

# INF 574

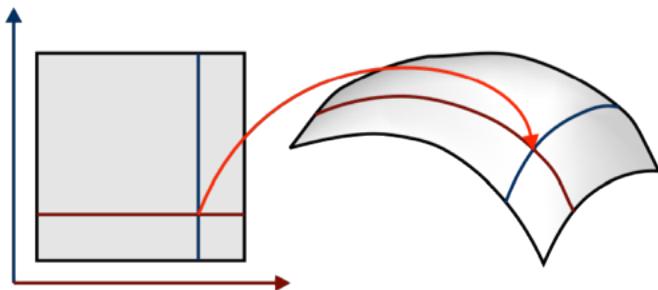
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**Geometric Modeling:** Digital Representation  
and Analysis of Shapes

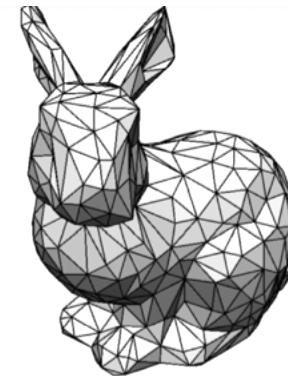
# Today

- Surface scanning basics
- Point Cloud shape representation
- Shape registration: Iterative Closest Point
- Normal and outlier estimation
- Implicit Surface definition
- Reconstruction:
  - Marching Cubes
  - Extensions

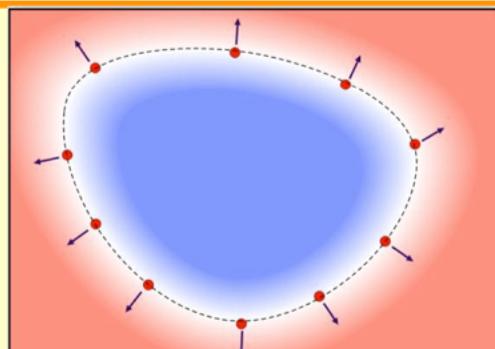
# Modeling zoo



**Parametric Models**



**Primitive Meshes**

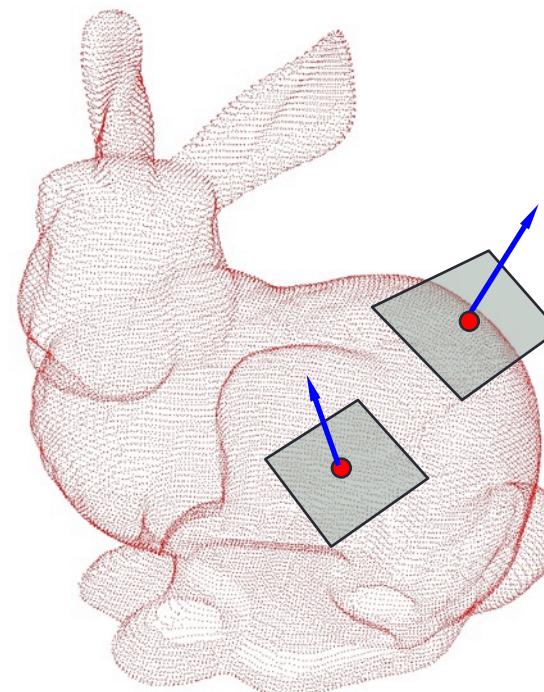
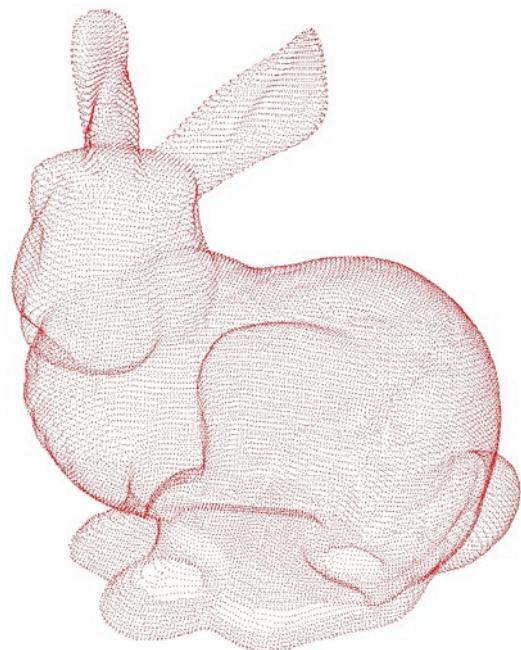


**Implicit Models**

**Particle Models**

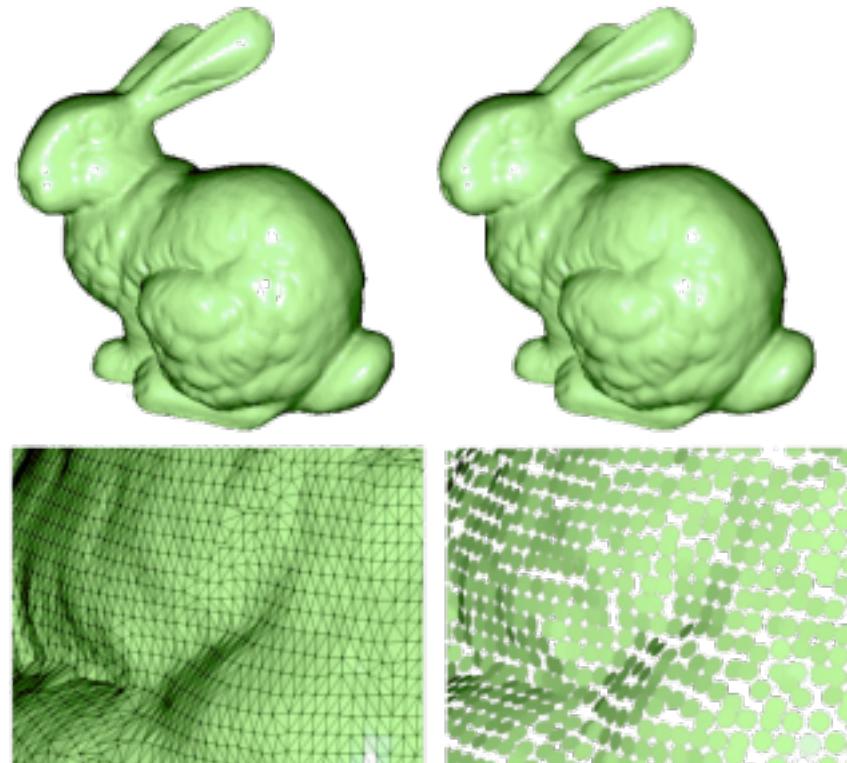
# Point Clouds

- Simplest representation: **only points**, no connectivity.
- Collection of (x,y,z) coordinates, possibly with normals



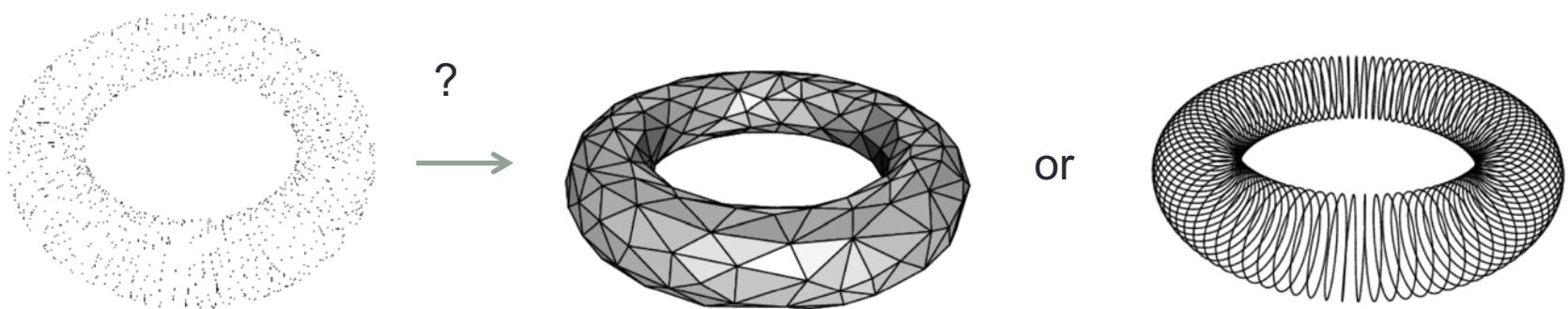
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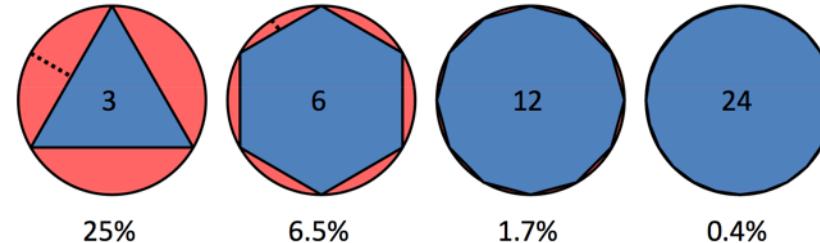
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  - **no** direct smooth rendering
  - **no** topological information



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  - **no** topological information
  - Weak approximation power:
    - Piecewise linear approximation
      - Error is  $O(h^2)$

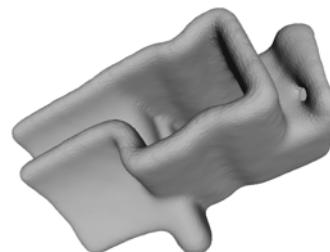
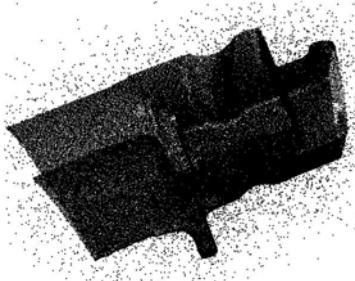


# Point Clouds

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- Severe limitations:
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  - **no** direct smooth rendering
  - **no** topological information
  - Weak approximation power:  $O(h)$  for point clouds.
    - Need *square* number of points for the same approximation power as meshes.

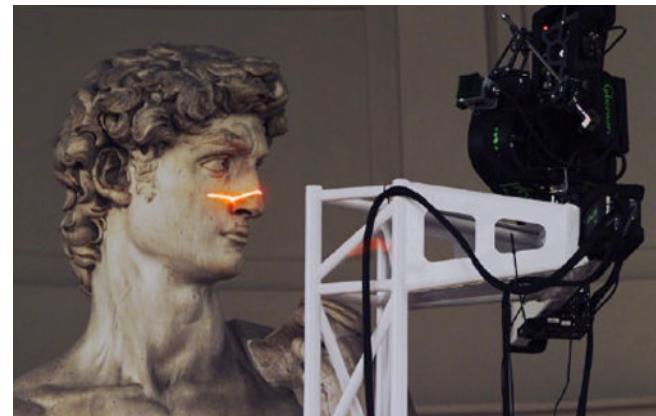
# Point Clouds

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- Points with orientation are called **surfels**.
- Severe limitations:
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  - **no** topological information
  - Weak approximation power.
  - Noise and outliers



# Why Point Clouds?

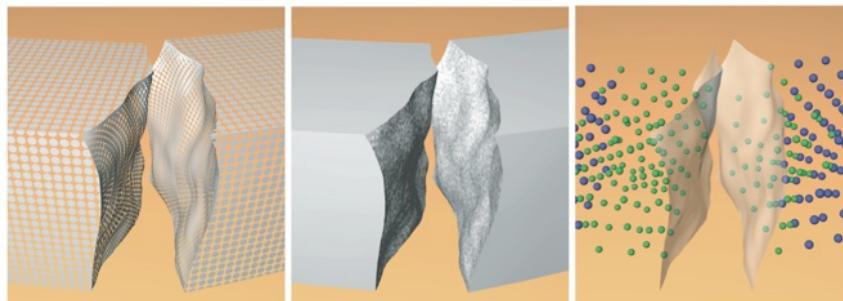
- 1) Typically, that's the only thing that's available  
Nearly all 3d scanning devices produce point clouds



# Why Point Clouds?

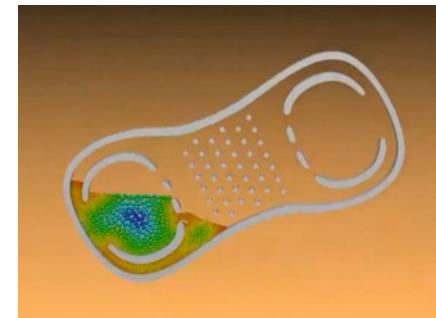
- 1) Typically, that's the only thing that's available
- 2) Locality: sometimes, easier to handle (esp. in hardware).

**Fracturing Solids**



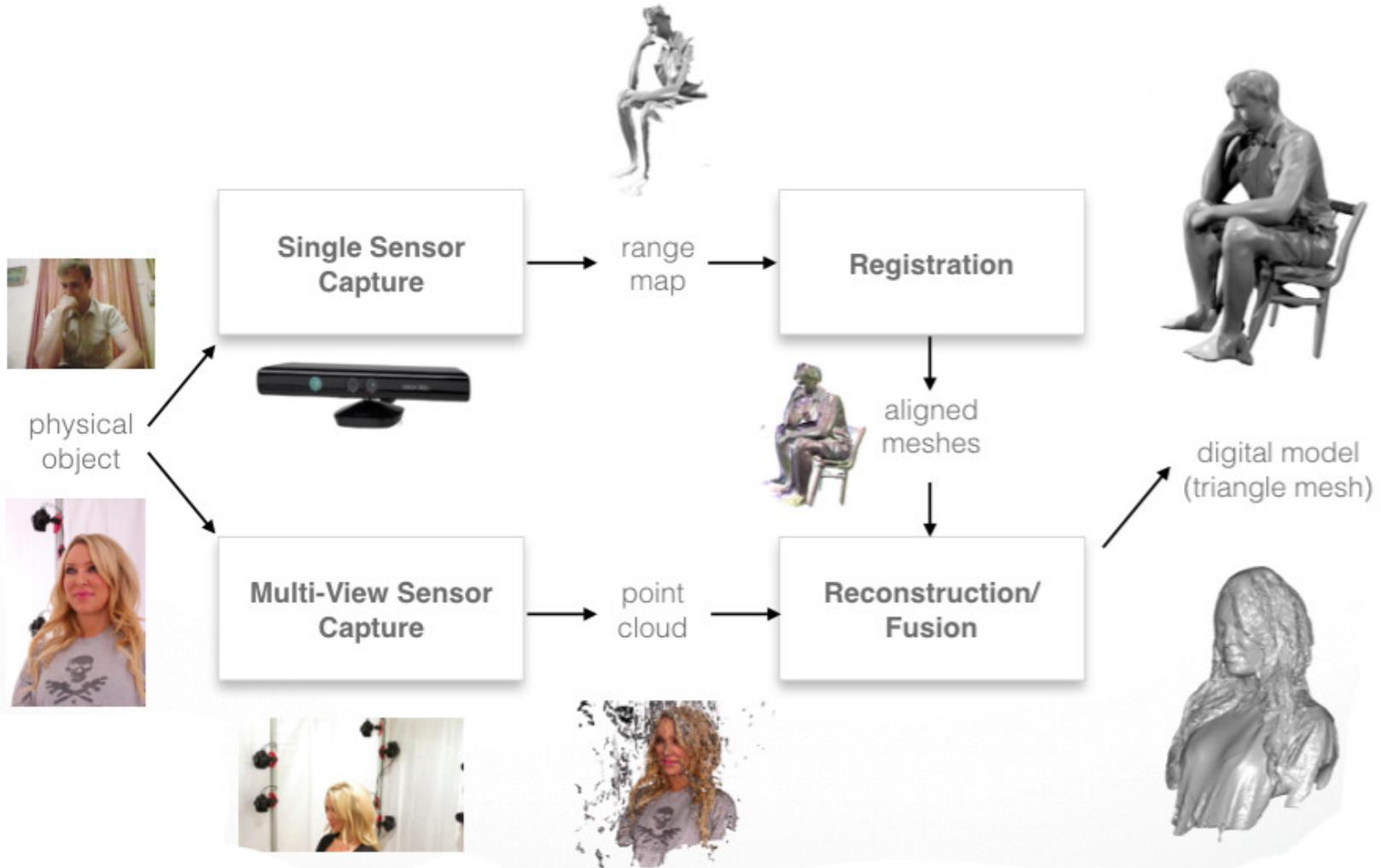
Meshless Animation of Fracturing Solids  
Pauly et al., SIGGRAPH '05

**Fluid Simulation**



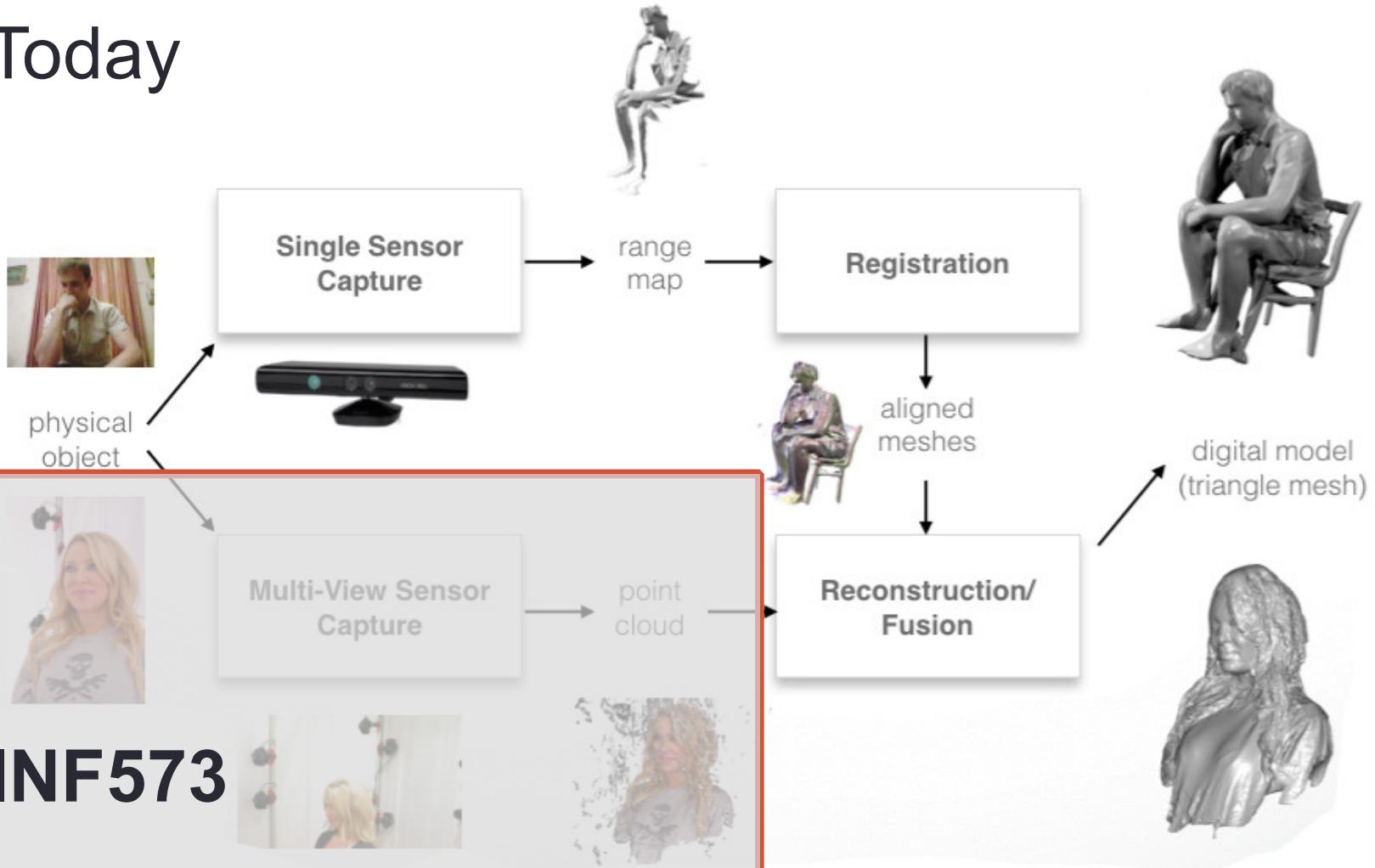
Adaptively sampled particle fluids,  
Adams et al. SIGGRAPH '07

# Two main scanning approaches



# Two main scanning approaches

Today



INF573

# Typical Scanning and Reconstruction Pipeline

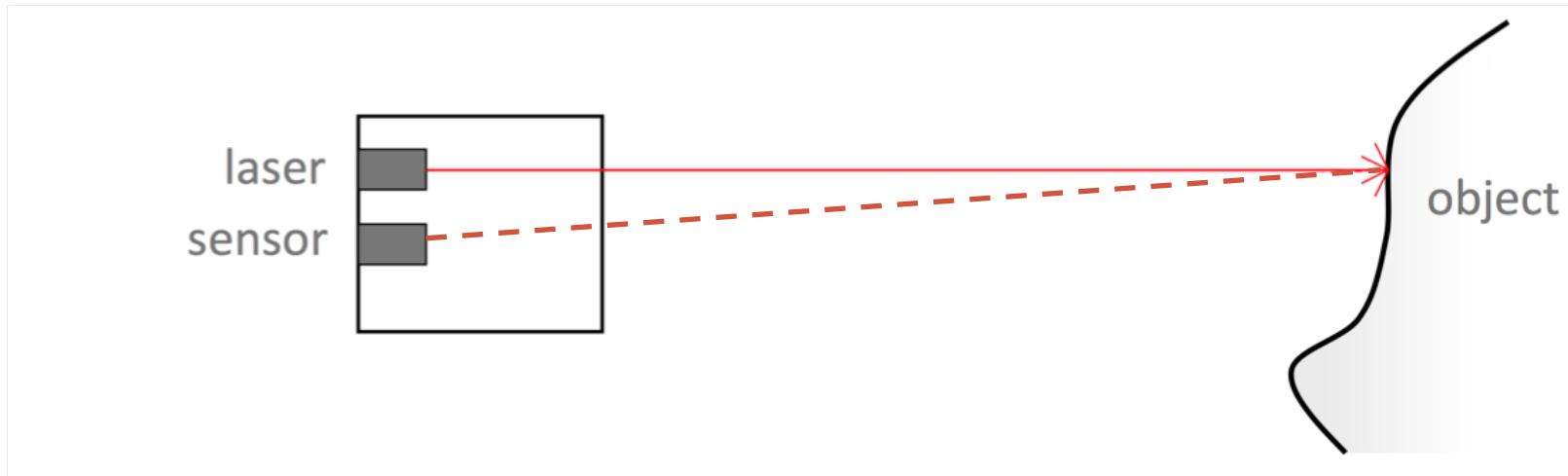


# Single View Scanners

Major types of 3d scanners

- **Range (emission-based) scanners**
  - Time-of-flight laser scanner
  - Phase-based laser scanner
- **Triangulation**
  - Laser line sweep
  - Structured light
- **Stereo / computer vision**
  - Passive stereo
  - Active stereo / space time stereo

# Time of Flight scanners

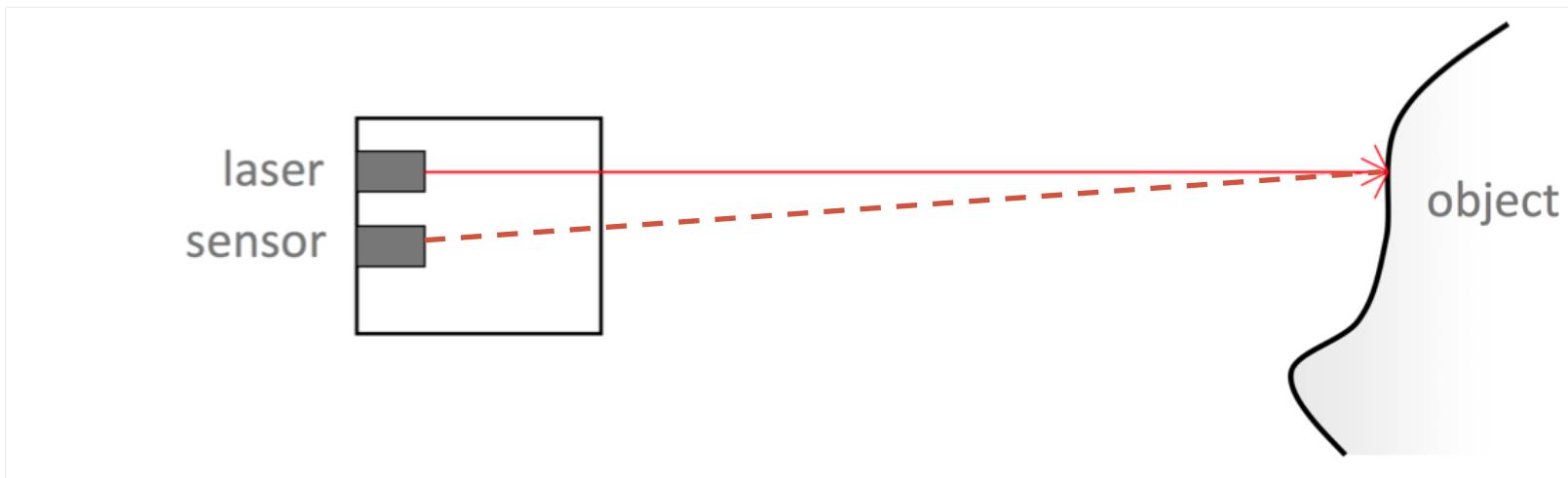


1. Emit a short short pulse of laser
2. Capture the reflection.
3. Measure the time it took to come back.

$$D = \frac{cT}{2} \quad c: \text{speed of light} (\approx 299\ 792\ 458 \text{ m/s})$$

Need a very fast clock: e.g. 1GHz achieves 0.15m (15cm) accuracy.

# Time of Flight scanners



1. Emit a short short pulse of laser
2. Capture the reflection.
3. Measure the time it took to come back.
4. Need a very fast clock.
5. Main advantage: can be done over long distances.
6. Used in terrain scanning.

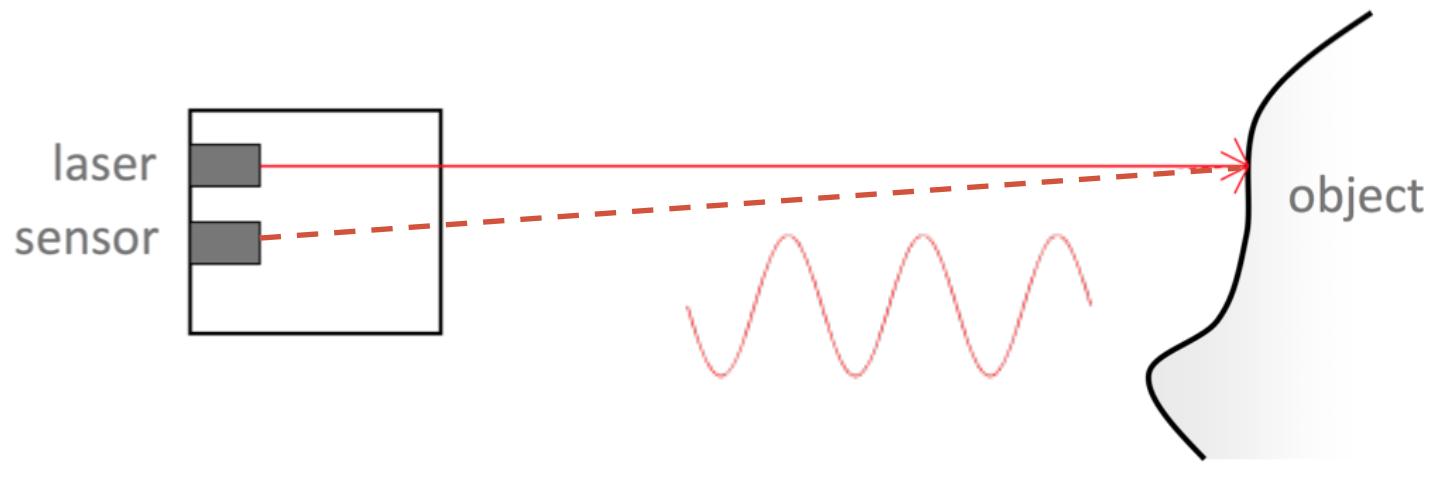
# Time of Flight scanners



[data set: University of Hannover]

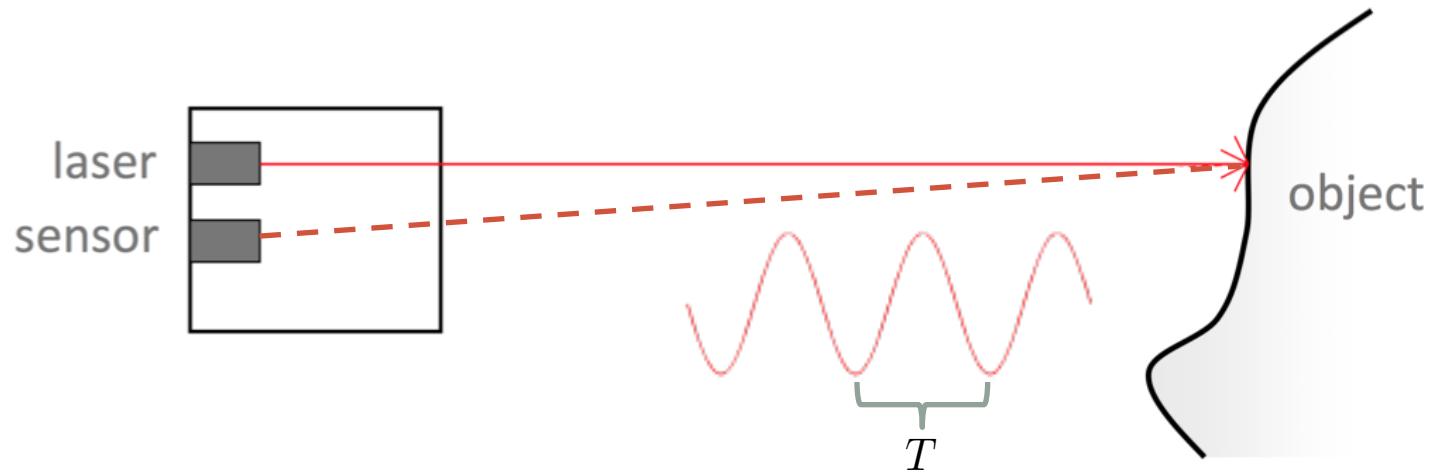
source: Michael Wand

# Phase-Based range-scanners



1. Instead of a pulse, emit a continuous **phase-modulated** beam.
2. Capture the reflection.
3. Measure the **phase-shift** between the output and input signals.

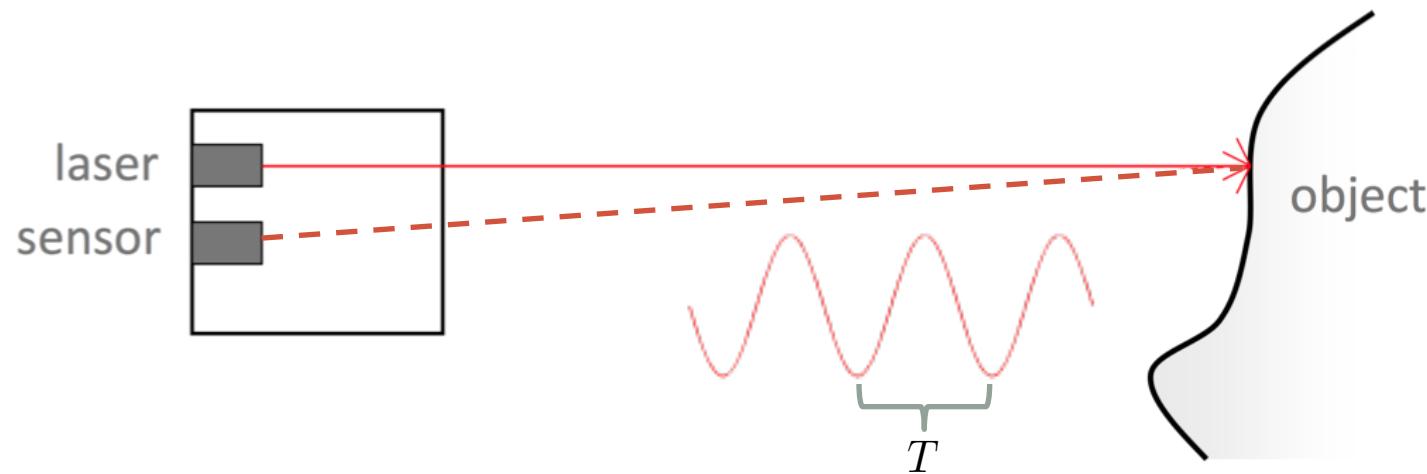
# Phase-Based range-scanners



- Emitted signal:  $s(t) = a \cos(2\pi f t)$
- Received signal:  $r(t) = A \cos(2\pi f(t - \tau)) + B$
- Cross-correlation between emitted and received signals:

$$C(x) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} r(t)s(t + x)dt$$

# Phase-Based range-scanners

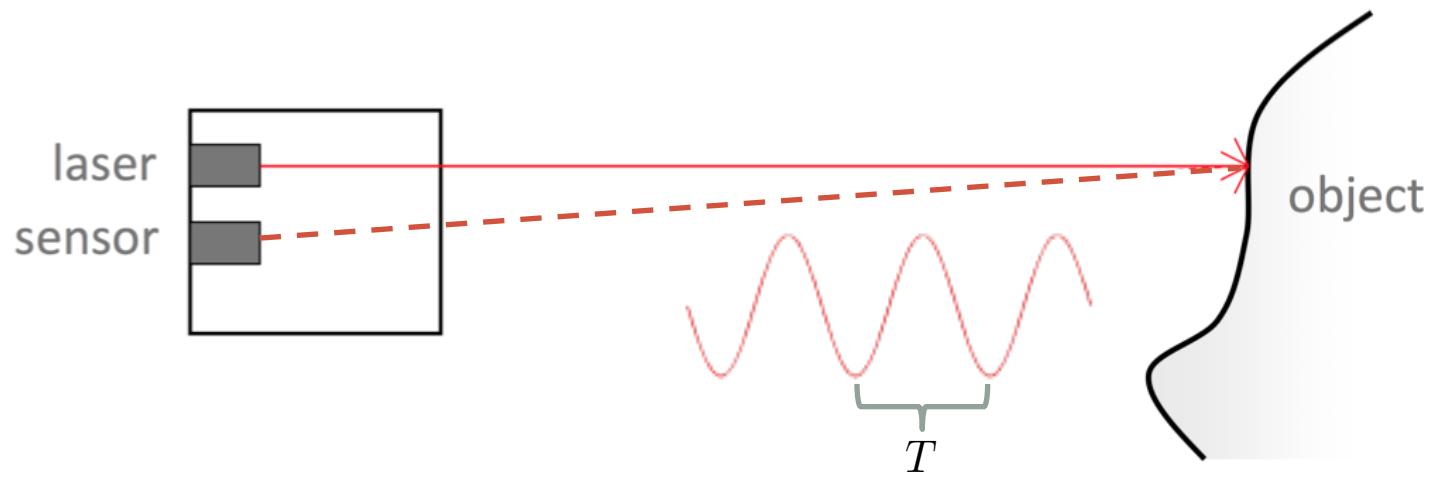


- Emitted signal:  $s(t) = a \cos(2\pi f t)$
- Received signal:  $r(t) = A \cos(2\pi f(t - \tau)) + B$
- Compute cross-correlation between emitted and received signals.

Unknowns:  $A, B, \tau$

- Four bucket trick: sample 4 different times in a period. Solve for unknowns.
- Compute depth (up to integer of wavelength):  $d = \frac{1}{2}c\tau$

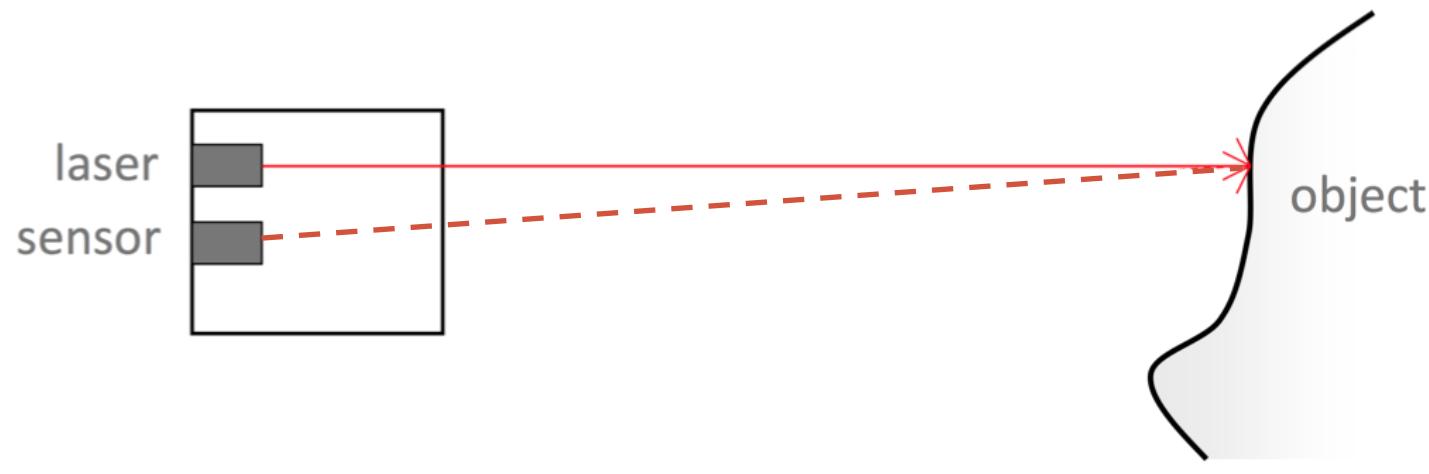
# Phase-Based range-scanners



1. Instead of a pulse, emit a continuous **phase-modulated** beam.
2. Capture the reflection.
3. Measure the **phase-shift** between the output and input signals.
4. From the phase-shift, the distance can be computed **up to integer wavelength**.
5. **Greater frequency and accuracy** but **shorter range**.

e.g. 1,016,727 vs. 50,000 (TOF) points per second  
up to 79 meters vs. hundreds of meters

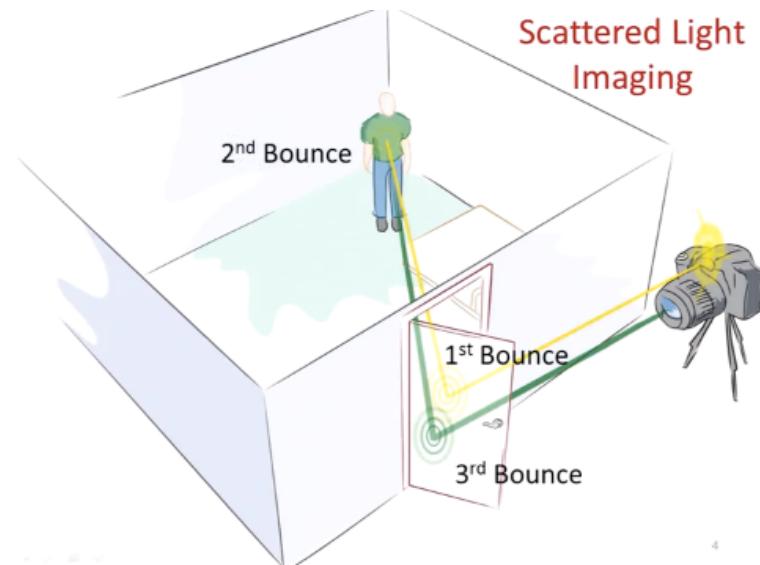
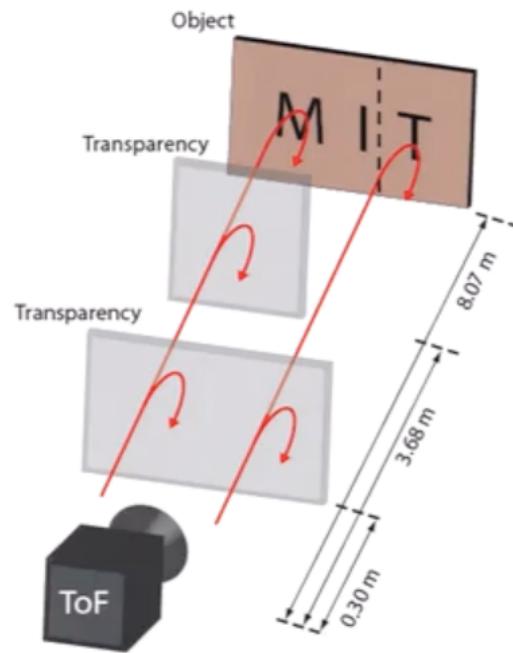
# Range-scanners



1. Typically, range scanners by themselves provide limited accuracy (noise, outliers, uneven sampling).
2. May require a lot of post-processing to get good sampling.



# Advanced Time-of-Flight.

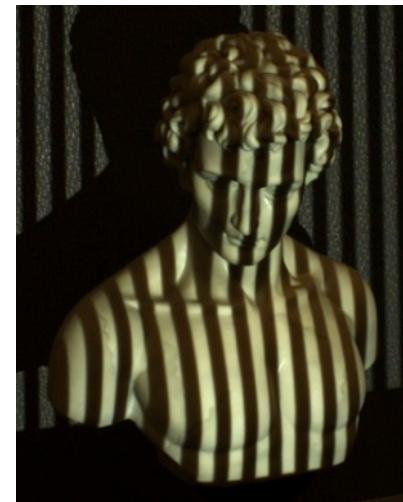
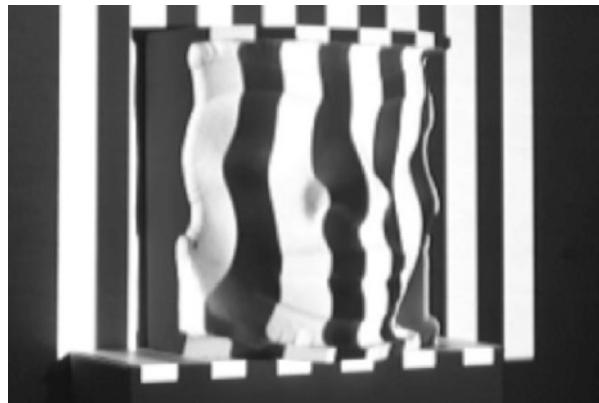


Izadi et al., SIGGRAPH 2014 Course on:  
3D Imaging with Time-of-Flight cameras

# Triangulation-based approaches

1. Add a **photometric sensor** (e.g. camera)
2. Record the position for a reference plane.
3. Change in recording position can be used to recover the depth.

Intuition: the **depth** is related to the **shift** in the camera plane.

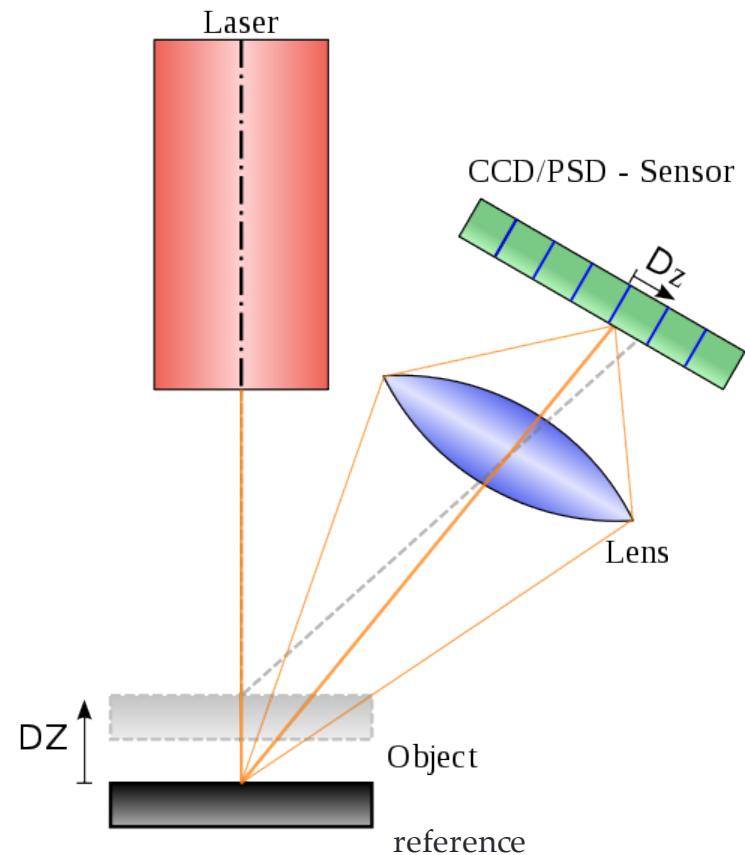


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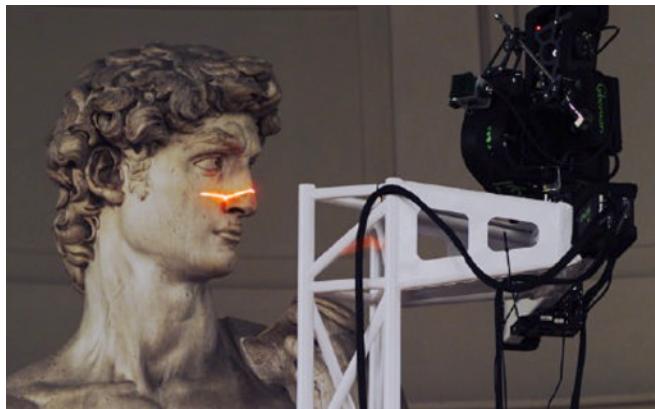
Intuition: the **depth** is related to the **shift** in the camera plane.

Need to compute  $D_Z$  using  $D_z$ .

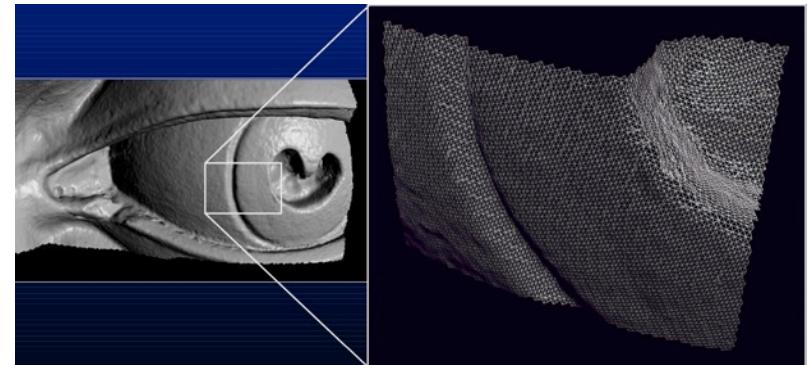


# Triangulation-based approaches

1. Add a **photometric sensor** (e.g. camera)
2. Record the position for a reference plane.
3. If well-calibrated, can lead to extreme accurate depth measurements.
4. Main problem: slow and expensive.



David statue scan: over 1 billion points.



David's left eye:  
source Levoy et al.

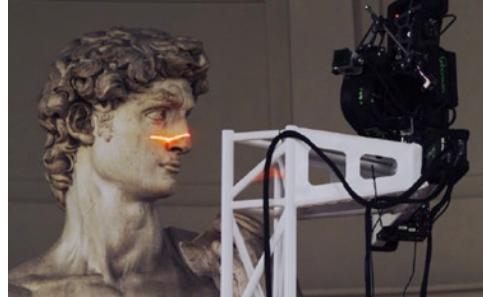
“The digital Michelangelo project: 3D scanning of large statues”, Levoy et al., 2000

# Structured-Light scanners

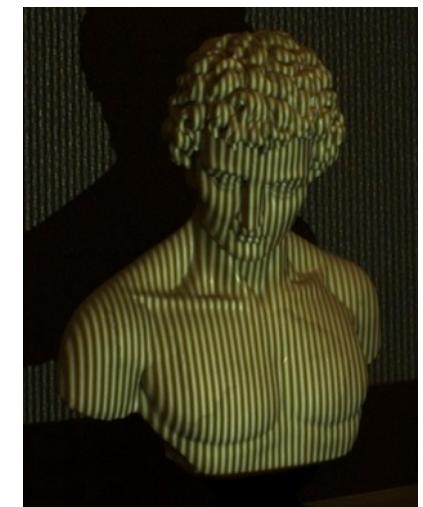
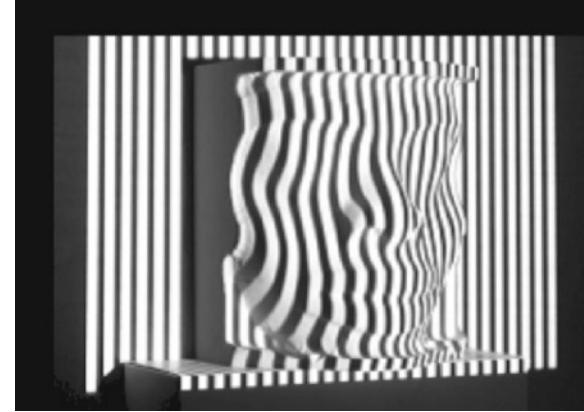
Same general idea as Triangulation based scanner.

**Main Idea:** Replace laser with projector. Project stripes instead of sheets.

**Challenge:** Need to identify which (input/output) lines correspond.



vs.



# Structured-Light scanners

Same idea as Triangulation based scanner.

**Main Idea:** Project multiple stripes to identify the position of a point.



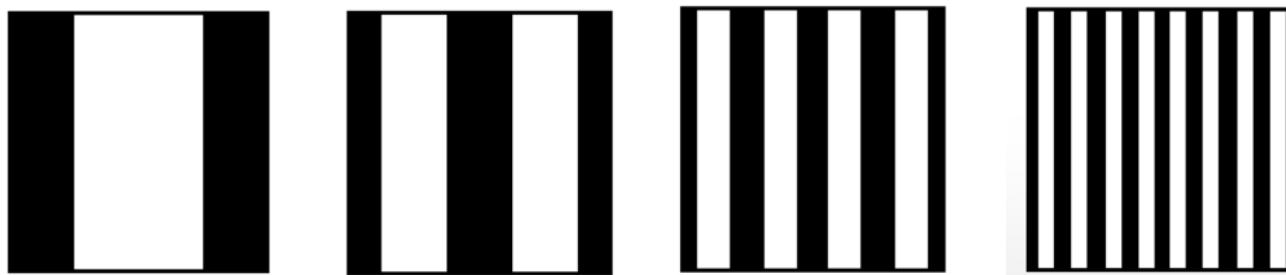
$\log(N)$  projections are sufficient to identify N stripes.



# Structured-Light scanners

Same idea as Triangulation based scanner.

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$\log(N)$  projections are sufficient to identify N stripes.

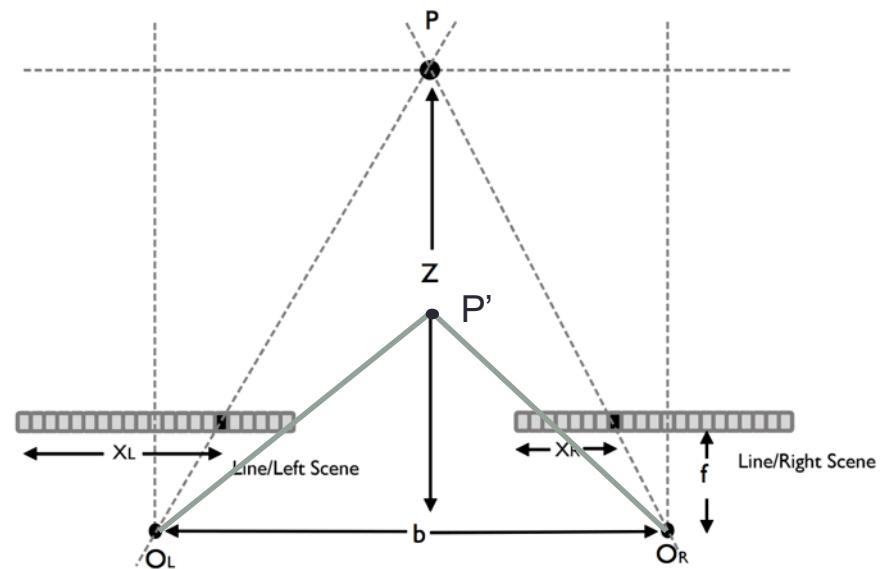
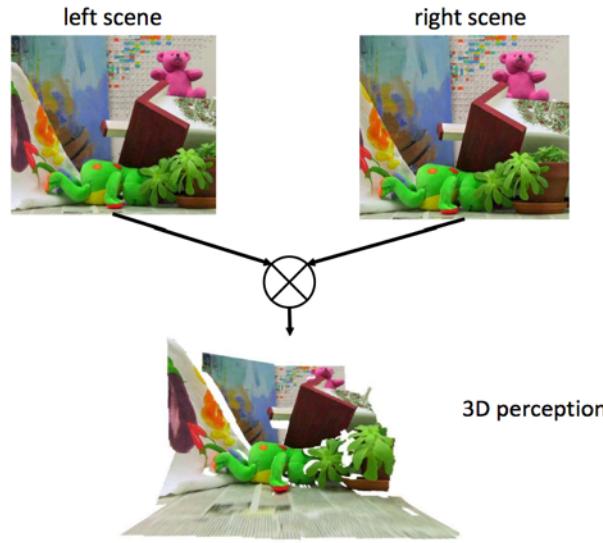


Advantage: cost and speed

Disadvantage: need controlled conditions & projector calibration.

# Computer Vision based Techniques

Depth from stereo:



Given 2 images, shift in the x-axis is related to the depth.

Main challenge: establishing corresponding points across images: **very difficult.**

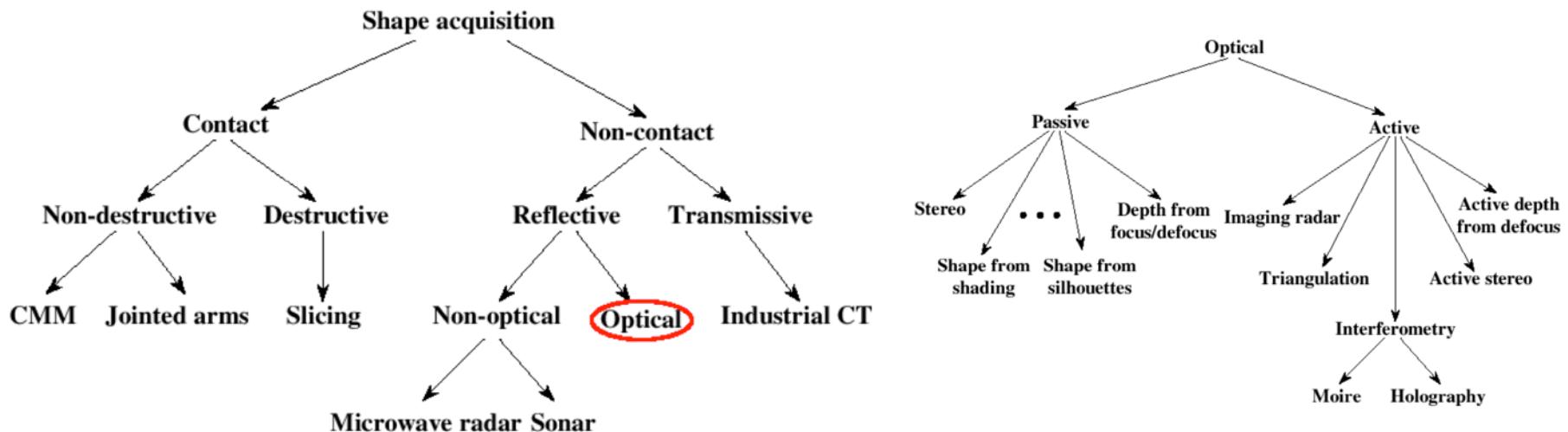
# Computer Vision based Techniques

Depth from blur:



Can approximate depth by detecting how blurry part of the image is for **known focal length**.

# Multitude of other methods



Rocchini et al. '01

Non-exhaustive taxonomy of 3d acquisition methods.

# Microsoft Kinect scanner

Low-cost (100\$) 3d scanner – gadget for Xbox.

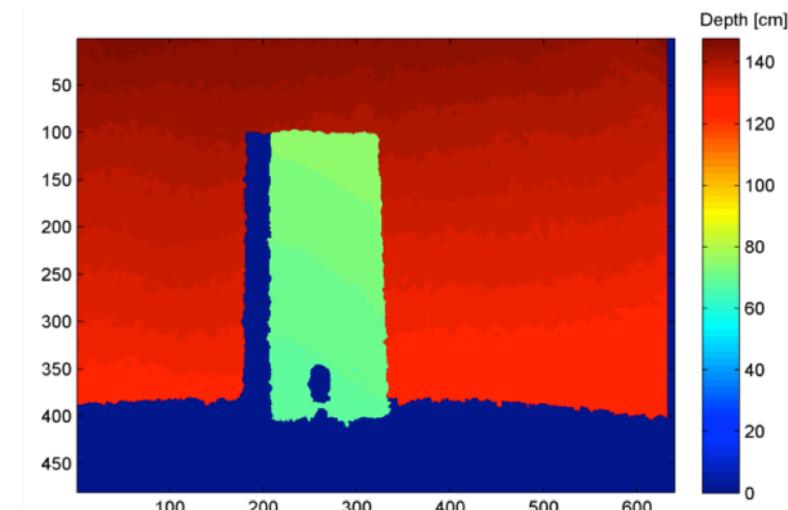
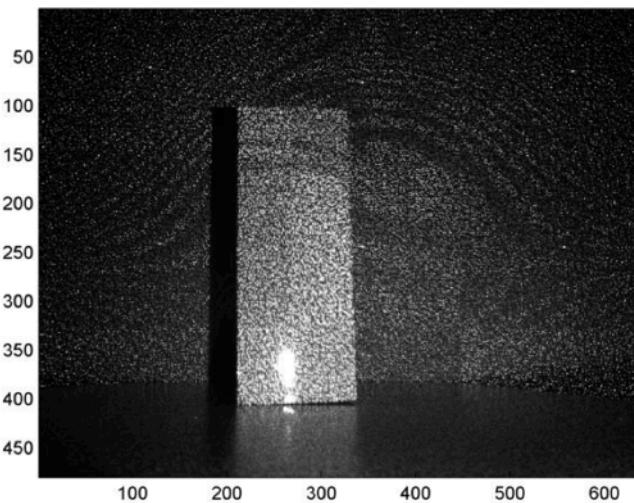


Allows to acquire Image (640 x 480) and 3d geometry (300k points) at 30 FPS.

Uses infrared active illumination with an infrared sensor **and** depth-from blur. accuracy of ~1mm (at 0.5m distance) to 4cm (at 2m distance).

# Microsoft Kinect 1 (2009)

Low-cost (100\$) 3d scanner – gadget for Xbox.

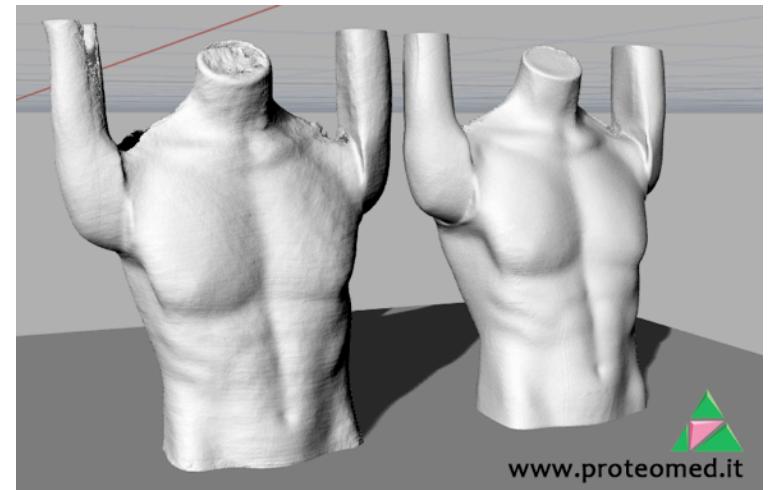


Allows to acquire Image (640 x 480) and 3d geometry (77k points) at 30 FPS.

Uses infrared active illumination with an infrared sensor **and** depth-from blur. accuracy of ~1mm (at 0.5m distance) to 4cm (at 2m distance).

# Microsoft Kinect v2 (2013)

Low-cost (250\$) 3d scanner – gadget for Xbox.

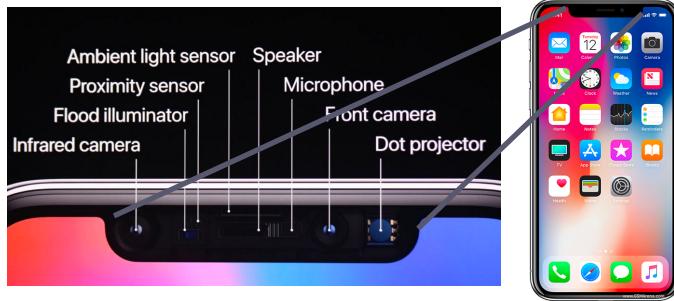
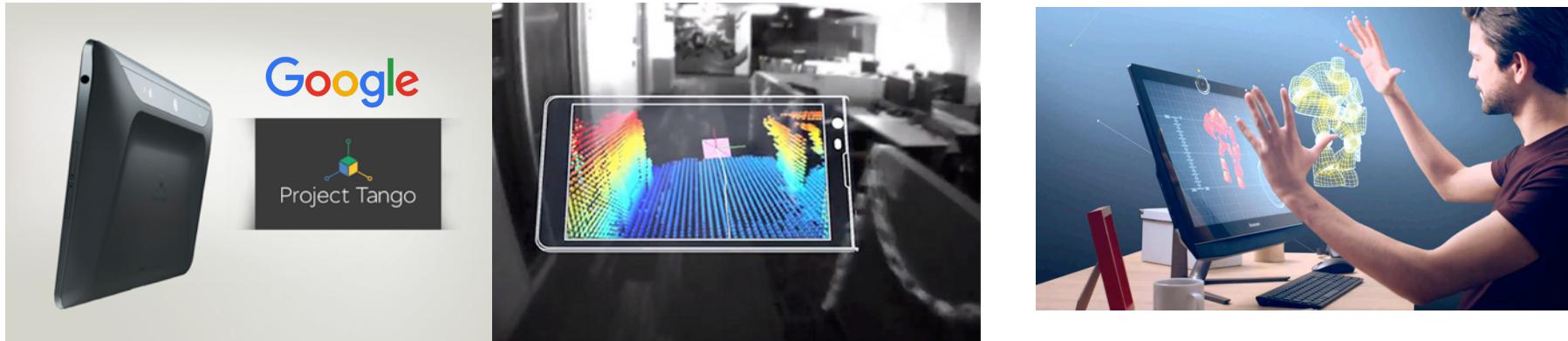


1080p video and 3d geometry (217k points) at 30 FPS.

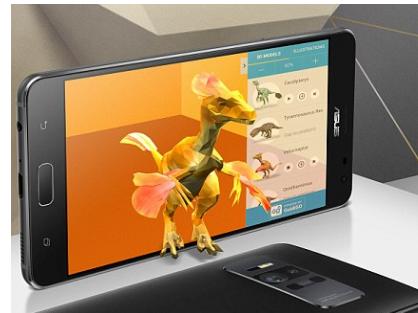
Uses Phase-based Time of Flight

# Modern Mobile Devices (2017)

intel REALSENSE™  
TECHNOLOGY



Apple iPhone X



Asus Zenfone AR



Sony Xperia XZ1

Typically use a combination of structured (infrared) light + stereo based depth.

# Typical Scanning and Reconstruction Pipeline



# Why Registration?

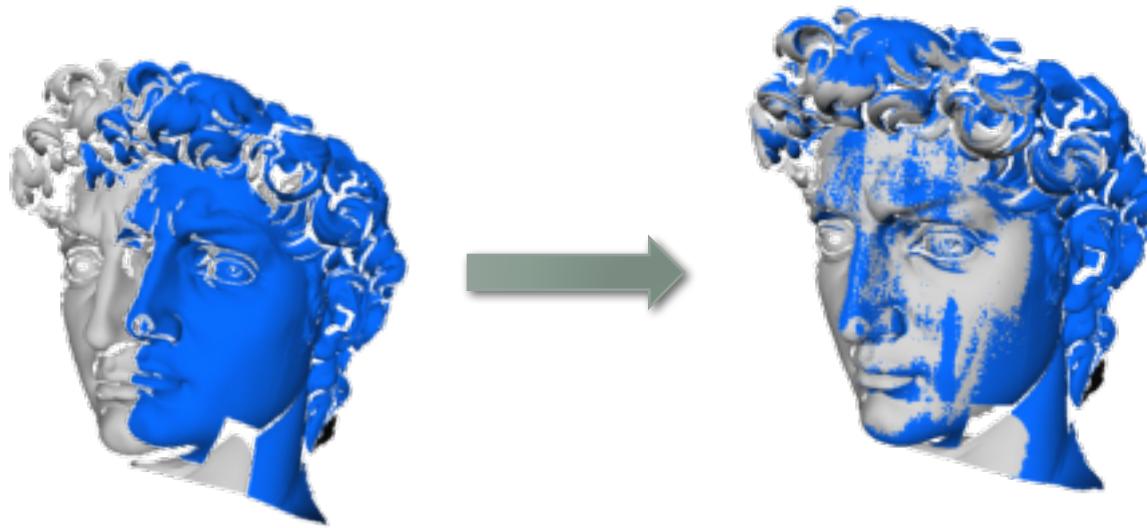
- Fundamental problem in geometric data processing.
- Appears in many shape *analysis* applications.
- One of the best-known algorithms in computer graphics and computational geometry.
- **For you:** very nice programming exercise.
- Quick introduction to an active research area.

# Other Applications

- Manufacturing:  
One shape is a **model** and the other is a **scan** of a product. Finding defects.
- Medicine:  
Finding correspondences between 3D MRI scans of the same person or different people.
- Animation Reconstruction & 3D Video.
- Statistical Shape Analysis:  
Building models for a collection of shapes.

# Local Alignment

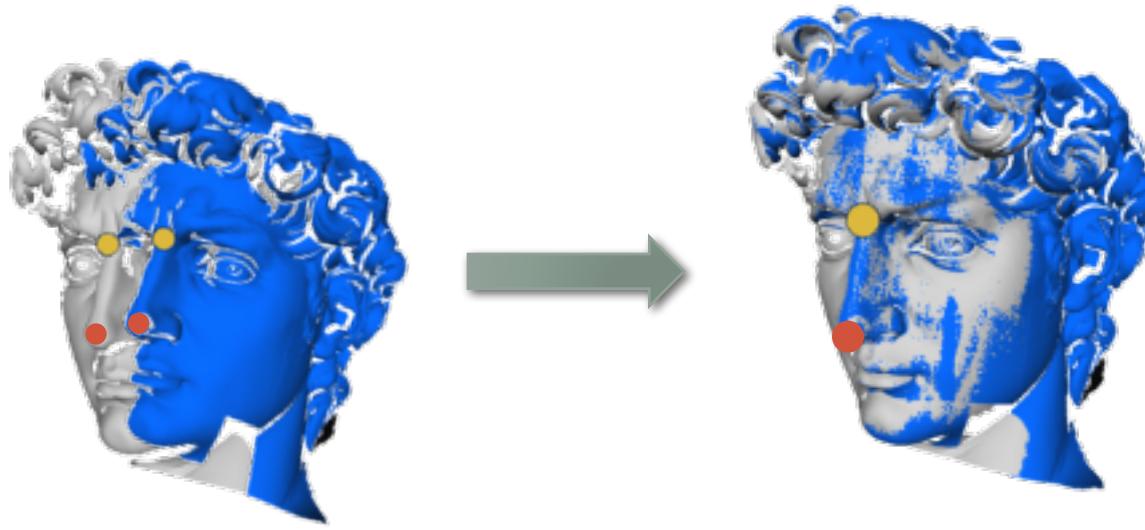
- Simplest instance of the registration problem



Given two shapes that are **approximately aligned** (e.g. by a human) we want to find the optimal transformation.

# Local Alignment

- What does it mean for an alignment to be **good**?



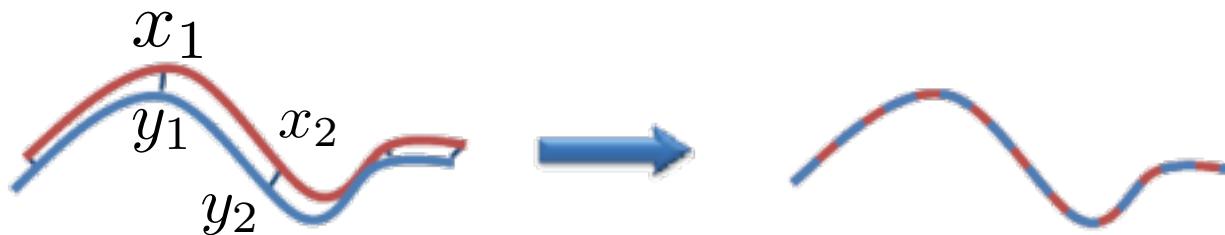
Intuition: want corresponding points to be close after transformation.

## Problems

1. We don't know what points correspond.
2. We don't know the optimal alignment.

# Iterative Closest Point (ICP)

- Approach: iterate between finding correspondences and finding the transformation:



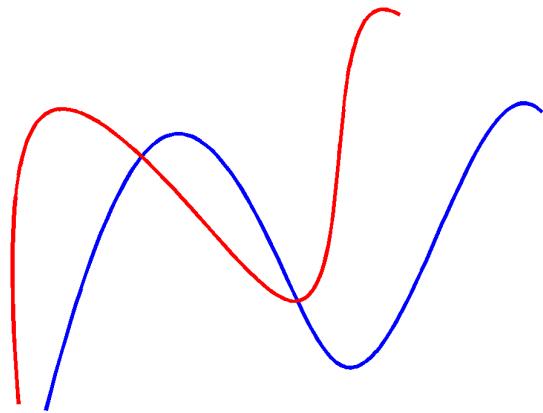
Given a pair of shapes,  $X$  and  $Y$ , iterate:

- For each  $x_i \in X$  find **nearest** neighbor  $y_i \in Y$ .
- Find deformation  $\mathbf{R}, t$  minimizing:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{R}x_i + t - y_i\|_2^2$$

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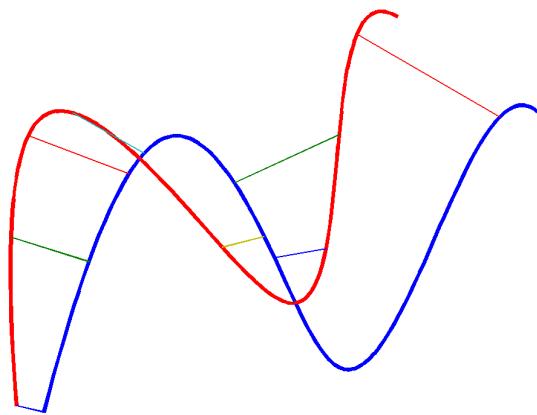


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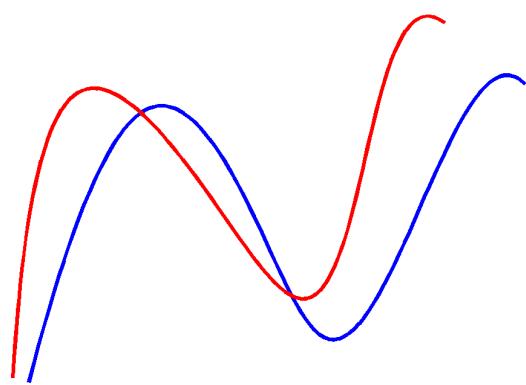


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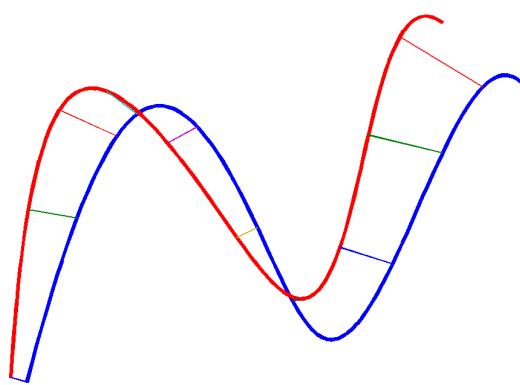


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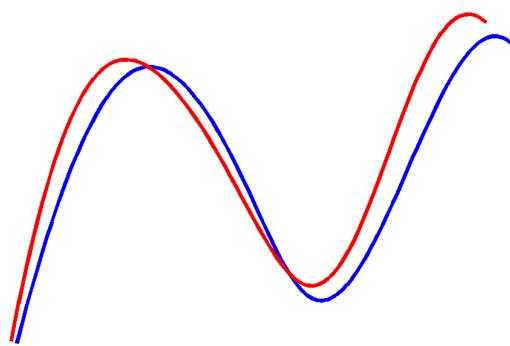


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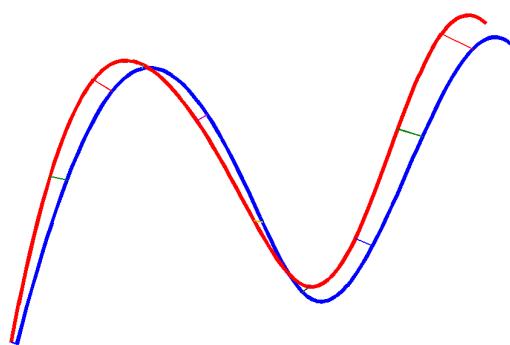


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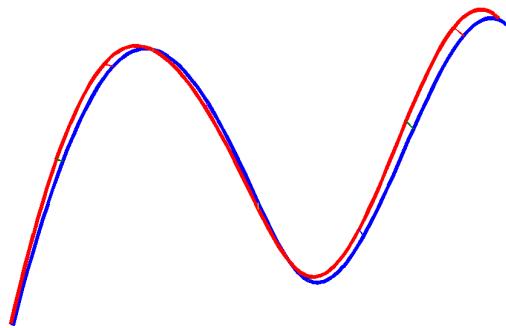


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# Iterative Closest Point

- Approach: iterate between finding correspondences and finding the transformation:

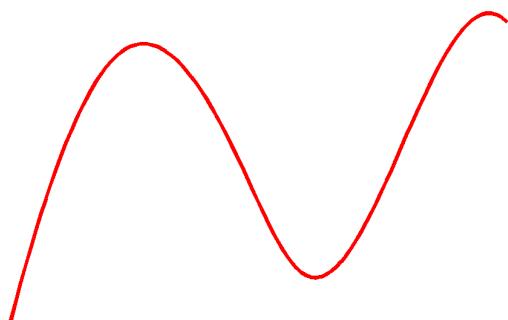


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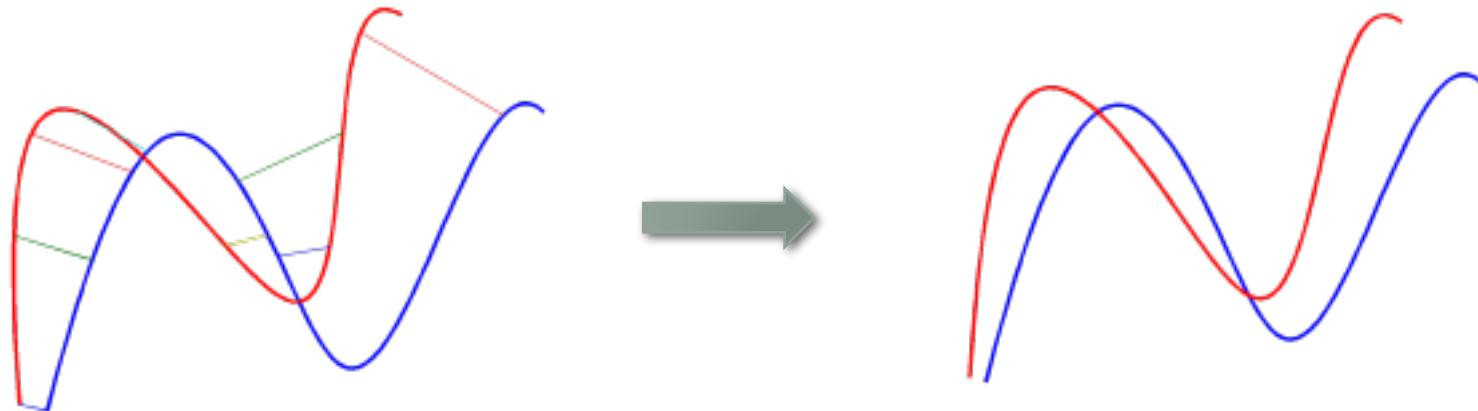


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# Iterative Closest Point

- Requires two main computations:
  1. Computing nearest neighbors.
  2. Computing the optimal transformation



# ICP: Nearest Neighbor Computation

## Closest points

$$y_i = \arg \min_{y \in Y} \|y - x_i\|$$

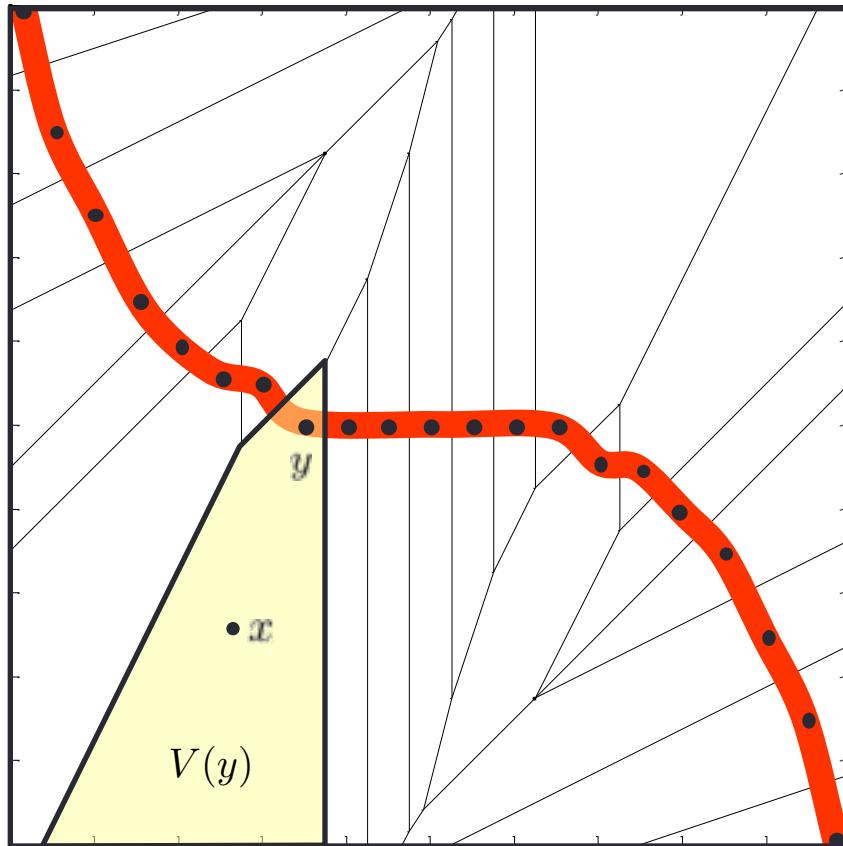
- How to find closest points **efficiently**?
- Straightforward complexity:  $\mathcal{O}(MN)$   
 $M$  number of points on  $X$ ,  $N$  number of points on  $Y$ .

- $Y$  divides the space into **Voronoi cells**

$$V(y \in Y) = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \|y - z\| < \|y' - z\| \ \forall y' \in Y \neq y\}$$

- Given a query point  $y$ , determine to which cell it belongs.

# Closest points: Voronoi Cells

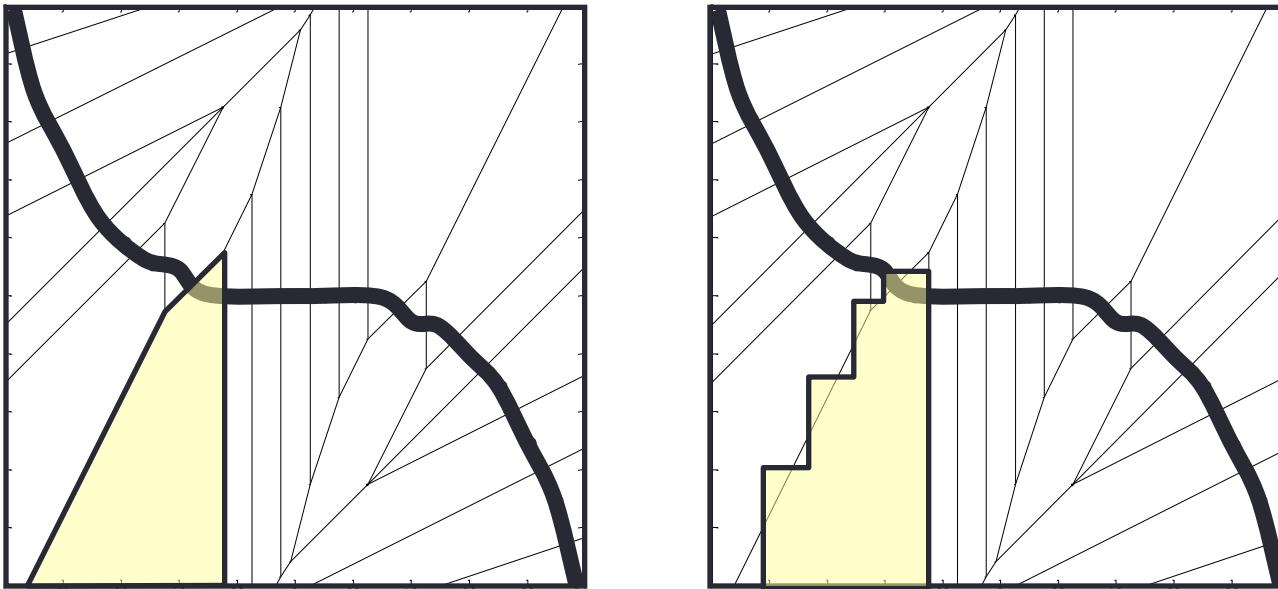


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Image source:  
M. Bronstein

# Closest points: Voronoi Cells

## Approximate nearest neighbors

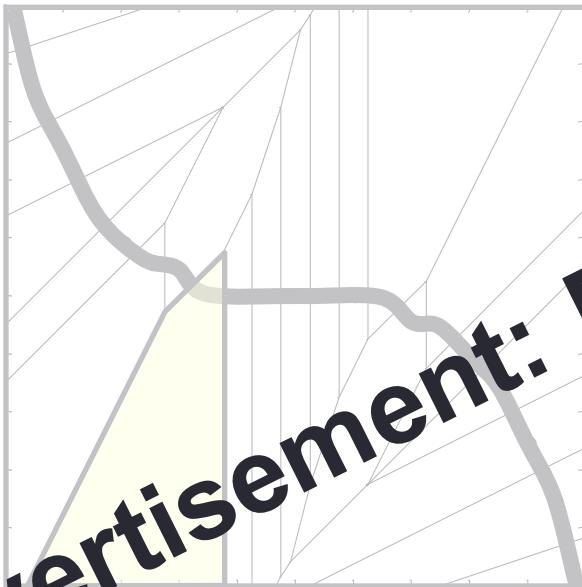


M. Bronstein

- To reduce search complexity, **approximate** Voronoi cells.
- Use **binary space partition trees** (e.g. **kd-trees** or **octrees**).
- Approximate nearest neighbor search complexity:  $\mathcal{O}(N \log M)$ .

# Closest points: Voronoi Cells

Approximate nearest neighbors



INF562

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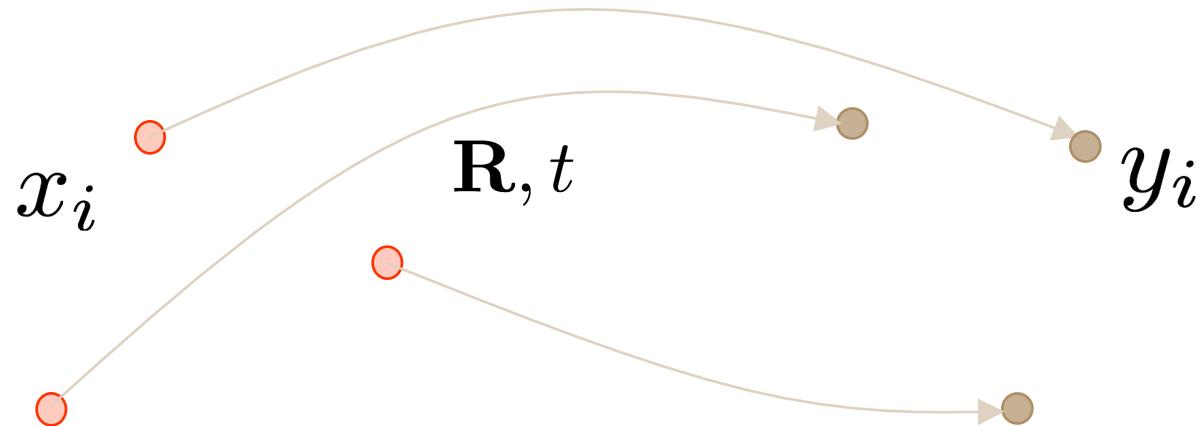
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# ICP: Optimal Transformation

Problem Formulation:

- Given two sets points:  $\{x_i\}, \{y_i\}, i = 1..n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  Find the rigid transform:  $\mathbf{R}, t$  that minimizes:

$$\mathbf{R}_{\text{opt}}, t_{\text{opt}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{R}, t} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{R}x_i + t - y_i\|_2^2$$



# ICP: Optimal Transformation

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Closed form solution with quaternions.

Horn, B. K. P., Closed-form  
solution of absolute orientation  
using unit quaternions, 1987

## Closed-form solution of absolute orientation using unit quaternions.

Horn, B. K. P., *Journal of the Optical Society of America*, Vol. 4 1987

Problem Formulation:

- Given two sets points:  $\{p_i\}$ ,  $\{q_i\}$ ,  $i = 1..n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Find the rigid transform:  $R$  and  $q_0$  that minimizes:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q_i) + q_0 - p_i\|^2$$

- In practice, have many points. Perform this step many times. Want a **fast** way to get an **exact solution**. Representation is important.

Given two sets points:  $\{p_i\}, \{q_i\}, i = 1..n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Find the rigid transform:  $R$  and  $q_0$  that minimizes:  $\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q_i) + q_0 - p_i\|^2$

### Finding the translation part $q_0$ .

1. Let  $\bar{q} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_1^n q_i$  and  $\bar{p} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_1^n p_i$ : the centroids of  $\{q_i\}$  and  $\{p_i\}$

and let  $q'_i = q_i - \bar{q}$  and  $p'_i = p_i - \bar{p}$ . Then  $\sum q'_i = \sum p'_i = 0$ .

2.  $\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q_i) + q_0 - p_i\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i) + q'_0 - p'_i\|^2 =$  where:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i) - p'_i\|^2 - 2q'_0 \sum_{i=1}^n (R(q'_i) - p'_i) + n\|q'_0\|^2 = q'_0 = q_0 + R(\bar{q}) - \bar{p}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i) - p'_i\|^2 + n\|q'_0\|^2$$

minimized if  $q'_0 = 0$   $\longrightarrow$   $q_0 = \bar{p} - R(\bar{q})$

Given two sets points:  $\{p_i\}, \{q_i\}, i = 1..n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Find the rigid transform:  $R$  and  $q_0$  that minimizes:  $\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q_i) + q_0 - p_i\|^2$

**Need to find the rotation  $R$ .**

1. Several ways to represent rotation: Orthonormal matrix, Euler angle, Gibbs vector, quaternions, etc. Which one is most useful in this case?
2. Plan of action:

Want to minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i) - p'_i\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i)\|^2 - 2R(q'_i) \cdot p'_i + \|p'_i\|^2$

Since rotation preserves lengths. Need to *maximize*:  $\sum_{i=1}^n R(q'_i) \cdot p'_i$

Question: What **unit** vector maximizes  $u^T N u$  if  $N$  is symmetric?

Answer: Eigenvector corresponding to the maximum eigenvalue of  $N$ .

## Quaternions basics

4. Conjugation:  $q^* = q_0 - q_x i - q_y j - q_z k$ . Matrix corresponding to the conjugate is the transpose of the original.

5. Regular vectors can be represented with purely imaginary quaternions:

$$q = q_x i + q_y j + q_z k$$

6. Rotation can be represented with composite product by a **unit quaternion**  $r$ :

$$R(q) = r q r^*$$

where  $r = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} (w_x i + w_y j + w_z k)$ .

Conversely, every unit quaternion corresponds to a rotation.

Want to optimize the rotation:

$$\min_R \sum_{i=1}^n \|R(q'_i) - p'_i\|_2^2$$

**Need to find the rotation  $R$ .**

2. Plan of action:

Need to *maximize*:  $\sum_{i=1}^n R(q_i) \cdot p'_i$

3. If represent  $R$  using orthonormal matrices, then get:  $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i^T R q_i$

Would prefer:  $\sum_{i=1}^n u(R)^T N_i(q_i, p_i) u(R)$ , where  $u$  is a vector and  $N_i$  - matrices

Quaternions allow us to express rotation in such form.

## Quaternions (two slides intro).

1. Vectors with 4 components, 3 of which are imaginary:

$$q = q_0 + q_x i + q_y j + q_z k$$

2. Multiplication is defined using the rules:

$$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = ijk = -1$$

from which follows:  $ij = k \quad jk = i \quad ki = j$   
 $ji = -k \quad kj = -i \quad ik = -j$

In matrix form:  $qr = \begin{bmatrix} q_0 & -q_x & -q_y & -q_z \\ q_x & q_0 & -q_z & q_y \\ q_y & q_z & q_0 & -q_x \\ q_z & -q_y & q_x & q_0 \end{bmatrix} r = \begin{bmatrix} r_0 & -r_x & -r_y & -r_z \\ r_x & r_0 & r_z & -r_y \\ r_y & -r_z & r_0 & r_x \\ r_z & r_y & -r_x & r_0 \end{bmatrix} q$

$$qr = Qr = \bar{R}q$$

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3. Dot product:

$$p \cdot q = \frac{1}{2} (pq^* + qp^*) \implies (pr) \cdot q = p \cdot (qr^*)$$

Matrices associated with unit quaternions are orthonormal.

## Back to Alignment.

1. Want to maximize:  $\sum_{i=1}^n R(q'_i) \cdot p'_i$

2. In quaternion form:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^n (rq_i r^*) \cdot p_i = \sum_{i=1}^n (rq_i) \cdot (p_i r) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (\bar{Q}r) \cdot (Pr) = \sum_{i=1}^n r^T \bar{Q}^T P r \\ &= r^T \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{Q}^T P \right) r \end{aligned}$$

3. The optimal rotation quaternion is the eigenvector corresponding to the maximum eigenvalue of:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \bar{Q}^T P$$

# ICP: Optimal Transformation

Problem Formulation:

1. Given two sets points:  $\{x_i\}, \{y_i\}, i = 1..n$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  Find the rigid transform:  $\mathbf{R}, t$  that minimizes:  $\sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{R}x_i + t - y_i\|_2^2$
2. Closed form solution with rotation matrices:
  1. Construct:  $C = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mu^Y)(x_i - \mu^X)^T$  where  $\mu^X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$ ,
  2. Compute the SVD of C:  $C = U\Sigma V^T$   $\mu^Y = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i y_i$ 
    1. If  $\det(UV^T) = 1$ ,  $R_{\text{opt}} = UV^T$
    2. Else  $R_{\text{opt}} = U\tilde{\Sigma}V^T$ ,  $\tilde{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(1, 1, \dots, -1)$
  3. Set  $t_{\text{opt}} = \mu^Y - R_{\text{opt}}\mu^X$

Note that C is a 3x3 matrix. SVD is very fast.

Arun et al., Least-Squares Fitting  
of Two 3-D Point Sets

# Iterative Closest Point.

Given a pair of shapes,  $X$  and  $Y$ , iterate:

1. For each  $x_i \in X$  find **nearest** neighbor  $y_i \in Y$ .
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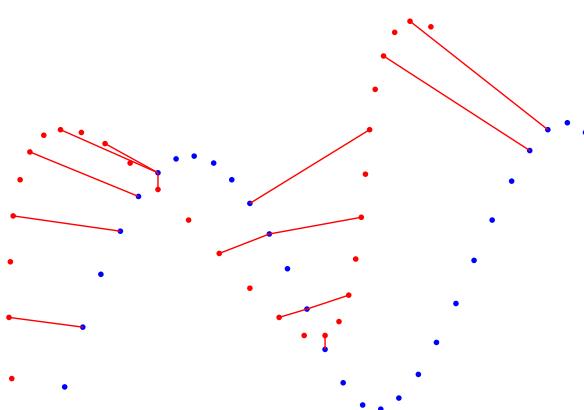
Convergence:

- at each iteration  $\sum_{i=1}^N d^2(x_i, Y)$  decreases.
- Converges to local minimum
- Good initial guess: global minimum.

[Besl&McKay92]

# Variations of ICP

- ↓
  - 1. Selecting source points (from one or both scans): sampling
  - 2. Matching to points in the other mesh
  - 3. Weighting the correspondences
  - 4. Rejecting certain (outlier) point pairs
  - 5. Assigning an error metric to the current transform
  - 6. Minimizing the error metric w.r.t. transformation

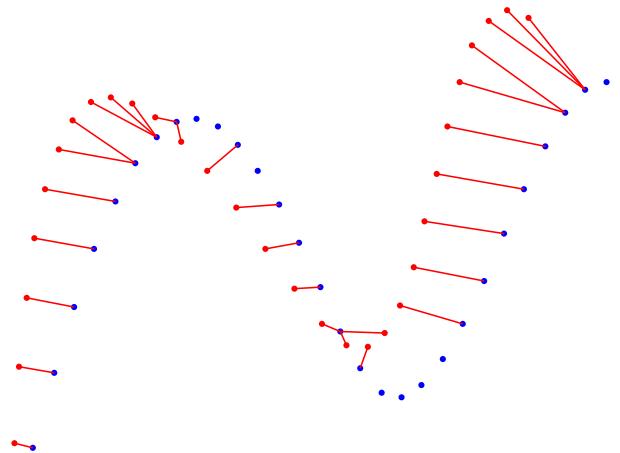


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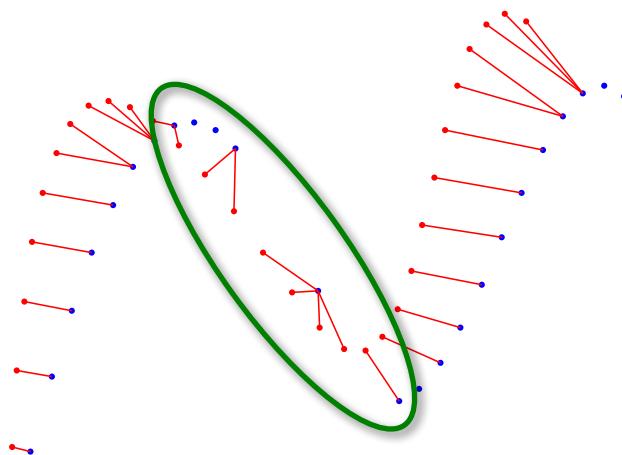
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**Problem:**  
uneven sampling



# Iterative Closest Point.

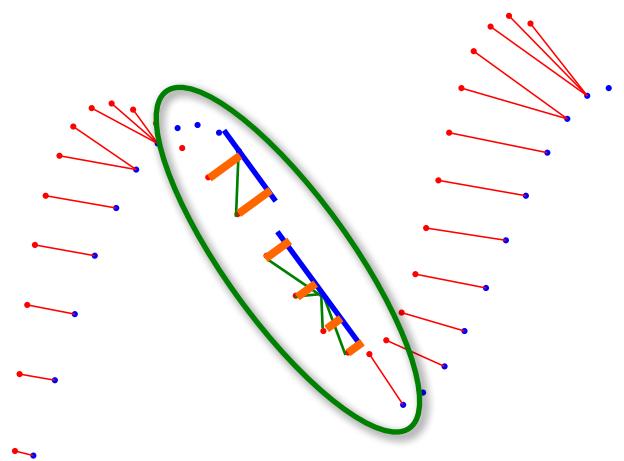
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$$\sum_{i=1}^N d(\mathbf{R}x_i + t, P(y_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N ((\mathbf{R}x_i + t - y_i)^T \mathbf{n}_{y_i})^2$$

**Solution:**

Minimize distance to  
the tangent plane



Chen, Medioni, '91

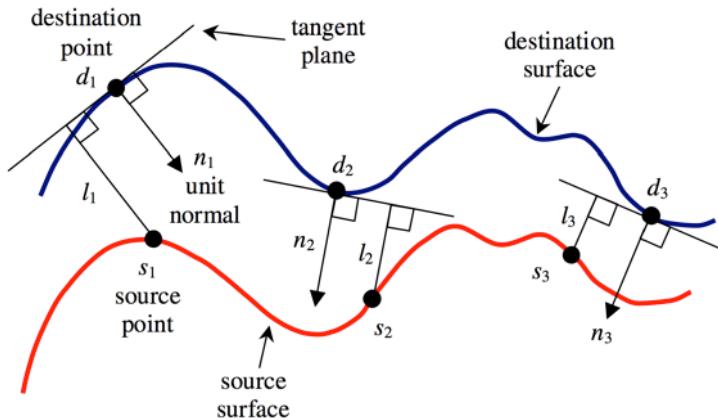
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**Question:**

How to minimize the error?

**Challenge:**

Although the error is **quadratic** (linear derivative), the space of rotation matrices is **not linear**.

**Problem:**

No closed form solution!

# Iterative Closest Point.

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**Common Solution:**

Linearize rotation. Assume rotation angle is small.

$$\mathbf{R}x_i \approx x_i + r \times x_i \quad \begin{array}{l} r : \text{axis,} \\ \|r\|_2 : \text{angle of rotation.} \end{array}$$

Note: follows from  
Rodrigues's formula

$$R(r, \alpha)x_i = x_i \cos(\alpha) + (r \times x_i) \sin(\alpha) + r(r^T x_i)(1 - \cos(\alpha))$$

And first order approximations:  $\sin(\alpha) \approx \alpha$ ,  $\cos(\alpha) \approx 1$

# Iterative Closest Point.

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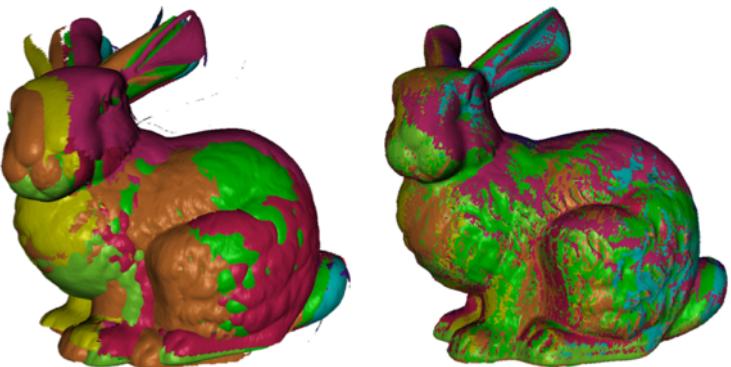
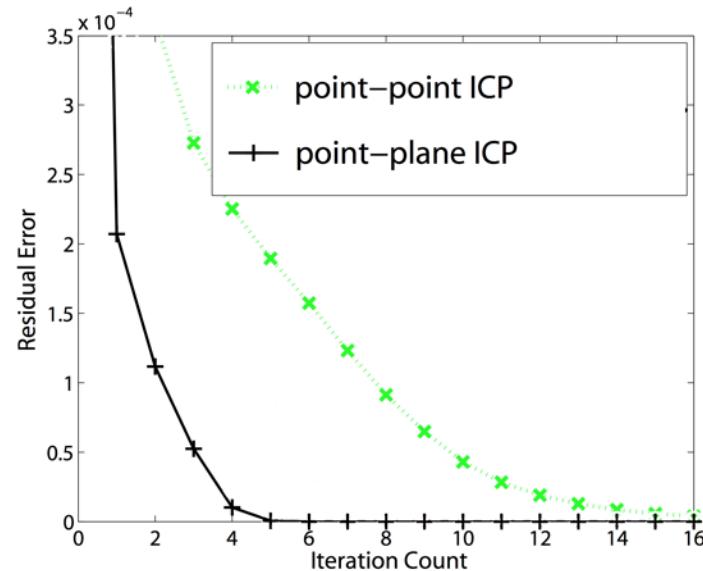
$$E(r, t) = \sum_{i=1}^N ((x_i + r \times x_i + t - y_i)^T \mathbf{n}_{y_i})^2$$

Setting:  $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} E(r, t) = 0$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} E(r, t) = 0$  leads to a 6x6 linear system

$$Ax = b$$

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} r \\ t \end{pmatrix} \quad A = \sum \begin{pmatrix} x_i \times \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \\ \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_i \times \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \\ \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \end{pmatrix}^T \quad b = \sum (y_i - x_i)^T \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \begin{pmatrix} x_i \times \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \\ \mathbf{n}_{y_i} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Iterative Closest Point.



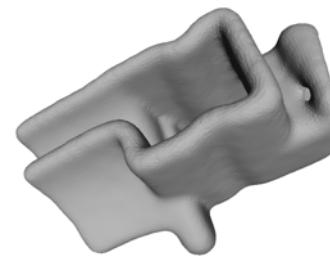
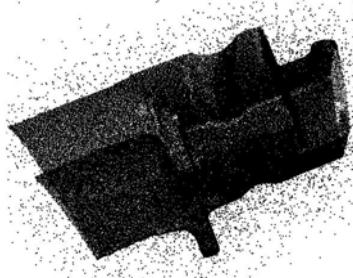
Aligning the bunny to itself.

N. J. Mitra, N. Gelfand, H. Pottmann, and L. Guibas.  
Registration of Point Cloud Data from a Geometric  
Optimization Perspective. Proc. SGP, 2004.

# 3d Point Cloud Processing

Typically point cloud sampling of a shape is insufficient for most applications. Main stages in processing:

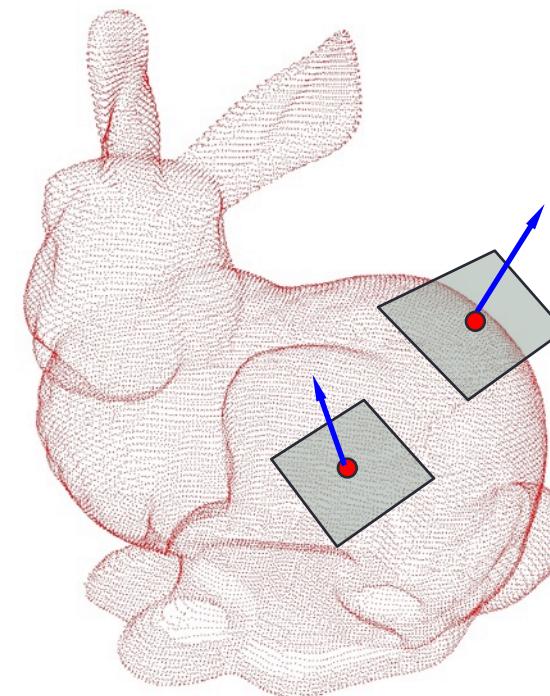
1. Shape scanning (acquisition)
2. If have multiple scans, align them.
3. Smoothing – remove local noise and outliers.
4. Estimate surface normals.
5. Surface reconstruction
  - Implicit representation
  - Triangle mesh



# Normal Estimation and Outlier Removal

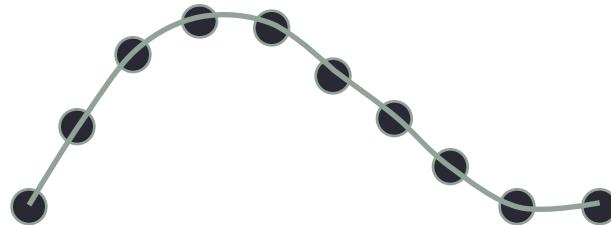
Fundamental problems in Point cloud processing.

Although seemingly very different, can be solved with the same general approach.



# Normal Estimation

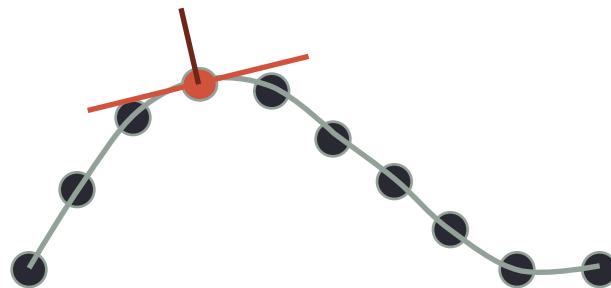
Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.



Our goal is to find the best approximation of the tangent direction, and thus the normal to the line.

# Normal Estimation

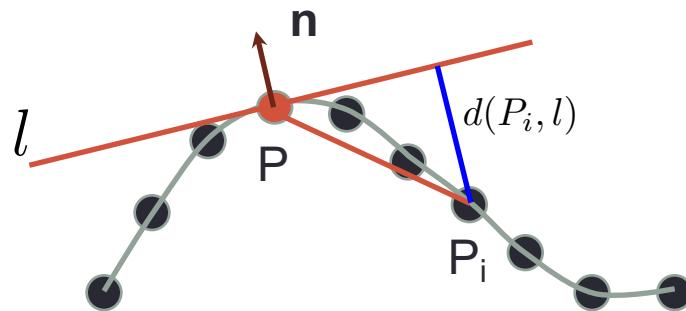
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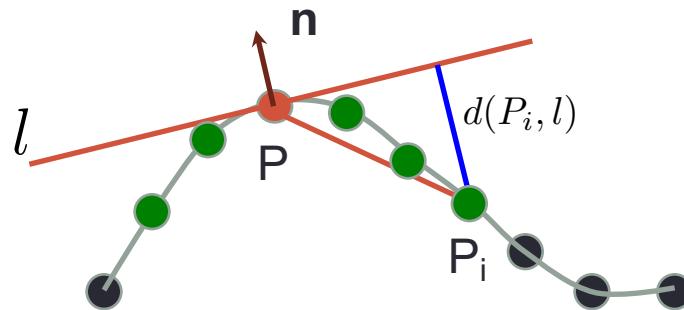
Goal: find best approximation of the normal at  $P$ .

Method: Given line  $l$  through  $P$  with normal  $\mathbf{n}$ , for another point  $p_i$ :

$$d(p_i, l)^2 = \frac{((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2}{\mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{n}} = ((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2 \text{ if } \|\mathbf{n}\| = 1$$

# Normal Estimation

Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.



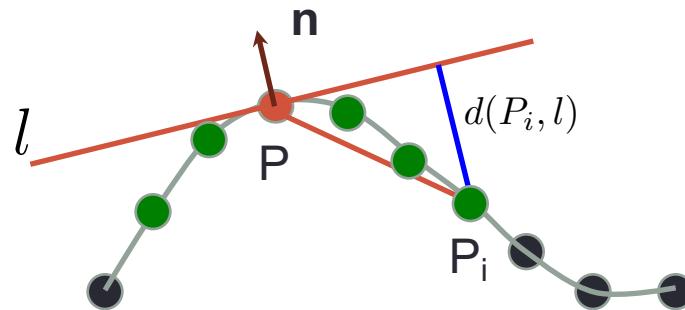
Goal: find best approximation of the normal at P.

Method: Find  $\mathbf{n}$ , minimizing  $\sum_{i=1}^k d(p_i, l)^2$  for a set of  $k$  points (e.g.  $k$  nearest neighbors of P).

$$\mathbf{n}_{\text{opt}} = \arg \min_{\|\mathbf{n}\|=1} \sum_{i=1}^k ((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2$$

# Normal Estimation

Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.



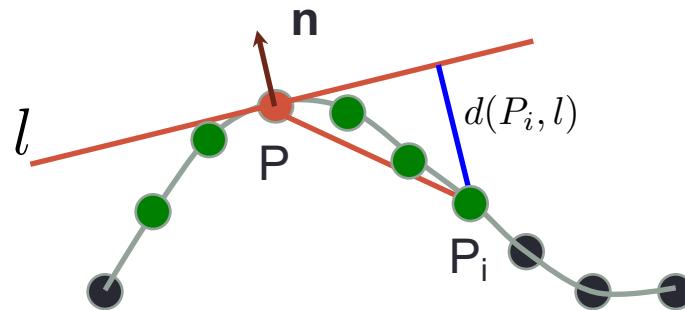
Using Lagrange multiplier:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k ((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2 \right) - \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}} (\mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{n}) = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k 2(p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n} = 2\lambda \mathbf{n}$$

# Normal Estimation

Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.

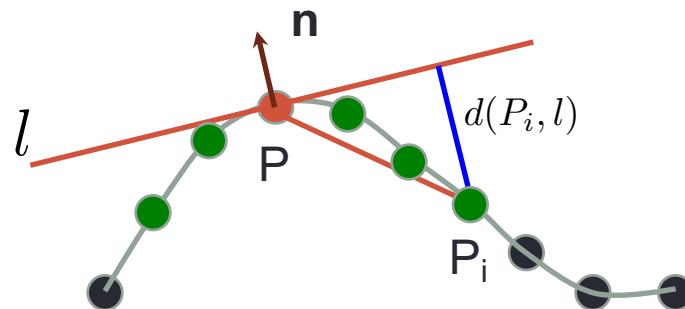


Using Lagrange multiplier:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k ((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2 \right) - \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}} (\mathbf{n}^T \mathbf{n}) = 0$$
$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T \right) \mathbf{n} = \lambda \mathbf{n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad C \mathbf{n} = \lambda \mathbf{n}$$

# Normal Estimation

Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.



The normal  $\mathbf{n}$  must be an eigenvector of the matrix:

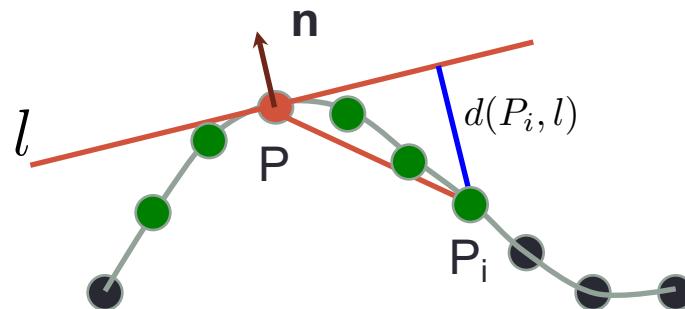
$$C\mathbf{n} = \lambda\mathbf{n} \quad C = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T$$

Moreover, since:

$$\mathbf{n}_{\text{opt}} = \arg \min_{\|\mathbf{n}\|=1} \sum_{i=1}^k ((p_i - P)^T \mathbf{n})^2 = \arg \min_{\|\mathbf{n}\|=1} \mathbf{n}^T C \mathbf{n}$$

# Normal Estimation

Assume we have a clean sampling of the surface.



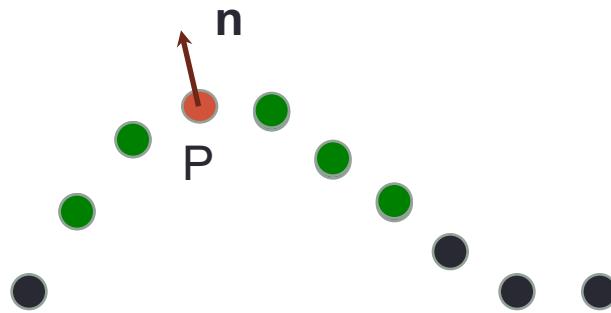
The normal  $\mathbf{n}$  must be an eigenvector of the matrix:

$$C\mathbf{n} = \lambda\mathbf{n} \quad C = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T$$

Moreover,  $\mathbf{n}_{\text{opt}}$  must be the eigenvector corresponding to the **smallest eigenvalue** of  $C$ .

# Normal Estimation

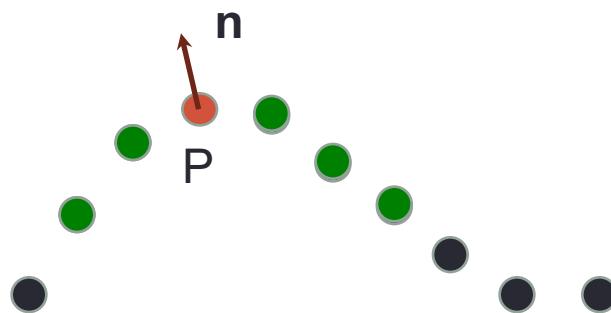
Method Outline (PCA):



1. Given a point  $P$  in the point cloud, find its  $k$  nearest neighbors.
2. Compute  $C = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T$
3.  $\mathbf{n}$ : eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue of  $C$ .

# Normal Estimation

Method Outline (PCA):



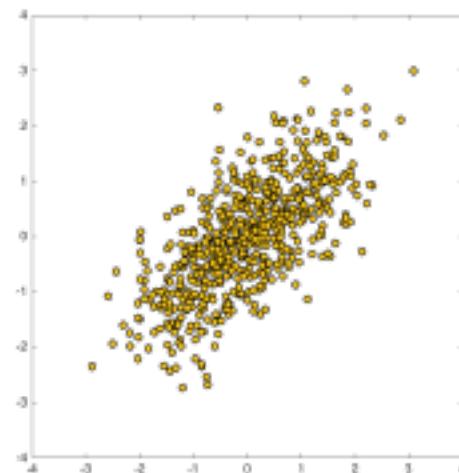
1. Given a point  $P$  in the point cloud, find its  $k$  nearest neighbors.
2. Compute  $C = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - P)(p_i - P)^T$
3.  $n$ : eigenvector corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue of  $C$ .

Variant on the theme: use  $C = \sum_{i=1}^k (p_i - \bar{P})(p_i - \bar{P})^T$ ,  $\bar{P} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k p_i$

# Principal Component Analysis

PCA more generally (works in any dimension):

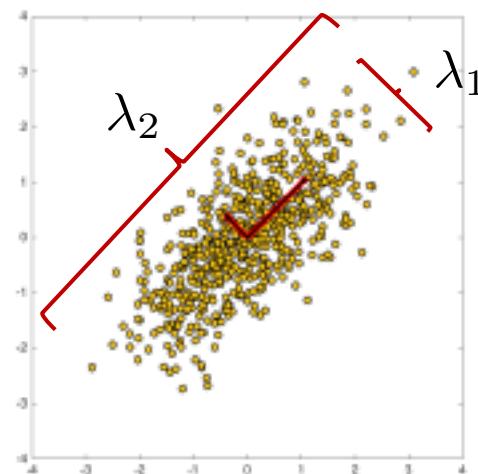
1. Given a point cloud with  $n$  points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$
2. Covariance matrix  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ ,  $C = \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - \mu)(p_i - \mu)^T$
3. Eigenvectors of  $C$  encode *principal directions*
4. Eigenvalues (all non-negative!) encode the *variance*.



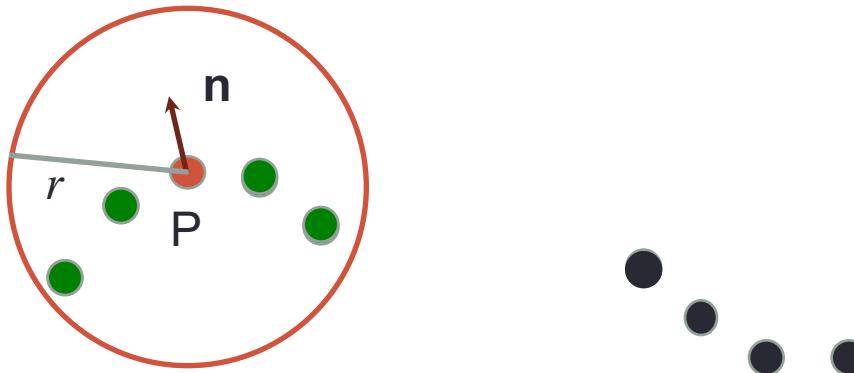
# Principal Component Analysis

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3. Eigenvectors of  $C$  encode *principal directions*
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# Normal Estimation

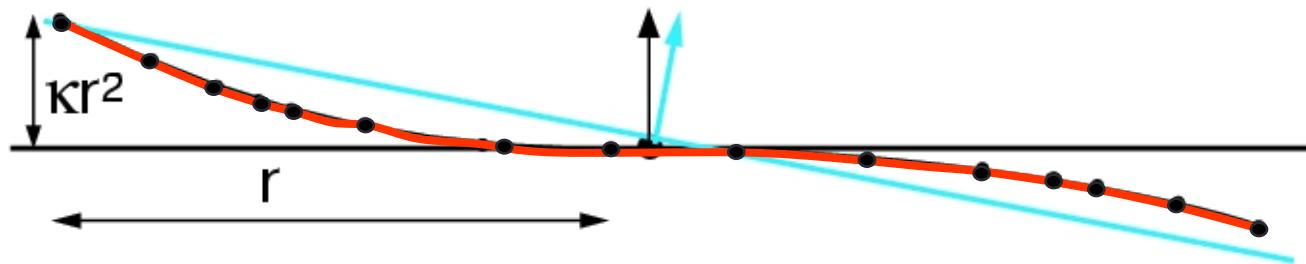


Critical parameter:  $k$ . Because of uneven sampling typically fix a radius  $r$ , and use all points **inside a ball of radius  $r$** .

How to pick an optimal  $r$ ?

# Normal Estimation

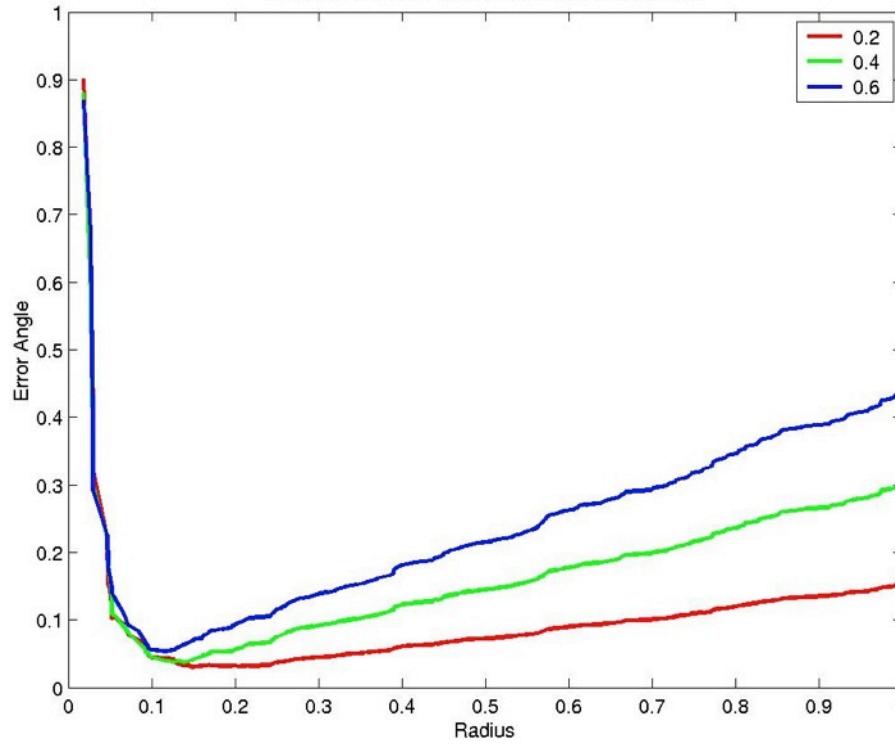
Curvature effect



Due to curvature, large  $r$  can lead to estimation bias.

Due to noise, small  $r$  can lead to errors

# Normal Estimation



source: Mitra et al. '04

Estimation error under Gaussian noise for different values of curvature (2D)

# Normal Estimation – Neighborhood Size



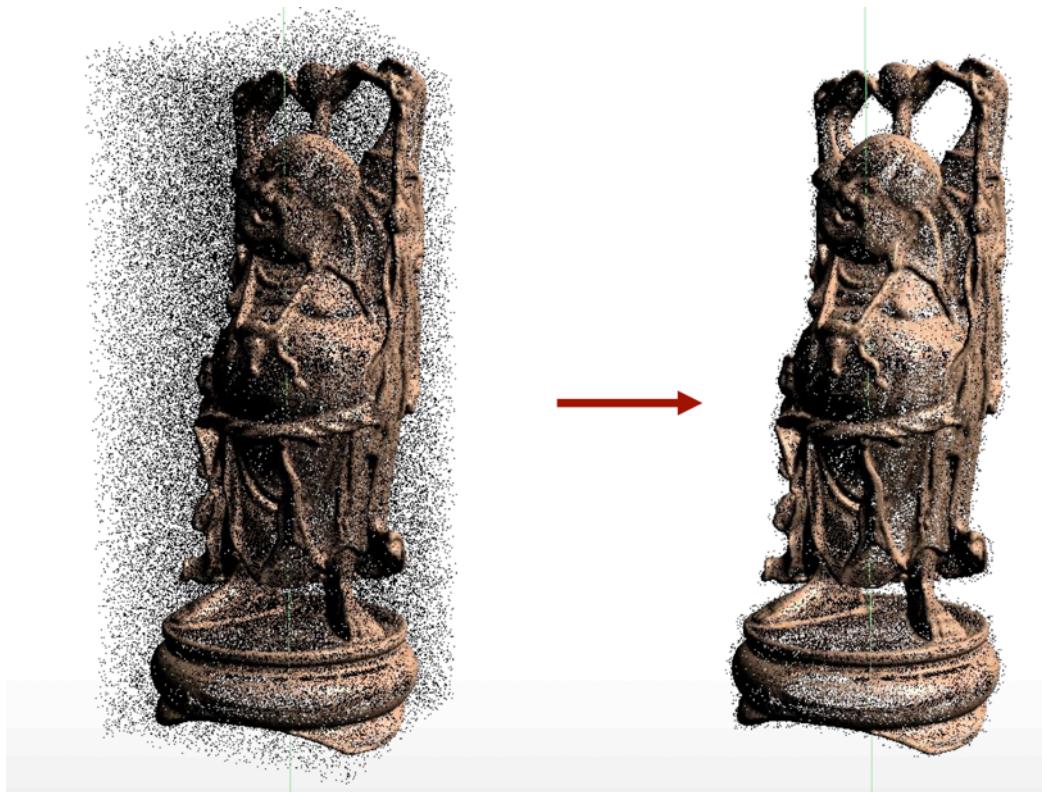
1x noise



2x noise

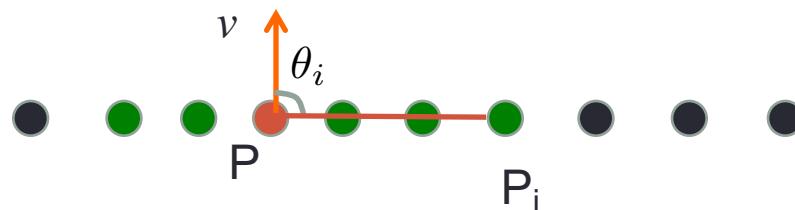
source: Mitra  
et al. '04

# Outlier Removal



Goal: remove points that do not lie close to a surface.

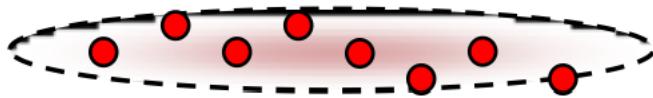
# Outlier Estimation



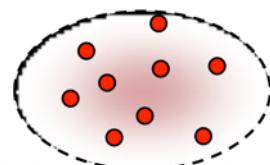
If all the points are on a line, then  $\min_v \frac{v^T C v}{v^T v} = \lambda_{\min}(C) = 0$  and  $\lambda_{\max}(C)$  is large.

There exists a direction along which the point cloud has no variability.

If points are scattered randomly, then:  $\lambda_{\max}(C) \approx \lambda_{\min}(C)$ .

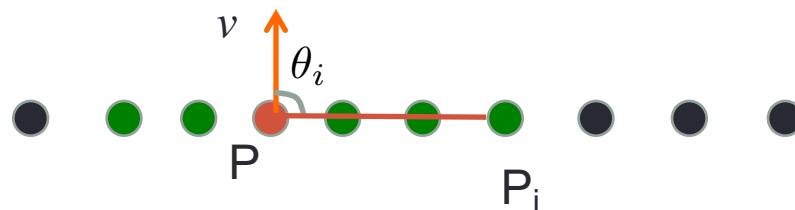


$$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \text{ small}$$



$$\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} \approx 1$$

# Outlier Estimation



If all the points are on a line, then  $\min_v \frac{v^T C v}{v^T v} = \lambda_{\min}(C) = 0$  and  $\lambda_{\max}(C)$  is large.

There exists a direction along which the point cloud has no variability.

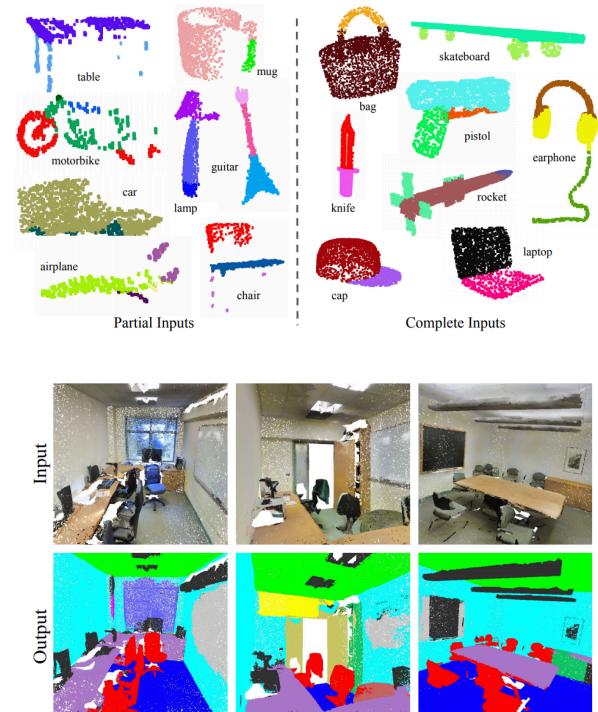
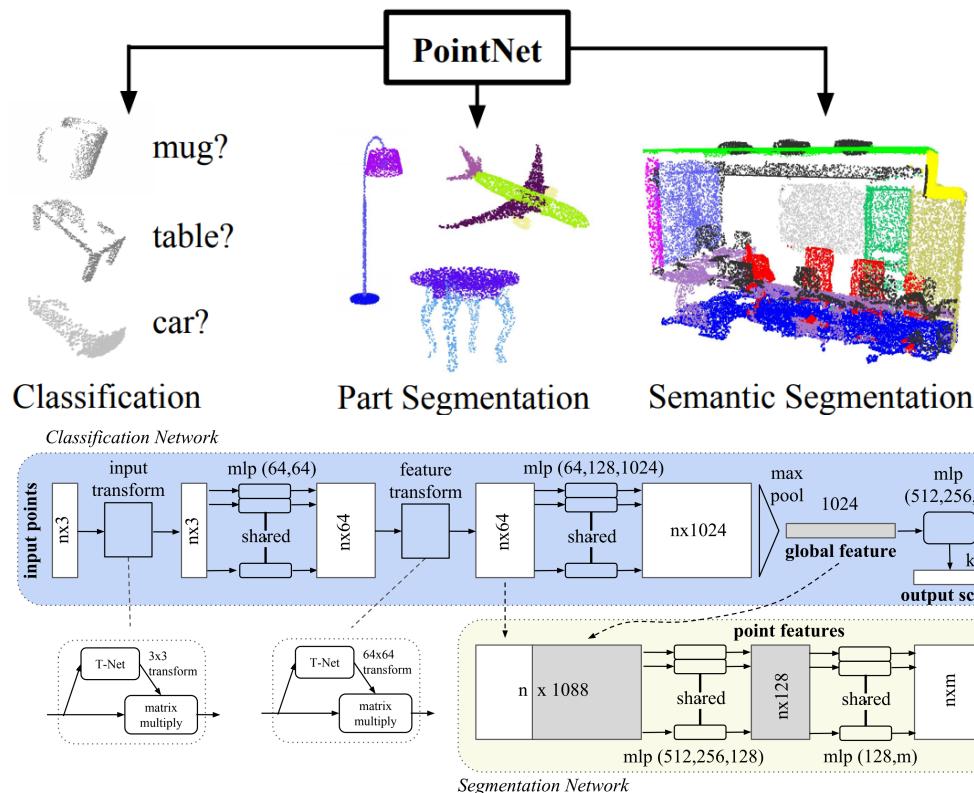
If points are scattered randomly, then:  $\lambda_{\max}(C) \approx \lambda_{\min}(C)$ .

Thus, can remove points where  $\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2} > \epsilon$  for some threshold.

In 3d we expect two zero eigenvalues, so use  $\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_3} > \epsilon$  for some threshold.

# Data-Driven Approaches

Learning-based methods for analyzing point clouds

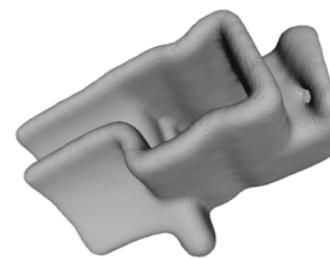
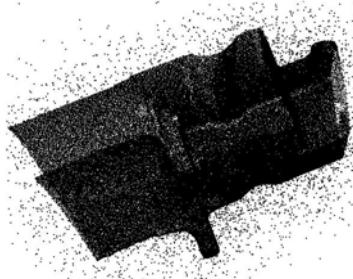


PointNet: Deep Learning on Point Sets for 3D Classification and Segmentation, Charles R. Qi, Hao Su, Kaichun Mo, Leonidas J. Guibas, CVPR 2017

# 3d Point Cloud Processing

Typically point cloud sampling of a shape is insufficient for most applications. Main stages in processing:

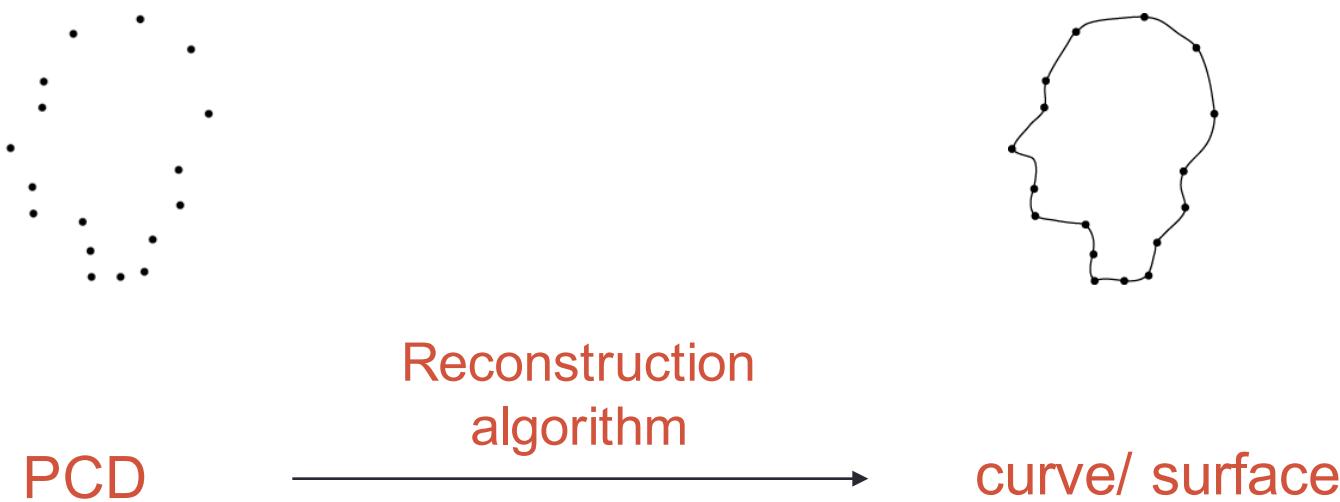
1. Shape scanning (acquisition)
2. If have multiple scans, align them.
3. Smoothing – remove local noise and outliers.
4. Estimate surface normals.
5. Surface reconstruction
  - Implicit representation
  - Triangle mesh



# 3d Point Cloud Reconstruction

Main Goal:

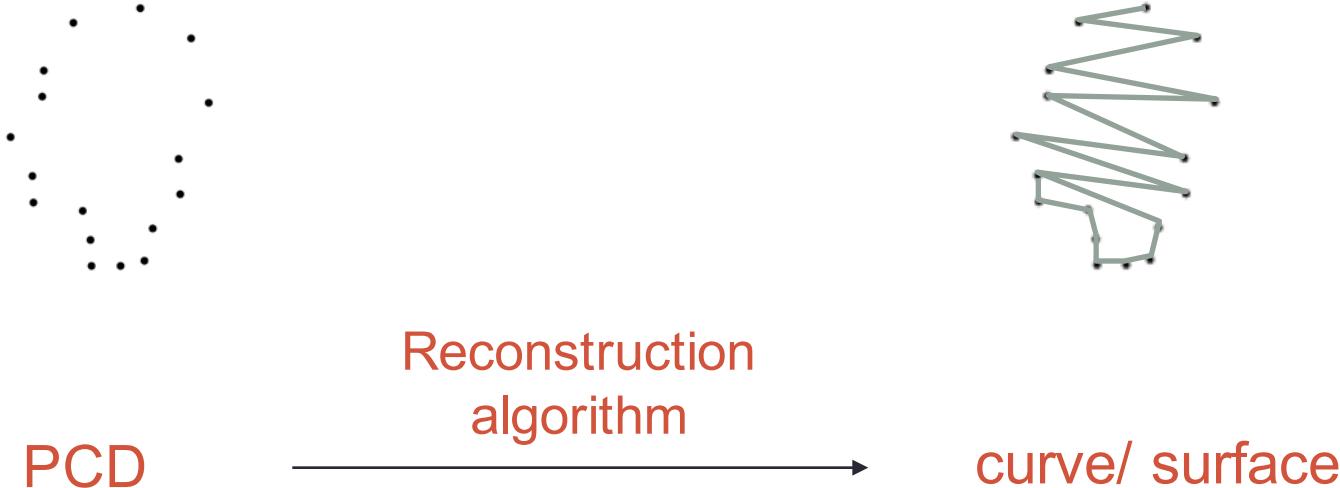
Construct a polygonal (e.g. triangle mesh) representation of the point cloud.



# 3d Point Cloud Reconstruction

Main Problem:

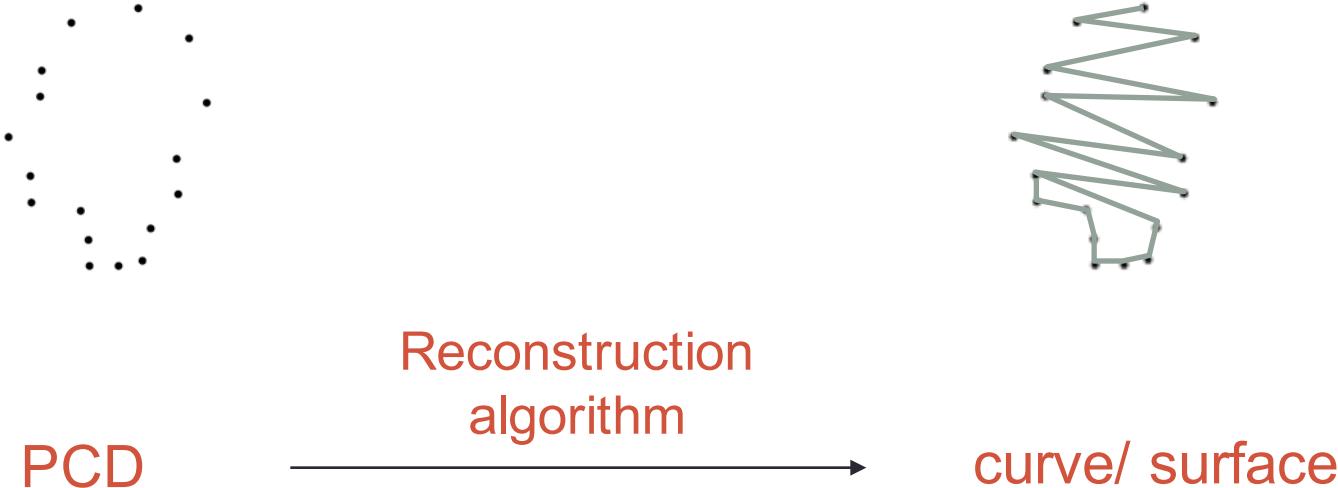
Data is **unstructured**. E.g. in 2D the points are not **ordered**.



# 3d Point Cloud Reconstruction

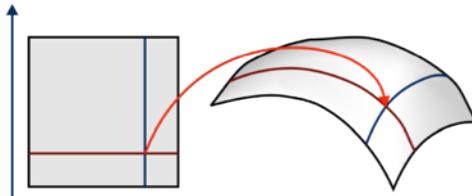
Main Problem:

Data is **unstructured**. E.g. in 2D the points are not **ordered**. Inherently **ill-posed** (aka difficult) problem.

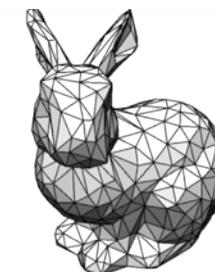


# 3d Point Cloud Reconstruction

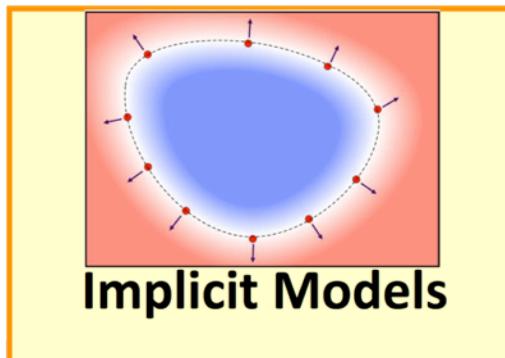
Today: Reconstruction through Implicit models.



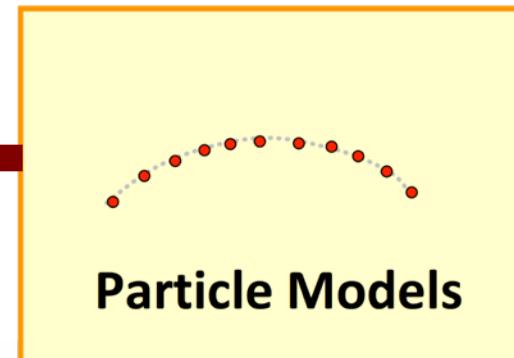
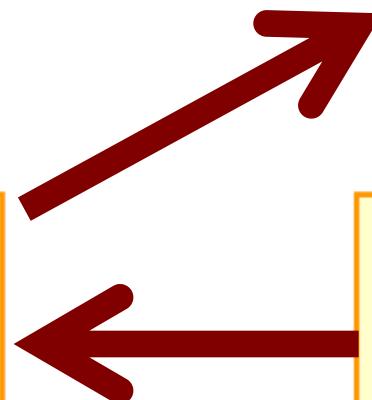
Parametric Models



Primitive Meshes



Implicit Models

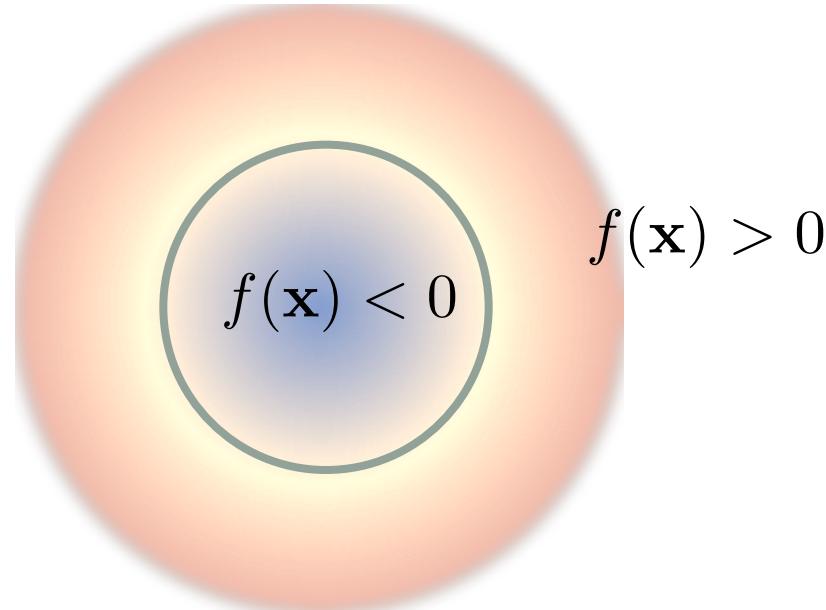


Particle Models

# Implicit surfaces

Given a function  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , the surface is defined as:

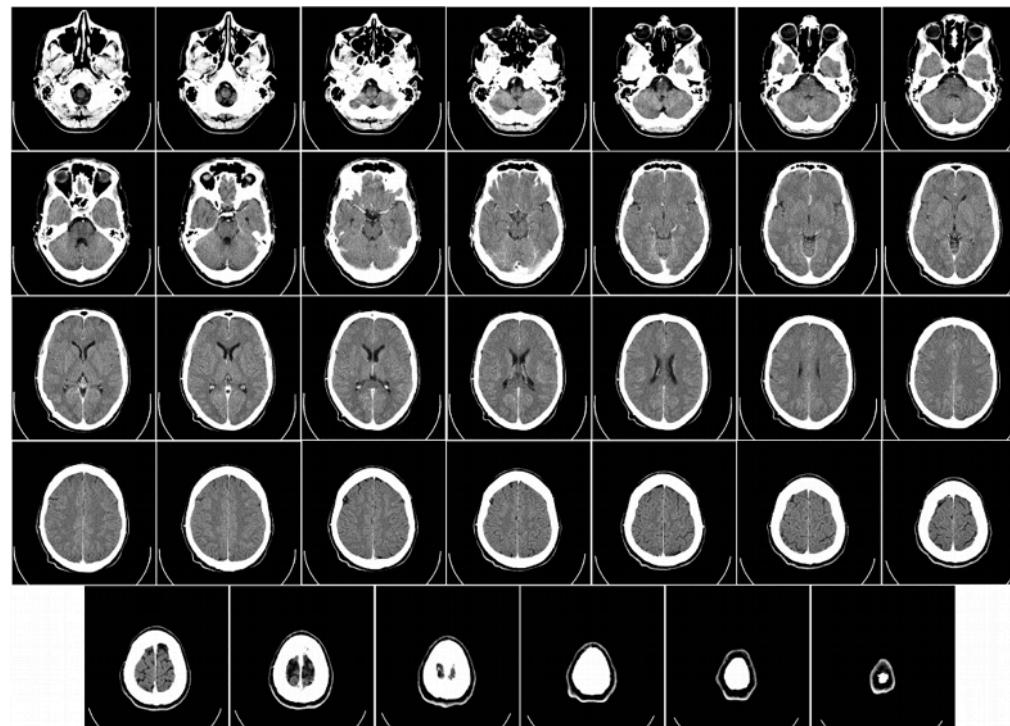
$$\{\mathbf{x}, \text{s.t. } f(\mathbf{x}) = 0\}$$



$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - r^2$$

# Implicit surfaces

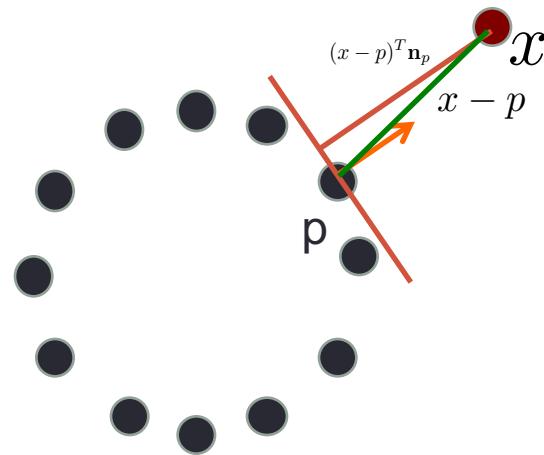
Some 3d scanning technologies (e.g. CT, MRI) naturally produce implicit representations



CT scans of human brain

# Implicit surfaces

Converting from a point cloud to an implicit surface:

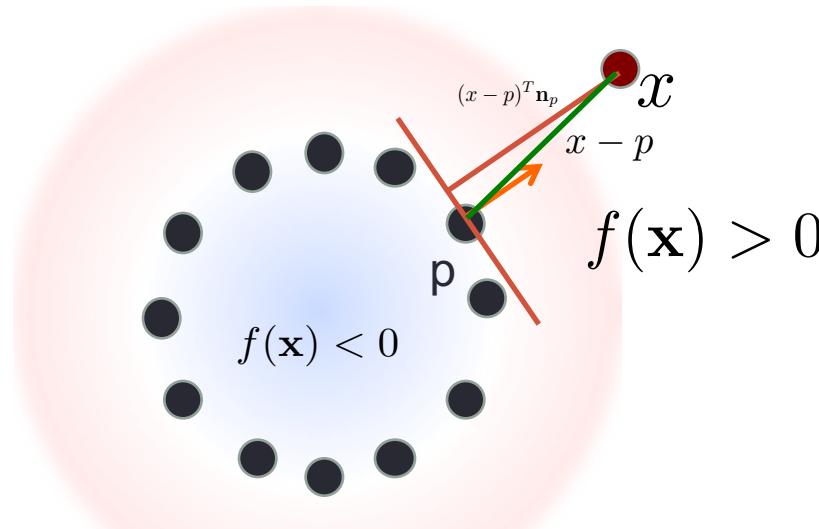


Simplest method:

1. Given a point  $x$  in space, find nearest point  $p$  in PCD.
2. Set  $f(x) = (x - p)^T \mathbf{n}_p$  – signed distance to the tangent plane.

# Implicit surfaces

Converting from a point cloud to an implicit surface:

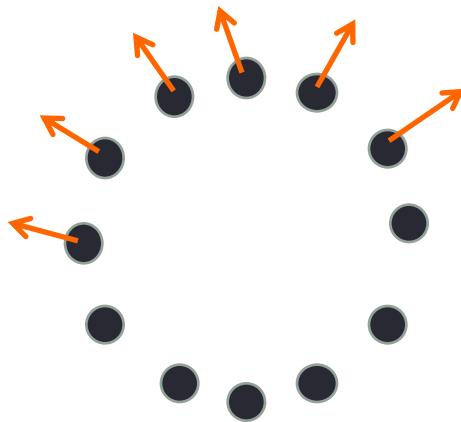


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# Implicit surfaces

Converting from a point cloud to an implicit surface:



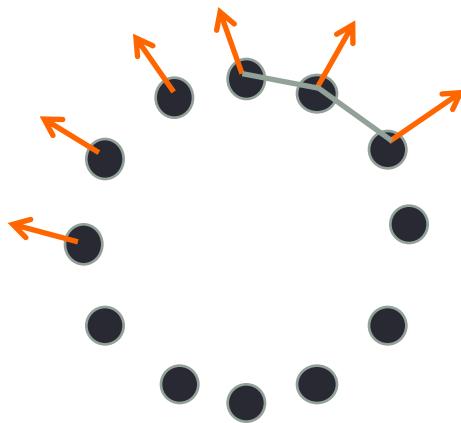
Simplest method:

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2. Set  $f(x) = (x - p)^T \mathbf{n}_p$  – signed distance to the tangent plane.
3. Note: need consistently oriented normals.

PCA only gives normals **up to orientation**

# Implicit surfaces

Converting from a point cloud to an implicit surface:

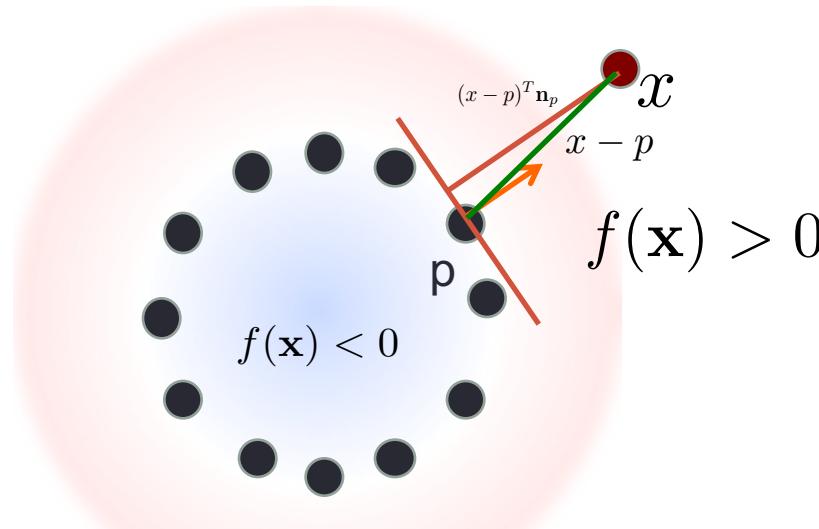


Simplest method:

1. Given a point  $x$  in space, find nearest point  $p$  in PCD.
2. Set  $f(x) = (x - p)^T \mathbf{n}_p$  – signed distance to the tangent plane.
3. Note: need consistently oriented normals. In general, difficult problem, but can try to locally connect points and fix orientations.

# Implicit surfaces

Converting from a point cloud to an implicit surface:



Simplest method:

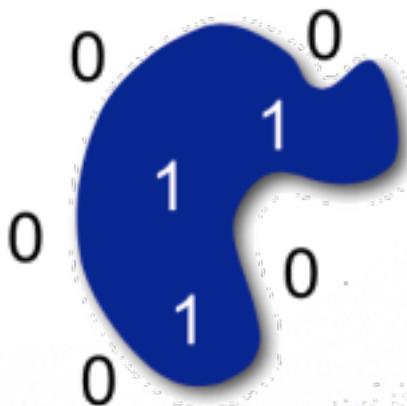
1. Given a point  $x$  in space, find nearest point  $p$  in PCD.
2. Set  $f(x) = (x - p)^T \mathbf{n}_p$  – signed distance to the tangent plane.

**Note:** many more advanced methods exist:  
e.g. Moving Least Squares (MLS)

# Poisson Surface Reconstruction

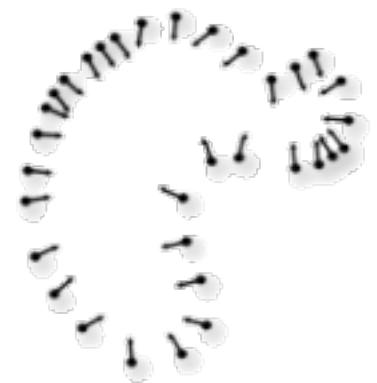
Main Goal: construct an indicator function of a surface

$$\chi_M(p) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \in M \\ 0 & \text{if } p \notin M \end{cases}$$

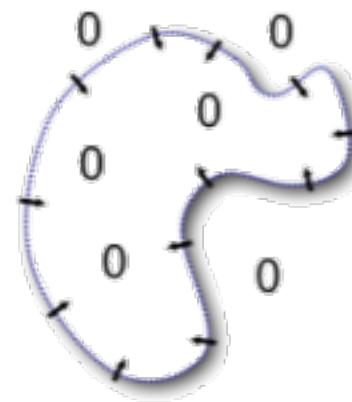


# Poisson Surface Reconstruction

Observation:



Oriented points

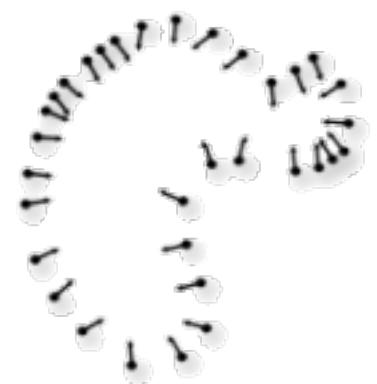


Indicator gradient  
 $\nabla \chi_M$

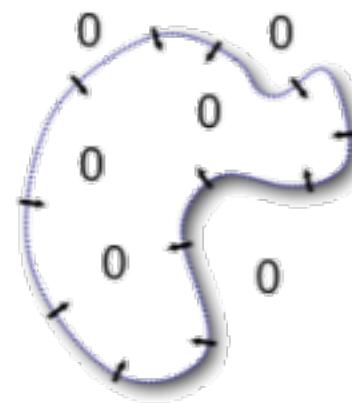
The gradient of the indicator function should agree with the vector field of oriented points.

# Poisson Surface Reconstruction

Solving for the indicator function:



Oriented points

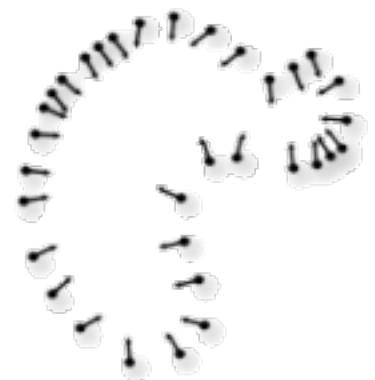


Indicator gradient  
 $\nabla \chi_M$

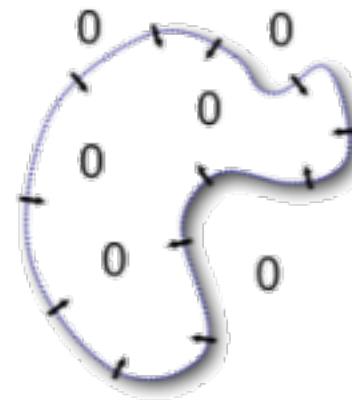
$$\min_{\chi} \|\nabla \chi - V\|$$

# Poisson Surface Reconstruction

Solving for the indicator function:



Oriented points



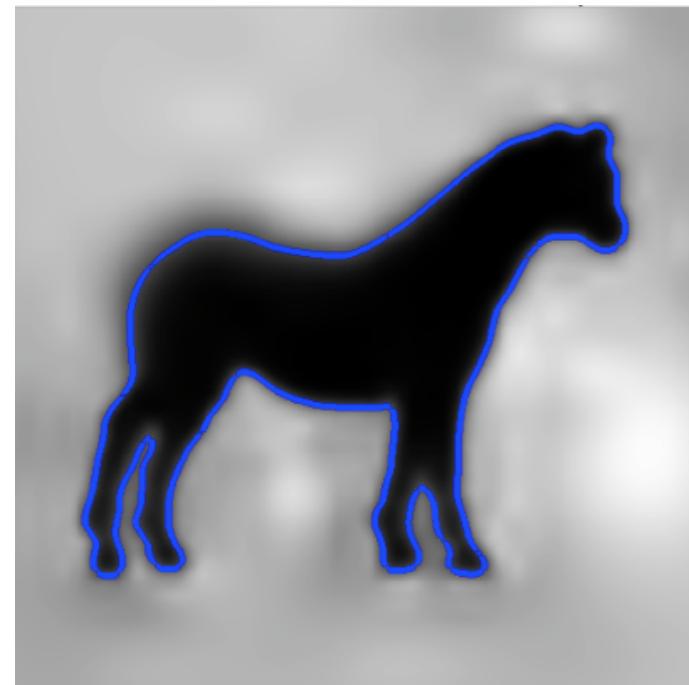
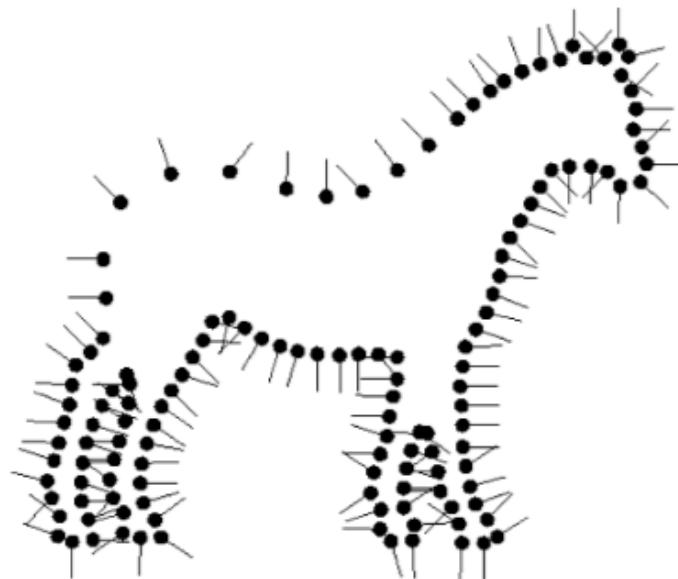
Indicator gradient  
 $\nabla \chi_M$

Or, applying the  
divergence operator:

$$\min_{\chi} \|\Delta \chi - \operatorname{div}(V)\|$$

# Poisson Surface Reconstruction

Given the indicator function – extract the isosurface.

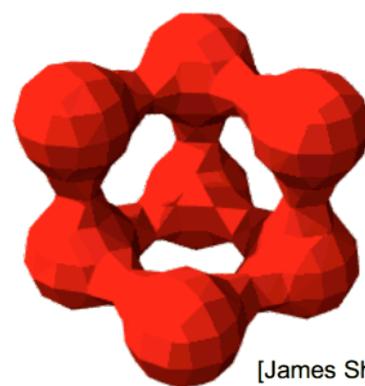
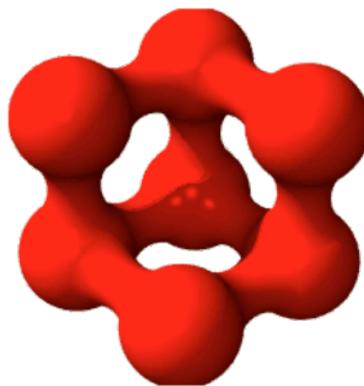


# Marching Cubes

Converting from implicit to explicit representations.

Goal: Given an implicit representation:  $\{\mathbf{x}, \text{s.t. } f(\mathbf{x}) = 0\}$

Create a triangle mesh that approximates the surface.



[James Sharman]

Lorensen and Cline, SIGGRAPH '87

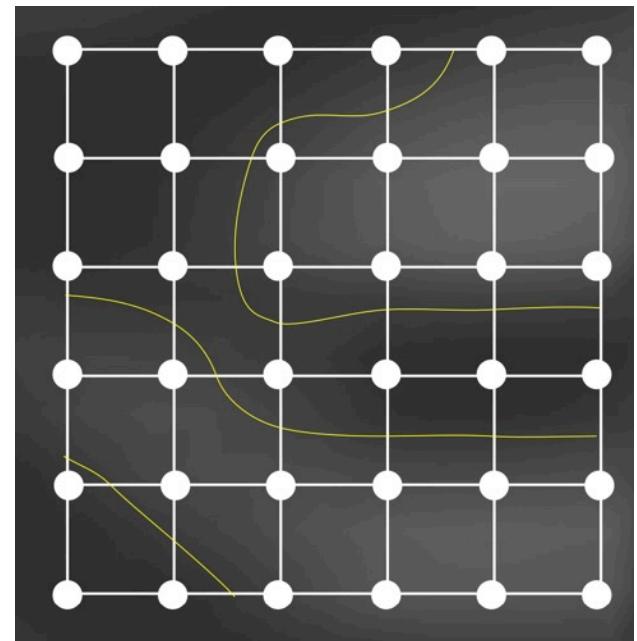
One of the most cited computer graphics papers of all time.

# Marching Squares (2D)

Given a function:  $f(x)$

- $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  inside
- $f(\mathbf{x}) > 0$  outside

1. Discretize space.
2. Evaluate  $f(x)$  on a grid.

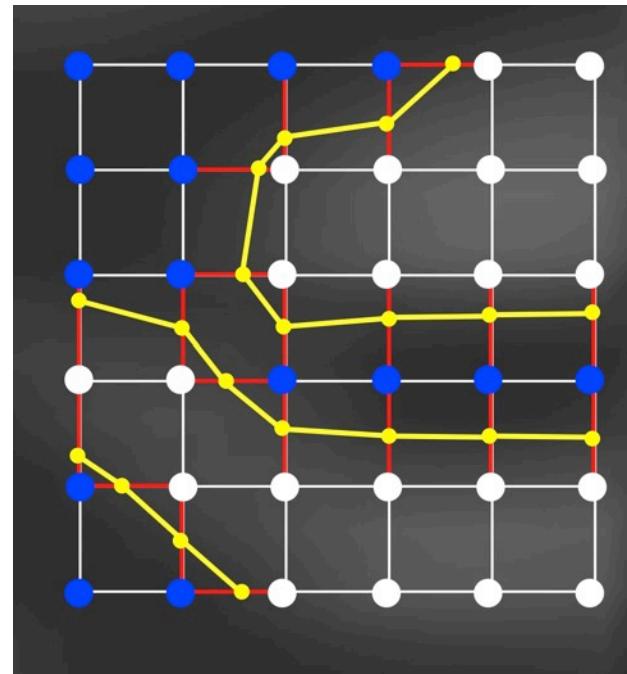


# Marching Squares (2D)

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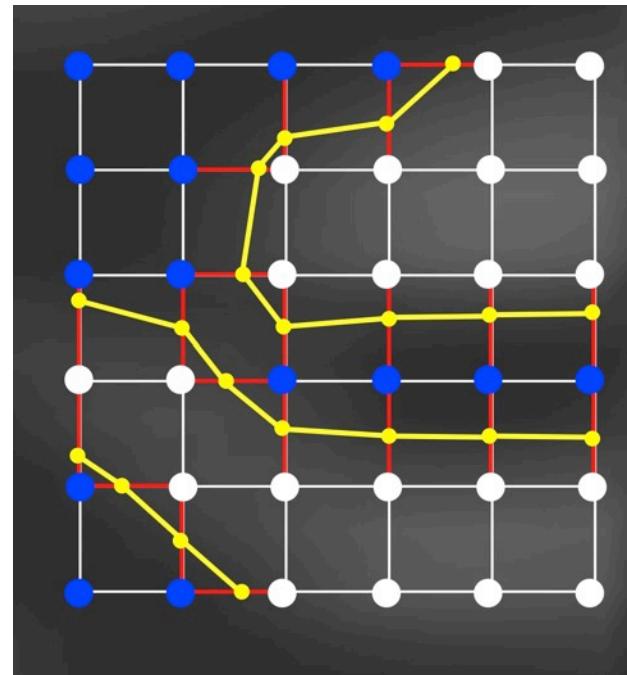
1. Discretize space.
2. Evaluate  $f(x)$  on a grid.
3. Classify grid points (+-)
4. Classify grid edges
5. Compute Intersections
6. Connect Intersections



# Marching Squares (2D)

Connecting the intersections:

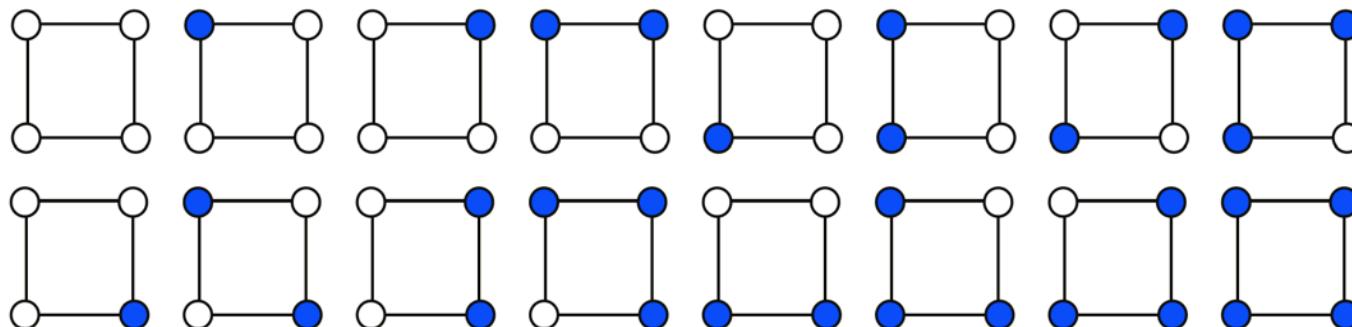
- Grand principle: treat each cell separately!
- Enumerate all possible inside/outside combinations.



# Marching Squares (2D)

Connecting the intersections:

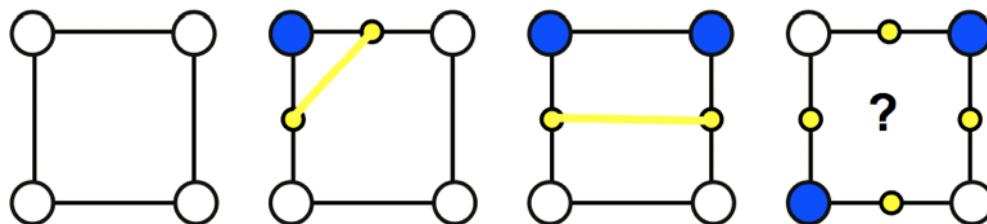
- Grand principle: treat each cell separately!
- Enumerate all possible inside/outside combinations.
- Group those leading to the same intersections



# Marching Squares (2D)

Connecting the intersections:

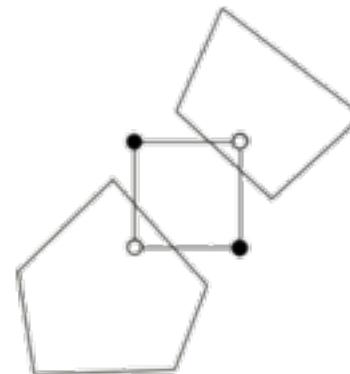
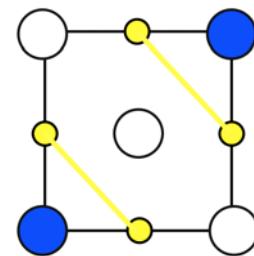
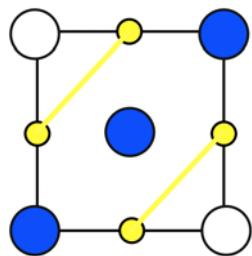
- Grand principle: treat each cell separately!
- Enumerate all possible inside/outside combinations.
- Group those leading to the same intersections.
- Group equivalent after rotation.
- Connect intersections



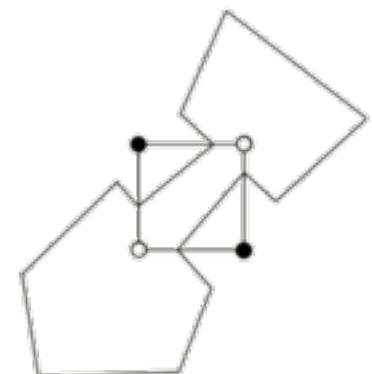
# Marching Squares (2D)

Connecting the intersections:

Ambiguous cases:



Break contour



Join contour

2 options:

- 1) Can resolve ambiguity by subsampling inside the cell.
- 2) If subsampling is impossible, pick one of the two possibilities.

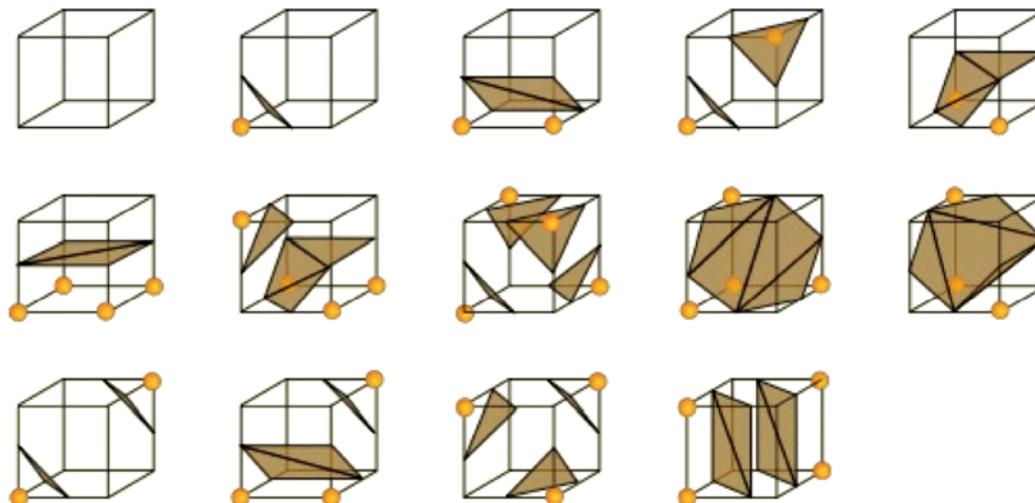
# Marching Cubes (3D)

Same basic machinery applies to 3d.

cells become **cubes** (voxels)

lines become **triangles**

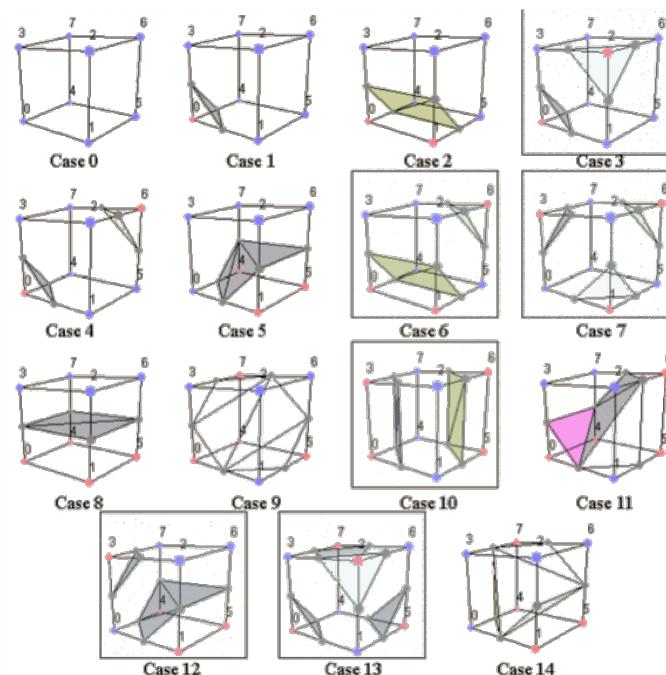
- 256 different cases
- 14 after symmetries



# Marching Cubes (3D)

Same basic machinery applies to 3d.  
cells become **cubes** (voxels)  
lines become **triangles**

- 256 different cases
- 14 after symmetries
- 6 ambiguous cases (in boxes)



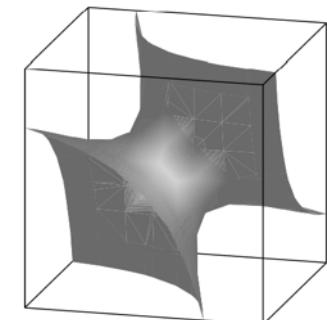
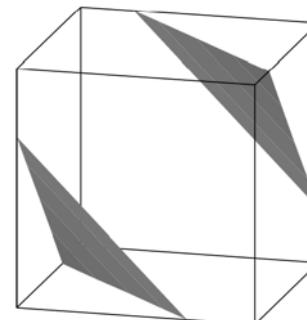
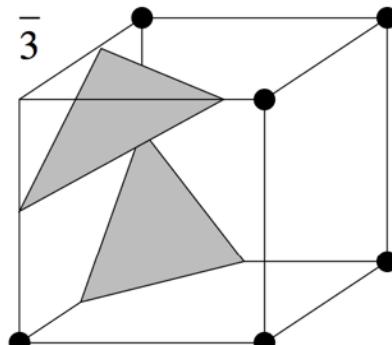
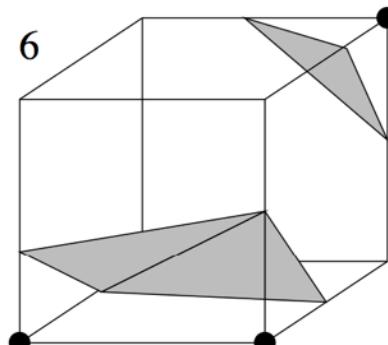
# Marching Cubes (3D)

Same basic machinery applies to 3d.

cells become **cubes** (voxels)

lines become **triangles**

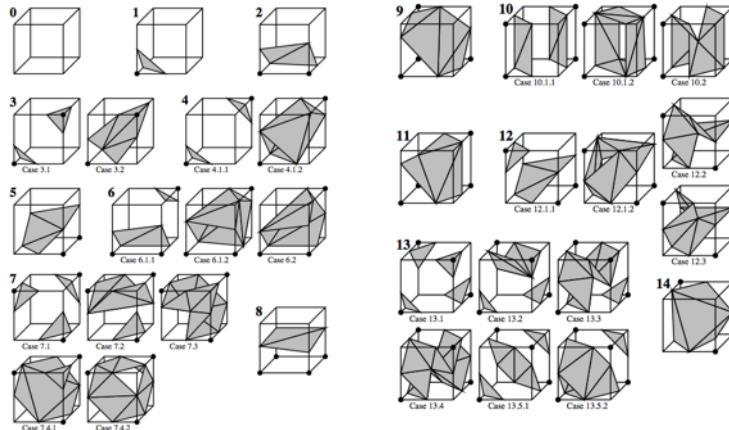
- 256 different cases
- 14 after symmetries
- 6 ambiguous cases (in boxes)
- Inconsistent triangulations can lead to holes and wrong topology.



# Marching Cubes (3D)

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- 256 different cases
- 14 after symmetries
- 6 ambiguous cases (in boxes)
- Inconsistent triangulations can lead to holes and wrong topology.
- More subsampling rules – leads to 33 unique cases.



# Marching Cubes (3D)

## Main Strengths:

- Very multi-purpose.
- Extremely fast and parallelizable.
- Relatively simple to implement.
- Virtually parameter-free

## Main Weaknesses:

- Can create badly shaped (skinny) triangles.
- Basic versions do not provide topological guarantees.
- Many special cases (implemented as big lookup tables).
- No sharp features.

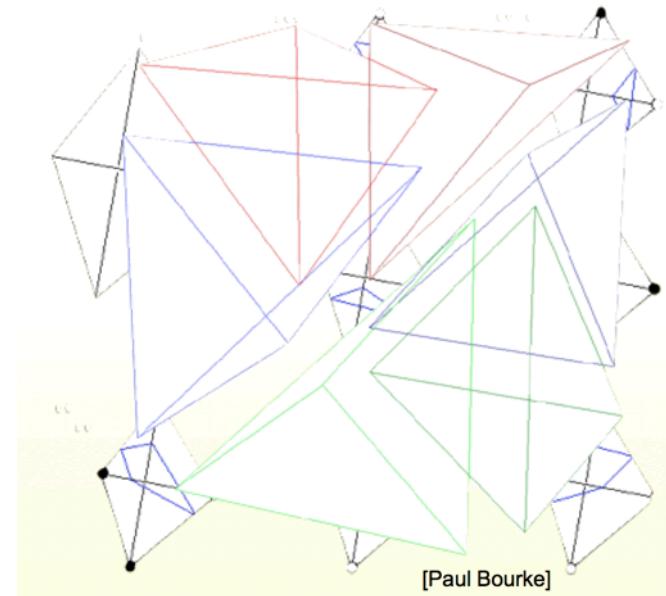
# Marching Cubes – Extensions

Marching Tetrahedra.

Instead of cubes (grid) use **Tetrahedra**.

- 6 Tetrahedra per voxel
- 16 cases (8 after symmetry)
- Up to 2 triangles per tet
- **No ambiguities.**

Can be used when input is discretized as tetrahedra.



Regularised marching tetrahedra: improved iso-surface extraction,  
G.M. Treece, R.W. Prager, A.H. Gee, Computers & Graphics, 1999.

# Conclusions

Wide variety of 3d scanning techniques.

Reconstruction is a difficult, highly data-dependent problem.

Majority of reconstruction methods require normal information.

Marching cubes: classical method for converting an implicit to explicit representation.

Many extensions to:

- Improve topology
- Handle sharp features
- Improve quality