

CS 532: 3D Computer Vision

13th Set of Notes

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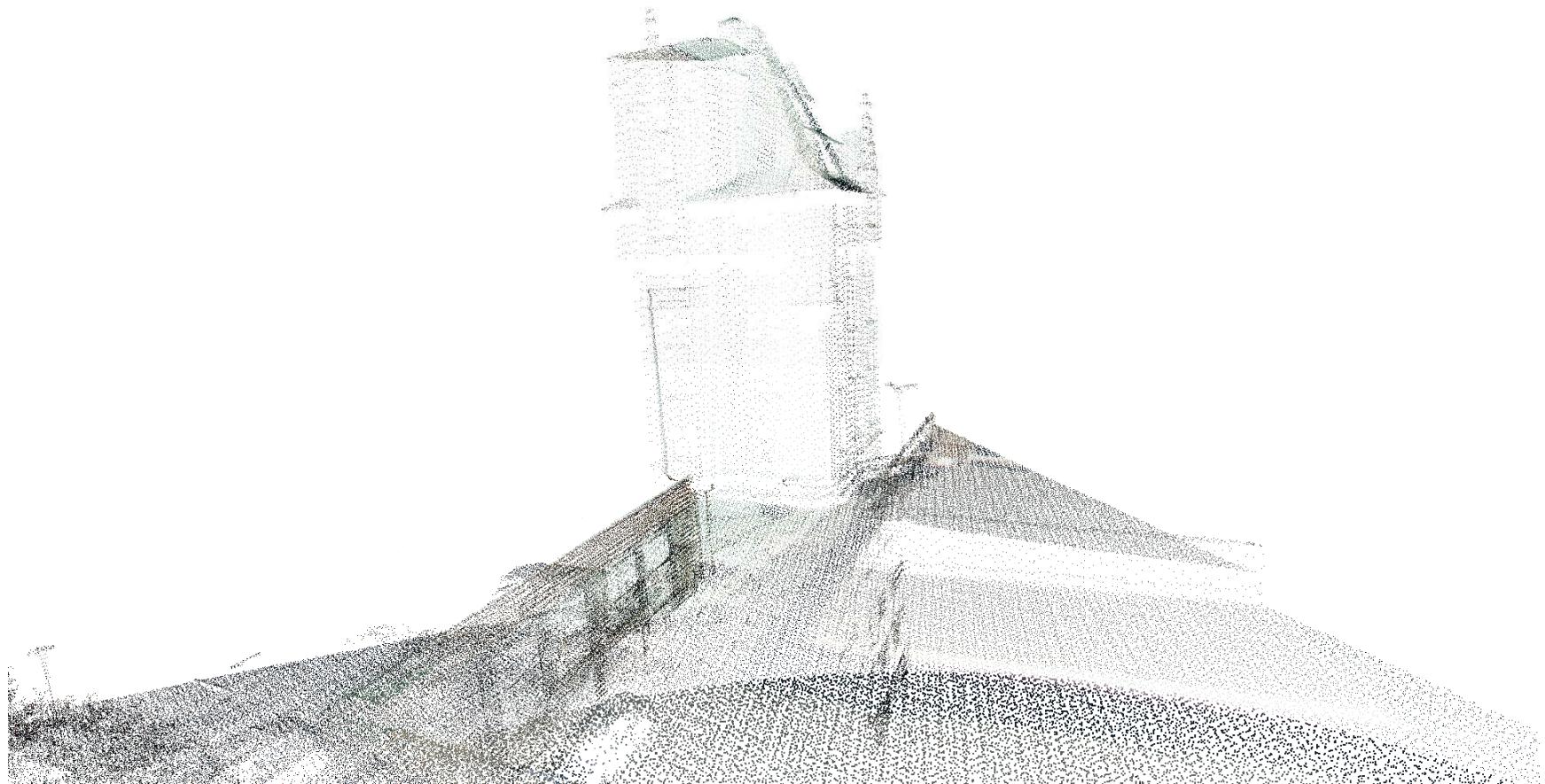
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Lecture Outline

- Unorganized point clouds
 - Range queries and kd-trees
- Descriptors for 3D point clouds
- David M. Mount, CMSC 754:
Computational Geometry lecture notes,
Department of Computer Science,
University of Maryland, Spring 2012
 - Lecture 16

Point Clouds



Unorganized Point Clouds

- In many cases, data come as unorganized point clouds
 - Not trivial to generate meshes even given a 2D reference frame (see Homework 6.2)
 - Even more complicated to fuse multiple viewpoint-based meshes
 - Some sensors (moving LIDAR) measure only points

What can be done?

- While mesh generation is possible, it is not guaranteed to be correct
 - Even watertight manifolds can be generated using Poisson surface reconstruction (see previous notes)
 - It is often hard to discriminate forward and backward facing points
 - It is hard to determine whether there are gaps between points

What can be done?

- Process the data by assuming possible connections between points
 - I.e. assuming nearby points belong to the same smooth surface
- Do not make hard decisions

Key Parameter: Scale

- Trade-off between fidelity to data and robustness to noise
- If analysis is performed at small scale, details (high curvature) can be preserved
- If data are noisy, high curvature typically corresponds to noise...

Nearest Neighbors

- Number one enabling technology for working with unorganized point clouds: **Nearest Neighbor Search**
- Algorithms cannot be quadratic
- It can be shown that kd-trees can be generated in $O(n \log n)$ time
- Queries take $O(\log n)$ per point
 - k queries: find k nearest neighbors of query point
 - epsilon queries: find neighbors within an ϵ -ball centered at the query point

Tools

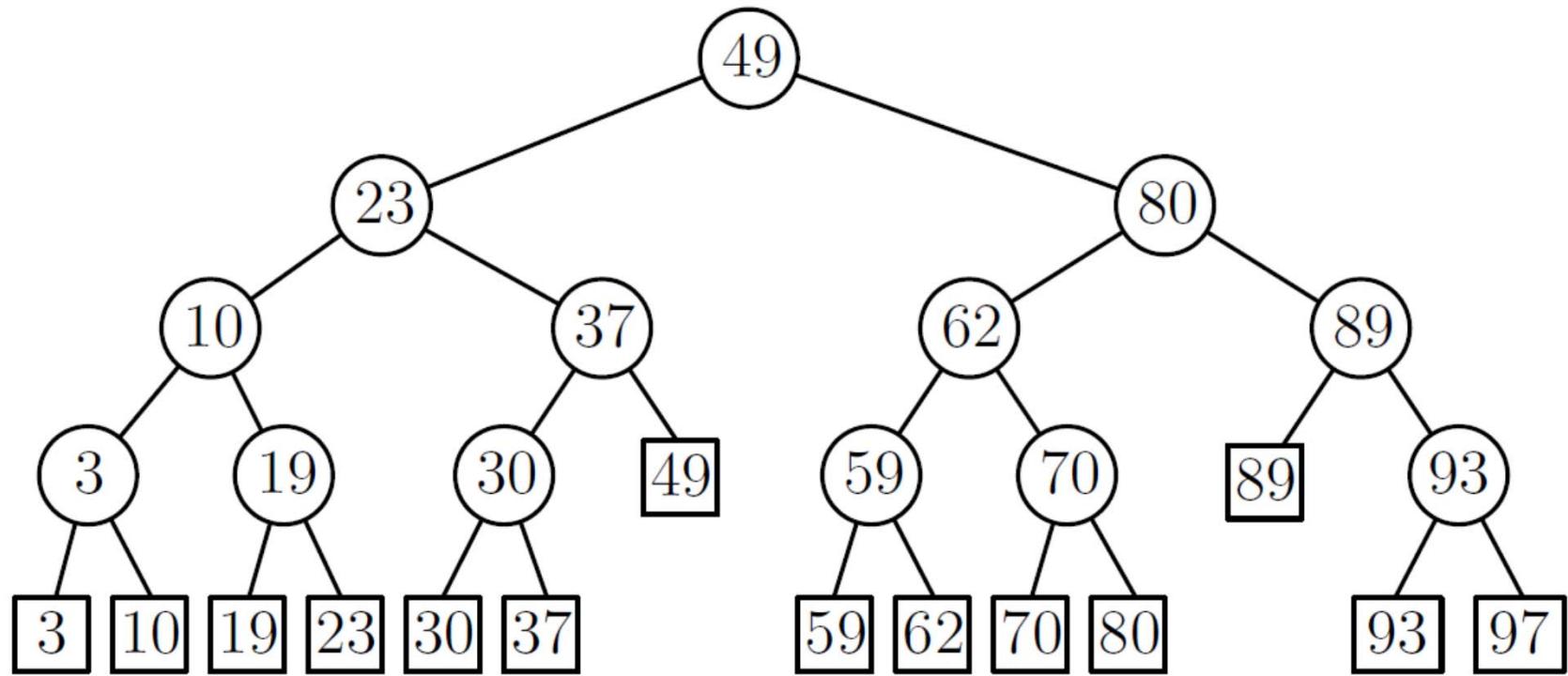
- knnsearch() in Matlab
 - <http://www.mathworks.com/help/stats/knnsearch.html>
 - Do multiple queries with one call
- FLANN library
 - <http://www.cs.ubc.ca/research/flann/>
 - Bindings for C/C++, Matlab and python, part of PCL
- CvKNearest in OpenCV (which has bindings for C/C++, Python and Java)
- KDTree in scikit
- All these are not limited to 3D data

1D Range Queries

- 1D range query problem: Preprocess a set of n points on the real line such that the ones inside a 1D query range (interval) can be reported fast
- The points p_1, \dots, p_n are known beforehand, the query $[x, x']$ only later
- A solution to a query problem is a data structure description, a query algorithm, and a construction algorithm

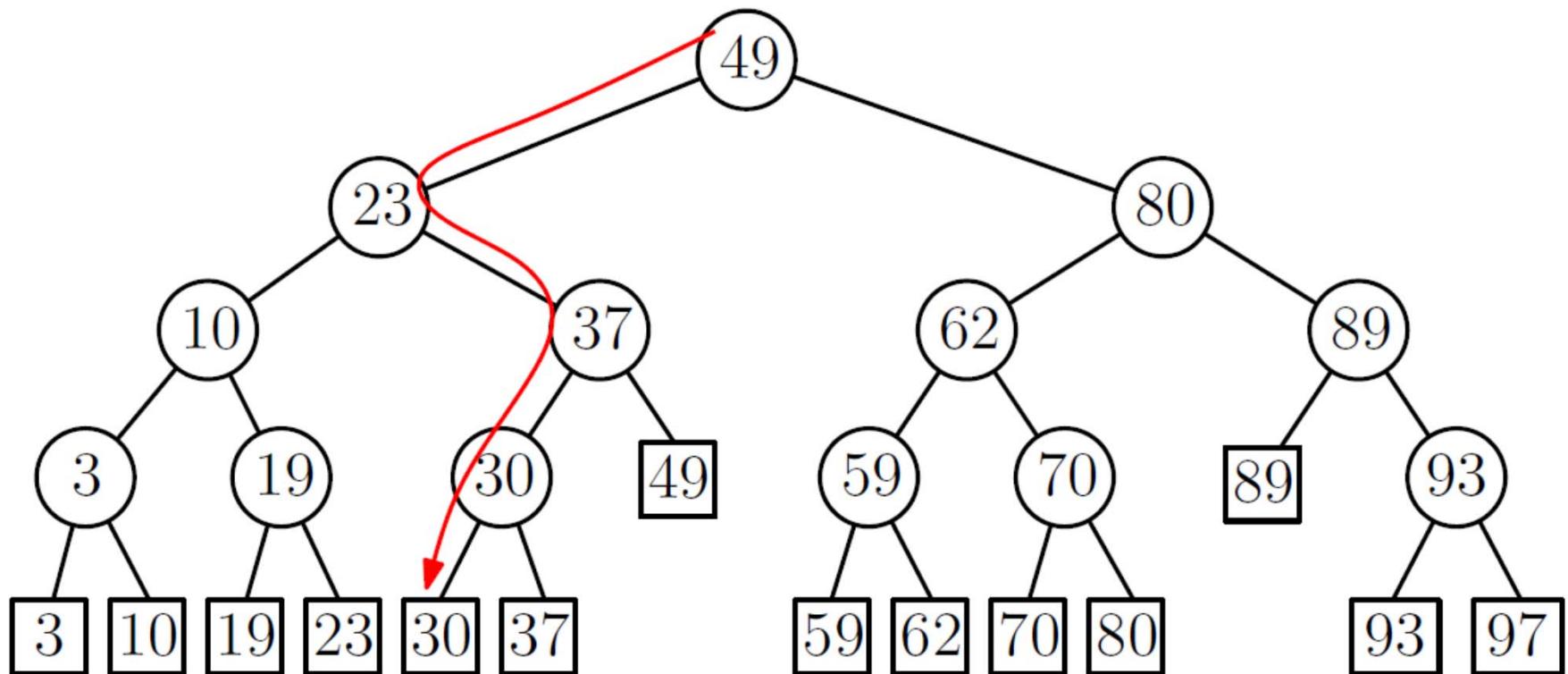
Balanced Binary Search Trees

- A balanced binary search tree with the points in the leaves



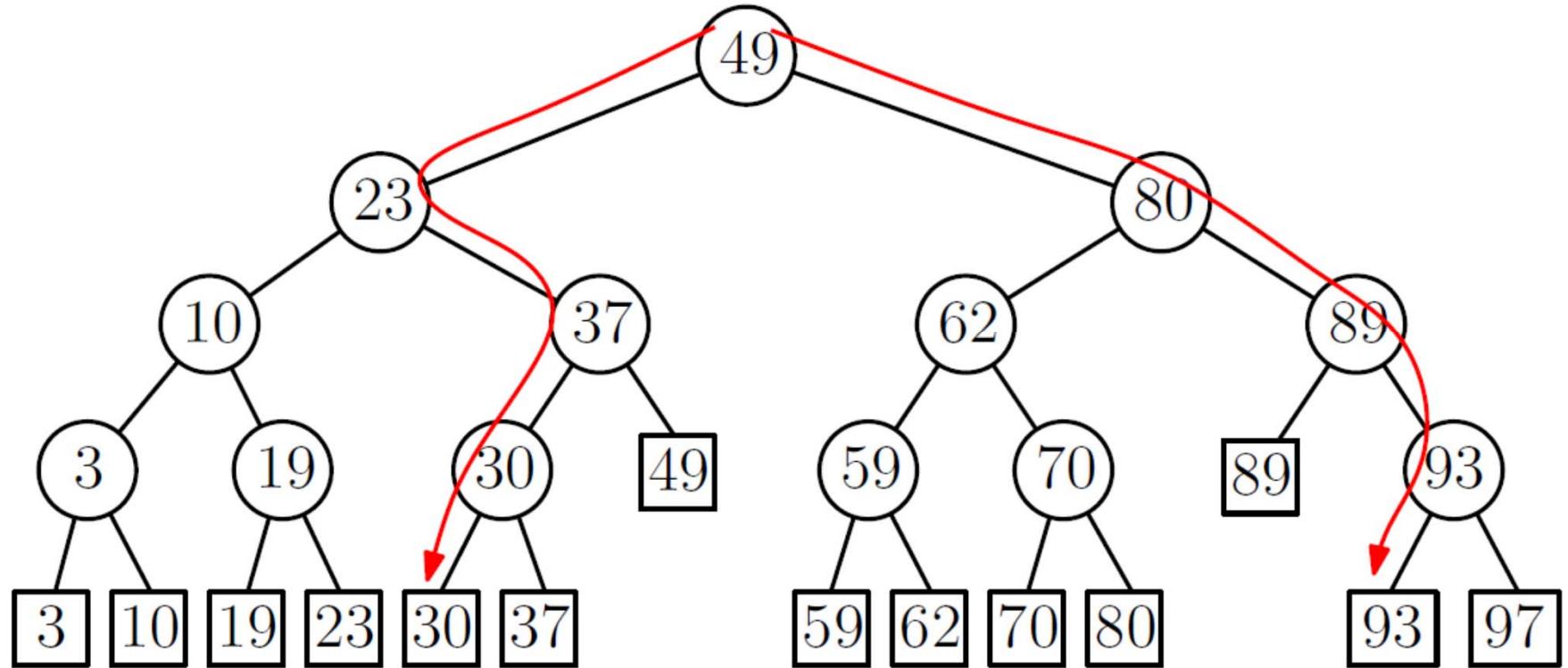
Balanced Binary Search Trees

- The search path for 25



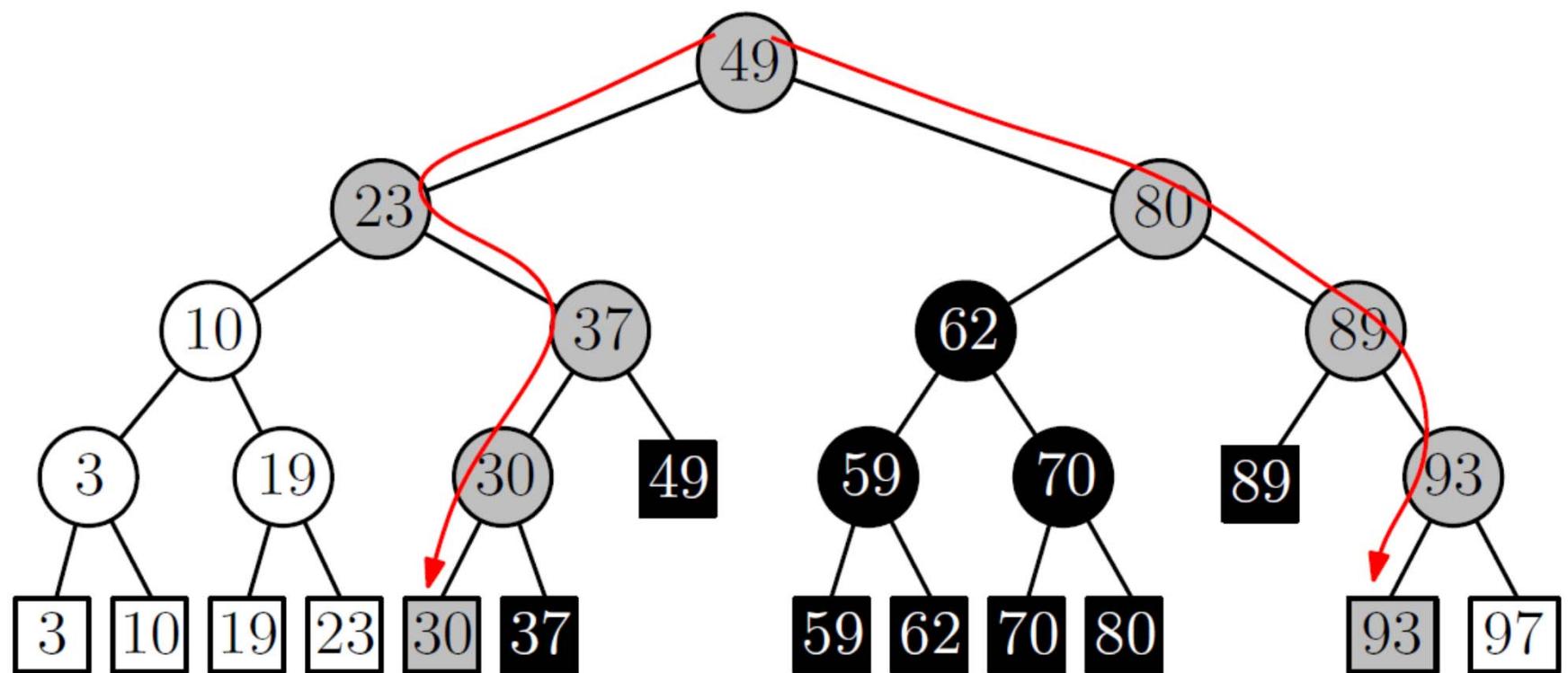
Balanced Binary Search Trees

- The search paths for 25 and 90



Example 1D Range Query

- A 1D range query with [25, 90]



Node Types for a Query

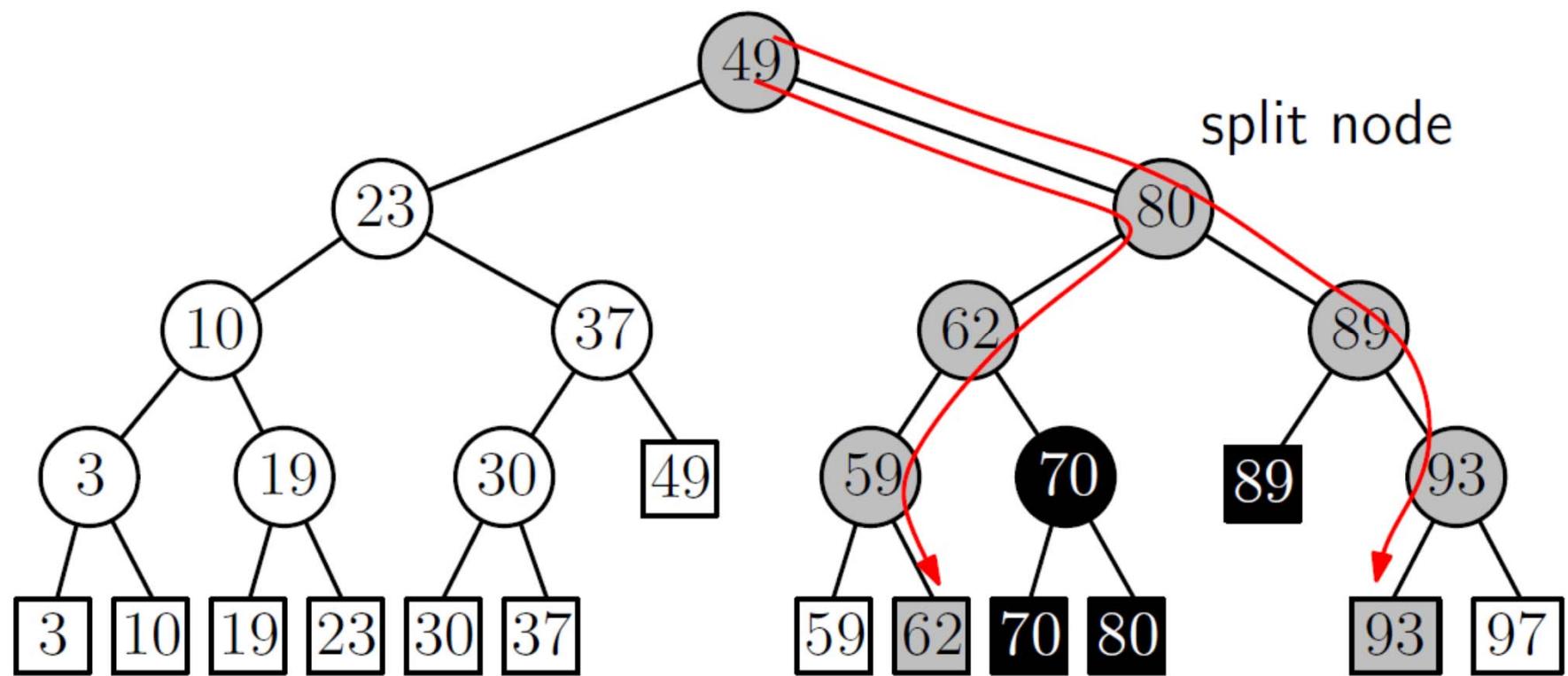
- Three types of nodes for a given query:
 - White nodes: never visited by the query
 - Grey nodes: visited by the query, unclear if they lead to output
 - Black nodes: visited by the query, whole subtree is output

Node Types for a Query

- The query algorithm comes down to what we do at each type of node
- Grey nodes: use query range to decide how to proceed: to not visit a subtree (pruning), to report a complete subtree, or just continue
- Black nodes: traverse and enumerate all points in the leaves

Example 1D Range Query

- A 1D range query with [61, 90]



1D Range Query Algorithm

Algorithm 1DRANGEQUERY($\mathcal{T}, [x : x']$)

1. $v_{\text{split}} \leftarrow \text{FINDSPLITNODE}(\mathcal{T}, x, x')$
2. **if** v_{split} is a leaf
3. **then** Check if the point in v_{split} must be reported.
4. **else** $v \leftarrow lc(v_{\text{split}})$
5. **while** v is not a leaf
6. **do if** $x \leq x_v$
 7. **then** REPORTSUBTREE($rc(v)$)
 8. $v \leftarrow lc(v)$
 9. **else** $v \leftarrow rc(v)$
10. Check if the point stored in v must be reported.
11. $v \leftarrow rc(v_{\text{split}})$
12. Similarly, follow the path to x' , and ...

Query Time Analysis

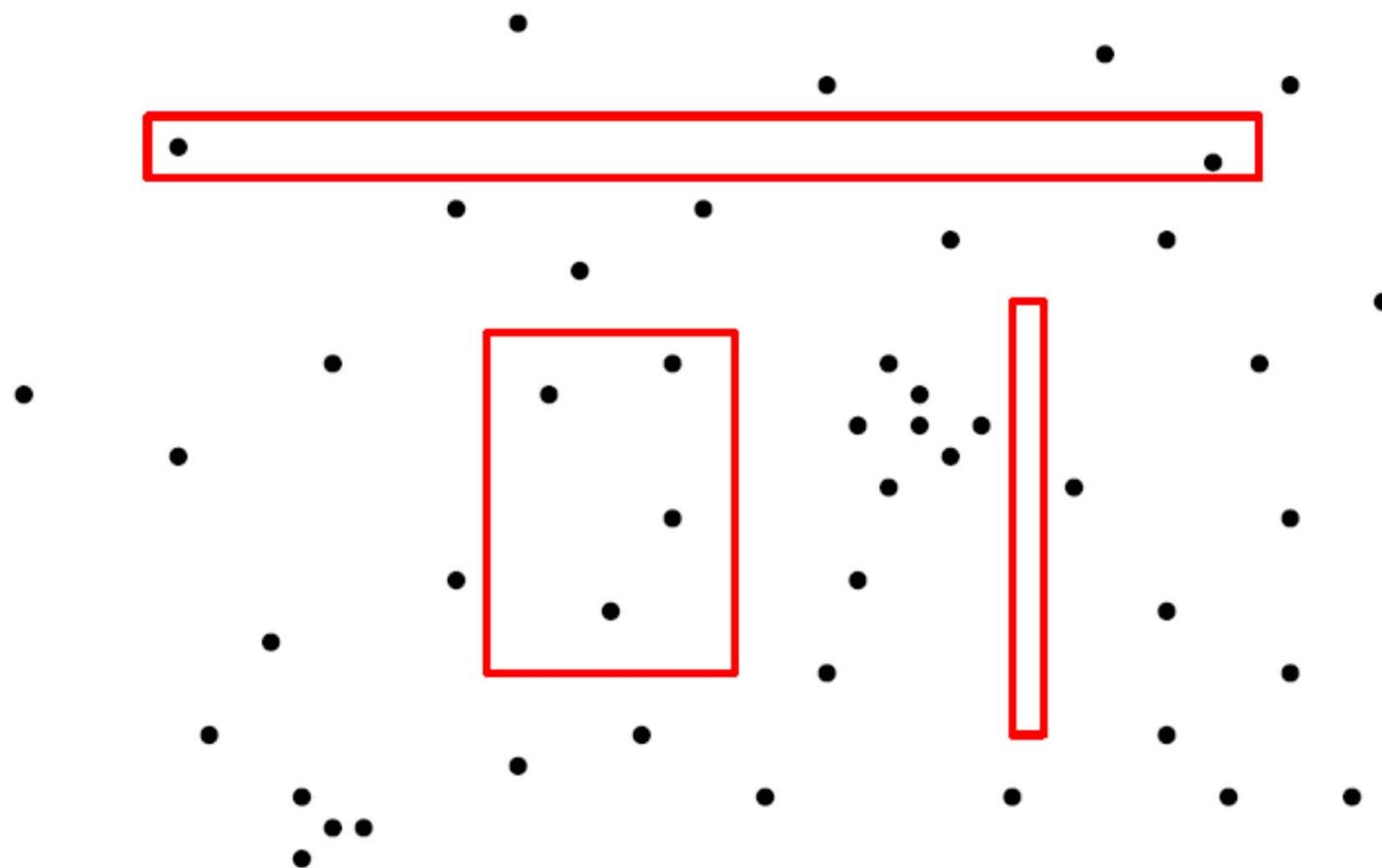
- The efficiency analysis is based on counting the numbers of nodes visited for each type
 - White nodes: never visited by the query; no time spent
 - Grey nodes: visited by the query, unclear if they lead to output; time complexity depends on n
 - Black nodes: visited by the query, whole subtree is output; time complexity depends on k , the output size

Query Time Analysis

- Grey nodes: they occur on only two paths in the tree, and since the tree is balanced, its depth is $O(\log n)$
- Black nodes: a (sub)tree with m leaves has $m-1$ internal nodes; traversal visits $O(m)$ nodes and finds m points for the output
- The time spent at each node is $O(1)$

=> $O(\log n + k)$ query time

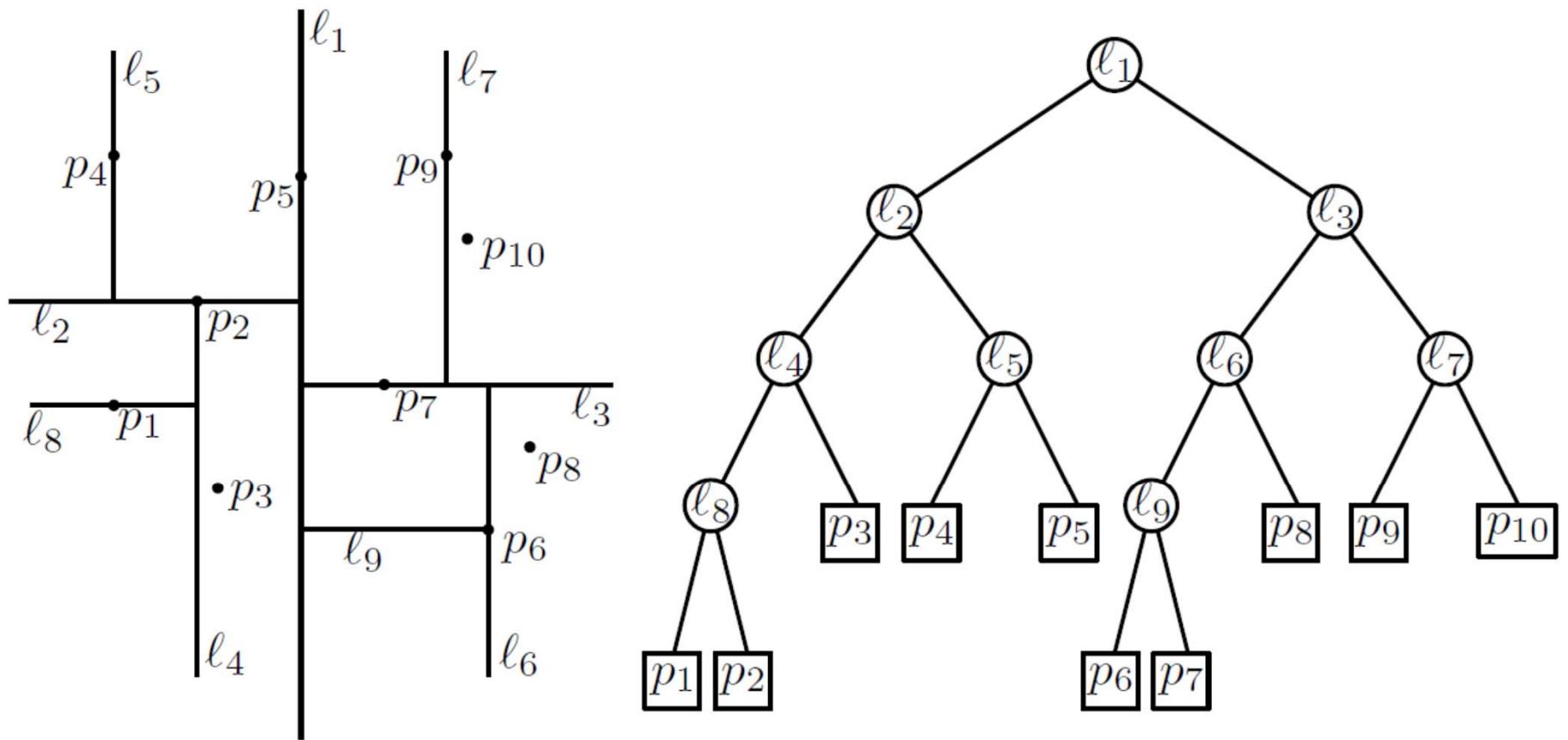
Range Queries in 2D



Kd-Trees

- Kd-trees, the idea: Split the point set alternatingly by x-coordinate and by y-coordinate
- Split by x-coordinate: split by a vertical line that has half the points to its left or on it, and half to its right
- Split by y-coordinate: split by a horizontal line that has half the points below or on it, and half above it

Kd-Trees

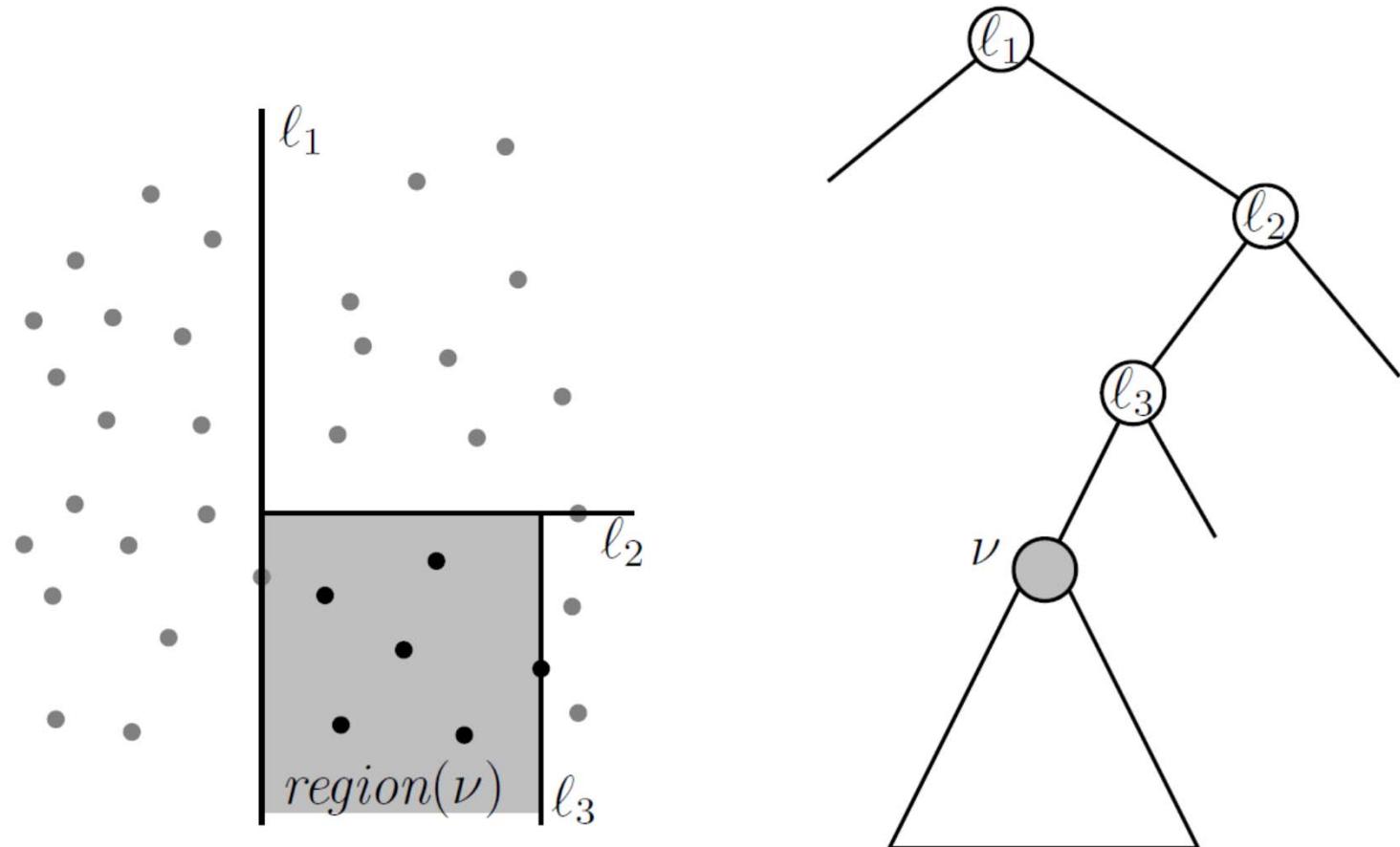


Kd-Tree Construction

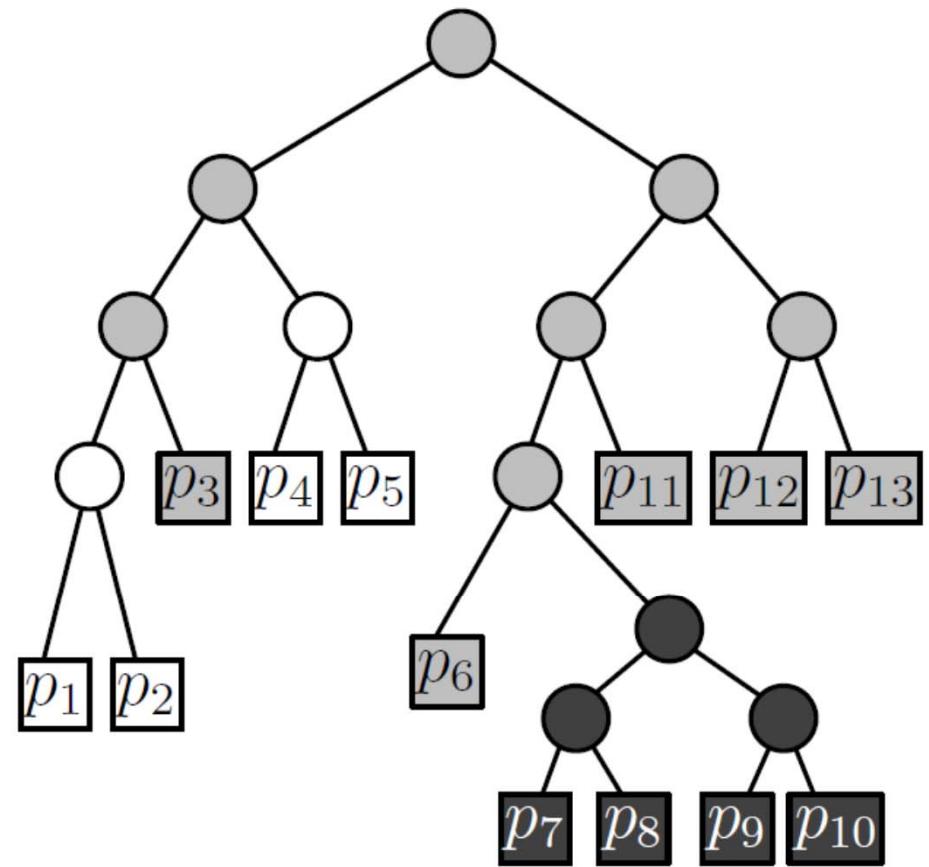
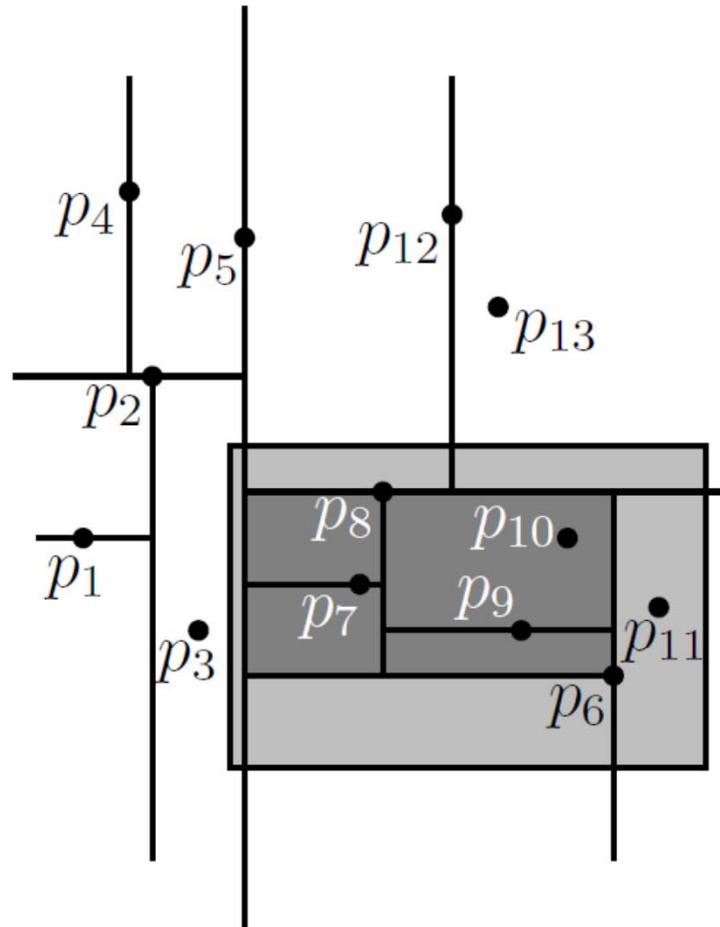
Algorithm $\text{BUILDKDTREE}(P, \text{depth})$

1. **if** P contains only one point
2. **then return** a leaf storing this point
3. **else if** depth is even
4. **then** Split P with a vertical line ℓ through the median x -coordinate into P_1 (left of or on ℓ) and P_2 (right of ℓ)
5. **else** Split P with a horizontal line ℓ through the median y -coordinate into P_1 (below or on ℓ) and P_2 (above ℓ)
6. $v_{\text{left}} \leftarrow \text{BUILDKDTREE}(P_1, \text{depth} + 1)$
7. $v_{\text{right}} \leftarrow \text{BUILDKDTREE}(P_2, \text{depth} + 1)$
8. Create a node v storing ℓ , make v_{left} the left child of v , and make v_{right} the right child of v .
9. **return** v

Kd-Tree Region of Nodes



Kd-Tree Querying



Kd-Tree Querying

Algorithm SEARCHKDTREE(v, R)

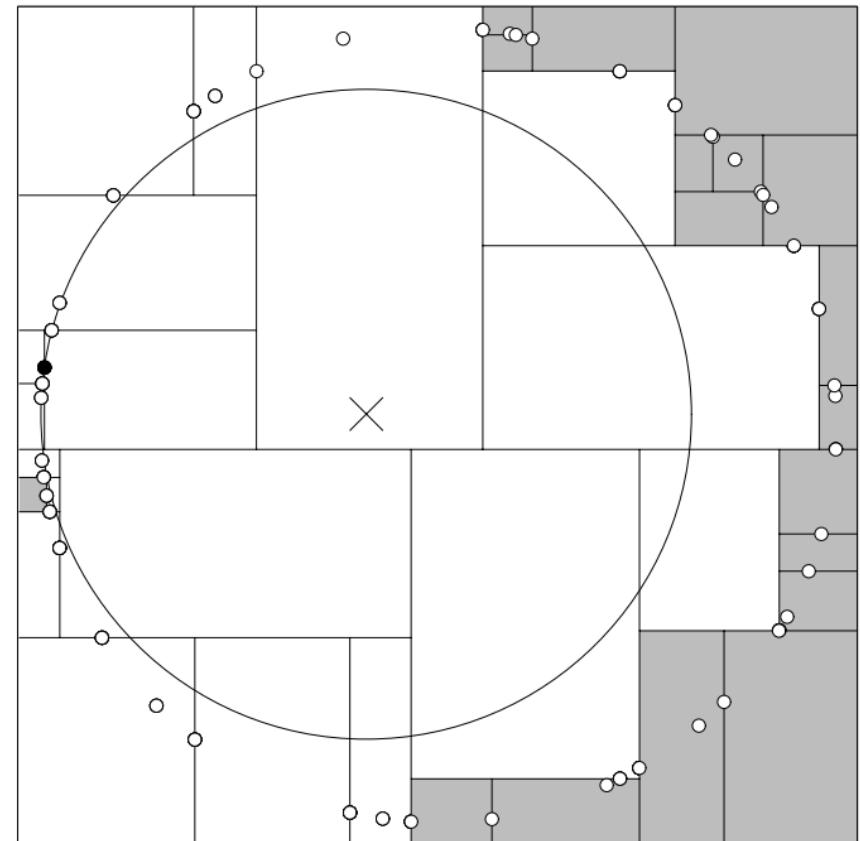
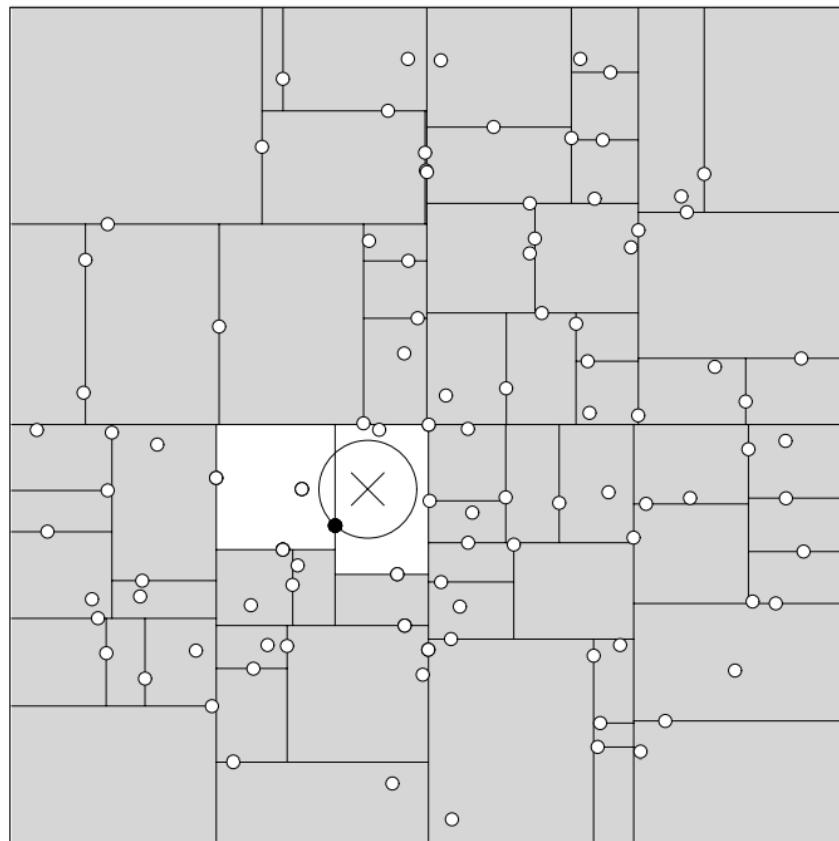
Input. The root of (a subtree of) a kd-tree, and a range R

Output. All points at leaves below v that lie in the range.

1. **if** v is a leaf
2. **then** Report the point stored at v if it lies in R
3. **else** **if** $region(lc(v))$ is fully contained in R
 4. **then** REPORTSUBTREE($lc(v)$)
 5. **else** **if** $region(lc(v))$ intersects R
 6. **then** SEARCHKDTREE($lc(v), R$)
 7. **if** $region(rc(v))$ is fully contained in R
 8. **then** REPORTSUBTREE($rc(v)$)
 9. **else** **if** $region(rc(v))$ intersects R
 10. **then** SEARCHKDTREE($rc(v), R$)

Nearest Neighbor Search

- Effects of input distribution on search



Kd-Trees in Higher Dimensions

Theorem: A set of n points in d -space can be preprocessed in $O(n \log n)$ time into a data structure of $O(n)$ size so that any d -dimensional range query can be answered in $O(n^{1-1/d} + k)$ time, where k is the number of answers reported

FLANN

- Adaptively selects between
 - Randomized kd-trees
 - Hierarchical k-means trees
- Criteria
 - Dimensionality
 - Relative weights on tree construction vs. search optimization

Normal Estimation in Point Clouds

- Important task in itself
- Useful for encoding data in representations enabling classification, matching and indexing
- Assumption: each point lies on locally linear (planar) patch along with some (many) of its neighbors

Normal Estimation in Point Clouds

- Find reference point's nearest neighbors
 - Forming triplets (ref. point + 2 NNs) increases complexity with dubious benefits
 - Form pairs and accumulate partial information, since two points do not define a surface
- Accumulate information for reference point's tangent plane
 - Vector connecting ref. point and each NN belongs to tangent plane

Normal Estimation in Point Clouds

- Form scatter (covariance) matrix
- Normal: eigenvector with smallest eigenvalue (0 eigenvalue if perfect plane)
- Tombari et al. ECCV 2010:

$$M = \frac{1}{\sum_{i:d_i < R} (R - d_i)} \sum_{i:d_i < R} (R - d_i)(p_i - p)(p_i - p)^T$$

where, R is the radius of the ball around p and d_i is the distance from p to p_i

Normal Estimation in Point Clouds

- Tombari et al. resolve sign of eigenvectors (x, y, z) by making them consistent with majority of neighborhood points

$$S_x^+ \doteq \{i : d_i \leq R \wedge (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{x}^+ \geq 0\}$$

$$S_x^- \doteq \{i : d_i \leq R \wedge (\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{x}^- > 0\}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{x}^+, & |S_x^+| \geq |S_x^-| \\ \mathbf{x}^-, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Where does the surface normal point for convex shapes?

The Right Way

- Count nearest neighbors more, attenuate influence of remote points
 - At the very least, normalize vectors that contribute to covariance matrix
 - Use weight function on outer products that decreases with distance

Normal Estimation

- My recommendation

$$M = \sum_{i:d_i < R} e^{-\frac{d_i^2}{2\sigma^2}} \frac{(p_i - p)(p_i - p)^T}{\|p_i - p\|^2}$$

with σ a parameter representing scale.

Descriptors for 3D Point Clouds

Invariant Descriptors

- Objective: represent point cloud (or surface) in a way that it can be compared and matched with other point clouds
- Trade-off between **Uniqueness** and **Repeatability**
- Invariance to:
 - Rigid transformation of the object
 - Viewpoint change of the scanner(s)
 - Sampling variations
 - Noise
- Local and global descriptors have been proposed
 - Focus on local here

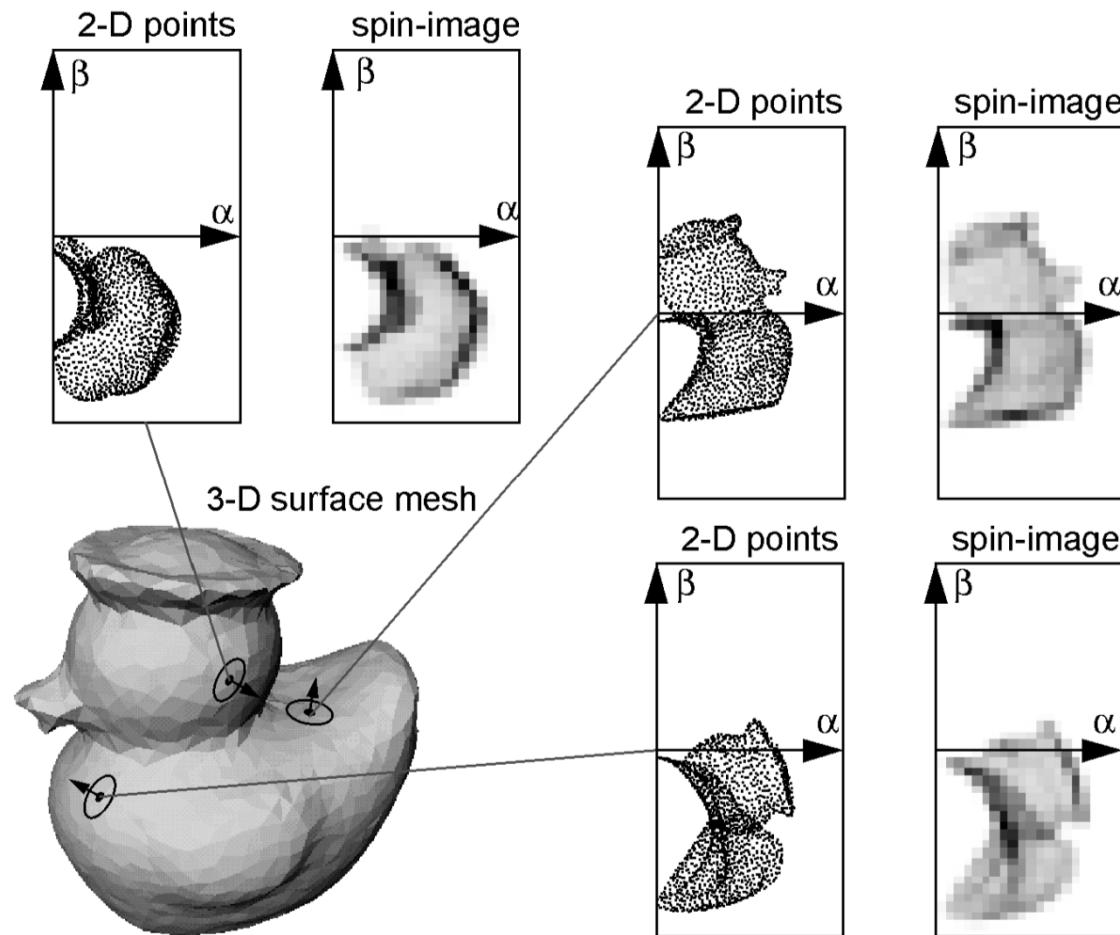
Spin Images

- Johnson and Hebert, PAMI 1999
- Arguably most popular 3D shape descriptor, used in several recognition engines
- Fast to compute and very fast to compare

Spin Images

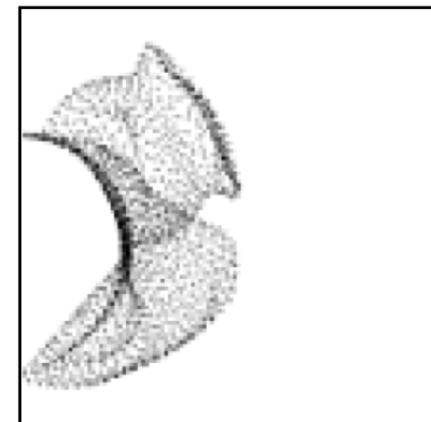
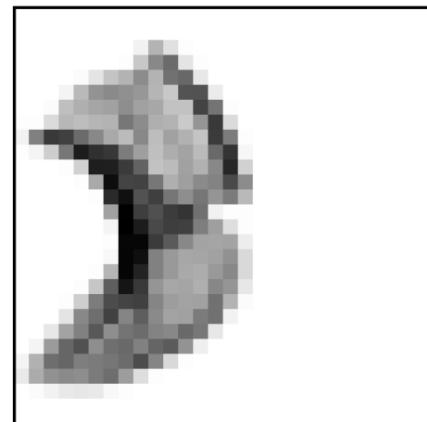
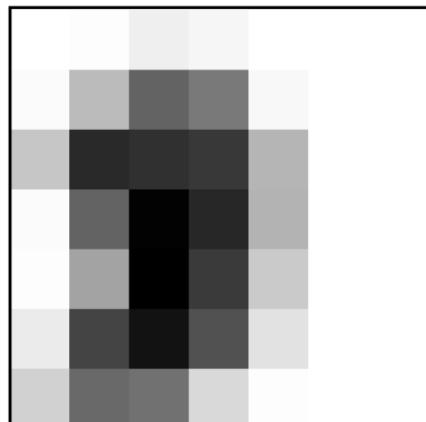
- Computed in a cylindrical coordinate system defined by a reference point and its corresponding normal
- All points within this region are transformed by computing:
 - the distance from the reference normal ray α
 - the height above the reference normal plane β
- A 2D histogram of α and β is used as the descriptor
- Due to integration around the normal of the reference point, spin images are invariant to rotations about the normal

Spin Images



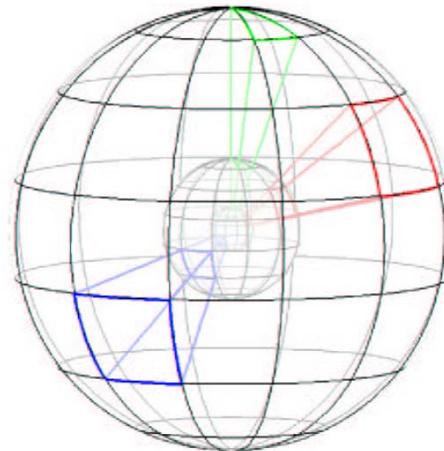
Effects of Parameters

- Parameters of a spin image
 - Number of bins horizontally and vertically
 - Make vertical number of bins odd
 - Bin size
 - Support angle (max angle between reference normal and neighboring point normal to be included)
 - Default 60 degrees



3D Shape Contexts

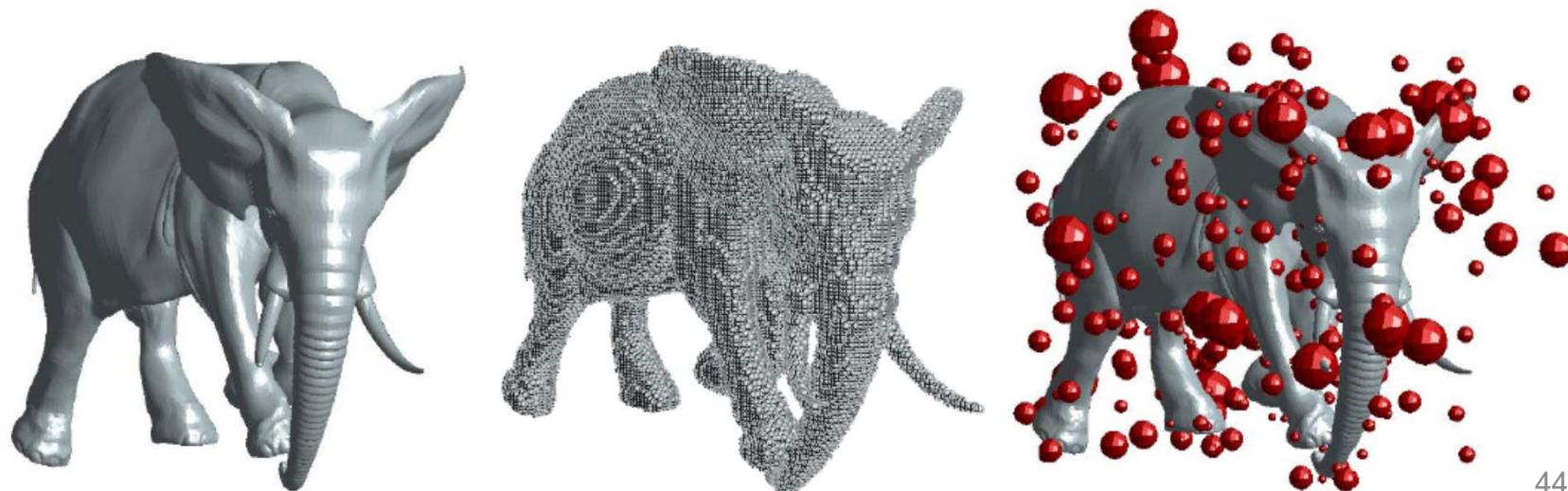
- Frome et al., ECCV 2004
- Histogram of neighboring points in sphere



- Challenge: matching requires rotations

3D SURF

- Knopp et al., ECCV 2010
- **Detector and descriptor**
- Convert surface into voxel representation
- Compute second-order derivatives at several scales (3 octaves)



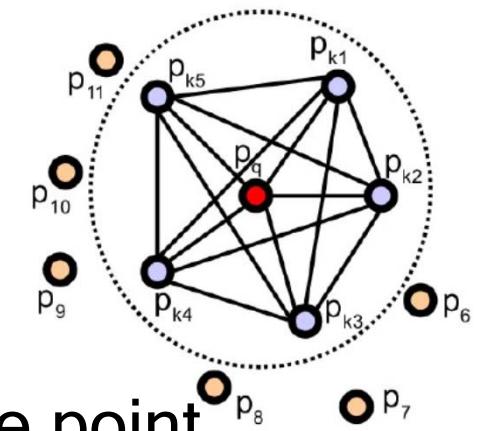
3D SURF

$$S(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) = |H(\mathbf{x}, \sigma)| = \left| \begin{pmatrix} L_{xx}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{xy}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{xz}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) \\ L_{yx}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{yy}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{yz}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) \\ L_{zx}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{zy}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) & L_{zz}(\mathbf{x}, \sigma) \end{pmatrix} \right|$$

- Saliency function: absolute value of the determinant of the Hessian matrix at each point
- Select keypoints after non-max suppression
- Compute invariant local coordinate frame
- Descriptor:
 - $N \times N \times N$ grid around the feature
 - At each grid cell, store a 6-dimensional description vector of Haar wavelet responses
 - Default $N=3$

Fast Point Feature Histograms

- Rusu et al., ICRA 2009 (other variations exist)
- PFH: Given points and normal:
 - Find all pairs of neighbors of reference point and define local frame
 - $u = n_i$
 - $v = (p_j - p_i) \times u$
 - $w = u \times v$
 - Compute properties of frame



$$\alpha = v \cdot n_j$$

$$\phi = (u \cdot (p_j - p_i)) / \|p_j - p_i\|$$

$$\theta = \arctan(w \cdot n_j, u \cdot n_j)$$

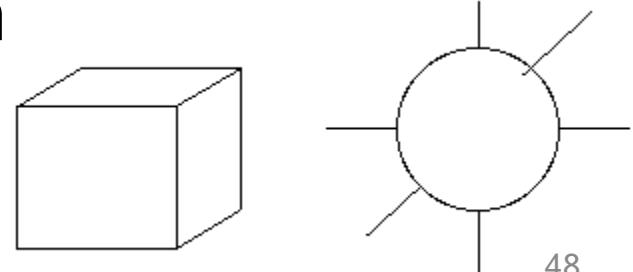
Fast Point Feature Histograms

- PFH (cont)
 - Perform persistence analysis to determine which features are salient at a given scale
- FPFH:
 - Do not compute over all pairs of neighbors, but only between reference point and its k nearest neighbors
 - Then, blend Simplified Point Feature Histograms (SPFH) with weights inversely proportional to distances between points (typically 5 bins per dimension, 125-D descriptor)
 - More optimizations in paper

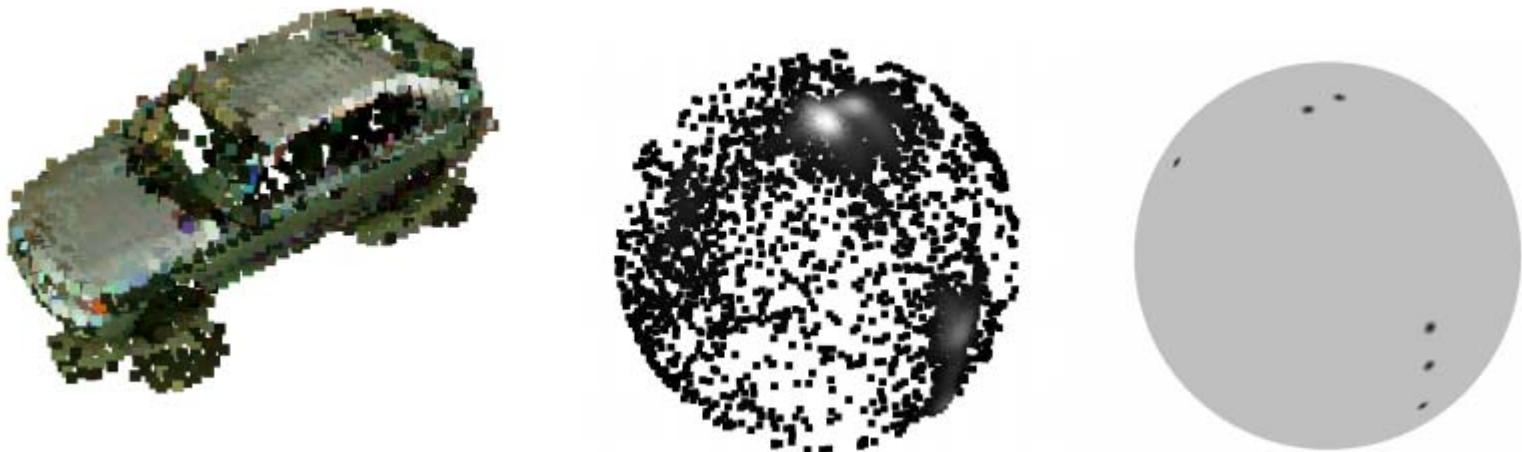
$$FPFH(p) = SPF(p) + \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\omega_k} \cdot SPF(p_k)$$

Extended Gaussian Images

- Horn, Proc. of the IEEE 1984
- Represent shape by mapping the normal of each point on unit sphere
 - Surface normal has two degrees of freedom
- Convex shapes can be uniquely reconstructed given EGI
 - Non-convex shapes can be described by EGI with some loss of information



Extended Gaussian Images

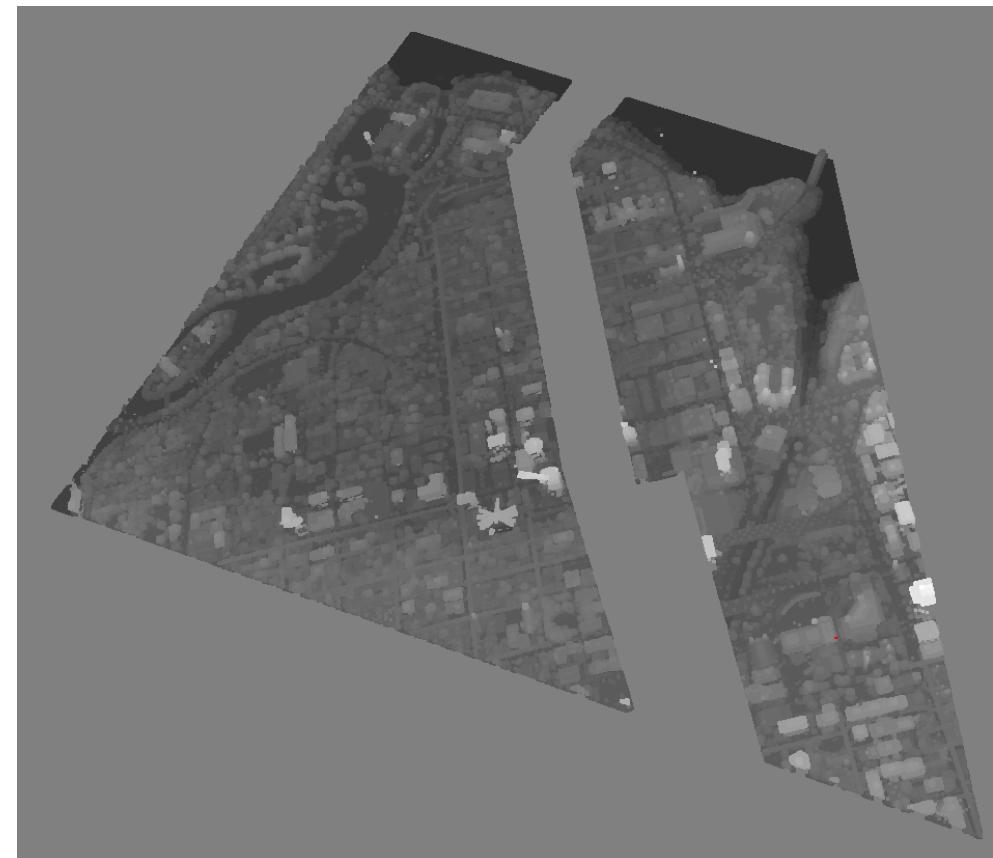


- Above: input point cloud, EGI, constellation EGI
- Matching requires alignment of two spherical histograms
 - Unpleasant, at best

Analysis of Large-Scale 3D Point Clouds

Segmentation of Large-scale 3D Datasets

- Input: colored point clouds collected by terrestrial and airborne LIDAR sensors
- Goal: detect and recognize more than 100 objects classes
 - Stadiums and power plants
 - Mailboxes and parking meters
 - Powerlines

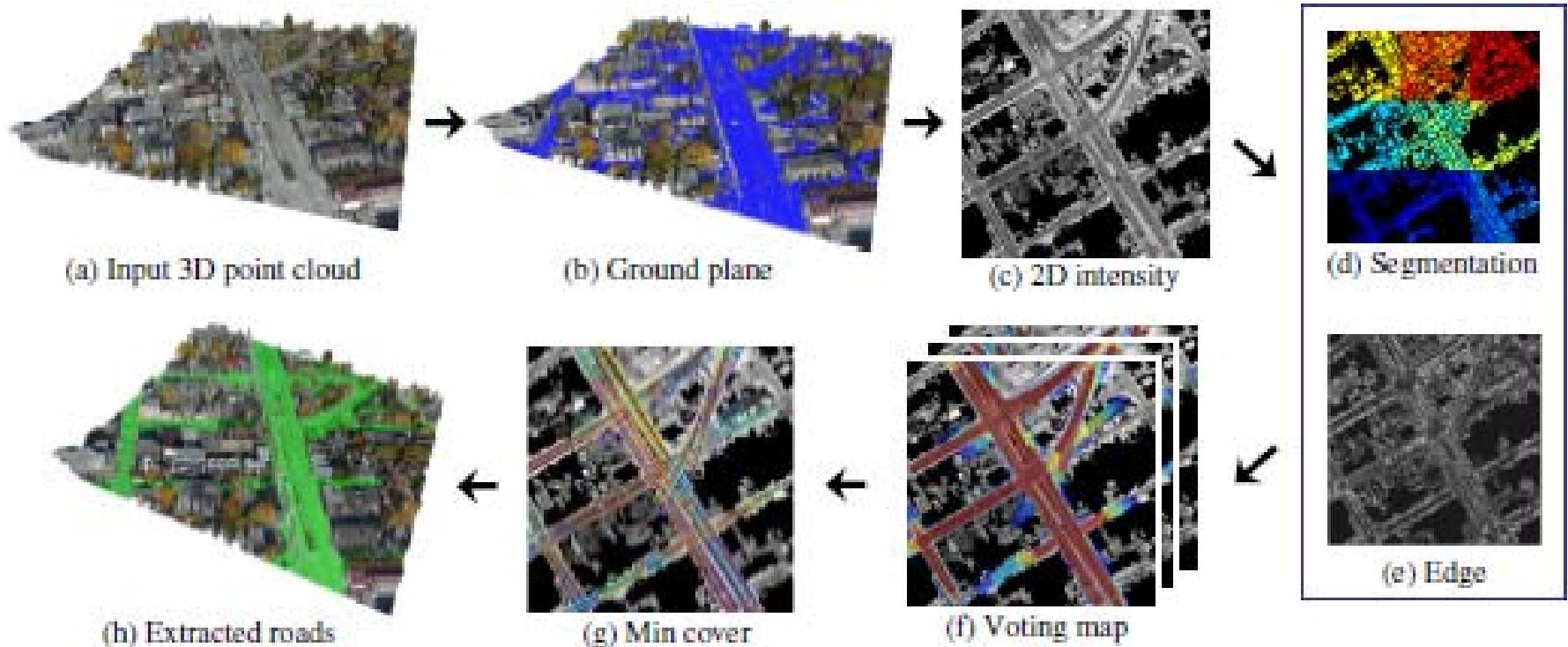


975 million points

A Minimum Cover Approach for Extracting the Road Network from Airborne LIDAR Data

- Combine local edge and region information to estimate road likelihood
- Pose road extraction as minimum cover problem
 - Explain likelihood maps by rectangular road segments with strong preference for elongated segments

Overview of the Algorithm



Hypothesis Generation

- Sample hypotheses from region boundaries returned by NCut segmentation on intensity image
 - Captures low-contrast boundaries
 - Test multiple values for width (10-25m) and length (40-300m)
- Output likelihood maps L for each width by combining boundary and interior feature strengths
 - Each likelihood map covers all orientations resulting in good performance at intersections

$$\mathcal{L}_k(x, y) = \sum_{H_i \in \mathcal{H}_k^{valid}} \beta_{bd} S_i^{bd}(x, y) + \beta_{int} S_i^{int}(x, y)$$

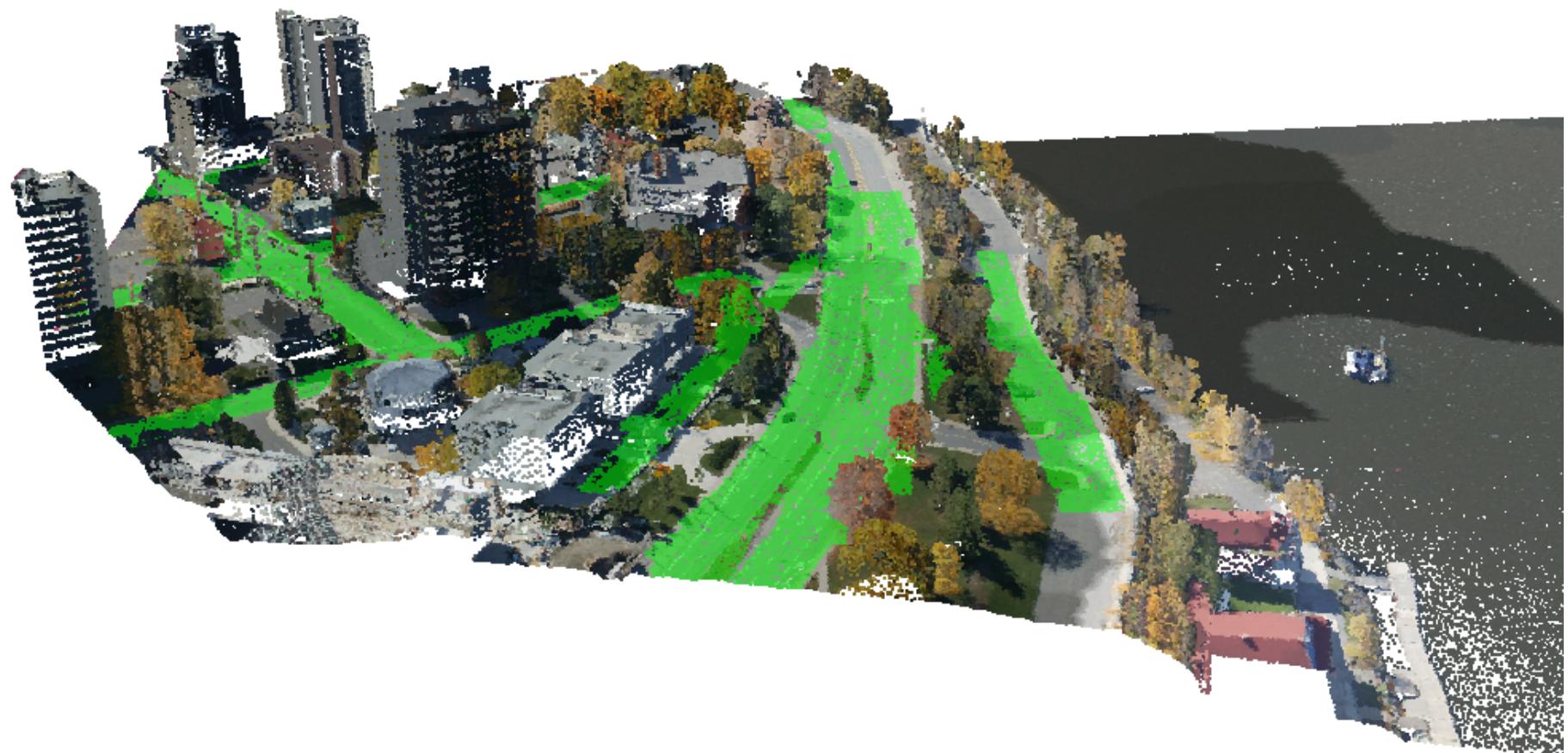
Detection as Minimum Cover

- Explain likelihood maps by sparsest set of road segments
 - Penalize uncovered parts according to road likelihood
 - Penalize covered parts according to bg likelihood
 - Penalize for additional components
- NP-hard in general, but greedy approximation with theoretical guarantees is effective [Felzenszwalb and McAllester, 2006]

$$Cost(R_i) = \sum_{s_j \in R_i} C(s_j) + A$$

$$Cost_{cover}(\mathcal{R}_S) = \sum_{R_i \in \mathcal{R}_S} Cost(R_i) + \sum_{s_j \notin \mathcal{R}_S} \frac{\mathcal{L}(s_j)}{\mathcal{L}_{max}}$$

Road Detection



Road Detection

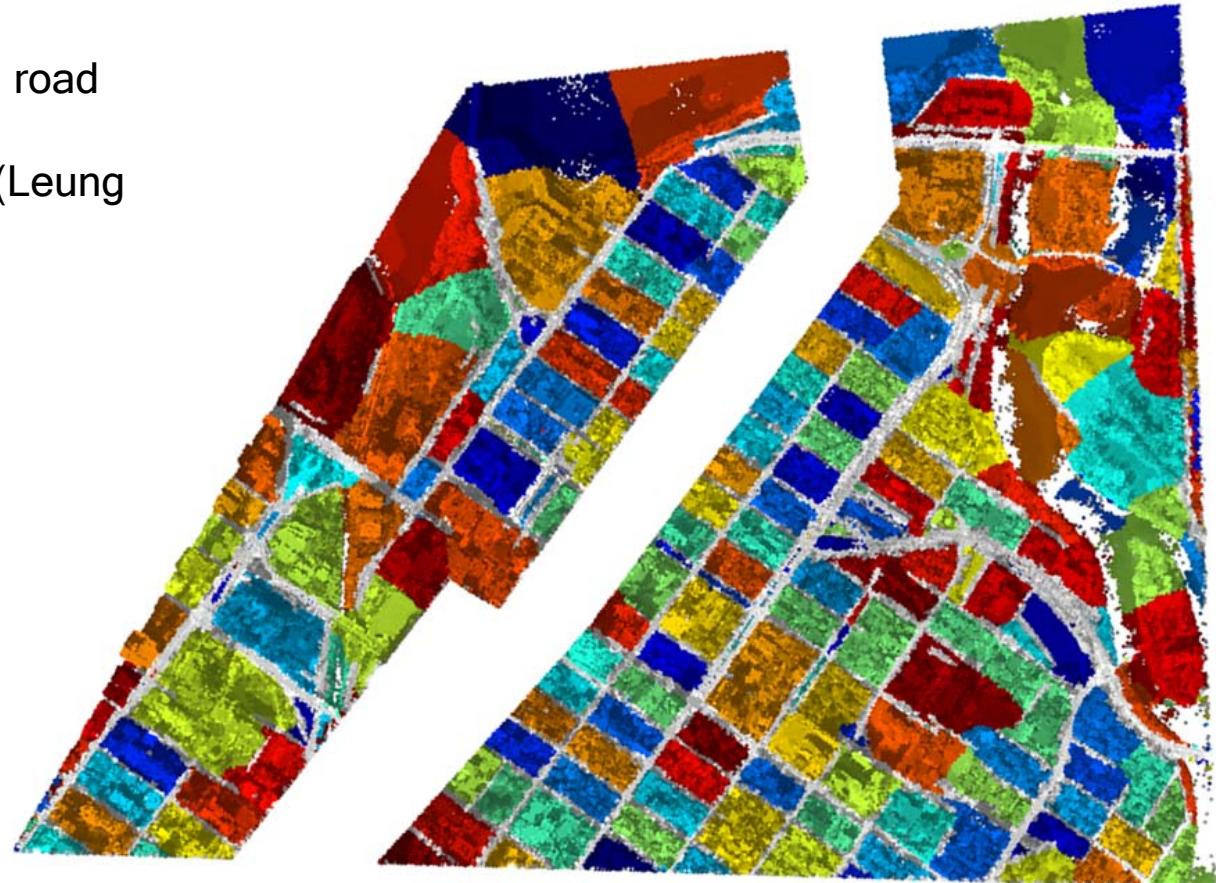


Road Detection

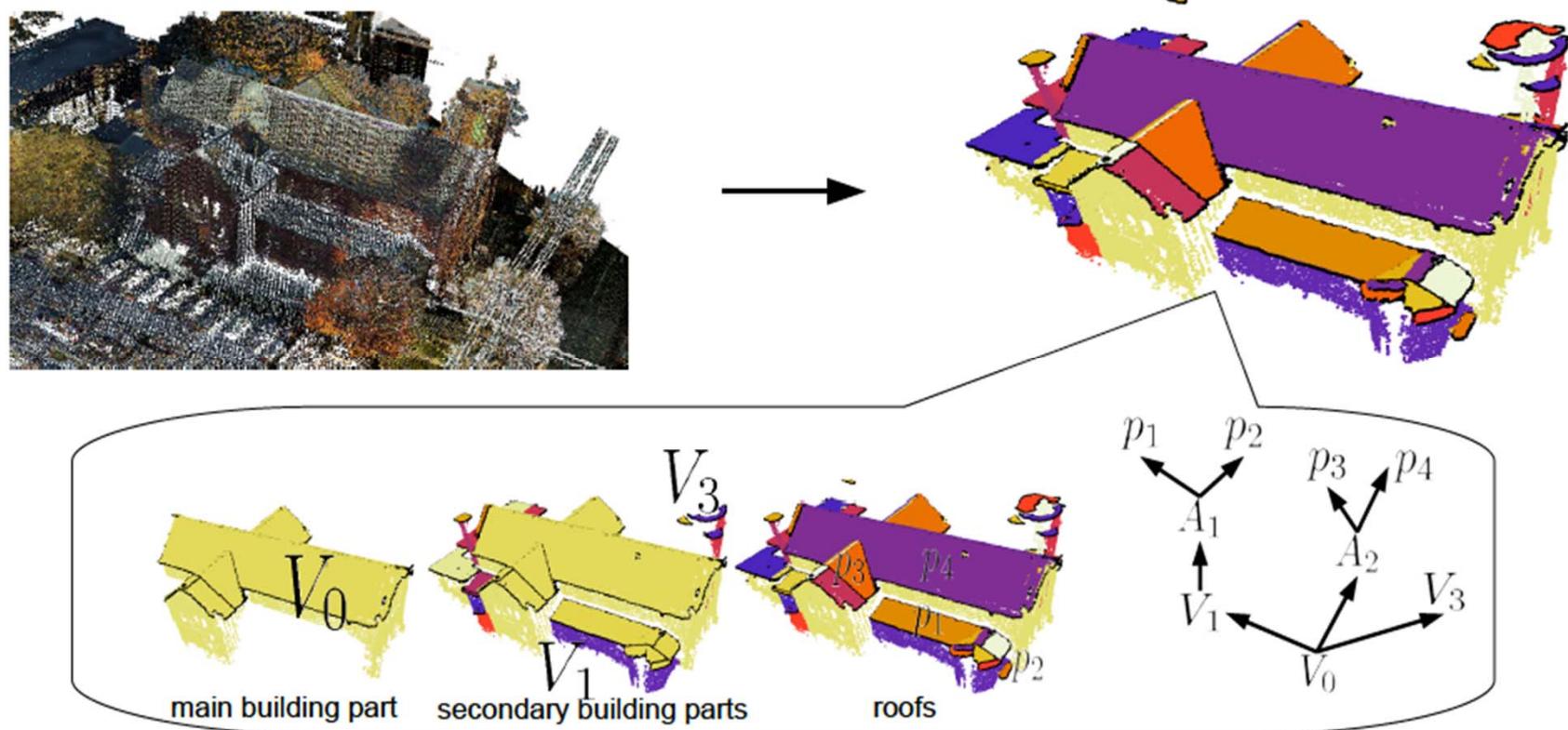


City Blocks

Segment city blocks from road likelihood map using the intervening contour idea (Leung and Malik, 1998)



Building Detection and Parsing



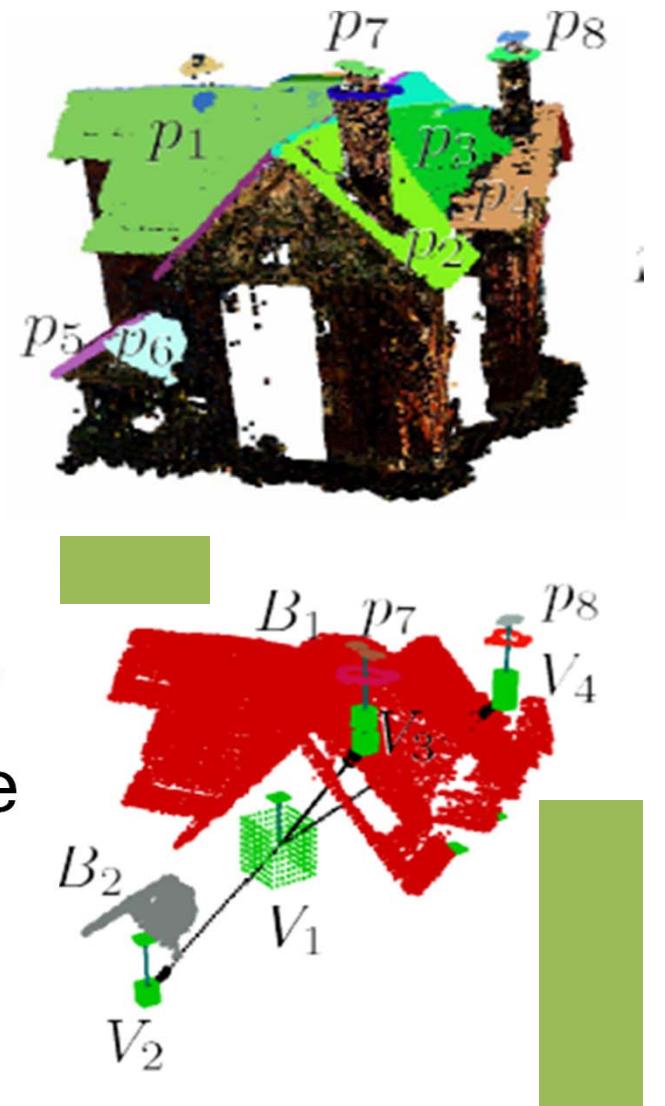
- Detection of buildings from unorganized range data
- Parsing of the buildings into an hierarchical, semantic representation

Approach

- Use a generic grammar based on simple geometric rules
- Apply dependency parsing for efficient inference
- Define parsing and detection in a single framework
- Primitives:
 - Planes and planar patches - explicitly detectable from point clouds
 - Volumes - represent building parts and are enclosed by planar patches

Grammar

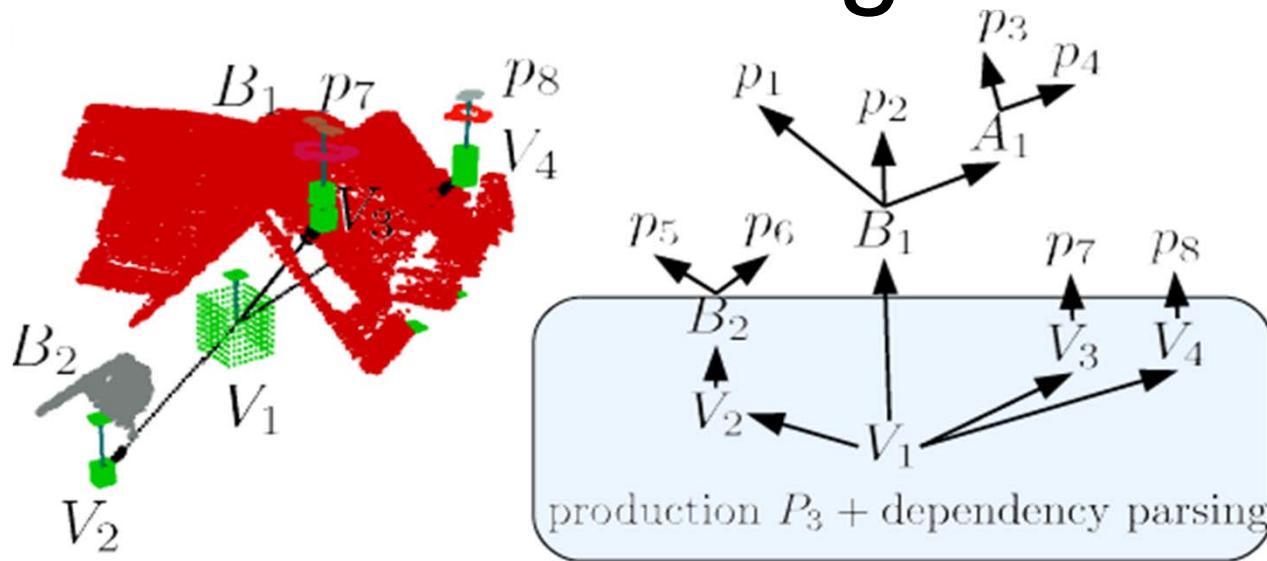
- Terminals: planar patches extracted from point cloud.
- Non terminals:
 - Roof components
 - Volumes enclosed by the roofs
 - Supernodes : a global “building” and a global “non-building” node used for detection



Classification

- Classification of a volume using a linear SVM
- Features are extracted from planar patches enclosing the volume:
 - Elevation
 - Distance to the nearest ground point
 - Convexity of the upper volume surface
 - Scatter of point cloud in the volume
 - Area and aspect ratio
 - Degree of enclosure by empty space
 - Fitting error

Parsing



- Productions for parsing planar patches are deterministic
- Hierarchy among volumes is not deterministic - dependency parsing
- For set of planar patches, a sequence of productions generates a parse tree

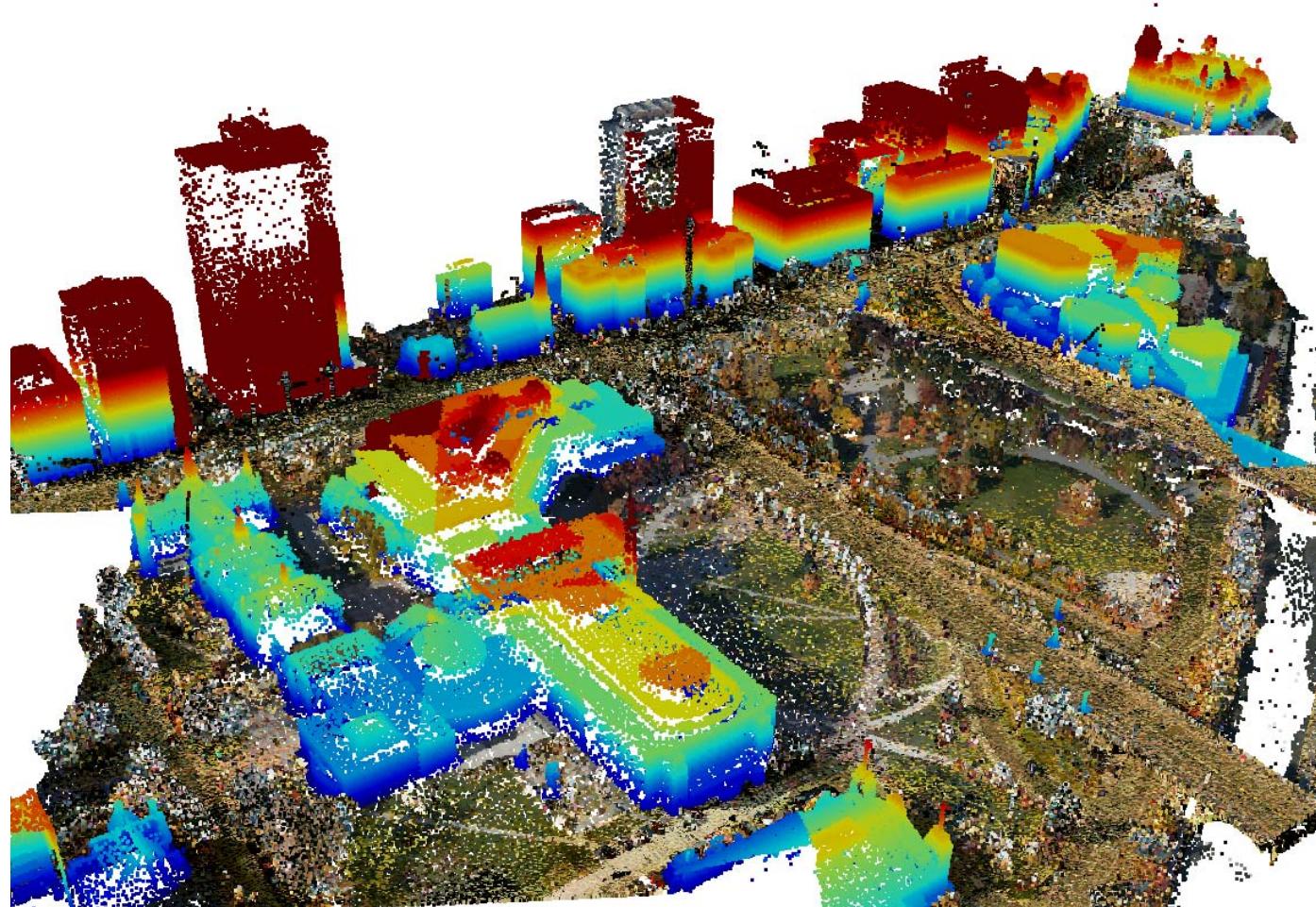
Inference

- Construct a directed graph G consisting of the volumes
- Edge weights represent:
 - Hierarchy based on the area
 - How likely they belong to the same class
 - Whether they are children of the supernodes
- A parse tree T is a maximum spanning tree in G
- Use Chi-Liu/Edmonds algorithm to compute MST

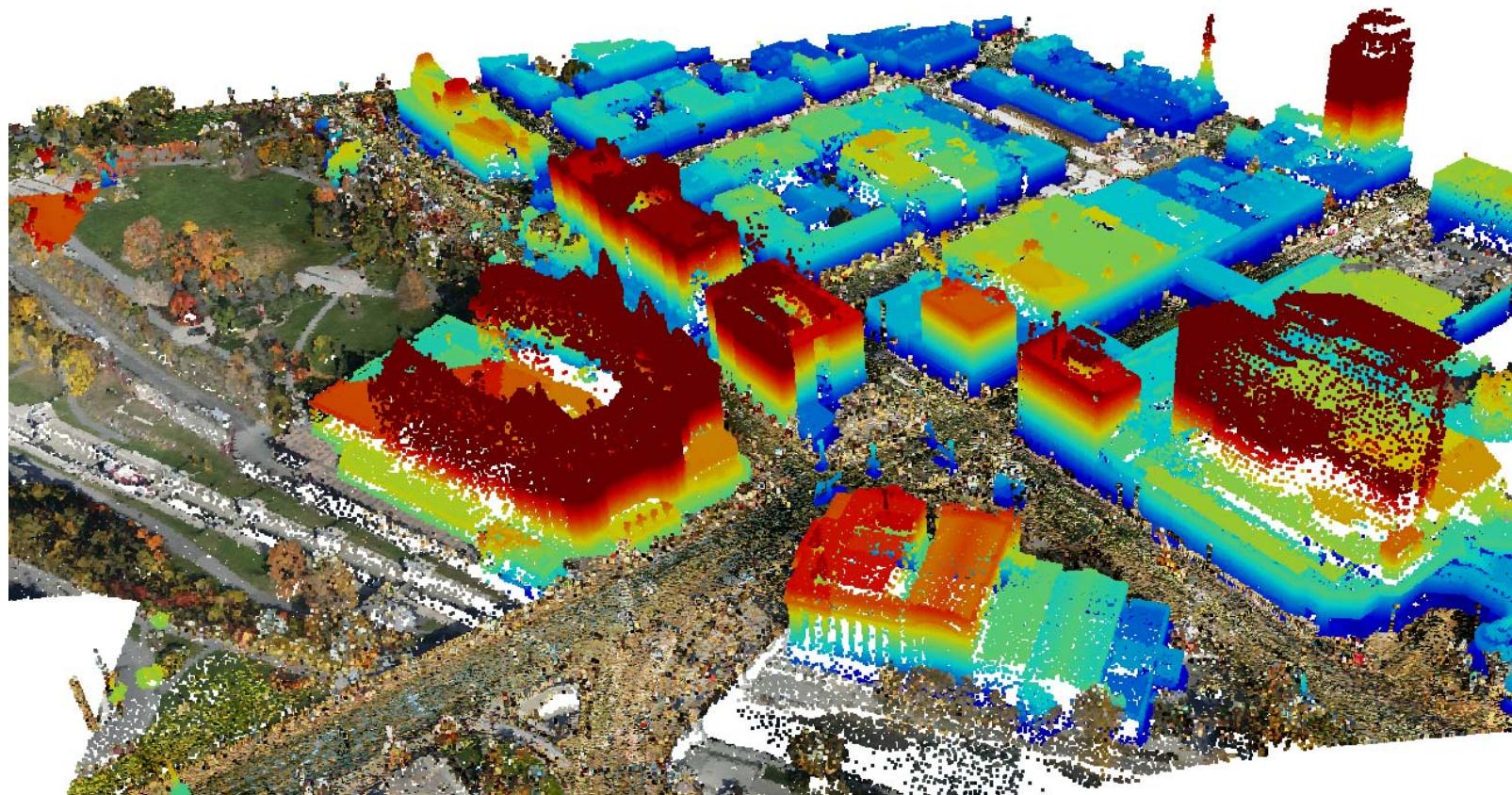
Quantitative Results

- 9 blocks used for training (buildings and their parses are labeled)
- 78 blocks used for testing (only buildings are labeled)
- Detection results (accuracy of patch classification): 89.3%
- Parsing accuracy (3-fold cross-validation on the 9 blocks): 76.2 %

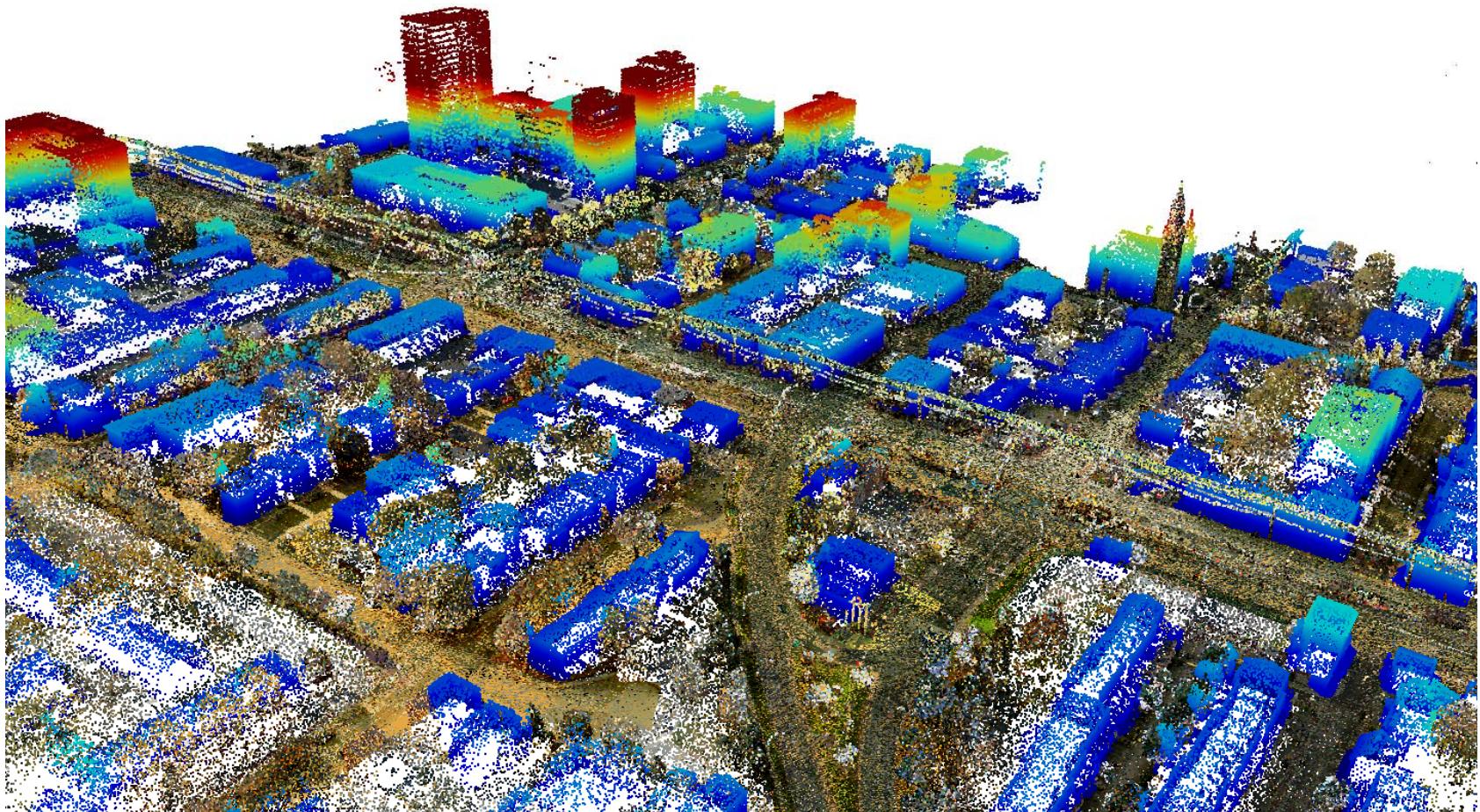
Detection Results



Detection Results

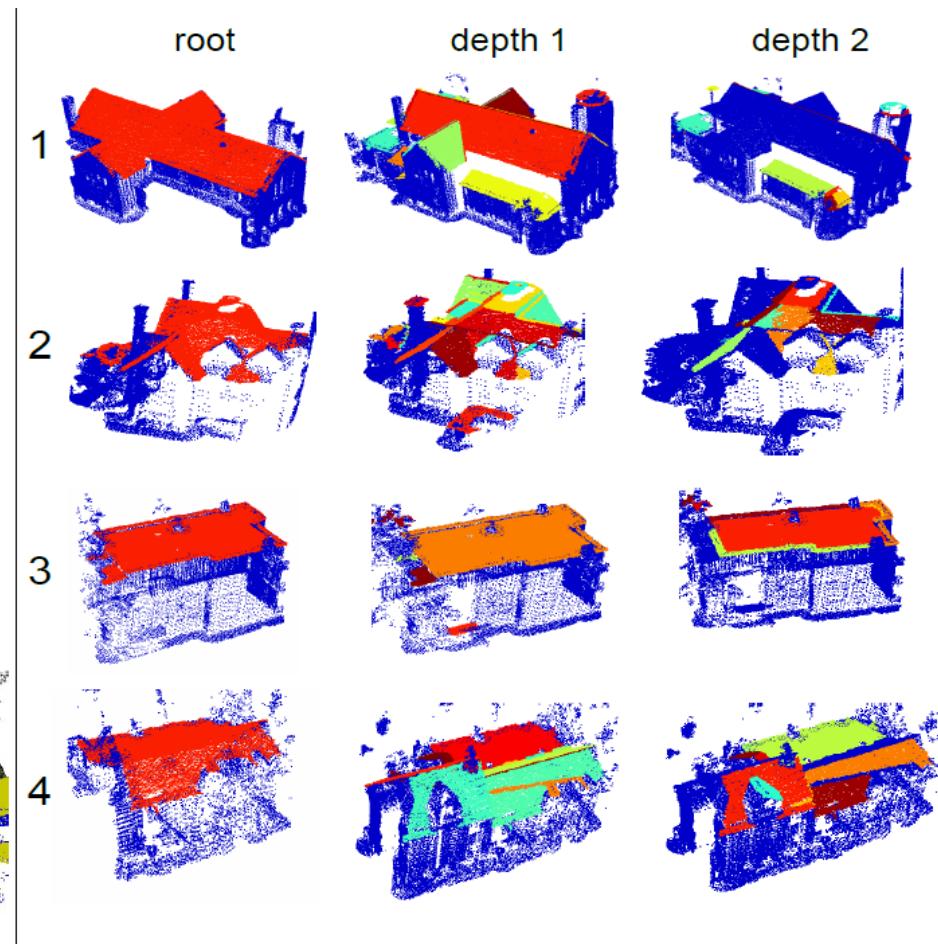
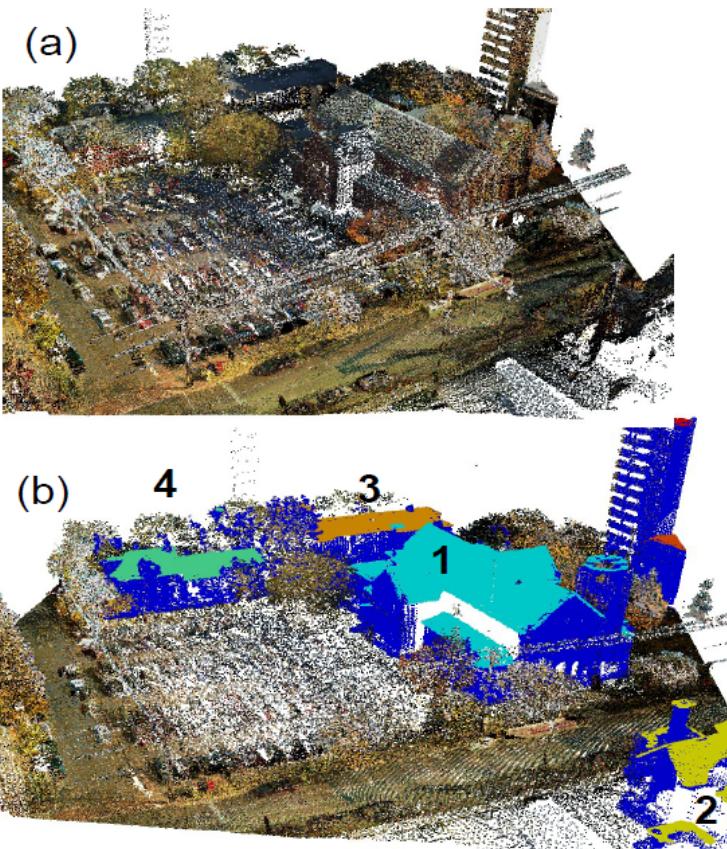


Detection Results



Parsing Results

original point cloud and detected buildings



3D Object Detection using Bottom-up and Top-down Descriptors

- Detect objects in large-scale 3D datasets
- Requirements:
 - Precision
 - Recall
 - Speed



[Patterson, Mordohai and Daniilidis, ECCV 2008]

Shape Descriptors

- Different descriptors provide different trade-off between speed and accuracy
- More types of invariance => faster, less discriminative
 - E.g. spin images vs. 3D shape contexts
- Global descriptors are more accurate, but are sensitive to occlusion (and deformation)
 - Require only one comparison per target
 - Need segmentation hypotheses

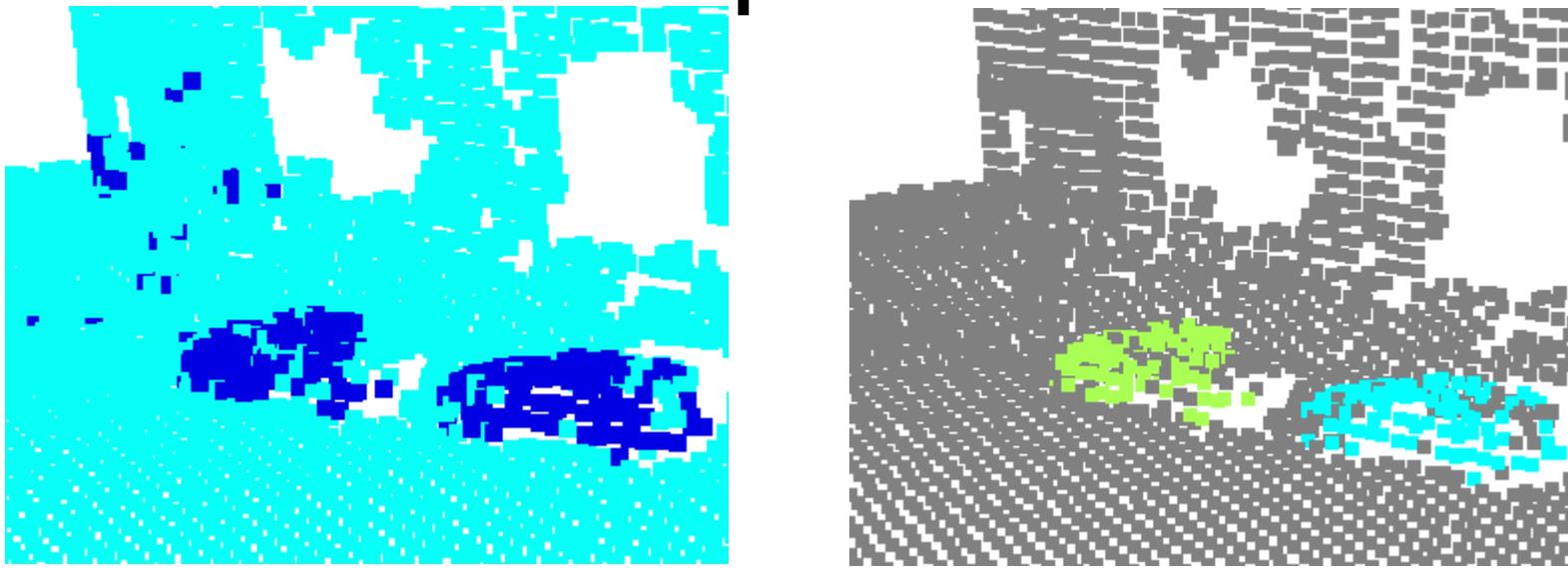
Approach

- Spin images for fast bottom-up detection of regions of interest
 - Objective: maximize recall
- Extended Gaussian Images (EGIs) as global top-down descriptors to verify hypotheses
 - Objective: prune wrong hypotheses
 - Side product: best alignment with most similar model

Experiments

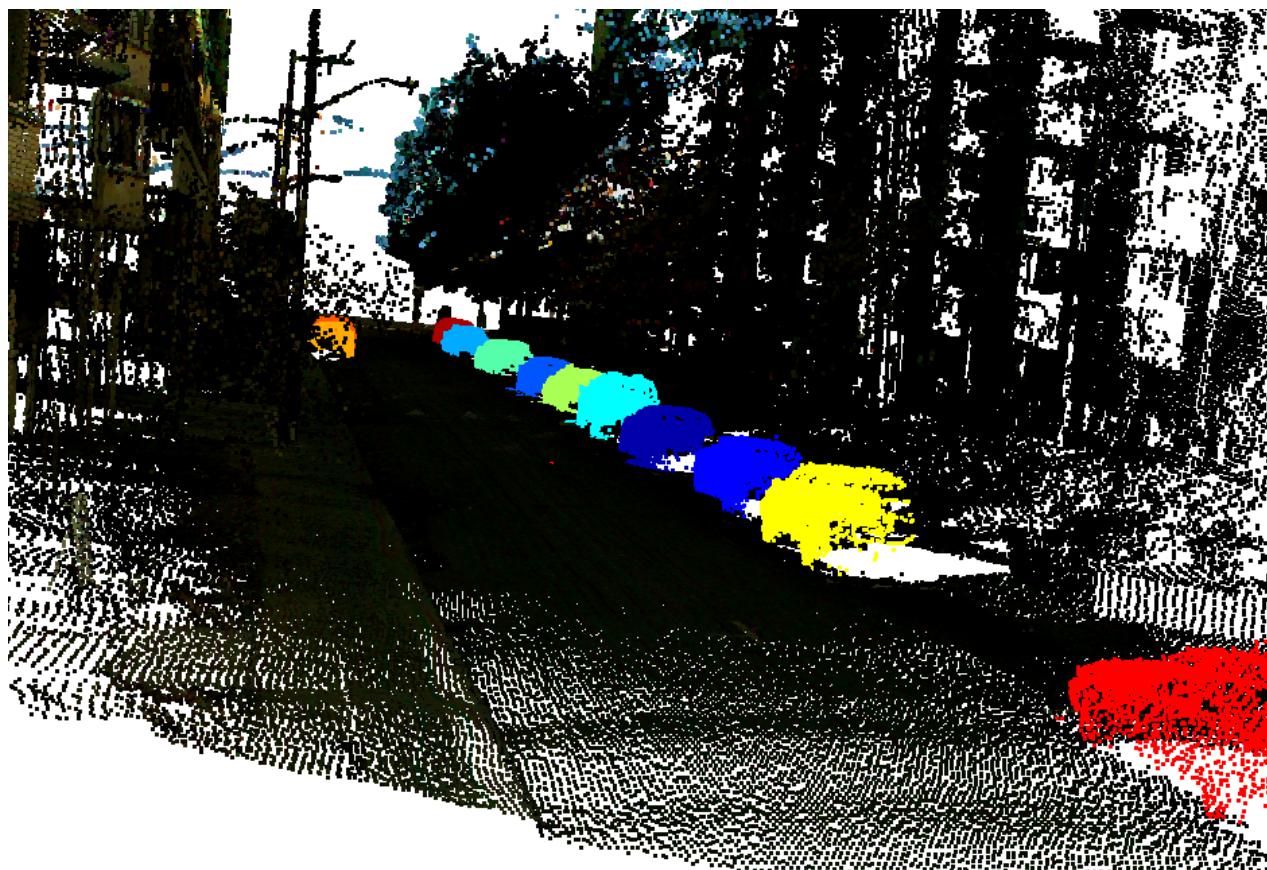
- Dataset: 220 million points collected from terrestrial sensors
- 2.2 million used as training set for spin images
 - 81,000 spin images in DB_{SI}, 2600 positive
 - 17 cars in DB_{EGI}

Bottom-up Detection

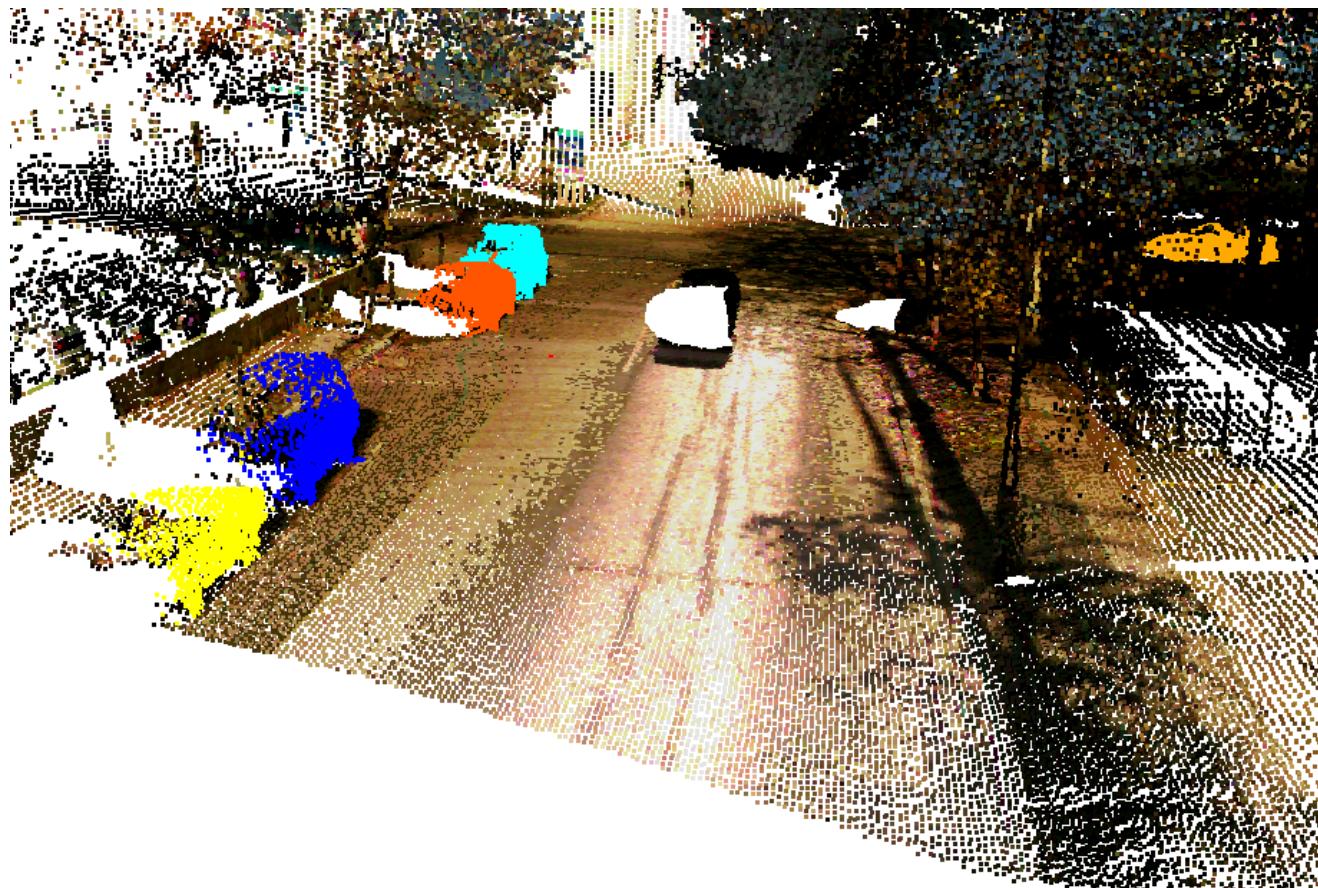


- Spin images of unknown scene classified as positive or negative
- Positive spin images clustered to form hypotheses
 - Minimum number required for hypothesis

Results



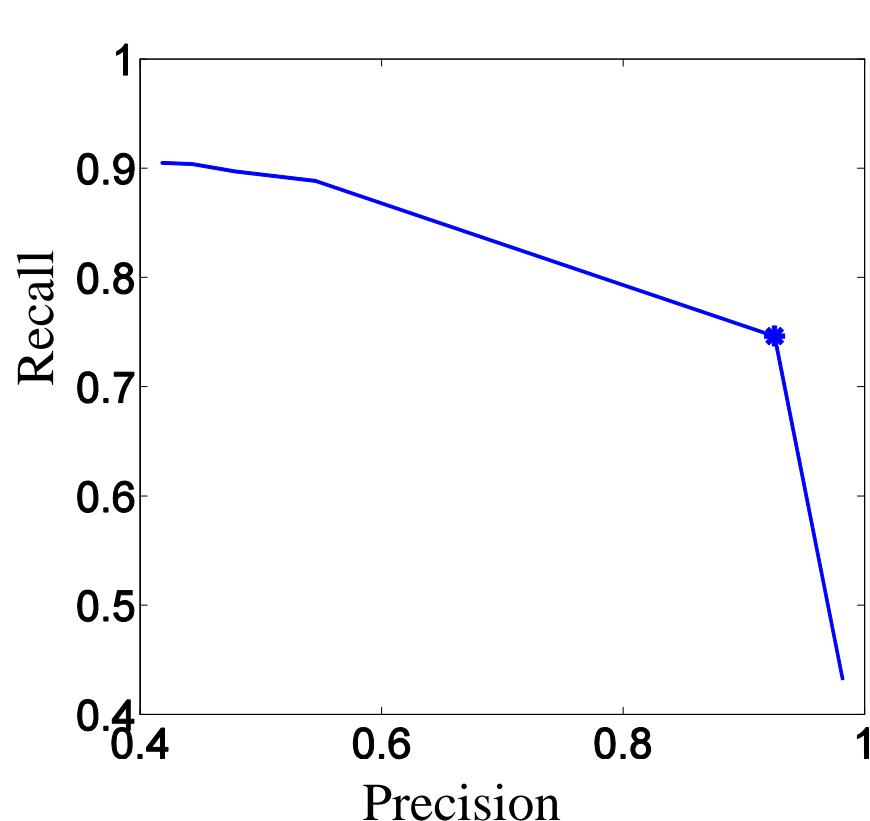
Results



Results



Precision-Recall Curve



- Data: 1221 cars
- Bottom-up stage:
 - 2200 hypotheses,
1100 correct
- Top-down stage *:
 - 905 true positives
 - 74 false alarms
 - 316 missed detections

Car Detection Video

