

Linear Complexity Hexahedral Mesh Generation

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Abstract

We show that any polyhedron forming a topological ball with an even number of quadrilateral sides can be partitioned into $O(n)$ topological cubes, meeting face to face. The result generalizes to non-simply-connected polyhedra satisfying an additional bipartiteness condition. The same techniques can also be used to reduce the geometric version of the hexahedral mesh generation problem to a finite case analysis amenable to machine solution.

1 Introduction

There has recently been a great deal of theoretical work on unstructured mesh generation for finite element methods, largely concentrating on triangulations and higher dimensional simplicial complexes [3]. However in the numerical community, where these meshes have been actually used, meshes of quadrilaterals or hexahedra (cuboids) are often preferred due to their numerical properties [1]. For this reason many mesh generation researchers are working on systems for construction of hexahedral meshes. (At the 4th Annual Meshing Roundtable, Sandia, 1995, 13 of the 28 titles on the agenda related to hexahedral meshing.) There has also been some theoretical work on such meshes [8, 9, 10] but much more remains to be done.

There is a straightforward method for generating hexahedral meshes, if one allows additional *Steiner points*: simply find a tetrahedralization of the domain, then subdivide each tetrahedron into four hexahedra as shown in Figure 7(c). But as Mitchell [9] notes, this type of boundary subdivision can make it difficult to mesh several adjoining domains simultaneously (either because the problem is defined in terms of multiple domains, or as part of a parallel mesh generation process).

We consider here a common variant of the hexahedral mesh generation problem, in which we avoid these problems by restricting the location of new Steiner points to the *interior* of the domain. The boundary (which is assumed to be a planar quadrilateral mesh) must remain unsubdivided. Although various authors have studied heuristics for this version of hexahedral mesh generation, its theoretical properties are not well understood and pose many interesting problems. In particular the computational complexity of determining whether a polyhedron admits a mesh of convex hexahedra respecting the polyhedron's boundary is unknown. Even some very simple cases, such as the eight-sided polyhedron shown in Figure 1, remain open [12].

For the planar case, the corresponding problem is easy: a polygon can be subdivided into convex quadrilaterals, meeting face to face, without extra subdivision points on the boundary, if and only if the polygon has an even number of sides. It may be difficult to find the smallest number of quadrilaterals needed for this task (or equivalently to optimize the number of Steiner points) but one can efficiently find a set of $O(n)$ Steiner points that suffice for this problem [10].

Thurston [13] and Mitchell [9] recently independently showed a similar characterization for the ex-

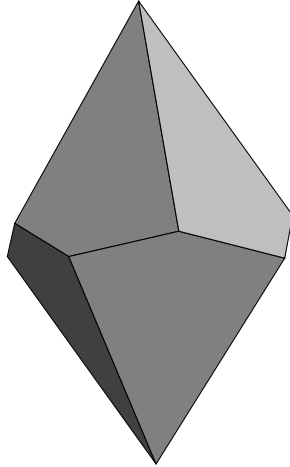


Figure 1. Does this octahedron have a hexahedral mesh?

istence of hexahedral meshes, with some caveats. First, the polyhedron to be meshed has to be a topological ball (although the method generalizes to certain polyhedra with holes). And second, the mesh is *topological*: the elements have curved boundaries and are not necessarily convex. However they must still be combinatorially equivalent to cubes, and must still meet face to face. Thurston and Mitchell both showed that any polyhedron forming a topological ball has a topological hexahedral mesh, without further boundary subdivision, if and only if there are an even number of boundary faces all of which are quadrilaterals. (Indeed, even parity of the number of faces is a necessary condition for the existence of cubical meshes in any dimension, regardless of the connectivity of the input, since each individual cube has evenly many faces which either contribute to the boundary or are paired up in the interior.) However Thurston and Mitchell’s method may produce meshes with high complexity (nonlinear in the number of features of the original polyhedral domain).

In this paper we discuss an alternate method for hexahedral grid generation. Our method combines refinement of a tetrahedral mesh with some local manipulation near the boundary based on planar graph theory. It is similar in spirit to mesh generation heuristics of Schneiders [11] and others, in which one first fills the interior of the domain with cubes before attempting to patch the remaining regions between these cubes and the boundary. A similar idea of “buffering” the boundary of the

input from subdivisions occurring in the interior was also used in a tetrahedralization algorithm of Bern [2].

Our new hexahedral meshing technique has three advantages over that of Mitchell and Thurston. First, we prove an $O(n)$ bound on the number of cells needed for a topological hexahedral mesh. Second, because our method avoids duality, it seems easier to extend it to the more practically relevant geometric version of the mesh generation problem: we exhibit a finite collection of polyhedra (formed by subdividing the boundary of a cube) such that if these polyhedra can all be geometrically meshed, any polyhedron forming a topological ball with an even number of quadrilateral sides can also be geometrically meshed, with $O(n^2)$ cells. Third, the method generalizes to a different class of non-simply connected polyhedra than those handled by Mitchell and Thurston’s method.

These results are not practical in themselves: the number of elements is too high and we have not satisfactorily completed the solution to the geometric case. Practical hexahedral mesh generation methods are still largely heuristic and will often fail or require the input boundary to be modified. There is a possibility here of a two way interaction between theory and practice: as heuristic mesh generators improve they may soon be good enough to solve the finite number of cases remaining in our geometric mesh generation method, and thereby prove that all even-quadrilateral polyhedra can be meshed. In the other direction, even an impracti-

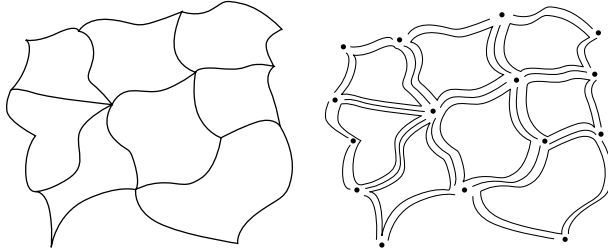


Figure 2. Topological mesh: (a) cell complex; (b) individual faces, edges, and vertices.

cal proof of the existence of meshes can be helpful, by guaranteeing that an incremental heuristic method such as Mitchell’s whisker-weaving idea [8] will not get stuck in a bad configuration.

2 Statement of the problem

Let us define more formally the topological mesh generation problem solved here. We assume we are given a *domain* topologically equivalent to the closed ball in three dimensions (later we will consider other more complicated domain topologies). The boundary of the domain is assumed to be covered by a finite *cell complex*; that is, a collection of finitely many *cells*: sets equivalent to closed balls of various dimensions, with disjoint relative interiors, such that the boundary of any cell is covered by lower dimensional cells, and any nontrivial intersection of two cells is another lower-dimensional cell. Our task is to extend this partition to a finite cell complex covering the overall domain.

We assume the boundary cell complex is a *quadrilateralization*; in particular, every *edge* (one-dimensional cell) has two *vertices* (zero-dimensional cells) as its endpoints, and every *face* (two-dimensional cell) has a cycle of four edges as its boundary. (Figure 2.)

We wish the cell complex produced by our algorithm to be a *hexahedral mesh*: the same conditions as above apply to every edge and face of the complex, but in addition every three-dimensional cell must be a *hexahedron*: it should have six quadrilateral faces on its boundary, meeting in edges and vertices with the same combinatorial structure as the faces, edges, and vertices of a cube.

Any simply-connected polyhedron with quadrilateral faces satisfies the input conditions. Any partition of that polyhedron into convex cuboids

meeting face-to-face satisfies our output conditions. However our definition allows partitions into non-convex and non-polyhedral cells.

3 Thurston and Mitchell

Before describing our own methods, we briefly discuss those of Thurston [13] and Mitchell [9].

The method of both these authors is to treat a hexahedral mesh as being the dual to an arrangement of surfaces [8], and a quadrilateral mesh such as the one on the boundary of the polyhedron as being the dual to an arrangement of curves. Given a mesh of quadrilaterals, one can find this curve arrangement simply by connecting the midpoints of opposite sides of each quadrilateral by curves (Figure 3(a)). Similarly, given a mesh of hexahedra, one can find these dual curves on each boundary facet of each hexahedron, and connect them by quadrilaterals to form surfaces, meeting in triple points at the center of each hexahedron (Figure 3(b)).

The problem then becomes one of performing the opposite transformation: extending the given surface curve arrangement to an interior surface arrangement, and then finding a collection of topological hexahedra dual to this surface arrangement.

Thurston and Mitchell solve the first part of this problem (extending the boundary curve arrangement to an interior surface arrangement) by extending curves with an even number of self-intersections to surfaces independently of each other; they pair up curves with an odd number of self-intersections and form a surface for each pair.

For the second part (transforming these surfaces to dual hexahedra), note that, for surfaces in general position, the structure of the surface arrangement can be represented as a collection of ver-

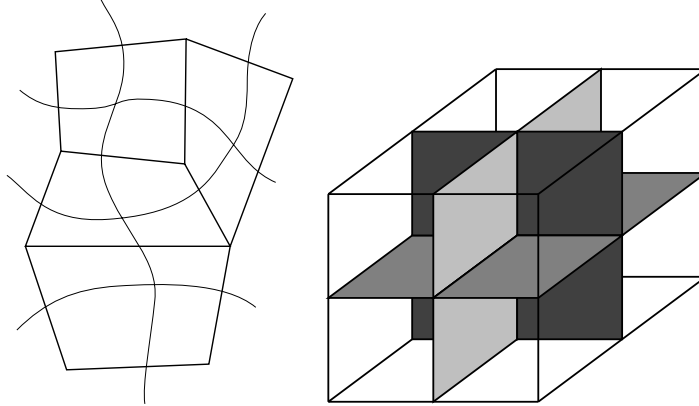


Figure 3. Dual of a mesh: (a) quadrilaterals and dual curves; (b) hexahedron and dual surfaces.

tices (for each triple intersection of surfaces) and edges (segments of pairwise intersections of surfaces). Each vertex should correspond to a dual hexahedron and each edge should correspond to a pair of hexahedra sharing a common face. However not every set of surfaces determines a dual cell complex in this way, because some of the vertices may be connected by multiple edges, resulting in hexahedra that do not intersect in a single face. Thurston and Mitchell solve this problem by surrounding problematic regions of the surface arrangement with spheres. The result is a collection of surfaces with a dual hexahedral mesh solving our mesh generation problem.

Theorem 1 (Mitchell, Thurston) *Any simply connected three-dimensional domain with an even number of quadrilateral boundary faces can be partitioned into a hexahedral mesh respecting the boundary.*

However this method does not provide much of a guarantee on the *complexity* of the resulting mesh, that is, of the number of hexahedral cells in it. This complexity is very important, as it directly affects the time spent by any numerical method using the mesh; even small constant factors can be critical.

It is not hard to provide examples in which this dual surface method constructs meshes with more than linearly many elements (measured in terms of the complexity of the polyhedron boundary). We provide two:

- A cube in which each square is subdivided into an $O(\sqrt{n})$ by $O(\sqrt{n})$ grid (Figure 4(a)). The

boundary curve arrangement dual to these grids consists of $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ Jordan curves without self-intersections. The method of Thurston and Mitchell extends each of these to a plane; these $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ curves will have $\Omega(n^{3/2})$ triple intersection points, so this method will produce a mesh of total complexity $\Omega(n^{3/2})$.

- A cube in which four of the boundary squares are subdivided into $\Omega(n)$ rectangles, forming $\Omega(n)$ non-self-intersecting boundary curves, and the remaining two squares have $\Omega(n)$ quadrilaterals arranged in a pattern to form $\Omega(n)$ curves with one self-intersection each (Figure 4(b)). If one incautiously matches these one-intersection curves into pairs of one from each side of the cube, and extends them to surfaces crossing from one side of the cube to the other, the overall complexity can be $\Omega(n^2)$.

4 Linear-complexity mesh generation

As we saw above, the mesh generation method of Thurston and Mitchell can produce meshes with $\Omega(n^{3/2})$ or $\Omega(n^2)$ hexahedra. We now describe our new topological mesh generation method, which will always give meshes with $O(n)$ complexity.

Our method has the following main steps:

1. We separate the boundary B of the polyhedron from its interior by a “buffer layer” of

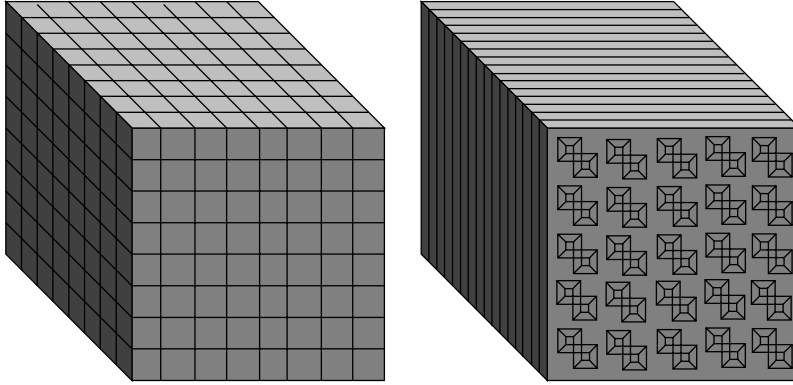


Figure 4. Bad examples for Thurston and Mitchell: (a) $\Omega(n^{3/2})$; (b) $\Omega(n^2)$.

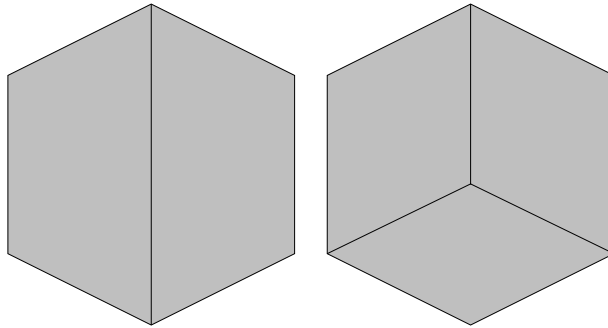


Figure 5. Partition of hexagons into two and three quadrilaterals.

cubes. We do this by finding a surface S inside the polyhedron, isomorphic to the polyhedron's boundary, and sitting in the same orientation. We then connect corresponding pairs of vertices on the two surfaces with edges, corresponding pairs of edges on the two surfaces with quadrilateral faces spanning pairs of connecting edges, and corresponding pairs of faces on the two surfaces with hexahedra.

2. We triangulate the inner surface of the buffer layer, and tetrahedralize the region inside this triangulated surface. A (topological) tetrahedralization with $O(n)$ complexity can be found by connecting each triangle on S to a common interior vertex.
3. We split each interior tetrahedron into four hexahedra (Figure 7(c)). This subdivision should be done in such a way that any two tetrahedra that meet in a facet or edge are subdivided consistently with each other. As a re-

sult, each edge in S becomes subdivided, and each quadrilateral connecting B to S gains an additional subdivision point and so becomes combinatorially equivalent to a pentagon.

4. Because B is by assumption a planar graph with all faces even, it is bipartite. (The well-known fact that even faces implies bipartiteness is the planar dual to the fact that even vertex degree implies the existence of an Euler tour, but it can easily be proved directly.) Let U and V be the two vertex sets of a bipartition of B (without loss of generality, $|U| < |V|$). Each vertex of B corresponds to an edge in the buffer layer connecting B to S . We subdivide the subset of those edges corresponding to vertices in U . Each of the quadrilaterals connecting B to S has one such edge, so (together with the subdivided edge in S itself) these subdivisions cause each such quadrilateral to become combinatorially a hexagon.
5. After these subdivision steps, each of the cells

in the buffer layer is now combinatorially a polyhedron with seven quadrilateral facets and four hexagon facets. We subdivide the hexagons into either two or three quadrilaterals each, as shown in Figure 5. We explain below how to do this in such a way that each cell of the buffer layer has an odd number of hexagons subdivided into each type; either one hexagon is subdivided into two quadrilaterals and three hexagons are subdivided into three quadrilaterals each, or three hexagons are subdivided into two quadrilaterals and one hexagon is subdivided into three quadrilaterals.

6. At this point, all the buffer cells are combinatorially polyhedra with either 16 or 18 quadrilateral boundary facets. We partition each cell into a mesh of $O(1)$ hexahedra. (The existence of such a mesh is guaranteed by Mitchell and Thurston’s results. Alternately, if the triangulation of S is chosen carefully using the same bipartition used above, there will only be two combinatorial types of cell; it is an amusing exercise to fill out these cases by hand.)

The remaining step that has not been described is how we choose whether to subdivide each of the faces connecting B to S into two or three quadrilaterals, so that each buffer cell has an odd number of subdivided faces of each type.

Lemma 1 *Given any planar graph G with evenly many quadrilateral faces, we can in polynomial time find a set S of edges of G such that each face of G is bounded by an odd number of edges in S .*

Proof: We use a technique familiar from the solution to the Chinese postman problem. Construct the dual graph G' , and form a metric on the vertices of G' with distances equal to the lengths of shortest paths in G' . By assumption G' has an even number of faces, so G' has evenly many vertices and there are perfect matchings in this metric; take the minimum weight perfect matching. This corresponds to a collection of paths in G' ; any two paths must be edge-disjoint since otherwise one could perform a swap and find a shorter matching. The union of these paths is a subgraph S' of G' (actually a forest) in which every vertex

has odd degree. (Each vertex has odd degree in the path in which it is an endpoint, and even degree in all other paths, so the total is odd.) Taking the corresponding edges in G gives a set S of edges having an odd number of incidences with each face, as was required in the statement of the lemma. \square

In fact, it is not hard to see that this procedure finds the set S of smallest cardinality. This process is depicted in Figure 6, which depicts for the skeleton of the polyhedron in Figure 1 the minimum weight matching on the shortest-path metric of the dual graph, and the resulting set of edges on the original graph. In this example, the paths in G' coming from the matching consist of a single edge each.

We apply this lemma to choose how to subdivide the hexagonal faces of the buffer layer between B and S . Recall that B is a planar graph with evenly many quadrilateral faces. Further, each face of B corresponds to a cell of the buffer layer, and edge of B corresponds to one of the hexagons that we wish to subdivide. We use the method of the lemma to find a set S of edges of B incident an odd number of times to each face of G ; equivalently this corresponds to a set of hexagonal faces incident an odd number of times to each cell in the buffer layer. We subdivide that set of faces into three quadrilaterals each, and the remaining faces into two quadrilaterals, as shown in Figure 5.

We summarize the results of this section.

Theorem 2 *Given any polyhedron P forming a topological ball with an even number n of faces, all quadrilaterals, it is possible to partition P into $O(n)$ topological cubes meeting face-to-face, such that each face of P is a face of some cube.*

Proof: The correctness of this method is sketched above. If P has n faces, there are $2n$ tetrahedra in the interior of S , subdivided into $8n$ hexahedra. In addition the n cubes connecting B with S are subdivided into $O(1)$ hexahedra each, so the total complexity is $O(n)$. \square

5 Geometric mesh generation

We would like to extend the topological mesh generation method described above to the more prac-

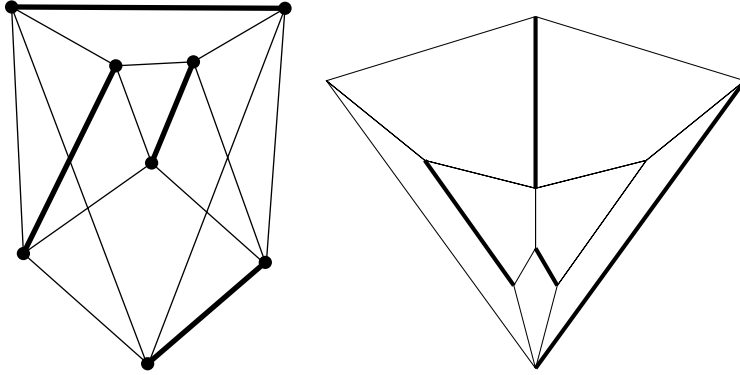


Figure 6. (a) Dual to quadrilateral mesh, with highlighted minimum-weight matching; (b) corresponding set of edges meeting each quadrilateral an odd number of times.

tically relevant problem of geometric mesh generation (partition into convex polyhedra combinatorially equivalent to cubes). Although our extension seems unlikely to be practical itself, because of its high complexity and the poor shape of the hexahedra it produces, it would be of great interest to complete a proof that all polyhedra (with evenly many quadrilateral faces) can be meshed. Also, it might make sense to include a powerful but impractical theoretical method as part of a more heuristic mesher, to deal with the difficult cases that might sometimes arise.

In any case, we have made some progress towards a geometrical mesh generation algorithm, but have not solved the entire problem. We have been able to solve the seemingly harder unbounded parts of the problem, leaving only a bounded amount of case analysis to be done. It seems likely that heuristic mesh generation methods may soon be capable of performing this case analysis and finishing the proof.

We go through the steps of our topological mesh generation algorithm, and describe for each step what changes need to be made to perform the analogous step in a geometric setting. However since our results here are incomplete, we do not fill in the method in too much detail.

1. Our topological method separates the boundary B of the polyhedron from its interior by a single buffer layer of cuboids connecting B to an isomorphic surface S inside the polyhedron. Unfortunately there exist polyhedra for which no isomorphic interior surface can

be connected to the boundary; Figure 7(a) shows an example of a vertex surrounded by six quadrilaterals in such a way that, no matter where the corresponding interior vertex is placed, some faces are invisible to it and hence can not be connected by geometric hexahedra. This example is easily completed to a polyhedron with the same property. Instead we form a more complicated buffer layer in the following way.

We first cover each face f of B by a convex hexahedron, with the opposite hexahedron face parallel to f , very close to f , and somewhat smaller than f , so that the other four sides of f are “beveled” to be nearly parallel to f . As shown in Figure 7(b), this causes the face to be replaced by a set of five quadrilaterals, slightly indented into the polyhedron.

For any two faces f and f' sharing an edge of B , we then add two more cuboids, both also sharing the same edge, connecting the sides of the two cuboids attached to f and f' . The faces of these cuboids attached to edges can be classified into three types: two are adjacent to other such cuboids or to the cuboids on f and f' . Two more are incident to the endpoints of the shared edge and are again beveled to be nearly parallel to that edge. The final two point towards the interior of the polygon. These two faces are very close to parallel to each other, so that the two faces incident to the endpoints of the shared edge have a “kite”-like shape resembling a slightly

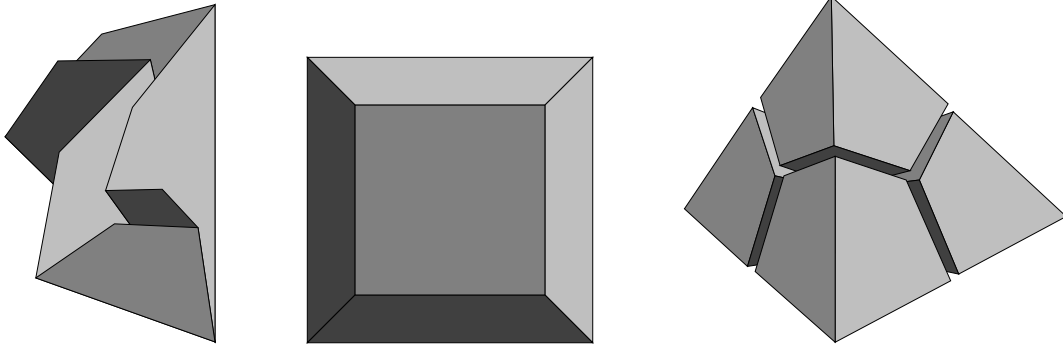


Figure 7. Geometric hexahedralization: (a) a vertex neighborhood which can not be extended by a single layer of cuboids; (b) flat cuboid placed on each face replaces it by an indented set of five quadrilaterals; (c) the partition of tetrahedra into hexahedra on planes through edges and opposite midpoints.

dented triangle.

Finally, we must cover the region near each vertex of B . As seen from the vertex, the faces of the cuboids we have already added form a vertex figure that can be represented as an even polygon on the surface of a small sphere centered at the vertex. Each of the sides of this polygon corresponds to one of the kite-shaped faces incident to the vertex. For instance the vertex neighborhood shown in Figure 7(a) could have arisen in this way, and the intersection of this neighborhood with a sufficiently small sphere centered at the vertex produces a hexagon. We triangulate this even polygon, and add for each interior diagonal of the triangulation another kite-shaped face, so that the vertex neighborhood is partitioned into regions bounded by three such faces. These regions correspond one-for-one with the triangles in the triangulation. We then add to our boundary region a small cuboid in each such region. Three faces and seven vertices of the cuboid are already determined; the eighth vertex is then fixed geometrically by the positions of the other seven. Since the three faces incident to the vertex of B are all kite-shaped, the three opposite faces are close to parallel to each other. By making all these cuboids attached to B small enough, and by making their faces close enough to parallel, this can all be done in such a way that no two cuboids interfere with each other.

2. The second step of our topological method was to triangulate the inner surface of the buffer layer, and tetrahedralize the region inside this triangulated surface. A tetrahedralization with $O(n^2)$ complexity can be found using a method of Bern [2]. (The bound claimed in that paper is $O(n + r^2)$ where r is the number of reflex edges, however our first step creates $\Omega(n)$ reflex edges. Perhaps it is possible to use the information that many of these edges are very close to flat, to reduce the complexity to depend only on the reflex edges of B .)
3. We third step of our topological method was to split each interior tetrahedron into four hexahedra. In order to do this geometrically in a way consistent across adjacent pairs of tetrahedra, we subdivide each tetrahedron using planes through each edge and opposite midpoint (Figure 7(c)). It is not hard to show that these four planes meet in a common point (e.g. by affine transformation from the regular tetrahedron). The subdivision on each tetrahedron face is therefore along lines through each vertex and opposite midpoint.
4. The next step of our topological method was to find a bipartition of B , and subdivide the interior edges incident to one of the two vertex classes of the bipartition. This step remains unchanged except that each vertex in the given class may be incident to many interior edges; all are subdivided.

5. At this point, the cells of the buffer layer fall into several classes. The cells coming from faces of B are like those of our topological construction, polyhedra with seven quadrilateral facets and four hexagon facets. The cells coming from edges of B have four quadrilaterals, three hexagons, and an octagon. The cells coming from vertices of B on one side of the bipartition have 18 quadrilaterals and three hexagons. The cells coming from the other side of the bipartition have 18 quadrilaterals and three octagons. In any case, the hexagon and octagon sides need to be subdivided, in such a way that all cells end up with an even number of sides. We can use the same idea of matching here; in fact the cells at each vertex can be matched independently, leaving one larger matching connecting the cells on faces and edges.
6. Finally, each buffer cell needs to be meshed. This can be done independently for each cell, but it would require a case analysis (which we have not done) to show that each possible type cell can be meshed.

Thus of the steps in our topological mesh generation procedure, it is only the final finite case analysis which we have been unable to extend to the geometric problem.

6 Generalizations

The only important property we used of topological balls (with quadrilateral faces) is that their boundaries form bipartite graphs; but the same extends to simply connected domains with cubically meshed surfaces in any dimension, as can easily be seen via homology theory. (Hetyai [6] has an alternate proof of bipartiteness for shellable complexes.) Thus there seems no conceptual obstacle to extending this technique to higher dimensional meshing problems, although it again requires a case analysis or other technique such as that of Thurston and Mitchell to prove that the resulting buffer cells are meshable.

An alternate direction for generalization is to more topologically complicated polyhedra in three dimensions. Mitchell [9] describes a generalization

of his method which applies whenever the input polyhedron forms a handlebody that can be cut along evenly-many-sided disks to reduce its complexity. (Clearly, such a simplification can be used independently of the mesh generation method to be used.) Our method can handle an alternate class of polyhedra, such as knot complements or bodies with disconnected boundaries, for which no simplifying disk cut exists. The only step where we used the connectivity of the input boundary was in the result that a planar graph with even faces is bipartite; instead we can simply require that the input polyhedron be bipartite with evenly many sides in each boundary component. We can topologically mesh any such polyhedron; alternately, if we could solve the same finite set of cases as before we can geometrically mesh any such polyhedron. (The geometric case needs an extension of Bern's surface-preserving tetrahedralization to non-simply-connected polyhedra, due to Chazelle and Shouraboura [4].)

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