

# 计算机辅助几何设计

## 2023秋学期

# Implicit Surfaces

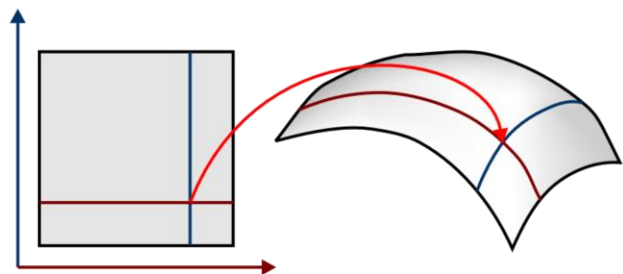
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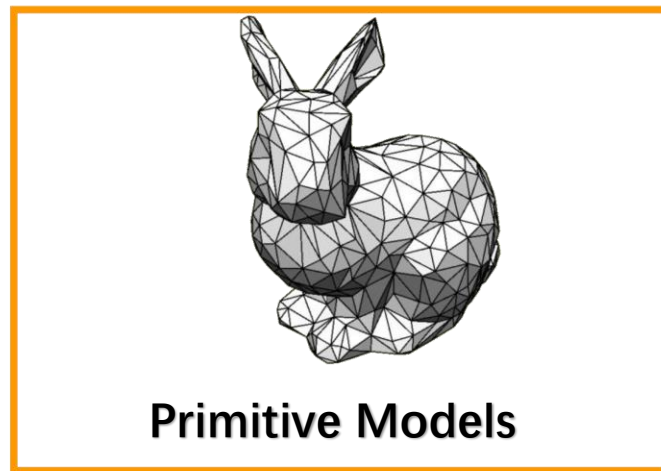
# Implicit Surfaces

## Introduction

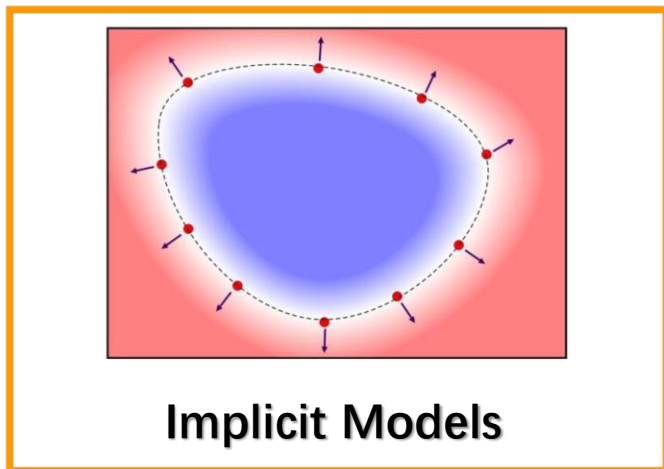
# Modeling Zoo



**Parametric Models**



**Primitive Models**



**Implicit Models**



**Particle Models**

# Implicit Functions

## Basic Idea:

- We describe an object  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  by an implicit equation:
  - $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid f(x) = 0\}$
  - The function  $f$  describes the shapes of the object.
- Applications:
  - In general, we could describe arbitrary objects
  - Most common case: surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$
  - This means,  $f$  is zero on an infinitesimally thin sheet only

# The Implicit Function Theorem

## Implicit Function Theorem:

- Given a *differentiable* function

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \supseteq D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = 0, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(x_1^{(0)}, \dots, x_n^{(0)}) \neq 0$$

- Within an  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of  $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$  we can represent the zero level set of  $f$  completely as a heightfield function  $g$

$g: \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that for  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)} < \varepsilon$  we have:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, g(x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})) = 0 \text{ and}$$

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \neq 0 \text{ everywhere else}$$

- The heightfield is a differentiable  $(n - 1)$ -manifold and its surface normal is colinear to the gradient of  $f$ .

# This means

**If we want to model surfaces, we are on the safe side if:**

- We use a smooth (differentiable) function  $f$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$
- The gradient of  $f$  does not vanish

**This gives us the following guarantees:**

- The zero-level set is actually a surface
  - We obtained a closed 2-manifold without boundary
  - We have a well defined interior / exterior.

**Sufficient:**

- We need smoothness / non-vanishing gradient only close to the zero-crossing.

# Implicit Functions Types

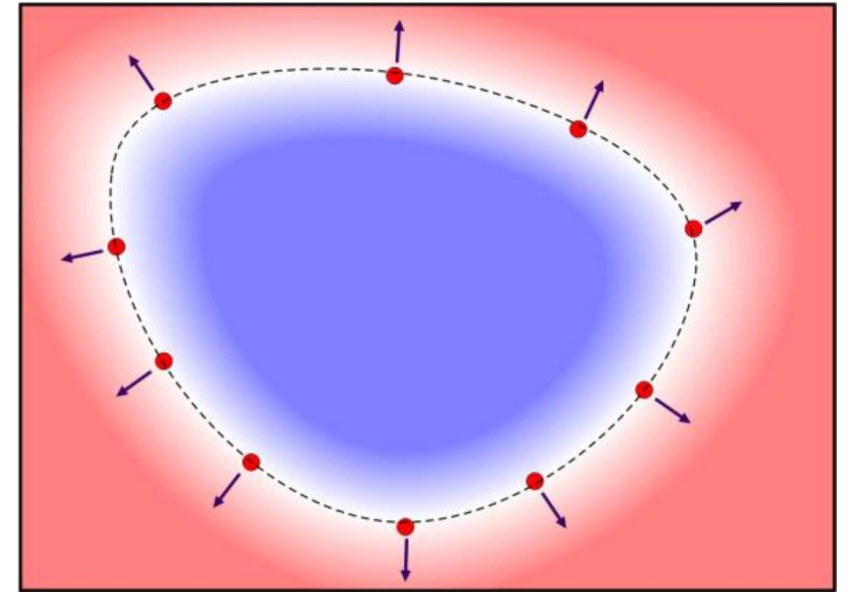
## Function Types:

- General case
  - Non-zero gradient at zero crossings
  - Otherwise arbitrary
- Signed implicit function:
  - $\text{sign}(f)$ : negative inside and positive outside the object  
(or the other way round, but we assume this orientation here)
- Signed distance field (SDF)
  - $|f|$  = distance to the surface
  - $\text{sign}(f)$ : negative inside, positive outside
- Squared distance function
  - $f = (\text{distance to the surface})^2$

# Implicit Functions Types

## Use depends on application:

- Signed implicit function
  - Solid modelling
  - Interior well defined
- Signed distance function (SDF)
  - Most frequently used representation
  - Constant gradient  $\rightarrow$  numerically stable surface definition
  - Availability of distance value useful for many applications
- Squared distance function
  - This representation is useful for statistical optimization
  - Minimize sum of squared distances  $\rightarrow$  least squares optimization
  - Useful for surface defined up to some insecurity / noise
  - Direct surface extraction more difficult (*gradient vanishes!*)



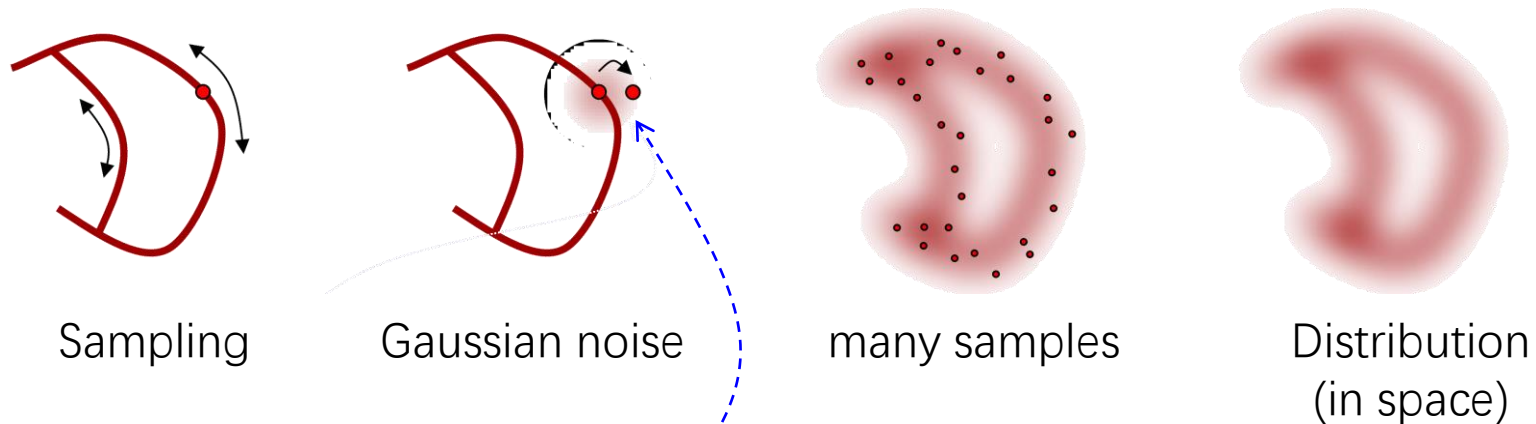
signed distance



# Squared Distance Function

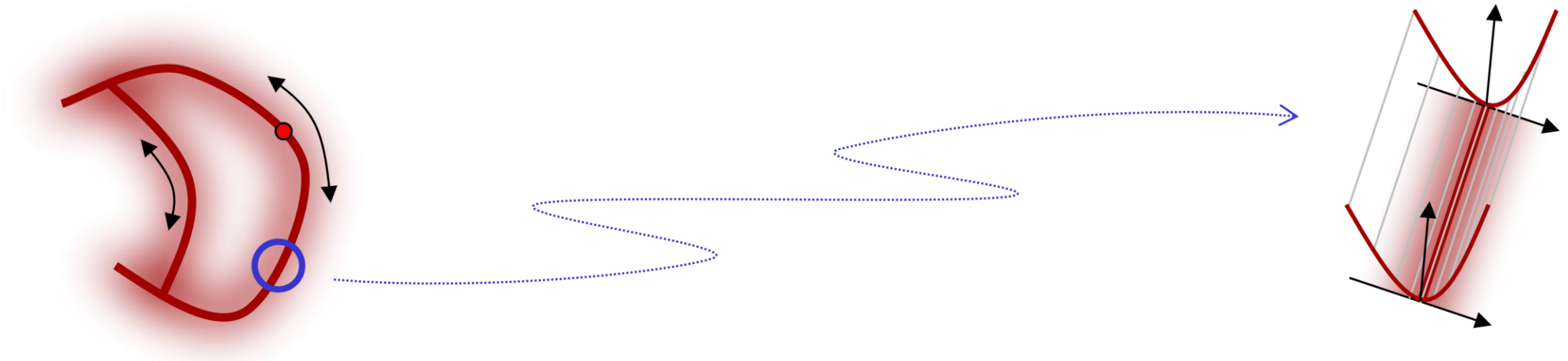
**Example:** Surface from random samples

1. Determine sample point (uniform)
2. Add noise (Gaussian)



$$p_{\mu, \Sigma}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} |\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right)$$

# Squared Distance Function



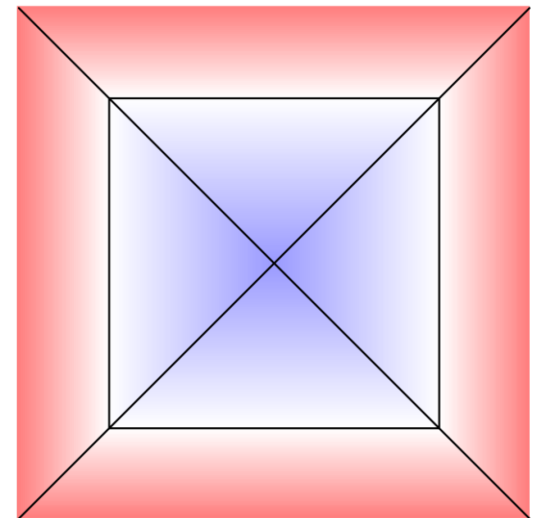
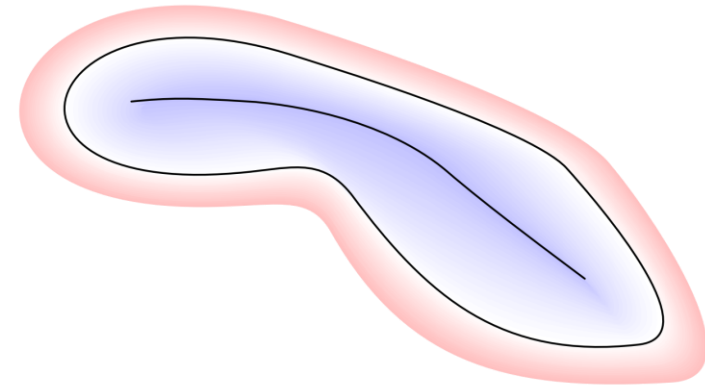
## Square Distance Function:

- Sampling a surface with uniform sampling and Gaussian noise:  
⇒ Probability density is a convolution of the object with a Gaussian kernel
- Smooth surfaces: The log-likelihood can be approximated by a squared distance function

# Smoothness

## Smoothness of signed distance function:

- Any distance function (signed, unsigned, squared) in general cannot be globally smooth
- The distance function is non-differentiable at the medial axis
  - Media axis = set of points that have the same distances to two or more different surface points
  - For sharp corners, the medial axis touches the surfaces
  - This means:  $f$  non-differentiable on the surface itself
  - Usually, this is no problem in practice



# Differential Properties

## Some useful differential properties:

- We look at a surface point  $\mathbf{x}$ , i.e.  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .
- We assume  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \neq 0$ .
- The unit normal of the implicit surface is given by:

$$\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\nabla f(\mathbf{x})}{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|}$$

- For signed functions, the normal is pointing outward
- For signed distance functions, this simplifies to  $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$

# Differential Properties

## Some useful differential properties:

- The mean curvature of the surface is proportional to the divergence of the unit normal:

$$-2H(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} n_x(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} n_y(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} n_z(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla f(\mathbf{x})}{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|}$$

- For a signed distance function, the formula simplifies to:

$$-2H(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} f(\mathbf{x}) = \Delta f(\mathbf{x})$$

# Computing Volume Integrals

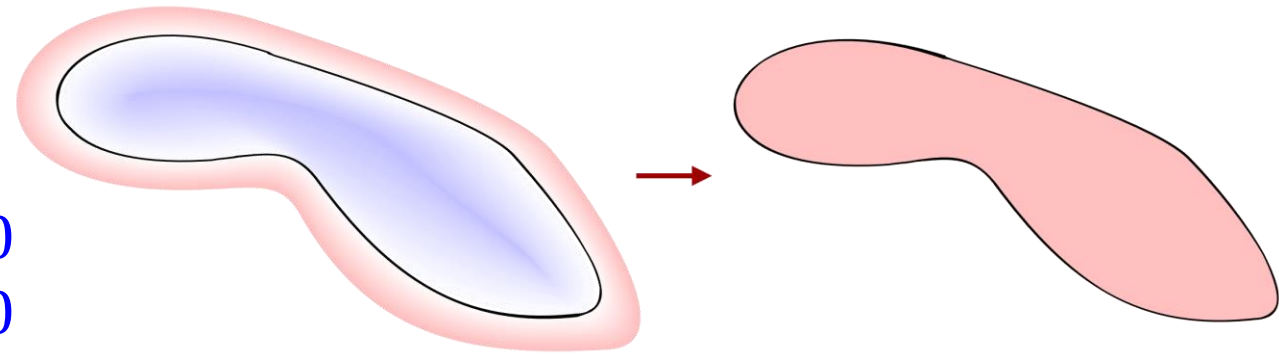
## Computing volume integrals

- Heavyside function

$$\text{step}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

- Volume integral over interior volume  $\Omega_f$  of some function  $g(\mathbf{x})$  (assuming negative interior values):

$$\int_{\Omega_f} g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} g(\mathbf{x}) (1 - \text{step}(f(\mathbf{x}))) d\mathbf{x}$$

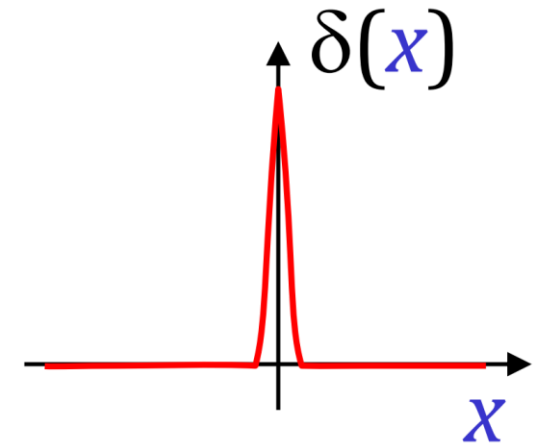


# Computing Surface Integrals

## Computing surface integrals:

- Dirac delta functions:
  - Idealized function (distribution)
  - Zero everywhere ( $\delta(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ ), except at  $\mathbf{x} = 0$ , where it is positive, infinitely large
  - The integral of  $\delta(\mathbf{x})$  over  $\mathbf{x}$  is one
- Dirac delta function on the surface: directional derivative of  $\text{step}(\mathbf{x})$  in normal direction:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\delta} &= \nabla[\text{step}(f(\mathbf{x}))] \cdot \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = [\nabla \text{step}](f(\mathbf{x})) \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\nabla f(\mathbf{x})}{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|} \\ &= \delta(f(\mathbf{x})) \cdot \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|\end{aligned}$$



# Surface Integral

## Computing surface integrals:

- Surface integral over the surface  $\partial\Omega_f = \{\mathbf{x} | f(\mathbf{x}) = 0\}$  of some function  $g(\mathbf{x})$ :

$$\int_{\Omega_f} g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} g(\mathbf{x}) \delta(f(\mathbf{x})) |\nabla f(\mathbf{x})| d\mathbf{x}$$

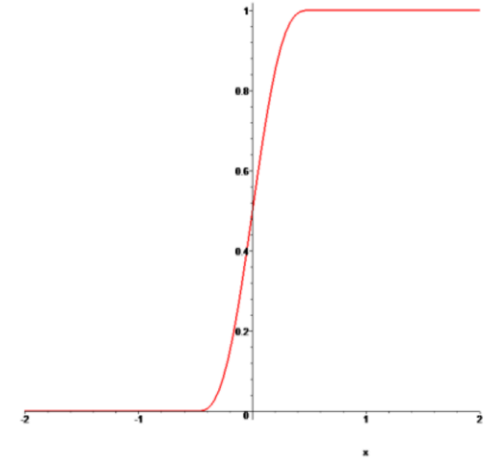
- This looks nice, but is numerically intractable.
- We can fix this using smoothed out Dirac/Heavyside functions...



# Smoothed Functions

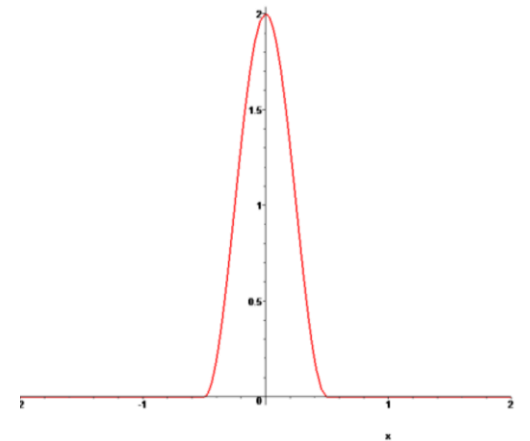
## Smooth-step function

$$\text{smoothstep}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < -\varepsilon \\ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{2\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{\varepsilon}\right) & -\varepsilon \leq x \leq \varepsilon \\ 1 & \varepsilon < x \end{cases}$$



## Smoothed Dirac delta function

$$\text{smoothdelta}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < -\varepsilon \\ \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{\varepsilon}\right) & -\varepsilon \leq x \leq \varepsilon \\ 1 & \varepsilon < x \end{cases}$$



# Implicit Surfaces

Numerical Discretization

# Representing Implicit Functions

**Representation:** Two basic techniques

- Discretization on grids
  - Simple finite differencing (FD) grids
  - Grids of basis functions (finite elements FE)
  - Hierarchical / adaptive grids (FE)
- Discretization with radial basis functions (particle FE methods)

# Discretization

## Discretization examples

- In the following, we will look at 2D examples
- The 3D ( $d$ -dimensional) case is similar

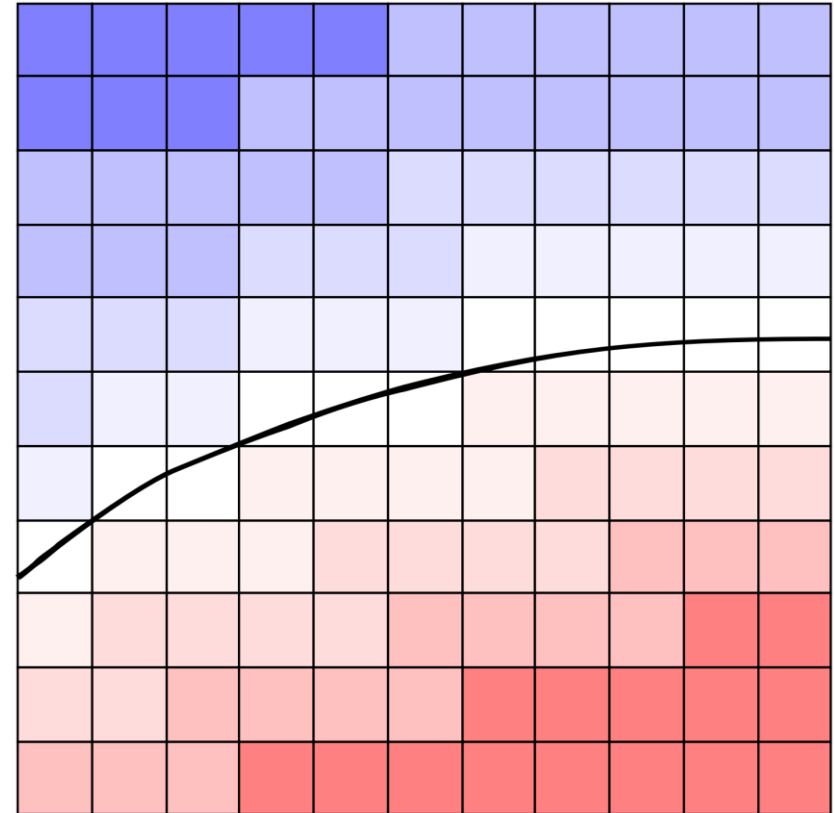
# Regular Grids

## Discretization:

- Regular grid of values  $f_{i,j}$
- Grid spacing  $h$
- Differential properties can be approximated by finite differences:
  - For example

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{h} (f_{i(x),j(x)} - f_{i(x)-1,j(x)}) + O(h)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2h} (f_{i(x)+1,j(x)} - f_{i(x)-1,j(x)}) + O(h^2)$$

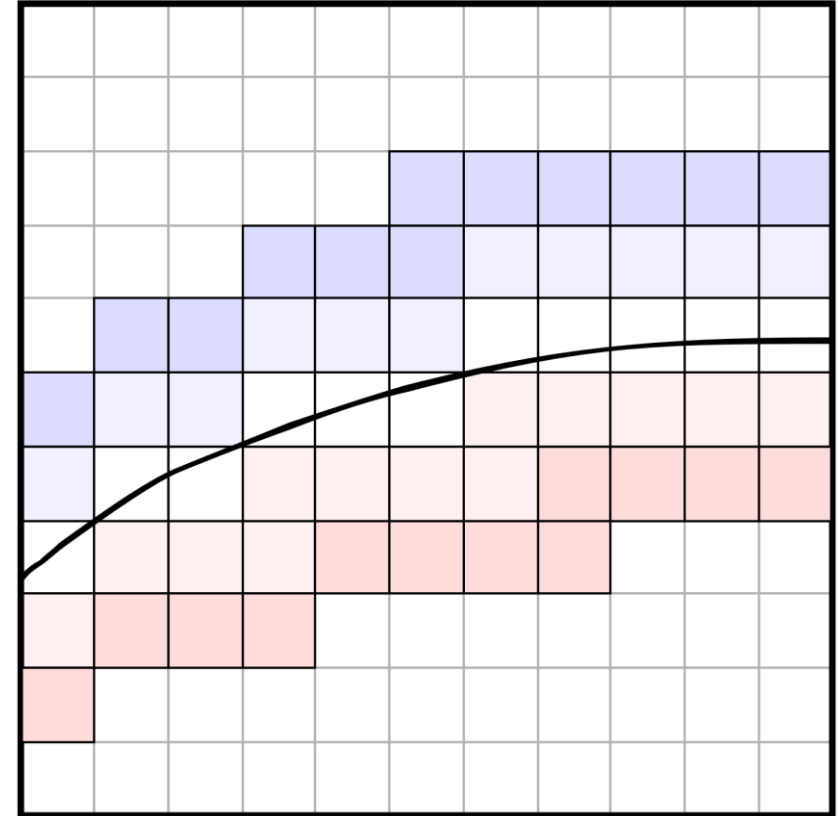


# Regular Grids

## Variant:

- Use only cells near the surface
- Saves storage & computation time
- However: we need to know an estimate on where the surface is located to setup the representation
- Propagate to the rest of the volume (if necessary):

*fast marching method*



# Fast Marching Method

## Problem statement:


- Assume we are given the surface and signed distance value in a narrow band
- Now we want to compute distance values everywhere on the grid

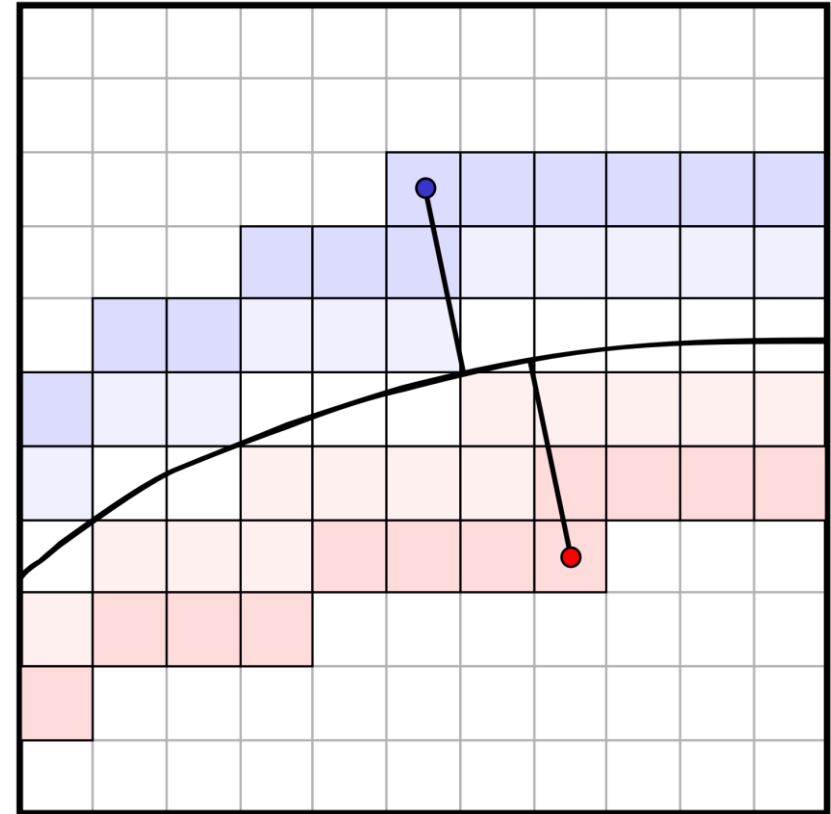
## Three Solutions:

- Nearest neighbor queries
- Eikonal equation
- Fast marching

# Nearest Neighbors

## Algorithm:

- For each grid cell:
  - Compute nearest point on the surface
  - Enter distance
- Approximate nearest neighbor computation:
  - Look for nearest grid cell with zero crossing first
  - Then compute distance curve  zero level set using a Newton-like algorithm (repeated point-to-plane distance)
- Costs:  $O(n)$  kNN queries ( $n$  empty cells)





# Eikonal Equation

## Eikonal Equation

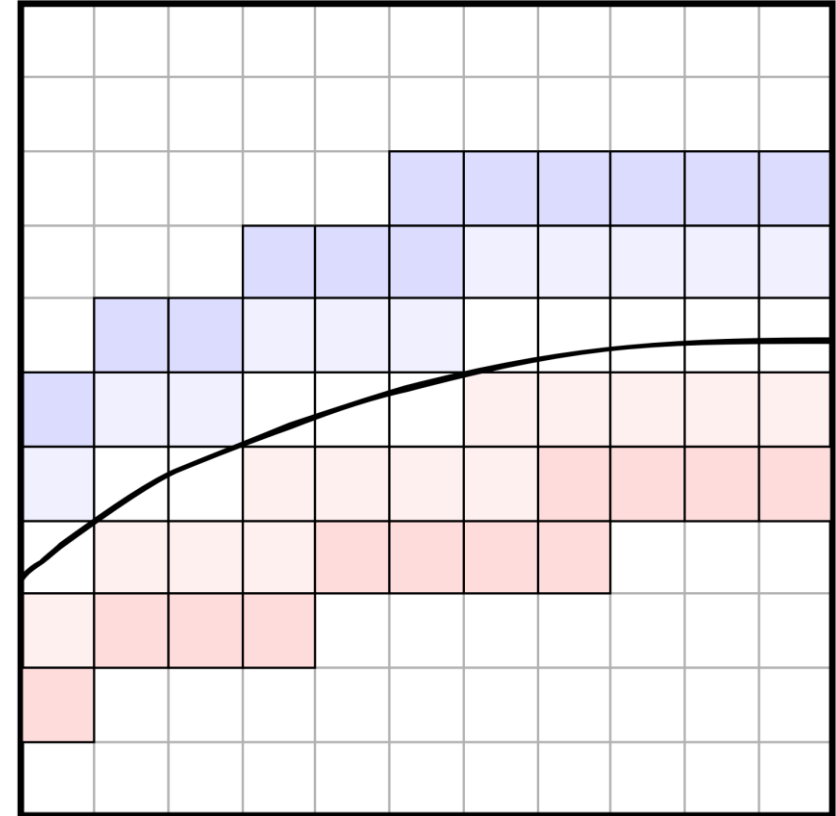
- Place variables in empty cells
- Fixed values in known cells
- Then solve the following PDE:

$$\|\nabla f\| = 1$$

subject to  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f_{\text{known}}(\mathbf{x})$

on the known area  $\mathbf{x} \in A_{\text{known}}$

- This is a (non-linear) boundary value problem



# Fast Marching

## Solving the Equation:

- The Eikonal equation can be solved efficiently by a region growing algorithm:
  - Start with the initial known values
  - Compute new distances at immediate neighbors solving a local Eikonal equation (\*)
  - The smallest of these values must be correct (similar to Dijkstra's algorithm)
  - Fix this value and update the neighbors again
  - Growing front,  $O(n \log n)$  time

# Regular Grids of Basis Functions

## Discretization (2D):

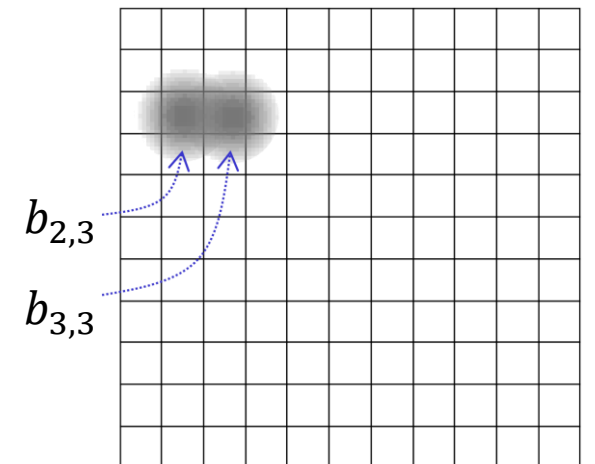
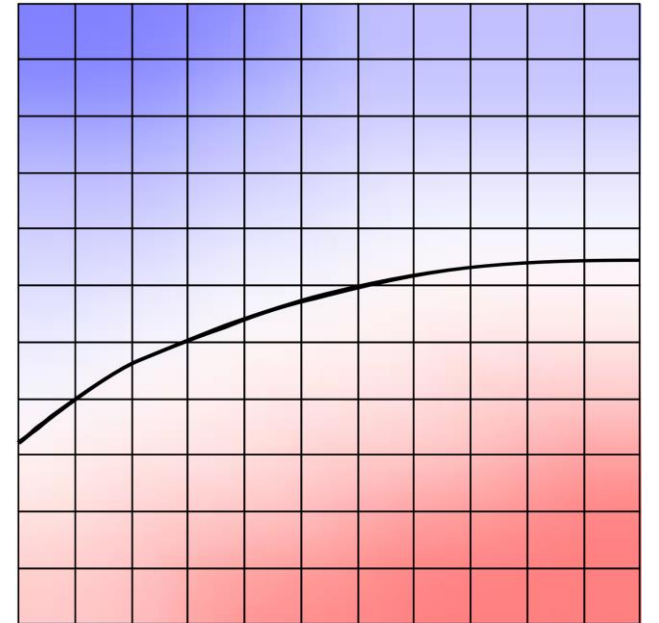
- Place a basis function in each grid cell:

$$b_{i,j} = b(x - i, y - j)$$

- Typical choices:
  - Bivariate uniform cubic B-splines (tensor product)
  - $b(x, y) = \exp[-\lambda(x^2 + y^2)]$
- The implicit function is then represented as

$$f(x, y) = \sum_0^{n_i} \sum_0^{n_j} \lambda_{i,j} b_{i,j}(x, y)$$

- The  $\lambda_{i,j}$  describe different  $f$



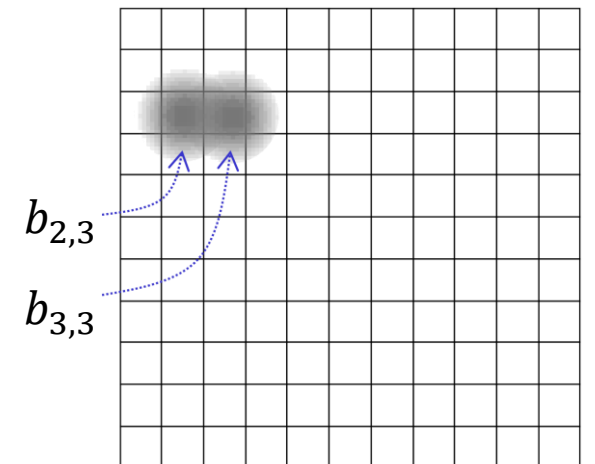
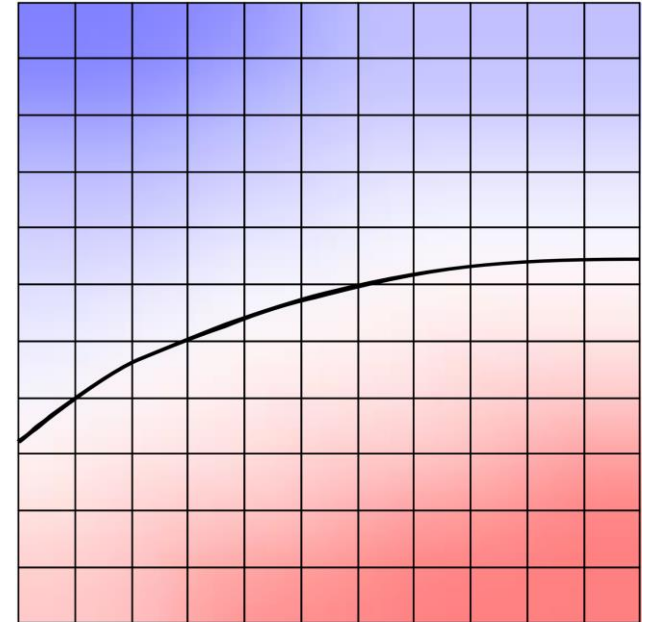
# Regular Grids of Basis Functions

## Differential Properties:

- Derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{k1} \dots \partial x_{km}} f(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^{n_i} \sum_{j=0}^{n_j} \lambda_{i,j} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{k1} \dots \partial x_{km}} b \right) (x, y)$$

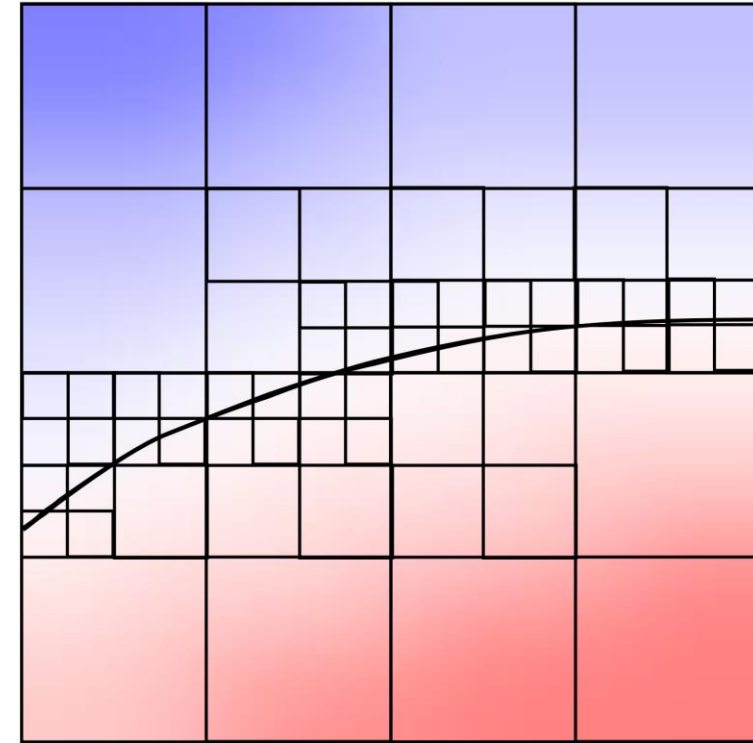
- Derivatives are linear combinations of the derivatives of the basis function
- In particular: we again get a linear expression in  $\lambda_{i,j}$



# Adaptive Grids

## Adaptive / hierarchical grids:

- Perform a quadtree / octree tessellation of the domain (or any other partition into elements)
- Refine where more precision is necessary (near surface, maybe curvature dependent)
- Associate basis functions with each cell (constant or higher order)



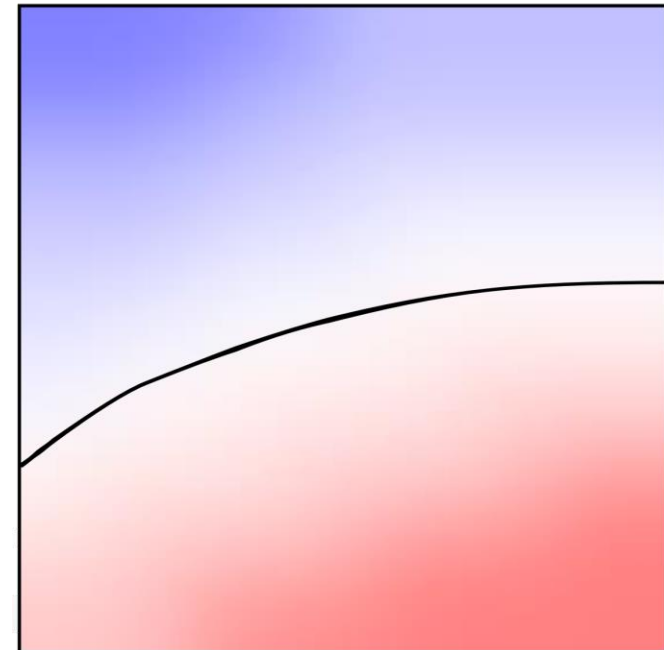
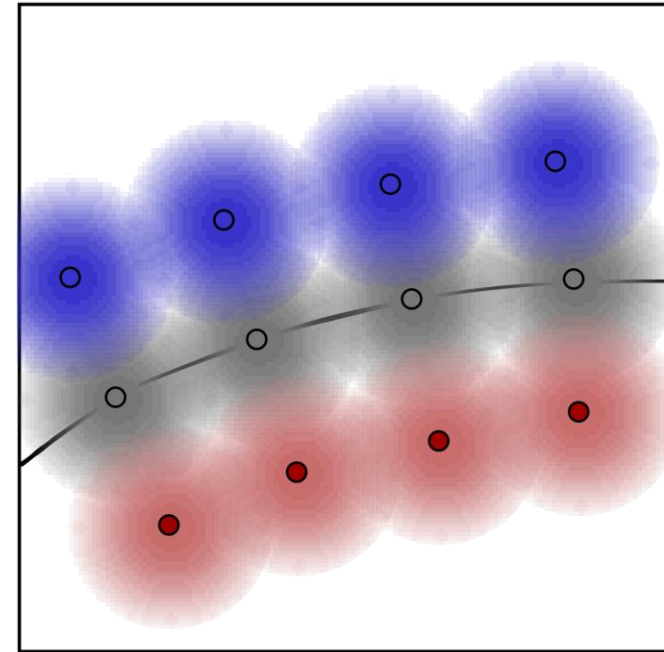
# Particle Methods

## Particle methods / radial basis function:

- Place a set of “particles” in space at positions  $\mathbf{x}_i$
- Associate each with a radial basis function  $b(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)$
- The discretization is then given by:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i b(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)$$

- The  $\lambda_i$  encode  $f$ .



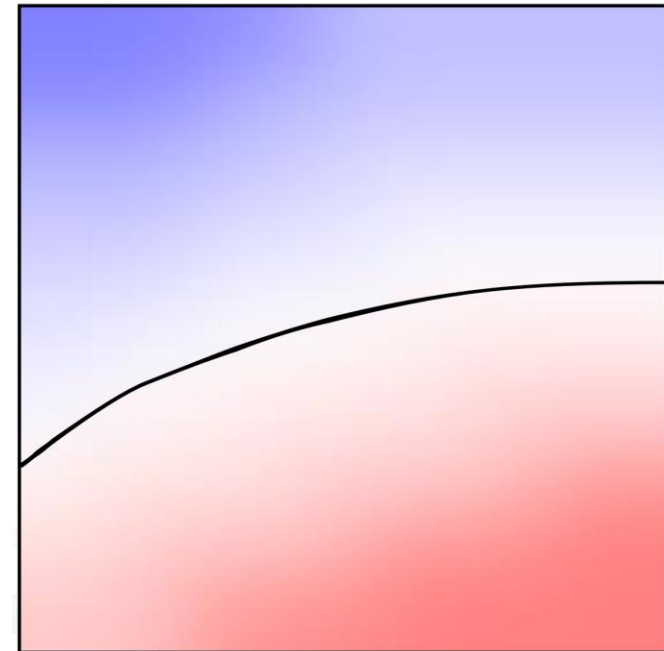
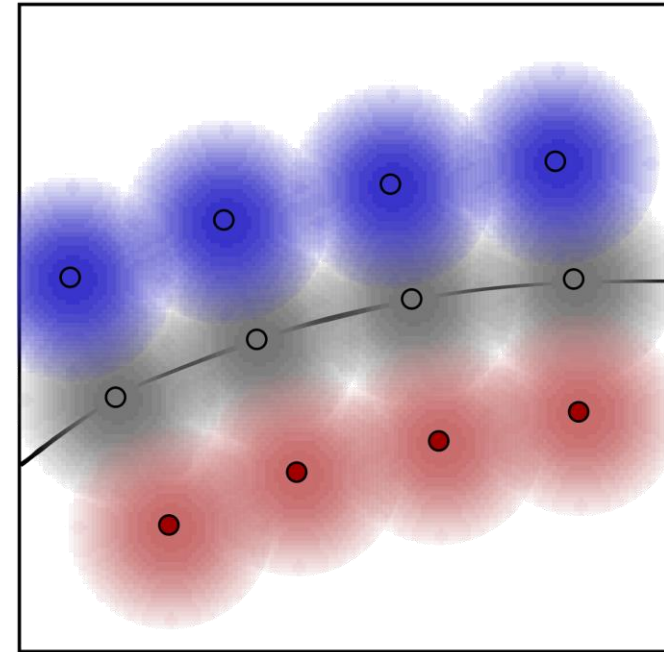
# Particle Methods

## Particle methods / radial basis function:

- Obviously, derivatives are again linear in  $\lambda_i$ :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{k1} \dots \partial x_{km}} f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^{n_j} \lambda_{i,j} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{k1} \dots \partial x_{km}} b \right) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)$$

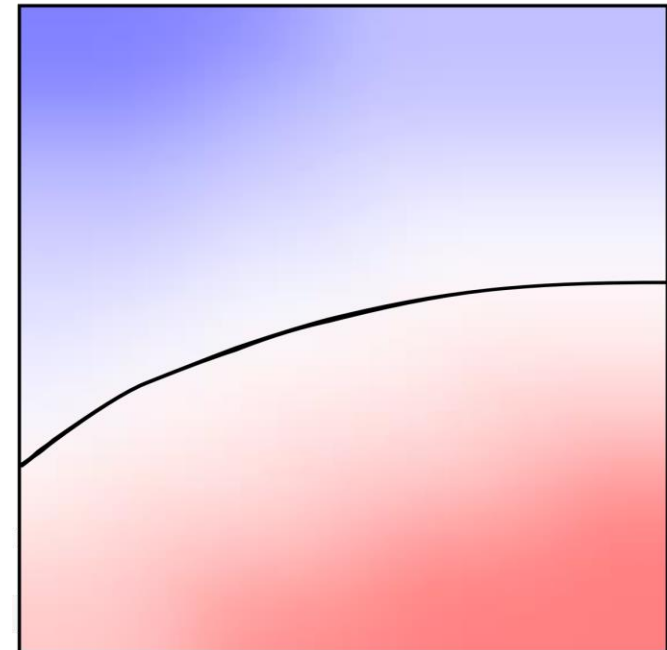
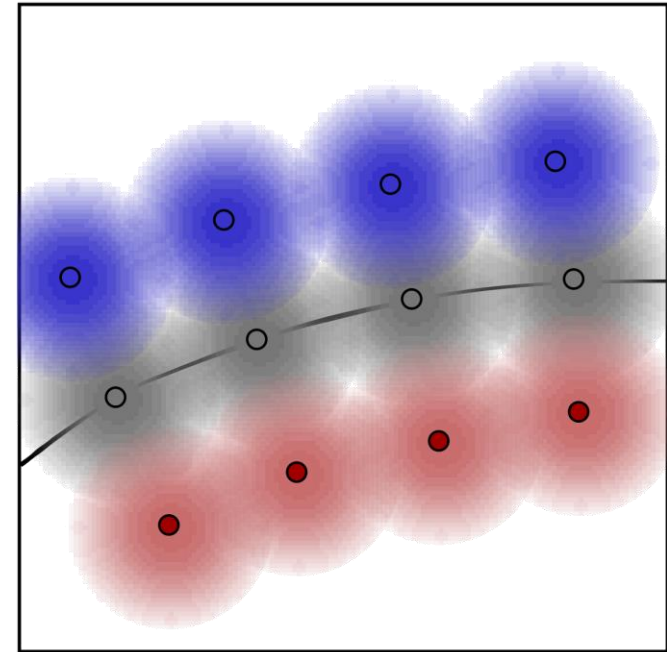
- The radial basis functions can also have different size (support) for adaptive refinement
- Placement: near the expected surface



# Particle Methods

## Particle methods / radial basis function:

- Where should we place the radial basis functions?
  - If we have an initial guess for the surface shape:
    - Put some on the surface
    - And some in +/- normal direction
  - Otherwise:
    - Uniform placement in lowres
    - Solve for surface
    - Refine near lowres-surface, iterate





# Types of Radial Basis Functions

## Typical choices for radial basis functions:

- (Quasi-) compactly supported functions:
  - Exponentials / normal distribution densities:  $\exp(-\lambda x^2)$
  - Uniform (cubic) tensor product B-Splines
  - Moving-least squares finite element basis functions (will be discussed later)
- Globally supported functions:
  - Thin plate spline basis functions:  
 $\|x - x_0\|^2 \ln\|x - x_0\|$  (2D),  $\|x - x_0\|^3$  (3D)
  - These functions guarantee minimal integral second derivatives.

# Pros & Cons

## Why use globally supported basis functions?

- They come with smoothness guarantees
- However: computations might become expensive (we will see later how to device efficient algorithms for globally supported radial basis functions)

## Locally supported functions:

- Easy to use
- Additional regularization might become necessary to compute a “nice” surface

# Implicit Surfaces

## Level Set Extraction

# Iso-Surface Extraction

## New task:

- Assume we have defined an implicit function
- Now we want to extract the surface
- I.e. convert it to an explicit, piecewise parametric representation, typically a triangle mesh
- For this we need an iso-surface extraction algorithm
  - a.k.a. level set extraction
  - a.k.a. contouring

# Algorithms

## Algorithms:

- Marching Cubes
  - This is the standard technique
  - We will also discuss some problems / modifications
- Particle methods
  - Just to show an alternative
  - Not used that frequently in practice

# Marching Cubes

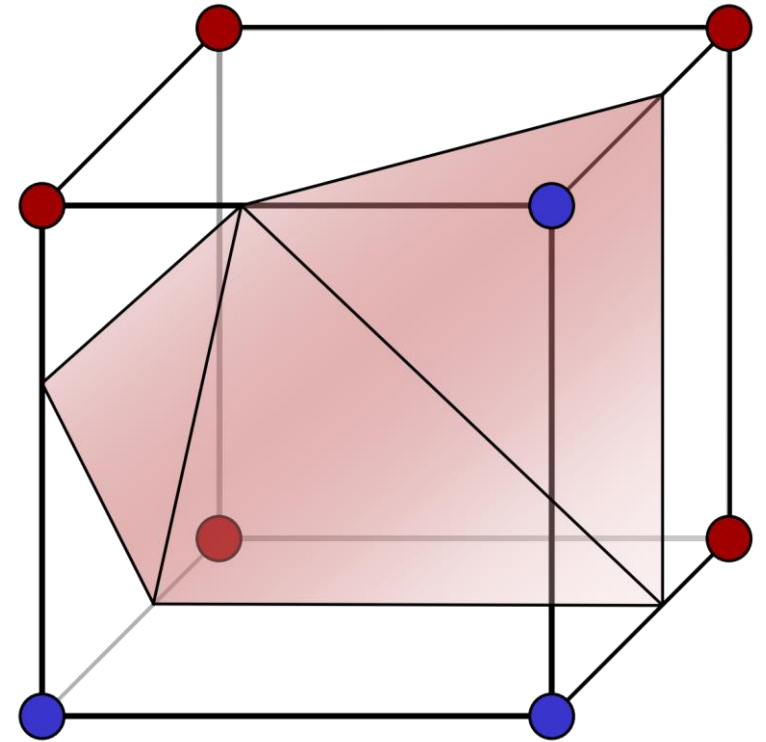
## Marching Cubes:

- The most frequently used iso surface extraction algorithm
  - Creates a triangle mesh from an iso-value surface of a scalar volume
  - The algorithm is also used frequently to visualize CT scanner data and other volume data
- Simple idea:
  - Define and solve a fixed complexity, local problem
  - Compute a full solution by solving many such local problems incrementally

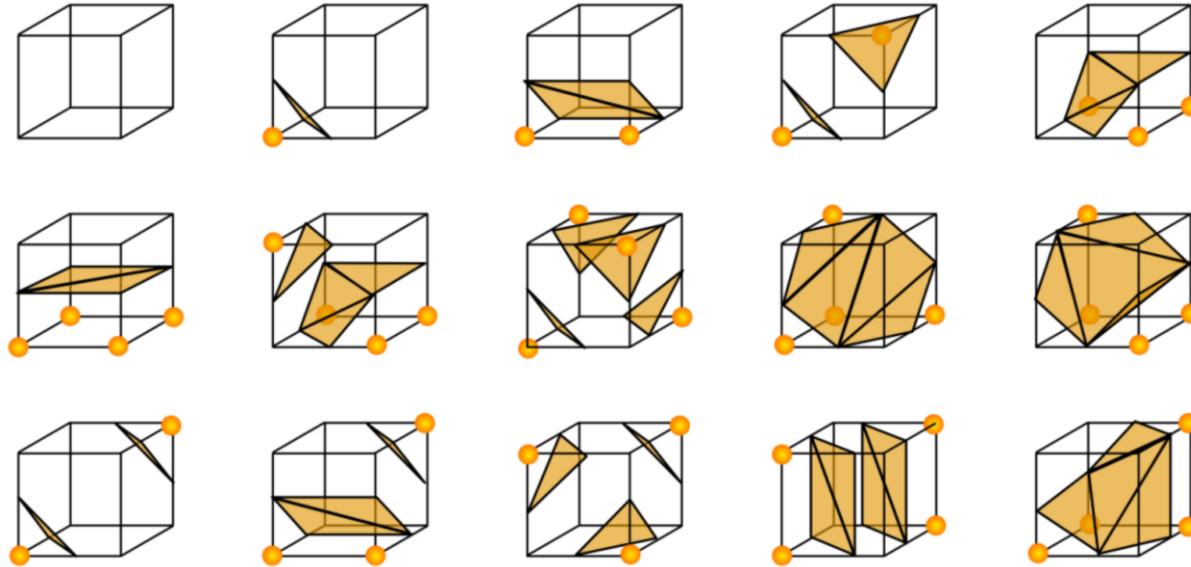
# Marching Cubes

## Marching Cubes:

- Here is the local problem:
  - We have a cube with 8 vertices
  - Each vertex is either inside or outside the volume (i.e.  $f(\mathbf{x}) < 0$  or  $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ )
  - How should we triangulate this cube?
  - How should we place the vertices?



# Triangulation

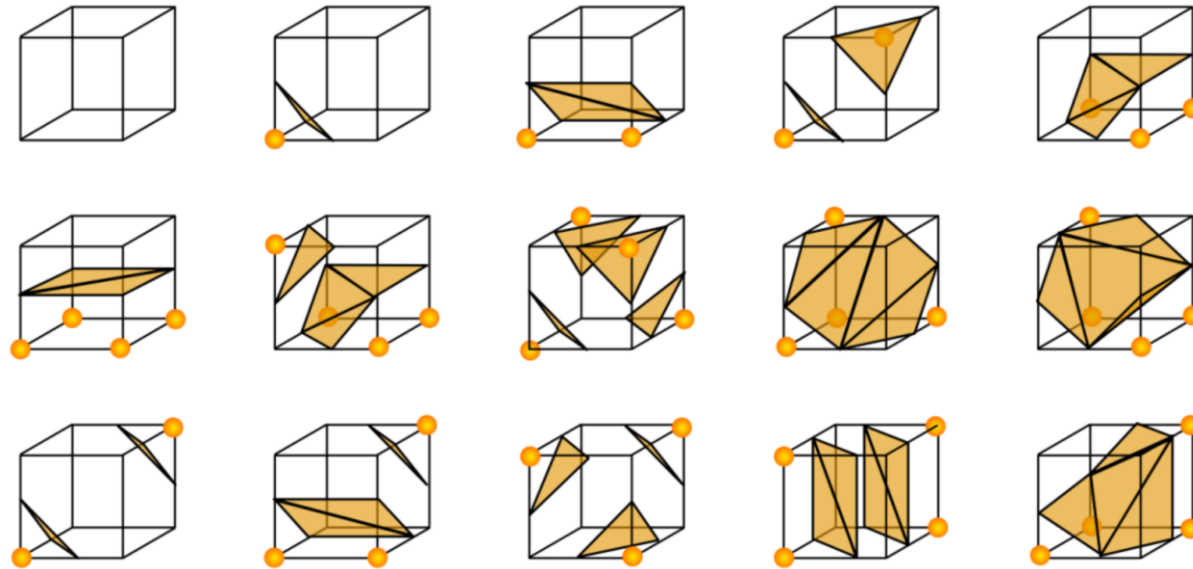


## Triangulation:

- We have 256 different cases – each of the 8 vertices can be in or out
- By symmetry, this can be reduced to 15 cases
  - Symmetry: reflection, rotation, and bit inversion
- This means, we can compute the topology of the mesh



# Vertex Placement



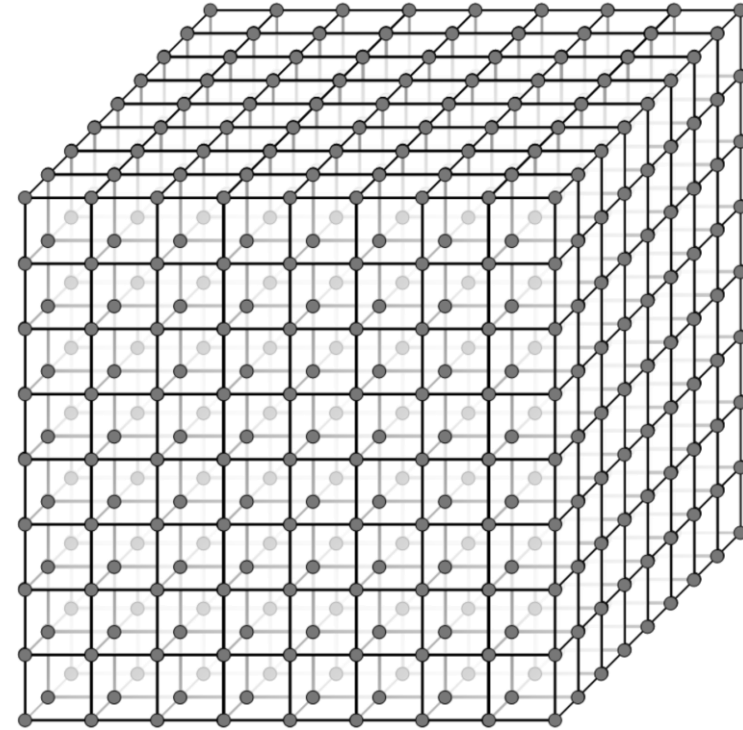
## How to place the vertices?

- Zero-th order accuracy: Place vertices at edge midpoints
- First order accuracy: Linearly interpolate vertices along edges.
- Example: for scalar values  $f(x) = -0.1$  and  $f(y) = 0.2$ , place the vertex at ratio 1:2 between  $x$  and  $y$

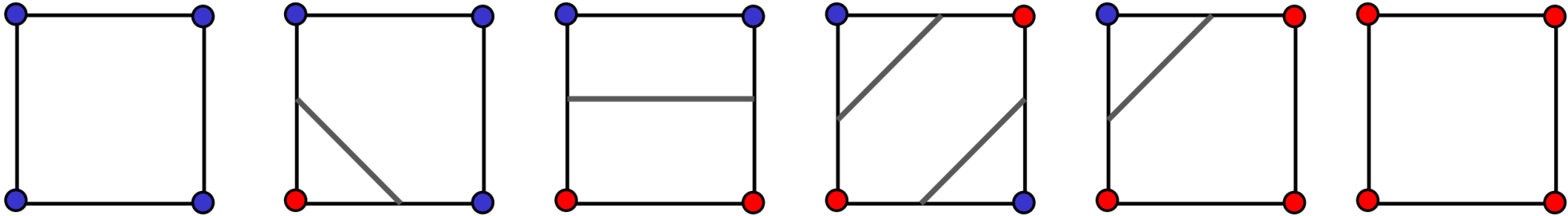
# Outer Loop

## Outer Loop:

- Compute a bounding box of the domain of the implicit function
- Divide it into cubes of the same size (regular cube grid)
- Execute “marching cube” algorithm in each subcube
- Output the union of all triangles generated
- Optionally: Use a vertex hash table to make the mesh consistent (remove double vertices)



# Marching Squares



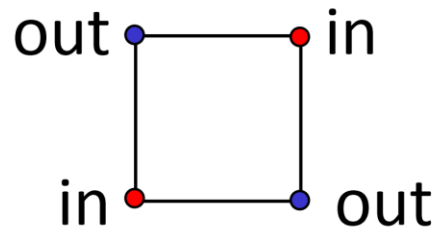
## Marching Squares:

- There is also a 2D version of the algorithm, called marching squares
- Same idea, but fewer cases

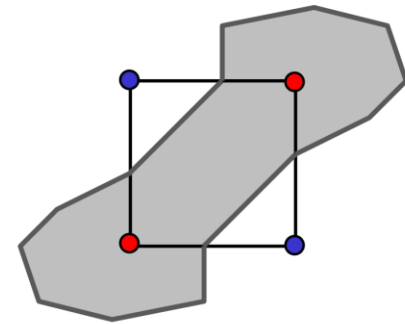
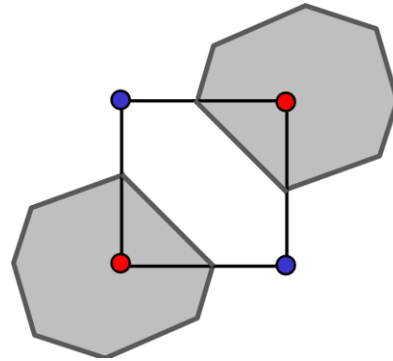
# Ambiguities

**There is a (minor) technical problem remaining:**

- The triangulation can be ambiguous
- In some cases, different topologies are possible which are all locally plausible:



?



- This is an *undersampling artifact*. At a sufficiently high resolution, this cannot occur.
- Problem: Inconsistent application can lead to holes in the surface (non-manifold solutions)

# Ambiguities

## Solution

- Always use the same solution pattern in ambiguous situations
- For example: Always *connect* diagonally
  - This might yield topologically wrong results.
  - But the surface is guaranteed to be a triangulated 2-manifold without holes and with well-defined interior / exterior
- Better solution:
  - Use higher resolution sampling (if possible)
- All of this (problem and solutions) also applies to the 3D case.

# MC Variations

## Empty space skipping:

- Marching cube uses an  $n^3$  voxel grid, which can become pretty expensive
- The surface intersects typically only  $O(n^2)$  voxels.
- If we roughly know where the surface might appear, we can restrict the execution of the algorithm (and the evaluations of  $f$  at the corners) to a narrow band around the surface.
- Example: Particle methods – only extract within the support of the radial basis functions.

# MC Variations

## Hierarchical marching cubes algorithm:

- One can use a hierarchical version of the marching cubes algorithms using a balanced octree instead of a regular grid
  - We need some refinement criterion to judge on where to subdivide
  - This is application dependent (depends on the definition of  $f$ ).
- However, we obtain many more cases to consider (which is painful to derive).

## Simple solution (common in practice):

- Extract high-resolution triangle mesh
- Then run mesh simplification (slower, but better quality).

# Particle-Based Extraction

## Particle-based method:

- This technique creates a set of points as output, which cover the iso-surface.
- Algorithm:
  - Start with a random point cloud ( $n$  points in a bounding volume)
  - Now define forces that attract particles to the zero-level set.
  - Also add some (weak) tangential repulsion to make them distribute uniformly



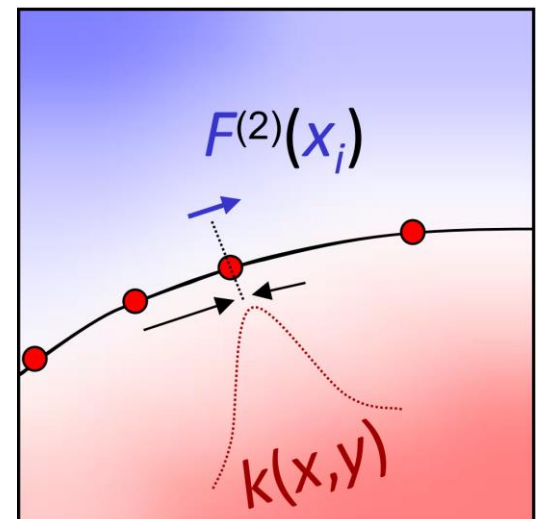
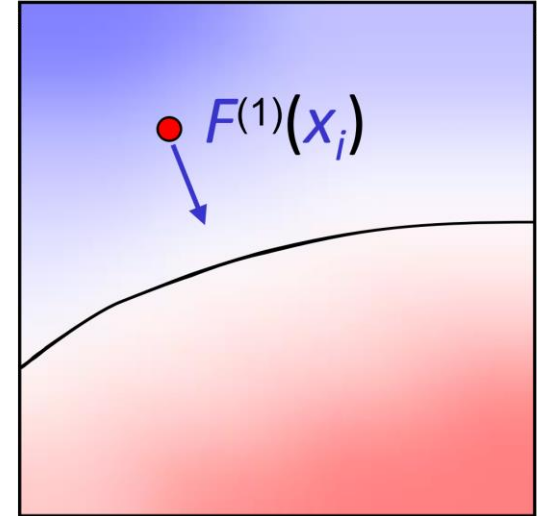
# Forces

Attraction “force”:

$$F^{(1)}(x_i) = m_i \|\nabla f(x_i)\|^2$$

Tangential repulsion force:

$$F^{(2)}(x_i) = \left( \sum_{j \neq i} k(x_i, x_j) \frac{x_i - x_j}{\|x_i - x_j\|^2} \right) \left( I - \left[ \frac{\nabla f(x_i)}{\|\nabla f(x_i)\|} \right] \cdot \left[ \frac{\nabla f(x_i)}{\|\nabla f(x_i)\|} \right]^T \right)$$



# Solution

## Solution:

- We obtain a system of ordinary differential equations
- The ODE can be solved numerically
- Simplest technique: gradient decent (explicit Euler)
  - Move every point by a fraction of the force vector
  - Recalculate forces
  - Iterate
- We have the solution if the system reaches a steady state (nothing moves anymore, numerically)

# Implicit Surfaces

Solid Modeling

# Solid Modeling

## We want to:

- Form basic volumetric primitives (spheres, cubes, cylinders) as implicit functions (this is easy, no details)
- Compute Boolean combinations of these primitives:  
Intersection, union, etc...
- Derive an implicit function from these operations

# Boolean Operations

**Actually, Boolean operations with implicit functions are simple:**

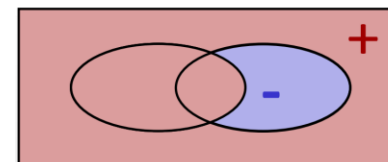
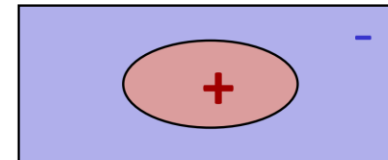
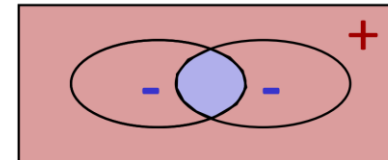
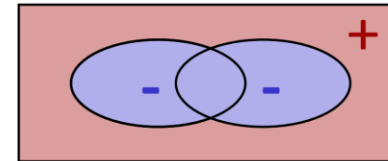
- Given two signed implicit functions (negative inside)  $f_A, f_B$  for objects  $A, B$
- The Boolean combinations are given by:

- Union  $A \cup B$ :  $f_{A \cup B} = \min(f_A, f_B)$

- Intersection  $A \cap B$ :  $f_{A \cap B} = \max(f_A, f_B)$

- Complement  $\neg A$ :  $f_{\neg A} = -f_A$

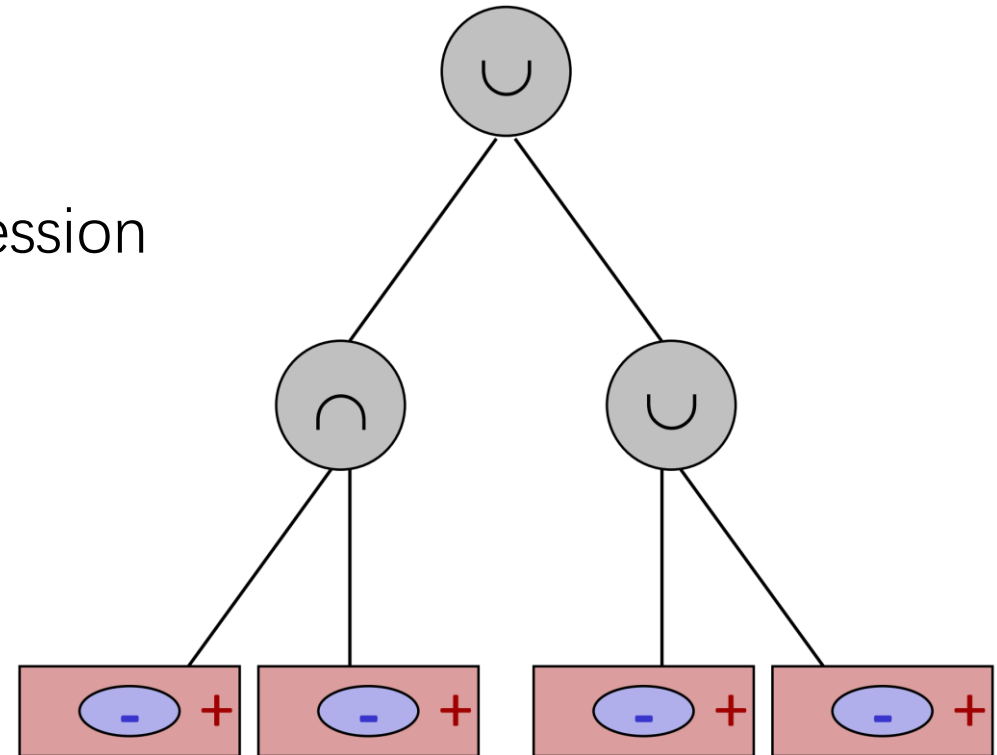
- Difference  $A \setminus B$ :  $f_{A \setminus B} = \min(f_A, -f_B)$



# Hierarchical Modeling

This can be models as a **CSG tree (constructive solid geometry)**:

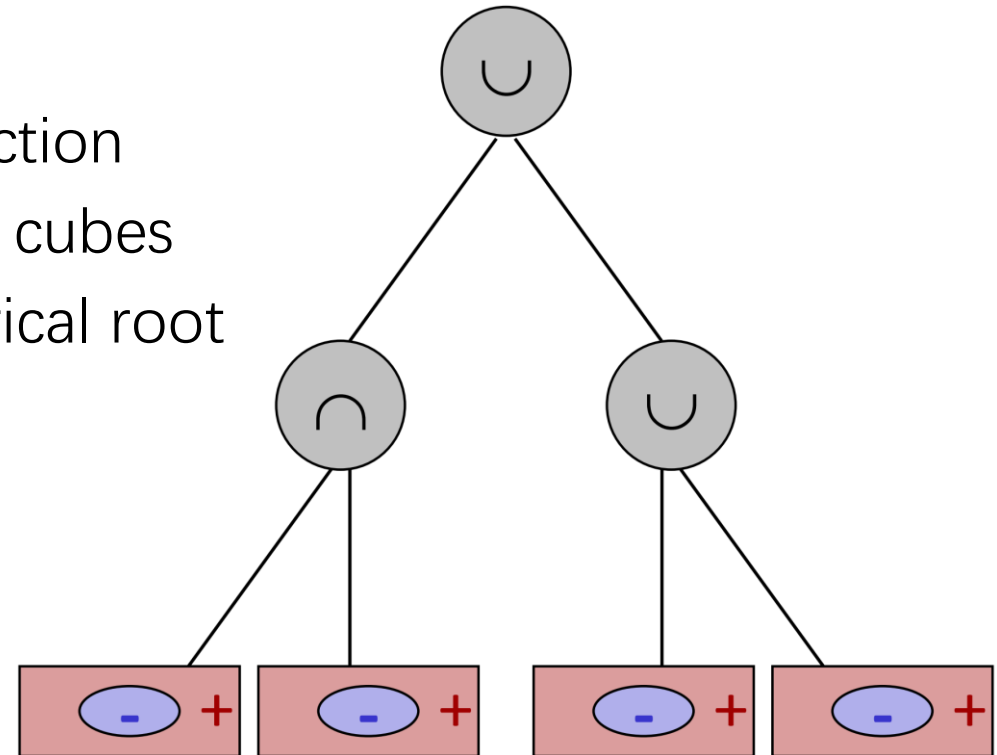
- Leaf nodes are signed distance functions
- Inner nodes are Boolean operations
- Evaluation translates to an arithmetic expression
- Other operations:
  - Deformation (apply vector field)
  - Blending (combine surface smoothly)



# Hierarchical Modeling

## Rendering CSG hierarchies:

- Rendering is simple
- We get one compound signed implicit function
- We can extract the surface using marching cubes
- We can raytrace the surface using a numerical root finding algorithm
  - For example:  
Newton scheme with voxel-based initialization



# Implicit Surfaces

Data Fitting



# Constructing Implicit Surfaces

## Question: How to construct implicit surfaces?

- Basic primitives: Spheres, boxes etc ... are (almost) trivial.
- We can construct implicit spline schemes by using 3D tensor product (or tetrahedral) constructions of 3D Bezier or B-Spline functions
- Another option: Variational modeling
- In this chapter of this lecture: Fitting to data

# Data Fitting

## Data Fitting Problem:

- We are given a set of points
- We want to find an implicit surface that interpolates or approximates these points
- This problem is ill-defined
- We need additional assumptions to make it well-defined
- We will look at three variants:
  - Hoppe's method / plane blending
  - Thin-plate spline data matching
  - MPU Implicits (multi-level partition of unity implicits)

# Plane Blending Method

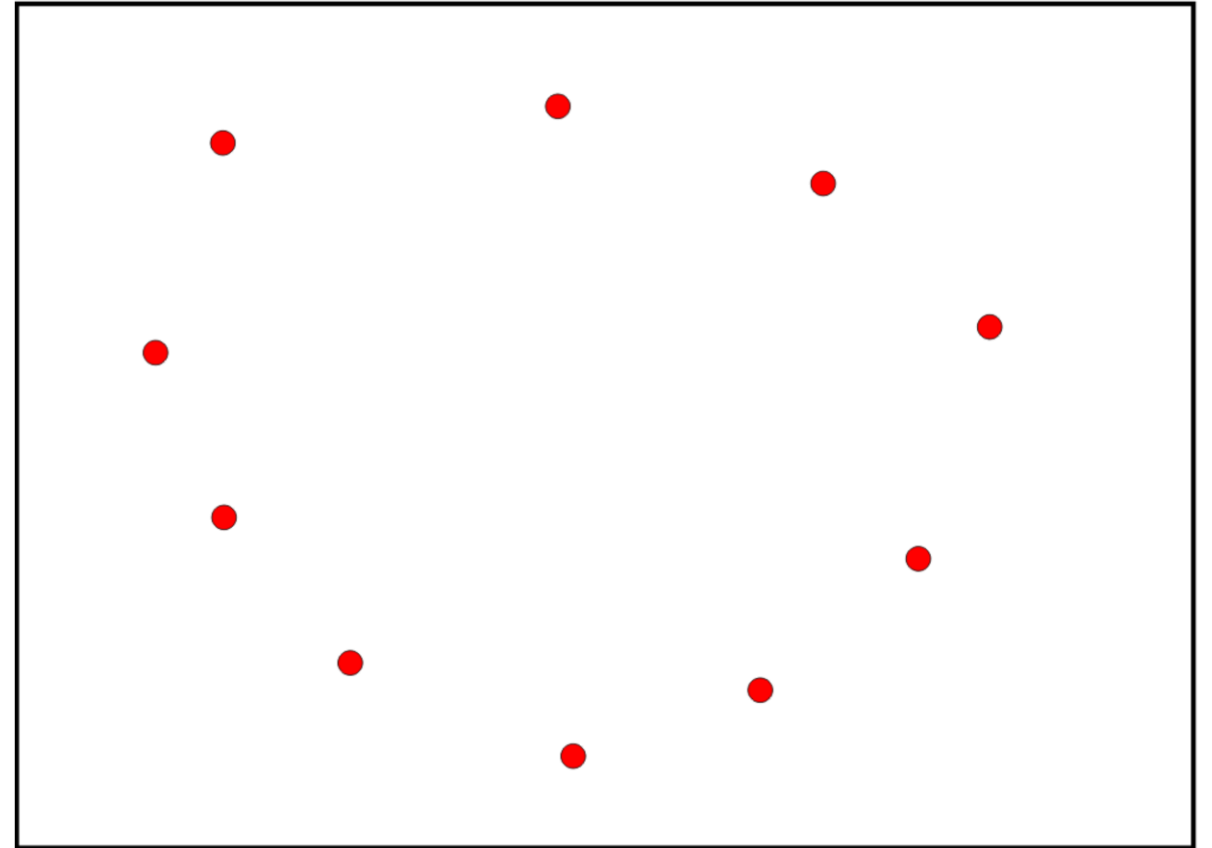
**Initial data**

Estimate normal

Signed distance func.

Marching cubes

Final mesh



# Plane Blending Method

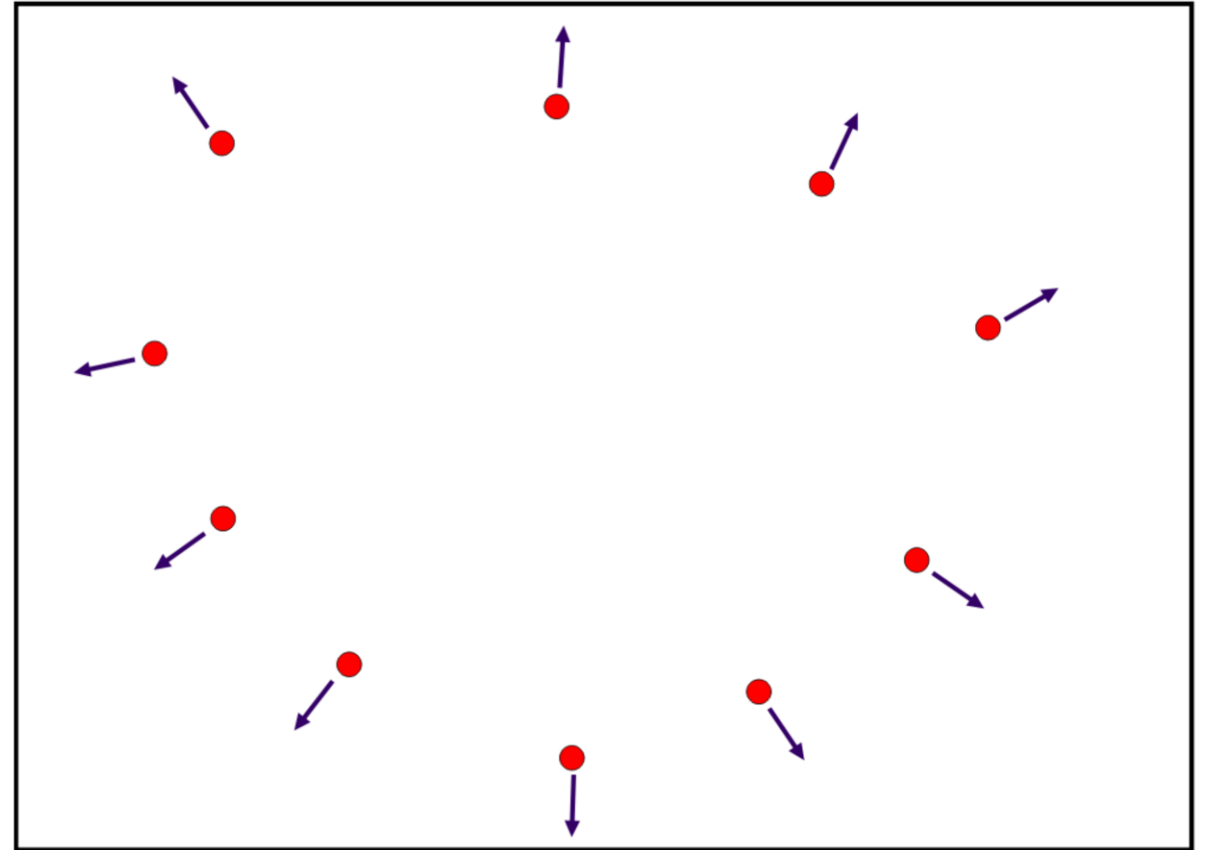
Initial data

**Estimate normal**

Signed distance func.

Marching cubes

Final mesh



**unoriented normal:**

total least squares plane fit (PCA)  
in a  $k$ -nearest neighbors neighborhood

# Plane Blending Method

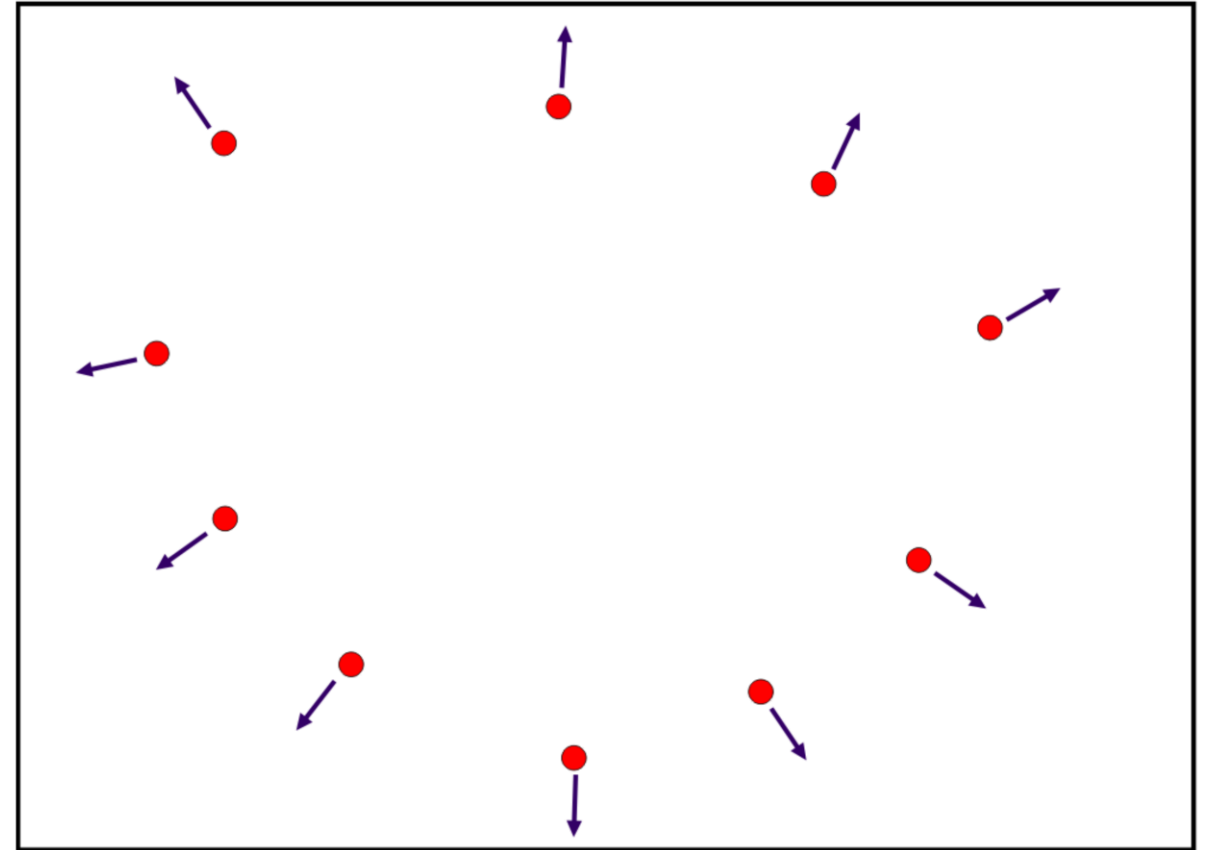
Initial data

**Estimate normal**

Signed distance func.

Marching cubes

Final mesh



**consistent orientation:**

region growing, flip normal if angle  $> 180^\circ$   
pick most similar normal next in each step

# Plane Blending Method

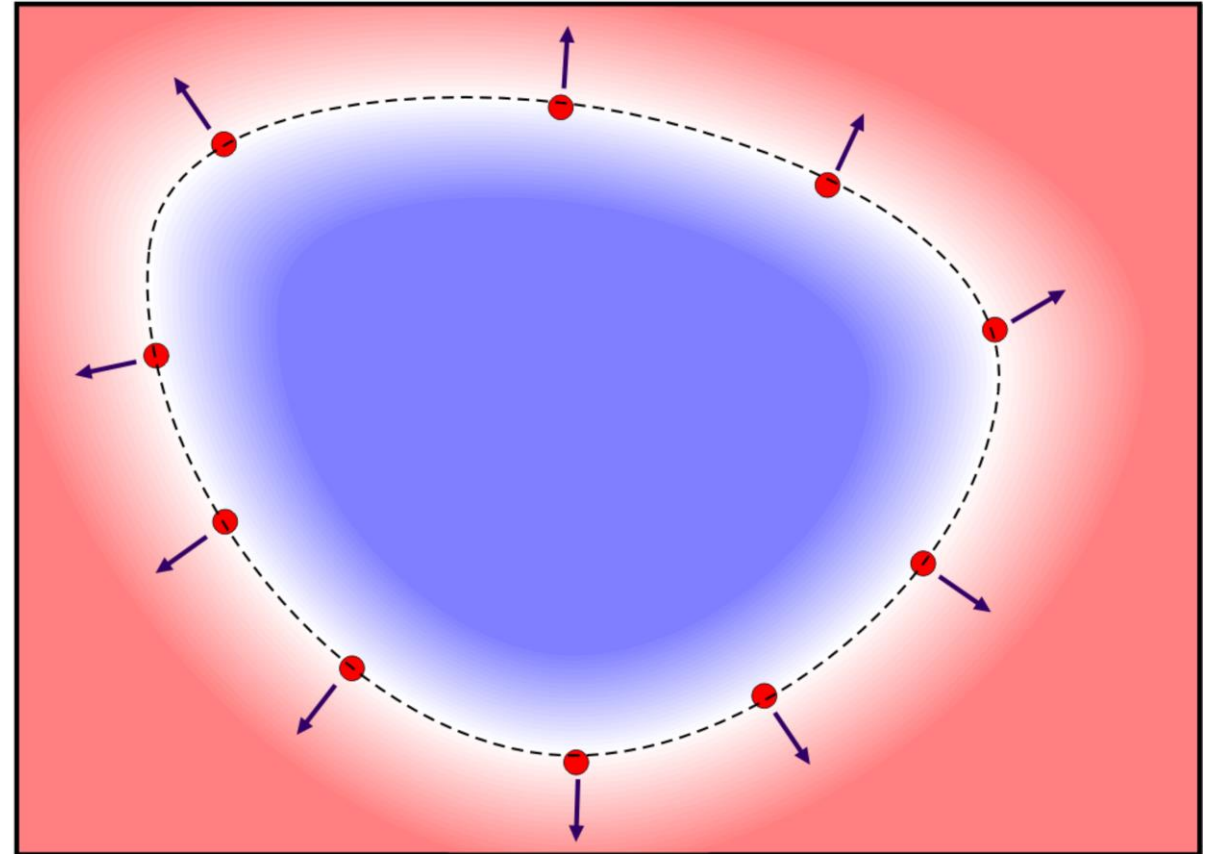
Initial data

Estimate normal

**Signed distance func.**

Marching cubes

Final mesh



**consistent orientation:**

blend between signed distance functions of  
planes associated with each point

# Plane Blending Method

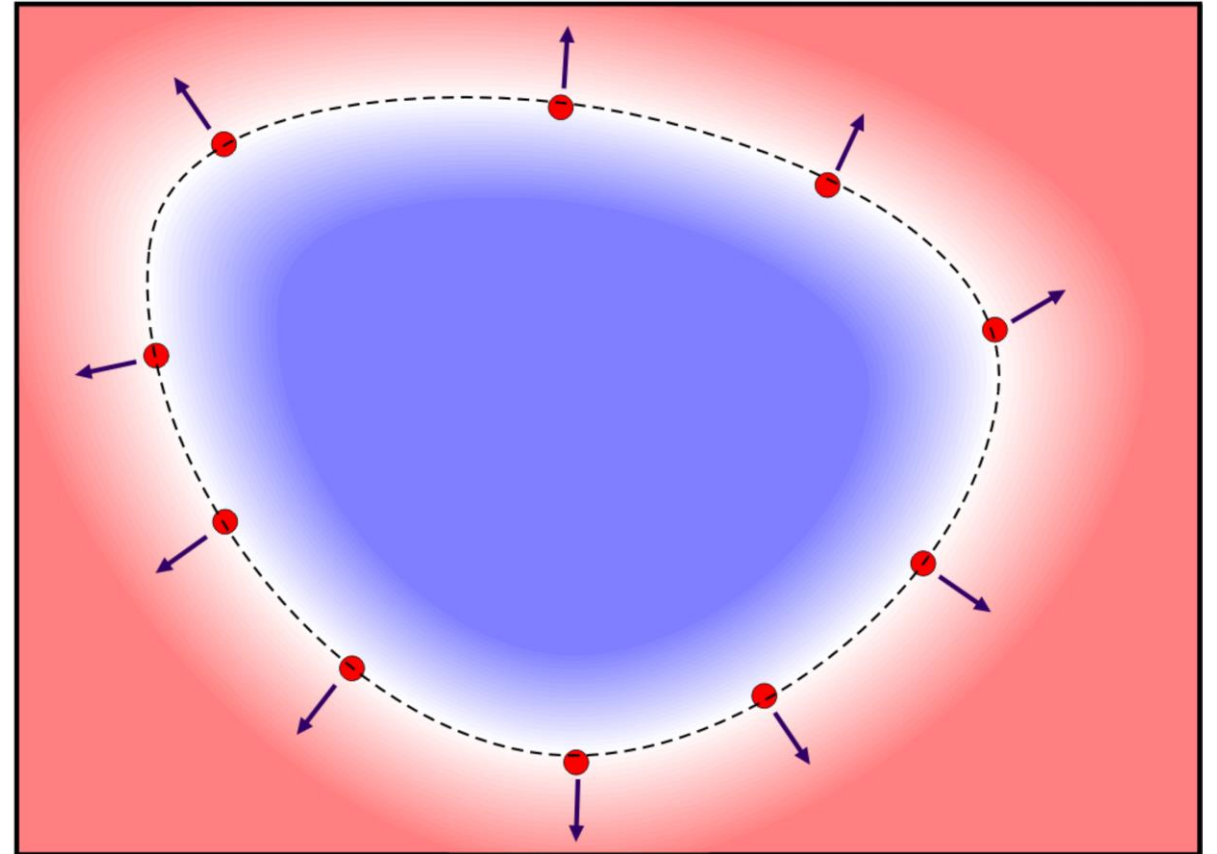
Initial data

Estimate normal

**Signed distance func.**

Marching cubes

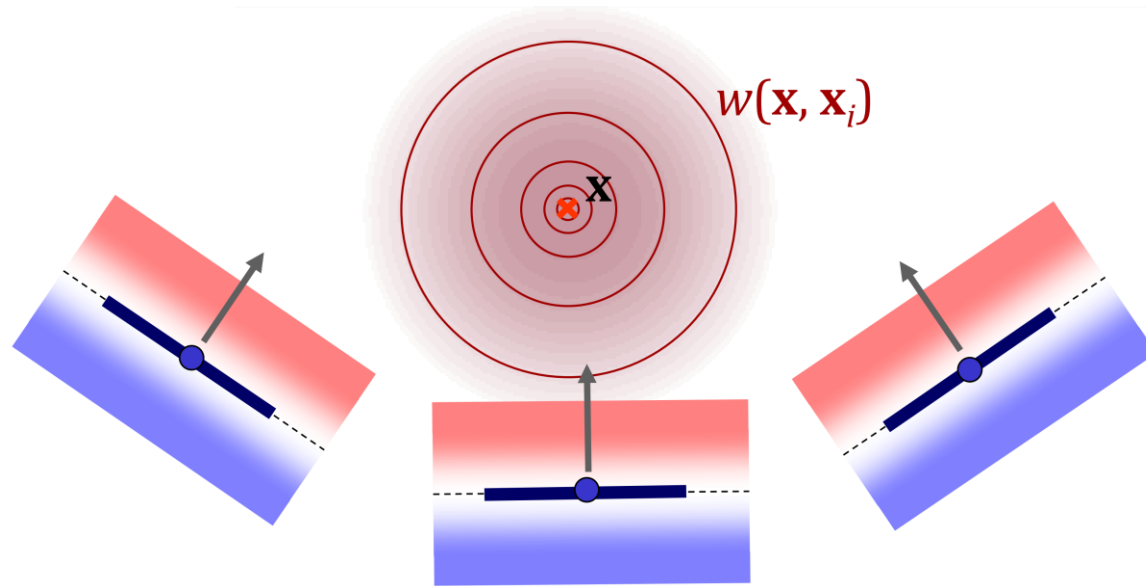
Final mesh



**signed distance function:**  
plane blending (next slide)

# Normal Constraints

## Basic Idea:

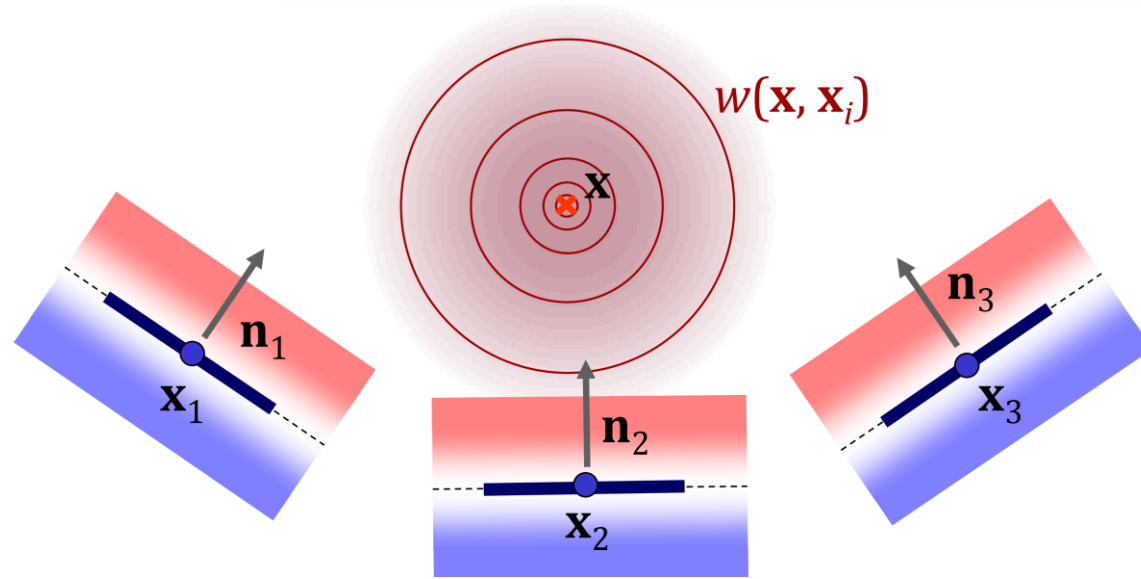


- Each point defines an oriented plane and a signed distance function
- To obtain a composite distance field in space:  
Blend these distance functions with weights from a kernel (Gaussian, or uniform B-Spline)



# Normal Constraints

Basic Idea:



$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \langle \mathbf{n}_i, \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i \rangle w(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|)}{\sum_{i=1}^n w(\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i\|)} \quad (\text{partition of unity weights})$$

# Plane Blending Method

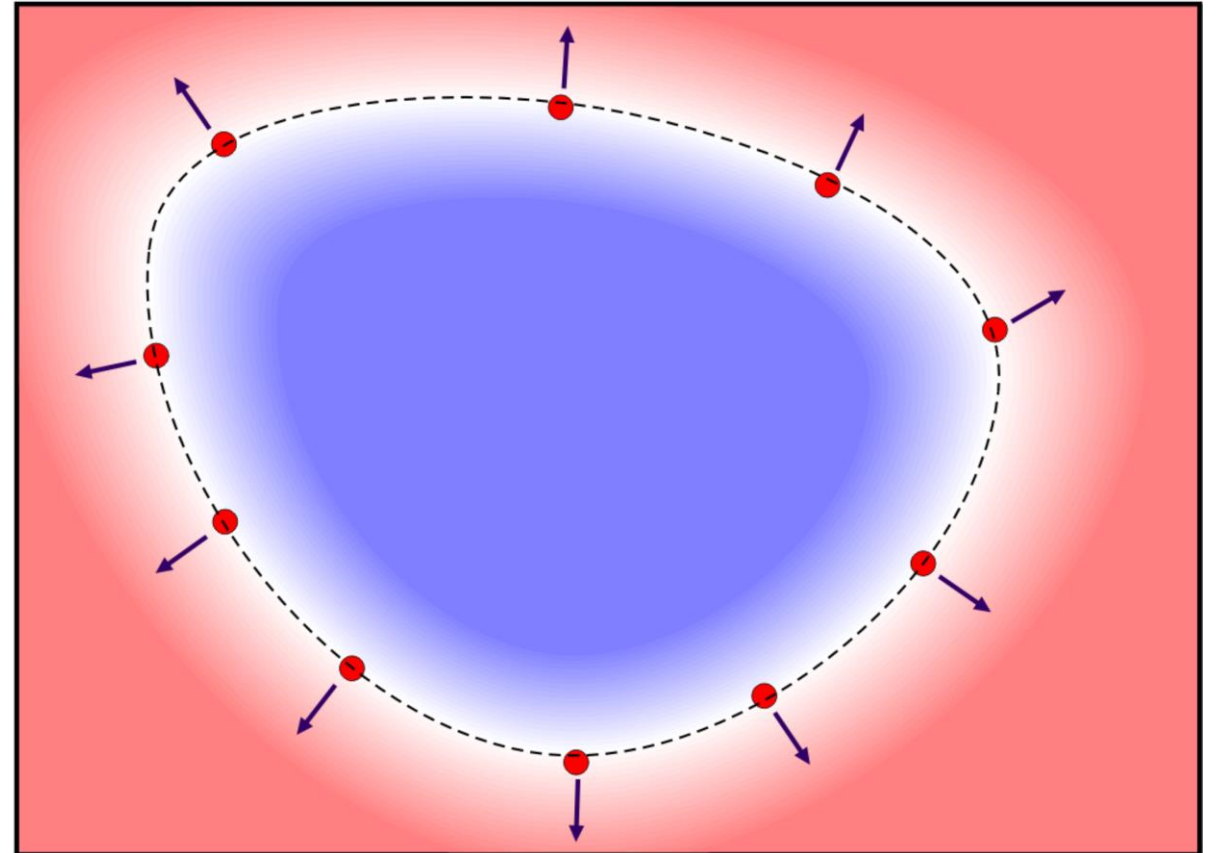
Initial data

Estimate normal

**Signed distance func.**

Marching cubes

Final mesh



# Plane Blending Method

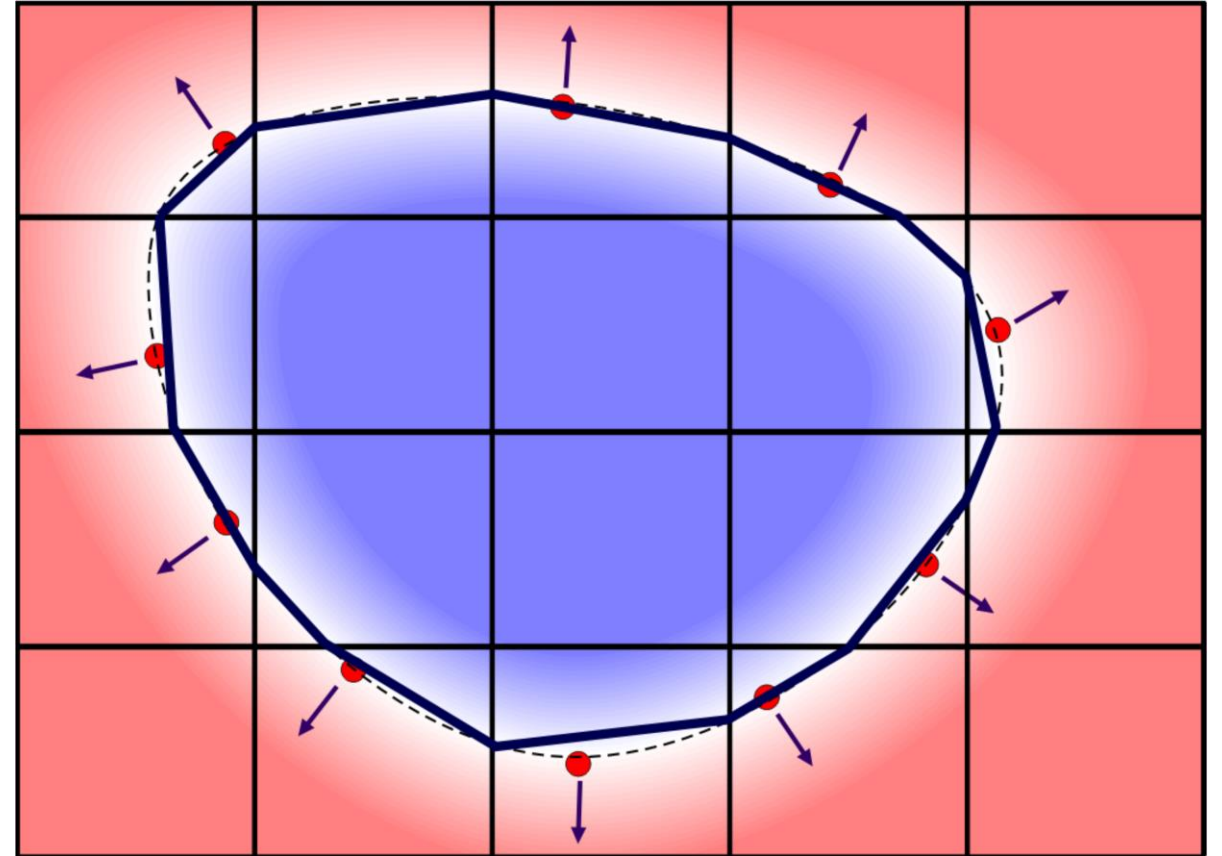
Initial data

Estimate normal

Signed distance func.

**Marching cubes**

Final mesh



# Plane Blending Method

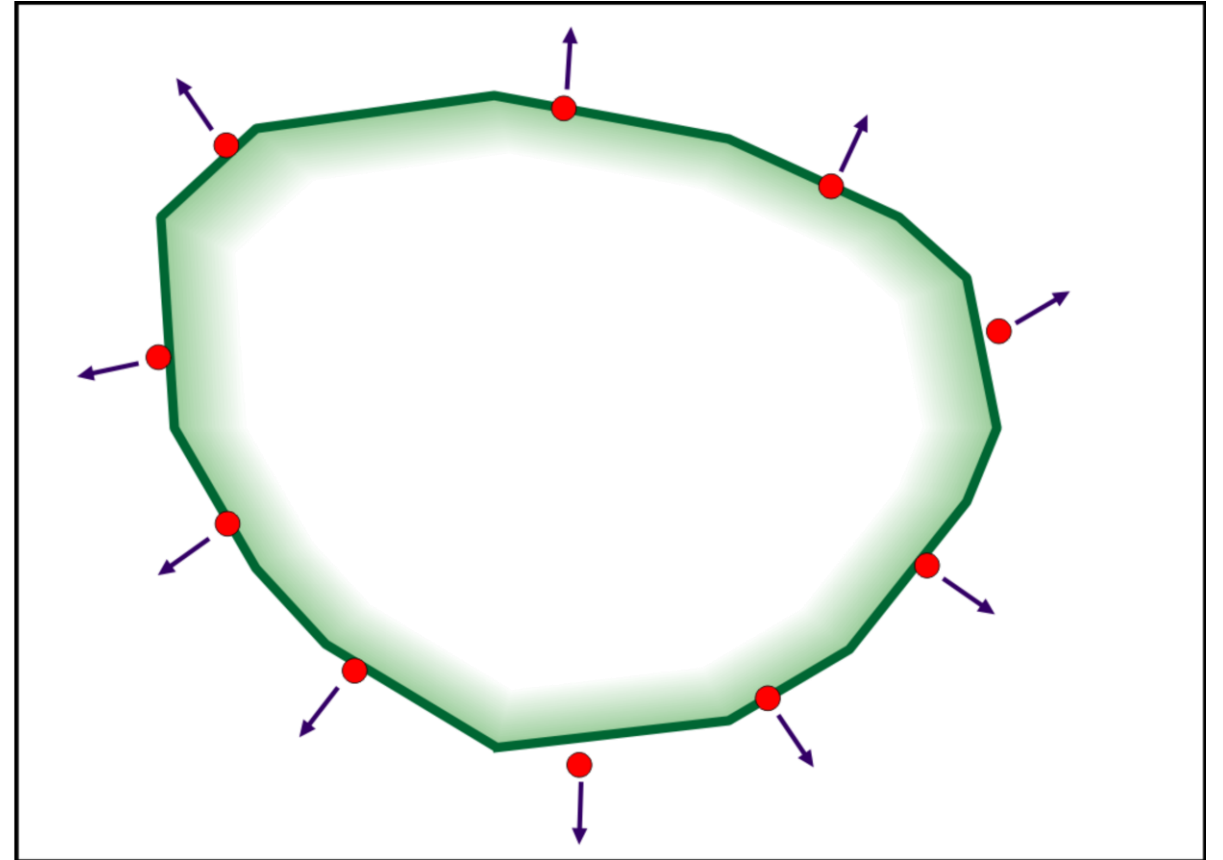
Initial data

Estimate normal

Signed distance func.

Marching cubes

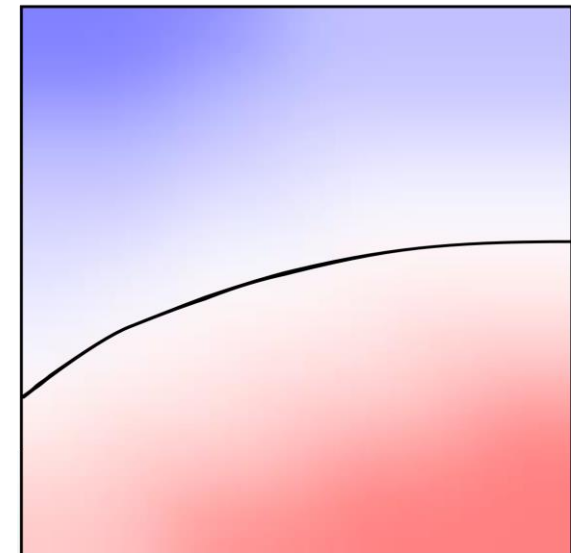
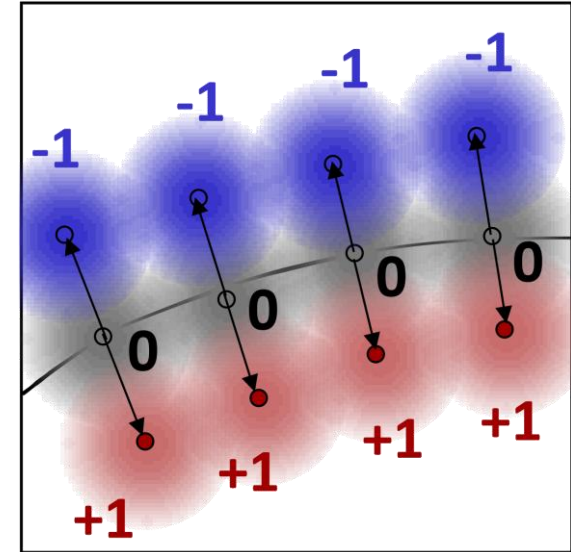
**Final mesh**



# Thin-Plate Spline Data Matching

## Agenda:

- Use radial basis functions
- Use a globally supported basis that guarantees smoothness
- Place radial basis functions at the input points
- Place two more in normal and negative normal direction
- Prescribe values  $+1, 0, -1$
- Solve a linear system to meet these constraints

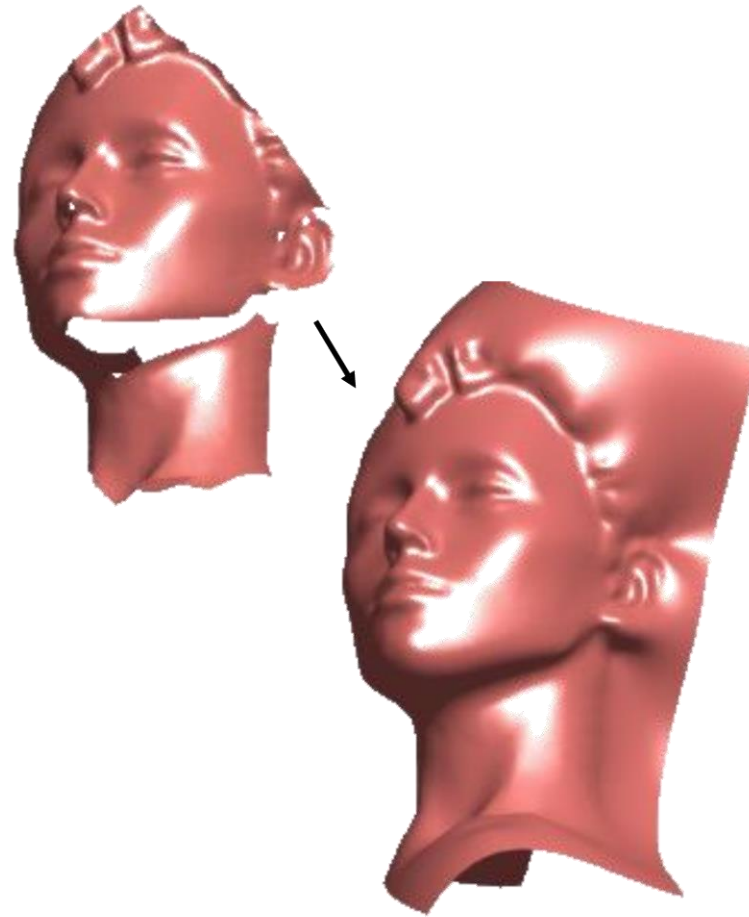
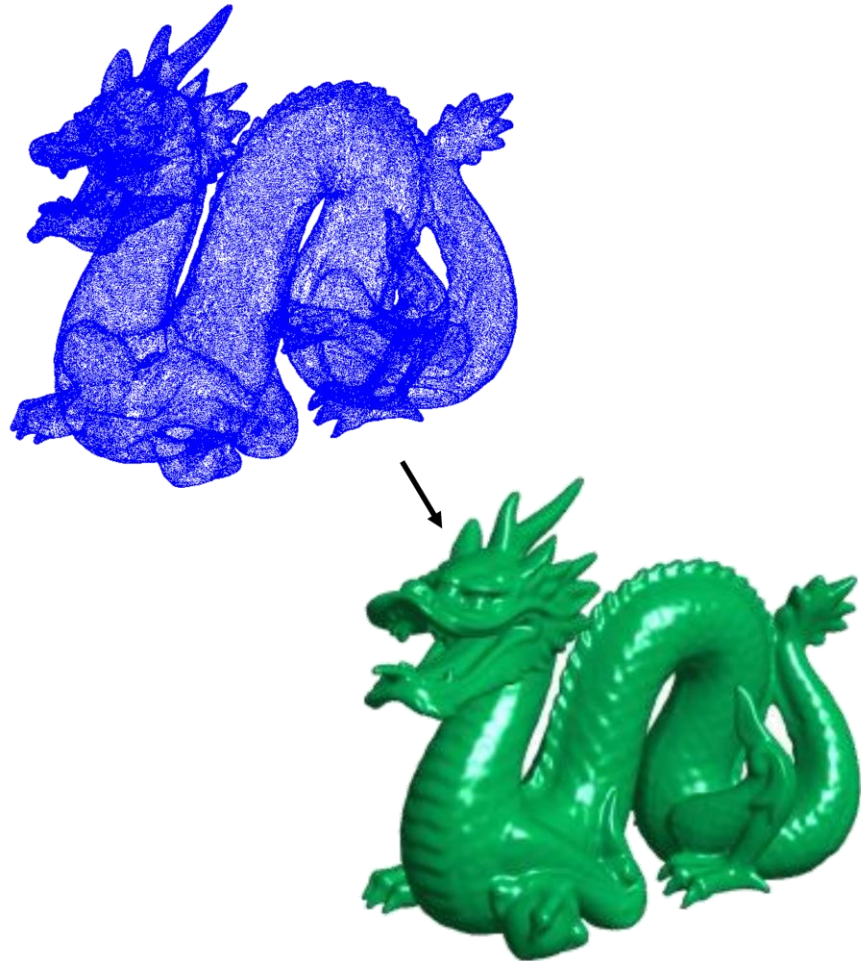


# Types of Radial Basis Functions

## Typical choices for radial basis functions:

- Globally supported functions:
  - Thin plate spline basis functions:  
 $\|x - x_0\|^2 \ln\|x - x_0\|$  (2D),  $\|x - x_0\|^3$  (3D)
  - These functions guarantee minimal integral second derivatives
- Problem: evaluation
  - Every basis function interacts with each other one
  - This creates a dense  $n \times n$  linear system
  - One can use a fast multi pole method that clusters far away nodes in bigger octree boxes
  - This gives  $O(\log n)$  interactions per particle, overall  $O(n \log n)$  interactions

# Examples



Carr et al. Reconstruction and representation of 3D objects with Radial Basis Functions, SIGGRAPH 2001

# Alternative

## Alternative:

- Use locally supported basis functions (e.g. B-Splines)
- Employ an additional regularization term to make the solution smooth.
- Optimize the energy function

$$E(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \mu \int_{\Omega} \left( \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + \frac{2\partial^2}{\partial x\partial y} + \frac{2\partial^2}{\partial y\partial z} + \frac{2\partial^2}{\partial x\partial z} \right] f(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 dx$$

with  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i b(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_j)$

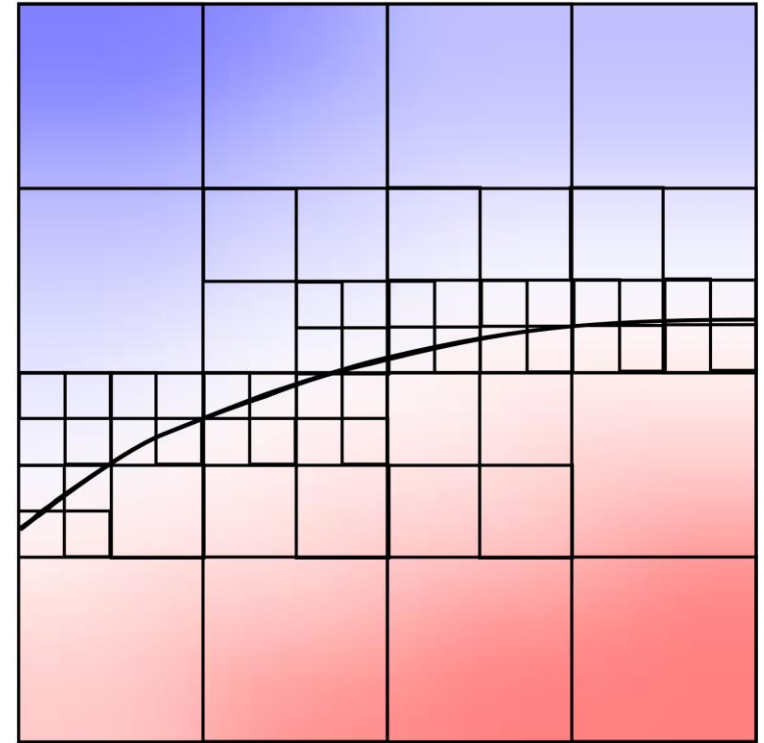
- The critical point is the solution to a linear system



# MPU Implicits

## Multi-level partition of unity implicits:

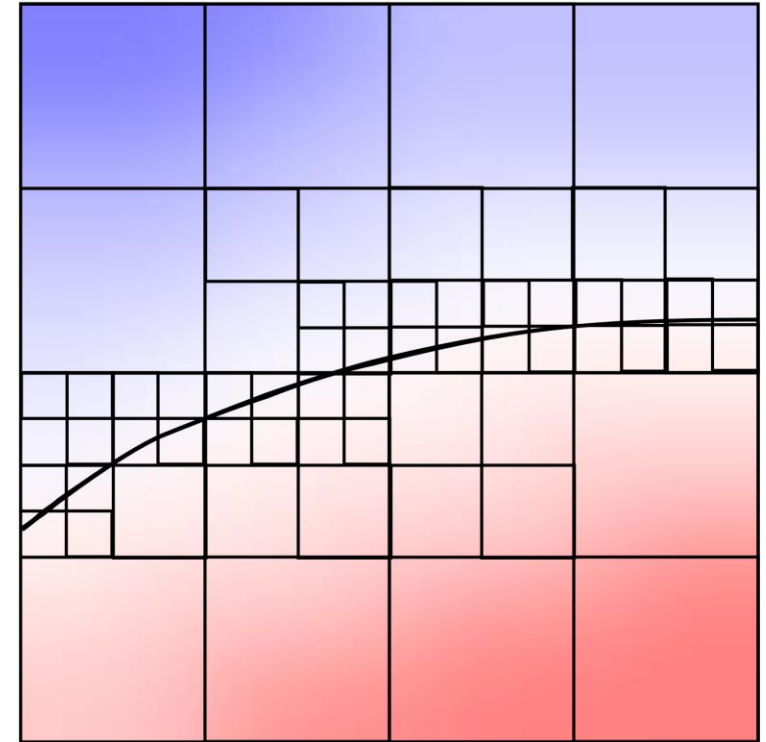
- Hierarchical implicit function approximation
  - Given: data points with normal
  - Computes: hierarchical approximation of the signed distance function



# MPU Implicits

## Multi-level partition of unity implicits:

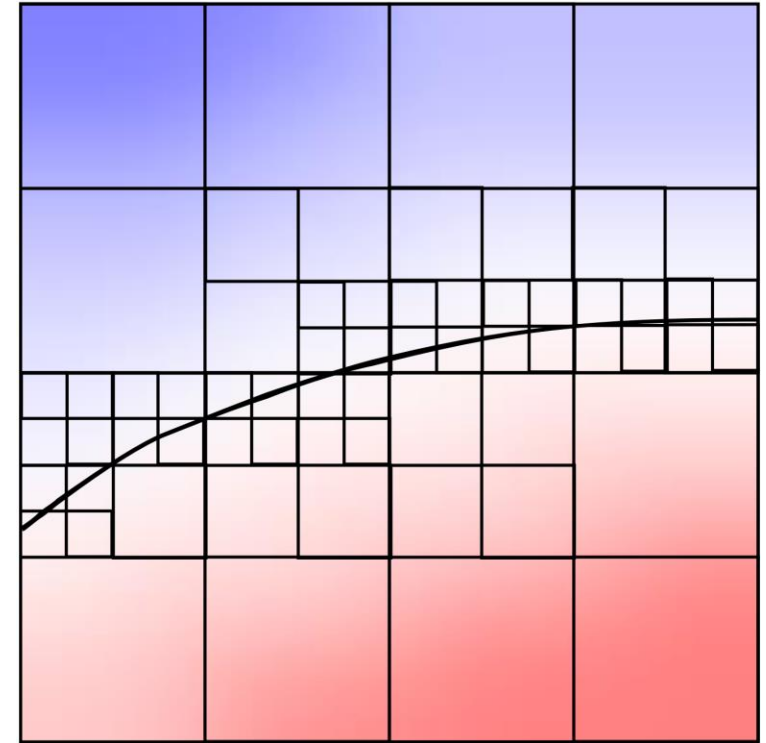
- Octree decomposition of space
- In each octree cell, fit an implicit quadratic function to points
  - $f(\mathbf{x}_i) = 0$  at data points
  - Additional normal constraints
- Stopping criterion:
  - Sufficient approximation accuracy  
(evaluate  $f$  at data points to calculate distance)
  - At least 15 points per cell.



# MPU Implicits

## Multi-level partition of unity implicits:

- This gives an adaptive grid of local implicit function approximations
- Problem: How to define a global implicit function?
- Idea: Just blend between local approximants using a windowing function

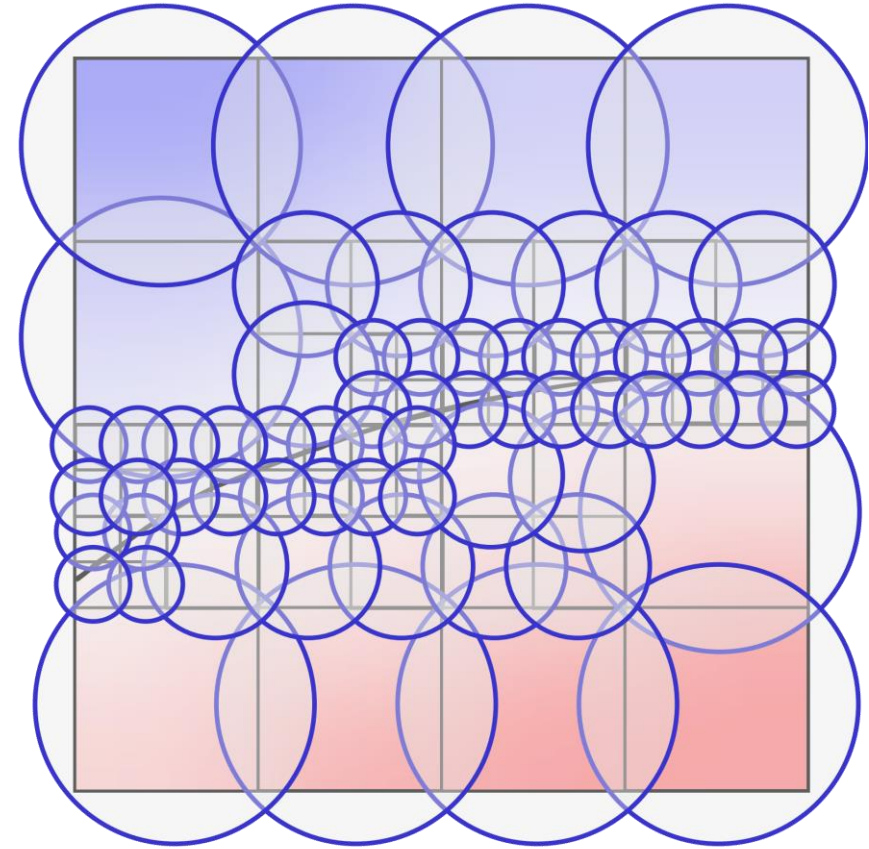


# MPU Implicit

## Multi-level partition of unity implicit:

- Windowing function:
  - Use smooth windowing function  $w$ 
    - B-splines / normal distribution
    - Original formulation: quadratic tensor product B-spline function, support =  $1.5 \times$  cell diagonal
  - Renormalize to form partition of unity:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i) f_i(\mathbf{x})}{\sum_{i=1}^n w(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)}$$

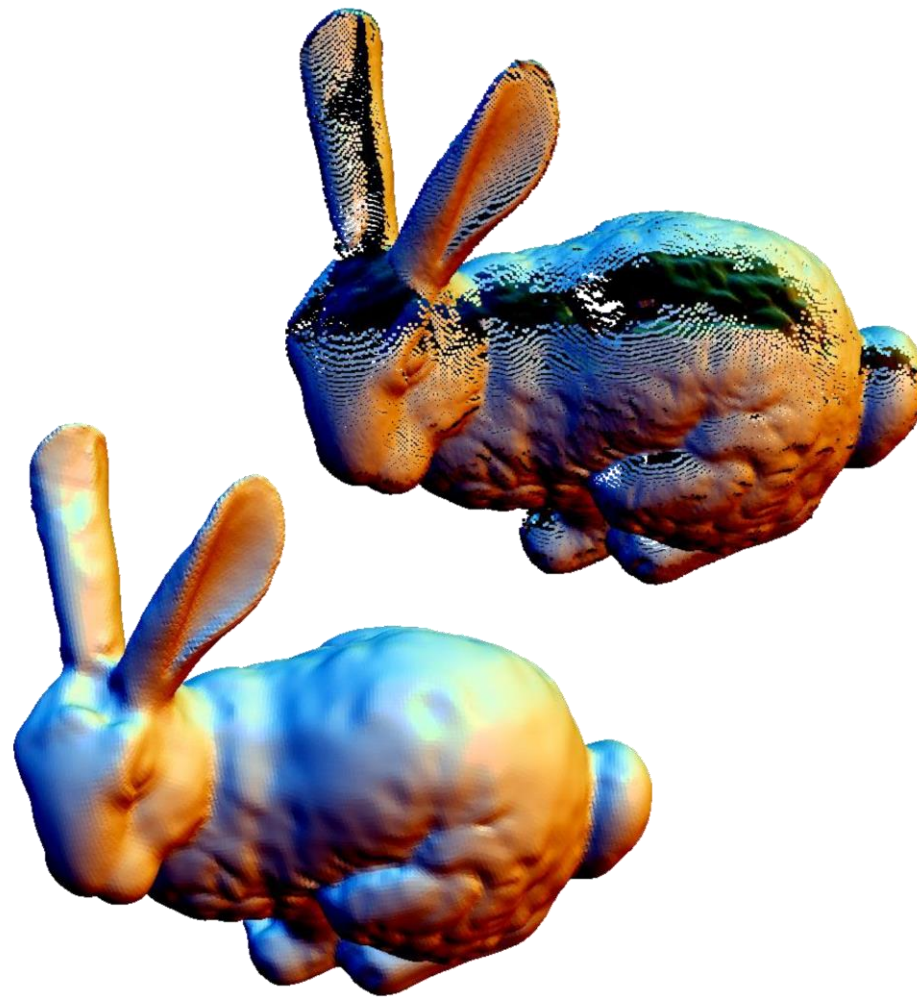


# MPU Implicit

## Multi-level partition of unity implicit:

- Sharp features:
  - If a leaf cell with a few points has strongly varying normal, this might be a sharp feature.
  - Multiple functions can be fitted to parts of the data
  - Boolean operations to obtain composite distance field

# Examples



Ohtake et al. Multi-level Partitioning of  
Unity Implicits, SIGGRAPH 2003