

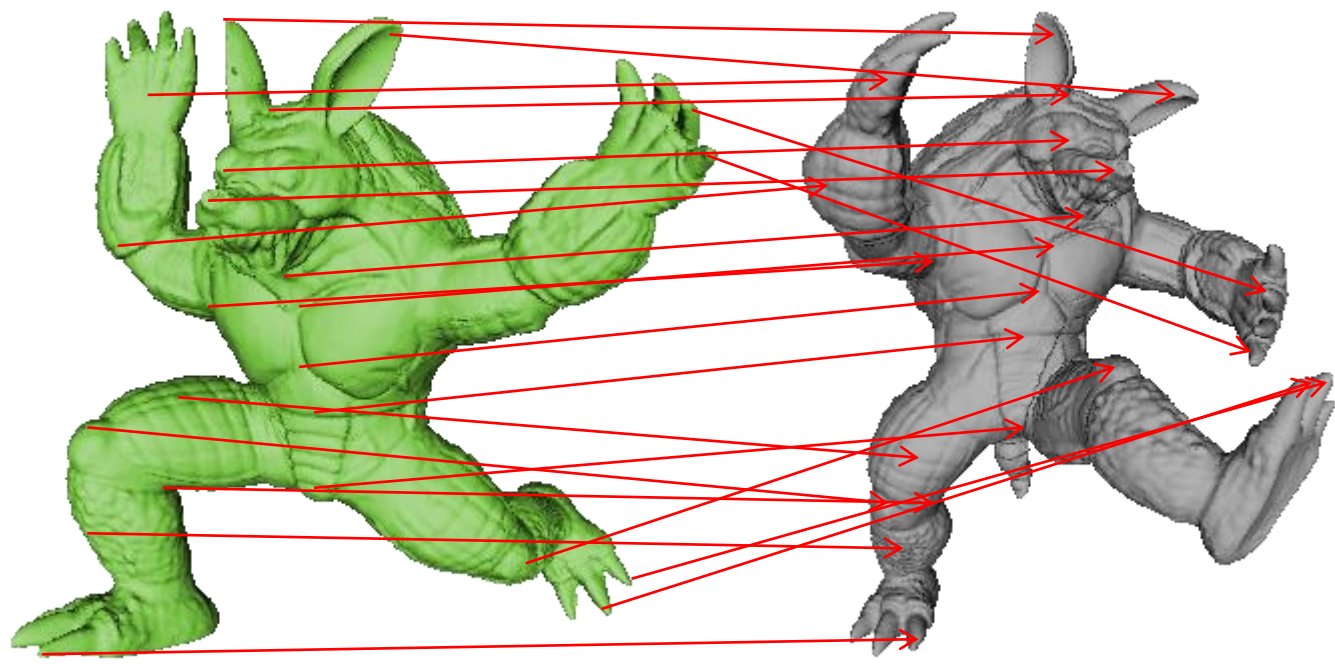


Laplace Beltrami Operator

Matthias Vestner



Shape matching



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 $y \in S$.

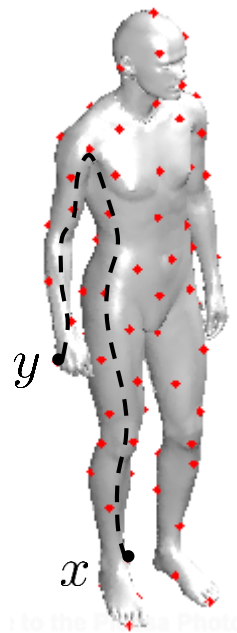
$$d_S(x, y) = \inf \{L(c) \mid c : (a, b) \rightarrow S, c(a) = x, c(b) = y\}$$

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

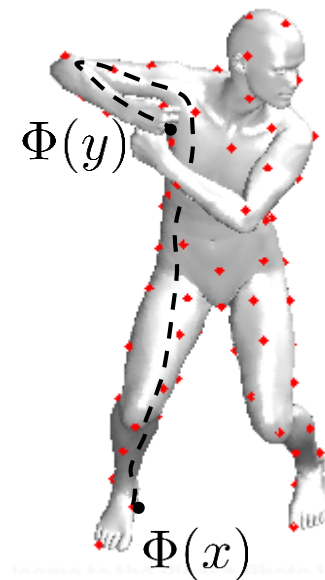


Isometry

A mapping $\Phi : M \rightarrow N$ between two shapes M and N is an isometry if $d_M(x, y) = d_N(\Phi(x), \Phi(y))$ for all points $x, y \in M$. If such a mapping exists M and N are called isometric.



$$d_M(x, y)$$



$$d_N(\Phi(x), \Phi(y))$$

Many shape matching approaches assume that the shapes to be matched are (nearly) isometric. The task then becomes to find the (almost-)isometry Φ .

Euclidean isometry



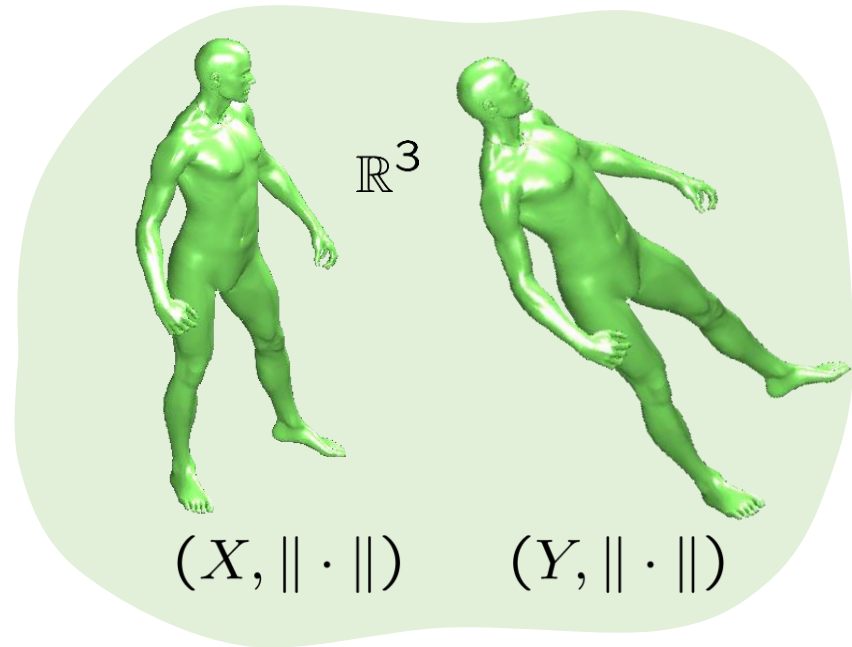
(X, d_X)



(Y, d_Y)

Intrinsic isometry

Two different metric spaces



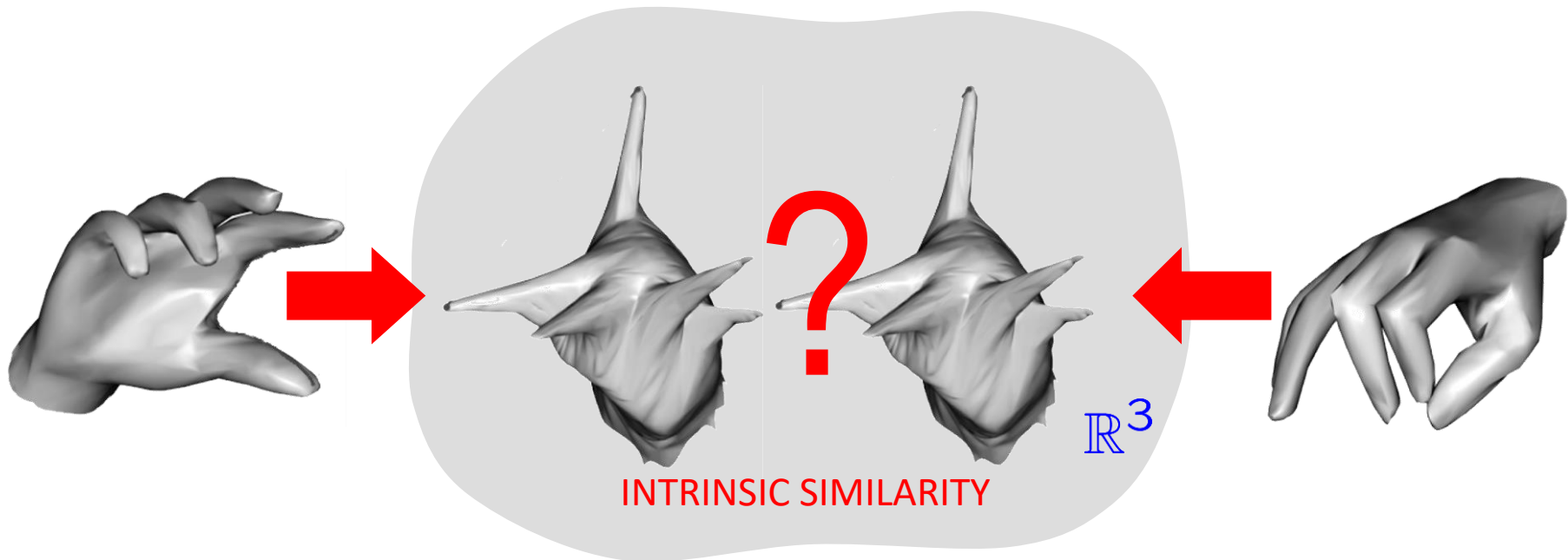
$(X, \|\cdot\|)$

$(Y, \|\cdot\|)$

Euclidean isometry

Part of the same metric space

Distance of canonical forms



EXTRINSIC SIMILARITY OF CANONICAL FORMS

= INTRINSIC SIMILARITY

$$d_{\text{int}}(X, Y) = d_{\text{ext}}(\varphi(X), \psi(Y))$$

Multidimensional scaling



Find a mapping $\phi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ that distorts the distances the least.

Some notation

- Z is an $n \times k$ matrix of canonical form coordinates (each row corresponds to a point): $Z_{j\cdot} = \phi(x_j)$
- $d_{ij}(Z) = \|z_i - z_j\|_{\mathbb{R}^k}$

Distortion/ L^2 -stress:

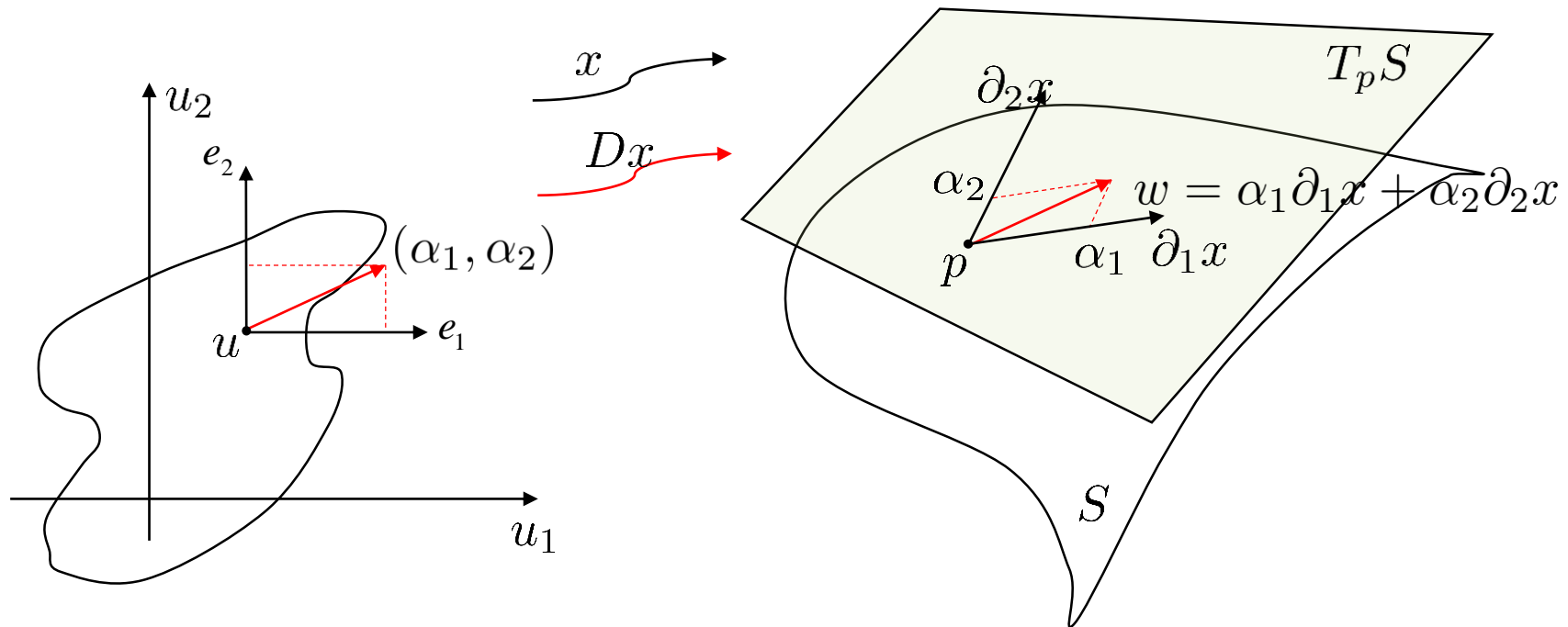
$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_2(Z) &= \sum_{i>j} |d_{ij}(Z) - d_X(x_i, x_j)|^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{i>j} d_{ij}^2(Z)}_1 - 2 \underbrace{\sum_{i>j} d_{ij}(Z) d_X(x_i, x_j)}_2 + \sum_{i>j} d_X^2(x_i, x_j)\end{aligned}$$

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 .



First fundamental form



Each coordinate map $x : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ 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 $g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}$.

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

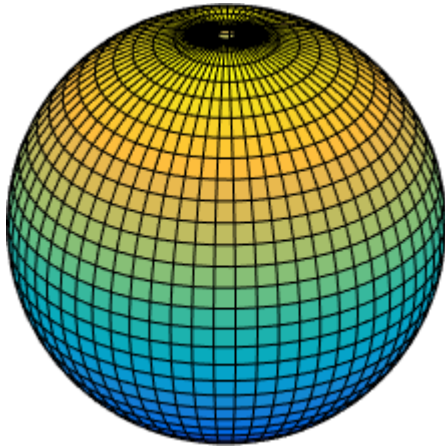
Since Dx has full rank the first fundamental form is a symmetric positive definite.

Sometimes g is also called **Riemannian metric**.

Notation:

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

Example: Sphere



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

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

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

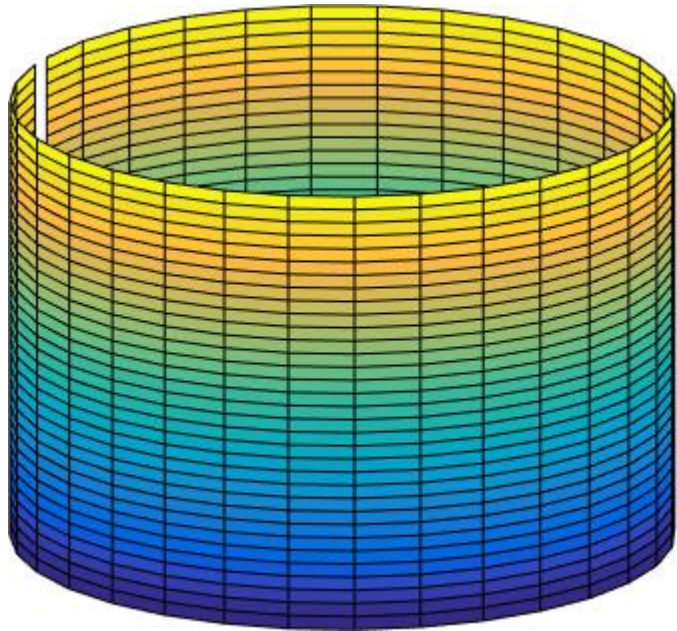
$$g = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 u_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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.

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 .

If M and N are given by coordinate maps (x_j, U_j) and (y_j, U_j) and $\Phi : M \rightarrow N$ is an isometry then $g_j^x(x_j^{-1}(p)) = g_j^y(y_j^{-1}(q))$ for all $q = \Phi(p)$.

Thus **intrinsic** quantities are invariant under isometries:

- length of curves
- angles between curves
- integrals of functions
- ...

Gradient of a function

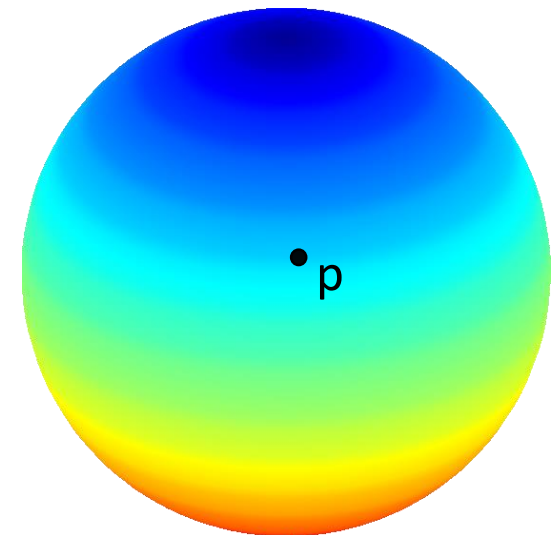
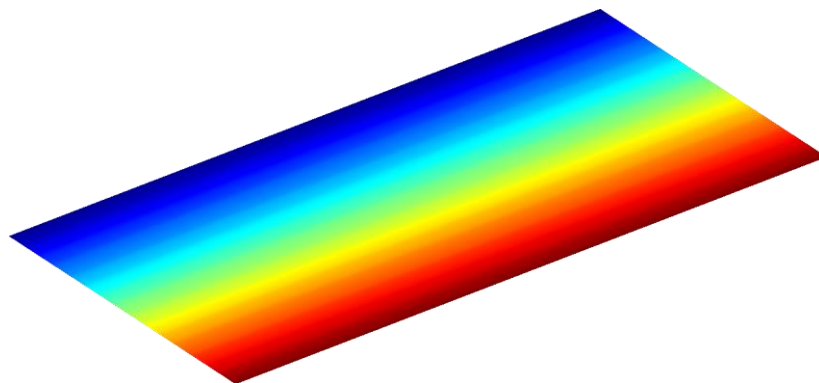


Consider a surface S with parametrization (x, U) .

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.

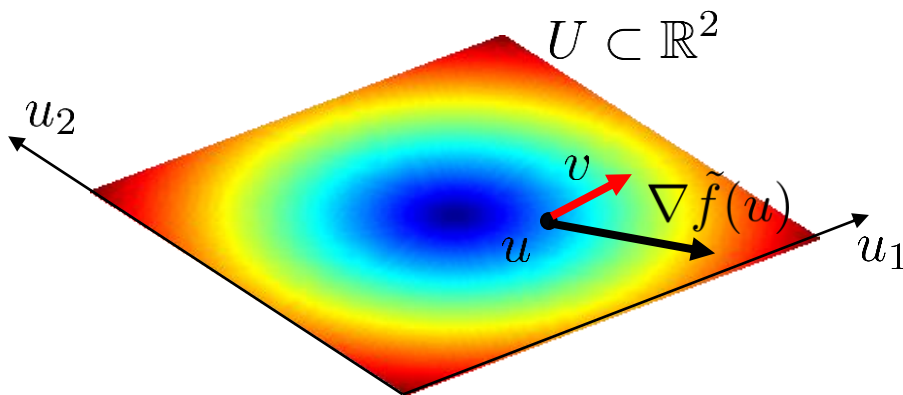


Geometric meaning



Geometric meaning of the gradient:

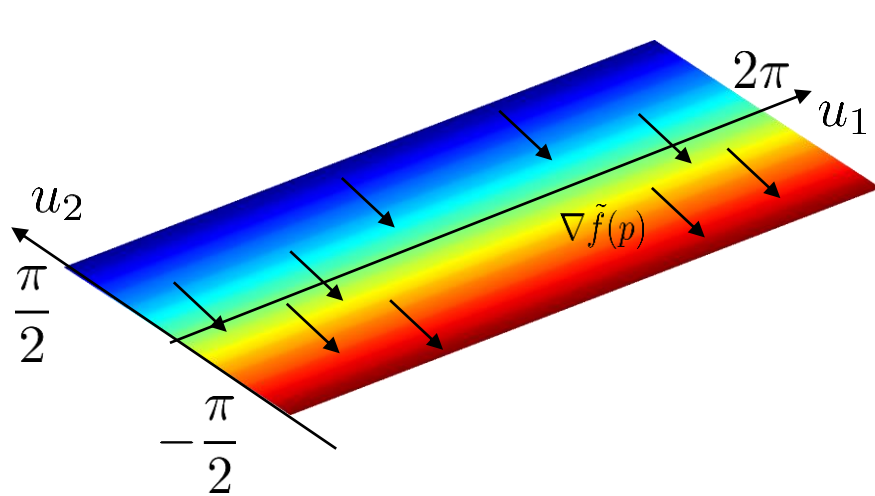
- the vector that points in the **direction of steepest increase** of \tilde{f}
- its length measures the strength of increase
- relationship with the differential of \tilde{f} :



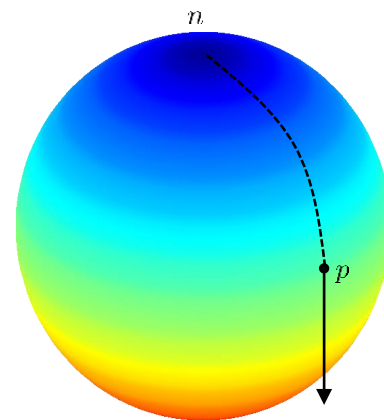
$$\begin{aligned} d\tilde{f}(u)(\vec{v}) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tilde{f}(u + h\vec{v}) - \tilde{f}(u)}{h} \\ &= \frac{d}{dh} \tilde{f}(u + h\vec{v})|_{h=0} \\ &= \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(u), \vec{v} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

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

Gradients distance



$$u = \begin{pmatrix} \pi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$p = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\nabla f(p) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

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

Adjoint operators



Adjoint operator

Let $A : X \rightarrow Y$ be a linear and continuous operator between two Hilbertspaces. Then there exists a unique operator $B : Y \rightarrow X$ such that

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle_Y = \langle x, By \rangle_X$$

B is again a linear and continuous operator. We call B the adjoint operator of A and write $A^* = B$.

The mapping $x \mapsto \langle Ax, y \rangle_Y \in \mathbb{R}$ is linear and continuous.

Riesz: There exists a unique $z =: By \in X$ such that $\langle Ax, y \rangle_Y = \langle x, z \rangle_X$

Linearity

$$\langle Ax, y_1 + \alpha y_2 \rangle_Y = \langle Ax, y_1 \rangle_Y + \alpha \langle Ax, y_2 \rangle_Y = \langle x, z_1 \rangle_X + \alpha \langle x, z_2 \rangle_X = \langle x, z_1 + \alpha z_2 \rangle_X$$

Adjoint of a matrix



The matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ describes a continuous linear mapping $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$:

$$A(x) = \mathbf{A}x$$

Adjoint

$$\langle A(x), y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m} = \langle \mathbf{A}x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m} = \langle x, \mathbf{A}^T y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \langle x, A^*(y) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n}$$

Notice the difference between A and \mathbf{A} . In practice A and \mathbf{A} are often identified. The action of linear operators is often abbreviated:

$$A(x) = Ax$$

Adjoint of gradient



Let $\alpha : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a smooth vectorfield on $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\tilde{f} \in C_c^\infty(U)$ a test function.

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \nabla \tilde{f}, \alpha \rangle &= \int_U \alpha_1(u) \partial_1 \tilde{f}(u) + \alpha_2(u) \partial_2 \tilde{f}(u) du \\ &= - \int_U \partial_1 \alpha_1(u) \tilde{f}(u) du + \int_{\partial U} \cancel{\alpha_1(s) \tilde{f}(s) \langle e_1, \nu \rangle} ds - \int_U \partial_2 \alpha_2(u) \tilde{f}(u) du \\ &= - \int_U \tilde{f}(u) \operatorname{div} \alpha(u) du = \langle \tilde{f}, -\operatorname{div} \alpha \rangle\end{aligned}$$

We say that $-\operatorname{div}$ is *formally* adjoint to ∇ .

The gradient is a linear operator but not continuous.

In general one has to carefully choose domain and codomain of operators.

Test functions

Let again $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be open. The set of testfunctions on S is defined as

$$C_c^\infty(S) = \{f \in C^\infty(S) \mid \text{supp } f \subset\subset S\}$$

If S is at the same time compact as are the shapes we consider, then $C_c^\infty(S) = C^\infty(S)$

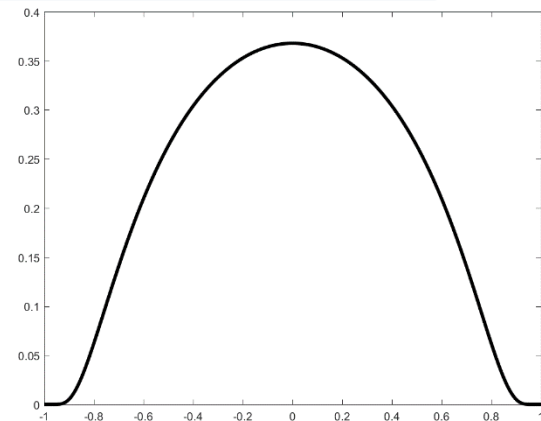
Example

Consider the function

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{1-x^2}\right) & |x| < 1 \\ 0 & |x| \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

Clearly $\text{supp } \phi = [-1, 1]$ is compact.

Since $[-1, 1]$ is not contained in the open interval $(-1, 1)$, $\phi \notin C_c^\infty((-1, 1))$ but $\phi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ and $\phi \in C_c^\infty((a, b)) \forall [-1, 1] \subset (a, b)$.



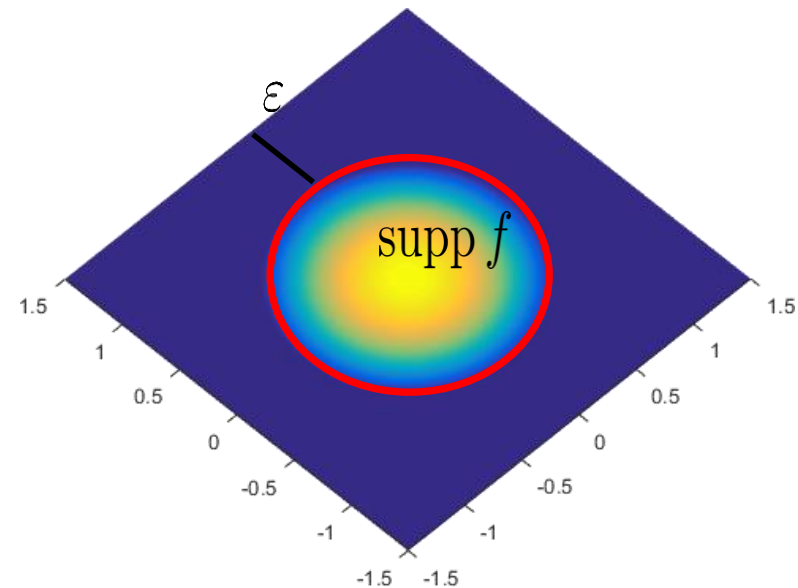
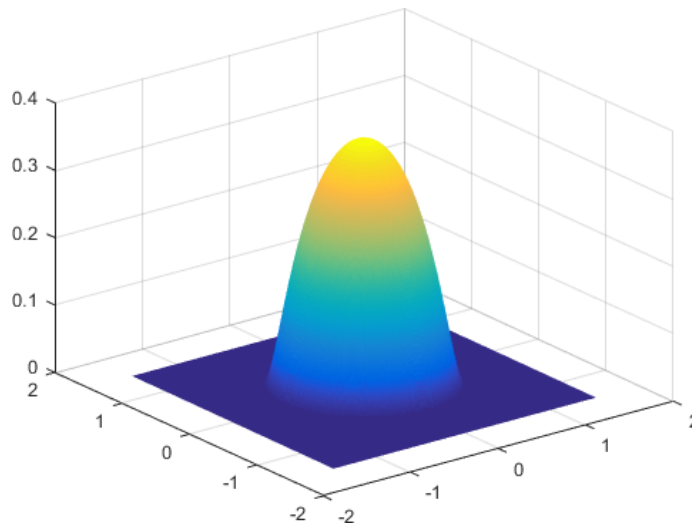
Properties



If the open set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is bounded and $f \in C_c^\infty(S)$, then there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that f vanishes for all points that are closer than ε to the boundary ∂S :

$$\text{dist}(\text{supp } f, \partial S) = \varepsilon > 0$$

As a consequence f and all its derivatives vanish at the boundary of S .



Divergence on manifolds



Smooth vector field

A smooth vectorfield on a compact manifold S is a function

$$V(p) = Dx(x^{-1}(p)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1(x^{-1}(p)) \\ \alpha_2(x^{-1}(p)) \end{pmatrix}$$

where the coefficient functions $\alpha_i : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are smooth.

Divergence

The divergence of a smooth vectorfield V is the scalar function $\operatorname{div} V : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined via

$$\int_S \langle \nabla f, V \rangle dp = - \int_S f(p) \operatorname{div} V(p) dp$$

for all test functions $f \in C_c^\infty(S)$.

Laplace Beltrami Operator



Laplace Beltrami Operator (Laplacian)

Let S be a compact manifold and $f \in H^1(S)$ a function on S . We define $\Delta f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ via

$$\int_S \Delta f g dp = - \int_S \langle \nabla f(p), \nabla g(p) \rangle dp$$

for all test functions $g \in C_c^\infty(S)$.

- The Laplacian is the concatenation of divergence and gradient: $\Delta = \text{div} \circ \nabla$
- The Laplacian is a linear operator
- The Laplacian is an intrinsic operator

LBO in local coordinates



We can combine the expressions we have for gradient and divergence and in turn obtain an expression for the Laplacian in local coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta f &= \operatorname{div} \nabla f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g}} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i} \left((g^{-1} \nabla \tilde{f}(u))_i \sqrt{\det g} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g}} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i} \left(\sum_j g^{ij} \frac{\partial \tilde{f}(u)}{\partial u_j} \sqrt{\det g} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g}} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i} \left(g^{ij} \frac{\partial \tilde{f}(u)}{\partial u_j} \sqrt{\det g} \right)\end{aligned}$$

For shapes that are (locally) isometric to a subset of \mathbb{R}^2 we get

$$\Delta f = \operatorname{div} \nabla f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2}$$

If M and N are given by coordinate maps (x_j, U_j) and (y_j, U_j) and $\Phi : M \rightarrow N$ is an isometry then $g_j^x(x_j^{-1}(p)) = g_j^y(y_j^{-1}(q))$ for all $q = \Phi(p)$.

Thus **intrinsic** quantities are invariant under isometries:

- length of curves
- angles between curves
- integrals of functions
- gradient operator
- divergence operator
- Laplace Beltrami Operator
- ...

Spectrum of the Laplacian



The Laplacian is a formally self adjoint operator

$$\langle \Delta f, g \rangle = -\langle \nabla f, \nabla g \rangle = \langle f, \Delta g \rangle.$$

As a consequence the eigenvalue problem (**Helmholtz equation**)

$$\Delta \phi_i = \lambda_i \phi_i$$

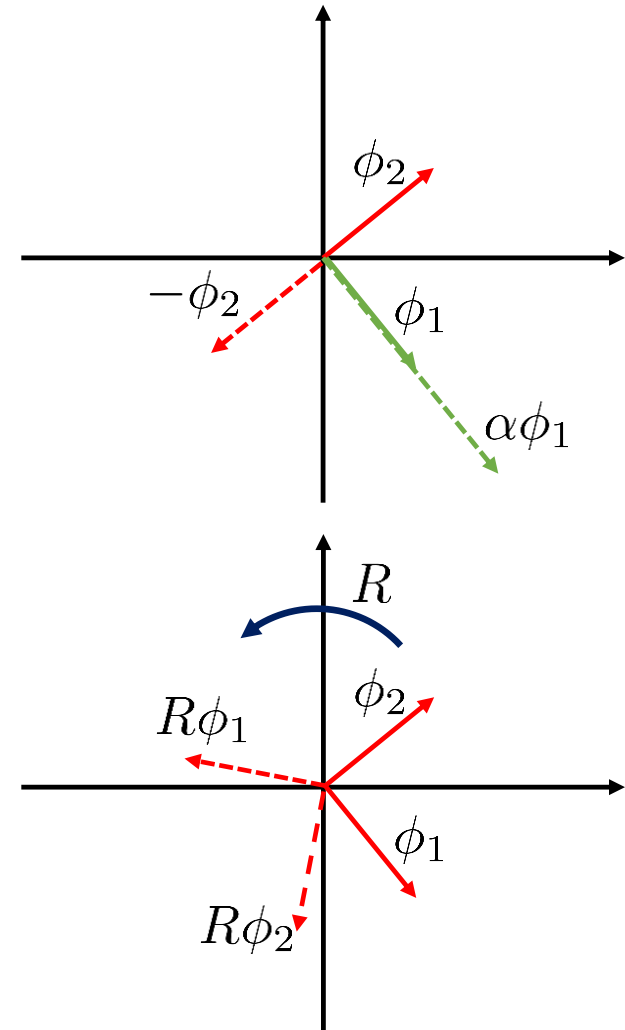
- $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$, in fact we can order them $0 = \lambda_1 > \lambda_2 \geq \lambda_3 \geq \dots \rightarrow -\infty$
- The eigenfunctions can be chosen to be orthogonal:
 $\langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle_{L^2} = \delta_{ij}$

Invariance under isometries



The Laplace Beltrami Operator is an intrinsic operator and therefore invariant to isometric deformations.

However the eigenfunctions are not uniquely defined (signflips, higher dimensional eigenspaces).



Integral of eigenfunctions



For every function $f \in H^1(S)$ we observe

$$\int_S \Delta f = \int_S 1 \Delta f = - \int_S \langle \nabla 1, \nabla f \rangle = 0$$

This implies that for every eigenfunction ϕ_i with corresponding eigenvalue $\lambda_i \neq 0$:

$$\int_S \phi_i = \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \int_S \Delta \phi_i = 0$$

Dirichlet energy and eigenvalues



Let $\phi_i : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a (normalized) eigenfunction with corresponding eigenvalue λ_i , and consider the **Dirichlet energy**

$$\int_S \|\nabla \phi_i\|^2 = \int_S \langle \nabla \phi_i, \nabla \phi_i \rangle = - \int_S \phi_i \Delta \phi_i = -\lambda_i \int_S \phi_i \phi_i = |\lambda_i|$$

This provides us with a nice characterization of the eigenvalues in terms of the corresponding eigenfunctions.

In particular from the above relation we see that if $\lambda_i = 0$, then ϕ_i must be a constant function. Further $\lambda_i = 0$ is always an eigenvalue of Δ , since $\Delta f = 0$ for any constant function f .

Different euclidean embeddings

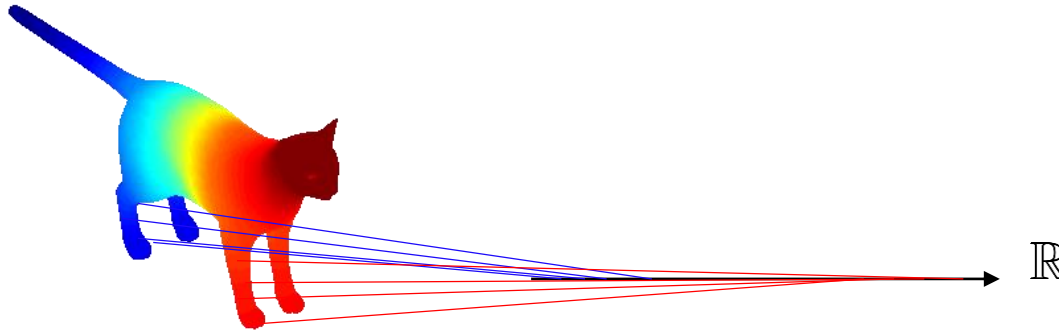


Consider the **constrained minimization problem**

$$\min_{\langle f, f \rangle = 1} \int_S \|\nabla f\|^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \langle f, \phi_i \rangle = 0 \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq k$$

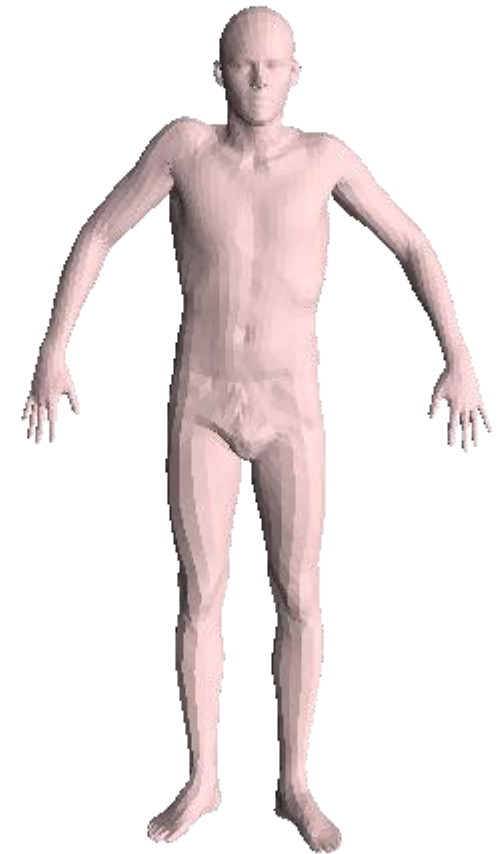
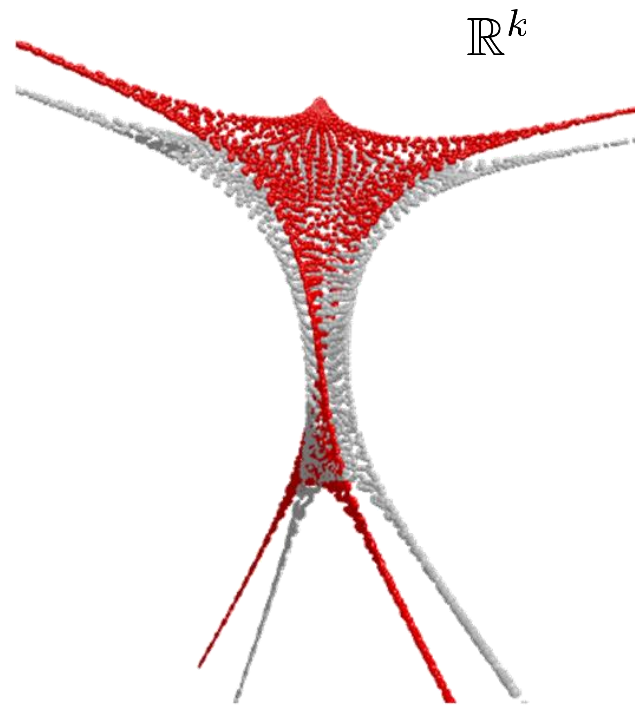
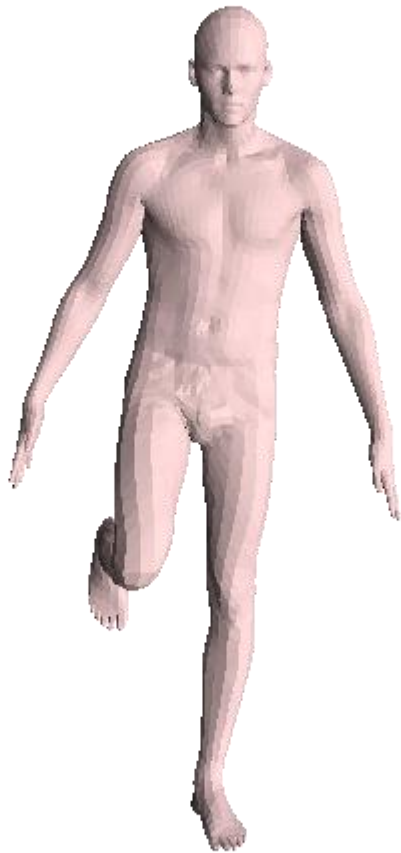
This problem has a very similar structure like the PCA objective. In fact the minimizer is given by $f = \phi_{k+1}$.

Observation: The eigenfunctions are a different way to embed shapes in some \mathbb{R}^k . Compared to MDS we are just considering a different stress function.



The first non constant eigenfunction is called **Fiedler vector**.

Spectral embedding





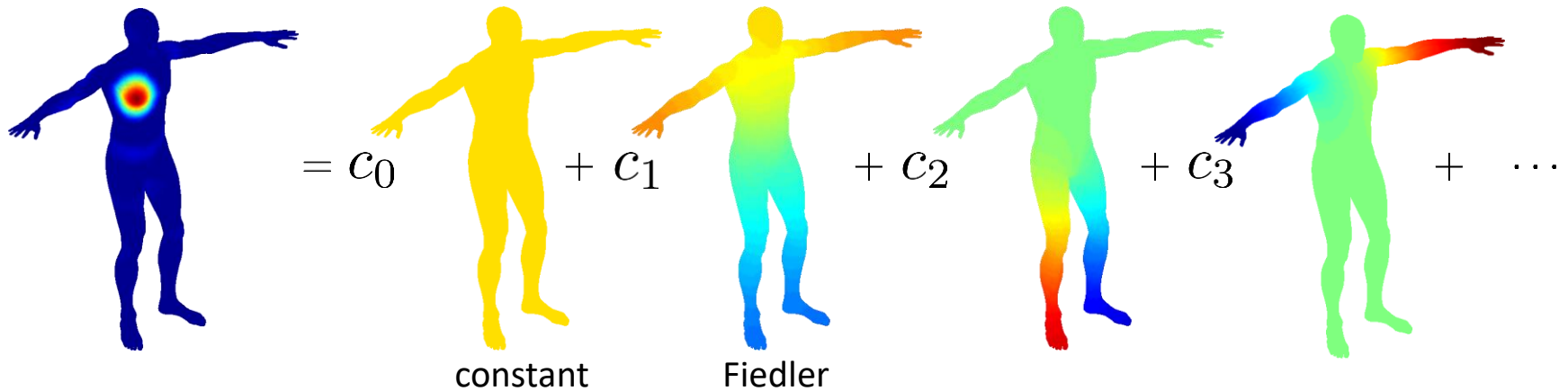
Change of basis



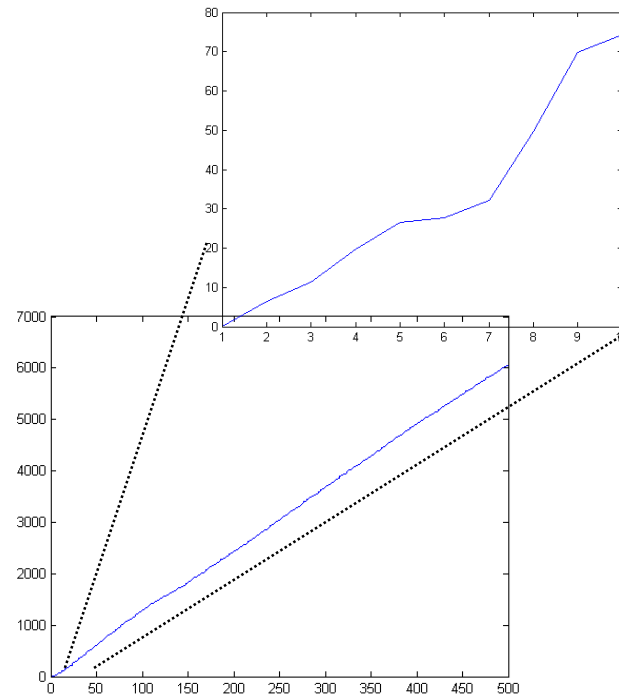
Due to the orthogonality of the eigenfunctions, we can write every function $f \in L^2(S)$ as a linear combination

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i \phi_i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle f, \phi_i \rangle_{L^2} \phi_i$$

$$\mathbf{f} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \langle \mathbf{f}, \phi_i \rangle_{\mathbf{M}} \phi_i$$



Weyl's law

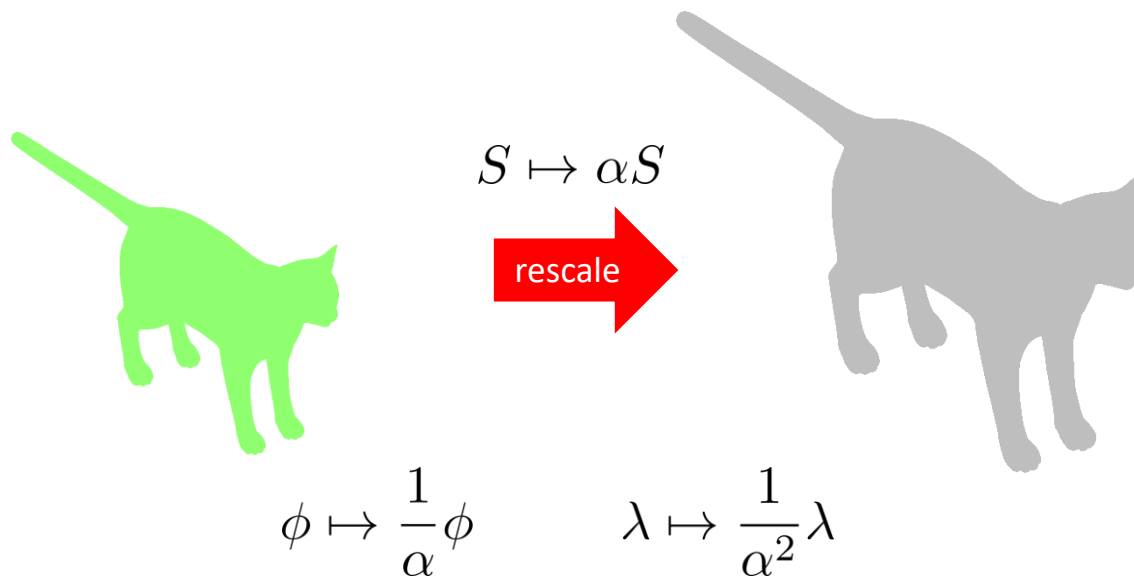


$$|\lambda_j| \sim \frac{\pi}{\int_S da} j \quad \text{for } j \rightarrow \infty$$

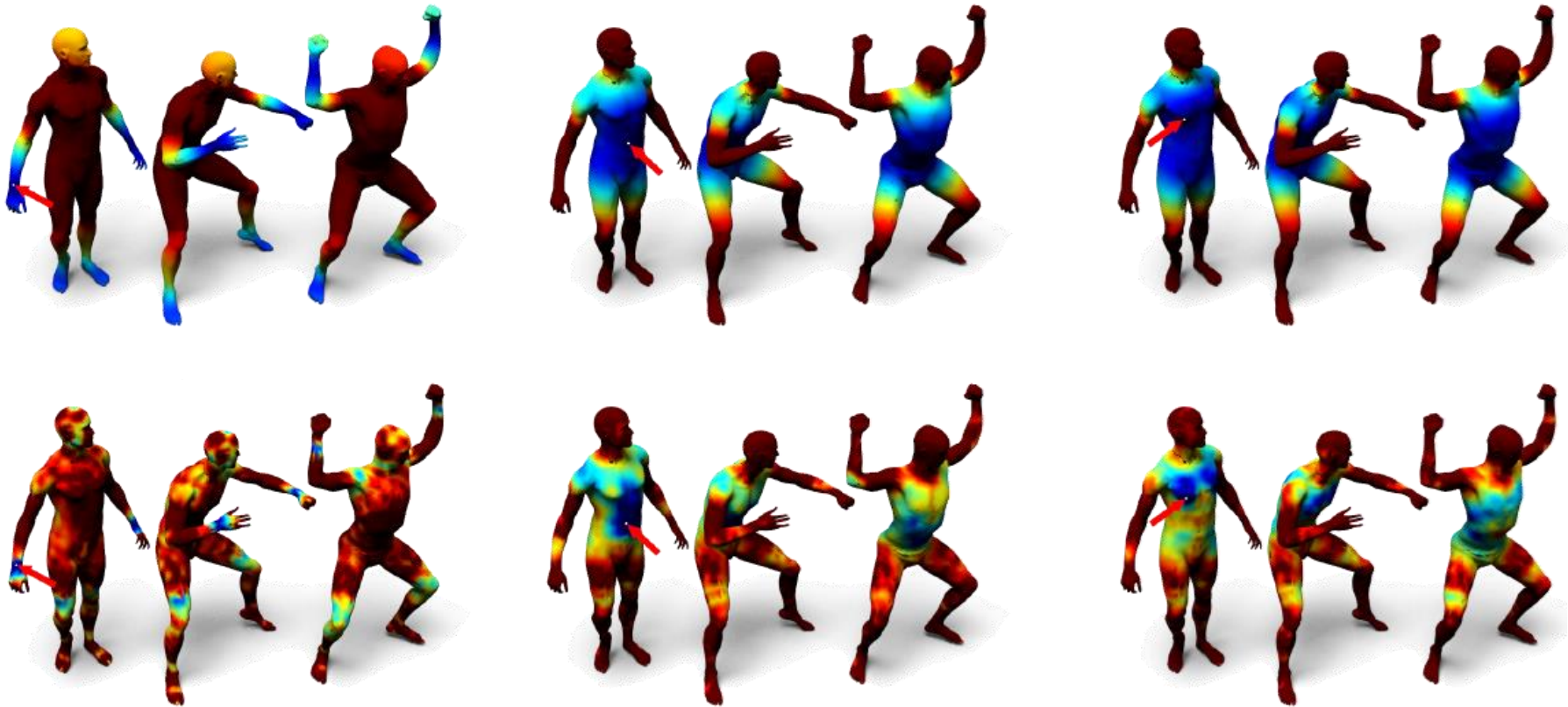
Influence of scaling

What happens to the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions when we simply rescale a shape?

Weyl's law is already suggesting us that something is going to change.



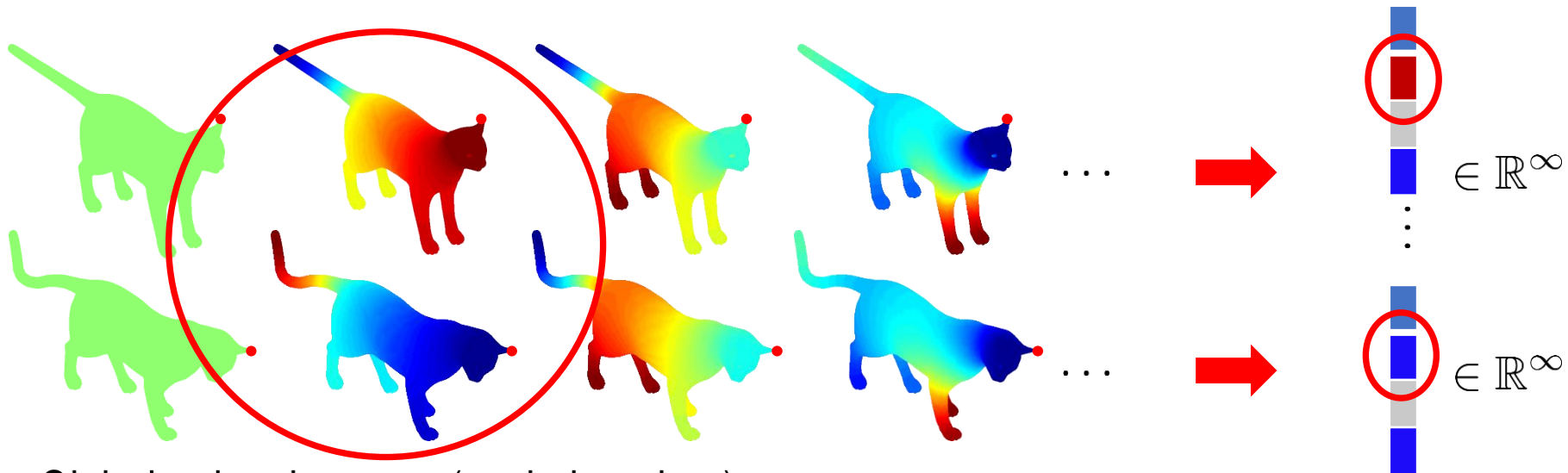
Point features / descriptors



We will consider different descriptors that rely on the LBO.

Global point signature

The most straightforward approach is to map each point $p \in S$ to an infinite-dimensional vector according to the eigenfunctions of the Laplacian:

$$p \mapsto (\varphi_0(p), \varphi_1(p), \varphi_2(p), \dots) \in \mathbb{R}^\infty$$


Global point signature (scale invariant):

$$p \mapsto \left(\frac{\varphi_0(p)}{\sqrt{\lambda_0}}, \frac{\varphi_1(p)}{\sqrt{|\lambda_1|}}, \frac{\varphi_2(p)}{\sqrt{|\lambda_2|}}, \dots \right)$$