

AN ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE PREPARATION AND ANIMATION
OF A VIRTUAL MANNEQUIN FOR THE PURPOSE OF MANNEQUIN-CLOTHING
INTERACTION MODELING

by

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MASTER'S THESIS

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To my family and friends for their continued support and encouragement

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation

The possibility of using computational methods in the research and development process for textiles and functional clothing has increased with the availability of desktop computing power. It has been shown experimentally that tight, stiff, bulky clothing can impede motion or alter strategies for the accomplishment of physical tasks [19]. With obvious difficulties in measuring clothing resistance forces on a human body undergoing prescribed motions, the ability to realistically model the mechanics of clothing-body interactions virtually using computational methods could prove extremely beneficial to the development of new, less restrictive clothing systems. For example, many of the current materials used for body armor are known to be very stiff and the resulting clothing systems restrictive, thus potentially impeding the motion of the wearer. The ability to realistically model the mechanics of clothing-body interactions is a potentially significant tool for designing protective clothing systems that are less restrictive.

Any computational framework developed to address the issues noted above will require a structured procedure involving at least five major steps: (1) the development of a virtual mannequin, or virtual representation of a human's body surface; (2) animation of the virtual mannequin to represent evolution of the body surface during performance of active tasks; (3) a robust algorithm to detect contact and sliding between the virtual mannequin and a mathematical clothing model; (4) an algorithm to resolve the contact forces between the clothing and the mannequin; (5) a realistic model to predict the

clothing fabric's mechanical and dynamic behavior. Significant work has been done elsewhere for steps (3) through (5) (e.g. [6, 11-13, 19, 21]), and so this thesis will focus on the first two steps.

1.2 Objectives and Organization

Many works that involve modeling of the human body utilize 3D objects such as spheres and ellipsoids (e.g. [11-13]), whose bounding surfaces are implicitly defined by a scalar function of the form $f(\tilde{x}) = 0$, to represent the body. While these make animation of the body and collision detection simple, they may not accurately represent the shape of the human body. A more realistic virtual mannequin or avatar will capture the shape of the individual body parts more accurately, and thus permit truer analysis of the body-clothing interactions. In this thesis, avatars are developed from 3D laser scans of human subjects in fixed postures. The resulting body surface meshes are first decomposed into representative segments in accordance with major sections of the human body in a process called segmentation, and then manually edited to conform to a prescribed initial posture. This procedure and its development are presented in Chapter 3.

Next, the rigid body segments are made to translate and rotate in time in accordance with the performance of active tasks being carried out by a human subject. Two methods for animating virtual mannequins are presented in this thesis, namely via joint angle time histories, utilizing the Denavit-Hartenberg (DH) kinematics convention [2, 25] that has been adopted by the Virtual Soldier Research (VSR) group at The University of Iowa (the source of the joint angle time histories used in this research) for

predicting dynamic motions of skeletal human models [1, 3, 9, 15, 26], and via motion capture data from a number of key locations on the human subject. The framework presented in this thesis constructs a dynamic body surface model that moves with the skeletal human model. This allows for interfacing between clothing modeling and digital human modeling frameworks. The ability to animate the virtual mannequin with motion capture data was added because it is presently easier to capture complicated motions associated with highly dynamic and strenuous physical tasks using motion capture systems than it is to generate such motions using predictive dynamics algorithms. Both methods of animation are presented in detail in Chapter 4.

With these major steps complete, a contact model can then be employed to simulate clothing-mannequin interaction for a prescribed motion and human body scan. Because the goal of this thesis is strictly to develop a framework for preparing virtual mannequins for clothing interaction simulations with prescribed motion, no contact model or clothing behavior model (e.g. finite element or particle methods) is presented in this work. All clothed mannequin simulations presented use the framework originally developed by Man, et al. in [11-13] for both contact and clothing behavior modeling, but are extended for the more realistic avatars developed in this thesis so as to demonstrate the effective use of the methodologies presented herein.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Since the goal of this framework is to develop a standard methodology for preparing a 3D human body mesh for animation and clothing interaction simulations, no review of works involving clothing models will be discussed, and the reader is referred instead to [6] and [11-13]. The clothing behavior and contact algorithm used to model clothing interaction with the animations developed for this thesis were adopted from [11].

One of the driving factors behind development of body scanners has been the desire to obtain in an automated fashion more accurate and consistent measurements of body dimensions for clothing fitting than what tailors and the layman could obtain. As computer modeling of apparel became more feasible through the availability of faster computing technology in the 1990s and 2000s, interest in obtaining complete 3D human body scans also increased. These 3D scans often employ triangulation-based methods to resolve the surface contours of the subject [22].

Among the works that used body scans to obtain body measurements, Li and Jones [10] developed an algorithm that was able to take a “lateral slice” (perpendicular to the direction of the subject’s height) and determine the chest circumference. Their algorithm first detected the arm outlines before removing the arms and patching the arm gaps with a curve-fitting function. Pargas, et al. [18] took a similar approach with lateral slices of the body scan, but their work also proposed methods for determining other measurements such as arm length and waist circumference.

Jones, et al. [7] developed a technique in which a vertical plane of light is projected by an array of vertically aligned cameras onto a rotating human model through its axis of rotation. The scattered and reflected light detected by the cameras was used to compute 3D surface coordinates. Referred to as the Loughborough Anthropometric Shadow Scanner, this method was advertised as obtaining accuracies of 1.6mm in the radial direction (as measured from the axis of rotation out to the body surface) and 1mm vertically.

In 2000, Siebert and Marshall [22] employed light speckle texture projection photogrammetry, also known as stereo photogrammetry, to obtain human body images. Originally developed at the Turing Institute, stereo photogrammetry operates by extrapolating the difference between two images of a surface as seen by adjacent cameras into a “depth map.” Along with relatively fast data capture, Siebert and Marshall claimed accuracies of 0.5mm and 2.0mm for the face and body surfaces of the human model, respectively.

Others have avoided the need for 3D scans altogether by artificially creating their virtual humans. For example, Nedel and Thalmann [16] developed an entire mannequin by modeling the bones, muscles, and fatty tissue with ellipsoids and “metaballs,” over which the skin would then be generated using a cubic B-spline. They employed a muscle model that deformed in accordance with bone movement, which then resulted in a deformed skin surface (see Fig. 2-1).

Research in mannequin animation is also a recent venture, coinciding with the ability of computers to perform the necessary calculations reasonably quickly. For example, Fua, et al. [4] animated mannequins through the analysis of video sequences of

real humans. This method differed from typical motion capture used today in that the system tracked the body surface outline of a human subject in motion, creating silhouettes which were then analyzed to determine the proper joint angles for mannequin animation. Their mannequin model employed the same layered approach as [16].

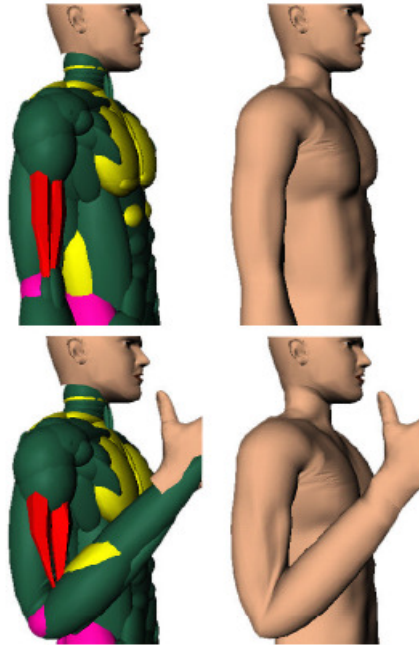


Figure 2-1: Human avatar comprised of metaballs [16]. The top two images show the metaballs and skin model in the undeformed configuration. The bottom set of images shows the metaball deformation due to muscle contraction, with the subsequent skin surface overlain.

In 2001, Rigotti, et al. [20] used video analysis of human motion to estimate joint angles, which were then applied to a model in an attempt to recreate the human posture. This approach required a network of nodes whose positions were dependent upon the positions of their proximal neighbors. Although the data obtained from the video sequences produced very realistic shapes, error propagation was noticed due to the cumulative contributions of each degree of freedom modeled, so correction equations

were developed to mitigate the error. Only the spine and a single arm were modeled in this work.

More recently in 2006, Mao, et al. [14] developed a methodology specifically for animating characters by taking drawings of a stick figure at various stages of motion and extrapolating the surfaces using ellipsoids and spheres (see Fig. 2-2). Their techniques allowed for creating simple animations from drawing stick figures on a computer, eliminating the need for much of the computer graphics work normally associated with creating an animation of an avatar. Varying anthropometries were handled with an option for varying the sphere and ellipsoid dimensions.

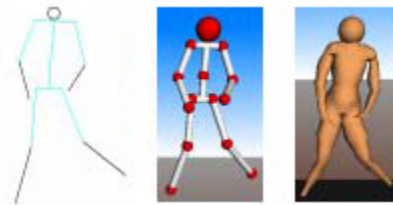


Figure 2-2: Stick figure animation process (modified from [14]).

A natural extension of determining suitable clothing sizes from 3D body scans is to animate the mannequins wearing clothing and accurately model the clothing behavior in response. Segmenting the 3D body scan into suitable sections for animation has been explored to some extent, particularly with the goal of automating the process. Ju, et al. [8] devised such a method which involved “firing” rays from the center of a lateral slice of the 3D body scan. The number of surface intersections the ray encountered dictated where on the body scan the slice was (see Fig. 2-3). For example, starting the process from the feet of the model and working vertically towards the head, the final cross-section in which two individual hulls were identified was the upper limit for the legs, and

the lateral slice that represented the final cross-section in which three individual hulls were identified was the upper edge upper or lower bound of a body segment. This allowed segmentation of a 3D body scan into the legs, arms and torso. Further refinement of the legs and arms was achieved by analyzing a vertical profile of the body scan edge and determining where the direction of the body surface changes, which signifies the elbow or knees.

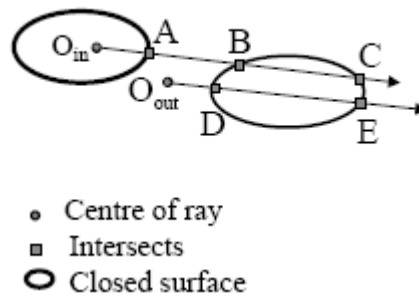


Figure 2-3: Ray casting example [8]. The location of the ray origin can be determined by the number of surface intersections encountered at each lateral slice, which is then used to automatically determine the location of the lateral slice with respect to the rest of the body scan.

Nurre [17] achieved similar results using a different method of automatic segmentation, though refinement of the arms and legs required limited user input through a graphical user interface. Nurre's methodology created hulls that encompassed all of the data points of a given lateral slice and compared the all-encompassing hull to the individual surface outlines of the body scan to distinguish the separate segments.

Clothing the mannequin prior to a mannequin-clothing interaction analysis is also a complex process that has seen research efforts towards the goal of automating the process. Groß, et al. [5] proposed that a system of body landmarks be used to assemble clothing onto the mannequin. Bounding cylinders were placed around the body parts, to

which the garment pieces would be fit and virtually sewn together as necessary. Garments were placed into one of four categories, each using specific sets of landmarks to properly place the garment onto the mannequin.

Despite significant advances in clothing modeling in terms of both realism of the mannequin and the clothing behavior, very little work has been reported on the resistance that clothing forces onto the wearer. Man, et al. [13] successfully modeled the resistance a pair of pants exerts on a mannequin when walking and stepping over an obstacle, with the mannequin represented by ellipsoids and animated via motion capture data (see Fig. 2-4). The clothing was modeled as an elastic medium comprised of shell finite elements undergoing frictional contact with the ellipsoidal body segments. The clothing contact forces on the ellipsoids were resolved into mannequin joint torques.

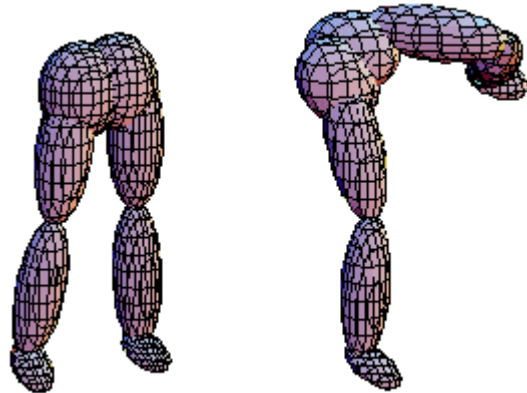


Figure 2-4: Mannequin animation snapshots [13]. The lower body was modeled solely using ellipsoids and animated with motion capture data.

Seo, et al. [21] looked at the pressure exerted by tight-fitting clothing onto various-sized mannequins derived from body scans, with the clothing modeled as a mass-spring system. The model was validated by comparing the results of a simulation to real

measurements of the pressure exerted by cloth onto a cylinder. It is noted that the work of Seo, et al. [21] did not involve an animated mannequin and the work of Man, et al. [11] modeled the mannequin with simple ellipsoids and not a realistic human body scan.

A variety of research has been reviewed and presented here, offering different methods of accomplishing the same goals being explored in this thesis, as well as investigation of research areas that could benefit from the work presented in this thesis. This review serves as a good departure point and helps to explain why the methods used herein were chosen by the author, and how these methods relate to others used in the past.

CHAPTER 3

BODY SCAN PREPARATION

3.1 Body Scan Composition

The body scans used herein were obtained via laser scan devices at the Cornell University College of Human Ecology operated by Prof. Susan Ashdown. An initial scan was obtained in July of 2006 on “Bob” and a later scan was obtained in November of 2007 on “Lisa.” Between the two scans, the laboratory upgraded its scanner to the NX16 model produced by TC-Squared of Cary, NC. The NX16 is capable of scanning a human subject complete in 8 seconds, with accuracies within 1mm for a single point and 3mm circumferentially, and resolving up to 1 million points [24].

For ease of implementing the procedures outlined in this thesis, it is important that the body scan be obtained such that the following three defining body features each be aligned with a global coordinate system axis: the scan subject frontal direction, the lateral direction (defined by a segment between the two shoulders), and the vertical direction (the direction of the subject height). Although the specific axis that corresponds to each of these three major body axes is not important, the same three axes must be aligned with the global coordinate system in some manner in order to implement the procedures outlined henceforth. In this thesis, the x-axis is chosen arbitrarily to coincide with the frontal direction, with the positive direction coinciding with the viewing direction of the subject, the y-axis is chosen as aligned with the lateral direction, with the positive direction defined from the right shoulder to the left shoulder of the subject, and the z-

direction is oriented in the vertical direction, with the positive direction coinciding with that of the subject height (see Fig. 3-1).

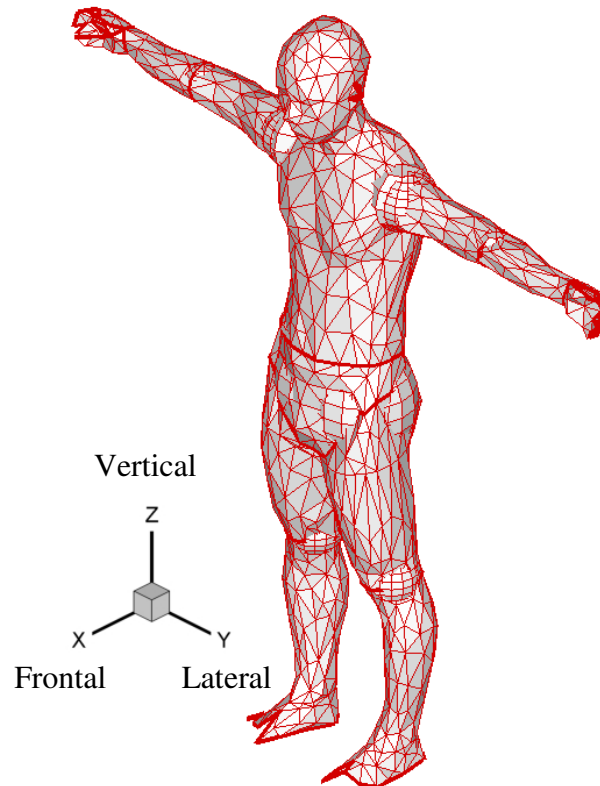


Figure 3-1: The neutral posture with standard axis definition. A standard starting posture and coordinate system is needed for consistency between animation data sets.

The three principle body planes, the coronal, sagittal, and transverse planes, are also used as visual references for the reader throughout many of the proceeding methodologies and algorithms. These planes are oriented along the y-z, x-z, and x-y planes of Fig. 3-1, respectively. The median plane is defined as the sagittal plane that bisects the human subject. This specific orientation should be assumed by the reader unless explicitly stated otherwise in this text for terminological consistency. Furthermore, axes displayed in subsequent images of this thesis are present solely to aid

the reader in gaining a 3D perspective of the image and are therefore unlabeled. Finally, the location of the origin of the global coordinate axes is arbitrary, though for convenience it is suggested that it be placed such that all model coordinates are non-negative.

The scanning software provided by TC-Squared is capable of providing the body scan data in multiple formats. Due to the author's familiarity with the AutoCAD software, the files were obtained in the Drawing Interchange Format (DXF), allowing for easy manipulation of the body scans for the purposes of this research. The body scan data itself is given as nodal coordinates and 3D faces in the form of triangular polygons, though AutoCAD defines 3D faces in terms of 4 nodal coordinates, meaning that the 3rd and 4th coordinates of each 3D face are identical in this case. Subsequently, software written for this thesis is capable of handling 3-noded and 4-noded polygons.

The scanned meshes produced by the TC-Squared scanners contain more than 230,000 polygons. Although this level of model precision satisfies a goal of this thesis, specifically in animating and modeling mannequin-clothing interaction with high-resolution body scans for the purpose of improved simulation accuracy, 230,000 polygons is a much finer resolution than is needed. Therefore, and in order to complete the procedures outlined in this chapter as well as obtain simulation results in a suitable amount of time while maintaining reasonable accuracy, the original mesh was coarsened using Rational Reducer, software that maintains the shape of a 3D mesh while significantly reducing the polygon count [23]. Using this software, the polygon count of the "Bob" scan was reduced from 230,000 to around 2,000 (see Fig. 3-2). Similar coarsening was performed on the "Lisa" scan as well.

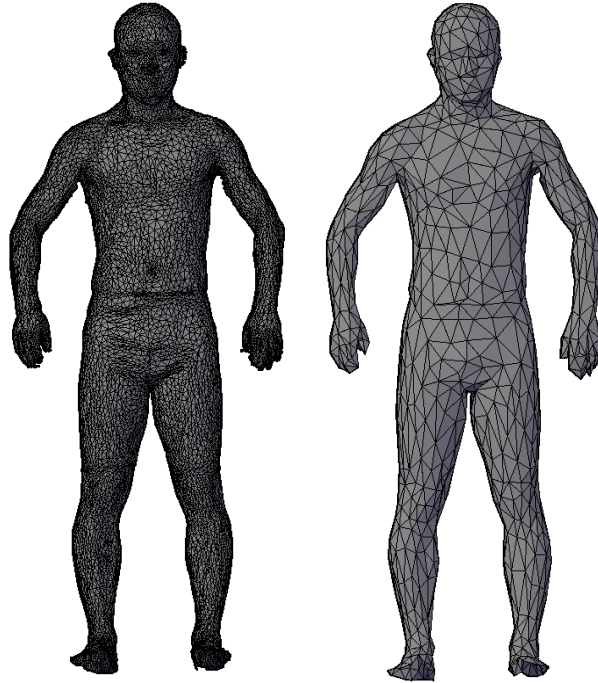


Figure 3-2: Mesh coarsening comparison. The mesh on the left has over 230,000 polygons, whereas the mesh on the right has only 2,000 while still maintaining a visually similar surface geometry.

3.2 Body Scan Reconstruction

Although the laser body scanning system is a fast and accurate way to obtain body scans, it is presently limited by its ability to scan surfaces that are parallel or near-parallel with the scanning laser. This leads to gaps in the mesh at surface locations such as the tops of shoulders, feet, and head of the subject. Such holes in the mesh are increasingly more tedious to fix the finer the mesh resolution as more polygons would be needed to patch the gaps. No automatic patching algorithms were used in this research for simplicity and because of the inherent problems in them that will be discussed later in this chapter, and manual patching was not performed until the mesh was coarsened (recall Fig. 3-2), significantly reducing the number of polygons that needed to be manipulated to

repair and segment the mannequin mesh. Indeed, after mesh coarsening, the majority of gaps in the body scan mesh were easily replaced with only a few polygons.

In addition to the difficulties in scanning lateral surfaces, the dimensions of space that can be scanned are limited to about the size of a telephone booth. If the subject were to be scanned with the arms fully outstretched (in the neutral posture), part of the arms would protrude from the scanning volume. This forces the scanning subject to keep the arms angled downwards (recall Fig. 3-2), and therefore requires that the mesh be manipulated to fully extend the arms laterally to achieve the neutral posture. In the future, having a standard posture that applies to both scan subjects and animation data set would ensure compatibility between the two and expedite the alignment process presented in Chapter 4.

Typically, the only portion of the body that needs to be realigned to fit the neutral position is the arms, and this can easily be achieved by locating the approximate joint center of each shoulder and rotating the respective arms about this point until they are pointed directly outward in the lateral direction; naturally, this rotation would occur within the coronal plane. Locating the joint center of the shoulders with high precision is not necessary as the area around the shoulders will need to be repaired regardless due to the aforementioned unscannable surfaces and because the mesh polygons near the shoulder will no longer be plum.

For a number of reasons, scanners have difficulty capturing the body surface geometry around the shoulders. Two such reasons for this difficulty are that the top of the shoulders are nearly level with the scan direction, as previously mentioned. Another is that the arms themselves obstruct the line of sight of the scanner to the armpit region.

These difficulties in scanning the shoulder and armpit region of the human body necessitate patching and repair of the body scan. In repairing and patching the body scan in this region, the gross symmetry that exists in the human subject should be preserved. To accomplish this goal, a systematic procedure was developed to restore the symmetry of a mannequin at the shoulders, based upon the global coordinate system alignment suggested at the beginning of this chapter.

The shoulder with the most complete mesh (the one with the smallest portion of mesh missing) is subjectively chosen to become the “prototype” and will be used to reconstruct the opposing shoulder via cloning and mirroring. It is not necessary that the more complete shoulder be selected as the prototype, but doing so will shorten the length of time required to finish the proceeding patching and repair methodology. Fig. 3-3 shows the completed shoulder (the right shoulder, in this case) being used to reconstruct the opposite shoulder in the following example. When the shoulder is complete on one side, it will be delimited by a set of nodes forming a boundary between one body segment (the torso) and the next (an arm) in the shape of a roughly circular opening, referred to in this section as the *shoulder boundary*. The nodes defining the shoulder boundary will be referred to as *shoulder boundary nodes*. When the individual sections of the body produced by segmentation are formally introduced as *body segments* later in this chapter, these boundaries will be referred to as *body segment edges*.

The shoulder boundary delimitation for the prototype shoulder will lie in a sagittal plane a certain distance away from the medial plane of the body scan mesh. When reconstructing the mesh of the opposing shoulder, the new shoulder boundary will be a mirror image of the prototype’s shoulder boundary and will lie in a sagittal plane the

same distance removed from the medial plane as the prototype. To begin the symmetry reconstruction, rays are extended laterally from each of the prototype shoulder's boundary nodes toward the boundary sagittal plane of the opposing shoulder. If the mannequin is scanned with the global axes as shown in Fig. 3-1, these rays will be along the global y-axis, or in the lateral direction. The intersection of these rays with the sagittal plane at the shoulder-arm transition of the incomplete shoulder (see Fig. 3-4) forms the basis of the new shoulder cross-section (see Fig. 3-5). In this case incomplete shoulder had a wider boundary (opening at the upper arm) than that of the complete shoulder. The new shoulder boundary, shown in Fig. 3-5, is created by connecting the shoulder boundary nodes by a sequence of line segments in the sagittal plane.

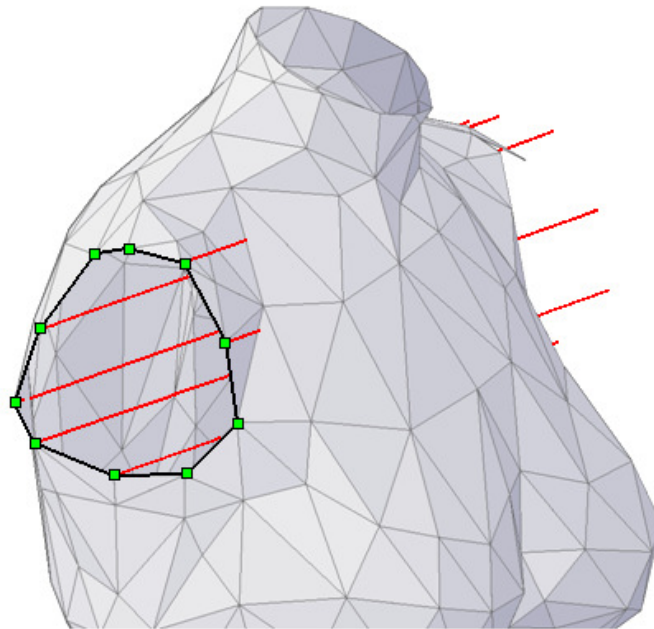


Figure 3-3: The complete right shoulder being used to reconstruct the incomplete scan of the left shoulder. The shoulder boundary shown lies in a sagittal plane and its mirror image will lie in a similar plane. Rays are extended laterally from each shoulder node through the sagittal plane of the opposing shoulder. The prototype shoulder edge and the edge nodes, from which the shoulder projections are drawn, are highlighted. The shoulder projections are depicted by the parallel lines, which lie in coronal planes.

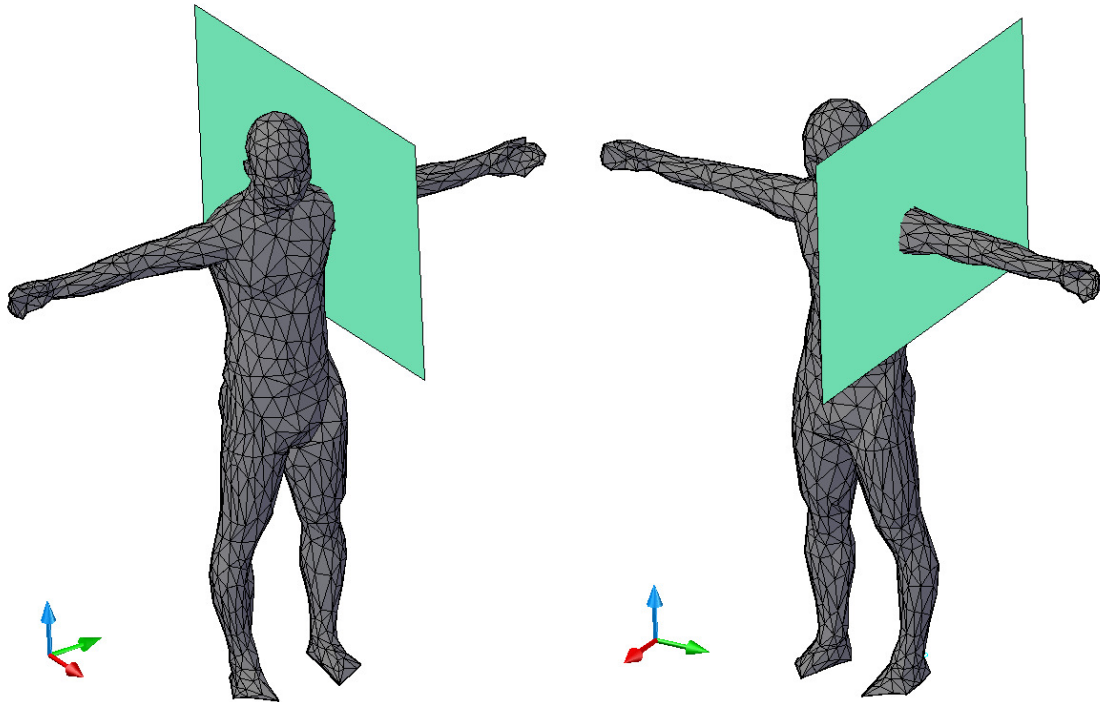


Figure 3-4: Intersection of sagittal plane with body scan at the incomplete shoulder boundary. The sagittal plane pictured is located at the incomplete shoulder boundary, where the new shoulder boundary is to be formed based upon projections from the prototype shoulder.

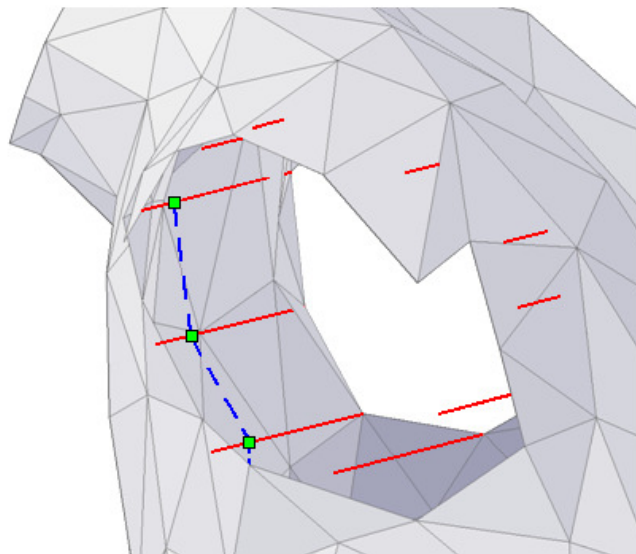


Figure 3-5: Formation of the new shoulder boundary. The prototype shoulder node extensions are again depicted as the parallel lines, with a portion of the new shoulder boundary represented by the dashed line. The first three nodes that will comprise the new shoulder opening are highlighted with square symbols.

Because the new shoulder boundary lies within a sagittal plane, the comprising line segments, which will later become polygon edges of the new shoulder, are perpendicular to the lateral direction. Thus, creation of the new shoulder boundary that defines the upper arm opening only requires knowing the intersection points between a sagittal plane at the new shoulder and the lateral rays extended from the shoulder boundary nodes of the prototype shoulder. Ideally, the location of the sagittal plane in which the reconstructed shoulder boundary will reside should be the same distance from the medial plane of the body scan as that of the prototype shoulder. In actuality, this can be estimated by the user to achieve gross symmetry. Once the boundary of the to-be-reconstructed shoulder has been completed, as shown in Fig. 3-6, the next step is to reshape the torso portion of the mesh to conform to it.

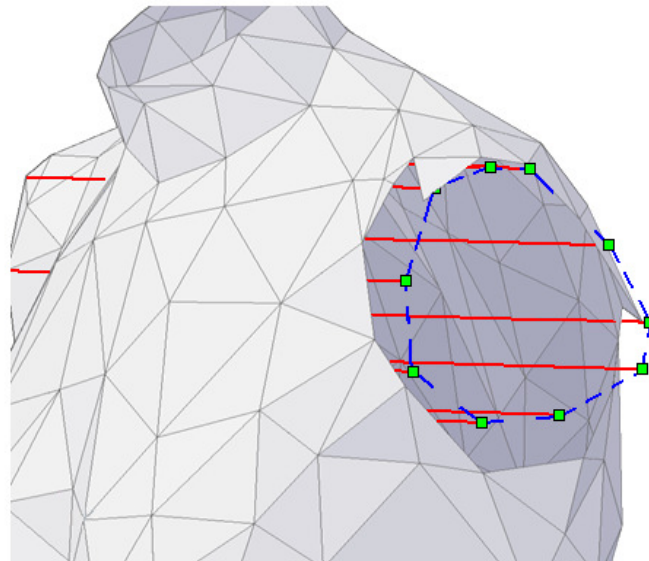


Figure 3-6: Completed shoulder boundary extrapolation. The completed boundary is represented by the dashed line. The vertices of the new shoulder boundary are highlighted by square symbols, and the shoulder node extensions are depicted by solid, parallel lines. The new shoulder boundary occurs at the intersection between the shoulder node extensions and the mirrored sagittal plane (recall Fig. 3-4).

The nodes of existing mesh polygons can either be moved to coincide with the new shoulder boundary nodes, or new polygons can be introduced to fill in the region between the new boundary and the existing mesh. It is suggested that this be done so as to maintain consistency in the polygon size for the purposes of contact modeling. For example, if an existing polygon is close to the new shoulder boundary, the polygon should be manipulated such that either a polygon edge or a polygon node coincides with the new shoulder boundary. Fig. 3-7 shows all of the mesh polygons that have been adapted in this manner.

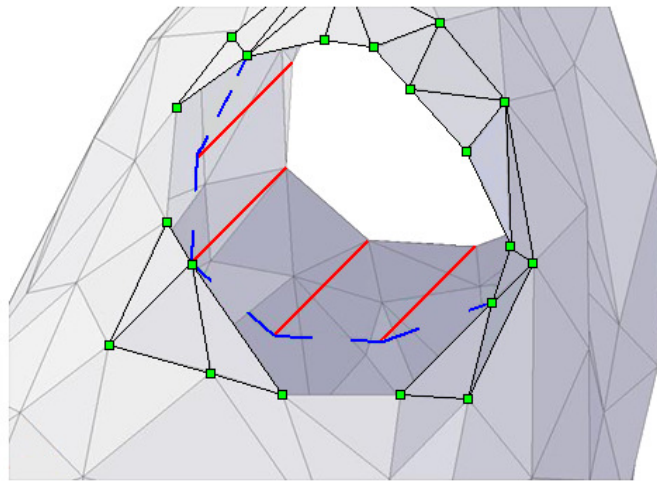


Figure 3-7: Mesh reshaping with relocation of existing nodes to coincide with the shoulder boundary nodes. The modified mesh polygons are highlighted with square symbols at the vertices and darkened polygon edges. The dashed line signifies the remaining portions of the shoulder boundary to which additional polygons need to be aligned.

The remaining spaces were judged too large to cover with existing polygons, so new polygons were created to complete the shoulder reconstruction. Four such polygons are shown in Fig. 3-8 and Fig. 3-9 each. The completed shoulder reconstruction is shown in Fig. 3-10.

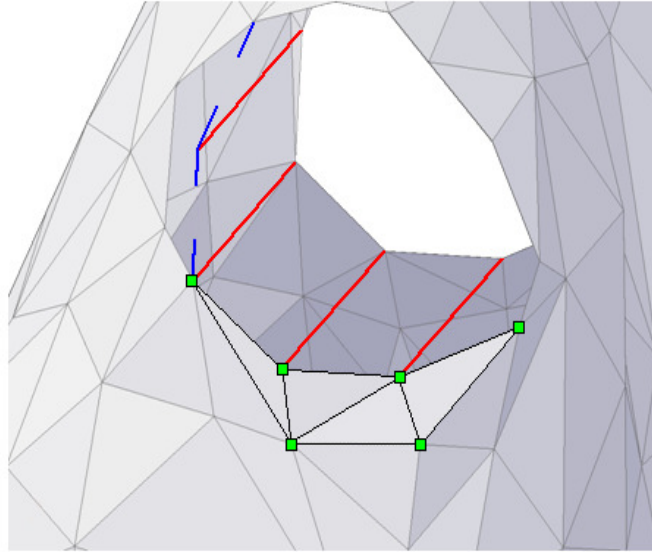


Figure 3-8: Shoulder reshaping with addition of new polygons. The node projections are depicted by the solid, parallel lines, and the added polygons are highlighted with square symbols at the vertices and darkened polygon edges. The dashed line represent the portion of the new shoulder boundary yet to be completed.

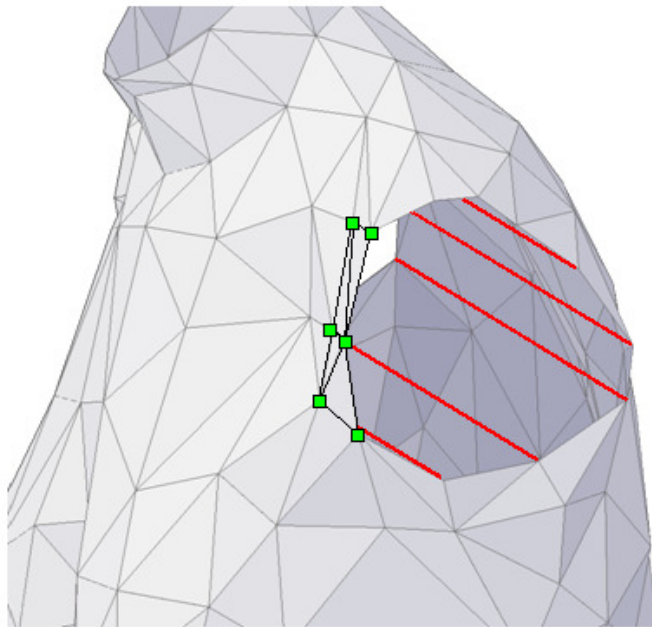


Figure 3-9: Shoulder reshaping with the final set of polygon additions. The node projections are depicted by the solid, parallel lines and the added polygons are highlighted with square symbols at the vertices and darkened polygon edges. The polygons highlighted comprise the final part of the new shoulder boundary, completing the reconstruction procedure.

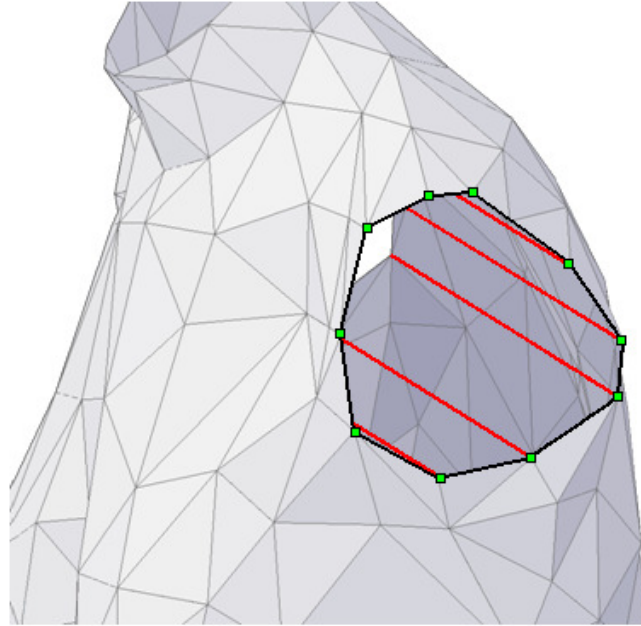


Figure 3-10: Completed reconstruction of the shoulder. The shoulder boundary nodes are highlighted with square symbols at the vertices and a darkened border over the boundary. This boundary coincides with the intersection of the sagittal plane and the body scan mesh depicted in Fig. 3-4.

With gross shoulder symmetry obtained through reconstruction, the meshes of both upper arms should be repaired. The same procedure used in reshaping the shoulder mesh around the shoulder boundary should be used here in reshaping the upper arm mesh. This again requires a decision on whether to create new polygons or to move the nodes of existing polygons to conform to the upper arm boundaries. This procedure is sufficient for the upper surface of the arms as the gap is typically small. The gap in the armpit region, however, is comparatively large and thus requires a new procedure for repair.

The underarm portions of the mesh can be extrapolated to completeness in much the same way that the shoulder was reconstructed to provide symmetry via node projections. First, one must identify nodes on both the upper arm boundary and shoulder

boundary that define body scan mesh contour changes. Such nodes will be termed *surface shape-identifying (SSI) nodes*. The necessary and sufficient condition for a boundary node to be an SSI node is that it not be collinear with its two adjacent nodes (see Fig. 3-11). The nodes on the boundary of the incomplete portion of the upper arm mesh are then connected to suitable SSI nodes of the shoulder boundary with line segments that will serve as the contour edges for the new underarm shape (see Fig. 3-12).

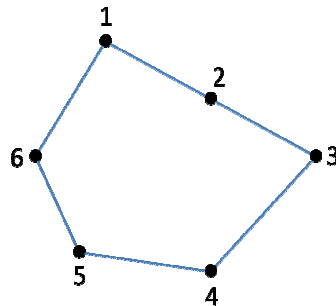


Figure 3-11: Graphical explanation of SSI nodes. In the cross-section above, only node 2 is a non-SSI node because it is collinear with nodes 1 and 3.

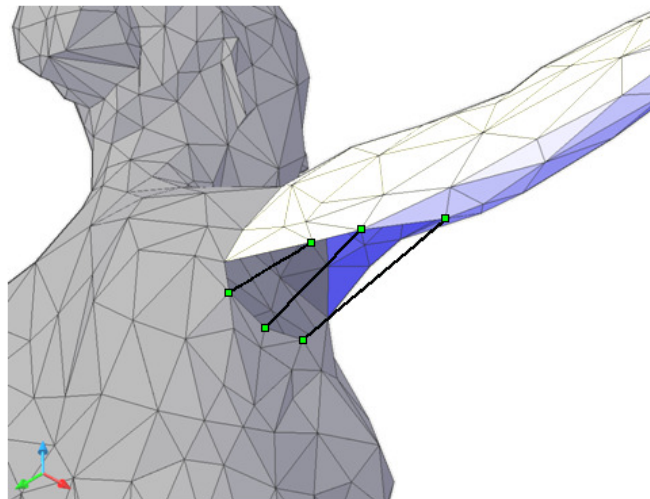


Figure 3-12: Mannequin arm mesh gap. The gap region is exposed after the arm is moved from the scan posture into the neutral posture. The SSI node connections are depicted by three, near-parallel lines spanning the under arm gap in the body scan mesh. The corresponding SSI nodes are highlighted by squares.

With the SSI node connected, new polygons, whose edges and nodes lie on the SSI node links, are created to fill the gap in the mesh. Again, care should be taken to maintain consistency in the size and shape of the mesh elements. Fig. 3-13 shows the upper arm mesh once reconstruction has been completed.

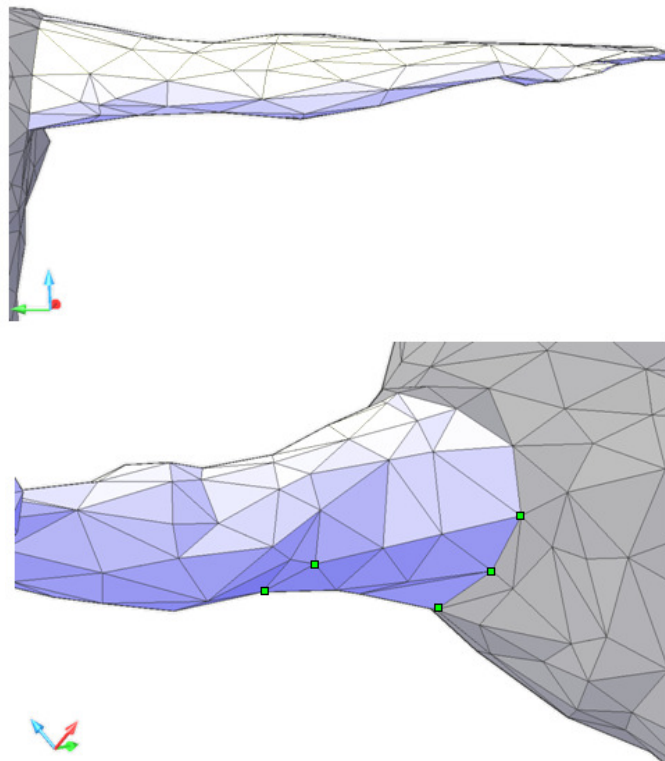


Figure 3-13: Reconstructed right arm of the mannequin. The first image is a posterior view of the mannequin and the second is a perspective view from the anterior of the mannequin, looking upwards towards the underarm. The SSI nodes used to reconstruct the armpit region that are visible from the angle in the second image are highlighted with squares.

3.3 Body Scan Segmentation

In addition to reducing the eventual computation times in clothing-body interaction models, reducing the polygon count of the body mesh also makes segmentation of the mannequin into separate body parts much more manageable.

Segmentation, as alluded to earlier, is the process by which a body scan is separated into specific, well-defined entities (see Fig. 3-14 for a diagram of the body segment names and locations used in this research). Each of these segments spans major joints of the body and will eventually be animated with a set of 3 data points each, termed *control points*, to produce a fully-animated mannequin. Each body segment is bounded by one or more *body segment edges*, located at the mannequin-equivalent locations of human body joints, and are closed curves analogous to the shoulder boundaries and the upper arm boundaries discussed in the previous section (see Fig. 3-15 for body segment edge names and locations used in this research).

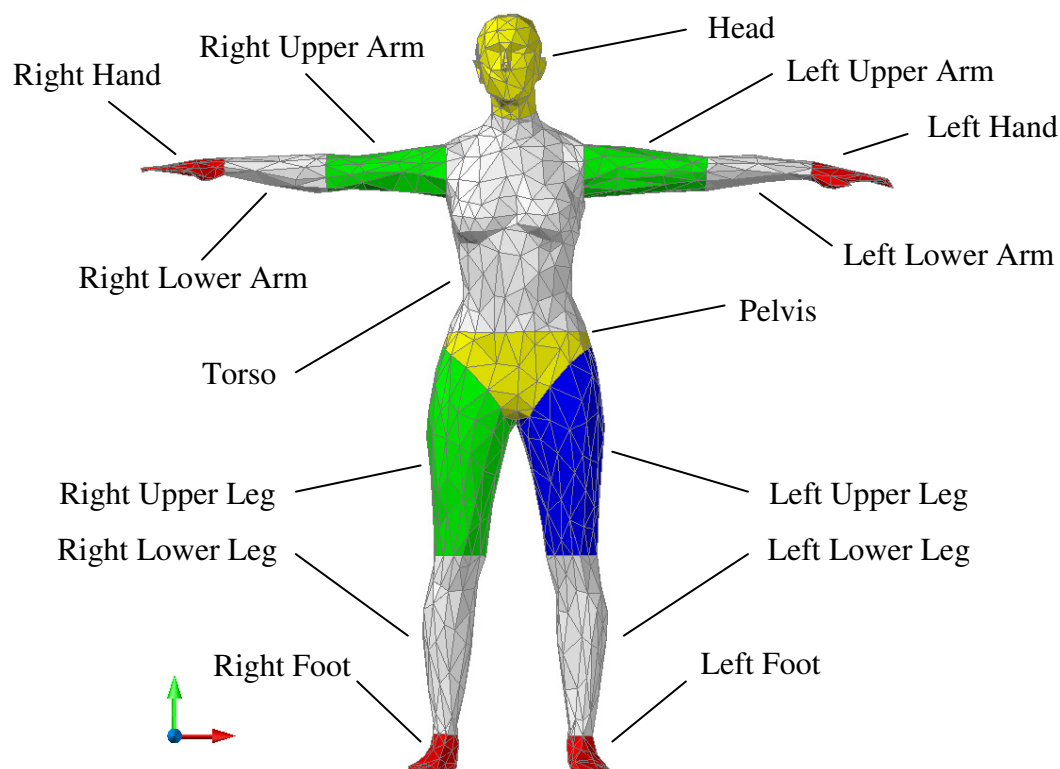


Figure 3-14: Diagram of body segments. All body segments are animated independently except for the hands, feet, and head, which are animated in tandem with their adjacent body segments. The hands are animated with their respective adjacent lower arm segments, the feet with their respective adjacent lower leg segments, and the head with the torso segment.

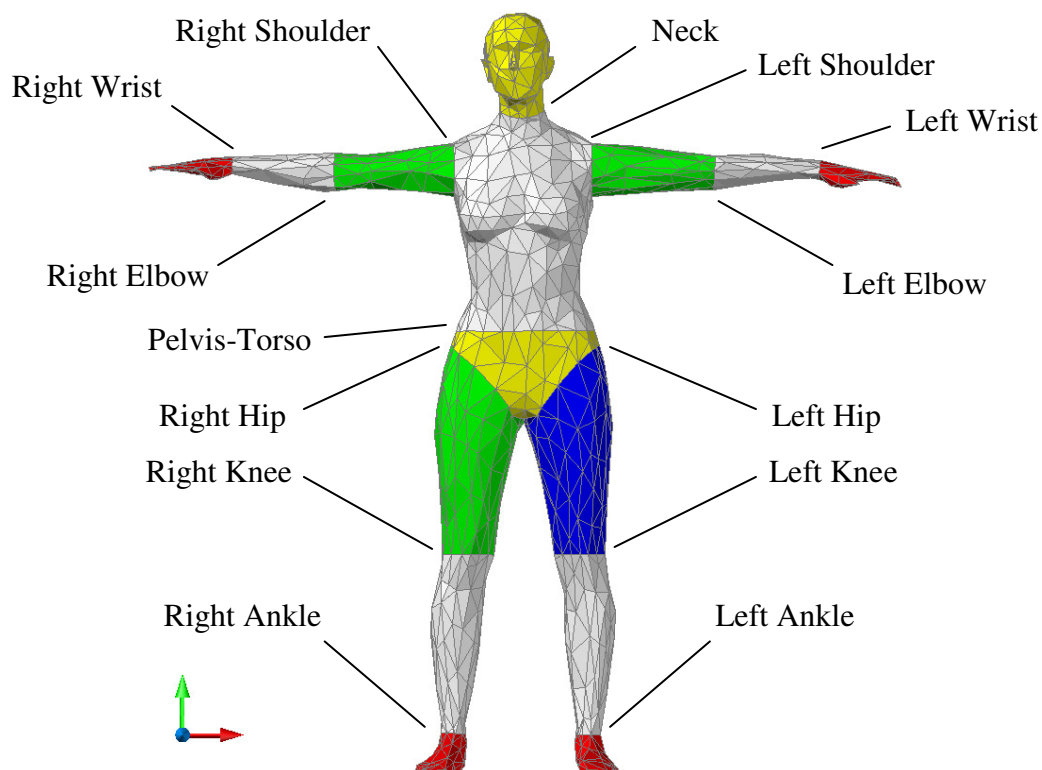


Figure 3-15: Diagram of body segment edges. In the neutral posture, all body segment edges except those of the hips lie within either a sagittal plane or a transverse plane.

For example, the left upper arm body segment spans from the left elbow to the left shoulder of the mannequin. The geometric centroids of the body segment edges should thus coincide with the mannequin-equivalent of the corresponding skeletal joint centers (a feature that will be used later for mesh alignment and again in Chapter 4 for animation purposes). Exceptions do occur, however, particularly at the neck and pelvis-torso body segment edges where the centroids do not align with the joint centers as the spine, which the joint centers follow, is situated at the dorsal side of the torso rather than the middle. In fact, the neck and pelvis-torso body segment edges were directly aligned with their joint center counterparts. The hip control points can also exhibit discrepancies when compared to their joint center equivalents, but can still be used for mesh alignment as will be outlined in detail later.

For the purposes of animation, the mannequin is composed of ten independently-animated body segments: the torso (includes the neck and head), the two lower arms (includes the hands), the two upper arms, the pelvis, the two upper legs, and the two lower legs (includes the feet). The rigid body motion assumption utilized in the animation algorithm used herein creates gaps that cannot be ignored as the clothing may get caught between segments during simulation. Employing time-consuming solutions such as skinning, a generic term for any process through which gaps in the mesh are covered by the creation and manipulation of polygons over and near the animation-created gaps, will create unnecessary complexity in the model and potential problems with contact modeling algorithms, so a simple method of patching these gaps and overlaps was developed. The choice of segmentation presented herein promotes the formation of easily-patchable, arc-shaped gaps, thereby avoiding use of more complex patching techniques. For example, when the upper and lower arm segments undergo relative rotations about the elbow body segment edge, a gap will be created having the shape of an arc (see Fig. 3-16). Such arc-shaped gaps will allow for patching with simple geometries such as spheres and ellipsoids.

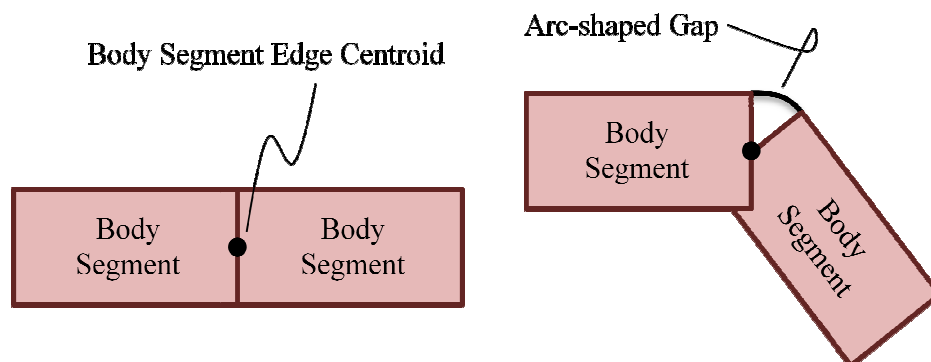


Figure 3-16: Example of an arc-shaped gap. This gap is created as one segment rotates about the joint centroid with respect to an adjacent segment.

Because the mannequin model assumes rigid body motion, the mesh surface does not adjust to conform to new shapes brought about during animation, thereby forming the previously-mentioned gaps in the mesh surface during animation. The desire to create arc-shaped gaps during the animation is used as a guideline in determining the configuration of the body segment edges. Investigation revealed that the body segment edge configuration presented in Figures 3-14 and 3-15 is a good solution for creating the desired gap curves during animation. To this end, with the mannequin in the neutral posture, the elbow, wrist, and shoulder body segment edges are aligned with the sagittal plane, and the neck, torso-pelvis joint, knee, and ankle body segment edges are aligned laterally.

The hips are the only body segment edges that are not easily determined because of the uniquely large range of motion possible at the hip. Trial and error was necessary to determine an acceptable body segment edge alignment, whereby various alignments of the edges were tested and the one producing the most-easily patched gap was chosen. It was determined that a plane with a normal of $\tilde{n}_{RH} = (0, -1, -1)$ for the right hip and $\tilde{n}_{LH} = (0, 1, -1)$ for the left hip, using the axes defined in Fig. 3-17, are effective body segment edge planes for the frontal side of the mannequin, with the dorsal portion of the body segment edge occurring along a transverse plane (see Fig. 3-17). This unique segmentation, although complicated at first glance, follows the general contour of the body scan polygons in the pelvis region. That is to say, the surface contours of the pelvis region lend themselves to being segmented as depicted as in Fig. 3-16. This segmentation creates a visually realistic animation in terms of segment overlapping and the size and shape of the gaps created during animation, in that despite the non-uniform

body segment edge the two hip body segment edges can be patched with a single ellipsoid at each hip.

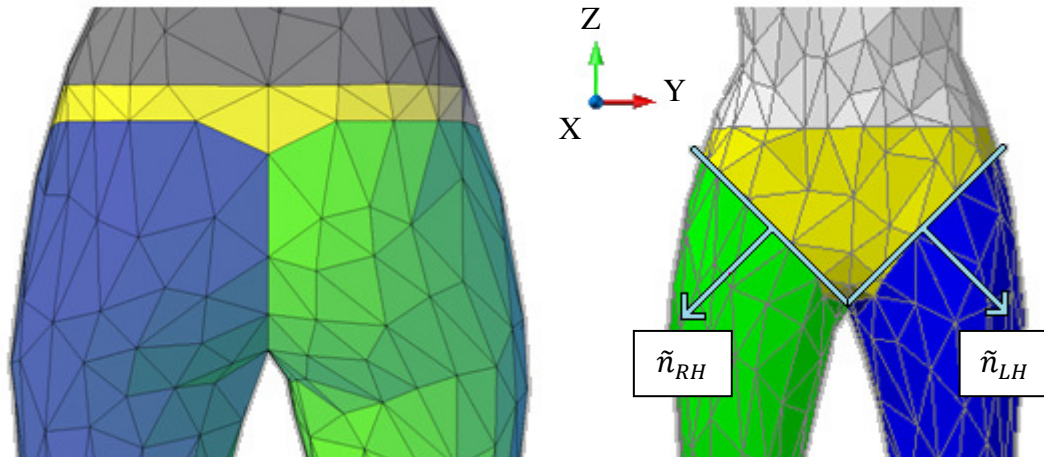


Figure 3-17: Front (right) and rear (left) view of the pelvis segment. The pelvis body segment is the middle segment in both views. Animations of the two models made using this segmentation yielded visually accurate results in both the legs, pelvis, and buttocks.

The division of the body scan mesh into the aforementioned segments is performed by creating planes of the necessary orientation through the desired body segment edge locations of the body scan mesh, exactly as was done with the shoulder symmetry reconstruction outlined earlier (recall Fig. 3-4). The mesh polygons that intersect with the planes are then either divided to create polygon edges conforming to the new body segment edge or, if the polygon nodes of the neighboring body segment edges are close enough to the plane to warrant it, the nodes are moved to lie concurrent with the planes designating the body segment edges. Similar judgment as was used during the shoulder reshaping procedure regarding whether a new polygon is needed or current ones can be modified during shoulder reshaping was used for this procedure.

AutoCAD was again the 3D modeling software chosen by the author to complete the segmentation procedure.

A key advantage of the segmentation methodology presented in this thesis is that it avoids the commonly used solution of skinning. Skinning techniques are often automated in that little to no user input is required, particularly when compared to the methodologies presented in this thesis for accomplishing the same tasks; however, utilization of skinning to patch animation gaps in the mesh is avoided as it can create complications during contact modeling because the number of polygons, nodes, and their respective alignments and ordering can change between time steps in the animation due to the manipulation of the mesh inherent with skinning. In addition, the skinning process adds computation time as new surface geometries must be updated at each time step. In the case of the contact algorithm of [11], a morphing surface geometry can lead to problems during mannequin-clothing interaction models whereby the mannequin mesh polygon nearest a clothing surface node may change too quickly for the contact algorithm to compensate.

Furthermore, although a few algorithms have been presented to automatically segment virtual mannequins, each presents its own flaws if extended for use in this research, particularly in creating the need for skinning rather than the simple approach presented later in this chapter, whereby spheres and ellipsoids are used to patch animation gaps. An example of such a potentially-problematic automatic segmentation algorithm is the work in [8] presented earlier and depicted in Fig. 3-18, as it creates an undesirable situation at the shoulders and pelvis, where the automated segmentation occurs laterally. For small arm and leg movements (relative to their initial positions) this is acceptable as

little overlapping of segments occurs and the gaps formed are very small and therefore do not require advanced patching techniques such as skinning. However, when the appendages undergo a wider range of motion, this can cause the segments to intersect with each other or create unnatural or large gaps between segments that would require skinning or some other mesh-adjusting algorithm due to the oddity of the gaps or overlaps created.



Figure 3-18: Ray casting automated segmentation result [8]. The horizontal transitions between the torso, arms, and legs make it difficult to animate the mannequin without experiencing significant overlap or gaps that are difficult to patch without more complex methods.

3.4 Spherical and Ellipsoidal Joint Segments

As previously mentioned, a simple-yet-effective solution is needed to prevent the clothing from getting caught between segments during analysis, while maintaining as much of a visual realism in the animation as possible. In other words, the solution needs to have the patching elements present at all time, but only to appear or become operative when gaps are formed due to relative movement of the body segments. The method

chosen for fulfilling these goals is to use ellipsoids and spheres that are animated in tandem with the body segments they are meant to patch.

Spheres are placed at joints with circular-shaped cross-sections (e.g. the elbow and knee body segment edges), and ellipsoids placed at the joints with ellipsoidal-shaped cross-sections (e.g. the pelvis-torso and hip body segment edges). The placement of both the ellipsoids and spheres were found to work well when located at the body segment edge centroids. The radius of the spheres were be taken as the average distance between opposing nodes in the circular cross-section (see Fig. 3-19), and the ellipsoid dimensions were determined by taking the maximum and minimum distances between opposing nodes in the cross-section (see Fig. 3-20). The third ellipsoid dimension is generally chosen to be the size of the aforementioned minimum distance, creating a circular cross-section to the ellipsoid, though a wider range of values will also work effectively and will be presented shortly. The necessary patch dimensions mentioned above can be easily obtained from a 3D modeling program, such as AutoCAD, as was done in this research.

Although placement of each of these spheres and ellipsoids at the segment joint centroids is generally a good solution, it does not work well for the hips. That is, the centroid of the hip body segment edges provide a good approximation of the vertical and frontal coordinates for placement of the ellipsoid patch, but the patches may need to be situated closer towards the medial plane so as to minimize extrusion of the ellipsoids outside of the mannequin mesh. The hip ellipsoid patches have a circular cross-section in the transverse plane; however, the vertical dimension of the hip body segment edge is significantly larger than the other two dimensions, thus requiring an ellipsoid to be used as a patch at the hips to adequately cover any gaps formed during animation, namely at

the mannequin posterior. In other words, the major axis of these ellipsoidal patches will be positioned vertically, with the other two dimensions of the ellipsoids being equal, thereby creating the circular cross-section of the ellipsoid. This is in contrast to the ellipsoid patch at pelvis-torso body segment edge, which has the largest axis of the ellipsoid oriented laterally.

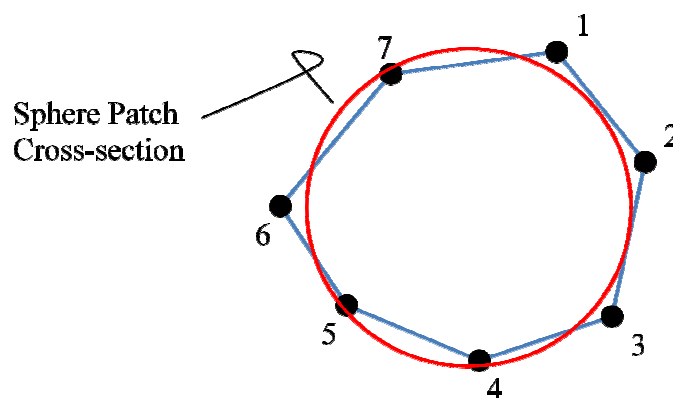


Figure 3-19: Circular mesh segment cross-section. The diameter of the sphere patch element would be obtained by averaging the distance between opposing nodes. In this case one could use the nodal pairs of 7 and 3, 6 and 2, and either 5 and 1 or 4 and 1 to obtain the average distance and thus the nominal diameter of the sphere patch for the body segment edge.

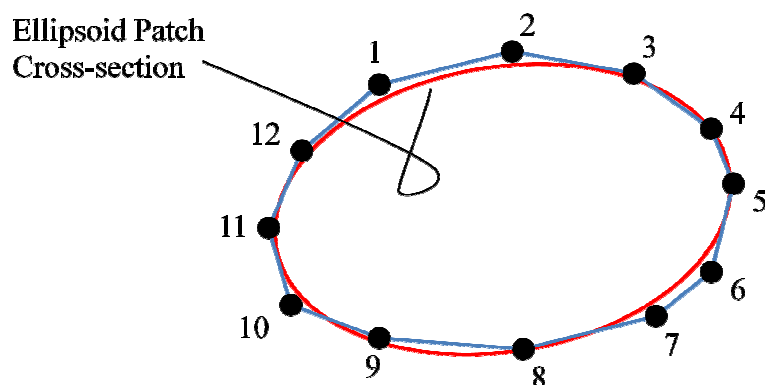


Figure 3-20: Ellipsoidal mesh segment cross-section. The principle axis dimensions of the ellipsoid would be the distance between 2 and 8, and 11 and 5 for the short and long axes, respectively.

The pelvis-torso patches are dimensioned to match the outline of the pelvis-torso body segment edge (see Fig. 3-21). In addition, the vertical dimension of the pelvis-torso ellipsoid patch was found to work well at any value between 50-100% of the minor axis dimension of the ellipsoid within the transverse plane (using 100% would create a circular cross-section along a sagittal plane intersecting the ellipsoid). For the hip animation patches, the lateral dimension can be effectively approximated as the lateral span of the hip body segment edges, as viewed from the front, and the vertical dimension of the ellipsoid patches can be effectively approximated as between 150-200% of the vertical span of the pelvis body segment in frontal view (see Fig. 3-21).

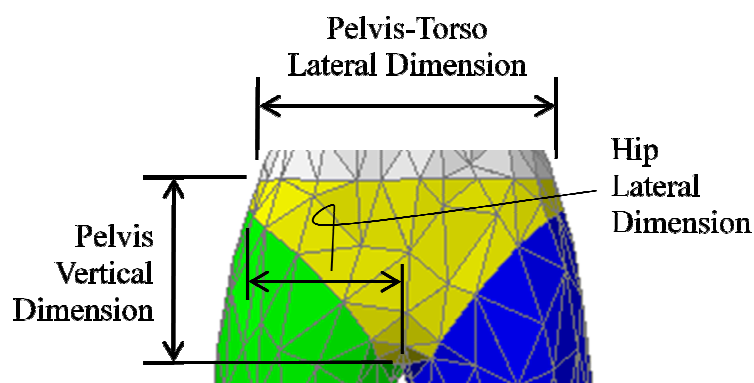


Figure 3-21: Frontal view of the pelvis body segment with noted dimensions used for sizing the animation patches. The dimensions shown are used to gauge the ellipsoid dimensions of the hips and pelvis-torso body segment edge patches.

As mentioned previously, the lateral and frontal dimensions of the hip animation patches are equal. This is because of the inherent circular cross-section to the thigh region of the human body. Fig. 3-22 shows a snapshot of a mannequin in animation, with and without the sphere and ellipsoid patches. Significant animation gaps can be seen at the shoulders, knees, and hips in the unpatched snapshot.

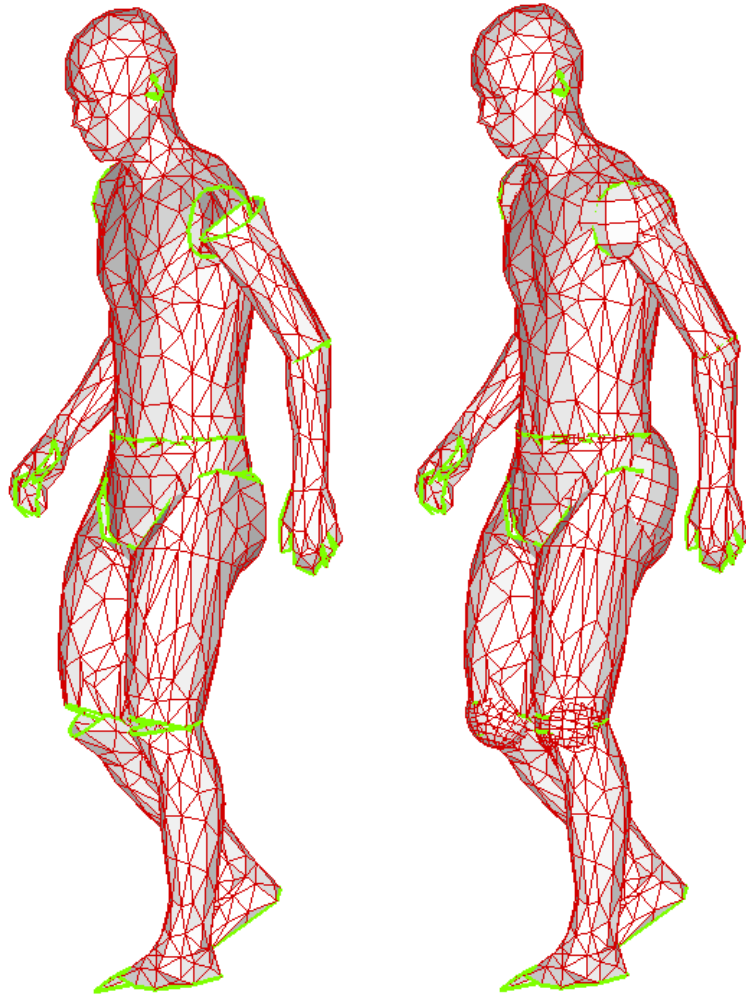


Figure 3-22: Unpatched (left) and patched (right) animation comparison. All patching is done with ellipsoids and spheres. Note the larger gaps in the shoulders and knees. The edges of each body segment are highlighted. This animation snapshot is of the mannequin walking using predicted motion (see [9] and [26]).

Pairs of identically-sized spheres are placed at each of the knee, elbow and shoulder body segment edges; one sphere follows the proximal segment and the other follows the distal segment. The presence of two spheres at each joint helps to offset disconnection of the body segments during animation, which occurs for many reasons, including but not limited to inconsistencies in the animation data and the fact that the animation software developed for this thesis assumes rigid body motion, whereas the

human body is more dynamic. Animation data inconsistencies typically occur with a motion capture source because of the method by which the data is obtained. Cameras track reflective balls at strategic locations on the subject during animation. If these markers are attached to a suit worn by the subject, because the skin stretches across joints the suit may slip along the skin of the subject and thus these reflective balls may not stay at fixed distances from each other throughout the animation. Fig. 3-23 shows a diagram of the degrees of freedom employed in the mannequin animations for this thesis.

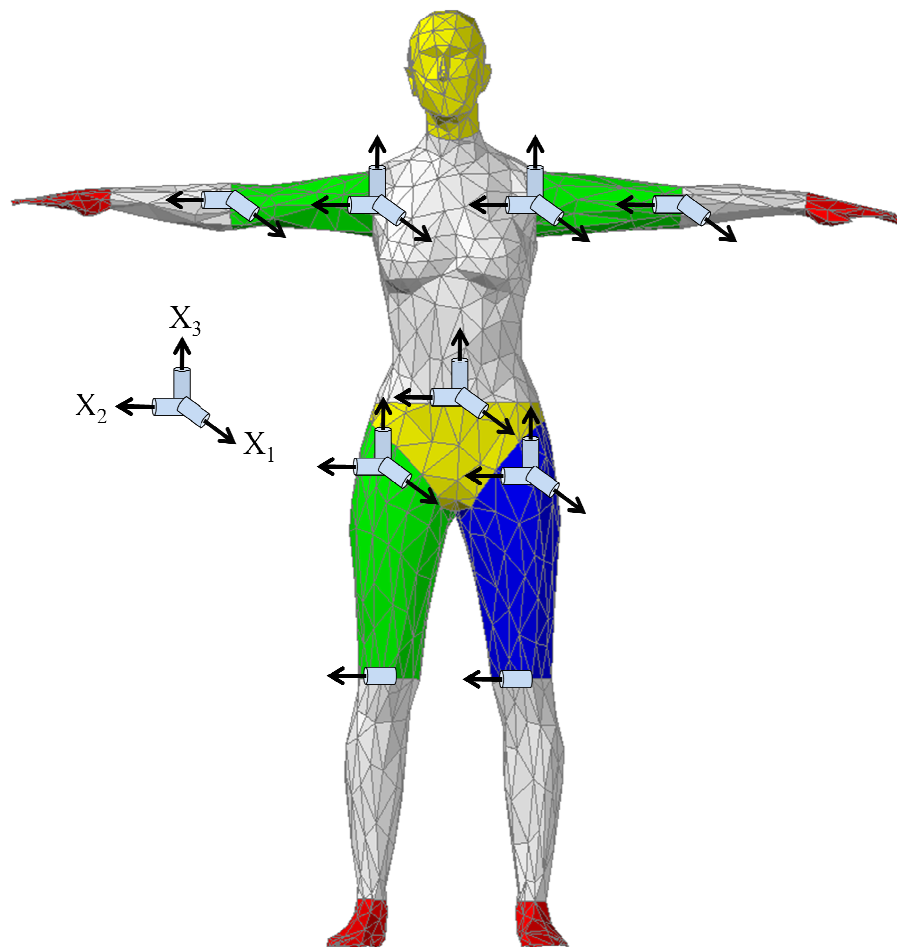


Figure 3-23: Diagram of the degrees of freedom used for mannequin animation. Each axis of rotation indicated in the diagram represents a degree of freedom, with no sign convention implied. Only twenty-one of the 109 degrees of freedom utilized by the VSR group for their DH-driven model at the time of writing this thesis are employed to animate a mannequin herein.

Once the body scan mesh is complete, without any sections of mesh missing, the mannequin properly segmented, and the mannequin patched with simple geometric shapes, each of the body segment edge centroids of the mannequin can be located so that the body scan segments can be moved in tandem with animation. This procedure is discussed in detail in the next chapter along with the data alignment procedure and algorithms developed to allow the mannequin to be animated via multiple data sources – namely predictive dynamics data, developed at the University of Iowa by the Virtual Soldier Research group and based upon a DH kinematics-driven skeletal model, and motion capture data.

CHAPTER 4

VIRTUAL MANNEQUIN ANIMATION

4.1 Orientating the Mannequin Segments

Any animation of a mannequin requires alignment to the data set to be used to animate the mannequin due to differences in coordinate systems and minute differences in posture. This task is accomplished via matching the body segment edge centroids to their respective joint centers, which are represented in the animation data. This is done so that the data points can animate the mesh even for complex motions involving significant translations and rotations of body segments. As mentioned earlier, the human body joint centers are meant to coincide with the centroids of the body segment edges. Thus, alignment of the mannequin body segments to the initial configuration of motion control points requires locating the centroids of each of the body segment edges shown in Fig. 3-15.

If segmentation is completed as outline in the preceding chapters, the body segment edge centroids occur at the human body joints centers (recall Fig. 3-14 and 3-15), which are by default also the location of the DH model joints. The body segment link lengths can then be determined by calculating the distance between proximal and distal body segment edge centroids.

Software has been written to automate the procedure (see Appendix C). The software scans the nodal connectivity of the supplied body segment meshes to first determine which nodes in the mesh are located on the body segment edges. The software then determines the connectivity of these edge nodes so that the centroid of the edge, \tilde{c} ,

and then determines their connectivity so that the centroid of the edge can be determined based upon the weighted average of the polygon edges comprising the body segment edges (see Eq. 4.1).

$$\tilde{c} = \frac{\sum L\tilde{m}}{\sum L} \quad (4.1)$$

In Eq. 4.1, \tilde{c} is the centroid of the body segment edge in terms of global coordinates, L is the scalar length of an edge line segment (a line segment between two edge nodes), and \tilde{m} is the midpoint of an edge segment, also in terms of global coordinates.

Those polygon edges that lie along the body segment edges are easily sorted from the other polygon edges because of their use only once in the entire body segment mesh. Once these unique polygon edges are segregated from the non-unique polygon edges (i.e. polygon edges belonging to multiple polygons in the mesh), the software organizes them in order of connectivity by first arbitrarily picking a unique polygon edge segment from which to start and building upon it until a closed curve is realized, which represents a complete body segment edge. This process is continued until the list of unique polygon edges is exhausted.

With all of the body segment edge centroid locations determined, the alignment of these centroids with the joint centers in the initial posture can be initiated (see Fig. 4-1 for a simplified alignment diagram). The first step in the alignment process is to position the shoulder centroids with their corresponding shoulder initial conditions. This step should be performed with the entire body scan mesh translated to ensure that the body segment orientations with respect to one another remain unchanged.

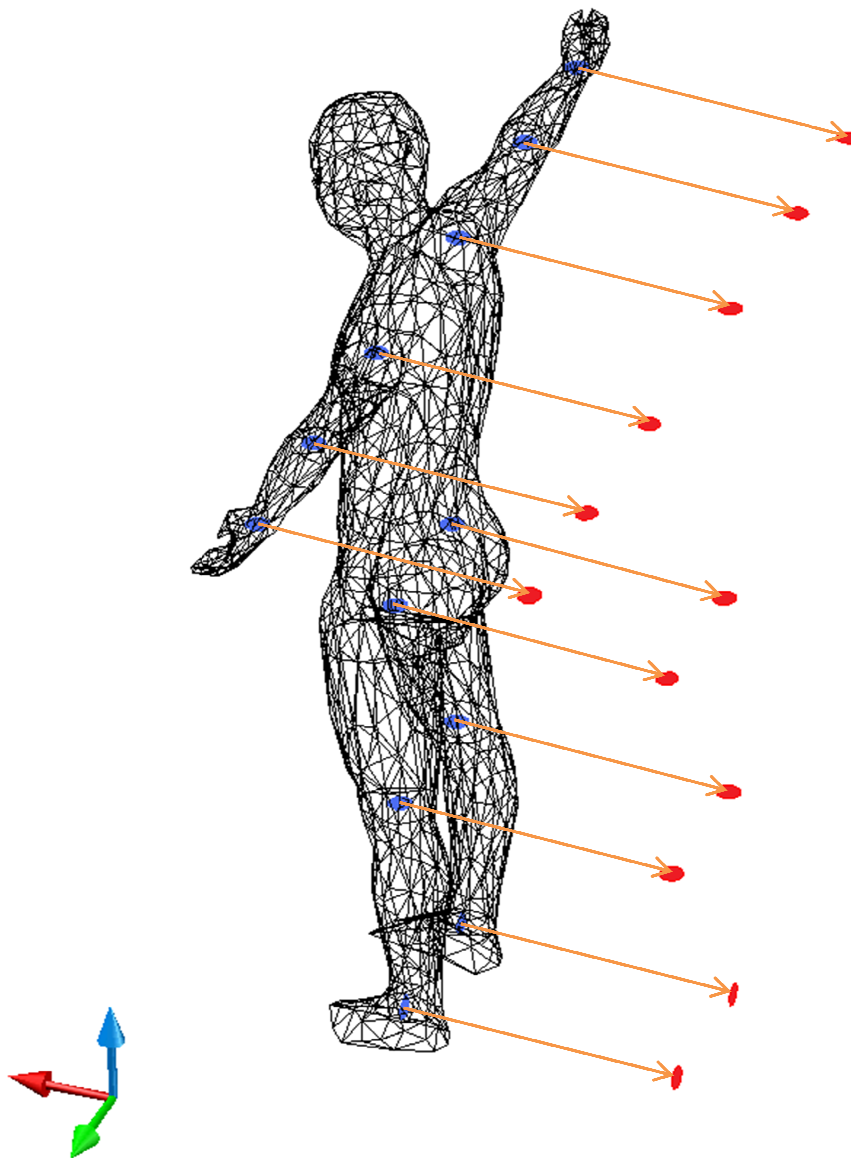


Figure 4-1: Body scan mesh alignment diagram. The discs within the mannequin mesh represent the body segment edge centroids, and the discs outside the mannequin mesh represent the initial animation data points. In almost all cases, this is not an identical translation between each alignment point; thus a specialized procedure is required for proper mesh alignment.

Next, the arms (the upper and lower arms as well as the hands) should then be aligned with the elbow and wrist initial conditions. This is accomplished by first rotating each entire arm about its respective shoulder centroid until the elbow centroid coincides

with the initial elbow data point. The lower arm and hand are then rotated about the elbow centroids until the wrist centroids coincide with the initial wrist data points. This is very similar to the step used to place the mannequin mesh into the neutral posture prior to shoulder reconstruction, but on a finer scale. Because the body scan was obtained such that the global axes are aligned with major body features as discussed in Chapter 3 and in a posture consistent with the neutral posture, the body segments do not need to be rotated about an internal axis. That is to say, the orientation of each body segment with respect to the mannequin mesh as a whole is correct in the form contained in the body scan; only the body segment edges need to be relocated to match the data. Hence, any portion of the mannequin that is facing the frontal direction, for example, will still be facing the frontal direction of the mannequin post-alignment. This is true for all body segments.

In addition, note that the mannequin as a whole may be reoriented to match the animation data axes definitions, but a body segment will not change direction with respect to another body segment except for slight changes due to slight discrepancies between the body scan posture and the neutral posture.

The entire lower body (the upper and lower legs, feet, and pelvis body segments) can now be oriented in unison until the knee centroids are aligned with the initial knee animation data points. This may result in the formation of a significant gap between the pelvis and torso body segments, but this can be rectified in the final step of this procedure. Each lower leg and foot pair is then rotated about their respective knee centroids to align the ankle centroid with the initial ankle joint center, similarly to what was done to align the arms. The upper leg body segments are subsequently rotated about their respective knees to align the hip centroids as closely with the initial hip animation

data points. Because of the unique segmentation at the hips, the hip centroids may not correspond directly with the complementary initial conditions of the hips from the animation data (see Fig. 4-2).

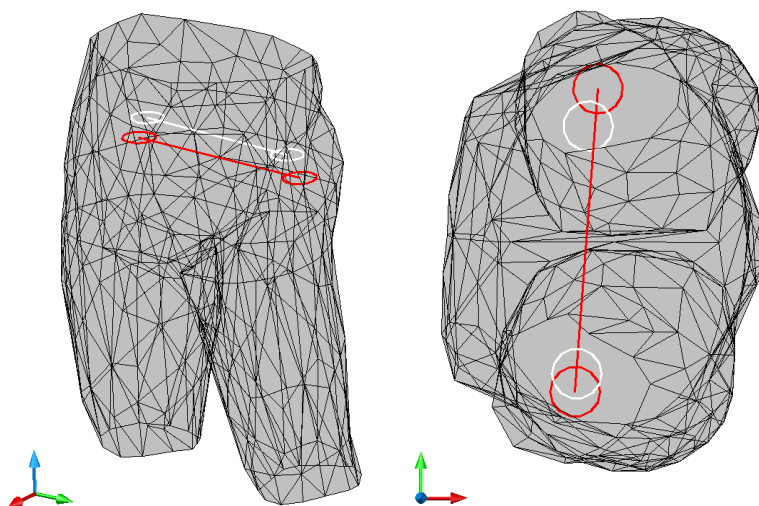


Figure 4-2: Hip alignment discrepancy. The image on the left is of a perspective view showing the vertical difference, and the image on the right is viewed from the top of the mannequin showing that the points are nearly coplanar after alignment is completed. The body segment edge centroids are depicted by the set of darker rings and segments, and the data from the first time step is depicted by white rings and segments.

The vertical coordinate of the centroids and the initial conditions at the hip should be relatively close (though not exact), as should the frontal coordinates, whereas the lateral coordinates of the centroids will be closer to the median plane than their initial condition counterparts. When properly aligned, the hip centroids will be as close as possible to lying within the same coronal plane as the hip initial conditions. As is the case with the images captured in Fig. 4-2, discrepancies between the motion capture data and the body scan mean that perfect alignment may not be possible.

The final step is to rotate the torso and head, in tandem, about a line segment between the two shoulder edge centroids until the shared torso and pelvis body segment edges meet as closely as possible (see Fig. 4-3). It is noted again that the centroids for the pelvis-torso and neck body segment edges will not correspond with their initial condition counterparts. With this final step complete, the mannequin is ready to be animated with the data to which it was aligned.

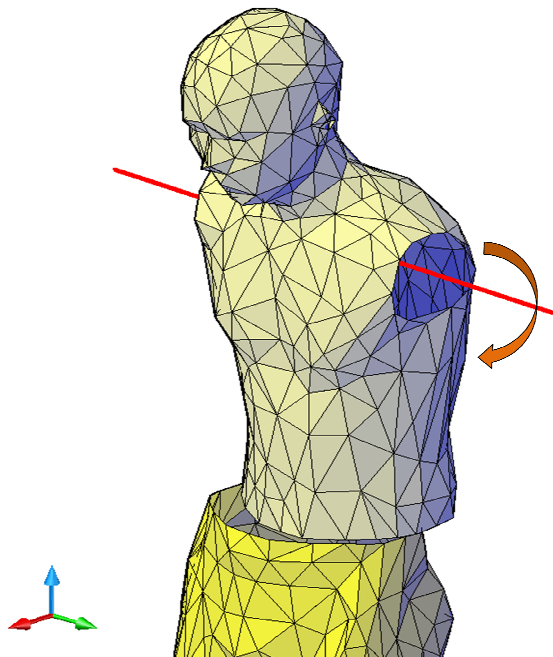


Figure 4-3: Image of the final mesh alignment step. The axis of rotation is depicted by the solid line connecting (and extending beyond) the two shoulder body segment edges. The neck and pelvis-torso body segment edge centroids are the only centroids not aligned with their initial condition counterparts.

Although not necessary, the mesh polygons at adjacent body segments can be manipulated to match for visual continuity of the mannequin mesh. It is also noted that unless the animation data control points can be obtained such that the initial conditions are always identical, the procedure described above must be performed for each new data

set. The need for a standard initial posture is most pressing when the data for animation the mannequin is obtained through motion capture. When animating the mannequin with predicted joint angle time histories, the actual location of the joint centers will depend upon the mannequin anthropometry, which can be obtained from the body segment meshes.

4.2 Mannequin Animation with Motion Capture Data

A major goal of this thesis is to develop a methodology for animating the mannequin with motion capture data from various sources. To do this efficiently, the methodology developed relies on local coordinate systems to update the special location and orientation of a given body segment mesh at a given instant in time from only the simultaneous position vectors of three animation data points, or control points. Incidentally, motion capture data should be collected so that there are a minimum of three non-collinear control points for each body segment.

The three control points are utilized at each time step to determine the local coordinate system position and orientation within a global coordinate reference framework. Two of the control points are located on either end of the body segment at the body segment edge centroids, with the third control point between the first two, but offset, to capture rotation (see Fig. 4-4). The body segment edge centroids represent easy-to-obtain locations that also correspond roughly with human body joint centers, making them ideal choices with which to develop the body segment local coordinate system.

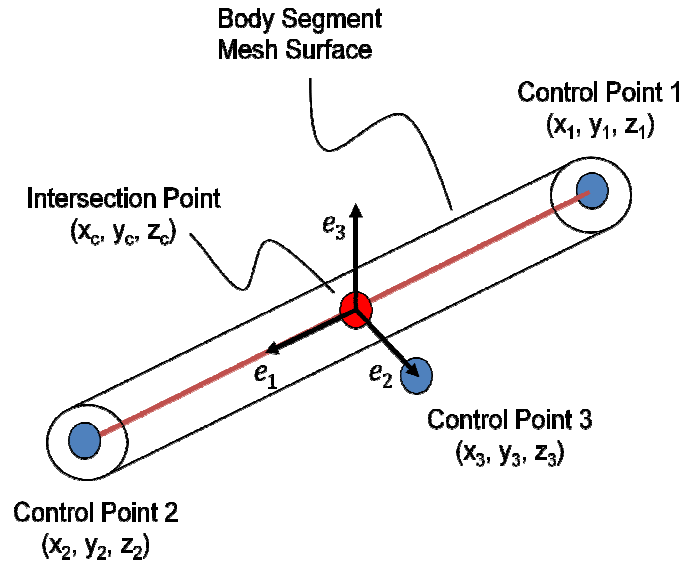


Figure 4-4: Body segment control point diagram. Given the location of 3 points on each body segment, and assuming rigid body motion, the location and orientation of each body segment local coordinate system can be determined. From this information, the body segment edge locations in global coordinates can be calculated.

With shared body segment edges yielding only one control point (e.g. the centroid at the elbow can be used to animate both the upper and lower arms), and a total of 10 independent body segments, at most 24 points are needed to animate the mannequin. This is no more than would be required to animate the same number of body segments were they modeled by spheres and ellipsoids!

The animation procedure first requires establishing the coordinates of each body segment mesh node in terms of its own segment-specific local coordinate system. This is accomplished by first obtaining the three initial condition control point position vectors $(\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_3)$ for each body segment. The projection of the third control point onto the longitudinal axis defines the position vector of the local coordinate system origin \tilde{x}_c , calculated utilizing Equations 4.2 and 4.3. The first basis vector \tilde{e}_1 is parallel to the longitudinal vector $(\tilde{x}_2 - \tilde{x}_1)$ and is calculated employing Eq. 4.4. By Eq. 4.5, the

second basis vector \tilde{e}_2 of the local coordinate system is parallel to the vector $(\tilde{x}_3 - \tilde{x}_c)$. Finally, the third basis vector \tilde{e}_3 is mutually orthogonal to the first two basis vectors in accordance with a right-handed system, as defined in Eq. 4-6. The double bracket symbol, $\| \|$, is used to represent the magnitude of the vectors contained within the double brackets.

$$(\tilde{x}_2 - \tilde{x}_1) \cdot (\tilde{x}_3 - \tilde{x}_c) = 0 \quad (4.2)$$

$$\tilde{x}_c = (1 - k)\tilde{x}_1 + k\tilde{x}_2 \quad (4.3)$$

$$\tilde{e}_1 = \frac{\tilde{x}_2 - \tilde{x}_1}{\|\tilde{x}_2 - \tilde{x}_1\|} \quad (4.4)$$

$$\tilde{e}_2 = \frac{\tilde{x}_3 - \tilde{x}_c}{\|\tilde{x}_3 - \tilde{x}_c\|} \quad (4.5)$$

$$\tilde{e}_3 = \tilde{e}_1 \times \tilde{e}_2 \quad (4.6)$$

Once a local coordinate system is obtained for each body segment, the coordinates of all body segment mesh points that comprise that body segment can be transformed from the global coordinate system (GCS) to its respective local coordinate system (LCS). As each body segment mesh undergoes strictly rigid motions during animations, the local coordinates of each mesh point within each body segment remain unchanged. The position vectors of each mesh point relative to the local coordinate system for a given body segment are computed once and stored for use during animations to update the global position of each mesh coordinate at each time step.

Let $(\tilde{e}_j^k \ k = 1, 2, 3)$ represent the three basis vectors of a body segment k , then the local coordinate position vectors \tilde{x}_n^k of the n th node is computed as shown in Eq. 4.7:

$$\tilde{x}_n^k = \tilde{Q}^k \cdot (\tilde{X}_n^k - \tilde{x}_c^k) \quad n \in \{1, 2, \dots, N_k\} \quad (4.7)$$

where \tilde{X}_n^k is the position vector of the n th node of the k th segment in a global coordinate system, \tilde{x}_c^k is the position vector of the k th segment's local coordinate system origin within the global coordinate system, and \tilde{Q}^k is a 3x3 orthogonal transformation matrix in which the basis vectors (\tilde{e}_j^k $k = 1, 2, 3$) are arranged such that \tilde{e}_1^k encompasses the first row, \tilde{e}_2^k the second, and \tilde{e}_3^k the third. The location of each body segment mesh point in terms of its local coordinates is used to compute the updated location of the same point in the global coordinate system. That is, at a given time t of an animation assume that we are given the global coordinates of the three control points for the k th body segment ($\tilde{x}_1^k, \tilde{x}_2^k, \tilde{x}_3^k$). The instantaneous local basis vectors (\tilde{e}_j^k $k = 1, 2, 3$) and the instantaneous LCS origin \tilde{x}_c^k of the local basis relative to the global origin can be computed directly using Equations 4.2 through 4.6. Then, the global coordinates of each node that comprises the k th body segment is computed by inverting Eq. 4.7 into the form shown in Eq. 4.8, through which the instantaneous global position vector of the n th node of the k th body segment is computed.

$$\tilde{X}_n^k = \tilde{x}_c^k + (\tilde{Q}^k)^T \cdot \tilde{x}_n^k \quad n \in \{1, 2, \dots, N_k\} \quad (4.8)$$

With a body scan mesh prepared as discussed in Chapter 3 and properly aligned with a set of animation data as presented earlier in this chapter, the mannequin can be made to perform any task that can be taken motion capture data (see Fig. 4-5).

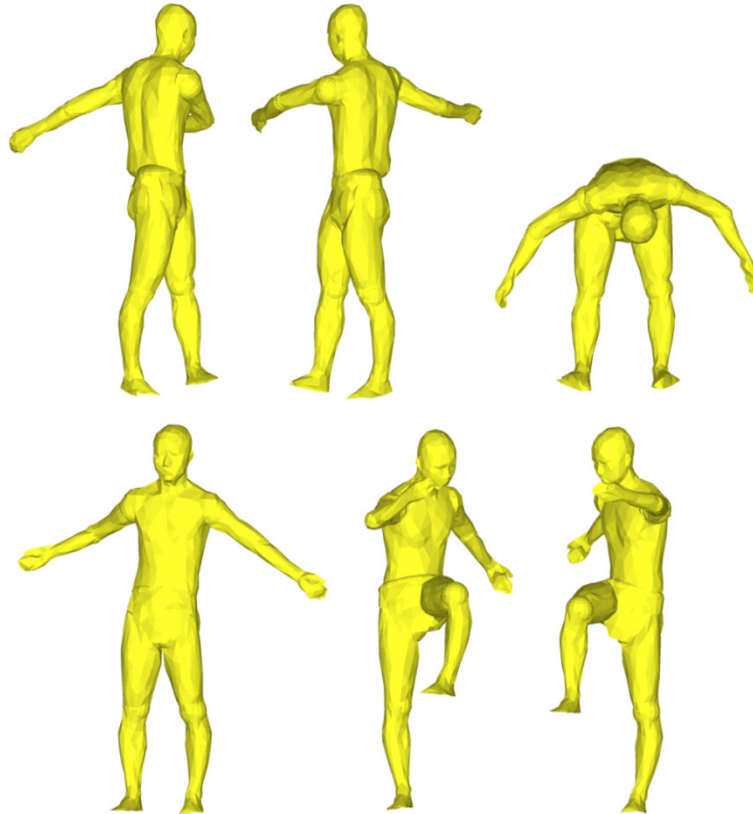


Figure 4-5: Mannequin animated with motion capture data. The subject is seen at various points throughout a “stretching” routine.

4.3 Mannequin Animation with Joint Angle Histories

The Virtual Soldier Research group at the University of Iowa uses DH (Denavit-Hartenberg) kinematics to model the human body skeleton, which is represented visually with an avatar named Santos™. Utilizing DH kinematics allows for any given posture to be determined by a set of variables for each degree of freedom, attached via rigid connections, called *links*, forming a *kinematic chain*.

The overall effect of a group of linked joints – the kinematic chain - is the propagation of motion from the summation of the individual effects of each degree of freedom. This is analogous to multi-segmented machinery, such as a robotic arm, where the summation of each of the individual joint motions results in the final location of the

end of the robotic arm. (The end location of a kinematic chain is henceforth referred to as the *end effector*.) A simple example of a two-dimensional kinematic chain is provided in Fig. 4-6.

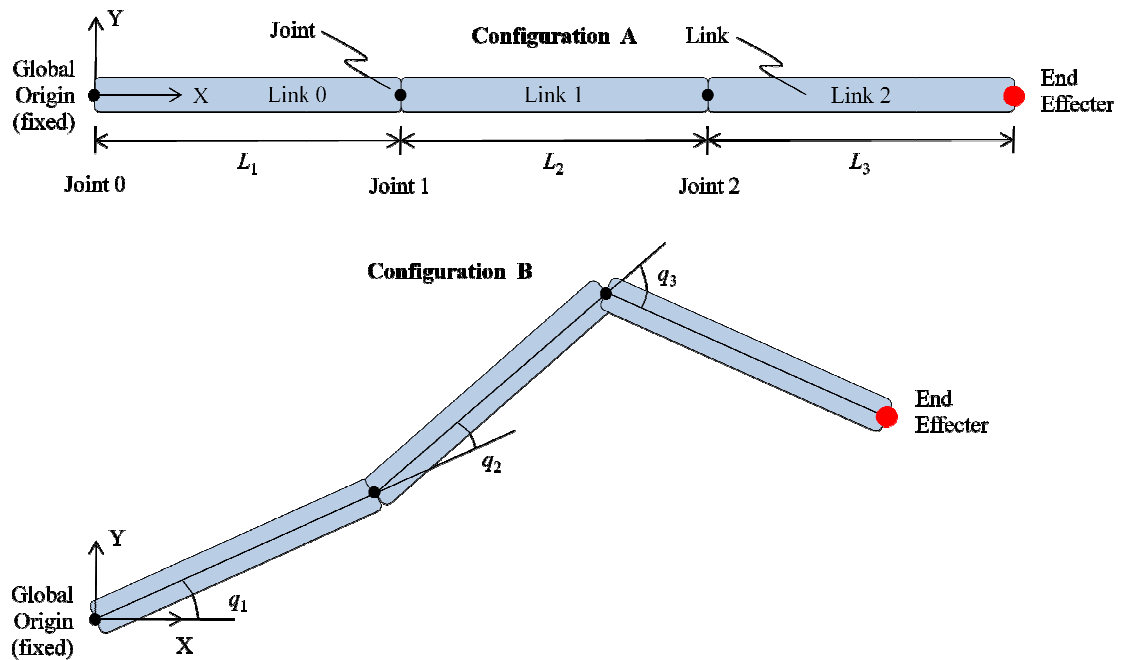


Figure 4-6: Two-dimensional representation of a kinematic chain. The motion of each link in the chain contributes to the final location of the end effector, and each link contribution to the final location can be represented mathematically by a series of transformation matrices.

In Configuration A of Fig. 4-6, the three links are perfectly flat along the x-axis defined in the image. If the origin is located at $(0, 0)$, the location of the end effector in global coordinates is then $(L_1 + L_2 + L_3, 0)$, where L_1 , L_2 , and L_3 are the link lengths. Configuration B shows the kinematic chain after a separate rigid body rotation is applied to each joint. The variables q_1 , q_2 , and q_3 are the joint angles applied to each degree of freedom. A positive rotation is defined as counter-clockwise.

The individual effect of each of the links on the end effector location is apparent by examination of Configuration B. Indeed, the location of the end effector can be determined through the cumulative effects of all links in the kinematic chain. To accomplish this, a structured system is required for determining the local coordinate system of each joint so that the end effector location can be transformed through each reference frame until it is expressed in terms of the global coordinate system. To this end, the local coordinate system x-axis for joint i is defined in the direction of joint i to joint $i+1$, and the z-axis (the axis of rotation) is defined using a right-handed coordinate system; in Fig. 4-6 and the preceding two-dimensional examples, a positive rotation is defined as counter-clockwise, thus the local coordinate z-axis for each joint is pointing out of the page. The y-axis is defined as the cross-product of the z- and x-axes. By convention, the local coordinate system origin is placed at the distal end of the link, so the local coordinate system origin for joint 0 is located at joint 1 on link 0, and so on. Moreover, link i and joint i have the same local coordinate system.

With these conventions in place, it can be shown that a transformation matrix for each degree of freedom (joint) can be developed to convert a point (end effector) from one reference frame to the next. The transformation matrix for such a two-dimensional link is written as follows [15]:

$${}^{i-1}T_i = \begin{bmatrix} \cos q_i & -\sin q_i & a_i \cos q_i \\ \sin q_i & \cos q_i & a_i \sin q_i \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.9)$$

in which q_i is the joint angle and a_i is the link length for the current reference frame, i . In Eq. 4.9, the joint angle value is expressed relative to the local coordinate x-axis of the

proximal joint. For example, the joint angle for joint 2 (q_3) is expressed relative to the local coordinate system x-axis of joint 1. The sub- and superscripts of ${}^{i-1}T_i$ signify that the transformation matrix converts the coordinates from the current reference frame (i) to that of the proximal reference frame ($i-1$). Using Fig. 4-6 to demonstrate by converting the location of joint 1 into global coordinates, Eq. 4.9 is rewritten as shown in Eq. 10.

$${}^0T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \cos q_1 & -\sin q_1 & L_1 \cos q_1 \\ \sin q_1 & \cos q_1 & L_1 \sin q_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.10)$$

In Eq. 4.10, 0T_1 denotes that the transformation matrix converts a point from the reference frame at joint 1 to the base reference frame at joint 0. Notice that only one transformation matrix is required as the end effector, joint 1, is only converted through one reference frame. Joint 1 expressed in terms of the reference frame for link 0 is simply (0, 0) since the local coordinate system origin is located at the distal end of the link. Were the point to be converted located at the midpoint of link 0, the local coordinates would be $(-L_1/2, 0)$. For use with Eq. 4.10, the local coordinate system position vector of the point to be transformed is represented in an augmented form, with the third term in the vector is always equal to identity for a two-dimensional link:

$$\tilde{x}_n = \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.11)$$

in which \tilde{x}_n is the augmented local coordinate position vector of a point on link n , x_n is the local x-coordinate of the end effector, and y_n is the local y-coordinate. With the

augmented local position vector of $(0, 0, 1)$ for joint 1 in terms of the joint 0 local coordinate system, the product of Eq. 4.10 and the augmented position vector of joint 1 will yield the global position vector for joint 1:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos q_1 & -\sin q_1 & L_1 \cos q_1 \\ \sin q_1 & \cos q_1 & L_1 \sin q_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \cos q_1 \\ L_1 \sin q_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.12)$$

This result can be quickly verified through inspection of Fig. 4-6. In the preceding example, joint 1 was treated as the end effector for link 0. It is important to recognize that the end effector need not be at the end of the entire kinematic chain defined in a DH model. Rather, the end effector can be placed anywhere in a kinematic chain where a point's location is sought. This fact means that any control point sought need only be placed at the equivalent location of the DH model – the position at which all of the degrees of freedom in the DH model that contribute to that control point's ultimate location will have an effect.

To determine the location of the end effector shown in Fig. 4-6 using the conventions set up for use with Eq. 4.10, a cumulative transformation matrix representing the change in reference frame along the kinematic chain, from link 2 to the global reference frame, is needed. The process by which the cumulative product of a series of transformation matrices is determined is written mathematically in Eq. 4.13, while the location of the end effector with respect to the new reference frame is represented by Eq. 4.14 [15]. In the following equations, the position vector $\tilde{x}(\tilde{q})$ is the animation control point in global coordinates after the chain effect of all of the predecessor links contributing to the end effector's ultimate location has been determined. \tilde{x}_n , a 3x1 matrix

with the third element being identity in a two-dimensional case (\tilde{x}_n is a 4x1 matrix with the fourth element being identity in a three-dimensional case), represents the animation control point in terms of the link local coordinate system where the end effector is located, and ${}^0\tilde{T}_n$ is the product of all of the successive degree of freedom contributions in the kinematic chain to the end effector location. Eq. 4.13 expresses this product mathematically, where ${}^{i-1}\tilde{T}_i$ denotes a single reference frame transformation.

$${}^0\tilde{T}_n = \left[\prod_{i=1}^n {}^{i-1}\tilde{T}_i \right] \quad (4.15)$$

$$\tilde{x}(\tilde{q}) = {}^0\tilde{T}_n \tilde{x}_n \quad (4.16)$$

Suppose the joint angles of Fig. 4-6 are 20 degrees, 15 degrees, and -45 degrees, respectively, for q_1 , q_2 , and q_3 (with positive still defined as counter-clockwise), and the link lengths are all 10 units long. Employing Eq. 4.9, the transformation matrices relating each reference frame to its proximal neighbor are as follows:

$${}^0T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.940 & -0.342 & 9.397 \\ 0.342 & 0.940 & 3.420 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.15)$$

$${}^1T_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.966 & -0.259 & 9.659 \\ 0.259 & 0.966 & 2.588 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.16)$$

$${}^2T_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.707 & 0.707 & 7.071 \\ -0.707 & 0.707 & -7.071 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.17)$$

and the cumulative transformation matrix is computed using Eq. 4.13 as shown below:

$${}^0T_1 {}^1T_2 {}^2T_3 = {}^0T_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.985 & 0.174 & 27.437 \\ -0.174 & 0.985 & 7.419 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.18)$$

The end effector is located at (0, 0) in the local coordinate system of joint 2, so the position of the end effector in terms of the global coordinate system in Fig. 4-6 is calculated using Eq. 4.14.

$$\tilde{x}(\tilde{q}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.985 & 0.174 & 27.437 \\ -0.174 & 0.985 & 7.419 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 27.437 \\ 7.419 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.19)$$

in which (27.437, 7.419) is the global position vector of the end effector. Noting that the joint angles of 20, 15, and -45 degrees are equivalent to angles of 20, 35, and -10 degrees expressed with respect to the global coordinate system, the result in Eq. 4.19 can be easily verified.

In three dimensions, the initial placement of each link with respect to its neighbor is defined by four parameters (see Fig. 4-7). The parameters in Fig. 4-7 can then be described as follows: θ_i is the angle between the x-axis of joint $i-1$ and that of joint i , about the axis of rotation (the z-axis) of joint $i-1$, α_i is the angle between the z-axis of joint $i-1$ and joint i , a_i is the distance from the z-axis of joint $i-1$ to the z-axis of joint i , and d_i is the distance between the x-axes of joints $i-1$ and i . The joint angle variable q_i has the same definition as θ_i in Fig. 4-7 because a revolute joint is depicted. Both d_i and a_i represent a *link length* as is defined in this thesis, a term used to describe the three-dimensional distance between two successive degrees of freedom along a given global axis. In practice, θ_i , α_i , d_i , and a_i are referred to the joint angle, link twist, link offset,

and link length, respectively. For a more in-depth approach the DH model, including a detailed derivation, the reader should consult [2], [15], and [25].

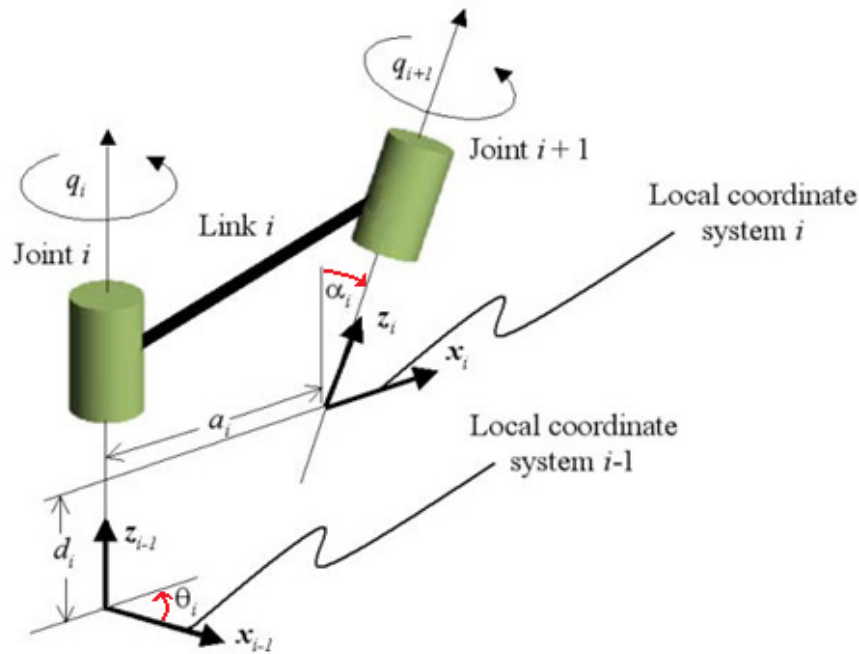


Figure 4-7: A visual definition of DH kinematic parameters and variables in three dimensions (modified from [3]). Each parameter is constant for a given link. This image depicts revolute joints (joints whose degree of freedom is rotation about an axis).

Any change in the relative position of a link to its proximal neighbor is represented by the variable q_i , which modifies either the length of a link (a prismatic joint) or the rotation of a link (a revolute joint). As with the two-dimensional link, the local coordinate system x-axis is defined in the direction of joint i to joint $i+1$, with the z-axis defined by the right hand rule. The y-axis is again defined as the cross-product of the z- and x-axes. Furthermore, the local coordinate system is located at the distal end of the link, at joint $i+1$.

Each of the parameter values is determined based upon the orientation of the local coordinate system axes at each degree of freedom. Thus, the neutral posture is chosen with the mannequin standing fully upright and with the arms extended fully outwards as this represents an angle of magnitude $\pi/2$ or 180 degrees between the majority of links in the mannequin. Knowing the orientation of each LCS in the avatar model, the two angular parameters can be determined. The link lengths values are simply derived from the mannequin anthropometry (i.e. the lengths of bones, etc.).

Because each degree of freedom is represented by a single DH kinematic joint, a relationship is developed whereby the link lengths correspond to the physical lengths of the bones in the human body that the link and degree of freedom model. This also means that when the joints modeled are capable of more than one degree of freedom of motion, the link lengths between the two degrees of freedom at the joint is zero. In addition to being used as the approximate DH joint locations, the body segment edge centroids are used to determine these link lengths; though because the mannequin used in this thesis uses significantly fewer degrees of freedom than the DH model from which the animation control points were obtained, approximations were used to obtain many of the link lengths needed in the DH model from the body segment edge centroids. This process will be described in detail later in this chapter.

The joint angle, q_i , is the only unknown at each time step and is defined about the z-axis of the proximal joint (this is the same convention as is used to define θ_i) for revolute joints (joints that rotate about a single axis), and coincides with the link length d_i for prismatic joints (joints that extend along an axis). Transcribing these variables into

the transformation matrix, ${}^{i-1}T_i$, relating the position of the current joint with respect to the coordinate system of the previous joint yields Eq. 4.20 [15].

$${}^{i-1}T_i = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta_i & -\cos \alpha_i \sin \theta_i & \sin \alpha_i \sin \theta_i & a_i \cos \theta_i \\ \sin \theta_i & \cos \alpha_i \cos \theta_i & -\sin \alpha_i \cos \theta_i & a_i \sin \theta_i \\ 0 & \sin \alpha_i & \cos \alpha_i & d_i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.20)$$

It is interesting to note that Eq. 4.9 can be derived from Eq. 4.20: in the two-dimensional case, both angle variables are zero, as is the value of d_i . This creates all zeros in the third row and third column of Eq. 4.20, which when removed yield Eq. 4.9!

A DH kinematics-driven skeletal model consists of several smaller kinematic chains (see Fig. 4-8). The pelvis is considered the base from which the kinematic chains emanate; however, to represent the motion of the model as a whole with respect to the global inertial frame, six degrees of freedom are modeled as a kinematic chain from the global coordinate origin to the pelvis (three of these are revolute joints representing the rotation of the DH model about the three global axes, while the other three degrees of freedom are the only prismatic joints incorporated in the DH model and represent the motion in terms of the global axes). From the pelvis, three parent chains – the spine, the right leg, and the left leg – describe the motion of the torso and legs, respectively. In addition, to represent the head and arms, three child kinematic chains also emanate from the end of the spine kinematic chain – one for each arm and another for the neck and head. In addition, because the local coordinate system origin for each degree of freedom is located at the distal end of the link from the previous joint, the first degree of freedom

of the neck and head, right arm, and left arm kinematic chains actually represents the last degree of freedom from the spine.

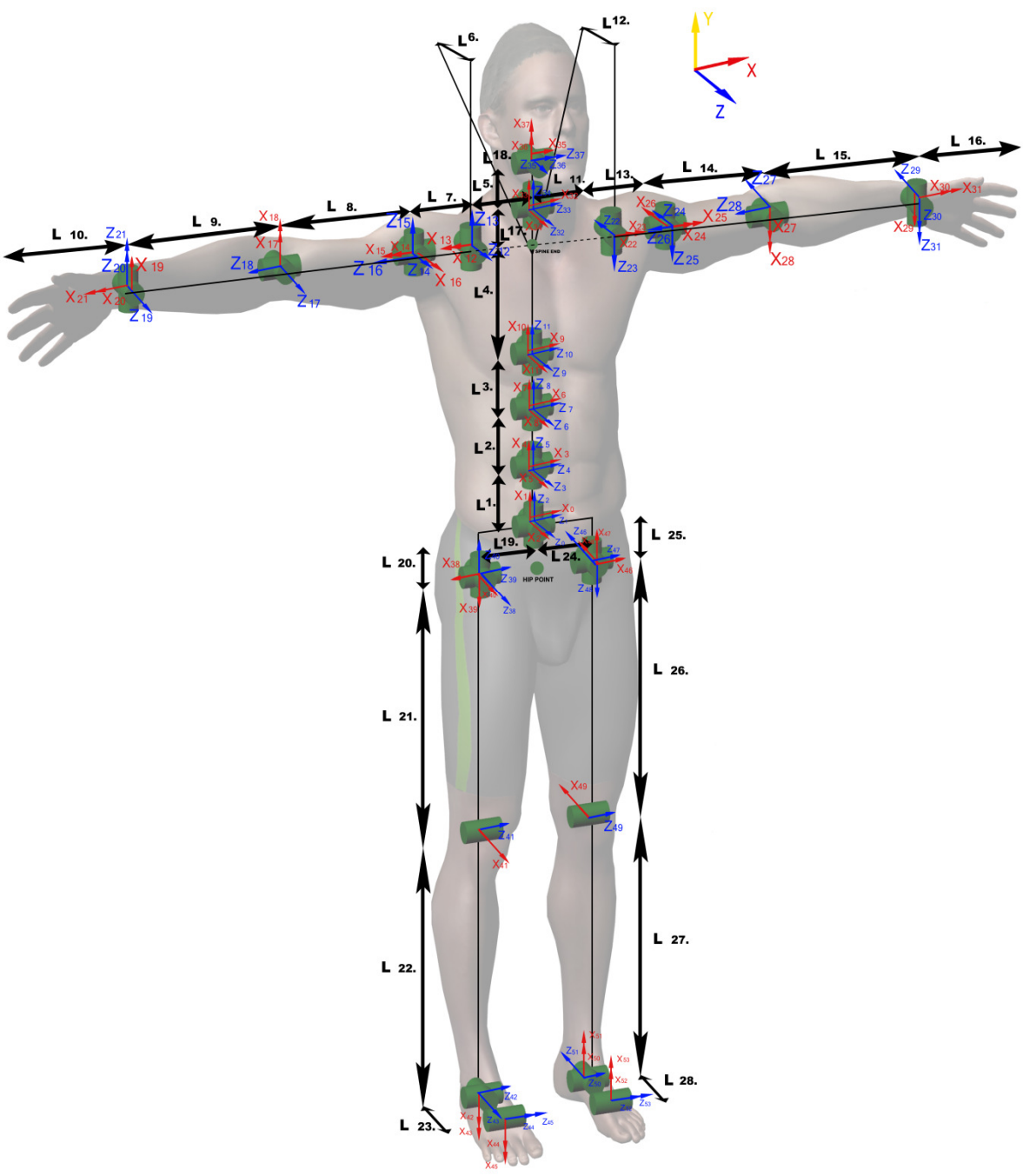


Figure 4-8: An image of SANTOS™ with the DH skeleton overlaid. (Recall Fig. 3-23 for a diagram of the degrees of freedom used to animate the mannequins in this thesis.) This image is courtesy of the VSR group at the University of Iowa.

A three-dimensional example is outlined numerically below, as Equations 4.13, 4.14, and 4.20 are utilized to calculate the location of the right wrist during at the first time step. (The DH kinematics software used in this thesis was originally developed by Yujiang Xiang of the VSR group and was modified for use in this research by Yujiang Xiang to produce the animation control points from predicted motion data.) Table A-1 of Appendix A lists the constants for each of the contributing degrees of freedom to the location of the end effector (the right wrist), along with their joint angle values for the first time step in the walking animation developed though [10] and [26]. The degrees of freedom 1, 2, and 3 are the prismatic joints, and thus the joint angle augments the initial value of d in Equation 4.20, whereas all other degrees of freedom represent revolute joints and thus the joint angle augments the initial value of θ_i . A total of 25 degrees of freedom contribute to the end effector location, and thus 25 transformation matrices must be multiplied together in the proper order to obtain the global transformation matrix for the end effector. Table A-1 lists these degrees of freedom in the necessary order, which corresponds to the hierarchy of the degrees of freedom starting from the global origin and ending at the right wrist. The components of the transformation matrices for each of the degrees of freedom in Table A-1 can be found in Tables A-2 and A-3.

With all the transformation matrices of the form of Eq. 4.20 calculated in Tables A-2 and A-3, the cumulative product of these matrices can be calculated using Eq. 4.13. The cumulative product matrix is shown below in Eq. 4.21:

$${}^0\tilde{T}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0.386 & -0.327 & 0.863 & -0.332 \\ 0.509 & -0.705 & -0.495 & 0.871 \\ 0.769 & 0.630 & -0.106 & 0.455 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.21)$$

As the end effector is positioned, it is located at the distal end of the forearm link. Thus, the position vector in terms of the forearm link local coordinate system, expressed in the three-dimensional form of Eq. 4.11, is $\tilde{x}_n = (0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1)$. Eq. 4.14 is used to determine the location of the end effector in global coordinates:

$$\tilde{x}(\tilde{q}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.386 & -0.327 & 0.863 & -0.332 \\ 0.509 & -0.705 & -0.495 & 0.871 \\ 0.769 & 0.630 & -0.106 & 0.455 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.332 \\ 0.871 \\ 0.455 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4.22)$$

where the global position vector of the end effector (the right wrist) is $(-0.332, 0.871, 0.455)$. These control point location calculations are done at each time step for all 24 control points, creating the data needed to animate the mannequin from the predicted motion in terms of the DH model. It is noted that the DH model employed for these calculations uses a different set of global axes definitions than is generally used in this thesis. More specifically, the DH model defines the global x-axis as the lateral direction, the global-y axis as the vertical direction, and the global z-axis as the frontal direction.

Utilizing predicted motion data to animate a mannequin is more convenient than using motion capture data because each of these constants, sans the link lengths, is mannequin model-independent, meaning they are the same for any given DH model as long as the degrees of freedom represented by each DH model are identical. This allows for a given predicted motion to be used to animate any mannequin as long as the link lengths for the mannequin are known – and as mentioned earlier, with the body segment edges known, determining the link lengths for the mannequin is trivial.

With the mannequin is oriented similar to Fig. 3-1, the distances between successive body segment edge centroids will only be along a single global axis, and thus will only correspond to either a_i or d_i of Eq. 4.13 (depending upon how the LCS axes are oriented as discussed earlier) except in the case of the clavicle, as it is the only link that traverses through two dimensions in the neutral posture; however, the clavicle link lengths are still trivial to determine. The frontal distance traversed by the clavicle is simply the frontal distance between the shoulder and neck body segment edge centroids, with the lateral distance between these body segment edge centroids equating to the lateral distance traversed by the clavicle. This procedure is straight-forward for each body segment modeled except for the torso. The torso body segment is a single link in the mannequin model but encompasses five different joints in the DH model (four in the torso and one in the neck). Simple ratios were applied to circumvent this issue whereby the link lengths for the DH model were extrapolated from the single link length of the torso. First, the link length between the clavicle and the neck was determined by taking the vertical distance between the shoulder and neck body segment edges, and the remaining distance was split into the four remaining joints according to their relative dimensions in the DH model. That is to say, taking the cumulative length of the four DH model torso links as 1 meter for simplicity, and assuming arbitrarily that the first three links are each 15% of the cumulative length, then the corresponding link lengths of a mannequin would be 15% of the mannequin torso vertical dimension, with the fourth link length encompassing the remaining 55% of the torso vertical dimension. This approximation works well to circumvent the lack of detailed information of a subject scan when attempting to animate the subject mannequin, but its effects on any subsequent

contact modeling analyses utilizing the animation have yet to be explored. Therefore, more detailed anthropometric approximations should be sought if the animations produced are to be used in further analyses.

With all DH model link lengths determined, the animation control points at each time step of a prediction motion data set can be obtained by following the procedures outlined in this section. The animation control points are then used to animate the mannequin exactly as is done for motion capture data, as shown in Section 4.3.

As previously mentioned, the joint angle history that defines each animation set is DH model-independent, meaning that the joint-angle histories can be applied to any DH model as long as the link lengths defined earlier are known for the model. This was proven by using the same set of joint angle histories to animate the mannequins in this thesis as is employed to animate the VSR group avatar, SANTOS™. In fact, this was accomplished for multiple predicted motion sets on multiple mannequins (see Fig. 4-9)!

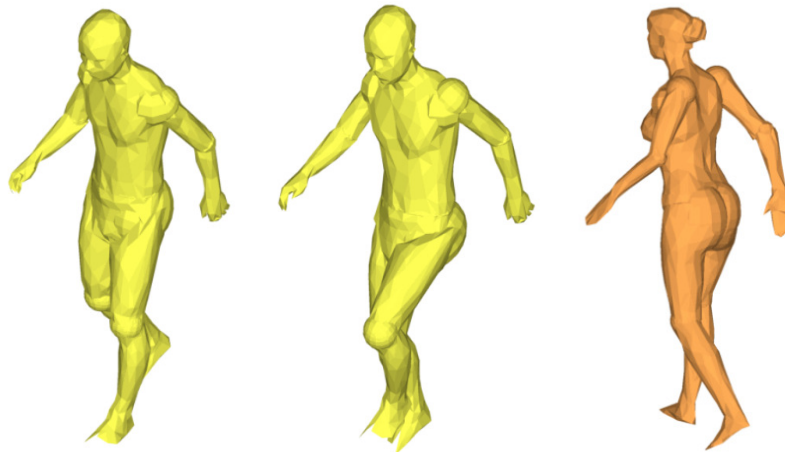


Figure 4-9: Mannequins animated with joint angle histories. The animations are of a mannequin walking in a straight line (left and right) and walking up stairs (middle). The walking animation was produced through [10] and [26], and the walking up stairs animation is an ongoing project with no papers yet published by the VSR group.

4.4 Data Formatting

The animation software written for this thesis, in order to be truly data source-independent, required a generic data formatting system. To that end, three data file types are used: a master file, the *control file*, which contains animation summary information as well as global translation and rotations to be applied to each body segment data file; *body segment data files*, which store body segment mesh connectivity information and segment-specific translations and rotations to be performed prior to animation; and the *animation data file*, wherein all of the animation time steps are contained. All of the data contained in the files are in terms of global coordinates, and will only be converted to body segment-specific local coordinate systems by the animation software as needed to update the mesh at each time step.

More specifically, the control file is needed to inform the software of the number of segments to be animated, the number of control points to be used to animate the files, the number of animation steps in the animation data file, the sequence by which the animation data file is read, and any translation or rotation scheme that is to be applied to all body segment animation files (see Box 4-1).

31	24	202	1
1.0	0.0	0.0	
0.0	1.0	0.0	
0.0	0.0	1.0	
0.0	0.0	0.0	

Box 4-1: Sample animation control file.

In the sample control file provided in Box 4-1, there are 31 body segment files to animate using 24 animation control points and an animation data file that contains 202

time steps, through which the software is to proceed in steps of 1, as read in the first line of the file. The latter number is useful for analyzing large sets of data in a reasonable timeframe. For example, the motion capture data utilized in this thesis was obtained at very small time steps (many per second), but only a fraction of the time steps are needed to create a visually appealing mannequin animation. A value of 10 would mean that only every tenth time step from the animation data file will be used to animate the mannequin. The next three lines in the control file correspond to the nine components in a 3x3 transformation matrix, and the last line contains the x-, y-, and z-direction translation values, to apply to each body segment prior to animation.

Any information that is segment-specific is placed within the body segment data file to which it applies. Body segment-specific data includes the three control points needed to animate the body segment, the initial body segment mesh nodal coordinates and connectivity data, and miscellaneous information about body segment mesh pre-processing such as rotating the mesh to fit a new axis definition or scale (see Appendix B for an example file). Naturally, this means that there will be at least as many body segment data files as there are independently-animated body segments. Any animation patches can be placed in the same file as the body segment it is meant to patch; however, it is suggested that each patch be placed in a separate control file so as to allow the patches to be easily updated without the need to recreate the entire body segment mesh configuration and connectivity data. Thirty-one separate body segment data files are used in this thesis; 15 for the body segments, 12 for spherical patches, and 4 for ellipsoidal patches.

In Appendix B, the first line is a description of what the body segment represents and is ignored by the software by default. The second line informs the animation software that this body segment data file contains 42 nodes and is to be animated using control points 7, 23, and 9 from the animation data file. The next three lines represent the 3x3 transformation matrix to be applied specifically to this body segment data file, and the subsequent line contains the translation to be applied. The particular file in Appendix B is patch segment, so the translation matrix is given as the centroid of joint it is to patch. This is because the software written to generate the spherical and ellipsoidal patch meshes uses the origin as the centroid for simplicity. The next set of lines is devoted to the nodal coordinates, with each node on its own line (42 in this case). The first number in each line is the node number designation within the body segment data file, followed by the x-, y-, and z-coordinates of the node. A single line of information proceeds the nodal coordinate data, containing miscellaneous information about the body segment data file. All of the information in this line is ultimately ignored by the software except for the third component, which represents the number of elements encompassing this body segment (40 elements in this case). The other components of this line are used by other software for the purposes of contact modeling, which is out of the scope of this thesis and is therefore not discussed. The final set of lines is devoted to the connectivity data. The first constituent in each line is the element number, followed by the material type (another piece of information only used by the contact modeling software), and the four nodes that make up the element in order of connectivity. These node numbers correspond directly with the nodes listed previously in the file. The animation software

was written to be compatible with both 3- and 4-sided elements, so 3-sided elements are handled by giving them identical third and fourth nodes.

As mentioned earlier, a number of body segments are further divided into separate files to create the body segment edges necessary to obtain the joint center equivalents, from which the link lengths can be computed. These include the hands, feet, and head. Although these portions of the mannequin are segmented, they are animated in tandem with their adjacent body segments to limit the animation complexity.

The animation data file is simply a listing of the coordinates of each control point at each time step, with each time step contained on a single line and the control points listed in succession with their respective x-, y-, and z-coordinates. Following the previous example presented in Box 4-1, the 24 control points would require that each line have 72 entries (3 for each control point), listed as follows: control point 1 x-coordinate, control point 1 y-coordinate, control point 1 z-coordinate, control point 2 x-coordinate, control point 2 y-coordinate, control point 2 z-coordinate, and so on.

With the data structure just presented, the reader will have all of the information necessary to create a realistic animation of a segmented body scan mesh from multiple data sources, of which motion capture data and predicted motion based on a DH kinematics-driven model were explored. As a goal of this thesis is to develop an effective methodology for a variety of purposes, one of which was clothing contact modeling, the next chapter will discuss the results of the use of the procedures and methodologies presented herein as well as provide a summary to the reader.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

In this thesis, a framework for efficiently and effectively preparing a visually-accurate body scan for animation was presented. It was shown that a laser scan body mesh, once coarsened, can be segmented for the purposes of animation. An effective segmentation pattern developed for this research was laid out with a step-by-step procedure, allowing any body scan to be utilized as a mannequin. In addition, an effective algorithm was presented for repairing and reconstructing portions of the body scan mesh that were either missed by the laser scan or were created when manipulating the mannequin into the neutral posture. A robust approach was also presented to patch animation gaps that develop due to the use of rigid body motion assumptions in the animation algorithm and motion capture inaccuracies, and an outline was presented for automating the process of centroid location for the purpose of sizing the animation gap patch geometries and determining the link lengths for use with DH-driven motion prediction.

An efficient mannequin animation algorithm was also presented that allows for virtually any animation data source to be used to animate the mannequin. Furthermore, a mathematical framework was laid out for converting DH kinematics data into the simplified format presented herein for animation of the mannequin, which opens up the possibility for a single animation set of joint angle histories to be applied to an infinite number of mannequins for animation. This procedure was verified with a numerical

example in which the position of an animation control point was calculated given the contributing joint angle values from the DH model. Various screenshots were also shown of the mannequins during animation from the various data sources, showing the successful utilization of the techniques and methodologies presented herein in developing a useful animation for a variety of purposes and from multiple data sources.

Considering the successes listed above, the framework presented herein accomplishes the goals laid out in the introduction by providing a methodology for creating a visually-accurate mannequin that can be animated with multiple data sources, for the purposes of creating a realistic body with which to model clothing contact.

5.2 Current and Future Work

In addition to producing more animation data sets from both motion capture data (for which the subject would also need to provide a body scan for the data to be useful) and from predicted motion, a wider variety of body scans are sought so as to have a collection of various anthropometries for the purposes of comparing different body types' resistance to performing various tasks. Currently only two mannequins, a male and a female, are available for this research. Since no motion capture data was obtained for the female subject, only the predicted motion from the VSR group can be used to animate the female body scan. A third body scan, another male, is currently being obtained from Susan Ashdown of Cornell University (the source of the first two laser body scans). Although no motion capture is available for the female model, VSR is currently working on accurately converting motion capture data into equivalent joint angle histories, which will effectively convert the animation data into a subject-independent format.

With the animated mannequins and procedures outlined above, the follow-up to this research is to utilize the contact algorithm of [11] and [13] to perform a complete mannequin-clothing interaction simulation. Preliminary work has been completed in this area; the stretching animation presented in Fig. 4-5 has been successfully used in an animation modeling the interaction of “baggy” clothing with a mannequin (see Figures 5-1 through 5-3). A database of animations and clothing contact-modeling analyses can be found online at <http://www.engineering.uiowa.edu/~swan/clothing/clothing.html>. In Figures 5-1 through 5-3, the mannequin is beginning to twist the upper body counter-clockwise with respect to the first person view of the mannequin. The inertial response of the clothing can clearly be seen in Fig. 5-1 where the clothing is pressed against the front of the right arm and the back of the left arm, which are the leading surfaces of the counter-clockwise twisting motion. Very little motion is occurring in the legs during this portion of the animation, and comparison Figures 5-1 and 5-3 reveals that there is no noticeable difference in the pants mesh, attesting to this fact.

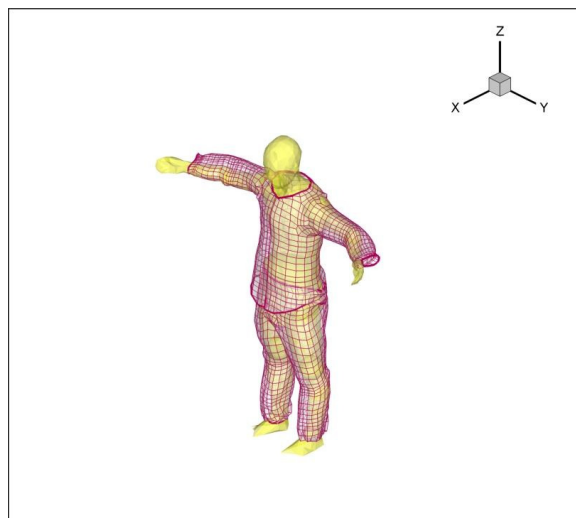


Figure 5-1: Perspective view of the mannequin during a clothing interaction simulation. This image was captured at 1.341 seconds into the stretching animation from Fig. 4-5.

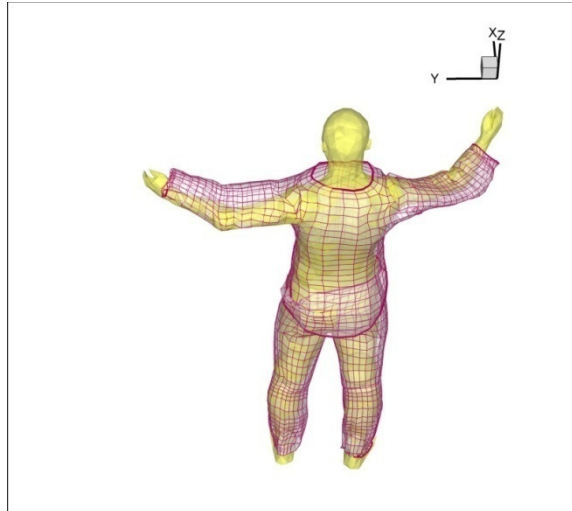


Figure 5-2: Rear view of the mannequin during a clothing interaction simulation. This image was captured at 1.493 seconds into the stretching animation.

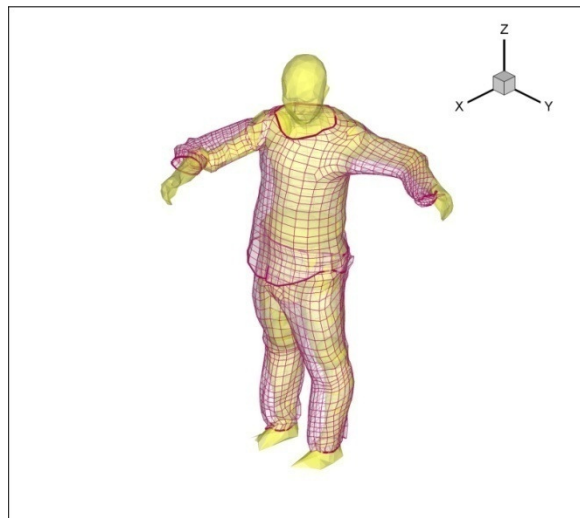


Figure 5-3: A second perspective view of the mannequin during a clothing interaction simulation. This image was captured at 1.645 seconds into the stretching animation.

With completed clothing interaction simulations, the next task is to take the nodal forces exerted onto the mannequin by the clothing during animation and resolve them back into joint torques and energies using DH kinematics, but in reverse of what was used to create the animation control points from the joint angle data. It is hoped that these results will be able to be “fed” back into the motion prediction simulation of VSR

as input, causing the optimization process to change the predicted motion, in effect creating a closed-loop system of predicted motion optimization (see Fig. 5-4).

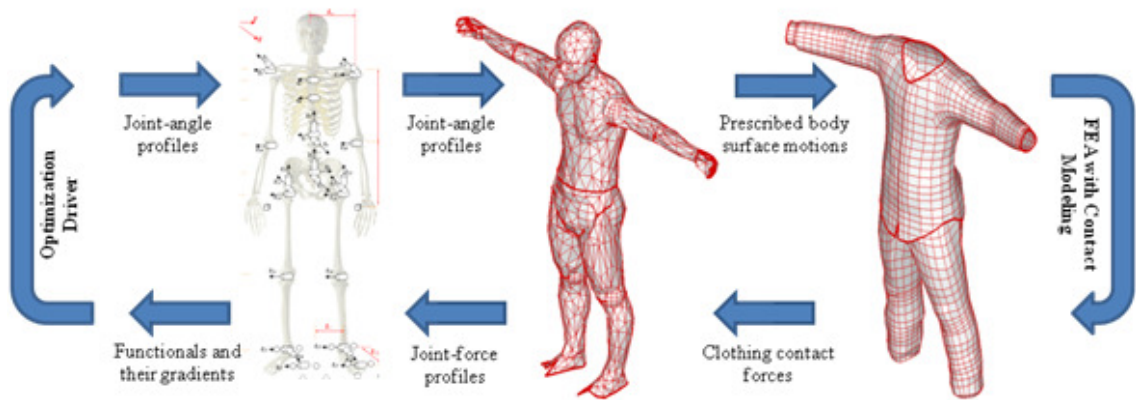


Figure 5-4: A visual depiction of the closed-loop optimization system for motion prediction.

Although the first completed clothing interaction simulations are just recently being completed with the animations provided through this research, the results already look promising. Indeed, the framework presented in this thesis for body scan preparation and animation has allowed for an unprecedented level of accuracy in clothing simulations and will provide a robust platform in support of future research for many years to come.

APPENDIX A. 3D DH KINEMATICS NUMERICAL EXAMPLE

Chain	DOF	Link Variables				Joint Angle
		d	a	α	θ	q
Global	1	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.362771
	2	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.001885
	3	0.778413	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.037680
	4	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.071637
	5	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.100210
Spine	6	0.086630	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.126591
	7	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.038677
	8	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.117550
	9	0.054160	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.039112
	10	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.007405
	11	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.030859
	12	0.072677	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.010429
	13	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.017453
	14	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.031919
	15	0.080113	0	1.570796	1.570796	-0.017453
	16	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.012969
	17	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.033906
Right Arm	18	0.232150	0.017353	-1.570796	-1.570796	-0.017453
	19	0	0	1.570796	0	-0.168525
	20	0	0.157550	-1.570796	0	-0.486400
	21	0	0	1.570796	0	1.435947
	22	0	0	1.570796	1.570796	0.296334
	23	0.286944	0	1.570796	1.570796	-2.112103
	24	0	0	-1.570796	0	-0.631891
	25	0.227138	0	1.570796	0	-0.170146

Table A-1: A table of link parameters and joint degrees of freedom contributing to the ultimate location of the right wrist at a given point in time. The link variables are the constants used to define each degree of freedom with respect to the previous degree of freedom (recall Fig. 4-7). The joint angles are for each degree of freedom at the first time step in the walking animation developed through [10] and [26]. The three kinematic chains that contribute to the final wrist location are separated. The units are radians for angles and meters for lengths.

		Link Transformation Matrix Components							
Chain	DOF	[1,1]	[1,2]	[1,3]	[1,4]	[2,1]	[2,2]	[2,3]	[2,4]
Global	1	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	2	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	3	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	4	0.072	0.000	0.997	0.000	0.997	0.000	-0.072	0.000
	5	0.100	0.000	0.995	0.000	0.995	0.000	-0.100	0.000
Spine	6	0.126	0.000	0.992	0.000	0.992	0.000	-0.126	0.000
	7	-0.039	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.039	0.000
	8	-0.117	0.000	0.993	0.000	0.993	0.000	0.117	0.000
	9	-0.039	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.039	0.000
	10	-0.007	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.007	0.000
	11	-0.031	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.031	0.000
	12	0.010	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	-0.010	0.000
	13	-0.017	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.017	0.000
	14	-0.032	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.032	0.000
	15	0.017	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	-0.017	0.000
	16	-0.013	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.013	0.000
	17	-0.034	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.999	0.000	0.034	0.000
Right Arm	18	-0.017	0.000	1.000	0.000	-1.000	0.000	-0.017	-0.017
	19	0.986	0.000	-0.168	0.000	-0.168	0.000	-0.986	0.000
	20	0.884	0.000	0.467	0.139	-0.467	0.000	0.884	-0.074
	21	0.134	0.000	0.991	0.000	0.991	0.000	-0.134	0.000
	22	-0.292	0.000	0.956	0.000	0.956	0.000	0.292	0.000
	23	0.857	0.000	-0.515	0.000	-0.515	0.000	-0.857	0.000
	24	0.807	0.000	0.591	0.000	-0.591	0.000	0.807	0.000
	25	0.986	0.000	-0.169	0.000	-0.169	0.000	-0.986	0.000

Table A-2: The first eight transformation matrix components for each degree of freedom from Table A-1.

		Link Transformation Matrix Components							
Chain	DOF	[3,1]	[3,2]	[3,3]	[3,4]	[4,1]	[4,2]	[4,3]	[4,4]
Global	1	0	1.000	0.000	0.363	0	0	0	1
	2	0	1.000	0.000	0.002	0	0	0	1
	3	0	1.000	0.000	0.741	0	0	0	1
	4	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	5	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
Spine	6	0	1.000	0.000	0.087	0	0	0	1
	7	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	8	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	9	0	1.000	0.000	0.054	0	0	0	1
	10	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	11	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	12	0	1.000	0.000	0.073	0	0	0	1
	13	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	14	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	15	0	1.000	0.000	0.080	0	0	0	1
	16	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	17	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
Right Arm	18	0	-1.000	0.000	0.232	0	0	0	1
	19	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	20	0	-1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	21	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	22	0	1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	23	0	1.000	0.000	0.287	0	0	0	1
	24	0	-1.000	0.000	0.000	0	0	0	1
	25	0	1.000	0.000	0.227	0	0	0	1

Table A-3: The last eight transformation matrix components for each degree of freedom from Table A-1.

APPENDIX B. SAMPLE BODY SEGMENT FILE

SPHERICAL MESH

42	7	23	9		
1.0	0.0	0.0			
0.0	1.0	0.0			
0.0	0.0	1.0			
0.0	0.1585	1.2858			
1	0.03100000	0.00000000	0.05369358		
2	0.02192031	0.02192031	0.05369358		
3	0.00000000	0.03100000	0.05369358		
4	0.02192031	-0.02192031	0.05369358		
5	0.00000000	0.00000000	0.06200000		
6	-0.02192031	0.02192031	0.05369358		
7	-0.00000000	-0.03100000	0.05369358		
8	-0.02192031	-0.02192031	0.05369358		
9	-0.03100000	0.00000000	0.05369358		
10	0.05369358	0.00000000	0.03100000		
11	0.06200000	0.00000000	0.00000000		
12	0.03796709	0.03796709	0.03100000		
13	0.04384062	0.04384062	0.00000000		
14	0.00000000	0.05369358	0.03100000		
15	0.00000000	0.06200000	0.00000000		
16	-0.03796709	0.03796709	0.03100000		
17	-0.04384062	0.04384062	0.00000000		
18	-0.05369358	0.00000000	0.03100000		
19	-0.06200000	0.00000000	0.00000000		
20	-0.03796709	-0.03796709	0.03100000		
21	-0.04384062	-0.04384062	0.00000000		
22	-0.00000000	-0.05369358	0.03100000		
23	-0.00000000	-0.06200000	0.00000000		
24	0.03796709	-0.03796709	0.03100000		
25	0.04384062	-0.04384062	0.00000000		
26	0.03100000	0.00000000	-0.05369358		
27	0.02192031	0.02192031	-0.05369358		
28	0.00000000	0.03100000	-0.05369358		
29	0.02192031	-0.02192031	-0.05369358		
30	0.00000000	0.00000000	-0.06200000		
31	-0.02192031	0.02192031	-0.05369358		
32	-0.00000000	-0.03100000	-0.05369358		
33	-0.02192031	-0.02192031	-0.05369358		
34	-0.03100000	0.00000000	-0.05369358		
35	0.05369358	0.00000000	-0.03100000		
36	0.03796709	0.03796709	-0.03100000		
37	0.00000000	0.05369358	-0.03100000		
38	-0.03796709	0.03796709	-0.03100000		
39	-0.05369358	0.00000000	-0.03100000		
40	-0.03796709	-0.03796709	-0.03100000		
41	-0.00000000	-0.05369358	-0.03100000		
42	0.03796709	-0.03796709	-0.03100000		
1	5	40	4	1	
1	1	1	2	5	4
2	1	2	3	6	5
3	1	4	5	8	7

4	1	5	6	9	8
5	1	1	10	12	2
6	1	10	11	13	12
7	1	2	12	14	3
8	1	12	13	15	14
9	1	3	14	16	6
10	1	14	15	17	16
11	1	6	16	18	9
12	1	16	17	19	18
13	1	9	18	20	8
14	1	18	19	21	20
15	1	8	20	22	7
16	1	20	21	23	22
17	1	7	22	24	4
18	1	22	23	25	24
19	1	4	24	10	1
20	1	24	25	11	10
21	1	26	29	30	27
22	1	27	30	31	28
23	1	29	32	33	30
24	1	30	33	34	31
25	1	26	27	36	35
26	1	35	36	13	11
27	1	27	28	37	36
28	1	36	37	15	13
29	1	28	31	38	37
30	1	37	38	17	15
31	1	31	34	39	38
32	1	38	39	19	17
33	1	34	33	40	39
34	1	39	40	21	19
35	1	33	32	41	40
36	1	40	41	23	21
37	1	32	29	42	41
38	1	41	42	25	23
39	1	29	26	35	42
40	1	42	35	11	25

APPENDIX C. BODY SEGMENT EDGE CENTROID RESOLVER

```

// This program determines the edges and edge centroids of a supplied mesh
// Outputs edge nodes in order of connectivity, followed by the edge centroid
// Written in the "c" programming language
//
// Compile as follows: cc filename.c -lm -o filename
//
// Requires body segment file (renamed as data.txt) for reading
// The data.txt file is to be formatted as shown in Appendix B

#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>

#define maxElem 500
#define maxPolySize 4
#define TLENGTH 80

// declare file pointers
FILE *fpin;

// declare functions
void scan_connectivity_data();
void test_segment(int i);
void sort_edge_segment();
void start_new_edge();
void print_data();
int rtitle( FILE *fp, char *title );

// declare global variables
int segments[maxElem*maxPolySize][2]; // array of all segments
int edgeSegments[maxElem*maxPolySize][2]; // array of all edge segments
int edgeNodes[maxElem*maxPolySize]; // array of sorted edge nodes
int k, m; // place holders for beginning and end of edge node sequence
int numNodes, numElem; // total number of nodes and elements, respectively
int numSeg = 0, numEdgeSeg = 0; // number of total segments and total edge segments
int nodeAdded = 0; // boolean variable representing if a node was added during loop;
// 0 = false, 1 = true
int totalNodesAdded = 2; // total number of nodes added

double nodalCoords[maxElem*maxPolySize][3]; // array of nodal coordinate data
char title[80]; // file header/title array

```

```

int main()
{
    int junk;    // discarded variable
    int i, loopIter = 0;    // local counter variables
    double junk2;    // discarded variable

    // open file for reading
    if( (fpin = fopen("data.txt", "r")) == NULL )
    {
        printf("\n\n The file could not be opened!\n\n");
        return 0;
    }

    // scan passed file title
    rtitle(fpin, title);

    // scan for number of nodes
    fscanf(fpin, "%d%d%d%d%d", &numNodes, &junk, &junk, &junk, &junk);

    // scan and discard segment-specific rotation and translation information
    fscanf(fpin, "%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf%lf", &junk2, &junk2, &junk2,
        &junk2, &junk2, &junk2, &junk2, &junk2, &junk2, &junk2, &junk2);

    // scan nodal coordinate data
    for( i=0; i<numNodes; i++ )
    {
        fscanf(fpin, "%d%lf%lf%lf", &junk, &nodalCoords[i][0], &nodalCoords[i][1],
            &nodalCoords[i][2]);
    }

    // scan for number of elements
    fscanf(fpin, "%d%d%d%d%d", &junk, &junk, &numElem, &junk, &junk);

    // scan connectivity data
    for( i=0; i<numElem; i++ )
    {
        // run function to scan connectivity data and store as segments
        scan_connectivity_data();
    }

    // tell user how many total segments were found
    printf("\nTotal number of segments scanned (including duplicates): %d\n", numSeg);

    fclose(fpin);    // close file

```



```

// determine which segments are edge segments
for( i=0; i<numSeg; i++ )
{
    // run function to test segment for uniqueness
    test_segment(i);
}

// tell user how many total edge segments were found
printf("Total number of edge segments found: %d\n\n", numEdgeSeg);

// initialize first edge
edgeNodes[0] = edgeSegments[0][0];
edgeNodes[1] = edgeSegments[0][1];
edgeSegments[0][0] = edgeSegments[0][1] = -1;
m = 0;
k = 1;

// sort rest of edge nodes
while( totalNodesAdded <= numEdgeSeg )
{
    loopIter++;
    nodeAdded = 0;    // reset variable for current loop

    // run function to sort the current edge segment
    sort_edge_segment();

    // start new edge if loop has run twice without adding a node
    if( ((loopIter > 1) && (nodeAdded == 0)) || (totalNodesAdded > numEdgeSeg) )
    {
        loopIter = 0;

        // run function to begin new edge sequence
        start_new_edge();
    }
} // end of while loop

// run function to output sorted edge nodes and centroids to user
print_data();

return 0;
} // end of main function

// This function scans the data file and stores the segments therein
void scan_connectivity_data()
{

```

```

int junk; // discarded variable
int seg1, seg2, seg3, seg4; // intermediate variables
int temp[4]; // temporary variable

fscanf(fpin, "%d%d%d%d%d%d", &junk, &junk, &temp[0], &temp[1], &temp[2],
        &temp[3]);
if( temp[2] == temp[3] ) // if the element has 3 sides
{
    numSeg += 3;
    seg1 = numSeg - 3;
    seg2 = numSeg - 2;
    seg3 = numSeg - 1;
    segments[seg3][1] = segments[seg1][0] = temp[0];
    segments[seg1][1] = segments[seg2][0] = temp[1];
    segments[seg2][1] = segments[seg3][0] = temp[2];
}
Else // if the element has 4 sides
{
    numSeg += 4;
    seg1 = numSeg - 4;
    seg2 = numSeg - 3;
    seg3 = numSeg - 2;
    seg4 = numSeg - 1;
    segments[seg4][1] = segments[seg1][0] = temp[0];
    segments[seg1][1] = segments[seg2][0] = temp[1];
    segments[seg2][1] = segments[seg3][0] = temp[2];
    segments[seg3][1] = segments[seg4][0] = temp[3];
}
} // end of scan_connectivity_data function

// this function determines if the segment in question is unique
void test_segment(int i)
{
    int j = 0, segMatchCntr = 0; // local counter variables

    while( j<numSeg )
    {
        // test uniqueness
        if( ((segments[i][0] == segments[j][0]) && (segments[i][1] == segments[j][1]))
            || ((segments[i][0] == segments[j][1]) && (segments[i][1] == segments[j][0])) )
        {
            segMatchCntr++;
        }
    }
}

```

```

// stop search for match if segment is not unique
if( segMatchCtr>1 )
{
    j = numSeg;
}
j++;
} // end of while loop

// store the edge segments for sorting later
if( segMatchCtr<2 )
{
    edgeSegments[numEdgeSeg][0] = segments[i][0];
    edgeSegments[numEdgeSeg][1] = segments[i][1];
    numEdgeSeg++;
}
} // end of test_segment function

// This function sorts the unique segments in order of connectivity
void sort_edge_segment()
{
    int j, l; // local counter variables

    for( j=0; j<numEdgeSeg; j++ )
    {
        if( edgeSegments[j][0] != -1 ) // make sure segment has not already been sorted
        {
            // sort segment
            if( edgeNodes[k] == edgeSegments[j][0] )
            {
                k++;
                edgeNodes[k] = edgeSegments[j][1];
                edgeSegments[j][0] = edgeSegments[j][1] = -1;
                nodeAdded = 1;
                totalNodesAdded++;
            }
            else if( edgeNodes[k] == edgeSegments[j][1] )
            {
                k++;
                edgeNodes[k] = edgeSegments[j][0];
                edgeSegments[j][0] = edgeSegments[j][1] = -1;
                nodeAdded = 1;
                totalNodesAdded++;
            }
            else if( edgeNodes[m] == edgeSegments[j][0] )
            {

```

```

    k++;
    // make room for new first node
    for( l=k; l>m; l-- )
    {
        edgeNodes[l] = edgeNodes[l-1];
    }
    edgeNodes[m] = edgeSegments[j][1];
    edgeSegments[j][0] = edgeSegments[j][1] = -1;
    nodeAdded = 1;
    totalNodesAdded++;
}
else if( edgeNodes[m] == edgeSegments[j][1] )
{
    k++;
    // make room for new first node
    for( l=k; l>m; l-- )
    {
        edgeNodes[l] = edgeNodes[l-1];
    }
    edgeNodes[m] = edgeSegments[j][0];
    edgeSegments[j][0] = edgeSegments[j][1] = -1;
    nodeAdded = 1;
    totalNodesAdded++;
}
}
} // end of for loop
} // end of sort_edge_segment function

// This function begins a new edge if the previous edge is complete
void start_new_edge()
{
    int i = 0; // local counter variable

    // Make sure ending and beginning edge nodes are not the same
    if( edgeNodes[k] == edgeNodes[m] )
    {
        k--;
    }

    edgeNodes[k+1] = -1; // marker for beginning of new edge
    k += 3; // reset ending node for new edge sequence
    m = k - 1; // reset starting node for new edge sequence
    totalNodesAdded += 2;
}

```

```

// reset new edge segment starting and ending nodes
while( i < numEdgeSeg )
{
    // make sure new edge starting and ending nodes aren't already sorted
    if( edgeSegments[i][0] != -1)
    {
        edgeNodes[m] = edgeSegments[i][0];
        edgeNodes[k] = edgeSegments[i][1];
        edgeSegments[i][0] = edgeSegments[i][1] = -1;
        i = numEdgeSeg;
    }
    i++;
}
} // end of start_new_edge function

// This function prints the sorted edges to the user
void print_data()
{
    int i; // local counter variable
    int j = 0; // place holder for first node of current edge in edgeNodes
    int node1, node2; // place holder for nodes of current segment in nocalCoords
    double xd, yd, zd; // intermediate variables
    double xm = 0, ym = 0, zm = 0; // running total of length-weighted midpoints
    double ds; // current segment's segment length
    double dsTotal = 0; // running total of segment lengths
    double xbar, ybar, zbar; // edge centroid coordinates

    for( i=0; i<k-1; i++ )
    {
        printf("%d ", edgeNodes[i]);

        node1 = edgeNodes[i] - 1;
        node2 = edgeNodes[i+1] - 1; // set node2 to be the node succeeding node1
        if( edgeNodes[i+1] == -1 )
        {
            node2 = edgeNodes[j] - 1; // reset node2 to be first node in edge if node1 is same
            // as last node
        }

        xd = (nodalCoords[node1][0] - nodalCoords[node2][0]);
        yd = (nodalCoords[node1][1] - nodalCoords[node2][1]);
        zd = (nodalCoords[node1][2] - nodalCoords[node2][2]);
        ds = sqrt(xd*xd + yd*yd + zd*zd);
    }
}

```

```

// calculate running totals
xm += ds*(nodalCoords[node1][0] + nodalCoords[node2][0])/2;
ym += ds*(nodalCoords[node1][1] + nodalCoords[node2][1])/2;
zm += ds*(nodalCoords[node1][2] + nodalCoords[node2][2])/2;
dsTotal += ds;

if( edgeNodes[i+1] == -1 )
{
    // calculate centroid coordinates and output them to user
    xbar = xm/dsTotal;
    ybar = ym/dsTotal;
    zbar = zm/dsTotal;
    printf("\n%lf %lf %lf\n\n", xbar, ybar, zbar);

    // reset running total variables for new edge
    dsTotal = 0;
    xm = 0;
    ym = 0;
    zm = 0;

    i++; // increment i to skip outputting the "-1" marker
    j = i + 1; // reset j to be first node of new edge
}
} // end of for loop

printf("\n"); // start a new line
} // end of print_data function

// This function skips the title line of the data file
int rtitle( FILE *fp, char *title)
{
    int i = 0;
    int c;
    char cdum;

    for( i=0; i<TLENGTH; i++ )
    {
        title[i] = ' ';
    }

    i = 0;

    while( ((c = getc(fp)) != '\n') && (c != EOF) )
    {
        if( i < TLENGTH )

```

```
    title[i] = c;
    i++;
}

title[TLENGTH-1] = '\0';

return i;
} // end of rtitle function
```

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