

Analysis of 3D Shapes (IN2238)

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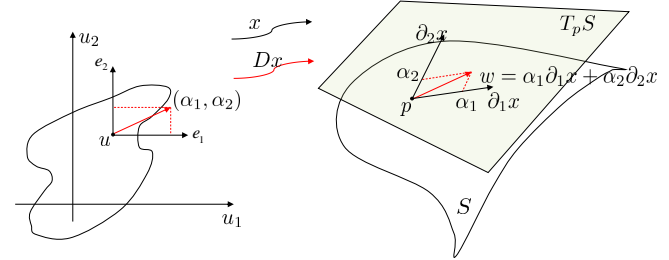
Summer Semester 2016

Recap integration

Last week we have seen how to integrate scalar functions $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on a surface:

$$\int_S f(p) dp = \int_U f(x(u)) \cdot \sqrt{\det((Dx)^T(Dx))} du = \int_U f(x(u)) \cdot \sqrt{\det g} du$$

The matrix $g = Dx^T Dx$ is called **first fundamental form** of x .



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8. First fundamental form, gradient- 2/22

First fundamental form

Each coordinate map $x : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ comes with its own first fundamental form $g = Dx^T Dx$.

Notice that g is in general not constant (as is Dx) but is a (smooth) function $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$.

$$g(u) = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11}(u) & g_{12}(u) \\ g_{21}(u) & g_{22}(u) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \partial_1 x(u), \partial_1 x(u) \rangle & \langle \partial_1 x(u), \partial_2 x(u) \rangle \\ \langle \partial_1 x(u), \partial_2 x(u) \rangle & \langle \partial_2 x(u), \partial_2 x(u) \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

Since Dx has full rank the first fundamental form is a symmetric positive definit. Sometimes g is also called **Riemannian metric**.

Notation:

$$g^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} g^{11} & g^{12} \\ g^{21} & g^{22} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\det g} \begin{pmatrix} g_{22} & -g_{12} \\ -g_{21} & g_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

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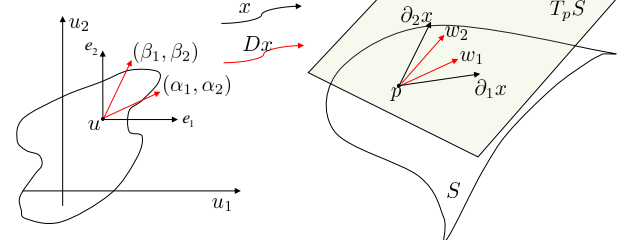
Measuring length and angles

The first fundamental form g defines an inner product such that we can express length and angles of tangent vectors in local coordinates.

Let $w_1 = \alpha_1 \partial_1 x(u) + \alpha_2 \partial_2 x(u)$ and $w_2 = \beta_1 \partial_1 x(u) + \beta_2 \partial_2 x(u)$ be two tangent vectors at $x(u) = p \in S$.

$$\|w_1\|^2 = \langle Dx \cdot \alpha, Dx \cdot \alpha \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^3} = \alpha^T g(u) \alpha = \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle_{g(u)}$$

$$\langle w_1, w_2 \rangle = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_{g(u)}$$



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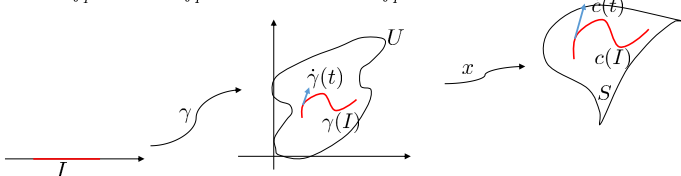
Length of a curve

The first fundamental form gives us the possibility to measure the length of a curve defined on the manifold S .

Let I be an interval and $\gamma : I \rightarrow U$ be a curve in the parameter domain with $\|\dot{\gamma}\| \neq 0$. Then $c = x \circ \gamma : I \rightarrow S$ defines a curve on the manifold, with $\|\dot{c}\| \neq 0$ (Why?).

The length of c is given by

$$L(c) = \int_I \|\dot{c}(t)\| dt = \int_I \|Dx(\gamma(t)) \cdot \dot{\gamma}(t)\| dt = \int_I \sqrt{\langle \dot{\gamma}(t), \dot{\gamma}(t) \rangle_{g(\gamma(t))}} dt$$



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Angle between curves

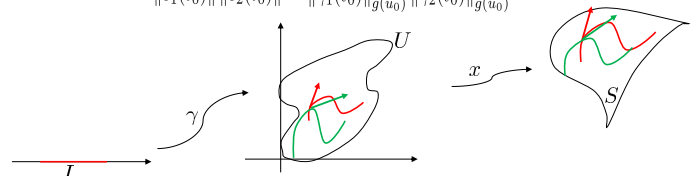
Let $I = (a, b)$ be an interval and $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 : I \rightarrow U$ be two curves in the parameter domain intersecting at $u_0 = \gamma_1(t_0) = \gamma_2(t_0)$.

We can now measure the angles between γ_1 and γ_2 at u_0 :

$$\cos(\angle(\gamma_1, \gamma_2)) = \frac{\langle \dot{\gamma}_1(t_0), \dot{\gamma}_2(t_0) \rangle}{\|\dot{\gamma}_1(t_0)\| \|\dot{\gamma}_2(t_0)\|}$$

For the angles between $c_1 = x \circ \gamma_1$ and $c_2 = x \circ \gamma_2$ at $p = x(u_0)$ we observe:

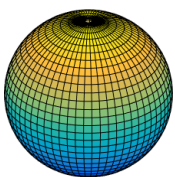
$$\cos(\angle(c_1, c_2)) = \frac{\langle \dot{c}_1(t_0), \dot{c}_2(t_0) \rangle}{\|\dot{c}_1(t_0)\| \|\dot{c}_2(t_0)\|} = \frac{\langle \dot{\gamma}_1(t_0), \dot{\gamma}_2(t_0) \rangle_{g(u_0)}}{\|\dot{\gamma}_1(t_0)\|_{g(u_0)} \|\dot{\gamma}_2(t_0)\|_{g(u_0)}}$$



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Example: Sphere



$$x(u) = (\cos u_1 \cos u_2, \sin u_1 \cos u_2, \sin u_2)^T$$

$$U = (0, 2\pi) \times \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$Dx = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin u_1 \cos u_2 & -\cos u_1 \sin u_2 \\ \cos u_1 \cos u_2 & -\sin u_1 \sin u_2 \\ 0 & \cos u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 u_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If the off-diagonal entries of the first fundamental form vanish, we call x an orthogonal parametrization.

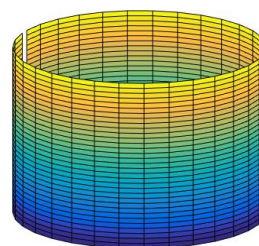
Curves that intersect in a right angle in U also intersect in a right angle on the surface.

This in particular applies to the parameter lines.

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Example: Cylinder



$$x(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)^T$$

$$U = (0, 2\pi) \times \mathbb{R}$$

$$Dx = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin u & 0 \\ \cos u & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If the first fundamental form is the identity matrix, we call x an isometric parametrization.

Angles between curves and length of curves in the parameter domain U are preserved under x .

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Isometric parametrization

If x is an isometric parametrization, i.e. $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ we see:

$$L(c) = \int_I \|\dot{c}(t)\| dt = \int_I \sqrt{\langle \dot{c}(t), \dot{c}(t) \rangle_{g(\gamma(t))}} dt = \int_I \sqrt{\langle \dot{c}(t), \dot{c}(t) \rangle} dt = L(\gamma)$$

This means: isometric parametrizations preserve length.

It is easy to see that isometric parametrizations also preserve angles and areas ($\det(g) = 1$).

Homework

There are angle-preserving parametrizations that do not preserve areas.

There are area-preserving maps that do not preserve angles.

Geodesic distance

The geodesic distance $d_S(x, y)$ measures the length of the shortest path on the surface S connecting $x \in S$ and $y \in S$.

$$d_S(x, y) = \inf \{L(c) \mid c : (a, b) \rightarrow S, c(a) = x, c(b) = y\}$$

$d_S : S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is a metric.



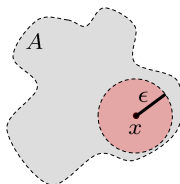
Open sets

Let (S, d_S) be a metric space. We define the open ball of radius r around $x \in S$ as

$$B_r(x) := \{y \in S \mid d_S(x, y) < r\}$$

A subset $A \subset X$ is called open if for any $x \in A$ there exists a $\epsilon < 0$ such that $B_\epsilon(x) \subset A$.

In particular S itself is open.



Compactness

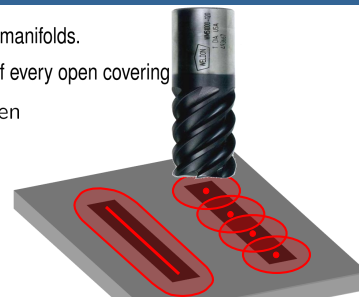
The shapes we consider will be compact manifolds.

A metric space (S, d_S) is called compact if every open covering

$$\bigcup_{\alpha} U_{\alpha} = S \quad U_{\alpha} \subset S \text{ open}$$

has a finite subcovering:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^N U_{\alpha_i} = S$$



More intuitiv:

- closed: every Cauchy sequence $(x_n) \subset S$ has a limit $x \in S$
- bounded: $\text{diam}(S) = \sup_{x, y \in S} d_S(x, y)$ is finite

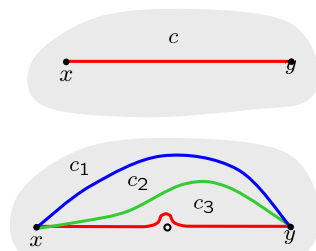
Consequences

The shapes we consider are at the same time open and compact.

Some consequences:



no boundary



complete

$$d_S(x, y) = \min_c L(c)$$

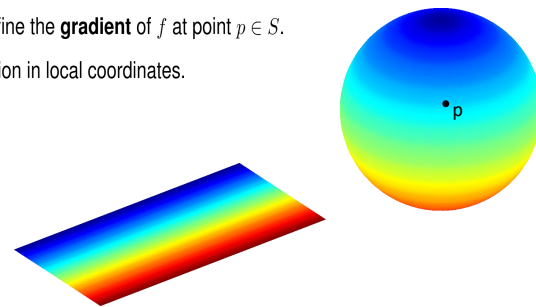
Gradient of a function

Consider a surface S with parametrization (x, U) .

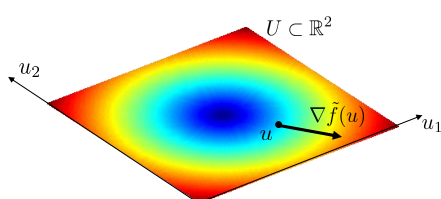
A function $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called differentiable if $\tilde{f} = f \circ x : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable.

We want to define the **gradient** of f at point $p \in S$.

Goal: Expression in local coordinates.



Gradient in euclidean space



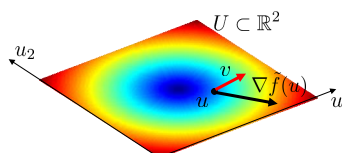
The gradient of a differentiable function $\tilde{f} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the vectorfield

$$\nabla \tilde{f}(u) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial u_1}(u) \\ \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial u_2}(u) \end{pmatrix}$$

Geometric meaning

Geometric meaning of the gradient:

- the vector that points in the **direction of steepest increase** of \tilde{f}
- its length measures the strength of increase
- relationship with the differential of \tilde{f} :



$$\begin{aligned} d\tilde{f}(u)(\vec{v}) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tilde{f}(p + h\vec{v}) - \tilde{f}(p)}{h} \\ &= \frac{d}{dh} \tilde{f}(p + h\vec{v})|_{h=0} \\ &= \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(u), \vec{v} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

directional derivative of \tilde{f} at u , along direction v

Dual space

Let X be a vectorspace. Then we denote by

$$X^* = \{\phi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} | \phi \text{ linear}\}$$

the **dual space** of X .

Riesz Representation theorem

Let $(H, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ be a Hilbert space (complete, inner product).

Then for each *continuous* $\phi \in H^*$ there exists a unique $y \in H$ such that

$$\phi(x) = \langle y, x \rangle \quad \forall x \in H$$

The differential of a function $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ at a point $p \in S$ is the linear mapping $df(p) : T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$df(p)[v] = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c(t)) - f(p)}{t}$$

for all curves $c : (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow S$ with $c(0) = p$ and $\dot{c}(0) = v$.

Uniqueness and Linearity

$$c_1(0) = c_2(0) = p$$

$$\dot{c}_1(0) = \dot{c}_2(0) = v$$

By defining the preimages $\gamma_i(t) = x^{-1} \circ c_i(t)$ and as usual $\tilde{f} = f \circ x$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} df(p)[v] &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c_i(t)) - f(p)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tilde{f}(\gamma_i(t)) - \tilde{f}(u)}{t} = \frac{d}{dt} \tilde{f}(\gamma_i(t))|_{t=0} \\ &= \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(0), \dot{\gamma}_i(0) \rangle = \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(0), (Dx)^{-1} \dot{c}_i(0) \rangle = \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(u), (Dx)^{-1} v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Gradient

Definition

Let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function. The gradient $\nabla f(p)$ at $p \in S$ is the unique element of $T_p S$ such that

$$\langle \nabla f(p), v \rangle = df(p)[v]$$

(Possible due to Riesz representation theorem)

The gradient in local coordinates

Given $\nabla \tilde{f}$ and g , the coefficients α of $\nabla f = Dx \cdot \alpha \in T_p S$ are given by $\alpha = g^{-1} \nabla \tilde{f}(x^{-1}(p))$

Let β be the coefficients of $v \in T_p S$. Then

$$df(p)[v] = \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(u), \beta \rangle = \langle \nabla f, v \rangle = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_{g(u)}$$