SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR "GEOMETRY REGULARIZED POINT CLOUD AUTOENCODER"

1. INTRODUCTION

In this supplementary material, we present more discussions on our experimental setup, as well as provide more experimental results and analysis on GRAE. We additionally include one more downstream task—object part segmentation to demonstrate the usefulness of our proposal.

2. MORE EXPERIMENTAL SETTINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

2.1. EMD Computation

We hereby discuss more on the existing implementations of EMD. For applications in 2D image processing literature, an excellent, if dated, discussion is provided in [13], Section 2.1. In summary, the optimization problem underlying EMD can be framed as an assignment problem which is solvable using the Hungarian algorithm [7] in $O(N^3)$ time, while $O(\varepsilon)$ approximations (either using Sinkhorn, i.e., entropic approximation [2], or Bertsekas' auction algorithm [3]) can be computed in $O(N^2/\varepsilon)$ time. Recent theoretical refinements for approximation algorithms have made incremental improvements in the above rates (cf. [8]).

The two most common implementations of EMD in point cloud literature are those provided by [4] and [9] respectively. The first is faster in practice (although not comparable to CD). However, it is considerably divergent from Bertsekas' auction algorithm, which it claims to follow, and has no known theoretical guarantees. The latter is known to be an iterative algorithm that produces approximate solutions but does not have convergence guarantees. Newer articles using these implementations (e.g., [15]) in some cases report adverse findings for EMD in comparison to CD as a training loss due to the inability to find a near-optimal matching for moderately-sized point clouds.

Our EMD computation uses the entropic approximationbased multiscale Sinkhorn algorithm provided by the geomloss library [5], which well approximates the true EMD (with $O(\varepsilon)$ error) while having reasonable computational cost of $O(N^2/\varepsilon)$, and is also a GPU implementation.

While the entropic approximation algorithm used in geomloss is slower in practice compared to the implementation in [9], it produces high-quality reconstructed point

clouds with no artifacts as observed with the latter [4]. We use the penalty parameters $\varepsilon = 0.1$ for training and $\varepsilon = 0.01$ for testing.

In our experiments, EMD as a training loss has an advantage, achieving comparable CD loss to CD-trained networks, and much better EMD loss. This supports the view in the prevailing literature that EMD, owing to its richer geometric properties, is a better loss for point cloud tasks compared to CD [1, 9], though the computational cost is a great concern.

2.2. Computational Complexity

The primary computational burden of our approach comes from the calculation of covariance matrices over nearestneighbor graphs. However, as is standard in other point cloud methods utilizing local covariance matrices (e.g., ([16])), we select a set of nearest neighbor graph sizes and pre-compute local covariance matrices for the given sizes. For inverse computations, we further pre-process the covariance matrices and store only their Cholesky factors. When training with randomly rotated point clouds, since the rotation matrix is known at train time, the Cholesky factors can be adjusted by matrix multiplication, which is a much cheaper operation to do online compared to the Cholesky factorization step itself.

With these pre-processing steps, our approach (GRAE) emulates the performance of EMD in reconstructing the correct point distribution, with a much lower computational cost. Particularly, CD-based networks take roughly 3.5 hrs to train on average, while GRAE and GSW take about 1.5 times as much, compared to EMD which takes 10 times as much and is infeasible for larger point cloud sizes than those considered here. Additionally, it visually reproduces fine local features better than either EMD or GSW, which is also reflected in lower CD metrics. We note that all the experiments are performed on a workstation with an NVIDIA Quadro RTX 5000 GPU (16 GB) and six Intel Silver 4214 CPUs (2.2 GHz). Aside from the training complexity stated earlier, each of the reconstruction experiments can be finished within one day, while each of the segmentation and classification experiments can be finished within 12 hrs.

Data.	Architecture	CD	GSW	EMD	GRAE (Ours)	Ground-truth	
SN	PointMLP+L.GAN						
	PointNet+Folding						
	PointCapsNet						
MN	PointMLP+L.GAN						
	PointNet+Folding						
	PointcapsNet						

Table 1: Visualization of reconstructed point clouds under various geometry learning approaches and network architectures. Note that *random rotation* is applied to both training and testing. Our GRAE leads to higher geometric fidelity compared to other approaches.

Class	Airplane				Car					
Tr. Loss	PN+Fold	PN+MLP	PM+MLP	PCN	Avg.	PN+Fold	PN+MLP	PointMLP	PCN	Avg.
CD EMD GSW GRAE Class	78.99% 79.15% 80.14% 80.69%	77.52% 78.69% 81.30% 79.67%	84.16% 84.85% 75.56% 85.68% Chair	77.90% 77.42% 71.70% 75.32%	79.64% 80.03% 77.17% 80.34%	75.83% 75.44% 78.31% 78.25%	74.08% 75.49% 81.29% 76.20%	81.22% 83.52% 70.08% 83.48% Table	80.82% 80.23% 78.66% 80.48%	77.99% 78.67% 77.09% 79.60%
CD EMD GSW GRAE	87.96% 88.16% 88.68% 89.30%	87.81% 88.27% 88.93% 88.85%	91.17% 91.35% 89.58% 91.95%	89.92% 89.40% 86.73% 89.59%	89.21% 89.29% 88.48% 89.92%	89.67% 89.59% 88.68% 90.01%	88.26% 89.59% 89.89% 90.22%	92.81% 92.86% 91.24% 92.86%	91.32% 90.24% 88.01% 89.77%	90.52% 90.57% 89.46% 90.72%

Table 2: Classwise segmentation accuracies for various training losses.

 Table 3: Overall segmentation accuracy





Fig. 1: Point collapse of training with CD is resolved by the proposed GRAE. The three columns on the right panel are reconstructions from PointMLP+LatentGAN, Point-Net+Folding, and PointCapsNet, respectively.

3. MORE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

3.1. More Visualizations

We present more reconstruction renderings to further validate the effectiveness of our proposed GRAE. Similar to the experiments in the main text, we compare GRAE with CD, EMD [4], and GSW [6], and focus on the following autoencoder architectures: PointMLP(PM)+MLP [11, 1], Point-Net(PN)+Folding [16, 14], and PointCapsNet (PCN) [18].

The renderings of the reconstructed point clouds from both the ShapeNet and the ModelNet datasets are visualized in Table 1. We clearly see that compared to other methods, our proposed GRAE retains more geometry details, presenting reconstructions with higher fidelity. Again, we emphasize that our experiments apply *random rotation* to both training and testing which makes the geometry reconstruction task much more challenging.

3.2. On Point Collapse

As discussed in [1, 12], using CD for training causes an issue called point collapse—a disproportionate number of points (compared to the input) are clustered at a certain median location in the reconstruction. In the first row of Fig. 1, an example of point collapse is presented where the regions undergoing the point collapse issue are also highlighted. Interestingly, our proposed GRAE addresses the issue and leads to a more natural point distribution, as seen in the second row of Fig. 1. Please refer to the supplementary material for more ablation studies and comparisons.

3.3. Segmentation

To demonstrate the validity of the codewords produced by our proposal, we also carry out a segmentation task based on intermediate point encodings produced by autoencoders trained using our proposal and other candidate losses. In this task, DGCNN-based networks are not used owing to the fact that they do not directly produce point encodings. For PointNet, PointCapsuleNet, and FoldingNet, the output of the pointwise MLP layers is taken as the point encoding, while for PointMLP, the point embedding layer of the encoder is used [10]. We emphasize here that the goal of the experiment is not to demonstrate the superiority of a segmentation method based on point embeddings. Rather, we wish to determine the validity of point embeddings generated by point autoencoders as bonafide representatives of the information contained in the points, and as such, we use point embeddings generated by the autoencoder version of PointCapsuleNet, and not the dedicated segmentation network [17] also propose.

In Table 2, we present classification accuracies for downstream segmentation networks trained class-wise on the 4 largest classes in the ShapeNetPart dataset. The same training and testing setup as classification is followed, except that we restrict the training and testing dataset to a single class for the segmentation network. GRAE ranks among the top 2 training losses in segmentation accuracy for all pairs of network architecture and class except one, and has the best average accuracy in all classes. PointMLP again has the best results, and is improved substantially by GRAE.

Table 4: Performance of different variants of GRAE. GRAE_F—GRAE with fixed neighborhood size k = 8. GRAE_H—GRAE without the term LMD_{rec}. Metrics are reported on a 10^{-2} scale.

	Dataset	ShapeNet			ModelNet		
Metric	Architecture	GRAE _F	GRAE _H	GRAE	GRAE _F	GRAE _H	GRAE
CD	PN+MLP DGCNN+MLP PM+MLP PN+Fold PCN	5.227 5.861 5.429 3.825 4.792	4.251 5.430 4.439 3.813 2.027	3.848 4.904 4.005 3.482 2.754	6.628 5.861 6.669 4.614	5.361 6.016 5.354 4.477	4.553 5.864 4.456 4.073
EMD	PN+MLP DGCNN+MLP PM+MLP PN+Fold PCN	0.840 1.335 0.906 0.790 1.338	0.894 1.584 0.992 0.638 1.201	0.730 1.203 0.869 0.524 1.115	0.739 1.098 0.724 0.888 1.209	0.704 1.262 0.714 0.604 1.049	0.575 1.025 0.631 0.508 0.954



Fig. 2: Visualize the codewords with t-SNE in the 2D space. The codewords are generated with PointNet [14] that is trained under the PointNet+LatentGAN design.

Table 3 presents the results of running the segmentation experiment with all classes combined. Here, the segmentation accuracy numbers are smaller since the problem is now a 50class classification with point classes from all types of objects pooled together, and the variability in accuracy numbers is also higher among different architectures. However, GRAE still has the best average accuracy. The top two numbers for each architecture are in bold.

3.4. Visualization of codewords

To gain a deeper understanding, we also visualize the codewords from the first 10 classes of ShapeNet with t-SNE in 2D, as is shown in Fig. 2 The codewords are generated with the PointNet encoder [14] trained with the PointNet+MLP architecture. We see that the codewords generated with GRAE are generally more separable compared to those generated by CD, e.g., the classes *Lamp* and *Cap*.

3.5. Ablation Studies

In this experiment, we study how different aspects of GRAE contribute to its overall performance. Particularly, we experi-

ment with two variants of GRAE:

(i) GRAE_{F} : instead of gradually shrinking the neighborhood size from 10 to 5 during training, this variant fixes the neighborhood size to be k = 8; (ii) GRAE_{H} : this variant only keeps half of the LMD loss during training, and term LMD_{rec} that computes from the perspective of the reconstructed point cloud is removed.

In general, either fixing the neighborhood size or removing LMD_{rec} from the complete LMD loss considerably harms the reconstruction performance, in terms of both CD and EMD. Particularly, in $GRAE_F$, a constant neighborhood size hampers the learning framework to capture the geometry details in a coarse-to-fine manner. Additionally, in $GRAE_H$, some reconstructed points may not be counted in the loss computation, and thus fail to be improved via backpropagation. By varying the neighborhood as well as fully counting the reconstruction, our proposal, GRAE, evolves into a training paradigm, differentiating it from static loss functions such as CD and EMD.

The reconstruction performance of GRAE and these two variants on the ShapeNet test split and the ModelNet dataset are presented in Table 4 - the lowest loss numbers are in bold. All models are trained only on the ShapeNet training split. As can be seen, the (intact) GRAE almost works consistently better than both $GRAE_F$ and $GRAE_H$ across all architectures in terms of both the CD and EMD metrics. Again, it confirms the effectiveness of gradually shrinking the neighborhood size in GRAE, as well as the usefulness of including the LMD_{rec} term in the loss computation.

4. REFERENCES

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