# Mesh Alignment using Grid based PCA 

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

It is often useful to compare two meshes, point clouds, or a mixture of the two. For example, in shape recognition one might compare two meshes or two point clouds asking whether they belong to the same category.

The comparison of two meshes usually starts with their alignment. It should be noted that the exact way in which two meshes are best aligned is not clearly defined. In fact, the best alignment can be applicationdependent, and mesh alignment should be seen as an ill-posed problem. Nevertheless, a good alignment algorithm is expected to be able to align a mesh with a version of it that has undergone common mesh processing operations such as smoothing, simplification or remeshing.

Alignment is typically done by computing a translation, a scaling and a rotation, which are then applied to one of the meshes to align it with the other. The computation of the translation is usually done by aligning barycentres, while the scaling is done by aligning bounding boxes or bounding spheres (Sfikas et al., 2014). Translation and scaling are both considered less challenging to compute than the rotation, which is the focus of this paper. In some fields such as medical imaging, the registration process requires more than this simple pose normalisation, for instance, an alignment between certain parts of the two models (Postelnicu et al., 2009).

The simplest and most widely used method for the rotational alignment of two meshes aligns the principal axes of the mesh vertex sets. Despite its popularity, it is well documented that in demanding appli-
cations such as shape recognition the results of this alignment method may not be satisfactory, especially in the case when the mesh undergoes processing that potentially disturbs the distribution of mesh vertices such as simplification and remeshing.

One way around this problem is to voxelise the mesh and then apply an alignment algorithm for volumetric data. However, such a method can be computationally demanding, and the cost of the voxelisation cannot be fully justified if it is used for mesh alignment only. A second approach would be to apply PCA not on the mesh vertex set but on a more uniform point set produced by a mesh sampling method. However, such a method would depend on the quality of the triangulation and for example, a large number of long thin triangles in the mesh could cause problems.

Here, we propose a solution in between the above two approaches, that is, a sampling method which, without being a fully volumetric method, is based on creating a subset of the nodes of a regular grid and then performing PCA on that point set.

### 1.1 Contribution

We present a deterministic, fully automatic method for mesh alignment based on performing PCA on a point sample on a regular grid. The algorithm can also process point clouds as inputs, allowing point clouds to be aligned with meshes, or two point clouds to be aligned. However, when connectivity exists, it is used to increase the robustness of the usual PCA on the mesh vertex set, which can be problematic when, for instance, the mesh vertex set is very sparse.

### 1.2 Limitations

The main limitation of the algorithm is that since PCA is applied to a subset of the nodes of a relatively coarse grid, the method is less accurate than the usual PCA on mesh vertices when the two meshes are identical or almost identical. In a sense, this larger error is a trade-off for the increased robustness and our experiments show that it is in a range that in most applications would be considered tolerable.

Since the method is underpinned by PCA, it is not particularly well suited for inputs that have high levels of rotational symmetry. Finally, since the algorithm is highly geometric in nature, it could be challenging to adapt to incorporate non-geometric primitives such as colour (Roy et al., 2004).

## 2 RELATED WORK

Most of the work on mesh alignment focuses on and enhances the Iterative Closest Point (ICP) algorithm, which takes a set of points common to both input meshes and iteratively rotates the mesh until the common points are aligned as closely as possible. A variety of modifications and enhancements to the original ICP algorithm have been developed and studied; to make it geometrically stable (Gelfand and Rusinkiewicz, 2003), and to make it work with approximate nearest neighbouring points or with added noise (Maier-Hein et al., 2010). Other ICP based methods require an explicitly defined initial guess, which prevents the method being used in a completely automated manner (Besl and McKay, 1992).

Due to the variants of the ICP algorithms requiring subset inputs, and possibly some manual intervention, they are not directly comparable to the algorithm presented here. In reality, many practitioners use PCA directly on the vertices of the input meshes in order to provide an alignment that is good enough to work with. PCA is a robust statistical method that is used extensively for non-geometric problems requiring dimensionality reduction. It is also efficient, since it is essentially a quadratic optimisation problem based on variance maximisation. A technique that is similar in spirit, called Independent Component Analysis (ICA) (Hyvärinen et al., 2001), is based on quartic optimisation and has been used for 3D object recognition (Sahambi and Khorasani, 2003).

Despite its popularity, PCA has been reported to perform poorly when aligning meshes for 3D model recognition and this has been cited as motivation for developing rotationally invariant mesh descriptors (Kazhdan et al., 2003). Nevertheless, several
important shape descriptors, such as (Cantoni et al., 2013), shape histograms (Ankerst et al., 1999) and descriptors based on higher order moments (Elad et al., 2002), are not rotationally invariant and thus require alignment. Extensions to PCA to overcome its shortcomings include PCA performed on the normals of a surface (Papadakis et al., 2007), and a continuous version of PCA applied to whole mesh triangles rather than just their vertices (Vranic et al., 2001). The latter is independent from the distribution of vertices within the mesh and thus, overcomes some of the limitations of PCA the same way the method proposed here does. However, it requires a triangle mesh as input and has no obvious extensions to point clouds.

In our implementation, we used the Point Cloud Library (Rusu and Cousins, 2011) for PCA and MeshLab (Cignoni et al., 2008) for the various geometric operations we performed as part of our testing; smoothing, simplification, adding noise and remeshing.

## 3 ALIGNMENT ALGORITHM

We begin with two meshes ( $A$ and $B$ ), assuming that mesh $B$ has been obtained from mesh $A$ after a rotation by an unknown angle around an unknown axis and that some mesh processing operation may have been applied to $B$. Each mesh is centred on the origin as a preprocessing step. The translation can be stored and the reverse operation applied at the end of the procedure. The basic alignment algorithm first creates a regular grid around each mesh, then computes the subset of the grid nodes that are near to the mesh, and finally applies PCA to this subset of nodes.

### 3.1 The Basic Algorithm

For each mesh $M$, we first create a regular 3D lattice, $L_{M}$, around the mesh $M$. The dimension of the grid is given by the user and trades-off the speed of the algorithm against the accuracy of the alignment. We then cycle through all the faces in $M$, and perform the following for each face $f \in M$ :

- Calculate the smallest rectangular subgrid, $P_{f}$ in $L_{M}$ that completely contains $f$.
- To increase robustness, $P_{f}$ is expanded by one node in each direction along each axis, for example, a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ subgrid becomes $4 \times 4 \times 5$.
- For each lattice node, $n \in P_{f}$, determine the shortest distance from $n$ to $f$.
- If the distance from $n$ to $f$ is less than 2 times the edge of a grid cell, export the node to list $I_{M}$ (the


Figure 1: Left: the black nodes are the smallest subgrid that completely contains the red face. Centre: the smallest subgrid is extended to decrease discontinuities. Right: the nodes highlighted in green are the imprint of the red face on the lattice.


Figure 2: Left, solid: eigenbasis of mesh A. Centre, dashed: eigenbasis of mesh $B$. Right, dotted: eigenbasis of mesh $B^{\prime}$.

'imprint' of the mesh $M$ on the lattice).
For each mesh imprint (from Figure 1; the collection of green nodes from every face in the mesh), we perform PCA on the nodes' coordinates and sort the output eigenvectors in decreasing order of eigenvalue magnitude. Note that a more sophisticated implementation of the algorithm would apply a weighted PCA, with the weight of each node derived from its distances to the mesh triangles that pushed it in $I_{M}$. However, we have found experimentally that this would not have a significant effect on the results and thus, we opted for the much simpler unweighted PCA.

Between the two eigenbases (one for each mesh), pairs of eigenvectors are formed based on them having the largest, middle, or smallest eigenvalue magnitude (blue, green, and red correspondingly in Figure 2). Since PCA does not provide oriented principal components, we have to ensure that the two eigenbases are consistently oriented. Where an inconsistent orientation was detected, as we discuss in Section 3.3, the sign of the eigenvector with the smallest eigenvalue was flipped in one of the meshes.

For the actual mesh alignment, we start with the first pair of principal components, $a_{1}, b_{1}$, (those with the largest eigenvalues; blue). The rotation aligning $a_{1}$ with $b_{1}$ (blue) is computed and applied to mesh $B$ to produce mesh $B^{\prime}$. Lattice imprinting and PCA is then performed on $B^{\prime}$. The rotation around $a_{1}$ (or, equivalently at this point, $b_{1}$ ) aligning $a_{2}$ with $b_{2}^{\prime}$ (green) is then computed and applied to $B^{\prime}$ to produce a mesh $B^{\prime \prime}$ which is in alignment with $A$.

Note that it would have been possible to work out both rotations (or even, a single rotation) from the initial PCA, however this is likely to be less accurate, as the imprints of the meshes $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are different. Instead, by imprinting for a second time, the alignment of the second eigenvector uses a dataset that is closer to $B^{\prime}$.

### 3.2 Iterative Algorithm

The basic algorithm can be repeated on mesh $A$ and the mesh $B^{\prime \prime}$ (which has been aligned with $A$ ). The procedure usually leads to a closer alignment, but the decrease is not monotonic, and in some cases it could even lead to poorer alignment.

We believe that the reason for the non-monotonic decrease is the discrete nature of the grid relative to the mesh itself, which means that even a tiny rotation, which can change the position of any mesh vertex by no more than an arbitrary small distance $\varepsilon$, may nevertheless change the position of a grid node marked for processing by a distance equal to the edge of a grid cell.

### 3.3 Eigenvector Orientation

In order for the method to work, the principal components of meshes $A$ and $B$ must be consistently oriented. However, PCA does not define a consistent orientation. In order to align the two principal components $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ consistently we evaluated a sum of distances function on the two extreme mesh vertex projections on the principal axis. For each of these points, the distance to every data point was summed. Then the principal axis was oriented in the direction of the point with the largest associated sum.

Consistent orientation of principal components is a particularly challenging problem. In our experiments we noticed instances where the method was not successful, causing large deviations (approximately $\pi$ radians) from the true alignment.

### 3.4 Input Types

The algorithm can, with minimal alteration, be used to align a mesh with a point cloud, or even to align two point clouds. Each point in the cloud is simply interpreted as a face with zero area. Here, the benefit of using the lattice instead of performing PCA directly on the point cloud is the increased robustness of the calculations due to the external reference. Which allows, for example, the alignment of a point cloud and a simplified version thereof.

Table 1: Mean errors (in degrees) when recovering angles from a set of known rotations.

| Mesh | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | 0.45407 | 0.00648 |
| Armadillo | 0.18480 | 0.01150 |
| Fandisk | 1.11274 | 0.00075 |
| Blade | 0.93554 | 0.00650 |
| Statuette | 5.62708 | 0.01968 |

Figure 3: Standard Armadillo results. Left: initial rotation, middle: original, unrotated mesh, right: four iterations.

When working with a point cloud, the same procedure would be followed, but treating each point as a face with no area, so the initial containing subgrid ( $P_{f}$ above) would always be a single cube, which would become a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ subgrid after expansion.

## 4 RESULTS

In the first experiment, each mesh had its principal components computed by mesh imprinting and was rotated by a known angle around the largest principle component. The proposed algorithm was then used to recover the rotation angle. This was then repeated using vertex PCA and the results were compared. The results are summarised in Table 1.

Since mesh alignment is an ill-posed problem, in a second experiment we evaluated the visual relevance of the reported errors by rotating the test meshes by an unknown angle around an unknown axis. The algorithm was used to bring them back into alignment. The results for the Armadillo and Statuette, with the smallest and largest mean error respectively, are shown in Figures 3-4.

### 4.1 Robustness against Mesh Processing Operations

Smoothed versions of the models were obtained by applying three iterations of Laplacian smoothing. Simplified versions were obtained by using clustering decimation with a cell size of $1 \%$ of the diagonal of the bounding box. The decimation results are shown


Figure 4: Standard Statuette results. Left: initial rotation, middle: original, unrotated mesh, right: four iterations.

Table 2: Number of faces in the original and decimated meshes.

in Table 2. Noisy meshes were obtained by randomly displacing vertices by $1 \%$ of the bounding diagonal. Finally, for remeshed models, surfaces were reconstructed using the Poisson method (Kazhdan et al., 2006) with 10 octree subdivisions.

The algorithms were then run against the each mesh and the processed variants thereof. For each method, the angular deviation between corresponding principal components of the original and the processed mesh were computed. The results are summarised in Tables 3-6.

The proposed algorithm performed well on the remeshed and simplified variants, but the noisy and

Table 3: Average deviation of principal components (in radians) when models were remeshed.

| Remeshed | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | 0.020450 | 0.044197 |
| Fandisk | 0.008237 | 0.008643 |
| Armadillo | 0.003517 | 0.014637 |
| Blade | 0.001020 | 0.018607 |
| Statuette | 0.063070 | 0.264650 |

Table 4: Average deviation of principal components (in radians) when models were simplified.

| Simplified | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | 0.008457 | 0.031510 |
| Fandisk | 0.024567 | 0.116733 |
| Armadillo | 0.002427 | 0.007957 |
| Blade | 0.005060 | 0.008093 |
| Statuette | 0.017803 | 0.300917 |

Table 5: Average deviation of principal components (in radians) when mesh vertices had noise added.

| Noisy | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | 0.001363 | 0.000333 |
| Fandisk | 0.000047 | 0.000240 |
| Armadillo | 0.000563 | 0.000757 |
| Blade | 0.000753 | 0.000357 |
| Statuette | 0.004997 | 0.000267 |

Table 6: Average deviation of principal components (in radians) when meshes were simplified.

| Smoothed | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | 0.012873 | 0.000170 |
| Fandisk | 0.006650 | 0.000080 |
| Armadillo | 0.003757 | 0.000800 |
| Blade | 0.000270 | 0.000107 |
| Statuette | 0.001483 | 0.000000 |

smoothed variants were better served by vertex PCA. This is in line with our expectations as remeshing and simplification are likely to have a larger impact on vertex distribution than uniformly applied noise and smoothing.

### 4.2 Iterative Algorithm

The performance of the iterative algorithm is shown in Figures 5 and 6. We notice that generally, the iterative algorithm has improved accuracy in each successive iteration and that most of the improvement materialises in the first three or four iterations.

Of particular note are the simplified Fandisk results in Figure 5. Whilst Vertex PCA appears to instantly converge to a highly accurate result, in reality this was a very poor alignment - the simplified Fandisk had many large, thin triangles. This significantly altered the distribution of vertices in the mesh and makes the comparison of the two sets of principal components invalid. The Mesh Imprint results on the simplified mesh are a true representation of the alignment, as are the Vertex PCA results for the standard and smoothed Fandisk.

### 4.3 CAD Meshes

The proposed method is particularly well suited for CAD meshes that have undergone mesh processing operations. The Room 215 model shown in Figure 7 is a hand-made replica of an office created using CAD software, it has 171,711 faces and significant variance in vertex density. For instance, large areas of walls are represented by huge triangles, but tiny triangles are used to pick out the detail and high-curvature of the radiator grills and chairs. The simplified form has


Armadillo Methods


Fandisk Methods


Figure 5: Mean angular deviation plotted against number of iterations for the Bunny, Armadillo and Fandisk.


Figure 6: Mean angular deviation plotted against number of iterations for the Blade and Statuette.


Figure 7: Wireframe view of the Room 215 model. Areas of high curvature have more triangles and appear as solid colours.


Figure 8: Wireframe view of the original House model and its remeshed form.

16,080 faces.
When the principal components of each were computed and compared, Mesh Imprinting proved very effective, with a maximum deviation of 0.0086 radians across all principal components, compared to a minimum deviation of 0.11 radians for vertex PCA.

The same test was run against a simple house model and a remeshed form thereof shown in Figure 8. The original mesh had 1,396 faces, the remeshed model had 98,818 . The maximum deviation between the standard house and the remeshed form thereof was 0.075 radians. Vertex PCA had a minimum deviation of 0.12 .

The model/dressed models in Figure 9 are a pair of models that both depict a human figure. This figure is nude in the regular model, but has long hair and is wearing bulky/baggy clothes in the second. Both were analysed and had their principal components compared. The computation was reasonably stable for both models, showing only small deviations between the two meshes, but with up to five times smaller deviations being produced by the mesh imprint. The maximum deviation between principal components computed by imprinting was 0.0022 radians, and the minimum computed by vertex PCA was 0.012 .

This is not too surprising, as the two figures have the same pose and the changes from the regular model


Figure 9: Model/dressed model.
Table 7: Mean angular deviations (in radians) between the simplified and standard Room215, standard and remeshed House, and standard and dressed Model.

| Mesh | Mesh Imprint | Vertex PCA |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Room 215 | 0.00647 | 0.11853 |
| House | 0.06064 | 0.20983 |
| Model | 0.00331 | 0.01230 |

to the dressed model are relatively rotationally symmetric between the two minor principal components. The largest principal component is along the height of the model, and the proportions do not change sufficiently to make much difference to this.

### 4.4 Effect of Resolution

We experimented on grids at $10 \%, 50 \%, 100 \%$, and $150 \%$ of their original size. The initial size ( $100 \%$ ) of each grid is shown in Table 8. In addition to the meshes used earlier, the Sphere and Vase models (Figure 10) were also used.

Predictably, lower-resolution analyses usually produced alignments that were not so accurate as higher-resolution analyses. However for the Bunny and Armadillo models the $150 \%$ resolution alignments were actually slightly less accurate than the $100 \%$ resolution analyses.

The Vase, Sphere and Statuette all highlighted a limitation of the eigenvector orientation method; they produced inaccurate results as one principal compo-

Table 8: Initial grid sizes.

| Mesh | Volume |
| :---: | :---: |
| Bunny | $78 \times 77 \times 60$ |
| Armadillo | $127 \times 151 \times 115$ |
| Fandisk | $121 \times 131 \times 67$ |
| Blade | $352 \times 598 \times 274$ |
| Statuette | $235 \times 396 \times 203$ |
| Sphere | $105 \times 108 \times 105$ |
| Vase | $55 \times 101 \times 55$ |



Figure 10: Sphere and Vase.
nent was incorrectly aligned. This occurs when the input meshes have high levels of rotational symmetry. When run at an appropriate resolution the algorithm correctly orients the principal components, leading to a successful alignment. However there appears to be no universally optimal resolution for the lattice in this regard.

## 5 DISCUSSION

The implementation of each algorithm was not optimised due to the wide variety of different techniques and circumstances under which each is possible and appropriate.

Our implementations took the simple approach of reading the full file from the hard drive, processing the data entirely in memory, and writing the output back to the hard drive in a single execution thread. While processing large meshes can require large amounts of memory due to the sheer number of points that must be processed, our method (by virtue of performing PCA on fewer points) will naturally have a smaller memory footprint. Memory could also be saved by running the proposed algorithm in a layered fashion, as proposed in (Kaye and Ivrissimtzis, 2011).

Since the proposed method aligned the meshes on a relatively coarse regular grids, the loss of accuracy compared to direct vertex PCA was noticeable, but was inside a range that would be considered tolerable in most applications, that is, around one degree if there were no problems caused by the rotational symmetry of the meshes, or by wrongly oriented eigenvectors. Note that these problems are common to both the proposed method and standard PCA on mesh vertices.

Mesh Imprinting shows its strengths when original inputs are poorly meshed, for instance, if they have many long, thin triangles, or an uneven distribution thereof. While long thin triangles are very rare in meshes that are acquired through physical optical devices such as laser scanners, they often dominate meshes produced by CAD software. In such cases, simplification and remeshing significantly affect the distribution of the vertices, causing Vertex PCA to produce highly inaccurate alignments.

In the future we plan a systematic analysis of the error of the standard PCA caused by vertex quantisation. Indeed, the small alignment error produced by our method is essentially a vertex coordinate quantisation error, which anyway may be present in the vertex coordinates, if for example the mesh had undergone lossy compression. By showing, as we conjecture, that the alignment error of our method and the vertex PCA error caused by vertex coordinate quantisation are comparable, we will further justify our approach.

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