

Metric Geometry for Shape Matching

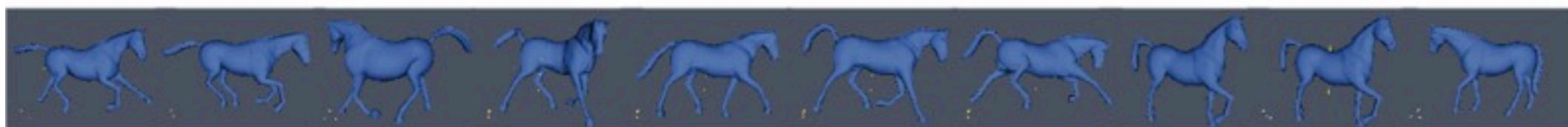
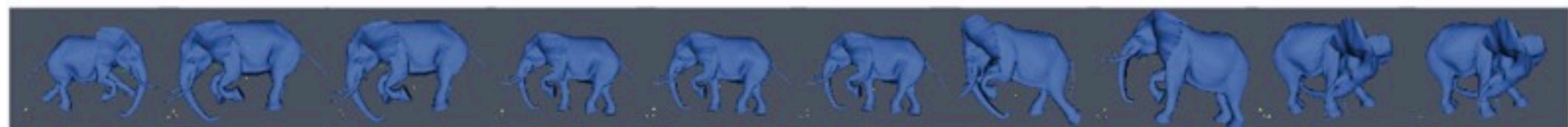
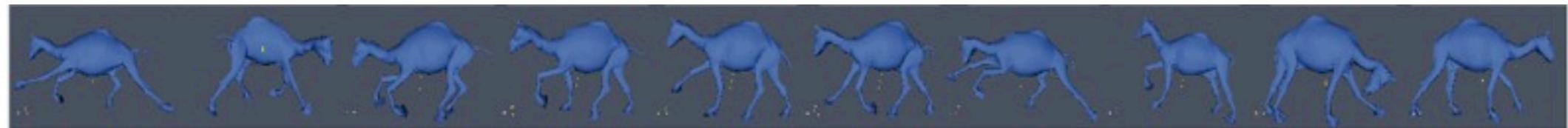
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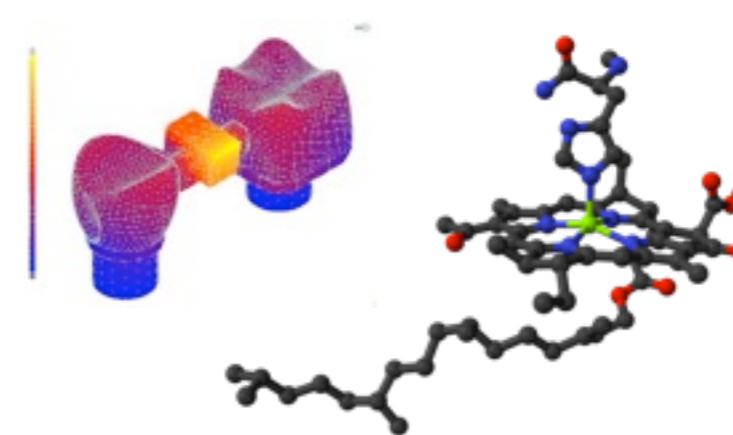
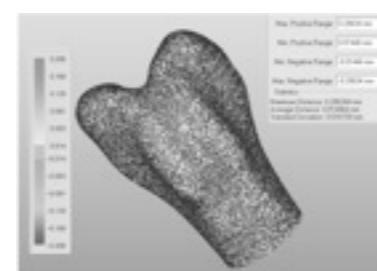
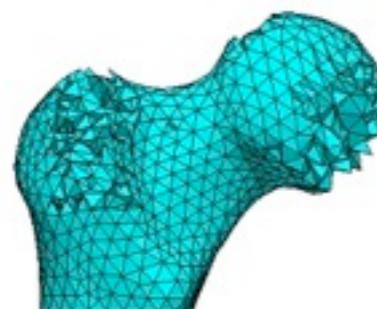
The Problem of Shape/Object Matching

- databases of *objects*
- objects can be many things:
 - proteins
 - molecules
 - 2D objects (imaging)
 - 3D shapes: as obtained via a 3D scanner
 - 3D shapes: modeled with CAD software
 - 3D shapes: coming from design of bone prostheses
 - text documents
 - more complicated structures present in datasets (things you can't visualize)



3D objects: examples

- cultural heritage (Michelangelo project:
<http://www-graphics.stanford.edu/projects/mich/>)
- search of parts in a factory of, say, cars
- face recognition: the face of an individual is a 3D shape...
- proteins: the *shape* of a protein reflects its function..
protein data bank: <http://www.rcsb.org>



Typical situation: classification

- assume you have database \mathcal{D} of objects.
- assume \mathcal{D} is composed by several objects, and that each of these objects belongs to one of n classes C_1, \dots, C_n .
- imagine you are given a new object o , not in your database, and you are asked to determine whether o belongs to one of the classes. If yes, you also need to point to the class.
- One simple procedure is to say that you will assign object o the class of the *closest* object in \mathcal{D} :

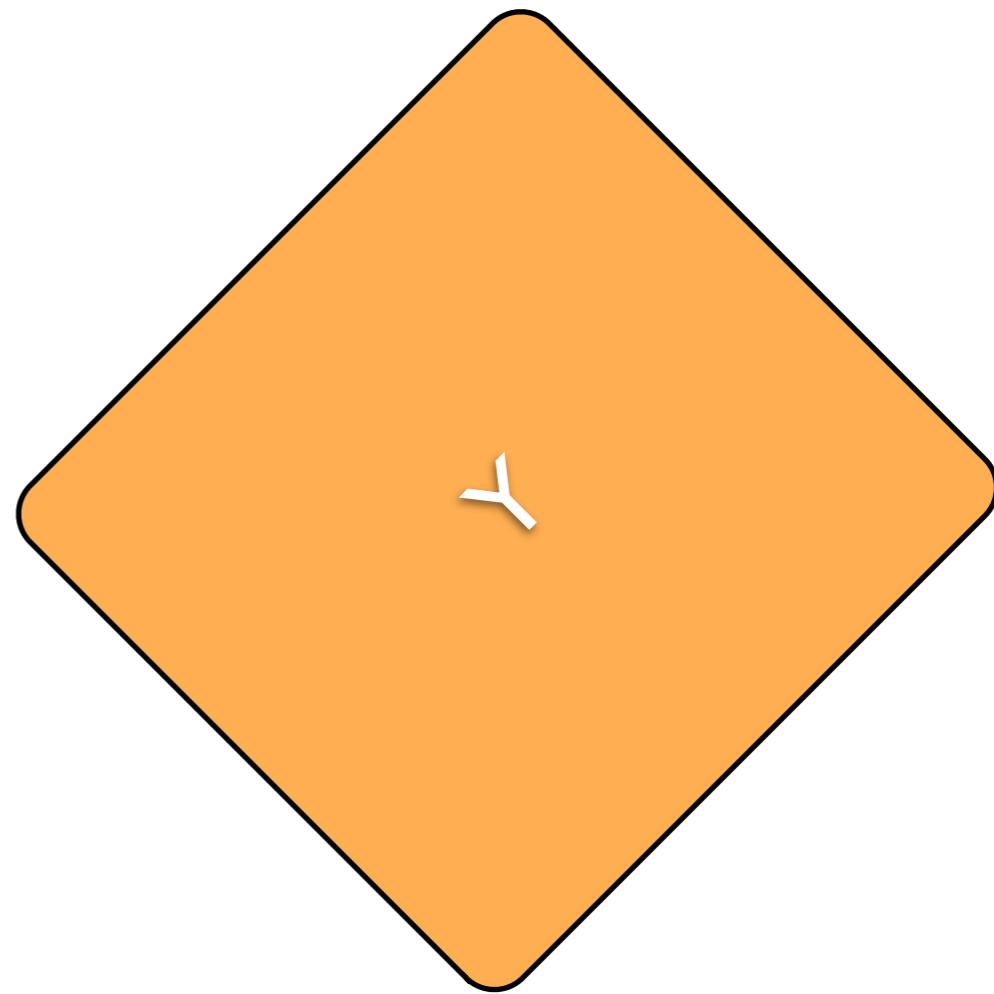
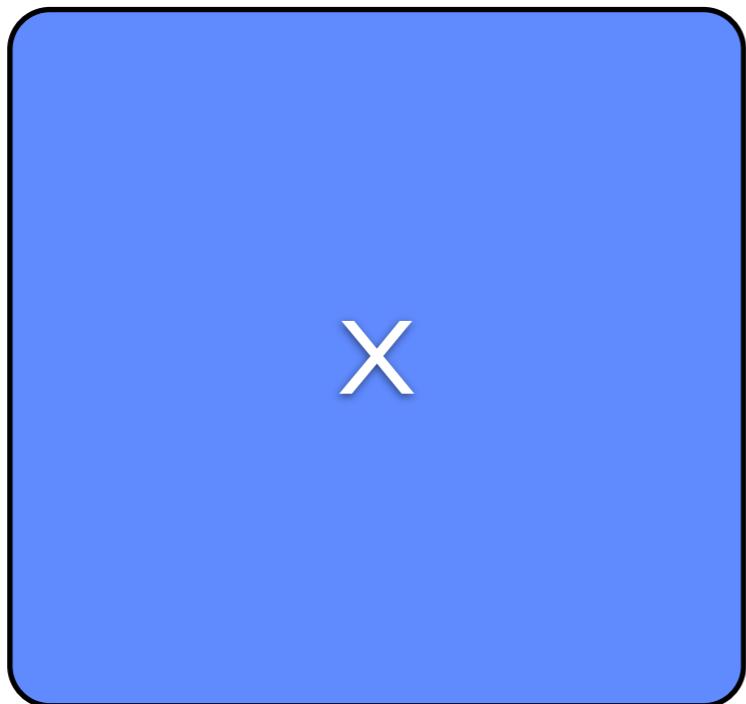
$$\text{class}(o) = \text{class}(z)$$

where $z \in \mathcal{D}$ minimizes $\text{dist}(o, z)$

- in order to do this, one first needs to define a notion **dist** of *distance* or *dis-similarity between objects*.

Another important point: invariances

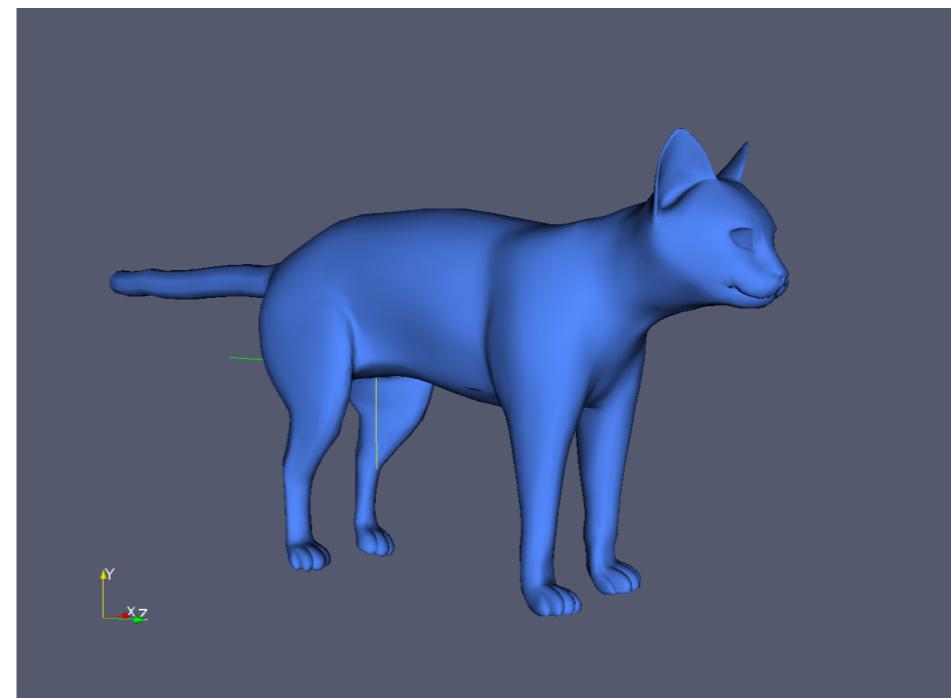
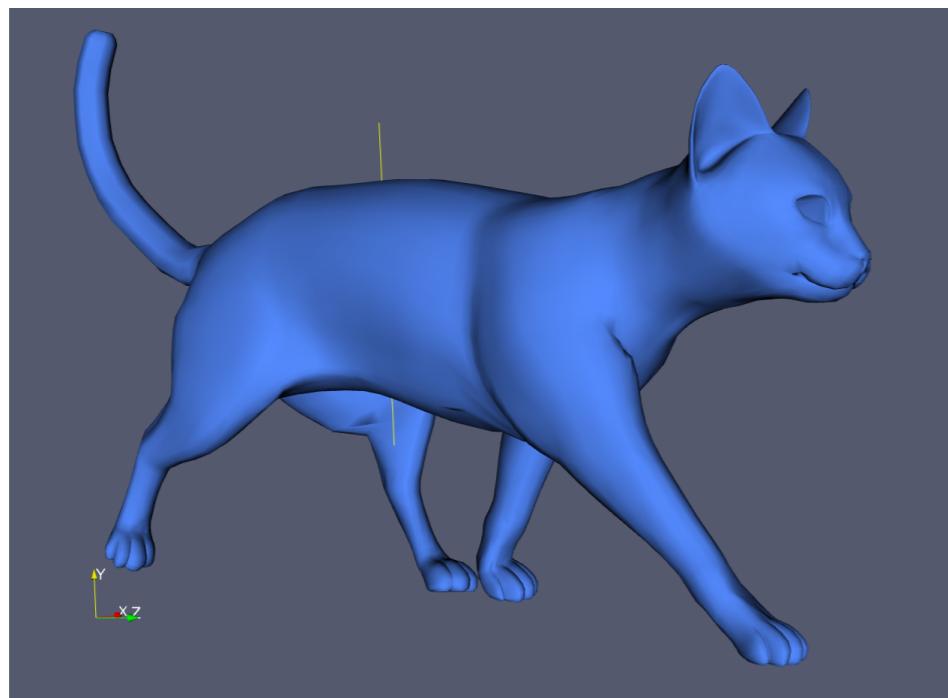
Are these two objects the same?



this is called invariance to *rigid transformations*

Another important points: invariances

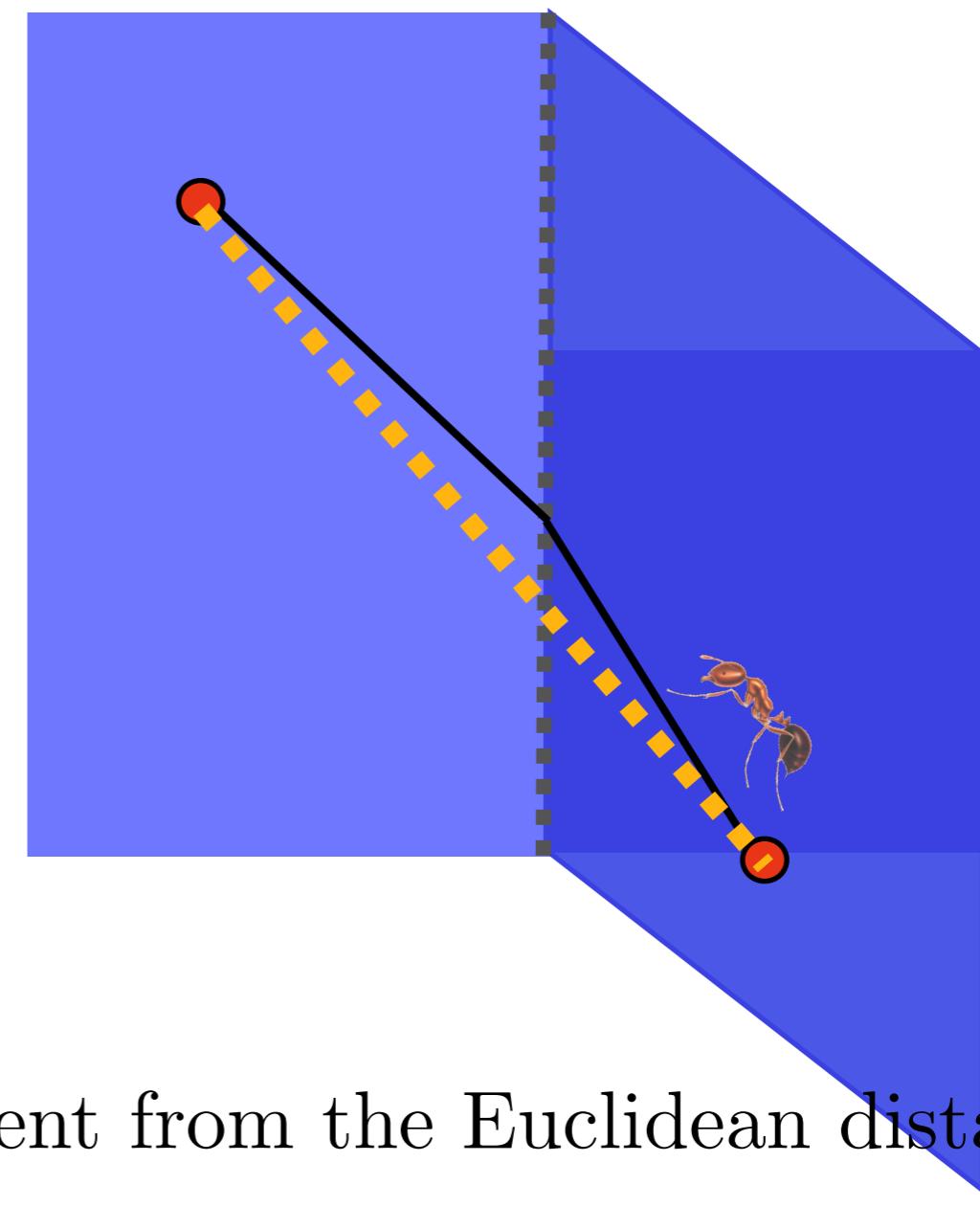
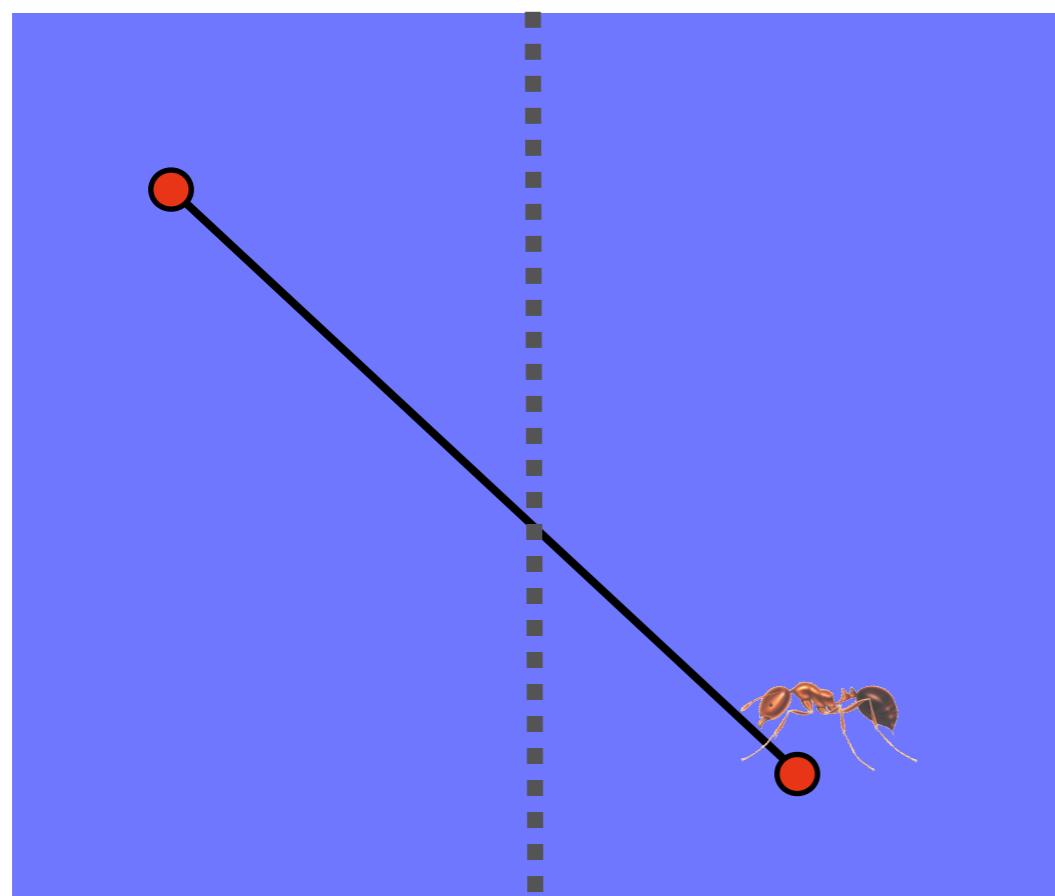
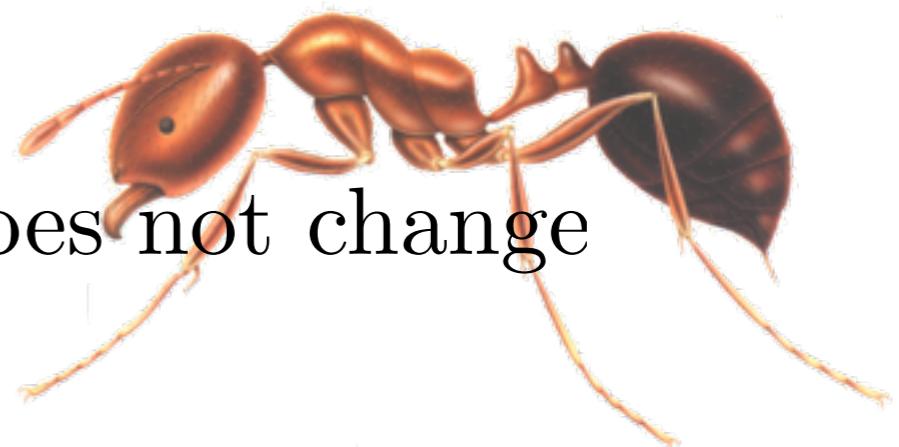
what about these two?



roughly speaking, this corresponds to invariance to *bending transformations..*

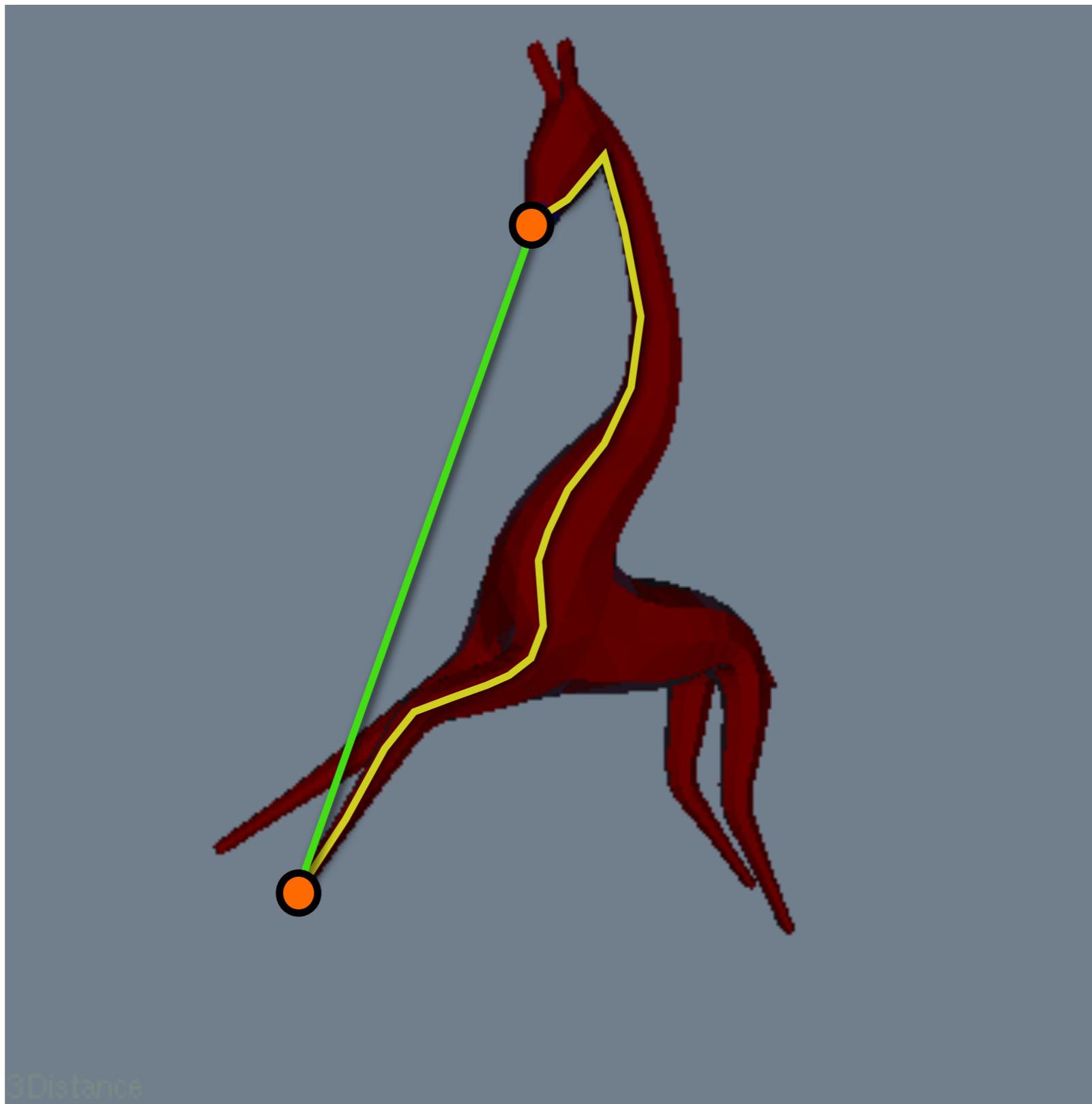
Bending transformations

the distance, as measured by an ant, does not change



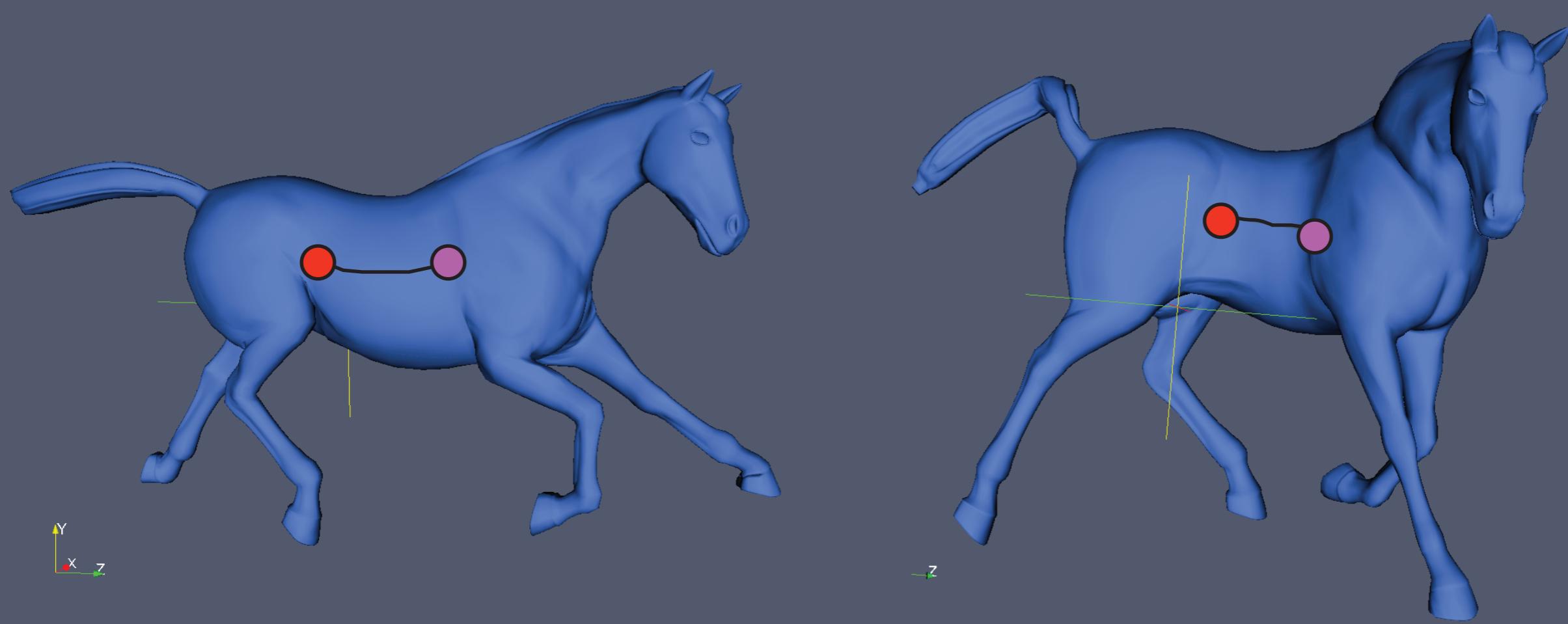
Important: this distance is different from the Euclidean distance!!

Geodesic distance vs Euclidean distance

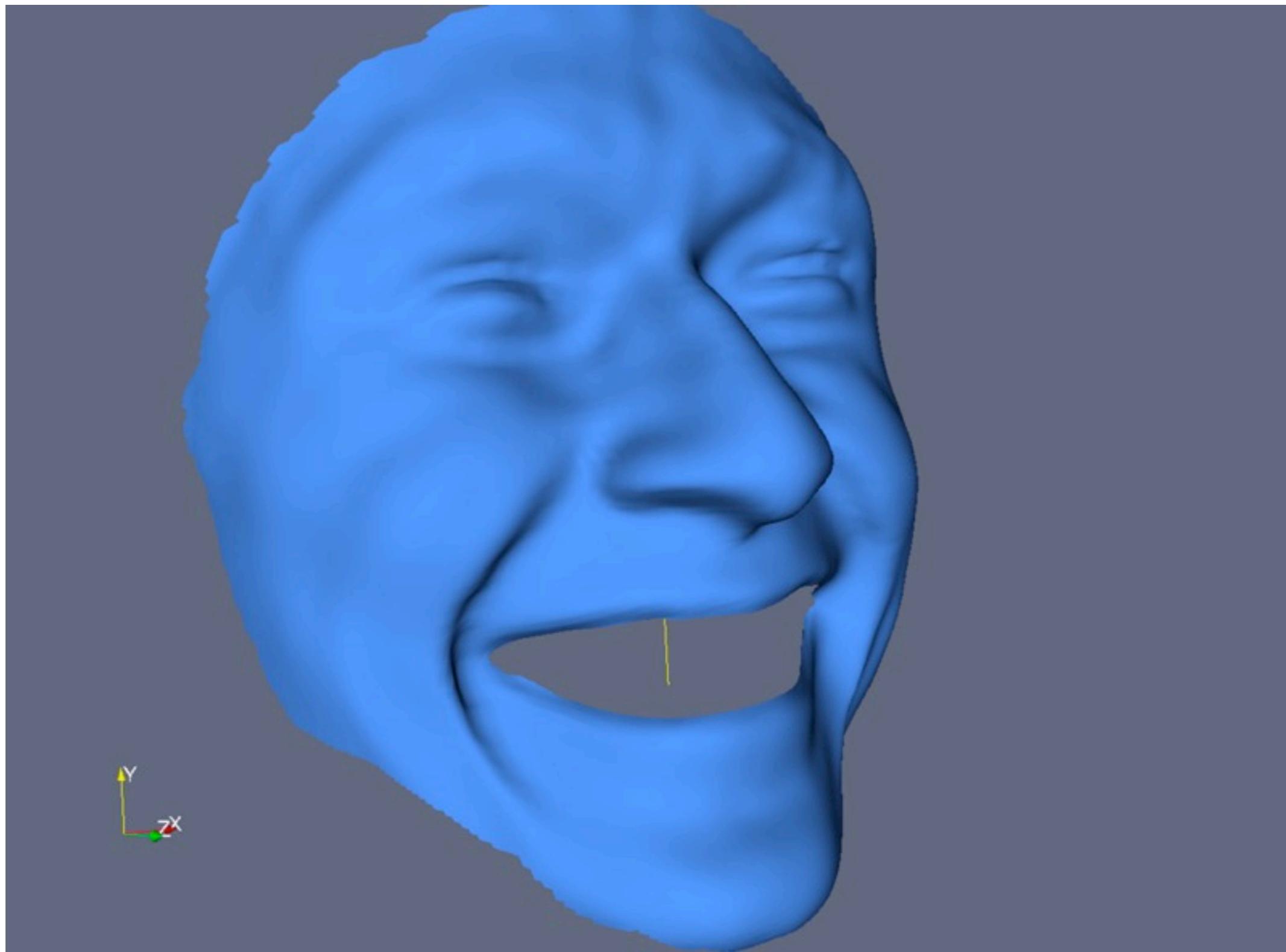


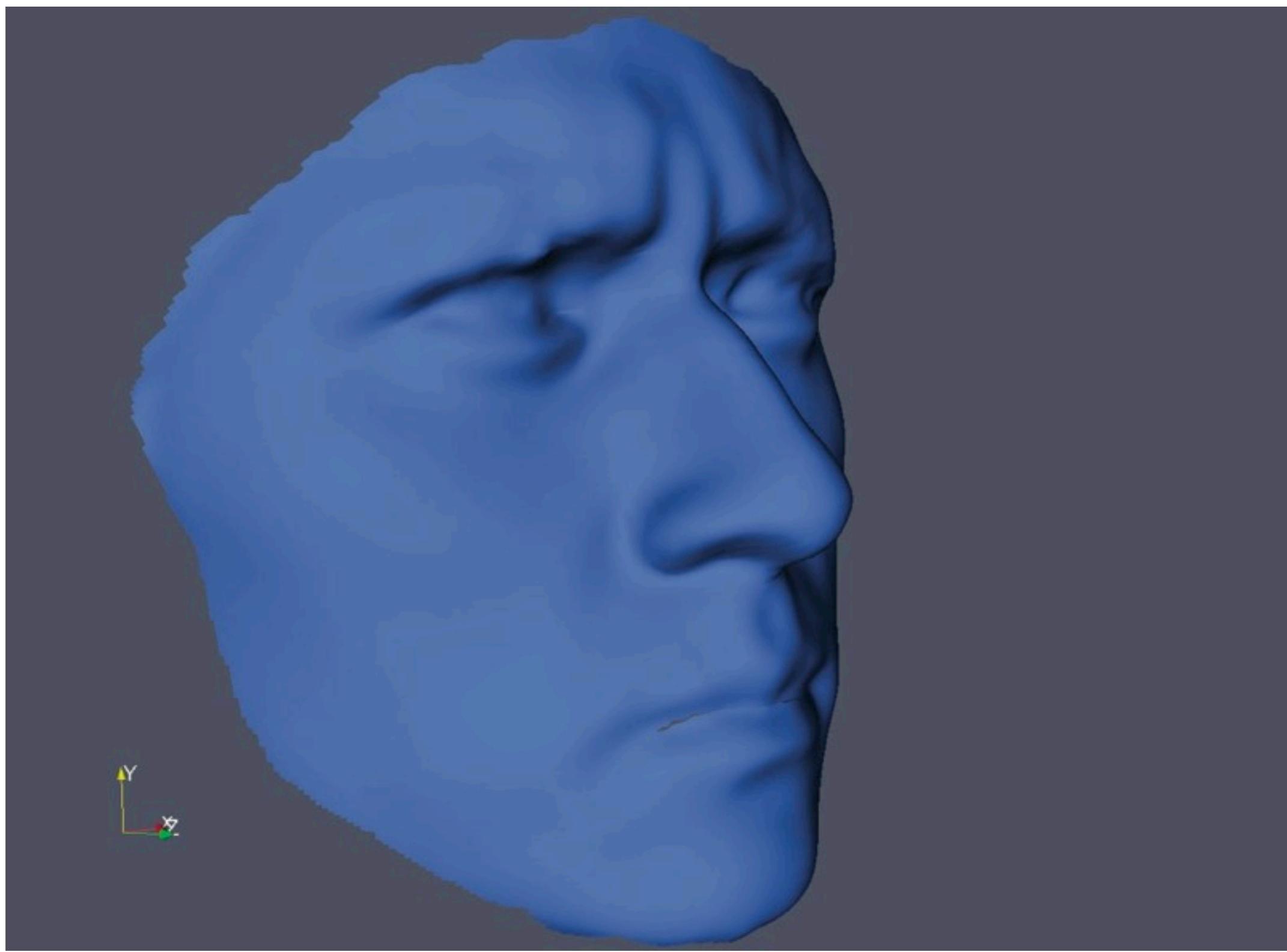
3Distance

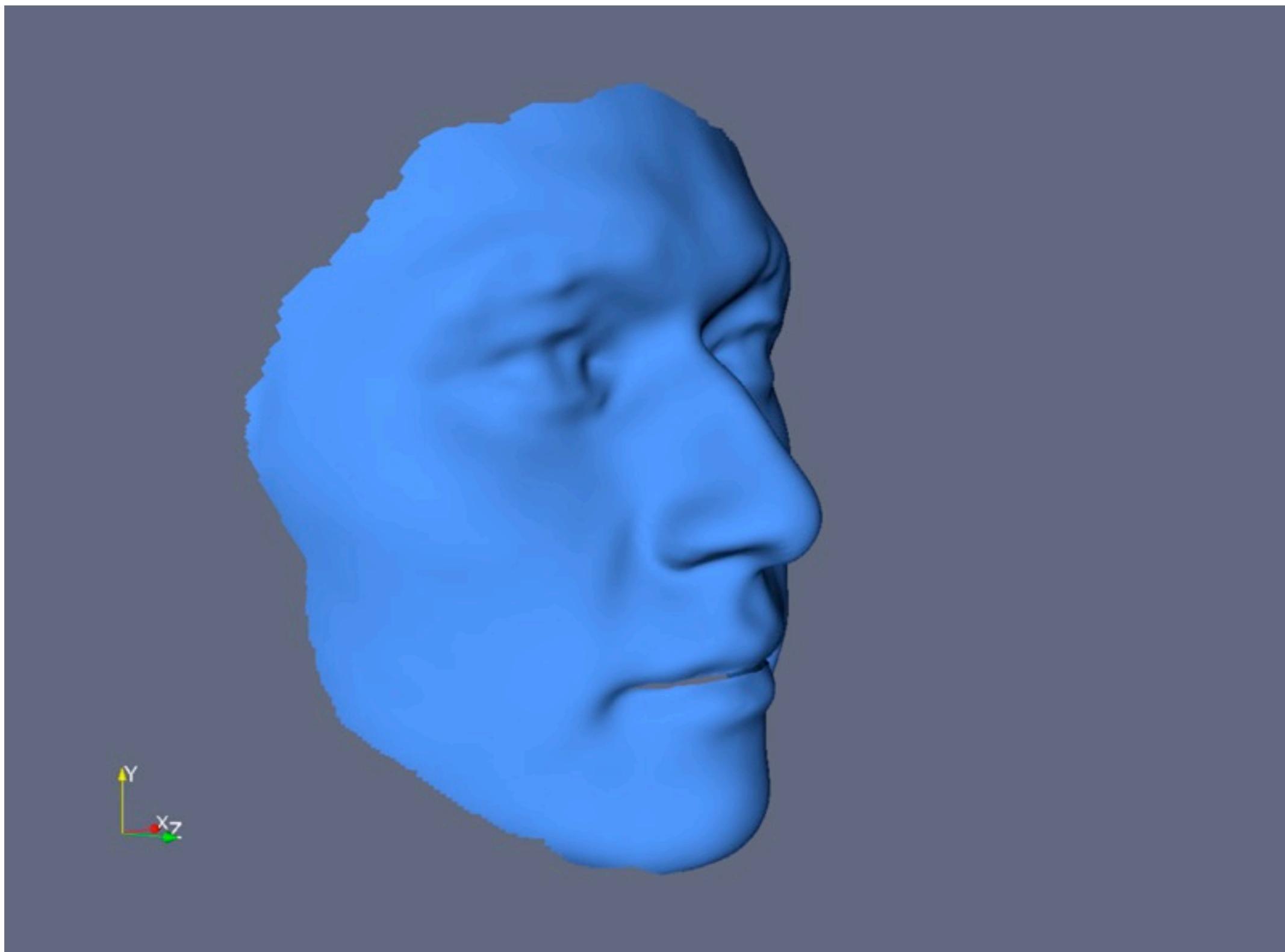
Geodesic distance: invariance to ‘bends’

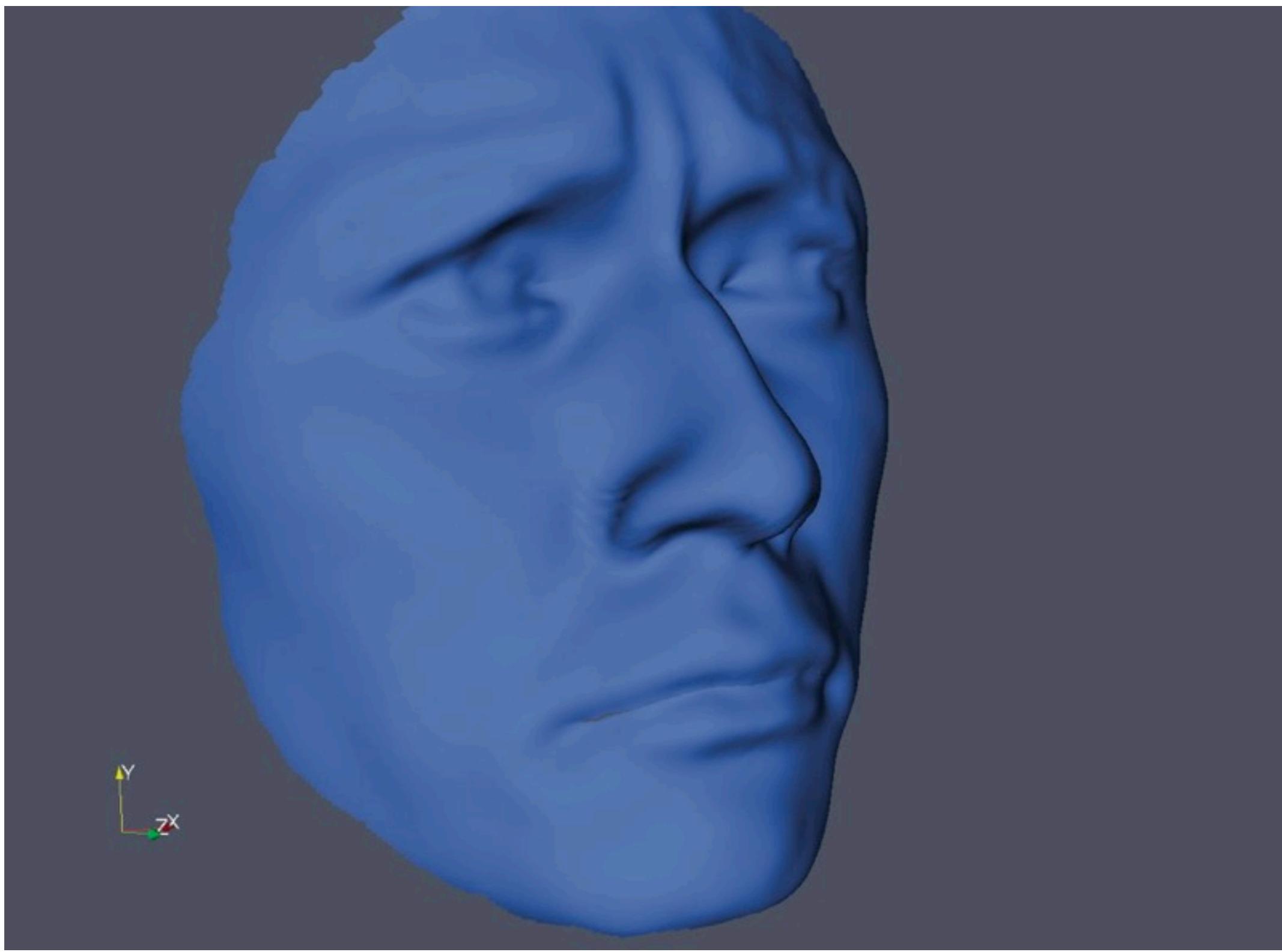


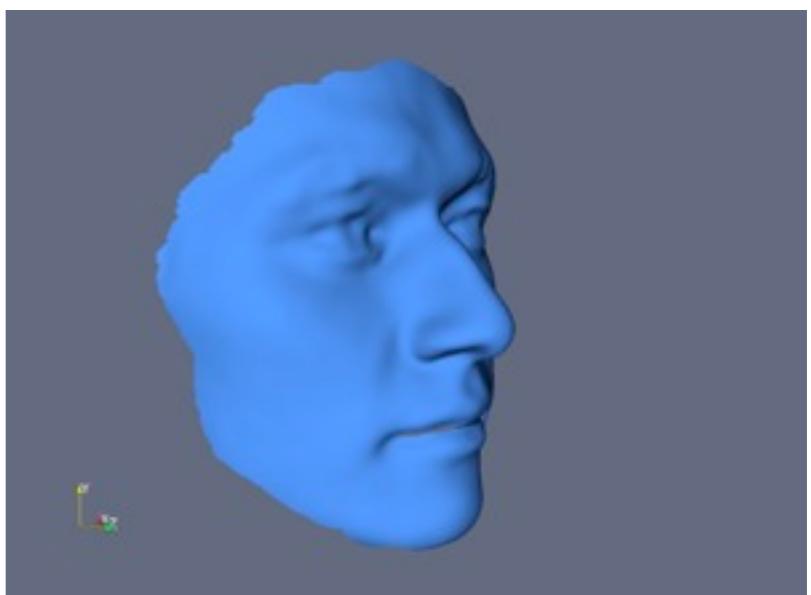
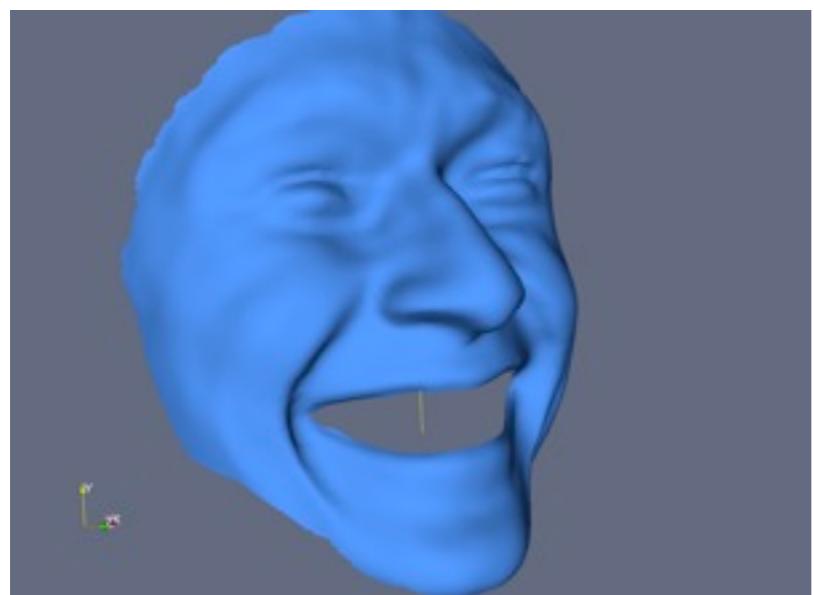
Geodesic distance -- invariance to ‘bends’ face recognition











Typical situation: classification

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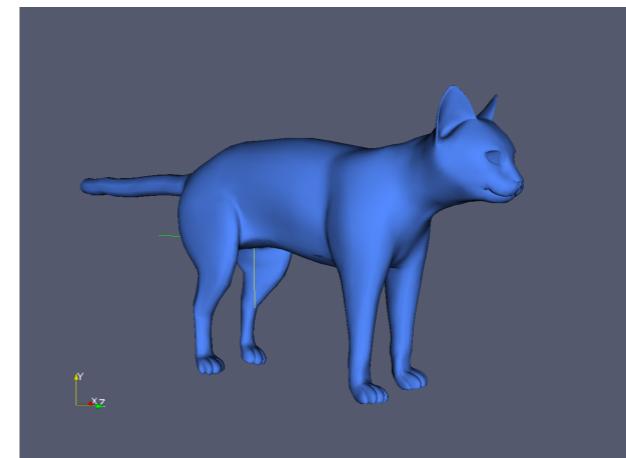
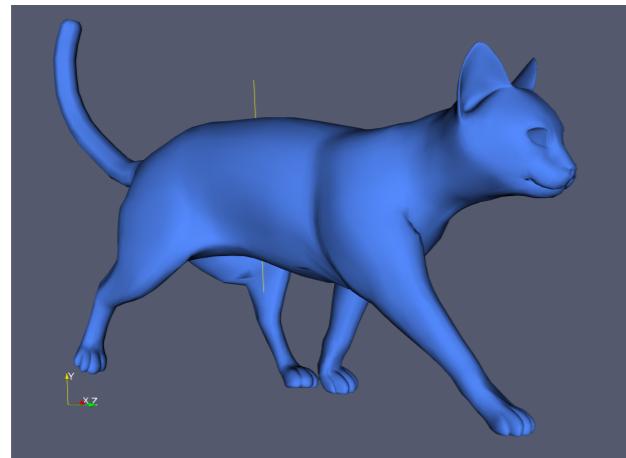
$$\text{class}(o) = \text{class}(z)$$

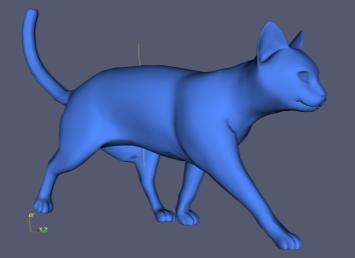
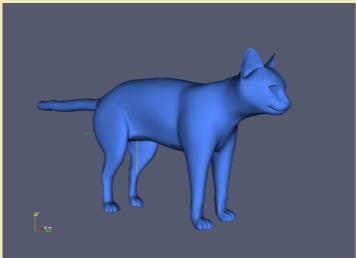
where $z \in \mathcal{D}$ minimizes $\text{dist}(o, z)$

- in order to do this, one first needs to define a notion **dist** of *distance* or *dis-similarity between objects*.

invariances...

The measure of dis-similarity **dist** must capture the type of invariance you want to encode in your classification system.



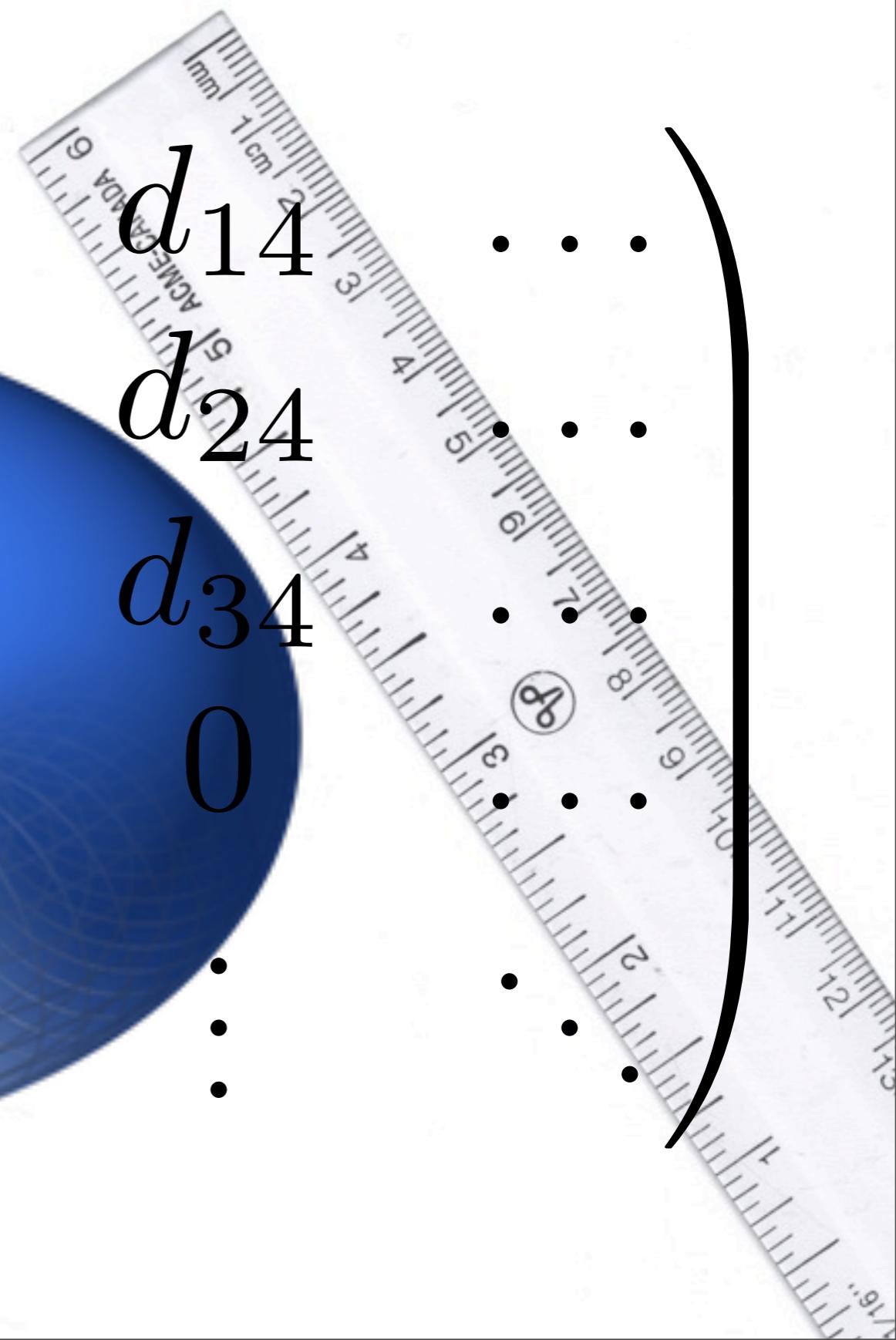
$\text{dist}(\text{$  $, \text{$  $) = 0 ?$

Metric geometry?

- Metric Geometry studies the shape of things, where "things" are modeled as **metric spaces**.
- Several concepts from classical differential and Riemannian geometry admit counterparts in the metric geometry setting.
- One views surfaces, manifolds, etc as metric spaces by endowing the surfaces with the geodesic (or other) metric.
- One does not invoke smoothness of the underlying space.
- An intermediate level of specialization/generality between metric and Riemannian is given by **length spaces**.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{Riemannian} \\ \text{structures} \end{pmatrix} \subseteq \begin{pmatrix} \text{Length} \\ \text{structures} \end{pmatrix} \subseteq \begin{pmatrix} \text{Metric} \\ \text{structures} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & \cdots \\ d_{12} & 0 & d_{23} & d_{24} & \cdots \\ d_{13} & d_{23} & 0 & d_{34} & \cdots \\ d_{14} & d_{24} & d_{34} & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$



Background concepts

- **Metric spaces:** A metric space is a pair (X, d) where X is a set and $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is called the **metric** or **distance** and satisfies
 - (strictness): for all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) = 0$ **if and only if** $x = y$.
 - (symmetry): for all $x, y \in X$, $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.
 - (triangle inequality): for all $x, y, z \in X$, $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$.

An ensuing question..

Assume that \mathbb{X}_n and \mathbb{Y}_n are such that there exists a permutation $\pi \in \Pi_n$ s.t. for some $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\|x_i - x_j\| - \varepsilon \leq \|y_{\pi_i} - y_{\pi_j}\| \leq \|x_i - x_j\| + \varepsilon \text{ for all } i, j.$$

Then, is it true that there exists a Euclidean isometry Ψ_ε s.t.

$$\|\Psi_\varepsilon(x_i) - y_i\| \leq \eta(\varepsilon) \text{ for all } i$$

for some $\eta(\cdot)$ non-decreasing, positive s.t. $\eta(0) = 0$?

This question can be answered with the metric geometry tools [M08-euclidean]: interestingly the only possibility is $\eta(\varepsilon) \simeq \sqrt{\varepsilon}$.

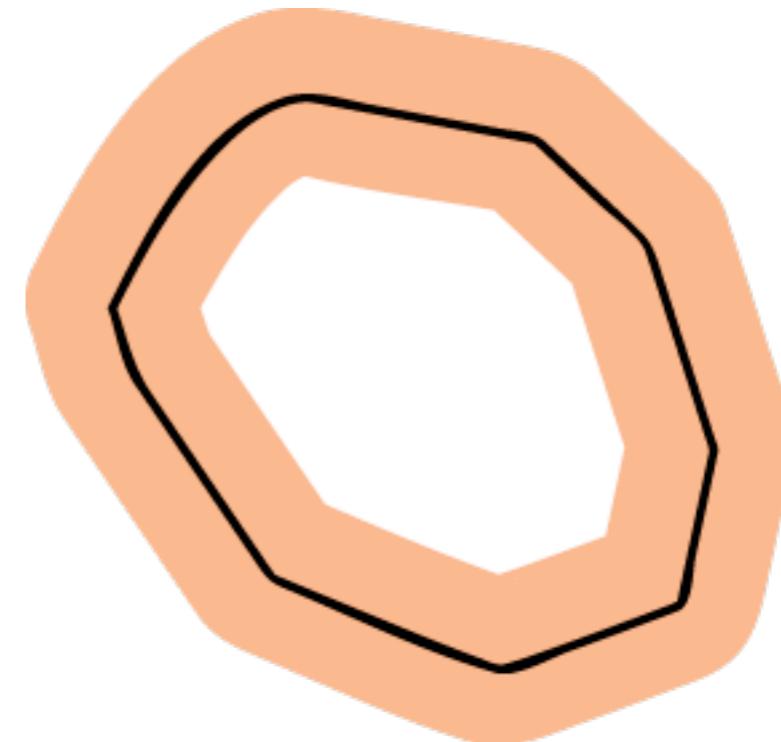
- **Hausdorff distance.** For (compact) subsets A, B of a (compact) metric space (Z, d) , the *Hausdorff distance* between them, $d_{\mathcal{H}}^Z(A, B)$, is defined to be the infimal $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t.

$$A \subset B^\varepsilon$$

and

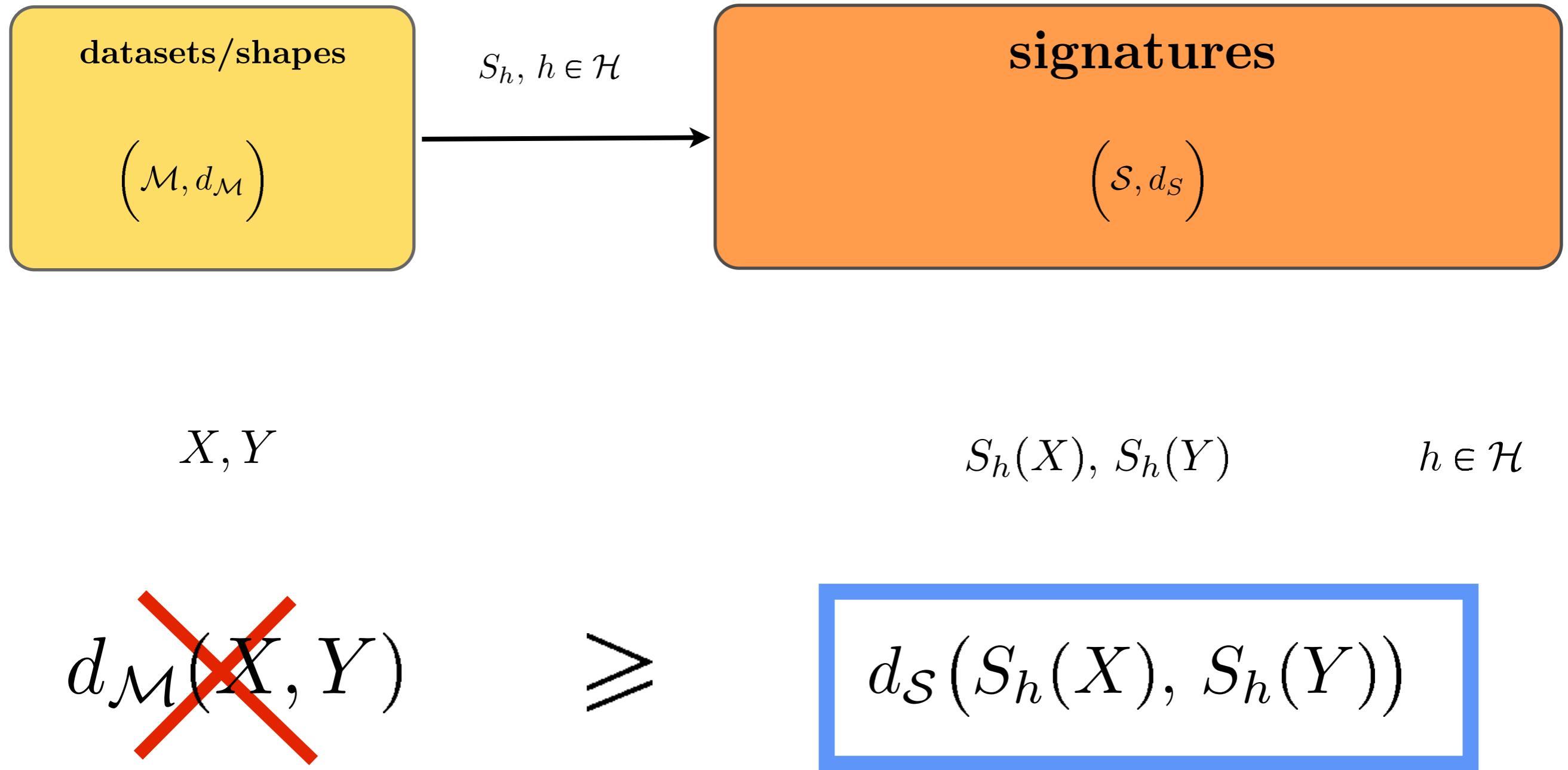
$$B \subset A^\varepsilon$$

where $A^\varepsilon = \{z \in Z \mid d(z, A) < \varepsilon\}$.



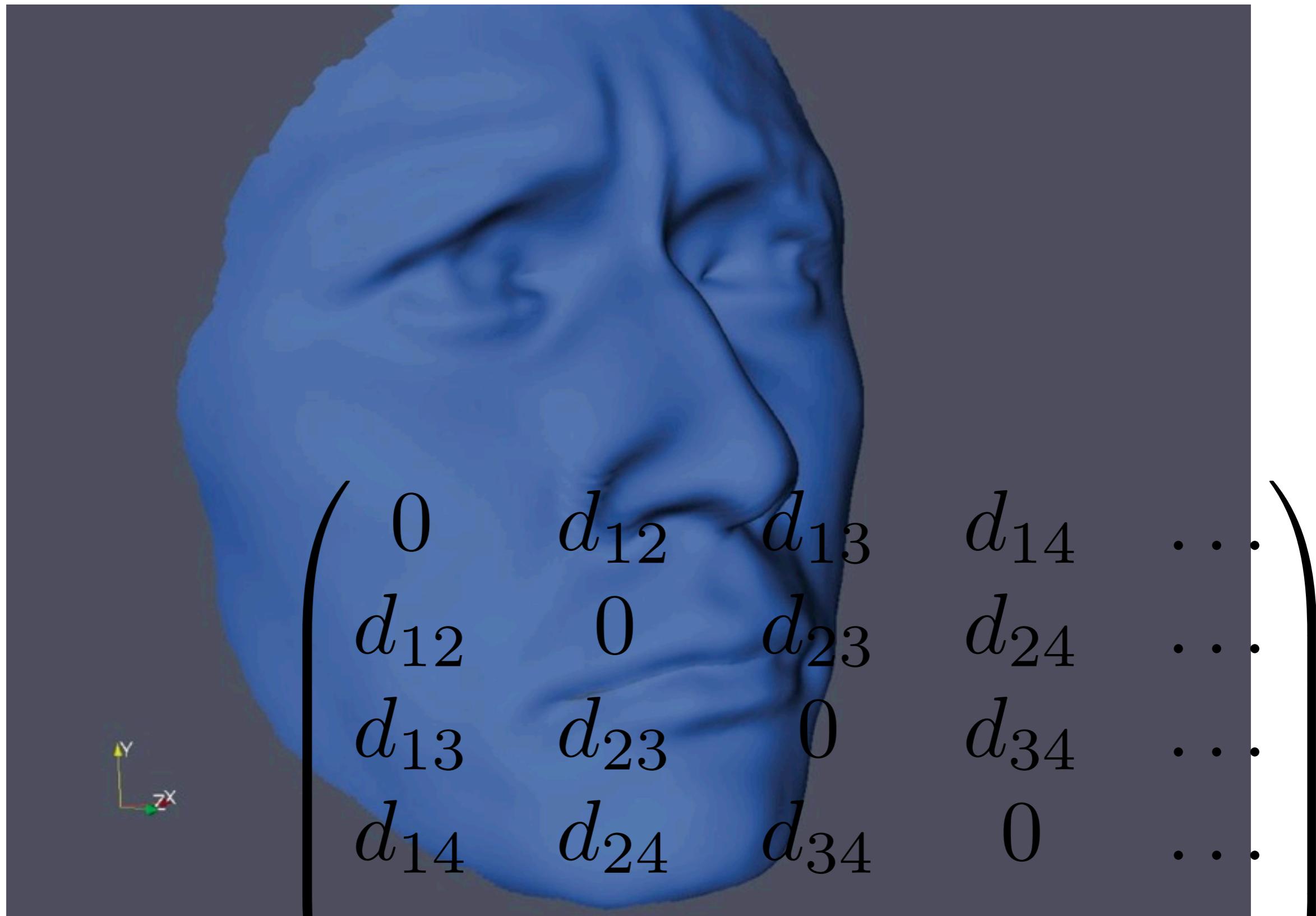
Abstraction of shape matching methods

- \mathcal{M} : collection of all datasets/shapes (metric spaces).
- \mathcal{S} : collection of all invariants/signatures.

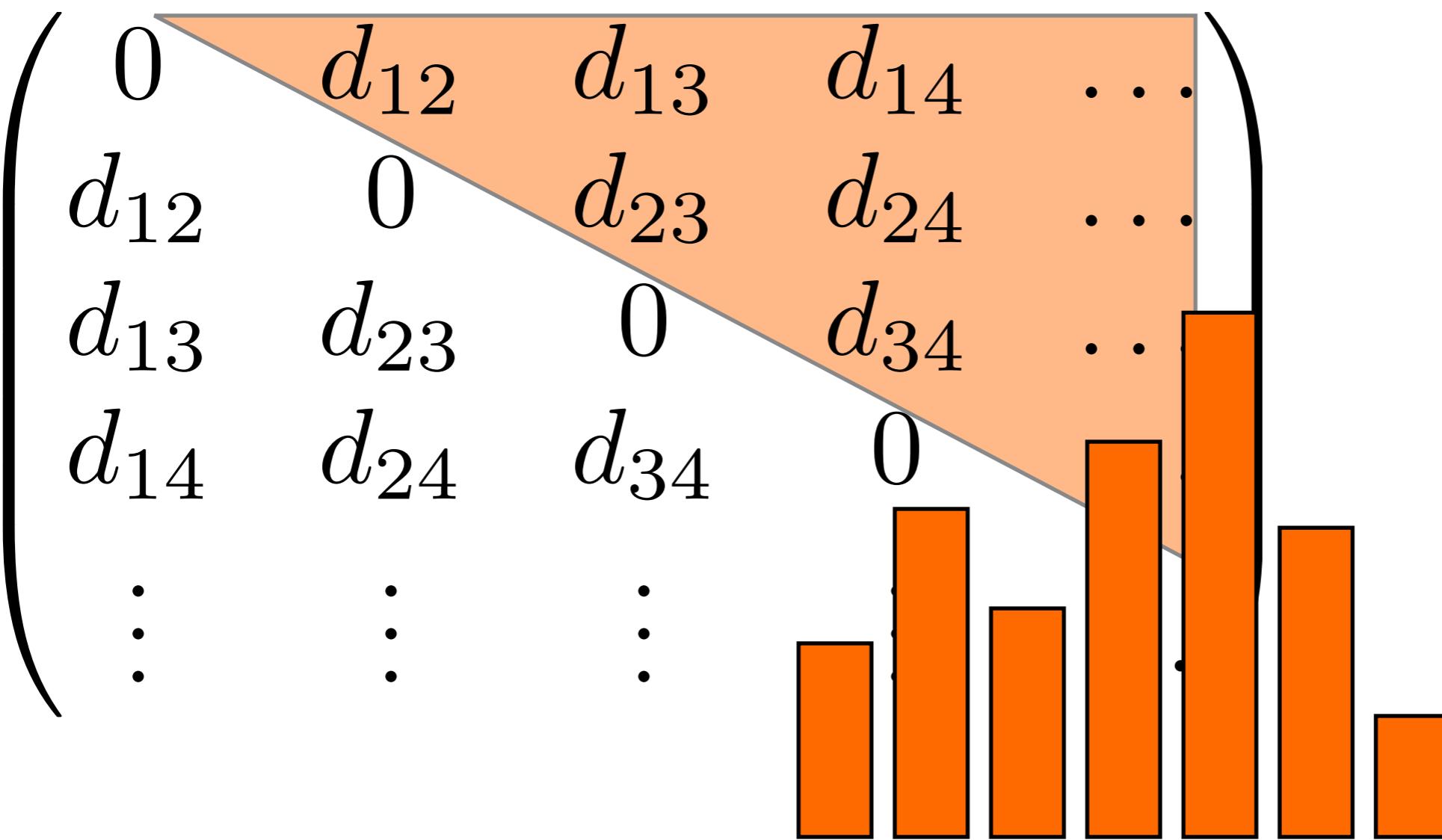


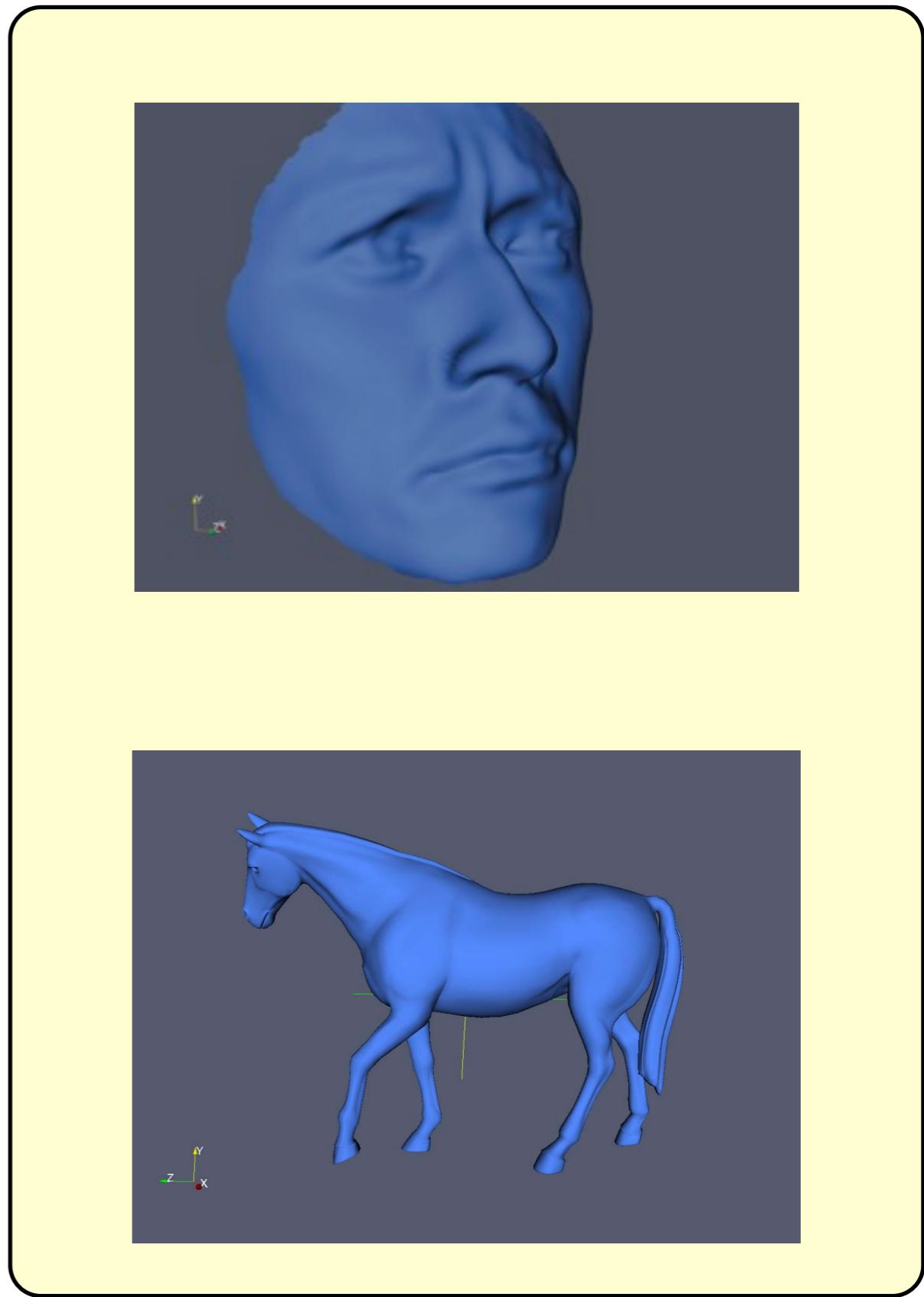
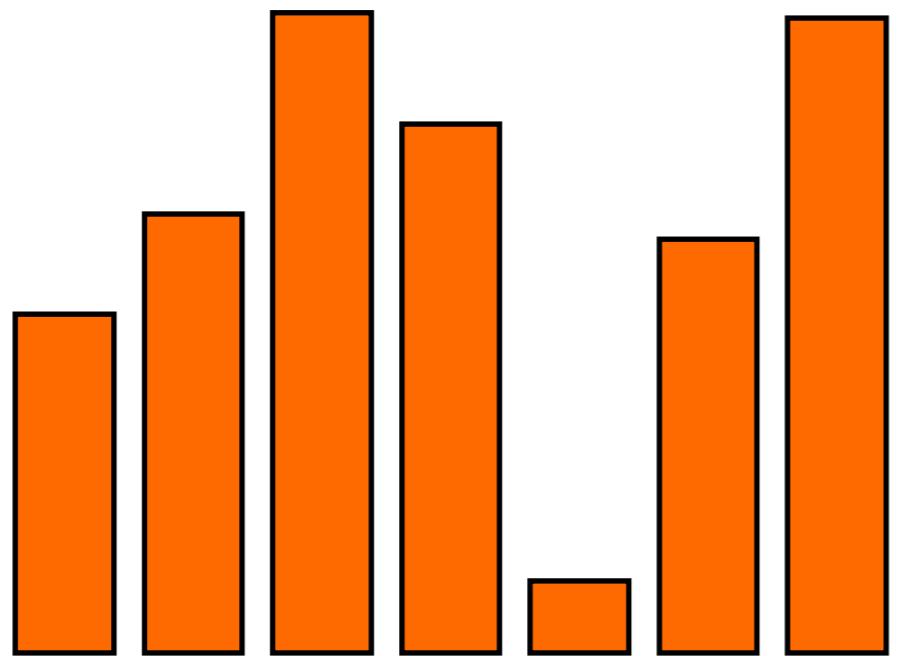
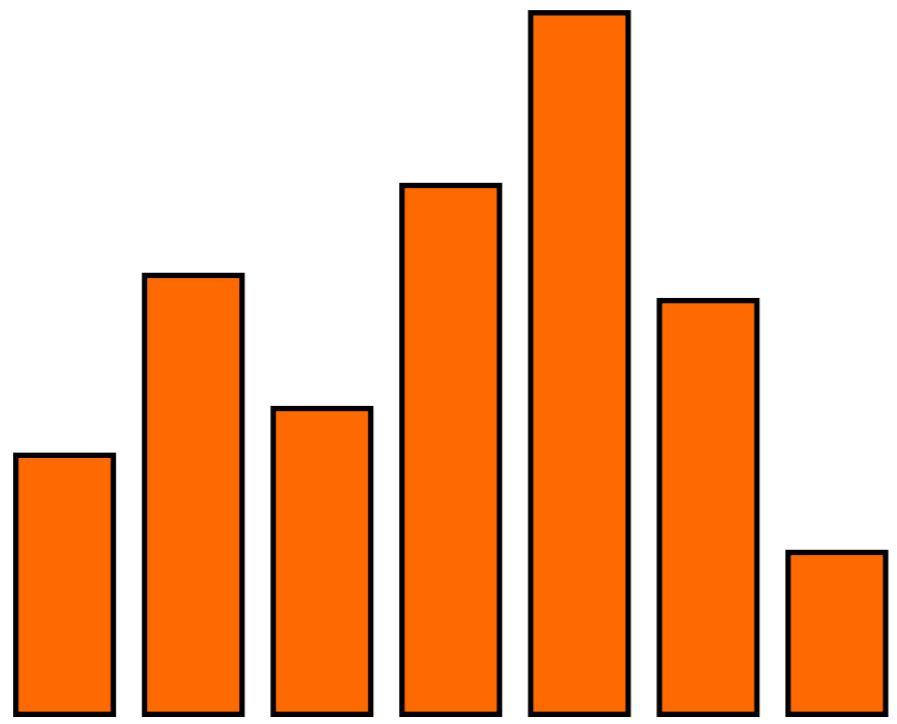
signatures

$$(\mathcal{S}, d_S)$$


$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & \cdots \\ d_{12} & 0 & d_{23} & d_{24} & \cdots \\ d_{13} & d_{23} & 0 & d_{34} & \cdots \\ d_{14} & d_{24} & d_{34} & 0 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

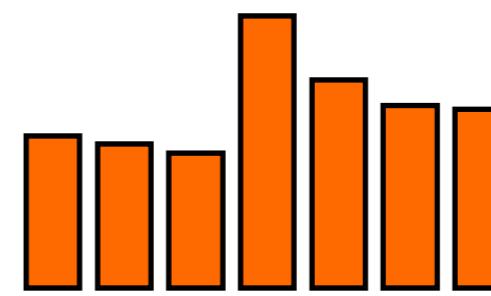
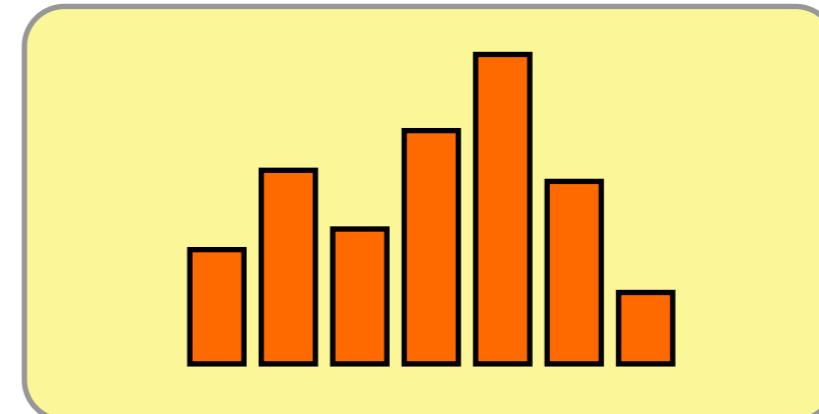
Shape Distributions [Osada-et-al]



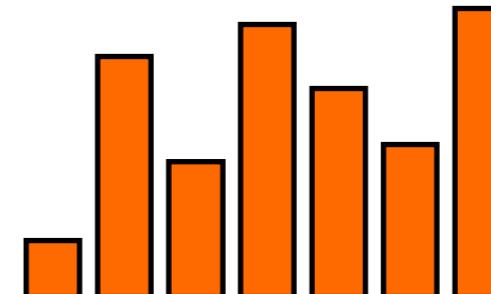


Shape Contexts/ integral invariants

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & d_{12} & d_{13} & d_{14} & \dots \\ d_{12} & 0 & d_{23} & d_{24} & \dots \\ d_{13} & d_{23} & 0 & d_{34} & \dots \\ d_{14} & d_{24} & d_{34} & 0 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

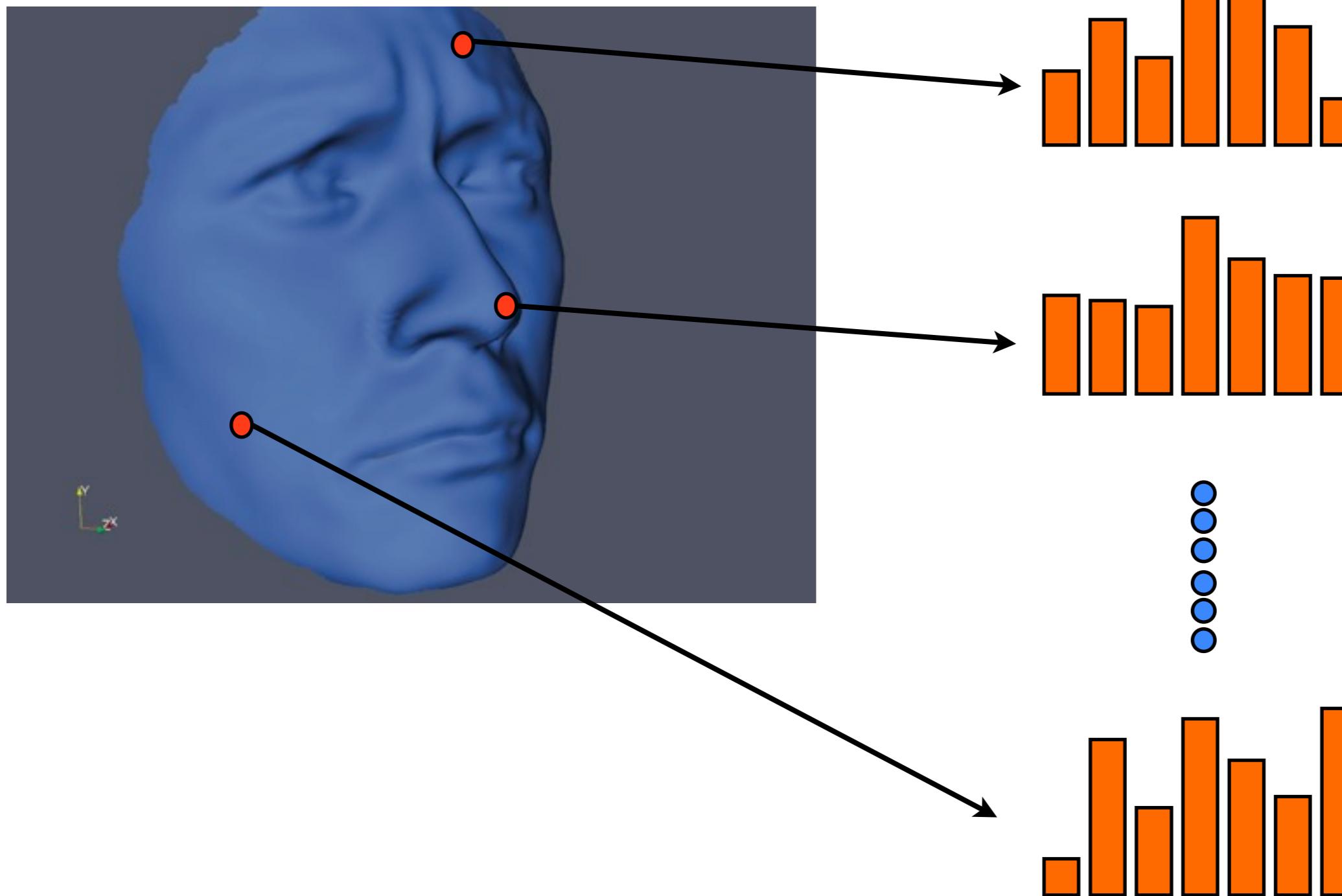


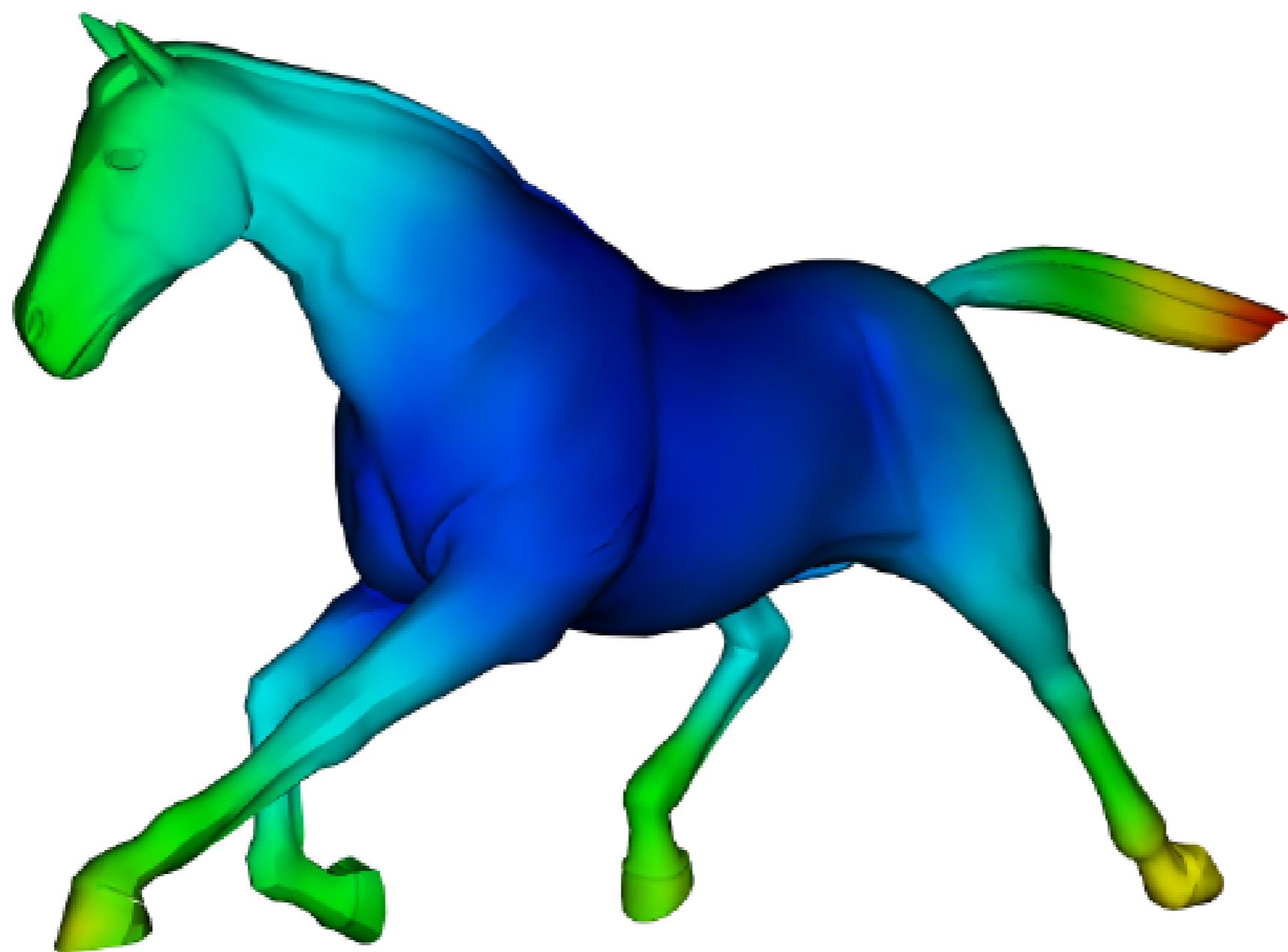
⋮



about Local distributions of distances

$$h_X(x, t) = \mu_X \left(\overline{B(x, t)} \right)$$





datasets/shapes

$$(\mathcal{M}, d_{\mathcal{M}})$$

The GH distance for Shape Comparison [MS04], [MS05]

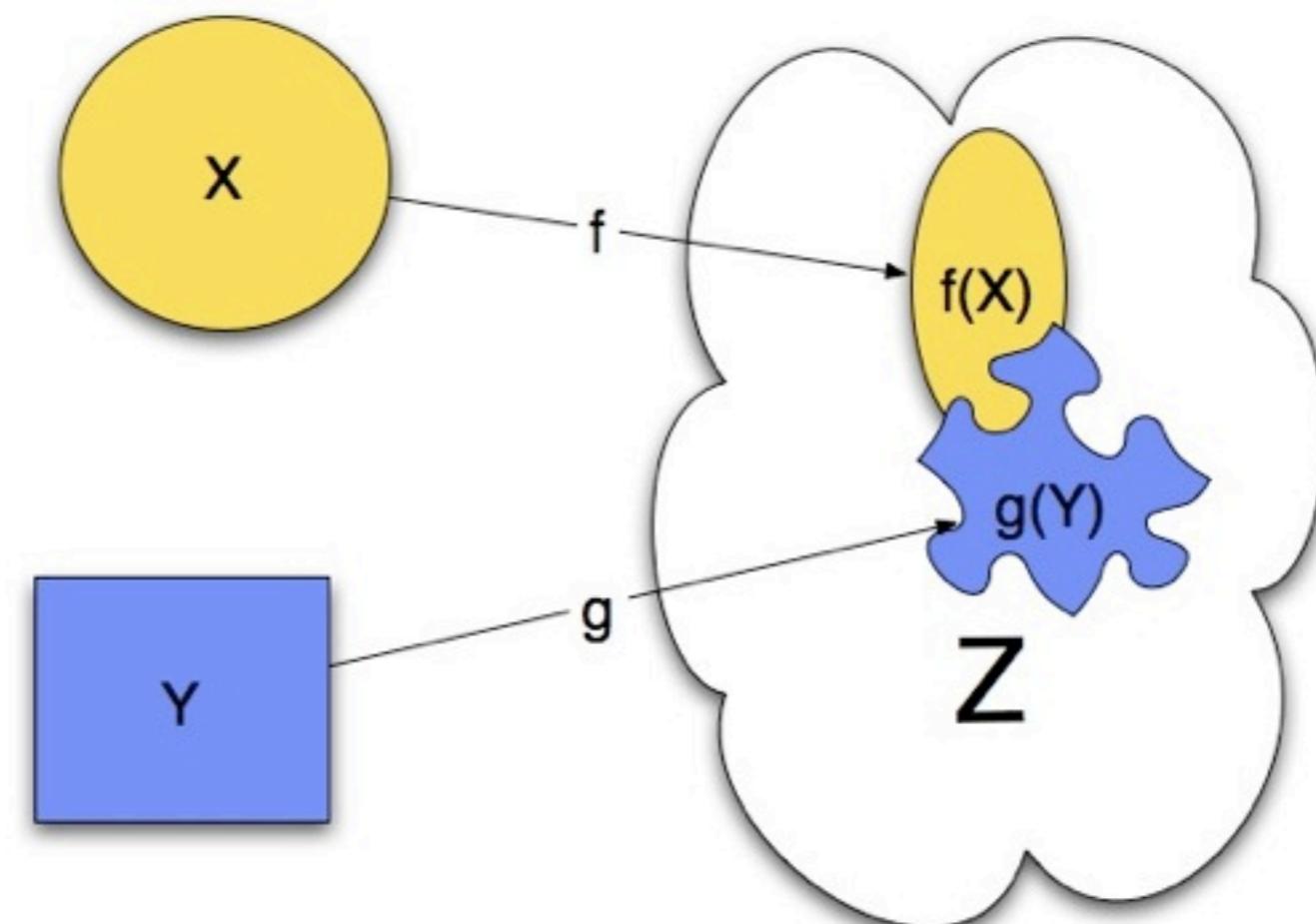
A metric on \mathcal{M} (collection of all metric spaces):

$(\mathcal{M}, d_{\mathcal{GH}})$ is a metric space in itself!

- Regard shapes as (compact) metric spaces, That is, a shape is going to be represented as pair (X, d_X) .
- The metric d_X with which one endows the shapes depends on the desired invariance. For example, if invariance to
 - *rigid isometries* is desired, use Euclidean distance.
 - *bends* is desired, use "geodesic" distance.
- GH distance provides reasonable framework for Shape Comparison: good theoretical properties.
- However, it leads to difficult optimization problems.

GH: definition

$$d_{\mathcal{GH}}(X, Y) = \inf_{Z, f, g} d_{\mathcal{H}}^Z(f(X), g(Y))$$



It would be much more intuitive to compare the metrics d_X and d_Y directly..

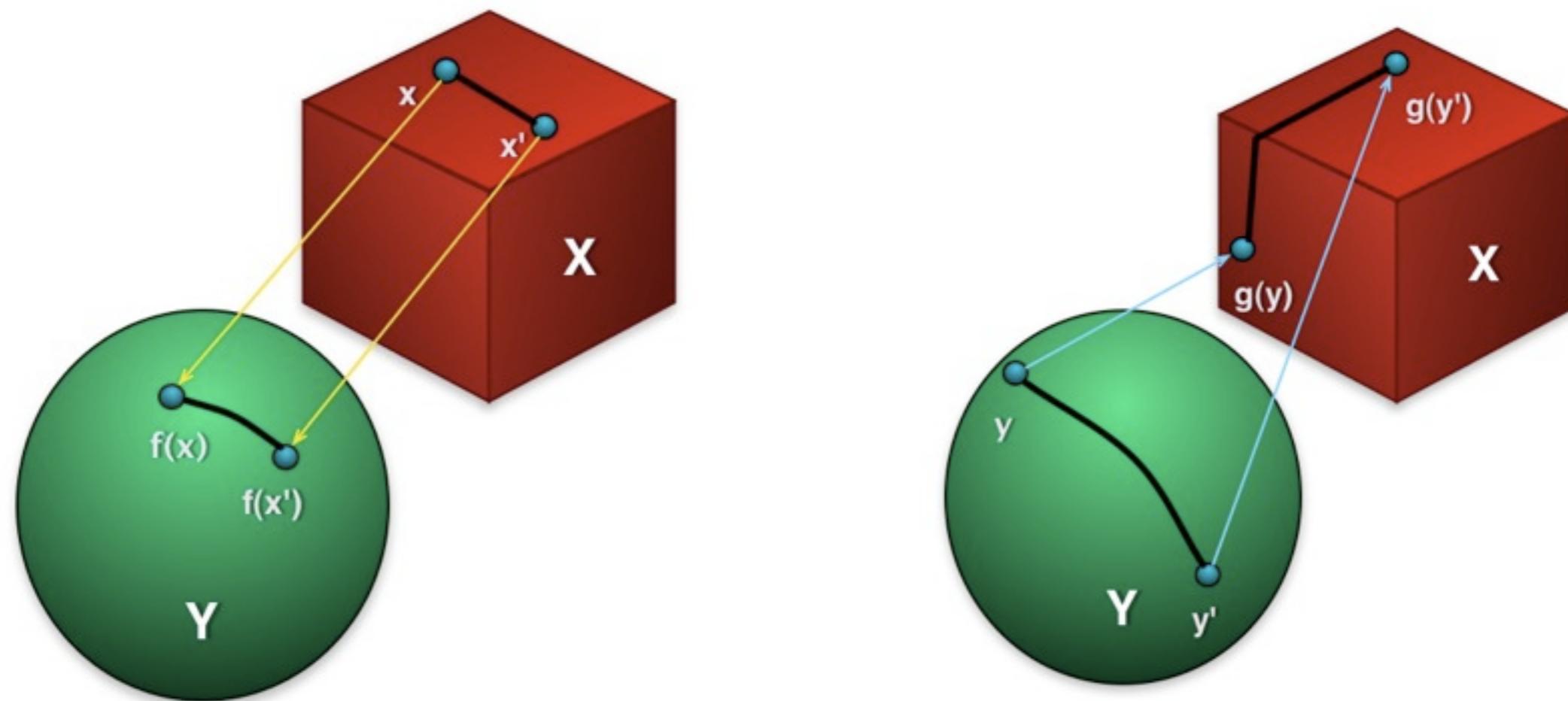
For maps $f : X \rightarrow Y$, and $g : Y \rightarrow X$ compute

$$\text{dist}(f) = \max_{x, x'} |d_X(x, x') - d_Y(f(x), f(x'))|$$

and

$$\text{dist}(g) = \max_{y, y'} |d_Y(y, y') - d_X(g(y), g(y'))|$$

and then minimize $\max(\text{dist}(f), \text{dist}(g))$ over all choices of f and g .



correspondences

Definition [Correspondences]

For sets A and B , a subset $R \subset A \times B$ is a *correspondence* (between A and B) if and only if

- $\forall a \in A$, there exists $b \in B$ s.t. $(a, b) \in R$
- $\forall b \in B$, there exists $a \in A$ s.t. $(a, b) \in R$

Let $\mathcal{R}(A, B)$ denote the set of all possible correspondences between sets A and B .

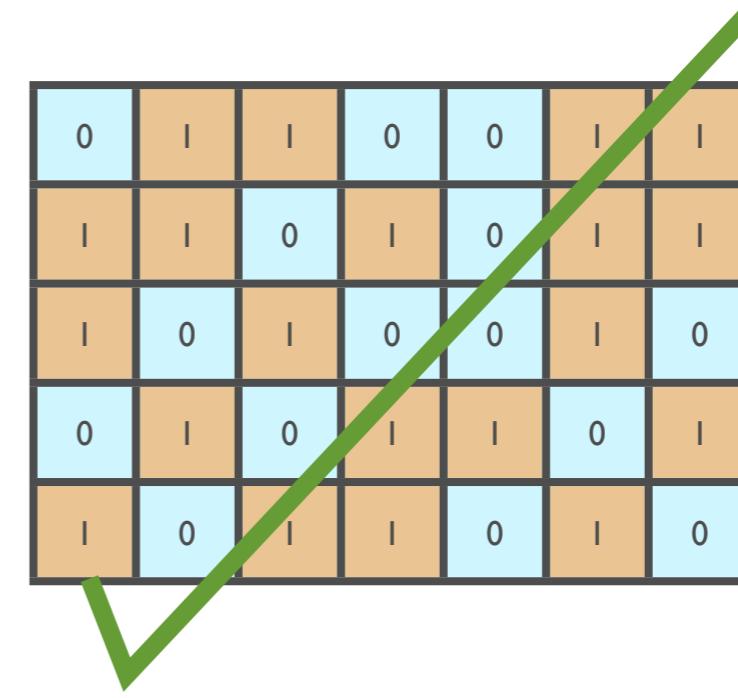
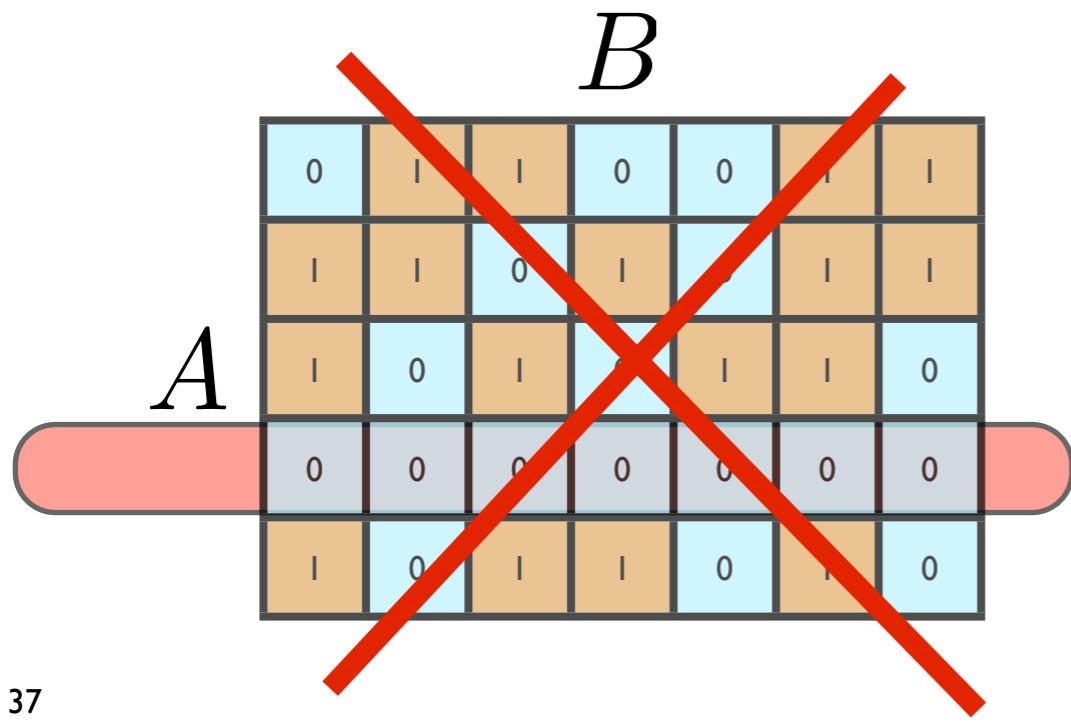
Note that in the case $n_A = n_B$, correspondences are larger than bijections.

Correspondences

Given finite sets A and B , a **correspondence** between A and B is a matrix $R = ((r_{a,b})) \in \{0, 1\}^{n_A \times n_B}$ s.t.

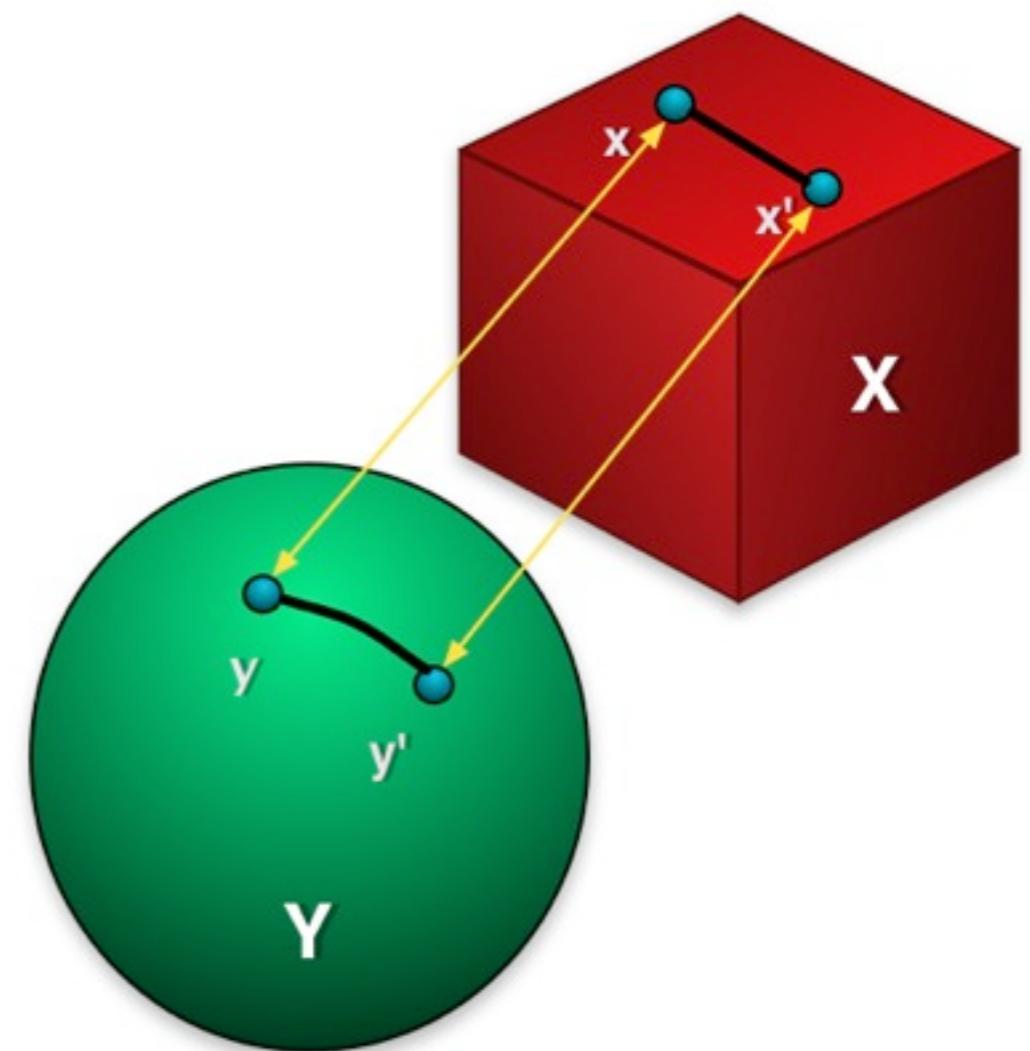
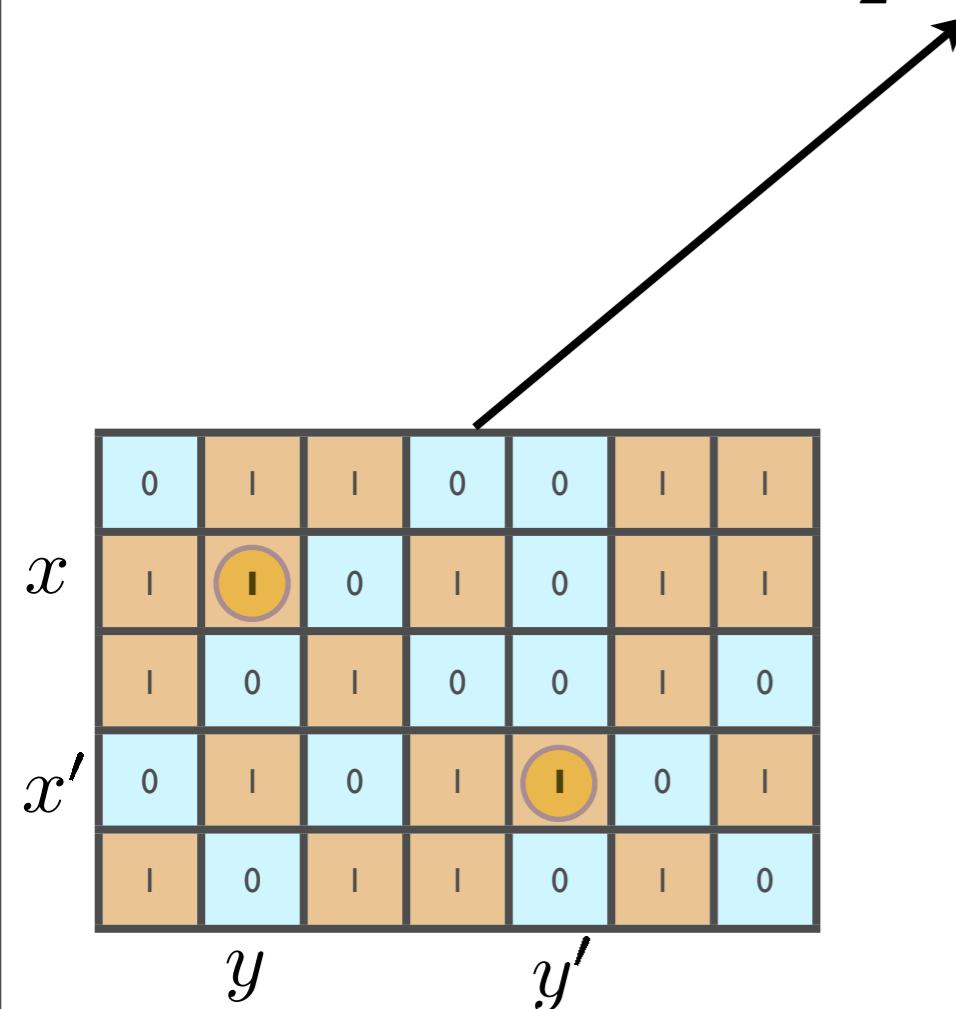
$$\sum_{a \in A} r_{ab} \geq 1 \quad \forall b \in B$$

$$\sum_{b \in B} r_{ab} \geq 1 \quad \forall a \in A$$



Theorem. [Kalton-Ostrovskii] For finite metric spaces (X, d_X) and (Y, d_Y) , the **Gromov-Hausdorff distance** between them is given by

$$d_{\mathcal{GH}}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \min_R \max_{x, y, x', y'} |d_X(x, x') - d_Y(y, y')| r_{x,y} \cdot r_{x',y'}$$



Critique

- Was not able to show connections with (sufficiently many) pre-existing approaches such as Shape Distributions, Shape Contexts, Hamza-Krim, Frosini et al.
- Computationally hard: currently only two attempts have been made:
 - [MS04,MS05] and [BBK06] only for surfaces.
 - [MS05] gives probabilistic guarantees for estimator based on sampling parameters.
 - Full generality leads to a hard **combinatorial optimization problem**: QAP.

Desiderata

- Obtain an L^p version of the GH distance that:
 - retains theoretical underpinnings
 - its implementation leads to easier (continuous, quadratic, with linear constraints) optimization problems
 - can be related to pre-existing approaches (shape contexts, shape distributions, Hamza-Krim,...) via lower/upper bounds.

First attempt: naive relaxation

Recall that

$$d_{\mathcal{GH}}(X, Y) = \min_R \max_{x, x', y, y'} |d_X(x, x') - d_Y(y, y')| r_{x,y} \cdot r_{x',y'}$$

where $R = ((r_{x,y})) \in \{0, 1\}^{n_X \times n_Y}$ s.t.

$$\sum_{x \in X} r_{x,y} \geq 1 \text{ for all } y \in Y$$

$$\sum_{y \in Y} r_{x,y} \geq 1 \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

First attempt: naive relaxation (continued)

- The idea would be to use L^p norm instead of L^∞ (max max)
- relax $r_{x,y}$ to be in $[0, 1]$ (!)

Then, the idea would be to compute (for some $p \geq 1$):

$$\widehat{d}_{\mathcal{GH}}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \inf_R \left(\sum_{\textcolor{red}{x}, \textcolor{blue}{x'}, \textcolor{red}{y}, \textcolor{blue}{y'}} |d_X(\textcolor{red}{x}, \textcolor{blue}{x'}) - d_Y(\textcolor{red}{y}, \textcolor{blue}{y'})|^p r_{\textcolor{red}{x}, \textcolor{red}{y}} r_{\textcolor{blue}{x'}, \textcolor{blue}{y'}} \right)^{1/p}$$

where $R = ((r_{x,y})) \in [0, 1]^{n_X \times n_B}$ s.t.

$$\sum_{x \in X} r_{xy} \geq 1 \quad \forall y \in Y$$

$$\sum_{y \in Y} r_{xy} \geq 1 \quad \forall x \in X$$

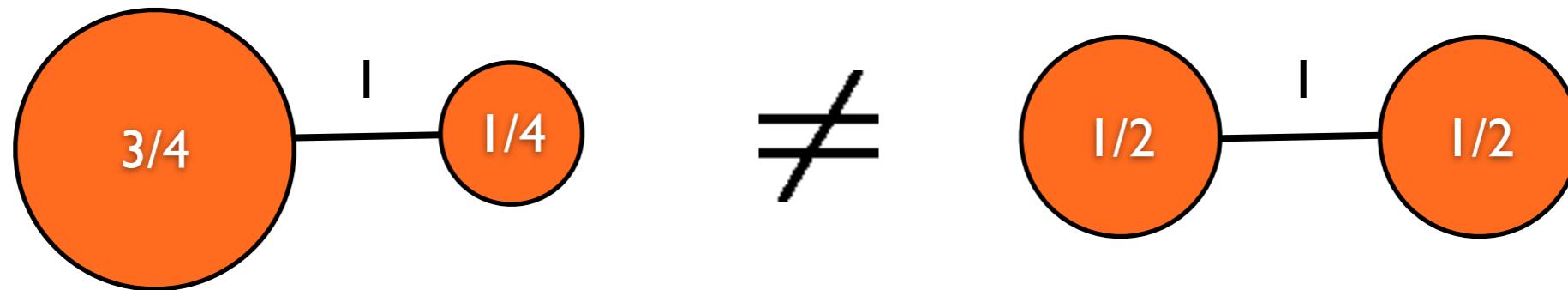
- The resulting problem is a continuous variable QOP with linear constraints, but..
- there is no limit problem.. this discretization cannot be connected to the GH distance.. do those sums converge to sth as number of samples increases?

we need to identify the **correct** relaxation of the GH distance. More precisely, the correct notion of *relaxed correspondence*.

Shapes as mm-spaces, [M07]

- Now we are talking of triples (X, d_X, μ_X) where X is a set, d_X a metric on X and μ_X a probability measure on X .
- These objects are called *measure metric spaces*, or mm-spaces for short.
- two mm-spaces X and Y are deemed *equal* or *isomorphic* whenever there exists an isometry $\Phi : X \rightarrow Y$ s.t. $\mu_Y \circ \Phi = \mu_X$.

$$(X, d_X, \mu_X)$$



We need a new concept Let A and B be sets and μ_A and μ_B be **probability measures** supported in A and B respectively.

Definition [Measure coupling] Is a probability measure μ on $A \times B$ s.t. (in the finite case this means $((\mu_{a,b})) \in [0, 1]^{n_A \times n_B}$) such that:

- $\sum_{a \in A} \mu_{ab} = \mu_B(b) \quad \forall b \in B$
- $\sum_{b \in B} \mu_{ab} = \mu_A(a) \quad \forall a \in A$

Let $\mathcal{M}(\mu_A, \mu_B)$ be the set of all couplings of μ_A and μ_B .

Notice that in the finite case, $((\mu_{a,b}))$ must satisfy $n_A + n_B$ linear constraints.

Correspondence

B						
0	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	0

A

Measure Coupling

μ_B						
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2
0.2	0.2	0.01	0	0	x	x
0.03	x	0	x	0	x	x
x	0	x	0	x	x	0
0.03	0	0.08	0	0	0.09	0
0.04	0	0.01	x	0	x	0

μ_A

L^p Gromov-Hausdorff distances [M07]

Compute (for some $p \geq 1$):

$$d_{\mathcal{GW},p}(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \inf_{\mu} \left(\sum_{x, x', y, y'} |d_X(x, x') - d_Y(y, y')|^p \mu_{x,y} \mu_{x',y'} \right)^{1/p}$$

where $\mu = ((\mu_{x,y})) \in [0, 1]^{n_X \times n_Y}$ s.t.

$$\sum_{x \in X} \mu_{x,y} = \mu_Y(y) \quad \forall y \in Y$$

$$\sum_{y \in Y} \mu_{x,y} = \mu_X(x) \quad \forall x \in X$$

This is a QOP with linear constraints! Also, thanks to concepts from measure theory, there is a continuous counterpart (sampling theory)

Numerical Implementation

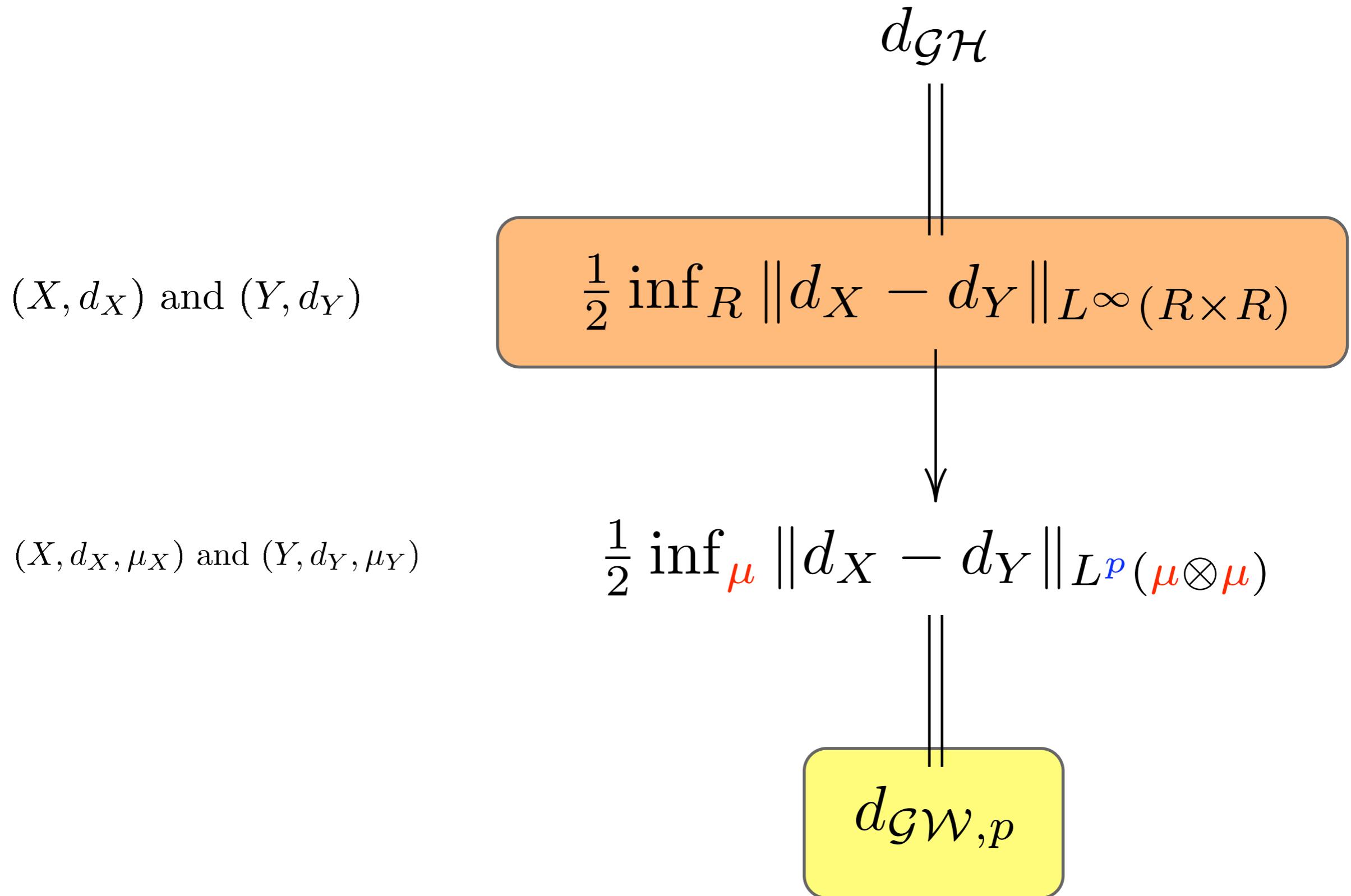
- The numerical implementation of the second option leads to solving a continuous variable **QOP** with linear constraints:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_U \frac{1}{2} U^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma} U \\ \text{s.t. } & U_{ij} \in [0, 1], U\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{b} \end{aligned}$$

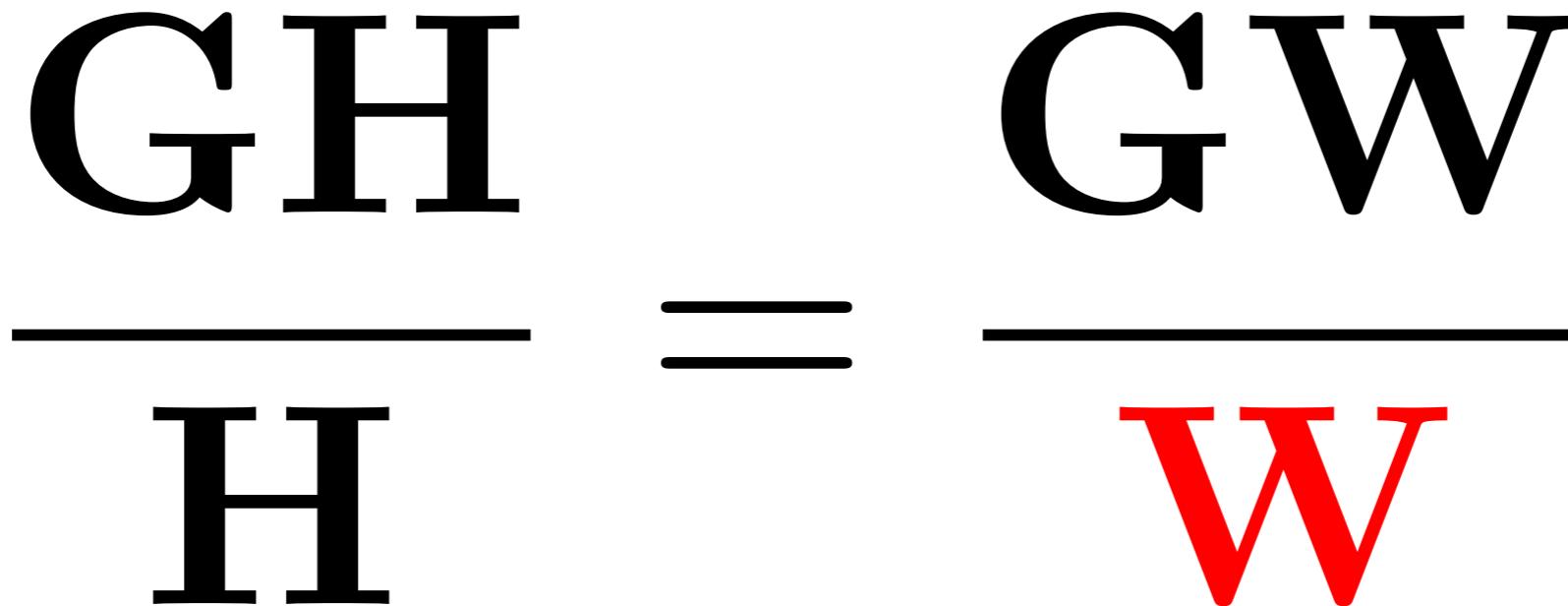
where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n_X \times n_Y}$ is the *unrolled* version of μ , $\boldsymbol{\Gamma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_X \times n_Y \times n_X \times n_Y}$ is the unrolled version of $\Gamma_{X,Y}$ and \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{b} encode the linear constraints $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mu_X, \mu_Y)$.

- This can be approached for example via gradient descent. The QOP is non-convex in general!
- Initialization is done via solving one of the several *lower bounds* (discussed ahead). All these lower bounds lead to solving **LOPs**.

Gromov-Wasserstein distances [M07]



An analogy (why “Gromov-Wasserstein”)



The whole construction of the L^p -GH distance can be seen like in this diagram. It arises by analogy. It uses the **Wasserstein distance** instead of the Hausdorff distance. That's why it is better called **Gromov-Wasserstein** distance.

Underlying ideas are **mass transportation+metric geometry**, see [M07].

Theorem (Properties of the GW distance, [M07]).

1. $d_{\mathcal{GW},p}$ defines a metric on the collection of (isomorphism classes of) mm-spaces.
2. If (Z, d) is a given metric compact space, and ν, ν' two probability measures on Z , then

$$d_{\mathcal{GW},p}((Z, d, \nu), (Z, d, \nu')) \leq d_{\mathcal{W},p}^Z(\nu, \nu').$$

3. If d, d' are two metrics on (Z, ν) , then

$$d_{\mathcal{GW},p}((Z, d, \nu), (Z, d', \nu)) \leq \frac{1}{2} \|d - d'\|_{L^p(\nu \otimes \nu)}.$$

4. Let $Y = \{y\}$, then $d_{\mathcal{GW},p}(X, Y) = \text{diam}_p(X)$. From this and the triangle inequality:

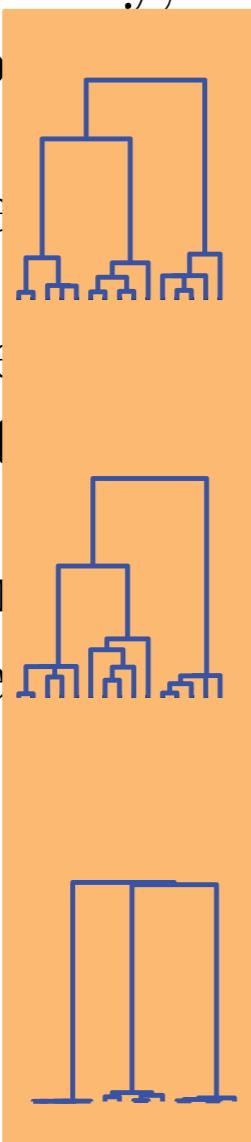
$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\text{diam}_p(X) + \text{diam}_p(Y) \right) \geq d_{\mathcal{GW},p}(X, Y) \geq \frac{1}{2} \left| \text{diam}_p(X) - \text{diam}_p(Y) \right|.$$

5. Let $\{\mathbf{x}_i\} \subset X$ be a set of m random variables $\mathbf{x}_i : \Omega \rightarrow X$ defined on some probability space Ω with law μ_X . Let $\mu_m(\omega, \cdot) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \delta_{\mathbf{x}_i(\omega)}^X$ denote the empirical measure. For each $\omega \in \Omega$ consider the mm-spaces (X, d_X, μ_X) and $(\{\mathbf{x}_i\}, d_X, \mu_m)$, then, for μ_X -almost all $\omega \in \Omega$,

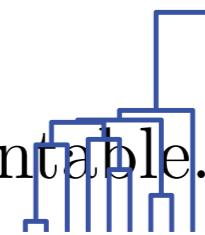
$$(\{\mathbf{x}_i\}, d_X, \mu_m) \xrightarrow{d_{\mathcal{GW},p}} (X, d_X, \mu_X) \text{ as } m \uparrow \infty.$$

Remarks

- Algorithmically, the GW distance can be estimated using standard optimization problems **without changing anything.**
- No adjustments or modifications are necessary: it is directly implementable.
- This implies that one does not need to assume smooth underlying structure as in [MS05,BBK06].
- So, one can apply these ideas to data more general than just shapes, any type of metric space is fine, for example ultrametrics.

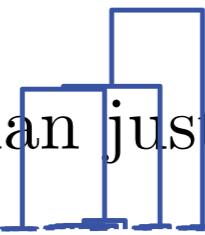
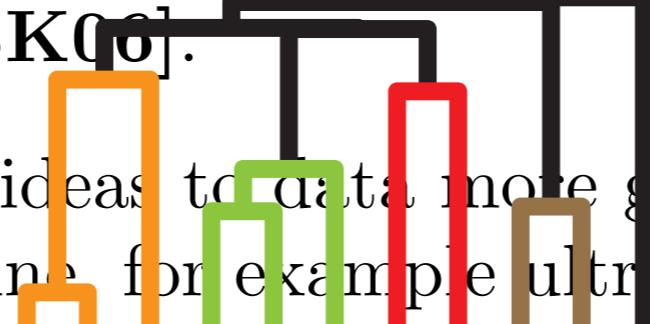


without changing anything.

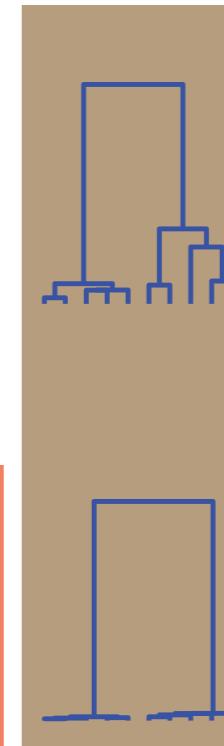
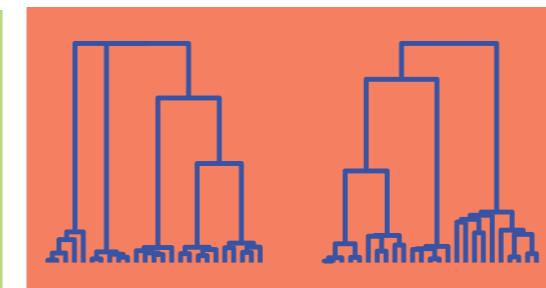
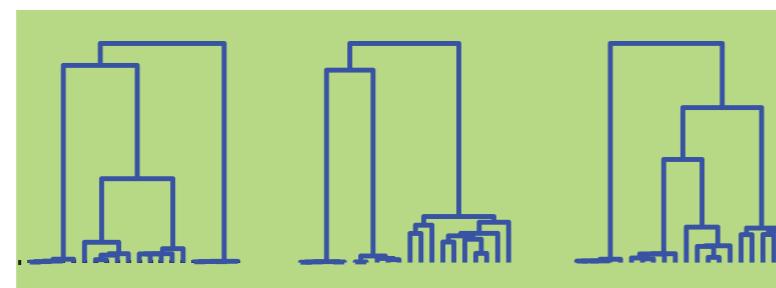
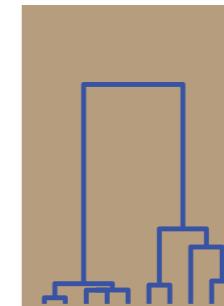


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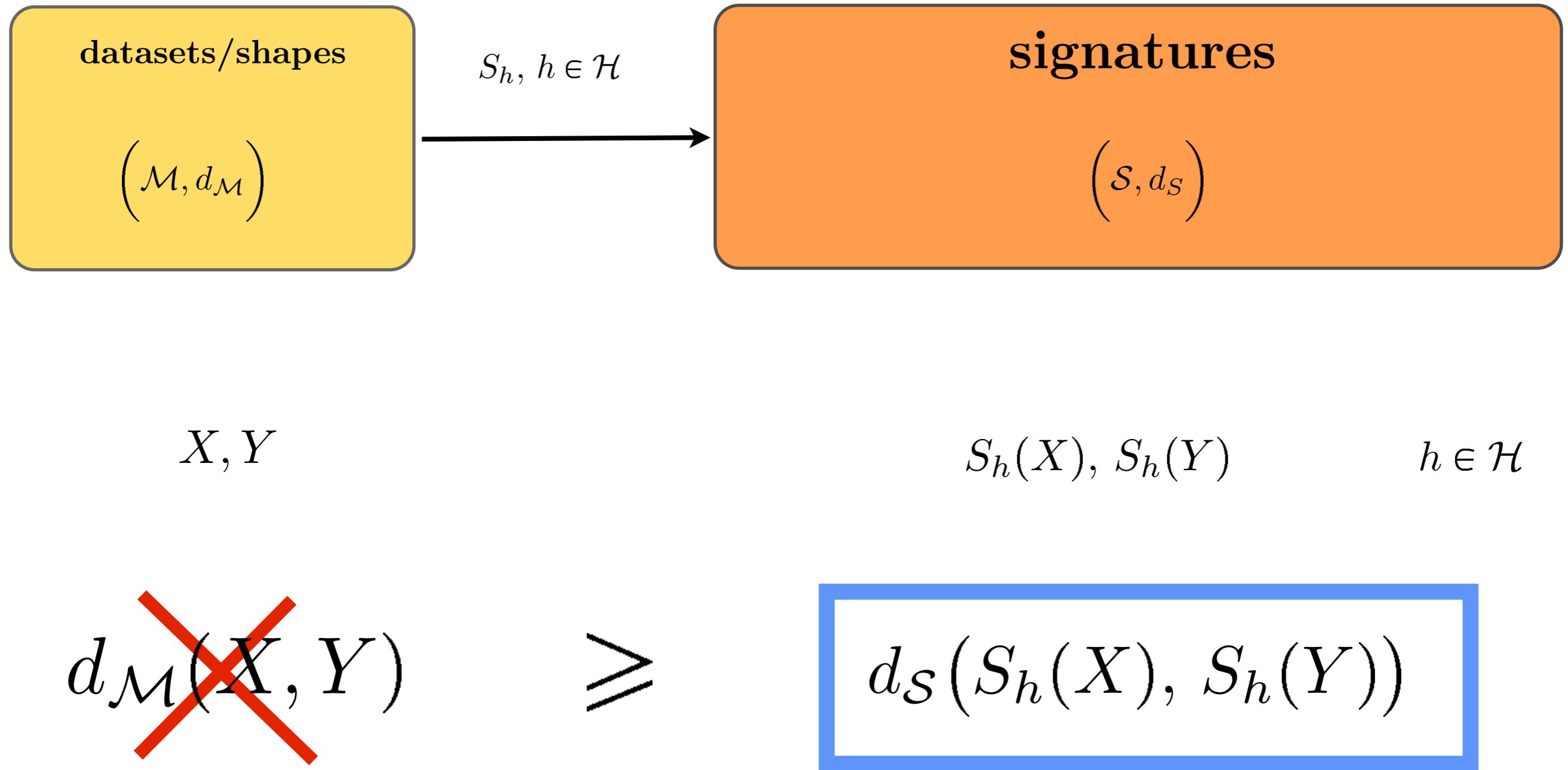
So, one can apply these ideas to data more general than just shapes, any type of metric space is fine, for example ultrametrics.



Connections with other approaches

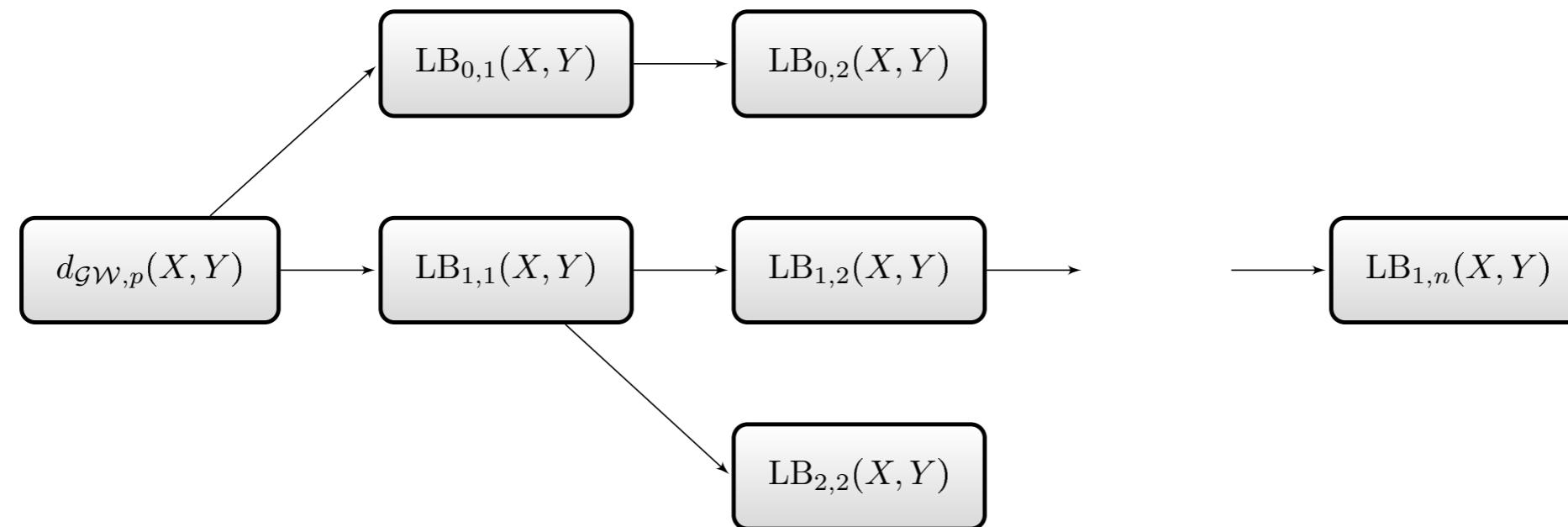
- Shape Distributions [**Osada-et-al**]
- Shape contexts [**SC**]
- Hamza-Krim, Hilaga et al approach [**HK**]
- Rigid isometries invariant Hausdorff [**Goodrich**]
- Gromov-Hausdorff distance [**MS04**] [**MS05**]
- Elad-Kimmel idea [**EK**]
- Topology based methods

- \mathcal{M} : collection of all datasets/shapes (metric spaces).
- \mathcal{S} : collection of all invariants/signatures.



Why am I interested in lower/upper bounds?

- We want to inter-connect different approaches proposed in the literature.
- Knowing interconnections allows for a better understanding of the landscape of different techniques.
- Most methods rely on comparison of signatures.
- Will show that many of the signatures known in the literature are **stable** with respect to the Gromov-Wasserstein distance.
- these lower bounds provide ways of accelerating a potential shape comparison task: layered comparison.



Theorem. Let X and Y be two mm-spaces, then, $d_{\mathcal{GW},p}(X, Y)$ admits as lower bounds:

- Wasserstein distance between distributions of distances of X and Y .
- A solution of an LP that depends on the eccentricities of X and Y .
- A solution of an LP that depends on the local distribution of distances (cumulative shape contexts) of X and Y .

The bound for the H-K approach

Let $p = 1$ for simplicity. For a mm-space (X, d_X, μ_X) let $s_X : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ be given by

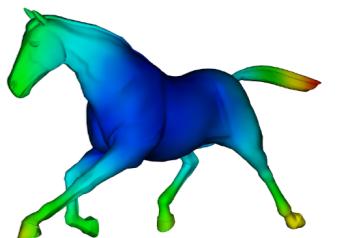
$$x \mapsto \sum_{x' \in X} \mu_X(x') d_X(x, x') \quad (\text{average distance to all other points}).$$

The HK lower bound, denoted by $LB_{HK}(X, Y)$ is defined to be (the mass transportation problem)

$$LB_{HK}(X, Y) := \min_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mu_X, \mu_Y)} \sum_{x,y} \mu(x, y) |s_X(x) - s_Y(y)|.$$

Then, for all mm-spaces X and Y ,

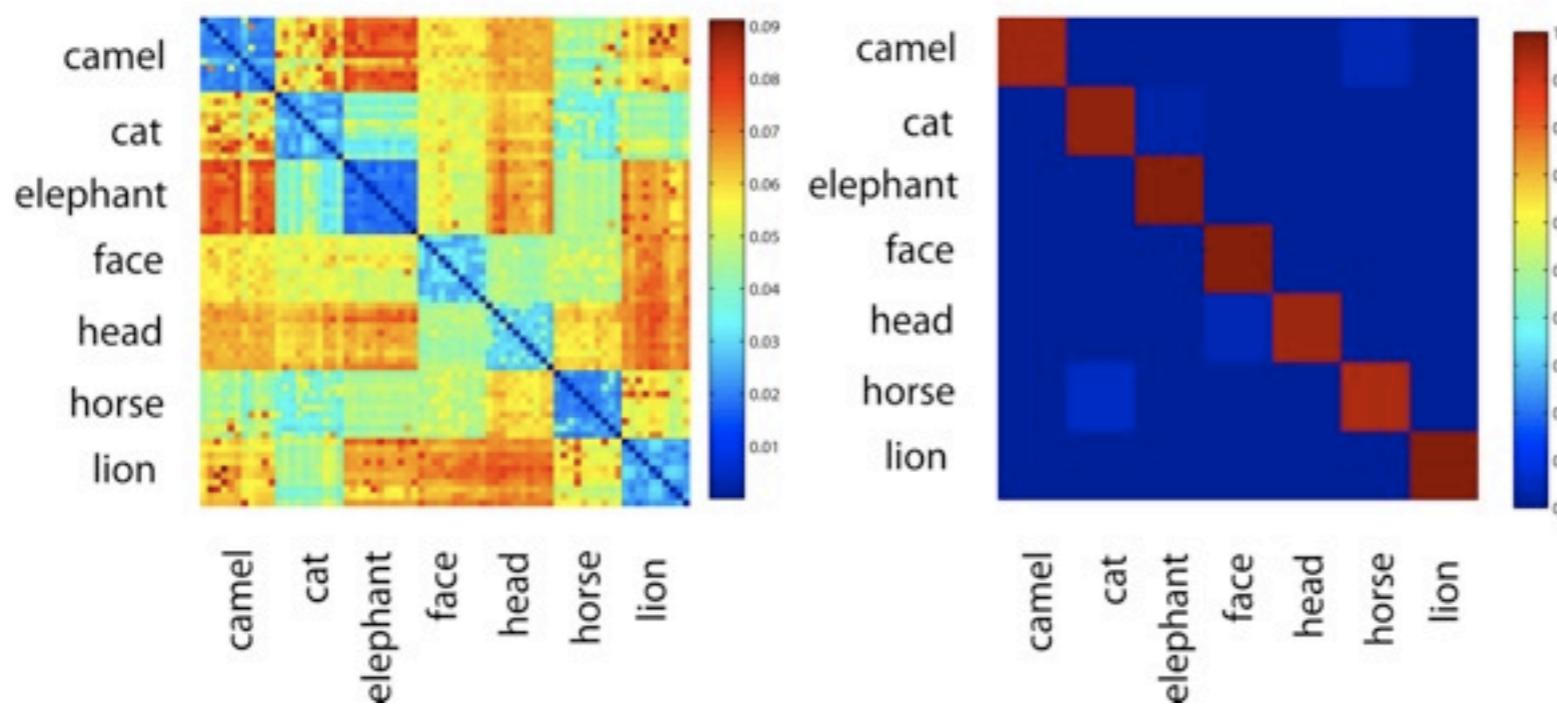
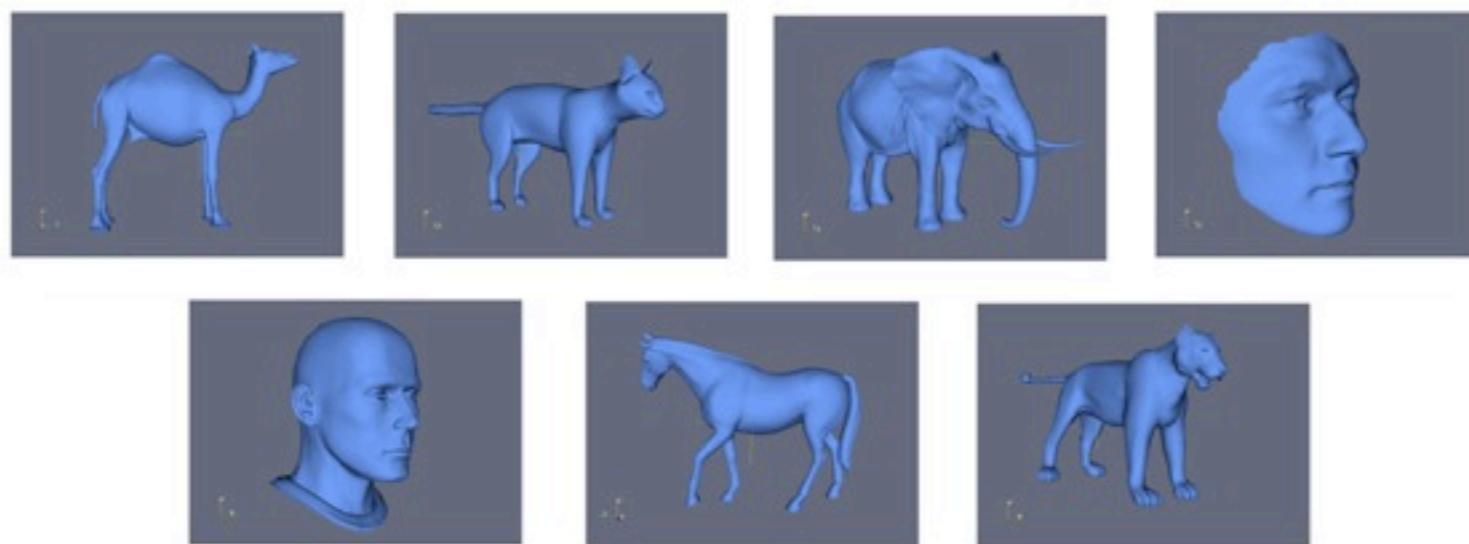
$$\frac{1}{2} LB_{HK}(X, Y) \leq d_{\mathcal{GW},1}(X, Y)$$



Some Experiments



Some experimentation: ~ 70 models in 7 classes. Classification using 1-nn:
 $P_e \sim 2\%$. Hamza-Krim gave $\sim 15\%$ on same db with all same parameters etc.



Some experimentation: ~ 70 models in 7 classes. Classification using 1-nn: $P_e \sim 2\%$. Hamza-Krim gave $\sim 15\%$ on same db with all same parameters etc.

Discussion

*Identifying a notion of **distance/metric** between shapes is useful/important.*

- When will you say that two shapes are the same? This is the zero of your distance between shapes.
- Having a true metric on the space of shapes permits proving *stability* and having a *sampling theory*.
- Understand hierarchy of lower/upper bounds. When is a particular LB better than another? study highly symmetrical shapes.
- Other developments: analysis of spectral methods, persistent topology invariants (Frosini et al).

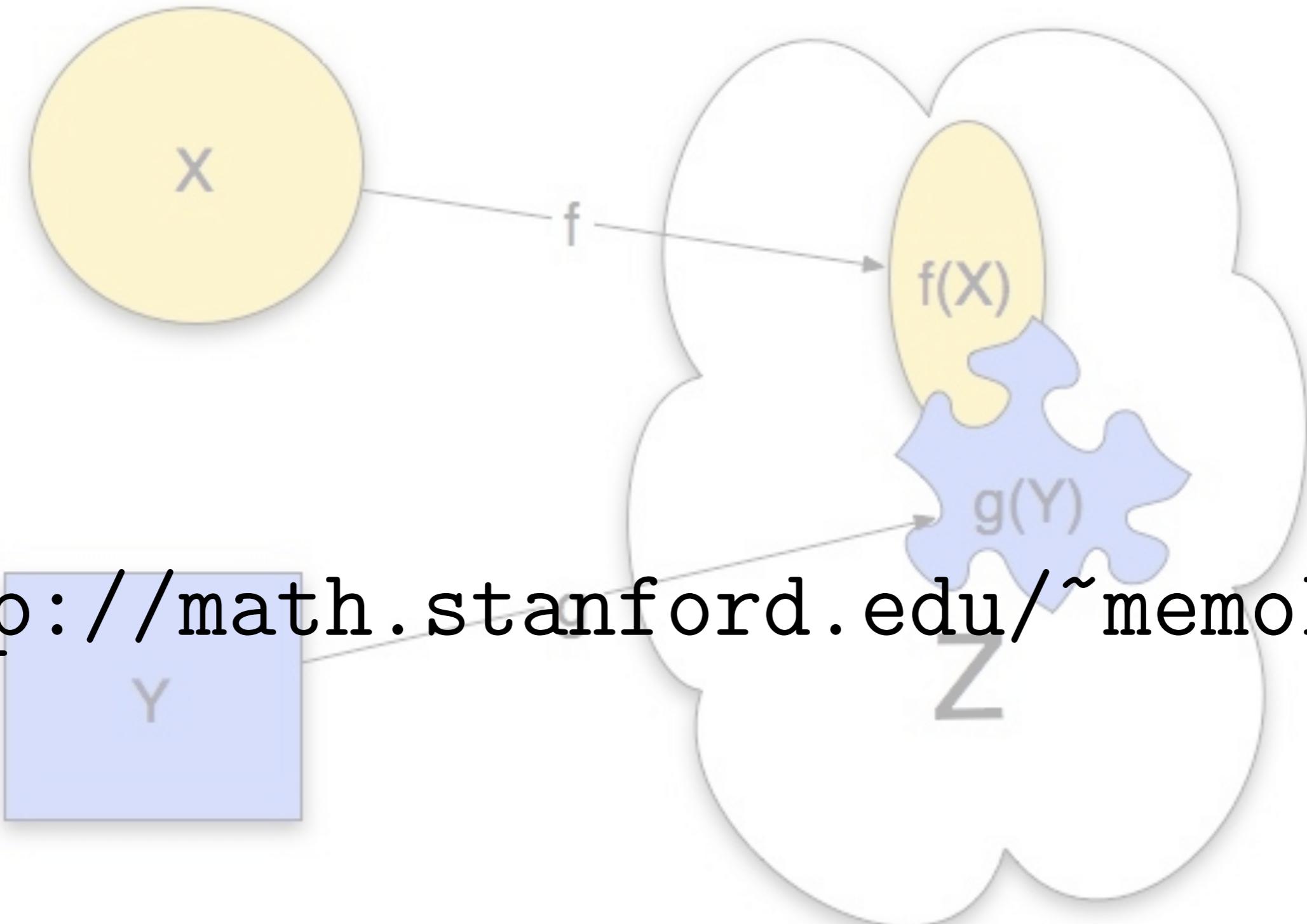
Discussion

- Implementation is easy: gradient descent or alternate optimization.
- Solving lower bounds yields seed for gradient descent. Lower bounds are compatible with the metric in the sense that a layered recognition system is possible: given two shapes (1) solve for a LB (this gives you a μ), if LB value is small enough, then (2) solve for GW using the μ as seed.
- natural extension to partial matching.
- Interest in relating GH/GW ideas to other methods in the literature. Inter-relating methods is important for applications: when confronted with N methods, how do they compare to each other? which one is better for the situation at hand?
- Latest developments:
 - Partial matching [**M10-partial**].
 - Euclidean case [**M08-Euclidean**].
 - Persistent topology [**dgh-topo-pers-09**].
 - Spectral GW distance [**M09-dgw-spec**].
- No difference between continuous and discrete. Probability measures handle the "transition".

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