## Subdivision Techniques

## Curve Corner Cutting

$\square$ Take two points on different edges of a polygon and join them with a line segment. Then, use this line segment to replace all vertices and edges in between. This is corner cutting!
$\square$ Corner cutting can be local or non-local.
$\square$ A cut is local if it removes exactly one vertex and adds two new ones. Otherwise, it is non-local.


## Simple Corner Cutting: 1/5

$\square$ On each edge, choose two numbers $u \geq 0$ and $v \geq 0$ and $u+v \leq 1$, and divide the edge in the ratio of $u: 1-$ (u+v):v.

$\square$ Here is how to cut a corner.


## Simple Corner Cutting: 2/5

$\square$ Suppose we have a polyline $P_{0}$. Divide its edges with the above scheme, yielding a new polyline $P_{1}$. Dividing $P_{1}$ yields $P_{2}, \ldots$, and so on. What is

$$
\mathrm{P}_{\infty}=\operatorname{Limit}_{i \rightarrow \infty} \mathrm{P}_{i}
$$

DThe $u$ 's and $v$ 's do not have to be the same for every edge. Moreover, the $u$ 's and $v$ 's used to divide $P_{i}$ do not have to be equal to those $u$ 's and $v$ 's used to divide $P_{i+1}$.

## Simple Corner Cutting: 3/5



## Simple Corner Cutting: 4/5

GFor a polygon, one more leg from the last point to the first must also be divided accordingly.


## Simple Corner Cutting: 5/5


$\square$ The following result was proved by Gregory and Qu, de Boor, and Paluszny, Prautzsch and Schäfer.
$\square$ If all $u$ 's and $v$ 's lies in the interior of the area bounded by $u \geq 0, v \geq 0, u+2 v \leq 1$ and $2 u+v \leq$ 1 , then $P_{\infty}$ is a $C^{1}$ curve.
$\square$ This procedure was studied by Chaikin in 1974, and was later proved that the limit curve is a B-spline curve of degree 2.

## FYI

$\square$ Subdivision and refinement has its first significant use in Pixar's Geri's Game.
-Geri's Game received the Academy Award for Best Animated Short Film in 1997.

$\square$ http: / /www.pixar.com/shorts / gg /

## Facts about Subdivision Surfaces

$\square$ Subdivision surfaces are limit surfaces:
$>$ It starts with a mesh
$>$ It is then refined by repeated subdivision
$\square$ Since the subdivision process can be carried out infinite number of times, the intermediate meshes are approximations of the actual subdivision surface.
$\square$ Subdivision surfaces is a simple technique for describing complex surfaces of arbitrary topology with guaranteed continuity.
$\square$ Also supports Multiresolution.

## What Can You Expect from ...?

$\square$ It is easy to model a large number of surfaces of various types.
$\square$ Usually, it generates smooth surfaces.
$\square$ It has simple and intuitive interaction with models.
$\square$ It can model sharp and semi-sharp features of surfaces.
$\square$ Its representation is simple and compact (e.g., winged-edge and half-edge data structures, etc).
$\square$ We only discuss 2-manifolds without boundary.

## Regular Quad Mesh Subdivision: 1/3

$\square$ Assume all faces in a mesh are quadrilaterals and each vertex has four adjacent faces.
$\square$ From the vertices $C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}$ and $C_{4}$ of a quadrilateral, four new vertices $c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{3}$ and $c_{4}$ can be computed in the following way $(\bmod 4)$ :

$$
\mathbf{c}_{i}=\frac{3}{16} \mathbf{C}_{i-1}+\frac{9}{16} \mathbf{C}_{i}+\frac{3}{16} \mathbf{C}_{i+1}+\frac{1}{16} \mathbf{C}_{i+2}
$$

$\square$ If we define matrix $\mathbf{Q}$ as follows:

$$
\mathbf{Q}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
9 / 16 & 3 / 16 & 1 / 16 & 3 / 16 \\
3 / 16 & 9 / 16 & 3 / 16 & 1 / 16 \\
1 / 16 & 3 / 16 & 9 / 16 & 3 / 16 \\
3 / 16 & 1 / 16 & 3 / 16 & 9 / 16
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Regular Quad Mesh Subdivision: 2/3

$\square$ Then, we have the following relation:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{c}_{1} \\
\mathbf{c}_{2} \\
\mathbf{c}_{3} \\
\mathbf{c}_{4}
\end{array}\right]=\mathbf{Q} \cdot\left[\begin{array}{l}
\mathbf{C}_{1} \\
\mathbf{C}_{2} \\
\mathbf{C}_{3} \\
\mathbf{C}_{4}
\end{array}\right]
$$



## Regular Quad Mesh Subdivision: 3/3

$\square$ New vertices $c_{1}, c_{2}, c_{3}$ and $c_{4}$ of the current face are connected to the $c_{i}$ 's of the neighboring faces to form new, smaller faces.
$\square$ The new mesh is still a quadrilateral mesh.
new mesh


## Arbitrary Grid Mesh

$\square$ If a vertex in a quadrilateral (resp., triangular) mesh is not adjacent to four (resp., six) neighbors, it is an extraordinary vertex.
$\square$ A non-regular quad or triangular mesh has extraordinary vertices and extraordinary faces.


## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 1/6

$\square$ Doo and Sabin, in 1978, suggested the following for computing $c_{i}$ 's from $C_{i}$ 's:

$$
\mathbf{c}_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i j} \mathbf{C}_{j}
$$

where $\alpha_{i j}$ 's are defined as follows:

$$
\alpha_{i j}= \begin{cases}\frac{n+5}{4 n} & i=j \\ \frac{1}{4 n}\left[3+2 \cos \left(\frac{2 \pi(i-j)}{n}\right)\right] & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 2/6


$\square$ There are three types of faces in the new mesh.
$\square$ A F-face is obtained by connecting the $\mathrm{c}_{i}$ 's of a face.
$\square$ An $E$-face is obtained by connecting the $\mathrm{c}_{i}$ 's of the faces that share an edge.
$\square$ A $V$-face is obtained by connecting the $\mathrm{c}_{i}$ ' $s$ that surround a vertex.

## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 3/6

$\square$ Most faces are quadrilaterals. None four-sided faces are those $V$-faces and converge to points whose valency is not four (i.e., extraordinary vertices).
$\square$ Thus, a large portion of the limit surface are covered by quadrilaterals, and the surface is mostly a B-spline surfaces of degree (2,2). However, it is only $G^{1}$ everywhere.

## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 4/6



## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 5/6



3


4


## Doo-Sabin Subdivision: 6/6



## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 1/10

$\square$ Catmull and Clark proposed another algorithm in the same year as Doo and Sabin did (1978).
$\square$ In fact, both papers appeared in the journal Computer-Aided Design back to back!
$\square$ Catmull-Clark's algorithm is rather complex. It computes a face point for each face, followed by an edge point for each edge, and then a vertex point for each vertex.
$\square$ Once these new points are available, a new mesh is constructed.

## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 2/10

$\square$ Compute a face point for each face. This face point is the gravity center or centroid of the face, which is the average of all vertices of that face:


## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 3/10

$\square$ Compute an edge point for each edge. An edge point is the average of the two endpoints of that edge and the two face points of that edge's adjacent faces.


## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 4/10

$\square$ Compute a vertex point for each vertex $v$ as follows:

$$
\mathbf{v}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{Q}+\frac{2}{n} \mathbf{R}+\frac{n-3}{n} \mathbf{v}
$$


$Q$ - the average of all new face points of $v$
$R$ - the average of all mid-points (i.e., $\mathrm{m}_{i}$ 's) of vertex v
$v$ - the original vertex
$n$ - \# of incident edges of $v$

## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 5/10

$\square$ For each face, connect its face point $f$ to each edge point, and connect each new vertex $v$ ' to the two edge points of the edges incident to $v$.


## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 6/10


face-edge connection

## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 7/10

$\square$ After the first run, all faces are four sided.
$\square$ If all faces are four-sided, each has four edge points $e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3}$ and $e_{4}$, four vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ and $v_{4}$, and one new vertex $v$. Their relation can be represented as follows:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{v}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{e}_{1}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{e}_{2}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{e}_{3}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{e}_{4}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{1}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{2}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{3}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{4}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]=\frac{1}{16}\left[\begin{array}{ccccccccc}
9 & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{3}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} \\
6 & 6 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
6 & 1 & 6 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
6 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
6 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 6 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
4 & 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
4 & 0 & 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\
4 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\
4 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{v} \\
\mathbf{e}_{1} \\
\mathbf{e}_{2} \\
\mathbf{e}_{3} \\
\mathbf{e}_{4} \\
\mathbf{v}_{1} \\
\mathbf{v}_{2} \\
\mathbf{v}_{3} \\
\mathbf{v}_{4}
\end{array}\right]
$$

A vertex at any level converges to the following:

$$
\mathbf{v}_{\infty}=\frac{n^{2} \mathbf{v}+4 \sum_{j=1}^{4} \mathbf{e}_{j}+\sum_{j=1}^{4} \mathbf{f}_{j}}{n(n+5)}
$$

$\square$ The limit surface is a B-spline surface of degree (3,3).

## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 8/10



## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 9/10




## Catmull-Clark Algorithm: 10/10



## Loop's Algorithm: 1/6

CLoop's (i.e., Charles Loop's) algorithm only works for triangle meshes.
LLoop's algorithm computes a new edge point for each edge and a new vertex for each vertex.
$\square$ Let $v_{1} v_{2}$ be an edge and the other vertices of the incident triangles be $v_{\text {left }}$ and $v_{\text {right }}$. The new edge point $e$ is computed as follows.

$$
\mathbf{e}=\frac{3}{8}\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}+\mathbf{v}_{2}\right)+\frac{1}{8}\left(\mathbf{v}_{\text {left }}+\mathbf{v}_{\text {right }}\right)
$$



## Loop's Algorithm: 2/6

$\square$ For each vertex $v$, its new vertex point $v^{\prime}$ is computed below, where $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ are adjacent vertices

$$
\mathbf{v}^{\prime}=(1-n \alpha) \mathbf{v}+\alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{v}_{j}
$$

where $\alpha$ is


$$
\alpha= \begin{cases}\frac{3}{16} & n=3 \\ \frac{1}{n}\left[\frac{5}{8}-\left(\frac{3}{8}+\frac{1}{4} \cos \frac{2 \pi}{n}\right)^{2}\right] & n>3\end{cases}
$$

## Loop's Algorithm: 3/6

$\square$ Let a triangle be defined by $\mathrm{X}_{1}, \mathrm{X}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{X}_{3}$ and the
 corresponding new vertex points be $v_{1}, v_{2}$ and $v_{3}$.
$\square$ Let the edge points of edges $v_{1} v_{2}, v_{2} v_{3}$ and $v_{3} v_{1}$ be $e_{3}, e_{1}$ and $e_{2}$. The new triangles $\operatorname{are} \mathrm{v}_{1} \mathrm{e}_{2} \mathrm{e}_{3}, \mathrm{v}_{2} \mathrm{e}_{3} \mathrm{e}_{1}, \mathrm{v}_{3} \mathrm{e}_{1} \mathrm{e}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{1} \mathrm{e}_{2} \mathrm{e}_{3}$. This is a 1-to-4 scheme.
$\square$ This algorithm was developed by Charles Loop in 1987.

## Loop's Algorithm: 4/6

$\square$ Pick a vertex in the original or an intermediate mesh. If this vertex has $\boldsymbol{n}$ adjacent vertices $v_{1}$, $v_{\mathbf{2}}, \ldots, v_{\boldsymbol{n}}$, it converges to $\mathrm{v}_{\infty}$ :

$$
\mathbf{v}_{\infty}=\frac{3+8(n-1) \alpha}{3+8 n \alpha}+\frac{8 \alpha}{3+8 n \alpha} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{v}_{j}
$$

$\square$ If all vertices have valency 6 , the limit surface is a collection of $C^{2}$ Bézier triangles.
$\square$ However, only a torus can be formed with all valency 6 vertices. Vertices with different valencies converge to extraordinary vertices where the surface is only $G^{1}$.

## Loop's Algorithm: 5/6



## Loop's Algorithm: 6/6



Catmull-Clark

## Peters-Reif Algorithm: 1/4

This is an extremely simple algorithm.

* Compute the midpoint of each edge
*For each face, create a face by connecting the midpoints of it edges
$\square$ There are two types of faces: faces inscribed to the existing ones and faces whose vertices are the midpoints of edges that are incident to a common vertex.


## Peters-Reif Algorithm: 2/4

$\square$ The original and new vertices has a relationship as follows:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{v}_{1}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{2}^{\prime} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{v}_{n-1}^{\prime} \\
\mathbf{v}_{n}^{\prime}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\
& \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & & 0 \\
\vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\
0 & \cdots & & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{2}
\end{array}\right] \cdot\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{v}_{1} \\
\mathbf{v}_{2} \\
\vdots \\
\mathbf{v}_{n-1} \\
\mathbf{v}_{n}
\end{array}\right]
$$

$\square$ The limit of this process consists of a set of regular planar polygons that are the tangent planes of the limit surface, which is $G^{\mathbf{1}}$.
$\square$ Peters-Reif algorithm was developed by $\mathbf{J}$. Peters and U. Reif in 1998.

## Peters-Reif Algorithm: 3/4



## Peters-Reif Algorithm: 4/4



## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of K obbelt: 1/8

$\square$ This algorithm was developed by Leif Kobbelt in 2000, and only works for triangle meshes.
$\square$ This simple algorithm consists of three steps:

1) Dividing each triangle at the center into 3 more triangles
2) Perturb the vertices of each triangle
3) "Flip" the edges of the perturbed triangle (see next slide).

## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of Kobbelt: 2/8 Step 1: Subdividing


$\square$ For each triangle, compute its center: $C=\left(V_{1}+V_{2}+V_{3}\right) / 3$
$\square$ Connect the center to each vertex to create 3 triangles.
$\square$ This is a 1-to-3 scheme!

## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of K obbelt: 3/8 Step 2: Flipping Edges



Since each original edge is adjacent to two triangles, "flipping" an edge means removing the original edge and replacing it by the new edge joining the centers.

Dotted: original Solid: "flipped"

## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of Kobbelt: 4/8 Final Result


$\square$ Remove the original edges and we have a new triangle mesh!
$\square$ But, the original vertices must also be "perturbed" a little to preserve "smoothness".

## $\sqrt{ } 3$-Subdivision of K obbelt: 5/8 Actual Computation

$\square$ For each triangle with vertices $V_{1}, V_{2}$ and $V_{3}$, compute its center C:

$$
\mathbf{C}=\frac{1}{3}\left(\mathbf{V}_{1}+\mathbf{V}_{2}+\mathbf{V}_{3}\right)
$$

$\square$ For each vertex $V$ and its neighbors $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots$, $V_{n}$, compute a perturbed $V^{\text {' }}$ as follows:

$$
\mathbf{V}^{\prime}=\left(1-\alpha_{n}\right) \mathbf{V}+\frac{\alpha_{n}}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{V}_{i}
$$

where $\alpha_{\boldsymbol{n}}$ is computed as follows:

$$
\alpha_{n}=\frac{1}{9}\left(4-2 \cos \left(\frac{2 \pi}{n}\right)\right)
$$

$\square \quad$ Replace $\mathrm{V}_{i}$ 's with $\mathrm{V}^{\prime}{ }_{i}$ 's and do edge flipping.

## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of K obbelt: 6/8 Important Results

$\square$ The $\sqrt{ } 3$-subdivision converges!

- The limit surface is $C^{2}$ everywhere except for extraordinary points.
- It is only $C^{1}$ at extraordinary points (i.e., vertices with valance $\neq 6$ ).
- The $\sqrt{ } 3$-subdivision can be extended to an adaptive scheme for finer subdivision control.


## $\sqrt{ } 3$-Subdivision of K obbelt: 7/8



5 rendered

## $\sqrt{3}$-Subdivision of Kobbelt: 8/8



## The End

