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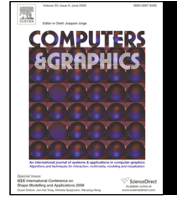
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Automatic shape adjustment at joints for the Implicit Skinning

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ABSTRACT

The implicit skinning is a geometric interactive skinning method, for skeleton-based animations, enabling plausible deformations at joints while resolving skin self-collisions. Even though requiring a few user interactions to be adequately parameterized, some efforts have to be spent on the edition of the shapes at joints.

In this research, we introduce a dedicated optimisation framework for automatically adjusting the shape of the surfaces generating the deformations at joints when they are rotated during an animation. This approach directly fits in the implicit skinning pipeline and it has no impact on the algorithm performance during animation. Starting from the mesh partition of the mesh representing the animated character, we propose a dedicated hole filling algorithm based on a particle system and a power crust meshing. We then introduce a procedure optimizing the shape of the filled mesh when it rotates at the joint level. This automatically generates plausible skin deformation when joints are rotated without the need of extra user editing.

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1. Introduction

Skeleton-based animation is a widely used approach for animating 3D digital characters. In general, an animation is first created by applying linear transformations (e.g. rotations and scales) on the different skeleton bones. Then, the mesh representing the animated character has to be deformed according to its skeleton transformations and model internal structure. This geometry deformation step, called *skinning*, is still time consuming for artists and scientifically very challenging to address when targeting realistic or visually plausible results.

Over the years, a wide range of skinning approaches have been proposed. On the one hand, physically-based methods provide realistic deformations, eventually including secondary motion effects such as muscle inflation and jiggling [2, 3, 4, 5, 6], while avoiding self-collisions [7, 8, 9, 10]. Example-based learning methods can also be used for skinning the character body [11] or learning the parameters of a fast geometric method from a high quality, computationally expensive deformer [12]. All these approaches often require non-intuitive and tedious pa-

rameterization or a large set of varying training data to provide a desired result.

On the other hand, very fast geometric skinning methods blend the bone transformations expressed linearly [13, 14, 15] or as dual quaternions [16, 17] at each mesh vertex, using skinning weights. Delta mush skinning avoids the transformation blending by smoothing a rigid transformation of the mesh and restoring details stored in rest pose [18, 19]. These approaches do not handle self-contact and collisions, and they are subject to visual artefacts such as volume loss or bulge. The automatic deformation can however be improved by experienced artists, which makes them attractive for interactive real-time applications such as video games. When tweaking their parameters and adding ghost bones is not sufficient to improve the final shape, the use of pose space deformations may be considered [20]. It enables the production of realistic or desired transformations by interpolating key poses, at the cost of extensive user edits.

Other approaches improve volume preservation [21] and resolve self-collisions while providing an interactive frame-rate for rigging and animating a character. Projective skin-

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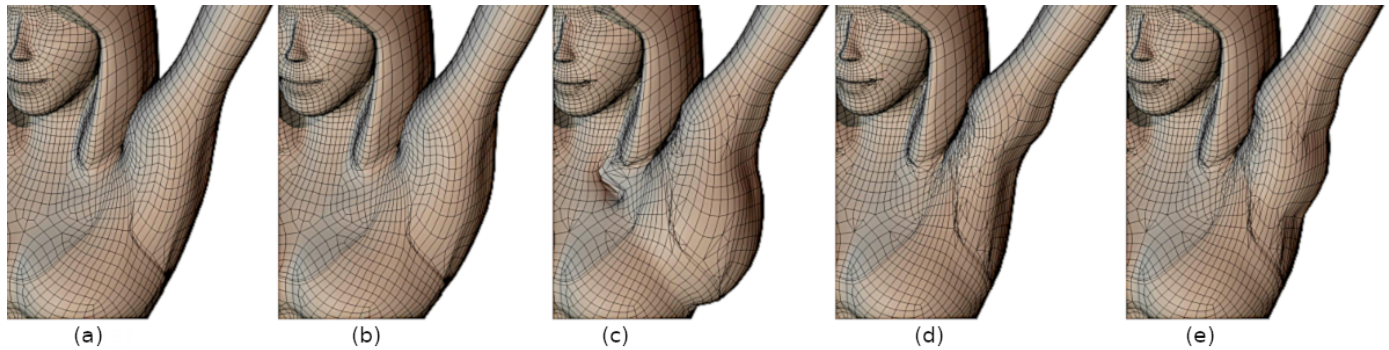


Fig. 1. Result produced by different skinning methods applied to Dana’s shoulder. (a) linear blending, (b) dual quaternions, (c) implicit skinning with default settings [1], (d) Ours, (e) implicit skinning [1] with artist edited joint.

ning [22, 23] relies on a mesh tetrahedrization and a projective dynamics constraint optimization scheme [24] to approximate physical skin behaviors. Also based on a volumetric reconstruction of the character, the implicit skinning technique [25, 1] approximates the mesh with an iso-surface of a 3D scalar field. During motion, the scalar field is deformed according to the skeleton transformations and the mesh is animated by tracking the iso-surface deformations.

The variety of skin deformations at joints produced by the implicit skinning can be enhanced by sketching the skin shapes at different poses using sketch-based blending [26], and the addition of muscles and bones [27] in the implicit skinning framework [28] allows to also produce muscle deformations while still automatically handling skin self-collisions. These make the implicit skinning approach a unified approach very well suited for generating plausible skin deformations for skeleton-based animated characters and its improvement is the topic of this research.

Implicit Skinning. The implicit skinning method takes as input a partitioned mesh with respect to the skeleton bones and a set of default skinning weights (Figure 2-a). Each mesh part is approximated by a 3D scalar field defined by an Hermite Radial Basis Function (HRBF) [29, 30] and these scalar fields are combined in a composition tree [31] to define a final scalar field whose 0.5-iso-surface represents the character skin. During a rotation at a joint, each part’s scalar field is rigidly transformed and the shape of the skin at the joint is defined by the way the 0.5-iso-surfaces of the parts slide over each other (Figures 2-e and 6). Even though a great advantage of the implicit skinning is the significant reduction of the user interactions required to rig a character, a specific effort still has to be spent to manually adjust the shape of the parts’ iso-surfaces at joints to get plausible results when they slide over each other during rotations. This is especially necessary at complicated articulations such as shoulders, as illustrated in Figures 1-c,e. In addition, the interactive editing of the iso-surface through control points and normals to adjust the character skin shape at joints during its animation appears unnatural for artists that are used to mesh editing tools.

Contribution. Starting from the mesh parts (Figures 2-b,c) and their approximating HRBFs (Figure 2-d), we first use particles

and a Power Crust algorithm to close the meshes (Section 3, Figure 2-f and Figure 3). We then propose a dedicated optimization scheme automatically adjusting the mesh vertices’ position where parts slide when joints are rotated (Section 4). It is composed of three steps: (1) a pre-fairing step (Section 4.1, Figure 2-f), (2) a sliding optimisation step (Section 4.2, Figure 2-g) and (3) a post-fairing step (Section 4.3, Figure 2-h).

We thus introduce two scientific contributions: A new dedicated pipeline based on specifically adapted and parameterized state of the art techniques (i.e. a particle system and a Power Crust meshing), and a new optimization scheme automatically adjusting the animated shapes around the joints.

In Section 5, we validate our approach by showing the improvement of our automatically generated deformation at joints (Figure 1-d) on those produced automatically by Vaillant et al. [1] (Figure 1-c). We also illustrate the close similarity of our results with those manually edited by experienced artists (Figure 1-e) and those automatically produced by the Fast Projective Skinning [23] (Figure 10).

2. Related works

Our first requirement is to close the open meshes provided by the initial animated model partition. Then, we adjust the shape of the closed parts where they slide over each other when they are rotated around a joint. We thus review the main mesh hole filling techniques before presenting our approach for controlling the animated mesh deformation at joints. Hole filling in meshes is a long standing problem and many solutions have been proposed over the years as described by Hernández et al. [32]. Two main families of methods can be considered as suggested by Guo et al. [33]: geometric and volumetric approaches.

Geometric methods. They leverage the knowledge provided by the topology of the model to produce appropriate filling. For instance, the advancing front algorithm gradually adds new faces from the mesh bounding edges [34]. The same kind of method for point clouds adds new points from an initial point cloud boundaries [35]. These methods generate water tight meshes or closed point clouds. Other methods rather first coarsely triangulate the hole, then refine the triangulation to generate a denser

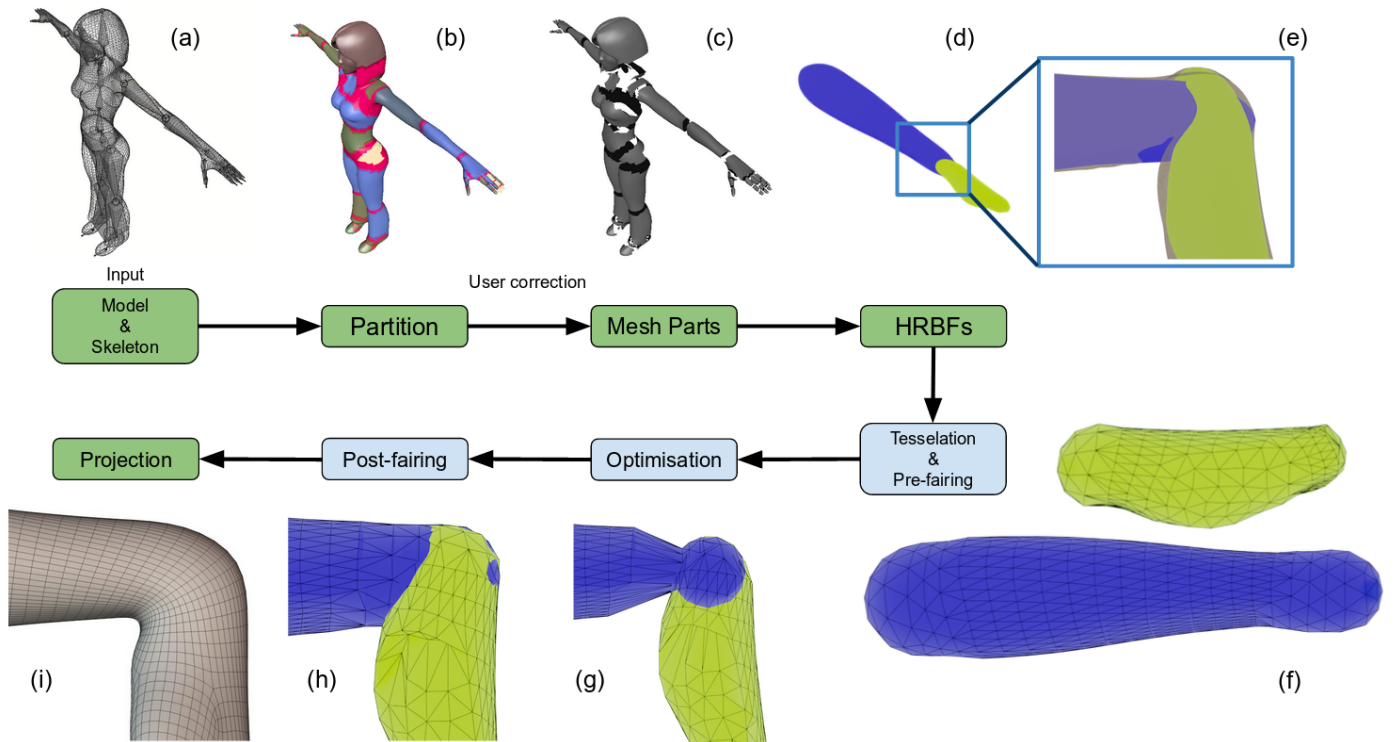


Fig. 2. Overview of our approach. (a) Input mesh and its associated skeleton. (b) Model segmentation with respect to the skinning weights. (c) Mesh parts resulting from the input mesh segmentation. (d) 0.5-iso-surfaces interpolating the mesh parts of the forearm in blue and the hand in green. (e) Bulging shape generated at the wrist joint when parts are rotated. (f) Closure of the mesh parts following the 0.5-iso-surfaces and pre-fairing of the extremity shapes. (g) Iterative shape optimization removing the bulge when limbs rotate. (h) Post-fairing generating the final shape for rigging the model. (i) Result of the implicit skinning applied on our optimized shapes at joints.

topology and finally apply some geometric operators to smooth the new mesh filling the hole, eventually based on the harmonic umbrella operator [36]. In these approaches, the locality of the algorithm does not ensure the mesh global continuity. Whatever the way the hole has been filled, the quality of the new mesh can be further improved by fairing the surface normals solving an harmonic equation and then computing the vertex positions using the Poisson equations [37]. In fact, depending on the hole size, different methods may have varying efficiency and Feng et al. [38] propose to adapt the filling strategy to the hole size.

Volumetric methods. Such approaches rely on 3D field functions to fill the model holes. Their main advantage is the capacity of field functions to automatically fill holes of arbitrary topology with smooth surfaces, though they still have to be meshed and they do not provide fine and local control of the surface shape. This idea was first introduced to complete scanned data [39] with weighted distance fields. A diffusion on a distance field [40] or a biharmonic field [41] discretized in a 3D grid can also be used to fill holes. These approaches can be improved using an octree and Hermite data to reconstruct edges [42]. The use of a discrete structure can be avoided with continuous smooth interpolation of field functions such as Radial Basis Functions [43] or Algebraic Point Set Surfaces [44]. These approaches may fail in providing an adequate topology and better guarantees are provided by the integration of a Poisson reconstruction and restricted Delaunay triangulations [45].

A more recent method uses an advancing front guided by field functions to achieve hole filling in specified areas [46].

In this research, we need to both close the mesh parts (illustrated on the Dana model in Figure 2-c) and adjust the shape of the closure (Figure 2-e) in order to provide a plausible deformation at joints where closed parts slide on each other (Figures 2-h,i). We thus take inspiration from the conjoint use of field functions and mesh processing techniques to provide both an efficient hole filling and a mesh shape optimization.

While the use of HRBF enables the automatic generation of closed implicit surfaces approximating the mesh parts, it is not computationally well suited for optimizing the closure shapes around joints. We thus close the mesh parts following the closed approximating implicit surfaces to rely on mesh processing techniques for the shape optimization. Once the mesh shape optimized, we generate the final optimized implicit surface required by the implicit skinning framework by interpolating the optimized closed mesh vertices (as done for the initial open mesh parts). This leads us to the processing pipeline presented in Figure 2.

3. Parts closure

3.1. Partitioning

Following the standard interactive skinning pipeline, we start from the input skeleton and character mesh (Figure 2-a). The mesh is split into mesh parts corresponding to the skeleton

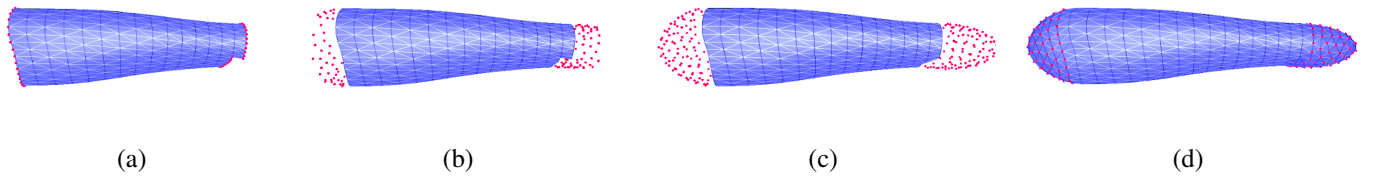


Fig. 3. Illustration of the closure procedure. (a) We first add particles at the holes boundaries. (b-c) Particles are then iteratively displaced, subdivided and/or removed along the HRBF 0.5-iso-surface following the minimization of an energy based on their density. (d) Once stabilized, the particles are meshed with a Power Crust method.

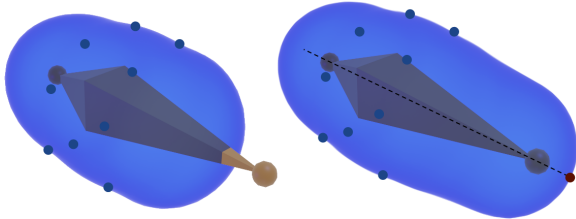


Fig. 4. The blue dots are the constraints interpolated by the HRBF whose 0.5-iso-surface is shown in blue. On the left we can see that a boundary of the bone is outside of the implicit surface, and the value of the scalar field is thus lower than 0.5 at this bone extremity. On the right, adding the new red constraint aligned to the bone solves this issue.

1 bones, either based on the skinning weights (that may be de-
 2 fault weights used for geometric skinning), on the bone prox-
 3 imity, or following a user provided partitioning. In Figure 2-b
 4 the removed vertices at joints are depicted in pink and Figure 2-
 5 c shows the resulting mesh parts produced on the Dana Model.
 6 In this example, we use the skinning weights for partitioning
 7 the model.

8 As suggested by Vaillant et al. [25], we apply a Poisson
 9 disk sampling [47] on each mesh part vertices, from which we
 10 compute an interpolating HRBF field function (Figure 2-d). A
 11 HRBF generates a field function per mesh part, whose 0.5-iso-
 12 surface is a closed surface closely approximating the mesh part
 13 vertices. The automatic closure of the mesh parts may be far
 14 from the closure required by the implicit skinning to provide
 15 a plausible skin deformation at joints. Vaillant et al. [25] thus
 16 suggested to add a control sample on each side of the bone at a
 17 distance of the bone extremity equal to the average of the mesh
 18 part boundary vertices in order to produce a result closer to an
 19 expected solution (even though often not fully satisfactory as
 20 illustrate in Figures 1-c and 8-1st-column).

21 In the implicit skinning [25, 1], this is the only shape con-
 22 trol provided at joints and any incorrect (Figure 1-c) or approx-
 23 imative (Figures 2-e and 6) shape has to be manually edited
 24 by displacing / adding / removing HRBF control samples. In
 25 our case, we only require that the 0.5-iso-surface of the HRBF
 26 encompasses the bone extremities. This is enforced by comput-
 27 ing the HRBF value at the bone extremities and checking if
 28 the value is greater than 0.5 (we use the convention in which
 29 the field function is greater than 0.5 inside the implicit surface
 30 defined by the 0.5-iso-surface). If it is not the case, we then add
 31 an HRBF control sample aligned with the bone, outside its ex-
 32 tremity as illustrated in Figure 4. This provides the closed field

functions from which we close the mesh parts. 33

3.2. Particles 34

35 We now populate the holes filled by HRBFs with particles
 36 by adapting to our need existing particles systems over implicit
 37 surfaces [48, 49]. These particles represent the new vertices
 38 used to create the final mesh at the end of the closure process
 39 (Section 3.3). To do this, we use the mesh part vertices as fixed
 40 particles that repulse new moving particles initially added at the
 41 part boundaries. When moving, the new particles slide along the
 42 0.5-iso-surface of the HRBF and fill the holes.

43 Particles are thus initialized by the part mesh vertices and
 44 two additional particles are located at each part mesh boundary
 45 vertices (Figure 3-a). We add two particles by vertex located
 46 at the part boundary rather than a single in order to start with a
 47 number of particles closer to the required final one. A density
 48 function ρ_i and an energy E_i is associated to each particle i . For
 49 N particles, they are defined as follows:

$$\rho_i(\mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{\sigma_i \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\left(\frac{\|\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{p}_i\|}{\alpha}\right)^2}, \quad (1)$$

and 50

$$E_i = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \rho_j(\mathbf{p}_i). \quad (2)$$

In Equation 1, α and σ_i are defined as explained below. 51

52 The parameter α allows the adjustment of the particle density
 53 to the approximate target number of particles, here experimen-
 54 tally set to $N_t = 500$. It is defined as:

$$\alpha = \frac{4r}{\sqrt{-\log(0.1)N_t}}, \quad (3)$$

55 where r is the maximal distance between a moving particle
 56 and the axis passing by the barycenter of all particles in the
 57 direction of the first eigenvector of their PCA.

58 The parameter σ_i is initialized to 1 for all particles. Then,
 59 energies E_i are computed with $\sigma_i = 1$ and, once these energies
 60 computed, σ_i is set to $\sigma_i = \frac{E_i}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ for all particles coming from
 61 the mesh part. These mesh part particles are fixed during all
 62 the hole filling procedure and this value of σ_i , set empirically
 63 during our experiments, ensures that they adequately repulse
 64 the new particles covering the holes.

65 Once initialized, only the new particles placed at mesh
 66 boundaries are displaced, subdivided or removed, driven by the

1 minimization of their energy E_i implemented with the follow-
 2 ing iterative process. At each iteration, energies E_i are com-
 3 puted for each particle and, if a particle has an energy lower
 4 than E_{min} , it is subdivided in two particles, while if it has an
 5 energy greater than E_{max} , it is removed. E_{min} and E_{max} are ex-
 6 perimentally set respectively to 0.05 and 0.1. The energy of the
 7 subdivided particles is recomputed and particles are displaced
 8 following the gradient of the energy and a projection onto the
 9 0.5-iso-surface of the HRBF field. The gradient is given by:

$$\nabla E_i = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \nabla \rho_j(\mathbf{p}_i) = \sum_{j \neq i}^N \frac{-2}{\alpha^2} \rho_j(\mathbf{p}_i) (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}_j), \quad (4)$$

10 and, following Witkin and Heckbert [48], the addition of the
 11 projection on the HRBF leads us to the following update of the
 12 particle position \mathbf{p}_i :
 13

$$\mathbf{p}_i = \mathbf{p}_i + \alpha \left(\nabla E_i - \frac{(\nabla f(\mathbf{p}_i) \cdot \nabla E_i) \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_i)}{\nabla f(\mathbf{p}_i) \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_i)} \right). \quad (5)$$

14 This process of energy computation, subdivision/removal
 15 and displacement is repeated (Figure 3-b) while the variation
 16 of the number of particles does not exceed 5% in 5 successive
 17 steps. Once this criterion is reached, we perform a few more
 18 displacements (5 in our implementation) without subdividing
 19 or removing particles to produce a more uniform final sampling
 20 (Figure 3-c).

21 3.3. Re-Meshing

22 Once the particle system has converged, we apply the Power
 23 Crust meshing algorithm [50] to compute a mesh topology tak-
 24 ing as vertices the particles, and we perform a union of this
 25 closing mesh with the initial part mesh (Figures 2-f and 3-d).
 26 The Power Crust proposed by Amenta et al. [50] first recon-
 27 structs an approximate medial axis and a medial axis transform
 28 from the set of vertices. It then uses the inverse of this medial
 29 axis transform with a weighted Voronoi diagram to reconstruct
 30 a topology over the input vertices. In our settings, we directly
 31 use the bones as approximation of the medial axis and we take
 32 benefit of the simplicity and the robustness of this power-crust
 33 algorithm to compute the mesh topology over the closing parti-
 34 cles provided by the particle system.

35 4. Shape fitting

36 We now optimize the shape of the closed mesh representing
 37 each part. During this step, we do not modify the position of
 38 the initial part mesh vertices and we focus on those added to fill
 39 the holes.

40 4.1. Pre-fairing

41 We start by computing a shape of low curvature variation
 42 by displacing the mesh vertices so that they solve the Laplace
 43 equation expressed on their distance to the bone (Figure 2-f).
 44 We thus define \mathbf{p}'_i , the projection of a particle position \mathbf{p}_i onto
 45 its associated bone as:

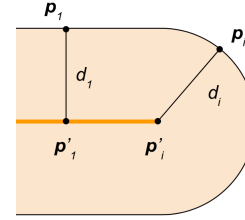


Fig. 5. 2D illustration of points \mathbf{p}_i , their projection \mathbf{p}'_i and the distance $d_i = \|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\|$.

$$\mathbf{p}'_i = \mathbf{A} + \max(\min(\frac{(\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{A}) \cdot (\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A})}{\|\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A}\|^2}, 1), 0)(\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A}), \quad (6)$$

46 where \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are the bone extremities. We define $d_i =$
 47 $\|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\|$ as illustrated in Figure 5, and compute the discreet
 48 Laplace-Beltrami operator with cotangent weights [51] as:
 49

$$\Delta = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \omega_{ij} (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}_j), \quad (7)$$

50 where \mathcal{N}_i is the set of indices of vertices in the one ring
 51 neighborhood of \mathbf{p}_i and $\omega_{ij} = (\cot \alpha_{ij} + \cot \beta_{ij})$ with α_{ij} and
 52 β_{ij} being the angles opposite to the edge $[\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{p}_j]$. We then solve
 53 the Laplace equation on $d = \{d_i\}$ with as constraints the set of
 54 distances \hat{d} of the initial part mesh boundary vertices to their
 55 skeleton:

$$\Delta d = \begin{bmatrix} L00 & L10 \\ L01 & L11 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{d} \\ \tilde{d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} D \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

56 where L_{kl} , $k, l \in \{0, 1\}$, are matrices of cotangent weights, \tilde{d}
 57 are the unknown, and D and 0 are respectively the column vec-
 58 tor of computed constraints and the zero values of the Laplace
 59 equation on distances \tilde{d} to the bone at free vertices. This equa-
 60 tion can be reduced and solved as:

$$L11 \tilde{d} = -L01 \hat{d}. \quad (9)$$

61 When starting from a cylindrical initial mesh part, this pro-
 62 cess fills the holes on each side with an half sphere.

63 4.2. Sliding optimization

64 We now optimize the vertices position when bones are ro-
 65 tated around joints. Our goal is to avoid the bulge that is often
 66 produced when the rotation angle increases, as shown, for ex-
 67 ample, in Figures 6, 1-c, 8-left. To do so, we define a bulging
 68 energy E^B for minimizing the bulging area produced in the dif-
 69 ferent poses for a range of rotation angles defined between two
 70 bones at a joint. During optimization at a joint, we consider one
 71 bone fixed (the one of \mathbf{p}_i) and the other one in rotation.

$$E^B = \sum_{R \in \mathcal{N}_R} E_R \text{ with } E_R = \sum_i^{N_R} \phi_i(R) \frac{(\mathbf{p}_i - \tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R}) \cdot (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i)}{\|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\|}, \quad (10)$$

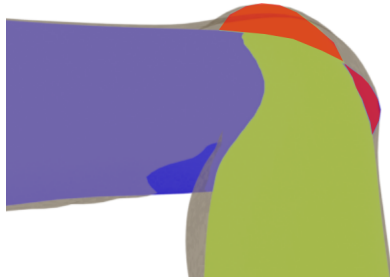


Fig. 6. In red, the bulge generated during the rotation of the wrist.

1 where \mathcal{N}_R is the set of rotations discretizing the range of possible rotations around the joint (we found that 20 rotations per
2 possible rotations around the joint (we found that 20 rotations per
3 free direction of rotation is a minimum to obtain a plausible result), E_R is the energy per rotation R , N_h is the number of points
4 filling the holes of the optimized mesh around the joint, and $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R}$
5 is the closest point to the projection of the point \mathbf{p}_i , in the radial
6 direction ($\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i$), onto the mesh of the other bone as illustrated
7 in Figure 7-left. The use of the function $\phi_i(R)$ avoids the optimisation of rotated points whose projection onto the other mesh
8 is outside the optimized area: when the projected point is not in
9 direct proximity of the filled part of the other mesh or when \mathbf{p}'_i
10 is further than a third of the bone from the current joint center.
11 We thus set $\phi_i(R) = 0$ when the projection is onto the initial part
12 of the other mesh and the point is inside this part. Otherwise,
13 $\phi_i(R) = 1$.

14 To minimize this energy E^B , we first compute $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R}$ as:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R} = \arg \max_j \frac{\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i}{\|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\|} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{q}_{j,R} - \mathbf{p}'_i}{\|\mathbf{q}_{j,R} - \mathbf{p}'_i\|}, \quad (11)$$

15 where $\mathbf{q}_{j,R}$ are points on the rotated mesh. We then evaluate
16 the energies E_R for the different rotations in \mathcal{N}_R . We use these
17 energy values to randomly select a rotation with a probability
18 equal to E_R/E^B for each rotation. For the selected rotation R ,
19 we displace the points \mathbf{p}_i generating a bulge (those located outside
20 the other mesh, i.e. when $\|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\| > \|\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R} - \mathbf{p}'_i\|$) inward
21 following Equation 12:
22

$$\mathbf{p}_i = \mathbf{p}_i - \kappa \phi_i(R) (\|\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i\| - \|\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R} - \mathbf{p}'_i\|)(\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}'_i), \quad (12)$$

23 where κ is experimentally set to 0.2 to avoid large steps that
24 would introduce instabilities in the minimization process. We
25 then compute the new value of the bulging energy E_B . We iterate
26 this process of computation of E_R , selection of a rotation,
27 and displacement of points \mathbf{p}_i until the bulging energy E^B
28 is stabilized.

29 4.3. Post-fairing

30 Even though the sliding optimization step provides satisfactory
31 results with respect to the joint rotation, it does not preserve
32 the continuity of the shape at the boundary between the filling
33 vertices and the original part mesh vertices, as can be seen on
34 Figure 2-g. This is easily corrected by linearly interpolating between
35 the mesh produced by the pre-fairing step (Section 4.1)

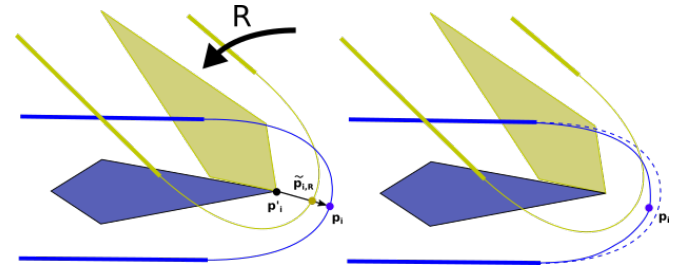


Fig. 7. Illustration of the displacement of a mesh closure point at a rotation R during the bulge removal optimisation. The point \mathbf{p}_i (left-blue) is moved (right-blue) towards its projection onto the rotated mesh $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{i,R}$ (left-yellow).

36 at the boundary of the initial part mesh, and the mesh produced
37 by the sliding optimization (Section 4.2) at four triangle rings
38 from the boundary, as illustrated in Figure 2-h.

39 Once the final mesh produced, it is included in the implicit
40 skinning by applying a Poisson sampling (as done in the standard
41 implicit skinning method, see Section 1) and computing
42 its interpolating HRBF.

43 5. Results and discussions

44 We ran our experiments on an 4 cores intel i7-3770K CPU
45 @ 3.50GHz with 16 GB RAM. Our implementation is in C++
46 for the Implicit Skinning and the closure (Section 3) and we
47 use Matlab for the shape fitting steps (Section 4). We apply our
48 algorithm on several joints of different models, as soon as the
49 default solution is not satisfactory, i.e. when an editing is required
50 by an artist. Overall, we handle a joint in around 10s and all the
51 required joints of a model in a few minutes (Table 1) on a standard
52 computer. This optimisation is done once for each joint during the
53 rigging phase and it has no impact on the implicit skinning
54 algorithm timings during animation.

55 The automatically produced results are close enough to what
56 an experienced artist produces to avoid the need for extra editing
57 (Figures 1, 8, 9 and 10). It may happen that the solution
58 produced by the artist looks less natural, as in Figure 1-e. This
59 is however the desired deformation for this joint and another
60 artist may have generated a slightly different solution. What is
61 thus important for an automatic solution is not to exactly reproduce
62 a solution produced by an artist, but rather to be close enough
63 while remaining visually plausible (i.e. by approximating physical
64 body properties). In addition, if some extra editing is necessary,
65 the artist can now directly edit the final optimized meshes with
66 the standard mesh deformation tools provided by commercial
67 modeling / rigging softwares in a few interactions.

68 We also compare our deformations to those produced by the
69 Fast Projective Skinning [23] in Figures 9 and 10. This
70 constraint-based method also preserves the volume of the character
71 body and generates skin contact deformations. Overall, the results
72 produced by this method and ours are quite similar. However, our
73 optimized implicit skinning tends to produce less deep contacts
74 and it better preserves the limbs thickness.

75 *Discussions and limitations.* We have tested our method on
76 models having different morphology and on the complicated

Table 1. Average timings (in seconds) on the optimization of different joints for different models.

Model (#parts)	Part Closure		Shape Fitting			Total
	Particles Spreading	Re-meshing	Pre-fairing	Sliding Optimization	Post fairing	
Hand (21)	0.33	0.23	0.30	10.5	<0.01	11.36
Male (24)	1.00	0.42	0.08	9.4	<0.01	10.90
Armadillo (35)	0.26	0.23	0.31	12	<0.01	12.80
Dana (54)	1.91	0.20	0.17	8	<0.01	10.28

case of a hand. It always provided the expected results. In rare cases, the process may fail because the initial mesh part is segmented too close from the joint. In that case, a very fast user interaction with a painting tool is enough to reduce the mesh part.

Another limitation would be the use of our optimisation on a non-humanoid model having large shape details at the joint. In that case, a specific user edition is required to adapt the deformation to the specificity of the model.

We notice an increase in the mean time spent in the particle system on the Dana model. This is due to a set of mesh parts for which the HRBF closure is larger and the particle system requires more iterations to converge.

Our method generates a “rounded” support shape at the joint, augmented by the character mesh details captured by the implicit skinning. It does not automatically generate bone shapes as could be desired at a bent elbow. The use of additional bone primitives at joints may be a future direction of investigation.

6. Conclusions

We introduced a new approach automatically generating plausible skin deformations at joints when an animated character is rigged with the implicit skinning [25, 1]. This method avoids the user edits required to adequately parameterize the implicit skinning field functions controlling the skin deformations at joints. The quality of the deformation is similar to those produced by experienced artists and the Fast Projective Skinning. It thus makes the implicit skinning an almost fully automatic technique providing high quality rigs.

Future promising directions of research may include the generation of bone shapes at joints when they bend and the improvement of the implicit skinning frame-rate during animation. On the one hand, adding bone shapes may require the study of specific composition operators at joints and it would increase the versatility of possible skin deformations produced by the implicit skinning, allowing to reach realistic results at joints. On the other hand, decreasing the overall computations required to deform a character with the implicit skinning would increase the versatility of practical applications.

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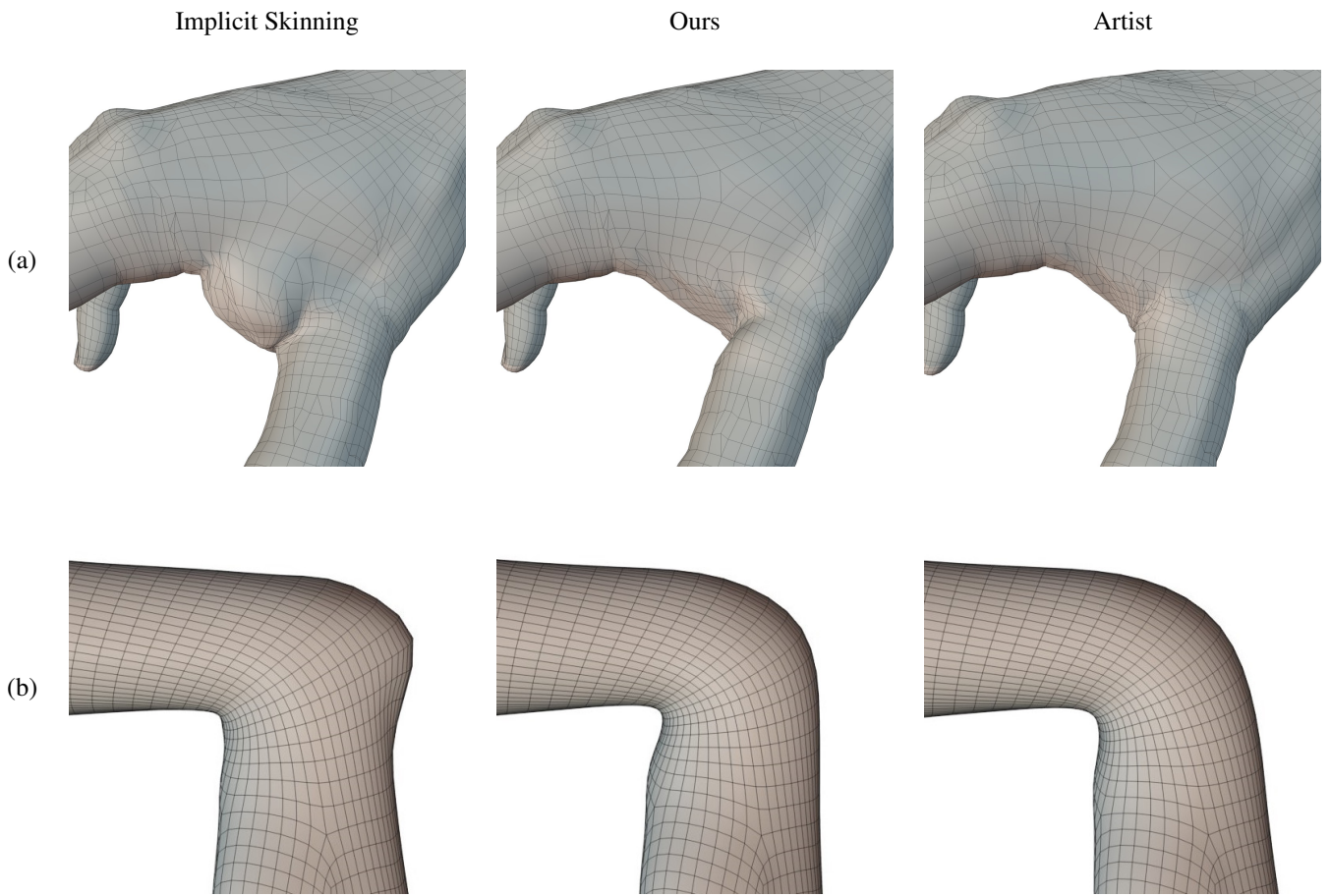


Fig. 8. Comparison of the results produced on different problematic joints of different models by (left) the implicit skinning with the default HRBFs [1], (middle) our optimized meshes and (right) HRBFs adjusted by an experienced user. (a) The thumb of a detailed hand, (b) Dana's wrist.

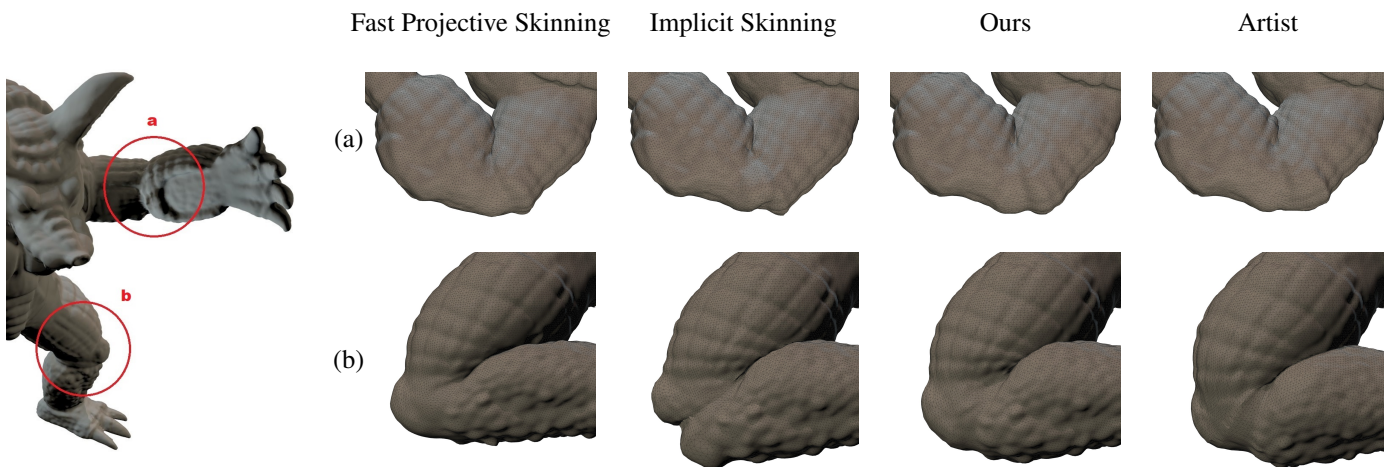


Fig. 9. Comparison of the deformations produced on the Armadillo (a) elbow and (b) knee. The deformations generated by the Fast Projective Skinning [23], our optimized Implicit Skinning and the artist are similar and plausible, while in (b) the one automatically produced by the original Implicit Skinning [1] is to be improved. In (a) the original Implicit Skinning provides an acceptable solution that is still slightly improved by our method.



Fig. 10. Comparison of the results produced, for different poses and joints of the male model, with the Linear Blend Skinning (LBS), Fast Projective Skinning [23], Implicit Skinning [1] and our method.

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