

## SPECIAL ISSUE PAPER

# A blendshape model that incorporates physical interaction

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## ABSTRACT

The linear blendshape technique has been intensively used for computer animation and games because of its simplicity and effectiveness. However, it cannot describe rotational deformations and deformations because of self collision or scene interaction. In this paper, we present a new technique to address these two major limitations by introducing physical-based simulation to blendshapes. The proposed technique begins by constructing a mass–spring system for each blendshape target. Each system is initialized in its steady state by setting the rest length of each spring as the edge length of the corresponding target. To begin shape interpolation, we linearly interpolate the rest lengths of the springs according to a given interpolation factor  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ . The interpolated shape is then generated by computing the equilibrium of the mass–spring system with the interpolated rest lengths. Results from our technique show physically plausible deformations even in the case of large rotations between blendshape targets. In addition, the new blendshape model is able to interact with other scene elements by introducing collision detection and handling to the mass–spring system. Copyright © 2012 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

## KEYWORDS

blendshape animation; mass–spring system; shape interpolation; physical-plausible animation; physical-based simulation

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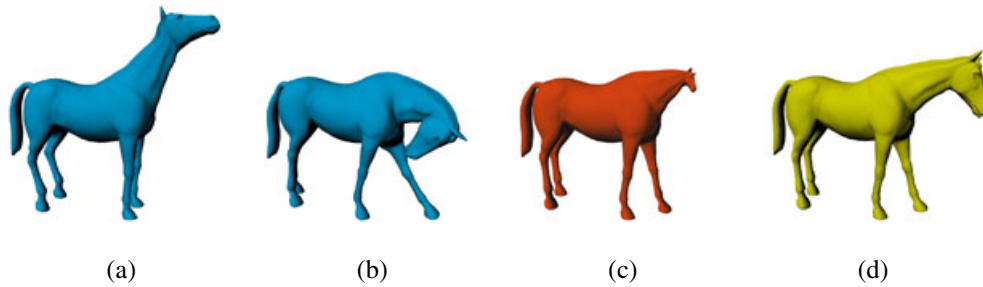
## 1. INTRODUCTION

The linear blendshape technique is a widely adopted solution for many applications that require an efficient geometrical deformation between two or more input shapes. One such applications is key frame animation. The shape at a given frame is obtained by directly interpolating the shapes from nearby key frames. Another typical application is facial animation. Various facial expressions, often referred to as blendshape targets or key poses, are modeled as input shapes. A new shape of a desired expression can be generated by fully or partially blending those input shapes. Despite its simplicity, the linear blendshape technique is still one of the mostly favored techniques for computer animation.

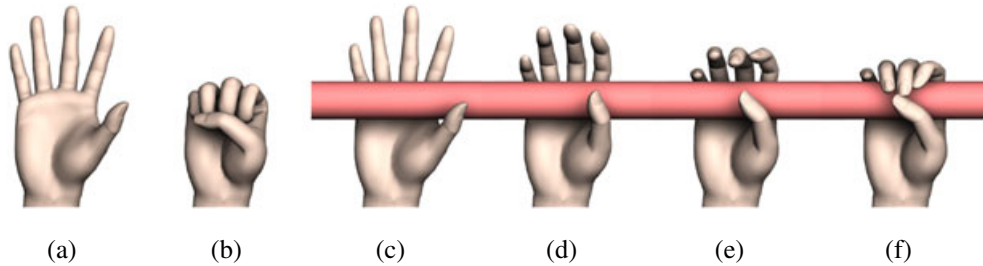
However, the linear blendshape technique exhibits two major drawbacks. First, the interpolated results usually are degraded when the deformation involves large rotations. Figure 1(c) illustrates typical “shrinking” artifacts observed when linearly interpolating two shapes with a large rotation (e.g., bending) present. More intermediate shapes can be introduced to reduce rotational artifacts. This requires extra time and storage budgets to prepare and

save these shapes however. Second, the linear blendshape technique also ignores physical interaction. Any deformation caused by physical interaction has to be prepared by either pre-computing a new shape that conforms to the interaction on the basis of physical simulation or imitating the shape manually in a post-editing process. The former usually is not applicable to general physical interaction because a pre-computed shape would be needed for every possible deformation. The latter requires experienced digital artists to produce visually pleasant results. For example, Borshukov [1] demonstrated both concepts.

In this paper, we introduce a new physically inspired blendshape technique that addresses the aforementioned problems. Our method provides a physical underpinning for shape interpolation using mass–spring physics. A key observation is that the equilibrium state of a mass–spring system minimizes local area/volume distortions through force balancing. As a result, local rigidity can be maintained as much as possible during deformation. The underlying mass–spring system also provides a natural framework for physical interaction. It can be easily carried out by applying external forces and additional constraints on the basis of collision detection.



**Figure 1.** A comparison between linear blendshape and our technique. (a) Source shape. (b) Target shape. (c) Linearly interpolated with  $\alpha = 0.5$ . (d) Interpolated by the proposed method with the same  $\alpha$ .



**Figure 2.** The proposed technique enables physically plausible deformation. (a) Source shape. (b) Target shape. (c–f) Interpolation between the two shapes while interacting with a solid cylinder.

The proposed method begins with building a mass–spring system for each input blendshape targets. The mass–spring system is initialized to its steady state by setting the rest length of each spring to the length of the corresponding edge. We then interpolate the rest lengths of the springs on the basis of a given interpolation factor and solve for the equilibrium state of the interpolated mass–spring system, where the final vertex positions represent the interpolated shape. The equilibrium computation is the major cost of the technique. We demonstrate our blendshape technique with a wide variety of shapes that exhibit complicated geometry and deformations. The method yields more natural shape interpolations, which can be seen in Figure 1(d). Figure 2 shows interpolated results while interacting with a scene element.

**Contributions.** Two substantial contributions in our work are as follows:

1. An algorithm that creates natural-looking blendshape interpolation results on the basis of interpolating the rest length of each spring of a mass–spring system. The proposed method requires no geometric analysis, articulated skeleton, or any manual intervention. Because it does not require a skeleton to drive the deformation, it is not limited to articulated shapes.
2. We provide a natural physical interaction capability, which has not been seen in traditional shape interpolation techniques, by applying additional collision detection and handling. The proposed shape interpolation exhibits correct deformation on the

basis of the interaction with other scene elements and without requiring any pre-computation.

## 2. RELATED WORK

Our technique relates to works for interpolating between shapes in two or three dimensions, mass–spring systems, and rest length animation.

**Shape interpolation and deformation.** Shape interpolation has been widely used for animating geometric deformation. The linear blendshape technique is the most common method for shape interpolation. Shape interpolation can also be achieved using an articulated skeleton. The skeleton may be manually specified [2–4] or automatically determined by finding near-rigid components of input shapes [5] or using the medial axis transform [6,7]. Rohmer *et al.* [8] proposed a skinning method that exactly preserves (or controls) the volume of an object.

Other methods are free of using an articulated skeleton. One effective research trend is based on maintaining the rigidity criteria of local geometrical elements or so-called as-rigid-as possible principle. Typical examples of this approach are in [9,10]. Baxter *et al.* [11] proposed a solution for solving the rotation ambiguity arising from previous rigid as-rigid-as possible approaches. Winkler *et al.* [12] interpolated edge lengths and dihedral angles of the input shapes, followed by a global multi-registration method to determine the best rigid transformation.

There are also methods that create shape interpolation that conforms to user manipulation. Barbič *et al.* [13]

proposed a method for key frame animation on the basis of an underlying physically based simulation, which, similar to our approach, can also be driven by a mass–spring system. Both their method and ours compute an equilibrium state as the interpolated result. However, their method interpolates the deformation forces, which are either provided by a user or computed automatically on the basis of key poses. Our method simply interpolates spring rest lengths. Kondo *et al.* [14] provided guided animations with dynamics. A user can have controls over trajectory and deformation. Their target trajectory is not obtained via proper shape interpolation, but just by pushing the object into next key frame. Lewis and Anjyo [15] introduced a direct manipulation method for blendshapes. This approach constrains any desired subset of vertices on the basis of manual manipulations and automatically infers the remaining vertex positions. However, the method only produces shapes that are within the convex space of the original blendshape poses and has no physical meaning.

Other related works on shape interpolation or deformation include [16], which used example shapes to build a reduced deformable model, which controls with mesh-based inverse kinematics. Galoppo *et al.* [17] introduced the concept of dynamic morph targets, to skeletally interpolate elastic forces, which allows control over geometry and elastic properties of an animated character. Teran *et al.* [18] solved quasi-static states of a finite element system for simulating deformations of nonlinear elastic materials. We also solve for quasi-static states and consider interaction with other rigid bodies, but we only balance the mass–spring system with respect to varying the rest lengths.

Lewis *et al.* [19] regards shape interpolation as a scattered data interpolation problem in an abstract parameter (pose) space. Our method does not require high-dimensional scattered data interpolation, and it interpolates shape with the support of physical simulation, presumably requiring fewer input shapes. Kilian *et al.* [20] presented an isometric deformation method based on Riemannian geometry, considering shape interpolation as a geodesic curve in shape space. Both of these previous techniques are unable to provide interaction capabilities because they lack an underlying physical approach.

**Mass–spring systems.** Mass–spring systems are commonly used for simulating physical behaviors. Generally, such systems are easy to implement and convenient to integrate with other techniques, such as collision detection. Applications that make use of a mass–spring system include surgical simulation [21], dynamics for animals [22], cloth [23–25], muscles [26,27], and other deformable objects. Lee *et al.* [28] applied mass–spring systems to facial animation using a three-layered mesh to model the anatomy of human facial tissue. While finite element methods can deliver more sophisticated and physically accurate analysis, mass–spring systems are attractive because of their low computational complexity.

**Rest length animation.** There are works that simulate muscle activation through controlling the rest length of each spring in a mass–spring system. Raibert and Hodgins [29] used rest length animation to simulate simple leg locomotion. Adjusting the rest length changes the force at each spring so that it is able to initiate or terminate its motion. Tu and Terzopoulos [30] constructed a mass–spring system of a fish body and assigned some springs to be muscle springs driven by animated rest lengths. However, these earlier techniques were not applied to shape interpolation.

### 3. BLENDING SHAPES WITH A MASS–SPRING SYSTEM

The proposed blendshape technique consists of the following two steps:

1. Given a set of input blendshape targets, we construct a mass–spring system for each blendshape target on the basis of its structure.
2. We interpolate rest lengths between two or more aforementioned mass–spring systems to generate an intermediate mass–spring system. The interpolated shape is the quasi-static state of the intermediate system.

#### 3.1. Structure of the Mass–Spring System

It is important to maintain the stability of the mass–spring system during interpolation, and this mostly depends on a good spring structure. On the basis of [24], we build the mass–spring system on the basis of input triangulated mesh as a combination of *structure springs* and *bending springs*. The structure springs model the elastic properties of the mesh surface, connecting neighboring vertices. The bending springs define the bending and flexural properties of the material and connect a vertex to secondary neighboring vertices (i.e., at a distance of 2). These bending springs help maintain the object's resting shape and preserve surface curvature.

Nevertheless, our experiments show that a large surface that consists of many small triangles tends to be crumpled during interpolation because of insufficient numerical precision. To solve this problem, we insert additional springs inside the shape to help preserve volume. We apply constrained Delaunay tetrahedralization [31] to determine where to insert these *internal springs*. Similar to the mesh refinement step in [9], to prevent springs with long rest lengths, we can also perform mesh refinement by inserting new vertices. Those vertices have to be added to all the input shapes correspondingly. Certain additional vertices that are inside the input shapes can be assigned as an anchor as described in Section 3.4.

A mass–spring system  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathcal{V}, \mathcal{S} \rangle$  is defined by a collection of vertices  $\mathcal{V} = \{v_i | i = 1 \dots n_v\}$  connected by springs  $\mathcal{S} = \{s_q | q = 1 \dots n_s\}$ . Each spring  $s_q \in \mathcal{S}$  connects

two vertices  $v_{e_{q0}}$  and  $v_{e_{q1}}$ , where  $e_{q0} = \mathbf{e}(s_q, 0)$  and  $e_{q1} = \mathbf{e}(s_q, 1)$  and function  $\mathbf{e}$  returns the indices of spring  $s_q$ 's two vertices. We enforce  $1 \leq e_{q0} < e_{q1} \leq n_v$ . In addition,  $s_q$  is characterized by a rest length  $r_q = \mathbf{r}(s_q)$  and spring constant  $k_q = \mathbf{k}(s_q)$ , where functions  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{k}$  return the rest length and spring constant of spring  $s_q$ , respectively.

### 3.2. Blending between Two Shapes

We first introduce our technique by explaining the case of blending between two shapes  $\mathcal{G}^0$  and  $\mathcal{G}^1$ . We build two consistent mass–spring systems  $\mathcal{M}^0 = \langle \mathcal{V}^0, \mathcal{S}^0 \rangle$  and  $\mathcal{M}^1 = \langle \mathcal{V}^1, \mathcal{S}^1 \rangle$  from  $\mathcal{G}^0$  and  $\mathcal{G}^1$ . The two mass–spring systems are initially set to be in their own steady states, that is,  $r_q^0 = \|v_{e_{q0}}^0 - v_{e_{q1}}^0\|$  and  $r_q^1 = \|v_{e_{q0}}^1 - v_{e_{q1}}^1\|$ . For each  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ , the interpolated result from the input shapes is the equilibrium state of a new mass–spring system  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}} = \langle \tilde{\mathcal{V}}, \tilde{\mathcal{S}} \rangle$ , where for each spring,

$$\bar{r}_q = (1 - \alpha)r_q^0 + \alpha r_q^1 \tag{1}$$

In an equilibrium state, the force  $f(v_i)$  at each vertex  $v_i$  in  $\mathcal{M}$  equals zero:

$$f(v_i) = \sum_{j \in \mathbf{n}(i)} k_q (\|v_i - v_j\| - r_q) \frac{v_i - v_j}{\|v_i - v_j\|} = 0 \tag{2}$$

where function  $\mathbf{n}$  returns the indices of those vertices that are adjacent to  $v_i$ , and spring  $s_q$  connects  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ . Note that the velocity of each vertex can be ignored because our results are based solely on quasi-static states. We assume that each vertex has the same mass; therefore, the mass term can also be ignored. To formulate Equation (2) into a linear system, first we vectorize  $\mathcal{V}$  into an one-dimensional vector  $x$  as:

$$x = [\mathbf{x}(v_1), \mathbf{y}(v_1), \mathbf{z}(v_1), \dots, \mathbf{x}(v_{n_v}), \mathbf{y}(v_{n_v}), \mathbf{z}(v_{n_v})]^T$$

where  $\mathbf{x}(v_i)$ ,  $\mathbf{y}(v_i)$ , and  $\mathbf{z}(v_i)$  are functions that return the  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  Cartesian coordinates of  $v_i$ . One can then solve the system by using the Newton–Raphson method to determine the first-order approximation of the optimal vertex configuration:

$$f(x_{t+1}) \approx f(x_t) + J(x_t)\Delta x_t \tag{3}$$

where  $x_{t+1} = x_t + \Delta x_t$  and  $J(x_t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_t)$  are the global stiffness (Jacobian) matrix of  $f$  evaluated at the current vertex positions  $x_t$ . When the system is in its equilibrium state,  $f(x_{t+1}) = 0$ . Equation (3) now becomes

$$J(x_t)\Delta x_t = -f(x_t) \tag{4}$$

The non-diagonal elements of the global stiffness matrix  $J_{ij}$  are defined by

$$J_{ij} = J_{ji} = k_q \left( r_q \frac{\|d_{ij}\|^2 I - d_{ij}d_{ij}^T}{\|d_{ij}\|^3} - I \right)$$

where  $I$  is an identity matrix,  $d_{ij} = v_i - v_j$ , and spring  $s_q$  connects  $v_i$  and  $v_j$ ; or else, a  $3 \times 3$  matrix of zeros if no such a spring exists. The diagonal elements ( $i = j$ ) are defined as

$$J_{ii} = - \sum_{j \in \mathbf{n}(i)} J_{ij}$$

$x_0$  is initialized as the vertex positions of the source shape  $\mathcal{V}^0$ . We then iteratively solve Equation (4) until  $\|\Delta x_t\|$  is smaller than a threshold ( $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  reaches its equilibrium). The final vertex positions are then assigned to  $\tilde{\mathcal{V}}$ . Generally, matrix  $J$  is very sparse. There are both iterative (e.g., conjugate gradient) and direct methods for solving this sparse linear system.

### 3.3. Blending Multiple Shapes

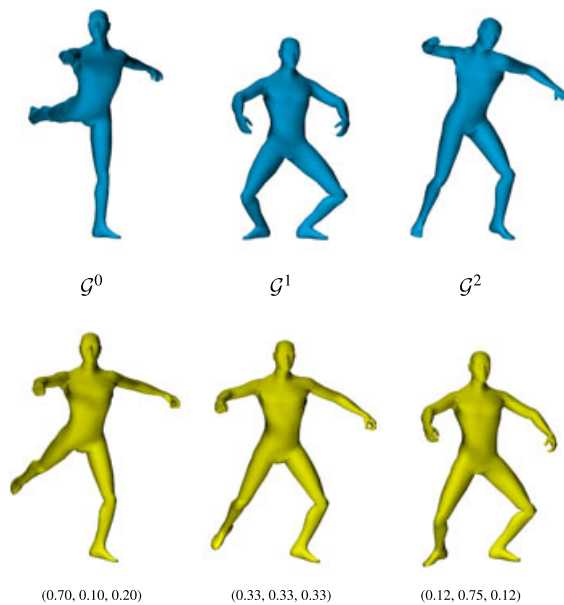
The proposed technique can also be extended to blending multiple shapes by simply considering the interpolated rest length as a convex linear combination of the spring rest lengths from the input shapes:

$$\bar{r}_q = \sum_{i=0}^{n_b} w_i r_q^i$$

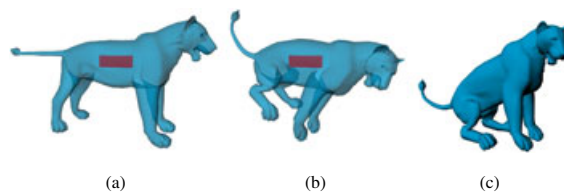
where  $\sum_{i=0}^{n_b} w_i = 1$ . This is illustrated in Figure 3 where the interpolated shapes (shown in yellow) are the results of linearly blended spring rest lengths from three different input shapes (shown in blue). Notice that this shares exactly the same formulation for controlling blendshape targets as the traditional linear blendshape technique does.

### 3.4. Boundary Conditions

Boundary conditions must be specified in order to solve the equilibrium of a mass–spring system. Without boundary conditions, the system will be under-constrained and the solution will not be unique. Simply speaking, boundary conditions are vertices that are fixed in a mass–spring system. In practice, this can be achieved by assigning Dirichlet boundary conditions to the global stiffness matrix, that is, by replacing the block of the global stiffness matrix corresponding to boundary vertices with an identity matrix. The entries of the boundary vertices in  $f$  are replaced by zeros to enforce that the corresponding vertices do not move. A straightforward method to assign the boundary conditions is to find vertices that remain static between the source and target shapes. However, this is unlikely to apply to general blendshape targets. Alternatively, certain vertices on the surface can be manually marked as boundary conditions. During the interpolation, the positions of the marked vertices are then interpolated linearly. However, we found that this method often does not yield visually pleasing results, because these marked vertices still follow a linear trajectory during interpolation.



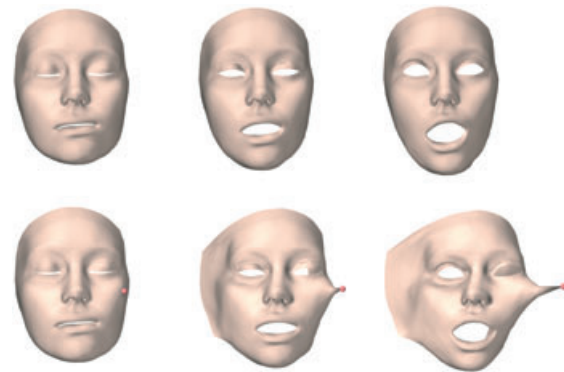
**Figure 3.** Blending between multiple shapes. The top row shows three source shapes, and the bottom row shows blended results with corresponding weights shown as  $(w_0, w_1, w_2)$ .



**Figure 4.** Apply an internal anchor as boundary conditions. (a) A source shape with an anchor object (a rectangular plane, shown in red) inside. (b) The interpolated result. The vertices of the anchor act as the boundary conditions during the spring relaxation, thus allowing free movement of all the surface vertices. (c) The interpolated result with a rigid transformation applied.

Similar to [32], we propose a more general method that allows all the surface vertices to move freely and to use an auxiliary object as an *anchor*, whose vertex positions act as the boundary conditions. For example, placing a rectangle around the center of mass of the object would keep this region fixed through the pose interpolation. We use the following procedure to add an anchor:

1. Select an anchor position inside the source shape (Figure 4(a)).
2. When building the structure of the mass–spring system (as in Section 3), we connect additional springs to the vertices of the anchor. All the springs belonging to the anchor are set as hard constraints by setting a very large spring constant. This enforces rigidity during the relaxation detailed in the next step.

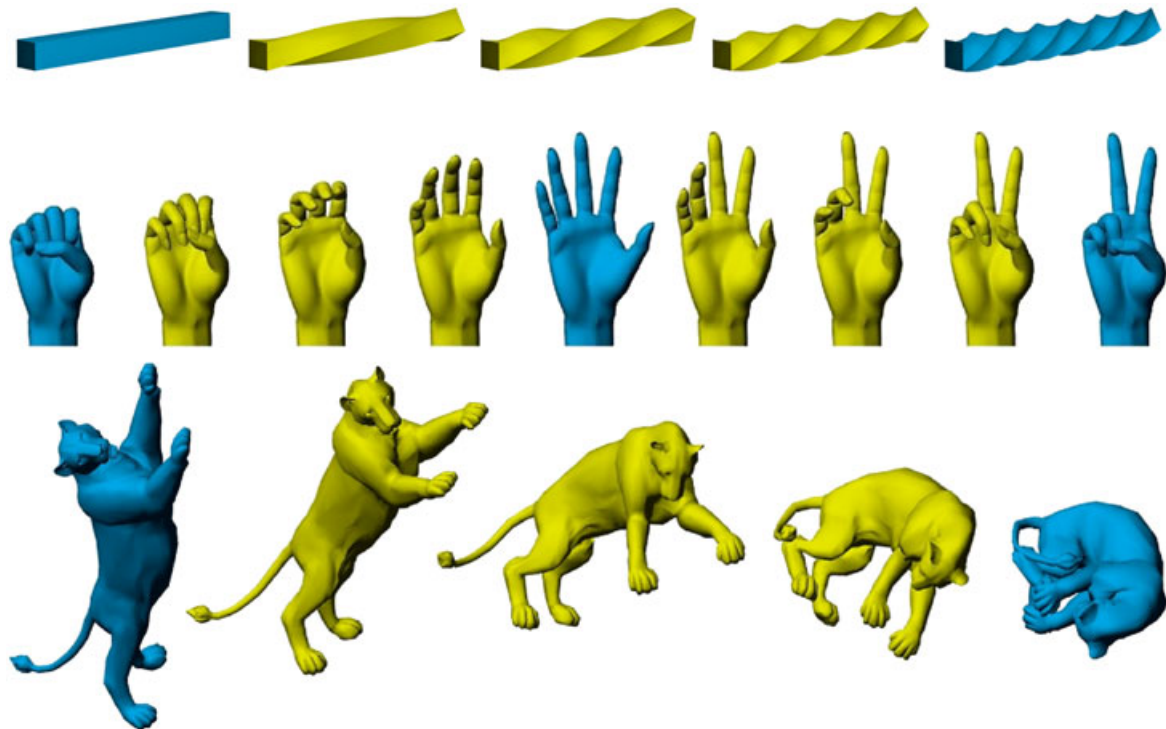


**Figure 5.** Physical interactions. The top row shows the original interpolation. The bottom row shows the same interpolation while a vertex is pulled away from the face. Parts of the mesh boundary are fixed as boundary conditions.

3. The rest lengths of the internal springs that connect surface vertices to the anchor are computed from the source shape on the basis of the user-assigned anchor positions. However, the rest lengths of these surface–anchor springs in the target shape still remain unknown. We have to determine the location of the anchor first. One possible solution is to reverse the roles of anchor and shape, that is, we set all the vertices in the target shape as the boundary conditions and copy the rest lengths of the springs connecting the anchor to the source, then we determine the positions of anchor vertices within the target shape by solving the equilibrium.
4. Once the locations of the anchors are known, we can determine an optimal rigid transformation  $T = \{R|t\}$  between the anchors of the source and target shapes such that  $p_i^1 = R p_i^0 + t$ , where  $p_i^0$  and  $p_i^1$  are the positions of the source and target anchors' vertices, respectively.
5. For each step during the shape interpolation, we move the anchor according to the linearly interpolated rigid transformation  $T' = \{\mathbf{q}(I, R, \alpha)|\alpha t\}$ , where  $\mathbf{q}$  is the function that interpolates the identity matrix  $I$  and the rotation matrix  $R$  with a weight  $\alpha$  using quaternions [33]. We subsequently fix the interpolated anchor vertices as the boundary conditions and compute the equilibrium state of the mass–spring system. To improve numerical stability, we solve for the equilibrium in the local coordinate frame of the (initial) anchor. Afterwards, we reapply the rigid transformation to both the anchor and the shape. This is illustrated in Figure 4.

### 3.5. Spring Constants

The proposed shape interpolation method guarantees that its results reach both of the input shapes as rest states



**Figure 6.** Results of shape interpolation using the proposed method. The input shapes are blue, whereas interpolated shapes are yellow. Table I lists the number of vertices, number of springs, and timings for each shape.

**Table I.** Statistics on the size of the input shapes and average running time per interpolation step (in seconds), assuming there are 36 steps for the interpolation between the source and target for all the experiments.

Shape	$n_v$	$n_s$	$t_{CPU}$	$t_{GPU}$
Man	2.2k	21.6k	2.23	3.62
Face	8.1k	65.1k	40.11	3.67
Cat	7.3k	81.7k	67.58	13.67
Horse	8.5k	96.1k	81.36	15.95
Hand	18.6k	150.4k	153.99	26.28

$n_v$ , number of vertices (including internal and anchor vertices);  $n_s$ , number of springs;  $t_{CPU}$ , running time with the PARDISO solver;  $t_{GPU}$ , running time with the Cusp solver.

of  $\bar{M}^i$ . However, having a uniform spring constant for every spring leads to the problem that longer springs may have larger influences at each step of the interpolation ( $f = k\Delta x$ ). To counterbalance this effect, we set the spring constant to be inversely proportional to the rest length:

$$k_q \propto \frac{1}{r_q}$$

The strategy ensures every spring, no matter what its rest length is, contributes a similar amount of force during the interpolation process.

## 4. PHYSICAL INTERACTION

As the interpolation framework is based on physical-based simulation (mass–spring system), our method is able to physically interact with other objects during the interpolation. During each interpolation step, we perform collision detection between the mass–spring system and obstacles. An axis-aligned bounding box tree structure is built for both objects to accelerate the detection. The following procedures are executed once collisions are reported:

1. Move the intersecting vertices back to the surface of the obstacle according to the penetration normals.
2. Enforce all the intersecting vertices as additional boundary conditions. However, sometimes, the deformation might be too large such that both surface and internal vertices (as described in Section 3.1) are involved in the intersection. In this case, we only use surface vertices as the boundary conditions. The internal vertices never become fixed because of a collision in order to preserve the internal structure.
3. Recompute the equilibrium state.

This produces a result that preserves as much as possible the original shape's features, with respect to the

collision constraints. Figures 2 and 5 show interpolation results while physical interactions are applied.

## 5. RESULTS

Figure 6 shows several results (yellow) resulting from interpolation of the input shapes (blue). The supplemental video provides additional examples of our technique. Our interpolation method is able to produce visually pleasant motions from just a few example shapes (e.g., the opening and closing of the hand). It also successfully demonstrates physical interaction capabilities.

**Implementation.** A sparse matrix solver is required for Equation (3). For our implementation, we have tried both the CPU-based PARDISO [34,35] and the GPU-based Cusp [36]. SOLID [37] is used for collision detection. Table I lists the statistics of each shape interpolation. All the results are generated on a desktop computer with a 2.66 GHz Intel Core 2 Quad CPU, an NVIDIA Quadro FX 580 GPU, and 3.0 GB main memory. The actual execution time for each Newton–Raphson step is to a large extent determined by the complexity of the mass–spring system.

**Limitations.** A mass–spring system may have more than one equilibrium. This leads to an element inversion problem. We found that the element inversion problem is more likely to occur if the input shapes originally contains folds due to self-intersecting triangles.

## 6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper, we present a new blendshape technique where the interpolated shape is defined as the equilibrium state of an interpolated mass–spring system. The proposed technique is fully automatic, requires no additional geometrical analysis or skeleton, and generates physically plausible shape interpolation with low distortion of surface area and volume. It also follows the linear blending control strategy used in traditional blendshapes. Digital artists who are familiar with traditional linear blendshape technique can potentially convert to our method without much effort.

Our currently implementation does not achieve real-time performance; however, for post-production use, this is not a critical issue. We are still exploring how to accelerate this technique. One possible method is to compute the deformation with the use of a multi-resolution strategy or to enforce the positive definiteness of the global stiffness matrix and use a faster conjugate gradient solver as described in [18]. Our current implementation for collision handling is also very simplified (e.g., let the contact vertices be fixed by assigning them as the boundary conditions). Friction force should be considered for better simulation. We would also like to investigate the effect of heterogeneous spring constants analogous to those in [38].

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