A NEW NON-UNIFORM LOOP SCHEME

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Keywords: Adaptive subdivision, non uniform scheme, Loop scheme.

Abstract: In this paper, we introduce a new non-uniform Loop scheme. It refines selected areas which are chosen manually or automatically according to the precision of the control mesh compared to the limit surface. Our algorithm avoids cracks and generates a progressive mesh with a difference of at most one subdivision level between two adjacent faces. As adaptive subdivision is repeated, subdivision depth changes gradually from one area of the surface to another area. Moreover generated meshes remain a regular valence. Results obtained from our scheme are compared to those of the T-algorithm and the incremental algorithm.

1 INTRODUCTION

Subdivision surfaces were introduced in 1978 by Catmull-Clark (Catmull et al., 1978) and Doo-Sabin (Doo et al., 1978) as an extension of the Chaikin algorithm (Chaikin, 1974). These surfaces are widely used in character animation (such as Geri's Game © or Finding Nemo ©) to smooth models. Indeed, from a coarse mesh, successive refinements give finer meshes. A sequence of subdivided meshes converges towards a smooth surface called limit surface. Since the beginning of subdivision surfaces in 1978, many subdivision schemes were proposed. Some are approximating and others are interpolating (i.e. control vertices of successive meshes belong to the limit surface). We focus on Loop subdivision (Loop, 1987) for this research. This scheme is approximating and can only be applied on triangular meshes.

Most of schemes were first uniform. In uniform schemes, the subdivision rules are the same for the whole input model. For example, the Loop scheme splits each face of the input mesh into four. The number of faces quickly increases whereas there is generally no need to smooth the model everywhere. Indeed, subdivisions do not bring much geometric modification into flat areas; faces which are not visible do not need many subdivisions. Other geometric criteria can be used such as accuracy or curvature. Or more simply, users can manually choose faces or vertices to be subdivided.

Non uniform subdivision (also called adaptive subdivision) can be decomposed into two parts. First, an area to be subdivided has to be chosen by different ways such as in (Amresh et al., 2003), (Dyn et al., 1990), (Meyer et al., 2002), (Zorin et al., 1998). Secondly, topological rules have to be determined such as in (Amresh et al., 2003), (Pakdel et al., 2004), (Seeger et al., 2001), (Zorin et al., 1998). These rules aim to generate a new mesh without the cracks that can be caused by a difference between the subdivision levels of two adjacent faces. In the case of Loop’s triangular scheme, rules have to preserve triangular faces.

In this paper, we focus on the topological problem. Some algorithms already deal with this subject. Thus, the algorithm of Seeger et al. splits adjacent faces into two if they present a crack and into four otherwise (Seeger et al., 2001). Amresh et al. similarly propose to split faces into two, three or four faces according to the number of cracks created by the face subdivision (Amresh et al., 2003). From these algorithms, Pakdel and Samavati extend the rules to produce a smooth surface with visually pleasing connectivity (Pakdel et al., 2004).

Our contribution consists in new topological rules for non-uniform Loop subdivision. The algorithm we propose takes advantages of the above mentioned algorithms. Indeed, our algorithm produces meshes with progressive changes between faces of different subdivision level but without subdividing a too large
surrounding area. Obviously, the more extended the area is, the higher the number of generated faces is.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 is an overview of uniform and non-uniform Loop schemes. In section 3, we explain disadvantages and advantages of existing adaptive schemes and how our algorithm works. Finally, we compare our algorithm with the others on some examples in section 4.

2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Loop Scheme

Figure 1: From left to right: the initial penguin mesh and two successive levels of Loop subdivision.

Subdivision surfaces are defined by an initial control mesh and a set of refinement rules. The application of refinement rules generates a sequence of increasingly fine control meshes. Control meshes are often referred to as polygonal meshes or polyhedrons. The sequence of control meshes converges to a smooth surface called the limit surface. There are two sorts of subdivision schemes: schemes which rely on interpolation (e.g. Butterfly scheme (Dyn et al., 1990)) or approximation (e.g. Catmull-Clark (Catmull et al., 1978), Doo-Sabin (Doo et al., 1978), Loop (Loop, 1987) schemes...).

Figure 2: Left, an initial face. Right, the 4 new faces.

A particularity of approximation schemes is that control meshes approach the limit surface at each step of refinement. Figure 1 shows three successive meshes obtained by applying Loop scheme.

The Loop scheme generalizes quadratic triangular B-splines and the obtained limit surface is a quartic Box-spline. This scheme is based on face splitting: each face of the control mesh at refinement level $k$ is subdivided into four new triangular faces at level $k + 1$. This first step is illustrated in Figure 2.

Consider a face: new vertices -named odd vertices- are inserted in the middle of each edge, and those of the initial face are named even vertices. In the second step, all vertices are displaced by computing a weighted average of the vertex and its neighbouring vertices. These averages can be substituted by applying different masks according to vertex properties: even/odd, interior/boundary

2.2 Adaptive Subdivision

When the same rules are applied on the whole input mesh, the number of faces quickly increases. Indeed, for Loop scheme, a face produces four faces after one subdivision, $4^2$ after 2 subdivisions and $4^n$ after $n$ subdivisions. Thus, the cat model introduced in Figure 3 has 224 faces at the initial level (Figure 3, left) and 3584 after two subdivisions (Figure 3, right).

Figure 3: Left: the initial cat model. Right: the cat mesh after two subdivisions.

However, there is often no need to smooth the model in the same way everywhere according to surface properties or specific applications. For example, if a surface is flat, there is no need to subdivide it anymore. Indeed, in this case, new generated faces do not improve quality of the mesh. In a similar way, an area of the mesh which already looks smooth will not change anymore after new subdivision levels. Another idea is to smooth only visible parts of the mesh. The mesh can also be subdivided only where the mesh does not approximate the limit surface with enough precision. Thus, only some areas of the input mesh can be subdivided to generate an optimal mesh with a smaller number of faces.

When the surface is not entirely subdivided, cracks appear between faces with different subdivision levels as shown in Figure 4.
Figure 4: Left: two adjacent faces of the mesh. Right: one face is subdivided and not the other, the crack between the faces is represented in grey.

To avoid cracks, topological rules have to be modified. As rules are different according to subdivision areas, this kind of scheme is called non-uniform or adaptive.

**Selection criteria.** The area to be subdivided can be selected by different ways.

First, users can manually choose faces or vertices they want to subdivide. This choice can be done arbitrarily or according to the required details in a specific area. Figure 5 illustrates a mesh with selected vertices to be subdivided in dark grey.

![Figure 5: Example of manual selection.](image)

Another criterion for adaptive subdivision, which is often used, is the surface curvature. In this case, the model is refined where the model has high curvatures. Thus, Dyn et al. (Dyn et al., 2000) automatically determine the area to subdivide according to the discrete curvature and apply it on the butterfly scheme. Meyer et al. compute Gaussian curvature from its sums of Voronoi area (Meyer et al., 2002). Others works are based on approximations of the surface curvatures which are easier to compute. Xu and Kondo (Xu et al., 1999) and Amresh et al. (Amresh et al., 2003) use the dihedral angle criterion (the angle between normals of adjacent faces). Müller and Havemann (Müller et al., 2000) propose another approximation of the surface curvature by computing, for each vertex of the mesh, the normal cone (the angle between normals of adjacent faces to a vertex). Another criterion can be the accuracy of the control mesh compared to the limit surface (Lanquetin, 2004). In (Isenberg et al., 2003), Isenberg et al. generalizes adaptive subdivision algorithms by introducing an application-dependent Degree of Interest function.

**Topological rules.** To avoid cracks which appear when the surface is not entirely subdivided, there exist different methods. Figure 6 shows these cracks on a mesh for which only faces selected in Figure 5 are subdivided with Loop scheme.

![Figure 6: Example of cracks.](image)

Various topological rules were already proposed in (Amresh et al., 2003), (Lanquetin, 2004), (Pakdel et al., 2004), (Seeger et al., 2001) and (Zorin et al., 1998). We will describe them in section 3.

### 3 TOPOLOGICAL RULES

#### 3.1 Existing Topological Rules

A simple method presented in (Lanquetin, 2004) and used in (Lanquetin et al., 2004) generates a minimum number of faces. The surface is only subdivided where the distance is greater than a given threshold.

![Figure 7: Different cases of subdivision in the simple adaptive subdivision.](image)

Let us first define the terms used to explain how faces are subdivided in this adaptive subdivision: a vertex which is not displaced is called *static* and a vertex which is displaced is called *mobile*. Faces are classified into 4 categories according to the number of mobile vertices. Mobile vertices are depicted by circles in Figure 7. When all vertices are static, the face is not subdivided (Figure 7.a.). Figure 7.b. illustrates the case where only one vertex is mobile; only two among the three new vertices are then mobile in order to avoid cracks. When there are two mobile vertices, face subdivision is almost normal except for the fact that one of the old vertices is static (Figure 7.c.). Finally when all vertices are mobile, subdivision is carried out in a normal way (Figure 7.d.).
This scheme generates a minimum number of faces because faces which have 3 static points are no more subdivided. This adaptive subdivision scheme avoids cracks but the resulting mesh is not conformal (Figure 9). Indeed, the case shown in Figure 8 appears between subdivided faces and not. The edge of the face which is not subdivided corresponds to two edges of subdivided faces. In Figure 8, vertices represented by crosses are no more subdivided and those represented by circles are still subdivided.

Figure 8: New neighbourhood.

Figure 9: Successive mesh subdivisions with without proper neighbourhood.

Following methods reconstruct a proper mesh after successive subdivisions.

Figure 10: Left: one face is subdivided and not the other, the crack between faces is represents in grey. Right: bisection of adjacent faces by an edge to avoid cracks.

Zorin et al. (Zorin et al., 1998) and Amresh et al. (Amresh et al., 2003) remove cracks in subdividing chosen faces and bisecting adjacent faces by an edge. The bisection is done in connecting the vertex with the incomplete structure to the opposite vertex of the adjacent face as shown in Figure 10.

In Figure 11, mobile vertices are denoted by circles and others by crosses. In the following, this scheme will be called T-algorithm.

Figure 11: Topological rules for the T-algorithm.

Seeger et al. (Seeger et al., 2001) focus on the butterfly scheme. Their algorithm, called red-green triangulation, splits faces into two, three or four faces as illustrated in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Different cases of face splitting used in the red-green algorithm.

Pakdel and Samavati (Pakdel et al., 2004) extend the method introduced in (Amresh et al., 2003) to remove cracks after adaptative subdivision. To maintain a restricted mesh (Zorin et al., 1998) during subdivision, they select a larger subdivision area than the specified one. They call their algorithm incremental algorithm. They introduce progressive vertices, denoted by squares in Figure 13.

Figure 13: Topological rules for the incremental algorithm.

Each vertex in the 1-neighbourhood of the selected area is tagged as progressive. Then, according to the vertex tag: mobile (circle), progressive (square) or static (cross), faces are subdivided as illustrated in Figure 13.
3.2 Our Topological Rules

Our algorithm takes advantages of both T-algorithm and incremental algorithm. In the following this scheme will be called diagonal algorithm. It selects a larger subdivision area than the T-algorithm but a smaller one than the incremental algorithm. Faces selected are normally subdivided. Then, adjacent faces by an edge are split into four and adjacent faces by a vertex are split into three as shown in Figure 14. Vertices to be subdivided are denoted by circles and others by crosses.

In contrast with the T-algorithm, the diagonal algorithm removes cracks outside the selected area so that the subdivision is progressive and new valences are not too high. Indeed, adjacent faces are at most one subdivision depth apart, so the connectivity between faces does not abruptly change. As vertices where trisection is applied once are no more subdivided, the valence of this vertex no more increases. This avoids generating too high valences.

Moreover, contrary to incremental algorithm, the additional selected area is smaller so that the final mesh has less faces. Indeed the goal of adaptive subdivision is to generate meshes with less faces. Meshes obtained on the cat and the bunny models are shown in Figure 15.

3.3 Successive Subdivisions

Differences between the T-algorithm, the incremental algorithm and the diagonal algorithm are now shown on an example. Let the initial mesh be the mesh drawn in Figure 16 and the selected area be the face in grey.

To avoid this problem of high valences, the incremental algorithm takes a larger area around the selected faces. Results of one and two subdivisions are illustrated in Figure 18.

The number of faces is very high from the first subdivision: 85 at the first subdivision and 159 at the second. Nevertheless valences are almost regular as vertex valences are five, six or seven.
The diagonal algorithm gives an intermediate number of faces: 67 at the first level and 121 at the second level as shown in Figure 19.

![Figure 19: Twice subdivision of the grey face with the diagonal algorithm.](image)

Like incremental algorithm, valences are almost regular: six or seven. Moreover the subdivision depth between faces is progressive. However, the diagonal of the trapezium (during trisection) gives a spiral appearance. To improve this, we can take one diagonal of the trapezium at a subdivision level and the other at the next subdivision level as shown in Figure 20.

![Figure 20: Two subdivisions of the grey face with a variant of the diagonal algorithm.](image)

### 4 RESULTS AND COMPARISON

In Figure 21, the selected area is the fin of the dolphin model. Vertices from the faces to subdivide are tagged by black squares (top). Then, the diagonal algorithm is applied three times and resulting meshes are represented in Figure 21.

![Figure 21: From top to bottom, three adaptive subdivisions of the selected dolphin fin.](image)

The cat model automatically subdivided according to the accuracy of the mesh approximation in relation to the limit surface with the three algorithms is shown in Figure 22. The initial cat model consists in 224 faces (Figure 3). In Figure 22, the left mesh obtain with the T-algorithm has 898 faces, the incremental algorithm generates 1444 faces (center) and the diagonal algorithm produces 1226 faces (right).

On the left mesh in Figure 22, two extraordinary valences appear but the result is correct. Moreover incremental algorithm and the diagonal algorithm give similar results in number of faces.
Figure 22: Meshes obtained respectively with the T-algorithm, the incremental algorithm and the diagonal algorithm.

We now compare results of the three algorithms on a bigger mesh. The initial bunny mesh has 592 faces and we choose a smaller accuracy. In Figure 23, meshes are represented as follows. From top to bottom and from left to right: the initial mesh, the T-algorithm mesh, the incremental algorithm mesh and the mesh generated by the diagonal algorithm. The T-algorithm still gives the smaller mesh with 3094 faces but degenerated valences appear. For the second time, incremental algorithm and the diagonal algorithm give correct meshes but this time, the incremental algorithm creates 5426 faces whereas the diagonal algorithm generates 4282 faces.

Figure 23: Initial mesh and meshes obtained respectively with the T-algorithm, the incremental algorithm and the diagonal algorithm.

5 CONCLUSION

In uniform schemes, the subdivision rules are the same for the whole input model. As there is often no need to subdivide the whole mesh, non-uniform subdivision is used such as the T-algorithm or the incremental algorithm. The algorithm we introduced in this paper takes advantages of both the T-algorithm and the incremental algorithm. It refines selected areas which are chosen manually or automatically according to the accuracy of the control mesh compared to the limit surface. Subdivision rules avoid cracks and generate a progressive mesh with at most one subdivision level between two adjacent faces and proper connectivity. Moreover valences remain regular on most of the vertices.

REFERENCES


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