Mesh Resolution Augmentation using 3D Skin Bank

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Abstract

We present 3D skin containing information of 3D details of high resolution facial mesh. Our 3D skin bank is derived from several scanned faces with resolutions up to several million triangles, where even the pores are clearly visible. We illustrate how to raise the resolution of the geometry of any given low quality face by making use of 3D skin, where the resulted model’s final resolution is high enough to be used in computer film industry. Our method can be deployed to produce numerous high resolution versions of a single low quality face, each bearing different skin characteristics.

Keywords: 3D skin, skin transfer, mesh adaptation, decomposition, mesh parameterization

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1 Introduction

When the first 3D facial model was developed in 1972 [1], it was claimed that only approximately 250 polygons – defined by about 400 vertices – are necessary to sufficiently approximate a face realistically. However, scanning technology used to capture real-world objects has evolved in terms of user-friendliness and scanning resolution, making it both easier and more feasible to obtain superior representations to those yielded by mathematical modeling. Laser scanning (for shape acquisition) and motion capture are two common ways to obtain the static and dynamic forms of human subjects and they have become more accessible research tools in many research and commercial labs.

Recent trends show that increasingly higher resolutions of 3D faces are being used for realistic representation. For instance, about 70,000 vertices were used for a morphable model for the synthesis of 3D faces [2] with the help of Cyberware™ laser scanning. At this resolution, facial shape structure is visible and individuals are recognizable even in the absence of texture information. The game “Fight Night Round 3” for the Xbox 360 video game console also showcased extremely high quality face modeling. The most recent progress in scanning equipment has made it possible to obtain scans of human faces that have extremely high polygonal counts (10 million triangles) [3] suitable for production use in full-length feature films such as “The Matrix Reloaded” [4]. The geometry in this production was based on a 100-micron resolution scan of plaster cast molds of the actors’ faces. Human skin was modeled using a fine-scale, complicated and delicate 3D structure [5], which increased the realism in the modeling and animation. However, the big drawback of this scanning technology is time and cost. The scanning process for a human face takes a few days to complete and it is also highly costly.

This paper discusses methodologies to produce extremely high quality models from low quality data. The main idea is to apply extremely high-quality skin samples from a 3D skin bank to a set of low quality face models obtained from conventional range data equipment.

We first describe our face database (very high quality faces and low quality faces) and the motivation, and then existing methodologies related to our work.

1.1 Face Database

1.1.1 Extremely High Quality Data

We have collected four very detailed scanned faces, each with a different resolution, as shown in Figure 1. Each individual is presented with closed eyes and mouth due to the use of plaster modeling in the scanning process. Each model captures only the facial region of its respective individual and thus lacks information for the rest of the head (including the ears). The faces are of extremely high quality, utilizing millions of triangles to accurately capture the fine and distinct structure of the skin, as shown in Figure 2(a) and (b).
1.1.2 Low Quality Data

There is a large database for the Civilian American and European Surface Anthropometry Resource Project (CAESAR™) containing 3D information for thousands of human (male and female) subjects aged 18-65. The scanning process used to obtain the models captures hundreds of thousands of 3D points on the human body surface in a few seconds. Although the models provide valuable information such as height and head diameter, a close inspection of the facial region reveals that the data is not of satisfactory visual quality to be used for other purposes such as computer graphics and animation.

Figure 3 shows some examples from the CAESAR dataset. For our experiments, we retain only the head region (~20K triangles) of each model and discard the rest of the body. Note that the faces have the correct global shape, but horizontal sliding lines are quite visible and some faces have many missing points in the facial region. Additionally, some models are incomplete, i.e., holes are present) in the head and ear regions.

1.2 Motivation

Our research aims to enhance the faces in the CAESAR database to the level of our extremely high quality models so that they can be used not only for measurement but also for a larger range of applications. The main idea is to assign all the models – both low and high quality – the same mesh parameterization using a base model so that we can: (a) compile a repository of 3D skin information for our extremely high resolution models, and (b) apply the skin in our 3D skin bank to the CAESAR dataset.

Applying 3D skin to a face in the CAESAR set yields a high quality facial mesh of the subject. This method of skin transfer allows us to produce a larger dataset, i.e., the same person with several different characteristic skins.

1.3 Literature Review

There have been some trials [6][7] in image quality augmentation. One of the methods [7] used a morphable 3D human face database to obtain an approximation of the 3D face in a given facial image by finding optimized coefficients for a linear combination of morphable models. A high-resolution facial image is obtained by using the optimal coefficients for the linear combination of the high-resolution prototypes. The original 2D photo is then regenerated at a higher quality. In this case, the quality of the photo is limited to the resolution of the morphable models.

The resolution of 3D objects can be manipulated using techniques such as Normal Mapping, Displacement Mapping, Displaced Subdivision Surfaces (DSS), Normal Meshes and Consistent Mesh Parameterizations. The basic techniques behind them are mesh adaptation [8], multi-resolution and detail restoration.

Normal Mapping [9][10] is a render-time technique used to create the illusion of surface detail on a surface. The surface’s normals are replaced completely by those stored in a normal map prior to performing shading calculations and, by doing so, adds bumps and other surface detail that is absent in the geometrical representation. The UV mapping assigned to the surface determines which value is retrieved from the image for a particular point on the surface. Normal mapping has grown in popularity for real-time applications such as video games because it is a relatively inexpensive way of adding a high level of detail
to 3D objects. The major disadvantage of normal mapping is that there are no physical changes to the geometry of the rendered surface. As a result, bumps that are added by normal mapping do not cast shadows correctly and can ruin the illusion.

Displacement Mapping [11] is a technique used in computer graphics to augment the appearance of a surface. Displacement mapping yields a more detailed surface by perturbing a base surface along its normals. The perturbation values are retrieved from the displacement map according to the base surface’s UV map. The offset stored in a pixel is obtained by mapping said pixel onto the base surface and calculating the distance between the base and the high resolution surface along the surface normal at the mapped point. The benefits of producing actual deformed geometry (e.g., proper shadow casting and occlusion) are offset by the cost of the technique.

Lee et al. [12] proposed an efficient representation of high resolution geometry called DSS which essentially represents the high resolution detail as a scalar displacement field over a smooth domain surface. The DSS representation is constructed in three steps: building a control model, optimizing the control model and generating the displacement map. First, a low polygon mesh is produced from the dense geometry. A smooth domain surface is obtained by performing subdivision. This mesh, which serves as the control model for DSS, is subdivided to obtain a smooth domain surface. The control model is optimized so that the resulting domain surface more closely approximates the original dense model.

We discuss displacement mapping and DSS in further detail in Section 4.1, comparing these techniques to our presented methodology.

Several researchers [13][14][15][16] proposed algorithms to generate parameterizations for a set of meshes, some of which are used for the purposes of multi-resolution modeling and animation. The parameterizations are said to be consistent because they share a common base domain (point connectivity) and respect the features of the domain, e.g., eyes of a human head. Features are defined on each mesh in the set using feature detection schemes described in the literature. The feature vertices that result are used to define patches on the mesh’s surface. The strength of consistent mesh parameterization is in its ability to establish a common base domain between very different objects and in the use of its results in applications. The exact one-to-one point correspondence across an entire set of models can then be exploited in applications such as animation, texture transfer and principal component analysis.

Haro et al. [17] demonstrated the ability to render human faces realistically by properly reproducing the accurate fine-scale structure of skin as well as the Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function (BRDF) properties of skin. Their method captures the skin structures of small skin samples and uses them to synthesize skin structures for the entire face. Although their method yields good renderings of human skin, it does not produce high resolution geometry which may be desired for certain applications such as 3D printing.
2 3D skin bank

We describe first the meaning of 3D skin. 3D skin expresses geometric skin detail as a scalar offset field parameterized over an aligned, low-resolution facial mesh (referred to as a base model, as shown in Figure 4(c)). Loosely stated, 3D skin is the difference between the models depicted in Figure 4(a) and Figure 4(c). In this paper, we qualify the CAESAR dataset models (~20K triangles) and the models defined in this section (~6K triangles) as low-resolution because their resolutions are notably lower than the models described in Section 1.1.1 which have upward of one million triangles.

2.1 Consistent Facial Mesh Adaptation

To obtain the base model, we use a two-step mesh adaptation method starting from the generic model shown in Figure 5(a).

Firstly, facial feature point-based adaptation is performed on the generic model to achieve a rough approximation of the high quality scanned surface. Surface point-based adaptation using cylindrical projection is then applied on the model obtained from the first step to improve the approximation.

Semi-automatically established 3D feature points on the scanned model, as shown in Figure 5(b), are used to deform the generic model using Radial Basis Function (RBF) networks [18][19] creating a coarse matching model as shown in Figure 4(b). The resulting model is termed the feature-based model.

Two sets of feature points \( p_i \) and \( q_i, i=1,\ldots,n \), are used to train the RBF networks, where the source feature points \( p_i \) lie on the generic model and the target feature points \( q_i \) correspond to features on the target (i.e., high quality) surface as shown in Figure 5(b). After training and weight vector computation, the new positions of the generic model’s non-feature vertices are calculated by evaluating the RBF networks using said vertices’ initial positions. The feature-based model shares the same topology as the generic model.

Before applying the second adaptation step, we use Loop’s subdivision scheme [20] designed to achieve a smooth surface to increase the number of triangles in the feature-based model. We then apply cylindrical projection on the subdivided model to more closely approximate the scanned surface. The result is shown in Figure 4(c). The details of the surface point-based adaptation methodology are found in our previous works [21][22][23].

Each face in the extremely high quality dataset is processed to obtain a consistent mesh representation where the structure is inherited from the generic model in Figure 5(a).

2.2 3D Skin Construction

For the high quality models, we derive 3D skin representations by expressing the extremely high quality scanned model as a scalar offset field over the corresponding low-resolution base model yielded by Section 2.1. We build a map between each vertex of the high quality model and the surface of the base model by performing vertex-to-surface mapping. Each offset value represents the distance between a vertex in the high resolution model and a point on the base surface. The location of this point
on the surface is denoted by barycentric coordinates with respect to a base model triangle. The offset value is measured along the interpolated surface normal at that point. The 2D interpretation of the mapping is presented in Figure 6(a). The final representation for 3D skin is a 4-tuple per scanned model vertex storing a base model triangle identifier, barycentric coordinates, and height. Each tuple is computed by applying vertex-to-surface mapping on each scanned model vertex.

2.2.1 Vertex-to-Surface Mapping

The notion of mapping a point on one surface onto a second surface is also sometimes referred to as “point-to-point” mapping (e.g., by Tarini and Cignoni [24]). Vertex-to-surface mapping, as reported in [25][26][27], maps a vertex $V$ (belonging to a detailed surface) to a triangle $\Delta ABC$ (belonging to a base surface) using an interpolated vertex normal as shown in Figure 6(b).

The ray origin $P$ and the interpolated vertex normal $\mathbf{N}_p$ shown in Figure 6(b) are given by

$$P = (1-u-v)A + uB + vC,$$

$$\mathbf{N}_p = (1-u-v)\mathbf{N}_A + u\mathbf{N}_B + v\mathbf{N}_C,$$

where $u$ and $v$ are the 2D barycentric coordinates of $P$ with respect to $\Delta ABC$ and $\mathbf{N}_A$, $\mathbf{N}_B$, and $\mathbf{N}_C$ are the vertex normals at $A$, $B$, and $C$ respectively. For all points lying within or along the edges of $\Delta ABC$, the constraints $u, v \in [0,1]$ and $u + v \leq 1$ are satisfied. The position of $V$ can then be expressed as

$$V = P + \frac{d}{||\mathbf{N}_p||} \mathbf{N}_p,$$

where $d$ is the signed distance from $P$ to $V$ in the direction of $\mathbf{N}_p$ and $|| \|$ denotes vector magnitude.

To calculate the values of $u$ and $v$ in Equation (1), a new triangle $A^{\text{par}}B^{\text{par}}C^{\text{par}}$ that is parallel to $\Delta ABC$ and whose vertices are coplanar with $V$ is defined (as shown in Figure 6(b)). The vertices of this new triangle are obtained by finding the intersection of $\mathbf{N}_A$, $\mathbf{N}_B$, and $\mathbf{N}_C$ with the parallel plane. Computing the barycentric coordinates of $V$ with respect to $\Delta A^{\text{par}}B^{\text{par}}C^{\text{par}}$ yields the values of $u$ and $v$. In other words,

$$V = (1-u-v)A^{\text{par}} + uB^{\text{par}} + vC^{\text{par}}.$$

The procedure that is carried out to find $\Delta ABC$ for each vertex of the high quality scanned model is discussed in Section 2.2.2.

The 3D skin representation of an extremely high quality model is computed by obtaining a set of mapping parameters $(I, u, v, d)$ for each vertex in the very detailed model, where $I$ is an identifier for the base model triangle and $u$, $v$ and $d$ are as defined in Equation (1). For instance, $I$ can be an index into an ordered triangle list.

2.2.2 Finding a Mapping Triangle on the Base Model for Each Vertex of the High-Resolution Model

To establish a set of mapping parameters for each scanned model vertex, we must first determine to which base model triangle each vertex is mapped. A two-step process is required to find $\Delta ABC$ (the $I$ parameter in $(I, u, v, d)$) for each scanned model vertex.
The first step consists of accumulating a “bin” of scanned model vertices for each low resolution triangle. Only scanned model vertices in the vicinity of a triangle are added to its bin to accelerate the checking process. This judgment is made by checking whether the vertices are situated within an expanded bounding box (see Figure 7) with the size of the expansion user-definable. Bins are not mutually exclusive so that multiple triangles are checked for each vertex. Note that the purpose of creating bins is to accelerate the process by limiting the number of vertex-triangle pairs checked in the step that follows.

Once the bins have been populated, the vertex-to-surface mapping scheme is performed iteratively for each vertex-triangle pair and the best set of mapping parameters is chosen for each scanned model vertex. As the iterative process progresses, each newly calculated parameter set for a particular scanned model vertex is compared to the incumbent set (if one has been established) for the same vertex. The incumbent set is the best set of mapping parameters encountered at any given point in the iterative process and there is at most one incumbent per vertex. A sequence of heuristics is used to decide whether the new set should become the new incumbent.

1) If the incumbent set’s barycentric coordinates parameters satisfy the constraints \( u, v \in [0,1] \) and \( u + v \leq 1 \), the new set is removed from consideration if its parameters do not satisfy either constraint.

2) The new set is removed from consideration if its barycentric coordinates parameters do not satisfy either \( u, v \in [\alpha, \beta] \) or \( u + v \in [\alpha, \beta] \), where \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are user-definable.

3) The new set is removed from consideration if its offset parameter exceeds a user-definable threshold.

4) The reconstruction error for each parameter set is the Euclidean distance between the reconstructed vertex and the original scanned model vertex. The new set is removed from consideration if the reconstruction error exceeds a user-definable threshold.

5) The new set is removed for replacement if the absolute value of its offset parameters is larger than that of the incumbent.

6) The new set is removed from consideration if its associated reconstruction error is larger than that of the incumbent.

7) The new set becomes the incumbent if the preceding heuristics do not remove it from consideration.

After all vertex-triangle pairs are checked, the incumbent set for each vertex is used in the scanned model’s 3D skin. If there is no incumbent for a vertex, that vertex has no mapping parameters in the 3D skin. Our experiments indicate that 99% of vertices for most models and 95% for a certain model are mapped during 3D skin construction, depending on the models being used. During 3D skin re-constitution, special post-processing is required for vertices which do not have mapping parameters. Both 3D skin re-constitution and the post-processing are discussed in Section 2.3.1.

2.3 Visualization of 3D Skin Bank

The 3D skin for extremely high quality models can be visualized on a neutral facial shape. To obtain a neutral shape, we take an average of a set of base models. As each face inherits the structure from the generic model, each shares exactly the same number of points and the same triangulation. Thus, a straightforward linear interpolation of 3D coordinates is performed to obtain the average face.
2.3.1 3D Skin Re-constitution

The use of vertex-to-surface mapping permits the base model’s shape to influence the shape of the detailed model (See Figure 6(c)) since the vertices are expressed as a function of the base model’s vertex normals. 3D skin re-constitution is performed by applying the mapping parameters stored in a 3D skin onto a base model to produce a higher resolution version. First, the vertex normals of the base model are recalculated to reflect any curvature changes. Equations (1) and (2) can then be restated as

\[ P' = (1 - u - v)A' + uB' + vC' \]
\[ N'_p = (1 - u - v)N'_A + uN'_B + vN'_C \]

and

\[ V' = P' + d \frac{N'_p}{\|N'_p\|} \]

respectively, to derive the new location of vertex \( V \). Each set of mapping parameters \((f, u, v, d)\) is applied to the base model to reconstruct each scanned model vertex.

The detail recovery for the case of Person S with Person R’s 3D skin detail can be written as

\[ M_{O_{detal}} = M_L^S + D_{O_{detal}}^R \]

where the notation + is loosely used here. Person R’s 3D skin \( D_{O_{detal}}^R \) contains mapping parameters \((f, u, v, d)\) which map the vertices of the original scanned model \( M_O^S \) onto the base model \( M_L^S \).

As mentioned earlier in Section 2.2.1, some of the scanned model vertices may not have corresponding mapping parameters in the 3D skin and, therefore, cannot be reconstructed as described above. The vertices in question, however, can still be incorporated into the reconstructed model using RBF interpolation. The premise is to approximate the region surrounding each missing vertex (or set of missing vertices). A random selection of vertices in the surrounding region is chosen to be used as feature points for RBF training as described in Section 2.1. The source set \( p_i \) consists of the positions of the randomly-chosen vertices in the original scanned model and the set \( q_i \) holds the positions of those same vertices in the reconstructed scanned model. Thus, the networks are trained to represent the transition from the original model to the reconstructed model in the surrounding region under consideration. Once trained, the networks can be used to interpolate the new position(s) of the vertex (or vertices) which lacks corresponding mapping parameters.

Figure 8 and Figure 9 show how the neutral face acts to visualize the 3D skin. The 3D skin applied onto the neutral face shows the original skin structure restored successfully without losing the fine structure. The 3D skin structure is properly preserved when the skin is applied to a different base model from the one used to derive it. Figure 8(d) and (e) show magnified views of the original surface and the surface reconstructed using the neutral face to illustrate this point.
3 3D Mesh Resolution Augmentation

The method for augmenting the resolution of the low quality faces is to perform skin reconstitution as described in Section 2.3.1 on them. In order to do this, the low quality faces must be restructured using the consistent adaptation algorithm described in Section 2.1. We derive a set of low resolution models for the low quality dataset as a result.

3.1 Low Quality Model to Base Model

Several examples of low quality data are shown in Figure 10(a) with the corresponding base models shown in Figure 10(b). Transitioning from the scanned models to the base models removes local noise such as the horizontal sliding lines. Some of the small holes in the low quality data are also filled in this step as RBF only relies on feature points to deform the generic head shape and the cylindrical projection moves vertices only when it finds proper candidates on the scanned model. If there is a hole in the scanned model, the cylindrical projection does not find proper candidates and the position of the base model vertex (after RBF) is kept as it is; as a result, the holes in the input models are filled automatically.

The choice of the correct resolution of the base model is critical here. There is a trade-off between a preferred higher resolution for better shape capture and a preferred lower resolution for noise removal. Empirically, we determined that a mesh with about 6K triangles is quite acceptable for satisfying both purposes.

3.2 3D Skin Applied on Low Quality Models

Figure 11(b) and (c) show two resolution augmentation examples of the model in Figure 11(a), where the corresponding low-resolution base model is the rightmost model in Figure 10(b). The shape is properly captured from the low-quality model and the 3D skin applied on it increases the resolution. The appearance of the augmented face is affected by the choice of 3D skin. For instance, the 3D skin from Person A is more aged then the 3D skin from Person D. Figure 12 also shows examples of resolution augmentation for the leftmost and middle models illustrated in Figure 10 where the 3D skin of Persons C and B are used for each respective model.

3.3 3D Skin on Low Quality Exaggerated Models

Face exaggeration is one of the key animation principles [28], making output more attractive and distinctive by exaggerating the shape, color, emotion, or actions of a character. A 3D facial-caricaturing algorithm is usually applied on a homogeneously structured (morphable) model (with approximately 20~70K triangles) to exaggerate the distinctive information both at a local level by exaggerating small facial creases into wrinkles, and at a more global level to produce a more pronounced skull [2].

As all the faces share the same structure, it is straightforward to make exaggeration using a standard vector-based method. The purpose of exaggeration is to ensure the identity of the human subject is emphasized after 3D skin augmentation. We select the two most similar looking models in the low quality dataset. Figure 13 shows the effect of exaggeration where two models become...
a lot more designable with 70% exaggeration as it emphasizes the characteristics of each individual. It is possible to control the
degree of exaggeration and the right degree works to emphasize the identity without losing it.

Standard exaggeration [2] can only exaggerate the morphable structure. It cannot be performed directly on the scanned faces as
they do not all share a common structure. Our exaggeration method is more general because we can also produce an exaggerated
version of the extremely high resolution scanned model even though the detailed faces do not share the same structure. In other
words, it is possible to exaggerate with or without 3D skin. The key to this possibility is to decompose the model into shape
(structurally consistent) and 3D skin, then apply standard exaggeration on only the shape and then finally recover the highly
detailed skin structure.

4 Discussion

4.1 The Difference from Displacement Mapping and DSS

Figure 14 shows the comparison between the respective results produced by the popular detail representation technique
Displacement Mapping and our methodology. Displacement mapping and DSS, where displacement mapping is used eventually
on the coarse base mesh, are not accurate enough to restore the quality of the extremely high resolution surface unless they use
an exceptionally high resolution. Displacement mapping and DSS approximate the very detailed original surface by sampling it
at regular intervals and they are designed to capture quite accurate approximations for lower resolution models. Usually,

displacement mapping is successful because many mesh objects are coarser in resolution than the pixel resolution used in
displacement UV mapping to capture the details. However, our skin models are of extremely high resolution where the face
region has upward of one million triangles. In order to capture the details using approximation, we need to use very high
resolution displacement mapping. Our experiment shows in Figure 14(b) that displacement mapping at a resolution of 2048x2048
(~4M pixels) failed to capture the exact structure of certain skin regions of a face which has about 1M triangles. These triangles
are irregular and displacement mapping’s regular intervals are not guaranteed to capture the irregular triangle details unless we
operate at a resolution much higher than the triangle mesh resolution. Displacement mapping showed quite acceptable results
for areas in which the mesh distribution is less dense or more regular such as some parts of the forehead, but it failed to capture
the details where the mesh shows fine details with a high degree of irregularity. It is possible to raise the displacement mapping
resolution to capture all the irregular points using regular intervals, but in that case, it raises the question of cost and time
effectiveness of using a very high resolution displacement map. Our methods reconstruct extremely highly dense irregular
meshes by capturing only the existing vertices; hence, it does not raise the question of sampling frequency that displacement
mapping does. Figure 15 depicts the limitation of displacement mapping.
4.2 Flexibility

The presented methods for resolution augmentation of 3D object show experiments optimized for the human face. However, the basic methodology is applicable for any object with desired adaptation for certain steps in the consistent mesh parameterization. Consistent mesh parameterization described in Section 2.1 is specialized for human faces in the sense that the feature points that are used were carefully defined for the purpose of identifying an individual. The use of cylindrical projection for shape refinement is also often used for human heads because of their somewhat cylindrical shape. When an object is different from simple geometry, we can adapt more general methods such as error minimization optimization [15], which usually takes longer calculation time with iteration of several error parameters. So it is the choice between a rapid dedicated algorithm tailored for a certain fixed shape and a general purpose algorithm which works on general objects depending on the application. Surface approximation using RBF networks, 3D skin construction using vertex-to-surface mapping, 3D skin transfer onto another mesh model, 3D model reconstruction and 3D mesh model exaggeration are general-purpose ideas and techniques that can be used for other classes of objects.

4.3 Current Limitations and Future Work

Our experiments show successful results to raise the resolution of given low quality facial mesh data. However, there are some limitations to discuss and they are as follows:

(i) Only the face region of the 3D skin used to augment the given facial mesh is retained. One of the main reasons we do not include the whole head region is because of ears. As we do not have enough data to estimate the proper ear shape, it is not straightforward to restore the ear regions with the methods proposed in this paper. Special algorithms are needed to treat only the ear areas. One such algorithm is to use only feature point-based adaptation without going through surface point-based adaptation with a database of ears. Then, the head region can also be kept with proper ears.

(ii) The faces which contribute to the 3D skin bank have closed eyes due to the very accurate as well as very heavy scanning process. However, the low-quality models have open eyes and our current experiments do not include eye treatment. The eyes of the generic model can be controlled to be either open or closed by an animation system as the generic model has an embedded animation structure. One possible strategy is to use closed-eyed scanned models and a closed-eyed generic model to compile the skin database. In this case, we would use an open-eyed generic model to produce the base models since the low quality models have open eyes. When we apply the 3D skin onto the open-eyed low resolution models, the augmented faces should also be open-eyed because the augmentation result depends on the condition of the base model.

(iii) The human face in real-life is equipped with geometry as well as skin color information. The faces shown here do not have texture information. The skin bank is considered to provide the color information. The conventional 2D face texture mapping used in coarse face models contains pseudo-3D information such as 3D looking in a specific view while 2D looking in other views.
As our 3D skin already provides detailed 3D-geometry structure, the true Skin color is to be built by the amount and type of the pigment melanin in the skin.

5 Conclusion

A high quality, high resolution model is necessary for certain applications such as films, high quality computer games and virtual reality. It also gives us the freedom to control resolution for our needs. However, the time and financial costs of obtaining high quality models are significant. We have shown how to raise the resolution of a low quality model using a 3D skin databank in an efficient way in terms of time, cost and resources. Once the 3D skin bank is created, any skin in the bank can be chosen to augment the resolution of the low quality model.

The methodologies make use of mesh adaptation with a generic model to extract the shape of a low quality model where the local noise of the model is removed as well.

3D skin is constructed using decomposition of extremely detailed 3D scans into dense offsets and overall 3D geometry. The 3D geometry shares the same structure with the generic model used for the low quality models, which enables the transfer of dense geometric detail from one face to another.

The time required to construct the 3D skin for a 1M triangle face using the current base model with 6K triangles is about 11 seconds. Additionally, execution time for 3D skin re-constitution is fairly constant at about 2 seconds for all 3D skin cases on a PC equipped with a 2.6 GHz Opteron 252 processor. Times can vary if the base model resolution is changed, e.g., longer execution time for a higher resolution base model.

Even though a large database is not necessary for our system, a larger 3D skin bank is preferred by users to offer a wider selection of skins from which to choose. In our experiments, we find that Asian skin (thicker lips) works better to provide 3D skin on Asian and African ethnic groups than Caucasian skin (normally thinner lips). Ethnicity, age correspondence as well as gender correspondence may give more natural looking results when we apply 3D skin on low quality models. 3D-based biomechanical simulation and visualization of skin is the future direction of this 3D skin research.

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References


![Figure 1: High quality scanned data of differing resolutions.](image)
Figure 2: Magnified view of Person A’s original scanned model which has about one million triangles. (a) Lower right face area. (b) Left cheek.

Figure 3: Snapshots of 10 head models in the CAESAR dataset.

Figure 4: (a) Scanned model with 1M triangles. (b) Feature-based model with 1.5K triangles. (c) Surface point-based low-resolution model with 6K triangles used as base model for 3D skin construction.
Figure 5: (a) Generic model with 1.5K triangles. (b) Feature point markers placed in the front and side views of a scanned model (Person A).

Figure 6: (a) 2D interpretation of vertex-to-surface mapping where the black dotted arrows are interpolations of red solid arrows and the black arrows are the ones used for 3D skin construction and recovery. (b) Example of vertex-to-surface mapping where vertex V is mapped to ΔABC. ΔA′B′C′ and ΔABC lie on parallel planes and A′B′C′ and V are all coplanar. (c) Reconstruction of a vertex V following the offset of ΔABC to ΔA′B′C′. Its new position is denoted by V′.

Figure 7: Bounding box of a 3D triangle ΔABC (black) and its associated expanded bounding box (red). The bounding box grows by a value of e in each dimension, where e is user-definable.
Figure 8: (a) Neutral model used as a base model for 3D skin visualization. (b) The original scanned model of Person A with 1M triangles. (c) Person A’s skin on the neutral model with 1M triangles. (d) Magnified view of person A’s skin on the left cheek; (e) Magnified view of person A’s skin on the neutral face on the left cheek where the fine details are transferred without error.
Figure 9: 3D skin visualization where the 3D skins of Persons A, B, C and D are applied on the neutral face model. (a) 3D skin. (b) Point distribution of (a).
Figure 10: Examples of three CAESAR models in low-resolution representation with consistent mesh representation. The low resolution models capture the global shape while the local errors are removed. (a) Snapshots of three models in CAESAR database. (b) Snapshots of the corresponding low resolution (base) models

Figure 11: Comparison among (a)(d) an original scanned model; (b)(e) an augmented model where the skin is from Person A; (c)(f) an augmented model where the skin is from Person D in their shapes and point distribution.
Figure 12: Comparison between original low quality data (left) and augmented data (right). (a) Augmented using Person C’s skin. (b) Augmented using Person B’s skin.
Figure 13: Comparison between two models in (a) and (b). They have similar front looks in the original scanned data as shown in the first column in (a) and (b) and augmented resolution models with 3D skin of Person B are shown in the second and third columns in (a) and (b). 70% exaggeration process is applied to both models shown in (c) and (d), respectively.
Figure 14: Magnified view of the left cheek of Person A whose face region has about one million triangles (a) on the original model (b) on the reconstructed model using displacement mapping at a resolution of 2048x2048 (c) on the reconstructed model using our methods.

Figure 15: The problems of displacement mapping in capturing the scanned model’s triangles with resolution similar to its resolution. (a) Displacement map generation (sampling at regular intervals). (b) Scanned model reconstruction using displacement map from (a). (c) Our method to construct irregular mesh by constructing the points one by one. These three diagrams show displacement mapping’s inability to reconstruct irregular original scanned model vertices when the mesh resolution is approximate to the pixel resolution of displacement mapping.