Multiresolution Modeling Using Fractal Image Compression Techniques

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Abstract
This work presents a new approach to the multiresolution modeling of polygonal meshes. This approach is based on the theoretically well-established fractal image compression techniques. A polygonal mesh is represented as a fractal using an iterated function system (IFS). In this way, a level of detail can be obtained over a region of the mesh by successively iterating the IFS. The main advantage is that it becomes possible to recover new levels of detail that were not present in the original mesh, so that the quality is not lost as the observer approaches the mesh. Another characteristic is that the same representation can be used over textures, and in this case the algorithm is directly implemented over the GPU. The visualization time obtained allows this new approach to be used in real-time interactive computer graphic applications.

1. Introduction

Interactive visualization of large triangle meshes is a common problem that is present in engineering (CAD model visualization), architecture (virtual walkthroughs), GIS (terrain model visualization), computer games, film post-production, medicine and so on.

Multiresolution modeling has proven to be a powerful tool for avoiding this problem, as shown by the large number of papers published on this research topic; these works deal with issues ranging from terrain polygonal meshes [Hop97, DWS’97, HDJ05] to general polygonal meshes [XV96, Pri00, EsAV99, FPM97, FMPP98, LE97, EMB01, Paj01, GH97, KL01, KL03].

In this work a new approach to multiresolution modeling of polygonal meshes is presented. This approach is based on the theoretically well-established fractal image compression techniques. This new method codifies a multiresolution model as a fractal using an iterated function system (IFS) representation. The view dependent levels of detail are recovered by iterating over the IFS until the required resolution is reached. Since the models are codified as a fractal it is possible to recovered a resolution with more detail than that existing in the original model. This new detail is not an artificial one as in previous works [?], but is based on the self similarity of fractals. Moreover, the codified multiresolution model sizes are smaller than the original polygonal model.

Unlike other multiresolution models that have previously been published, our multiresolution model does not need a simplification or a decimation algorithm to obtain the set of levels of detail that the model stores.

The decoding algorithm can be easily coded as a GPU
pixel shader. The same algorithm used to represent the polygonal mesh can therefore be used to represent a texture having the same properties. In particular, new self-similar detail can be added to the image if the observer approaches the surface.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Previous work on multiresolution modelling is reviewed in Section 2. Section 3 presents the theoretical background to fractal image compression and how this is used to build a multiresolution model over a height field model. The description of the experiments and their results are given in Section 4. Finally, conclusions and future work are discussed in Section 5.

2. Related Work

In [XV96] Xia et al. presented a view dependent multiresolution model for polygonal models based on a hierarchical-vertex structure named merge trees developed by the authors. Each merge tree is built bottom-up, from the high detail mesh to a low detail mesh, using edge collapse. An edge collapse establishes a parent-child relationship between the two vertices of the edge, the vertex that remains being the parent of the vertex that collapses over it.

In [Hop97], Hoppe presented a view dependent multiresolution terrain model also using edge collapses. Prince [Pri00] extends the model to general polygonal models.

In [EsAV99], El-Sana presented a view dependent multiresolution model that uses topology simplification through virtual-edge collapse. A virtual-edge connects two vertices in which Voronoi cells share a Voronoi face and are not edges of the model. In contrast to [XV96, Hop97], in this case implicit dependencies are used, so fold-overs are more easily checked as the multiresolution model is updated.

The multiresolution model presented by De Floriani et al. [FPM97, FMPP98] uses a directed acyclic graph (DAG) as the data structure to build a view dependent multiresolution model. Each node of the graph stores local modifications, which are typically vertex insertion or removal. A cut over the DAG determines which triangles to visualize.

The hierarchical structure used by Luebke et al. [LE97] is built using a generalization of the vertex collapse and split over an octree. In each simplification step, all vertices within an octree cell are replaced by a representative vertex. During the visualization process, a cut over the tree is obtained and it is incrementally updated by taking advantage of frame-to-frame coherence.

In [EMB01], Erikson et al. presented a multiresolution model based on a hierarchy of levels of detail (HLODs). Inner nodes of the hierarchy represent individual simplified parts of the original polygonal model (LOD nodes) as groups of these parts that are simplified together (HLOD nodes). This model allows some limited edition by recalculating.

During the editing process, the parts of the hierarchy that have been modified.

In [Paj01], Pajarola et al. presented a hierarchical multiresolution model based on a half-edge representation of the polygonal mesh. The hierarchy is built using a modified version of Garland’s simplification algorithm based on edge contractions [GH97], in such a way that the topology of the mesh is not preserved during simplification. To minimize the dependency between vertices in successive contractions, candidate edges for simplification are selected in mesh zones that are a long way away from each other.

In [KL01, KL03], Kim and Lee presented a new scheme to build view dependent hierarchical multiresolution models based on the dual space of the polygonal model, which the authors called transitive mesh space of a progressive mesh. A dual piece over the dual space is assigned to each vertex in such a way that it does not intersect any other dual piece. Edge contraction is used to build the hierarchy and the dual piece of the vertex that remains after each contraction is the union of the dual pieces of the original vertices. There is no dependency between the dual pieces of the hierarchy which have no parent-child relationship and, hence, very drastic changes can be obtained in the simplified mesh.

M. Duchaineau et al. [DWS+97] presented the ROAMing Terrain model. This view dependent multiresolution model for terrain models originally used bintree triangulation as data structure. Later, in [HDJ05] the structure was changed to a diamond data one. The diamonds or triangles are dynamically updated using split and merge operations. To optimize these operations two priority queues are used. As the model changes, split and merge operations are respectively done over the diamonds or triangles in the queues.

3. Model Description

This section shows the basis of fractal image compression as an IFS and how it is possible to build a multiresolution model from a digital terrain model (2.5D). Then it is shown how these ideas can be extended in the case of 3D models.

3.1. Fractal image compression

Fractal image compression is based on the fact that images, like fractals, are redundant in the sense that they can be built from transformed copies of themselves [Jac90]. In the same way that a fractal can be represented by a set of Iterated Function Systems an image can also be represented by a set of IFS [Jac90, Bar88, Fis92, BMK95].

An IFS is a dynamic system $W$ of $n$ contractive transformations $w_i$ over a metric space. A 2D IFS maps the plane $\mathbb{R}^2$ over itself, and it converges as the system is iterated.

$$W(x) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} w_i(x) \{ w_i : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2 | i = 1, ..., n \} \quad (1)$$

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The map $W$ serves our purposes as a fractal scheme that codifies an image $I$ in 2D as a set of contractive transformations over itself. The fixed point of $W$ is an approximation to the initial image $I$.

**Encoding (compression):** Fractal encoding of an image $I$ finds the set of transformations $w_i$ that generates the image $I$ as they are iterated. If the elements of $R^2$ in the original space are called domains $D$ and the elements $R^2$ in the destination space are named ranges $R$, then encoding consists in finding the domain $D$ that, when transformed, best fits each range $R$ in accordance with the metric that has been defined. The *fixed point theorem* for contractive mappings imposes that the set of transformations be contractive in such a way that the iteration over the IFS converges to the image $I$. On the other hand, images are not exactly auto-similar and so, in order to obtain a better fit between domains and ranges, brightness $o$ and contrast $s$ factors are introduced into each transformation, taking $s < 1$. By so doing, the search process must find the optimum $o$ and $s$ that transform $D$ while minimizing its difference with $R$ under the defined metric.

An IFS allows us to choose the sizes and arrangements of range $R$, and also the precision of the transformation parameters like $R^2$ or the $o$ and $s$ factors. This makes it possible to choose the size needed to store an IFS. Generally, this size is less than the size of the original image $I$ and some information is lost. The encoded process is a lossy compression process.

**Partitioning:** An important issue, directly related with the quality of the codified image, is how ranges are chosen. If we impose that ranges cannot be superposed, then they can be chosen over a grid of constant size. In this way, the quality of the codified image is directly dependent on the grid size, since the more transformation the IFS stores, the better the quality of the codified image will be. Ranges can be chosen adaptively, in such a way that the size of the grid can be adjusted to the details of the image, taking larger sizes of the grid in those regions of the image with little detail, and a smaller grid size in those regions of the image with more detail. Adaptive grids diminish the size of the codified image while maintaining its quality. *Quadtree*, *HV*, and triangular subdivisions are the most frequently used types of adaptive partitioning [Fin92, BMK95].

**Domain set:** A domain of the image can be any region of the image and all of its orientations and flips. The size of the domains must be bigger than the size of the ranges in order for an IFS to be contractive. On the other hand, one domain can superpose onto others. For the sake of simplicity, domain sizes are chosen with double the size of the range sizes, thus making it possible to perform an average sub-sampling so that a domain can be compared with a range. For a given image of size $n \times m$ and domain size $t \times t$ there are $(n-t+1) \times (m-t+1)$ different domains. Contracting and comparing each of these domains with each range in order to find the domain that best fits a range has a very high computational cost. To reduce computational time domains can be chosen either over a regular grid or at random. A better strategy that is commonly used [BMK95] is to group together those domains that look more like each other, and compare each range only with the domains in the group that resemble each other.

**Decoding (decompression):** The compressed image can be recovered by simply iterating the IFS over a seed image.

$$I \simeq |W| = \lim_{x \to \infty} W^{\infty}(x)$$

The result of decoding is independent of the seed image as $x \to \infty$ but can cause the fractal to converge in more or fewer iterations. The more the seed image looks like the decoded image, the faster the IFS converges. Decompression can be performed in several ways: *Recovery with fixed resolution*: for obtaining a decompressed image of a specified size. An IFS is iterated over a seed image, the decompressed image will have the same size as the seed image. This is the direct method and yields the best quality results of the decompressed image $I$. Nevertheless, seed images of sizes other than those of the encoded images can be used. IFS iterates by subsampling the pixels of the images. Hence, a decompressed image of arbitrary size can be obtained.

*Recovery with continuous resolution*: for recovering the value of the image at a given point independently of the rest of the image points. In this case, the iteration process must be inverted, that is, by beginning with the real coordinate of the final point we are interested in, the set of transformations $w_i$ is found. This process is repeated a number of times and for the $s$ and $o$ factors of all transformations $w_i$ involved. In the end, the value of the seed image is taken and the transformations are performed in an inverse order to the one in which they were found. The final result is the value of the IFS iterated only over the selected point.

**Properties:** An image codified as an IFS has the following characteristics:

*Selective quality:* in the moment of building the IFS one area of the image can have more priority than another and, thus, regions of interest (ROI) are selected during the compression of $I$. In order to use ROIs, some parts of the original image can be split with a large number of ranges and also a large number of domains are used while obtaining the transformations $w_i$. Thus, the ROIs will have a better resolution while decompressing the image.

*Infinite resolution:* There is no limit in the size a fractal is decompress. An image codified as a fractal can be decoded at every resolution, much more, much less or at the same size that the original one. The boundaries of the image codified are in the range $[0, 1]$ and it is possible to recover information of the image for any given point within this range. This gives an added detail to the image as shown in Figure 2.

*Continuous range of colour:* although the original image
had a finite number of colours only, the codified image as an IFS has a continuous range of colours between [0, 1]. This property is very useful if the colour resolution in the image representation needs to be changed.

**Progressive refinement:** The more iterations over the IFS the more the quality of the image. The image obtained after an iteration is the image seed taken to perform the next iteration. This way the iterative process can be stopped after reaching some pre-specified error.

**Selective refinement:** Since the decompression process is done one pixel every time, some regions of the image can be decompress at high resolution than others.

**Lossless compression:** Fractal compression is a lossy compression technique. Nevertheless, lossless or quasi-lossless compression can be obtained. One method to obtain lossless compression is to use an IFS variation with place-dependent probabilities [Bar02]. Another method is to take a regular partitioning of fixed size with range size of one pixel. To retain the topological information in the comparison range-domain, the original image $I$ is supersampled in such a way that ranges of size two and domains of size four are obtained. This way one transformation by pixel must be stored, increasing the compress image size.

**Colour image compression:** Fractal image compression techniques can be easily extended to images with more than one colour component. Fractal colour image compression means to codify independently each colour component of the image. In the same way, colour image decompression means to decode all colour components of the image. The YIQ colour space (luminance, hue, saturation) is advisable when using colour images [BMK95], because the human eye is not particularly sensitive to colour information, but more sensitive to brightness. In this way, it is possible to compress with a high ratio the I and Q canals without loss of quality. The IFS of the I and Q canals used to be reduced to a half or a quarter of the original image size, and they are compressed with a bitrate lower than that of the Y canal, so the bitrate of the overall colour image is reduced.

### 3.2. Fractal compression applied to elevation maps

Digital elevation models (DEM) are used to represent regular grid-sampled data of terrains. A DEM elevation map allows access to an elevation value using a pair of coordinates. These coordinates allows the height data to be arranged as a two-dimensional array. Each height of the DEM can be interpreted as a grayscale level. Thus, the DEM is similar to a grayscale image.

**Compression:** In order to set up the ranges we used a quadtree-based adaptive partitioning. The user chooses the maximum number of transformations for an IFS representation. Should this maximum number not be reached, the node that gives rise to the greatest error in approximation is split, its transformation is erased from the list and a new transformation is added for each of its four child nodes. To speed up the process of minimizing the error transformation, the domains are grouped together by appearance in order to search between only the domains with a similar one. In our case, the appearance criterion is based on the domain’s brightness arrangement. This works by subsampling the entire domain to a 2x2 size, classifying the new arrangement of values from lower to higher, and grouping the domain with the ones that share the same arrangement.

The metric we have chosen to compute the distance between two images $x_{i,j}$ and $y_{i,j}$ with size $t \times u$ is the rms metric, which is defined by the following equation:

$$d_{rms}(x, y) = ||x - y||_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{t \cdot u} \sum_{i,j \leq t,u} (x_{i,j} - y_{i,j})^2}$$

with this metric, the search for the contrast $s_j$ and brightness $o_j$ that minimizes the difference is reduced to solve a least squares problem [BMK95]. For the terrain, we used a lossy compression with a small lossy factor to preserve much of the original elevation map appearance. The compression is an off-line process, and compression times for different elevation maps are shown in Table 1. Finally, the elevation model compression can also be adjusted with ROI zones.

**Decompression:** The terrain rendering algorithm is the one that defines what points we need elevation for. A general
bintree-based algorithm was used. This algorithm generates a regular triangle hierarchy. However, any algorithm of any type of structure can be used.

There are two options in order to obtain the elevation for each triangle vertex. The first is to decompress the whole of the fractal DEM with discrete extraction of the IFS. In this case, we recommend subdividing the initial DEM and compressing each piece as a separate fractal. In this way, decompressing one point will not have a global decompression cost on the DEM. But it will only be expected to decompress the piece of DEM in which the point lies. In addition to this, a small version of the original elevation map can be stored with the IFS with no compression at all. Thus, the decompression will be faster if the seed for each point is taken directly from its projection onto this thumbnail. However, a continuous extraction of the IFS will adjust much better to the terrain representation necessities. Furthermore, the value of every point would be extracted independently and there is also the possibility of extracting values for coordinates where the DEM had no information due to the infinite resolution of the IFS. This would be very advisable for representing algorithms of the TIN terrain type. We will use decompression of continuous resolution because it is the one that best fits the properties of selective decompression, progressive refinement and added detail. Moreover, we will not store any thumbnails to work as the initial seed. The seed for each coordinate will be the midpoint between the minimum and the maximum elevation because this value will approximate equally to every possible elevation.

View dependent multiresolution models compute their approximation to the terrain according to vision parameters. Fractal DEM decompression can also take into account vision parameters to perform selective decompression. Triangle culling, terrain clipping, camera distance or screen projection of triangles can be used for a guided decompression (see Figure 3). The quality of a fractal DEM coordinate decompression will be determined by these parameters.

IFS-based DEMs can progressively refine their heights. Beginning with the seed, and thanks to the IFS iteration algorithm, it is possible to compute a more precise refinement of the decompression using the actual elevation. This has been impossible until now with a common DEM and implies the capacity of a time controlled decompression. Now it is possible to decompress in a limited time and use the result in a later decompression. This property will be greatly appreciated in cases where the response of the terrain representation is required in real time.

In most terrain representation methods, noise is commonly added to points that exceed the maximum DEM resolution. The new fractal DEM does not have this problem due to the fact that fractals do not have resolution limits. Its use will, by definition, give even higher resolutions than the ones the DEM originally has. As shown in Figure 2, this gives an added detail that is far better suited to the original terrain than only adding a random noise.

**GPU texture decompression:** Thanks to the new programmable GPU, terrain texture can also be a result of IFS decompression. With the present limitations this IFS will have a regular structure with the same width and height in order to make the pixel shader feasible.

The pixel shader can receive the IFS description by encoding this in texture elements. In order to simplify, the IFS description is split into information groups and each texel of a texture will imply one range of the regular IFS. With process, four different textures are created. The first texture is named texDOMPOS and has information about the position of the domain in image coordinates. The second one is named texSO and defines the brightness $o$ and contrast $s$ values of each range. The third texture, texORI, is the last one with IFS information and encodes the domain’s orientation. Finally, we recommend the creation of a fourth texture for shader enhancing reasons. This texture is an 8x4 matrix which encodes orientation matrices for each possible domain’s orientation. It is also important to note that in many cases integer range textures must be recoded to real range ones. This is because graphic programmable shaders define texel values for their textures in the range $[0...1]$ for generalization purposes.

In addition to textures, certain variables will also need to be defined for the shader. The first two variables are dependent on the size of the IFS. These are $transx$, containing the number of ranges per side, and its inverted value, $intransx$. Another variable will be the number of iterations of the decompression system of the IFS and it is called $iterations$. The last one will be $seed$, obviously consisting of the seed that the decompression begins with. The pixel shader implements the inverse decompression algorithm for real coordinates.

![Figure 3: Fractal terrain with viewport culling and selective decompression based on the camera distance to each vertex.](image-url)
3.3. Fractal compression of polygonal meshes

This section explains how to extend the fractal image compression technique to polygonal 3D meshes. To do so, a volumetric representation of the mesh [Jon95] known as a distance field is computed to be used in its place. A distance field is equivalent to a grayscale 3D image in the same way an elevation map was defined as a grayscale 2D image in Section 3.2. This 3D image can be compressed and represented with an 3D IFS (IFS3D from now on). Once the IFS3D has been computed, the multiresolution representations can be obtained as approximations to the original distance field. These approximations are simply decompressions of the IFS3D. Finally, a polygonal mesh can be reconstructed from the decompression of the distance field using the marching cubes [LC87] reconstruction algorithm.

From 3D mesh to 3D image: Commonly, a mesh is equivalent to a polygonal model (almost always a triangle model) in 3D. However, our method is not yet prepared to work directly on polygons. To be able to work with the mesh as a fractal, first it must be transformed into a 3D image.

The 3D image representation of the original mesh will be its distance field. A distance field is a 3D matrix (3D image) that is wrapped onto the mesh and stores the value of the distance between the mesh surface and the center of each voxel. The value of the distance is calculated in such a way that when the voxel is completely out of the mesh the value of the distance is equivalent to the maximum. On the other hand, when it is completely inside it will be equivalent to the minimum. And when the center of the voxel is placed on the surface itself the value will be zero. In our case, we codify the distance field as an signed byte precision 3D array in such a way that the values range between -128 and 127.

To construct the distance field we use an octree hierarchic structure. In this way, only the voxels which intersects the surface of the mesh are refined to the point of becoming the leaves of the tree. On the other hand, when a node does not intersect with the surface, the voxel that it represents and all its descendants voxels possesses the same distance.

The distance between the central point of the voxel and the surface of the mesh is computed as the minimal distance between this central point and any triangle of the object. It is possible to use a generic distance algorithm between 3D point and 3D triangle to solve this problem. The same algorithm will serve to know if the central point of the voxel is inside or outside the mesh. If the normal on the triangle of minimal distance is facing toward the central point of the voxel it is said that the point is inside the mesh and a positive distance is assigned to it. In the opposite case it is said that the point is out of the mesh and a negative distance is assigned to it.

Fractal compression of 3D Image: The fractal compression of 3D images is a direct update of the case with 2D images. Although visually it is difficult to conceive an image in 3D, it is mathematically as feasible to apply the IFS method to 3D as to those in 2D.

To work in 3D first it will be necessary to consider the new ranges and domains that also happen to be in 3D. Another important change is the complexity of its homogeneous transformations that range from eight different possible orientations to 32. This implies that the set of possible domains increases in a critical way. Moreover, it is necessary to change the algorithm that minimizes the difference between ranges and domains. This is due to the fact that the number of pixels that they both contains changes. Otherwise, the compression process is carried out in the same way as in Section 3.1 and an IFS3D is obtained that is capable of compressing the distance field generated from the original polygonal mesh.

We have used an octree hierarchy so that to obtain the IFS3D it is only necessary to process those voxels that intersects the mesh. The number of transformations to be codified will depend on the necessities in each case. Nevertheless, considering ranges of a minimal size of two is enough for the mesh to have a visually acceptable quality. In contrast, if we require the mesh to have no loss in quality it will be necessary to use the lossless methods and this will considerably increase the final size of the compressed mesh. With regard to the domains to be borne in mind, as always the rule is: the more, the better. We advise considering all the possible ones although the compression time increases a lot. In order to avoid affecting the compression time in excess, dominions grouped by similarity can be used.

Decompression: The decompression of an IFS3D can be performed like in the 2D case in discrete or continuous coordinates and the result is again a distance field. Thus, when decompressing we can perform a discrete extraction adapted to 3D and obtain an approach to the initial total mesh with the resolution that is needed. Alternatively, we can define a new center, size and number of voxels; and extract a new distance field that it completely different to the original. In order to calculate its distance values, the IFS3D continuous extraction will be used. Therefore, thanks to the fractal decompression fractal a distance field can be decompressed from the IFS3D with the resolution (see Figure 2) and in the spatial position of the space that is desired.

From 3D image to polygonal mesh: Transforming a fractal decompressed 3D image into a polygonal mesh is very simple. All that has to be done is to reconstruct the triangles using marching cubes and treat the decompressed image as a distance field. Each triangle will be obtained from the marching cubes algorithm and thanks to the distance values contained in the voxels. The vertices will be adjusted to the original mesh surface by linearly interpolating the distance values of adjacent voxels.
mean absolute error. Compression tests have been made iterating the IFS until an
transformations is used as sample for each model. All the de-
quadtree in different situations. The
Table 2 shows the results of their total decompression time
completely outside the original mesh.
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usually occurs because their great zones with identical val-
that when compressing
contributes to the image with fractal qualities that can jus-
not imply that they are due to reject because the new format
the initial size of the file to compress. However, this does
jump of 4 will be used because it has a good relation be-
size of each image. The domains set is the bottle neck of
form with fixed number of transformations according to the
They correspond to a constant regular structure with ranges
of size 2 and 1 (quasi-lossless), and a structure in
quadtree with fixed number of transformations according to the
size of each image. The domains set is the bottle neck of

4. Results

In order to test the new method, an experimental implemen-
tation of the described algorithms has been made. It has been
used C++ with OpenGL and GLSL. All the test were ex-
cuted on a single PC with a single AMD Sempron 2200 to
1.5 GHz processor with 512 MB of RAM and a NVIDIA
GeForce 6200. All the executables are compiled with the
GNU C/C++ Compiler.

Table 1 provides compression results for 2D, 2.5D and
3D IFS fractals. The compression parameters of the samples
have been chosen between the most characteristic ones.
They correspond to a constant regular structure with ranges
of size 2 and 1 (quasi-lossless), and a structure in
quadtree form with fixed number of transformations according to the
size of each image. The domains set is the bottle neck of
the algorithm and affects in such a way that the more the great
is its number the more time costs the compression but the
more quality is obtained. In all cases a domains set of fixed
jump of 4 will be used because it has a good relation be-
tween resulting quality and time used in the compression.
It can be deduced that as long as the number of transformations
is raising, the quality of the fractal raises also and its ratio of
compression descends. Obtaining even ratios that surpass
the initial size of the file to compress. However, this does
not imply that they are due to reject because the new format
contributes to the image with fractal qualities that can jus-
tify their increase of size. Also it is convenient to indicate that
when compressing distance fields greater compressions
usually occurs because their great zones with identical val-
ues. This zones are those that lay completely inside or com-
pletely outside the original mesh.

Once the fractals from the previous table are compressed,
Table 2 shows the results of their total decompression time
in different situations. The quadtree-based fractal with more
transformations is used as sample for each model. All the de-
compression tests have been made iterating the IFS until an
mean absolute error of less than 0.002 is reached between
an iteration and the next one. This, rarely needs more than
10 iterations of the IFS. The used methods have been both
the discrete method and the real coordinates one. The chosen
zooms have been 50% and 200% in reference to the fractal
original size. The decompression in real coordinates presents
a computational weight that is greater than the discrete one.
However, in the distance fields the opposite happens because
of the big internal and external zones of the mesh. With
the continuous method these zones are instantly discarded
whereas in the discrete method transformations are executed with
them in all the iterations of the IFS.

It is difficult to show the results that the new method has in
the representation of meshes. Even more when the charac-
teristics of ROI, infinite resolution, progressive decompres-
sion or selective decompression in real time environments
are used. We have implemented them all and can affirm that
besides to work, they endow with flexibility the method to
adjust it to any necessity. The fractal extraction is not as fast
as some of the present multiresolution methods are. Never-
theless, the changes can get to be more than substantial in the
appearance (see Figure 2).

Performance tests of fractal decompression shader have
also been made. Nowadays, the GPU has some implementa-
tion and execution limitations. Even so, the shader decom-
pression works in real-time at full screen (1024x768) in re-
stricted environments.

5. Conclusions

This work presents a new multiresolution model entirely
based on the fractal image compression techniques. A polygo-
nal mesh is codified as an IFS over a continuous domain.
The model is progressively decoded (decompressed) by
iterating the IFS. The codified model can be decoded at
whatever level of detail and size, even levels of detail of
higher resolution than those in the original model can be ob-
tained. Finally, lossless compression is always possible but

Table 1: Compression results of different sample fractals
with a set of parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model &amp; params</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Psnr</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lenna const range2</td>
<td>14.000s</td>
<td>49.79db</td>
<td>0.81:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lenna quad 5000</td>
<td>11.750s</td>
<td>37.74db</td>
<td>2.56:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrain const range2</td>
<td>373.172s</td>
<td>67.92db</td>
<td>0.79:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrain quad 20000</td>
<td>283.578s</td>
<td>49.63db</td>
<td>2.49:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagle const range2</td>
<td>257.765s</td>
<td>50.15db</td>
<td>2.10:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagle quad 40000</td>
<td>228.469s</td>
<td>47.67db</td>
<td>3.33:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunny const range2</td>
<td>14.844s</td>
<td>39.74db</td>
<td>6.93:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunny quad 5000</td>
<td>42.875s</td>
<td>39.71db</td>
<td>13.87:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dragon const range2</td>
<td>578.828s</td>
<td>42.70db</td>
<td>9.36:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dragon quad 20000</td>
<td>2187.797s</td>
<td>42.55db</td>
<td>26.63:1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Decompression times of a set of fractals with dis-
crete and continuous methods and zooms of 50% and 200%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model &amp; params</th>
<th>Zoom</th>
<th>Discrete Time</th>
<th>Real Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lenna quad 10000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.078s</td>
<td>0.062s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lenna quad 10000</td>
<td>200%</td>
<td>0.484s</td>
<td>0.969s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrain quad 40000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.218s</td>
<td>0.344s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrain quad 40000</td>
<td>200%</td>
<td>2.078s</td>
<td>4.945s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagle quad 80000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.656s</td>
<td>0.687s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagle quad 80000</td>
<td>200%</td>
<td>8.343s</td>
<td>9.794s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunny quad 10000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.047s</td>
<td>0.016s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunny quad 10000</td>
<td>200%</td>
<td>2.766s</td>
<td>0.984s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dragon quad 40000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.343s</td>
<td>0.125s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dragon quad 40000</td>
<td>200%</td>
<td>17.281s</td>
<td>7.125s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
this way the size of the codified model is higher that the original one.

To improve the continuous recovery taking into account the subsampling with neighbours that the IFS needs is a task for future research. Another planned improvement is to directly obtain the fractal representation without using any distance field. We also plan to investigate paging the geometry and the textures of the model for very dense polygonal meshes, and the model streaming as well. As further investigation, we plan to add the time dimension to the codification process, in such a way that an animated mesh could be represented as a fourth-dimensional fractal. Finally, to compare the performance of our model with the performance of models with similar characteristics is a planned work as well.

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References


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