

# MIKE ZERO: Creating 2D Bathymetries Bathymetry Editor & Mesh Generator Scientific Documentation



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# **CONTENTS**

MIKE ZERO: Creating 2D Bathymetries Bathymetry Editor & Mesh Generator Scientific Documentation

1	Introduction	1
2	Grid Generation	2
3	Grid Interpolation	3
3.1	Land Generation	
3.1.1	Polygon fill	
3.1.2	Extensive	
3.2	Box Grouping	
3.3 3.3.1	Gap Filling Bilinear interpolation	
3.3.2	Triangular interpolation	
3.3.3	Inverse distance weighted interpolation	
3.3.4	Inverse squared distances weighted interpolation	
4	Mesh Generation	10
4.1	Triangular Mesh Generation	10
4.2	Quadrangular Mesh Generation	
4.2.1	Algebraic box method	
4.2.2	Transfinite interpolation	
4.3 4.4	Generating Combined Mesh	
4.4 4.5	Refinement by Bisection	
1.0	Troillionion by Bloodion	20
5	Mesh Interpolation	22
5.1	Interpolation Accommodating the Stream Direction	
5.2	Interpolation using Prioritisation of Scatter Data	25
_		
6	Mesh Analysis and Editing	
6.1	Mesh Analysis	
6.2	Collapsing Elements	20
7	Shoreline Files	20
7.1	Baseline	
7.2	Coastline	
7.3	Edge Map	34
7.4	Profile	38
8	References	39



## 1 Introduction

The Bathymetry Editor and the Mesh Generator provides you an environment for creating, editing and presenting detailed digital 2D bathymetries. The Bathymetry Editor generates bathymetries in a rectangular grid (dfs2) whereas the Mesh Generator generates bathymetries in a flexible mesh format (mesh).

The program provides you the utilities for importing raw data from various external source (i.e. xyz soundings, xyz contours, MIKE 21 / MIKE 3 formatted data), or to manually create data by using the built-in drawing tools. To aid the process of manually drawing data and for presentation, graphical background images such as maps can be imported and overlaid with the bathymetry data.

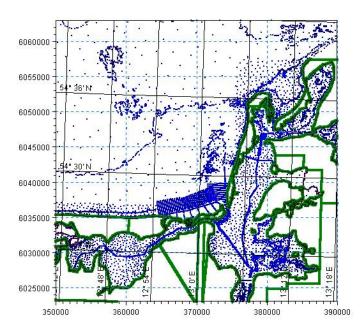


Figure 1.1 Example of import of raw data into a Bathymetry Editor workspace

Various interpolation options are available to you to provide the best possible method for your type of data. When the bathymetry has been prepared, you can use the export utilities to output bathymetry data in various formats.

The purpose of this document is to provide the user with the scientific background for the 2D bathymetry generation.

The generation of a bathymetry is generally divided into two phases:

- The generation of the grid/mesh
- The interpolation of bathymetry values onto the grid/mesh

As a consequence this document is divided in similar way: the generation of a dfs2 bathymetry in the Bathymetry Editor is described in the sections Grid Generation and Grid Interpolation whereas the generation of a mesh bathymetry is described in the sections Mesh Generator and Mesh Interpolation.



# 2 Grid Generation

The bathymetry area to describe the dfs2 bathymetry is defined by a map projection, the origin of the grid, i.e. the centre of cell (0.0), the orientation of the grid and the extension of the grid, defined by the number of grid steps and equidistant grid spacing in the x- and y-direction, respectively.

In the process of creating the grid the limiting bathymetry value for a cell to be recognised as a land cell must be defined.

The resulting grid will be a rectangle resolved with rectangular elements (often squares).



# 3 Grid Interpolation

Before the interpolation starts an empty bathymetry is created. This means that it contains only delete values. The interpolation of a bathymetry is done in 3 steps:

- Finding the grid cells that have a centre inside the land polygons identifies all the land points. This is known as Land Generation.
- The grid cells that aren't land points needs to be assigned a depth. The grid is used for sorting the data (loose points, contour points and polygon vertices). All points used for the interpolation are distributed into optional lookup-tables for each grid cell. This enables a much more efficient search instead of something which is proportional to number of horizontal grid cells times number of vertical grid cells times number of raw data points. This is known as Box Grouping
- Only grid cells defining land have been assigned an elevation (z-value). Each of the remaining points needs to be assigned. The raw data points are used for this interpolation. This is the Gap Filling process.

#### 3.1 Land Generation

Land generation is based on an input data set that consists of any number of land polygons.

#### 3.1.1 Polygon fill

The polygon fill algorithm defines a set of scan lines aligned with the bottom of the bathymetry. There is a scan line defined for each k-grid cell. For each scan line the list of polygons is searched and points inside these polygons are marked as land points according to the algorithm described on the two figures below. This is by far the most efficient algorithm for identifying cells inside polygons.

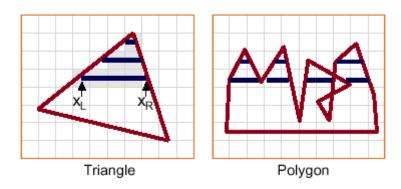


Figure 3.1 Polygon Sweep-Line Algorithm



#### 3.1.2 Extensive

The extensive method for computing land points loops over the total number of grid points in a bathymetry and check versus inside/outside boundaries of the polygon. This is significantly more time consuming than the 'Polygon fill'-algorithm.

# 3.2 Box Grouping

## Group by cell index

All raw data points are attached to the grid cell that they are located in. By doing this it is very easy to search through the raw data points and identifying the points located close to the grid point.

# 3.3 Gap Filling

The gap filling is based on the concept that we have to calculate the depth in the point ( $x_c$ ,  $y_c$ ). We define this as the function  $z_c = f(x_c, y_c)$ . If we place our self in this point, we can divide the world up into four quadrants Q1 - Q4. From here it's a matter of finding some points from the raw data set relatively close to this point. The search radius for all possible techniques can be entered - in grid cell distance. Points outside this distance will never be taken into account.

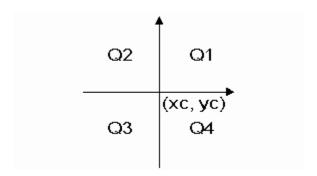


Figure 3.2 Definition of quadrants

#### 3.3.1 Bilinear interpolation

This technique finds four points from the raw data set - one in each quadrant. The search is done in the following way. A mask of relative indices is created. The cells in this mask are sorted according to the distance. For the quadrant Q1 the cells are sorted in the following way, the grid point itself being excluded.



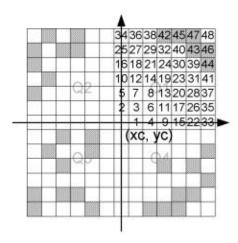


Figure 3.3 Illustration of the neighbouring grid cells being sorted

Note that the grid cells with a crosshatch pattern contain raw data points. When the closest raw data point in each quadrant is found, we have four points that form a quadrangle. This quadrangle contains the centre point, where we want to calculate the z-value. This is illustrated in Figure 3.4.

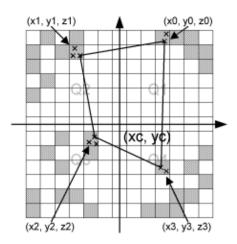


Figure 3.4 Illustration of the closest raw data points in each quadrant

Note that each grid cell might contain more raw data points. If this is the case, the closest of these is chosen. We now have an irregular quadrangle, where the elevation is defined in each vertex. We need to compute the elevation in  $(x_c, y_c)$ . If we transform our quadrangle into a square, we can perform bilinear interpolation. This is illustrated in Figure 3.5.



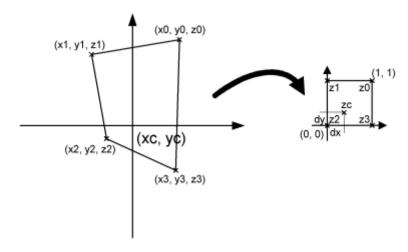


Figure 3.5 Illustration of bilinear interpolation

First the interpolation requires the transformation from quadrangle to a normalised square. This is done in the by computing 8 coefficients in the following way:

$$A_{1} = x_{0}$$

$$A_{2} = y_{0}$$

$$B_{1} = x_{1} - x_{0}$$

$$B_{2} = y_{1} - y_{0}$$

$$C_{1} = x_{3} - x_{0}$$

$$C_{2} = y_{3} - y_{0}$$

$$D_{1} = x_{2} - x_{1} + x_{0} - x_{3}$$

$$D_{2} = y_{2} - y_{1} + y_{0} - y_{3}$$
(3.1)

Mapping the coordinates  $(x_c, y_c)$  to the normalised square (dx, dy) is done by solving Equation (3.2).

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 (3.2)$$

Where the coefficients are

$$a = D_1 B_2 - D_2 B_1$$

$$b = D_2 x_c - D_1 y_c - D_2 A_1 + D_1 A_2 + C_1 B_2 - C_2 B_1$$

$$c = C_2 x_c - C_1 y_c + C_1 A_2 - C_2 A_1$$
(3.3)

Solving Equation (3.2) gives us dx

$$dx = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \tag{3.4}$$

Where  $0 \le dx \le 1$  is used to choose the correct root. dy can now be computed in two ways:



$$dy = \frac{x_c - A_1 - B_1 dx}{C_1 - D_1 dx} \tag{3.5}$$

or

$$dy = \frac{x_c - A_2 - B_2 dx}{C_2 - D_2 dx} \tag{3.6}$$

Choosing between Equations (3.5) and (3.6) is done in such a way that division by zero is avoided. ( $x_c$ ,  $y_c$ ) has been mapped to (dx, dy). The task was to compute the elevation in the point ( $x_c$ ,  $y_c$ ) and this is done in the following way using regular bilinear interpolation:

$$z_{c} = (1 - dx)(1 - dy)z_{2} + dx(1 - dy)z_{3} + (1 - dx)dy z_{1} + dxdy z_{0}$$
(3.7)

If less than four points are found (if one or more quadrants are empty), the double linear interpolation is replaced with inverse distance weighted interpolation. This is done according to the following scheme:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x_i - x_c)^2 + (y_i - y_c)^2}}$$
(3.8)

$$w_s = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \tag{3.9}$$

$$z_c = \frac{1}{w_s} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i z_i \tag{3.10}$$

The method works fairly efficiently, but it has one drawback. The quadrant search is heavily dependent on the orientation of the bathymetry. If the bathymetry is rotated 45 degrees 4 completely different points might be used for the interpolation. For this reason there is also a Triangular interpolation method, which can be used, and this method should be direction independent.

#### 3.3.2 Triangular interpolation

As mentioned previously the 'Bilinear Interpolation' is dependent on the orientation of the bathymetry. The 'Triangular Interpolation' is made as an answer to this problem. First the closest point to  $(x_c, y_c)$  is found, cf. Figure 3.6.



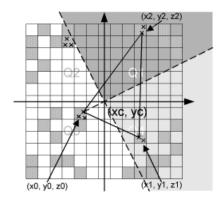


Figure 3.6 Illustration of triangular interpolation

In this example the point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is the closest point. When this point is identified, two quadrants are identified – indicated by the light grey and the dark grey areas. The closest points in these two quadrants are then found. They can be seen on the figure as  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ . The interpolation is then done in two steps.

First the coefficients describing the plane defined by the 3 found points are computed:

$$A = \frac{-(y_1 - y_0)(z_2 - z_0) + (y_2 - y_0)(z_1 - z_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)(y_2 - y_0) - (x_2 - x_0)(y_1 - y_0)}$$

$$B = \frac{(x_1 - x_0)(z_2 - z_0) - (x_2 - x_0)(z_1 - z_0)}{(x_1 - x_0)(y_2 - y_0) - (x_2 - x_0)(y_1 - y_0)}$$
(3.11)

$$C = z_0 - Ax_0 - By_0$$

And secondly, the actual interpolation is done:

$$z_c = Ax_c + By_c + C ag{3.12}$$

If less than 3 points are found, inverse distance weighted interpolation is used. The triangular interpolation is more time consuming due to the more complex direction independent search, but better end results should be achieved with this method.

#### 3.3.3 Inverse distance weighted interpolation

The 'Inverse Distance Weighted Interpolation' is based on the scheme described in Equations (3.8) - (3.10).

Please note that the quadrant search is heavily dependent on the orientation of the bathymetry. Thus, if the bathymetry is rotated 45 degrees four completely different points may be used for the interpolation.



## 3.3.4 Inverse squared distances weighted interpolation

The 'Inverse Squared Distance Weighted Interpolation' is based on the 'Inverse Distance Weighted Interpolation' but using the squared distance points in the search criteria. The applied scheme is thus defined by:

$$w_i = \frac{1}{(x_i - x_c)^2 + (y_i - y_c)^2}$$
 (3.13)

$$w_s = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i {3.14}$$

$$z_c = \frac{1}{w_s} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i z_i \tag{3.15}$$

Please note that the quadrant search is heavily dependent on the orientation of the bathymetry. Thus, if the bathymetry is rotated 45 degrees four completely different points may be used for the interpolation.



#### 4 Mesh Generation

The mesh generator can construct meshes that consist of both triangular and quadrangular elements. The approach being that the area of interest is divided up into regions described through polygons. Each polygon may have a triangular or a quadrangular mesh generated within. The complementary area is by default populated with a triangular mesh.

The steps to generate such a mesh are the following:

- Define polygons to be used for quadrangular mesh
- Set properties for each (default values used if local properties are not supplied)
- Generate the mesh within each polygon
- Use the triangular mesh approach for the area not contained within any of the polygons.

Thus the overall idea is to generate the quadrangular mesh first and then to use the triangular mesh to patch the mesh together.

# 4.1 Triangular Mesh Generation

The generation of triangles is based on the 'Triangle' code, developed by Jonathan Shewchuk /1/.

Additional information regarding the functionality can be found on the web page http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~quake/triangle.html.

# 4.2 Quadrangular Mesh Generation

The quadrangular grid generation may be carried out using two different routines:

- A simple algebraic method using a boxing technique
- An algebraic grid generator using transfinite interpolation

The first of these is robust but may generate skewed grids. The second is efficient but may not always be successful.

#### 4.2.1 Algebraic box method

The aim is to generate a mesh for a polygon which aligns itself with the polylines that make up the polygon. The main idea is to break any closed polygon into quadrangles. Below is a polygon consisting of two polylines  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  with a number of vertices. The number of vertices on each polyline may be unequal in general. The polylines are joined by two arcs. These end arcs consist each of only one line segment. The polygon is considered as an abstraction of a stream tube i.e. the flow direction is in the direction of



the two polylines and the end arcs are transversal to the flow direction. Ideally the end arcs should be chosen so that these are perpendicular to the flow direction.

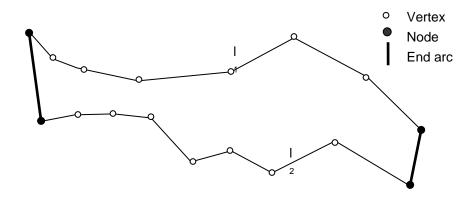


Figure 4.1 The polygon to be meshed. The vertices are displayed along with the end arcs

The procedure is as follows: The length of the two polylines is determined and the position of the vertices along these polylines is given relative to this length i.e. the position of the vertices may thus be identified by a scalar value in the range 0,...,1. Let this scalar value be given by  $s_{n,m}$  where n = 1,2 (polyline index) and m is the index of the vertex along the polyline. Each of the vertices along the polyline has a unique value of  $s_{n,m}$ . The union set of  $s_{n,m}$  values of the vertices along  $l_1$  and  $l_2$  are then considered. For each of the two polylines vertices are introduced at the values  $s_{n,m}$ , if they are not already present along the polyline. This will give rise to a polygon where the two polylines have the same number of vertices. Vertices with the same value of s will be referred to as a complementary pair. By joining the complementary vertex pairs the polygon is divided in a number of quadrangles. Each of these quadrangles may then be treated individually.

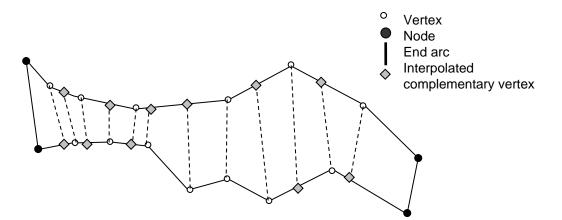


Figure 4.2 The polygon with the interpolated complementary vertices displayed. The polygon has now been divided into a number of quadrangles



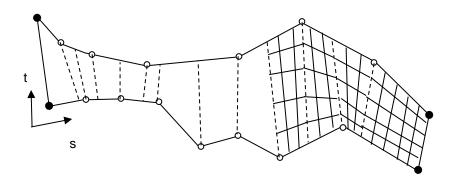


Figure 4.3 A mesh is applied for each of the quadrangles in the polygon. Note that the number of intervals in the t direction is fixed for all individual boxes whereas the number in the s direction may vary significantly

To generate the mesh for each of the quadrangles the overall maximum mesh side length should be considered. It must be possible to control the element side length transversal to the stream direction as well as in the stream direction. Let the two maximum element side lengths be denoted by  $\Delta t$  and  $\Delta s$ . These values apply for all the quadrangles in the polygon. The number of mesh lines in the direction of the stream needs to be the same for all the quadrangles making up the polygon. Thus to evaluate the number of mesh lines in the stream direction requires evaluating the maximum distance between all complementary vertex pairs. The number of intervals in the t direction is given by

$$N_{t} = Ceiling \left( \max_{i=1,\dots M} \frac{\left\| \overline{v}_{i} \right\|}{\Delta_{t}} \right)$$
(4.1)

Where  $||v_i||$  is the length of the vertex pair *i*.

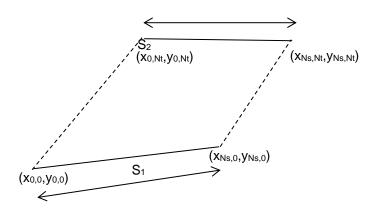


Figure 4.4 Notation used for the individual quadrangles

The notation for the quadrangles follows from the above figure. The individual quadrangles should be meshed in the following way. First the number of intervals in the s-direction is determined through



$$N_{s} = Ceiling\left(\frac{\max(s_{1}, s_{2})}{\Delta_{s}}\right)$$
(4.2)

Where

$$s_{1} = \|(x_{Ns,0}, y_{Ns,0}) - (x_{0,0}, y_{0,0})\|$$

$$s_{2} = \|(x_{Ns,Nt}, y_{Ns,Nt}) - (x_{0,Nt}, y_{0,Nt})\|$$
(4.3)

Once the number intervals is known the node locations may be found through

$$\begin{split} x_{i,j} &= \left(1 - \frac{i}{N_s}\right) \left(1 - \frac{j}{N_t}\right) x_{0,0} + \frac{i}{N_s} \left(1 - \frac{j}{N_t}\right) x_{N_s,0} + \\ \frac{j}{N_t} \left(1 - \frac{i}{N_s}\right) x_{0,N_t} + \frac{i}{N_s} \frac{j}{N_t} x_{N_s,N_t} \\ y_{i,j} &= \left(1 - \frac{i}{N_s}\right) \left(1 - \frac{j}{N_t}\right) y_{0,0} + \frac{i}{N_s} \left(1 - \frac{j}{N_t}\right) y_{N_s,0} + \\ \frac{j}{N_t} \left(1 - \frac{i}{N_s}\right) y_{0,N_t} + \frac{i}{N_s} \frac{j}{N_t} y_{N_s,N_t} \end{split}$$

$$(4.4)$$

Where

$$i = 0, ..., N_s \text{ and } j = 0, ..., N_t$$
 (4.5)

Problematic sections may arise for some polygons. Such a polygon is displayed below.

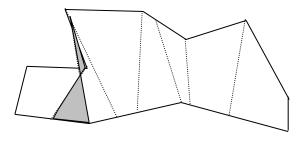


Figure 4.5 A problematic polygon

Problematic sections may be identified as sections with opposing sides having a scalar product which is non-positive. Using the notation from the earlier figure the criteria is expressed as



# 4.2.2 Transfinite interpolation

The second option uses a so-called transfinite interpolation to determine the grid points. The formula uses relative coordinates along the four polylines making up the polygon to be meshed.

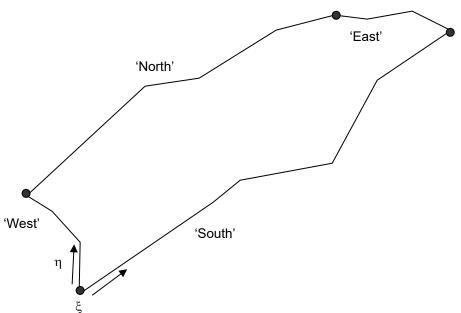


Figure 4.6 The notation used for the transfinite interpolation grid generation

 $\xi$  and  $\eta$ vary between 0 to 1 along the arcs. The intersection of the boundaries are identified The intersection of the 'South' and the 'West' boundary corresponds to  $(\xi,\eta)=(0,0)$ .

The intersections are identified by:

Intersecting boundaries	(ξ, η)		
'South' and 'West'	(0,0)		
'West' and 'North'	(0,1)		
'North' and 'East'	(1,1)		
'East' and 'South'	(1,0)		



The grid is defined through the expressions

$$x(\xi,\eta) = (1-\xi)x(0,\eta) + \xi x(1,\eta) + (1-\eta)x(\xi,0) + \eta x(\xi,1) - (1-\xi)(1-\eta)x(0,0) - \xi(1-\eta)x(1,0) - (1-\xi)\eta x(0,1) - \xi \eta x(1,1)$$

$$y(\xi,\eta) = (1-\xi)y(0,\eta) + \xi y(1,\eta) + (1-\eta)y(\xi,0) + \eta y(\xi,1) - (1-\xi)(1-\eta)y(0,0) - \xi(1-\eta)y(1,0) - (1-\xi)\eta y(0,1) - \xi \eta y(1,1)$$
(4.7)

The expression requires that the four polylines making up the polygon have been parameterised using the parameters  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  respectively. These parameters are simply the distances along the arcs relative to the full length of the polylines.

#### The distribution of the grid points along the polylines

The grid points along the polylines must obey the location of the original vertices. Thus the concept of vertex pairs for opposing polylines should be used. Though note that the vertex pairs no-longer by default are connected by a straight line due to the piecewise linear nature of the end arcs.

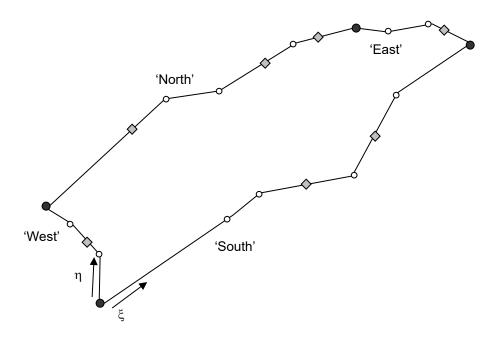


Figure 4.7 The polygon with the original vertices along with the interpolated vertices. Opposing polylines have identical number of total vertices. Note that the end arcs also have additional interpolated vertices.

The number of grid points along the arcs is controlled by the maximum grid element side length. More specifically a length is applied for the  $\xi$  and  $\eta$  directions. This length is non-dimensionalised by the maximum arc lengths in the respective direction. For example, the maximum side length in the  $\xi$  direction is denoted by  $\Delta_s$ . This value shall be used to define the location of the mesh nodes along the 'south' and 'north' polylines.



The maximum length of the 'south' and 'north' polylines is used to define the non-dimensional mesh element side length  $\Delta_{\xi}$ . Let the two lengths be denoted by  $I_{\text{south}}$  and  $I_{\text{north}}$ . The non-dimensional maximum side length is defined by

$$\Delta_{\xi} = \frac{\max(l_{south}, l_{north})}{\Delta_{s}} \tag{4.8}$$

This value must be satisfied for all line segments along the 'south' and 'north' polylines. The approach is to determine the number of intervals for the line segment *i* through

$$N_{\xi,i} = Ceiling\left(\frac{\xi_i - \xi_{i-1}}{\Delta_{\xi}}\right) \tag{4.9}$$

Where  $\xi_i$  corresponds to the *i*th vertex.

The procedure for the 'west' and 'east' arcs follows along the same lines.

# 4.3 Generating Combined Mesh

The present section outlines the approach that will be adopted for merging the quadrangular mesh polygons with the surrounding triangular mesh.

The triangular mesh generator has the flexibility to insert so-called Steiner points. Steiner points are additional vertices used to subdivide line segments into several line segments. Steiner points are necessary to allow the segments to exist in the mesh while maintaining the required properties of the mesh such as constraints on the minimum angle and maximum triangle area.

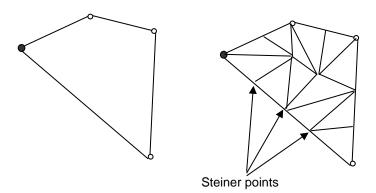


Figure 4.8 A polygon that has been meshed where additional Steiner points have been inserted

The above figure illustrates the concept of Steiner points. Steiner points are useful when the whole area is meshed using triangles, but do create a problem when the mesh is mixed. To overcome this problem the triangulisation routine may be used with the restriction that Steiner points are not inserted. If this is used on the above case the result would be along the lines as illustrated in Figure 4.9.





Figure 4.9 A triangulisation with the restriction that Steiner points are not allowed

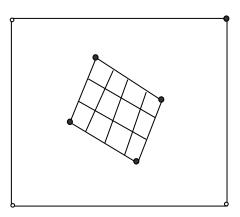
It is especially important that the mesh routine does not insert Steiner points along arcs which form part of a polygon designated for a quadrangular mesh. To overcome this problem the idea is to run the triangulisation twice. The first triangulisation is done to determine the location of Steiner points along arcs without constraints (i.e. arcs not part of a polygon for quadrangulisation).

Once the Steiner points have been identified along these 'free' arcs the Steiner points are internally converted to vertices. The second tringulisation is then done with the constraint that Steiner points are not allowed.

The procedure is outlined on the following pages.

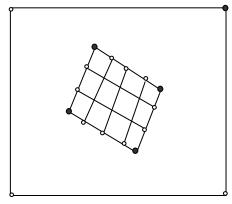
#### Step 1:

Generate the quadrangular mesh.



Step 2:

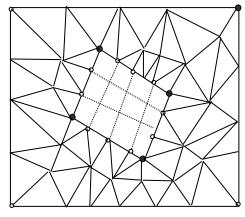
Insert vertices along the mesh points at the arcs used for quadrangular mesh.





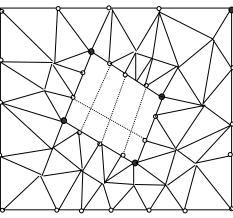
#### Step 3:

Mark all polygons used for a quadrangular mesh internally as not included in the mesh. Then mesh the remaining area.



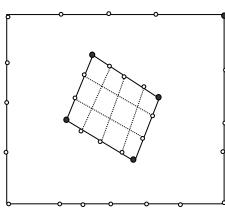
#### Step 4:

Convert all mesh points along 'free' arcs to vertices. Notice the Steiner point at the north arc of the quadrangular mesh polygon.



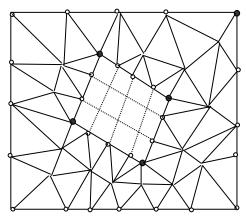
#### Step 5:

Remove the triangular mesh.



#### Step 6:

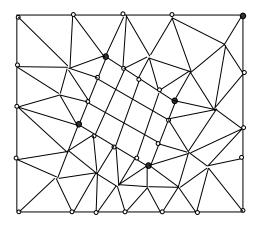
Regenerate the mesh, but this time do not allow the triangulation to insert Steiner points.





#### Step 7:

Reintroduce the mesh for the quadrangular polygons. Resulting in the final mesh. Note that the Steiner point previously introduced at north arc of the box is no longer present.



# 4.4 Smoothing the Mesh

After the generation of the mesh it is prudent to smooth the mesh to obtain a better applicability in a simulation. Smoothing a mesh is the effort to position the nodes in a way such that the angles in each element and the element area are as large as possible. The smoothing only affects triangular mesh elements.

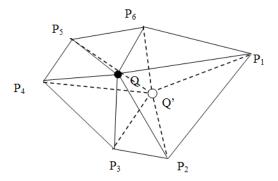


Figure 4.10 Definition: Moving node point due to smoothing

The location of the Smoothed point Q' is found through

$$Q' = \frac{1}{3N_{elements}} \left( N_{elements} Q + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{elements}} 2P_i \right)$$
(4.10)

The smoother may be applied iteratively and will converge to a mesh where the following holds for each point.

$$Q' = \frac{1}{N_{elements}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{elements}} P_i$$
 (4.11)

I.e. every point is placed in the centre of mass of the surrounding polygon.

Please note that though the system is converging towards a unique solution this may not be a solution which satisfies the mesh constraints as set up in the Mesh Generation menu (plus local polygons if they exist). The idea is to do the mesh smoothing one step at



a time and then evaluate the mesh and reset any nodes which give rise to elements which do not satisfy the constraints.

The measure consists of the element area and the smallest angle in the element. If one of these is smaller than the allowed values then the calculated measure evaluates to false.

Two options can be included when smoothing the mesh:

- Smoothing constrained by mesh criterion
   If this is not selected the measure will always evaluate to true
- Leave mesh nodes at arcs untouched
   If this is not selected ALL internal nodes may be relocated. Otherwise, if a node originally was part of a defined arc or is a single user defined node then the node is not allowed to be moved during the smoothing.

# 4.5 Refinement by Bisection

A mesh may be refined by subdividing the faces of the existing elements. The bisection method is designed to only change the size of the elements in a given mesh without changing the overall quality of the mesh i.e. the angles of the refined mesh will not become less than the original mesh.

The mesh bisection method follows some clear principles:

Take all elements faces of the original mesh and place a node at the mid points (hence bisection). Consider each element in the original mesh. Depending on whether the element is triangular or quadrilateral the approach varies slightly.

For a triangular element the approach is as illustrated in Figure 4.11.

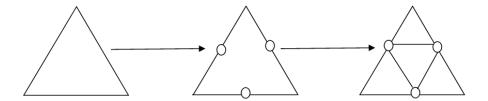


Figure 4.11 Bisection of triangular element

As can be seen from Figure 4.11, the operation will give rise to 4 new elements per triangular element in the original mesh and 3 new element faces.

For a quadrilateral element the approach is as illustrated in Figure 4.12.



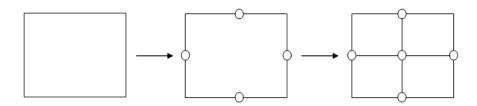


Figure 4.12 Bisection of quadrangular element

As can be seen from Figure 4.12 also for the quadrangular elements the process introduces 4 new elements per quadrangular element in the original mesh and 4 element faces. Note that the quadrangular elements also generate an additional mesh node on top of the ones caused by the face bisection.

The refinement may in principle be applied an arbitrary number of times. The table below summarises the number of topological elements (faces, elements, nodes) as a function of the number of refinements (n).

Number of topological elements	Original mesh	1 <sup>st</sup> refinement	2 <sup>nd</sup> refinement	n'th refinement (2≤n)
Faces	F	2F+3T+4Q	4F+18T+24Q	$2^{n}F + (3T + 4Q)\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2^{i-1} 4^{n-i}$
Triangular elements	T	4T	16T	$4^nT$
Quadrangular elements	Q	4Q	16Q	$4^nQ$
Nodes	N	N+F+Q	N+3F+3T+9Q	$N + F \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^{i} + Q \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 4^{i} + (3T + 4Q) \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{j} 2^{i-1} 4^{j-i} \right)$
				$+(3T+4Q)\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j} 2^{i-1} 4^{j-i}\right)$



# 5 Mesh Interpolation

The Mesh Generator gives two possibilities with respect to interpolation for triangular elements. The two possible interpolation routines are

- Natural neighbour
- Linear interpolation

These interpolation methods are valid independent of the type of mesh used. The interpolation requires values only at the mesh nodes and will base the interpolation solely on the scatter data. Thus whether the nodes are part of a triangular or quadrangular mesh is of no significance. These methods may however not be the correct ones to use for river beds or other water ways in an in land setting. In particular the interpolated surface generated for a strongly meandering river may give rise to a highly erroneous river bed (see Figure 5.1).

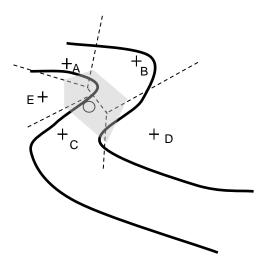


Figure 5.1 A meandering river with a point (O) at which the topography is to be interpolated using the natural neighbour method. The crosses indicate location at which data is located. The grey polygon illustrates the weights of the values at A-E

As can be seen from the above figure, the point B will have a significant weight and thus impact on the interpolated value at O. Point B is located on the opposite bank of the interpolation location O and thus the bed level may be very different from the true value at O. One would assume that the actual level at O is closer to the values at A and C in the stream direction. Further the interpolation routine also takes the values at D and E into account even though the points are located outside the main river.

To create sound interpolated topographies in river beds an interpolation routine that emphasises values in the stream direction and does not interpolate across riverbanks has been developed for quadrangular elements.



# 5.1 Interpolation Accommodating the Stream Direction

To accommodate higher weights on points positioned in the stream direction a modified version of the inverse distance method is applied. The inverse distance is a simple interpolation routine. A neighbourhood about the interpolated point is identified and a weighted average is taken of the observation values within this neighbourhood. The weights are a decreasing function of distance  $r_i$  and are typically given by

$$w_i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{r_i^p}\right)^{-1} \frac{1}{r_i^p} \tag{5.1}$$

for point *i* where *p* is greater than 0.

The distance *r* is often given by the Pythagorean distance but may be any measure. The latter may be utilised to accommodate the weighting of points in the stream direction. The coordinate system will be constructed so that at the mesh nodes the coordinates take on integer values. At intermediate locations the coordinates are found through bilinear interpolation. The river segment or polygon when pictured in the mesh based coordinate system is simply a rectangular as illustrated in Figure 5.2.

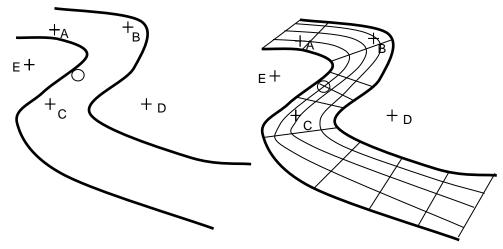


Figure 5.2 The meandering river on the left without the mesh displayed. The right figure illustrates the river overlaid with the mesh

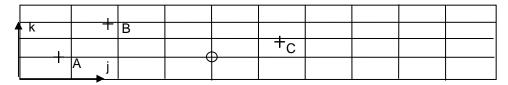


Figure 5.3 The polygon displayed in the mesh coordinate system (j,k)

In the new coordinate system the points A, B and C will have the following coordinates:

A: (j<sub>A</sub>,k<sub>A</sub>) B: (j<sub>B</sub>,k<sub>B</sub>) C: (j<sub>C</sub>,k<sub>C</sub>)

where *j* and *k* may take on non-integer values.



The location at which the interpolation is to take place has coordinates  $(j_o,k_o)$ . The z-value at O may then be expressed as

$$z_{o} = \left(\sum_{A,B,C} \frac{1}{\left|j_{i} - j_{o}\right|^{p} + \left|k_{i} - k_{o}\right|^{q}}\right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{A,B,C} \frac{z_{i}}{\left|j_{i} - j_{o}\right|^{p} + \left|k_{i} - k_{o}\right|^{q}}\right)$$
(5.2)

where q > p. The latter is to ensure that the effect of the j coordinate decays more slowly than the effect of the k-coordinate. Both p and q should be user defined (advanced option). Some experimentation is needed to identify proper default values of p and q.

The bilinear interpolation to be used for determining the (j,k) coordinates for scatter points not placed at a mesh node is found through

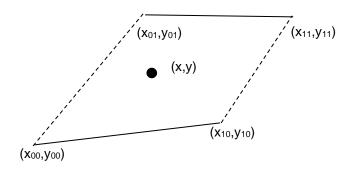


Figure 5.4 A mesh element with four nodes with mesh coordinates (j,k), (j+1,k), (j,k+1) and (j+1,k+1). The mesh coordinates of (x,y) are sought

The coordinates of (x,y) satisfy the following equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} x_{00} \\ y_{00} \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} - x_{00} \\ y_{10} - y_{00} \end{pmatrix} + t \\
t \begin{bmatrix} x_{01} \\ y_{01} \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} - x_{01} \\ y_{11} - y_{01} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} x_{00} \\ y_{00} \end{pmatrix} - s \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} - x_{00} \\ y_{10} - y_{00} \end{pmatrix}$$
(5.3)

Where s,t lies within the interval [0;1]. This equation may be re-arranged as

$$\begin{pmatrix} x - x_{00} \\ y - y_{00} \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} x_{10} - x_{00} \\ y_{10} - y_{00} \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} x_{01} - x_{00} \\ y_{01} - y_{00} \end{pmatrix} + 
st \begin{pmatrix} x_{00} - x_{10} - x_{01} + x_{11} \\ y_{00} - y_{10} - y_{01} + y_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$
(5.4)

which in turn may be expressed as

$$\begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} + st \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (5.5)



This equation may be rewritten as a set of two equations

$$(a_{2}c_{1} - a_{1}c_{2})s^{2} + (a_{2}b_{1} - a_{1}b_{2} + d_{1}c_{2} - d_{2}c_{1})s + b_{2}d_{1} - b_{1}d_{2} = 0$$

$$t = \frac{d_{1} - sa_{1}}{b_{1} + sc_{1}}$$
(5.6)

of which the first is second order algebraic equation in s. Once the two solutions are found t may be determined from equation number. The true solution is the one that gives rise to a set of s and t lying within the interval 0 to 1.

The mesh coordinates of the point (x,y) are thus given by (j+s,k+t).

# 5.2 Interpolation using Prioritisation of Scatter Data

The prioritisation is carried out by applying weights to the individual scatter data sets. These weights may be assigned globally and locally.

The methodology used for prioritisation during interpolation is the following:

Assume n sources of data each being supplied in any of the accepted data formats (xyz, dfs2, dfsu, mesh). Let these data sets be denoted by  $D_1$ ,  $D_2$  ...,  $D_n$ .

- The interpolation is done separately for each data source *D<sub>i</sub>*. Hereby there will be a mesh Mi with values only dependent on data source *D<sub>i</sub>*.
- Each data source has an associated weight w<sub>i</sub> in the range 0 to 1.
- · The resulting mesh is obtained through the sum

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i w_i {(5.7)}$$

Where the weights satisfy

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i = 1 \tag{5.8}$$

 The concept is also used with localised weights associated with user specified regions.

The process is illustrated below using a set-up with three different data sources.



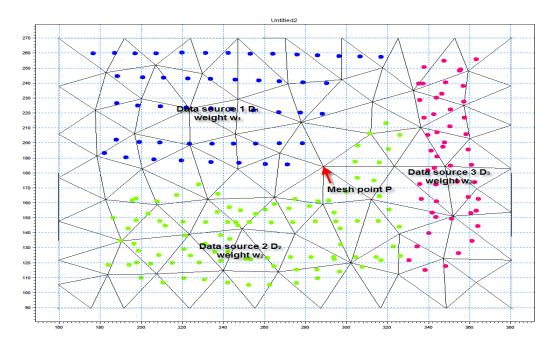


Figure 5.5 Mesh point P in setup with three different data sources. Each scatter data source has associated weight

After interpolation, the mesh point P will have a z value based on the three interpolations from data source 1 to 3 weighted according to the weights:

$$Z(P) = w_1 Z(P, D_1) + w_2 Z(P, D_2) + w_3 Z(P, D_3)$$
(5.9)

Where  $Z(P,D_i)$  is the result of an interpolation only including data source  $D_i$ .

To apply local weights prioritisation polygons must be defined. Prioritisation polygons are user defined areas where a specific set of prioritisation weights are to be used. Prioritisation polygons are different from the polygons used for specifying mesh resolutions and mesh type.



# 6 Mesh Analysis and Editing

During the process of creating the mesh it is possible to analyse the mesh for its applicability in a simulation and to edit local mesh elements.

# 6.1 Mesh Analysis

It is possible to analyse a mesh for its applicability in a simulation by evaluating the restricting time step for each mesh element.

The analyses of a mesh consists of considering

- The element area
- · The smallest angle within each element
- · The CFL stability criteria

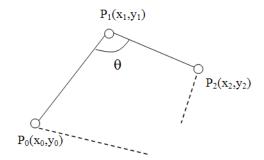


Figure 6.1 Definition of node point and position in mesh analysis

The area of a triangular element is given by

$$A = \frac{1}{2} |(x_2 - x_1)(y_3 - y_1) - (y_2 - y_1)(x_3 - x_1)|$$
(6.1)

The area of a quadrilateral is calculated as the sum of areas of the two triangles that matches the quadrilateral.

The smallest angle may be evaluated by calculating the normalised scalar product:

$$s = 1 \frac{(x_2 - x_1)(x_0 - x_1) + (y_2 - y_1)(y_0 - y_1)}{\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2} \sqrt{(x_0 - x_1)^2 + (y_0 - y_1)^2}}$$
(6.2)

The quantity S varies between 0 and 2 where 0 refers to the smallest angle and 2 the largest.

The time step  $\Delta t$  evaluated on basis of the CFL number is given by

$$\Delta t = CFL \cdot \frac{\min\left(facelength\right)}{2\sqrt{gh}} \tag{6.3}$$



where h is water depth (water level - topography) and g is  $9.82 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ .

# 6.2 Collapsing Elements

Effectively the mesh element (triangular or quadrangular) is collapsed by taking all nodes in the mesh and collapsing them to the centre point of the element (centre of mass). Note that the procedure may remove up to four mesh elements.

The collapse of an element may be achieved by subsequent collapses of cells faces and a final move of the node to the centre of mass of the original mesh element. The process is illustrated in Figure 6.2 for a triangular element. The procedure for the quadrangular element requires four face collapses instead of three.

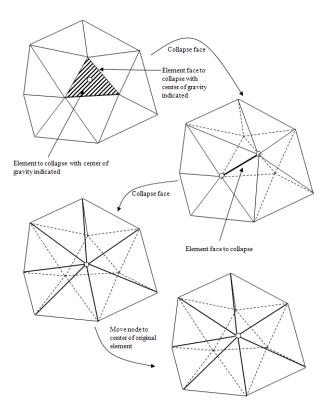


Figure 6.2 Process for collapsing triangular element

The z value at the new node is obtained through interpolation based on the user settings. The code value of the mesh node is set to the maximum of the nodes of the collapsed element. The data used as scatter data for the interpolation are the values at the mesh nodes.



# 7 Shoreline Files

The shoreline files are a collection of different files especially formatted for use in the Shoreline Morphology model, which can be applied from within ST in MIKE 21 Coupled Model FM.

#### 7.1 Baseline

A baseline is defined by an arc with arc attribute value **Baseline\_code**. The start point of the baseline, and hence the orientation, is defined by the lowest arc attribute of the two node points in each end of the arc. In case the arc attribute for the two end points are the same the start node is the defined by the western-most point.

When saving the baseline to a xyz ascii file, the method of deriving the arc data is similar to the method of exporting selected arcs to a boundary file, - the contents of the xyz file is just a bit different with only three columns (x,y,z), corresponding to column 1, 2 and 4 in a file exported as boundary. **Note** that the coordinates of the node points and vertices must be saved in order with respect to orientation, i.e. first write the coordinates for the node point with the lowest attribute number, next the coordinates for the vertices on the baseline (in the given order either forwards or backwards, depending on the baseline orientation), and then the coordinates for the remaining node point at the other end of the arc.

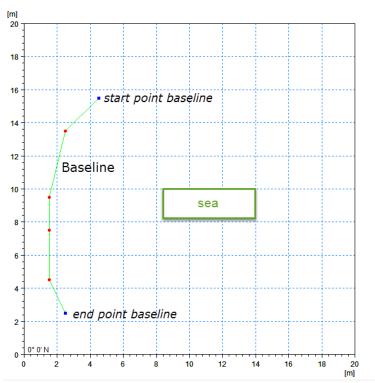


Figure 7.1 Illustration of baseline coordinates and assumed order



#### Example of output file (Baseline.xyz):

4.5 15.5 0	(point id 7, attribute 100 - last point in arc, first point on baseline)
2.5 13.5 0	(point id 4)
1.5 9.5 0	(point id 2)
1.5 7.5 0	(point id 1)
1.5 4.5 0	(point id 0)
2.5 2.5 0	(point id 3, attribute 101 - first point in arc, last point on baseline)

#### 7.2 Coastline

A coastline is defined by an arc with arc attribute value **Coastline\_code**. The start point of the coastline is defined by the lowest arc attribute of the two node points in each end of the arc. In case the arc attribute for the two end points are the same the start node is the defined by the western-most point.

The coastline arc can initially be defined by any number of points, however in order to match the baseline the number of points on the coastline needs to be +1 compared to the number of points on the baseline, and the position of the coastline points should be located at the centre of the baseline sections when projected perpendicular to the baseline.

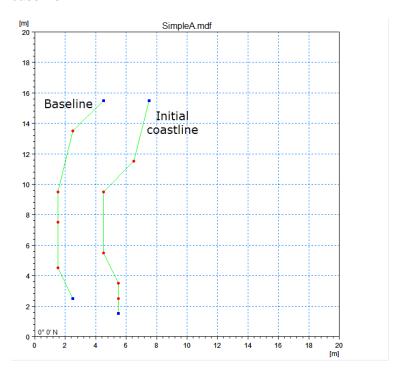


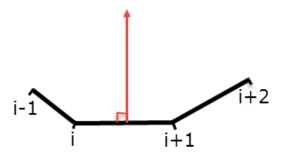
Figure 7.2 Coastline arc before modifying the position of vertices to be positioned at centre of baseline sections



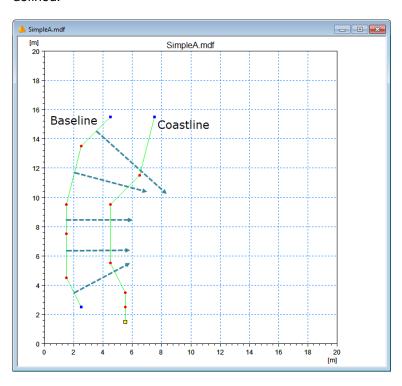
# Example: contents in mdf-file <u>before</u> coastline modification:

The method of modifying the coastline points to match the baseline is described in the following.

- 1. An array holding the position of the coastline points (in order) is defined
- 2. For each baseline section the following is done:
  - a. the centre point position (x,y) is located

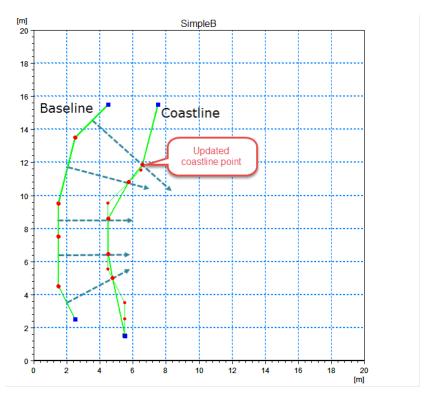


b. the line that starts in (x,y) and is perpendicular to the baseline section is defined:

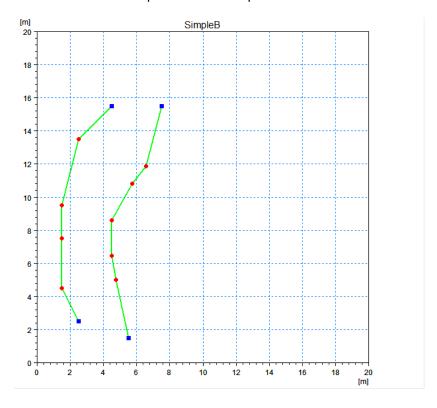




c. A new coastline point (xc,yc) is found at the position where the original coastline arc intersects with the perpendicular line from the baseline:



3. Finally, a new coastline is created using the first and last node point in the initial coastline file and the updated coastline points.





#### Example: contents in mdf-file <u>after</u> coastline modification:

```
[POINTS]

Data = '13 0 1.5 4.5 0 0 0 1 1.5 7.5 0 0 0 2 1.5 9.5 0 0 0 3 2.5

2.5 101 0 1 4 2.5 13.5 0 0 0 5 4.5 15.5 100 0 1 6 4.5009074410163334

6.4609800362976406 0 0 0 7 4.5009074410163334 8.6025408348457351 0 0 0 8

4.7549909255898362 5.0090744101633389 0 0 0 9 5.5 1.5 0 111 1 10

5.7350272232304897 10.816696914700545 0 0 0 11 6.5698729582577133

11.869328493647913 0 0 0 12 7.5 15.5 0 110 1' EndSect // POINTS

[ARCS]

Data = '2 0 9 12 5 8 6 7 10 11 110 1 3 5 4 0 1 2 4 100'

EndSect // ARCS
```

When saving the coastline to a xyz ascii file, the method of deriving the arc data is similar to the method of exporting selected arcs to a boundary file, - the contents of the xyz file is just a bit different with only three columns (x,y,z), corresponding to column 1, 2 and 4 in a file exported as boundary (z-value can be set to 0). **Note** that the coordinates of the node points and vertices are saved in order with respect to orientation, i.e. first the coordinates for the node point with the lowest attribute number are written, next the coordinates for the vertices on the modified coastline (in the given order either forwards or backwards, depending on the baseline orientation), and finally, the coordinates for the remaining node point at the other end of the arc.

#### Example of output file (Coastline.xyz):

```
7.5 15.5 0 (new point id 12, attribute 110 - last point in arc, first point on coastline) 6.5698729582577133 11.869328493647913 0 5.7350272232304897 10.816696914700545 0 4.5009074410163334 8.6025408348457351 0 4.5009074410163334 6.4609800362976406 0 4.7549909255898362 5.0090744101633389 0 5.5 1.5 0 (new point id 9, attribute 111 - first point in arc, last point on baseline)
```

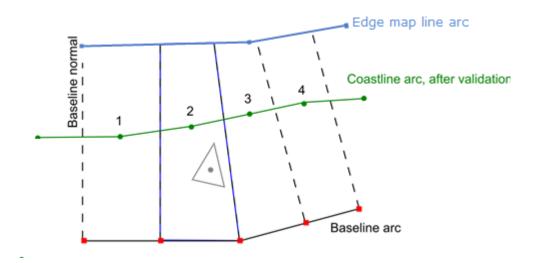


# 7.3 Edge Map

The edge map defines which coastline edge/section each element in the mesh belongs to. The edge map is defined in an area limited by the baseline and an arc forming a limiting edge map line in a variable distance from the baseline as shown below. The edge map values are saved in a dfsu file, which are based on the generated (or loaded) mesh.

The creation of an edge map thus requires a mesh, a baseline and an edge map line.

An edge map line is defined by an arc with arc attribute value **Edge\_map\_code**. The edge map arc can be defined by any number of points and is used to from an outer limit of the edge map. Along with the baseline and leading lines, extending from the baseline points and perpendicular to the local baseline orientation, the edge map line forms polygons that defines which section the individual elements in the mesh belong to.



The mesh elements, whose centre position is located within an edge map polygon, are allocated the integer value that corresponds to the coastline section (i.e. baseline section number + 1).



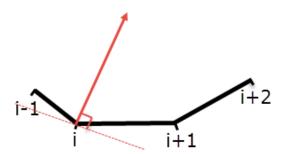
#### Example: contents in mdf-file containing mesh, baseline arc and edge map arc:

```
[POINTS]
     Data = '10 0 1.5 4.5 0 0 0 1 1.5 7.5 0 0 0 2 1.5 9.5 0 0 0 3 2.5
2.5 \ 0 \ 101 \ 1 \ 4 \ 2.5 \ 13.5 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 5 \ 4.5 \ 15.5 \ 0 \ 100 \ 1 \ 6 \ 6.9755469755469752
6.1776061776061777 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 7 \ 8.416988416988417 \ 1.3127413127413128 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 8 
9.4465894465894458 12.818532818532818 0 0 0 9 9.6782496782496779
16.653796653796654 0 0 1'
EndSect // POINTS
 [ARCS]
     Data = '2 0 3 5 4 0 1 2 4 100 1 9 7 2 8 6 120'
EndSect // ARCS
 [MESH]
      Node Count = 1109
      Max_Node_Count = 500000
      Element_Count = 2087
      Max_Element_Count = 500000
      Segment Count = 0
      Max Segment Count = 500000
      Tri Point Count = 1109
      Tri Element Count = 2087
      Nodes 1 = 0.55045871559633031 0.40366972477064222
4.9775168444853195 1 1 0.66055045871559637 17.944954128440369
4.9734124177676513 1 2 15.963302752293577 0.25688073394495414 -
9.9914120028450721 1 3 15.963302752293577 17.98165137614679 -
9.9156919720941712 1 4 0.61034224253743041 9.9451116840525913
4.9959048897791174 ...
10.487354704113843 4.5178970049871126 0 1108 0.95410172040716057
6.4192123372189789 4.995163126330171 0 '
      Elements 1 = '3 0 78 283 287 0 -1 3 1 710 19 709 0 -1 3 2 590 192
589 0 -1 3 3 733 729 175 0 -1 3 4 894 370 100 0 -1 3 5 25 1077 1036 0 -1
3 6 745 176 743 0 -1 3 7 839 694 115 0 -1 3 8 77 840 836 0 -1 3 9 237 239
35 0 -1 3 10 752 723 184 0 -1 3 11 719 739 718 0 -1 3 12 825 826 610 0 -1
3 13 256 835 823 0 -1 3 14 787 788 226 0 -1 3 15 435 537 542 0 -1 3 16
325 82 422 0 -1 3 17 578 579 152 0 -1 3 18 521 427 522 0 -1 3 19 409 925
368 0 -1 3 20 103 375 382 0 -1 3 21 923 910 18 0 -1 3 22 868 42 864 0 -1
3 23 707 705 706 ...
3 2080 477 1105 1021 0 -1 3 2081 505 1106 1036 0 -1 3 2082 675 1106 574 0
-1 3 2083 1107 569 626 0 -1 3 2084 4 1107 1054 0 -1 3 2085 1067 1108 601
0 -1 3 2086 1108 600 1065 0 -1 '
EndSect // MESH
```

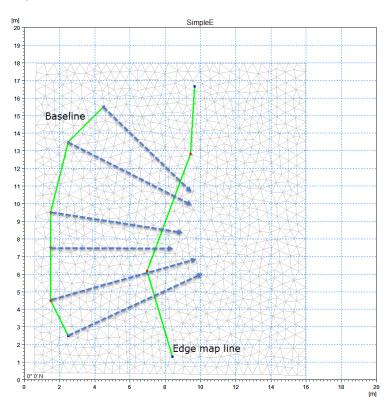


The method of creating the edge map is described in the following.

- 1. An array holding the position of the edge map line arc is defined
- 2. For each baseline point, i:
  - a. the leading line that is perpendicular to the averaged baseline orientation is found



b. the coordinate (x,y) for the point where the leading line intersects with the edge map line is found

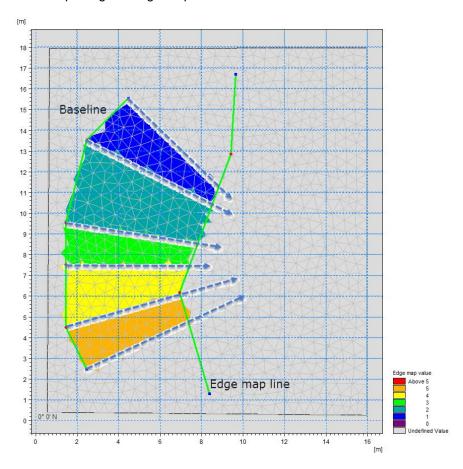


- 3. For each baseline section a polygon is created based on the two points on the baseline and the corresponding points where the leading lines cross the edge map line. The polygons are saved in an array.
- 4. An array for hold the edge map values in the mesh is defined.



- 5. For each mesh element the centre position is compared with the calculated polygons.
  - c. If the element is located within one of the polygons the element value is set to the integer value corresponding to the baseline section for the given polygon (e.g. for baseline section located between baseline point 0 and 1, the edge map value is set to 1).
  - d. If the element is located outside any polygon the value is set to a delete value.

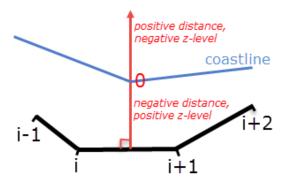
When Exporting the edge map the values are saved to a dfsu file.





#### 7.4 Profile

A profile is defined by the distance and z-level along a line, going through the coastline point and perpendicular to the related baseline section. The profile line does not necessarily cross the baseline.



The profile data is defined by the distance behind and in front of the coastline, the number of points and z-levels derived from the underlying mesh file or external files.

The method of creating one profile from the mesh for a given coastline point is described in the following:

- 1. Based on the chosen coastline point (CoastID), the coastline position (x,y) and the local orientation of the related baseline section is found.
- 2. The equation for the line extending the given distance behind and in front of the coastline is found.
- 3. For each point on the profile line, the distance to the coastline point (to be saved in item 1 of the dfsu file) is found, and the z-level is linearly interpolated from the nearest points (to be saved to item 2 in the dfsu file).

If there is several profiles to be saved in a dfs2 file, the distance and z-level for the defined profiles is found, and linear interpolation is used to calculate the profile data for all remaining coastline points.

In case the profile is to be created from external files, the distance and z-level is found from linear interpolation.



# 8 References

/1/ Jonathan Richard Shewchuk, *Triangle: Engineering a 2D Quality Mesh Generator and Delaunay Triangulator*, in ``Applied Computational Geometry: Towards Geometric Engineering" (Ming C. Lin and Dinesh Manocha, editors), volume 1148 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science, pages 203-222, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, May 1996.