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Provably Good Sampling and Meshing of Surfaces

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Abstract

The notion of ε -sample, as introduced by Amenta and Bern, has proven to be a key concept in the theory of sampled surfaces. Of particular interest is the fact that, if E is an ε -sample of a smooth surface S for a sufficiently small ε , then the Delaunay triangulation of E restricted to S is a good approximation of S , both in a topological and in a geometric sense. Hence, if one can construct an ε -sample, one also gets a good approximation of the surface. Moreover, correct reconstruction is ensured by various algorithms.

In this paper, we introduce the notion of loose ε -sample. We show that the set of loose ε -samples contains and is asymptotically identical to the set of ε -samples. The main advantage of loose ε -samples over ε -samples is that they are easier to check and to construct. We also present a simple algorithm that constructs provably good surface samples and meshes. Given a smooth surface S without boundary, the algorithm generates a sparse ε -sample E and at the same time a triangulated surface $\text{Del}_S(E)$. The triangulated surface has the same topological type as S , is close to S for the Hausdorff distance and can provide good approximations of normals, areas and curvatures. A remarkable feature of the algorithm is that the surface needs only to be known through an oracle that, given a line segment, detects whether the segment intersects the surface and, in the affirmative, returns the intersection points. This makes the algorithm useful in a wide variety of contexts and for a large class of surfaces.

Categories and Subject Descriptors (according to ACM CCS): I.3.5 [Computer Graphics]: Curve, surface, solid, and object representations

1 Introduction

Meshing and reconstructing surfaces are two fundamental problems in geometry processing. In surface reconstruction, a finite set of points E on a surface S is given and one wants to compute a good approximation of S from E . This is of course only possible if E is a good sample of S in some sense. In surface mesh generation, the problem is somehow opposite. A surface S is known and we want to compute a triangulated surface that suitably approximates S . Clearly, the vertices of the triangulated surface have to sample correctly S . Hence, in both applications and also in many others, including the new arena of point set surfaces [1, 2], the notion of good sample is crucial.

The notion of ε -sample, as introduced by Amenta and Bern [3], has proven to be a key concept in the theory of sampled surfaces. Roughly, an ε -sample E of a surface S is a (non necessarily

uniform) point set that is sufficiently dense with respect to the *distance to the medial axis* of S – see section 2. Of particular interest is the fact that if E is an ε -sample of a smooth surface S for a sufficiently small ε , the Delaunay triangulation of E restricted to S , $\text{Del}_S(E)$, is a good approximation of S , both in a topological and in a geometric sense – see section 2 for more details. Hence, given an ε -sample of a surface, it is easy to get a good approximation of the surface.

This result (and variants of it) plays a central role in the analysis of all surface reconstruction algorithms that offer theoretical guarantees [8]. In particular, if E is an ε -sample of a smooth surface S for a sufficiently small ε , these algorithms can reconstruct a surface that has the same topology type as S and is close to S .

One drawback of the concept of ε -sample is the fact that it is difficult to check whether a sample is an ε -sample of a given surface, and even more difficult to construct a (preferably sparse) ε -sample of a given surface. This is due to the fact that a direct application of the definition of an ε -sample leads to complicated operations like cutting the surface with balls.

In this paper, we introduce the notion of loose ε -sample. The set of loose ε -samples contains and is asymptotically identical to the set of ε -samples. The main advantage of loose ε -samples over ε -samples is that they are easier to check and to construct. Indeed, checking that a sample is a loose ε -sample reduces to checking whether a finite number of spheres are small enough with respect to the distance from their centers to the medial axis of the surface.

We also present a construction algorithm which derives from Chew’s surface meshing algorithm [17]. Given a smooth surface S without boundary, the algorithm generates a sparse ε -sample E and at the same time a triangulated surface $\text{Del}_S(E)$. The triangulated surface has the same topological type as S , is close to S for the Hausdorff distance and can provide good approximations of normals, areas and curvatures. A remarkable feature of the algorithm is that the surface needs only to be known through an oracle that, given a line segment, detects whether the segment intersects the surface and, in the affirmative, returns the intersection points. This makes the algorithm useful in a wide variety of contexts and for a large class of surfaces.

The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we recall useful concepts and introduce the notion of loose ε -sample. In section 3, we present some local properties of loose ε -samples that are used in section 4 to establish our main results. We prove that, for sufficiently small ε , $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a 2-manifold without boundary that is ambient isotopic to S and whose Hausdorff distance to S is $O(\varepsilon^2)$. We also prove that S is covered by the so-called surface Delaunay balls, and that loose ε -samples are $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon)$ -samples. In section 5, we bound the size of loose ε -samples. As an application of our results, we present in section 6 our surface mesh generator. We describe the algorithm and its theoretical guarantees, we detail our implementation and we give some experimental results.

2 Definitions and preliminary observations

In the paper, S denotes a compact, orientable, twice-differentiable surface without boundary. S will be called a smooth closed surface for short. By $\vec{n}(p)$ we denote the surface normal at point $p \in S$, and by $T(p)$ the plane tangent to S at p .

Our analysis uses the fact that locally a smooth surface is the graph of a function. More precisely, given an orthonormal frame (O, x, y, z) of $\mathbb{R}^3$, a subset of $\mathbb{R}^3$ is said to be *xy-monotone* if it is the

graph of a function of the two variables x and y . A *terrain* is a surface that is xy -monotone in some frame (O, x, y, z) of $\mathbb{R}^3$. Similarly, given an orthonormal frame (O, x, y) of $\mathbb{R}^2$, a subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ is said to be x -monotone if it is the graph of a function of variable x .

2.1 Restricted Delaunay triangulation

In the paper, E denotes a finite point sample of S and $\text{Del}(E)$ the 3-dimensional Delaunay triangulation of E . By $\mathcal{V}(E)$ we denote the set of all edges of the Voronoi diagram of E .

We call Delaunay triangulation of E *restricted to S* , and we note $\text{Del}_S(E)$, the sub-complex of $\text{Del}(E)$ that consists of the facets of $\text{Del}(E)$ whose dual Voronoi edges intersect S . An edge or vertex of $\text{Del}(E)$ belongs to $\text{Del}_S(E)$ if it is incident to at least one facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Notice that we depart from the usual definition [17, 21] and do not consider vertices and edges with no incident facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. See figure 1 for an illustration.

A facet (resp. edge, vertex) of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is called a *restricted Delaunay facet* (resp. *restricted Delaunay edge*, *restricted Delaunay vertex*). For a restricted Delaunay facet f , we call *surface Delaunay ball* of f any ball circumscribing f centered at some point of $S \cap f^*$, where f^* is the Voronoi edge dual to f . We call *surface Delaunay patch* the intersection of a surface Delaunay ball with S . Notice that the centers of the surface Delaunay balls are precisely the intersection points of S and $\mathcal{V}(E)$.

2.2 ε -samples and loose ε -samples

The *medial axis* of S , denoted by M , is the topological closure of the set of points of $\mathbb{R}^3$ that have more than one nearest neighbour in S .

For a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we call *distance to the medial axis* at x , and write $d_M(x)$, the Euclidean distance from x to the medial axis of S .

As noticed by Amenta and Bern [3], d_M is 1-Lipschitz, i.e. $|d_M(x) - d_M(y)| \leq \|x - y\|$.

We define $d_M^{\inf} = \inf \{d_M(x), x \in S\}$ and $d_M^{\sup} = \sup \{d_M(x), x \in S\}$. Since S is a smooth closed surface, both $d_M^{\inf}$ and $d_M^{\sup}$ are finite and positive constants.

We borrow from Amenta and Bern [3] the notion of ε -sample, defined below. In the whole paper, $B(c, r)$ denotes the ball of center c and radius r .

Definition 2.1 *E is an ε -sample of S if $\forall x \in S, E \cap B(x, \varepsilon d_M(x)) \neq \emptyset$.*

For sufficiently small values of ε , ε -samples enjoy many beautiful properties. We recall the most important ones in our context.

- *Normals*: the angle between the normal to a facet f of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and the normal to S at the vertices of f is $O(\varepsilon)$ [3].
- *Area*: the area of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ approximates the area of S [26].

- *Curvatures*: the curvature tensor of S can be estimated from $\text{Del}_S(E)$ [18].
- *Homeomorphism*: $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is homeomorphic to S [3].
- *Hausdorff distance*: the Hausdorff distance between S and $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is $O(\varepsilon)$ [10]. In this paper, we give an $O(\varepsilon^2)$ bound (theorem 4.7).
- *Reconstruction*: several algorithms can reconstruct from E a surface that is homeomorphic [3, 4, 8, 19] or even ambient isotopic [5] to S .

We will show that these properties hold for loose ε -samples as well.

Definition 2.2 *E is a loose ε -sample of S if the two following conditions are verified:*

1. $\forall x \in S \cap \mathcal{V}(E), E \cap B(x, \varepsilon d_M(x)) \neq \emptyset$
2. $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has vertices on all the connected components of S

Since the centers of the surface Delaunay balls are precisely the intersection points of S with the Voronoi edges, condition 1. of definition 2.2 is verified if and only if every surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ has a radius of at most $\varepsilon d_M(c)$.

Observe that condition 1. alone is not sufficient to control the density of E . Indeed, according to our definition of the restricted Delaunay triangulation, a point of E is a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ only if at least one edge of the boundary of its Voronoi cell intersects S . It follows that some of the points of E may not be vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. In some situations (see figure 1 for an example), $\text{Del}_S(E)$ may even be empty, in which case condition 1. is trivially verified for any value of ε .

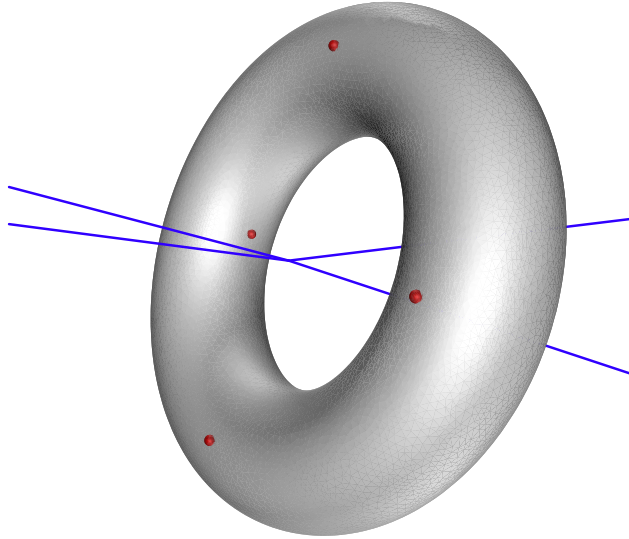


Figure 1: A case when $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is empty: the four points of E (in red) are placed on a torus, such that the Voronoi edges (in blue) pass through the hole.

ε -samples and loose ε -samples are closely related but not identical concepts. The next lemma follows from definitions 2.1 and 2.2, and from theorem 2 of [3].

Lemma 2.3 *If E is an ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < 0.1$, then it is also a loose ε -sample of S .*

Proof Clearly, condition 1. of definition 2.2 is automatically verified when E is an ε -sample of S . To show that condition 2. is also verified, we use theorem 2 of [3], which states that, when $\varepsilon < 0.1$, every k -face of $\text{Vor}(E)$ either does not intersect S or intersects S along a $(k - 1)$ -topological ball. Hence, the Voronoi cell p^* of any point $p \in E$ intersects S along a topological disk whose boundary lies in the boundary of p^* since S has no boundary. Moreover, the boundary of $S \cap p^*$ cannot lie inside a single facet of the boundary of p^* , since otherwise this facet would intersect S along a topological circle, and not along a topological arc. It follows that one edge at least of the boundary of p^* intersects S , which means that p is a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Moreover, since $\varepsilon < 1$, E has some points on all the connected components of S . Condition 2. of definition 2.2 is therefore fulfilled. $\square$

The converse is true asymptotically, as we will see in section 4.3 (corollary 4.12).

2.3 Other notations

The following constants are used in the paper:

- ε_0 is the only positive root of equation $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} - \frac{\pi}{4} = 0$. $\varepsilon_0 \approx 0.091$.
- ε_1 is the only positive root of equation $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-7\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon} - \frac{\pi}{4} = 0$. $\varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$.
- $\varepsilon_2 = \frac{\pi}{4+9\pi} \approx 0.097$.
- ε_3 is the only positive root of equation $\frac{\varepsilon}{1-5\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon} - \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$. $\varepsilon_3 \approx 0.17$.
- ε_4 is the only positive root of equation $\frac{\varepsilon}{1-4\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} - \frac{\pi}{4} = 0$. $\varepsilon_4 \approx 0.17$.
- ε_5 is the only positive root of $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5\varepsilon) - 0.1 = 0$. $\varepsilon_5 \approx 0.065$.

We also use the notation $(\vec{u}, \vec{v})$ to denote the modulus of the angle (measured in $[-\pi, \pi]$) between vectors $\vec{u}$ and $\vec{v}$ of $\mathbb{R}^3$, and $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$ to denote their dot-product.

3 Local properties of loose ε -samples

In this section, we prove that surface Delaunay balls of sufficiently small radii keep important properties of planar disks. In particular, we show that they intersect S along topological disks whose boundaries pairwise intersect in at most two points (proposition 3.9).

3.1 Technical lemmas

In this paragraph, we recall several lemmas by Amenta and Bern [3] that will be useful in the remainder of the paper.

Lemma 3.1 *Let f be a facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Assume that some surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ of f is such that $r \leq \rho d_M(c)$, with $\rho < \frac{1}{7}$. Let a be a vertex of f . If a has an inner angle of at least $\pi/3$, then the smaller angle between the line normal to f and the normal to S at a is at most $\arcsin \frac{\rho\sqrt{3}}{1-\rho}$.*

Otherwise, the smaller angle between the line normal to f and the normal to S at a is at most $\frac{2\rho}{1-7\rho} + \arcsin \frac{\rho\sqrt{3}}{1-\rho}$.

Proof By assumption, the radius of $B(c, r)$ is $r \leq \rho d_M(c)$, which is at most $\rho (d_M(a) + \|c - a\|)$ since d_M is 1-Lipschitz. Since $B(c, r)$ circumscribes f , we have $\|c - a\| = r$. Thus, $r \leq \frac{\rho}{1-\rho} d_M(a)$. It follows that the proof of lemma 7 of Amenta and Bern [3] holds here. $\square$

Lemma 3.2 For any two points p and q on S with $\|p - q\| \leq \rho d_M(p)$, the smaller angle between the line segment pq and the surface normal at p is at least $\frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \frac{\rho}{2}$.

Lemma 3.3 For any two points p and q on S with $\|p - q\| \leq \rho \min \{d_M(p), d_M(q)\}$, for any $\rho < \frac{1}{3}$, the modulus of the angle between the normals to S at p and at q is at most $\frac{\rho}{1-3\rho}$.

We will need the two following corollaries of the above lemmas.

Lemma 3.4 Let c and c' be two points of S such that $\|c - c'\| \leq \varepsilon (d_M(c) + d_M(c'))$, where $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{8}$. There exists a vector $\vec{v}$ orthogonal to $\vec{cc'}$, such that the angle between $\vec{v}$ and the normal to S at any point of $S \cap B(c, 2\varepsilon d_M(c))$ is at most $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon}$. Hence, if $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$, this angle is at most $\frac{\pi}{4}$.

Proof Let $B^+ = B(c, 2\varepsilon d_M(c))$. We have

$$\forall x \in B^+ \cap S, \|x - c\| \leq 2\varepsilon d_M(c) \quad (1)$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in B^+ \cap S, d_M(x) &\geq d_M(c) - \|x - c\| \\ &\geq (1 - 2\varepsilon) d_M(c) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

(1) and (2) give

$$\forall x \in B^+ \cap S, \|x - c\| \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-2\varepsilon} \min \{d_M(c), d_M(x)\}$$

which implies, according to lemma 3.3,

$$\forall x \in B^+ \cap S, (\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(c)) \leq \frac{2\varepsilon/(1-2\varepsilon)}{1-6\varepsilon/(1-2\varepsilon)} = \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon}$$

We have $\|c - c'\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c) + \varepsilon d_M(c') \leq 2\varepsilon d_M(c) + \varepsilon \|c - c'\|$, hence $\|c - c'\| \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(c)$. Thus, lemma 3.2 tells that

$$\min \{(\vec{cc'}, \vec{n}(c)), (\vec{c'c}, \vec{n}(c))\} \geq \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} \quad (3)$$

Inside plane $(c, \vec{cc'}, \vec{n}(c))$, let $\vec{v}$ be the unitary vector that is orthogonal to $\vec{cc'}$ and has a positive scalar product with $\vec{n}(c)$. According to (3) we have $(\vec{n}(c), \vec{v}) \leq \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in S \cap B^+, (\vec{n}(x), \vec{v}) &\leq (\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(c)) + (\vec{n}(c), \vec{v}) \\ &\leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 3.5 *Let f and f' be two facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ that have a common vertex v . If f and f' both have a surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ of radius $r < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c)$, then their orthogonal projections onto $T(v)$ do not overlap, i.e. their interiors do not intersect.*

Proof Let $B = B(c, r)$ be a surface Delaunay ball of f and $B' = B(c', r')$ a surface Delaunay ball of f' , such that $r < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c)$ and $r' < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c')$. Since f and f' have a common vertex, ∂B and $\partial B'$ have a non-empty intersection. Let P be the bisector plane of B and B' . It contains $\partial B \cap \partial B'$, hence it contains v . Let u and w be the other vertices of f and let u' and w' be the other vertices of f' . On one side of P , B is included in the interior of B' , whereas on the other side of P , B' is included in the interior of B . Thus, u and w lie on the same side of P , whereas u' and w' lie on the other side. It follows that f and f' lie on different sides of P .

Since $r < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c)$ and $r' < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c')$, we have $\|c - c'\| \leq r + r' < \varepsilon_1 (d_M(c) + d_M(c')) \leq \varepsilon_1 (2 d_M(c) + \|c - c'\|)$, which implies $\|c - c'\| < \frac{2\varepsilon_1}{1-\varepsilon_1} d_M(c)$. Hence, by lemma 3.2, we have

$$\min \{(\vec{cc'}, \vec{n}(c)), (\vec{c'c}, \vec{n}(c))\} > \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-\varepsilon_1}$$

Moreover, since $\|c - v\| < \varepsilon_1 d_M(c) < \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-\varepsilon_1} d_M(v)$, $(\vec{n}(c), \vec{n}(v))$ is less than $\frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-4\varepsilon_1}$ by lemma 3.3. It follows that $\min \{(\vec{cc'}, \vec{n}(v)), (\vec{c'c}, \vec{n}(v))\} > \frac{\pi}{2} - \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-\varepsilon_1} - \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-4\varepsilon_1}$. And since P is orthogonal to line (cc') , we get $(\vec{n}(v), P) < \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-\varepsilon_1} + \frac{\varepsilon_1}{1-4\varepsilon_1}$, which is less than $\frac{\pi}{4}$ since $\varepsilon_1 < \varepsilon_4$.

We define $\vec{n}_f$ and $\vec{n}_{f'}$ as the unit vectors normal to f and f' oriented so that $\vec{n}_f \cdot \vec{n}(v) \geq 0$ and $\vec{n}_{f'} \cdot \vec{n}(v) \geq 0$. By lemma 3.1, $(\vec{n}_f, \vec{n}(v))$ and $(\vec{n}_{f'}, \vec{n}(v))$ are at most $\frac{2\varepsilon_1}{1-7\varepsilon_1} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon_1\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon_1}$, which is less than $\frac{\pi}{4}$.

By proj we denote the orthogonal projection onto plane $T(v)$. Since $(\vec{n}_f, \vec{n}(v)) < \frac{\pi}{4}$ and $(\vec{n}(v), P) < \frac{\pi}{4}$, $\text{proj}(f)$ lies on the same side of P as f . Similarly, f' and $\text{proj}(f')$ lie on the same side of P . Thus, $\text{proj}(f)$ and $\text{proj}(f')$ lie on different sides of P . Since P is not parallel to $T(v)$, $\text{proj}(f)$ and $\text{proj}(f')$ do not overlap. □

3.2 Topological disks and terrains

Lemma 3.6 ([7]) *Let B be a ball that intersects S . If the intersection is not a topological disk, then B contains a point of the medial axis of S . As a consequence, if E is a loose ε -sample, with $\varepsilon < 1$, then surface Delaunay patches are topological disks.*

Lemma 3.7 *If E is a loose ε -sample, with $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_2$, then, for every surface Delaunay ball $B = B(c, r)$, for any point $x \in S \cap B$, $S \cap B(x, 2r)$ is a topological disk and a terrain over $T(x)$.*

Proof Since E is a loose ε -sample, we have $r \leq \varepsilon d_M(c) \leq \varepsilon(d_M(x) + \|x - c\|) \leq \varepsilon(d_M(x) + r)$, that is, $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(x)$. Thus, $2r < d_M(x)$ since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_2 < \frac{1}{3}$. According to lemma 3.6, $S \cap B(x, 2r)$ is thus a topological disk.

In addition, since $r \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(x)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \forall y \in B(x, 2r), \|y - x\| &\leq 2r \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(x) \\ &\leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} (d_M(y) + \|y - x\|) \end{aligned}$$

which implies that $\|y - x\| \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-3\varepsilon} d_M(y)$. It follows that $\|y - x\| \leq \rho \min\{d_M(y), d_M(x)\}$, with $\rho = \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-3\varepsilon}$. Thus, according to lemma 3.3,

$$\forall y \in B(x, 2r), (\vec{n}(y), \vec{n}(x)) \leq \frac{\rho}{1-3\rho} = \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-9\varepsilon}$$

Since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \varepsilon_2$, we have $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-9\varepsilon} < \frac{\pi}{2}$, hence $S \cap B(x, 2r)$ is a terrain by lemma 9.4. $\square$

3.3 Pseudo-disks

Definition 3.8 *Topological disks are pseudo-disks if they pairwise intersect along topological disks (that may be empty or reduced to a point) and if their boundaries pairwise intersect in at most two points.*

Observe that the boundaries of two pseudo-disks either do not intersect, or intersect in one point tangentially, or intersect in two points transversally.

Proposition 3.9 *If E is a loose ε -sample, with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$, then surface Delaunay patches are pseudo-disks.*

Proof Let $B = B(c, r)$ and $B' = B(c', r')$ be two surface Delaunay balls. According to lemma 3.6, $D = B \cap S$ and $D' = B' \cap S$ are topological disks, since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < 1$. Their boundaries C and C' are topological circles. Let us assume that balls B and B' intersect, the other case being trivial. Notice that none of them can be contained in the other one, since they are Delaunay balls. Thus, their bounding spheres ∂B and $\partial B'$ also intersect. Let Γ be the circle $\partial B \cap \partial B'$, ρ its radius ($\rho < \min\{r, r'\}$) and P its supporting plane. We define $\Delta = B \cap P$ and notice that $\Gamma = \partial\Delta$. Since S is a closed surface, we have $C \subset \partial B$ and $C' \subset \partial B'$, which implies that

$$C \cap C' \subseteq S \cap \Gamma \tag{4}$$

Let $B^+ = B(c, 2r)$. Since $\|c - c'\| \leq r + r' \leq \varepsilon d_M(c) + \varepsilon d_M(c')$, where $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$, by lemma 3.4 there exists a vector $\vec{v}$ orthogonal to $\overrightarrow{cc'}$ such that

$$\forall x \in S \cap B^+, (\vec{n}(x), \vec{v}) \leq \frac{\pi}{4} \tag{5}$$

Let us choose in $\mathbb{R}^3$ a reference frame of origin c , of y -axis directed along $\overrightarrow{c'c}$, and of z -axis directed along $\vec{v}$. We call L_l and L_r the two lines of P , parallel to the z -axis, that are tangent to Γ . The region of P bounded by L_l and L_r is called G (see figure 2). In the following, ξ denotes $S \cap B^+ \cap G$.

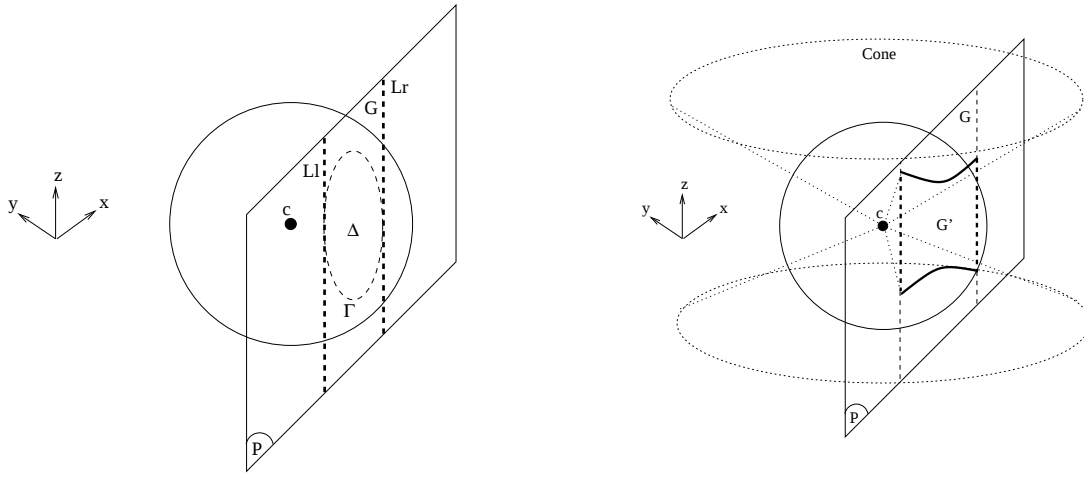


Figure 2: Definitions of G and G'

Lemma 3.10 ξ is a connected x -monotone arc.

Proof According to (5), we have $\forall x \in S \cap B^+, (\vec{n}(x), \vec{v}) \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$. Thus, by lemma 9.4, $B^+ \cap S$ is xy -monotone, which implies that ξ is x -monotone. Moreover, according to lemma 9.5, $B^+ \cap S$ lies outside the cone of apex $c \in S$, of vertical axis and of half-angle $\frac{\pi}{4}$. The equation of the cone in our frame is $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$. It intersects P along two hyperbolic arcs of equations $z = \pm\sqrt{x^2 + d^2}$, where $d \leq r$ is the distance from c to P . Consider the subregion G' of G that is bounded vertically by the two hyperbolic arcs (see figure 2). Since $S \cap B^+$ lies outside the cone, ξ is included in G' .

The points of G' that are farthest from c are the points $(\pm\rho, -d, \pm\sqrt{\rho^2 + d^2})$. Their distance to c is

$$\sqrt{2(\rho^2 + d^2)} < 2r$$

In other words, $G' \subset \text{int}(B^+)$. It follows that ξ is included in $\text{int}(B^+)$ and cannot intersect ∂B^+ . Its endpoints must then lie on the vertical lines L_r and L_l . But there can be only one endpoint per vertical line, since ξ is x -monotone. Hence, ξ has at most two endpoints and is thus connected. $\square$

Lemma 3.11 $|S \cap \Gamma| \leq 2$.

Proof Let us assume for a contradiction that $|S \cap \Gamma| > 2$. First, we show that there exists a point where the curvature of ξ is high and hence the distance to the medial axis M is small. Then we work out a contradiction with the fact that E is a loose ε -sample, with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$.

Claim 3.11.1 *There exists a point q at which the curvature of ξ is at least $\frac{1}{\rho}$.*

Proof We made the assumption that $|S \cap \Gamma| > 2$. Since $\Gamma \subset G$ and $\Gamma \subset B^+$, ξ also intersects Γ more than twice. And since ξ is connected by lemma 3.10, there is a subarc ab of ξ that lies outside Δ and whose endpoints a and b lie on Γ . This subarc may be reduced to a point ($a = b$), since ξ may be tangent to Γ . But in this case, in the vicinity of a , ξ is locally included in Δ and tangent

to Γ at a . Thus, its curvature at a is at least $\frac{1}{\rho}$, which proves the claim with $q = a$. So now we assume that arc ab of ξ is not reduced to a point. Since ξ is x -monotone by lemma 3.10, a and b lie on the same half of Γ , upper half or lower half (say upper half). Thus, the smaller arc of Γ that joins a and b is also x -monotone. Then, by lemma 9.3, there is a point q of arc ab of ξ at which the curvature of ξ is at least $\frac{1}{\rho}$, which proves the claim. $\square$

Claim 3.11.2 $d_M(q) \leq \rho\sqrt{2}$.

Proof Let $\vec{n}_\xi(q)$ be the normal to planar curve ξ at point q . By (5), $\vec{n}(q)$ is not orthogonal to P , thus $\vec{n}_\xi(q)$ is oriented along the projection of $\vec{n}(q)$ onto P . Hence, by lemma 9.2, we have $(\vec{n}(q), \vec{n}_\xi(q)) \leq (\vec{n}(q), \vec{v})$ which is at most $\frac{\pi}{4}$ by (5). According to theorem 9.1, we then have at q

$$\mathbb{I}(\xi', \xi') \geq \cos \frac{\pi}{4} \|\xi''\|$$

ξ' is the unit tangent vector of ξ at q and $\|\xi''\|$ is the curvature of ξ at q , which is more than $\frac{1}{\rho}$ according to claim 3.11.1. So, at q we have

$$\mathbb{I}(\xi', \xi') \geq \frac{1}{\rho\sqrt{2}} \quad (6)$$

Recall that $\mathbb{I}$ is a symmetric bilinear form, thus it can be diagonalized in an orthonormal frame, and its eigenvalues are the minimum and maximum curvatures of S at q . Let us call these values $\kappa_{\min}(q)$ and $\kappa_{\max}(q)$ respectively. Since ξ' is a unit vector, we have $\mathbb{I}(\xi', \xi') \leq \max\{|\kappa_{\min}(q)|, |\kappa_{\max}(q)|\}$. It follows, according to (6), that $\max\{|\kappa_{\min}(q)|, |\kappa_{\max}(q)|\} \geq \frac{1}{\rho\sqrt{2}}$, or, equivalently, that the minimal radius of curvature of S at q is at most $\rho\sqrt{2}$. The result follows. $\square$

The end of the proof of the lemma is immediate. We have

$$\begin{aligned} d_M(c) &\leq d_M(q) + \|c - q\| \\ &\leq \rho\sqrt{2} + 2r \\ &\leq r(\sqrt{2} + 2) \end{aligned}$$

So, the radius of ball B is at least $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}+2} d_M(c)$, which contradicts the assumption that E is a loose ε -sample, with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}+2}$. $\square$

From lemma 3.11, it immediately follows that $|C \cap C'| \leq 2$, by (4).

Lemma 3.12 $S \cap \Delta$ is not reduced to two points.

Proof Let us assume that S intersects Δ in two points exactly, say a and b . Then, the subarc of ξ that joins points a and b lies outside Δ . It follows, by the same reasoning as in the proof of claim 3.11.1, that there exists some point q of ξ at which the curvature of ξ is at least $\frac{1}{\rho}$. It follows by claim 3.11.2 that $d_M(q) \leq \rho\sqrt{2}$, which leads to a contradiction, as in the end of the proof of lemma 3.11. $\square$

It follows from the above lemmas that D and D' intersect along a topological disk. The result is clear if $D \subseteq D'$ or if $D' \subseteq D$. Otherwise, we have $|C \cap C'| \leq 2$, by lemma 3.11. If $|C \cap C'| = 0$, then $D \cap D'$ is empty. If $|C \cap C'| = 1$, then $D \cap D'$ is reduced to a point. If $|C \cap C'| = 2$, then $D \cap D'$ is either a topological disk or equal to $C \cap C'$. But if $D \cap D' = C \cap C'$, then $S \cap \Delta = C \cap C'$ since $C \cap C' \subseteq S \cap \Delta \subseteq D \cap D'$. This contradicts lemma 3.12. Hence, $D \cap D'$ is not equal to $C \cap C'$ and is therefore a topological disk. This ends the proof of proposition 3.9. $\square$

4 Global properties of loose ε -samples

In this section, E is a loose ε -sample of S . We prove that, for a sufficient small value of ε , $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a manifold without boundary (theorem 4.4), ambient isotopic to S (corollary 4.6), at Hausdorff distance $O(\varepsilon^2)$ from S (theorem 4.7). From the latter we deduce that E is an $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon)$ -sample of S (corollary 4.12). We also prove that the surface Delaunay balls cover S (theorem 4.14).

4.1 Manifold

Here, we assume that $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. We first prove that every edge of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is incident to exactly two facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. We then prove that every vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has only one *umbrella*. An umbrella of a vertex v is a subset of facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ incident to v whose adjacency graph is a cycle.

Lemma 4.1 *The dual of a facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ intersects S only once, and transversally.*

Proof Let f be a facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, and f^* its dual Voronoi edge. We denote by a the vertex of f that has the largest inner angle. We have $\hat{a} \geq \frac{\pi}{3}$, and since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \frac{1}{7}$, lemma 3.1 says that

$$(\vec{n}(a), \vec{n}_f) \leq \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon} \quad (7)$$

where $\vec{n}_f$ denotes the unitary vector orthogonal to f that makes the smaller angle with $\vec{n}(a)$. Let B_a be the ball $B(a, \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(a))$. For any surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ that circumscribes f , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|c - a\| &= r \leq \varepsilon d_M(c) \\ &\leq \varepsilon (d_M(a) + \|c - a\|) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\|c - a\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(a)$. In other words, every center of surface Delaunay ball of f lies in B_a . In addition, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in B_a \cap S, \|x - a\| &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(a) \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} (d_M(x) + \|x - a\|) \end{aligned}$$

which implies $\|x - a\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-2\varepsilon} d_M(x)$. According to lemma 3.3, we then have $\forall x \in B_a \cap S$,

$$(\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(a)) \leq \frac{\varepsilon/(1-2\varepsilon)}{1-3\varepsilon/(1-2\varepsilon)} = \frac{\varepsilon}{1-5\varepsilon} \quad (8)$$

(7) and (8) give

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \in B_a \cap S, \quad (\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}_f) &\leq (\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(a)) + (\vec{n}(a), \vec{n}_f) \\ &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\delta\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon} \end{aligned}$$

which is less than $\frac{\pi}{2}$ since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \varepsilon_3$. Thus, by lemma 9.4, $B_a \cap S$ is a terrain over the plane Π_f that supports f . Since f^* is orthogonal to Π_f , it cannot intersect $B_a \cap S$ more than once, nor tangentially. And since every center of surface Delaunay ball of f lies in B_a , f^* cannot intersect S more than once, nor tangentially. $\square$

For a restricted Delaunay facet f , we denote by $B_f = (c_f, r_f)$ the corresponding surface Delaunay ball. The surface Delaunay patch of f , $S \cap B_f$, is denoted by D_f . We define $C_f = \partial D_f$.

From lemmas 3.5 and 4.1, we deduce the following result.

Proposition 4.2 *Every edge of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is incident to exactly two facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$.*

Proof Let e be an edge of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. We denote by e^* the Voronoi face dual to e . Since S has no boundary, $S \cap \text{aff}(e^*)$ is a union of simple closed curves, none of which intersects the boundary ∂e^* of e^* tangentially, by lemma 4.1. Thus, by the Jordan curve theorem, each component of $S \cap \text{aff}(e^*)$ intersects ∂e^* at an even number of points. It follows that S intersects ∂e^* at an even number of points. Moreover, by lemma 4.1, each edge of ∂e^* can be intersected at most once by S . Thus, S intersects an even number of edges of ∂e^* , and e is incident to an even number of restricted Delaunay facets.

In addition, e cannot be incident to more than two restricted Delaunay facets. Indeed, by lemma 3.5, the projections onto $T(v)$ (where v is a vertex of e) of the restricted Delaunay facets incident to e pairwise do not overlap, thus they must lie on different sides of the line supporting the projection of e .

In conclusion, the number of facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ incident to e is even, at least 1 and at most 2. The result follows. $\square$

It follows from the above proposition that the restricted Delaunay facets incident to a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ form a set of umbrellas.

Proposition 4.3 *Every vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has exactly one umbrella.*

Proof Let v be a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Let $F(v)$ be one of the umbrellas formed by the facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ incident to v .

Claim 4.3.1 *In projection onto $T(v)$, v belongs to the interior of $F(v)$.*

Proof Let us assume the contrary. Then there exists an edge (u, v) that belongs to the boundary of $F(v)$ in projection onto $T(v)$. By proposition 4.2, (u, v) is incident to two facets of $F(v)$, say (u, v, w) and (u, v, w') . Since (u, v) is an edge of the boundary of $F(v)$ (in projection), (u, v, w)

and (u, v, w') project themselves onto the same side of (u, v) , thus they overlap, which contradicts lemma 3.5. $\square$

The above claim implies that every other facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ incident to v overlaps some facet of $F(v)$, in projection onto $T(v)$, which contradicts lemma 3.5. The result follows. $\square$

The next theorem follows from propositions 4.2 and 4.3.

Theorem 4.4 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S . If $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$, then $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a 2-manifold without boundary.*

Since $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a closed 2-manifold embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, we can orient the normals of its facets consistently. For instance, they can be chosen so as to point to the unbounded component of $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus \text{Del}_S(E)$.

4.2 Homeomorphism and ambient isotopy

Let $\pi : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow S$ map each point of $\mathbb{R}^3$ to the closest point of S . In [4], the authors have shown that the restriction of π to a 2-simplicial complex W whose vertices lie on S is a homeomorphism between W and S , provided that:

H0 W is a manifold without boundary.

H1 W has vertices on all the connected components of S .

H2 The angle between the oriented normals of two facets of W sharing a vertex is lower than $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

H3 (SMALL TRIANGLE CONDITION) every facet f of W has a surface Delaunay ball of radius at most $0.113 \min\{d_M(v), v \text{ vertex of } f\}$.

H4 (FLAT TRIANGLE CONDITION) for every facet f of W , the line normal to f makes an angle of at most 0.375 radians with $\vec{n}(v)$, where v is the vertex of f of largest inner angle.

We will show that assertions H0 through H4 are verified by $W = \text{Del}_S(E)$, provided that $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. H0 has already been stated for $\text{Del}_S(E)$ in theorem 4.4. H1 is guaranteed by condition 2. of definition 2.2.

Proof of H2

Let v be a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and let $F(v)$ be the umbrella of v . By lemma 3.1, the smaller angle between $\vec{n}(v)$ and the line normal to any facet of $F(v)$ is at most $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-7\varepsilon} + \arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon}$, which is less than $\frac{\pi}{4}$ since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. It follows that the angle between $\vec{n}(v)$ and the oriented normal of the facet is either lower than $\frac{\pi}{4}$ or greater than $\frac{3\pi}{4}$. Moreover, the facets of $F(v)$ pairwise do not overlap in projection onto $T(v)$, by lemma 3.5, thus $F(v)$ is a terrain over $T(v)$. Therefore, the angles between $\vec{n}(v)$ and the oriented normals of the facets of $F(v)$ are all lower than $\frac{\pi}{4}$, or they are all greater than $\frac{3\pi}{4}$. It follows that the angle between the oriented normals of any two facets of $F(v)$ is lower than $\frac{\pi}{2}$. $\square$

Proof of H3

Since E is a loose ε -sample, every facet f of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has a surface Delaunay ball $B_f = B(c_f, r_f)$ of radius $r_f \leq \varepsilon d_M(c_f)$. Let v be any vertex of f . We have $d_M(c_f) \leq d_M(v) + \|v - c_f\| \leq d_M(v) + r_f$, thus $r_f \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(v)$, which is less than $0.113 d_M(v)$ since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. $\square$

Proof of H4

Let $f \in \text{Del}_S(E)$ and let v be the vertex of f of largest inner angle. By lemma 3.1, $\vec{n}(v)$ and the line normal to f make an angle of at most $\arcsin \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{3}}{1-\varepsilon}$, which is less than 0.375 radians since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$. $\square$

The following result is then a direct consequence of theorem 19 of [4].

Theorem 4.5 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$. The restriction of the mapping π to $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a homeomorphism between $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and S .*

Corollary 4.6 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$. $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and S are ambient isotopic.*

Proof Since the SMALL TRIANGLE CONDITION is verified by the facets of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, lemma 12 of [4] tells that $\forall x \in \text{Del}_S(E)$, $\|x - \pi(x)\| < 0.165 d_M(\pi(x))$. Moreover, according to theorem 4.5, π is a homeomorphism between $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and S . Thus, by theorem 9 of [5], $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and S are ambient isotopic. $\square$

4.3 Hausdorff distance

Theorem 4.7 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$. The Hausdorff distance between S and $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is at most $4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M^{\text{sup}}$.*

The idea is to bound the distance from $\text{Del}_S(E)$ to S , and then to use the surjectivity of π to prove that the bound also holds for the distance from S to $\text{Del}_S(E)$.

Lemma 4.8 *Let $c \in S$. For any point $x \in S$ at distance at most $\varepsilon d_M(c)$ from c , the distance from x to $T(c)$ is at most $\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$.*

Proof Let B_1 and B_2 be the two balls of radius $d_M(c)$, tangent to S at c . Their interiors cannot intersect S and therefore do not contain x . Let x' be the intersection point other than c of the segment $[c, x]$ with the boundary of $B_1 \cup B_2$. Let h be the distance of x to $T(c)$ and θ the angle between $\vec{cx}$ and $T(c)$. We have

$$\|c - x'\| = 2d_M(c) \sin \theta \leq \|c - x\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c)$$

Therefore, $\sin \theta \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and $h = \|c - x\| \sin \theta \leq \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$. $\square$

Lemma 4.9 *Let $c \in S$ and let y be a point of $T(c)$ at distance at most $\varepsilon d_M(c)$ from c . The distance of y to S is at most $4\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$.*

Proof Let z be the point of S closest to y , t the projection of z onto $T(c)$ and $\phi = \angle yzt$, which is also the angle between the normals to S in c and in z . We have

$$\|c - z\| \leq \|c - y\| + \|y - z\| \leq 2\|c - y\| \leq 2\varepsilon d_M(c) \quad (9)$$

It then follows from lemma 4.8 that $\|z - t\| \leq 2\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$. Moreover, since $d_M(c) \leq d_M(z) + \|c - z\|$, (9) implies that $\|c - z\| \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-2\varepsilon} d_M(z)$. It follows from lemma 3.3 that $\phi \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon}$. Since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \leq 0.1$, we have $\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon} \leq 1$, thus $\phi \leq 1$. It follows that $\frac{1}{\cos \phi} \leq \frac{1}{1-\frac{\phi^2}{2}} \leq 1 + \phi^2$, from which we deduce

$$\begin{aligned} \|y - z\| &= \frac{\|z - t\|}{\cos \phi} \leq 2\varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \left(1 + \left(\frac{2\varepsilon}{1-8\varepsilon}\right)^2\right) \\ &\leq 4\varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \end{aligned}$$

□

With lemmas 4.8 and 4.9, we can bound the distance from $\text{Del}_S(E)$ to S .

Proposition 4.10 *Every point $x \in \text{Del}_S(E)$ is at distance at most $4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M^{\text{sup}}$ from S , where c is the center of the surface Delaunay ball of the facet that contains x .*

Proof Let $x \in \text{Del}_S(E)$. Let f be a facet of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ on which x lies, and let $B(c, r)$ be the surface Delaunay ball of f . Let x' be the orthogonal projection of x onto $T(c)$. We have $\|x - c\| \leq r$, which is at most $\varepsilon d_M(c)$ since E is a loose ε -sample. Thus, by lemma 4.8, the distance from x to $T(c)$ is at most $\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$. Hence, $\|x - x'\| \leq \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$. In addition, we have $\|x' - c\| \leq \|x - c\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c)$. Thus, by lemma 4.9, the distance from x' to S is at most $4\varepsilon^2 d_M(c)$. It follows that the distance from x to S is at most $4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M^{\text{sup}}$. □

We can now bound the distance from S to $\text{Del}_S(E)$, which completes the proof of theorem 4.7.

Proposition 4.11 *Every point $x \in S$ is at distance at most $\min\{4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M^{\text{sup}}, 5.3 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x)\}$ from $\text{Del}_S(E)$.*

Proof Let $x \in S$. Since the restriction of π to $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is surjective, we have $\pi_{|\text{Del}_S(E)}^{-1}(x) \neq \emptyset$. Let $x' \in \pi_{|\text{Del}_S(E)}^{-1}(x)$. According to proposition 4.10, $\|x - x'\| \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M^{\text{sup}}$, where c is the center of the surface Delaunay ball of a facet that contains x' .

In addition, we have $\|x' - c\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c)$, since E is a loose ε -sample. Thus, $\|x - c\| \leq (\varepsilon + 4.5 \varepsilon^2) d_M(c) \leq (\varepsilon + 4.5 \varepsilon^2)(d_M(x) + \|x - c\|)$. It follows that $\|x - c\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon + 4.5 \varepsilon^2}{1 - \varepsilon - 4.5 \varepsilon^2} d_M(x)$, which is at most $0.17 d_M(x)$ since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \leq 0.1$. Hence,

$$\|x - x'\| \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 d_M(c) \leq 4.5 \varepsilon^2 (d_M(x) + \|x - c\|) \leq 5.3 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x)$$

□

By lemma 2.3, we know that ε -samples are loose ε -samples, for a sufficiently small value of ε . The converse is not true, but the following corollary shows that loose ε -samples are close to be ε -samples.

Corollary 4.12 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \approx 0.096$. E is an $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon)$ -sample of S .*

Proof By proposition 4.11, any point $x \in S$ is at distance at most $5.3 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x)$ from $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$. Let x' be the point of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ closest to x , and f a facet of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ that contains x' . We call c the center of the surface Delaunay ball of f , and c' the center of the circumcircle of f . Let v be the vertex of f closest to x' . Since x' belongs to f , we have $\|x' - v\| \leq \|c' - v\| \leq \|c - v\|$. Moreover, $\|c - v\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c) \leq \varepsilon(d_M(v) + \|c - v\|)$, hence $\|c - v\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(v)$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - v\| &\leq \|x - x'\| + \|x' - v\| \\ &\leq 5.3 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x) + \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(v) \\ &\leq 5.3 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x) + \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} (d_M(x) + \|x - v\|) \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\|x - v\| \leq \frac{5.3(1-\varepsilon)}{1-2\varepsilon} \varepsilon^2 d_M(x) + \frac{\varepsilon}{1-2\varepsilon} d_M(x)$$

Since $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1 \leq 0.1$, we have $\frac{5.3(1-\varepsilon)}{1-2\varepsilon} \leq 6$ and $\frac{1}{1-2\varepsilon} \leq 1 + 2.5 \varepsilon$, thus

$$\|x - v\| \leq 6 \varepsilon^2 d_M(x) + \varepsilon(1 + 2.5 \varepsilon) d_M(x)$$

□

4.4 Covering

Here, we assume that $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$. Let $\bigcup_{f \in \text{Del}_{|S}(E)} B_f$ (or $\bigcup_f B_f$, for short) denote the union of the surface Delaunay balls.

Let f_0 be a facet of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$. Our goal is to prove that $C_{f_0} \subset \text{int}\left(\bigcup_f B_f\right)$. In fact, we will prove a slightly more precise result, stated as lemma 4.13.

Let $F(f_0)$ be the set of all facets of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ that share a vertex with f_0 , including f_0 itself. Since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \varepsilon_1$, $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ is a manifold without boundary, by theorem 4.4. Hence, $F(f_0) \setminus \{f_0\}$ contains one facet of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ adjacent to f_0 through each edge of f_0 . We define $R(f_0)$ as the union of all surface Delaunay patches associated with facets of $F(f_0)$.

Lemma 4.13 $C_{f_0} \subseteq \text{int}(R(f_0))$.

Proof Let u, v and w be the vertices of f_0 . We call f_{uv} , f_{vw} and f_{wu} the three facets of $F(f_0)$ that are incident to f_0 through edges uv , vw and wu respectively. By proposition 3.9, arcs uv , vw and wu of C_{f_0} are included in $D_{f_{uv}}$, $D_{f_{vw}}$ and $D_{f_{wu}}$ respectively, and only their endpoints may possibly lie on $C_{f_{uv}}$, $C_{f_{vw}}$ or $C_{f_{wu}}$. Thus, the three arcs are included in the interior of $R(f_0)$, except for their endpoints which may possibly lie on the boundary of $R(f_0)$.

We claim that u, v and w also belong to $\text{int}(R(f_0))$. Let $F(u)$ be the umbrella of facets of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ incident to u , and $R(u)$ the union of the surface Delaunay patches of all facets of $F(u)$. Notice that

$R(u) \subseteq R(f_0)$, since $F(u) \subseteq F(f_0)$. Let $B(c, r)$ be the ball of biggest radius, among the surface Delaunay balls of the facets of $F(u)$. For every point $x \in R(u)$, we have $\|x - u\| \leq 2r$, hence $R(u)$ is included in $S \cap B(u, 2r)$, which is a terrain over $T(u)$, by lemma 3.7. It follows that the surface Delaunay patches of the facets of $F(u)$, which are pseudo-disks in $\mathbb{R}^3$, are also pseudo-disks in projection onto $T(u)$. Then, in projection onto $T(u)$, u lies in $\text{int}(R(u))$ since it lies in $\text{int}(F(u))$ by claim 4.3.1. It follows that $u \in \text{int}(R(u))$, since $R(u)$ is a terrain over $T(u)$. So, $u \in \text{int}(R(f_0))$. The reasoning holds for v and w as well, which completes the proof of the lemma. $\square$

Theorem 4.14 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and E a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 \approx 0.091$. S is included in $\bigcup_f B_f$.*

Proof By lemma 4.13, the union of surface Delaunay patches has no boundary. Thus, S does not intersect the boundary of $\bigcup_f B_f$. Moreover, since $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has vertices on all the connected components of S , $\bigcup_f B_f$ intersects all the connected components of S . It follows that S cannot exit $\bigcup_f B_f$ without intersecting the boundary of $\bigcup_f B_f$. $\square$

Recall that our definition of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ excludes edges and vertices with no incident restricted Delaunay facet. Hence there might exist points of E that are not vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. In fact, this cannot happen, as stated in the following corollary of theorem 4.14.

Corollary 4.15 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and let E be a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 \approx 0.091$. Every point of E is a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$.*

Proof Let p be a point of E . By theorem 4.14, $S \subseteq \bigcup_f B_f$, thus p belongs to the surface Delaunay ball $B_f = B(c, r)$ of some facet f of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Let u, v and w be the vertices of f . Since B_f is a Delaunay ball, p, u, v and w belong to its bounding sphere. If $p \in \{u, v, w\}$, then f is incident to p , thus p is a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Otherwise, (p, u, v, w) is a Delaunay tetrahedron, whose dual Voronoi vertex is $c \in S$. Then, every facet of (p, u, v, w) is a restricted Delaunay facet, and here again p is a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. $\square$

5 Size of loose ε -samples

5.1 Lower bound

Erickson [23] has shown that $\Omega\left(\frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$, with $\mu(S) = \iint_S \frac{dx}{d_M^2(x)}$, is a lower bound on the number of points of any ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{5}$. This bound holds for loose ε -samples as well, by corollary 4.12. However, in the following we rewrite Erickson's proof in the case of loose ε -samples directly and improve on the constant.

Theorem 5.1 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and let E be a loose ε -sample of S , with $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 \approx 0.091$. We have $|E| \geq 2 + \frac{2}{5\pi} \frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}$.*

Proof By theorem 4.14, we have $S \subseteq \bigcup_{f \in \text{Del}_{|S}(E)} B_f$. Thus,

$$\mu(S) = \iint_S \frac{dx}{d_M^2(x)} \leq \sum_{f \in \text{Del}_{|S}(E)} \iint_{D_f} \frac{dx}{d_M^2(x)} \quad (10)$$

Moreover, since E is a loose ε -sample, we have $\forall f \in \text{Del}_{|S}(E)$, $\forall x \in D_f$, $\|x - c_f\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c_f)$. It follows that $\|x - c_f\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(x)$ and that $d_M(x) \geq (1-\varepsilon) d_M(c_f)$, since d_M is 1-Lipschitz. Thus,

$$\forall f \in \text{Del}_{|S}(E), \quad \iint_{D_f} \frac{dx}{d_M^2(x)} \leq \frac{\text{Area}(D_f)}{(1-\varepsilon)^2 d_M^2(c_f)} \quad (11)$$

Since $\forall x \in D_f$, $\|x - c_f\| \leq \varepsilon d_M(c_f)$ and $\|x - c_f\| \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} d_M(x)$, by lemma 3.3 we have $\forall x \in D_f$, $(\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(c_f)) \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{1-4\varepsilon}$, which is less than $\frac{\pi}{2}$ since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0 < \frac{\pi}{2+4\pi}$. Thus, by lemma 9.4, D_f is a terrain over $T(c_f)$, the plane tangent to S at c_f . We can then bound the area of D_f by projecting it orthogonally onto $T(c_f)$. Let us call proj the orthogonal projection onto $T(c_f)$. Since $\text{proj}(D_f)$ is included in the disk of radius $\varepsilon d_M(c_f)$ centered at c_f , we have

$$\text{Area}(D_f) \leq \frac{\text{Area}(\text{proj}(D_f))}{\min_{x \in D_f} \cos(\vec{n}(x), \vec{n}(c_f))} \leq \frac{\pi \varepsilon^2 d_M^2(c_f)}{\cos \frac{\varepsilon}{1-4\varepsilon}} \quad (12)$$

It follows from (10), (11) and (12) that

$$\mu(S) = \iint_S \frac{dx}{d_M^2(x)} \leq \frac{\pi \varepsilon^2}{(1-\varepsilon)^2 \cos \frac{\varepsilon}{1-4\varepsilon}} m$$

where m is the number of facets of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$. According to theorem 4.4, $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ is a manifold without boundary, thus the number of vertices of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ is $2 + \frac{m}{2}$, by Euler's formula. Hence, $|E| \geq 2 + \frac{m}{2} \geq 2 + \frac{1}{2\pi} (1-\varepsilon)^2 \cos \frac{\varepsilon}{1-4\varepsilon} \frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}$, which is at least $2 + \frac{2}{5\pi} \frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}$ since $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$. $\square$

5.2 Upper bound

Since adding points to an ε -sample results in another ε -sample, we cannot hope for an upper bound on ε -samples without making some additional assumptions. The same observation can also be made for loose ε -samples since ε -samples are loose ε -samples, by lemma 2.3. This motivates the following definition.

Definition 5.2 *Given a positive constant κ , a point sample E of S is said to be κ -sparse if $\forall x \in E$, $\text{dist}(x, E \setminus \{x\}) \geq \kappa d_M(x)$.*

Here, we give an upper bound on κ -sparse point samples, which *a priori* are not assumed to be ε -samples nor loose ε -samples. Notice that, if E is κ -sparse, then *a fortiori* it is κ' -sparse, for any $\kappa' \leq \kappa$. Therefore, we may assume for convenience that $\kappa < 2$.

For every point $x \in E$, we define B_x as the open ball centered in x of radius $\frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x)$. Since E is κ -sparse, $\frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x)$ is smaller than $\frac{1}{2} \text{dist}(x, E \setminus \{x\})$, which implies that the balls $(B_x)_{x \in E}$ are pairwise disjoint.

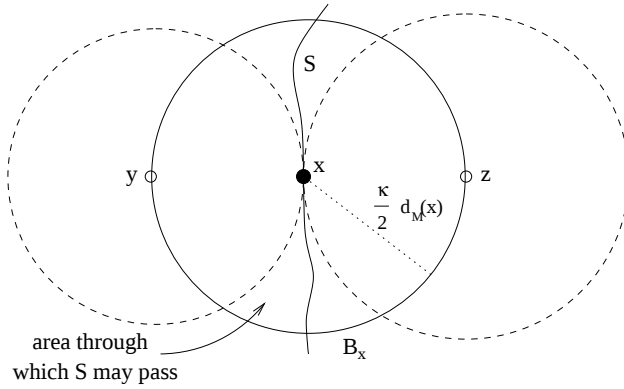
Lemma 5.3 *For every point $x \in E$, B_x is included in the Voronoi cell of x in $\text{Vor}(E)$.*

Proof Let z be a point of B_x . We have $\|z - x\| \leq \frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x)$. Since E is κ -sparse, every point y of $E \setminus \{x\}$ is at distance at least $\kappa d_M(x)$ from x . Thus, $\|y - x\| \geq 2\|z - x\|$, which implies that $\|z - x\| \leq \|z - y\|$, by the triangle inequality. $\square$

Before bounding the size of E , we prove that every ball B_x intersects S along a topological disk of large size.

Lemma 5.4 *For every point $x \in E$, we have $\text{Area}(S \cap B_x) \geq \frac{3}{16}\pi\kappa^2 d_M^2(x)$.*

Proof By definition, the radius of B_x is $\frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x)$, which is less than $d_M(x)$ since $\kappa < 2$. Thus, $B_x \cap M = \emptyset$. It follows that $S \cap B_x$ is a topological disk, by lemma 3.6. It follows also that S does not intersect the open balls $B(y, \frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x))$ and $B(z, \frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x))$, where y and z are the intersection points of the normal of S in x with the bounding sphere of B_x . Hence, $S \cap B_x$ lies outside these two balls.



Moreover, since S has no boundary, the boundary of $S \cap B_x$ lies on the bounding sphere of B_x . Thus, $\text{proj}(S \cap B_x)$, the orthogonal projection of $S \cap B_x$ onto $T(x)$, contains the projection of $B_x \cap B(y, \frac{\kappa}{2} d_M(x))$, which is a disk of radius $\frac{\kappa\sqrt{3}}{4} d_M(x)$.

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area}(S \cap B_x) &\geq \text{Area}(\text{proj}(S \cap B_x)) \\ &\geq \frac{3}{16} \pi \kappa^2 d_M^2(x) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

Theorem 5.5 *Let S be a smooth closed surface and let E be a κ -sparse point sample of S . We have $|E| \leq \frac{64}{3\pi} \frac{\mu(S)}{\kappa^2}$.*

Proof We proceed as in the case of planar meshes [22, 28] and bound the integral over S of $1/d_M^2(t)$. Since $S \cap B_x \subseteq S$ for every point $x \in E$, we have

$$\iint_S \frac{dt}{d_M^2(t)} \geq \iint_{\bigcup_{x \in E} (B_x \cap S)} \frac{dt}{d_M^2(t)}$$

Moreover, the balls $(B_x)_{x \in E}$ are pairwise disjoint, thus

$$\iint \bigcup_{x \in E} (B_x \cap S) \frac{dt}{d_M^2(t)} = \sum_{x \in E} \iint_{(B_x \cap S)} \frac{dt}{d_M^2(t)}$$

In addition, since d_M is 1-Lipschitz, $\forall t \in B_x$, $d_M(t) \leq d_M(x) + \|t - x\| \leq (1 + \frac{\kappa}{2}) d_M(x)$. It follows that

$$\sum_{x \in E} \iint_{(B_x \cap S)} \frac{dt}{d_M^2(t)} \geq \sum_{x \in E} \frac{\text{Area}(B_x \cap S)}{(1 + \frac{\kappa}{2})^2 d_M^2(x)}$$

Since $\text{Area}(B_x \cap S) \geq \frac{3}{16} \pi \kappa^2 d_M^2(x)$ by lemma 5.4, we have

$$\sum_{x \in E} \frac{\text{Area}(B_x \cap S)}{(1 + \frac{\kappa}{2})^2 d_M^2(x)} \geq \sum_{x \in E} \frac{\frac{3}{16} \pi \kappa^2 d_M^2(x)}{(1 + \frac{\kappa}{2})^2 d_M^2(x)} = \frac{3}{16 (1 + \frac{\kappa}{2})^2} \pi \kappa^2 |E|$$

which is greater than $\frac{3}{64} \pi \kappa^2 |E|$ since $\kappa < 2$. The result follows. $\square$

It follows from theorem 5.5 that every loose ε -sample of S that is κ -sparse, for some $\kappa = \Omega(\varepsilon)$, has size $O\left(\frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$, which is optimal in view of the bound of theorem 5.1. This gives a sufficient (local) condition for a loose ε -sample to have optimal size.

6 Surface sampling and meshing

In this section, we are given a smooth and compact, not necessarily connected, surface S without boundary. From the previous sections (specifically from corollary 4.6 and theorem 4.7), we know that, if we can construct a loose ε -sample E of S , for an $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_1$, then $\text{Del}_S(E)$ will be a good approximation of S , both in a topological and in a geometric sense. In this section, we give an algorithm that produces such a sample E and computes its restricted Delaunay triangulation $\text{Del}_S(E)$.

6.1 Algorithm

The algorithm is greedy and derives from Chew's surface meshing algorithm [17]. It takes as input the surface S and it is templated by some user-defined function $\sigma : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that is positive and 1-Lipschitz. The algorithm starts with a small initial point sample E and, at each iteration, it inserts a new point of S into E and updates $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Each point inserted into E is the center of a *bad* surface Delaunay ball, *i.e.* a surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ such that $r > \sigma(c)$. The algorithm stops when there are no more bad surface Delaunay balls, which will eventually happen since σ does not vanish on S , as shown in paragraph 6.3, lemma 6.2.

The surface is known only through an oracle that, given a line segment s , computes all the points of $s \cap S$, which generically are finitely many. $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is stored as a subcomplex of $\text{Del}(E)$ and computed by detecting the intersections of the Voronoi edges with S , thanks to the oracle. At each

step of the algorithm, only the part of $\text{Vor}(E)$ that has changed after the point insertion is tested. As for the bad surface Delaunay balls, they are stored in a list L .

The initial point sample is constructed in such a way that the output point set verifies condition 2. of definition 2.2, *i.e.* that its restricted Delaunay triangulation has vertices on all the connected components of S . The details of the construction are given in paragraph 6.2. Once the initial point sample has been constructed, the algorithm computes $\text{Del}_S(E)$ and stores the bad surface Delaunay balls in L . Then, the algorithm executes the following loop:

```

while  $L$  is not empty {
  take an element  $B(c, r)$  from  $L$ ;
  insert  $c$  into  $E$  and update  $\text{Del}(E)$ ;
  update  $\text{Del}_S(E)$  by testing all the Voronoi edges that have changed or appeared:
    delete from  $\text{Del}_S(E)$  the Delaunay facets whose dual Voronoi edges no longer intersect  $S$ ;
    add to  $\text{Del}_S(E)$  the new Delaunay facets whose dual Voronoi edges intersect  $S$ ;
  update  $L$  by
    deleting all the elements of  $L$  which are no longer bad surface Delaunay balls;
    adding all the new surface Delaunay balls that are bad;
}

```

The algorithm stops at the end of the loop and returns E as well as $\text{Del}_S(E)$.

6.2 Construction of the initial point sample

As explained in paragraph 6.1, our purpose here is to construct, at the beginning of the algorithm, an initial point sample such that the output point set is guaranteed to verify condition 2. of definition 2.2. For clarity, E_i and E_o will denote respectively the initial point sample and the output point set.

Let us assume that $\text{Del}_S(E_i)$ contains a facet f_i circumscribed by a surface Delaunay ball $B_i = B(c_i, r_i)$ such that $r_i \leq \frac{1}{3}\sigma(c_i)$. Such a facet will be called a *persistent facet*. Persistent facets are interesting in our context because they share a nice persistence property, illustrated in figure 3 and stated in the following lemma.

Lemma 6.1 *Every persistent facet remains a restricted Delaunay facet throughout the course of the algorithm. In other words, all persistent facets are facets of $\text{Del}_S(E_o)$.*

Proof Let f_i be a persistent facet and $B_i = B(c_i, r_i)$ a surface Delaunay ball circumscribing f_i such that $r_i \leq \frac{1}{3}\sigma(c_i)$. Assume that, at the end of the algorithm, $f_i \notin \text{Del}_S(E_o)$. This implies that, at some stage, the algorithm inserts some point x in the interior of B_i . Hence, $\|x - c_i\| < \frac{1}{3}\sigma(c_i)$, which gives $\sigma(x) \geq \sigma(c_i) - \|x - c_i\| > \frac{2}{3}\sigma(c_i)$, since σ is assumed 1-Lipschitz. Let v be one of the vertices of f_i . Since v and x both lie in B_i , we have $\|v - x\| \leq 2r_i \leq \frac{2}{3}\sigma(c_i) < \sigma(x)$. Now, since x is inserted by the algorithm, it is the center of some bad surface Delaunay ball B , whose radius is greater than $\sigma(x)$. It follows that v belongs to the interior of B , which contradicts the fact that the latter is a Delaunay ball. $\square$

To guarantee that E_o verifies condition 2. of definition 2.2, it suffices to construct E_i in such a way that every connected component of S contains at least one vertex of a persistent facet. Here

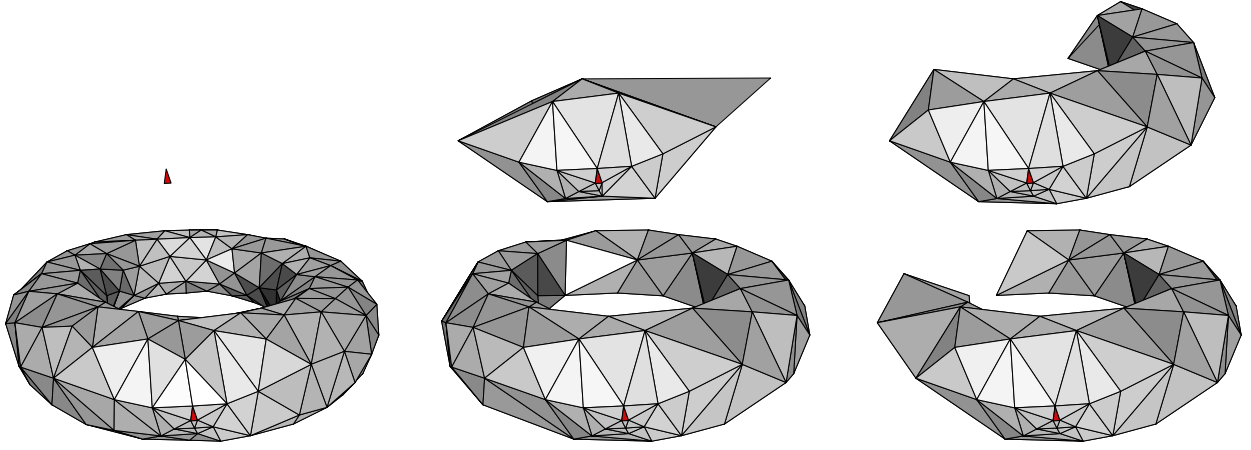


Figure 3: Meshing of a torus: the persistent facet (in red) remains in the restricted Delaunay triangulation throughout the process. In compensation, the final mesh has smaller triangles in its vicinity.

is how we proceed: we pick up at least one point on each connected component of S , and we insert the collected points in a set called E'_i . For each point $x \in E'_i$, we consider a ball B_x centered in x of radius less than $\min\{\frac{1}{2}\text{dist}(x, E'_i \setminus \{x\}), d_M(x), \frac{1}{3}\sigma(x)\}$. Let Σ_x be the bounding sphere of B_x . We pick up three points from $S \cap \Sigma_x$ and we insert them in E_i , which will be the initial point sample of the algorithm. After doing this for each point of E'_i , we have $|E_i| = 3 |E'_i|$.

Let $x \in E'_i$. We claim that the three points of E_i that lie on Σ_x form a persistent facet and lie on the same connected component of S as x . Indeed, since every ball B_y , $y \in E'_i$, has a radius less than $\frac{1}{2} \text{dist}(y, E'_i \setminus \{y\})$, the balls $(B_y)_{y \in E'_i}$ are pairwise disjoint. Hence, B_x intersects none of the $(B_y)_{y \in E'_i \setminus \{x\}}$. It follows that B_x is a surface Delaunay ball of E_i , since every point of E_i belongs to the bounding sphere of some B_y , $y \in E'_i$. In addition, the radius of B_x is less than $\frac{1}{3}\sigma(x)$, thus the three points of E_i that lie on Σ_x form a persistent facet. Moreover, they all lie on the same connected component of S as x , since the radius of B_x is less than $d_M(x)$.

Since this is true for every $x \in E'_i$, and since E'_i intersects all the connected components of S , E_i contains at least three points per connected component of S that form a persistent facet.

6.3 Termination and output guarantees

Lemma 6.2 *The algorithm terminates.*

Proof Notice that, since σ is Lipschitz, it is continuous. Moreover, σ does not vanish on S which is compact, thus there exists some constant $\sigma_0 > 0$ such that $\sigma(x) \geq \sigma_0 \forall x \in S$.

Since the construction of the initial point set takes a finite amount of time, the only thing to prove here is that the main loop of the algorithm terminates. At each iteration, the center of some bad surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ is inserted. At this time, the distance from c to E is r , which is greater than $\sigma(x) \geq \sigma_0$ since $B(c, r)$ is bad. Therefore, the distance from any two points inserted during the main loop is at least $\sigma_0 > 0$, and as a consequence, the open balls of radius $\frac{\sigma_0}{2}$, centered

at the points inserted during the main loop, are pairwise disjoint. Since S is compact, there can be only a finite number of such balls. Thus, a finite number of points are inserted during the main loop of the algorithm, which terminates since it inserts one point at each iteration. $\square$

Lemma 6.3 *If $\sigma \leq \varepsilon d_M$, then, upon termination of the algorithm, E is a loose ε -sample of S .*

Proof When the algorithm stops, all surface Delaunay balls are good. Since a surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ is good if $r \leq \sigma(c) \leq \varepsilon d_M(c)$, E verifies condition 1. of definition 2.2.

In addition, according to paragraph 6.2, once the initial point set has been constructed, every connected component of S contains at least one vertex of a persistent facet. Therefore, upon termination, $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has at least one vertex on each connected component of S , by lemma 6.1, and hence E verifies condition 2. of definition 2.2. $\square$

It follows from corollary 4.6, theorem 4.7 and lemma 6.3, that, if $\sigma < \varepsilon_1 d_M \approx 0.096 d_M$, then the algorithm outputs a good approximation of S , in terms of topology and geometry.

From now on, we assume that E'_i , the point set from which the initial point sample is constructed (see paragraph 6.2), contains at most c points per connected component of S , where c is a constant that does not depend on S . Under this assumption, and provided that $\sigma = \varepsilon d_M$ for some $\varepsilon \leq 1$ (notice that σ is positive and 1-Lipschitz in this case), we give an upper bound on the size of the output, which is optimal in view of theorem 5.1.

Lemma 6.4 *If $\sigma = \varepsilon d_M$, with $\varepsilon \leq 1$, then, upon termination of the algorithm, E is a loose ε -sample of S of size $O\left(\frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$.*

Proof For convenience, we call E_i the initial point sample constructed at the beginning of the algorithm, and E_o the output point set. According to lemma 6.3, E_o is a loose ε -sample of S . In addition, since the algorithm is greedy, we have $E_i \subseteq E_o$. $E_o \setminus E_i$ is the set of the points that are inserted during the main loop of the algorithm. To bound the size of E_o , it suffices to bound independently the sizes of E_i and of $E_o \setminus E_i$.

As explained in paragraph 6.2, we have $|E_i| = 3 |E'_i|$. Moreover, by assumption, $|E'_i| \leq c |S|$, where $|S|$ is the number of connected components of S . Thus, $|E_i| \leq 3c |S|$.

Claim 6.4.1 $|S| \leq \frac{32}{3\pi} \mu(S)$.

Proof For each connected component S_i of S , we define δ_i as the diameter of S_i . Let $a_i, b_i \in S_i$ such that $\|a_i - b_i\| = \delta_i$. Let $E_S = \bigcup_i \{a_i, b_i\}$. We have $|E_S| = 2 |S|$.

Since the balls $B(a_i, \delta_i)$ and $B(b_i, \delta_i)$ both contain S_i , we have $\|a_i - b_i\| = \delta_i \geq \max\{d_M(a_i), d_M(b_i)\}$, by lemma 3.6. Moreover, for any $j \neq i$, $\|a_i - a_j\| \geq d_M(a_i)$ since a_i and a_j lie on different connected components of S . It follows that E_S is κ -sparse, with $\kappa = 1$. Hence, $|E_S| \leq \frac{64}{3\pi} \mu(S)$, by theorem 5.5. The result follows. $\square$

It follows from claim 6.4.1 that $|E_i| \leq \frac{32c}{\pi} \mu(S)$.

We now bound the size of $E_o \setminus E_i$. Every point x inserted during the main loop of the algorithm is at distance at least $\sigma(x) = \varepsilon d_M(x)$ from E at the time when it is inserted, since it is the center of some bad surface Delaunay ball. It follows that, for any two points x and y of $E_o \setminus E_i$, we have $\|x - y\| \geq \varepsilon d_M(x)$ or $\|x - y\| \geq \varepsilon d_M(y)$, depending on whether x is inserted last or not. In both cases, we have $\|x - y\| \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon} d_M(x)$, since d_M is 1-Lipschitz. Thus, $E_o \setminus E_i$ is κ -sparse, with $\kappa = \frac{\varepsilon}{1+\varepsilon}$. It follows that $|E_o \setminus E_i| \leq \frac{64(1+\varepsilon)^2}{3\pi} \frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}$, by theorem 5.5.

In conclusion, the size of E_o is at most $\frac{32\varepsilon}{\pi} \mu(S) + \frac{64(1+\varepsilon)^2}{3\pi} \frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2} = O\left(\frac{\mu(S)}{\varepsilon^2}\right)$, which ends the proof of lemma 6.4. $\square$

6.4 Improvements

6.4.1 Removing the skinny facets

Once a point sample E_0 of S has been obtained (or is given), one can remove the skinny facets from the mesh, simply by running the algorithm with E_0 as the initial point sample and by using a new definition of a bad surface Delaunay ball. In the remainder of the paragraph, a surface Delaunay ball $B(c, r)$ is called *bad* if it is too big, *i.e.* $r > \sigma(c)$, or if the restricted Delaunay facet f it circumscribes is skinny, *i.e.* one of its inner angles is less than $\frac{\pi}{6}$. The initial point sample is built in the same way as in paragraph 6.2, except that none of the persistent facets must be skinny. The output of the algorithm is then a loose ε -sample of S (provided that $\sigma \leq \varepsilon d_M$) containing E_0 and such that no facet of the restricted Delaunay triangulation is skinny. Some results are reported in figure 10.

Notice that, unlike ε -samples, loose ε -samples are not stable under point insertion: if one inserts some new point in a loose ε -sample, the latter may not remain a loose ε -sample. Therefore, we have to keep the size criterion in the new definition of a bad surface Delaunay ball, if we want to ensure that the output of the algorithm will be a loose ε -sample.

Lemma 6.5 *The version of the algorithm that removes skinny facets terminates.*

Proof Since σ is continuous and does not vanish on S , which is compact, there exists some constant $\sigma_0 > 0$ such that $\sigma(x) \geq \sigma_0 \forall x \in S$. Let x be a point inserted by the algorithm. Assume that x is the center of some bad surface Delaunay ball B . We call $r(x)$ the radius of B , which is equal to the distance from x to E at the time when it is inserted. If B is bad because it is too big, then we have $r(x) > \sigma(x) \geq \sigma_0$. Otherwise, the restricted Delaunay facet f circumscribed by B is skinny, *i.e.* its smallest inner angle is less than $\frac{\pi}{6}$. Let e be the smallest edge of f , and v the vertex of e that was inserted last. If both vertices of e belong to E_0 , then call v any of them. We have $r(v) \leq |e|$, where $|e|$ is the length of edge e . A quick computation shows that the sinus of the smallest inner angle of f (which is opposite to e) is greater than half the ratio between $|e|$ and the circumradius of f . Therefore, we have $\sin \frac{\pi}{6} \geq \frac{1}{2} \frac{r(v)}{r(x)}$, since $|e| \geq r(v)$ and since the circumradius of f is at most the radius of any ball circumscribing f . It follows that $r(x) \geq r(v)$.

To summarize, $r(x)$ is either greater than σ_0 or greater than $r(v)$ for some v inserted before x or belonging to E_0 . Thus, $r(x)$ is always greater than $\min\{\sigma_0, r_0\}$, where r_0 denotes the minimum of

r over E_0 , that is, the minimal distance between two points of E_0 . It follows, by the same packing argument as in the proof of lemma 6.2, that the algorithm inserts finitely many points and hence terminates. $\square$

6.4.2 Speeding up the oracle

As stated in paragraph 6.1, the algorithm relies on an oracle that is able to compute all the intersection points between a line segment and the surface. This oracle is called the *intersection oracle* in the sequel. In practice, *e.g.* for implicit surfaces, computing all the intersection points can be quite time-consuming – see section 6.6.1 for more details. We can reduce the requirements for the oracle as follows: given a line segment s , the oracle is now supposed to be only able to:

- compute the parity of the number of transversal intersections between s and S
- find one point of $s \cap S$ when s intersects S transversally an odd number of times.

On several types of surfaces, in particular implicit surfaces, the two above operations are much easier to perform than the former ones – see section 6.6.1 for more details. However, the new oracle knows whether a Voronoi edge e intersects S only when e intersects S transversally an odd number of times. Such an edge is called *bipolar*, because its two endpoints lie in different connected components of $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus S$. Its dual Delaunay facet is called a *bipolar Delaunay facet*. The subcomplex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ made of the bipolar Delaunay facets is called the *bipolar Delaunay triangulation* and denoted by $\text{Del}_S^b(E)$. The new oracle, which discriminates only the bipolar elements among the set of all Voronoi edges, is called *bipolar oracle*, as opposed to the intersection oracle which detects all restricted Delaunay edges. A Delaunay ball centered in some point computed by the bipolar oracle is called a *bipolar ball*.

To build the initial point sample, we perform the construction described in paragraph 6.2, using the intersection oracle, which provides one persistent facet per connected component of S . However, some persistent facets may not be bipolar. Let f be one of them. We insert in E the centers of all surface Delaunay balls of f , except the one whose center c and radius r verify $r \leq \frac{1}{3} \sigma(c)$. We do this for all the persistent facets, and we take the result as the initial point sample of the algorithm.

Since $\text{Del}_S^b(E)$ is a subcomplex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, the proof of lemma 6.2 holds when the algorithm is run with the bipolar oracle instead of the intersection oracle. Hence, the algorithm terminates. We claim that, if $\sigma < \varepsilon_1 d_M$, then, upon termination, $\text{Del}_S^b(E)$ verifies assertions (H0) through (H4) of paragraph 4.2.

Proof of H0

Since bipolar balls are surface Delaunay balls and since they have small radii upon termination of the algorithm, the lemmas of section 3 that are stated for surface Delaunay balls hold for bipolar balls as well. In the same way, lemma 3.1 holds here for bipolar Delaunay facets. However, lemma 4.1 does not hold as is. Indeed, it requires that **all** the surface Delaunay balls that circumscribe a given facet f have small radii, whereas here we control only the radius of **one** of the surface Delaunay balls of f , namely the one whose center is computed by the bipolar oracle. Nevertheless, proposition 4.2 holds for the edges of $\text{Del}_S^b(E)$. It suffices to change in the proof of the proposition the sentences *Moreover, by lemma 4.1, each edge of ∂e^* can be intersected at most once by S . Thus,*

S intersects an even number of edges of ∂e^* , by the following one: As a consequence, the number of edges of ∂e^* that intersect S transversally an odd number of times is even.

In addition, the proof of proposition 4.3 relies only on the results of section 3 and on proposition 4.2, thus it holds here for $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$. It follows that theorem 4.4 is true with $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$, which means that the latter verifies assertion (H0). $\square$

Proof of H1

After the construction of the initial point sample, all persistent facets have become bipolar. Indeed, in the proof of lemma 4.1 we have shown that a Voronoi edge cannot contain more than one center c of surface Delaunay ball of radius less than $\varepsilon_1 d_M(c)$. Since $\sigma < \varepsilon_1 d_M$, it follows that any center x of a surface Delaunay ball inserted in E during the construction of the initial point sample is farther than $\varepsilon_1 d_M(x) > \sigma(x)$ from E , at the time of its insertion. By the same proof as for lemma 6.1, all persistent facets remain restricted Delaunay facets during the construction of the initial point sample. At the end of the construction, their dual Voronoi edges intersect S exactly once, hence they are bipolar.

Then, throughout the course of the meshing algorithm, every persistent facet keeps its surface Delaunay ball by lemma 6.1, and hence remains bipolar since its dual Voronoi edge intersects S transversally only once. It follows that $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ verifies (H1) upon termination of the algorithm. $\square$

Proof of H2, H3 and H4

The proofs of (H2), (H3) and (H4) detailed in paragraph 4.2 hold here for $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ since they rely exclusively on (H0) and on lemmas 3.1 and 3.5. $\square$

It follows that all the properties stated for $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ in section 4 hold here for $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$. In particular, E is a $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon)$ -sample of S , by corollary 4.12. If $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_5 \approx 0.065$, then $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon) < 0.1$ and hence $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ is homeomorphic to S , by theorem 2 of [3]. This implies that $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E) = \text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ since they are homeomorphic and since $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ is a subcomplex of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$.

In conclusion, replacing the intersection oracle by the bipolar oracle implies that the algorithm works with $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ instead of $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$. If $\sigma < \varepsilon_1 d_M \approx 0.091 d_M$, then upon termination of the algorithm $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ has all the properties stated in section 4 for $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$. If $\sigma < \varepsilon_5 d_M \approx 0.065 d_M$, then $\text{Del}_{|S}(E)$ and $\text{Del}_{|S}^b(E)$ are equal. As explained in paragraph 6.6.1 and illustrated in table 1, the bipolar oracle is much more efficient than the intersection oracle when run on implicit surfaces.

6.4.3 Getting rid of persistent facets

By definition, the radius of the surface Delaunay ball of a persistent facet is three times as small as the radius of a standard surface Delaunay ball. Therefore, the output mesh of the algorithm has smaller triangles in the vicinity of persistent facets, which may not be satisfactory. An illustration of this phenomenon is given in figure 3.

To avoid the construction of persistent facets during the initialization phase of the algorithm, we use the set E'_i described in paragraph 6.2 as the initial point sample, instead of E_i , and we add to the main loop of the algorithm a patch that uses the elements of E'_i as control points to check

whether $\text{Del}_S(E)$ intersects all the connected components of S (assertion (H1) of paragraph 4.2). Specifically, if all the points of E'_i are vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, then $\text{Del}_S(E)$ verifies (H1) since E'_i intersects all the connected components of S . Otherwise, we cannot decide whether $\text{Del}_S(E)$ verifies (H1) or not, because we do not know on which connected components of S the vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ lie. Hence, we insert new points of S in E and go on running the main loop of the algorithm until all surface Delaunay balls are good and all the points in E'_i have become vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$. Lemma 6.6 shows that this process terminates. The proof relies on the fact that, in the “worst-case” scenario, the algorithm creates persistent facets on all the connected components of S , which implies that $\text{Del}_S(E)$ eventually verifies (H1). However, in practice the “worst-case” scenario does not occur and the algorithm terminates without creating persistent facets – see figures 4 and 7.

Here is the modified version of the main loop:

```

while  $L$  is not empty or some point  $x$  of  $E'_i$  is not a vertex of  $\text{Del}_S(E)$  {
  if  $L \neq \emptyset$  {      // proceed as before
    take an element  $B(c, r)$  from  $L$ ;
    insert  $c$  into  $E$  and update  $\text{Del}(E)$ ;
    update  $\text{Del}_S(E)$ ;
    update  $L$ ;
  }
  else {      //  $x \in E'_i$  is not a vertex of  $\text{Del}_S(E)$ 
    choose a random vector  $\vec{v}$ ;
    insert in  $E$  the first point of intersection of ray  $(x, \vec{v})$  with  $S$  (if it exists);
    insert in  $E$  the first point of intersection of ray  $(x, -\vec{v})$  with  $S$  (if it exists);
    update  $\text{Del}_S(E)$ ;
    update  $L$ ;
  }
}

```

Lemma 6.6 *If $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_0$, then the modified algorithm terminates, provided that $\sigma < \varepsilon_0 d_M$.*

Proof Since the initial point sample, E'_i , is clearly computed in a finite amount of time, all we have to prove is that the main loop of the algorithm terminates. Let E_a denote the set of all points inserted by the main loop. Let E_c be the set of all inserted centers of bad surface Delaunay balls. Since σ is continuous and does not vanish on S , which is compact, E_c is finite by the same packing argument as in the proof of lemma 6.2. Let us bound the size of $E_a \setminus E_c$, which will complete the proof of the lemma since the main loop of the algorithm inserts one point per iteration.

Let $x \in E'_i$. We call S_x the connected component of S on which x lies. On one side of $T(x)$, all vectors point towards the interior of the object bounded by S . Therefore, all rays cast on this side of $T(x)$ from x intersect the connected component S_x of S that contains x . It follows that, if at some stage of the execution x is not a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, the algorithm inserts at least one point of S_x in E . After a finite number of iterations of the main loop, either x has become and will remain a vertex of $\text{Del}_S(E)$, or there are enough points of S_x in E to guarantee that at least three of them are close enough to one another to form a persistent facet, since S_x is compact. In both cases, $\text{Del}_S(E)$ has a vertex on S_x for the rest of the course of the algorithm. Since this is true for every $x \in E'_i$, and since E'_i intersects all the connected components of S , E verifies condition 2. of definition 2.2 after a finite time. At this stage, E also verifies condition 1. of definition 2.2

with $\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0$, since the centers of bad surface Delaunay balls are inserted first and since we took $\sigma \leq \varepsilon_0 d_M$. Therefore, all the points of E (in particular, those of E'_i) are vertices of $\text{Del}_S(E)$ by corollary 4.15. Hence, $E_a \setminus E_c$ is finite. $\square$

Although we have no explicit upper bound on the size of the output, in practice it turns out that this version of the algorithm generates sparse samples with no persistent facet – see figures 4 and 7. As an extreme, we could replace the initialization step by just computing a few random points on S by shooting along random lines of $\mathbb{R}^3$. As reported in [10], this simple procedure verifies (H1) with a probability that increases dramatically with the number of random points.

6.5 Choice of function σ

Although the algorithm is conceptually simple, the theoretical guarantees hold only if σ is at most ε times d_M , the distance to the medial axis of S . For some surfaces, *e.g.* skin surfaces [15], d_M is equal to the minimum radius of curvature and can therefore be estimated locally. However, in most cases, d_M depends on the global shape of the surface and is difficult to compute. This makes the search for optimal ε -samples difficult.

A much easier quest is to compute a uniform ε -sample of S . This can be achieved by taking for σ a constant positive function $\sigma_0 \leq \varepsilon d_M^{\inf}$. The only prerequisite is to compute $d_M^{\inf}$ or any smaller positive value, which is a simpler issue than computing d_M at each center of surface Delaunay ball, and which can be done once for all at beginning of the algorithm. The way one can estimate $d_M^{\inf}$ depends highly on the nature of the surface. Strategies are discussed in paragraph 6.6, for several types of surfaces.

Once a uniform ε -sample $\bar{E}$ has been constructed, it can be used to estimate d_M . In [12], Chazal and Lieutier introduced the notion of λ -medial axis. In the case of $\bar{E}$, it is a certain subset of $\text{Vor}(\bar{E})$, called $M_\lambda(\bar{E})$. They proved that, for values of λ smaller than $10\sqrt{3} \text{diam}(\bar{E})^{3/2} \varepsilon^{1/4}$, $M_\lambda(\bar{E})$ is a good approximation of M , with respect to the Hausdorff distance. It follows that d_{M_λ} , the distance to $M_\lambda(\bar{E})$, is a good estimate of d_M . Moreover, given $x \in S$, $d_{M_\lambda}(x)$ is easy to compute. Therefore, in a second stage, if one wishes to generate a sparse loose ε -sample of S , one can restart the meshing algorithm from the beginning, taking $\sigma = \varepsilon' d_{M_\lambda}$, for some ε' slightly smaller than ε . According to lemma 6.4, the result is a size-optimal loose ε -sample of S , provided that E'_i , the point set from which the initial point sample of the algorithm is constructed (see paragraph 6.2), contains a constant number of points per connected component of S . To construct E'_i , one can simply pick up one vertex on each connected component of $\text{Del}_S(\bar{E})$. Since $\text{Del}_S(\bar{E})$ is homeomorphic to S and close to S for the Hausdorff distance, E'_i will contain exactly one point of each connected component of S .

6.6 Implementation and results

This paragraph gives some precisions on our implementation of the algorithm, as well as some results. We adopted the two-passes strategy described in paragraph 6.5, using the version of the algorithm described in paragraph 6.4.3, which does not use persistent facets. This way, we minimized the prerequisites on the knowledge of the surface, which are the following ones:

P1 we can pick up at least one point from each connected component of S .

P2 we know (or we can compute) some positive constant less than d_M^{inf} .

P3 we can implement at least one of the two versions of the oracle.

These prerequisites are discussed in the sequel, for several types of surfaces. The purpose is to build implementations to fulfill or bypass (P1), (P2) and (P3). Notice that (P3) is used throughout the algorithm, whereas (P1) is involved only in the initialization phase and (P2) is a simple precalculation. Therefore, algorithmic issues arise mainly from (P3).

Our implementation works for various types of surfaces: implicit surfaces, level sets in 3D-images, point set surfaces and polyhedra. It is written in C^{++} and uses the CGAL library [30], which provides us with a data structure for representing and manipulating the restricted Delaunay triangulation as a subcomplex of the 3D Delaunay triangulation.

6.6.1 Implicit surfaces

In this paragraph, S is a level set (say the zero-set) of some potential function f whose expression is given explicitly. In other words, we have $S = f^{-1}(\{0\})$.

P1 We compute the points of S that have a horizontal tangent plane. Each connected component of S has at least two such points, since S has no boundary. These points are the critical points of f with respect to the height function, *i.e.* the solutions of the following system:

$$\begin{cases} f(x, y, z) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y, z) = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y, z) = 0 \end{cases}$$

which is generically zero-dimensional. If f is a polynomial, then the system is algebraic and can be solved by various means. Our approach consists in computing the generalized normal form modulo the ideal generated by the three polynomials of the system, and then finding the roots from eigencomputation – this method was developed in [29] and implemented in C^{++} as part of the SYNAPS library [31], which we use in our implementation. If f is not a polynomial but still continuous, then we compute the solutions of the system using interval arithmetics. Notice that this computation may be quite complicated but is involved only once, during the initialization phase of the algorithm.

P2 Since S is compact, there exists a point $p \in S$ such that $d_M(p) = d_M^{\text{inf}}$. Let c be the point of M closest to p . Since $\|c - p\| = d_M^{\text{inf}}$, we have $\text{dist}(c, S) = \|c - p\|$. Hence, the ball $B(c, \|c - p\|)$ is tangent to S in at least one point, namely p . Let q be another tangency point. We have $\|c - q\| = \|c - p\| = d_M^{\text{inf}}$, thus $\|c - q\| = d_M(q)$. It follows that the balls $B(p, \|c - p\|)$ and $B(q, \|c - q\|)$ are both tangent to M in c , which implies that p , c and q are collinear. Hence, either $p = q$ or c is the midpoint of the line segment $[p, q]$. In the first case, $\|c - p\|$ equals the minimum radius of curvature of S at p , whereas in the second case, the ball $B(c, \|c - p\|)$ is tangent to S in two diametral points. Therefore, to compute d_M^{inf} it suffices to find:

1. the point of S at which the smallest radius of curvature is minimal, which reduces to solving some low-dimensional optimization problem constrained by S .
2. the smallest sphere bitangent to S with diametral contact points, which reduces to finding the smallest real positive root of some zero-dimensional system.

These two issues can be solved using the same tools as for prerequisite (P1).

P3 The bipolar oracle is quite easy to implement for implicit surfaces. Indeed, the parity of the number of transversal intersections between S and a given line segment $[a, b]$ is given by the signs of f in a and b : if the signs are equal, then the number of transversal intersections is even, otherwise it is odd. In the latter case, we can find a transversal intersection point by means of a binary search. The computation time is $O(1)$ for the bipolar test, and $O\left(\log \frac{\|a-b\|}{\Delta}\right)$ for finding an intersection point within a precision of $\Delta > 0$. When f is a polynomial, we use Descartes' rule instead of evaluating the signs of f in a and b , which reduces the computation time.

The intersection oracle is also simple to implement, and we did it by means of a divide-and-conquer strategy. However, computing all the intersection points of S and segment $[a, b]$ within a precision $\Delta > 0$ takes $\Theta\left(\frac{\|a-b\|}{\Delta}\right)$ time. Therefore, the intersection oracle is far less efficient than the bipolar oracle on implicit surfaces. Some timings are reported in table 1.

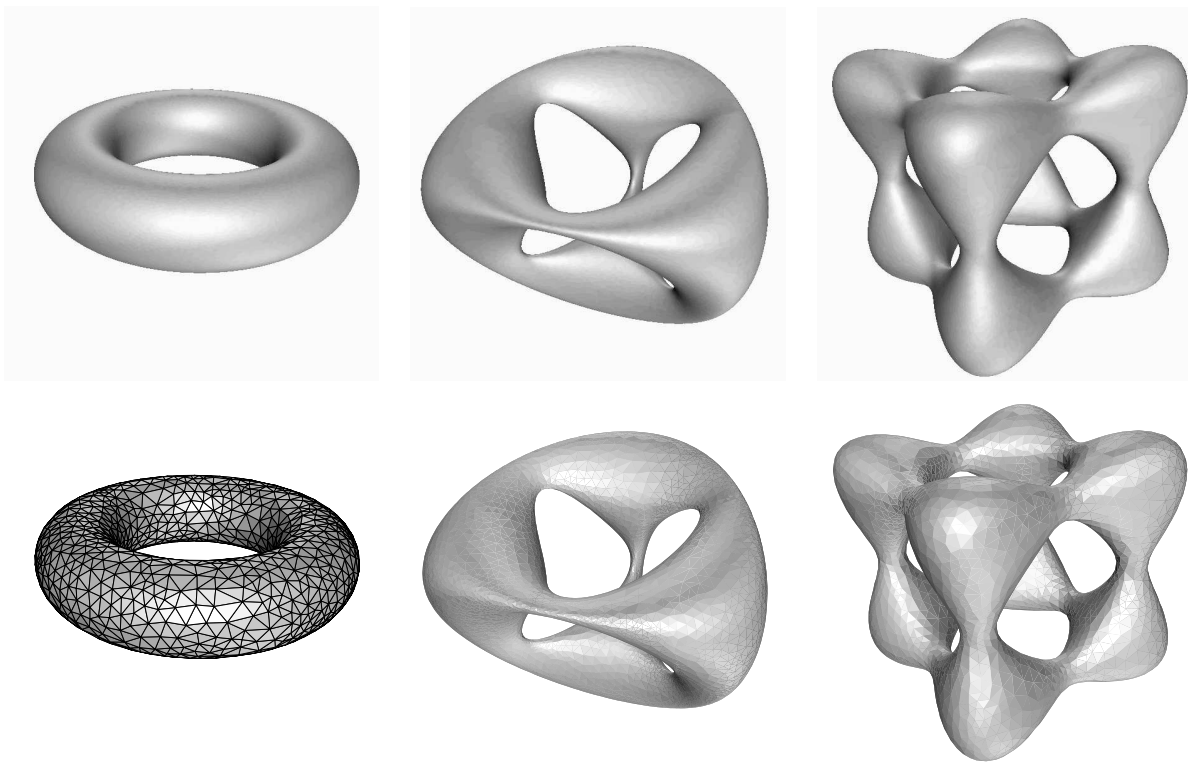


Figure 4: Results on smooth algebraic surfaces, with $\sigma = 0.09 d_M$.

Experimental results Some results on smooth algebraic surfaces are reported in figure 4. The top line shows the inputs, the bottom line shows the outputs. From left to right, we have a

torus, a genus-three surface of degree 4, called “chair”, and a genus-five surface of degree 4, called “tanglecube”. These surfaces have been meshed taking $0.09 d_M$ for function σ . The first observation is that the theoretical results stated in section 4 are verified in practice, since our meshed surfaces are good topological and geometric approximations of their models. The second observation is that the version of the algorithm we used here, which is the one that does not construct persistent facets during the initialization phase, does not generate any small facet in practice: see the regularity of the mesh on the torus, compared to the mesh of figure 3.

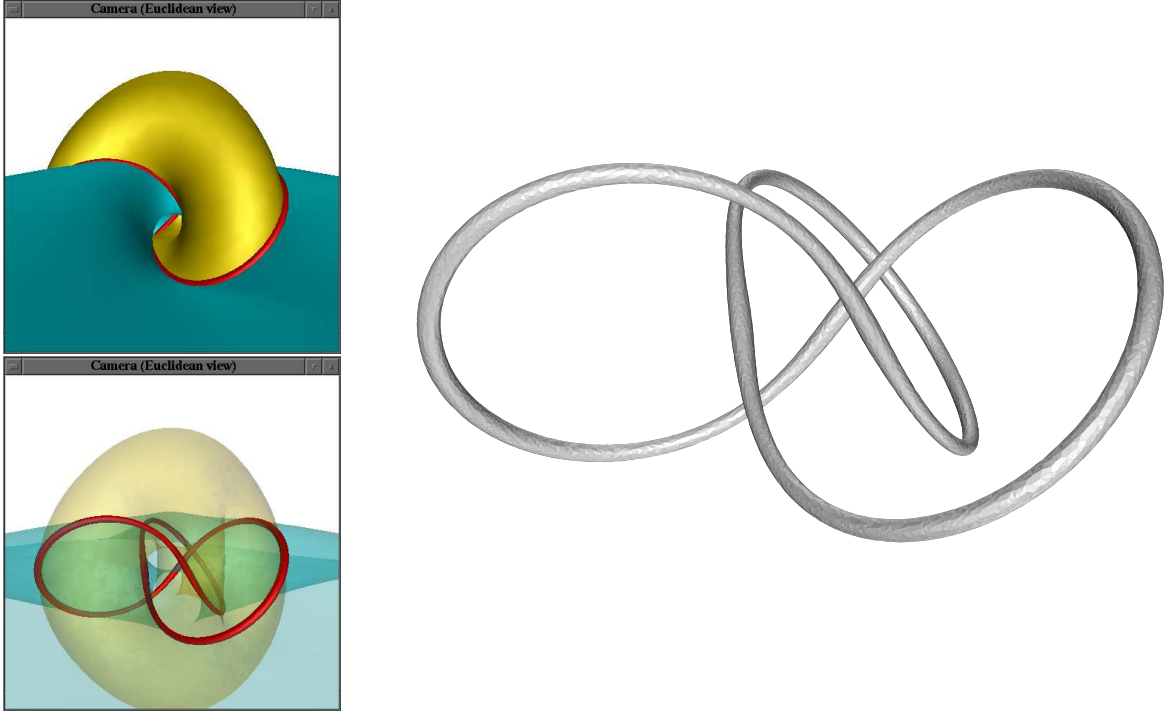


Figure 5: The standard left trefoil knot, in “sausage” format, meshed with $\sigma = 0.09 d_M$.

Corollary 4.6 is illustrated in figures 5 and 6, which show the results of the algorithm respectively on the standard left trefoil knot and on a more intricate knot with high self-entanglement. In both cases, the result of the algorithm is ambient isotopic to the original algebraic model. Notice that every knot is represented in “sausage” format, *i.e.* as the boundary of a thickening of some knotted curve. Figure 5 (left) shows that such a curve can be defined as the intersection of two algebraic surfaces, $f_1 = 0$ and $f_2 = 0$, which are the images through a stereographic projection of two 2-manifolds embedded in the unit sphere of $\mathbb{R}^4$, as explained in [11]. One possible thickening of the curve $f_1 = f_2 = 0$ is $f_1^2 + f_2^2 < \delta$, whose boundary $f_1^2 + f_2^2 = \delta$ is a smooth surface, for a sufficiently small δ . Notice that this thickening does not have a constant radius, as one can observe in figure 5 (right).

Some results on non-smooth algebraic surfaces are presented in figure 7. The left column contains the algebraic models, the center column their meshed versions, and the right column some close-ups of both versions. From top to bottom, we have:

- Barth’s octic surface, of degree 8 (according to its name), made of eight pillows placed at the vertices of a cube and connected along the edges of the cube by means of two singular points. Hence, 24 singular points in total. This surface was meshed taking $\sigma = 0.03$.
- a degree-six surface called “heart”, with two pinch points, one at the top and the other at the

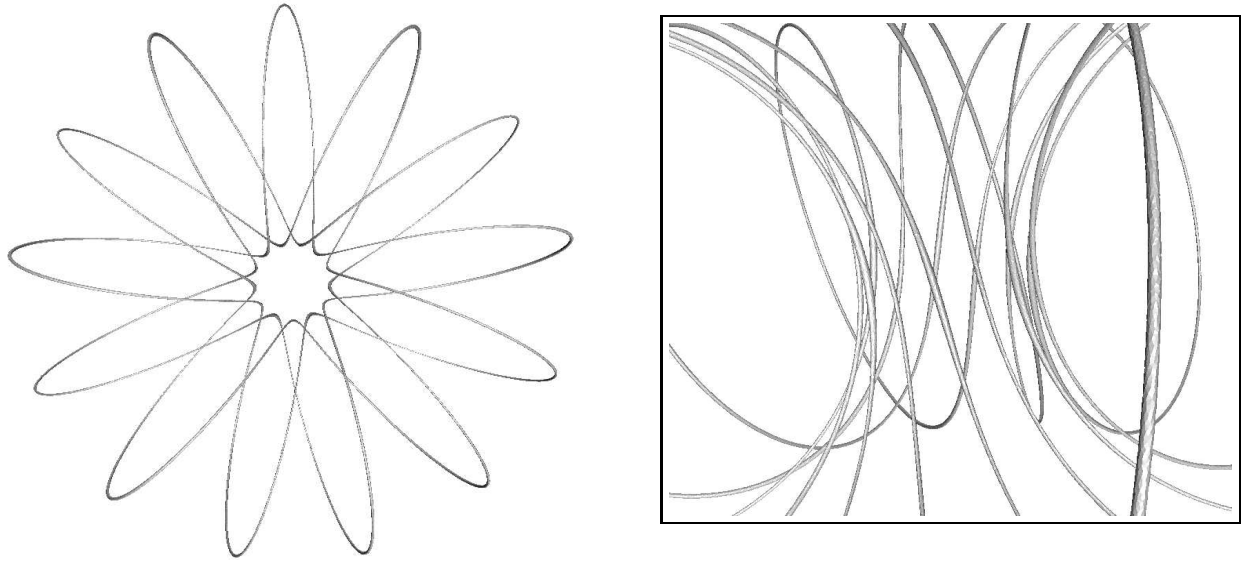


Figure 6: An intricate knot, in “sausage” format, meshed with $\sigma = 0.09 d_M$.

bottom. We took $\sigma = 0.05$ to mesh this surface.

- Klein’s bottle, which is not a manifold when immersed in 3-space. Here, we took $\sigma = 0.1$.

Figure 7 illustrates two things. First, that the algorithm terminates on all kinds of compact surfaces, in accordance with the statement of lemma 6.2. Second, that the algorithm does a good job far from the singularities. We have added to our implementation a patch that checks whether $\text{Del}_S(E)$ is a manifold and that goes on refining the mesh in the negative. This patch can be toggled by the user, which allows him to force the algorithm to generate a manifold. This option has been activated for the “heart” and Barth’s octic. The corresponding meshes are manifolds. Notice that, as a corollary, the singular points of Barth’s octic are missing in our triangulated version.

Timings of computation for the above algebraic models are reported in table 1. The precalculation of d_M^{inf} is not taken into account here. We tried the two versions of the oracle: intersection oracle and bipolar oracle. Since the meshing process works in two passes, the timings for the oracles are reported only in the columns of the second pass. For the first pass, we used the bipolar oracle systematically. Notice that the three last models, which are singular surfaces, were meshed in one pass only, using a constant function σ , as explained above.

The first observation is that the ratio between the sizes of the outputs of both passes depends highly on the input surface. The main difference between both passes is that the first one uses d_M^{inf} instead of d_M . Hence, if the distance to the medial axis is almost constant over the surface, then the ratio between the sizes of the outputs of both passes will be close to 1. It is the case for the two knots¹, which are tubular surfaces of almost constant diameter. Differently, if the distance to the medial axis varies much over the surface, as it is the case for the “chair” and the “tanglecube”, then the ratio between the sizes of the outputs will be big (almost 3 for the “chair”).

¹The ratio is even smaller than 1 for the most intricate knot !

Surface	First pass		Second pass													
			Intersection oracle (uses $\text{Del}_S(E)$)							Bipolar oracle (uses $\text{Del}_S^b(E)$)						
	Total time (secs)	Output size (# pts)	Engine		Oracle			Total time (secs)	Output size (# pts)	Engine		Oracle			Total time (secs)	Output size (# pts)
			Time	%	# calls	Time	%			Time	%	# calls	Time	%		
Sphere	0.29	1,146	0.032	14.6	8,929	0.19	85.4	0.22	445	0.033	87.5	3,226	0.005	12.5	0.038	445
Ellipsoid	0.59	1,864	0.1	6.3	7,410	1.48	93.7	1.58	380	0.11	91.7	8,170	0.01	8.3	0.12	380
Torus	1.21	2,234	0.05	0.2	58 <i>K</i>	26.83	99.8	26.88	1,268	0.055	88.7	63 <i>K</i>	0.07	11.3	0.62	1,307
Chair	8.56	17,996	2.94	0.5	260 <i>K</i>	618.3	99.5	621.3	6,619	2.86	89.4	255 <i>K</i>	0.34	10.6	3.2	6,461
Tanglecube	3.66	7,173	1.72	2.9	168 <i>K</i>	73.24	97.1	74.96	4,225	1.72	90.8	165 <i>K</i>	0.18	9.2	1.9	4,242
Trefoil knot	8.32	10,312	6.02	1.6	545 <i>K</i>	375.7	98.4	381.83	8,329	5.9	93.2	592 <i>K</i>	0.43	6.8	6.3	8,317
Intricate knot	82.41	127 <i>K</i>	92	2.3	5.2 <i>M</i>	3,953	97.7	4,045	133 <i>K</i>	94.4	89.9	7 <i>M</i>	10.6	10.1	105	148 <i>K</i>
Barth's octic			5.92	1.7	547 <i>K</i>	337.8	98.3	343.72	13,928	6.16	83.8	603 <i>K</i>	1.19	16.2	7.35	14,168
Heart			3.24	7	252 <i>K</i>	42.96	93	46.19	8,445	3.11	91.8	263 <i>K</i>	0.28	8.2	3.39	8,539
Klein's bottle			0.076	0.4	101 <i>K</i>	21.44	99.6	21.58	3,424	0.082	92	102 <i>K</i>	0.07	8	0.89	3,445

Table 1: Timings and size of output for various algebraic surfaces, on a Pentium IV - 3 GHz machine.

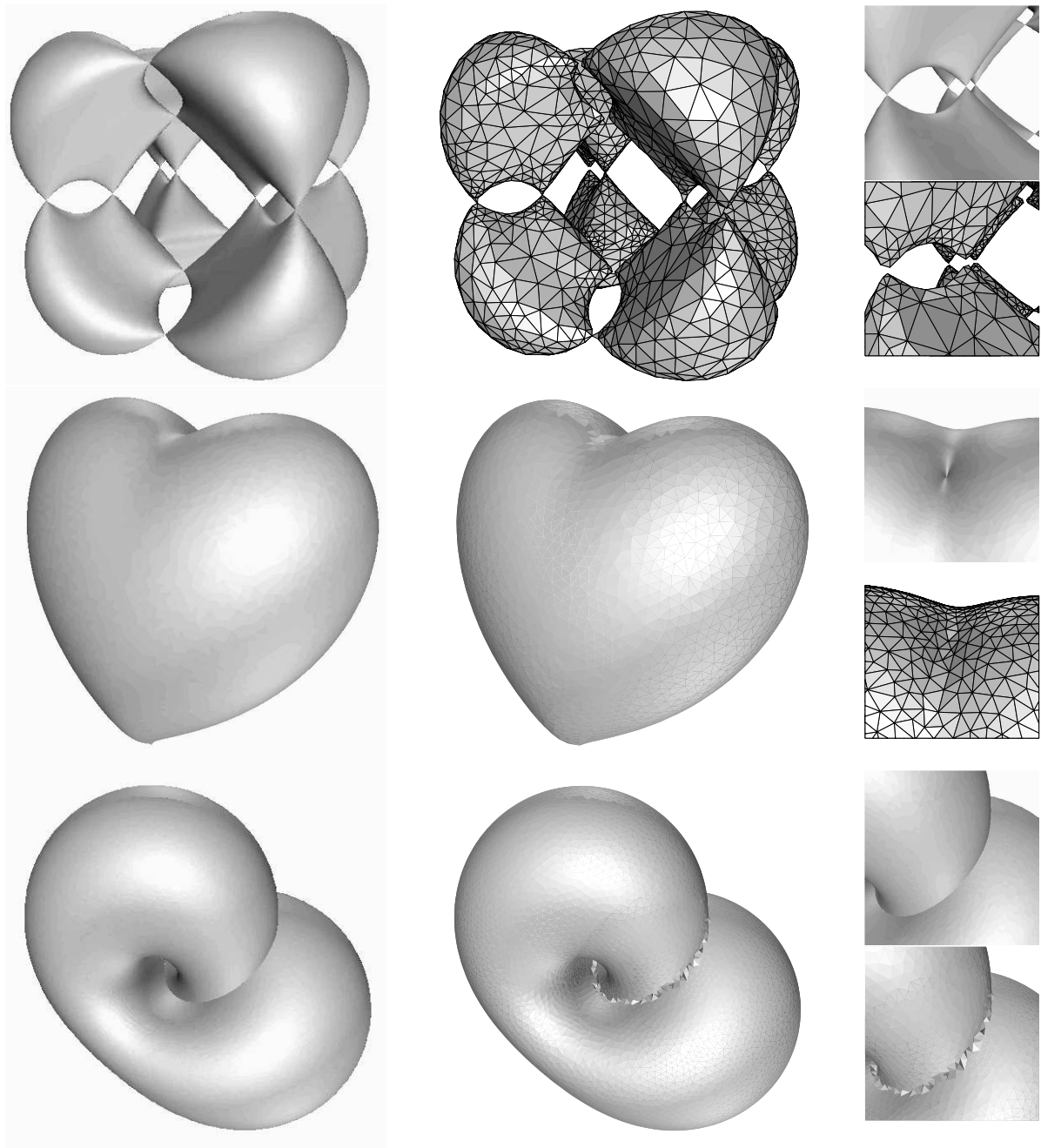


Figure 7: Results on non-smooth or non-manifold algebraic surfaces, with $\sigma = \sigma_0 > 0$.

The second observation is that the ratio between the timings of the two versions of the oracle is quite large. In the table, it ranges from several units for small models (*e.g.* 4 for the sphere), to several dozens for huge models (*e.g.* 40 for the intricate knot). As explained previously, this phenomenon is due to the algorithmic structure of the oracle, which makes its standard version run in linear time versus $1/\Delta$, where Δ is a user-defined precision threshold (10^{-6} here), whereas its bipolar version runs in logarithmic time versus $1/\Delta$.

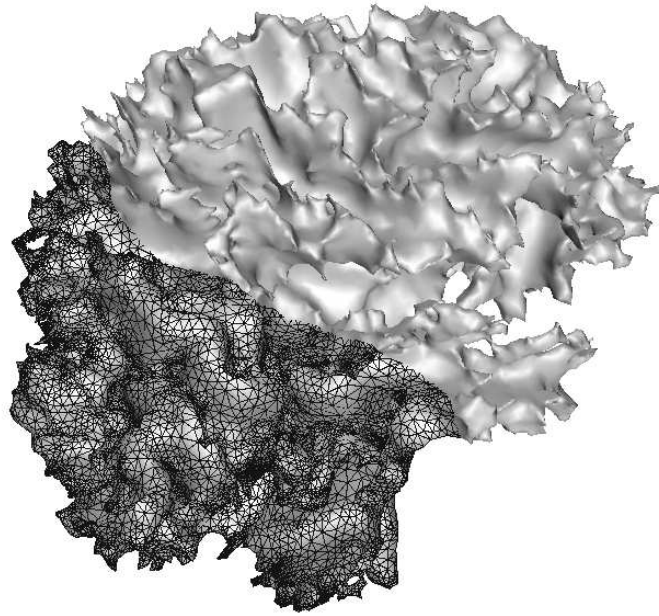
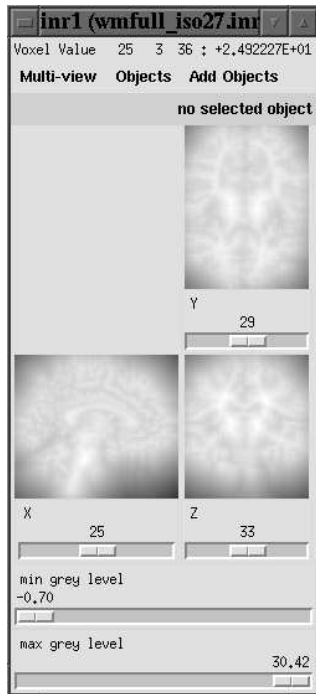
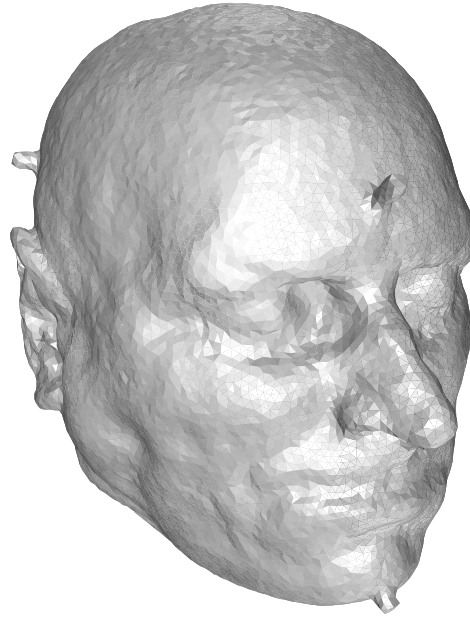
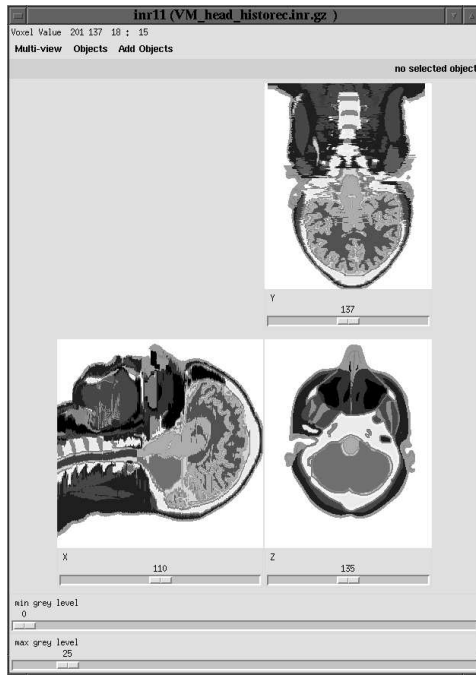


Figure 8: Results on 3D greyscaled images, with $\sigma = 0.09 d_M$.

6.6.2 Level sets in 3D images

In this paragraph, S is a level of grey in a 3D greyscaled image. Formally, it is a level set of some potential function f whose expression is **not** given explicitly. However, we can retrieve the value of $f(x)$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ by interpolation. Our implementation uses the YAV++ library [32], which

provides us with basic tools for manipulating 3D greyscaled images.

P1 We compute the points of S that have a horizontal tangent plane, by sweeping a horizontal plane vertically across the image. Since S has no boundary, this gives us at least two points per connected component of S .

P2 We use a thinning algorithm [13] to compute a discrete approximation $\tilde{M}$ of the medial axis of S . An estimate of d_M^{inf} can be easily computed from $\tilde{M}$.

P3 We proceed as in the case of an implicit surface.

Experimental results Figure 8 shows some results of the algorithm on 3D greyscaled images. The input images are courtesy of Olivier Clatz. The first one has size $256^3 \approx 16.7M$ voxels, the second one $50 * 60 * 60 = 180K$ voxels. The first mesh has about $25K$ vertices, which is far less than the size of the output of Marching Cubes (several millions of vertices). The advantage of our mesher over Marching Cubes is that the user can specify through function σ , at which level of detail he wants to work. The second mesh has approximately $100K$ vertices, which is comparable to the size of the input image. The reason for this is that the surface is quite complicated, with a small d_M^{inf} , hence it requires a lot of points in order to be ε -sampled.

6.6.3 Point set surfaces

Here, S is known only through a finite point set E . The points of E are assumed to be close to S , though they may not lie on S exactly. We use our algorithm to generate a new point sample. The original one is used only for fulfilling prerequisites (P1), (P2) and (P3).

P3 Since S is known only through E , it is impossible to compute new points of S . Therefore, to fulfill prerequisite (P3), we have to derive from E some local approximation $\tilde{S}$ of S . Then, our algorithm will sample $\tilde{S}$ instead of S . Such a strategy has been proposed in [1, 7, 24]. In [7], $\tilde{S}$ is compact and C^1 -smooth, and our results imply that the meshing algorithm outputs a good approximation of $\tilde{S}$. In [1], $\tilde{S}$ is also compact and C^1 -smooth, provided that E is a *good* sample of S in some sense (which we assume in the sequel). Notice that we have a lot of freedom in the choice of $\tilde{S}$. In particular, $\tilde{S}$ may or may not interpolate the points of E .

P1 Since E is a *good* sample of S , in the sens given in [1], we can compute an approximation of the tangent plane of S in each point of E . We pick up the points of E whose tangent plane is almost horizontal. Since S has no boundary, this gives us at least two points per connected component of S .

P2 If $\tilde{S}$ interpolates the points of E , then we can approximate the distance to the medial axis of $\tilde{S}$ with the distance to the λ -medial axis of E – see paragraph 6.5. In that case, we sample $\tilde{S}$ in one

pass only, since the input point sample provides us with an estimate of the distance to the medial axis of $\tilde{S}$. Therefore, we do not have to fulfill (P2). If $\tilde{S}$ does not interpolate but approximates the points of E , then we can consider E as a noisy point sample of $\tilde{S}$. Therefore, we can apply the same strategy as above, with additional filtering of $\text{Vor}(E)$ [20].

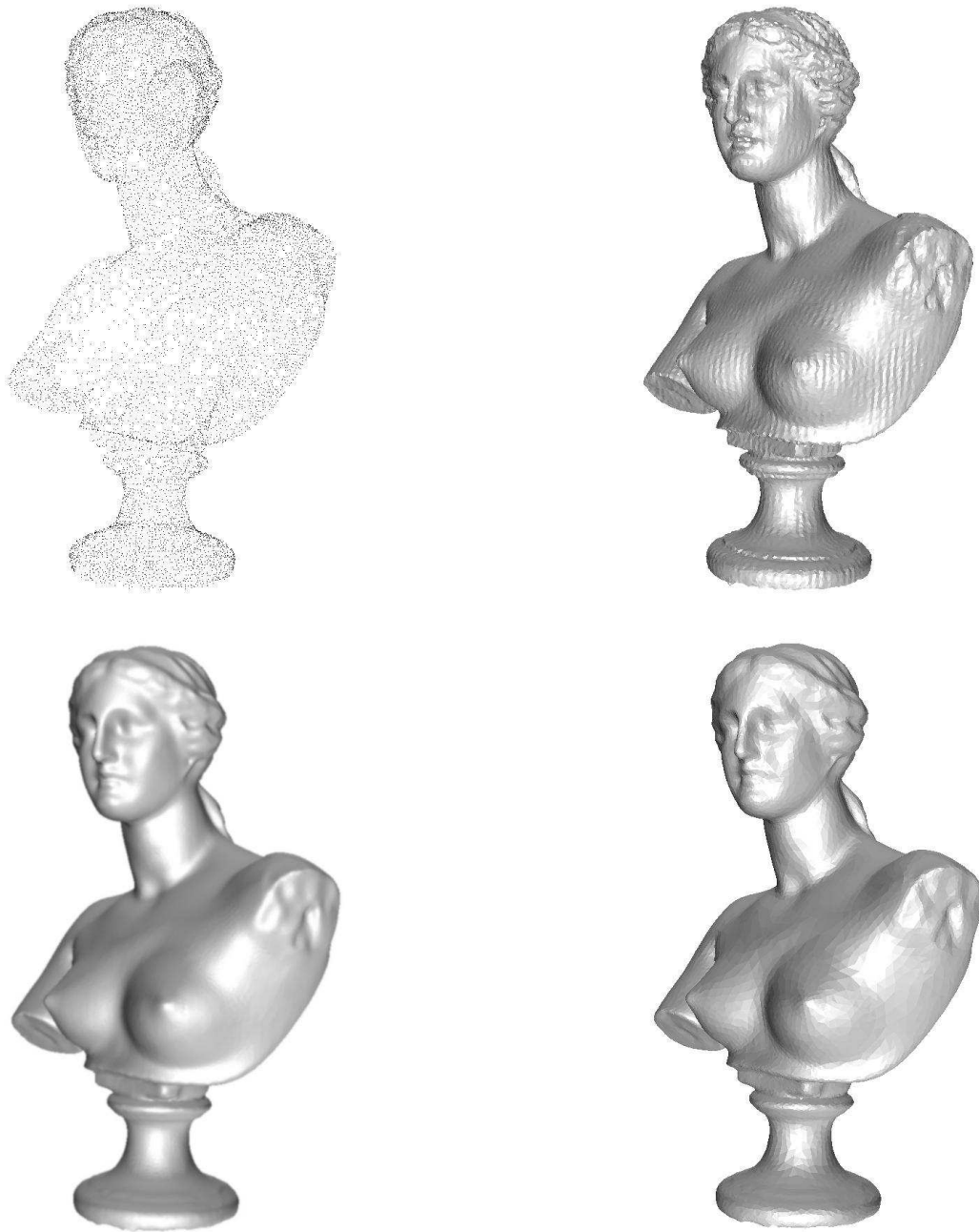


Figure 9: Results on a point set surface, with $\sigma = 0.09 d_M$.

Experimental results Figure 9 shows the results of the algorithm on a noisy point set of $42K$ points – upper-left corner. In the upper-right corner is the output of our algorithm when used

with the interpolating surface of [7]. In the bottom-right corner is the result of our algorithm when used with the approximating surface of [1] – shown in the bottom-left corner. Both outputs have the right topology type. However, the interpolating surface leads to a wrong approximation of the normals of the original surface, due to the presence of noise. This is clearly not the case with the approximating surface.

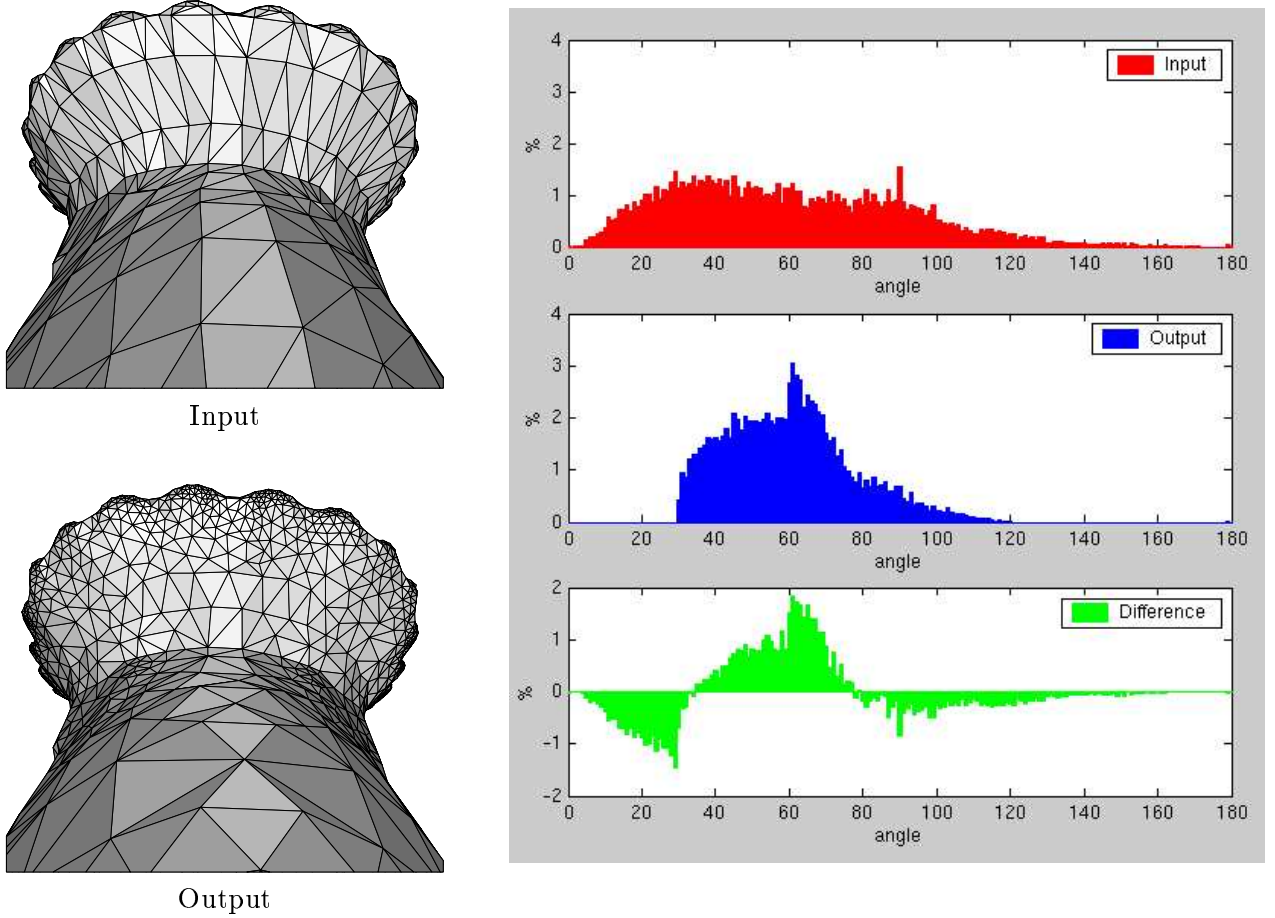


Figure 10: Removing the skinny facets (triceratops model).

6.6.4 Polyhedra

In this paragraph, S is defined as a polyhedron, which implies that it is not smooth everywhere. Hence, the theoretical results stated in sections 3 and 4 no longer hold, since d_M vanishes at singular points. Nevertheless, we can run the algorithm with $\sigma = \sigma_0$, for any positive constant σ_0 . The algorithm will terminate, by lemma 6.2. However, the output is not guaranteed to be a loose ε -sample of S .

It is trivial to fulfill (P1) since S is a polyhedron. Moreover, we can forget about (P2) since we take a constant function σ that has no relationship with d_M . As for (P3), it can be satisfied by means of a naive procedure which, given a line segment s , checks the intersection of s with each

facet of S . The segment-surface-intersection test is then performed in linear time, with respect to the number of facets of S . Our implementation of the oracle uses some code implemented by M. Samozino, which uses an octree to speed-up the segment-surface-intersection test.

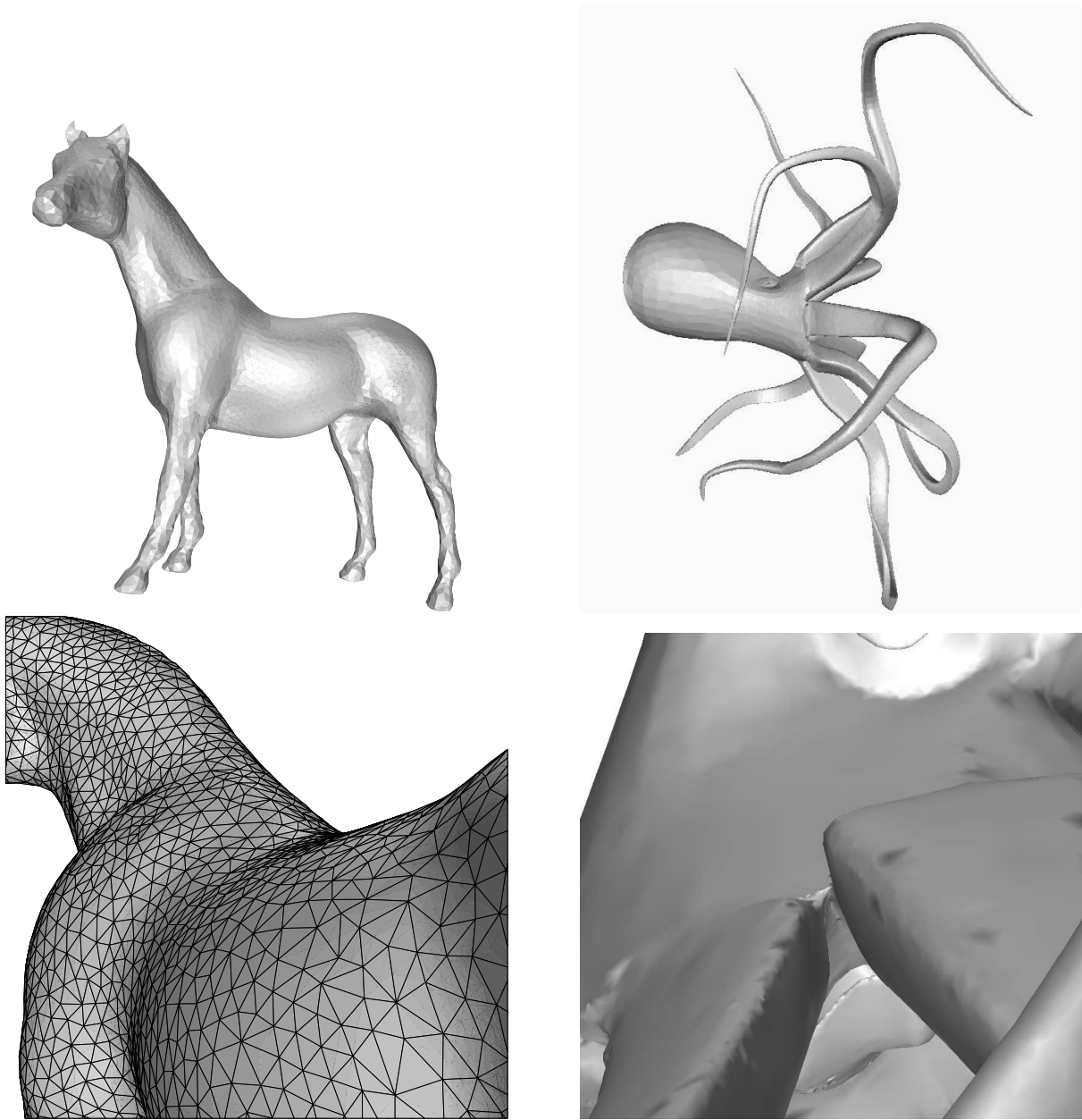


Figure 11: Results on polyhedra, with $\sigma = \sigma_0 > 0$.

Experimental results Figure 11 shows some results on polyhedra. Here, we chose random positive constants as function σ . As one can notice, the algorithm is robust regarding the choice of the constant. In particular, it does a good job far from the sharp edges. We observe that, when dihedral angles are bigger than $\frac{\pi}{2}$, everything occurs as if the surface were smooth. It is the case of the horse model, from which the algorithm generated a manifold with the right topology type.

However, in the vicinity of sharp edges, the output mesh may have cracks or holes, or it may even not be a manifold. An illustration is given in the close-up of the octopus, in which the mesh is shown with Gouraud shading. The effect is that dark stains appear in places where the normal is oriented in the wrong direction. In these places, the surface is not locally a manifold.

Figure 10 shows the result of the skinny facet removal procedure, described in paragraph 6.4.1, on the triceratops model. In accordance with the theory, we can remove all triangles with angles less than $\frac{\pi}{6}$ in practice.

7 Conclusion

We have introduced a new notion of surface sample, the so-called loose ε -samples. We have shown that loose ε -samples are $\varepsilon(1 + 8.5 \varepsilon)$ -samples and share the main properties of ε -samples. Checking if a sample E of a surface S is a loose ε -sample reduces to comparing the radii of the surface Delaunay balls with the distances of their centers to the medial axis of S . Hence we obtain a new sufficient condition for sampling a surface with topological and geometric properties. This condition is similar in spirit to other sampling conditions [21, 3, 4]. An important advantage of our condition is that it leads to a simple and provably correct algorithm to sample and mesh surfaces, which has several advantages over Marching Cubes [25, 16]: topological guarantees, approximation of normals, facets with bounded aspect ratio, optimal size.

This paper has only considered the case of smooth closed surfaces. We plan to extend our work to surfaces with boundaries and to piecewise smooth surfaces. Experimental results have shown that the algorithm is robust and can produce good geometric approximations of surfaces with singularities.

Our approach can be used for curves in any dimension: extending the proofs of this paper is not difficult, and in fact the proofs are simpler. Further research is needed to extend this work to manifolds of dimension more than one embedded in spaces of higher dimensions.

Since the submission of the conference version of this paper, several other certified algorithms have been proposed to mesh smooth implicit surfaces. Plantinga and Vegter [27] proposed a variant of the Marching Cubes algorithm with topological guarantees. Cheng et al [14] proposed another Delaunay refinement algorithm for meshing implicit surfaces. Their algorithm assumes to be able to compute critical points of height functions defined over S or over intersections of S with planes, which seems to be a hard task except for simple cases (when the implicit function is a polynomial). Boissonnat et al [9] proposed a meshing algorithm that offers topological guarantees based on some results from Morse theory. Their method requires to compute the indices of critical points.

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Appendix: various lemmas

This appendix recalls a few well-known results.

Theorem 9.1 (Meusnier's theorem)

Let S be a C^2 surface, m be a point of S , and ξ be a curve drawn on S that passes through m . ξ is parameterized by arclength. Then,

$$\|\xi''\| = \frac{\mathcal{I}(\xi', \xi')}{\cos \theta}$$

where ξ' and ξ'' are respectively the first and second derivatives of ξ at point m , $\mathcal{I}$ is the second fundamental form of S at m , and θ is the angle between the normal to S and the normal to ξ at m .

A proof of this theorem can be found in [6]. In the cited book, the right hand of the expression is wrong but corrected here.

Lemma 9.2 Let $\vec{v}$ be a vector of Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^3$, and Π a vectorial plane that is not orthogonal to $\vec{v}$. Let $\vec{v}^\pi$ denote the orthogonal projection of $\vec{v}$ onto Π . For any vector $\vec{u}$ of $\Pi \setminus \{\vec{0}\}$, we have $(\vec{v}, \vec{u}) \geq (\vec{v}, \vec{v}^\pi)$.

Proof Notice that $(\vec{v} - \vec{v}^\pi)$ is orthogonal to Π . Thus, for all $\vec{x} \in \Pi$, $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{v}^\pi \cdot \vec{x}$. Consider $C = \{\vec{x} \in \Pi \mid \|\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{v}^\pi\|\}$. For all $\vec{u} \in C$, we have $\vec{v}^\pi \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v}^\pi) \leq 0$. Thus, $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}^\pi + \vec{v} \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v}^\pi) = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}^\pi + \vec{v}^\pi \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v}^\pi) \leq \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}^\pi$, which means that $\cos(\vec{v}, \vec{u}) \leq \cos(\vec{v}, \vec{v}^\pi)$ since $\|\vec{u}\| = \|\vec{v}^\pi\|$. It follows that $(\vec{v}, \vec{u}) \geq (\vec{v}, \vec{v}^\pi)$.

Now, let $\vec{u}$ be any non-zero vector of Π . There exists a unique vector $\vec{u}^c \in C$ such that $(\vec{u}, \vec{u}^c) = 0$. It follows that $(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = (\vec{u}^c, \vec{v}) \geq (\vec{v}, \vec{v}^\pi)$. $\square$

Lemma 9.3 Let f and g be two univariate functions of class C^2 . Let x_a and x_b ($x_a < x_b$) be two reals such that

$$\begin{cases} (i) & f(x_a) = g(x_a) \text{ and } f(x_b) = g(x_b) \\ (ii) & \forall x \in [x_a, x_b], f(x) \geq g(x) \\ (iii) & \forall x \in]x_a, x_b[, g''(x) \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

Then there exists a real $x_c \in]x_a, x_b[$ such that $f''(x_c) \leq g''(x_c) \leq 0$.

Proof By $f'(x_a)$ and $g'(x_a)$ we denote the right derivatives of f and g at x_a . Idem, by $f'(x_b)$ and $g'(x_b)$ we denote the left derivatives of f and g at x_b . (i) and (ii) imply that $f'(x_a) \geq g'(x_a)$, since otherwise there would exist a neighbourhood V_a of x_a such that $\forall x \in V_a \setminus \{x_a\}$, $\frac{f(x)-f(x_a)}{x-x_a} < \frac{g(x)-g(x_a)}{x-x_a}$, which would give that $f < g$ on $V_a \setminus \{x_a\}$, which contradicts (ii). Idem, we have $f'(x_b) \leq g'(x_b)$.

Now, Taylor-Lagrange formula (at first order), applied to function $(f'-g')$, tells that there exists a real $x_c \in]x_a, x_b[$ such that $(f' - g')'(x_c) = \frac{(f'-g')(x_b) - (f'-g')(x_a)}{x_b - x_a}$, which is negative since $f'(x_a) - g'(x_a) \geq 0$ and $f'(x_b) - g'(x_b) \leq 0$. It follows that $f''(x_c) - g''(x_c) \leq 0$. $\square$

Lemma 9.4 *Let S be a compact surface without boundary, embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, and let $\vec{v}$ be a vector. We choose an orthonormal frame (O, x, y, z) such that $\vec{v}$ is oriented along the $[0, z)$ direction. Let Ω be a convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^3$, such that $\forall x \in S \cap \Omega$, $(\vec{n}(x), \vec{v}) < \frac{\pi}{2}$, where $\vec{n}(x)$ denotes the normal to S at x . Then $S \cap \Omega$ is xy -monotone.*

Proof We assume without loss of generality that S is oriented such that its normal points outwards. Let us assume for a contradiction that there exists a point (x_0, y_0) of plane (O, x, y) such that the vertical line d passing through (x_0, y_0) intersects $S \cap \Omega$ at least twice. Let (x_0, y_0, z_1) and (x_0, y_0, z_2) be two points of intersection that are consecutive along d . If there are not two such points, then this means that d intersects $S \cap \Omega$ along a segment (which is a degenerate case), and at each point of this segment the normal to S is orthogonal to d , and thus has a zero scalar product with $\vec{v}$, which contradicts the hypothesis of the lemma. So now we assume that points (x_0, y_0, z_1) and (x_0, y_0, z_2) do exist. By definition, they are consecutive among the points of $S \cap \Omega \cap d$. Since Ω is convex, $\Omega \cap d$ is a segment of d , hence points (x_0, y_0, z_1) and (x_0, y_0, z_2) are also consecutive among the points of $S \cap d$. Thus, the open segment of d that joins them is included in one component of $\mathbb{R}^3 \setminus S$. It follows that $\vec{n}(x_0, y_0, z_1)$ or $\vec{n}(x_0, y_0, z_2)$ has a negative or zero scalar product with $\vec{v}$, since the normal of S always points outwards. This contradicts the hypothesis of the lemma. $\square$

Lemma 9.5 *Let S be a compact surface without boundary, embedded in $\mathbb{R}^3$, and let $\vec{v}$ be a vector. We choose an orthonormal frame (O, x, y, z) such that $\vec{v}$ is oriented along the $[0, z)$ direction. Let B be a ball centered at point $c \in S$, such that $\forall x \in B \cap S$, $(\vec{n}(x), \vec{v}) \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$. Then $S \cap B$ lies outside the cone K of apex c , of vertical axis and of half-angle $\frac{\pi}{4}$.*

Proof Let proj be the vertical projection onto plane (O, x, y) . Since $B \cap S$ is xy -monotone by lemma 9.4, the projection of $B \cap S$ is one-to-one. Let us assume for a contradiction that there exists a point $c' \in B \cap S$ that lies inside K . Let P be the vertical plane that passes through c and c' . It intersects $B \cap S$ along a set of simple arcs, since $B \cap S$ is xy -monotone. We consider the segment that joins $\text{proj}(c)$ and $\text{proj}(c')$:

1. if it is included in $\text{proj}(B \cap S)$, then c and c' belong to the same connected arc of $P \cap B \cap S$. The problem becomes then two dimensional: inside plane P , K is a cone of apex c , of vertical axis and of semi-angle $\frac{\pi}{4}$, and c and c' belong to a connected arc that is the graph of a function f , and whose normal makes an angle lower than $\frac{\pi}{4}$ with the vertical direction (which means that $|f'| \leq 1$). Let (O, t, z) be an orthonormal frame of P . We call c_t and c'_t the t -coordinates of c and c' . We have $|f(c'_t) - f(c_t)| = \left| \int_{c_t}^{c'_t} f'(t) dt \right| \leq \left| \int_{c_t}^{c'_t} |f'(t)| dt \right| \leq |c'_t - c_t|$, which means that c' does not belong to K , which contradicts the assumption.

2. if the segment that joins $\text{proj}(c)$ and $\text{proj}(c')$ is not entirely included in $\text{proj}(B \cap S)$, then we have to find another point that satisfies all the assumptions of case 1. We call c'_1 and c'_2 the points of ∂B that have same (x, y) coordinates as c' , and we assume without loss of generality that c'_1 lies above c'_2 . Let p_1 and p_2 be the upper and lower poles of ∂B . We consider the meridian m of ∂B than passes through p_1, c'_1, c'_2 and p_2 . The smaller arc α_1 of m that joins p_1 and c'_1 ,

and the smaller arc α_2 of m that joins p_2 and c'_2 , project themselves onto the segment that joins $\text{proj}(c) = \text{proj}(p_1) = \text{proj}(p_2)$ and $\text{proj}(c') = \text{proj}(c'_1) = \text{proj}(c'_2)$. Since this segment is not entirely included in $\text{proj}(B \cap S)$, it intersects the boundary of $\text{proj}(B \cap S)$. Let c^* be the point of intersection that is closest to $\text{proj}(c)$. Since S has no boundary, the boundary of $B \cap S$ belongs to ∂B , thus the point of $B \cap S$ that projects onto c^* lies on α_1 or α_2 . We call $\text{proj}^{-1}(c^*)$ this point. Since $c' \in K$ by assumption, c'_1 and c'_2 also belong to K . Thus, all the points of α_1 belong to K since they are closer than c'_1 to the vertical axis of the cone, while their z-coordinate is bigger than that of c'_1 . Idem, $\alpha_2 \subset K$. Thus, $\text{proj}^{-1}(c^*)$ belongs to K . Moreover, since c^* is the point of intersection that is closest to $\text{proj}(c)$, segment $[\text{proj}(c), c^*]$ is included in $\text{proj}(B \cap S)$. So, $\text{proj}^{-1}(c^*)$ verifies all the assumptions of case 1., and thus leads to the same contradiction. $\square$