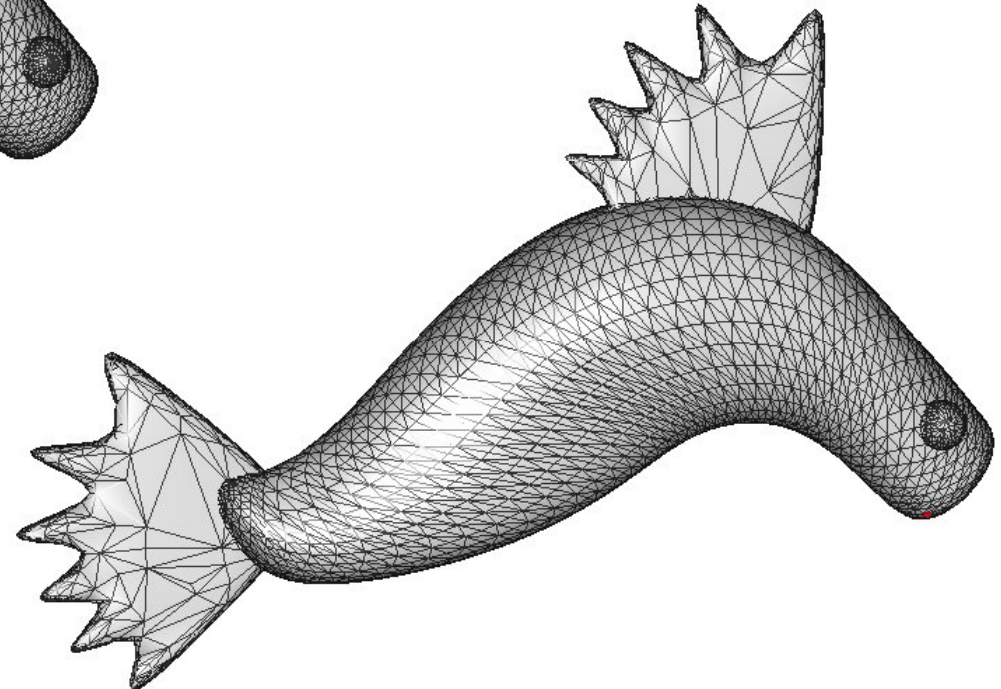
Some Results: 1/4

Note that flat portions are simplified first.



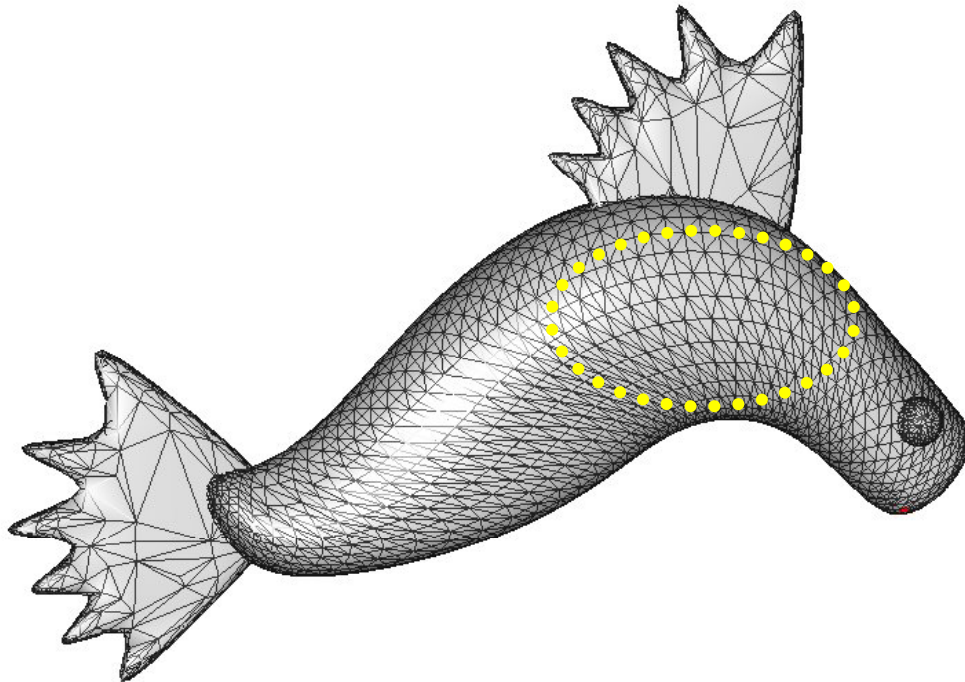
$V=4632, E=13872, F=9248$

$V=3602, E=10776, F=7184$



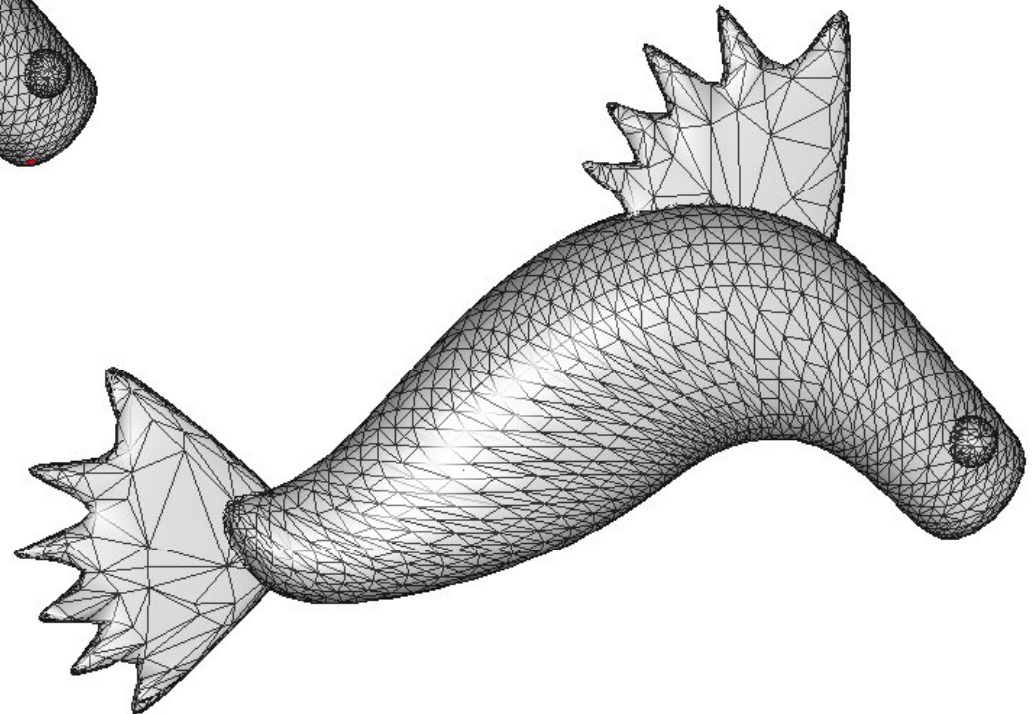
Some Results: 2/4

Note that flat portions are simplified first.



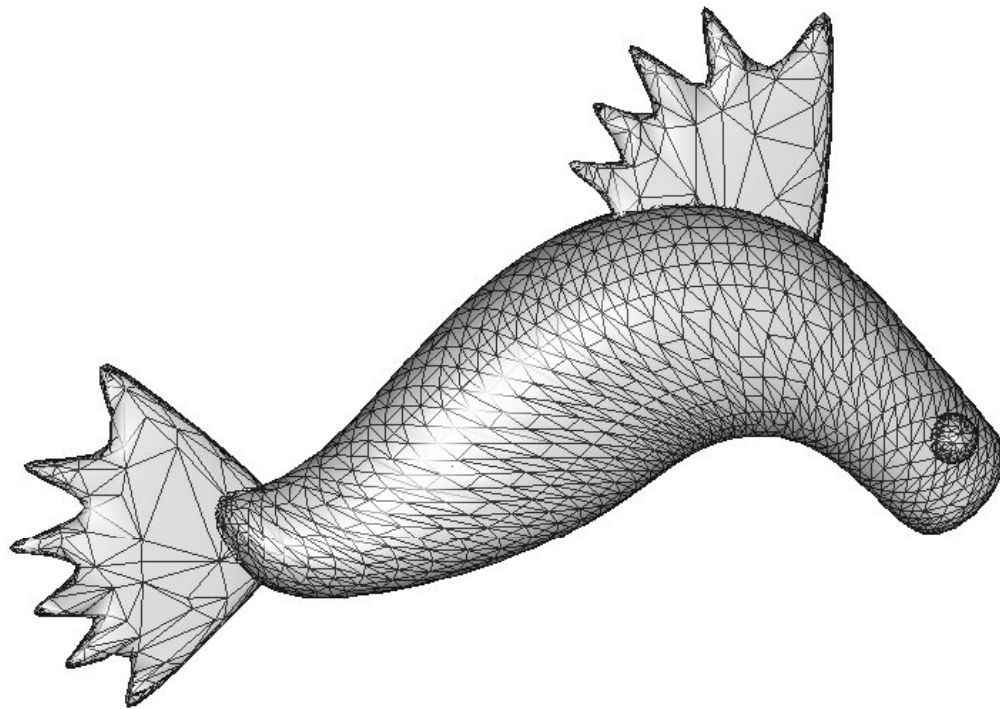
$V=3602, E=10776, F=7184$

$V=2570, E=7680, F=5120$



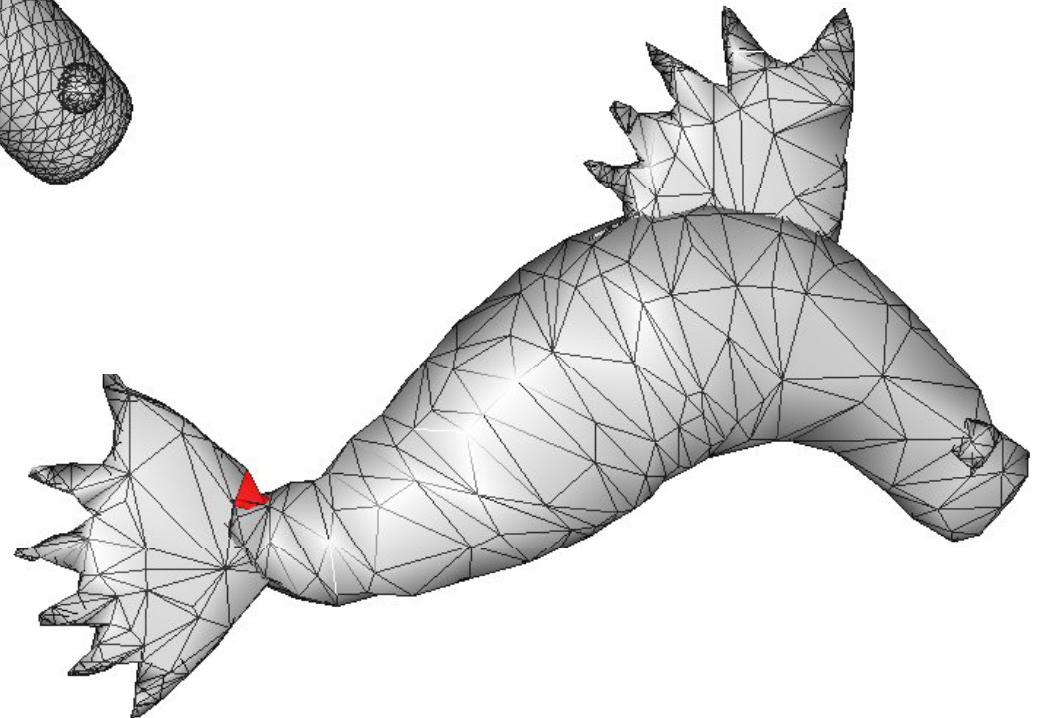
Some Results: 3/4

Note that flat portions are simplified first.



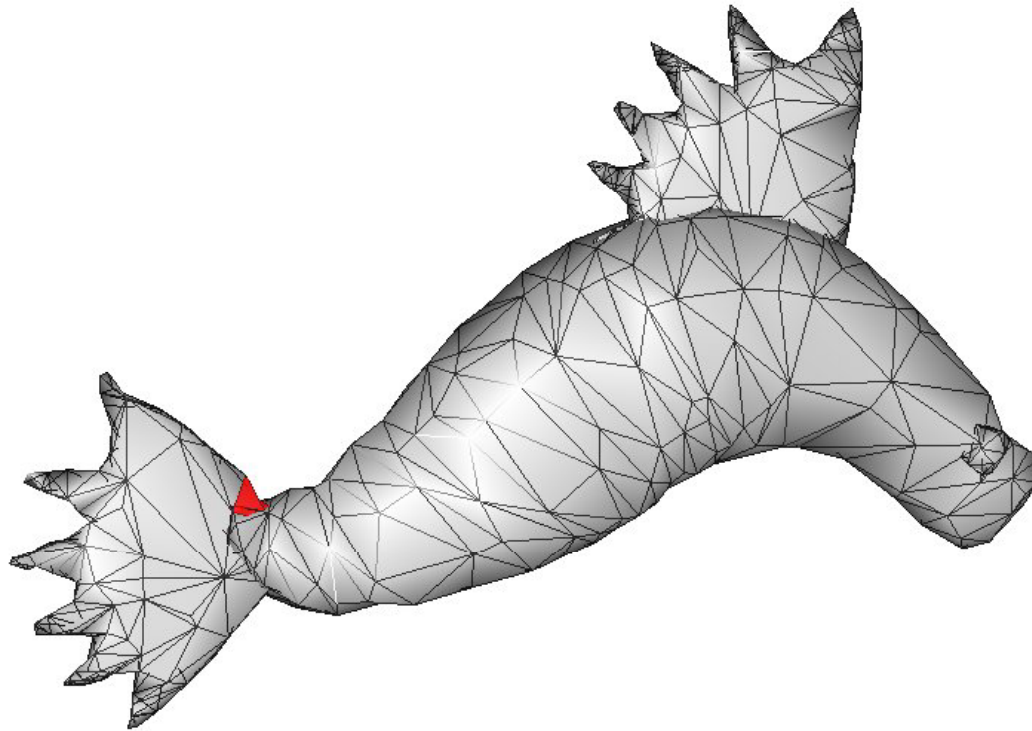
V=2570, E=7680, F=5120

V=506, E=1488, F=992



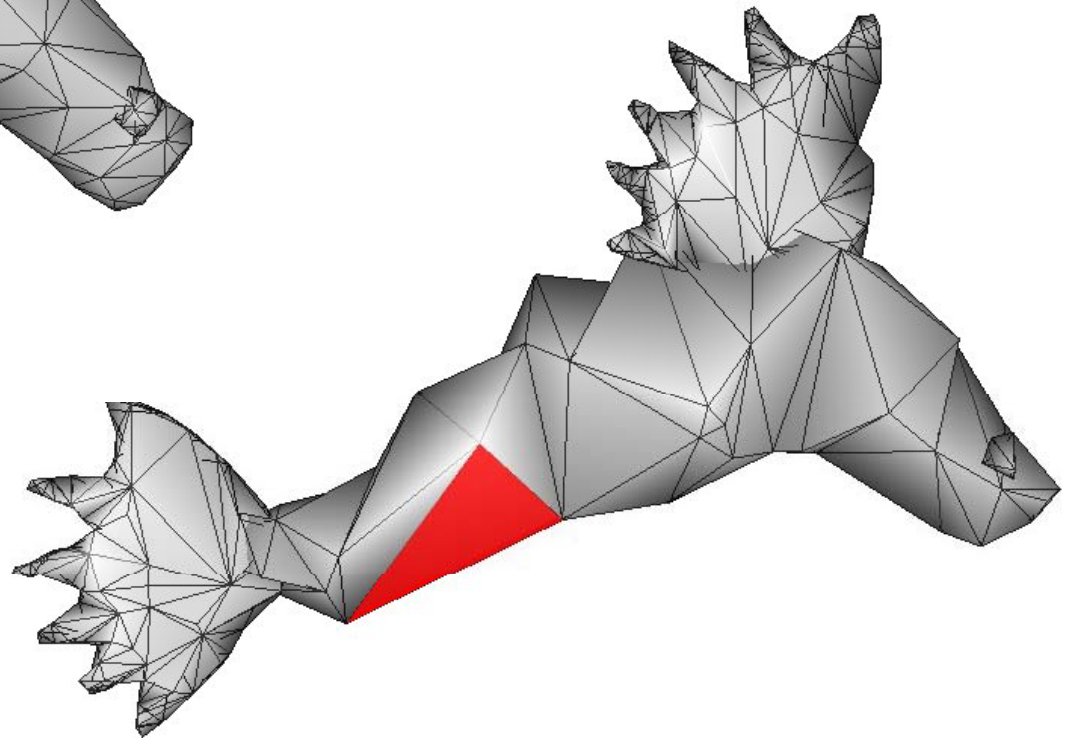
Some Results: 4/4

Note that flat portions are simplified first.



V=506, E=1488, F=992

V=306, E=888, F=592



Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 1/9

- ❑ This algorithm is due to Michael Garland and Paul S. Heckbert, published in *IEEE Visualization 1998*.
- ❑ This algorithm uses the quadric error distance measure and the edge collapse operator.
- ❑ Each vertex of a given mesh is associated with an error metric, a 4×4 symmetric matrix, and a quadric (*i.e.*, second degree) error.
- ❑ For each edge, a **new** vertex with minimum error value (based on the error metric) is found and used for selecting an edge to be collapsed.

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 2/9

- Since this algorithm uses edge collapse, we need a criterion for selecting an edge.
- Given two vertices, p and q , a pair (p,q) is a **valid pair** for collapsing, if
 - ❖ pq is an edge, or
 - ❖ $|p - q| < \epsilon$, where ϵ is a user-defined constant
- If $\epsilon > 0$, two very close vertices may be collapsed together (*i.e.*, vertex contraction), creating a non-manifold mesh. Thus, if vertex contraction is unwanted, set ϵ to 0!

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 3/9

□ What is an error metric?

- ❖ It is a 4×4 symmetric matrix Q !
- ❖ Each vertex $\mathbf{v}$ has an error metric matrix Q_v .
We shall show how to find it later.
- ❖ The error at a vertex $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, v_2, v_3, 1]^T$, $\Delta(\mathbf{v})$, is defined as $\mathbf{v}^T Q_v \mathbf{v}$.
- ❖ Since Q_v is a 4×4 matrix, $\Delta(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}^T Q_v \mathbf{v} = \delta$ is a surface of second degree in $\mathbf{v}$, where δ is a given value.
- ❖ Hence, this error metric is referred to as a **quadric error metric**.

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 4/9

□ How do we collapse an edge?

- ❖ If (p, q) is a valid pair, a simple way is to move p to q , move q to p , or move p and q to $(p+q)/2$.
- ❖ However, there is a **better** way. We may move to a new point v that minimizes the error $\Delta(v) = (v^T Q_p v + v^T Q_q v)/2 = [v^T (Q_p + Q_q) v]/2$, where Q_p and Q_q are the error metric matrices of vertices p and q .
- ❖ After v is computed, edge pq is collapsed and v receives the error value $\Delta(v)$ and error metric matrix $Q_p + Q_q$.

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 5/9

```
compute error and error matrix for each vertex of the mesh;
select all valid edges  $pq$  such that  $|p - q| < \varepsilon$ ;
for each selected edge  $pq$  do
    begin
        minimize  $\Delta(r) = [r^T(Q_p + Q_q)r]/2$  to find  $r$ ;
        let  $\Delta(r) = (\Delta(p) + \Delta(q))/2$  and  $Q_r = Q_p + Q_q$ ;
        place all selected edges in a heap using  $\Delta(r)$  as a key;
    end;
while there are edges on the heap do
    begin
        remove the top edge  $pq$ ;
        collapse it to the computed  $r$ ;
        update the mesh and the keys;
    end
```

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 6/9

□ How do we find Q_v for v , initially? 1/3

- ❖ Given a plane $P: ax+by+cz+d=0$, where $a^2+b^2+c^2=1$ (i.e., normalized), and a point $v=(v_1,v_2,v_3)$, the error (i.e., distance) from v to P is $\Delta_P(v) = av_1 + bv_2 + cv_3 + d$.
- ❖ Let $P = \langle a, b, c, d \rangle$ and $v = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3, 1 \rangle$. Then, we have $\Delta_P(v) = av_1 + bv_2 + cv_3 + d = P \bullet v$.
- ❖ Thus, the error at v with respect to P is calculated by plugging v 's coordinates into P 's equation. If $P \bullet v$ is zero, v is in P . Otherwise, $P \bullet v$ gives the *signed* “distance” from v to P .

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 7/9

□ How do we find Q_v
for v , initially? 2/3

❖ Since error may
be negative, we use
its square!

❖ Since $P \bullet v$ can be
rewritten into a
matrix form $P^T v$,
where P and v are
row matrices, we
have this

$$\begin{aligned} (P^T \cdot v)^2 &= (P^T \cdot v)^T (P^T \cdot v) \\ &= (v^T \cdot P)(P^T \cdot v) \\ &= v^T (PP^T) v \\ &= v^T \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & ab & ac & ad \\ ab & b^2 & bc & bd \\ ac & bc & c^2 & cd \\ ad & bd & cd & d^2 \end{bmatrix} v \end{aligned}$$

$M_P(v)$

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 8/9

□ How do we find Q_v for v , initially? 3/3

❖ The error metric matrix of v w.r.t. P is the matrix shown earlier rather than the error value itself! Let this matrix be $M_P(v)$.

❖ Now, for each vertex v in the given mesh, the error metric matrix of vertex v is the sum of all $M_P(v)$, where P is a plane that contains an incident triangle of v :

$$Q_v = \sum_{\text{all } P\text{'s incident to } v} M_P(v)$$

Quadric Error Metric Decimation: 9/9

□ How do we find a $\mathbf{v}$ that minimizes $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q}_v \mathbf{v}$?

- ❖ Once $\mathbf{Q}_v$ is computed from $\mathbf{Q}_p$ and $\mathbf{Q}_q$, where pq is the edge to be collapsed, we need to find a new vertex $\mathbf{v}$ such that $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q}_v \mathbf{v}$ is minimized.
- ❖ Since $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q}_v \mathbf{v}$ is a second degree function in $\mathbf{v}$, its minimum can easily be found. Compute and set the partial derivatives of $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q}_v \mathbf{v}$ to zero, and solve for x, y and z !

The Minimum of a Quadric Function

□ The vector $\mathbf{v}$ in the function $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{v}$ has three variables, *i.e.*, $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z)$, and the function itself is of second degree.

□ Therefore, function $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{v}$ has a form of

$$F(x, y, z) = ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2dxy + 2exz + 2fyz + 2gx + 2hy + 2iz + j$$

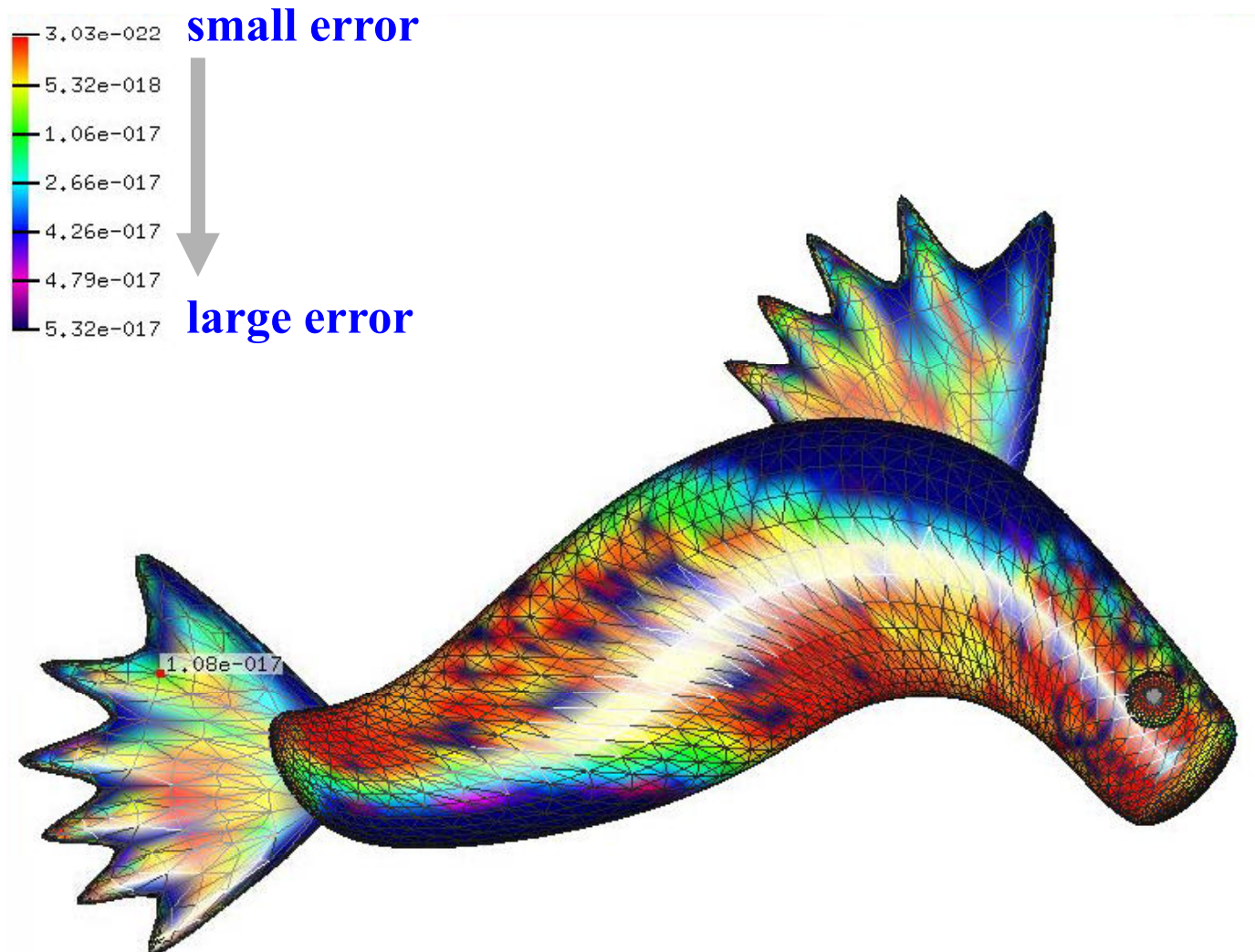
□ Setting the partial derivatives to zero and solving for x , y and z yield the vector $\mathbf{v}$.

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = ax + dy + ez + g = 0$$

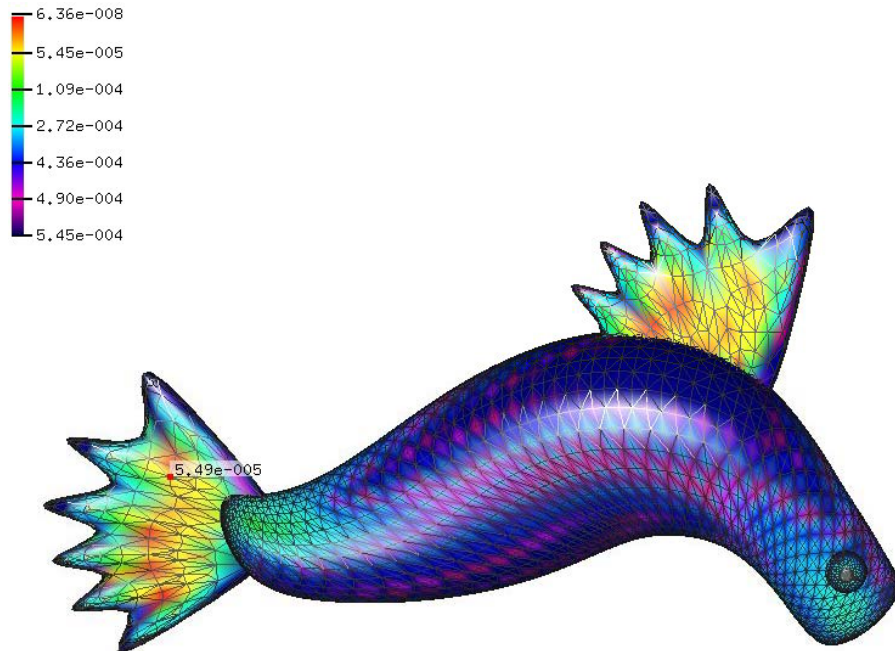
$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} = dx + by + fz + h = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial z} = ex + fy + cz + i = 0$$

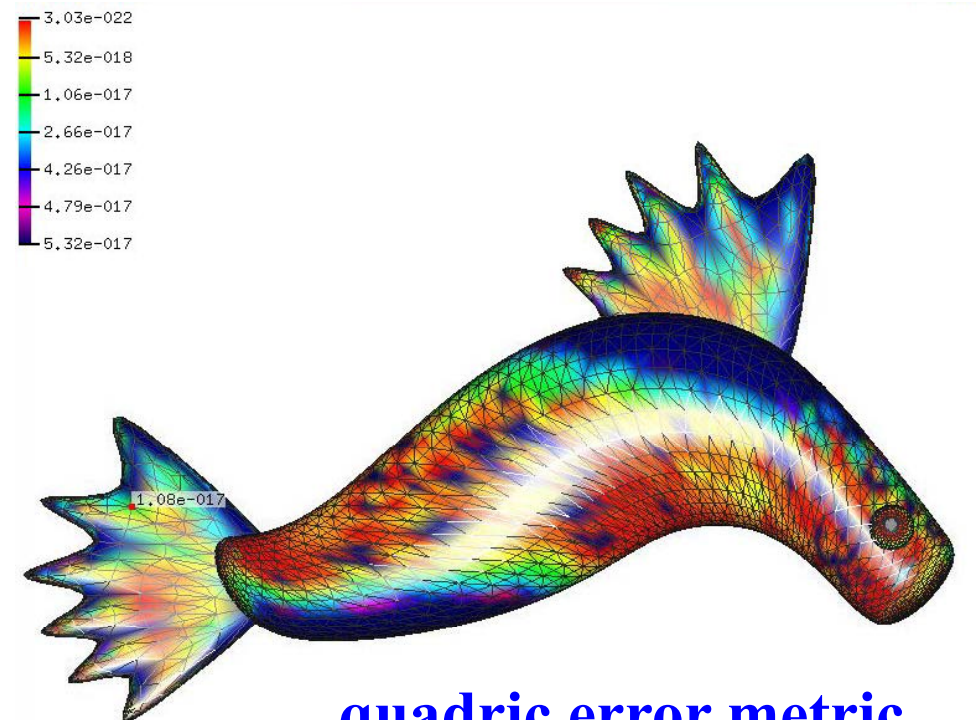
Quadric Error Metric



Decimation vs Error Metric

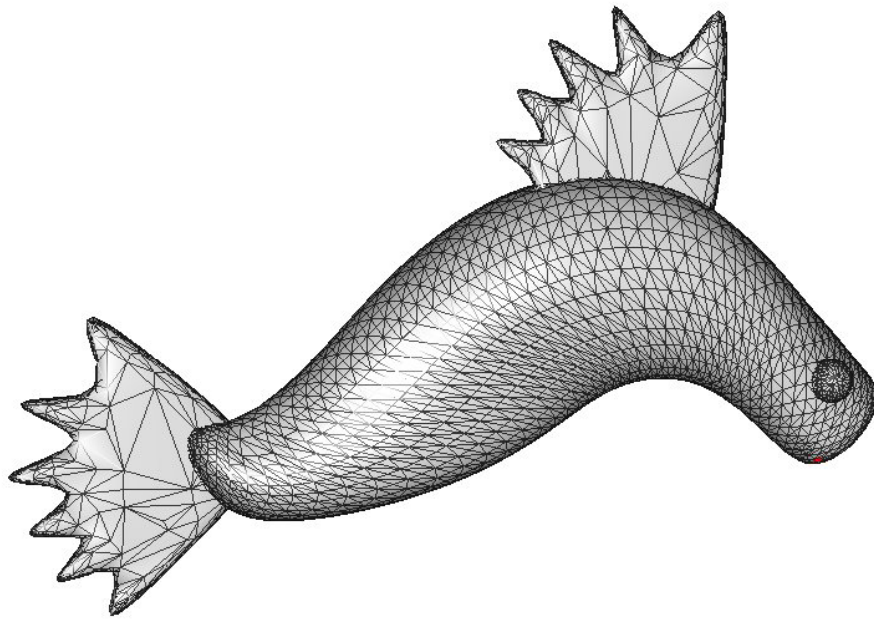


vertex decimation



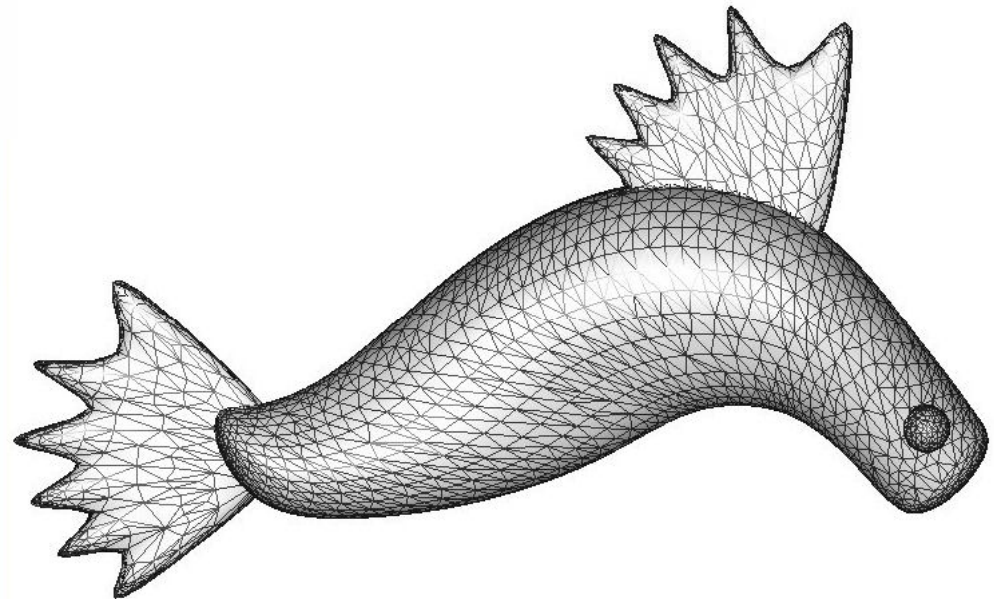
quadric error metric

Results and Comparisons: 1/3

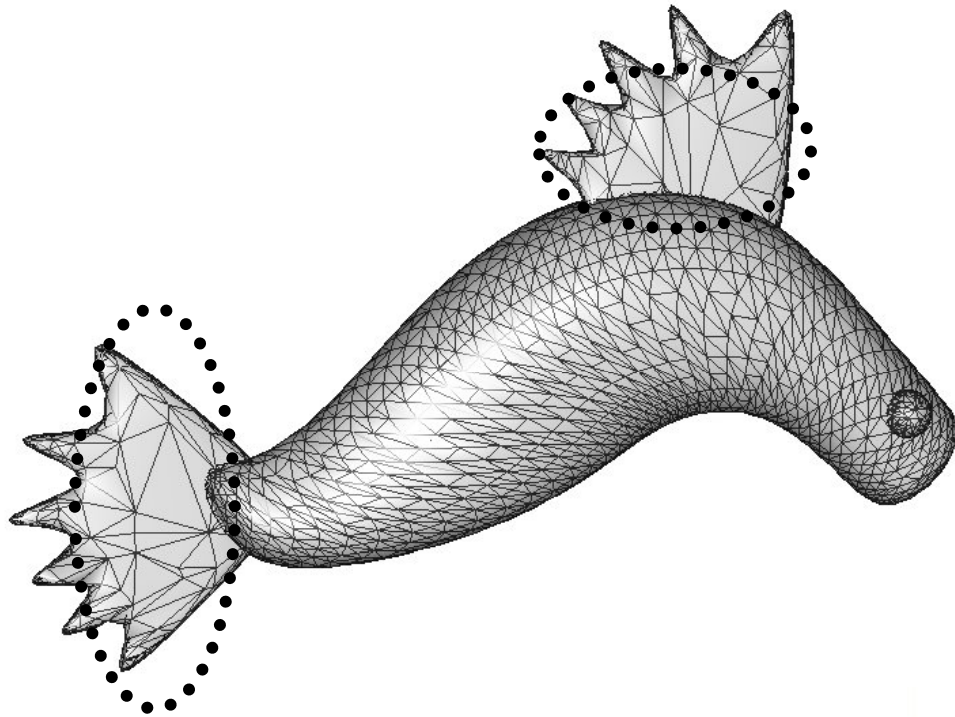


vertex decimation: $V=3602$

error metric: $V=3555$

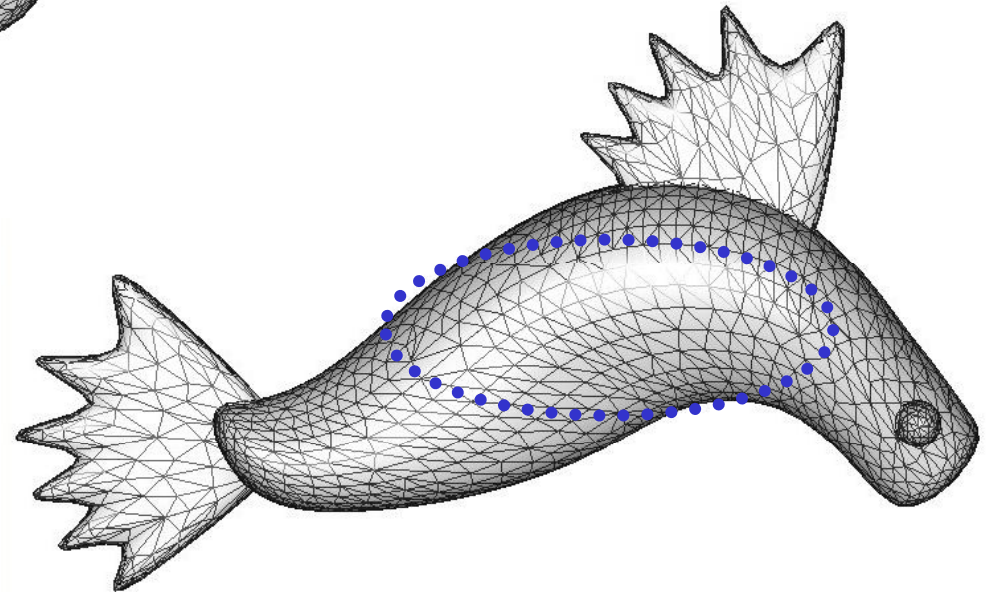


Results and Comparisons: 2/3

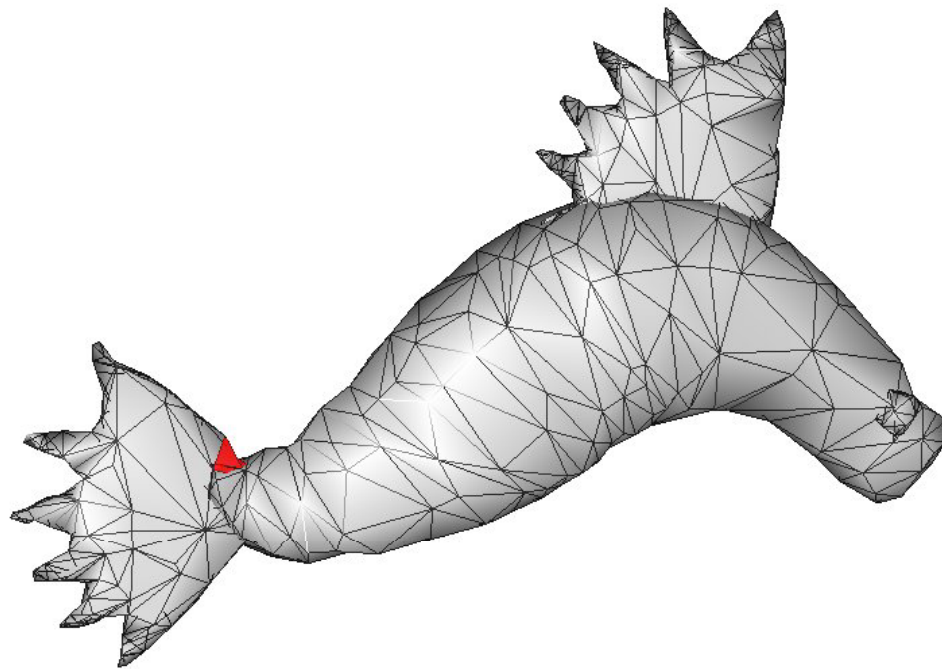


vertex decimation: $V=2570$

error metric: $V=2476$

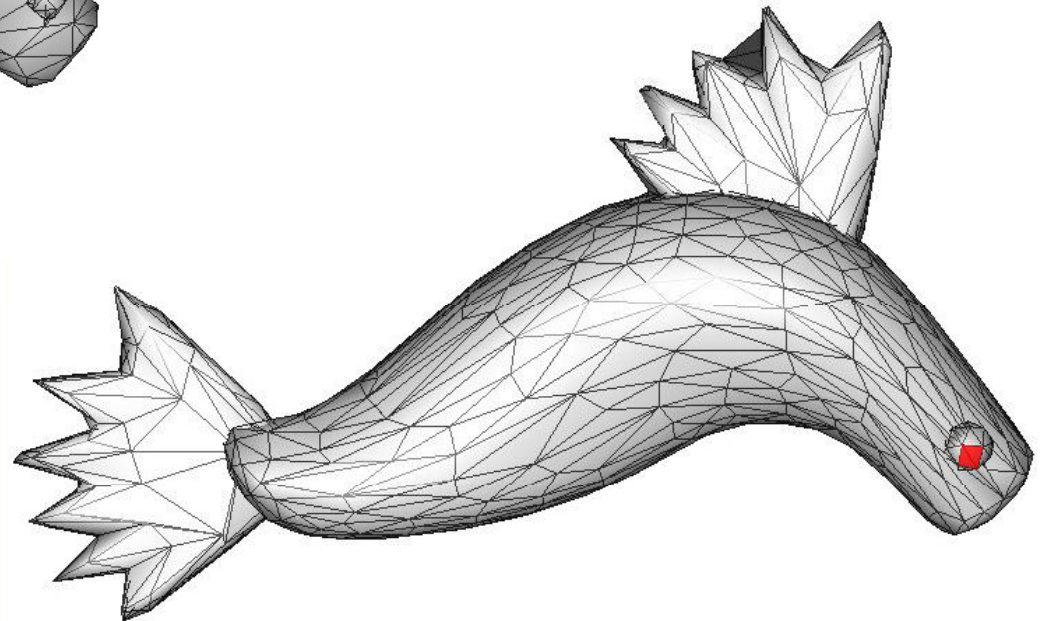


Results and Comparisons: 3/3

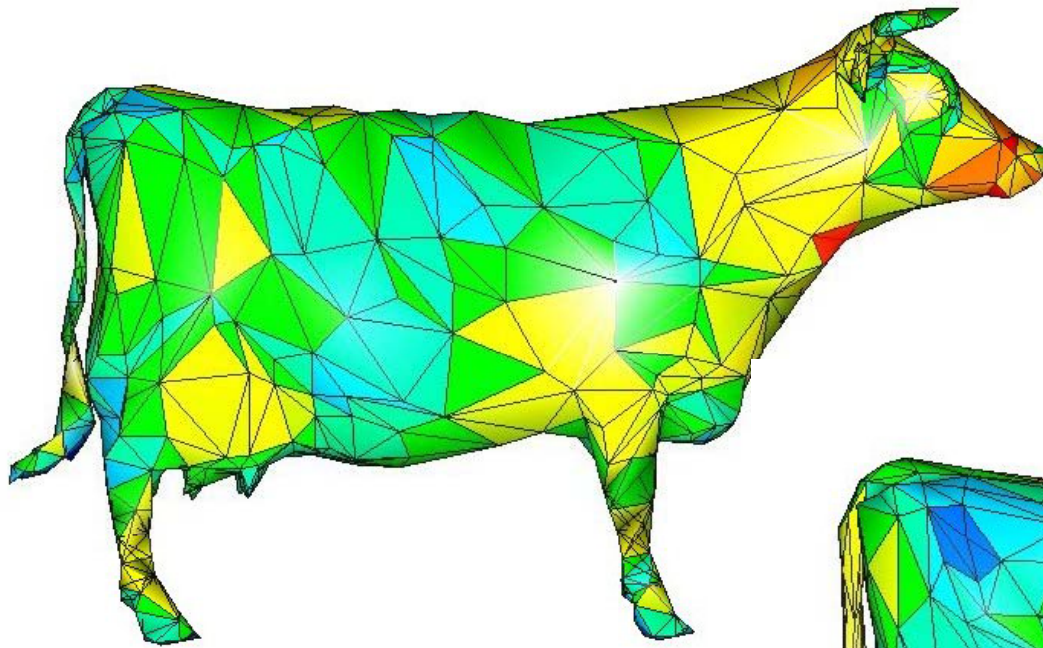


vertex decimation: $V=1538$

error metric: $V=599$

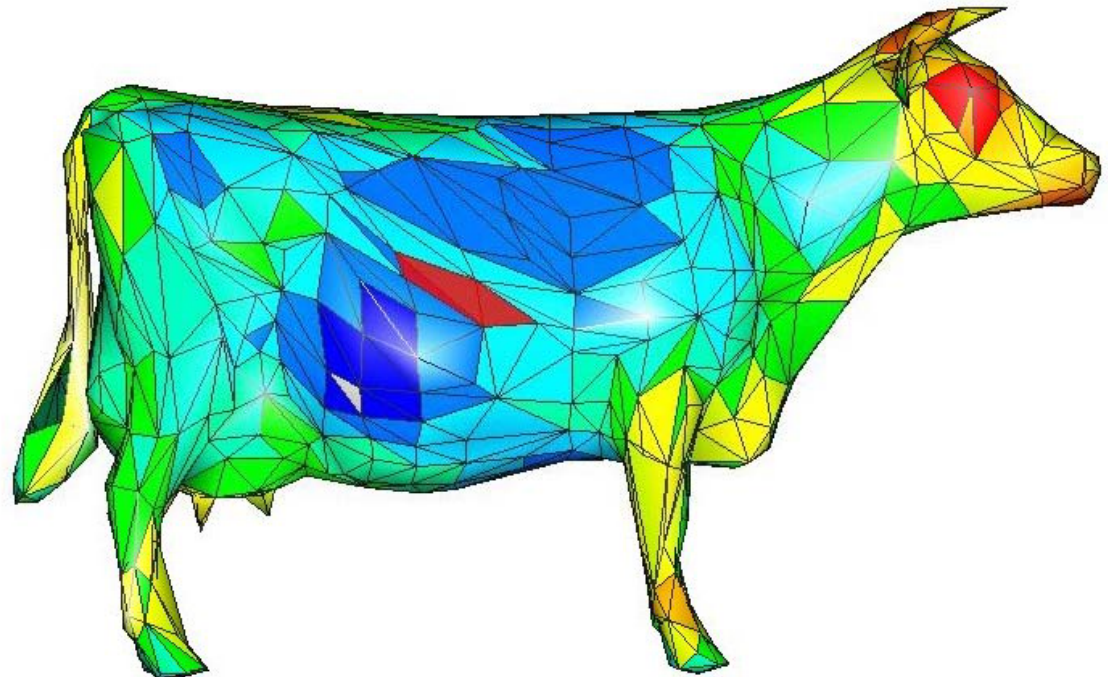


More Comparisons: 1/2



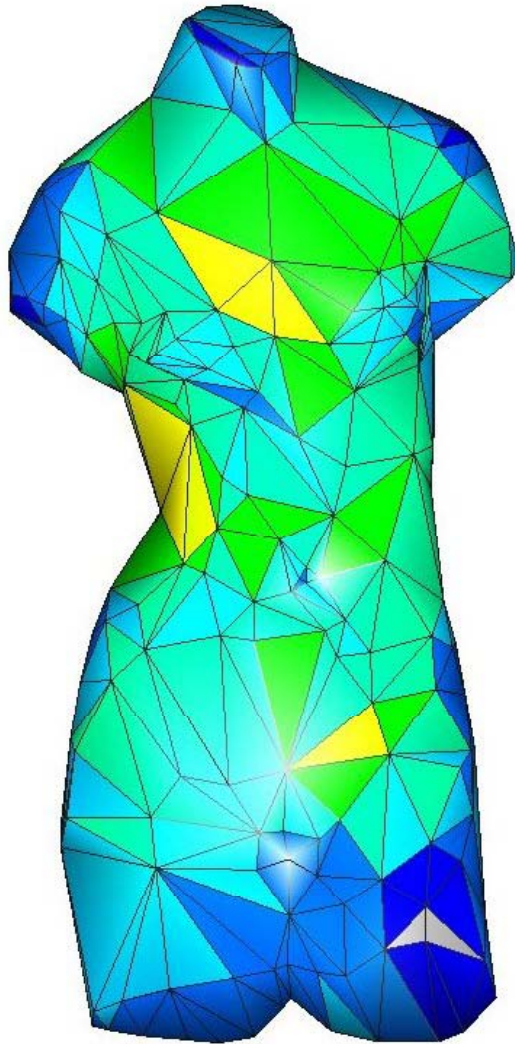
vertex decimation:
V=703,E=2106,F=1401

error metric:
V=703,E=2106,F=1398

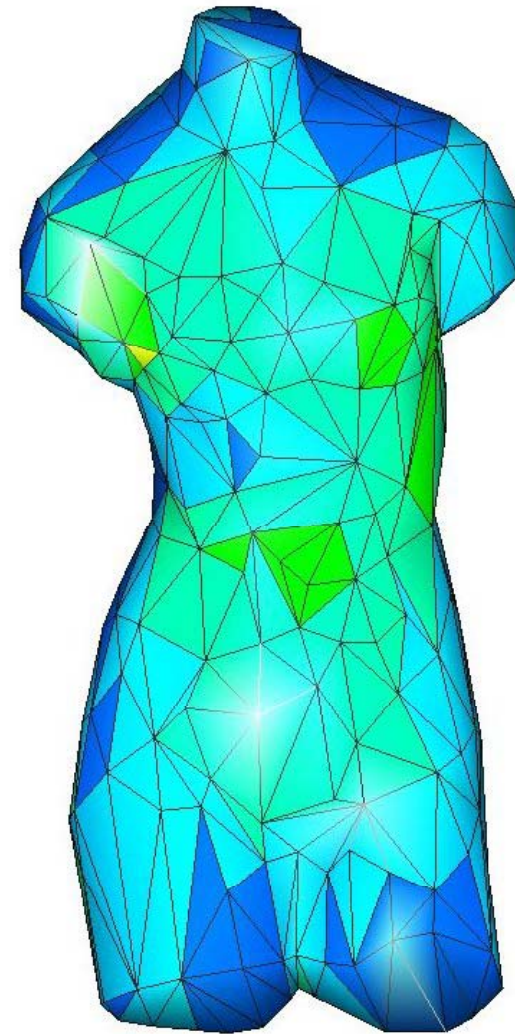


More Comparisons: 2/2

vertex decimation



error metric



V=311
E=927
F=618

The End