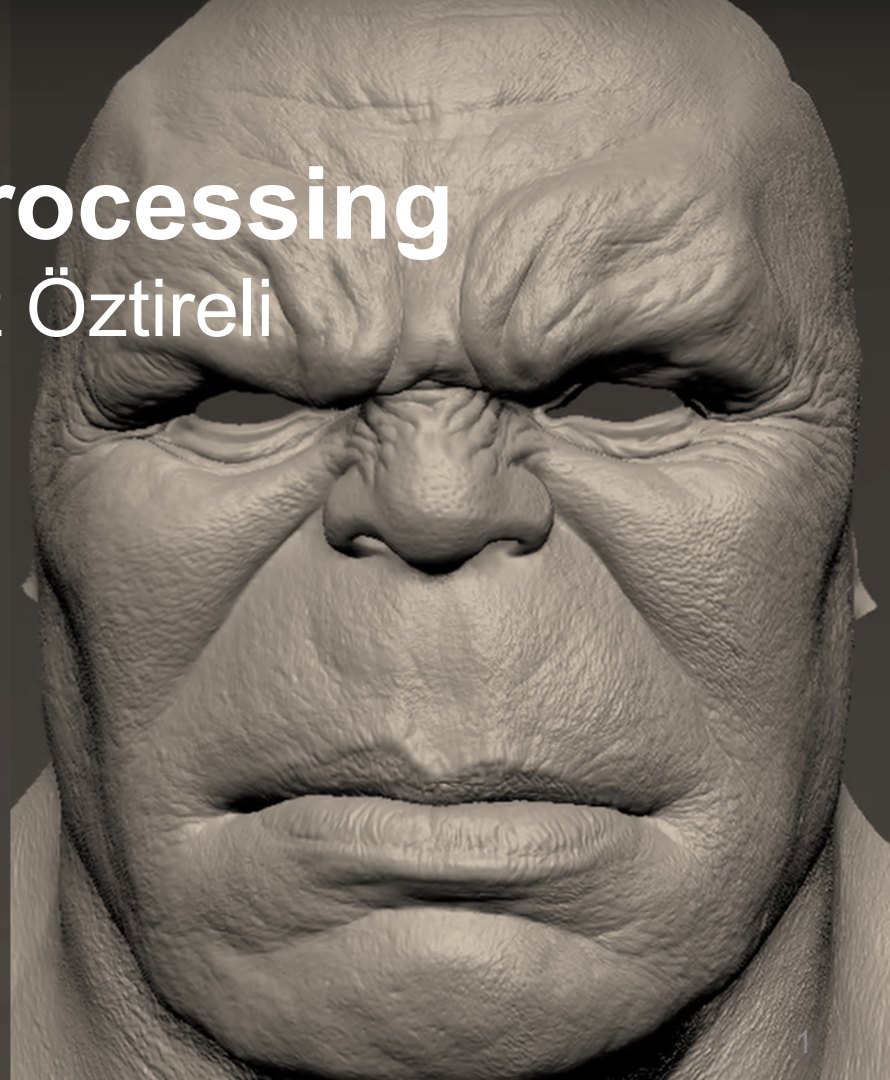
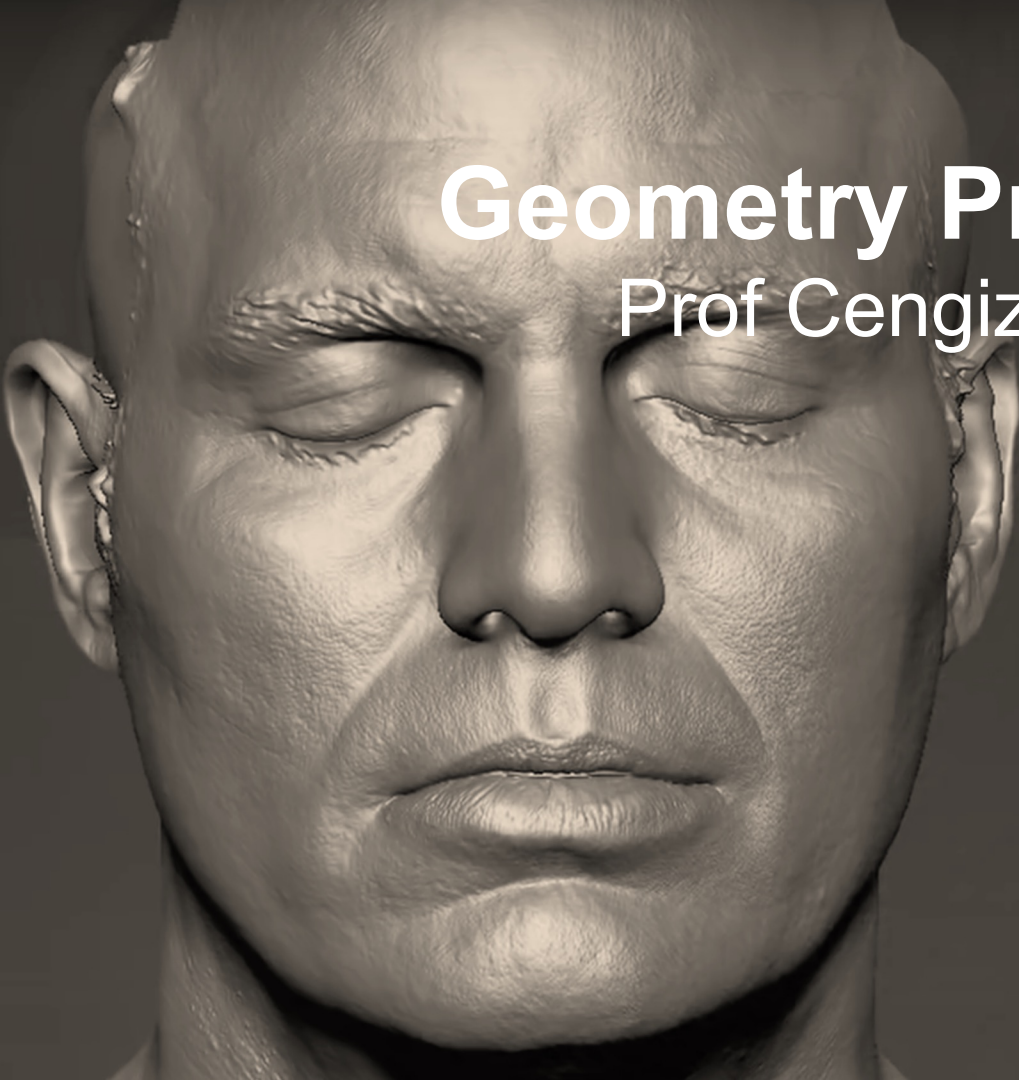


# Geometry Processing

Prof Cengiz Öztireli

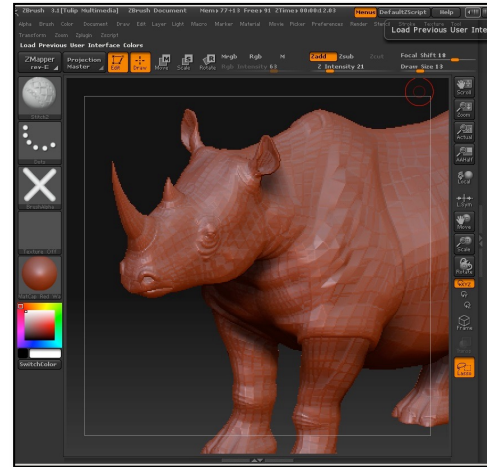


# Sources of Geometry

Acquisition from the real world

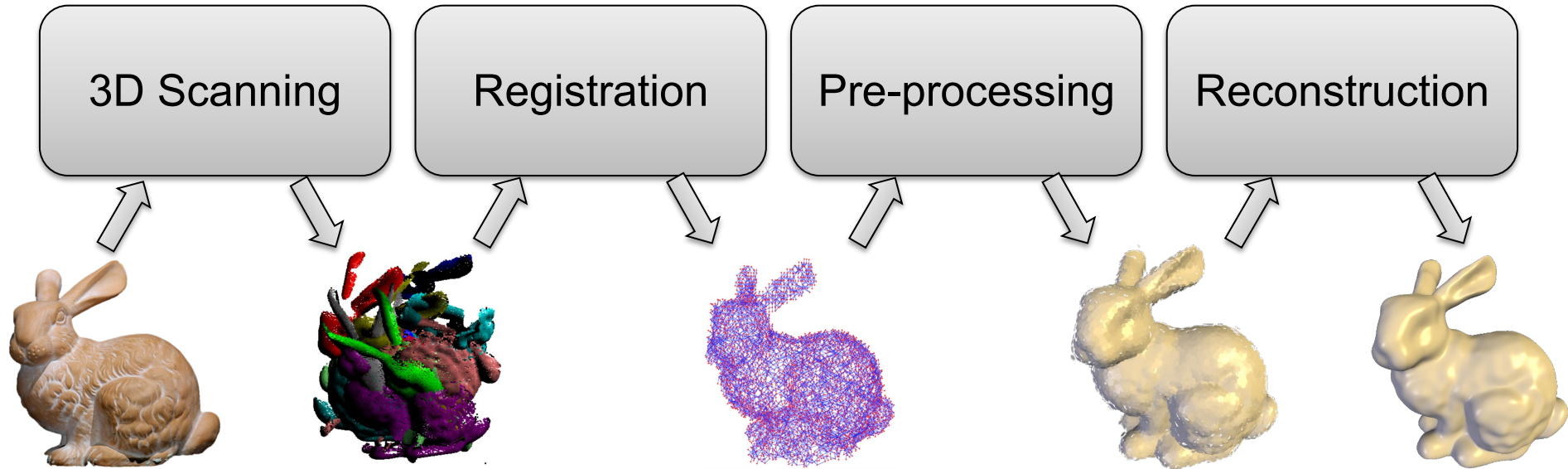


Modeling applications



# Shape Acquisition

- Digitizing real world objects





## Shape Acquisition

Most modern 3D scanning systems are optical sensor based.

In optical scanning, active systems have a light source, laser, etc. that we can control.

Passive systems only have a sensor and we do not have control over the environment and object poses.

- **3D Scanning**

### Touch Probes



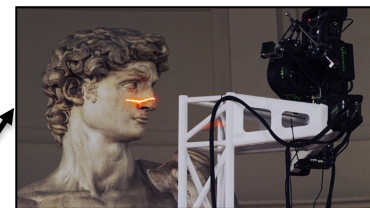
- + Precise
- Small objects

### Optical Scanning



- + Fast
- Glossy objects

### Active



### Passive





# Shape Acquisition

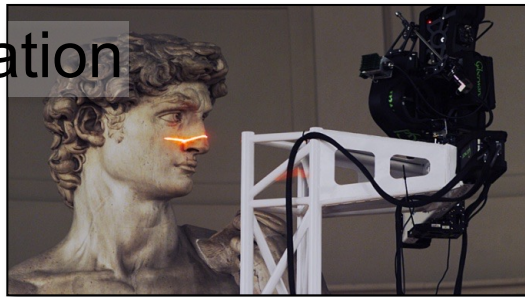
- Optical Scanning – Active Systems

LIDAR



Measures the time it takes the laser beam to hit the object and come back

Triangulation  
Laser



Projected laser beam is photographed, giving the distance of the pattern

## Shape Acquisition

An example of a passive system is multi-view stereo.

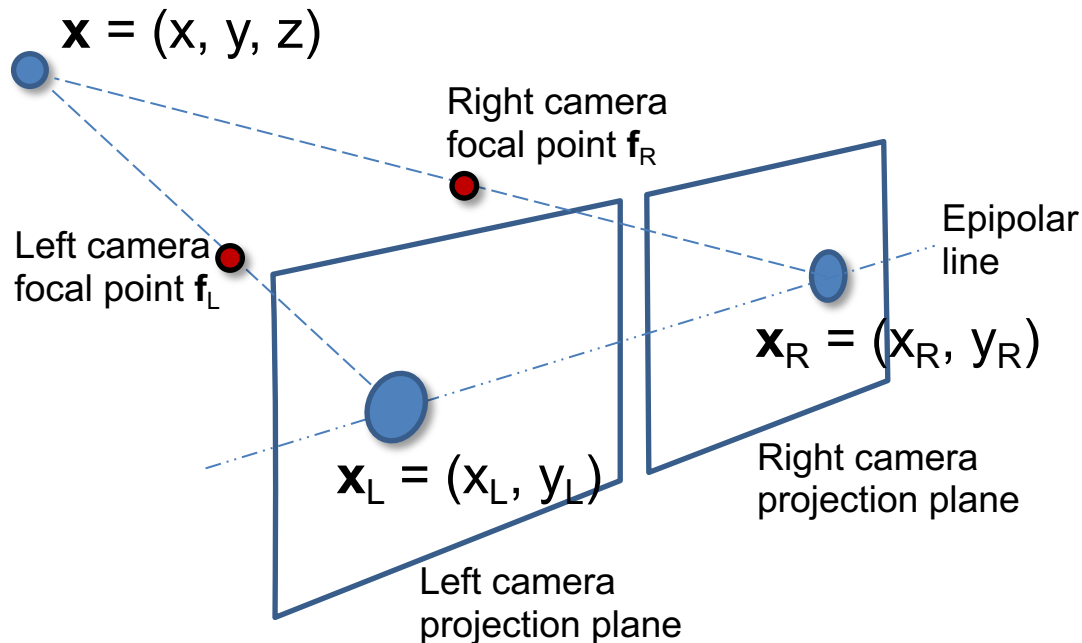
Each point  $\mathbf{x}$  in 3D maps to two different points,  $\mathbf{x}_L$  and  $\mathbf{x}_R$ .

We can find  $\mathbf{x}$ , by intersecting the lines connecting  $\mathbf{f}_L$  and  $\mathbf{x}_L$ , and  $\mathbf{f}_R$  and  $\mathbf{x}_R$ .

Of course, this assumes we already know  $\mathbf{x}_L$  and  $\mathbf{x}_R$  corresponds to the same point in 3D.

- # Optical Scanning – Passive Systems

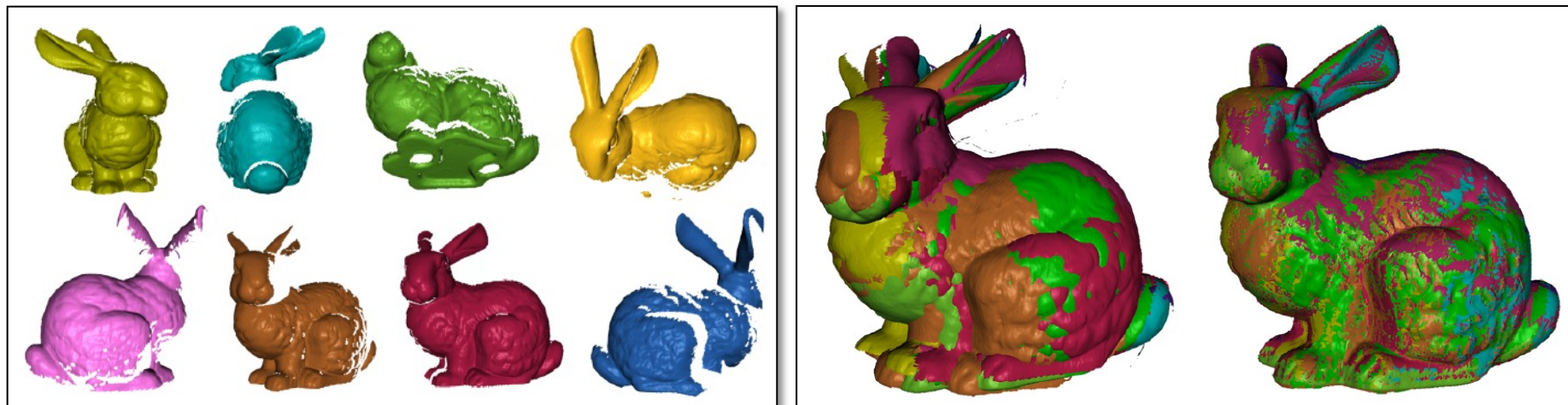
## Multi-view Stereo



## Shape Acquisition

When objects are acquired, the 3D point clouds are in different coordinate frames, i.e. rotated and translated. Registration is the process of bringing all of them into a common coordinate frame.

- Registration
  - Bringing scans into a common coordinate frame





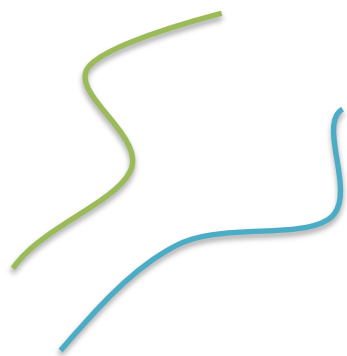
## Shape Acquisition

Iterative closest point (ICP) algorithms are typically used for precise registration.

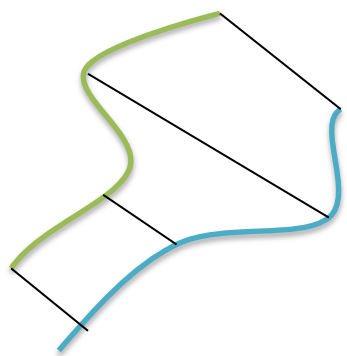
ICP: 1. establish point-to-point correspondences, 2. compute and apply the optimum rotation and translation, 3. iterate.

- **Registration**

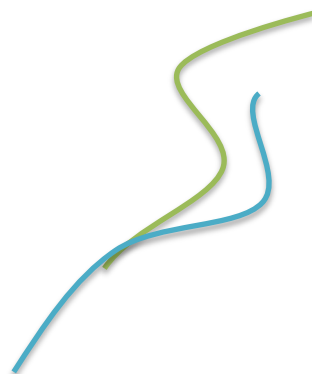
### Iterative Closest Point Algorithms



Patches to be aligned

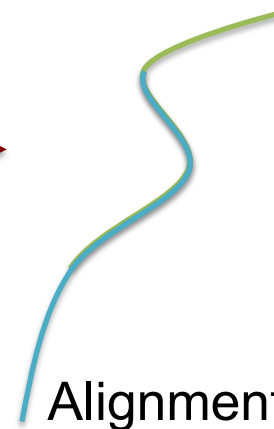


Correspondences



Rigid motion

→ Iterate



Alignment

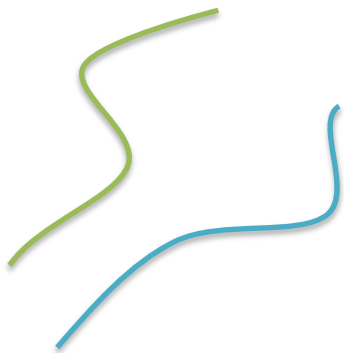
## Shape Acquisition

If rotation/ translation of the initial patches are really off, establishing correspondences is not easy.

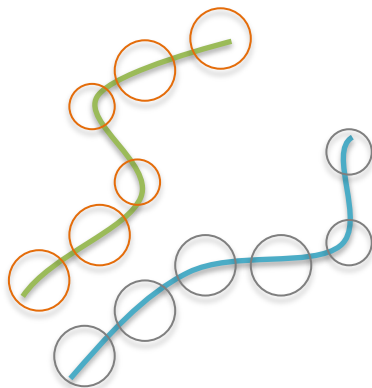
Feature-based methods compute rotation and translation invariant descriptors for points and match those.

- **Registration**

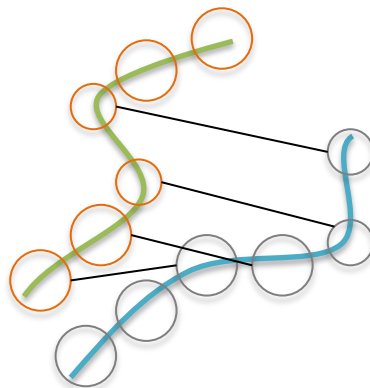
### Feature-based Methods



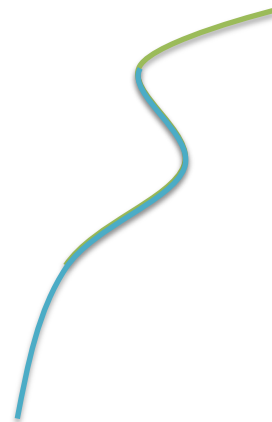
Patches to be aligned



Compute descriptors



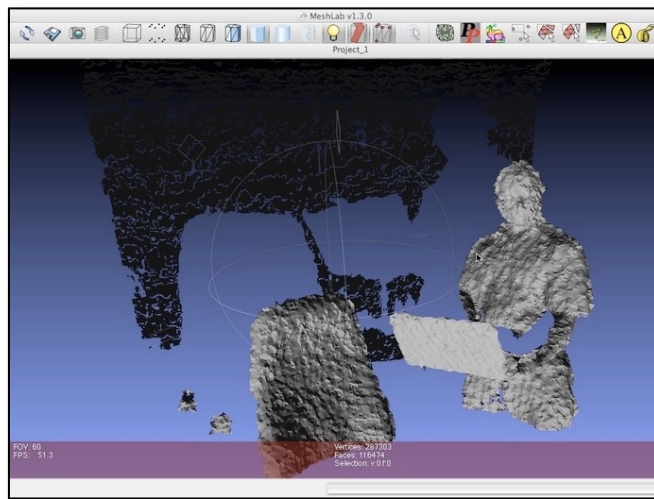
Match descriptors



Alignment

# Shape Acquisition

- Pre-processing
  - Cleaning, repairing, resampling



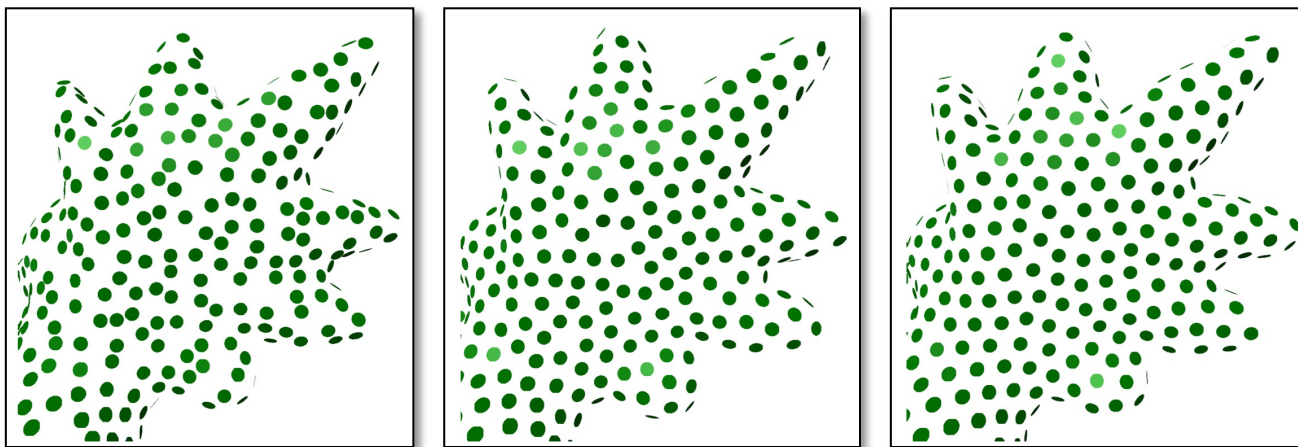


## Shape Acquisition

Accurate and efficient reconstructions of surfaces fundamentally depends on how we distribute points on the surface to represent the surface.

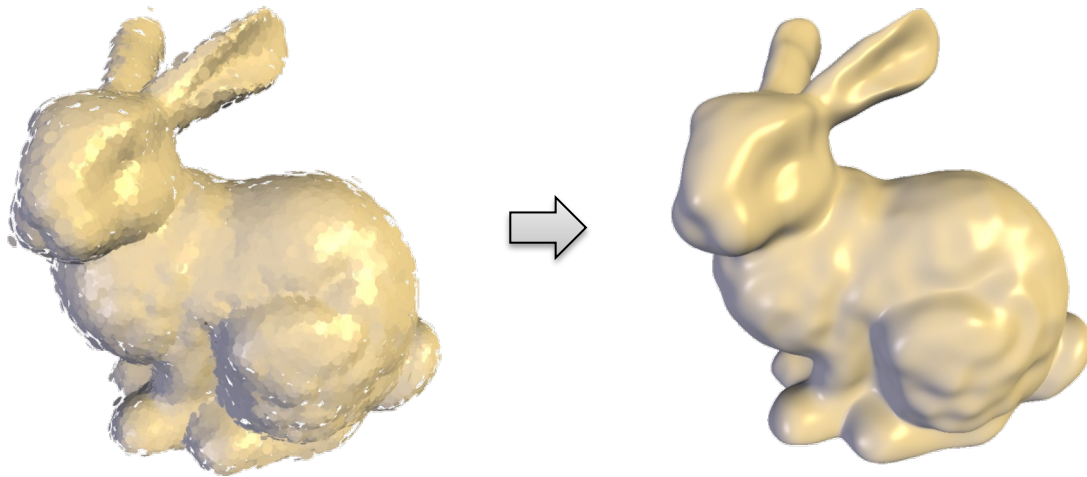
There are extensions of the sampling theorem to irregular sampling on surfaces.

- **Pre-processing**
  - Sampling for accurate reconstructions



# Shape Acquisition

- Reconstruction
  - Mathematical representation for a shape



## Shape Acquisition

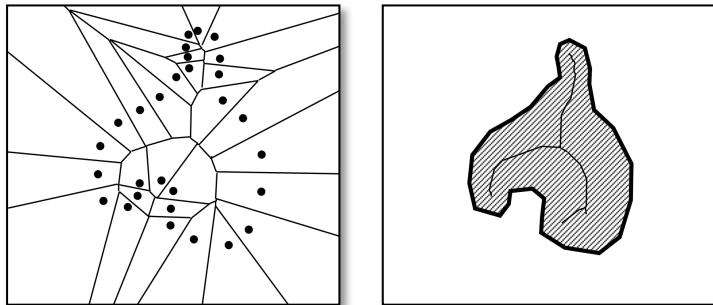
There are two ways to reconstruct a mathematical definition of a surface.

The first one connects the sample points with lines/ triangles/ polygons, etc.

The second method approximates the underlying surface, e.g. via a least squares solution.

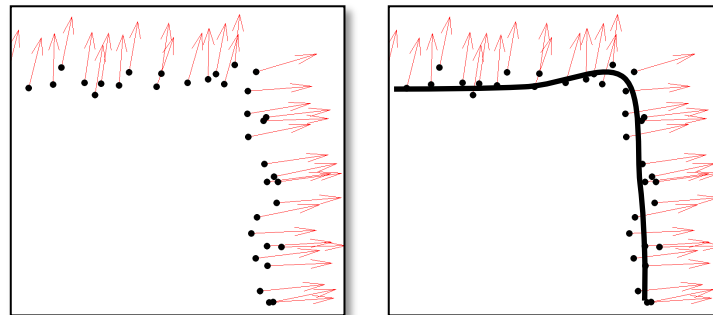
# • Reconstruction

## Connect-the-points Methods



- + Theoretical error bounds
- Expensive
- Not robust to noise

## Approximation-based Methods



- + Efficient to compute
- + Robust to noise
- No theoretical error bounds



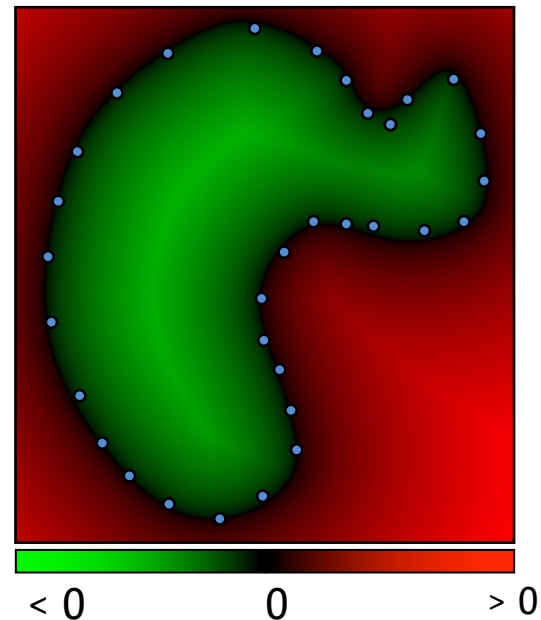
## Shape Acquisition

Some of the most versatile reconstruction methods work with implicit representations.  
We talked about those in previous lectures.

- Approximating an implicit function

$$f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

with value  $> 0$  outside  
the shape and  $< 0$  inside



# Shape Acquisition

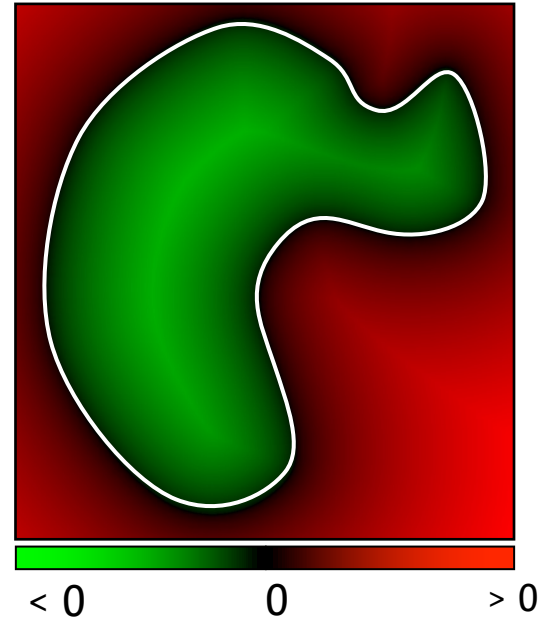
- Approximating an implicit function

$$f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

with value  $> 0$  outside  
the shape and  $< 0$  inside

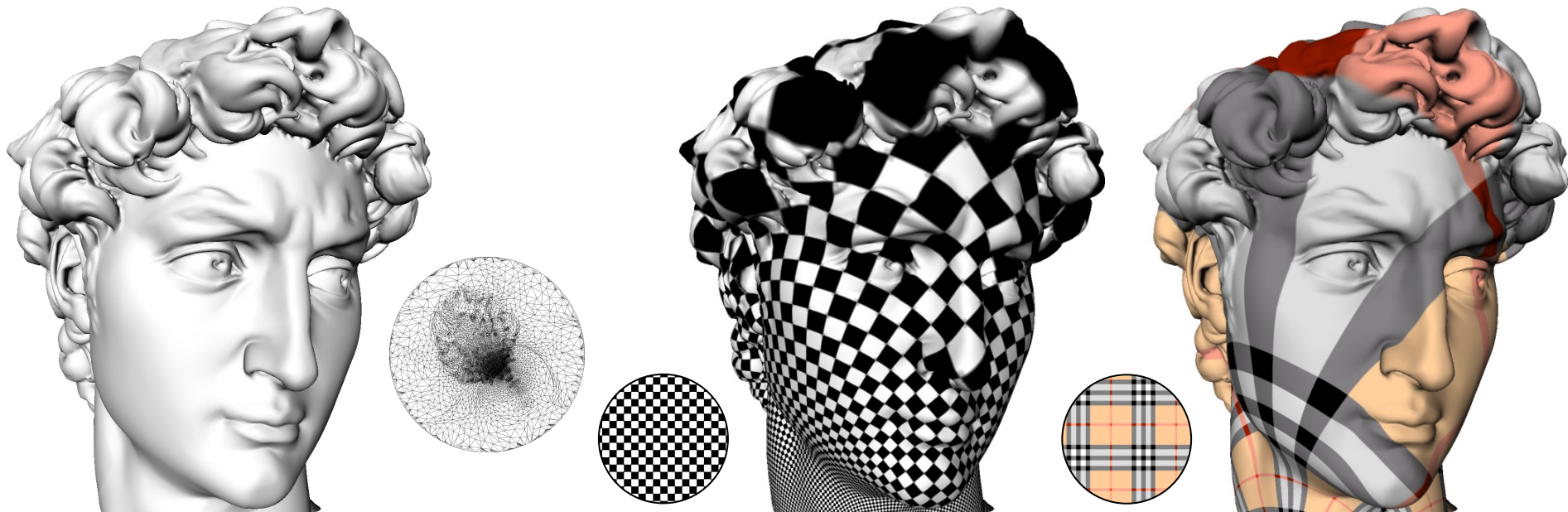
$$\{\mathbf{x} : f(\mathbf{x}) = 0\}$$

extract zero set



## Texture Mapping

Once the surface of an object is reconstructed, we add color and detail using texture mapping. This requires parametrizing the surface, i.e. finding a mapping from a plane to the surface.

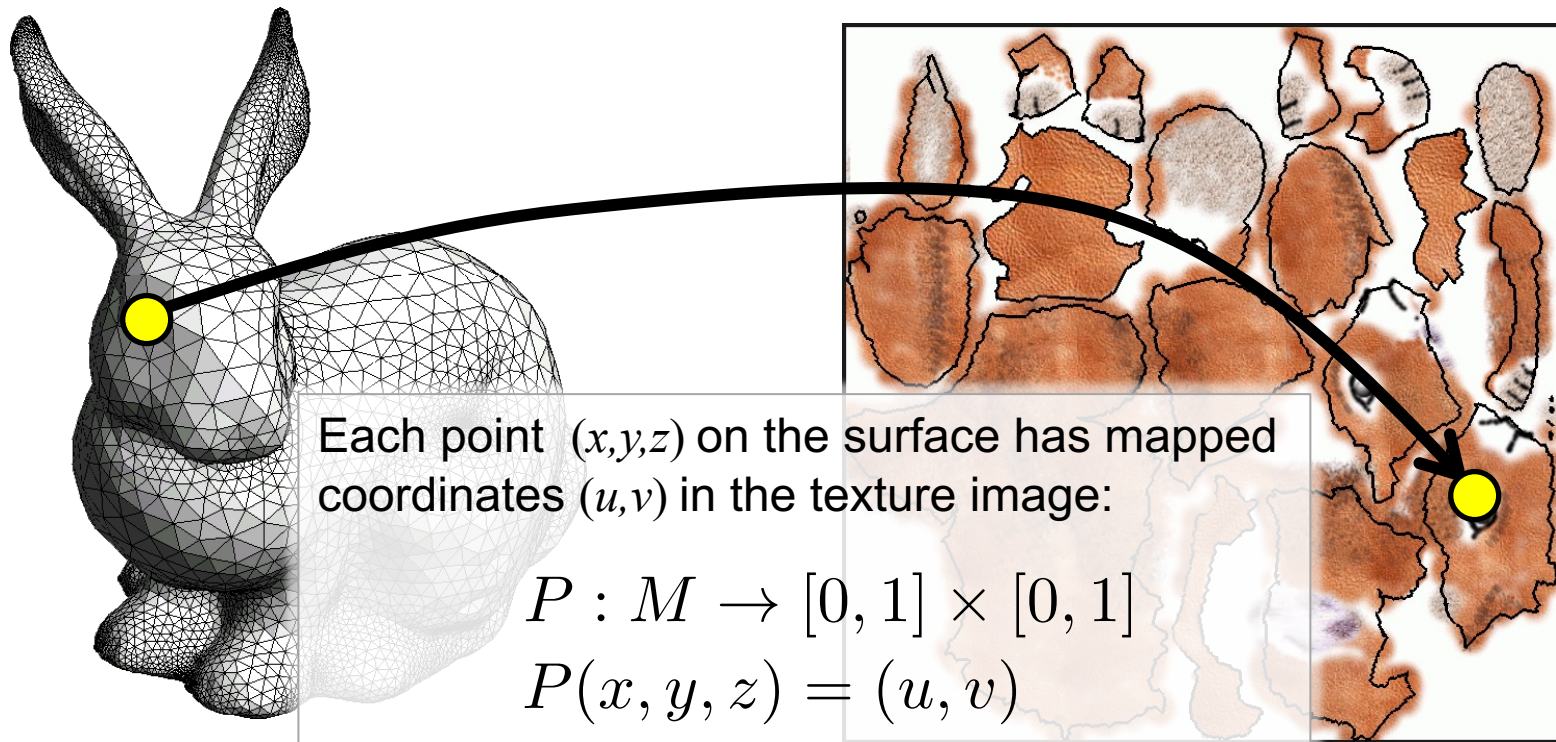


# Parametrization



## Texture Mapping

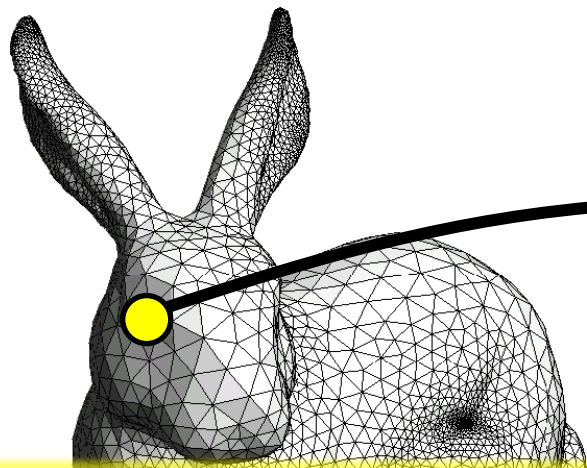
The  $(u, v)$  coordinates live on the image plane. For each  $(u, v)$ , we have the corresponding point  $(x, y, z)$ . We can assume the texture space is a unit square and define a map  $P$  from the surface to this square.



## Texture Mapping

We further have an attribute, e.g. color, associated with each  $(u, v)$ .

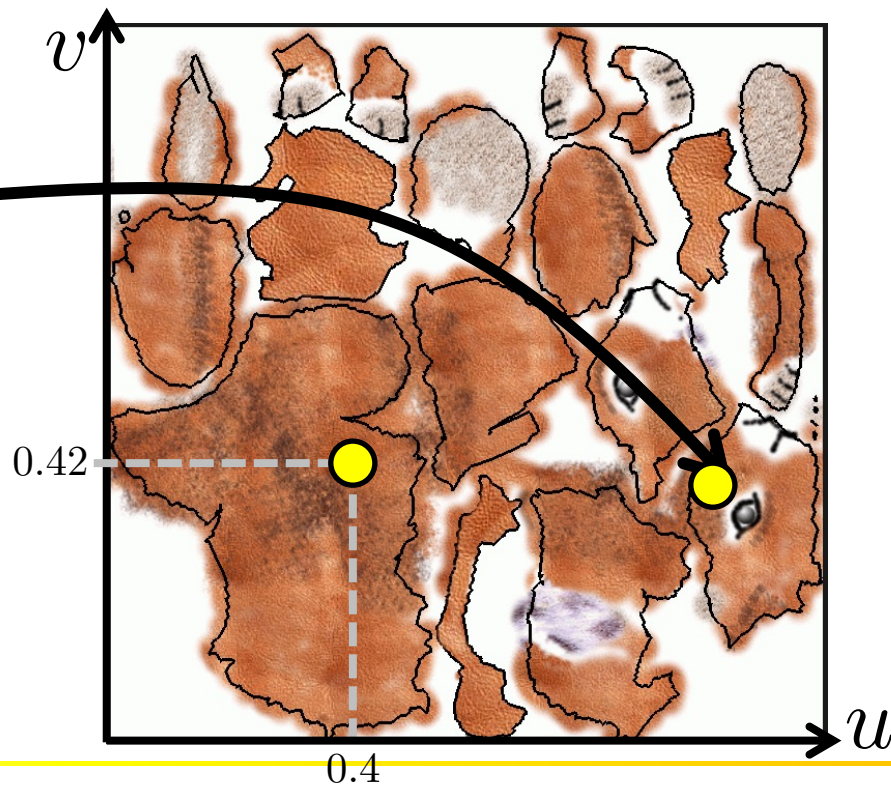
Let's denote this map with  $T$ .



Texture itself is a function:

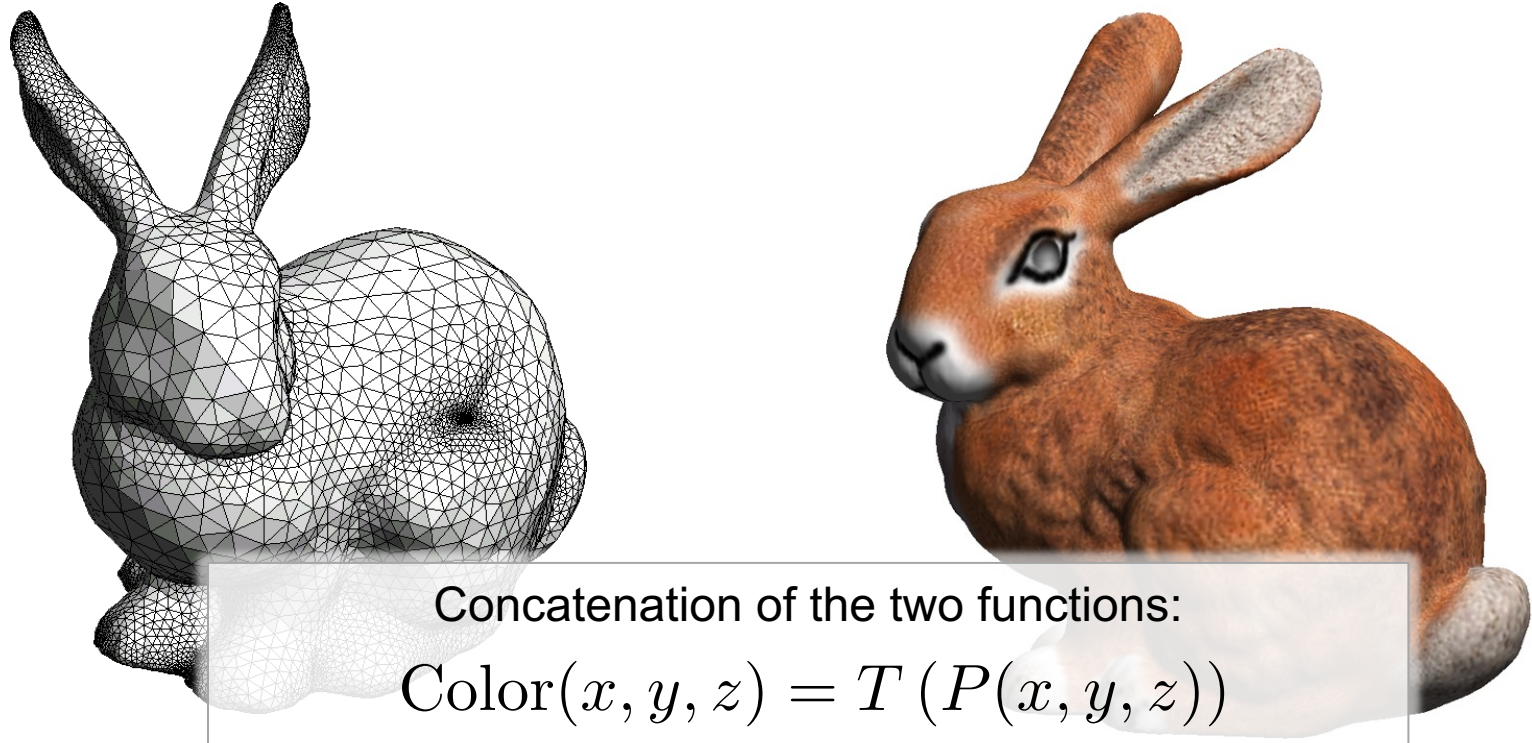
$$T : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow \text{RGB}$$

$$T(u, v) = (r, g, b)$$



## Texture Mapping

These two maps define the final map that provides us with a color for each point on the surface.



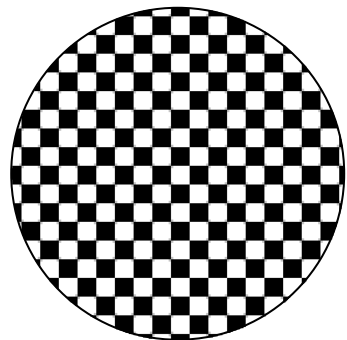
Concatenation of the two functions:

$$\text{Color}(x, y, z) = T(P(x, y, z))$$

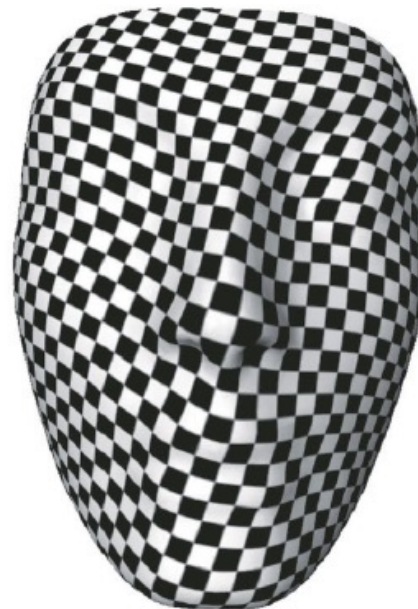
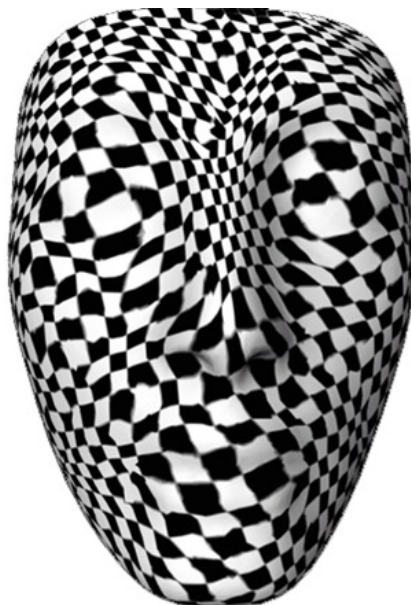


## Texture Mapping

The critical part here is the parametrization  $P$ . In general, it is impossible to have a distortion-free map from a plane to a surface in 3D. We need to decide on what distortion we allow for.



Texture image

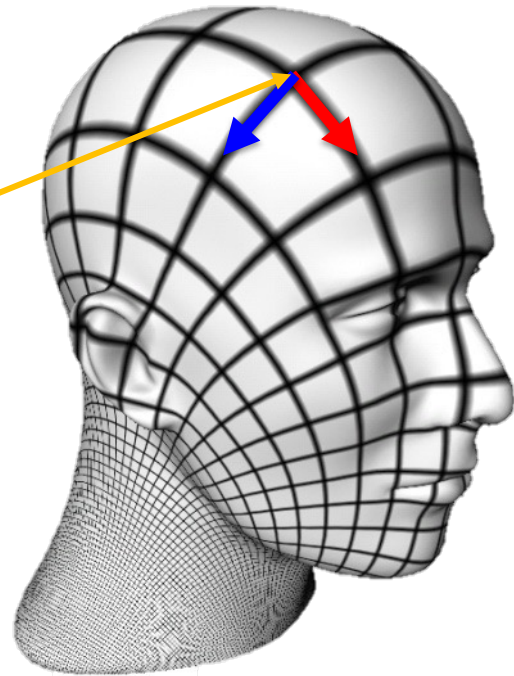
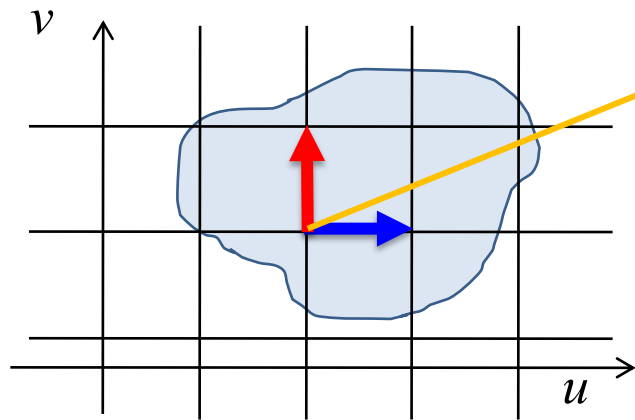


## Parametrization

To define the properties of distortion, we can first explicitly write  $\mathbf{p}$  as three functions, one for each component, as we did before.

Such a parametrization implies a map from vectors in the  $uv$  – space to those in the 3D space.

$$\mathbf{p}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} x(u, v) \\ y(u, v) \\ z(u, v) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$





## Parametrization

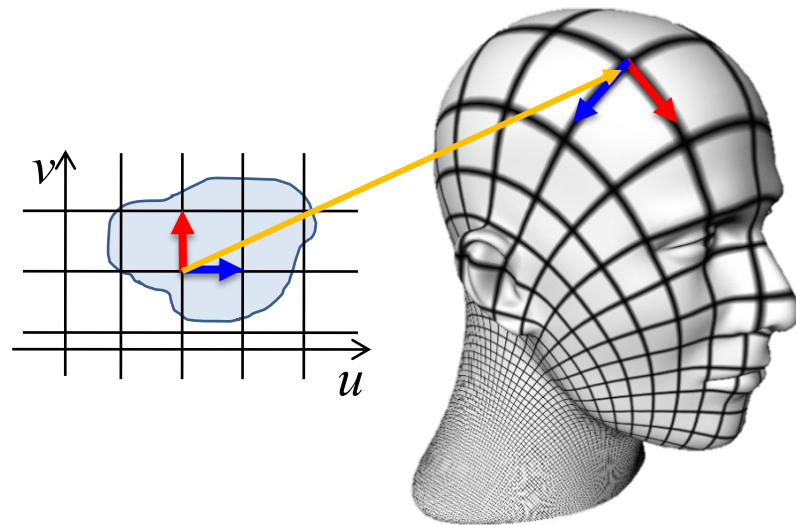
We can then define the so-called first fundamental form. This is a 2 x 2 matrix consisting of dot products of derivatives with respect to  $u$  and  $v$ .

Note that we denote the dot product with  $^T$ , implying the transpose operator followed by matrix multiplication.

$$\mathbf{p}(u, v) = \begin{pmatrix} x(u, v) \\ y(u, v) \\ z(u, v) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$\mathbf{p}_u = \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}(u, v)}{\partial u}, \quad \mathbf{p}_v = \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}(u, v)}{\partial v}$$

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_u & \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_v \\ \mathbf{p}_v^T \mathbf{p}_u & \mathbf{p}_v^T \mathbf{p}_v \end{pmatrix}$$



## Parametrization

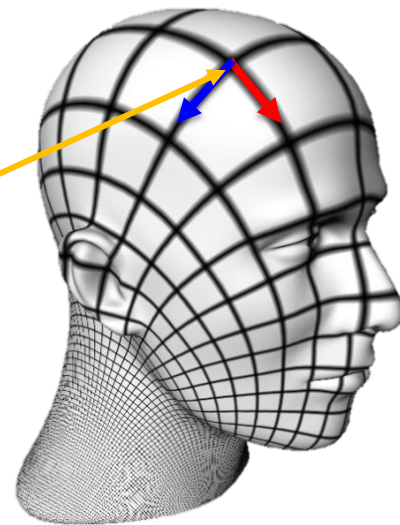
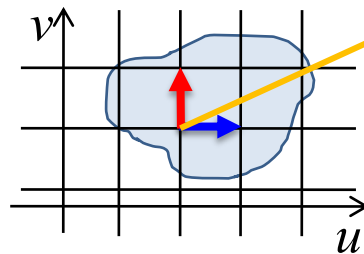
This matrix measures the angle and length change in different terms.

The area distortion can also be expressed in terms of these terms. It is defined as the change in areas when applying the map.

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} E & F \\ F & G \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_u & \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_v \\ \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_v & \mathbf{p}_v^T \mathbf{p}_v \end{pmatrix}$$

Angle change

Length change



$$\text{Area distortion: } dA = \sqrt{EG - F^2} \, dudv$$

## Parametrization

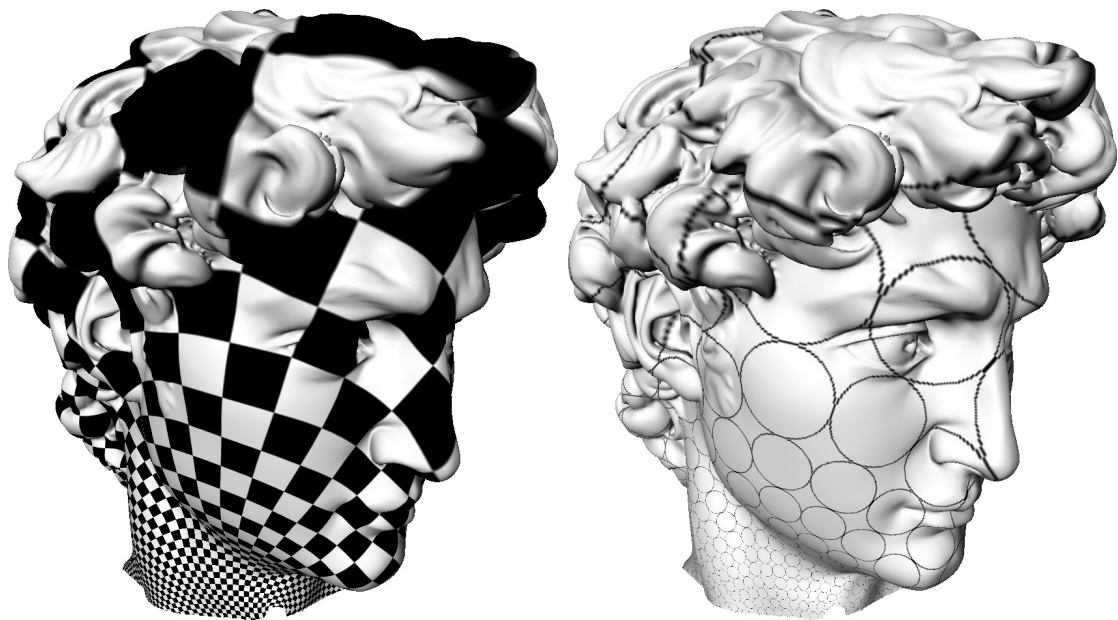
Conformal maps preserve angles such that e.g. squares map to squares with right angles.

For conformal maps, the first fundamental form is the identity matrix.

In practice, we can typically compute approximately conformal maps for parametrization.

## Conformal parametrization (angle preservation)

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_u & \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_v \\ \mathbf{p}_u^T \mathbf{p}_v & \mathbf{p}_v^T \mathbf{p}_v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$



## Editing Geometry

There are many established tools to further edit geometry.

Some are artistic, e.g. via sculpting, others are engineering related, e.g. designing parts of a machine.

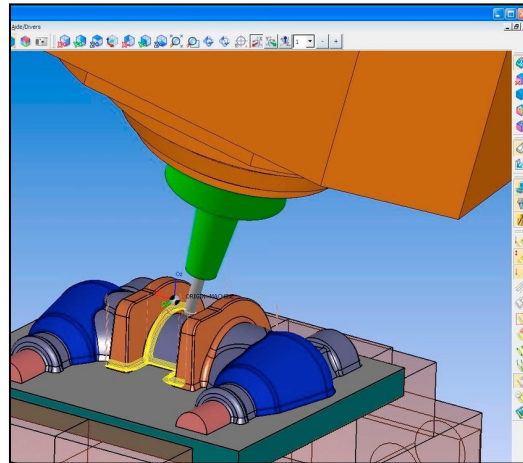
Procedural geometry, where we define the rules for geometry creation, is becoming more popular, e.g. infinite virtual cities in games.

- **Modeling tools**

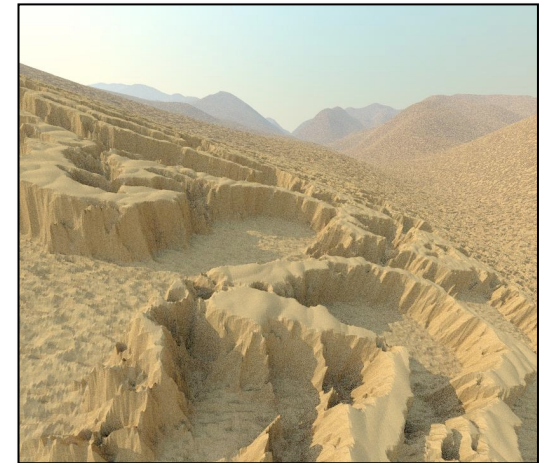
### Sculpting



### CAD/CAM

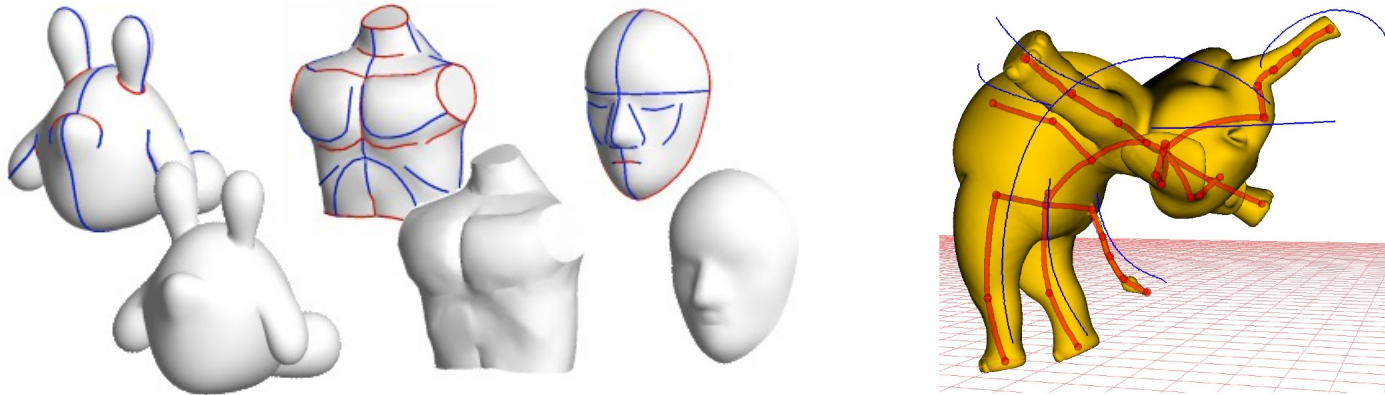


### Procedural



There are further novel interfaces based on e.g. contour or motion curve sketching.

- Interactive & sketch-based interfaces



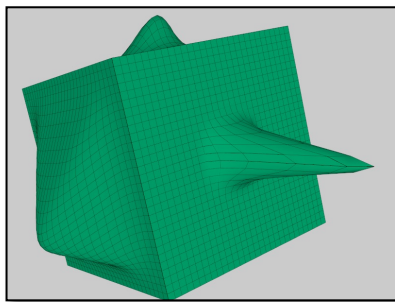
## Editing Geometry

Deforming an initial surface is a typical workflow in digital modeling tools.

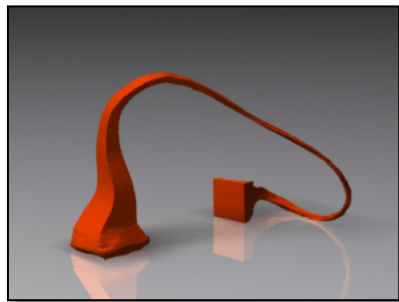
Such deformations can be based on low-level curvature related characteristics (e.g. elastic deformation) or high level controls (e.g. skeletal deformations as we will see in the next lectures).

- **Deformations**

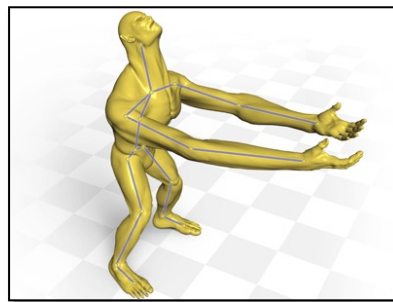
Free-form



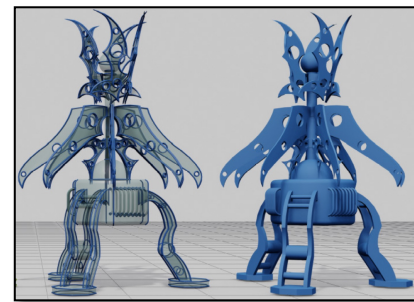
Elastic



Skeletal



Structure-aware



More structure

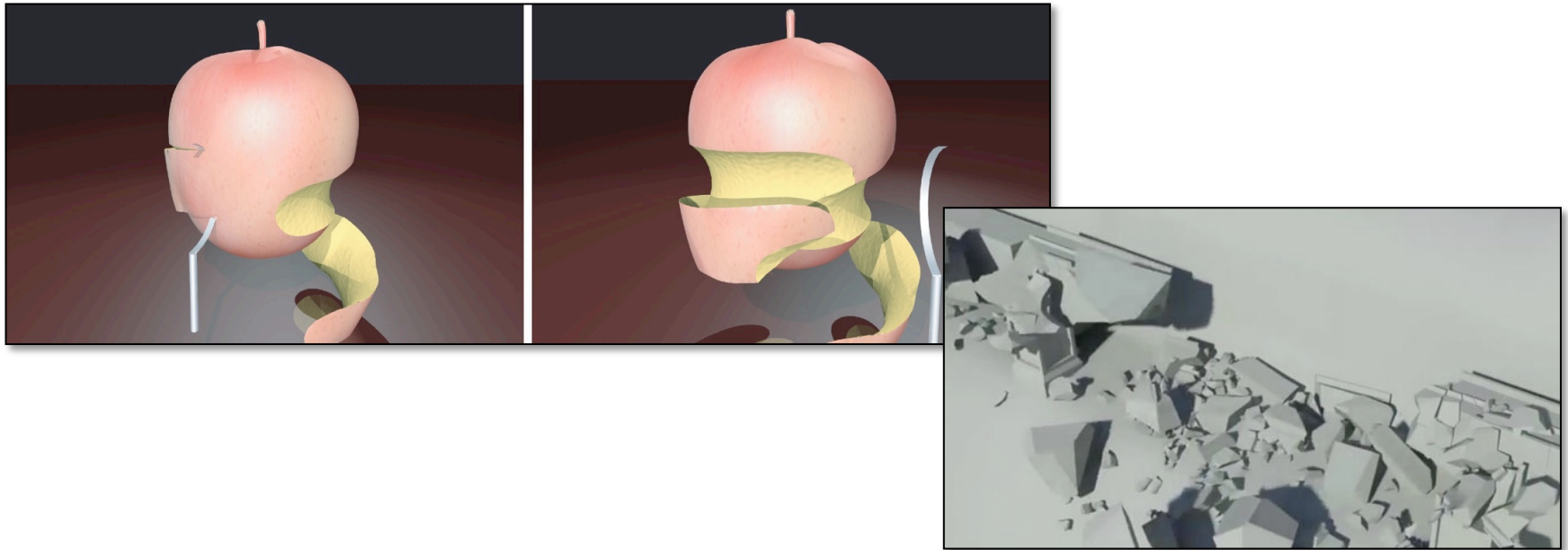


## Editing Geometry

Cutting and fracturing leads to changing mesh connectivity.

This is a rather hard operation and one of the reasons why connectivity-free geometry representations are useful.

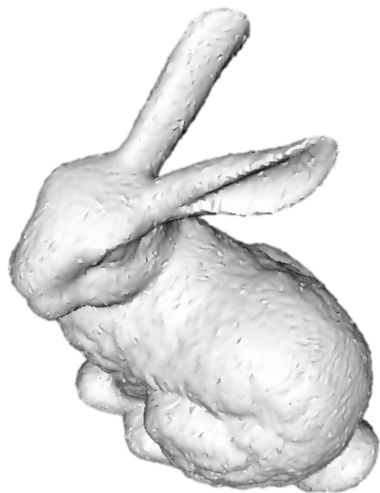
- Cutting & fracturing



## Editing Geometry

Many algorithms exist for smoothing geometry or amplifying certain features of surfaces. A lot of them are curvature-based, e.g. reducing local curvature leads to smoothing.

- **Smoothing & filtering**



)

## Editing Geometry

Compression of geometric representations, e.g. reducing the number of vertices in a mesh or quantizing the vertex locations, is important for modern large data processing with billions of triangles.

Many compression objectives can be reduced to preserving local properties given by curvature.

- **Compression & Simplification**

