

Dense Point-to-Point Correspondences Between Genus-Zero Shapes Using Cubic Mapping and Horn-Schunck Optical Flow

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Abstract: Establishing correspondences is a fundamental and essential task in computer graphics for further processing of shapes. We have proposed an important modification to an existing method to remove several large matching errors in specific regions. The method uses the unit sphere and the regular spherical grid as parameterization spaces to perform registration and obtain the matching map between two three-dimensional genus-zero shapes, considering non-rigid and non-isometric deformations. Although the unit sphere is a suitable parameterization space for rigid alignment, mapping the sphere to a regular spherical grid for non-rigid registration makes the process unstable since it is not a distance-preserving projection. Therefore, it produces large detachments on the grid and for several regions. Replacing the regular spherical grid mapping with Cubic mapping results in smooth displacement and locality for all corresponding vertices on each cube face. Due to our enhancement, the Optical Flow faces a smooth flow field in the non-rigid registration process. Our modification results in the elimination of matches with significant normalized geodesic error and an increase in the accuracy of the correspondence map, compared to the base method and other recently published approaches.

1 INTRODUCTION

Finding the correspondence map between two meshes is an essential initializing task for further processing of the shapes, such as building a Statistical Shape Model (SSM), Shape Reconstruction, Shape Analysis, etc. (Sahillioğlu, 2019). For building an SSM of the shape of interest, correspondences should be established for all shapes within the dataset (Cootes et al., 1995), and to have an accurate SSM, we need to establish correct correspondences (Davies et al., 2002). Thus, matching errors on the correspondence map should be removed or decreased. If the matched vertices do not represent anatomically equivalent regions on source and target shapes (e.g., matching the left foot to the right foot in matching human shapes as depicted in Figure 1a), the result of the SSM and its variability will be exaggerated (Davies et al., 2002), leading the application toward unexpected results. The task becomes more complex as shapes go from 2D to 3D, and the transformation goes from rigid to non-rigid and from isometric to non-isometric (Sahillioğlu, 2019). In addition, it is a challenging

process since shapes' local and global information should be considered (Sahillioğlu, 2019). Since most real shapes tend to have non-rigid and non-isometric deformations, matching such shapes has become an interesting and expanding topic in computer vision.

Multiple surveys represent recent advances in establishing correspondences (Sahillioğlu, 2019; Li et al., 2014; Tam et al., 2012). The author (Sahillioğlu, 2019) has presented a classification of recent methods based on the density of the

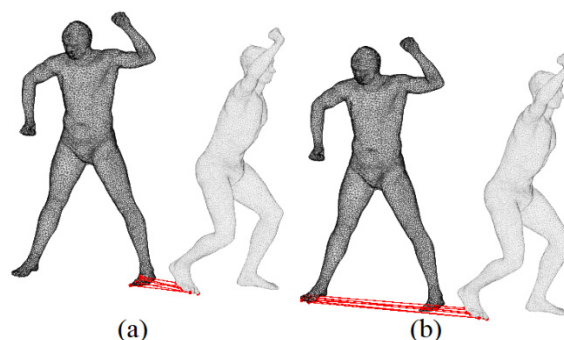


Figure 1: (a) Several erroneous matchings in a region by a matching algorithm (Lee et al., 2019); (b) ground truth.

correspondences, deformation types, solution approaches, etc. Regarding the solution approaches, the first category is Similarity-based solutions (Ovsjanikov et al., 2012; Nogneng et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2018; Gehre et al., 2018; Melzi et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2021; Vestner et al., 2017) in which geometric invariants descriptors are computed and matched. These sophisticated descriptors need to handle different geometric aspects of the shapes, e.g., rigid alignments, scaling, etc. The other approaches are Registration-based methods (Eisenberger et al., 2020; Eisenberger et al., 2019; Cosmo et al., 2019; Dyke et al., 2019; Melzi et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2019). These techniques register shapes under a deformation field or project them into a common intermediate domain and perform the registration in the parameterization space. The significant advantage of these approaches is that they generate one-to-one, very dense, and continuous correspondence maps (Huang et al., 2020). Although parametrizing the shapes, results in higher computational complexity than similarity-based methods (Sahillioğlu, 2019), it can help tackle some challenges in parametrization spaces. Removing the scale of shapes by mapping them to unit disks (Sahillioğlu, 2019), handling the rigid registration easier by mapping shapes into spheres (Lee et al., 2019), using intrinsic and extrinsic information to handle local and global deformations (Eisenberger et al., 2020) and matching the shapes using functional maps (Melzi et al., 2018) are examples of parameterization done in the literature. (Eisenberger et al., 2020) use an intermediate product space that includes shapes' intrinsic and extrinsic information and perform the registration process fused with functional maps. Intrinsic information is invariant to large-scale deformations, and extrinsic features handle local topological changes. So, rigid alignment is implicitly considered. Although they have suggested that their initial pose determination using Markov Chain Monte Carlo provides reasonable estimation in many cases, the results show that initialization still can go wrong for large deformations, affecting the matching results. (Eisenberger et al., 2019) utilize the Karhunen-Loève expansion to compute divergence-free deformation fields. This property makes the registration applicable to shapes with almost the same volume, which is a drawback for a general matching algorithm. (Cosmo et al., 2019) have used the Laplacian spectrum to deform shapes. The method works on shapes from different categories (e.g., matching horses to camels) having the same initial pose only. (Dyke et al., 2019) add anisotropic

deformations to a non-rigid registration process to handle the non-isometric deformations accurately. Although they handle large-scale deformations, the initialization of the method is based on their local feature descriptor, and poor initial matches mislead the registration process entirely. In (Melzi et al., 2019), iterative up-sampling is used in the spectral domain to refine the functional map results. The functional map initialization implicitly considers the shapes' initial pose. Unit spheres and regular spherical grids are incorporated to match two genus-zero shapes (Lee et al., 2019). Learning-based approaches are also used for finding the correspondences on shapes. However, they take longer processing time in the training stage rather than processing the shapes directly (Sahillioğlu, 2019) and need the availability of large datasets.

For building an SSM, it is critical that the corresponding landmarks are sufficiently dense and smoothly continuous (Munsell et al., 2008). As stated, registration-based methods represent dense and continuous correspondences on shapes (Huang et al., 2020).

(Lee et al., 2019) have used the unit sphere as the intermediate domain since it is a suitable parameterization space for explicitly handling scale and rigid transformation. In addition, significant differences in the initial pose can be handled on the unit sphere. Figure 2 elaborates steps of their framework resulting in matching between two cat shapes (Figure 2a). First, shapes are converted into unit spheres (Figure 2b) using Conformalized Mean Curvature Flow (CMCF) (Kazhdan et al., 2012). Spheres are then processed by Authalic Evolution (AE) (Zou et al., 2011) to make the area of the mesh triangles as equal as possible (Figure 2c). Heat Kernel Signature (HKS) (Sun et al., 2009) is calculated on the shape domain and is pulled back to the sphere (Figure 2d). It extracts features of the shapes that are used in rigid and non-rigid registration steps. Rotational alignment is applied (Figure 2e) to align the spheres as much as possible by maximizing the correlation on $SO(3)$ (Baden et al., 2018). Finally, for the non-rigid registration step, the spheres are moved into an equirectangular spherical grid (Figure 2f) with multiple resolutions, simulating the hierarchy structure of the Optical Flow process (Prada et al., 2016). After applying the Optical Flow on hierarchical planar grids, the flow field is pulled back into spheres, and vertices of the source sphere are moved to their corresponding coordinates on the target sphere accordingly (Figure 2g). Calculating a proximity metric on overlapped spheres, e.g., Euclidean distance, generates the

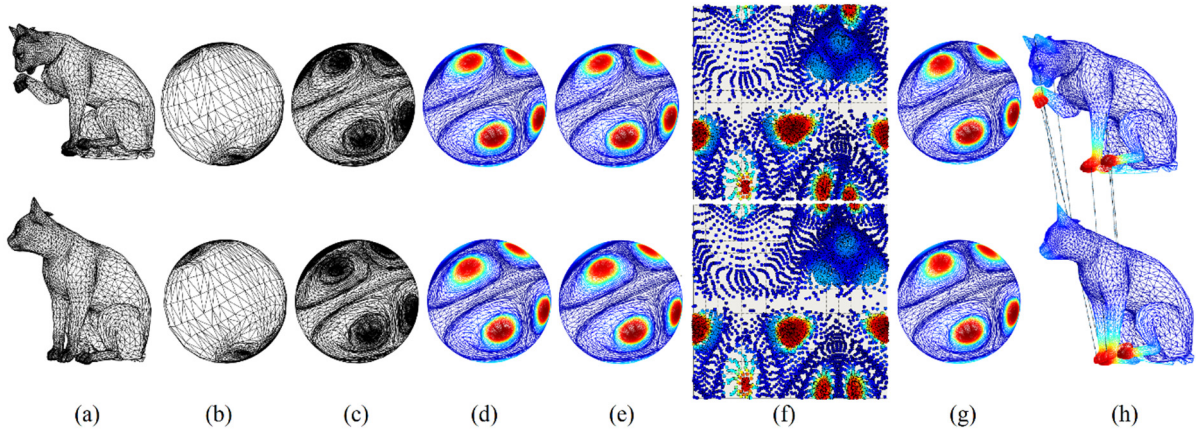


Figure 2: Illustration of (Lee et al., 2019) work. (a) Source (top) and target (bottom) cat shapes; (b) Shapes are moved into the spherical domain; (c) AE method applied; (d) HKS is computed on the shape domain and pulled back on the spheres; (e) Spheres are rotationally aligned; (f) Spheres are moved to a regular equirectangular spherical grid; (g) Non-rigid registration is applied using Optical Flow on grids and spheres are advected; (h) Proximity measure reveals the matching of vertices.

forward and backward correspondence maps (Figure 2h). However, looking at the result of the method, we can figure out that several erroneous matchings are represented in some areas (e.g., Figure 1a), which will be investigated in the next section.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In (Lee et al., 2019), authors have stated that they “rasterize the scale factors from the spherical triangulation” (Figure 2e) “onto an equirectangular $N \times N$ spherical grid” (Figure 2f) to perform Authalic Evolution. They have used the same approach for the Optical Flow process, stating that the computation of the flow field is done “using regular $N \times N$ spherical grids and rasterizing the signals”, S^{HKS} and T^{HKS} , the HKS signals defined on the source and target shapes.

As defined in the standard ISO 31-11, the parameterization from a sphere in cartesian space (Figure 3a) to a regular spherical grid (Figure 3b) is done by the following formulas.

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}; \rho \geq 0 \\ \theta &= \arctan\left(\frac{z}{x}\right); 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi \\ \varphi &= \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + z^2}}{y}\right); 0 \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

On a unit sphere, ρ is equal to 1. Thus, the parameters θ and φ reconstruct the UV plane (Figure 3b). However, this parametrization is not distance-preserving for vertices that have border values of θ

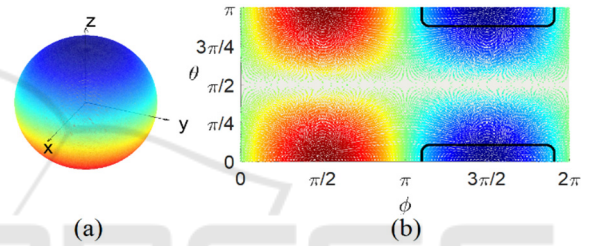


Figure 3: Illustration of parameterization from a unit sphere (a) to a regular spherical grid (b). The mapping has not preserved the distances as they are on the sphere. The indicated region is an example of the issue.

(close to 0 or π) and φ (close to 0 or 2π), which we will refer to as “border vertices”. Although these vertices are located very close in the spherical domain (e.g., dark blue regions on top of the sphere in Figure 3a), they are far apart on the UV plane (indicated dark blues regions on top and bottom of the rectangular grid in Figure 3b). (Lee et al., 2019) move two rigidly aligned spheres into spherical grids (Figure 2e to 2f), and then, the Optical Flow will register two grids (Figure 2h) in the planar domain. As two spheres are rigidly registered, the corresponding vertices are close in the spherical domain, and some small and smooth movements should match them. However, a slight shift of the border vertices in the spherical domain can be mapped to a significant shift on the UV grid. E.g., a slight movement of vertices in the dark blue region of Figure 3a can move the vertex from the upper region indicated in Figure 3b to the bottom one. With the Optical Flow operating on this planar domain, it cannot recover these large shifts and will

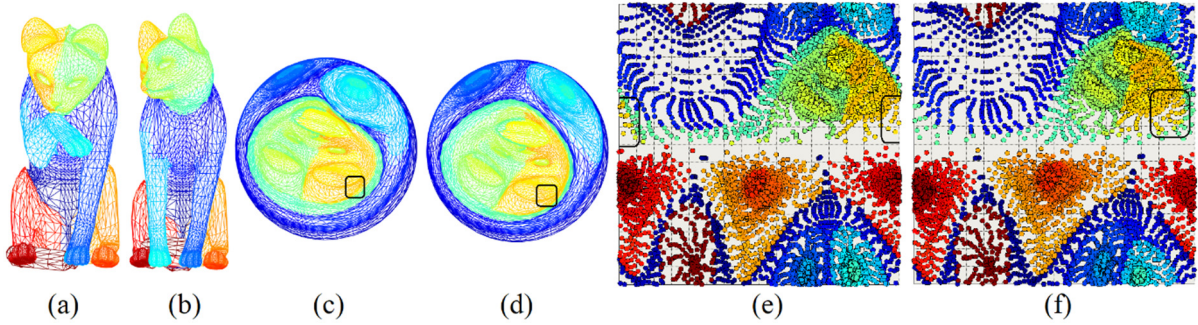


Figure 4: Illustration of discontinuity of neighbor regions on the spheres when they are projected to the spherical grid; (a) Source shape; (b) Target shape; (c) Source sphere rigidly registered into target sphere. The region which will be split when mapping into the spherical grid is indicated; (d) Target sphere. Corresponding region is indicated; (e) Spherical grid representation of the source sphere indicating the region that is splitting into two regions, dissimilar to its correspondence region in target grid representation; (f) Spherical grid representation of the target sphere, showing the corresponding region to the indicated region in the source grid while it is a single connected area on the right side of the grid.

fail to match those corresponding vertices.

An illustration of this problem is represented in Figure 4. Figure 4a is the source cat shape which will be put in correspondence with the target cat shape, represented in Figure 4b. The coloring represents corresponding landmarks on both shapes. Figures 4c and 4d show rigidly aligned spherical representations of the two shapes and indicate the regions containing some border vertices, which will be investigated further on their planar representation. The spherical grid parameterization of the shapes in Figures 4e and 4f implies that although most of the vertices in the indicated regions are in the same location on the spherical grid, some vertices of one of the cat’s ears are separated on the source planar representation (as indicated in Figure 4e), while they are all located on the right side of the plane in the target planar representation (Figure 4f). Since corresponding vertices are placed far from each other in the planar domain, the Optical Flow cannot find proper movement for matching these vertices.

3 METHODOLOGY

To solve the issue of border vertices, we propose replacing the regular spherical mapping (steps in Figure 2e and 2f) with cubic mapping (Greene, 1986). Figure 5a shows a unit sphere with smooth coloring on its surface. Moving the sphere to a unit cube (Figure 5b) and expanding it (Figure 5c) shows that on each face, the distances and locality are preserved (according to the fact that colors are not distorted as we saw in Figure 3b for the regular spherical grid).

To avoid the spherical grid mapping issue

(having large displacements) for some vertices on the expanded version of the unit cube, we extended each face of the cube properly while respecting the adjacency of the faces and the locality of the vertices on the cube. For applying the Optical Flow, we only consider the central face (indicated in Figure 5c with a black rectangle). By doing this for all six faces separately, we can have a continuous, local, and smooth flow field for all the vertices.

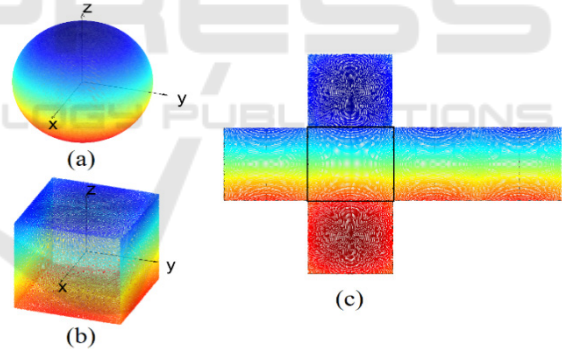


Figure 5: Replacing the regular spherical grid with cubic mapping. (a) The unit sphere; (b) The unit cube made by cubic mapping from the unit sphere; (c) cubic mapping expanded. The expansion is done according to the central indicated face and adjacent faces.

Figure 6 shows the expanded cube for the cat shape represented in Figure 4a. The indicated region in Figure 6 implies that the vertices of the cat’s ear are all connected in the same region, while they have been split in the previous parameterization (Figure 4e). This shows that the central face of the expanded version of the cube keeps all adjacent vertices in a single connected region.

The mentioned modification is explained in detail in Algorithm 1, which will replace the

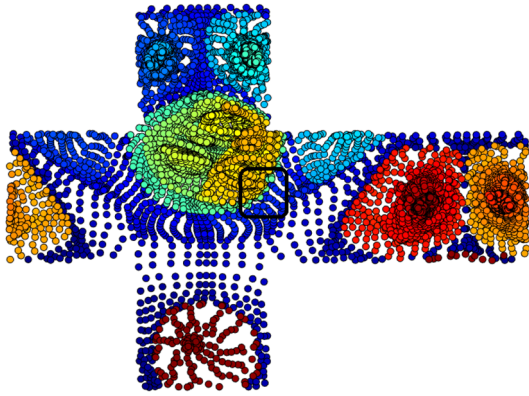


Figure 6: Cubic mapping expanded for cat shape represented in Figure 4. The indicated part is the ear of the cat, which is split into two regions in Figure 4e.

Algorithm 1: Proposed modification to (Lee et al., 2019) by incorporating Cubic Mapping.

Input	: Rotationally aligned Source and Target Spheres, S^{Sphere} and T^{Sphere}
Output	: Forward $M_{S \rightarrow T}$, and Backward $M_{T \rightarrow S}$ Correspondence Maps
1:	For $i=1:\max_level_optical_flow$
2:	$res=level_resolutions(i)$
3:	Compute cubes S^{Cube} , T^{Cube} from S^{Sphere} , T^{Sphere} respectively. faces will be generated according to image generation resolution, $S^{HKS(i+1)}$ and $T^{HKS(i+1)}$
4:	For $j=1$ to 6 {front, back, right, left, top, bottom}
5:	Extend $S^{Cube_face(j)}$, $T^{Cube_face(j)}$ according to their adjacent faces and generate $S^{image(j)}$, $T^{image(j)}$
6:	Interpolate $S^{image(j)}$, $T^{image(j)}$ using gaussian filter to fill the holes on the images
7:	Reduce the image resolutions to res
8:	Apply Optical Flow on $S^{image(j)}$, $T^{image(j)}$ and keep the calculated flow field for the face $S^{Cube_face(j)}$
9:	For $j=1$ to 6 {front, back, right, left, top, bottom}
10:	Move the vertices falling on $S^{Cube_face(j)}$ and update S^{Sphere} accordingly
11:	Compute $M_{S \rightarrow T}$, and $M_{T \rightarrow S}$ using the proximity

non-rigid registration part in (Lee et al., 2019). After aligning two spheres rigidly, the spheres are transferred into unit cubes (Algorithm 1, line 3). Each face will be appropriately extended with its adjacent faces on the cube, and the Optical Flow is applied to it (Algorithm 1, lines 4 to 8). Finally, the computed flow field for all vertices is pulled back to

the source sphere and they are advected accordingly.

To prove that the locality is preserved for this parametrization, we move two rigidly registered spheres with known correspondences into unit cubes (Algorithm 1, line 3) and then overlay the corresponding faces of the cubes to compute the Euclidean distances from each vertex on the source cube face to its corresponding vertex on the target cube face. Assuming that the corresponding vertices are close on the overlaid spheres (since spheres have been rigidly registered), corresponding vertices on the source cube and target cube can be located on the same face (e.g., both on front faces of cubes), or adjacent faces (top, bottom, left and right faces for the front face). Considering this adjacency, Figure 7 shows the Euclidean distances for vertices on the source cube faces to their corresponding vertices on the overlaid target cube faces. The cube is unit, and the displacement of all vertices is less than half of the side of each face. The distances can differ due to the amount of deformation of the shapes.

We replaced the non-rigid registration process in (Lee et al., 2019) with Algorithm 1. We will show that our approach has resolved the mentioned issue in (Lee et al., 2019) in multiple datasets and according to multiple matching quality metrics.

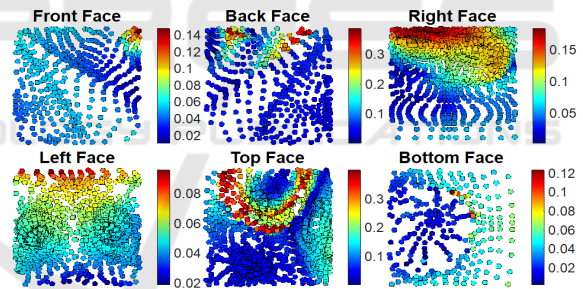


Figure 7: Indicating Euclidean distance of the corresponding vertices on the cube surfaces. The cube faces are sized 1 by 1.

4 EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Looking closely at the results of (Lee et al., 2019), we figure out that the problem only occurs for some border vertices. Depending on the amount of deformation of the target shape with respect to the source shape and rotational alignment of the spheres, some of the border vertices might need large displacements to meet the location of their correspondences on the regular spherical grids. Although there could be a small number of border vertices having such a property, the wrong matching of one vertex can also mislead the matching result

for its neighbors since the registration process is done locally by Optical Flow.

To analyze the result of the proposed modification, matching accuracy for the border vertices will be considered only. We define border vertices as follows. After moving a sphere into the regular spherical grid, vertices that fall into 10% of the margins from the borders of θ and φ parameters are stated as border vertices. The 10% value is set experimentally and will ensure that all the probable erroneous matchings are happening for vertices in this set. Eq. 2 shows this criterion.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{10}; \pi - \frac{\pi}{10} \leq \theta \leq \pi \\ 0 \leq \varphi \leq \frac{2\pi}{10}; 2\pi - \frac{2\pi}{10} \leq \varphi \leq 2\pi \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

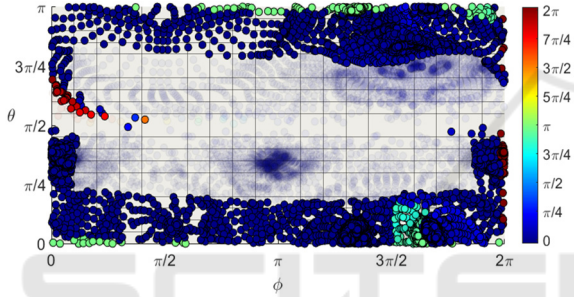


Figure 8: Indicating Euclidean distance for corresponding vertices on the spherical grids. Non-border vertices are set transparent. Large distances of some border vertices, implying cases that cannot be matched with the Optical Flow on this grid.

Figure 8 represents the Euclidean distance between the vertices on the source spherical grid and their corresponding vertices on the overlaid target spherical grid for two shapes with known correspondences. In the figure, border vertices defined by Eq. 2 are shown as filled circles, while non-border vertices are shown transparently. According to the figure, although most of the border vertices are very close to their corresponding matches on the target grid (distances are close to 0), some cases need to traverse to the other side of the grid to be matched to their correspondences (distances are close to π or 2π).

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the modification applied to (Lee et al., 2019), we considered comparing registration results from (Lee et al., 2019) as ‘DenseP2PCorr’, the modified version of the method by incorporating the cubic mapping as ‘Ours’, ‘Zoom Out’ (Melzi et al., 2019) and ‘Smooth Shells’ (Eisenberger et al., 2020) as registration-based approaches. These methods result

in dense corresponding maps while handling rigid alignment and obtaining the matching between shapes with different poses. Three datasets are considered in this experiment as they contain shapes from the real world with non-rigid and non-isometric deformations. TOSCA dataset (Bronstein et al., 2008) consists of 80 models in 9 categories with mesh resolutions ranging from 4K to 53K. Sumner dataset (Sumner et al., 2004) consists of 76 non-animated models in 8 categories with resolutions ranging from 5K to 43K. The third database is SCAPE (Angelov et al., 2005), containing 72 models of human shape with a resolution of 12.5K vertices. All shapes in all datasets are in correspondence within each category and are represented with the same topology, making them suitable benchmarks for correspondence evaluation. However, to reduce the time complexity of the runtime, we considered a subset of the shapes for the matching process. The number of combinations within each category is represented in Table 1.

To evaluate the methods, we used Princeton benchmark protocol and Correspondence Quality Characteristics (CQC) curves (Kim et al., 2011). Assume that a matching algorithm has matched vertex x from source shape to vertex y in target shape as (x, y) . Having the ground truth of the match as (x, y^{GT}) , Normalized Geodesic Error (NGE) for the match (x, y) is calculated by Eq. 3.

$$\text{NGE}(x, y) = \frac{\text{dist}_{\text{geo}}(y, y^{GT})}{\sqrt{\text{Shape_Area}}} \quad (3)$$

In Eq. 3., $\text{dist}_{\text{geo}}(y, y^{GT})$ is the geodesic distance calculated on the target mesh between vertices y and y^{GT} , and Shape_Area is the sum of the surface areas for the target shape. For optimizing the computation complexity, $\text{dist}_{\text{geo}}(y, y^{GT})$ is calculated and stored for all combinations of y and y^{GT} on each shape and for all participating shapes within each dataset.

Since the modification of the algorithm affects the border vertices, NGE for these vertices is considered and averaged as the results in Table 1.

In addition to the numerical analysis in Table 1, visual comparisons of matching results of (Lee et al., 2019) vs. ours are represented in Figures 9-11. Figure 9a shows a cat shape on the left, while it shows its spherical grid representation on the right. The coloring represents the vertex indices on the shape and the spherical grid. Considering the same coloring on the shape and grid, border vertices inside the yellow rectangle represent the region on the cat’s

Table 1: Average Normalized Geodesic Error for border vertices and non-isometric deformation per category and in total for all datasets.

Dataset/ Method	Shape Category	Number of Combinations	Average NGE ($\times 10^{-3}$)				NID average ($\times 10^{-3}$)
			DenseP2 PCorr.	Ours	Smooth Shells	Zoom Out	
TOSCA	Wolf	6	11.5	4.5	0.7	71.2	18.56
	Centaur	30	30.5	16.7	42.8	472	34.23
	Horse	56	30.8	18.4	34.1	289.2	39.53
	Total	142	30.3	17.6	35.9	338.2	37.59
Sumner	Lion	72	49.6	31.6	243.6	389	44.97
	Cat	72	52.3	24.3	242.6	469.7	63.61
	Total	144	51.4	26.8	242.9	441.8	55.98
SCAPE	Human	110	107.2	25.9	62.2	80.6	39.4
Total	Total	396	60.6	22.6	97.4	281.1	42.46

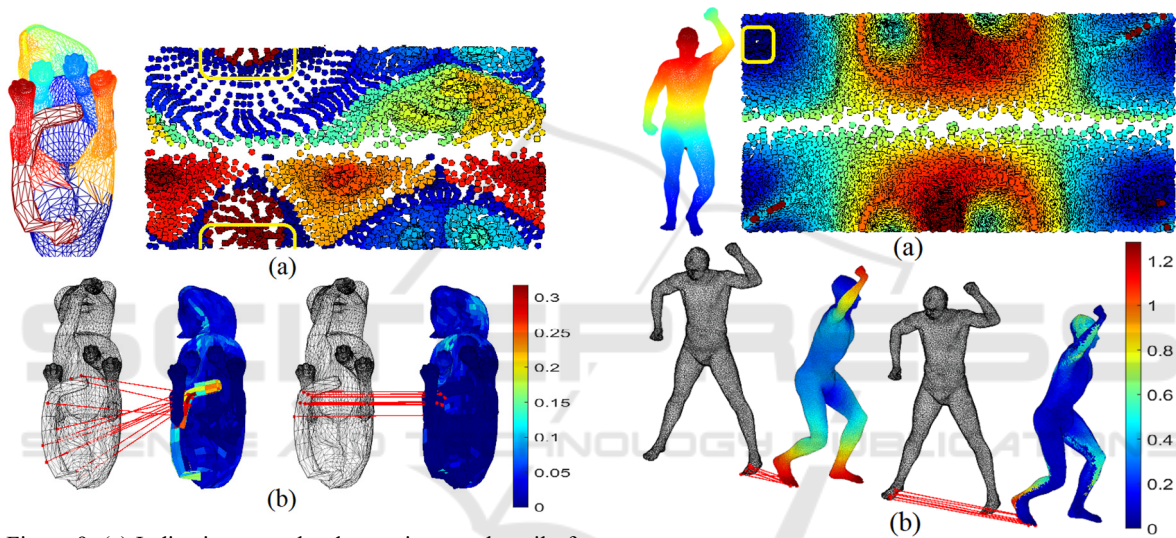


Figure 9: (a) Indicating some border vertices on the tail of the cat; (b) Comparing the matching results from DenseP2PCorr (left) vs. Ours (right) on two cat shapes in the Sumner dataset.

Figure 11: (a) Indicating some border vertices on the foot of the human; (b) Comparing the matching results from DenseP2PCorr (left) vs. Ours (right) on two human shapes in the SCAPE dataset.

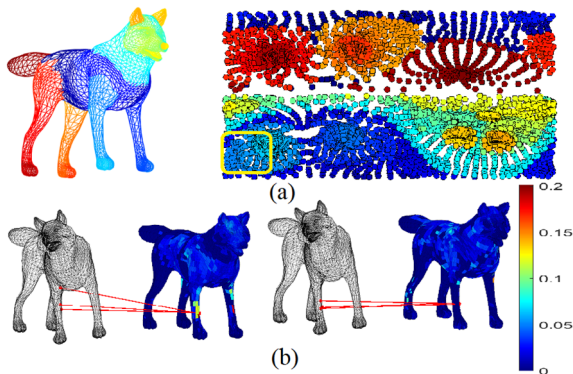


Figure 10: Indicating some border vertices on the hand of the wolf; (b) Comparing the matching results from DenseP2PCorr (left) vs. Ours (right) on two wolf shapes in the TOSCA dataset.

tail. Figure 9b shows the matching results by (Lee et al., 2019) on the left and our approach on the right. The coloring in Figure 9b represents the NGE of the matching for all vertices in the shape domain. Figure 10 and Figure 11 show similar results for the registration of two wolf shapes from the TOSCA dataset and two human shapes from the SCAPE dataset, respectively.

Furthermore, we have represented CQC curves for all methods within each category in all datasets. CQC curves (Kim et al., 2011) represent percentages of correct matches that are tolerating distance r in terms of NGE. Figure 12 shows all CQC curves for each category within each dataset. In addition, curves for all shapes within each dataset and all

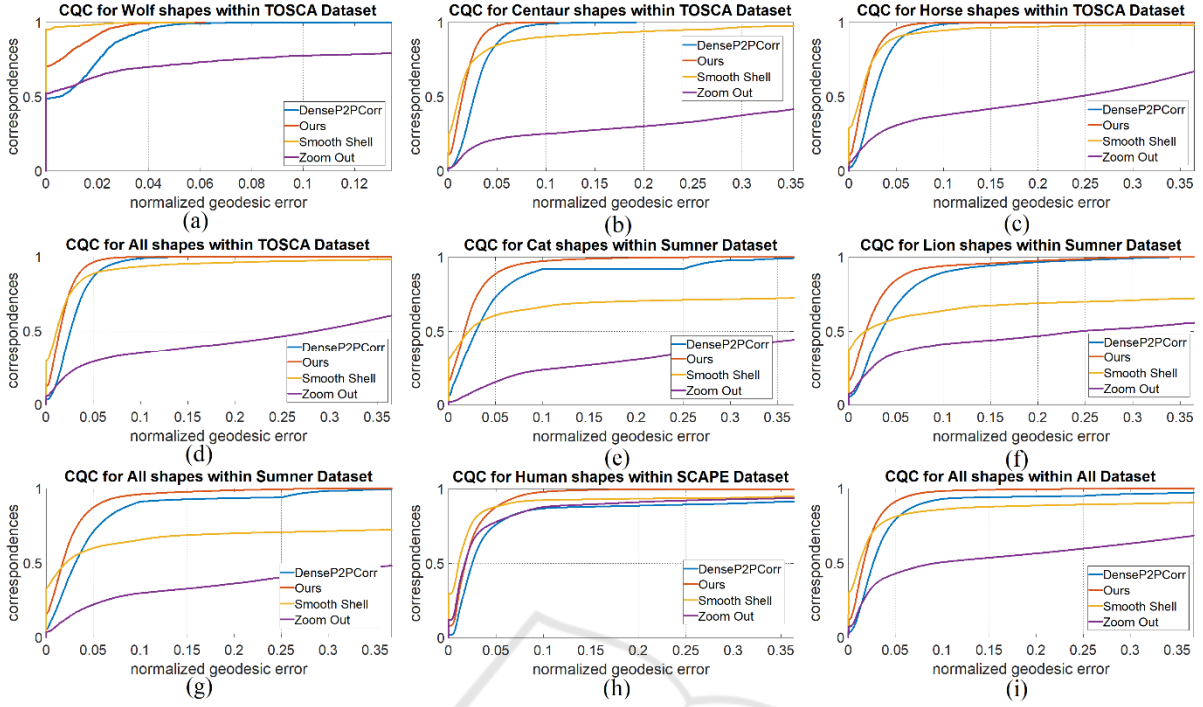


Figure 12: CQC curves for all datasets per category and in total. (a) Wolf shapes from TOSCA; (b) Centaur shapes from TOSCA; (c) Horse shapes from TOSCA; (d) All shapes within TOSCA; (e) Cat shapes from Sumner; (f) Lion shapes from Sumner; (g) All shapes within Sumner; (h) Human shapes from SCAPE; (i) All shaped within all datasets.

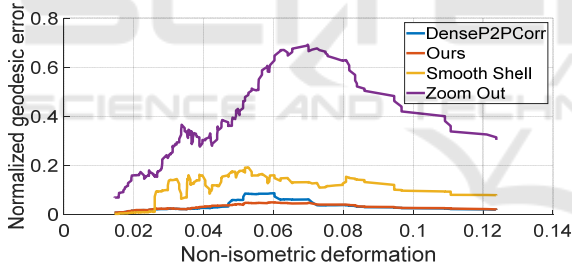


Figure 13: Normalized Geodesic Error (NGE) vs. non-isometric deformation (NID) of shapes for all matching results.

shapes within all datasets are also represented. The border vertices on target spherical grids are considered only for generation of CQC curves.

Finally, to demonstrate the amount of non-isometric deformations of the shapes and how they affect the result of different matching processes, we define the Non-Isometric Deformation (NID) as follows.

$$\text{NID}(x, y) = \left| \text{NGE}(x, y)^{\text{Source_shape}} - \text{NGE}(x, y)^{\text{Target_shape}} \right| \quad (4)$$

The source and target shapes are arbitrary shapes within the same category (having the same

topology), and x and y are all vertices on each shape. This metric is calculated for all combinations of the shapes participating in the matching experiment. The values are averaged within each category and represented in Table 1.

Taking the NID into account, we have demonstrated the amount of NGE for the matching result with respect to the NID of the matching shapes for all four competing methods in Figure 13.

5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As stated in Table 1, almost 400 registration processes are done to demonstrate the comparison of the accuracy of corresponding maps generated by four different methods in three different datasets with different characteristics. Among all the categories, the Wolf category from the TOSCA dataset is the easiest matching case since shapes are not deformed very much (as an example is represented in Figure 10b), and the density of the shapes is the lowest (approximately 4K vertices). In addition, the initial states of the shapes are very similar. On the contrary, the human shapes in the

SCAPE dataset have a broad range of initial poses and deformations. As shown in Table 1, our approach has reduced the NGE for border vertices, making the matching results more accurate than those from (Lee et al., 2019) among all categories. It also represents better results compared to the other two methods when the shapes' NID increases. The information on NID demonstrates the effect of the nature of the shapes on the result of registration processes. As can be seen, the shapes in the Wolf category from TOSCA, which have the least NID values, are best matched with the Smooth Shell (Eisenberger et al., 2020) among the competitors. Zoom Out (Melzi et al., 2019) is always resulting less accurate matching than the others.

Visual comparisons in Figures 9-11 demonstrate the erroneous matching result for some of the border vertices in the result of (Lee et al., 2019) vs. Ours. Figure 9a implies the same coloring for the cat shape and the parameterized vertices on the spherical grid. The vertices indicated in crimson color on the grid show cat's tail, as can be seen on the cat shape with the identical coloring. It is depicted in Figure 9b that these border vertices represent significant matching errors, and they are chaotically matched from the source shape to multiple regions on the target shape by (Lee et al., 2019) (left). This behavior is removed in the result of our proposed method (right). In addition, we can see that only some border vertices show significant errors, and almost all non-border vertices are matched to their correct correspondences correctly. Similar behavior is shown for the Wolf shapes in Figure 10 and Human shapes in Figure 11.

Figure 12 represents CQC curves for all shapes within each category and dataset. As shown in Figure 12a, the Smooth Shell (Eisenberger et al., 2020) outperforms the others only when shapes are not deforming non-isometrically very much (wolf category of the TOSCA dataset). In addition, the amount of improvement to the matching accuracy among border vertices is related to the amount of non-rigid deformation represented in the shapes and the number of border vertices that are dislocated with large distances on the spherical grid in the approach represented by (Lee et al., 2019). Considering the mentioned criteria, Figure 12b-12h shows that our modification improved the accuracy compared with (Lee et al., 2019) for all categories and within all datasets. Figure 12i shows the results of the comparison in all registration processes.

According to Figure 13, the more non-isometric deformation a target shape (concerning the source shape) has, the more challenging the registration

process is to match corresponding vertices. As stated in the figure, the Smooth Shell method (Eisenberger et al., 2020) can represent the best result of matching for the shapes having small values of NID (e.g., Wolf category of the TOSCA dataset). However, with increasing the NID of the registering shapes, the Smooth Shell's NGE increases compared to Ours and DenseP2PCorr. The fluctuations in the graph imply that the correspondence quality is not only affected by the NID of shapes but also by other factors, such as the initialization state of the shapes, rigid alignment, etc.

As discussed in the paper, we have represented an essential modification to the non-rigid registration part of the method represented by (Lee et al., 2019) to fix an important issue. We suggested replacing the regular spherical grid with cubic mapping, which preserves distances the same as represented on the sphere. Applying Optical Flow on each cube face individually (while having them extended properly based on adjacent faces) preserves the flow field smooth and local for all the vertices. Also, there would be no continuity issue in the deformation fields. Thus, the Optical Flow can calculate all the proper movements to register the shapes.

We have shown that our proposition is superior to (Lee et al., 2019) and other recently published methods in terms of correspondence accuracy. The results by (Lee et al., 2019) for some border vertices are chaotically matched to multiple regions. This is a critical issue, especially for applications such as building SSM.

Although this work has resolved some limitations of the previous work, it still suffers from the inability to register non-genus-zero shapes. The source of this issue is the CMCF which cannot converge the evolution of such shapes toward the unit sphere. Furthermore, the unit sphere and unit cube are not suitable parameterization spaces to represent non-genus-zero shapes. It can be further investigated in future works.

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