

Deep Learning for 3D Shape Classification Based on Volumetric Density and Surface Approximation Clues

Ludovico Minto, Pietro Zanuttigh and Giampaolo Pagnutti

Department of Information Engineering, University of Padova, Via Gradenigo 6B, Padova, Italy
{mintolud,zanuttigh,pagnutti}@dei.unipd.it

Keywords: 3D Shapes, Classification, Deep Learning, NURBS.

Abstract: This paper proposes a novel approach for the classification of 3D shapes exploiting surface and volumetric clues inside a deep learning framework. The proposed algorithm uses three different data representations. The first is a set of depth maps obtained by rendering the 3D object. The second is a novel volumetric representation obtained by counting the number of filled voxels along each direction. Finally NURBS surfaces are fitted over the 3D object and surface curvature parameters are selected as the third representation. All the three data representations are fed to a multi-branch Convolutional Neural Network. Each branch processes a different data source and produces a feature vector by using convolutional layers of progressively reduced resolution. The extracted feature vectors are fed to a linear classifier that combines the outputs in order to get the final predictions. Experimental results on the ModelNet dataset show that the proposed approach is able to obtain a state-of-the-art performance.

1 INTRODUCTION

The recent introduction of consumer depth cameras has made 3D data acquisition easier and widely increased the interest in methods for the automatic classification and recognition of 3D shapes. This has been a long term research task, however algorithms dealing with this problem have achieved a completely satisfactory performance only recently, specially thanks to the introduction of deep learning techniques.

Differently from standard images, that can be straightforward sent to Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), the processing of 3D point clouds with deep learning techniques requires first of all to represent the data into a form that is suitable for the deep learning algorithms. This work proposes a novel method for the classification of 3D shapes based on the idea of representing the data with multiple 2D structures and then exploiting a multi-branch CNN. We propose to use three different representations. The first, that we derived from the approach presented in (Zanuttigh and Minto, 2017), is given by a set of different depth maps obtained by rendering the input shape from six different viewpoints, which is a quite standard approach. The second representation is a novel volumetric descriptor that captures the density, i.e., the amount of filled voxels, along directions

parallel to the 3D axes. Finally, we also fit parametric Non-Uniform Rational B-Spline (NURBS) surfaces on the objects and calculate the two principal curvatures at each surface location, obtaining 2D maps that describe the local curvature of the shape.

The three representations are used as input for the neural network: the CNN has 15 branches, each branch analyzing a different data source. Specifically, there are 6 branches for the depth maps, 3 for the volumetric data and finally 6 for the curvature data. Each branch contains 4 (for depth and surface data) or 5 (for the volumetric densities) layers that progressively reduce the resolution until a single feature vector is obtained for each of them. In order to reduce the complexity, we also share the weights by dividing the depth and curvature branches in two groups, one containing the four side views and one for the top and bottom views. Finally, the feature vectors are concatenated into a single vector which is fed to a softmax classifier that produces the shape classification.

The paper starts by presenting the related works in Section 2. Then Section 3 presents the proposed data representation. Section 4 describes the deep learning network. Finally the results are discussed in Section 5 while Section 6 draws the conclusions.

2 RELATED WORKS

The retrieval and classification of 3D shapes is a long term research field. Many different schemes based on global representations and local shape descriptors have been proposed in the past. For an overview of the field see review papers like (Tangelder and Veltkamp, 2004; Guo et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). As for many other classification tasks, the introduction of deep learning approaches has allowed large improvements and completely changed the way of dealing with this problem. Several different deep learning techniques and in particular Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) have been proposed. The fundamental issue in these methods is that 3D representations do not lay on a regular structure as 2D images, making it necessary to convert the data into a representation suitable for the network structure or to adapt the network model.

A first family of approaches is based on the idea of rendering the 3D model from different viewpoints and then use the obtained silhouettes, images or depth maps as input to a standard convolutional network. The work of (Sinha et al., 2016) exploits a spherical parametrization to represent the mesh in a geometry image containing curvature information that is fed to a CNN. The method of (Shi et al., 2015) exploits the idea of representing the 3D object with a panoramic view and uses an ad-hoc CNN structure for this kind of images. In the scheme of (Johns et al., 2016) pairs of views of the object are used together with a second CNN for the selection of the best viewpoints. Another approach exploiting this strategy is (Su et al., 2015) that extracts a set of color views from the 3D model and combines the information into a single shape descriptor using a CNN architecture. Multiple depth maps rendered from the object have been exploited in (Zanuttigh and Minto, 2017), which we take as a starting point for the depth-based component of the proposed method.

A second possibility is to use volumetric representations instead, together with three-dimensional CNNs applied on the voxel structure. In (Wu et al., 2015) a Convolutional Deep Belief Network is exploited to represent input shapes as probability distributions on a 3D voxel grid. A highly performing method based on the voxel representation is (Brock et al., 2016), which exploits a variation of the ResNet architecture. In the *PointNet* approach (Garcia-Garcia et al., 2016) density occupancy grids are fed as input to a CNN for 3D shape classification. The approach of (Maturana and Scherer, 2015) relies on a 3D CNN fed with volumetric occupancy grids while (Wu et al., 2016) jointly exploits Volumetric Convolutional Net-



Figure 1: Example of the six depth maps used for the analysis of a *chair* 3D model. Notice how there are four similar side views (*blue boxes*) and the top and bottom ones (*orange boxes*).

works and Generative Adversarial Networks. A comparison between the volumetric and the multi-view scheme is presented in (Qi et al., 2016), also proposing various improvements to both approaches.

Finally, some approaches exploit non-standard deep learning architectures in order to deal with unstructured data. The approach of (Li et al., 2016) exploits field probing filters to extract the features and optimizes not only the weights of the filters as in standard CNNs but also their locations. Another scheme of this family is the one of (Klokov and Lempitsky, 2017), which presents a deep learning architecture suited for the Kd-tree representation of volumetric data. A deep network able to directly process point cloud data has been presented in (Qi et al., 2017).

3 SURFACE AND VOLUME REPRESENTATION FOR DEEP LEARNING

The proposed algorithm works in two stages: a pre-processing step that constructs the input data followed by a multi-branch Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) that performs the classification. The proposed data representation is described in this section while the CNN architecture will be the subject of Section 4. In this work we consider three different data representations:

1. A multi-view representation made of a set of six depth maps extracted from the 3D model.
2. A volumetric representation obtained by measuring the number of filled voxels along directions parallel to the 3D space axes.
3. A surface representation given by the curvatures of NURBS surfaces fitted over the 3D model.

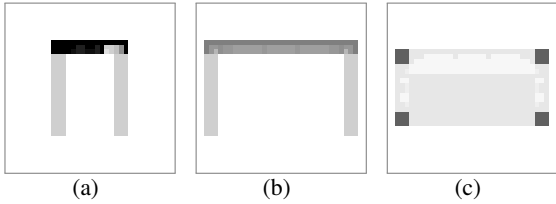


Figure 2: Example of the three voxel density maps for a *table* 3D model, computed along the x -axis (a), y -axis (b) and z -axis (c) respectively.

3.1 Multi-View Representation

In order to build this representation, we first compute the bounding box of the input 3D model. Then the 3D model is rendered from six different viewpoints, each corresponding to one of the six faces of the bounding box. For each of the six views we extract the depth information from the z -buffer, thus obtaining six different depth maps for each object (see Fig. 1). The output depths have a resolution of 320×320 pixels which, in our experiments, proved to be a reasonable trade-off between the accuracy of the representation and the computational effort required to train the neural network. The six depth maps represent the input for the proposed classifier. Their usage makes it possible to capture a complete description of the 3D shape without considering a full volumetric structure that would require a larger amount of data due to the higher dimensionality. Furthermore, the depth map conveys a greater information content if compared with the silhouettes of the shape. Notice that, assuming the object is lying on the ground, the six views can be divided into four side views with a similar structure and the bottom and top views. Indeed, for many real world objects it is reasonable to assume they can rotate around the vertical axis while being constrained to lay on the ground. Moreover, the fact that typically the four side views have a similar content while the top and bottom capture a different representation will be exploited in the construction of the neural network. In order to improve the robustness of the proposed approach with respect to rotations, we also considered the option of augmenting the training dataset by creating randomly rotated copies of the 3D models, however this did not lead to accuracy improvements on the considered experimental dataset. We disabled this option since it was also leading to an increase in the training time due to the larger dataset size. However this step can be adopted in order to deal with more generic datasets.

Finally, local contrast normalization is applied to each input depth map independently.

3.2 Volume Representation

Volumetric representations have been exploited in various 3D classification schemes like the ones of (Wu et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2016; Maturana and Scherer, 2015). Unfortunately, the performance of approaches exploiting the full volumetric representation is affected by the fact that the 3D structure containing the voxel data uses a considerable amount of memory and requires 3D convolutional filters with a higher number of parameters. The increased dimensionality and requirements are typically compensated by using low resolution and simpler networks, but this also impacts on the performance. In order to exploit the information given by the volumetric data and at the same time preserve the simpler and faster operations of 2D representations we introduce a novel data representation. The idea is to build a set of three density maps representing the density of filled voxels along the directions corresponding to each of the three axes. More in detail, the x -axis representation is built by quantizing the yz -plane into 32×32 cells and counting how many filled voxels are encountered by going down along the x -axis from each location (i.e., letting x vary after fixing the value of the y and z coordinates). The representation for the y -axis and z -axis are built in the same way by swapping the axes (i.e., fix x and z and let y vary or fix x and y and let z vary). A visual example on a *table* model is shown in Fig. 2. Notice how, for example, the z profile (i.e., top profile) captures the table surface (low density) and four high density spots corresponding to the four legs of the table. Finally, as for depth information, local contrast normalization has been applied to the data.

3.3 Surface Representation

The third data representation is based on geometric properties of parametric surfaces that approximate the objects shape. The idea is to consider the six views of the first representation and to obtain a Non-Uniform Rational B-Spline (NURBS) fitting surface for each of them. In order to perform this task, we consider the 3D points corresponding to each depth sample and we approximate them with a continuous parametric surface $S(u, v)$, computed by solving an over-determined system of linear equations in the least-squares sense. Notice that the u, v parametric range of the NURBS surface corresponds to the rectangular grid structure of the depth map. The NURBS degrees in the u and v directions have been set to 3, while the weights are all equal to 1, i.e., our fitted surfaces are non-rational (splines). We used the surface fitting algorithm presented in (Pagnutti and Zanuttigh, 2016; Minto et al.,

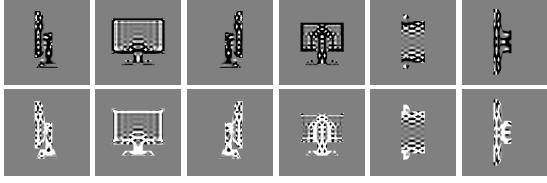


Figure 3: Example of curvature maps for a 3D model of the *monitor* class. The first row shows the k_1 curvature maps for the six views, while the second row shows the data relative to k_2 . The data have been scaled for visualization purposes (dark colors correspond to negative values and bright colors to positive ones).

2016), see these publications for more details on this task. Notice how the usage of NURBS surfaces provides a geometric model that is well suitable to describe arbitrary shapes, not only planar ones. After fitting the surfaces we determine their two principal curvatures k_1 and k_2 at each sample location. An example of the resulting information is visible in Fig. 3, that shows the two curvature maps for a sample object. These data are locally normalized and then used as the last input for the CNN classifier.

4 DEEP NETWORK ARCHITECTURE

The proposed classifier takes in input the three representations and gives in output a semantic label for each scene. For this task an ad-hoc Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architecture with multiple branches has been developed. The structure of the network is summarized in Fig. 4. It is made of two main parts, namely a set of branches containing convolutional layers and a linear classification stage combining the information from the different branches.

The network has been designed in order to produce a single reliable classification output for each 3D object starting from the multi-modal input of Section 3. Its structure stems from the semantic segmentation architectures of (Farabet et al., 2013; Couprie et al., 2013; Minto et al., 2016), but greatly differs from them due to the different task and the particular nature of the exploited data.

In the first part there are 15 different branches, divided in 3 groups (see Fig. 4 and Table 1). The first group has 6 branches and processes the depth information. Each branch takes in input a single depth map at the resolution of 320×320 pixels and extracts a feature vector for the input by applying a sequence of convolutional layers. In detail, each branch has 4 convolutional layers (CONV), each followed by a rectified linear unit activation function (RELU) and a

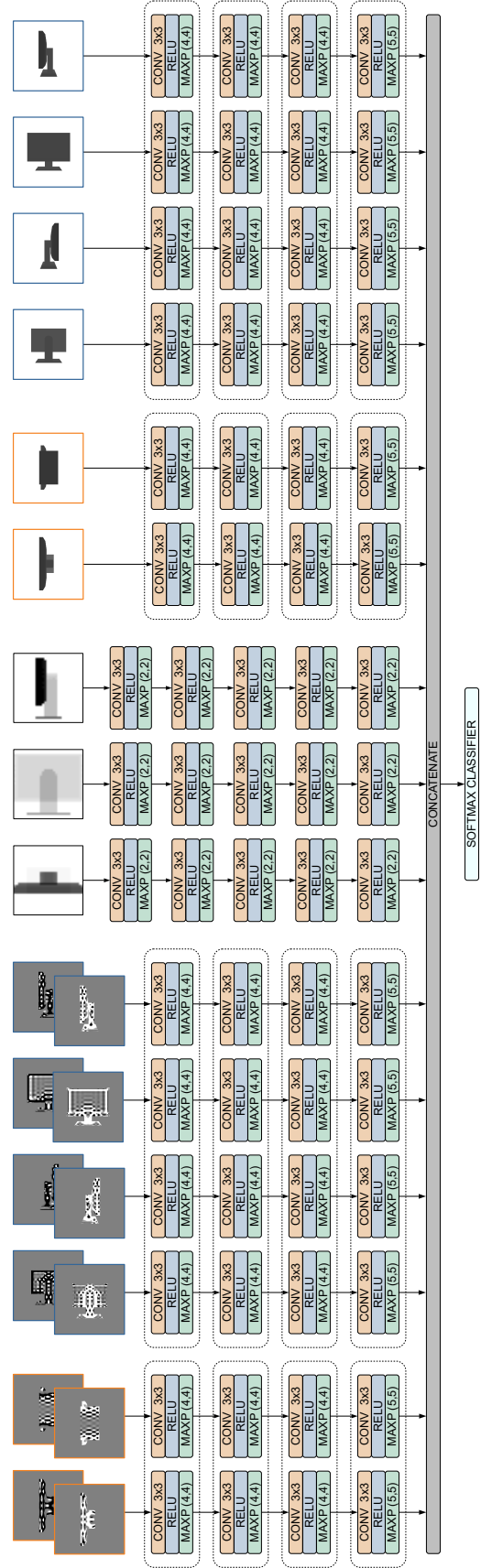


Figure 4: Layout of the proposed multi-branch Convolutional Neural Network (the dashed boxes enclose layers sharing the same weights).

max-pooling layer (MAXP). The first layer has 48 filters while the second, third and fourth ones have 128 filters, all being 3×3 pixels wide. The max-pooling stages subsample the data by a factor of 4 in each dimension in the first three stages and of 5 in the last one. Thanks to this approach the full resolution is used only in the first layer, while it is progressively reduced in the next ones until a single classification hypothesis is obtained for the whole depth map in the last layer. The computational resources required for the training are decreased as a consequence, since in the inner layers the resolution is strongly reduced. The final output is a 128-elements vector for each depth map.

Concerning the weights of the convolutional filters there are two approaches commonly used. The first is to have independent weights for each branch of the network. This better adapts the network to the various views, however it leads to a large amount of parameters thus increasing the computational complexity and the risk of over-fitting. Furthermore, this makes also the approach more dependent on the pose of the model since, changing the pose, data can move from one view to another. Other approaches share the weights across the various branches (Farabet et al., 2013; Couprie et al., 2013), thus reducing the complexity but also the discrimination capabilities of the network. A key observation is that the captured data are typically similar in the four side views but different for the top and bottom ones. Thus we decided to use a hybrid solution between the two approaches with a shared set of weights for the four side views and a different set for the top and bottom ones. This proved to be a good trade-off between the two solutions, providing a good accuracy with a reasonable training time and a partial invariance at least to the rotation along the vertical axis. Notice that the approach assumes that the objects are laying on the ground in order to distinguish between the side and top or bottom views, however this is a reasonable assumption for most real world objects.

The branches in the second set deal with volumetric data. In this case there are 3 branches, associated to the x -axis, y -axis and z -axis respectively. The input data have a lower resolution, namely 32×32 pixels (see Section 3.2 for the rationale behind this choice). Each branch has 5 convolutional layers, each one with a RELU activation and a max-pooling stage. There are 48 convolutional filters in the first layer and 128 in the other ones. The filters are still 3×3 , however this time the max-pooling stages subsample the data by a factor of 2 due to the lower starting resolution. In this case weights are independent for each branch since the three profiles capture different data. Notice

Table 1: Summary of the properties of the various layers in the Convolutional Neural Network.

| | Depth and NURBS | | | Volumetric | | |
|----|-----------------|--------------|------------------|------------|--------------|----------------|
| | # Filt. | Pool | Res. | # Filt. | Pool | Res. |
| L1 | 48 | 4×4 | 320×320 | 48 | 2×2 | 32×32 |
| L2 | 128 | 4×4 | 80×80 | 128 | 2×2 | 16×16 |
| L3 | 128 | 4×4 | 20×20 | 128 | 2×2 | 8×8 |
| L4 | 128 | 5×5 | 5×5 | 128 | 2×2 | 4×4 |
| L5 | - | - | - | 128 | 2×2 | 2×2 |

also that, given the low resolution, sharing the weights among the three branches would not bring any substantial reduction in the training effort.

Finally, the branches of the third set process the surface fitting data. There is a set of coefficients contained in a 2-channel 320×320 pixels map for each 3D view, the structure being very similar to the one of first group. In this case, there are two channels corresponding to the two principal curvatures instead of one only. Aside from this, the network architecture is exactly the same as in the first group.

The 128-elements feature vectors produced by each one of the 15 channels are then concatenated in a $15 \times 128 = 1920$ elements vector and fed to a final softmax classifier with a $1920 \times n_c$ weight matrix and no bias, where n_c is the considered number of classes. We set n_c equal to 10 and 40 depending on the dataset used for experimental results.

The network is trained as described in Section 5 to produce a labeling of each 3D shape by assigning it one out of the n_c different categories. To this aim, a multi-class cross-entropy loss function is minimized throughout the training process. We set a limit of 100 epochs, even if the optimal solution is typically reached earlier.

5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We evaluated the performance of the proposed approach on the large-scale Princeton *ModelNet* dataset (Wu et al., 2015), containing 3D object models along with their ground-truth categories. We present our results both for the 10-class *ModelNet10* subset and for the larger 40-class *ModelNet40* subset. In particular, we trained and tested the network described in Section 4 on the two subsets independently. We adopted the standard training and test splits as provided along with each subset data. Specifically, for our results on the *ModelNet10* subset we trained the network on 3991 samples, leaving aside 908 samples for the test. As to the *ModelNet40* subset, we performed the training and testing using 9843 and 2468 samples respectively.

In both cases the training has been carried out by minimizing a multi-class cross-entropy loss function with the Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) algorithm. We used the Theano framework (Theano Development Team, 2016) for the implementation.

Starting from the *ModelNet10* subset, we first evaluate the impact of each one of the three data representations separately. The results reported in Table 2 suggest that the depth maps extracted from the 3D model rendering carry the largest information content, achieving an average accuracy of 93.2% when used alone. A remarkable accuracy can also be obtained by feeding the CNN with volumetric profiles only, correctly predicting 91.2% of the models in the test set. Despite this value is lower than the one derived using depth data, it is still noteworthy that it has been obtained with a low resolution data representation (32×32 pixels). Even if volumetric profiles size equal to just 1% of depth data, results demonstrate that it is still possible to correctly classify most of the 3D models using this representation alone. Finally, the accuracy obtained using only NURBS surface curvature data is 90.9%, lower than the other two descriptors but still noticeable, proving also the effectiveness of this representation. By combining all the three representations together we achieved an average accuracy of 93.6% on the test set, higher than the one obtained by taking each representation separately.

An in-depth analysis of the performance is shown in Table 3, which contains the confusion matrix of the proposed approach on the *ModelNet10* dataset.

Notice how the proposed method is able to achieve a very high accuracy on most classes. Some of them are almost perfectly recognized, e.g. the *bed*, *chair*, *monitor* and *toilet* classes. On the other side, some critical situations also exist such as the confusion between the *night stand* and *dresser* classes, an expected issue since these two classes have similar shapes and the disambiguation is difficult in some samples even for a human observer. Another challenging recognition task is to distinguish between the *table* and *desk* classes, since in most cases the objects share a similar structure with a flat surface supported by the legs. Nonetheless, most samples in these classes are correctly recognized even if some errors are present.

The performance of our approach has also been compared with some recent state-of-the-art approaches on the *ModelNet10* dataset. The comparison is reported in Table 4: the average accuracy of 93.6% obtained by combining all three data representations is higher than most of previous works. Specifically, only (Brock et al., 2016) and (Klokov and Lempitsky, 2017) outperform our approach, the second one by a limited performance gap.

Table 2: Average accuracies on the *ModelNet10* and *ModelNet40* datasets for the proposed method when using the three different data representations taken separately as well as their combination.

| Approach | <i>ModelNet10</i> | <i>ModelNet40</i> |
|------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Depth maps | 93.2% | 88.0% |
| Volumetric | 91.2% | 86.9% |
| NURBS | 90.9% | 85.2% |
| Combined | 93.6% | 89.3% |

Table 3: Confusion matrix for the proposed approach on the *ModelNet10* dataset. Values are given in percentage.

| | bathub | bed | chair | desk | dresser | monitor | night st. | sofa | table | toilet |
|-----------|--------|-----|-------|------|---------|---------|-----------|------|-------|--------|
| bathub | 92 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| bed | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| chair | 0 | 0 | 100 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| desk | 0 | 1 | 0 | 86 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| dresser | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 85 | 1 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| monitor | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 99 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| night st. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 0 | 80 | 0 | 7 | 0 |
| sofa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 97 | 0 | 0 |
| table | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 93 | 0 |
| toilet | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 99 |

The approach has been evaluated also on the larger *ModelNet40* subset that, as expected, proved to be more challenging due to the larger number of classes and higher variety of models. The results on this subset are reported in the last column of Table 2. The depth information alone provides an accuracy of 88.0%, a lower value than the one achieved on *ModelNet10*. Yet the loss (about 5%) is quite limited, especially if considering that the model is expected to discriminate between 4 times more categories. Accuracy undergoes a similar drop also when using volumetric data, being able to correctly recognize 86.9% of the models compared to 91.2% on the *ModelNet10* subset. As for NURBS data, the test gave an accuracy of 85.2%, consistently with the results obtained with depth and volumetric data. Notice how the relative ranking of the three representations is the same as for *ModelNet10*, with depth as the most accurate, followed by volumetric data and finally NURBS curvatures. Finally, the combined use of the three representations led to an accuracy of 89.3%. Notice that, in this case, the gap with respect to the various representations taken separately is larger, revealing the effectiveness of the combined use of multiple representations particularly when dealing with more challenging tasks. The drop with respect to *ModelNet10* when all representations are used is just around 4%.

Table 4: Average accuracies on the *ModelNet10* and *ModelNet40* datasets for some state-of-the-art methods from the literature and for the proposed method.

| Approach | MN10 | MN40 |
|----------------------------------|-------|-------|
| (Wu et al., 2015) | 83.5% | 77.0% |
| (Shi et al., 2015) | 85.5% | 77.6% |
| (Maturana and Scherer, 2015) | 92.0% | 83.0% |
| (Klokov and Lempitsky, 2017) | 94.0% | 91.8% |
| (Zanuttigh and Minto, 2017) | 91.5% | 87.8% |
| (Zhi et al., 2017) | 93.4% | 86.9% |
| (Xu and Todorovic, 2016) | 88.0% | 81.3% |
| (Johns et al., 2016) | 92.8% | 90.7% |
| (Wu et al., 2016) | 91.0% | 83.3% |
| (Brock et al., 2016) | 97.1% | 95.5% |
| (Sinha et al., 2016) | 88.4% | 83.9% |
| (Bai et al., 2016) | 92.4% | 83.1% |
| (Simonovsky and Komodakis, 2017) | 90.0% | 83.2% |
| (Hegde and Zadeh, 2016) | 93.1% | 90.8% |
| (Sfikas et al., 2017) | 91.1% | 90.7% |
| <i>Proposed Method</i> | 93.6% | 89.3% |

The average accuracy for each single class is shown in Table 5, while some examples of correctly and wrongly classified objects are shown in Fig. 5 and 6 respectively. The accuracy is high on most classes except for a few of them, e.g., the *flower pot* and *radio* classes. These correspond to classes with a limited amount of training samples and a large variability between the samples for which the algorithm is not able to properly learn the structure. Inter-class similarities are also more common given the larger number of fine-grain classes present in the subset. In general, classes sharing a similar appearance are more challenging to disambiguate, leading the model to confuse e.g. *table* instances with *desk* instances. Similarly, *flower pot* instances are often misclassified as *plant* or *vase* while a number of *cup* instances have been wrongly assigned to the *vase* category (some examples in these classes are shown in Fig. 6).

The comparison with competing approaches on the *ModelNet40* dataset is also reported in Table 4. In this case our approach ranks 6th out of 15 compared methods. Even if the relative ranking is slightly lower than in the previous case this is still a very good performance.

Finally concerning the training time, it is about 22 hours for the *ModelNet10* dataset and 51 hours for the larger *ModelNet40* dataset (these are the numbers for the complete version of the approach, using all the three representations). The tests have been performed on a system equipped with a 3.60 GHz Intel i7-4790 CPU and an NVIDIA TitanX (Pascal) GPU.

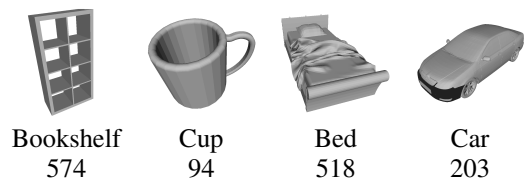


Figure 5: Examples of 3D models from the *ModelNet40* dataset correctly recognized by the proposed approach.

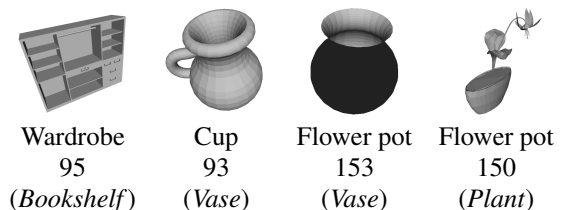


Figure 6: Examples of 3D models from the *ModelNet40* dataset wrongly recognized by the proposed approach. The predicted categories are reported in parenthesis.

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we proposed a deep learning framework for 3D objects classification. We used a multi-branch architecture in which different representations extracted from the object are exploited. Three different data representations have been evaluated. In particular, maps containing the voxel densities proved to be a compact yet very informative set of descriptors. We also considered surface curvatures, an approach never exploited before, which proved to be a

Table 5: Accuracy of the proposed approach on the various classes of the *ModelNet40* dataset. The number of samples belonging to each class is also reported.

| Class | Acc. | Samples | Class | Acc. | Samples |
|------------|------|---------|-----------|------|---------|
| airplane | 100% | 100 | laptop | 100% | 20 |
| bathub | 90% | 50 | mantel | 94% | 100 |
| bed | 97% | 100 | monitor | 99% | 100 |
| bench | 80% | 20 | night st. | 76% | 86 |
| bookshelf | 97% | 100 | person | 100% | 20 |
| bottle | 96% | 100 | piano | 89% | 100 |
| bowl | 100% | 20 | plant | 91% | 100 |
| car | 97% | 100 | radio | 60% | 20 |
| chair | 96% | 100 | r. hood | 94% | 100 |
| cone | 90% | 20 | sink | 70% | 20 |
| cup | 65% | 20 | sofa | 96% | 100 |
| curtain | 80% | 20 | stairs | 75% | 20 |
| desk | 84% | 86 | stool | 90% | 20 |
| door | 95% | 20 | table | 77% | 100 |
| dresser | 80% | 86 | tent | 90% | 20 |
| flower pot | 15% | 20 | toilet | 97% | 100 |
| glass box | 96% | 100 | tv st. | 84% | 100 |
| guitar | 93% | 100 | vase | 74% | 100 |
| keyboard | 100% | 20 | wardrobe | 80% | 20 |
| lamp | 75% | 20 | xbox | 70% | 20 |

reliable solution with remarkable results. The proposed approach requires a relatively small training effort, while it is able to achieve a state-of-the-art performance on the *ModelNet* dataset. In the current approach, accuracies reported for volumetric and curvature descriptors are slightly lower than those obtained with depth data, future work will be devoted to improve their performance as well. Furthermore, we will explore the possibility of using more advanced deep learning schemes and different approaches to combine the multiple information sources.

REFERENCES

- Bai, S., Bai, X., Zhou, Z., Zhang, Z., and Jan Latecki, L. (2016). Gift: A real-time and scalable 3d shape search engine. In *Proceedings of CVPR*, pages 5023–5032.
- Brock, A., Lim, T., Ritchie, J. M., and Weston, N. (2016). Generative and discriminative voxel modeling with convolutional neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1608.04236*.
- Coupric, C., Farabet, C., Najman, L., and LeCun, Y. (2013). Indoor semantic segmentation using depth information. In *Int. Conf. on Learning Representations*.
- Farabet, C., Coupric, C., Najman, L., and LeCun, Y. (2013). Learning hierarchical features for scene labeling. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 35(8):1915–1929.
- Garcia-Garcia, A., Gomez-Donoso, F., Garcia-Rodriguez, J., Orts-Escolano, S., Cazorla, M., and Azorin-Lopez, J. (2016). Pointnet: A 3d convolutional neural network for real-time object class recognition. In *Proceedings of IJCNN*, pages 1578–1584. IEEE.
- Guo, Y., Bennamoun, M., Sohel, F., Lu, M., and Wan, J. (2014). 3d object recognition in cluttered scenes with local surface features: A survey. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence*, 36(11):2270–2287.
- Hegde, V. and Zadeh, R. (2016). Fusionnet: 3d object classification using multiple data representations. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1607.05695*.
- Johns, E., Leutenegger, S., and Davison, A. J. (2016). Pairwise decomposition of image sequences for active multi-view recognition. In *Proceedings of CVPR*, pages 3813–3822.
- Klokov, R. and Lempitsky, V. (2017). Escape from cells: Deep kd-networks for the recognition of 3d point cloud models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1704.01222*.
- Li, B., Lu, Y., Li, C., Godil, A., Schreck, T., Aono, M., Burtscher, M., Chen, Q., Chowdhury, N. K., Fang, B., et al. (2015). A comparison of 3d shape retrieval methods based on a large-scale benchmark supporting multimodal queries. *Computer Vision and Image Understanding*, 131:1–27.
- Li, Y., Pirk, S., Su, H., Qi, C. R., and Guibas, L. J. (2016). Fpnn: Field probing neural networks for 3d data. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Maturana, D. and Scherer, S. (2015). Voxnet: A 3d convolutional neural network for real-time object recognition. In *International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS)*, pages 922–928. IEEE.
- Minto, L., Pagnutti, G., and Zanuttigh, P. (2016). Scene segmentation driven by deep learning and surface fitting. In *Geometry Meets Deep Learning ECCV Workshop*.
- Pagnutti, G. and Zanuttigh, P. (2016). Joint color and depth segmentation based on region merging and surface fitting. In *Proceedings of VISAPP*.
- Qi, C. R., Su, H., Mo, K., and Guibas, L. J. (2017). Pointnet: Deep learning on point sets for 3d classification and segmentation. In *Proceedings of CVPR*.
- Qi, C. R., Su, H., Nießner, M., Dai, A., Yan, M., and Guibas, L. J. (2016). Volumetric and multi-view cnns for object classification on 3d data. In *Proceedings of CVPR*, pages 5648–5656.
- Sfikas, K., Theoharis, T., and Pratikakis, I. (2017). Exploiting the PANORAMA Representation for Convolutional Neural Network Classification and Retrieval. In *Eurographics Workshop on 3D Object Retrieval*.
- Shi, B., Bai, S., Zhou, Z., and Bai, X. (2015). Deeppano: Deep panoramic representation for 3-d shape recognition. *IEEE Signal Processing Letters*, 22(12):2339–2343.
- Simonovsky, M. and Komodakis, N. (2017). Dynamic edge-conditioned filters in convolutional neural networks on graphs. In *Proceedings of CVPR*.
- Sinha, A., Bai, J., and Ramani, K. (2016). Deep learning 3d shape surfaces using geometry images. In *Proceedings of ECCV*, pages 223–240. Springer.
- Su, H., Maji, S., Kalogerakis, E., and Learned-Miller, E. (2015). Multi-view convolutional neural networks for 3d shape recognition. In *Proceedings of ICCV*, pages 945–953.
- Tangelder, J. W. and Veltkamp, R. C. (2004). A survey of content based 3d shape retrieval methods. In *Proceedings of IEEE Int. Conference on Shape Modeling Applications*, pages 145–156.
- Theano Development Team (2016). Theano: A Python framework for fast computation of mathematical expressions. *arXiv e-prints*, abs/1605.02688.
- Wu, J., Zhang, C., Xue, T., Freeman, B., and Tenenbaum, J. (2016). Learning a probabilistic latent space of object shapes via 3d generative-adversarial modeling. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*.
- Wu, Z., Song, S., Khosla, A., Yu, F., Zhang, L., Tang, X., and Xiao, J. (2015). 3d shapenets: A deep representation for volumetric shapes. In *Proceedings of CVPR*, pages 1912–1920.
- Xu, X. and Todorovic, S. (2016). Beam search for learning a deep convolutional neural network of 3d shapes. In *Proceedings of ICPR*, pages 3506–3511. IEEE.
- Zanuttigh, P. and Minto, L. (2017). Deep learning for 3d shape classification from multiple depth maps. In *Proceedings of ICIP*.
- Zhi, S., Liu, Y., Li, X., and Guo, Y. (2017). Lightnet: A lightweight 3d convolutional neural network for real-time 3d object recognition. In *Eurographics Workshop on 3D Object Retrieval*.