

# Technical Report

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Understanding Errors in Approximating Principal Direction Vectors

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## Introduction

Suppose we are given only a surface mesh of vertices and polygons approximating some unknown smooth surface. There have been many methods proposed for approximating principal directions of the underlying surface [1,2,3,4,5,6]. In this paper we will examine a few of the known methods, showing how well they can work for some surfaces and how miserably they can fail for others. In particular we will show that very tiny approximation errors can be magnified into large directional errors. We also introduce a new method that we believe performs significantly better than many other proposed methods. In section I, we will outline the basic mathematics behind computing principal directions, stating the necessary formulas for the Weingarten curvature matrix and for its use in computing normal curvature in a given direction. In section II we describe in detail three methods each of which approximates the Weingarten curvature matrix at a vertex of the mesh. In Section III we apply each method to some surfaces using a number of different mesh schemes and then examine the direction errors. In section IV we develop some mathematical relationships between surface approximation errors and errors in principal directions.

## I. A quick review of surface curvature.

Let  $p$  be a point on a smooth surface  $S$ ,  $N_p$  the unit normal to  $S$  at  $p$ , and suppose  $X(u, v)$  is a local parametrization of  $S$  in a neighborhood of  $p$ . Then using  $X_u(p)$ ,  $X_v(p)$ ,  $N_p$  as a local coordinate system, we can compute principal curvatures and principal directions as follows: Let  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  ( $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2$ ) be the eigenvalues, and  $p_1, p_2$  associated unit eigenvectors of the Weingarten curvature matrix

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{eG - fF}{EG - F^2} & \frac{fE - eF}{EG - F^2} \\ \frac{fG - gF}{EG - F^2} & \frac{gE - fF}{EG - F^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} e &= N_p \circ X_{uu}(p) & E &= X_u(p) \circ X_u(p) \\ f &= N_p \circ X_{uv}(p) & F &= X_u(p) \circ X_v(p) \\ g &= N_p \circ X_{vv}(p) & G &= X_v(p) \circ X_v(p) \end{aligned}$$

Note that in the special case that  $X_u$  and  $X_v$  are orthogonal unit vectors, this becomes the symmetric matrix

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ f & g \end{pmatrix}$$

If  $u$  is a unit vector in the tangent plane to  $S$  at  $p$ , then

$$\kappa_u = u^T W u$$

is the **normal curvature** of the surface in the direction of  $u$ .

It follows that  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the maximum and minimum normal curvatures of the surface at  $p$ , and  $p_1 = \begin{pmatrix} p_{11} \\ p_{12} \end{pmatrix}$  and  $p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} p_{21} \\ p_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  are the principal curvature vectors expressed in local coordinates. That is,

$$v_1 = p_{11}X_u + p_{12}X_v$$

$$v_2 = p_{21}X_u + p_{22}X_v$$

are the principal direction vectors in  $R^3$ .

## II. Three principal direction approximation methods

The first step in computing principal directions on a surface mesh is to compute at each vertex  $p$  a vector  $N'_p$  that approximates the true unit surface normal  $N_p$  at  $p$ . Most methods compute a “normalized average”, i.e. a set of vectors is summed and the resulting vector is normalized to length 1. Here are a few methods that have been used:

1. The normalized average of the surrounding triangle unit normals.
2. The normalized average of the surrounding triangle unit normals, each weighted by the angle of the triangle at  $p$ .
3. The normalized average of the adjacent edges, each weighted by the sum of the cotangents of the angles opposite this edge in the two triangles sharing the edge [1].

We tried each of these schemes on a complex surface ( $S_2$  in the next section), using a variety of local meshes and a large number of random points on the surface. The result was that they all worked very well on meshes that were not too skewed (i.e. no triangle “slivers”, no one triangle significantly larger than the others, etc.), and method 2 worked marginally better than method 2 and much better than method 3 in the more pathological circumstances. For this reason, we chose method 2 as our approximation method.

The next step is to choose orthonormal vectors  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in the plane tangent to  $N'_p$  to form a local orthonormal coordinate system  $L = \{x_1, x_2, N'_p\}$  in  $R^3$ . All calculations are done with respect to this local coordinate system. Each of the methods outlined below approximates the Weingarten curvature matrix expressed in this local coordinate system.

### The Normal Curvature Method

Suppose  $W$  is the unknown Weingarten matrix with respect to  $L$  at vertex  $p$ . Suppose there are  $n$  vertices adjacent to  $p$  and let  $q_i$  denote the  $i^{th}$  adjacent vertex. We denote by  $y_i$  the unit vector obtained by projecting the vector  $p\bar{q}_i$  (expressed in local coordinates  $L$ ) onto the plane tangent to  $N'_p$  and normalizing the result. Then using the result from section I, the normal curvature in the direction  $y_i$  is given by  $\kappa_{y_i} = y_i^T W y_i$ . An approximation to this normal curvature is given by:

$$\kappa'_{y_i} = 2 \frac{(p - q_i) \circ N'_p}{(p - q_i) \circ (p - q_i)}$$

which is the curvature of the unique osculating circle passing through  $p$  and  $q_i$  with normal  $N'_p$  at  $p$ . This produces a system of equation:

$$(1) \quad y_i^T W y_i = \kappa'_{y_i} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

that we wish to solve for  $W$ . In [1], these equations are weighted in the same manner as the weighting in the third normal approximation method mentioned at the beginning of this section, but we do not believe that this improves the result much. The fact is that the osculating circle only produces a second-order approximation to the true normal curvature and second-order approximations will introduce significant error in many cases.

The first step towards a solution is to reorganize (1) as follows. Let  $y_i = (u_i, v_i)$  and

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$y_i^T W y_i = (u_i \quad v_i) \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_i \\ v_i \end{pmatrix} = (u_i^2 \quad 2u_i v_i \quad v_i^2) \begin{pmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \end{pmatrix}$$

If we let  $U$  be the  $n \times 3$  matrix with rows  $(u_i^2 \quad 2u_i v_i \quad v_i^2)$ ,  $X = (A \quad B \quad C)^T$ , and  $d'$  be the  $n$ -vector whose  $i^{\text{th}}$  entry is  $\kappa'_{y_i}$  the entire system can be written as the matrix equation

$$(2) \quad UX = d'.$$

If  $d'$  was the vector of true curvatures, this linear system would have an exact solution (assuming the adjacent vertices do not have some degenerate pattern, like all lying on the same line.) In practice, the best we can hope to find is a least squares fit, i.e., a vector  $X'$  that minimizes  $|UX' - d'|$ . There are standard numerical methods for finding this least squares solution. The resulting matrix

$$W' = \begin{pmatrix} A' & B' \\ B' & C' \end{pmatrix}$$

is used to approximate the principal directions.

### The Quadratic Surface Method

In this method we try to best-fit a quadratic surface to the adjacent vertices. We begin by transforming  $q_i$  to local coordinates  $(x_i, y_i, z_i)$ . In these local coordinates,  $p$  becomes  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $N'_p$  lies along the positive  $z$ -axis, and the quadratic surface looks like

$$z = f(x, y) = \frac{A}{2}x^2 + Bxy + \frac{C}{2}y^2$$

The Weingarten matrix for such a surface is

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix}.$$

As in the Normal Curvature method, we plug in the adjacent vertices to get a system of equations

$$UX = Z$$

where the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of  $U$  is  $(\frac{1}{2}x_i^2 \quad x_i y_i \quad \frac{1}{2}y_i^2)$  and the  $i^{\text{th}}$  entry in  $Z$  is  $z_i$ . Again we look for a least-squares fit to the system.

At first glance, the Normal Curvature and Quadratic methods seem like they are pretty much the same since they both use a kind of second-order approximation. Indeed, this is their big failing, since we expect that there might be significant error for surfaces that cannot be approximated well by second-order data. However, they don't fail in quite the same way as we will see.

### The Adjacent-Normal Cubic Method

In both the preceding methods, we did not use all of the information available to us, namely, we did not use the known (approximated) normal vectors at  $q_i$ . We can use this information to create a third-order approximation method that we believe has not yet appeared in the literature. As we will see in the next section, this method seems to be significantly better than the first two.

As in the Quadratic method we try to fit a surface to the adjacent vertex data. Let

$$f(x, y) = \frac{A}{2}x^2 + Bxy + \frac{C}{2}y^2 + Dx^3 + Ex^2y + Fxy^2 + Gy^3.$$

The Weingarten matrix for this surface is still  $W = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{pmatrix}$ , because in the local coordinate system the curvature only depends on the second degree terms. However, using the third degree terms in the least-squares fit will produce values for  $(A, B, C)$  different from the ones we get in the quadratic method. The normal to this surface is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} N(x, y) &= (f_x(x, y), f_y(x, y), -1) \\ &= (Ax + By + 3Dx^2 + 2Exy + Fy^2, Bx + Cy + Ex^2 + 2Fxy + 3Gy^2, -1). \end{aligned}$$

Let  $(a_i, b_i, c_i)$  denote the normal at the data point  $(x_i, y_i, z_i)$  (both normal and point must be transformed to the local coordinates), and let  $X = (A \ B \ C \ D \ E \ F \ G)^T$ .

Rewrite the normal as  $(-\frac{a_i}{c_i}, -\frac{b_i}{c_i}, -1)$ . For each point, we have an equation

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}x_i^2 \quad x_i y_i \quad \frac{1}{2}y_i^2 \quad x_i^3 \quad x_i^2 y_i \quad x_i y_i^2 \quad y_i^3\right) X = z_i$$

and for each normal we have two equations:

$$\left(x_i \quad y_i \quad 0 \quad 3x_i^2 \quad 2x_i y_i \quad y_i^2 \quad 0\right) X = -\frac{a_i}{c_i}$$

$$(0 \quad x_i \quad y_i \quad 0 \quad x_i^2 \quad 2x_i y_i \quad 3y_i^2) X = -\frac{b_i}{c_i}$$

We let  $U$  be the  $3n \times 7$  matrix and  $Z$  be the  $3n$ -vector with entries at rows  $3i$ ,  $3i + 1$ , and  $3i + 2$  the left and right sides of the above three equations, respectively. As in the previous methods we find a least squares fit to

$$UX = Z$$

and use only  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  from the result.

### III. Testing the methods

We wanted to set up some fair comparison tests. We chose two different surfaces, one of which,  $S_1(u, v)$ , is simply a torus, and one of which,  $S_2(u, v)$ , is defined by:

$$f(u) = -2u^4 + 2u^2 + u/6 + 0.3$$

$$g(u) = \begin{cases} .9 + u + f(-.9), & -.9 - f(-.9) \leq u \leq -.9; \\ f(u), & -.9 \leq u \leq 1; \\ 1 - u - f(1), & 1 \leq u \leq 1 + f(1); \end{cases}$$

$$h(u) = \begin{cases} -.9, & -.9 - f(-.9) \leq u \leq -.9; \\ u, & -.9 \leq u \leq 1; \\ 1, & 1 \leq u \leq 1 + f(1); \end{cases}$$

$$x(u, v) = g(u) \cos(v)$$

$$y(u, v) = g(u) \sin(v)$$

$$z(u, v) = h(u) + 0.2 \sin(2x(u, v)) + 0.15 \cos(3x(u, v)y(u, v))$$

$$S_2(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) \quad .9 - f(-.9) \leq u \leq 1 + f(1), \quad 0 \leq v \leq 2\pi.$$

Part of the complexity of this surface is to ensure that it is closed, and part is to create significant areas where the curvature is “interesting”.

We also chose two different mesh schemes. Mesh scheme  $M_1$  was created by starting with the rectangular parameter space  $u_1 \leq u \leq u_2$ ,  $v_1 \leq v \leq v_2$ , letting  $du = (u_2 - u_1)/50$  and  $dv = (v_2 - v_1)/50$  and subdividing into subrectangles of size  $du$  by  $dv$ . Each subrectangle was then divided into two triangles by adding the diagonal from lower left to upper right.  $M_2$  was created by starting with  $M_1$  and moving each interior point  $(u_i, v_j)$  by a random amount  $(r_i, r_j)$  where  $-du/3 \leq r_i \leq du/3$  and  $-dv/3 \leq r_j \leq dv/3$ .

The figures in Appendix 2 show the results for  $(S_i, M_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ . The red lines indicate that the approximated principal direction are within  $5^\circ$  of the correct direction and the blue lines indicate where the direction is off by more than  $5^\circ$ .

We observe that all methods work very well for  $(S_1, M_1)$ . Differences begin to appear for  $(S_2, M_1)$  and are quite apparent with  $(S_1, M_2)$  and  $(S_2, M_2)$ . It seems that randomness can introduce serious errors. This led us to ask two simple questions:

- (1) How do errors created by using second or third order approximations affect the Weingarten approximation?
- (2) How do errors in the Weingarten approximation affect the eigenvector directions?

Before we consider these questions, we try to cast a bit of light on the situation.  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are global mesh schemes for the entire surface. We wanted to try different mesh schemes to see if the kind of mesh made a difference. Since it is difficult to do this globally, we opted for creating a variety of local meshes around a given point  $(u, v)$  in parameter space. We chose a series of 100 random points  $(u_i, v_i)$  in parameter space and created 5 different local meshes around each one as follows:

- $(LM_1)$  The same as the regular mesh  $M_1$ , This has 6 adjacent vertices.
- $(LM_2)$  Start with the 4 subrectangles around  $(u_i, v_i)$  in  $M_1$ , and draw the 4 diagonals from  $(u_i, v_i)$  This has 8 adjacent vertices.
- $(LM_3)$  Start with 6 equally spaced points  $(s_j, t_j)$  on a circle centered at  $(u_i, v_i)$  with radius  $r = \min(du, dv)$ . If  $S(u, v)$  is the surface, we let  $l = \|S(s_1, t_1) - S(u_i, v_i)\|$  and **calibrate** the other vertices  $(s_j, t_j)$ ,  $j = 2, \dots, 6$  by moving them to  $(\bar{s}_j, \bar{t}_j)$  along radial lines until  $\|S(\bar{s}_j, \bar{t}_j) - S(u_i, v_i)\| = l$ . The idea is to create a mesh on the surface that is not biased in any direction.
- $(LM_4)$  The same as  $LM_3$  except we use 8 points.
- $(LM_5)$  The same as  $LM_3$  except we use 5 points.

We then took each of the local meshes and rotated them in 5 degree increments. After each rotation, we recalibrated  $LM_3$ ,  $LM_4$ , and  $LM_5$ . Each of these rotated meshes was used for each of our principal direction methods. We were looking to see whether rotation of the mesh or the mesh type created the bigger errors. The results for surface  $S_2$  are summarized in the tables in Appendix 1. In the tables, N, Q, and C are the Normal Curvature, Quadratic and Cubic methods, respectively, the first 3 columns show the average angle error and the last 9 columns show the number (out of 100) of random points where the error fell in the indicated range. We used the exact normal at each vertex, rather than an approximation, to give each method the best chance of working well.

We observe that the cubic method definitely is superior to the other two. We also note that the worst errors in all methods occurred for certain rotations using mesh  $LM_1$ . This is probably due to the fact that in some places, significant skewing took place when the mesh in parameter space was mapped onto the surface.

#### IV. A unified approach to error analysis

The previous section illuminates how well or badly our three methods can work. In this section we develop a unified approach to error analysis of all three methods. From a mathematical point of view, all three of the methods outlined in the previous section, have the same two steps:



- (1) Find a least-squares fit to a linear system

$$Ux = b'$$

where  $b'$  is computed from data points in the surface mesh.

- (2) Use entries in the least-squares solution  $x'$  to form a symmetric matrix

$$W' = \begin{pmatrix} A' & B' \\ B' & C' \end{pmatrix}.$$

and then find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $W'$ .

The question we seek to answer is:

How do errors in  $b'$  affect errors in the principal directions?

In order to understand the subtlety of this question, consider the following example, taken directly from one of the test cases in the previous section. The matrix  $U$  computed using the Normal Curvature method is given by:

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 0.119319 & -0.648328 & 0.880681 \\ 0.194421 & 0.791509 & 0.805579 \\ 0.459432 & 0.996703 & 0.540568 \\ 0.047944 & 0.427295 & 0.952056 \\ 0.136932 & .68755 & 0.863068 \\ 0.208186 & .812021 & 0.791814 \end{pmatrix}$$

the true principal curvatures are 1.84 and 0.578, and the true normal curvature vector is:

$$b = (1.31872, 1.82591, 1.6508, 1.47723, 1.83995, 1.82079).$$

Suppose  $d$  is an error vector of length 0.5, and we let  $b' = b - d$ . How this error will effect the principal directions depends on how we distribute it among the 6 components. For example, each of the approximations

$$b_1 = (1.49893, 1.70951, 2.03881, 1.43369, 1.63304, 1.72745)$$

$$b_2 = (1.03218, 1.93208, 1.91872, 1.21649, 1.89610, 1.93783)$$

$$b_3 = (0.97174, 2.00138, 1.64589, 1.29353, 2.02988, 1.99099)$$

satisfies  $\|b - b_i\| = 0.5$ . Note also that we are not at an umbilical point (i.e. where the minimum and maximum curvatures are equal) where we might expect problems to occur. Which one produces the least principal direction angle error and which one produces the most? The surprising answer is:

$b_1$  Error of 66 degrees.

$b_2$  Error of 13.6 degrees.

$b_3$  Error of 0 degrees.

We will show in what follows how there could be such a disparity in the result. Suppose  $x$  is the exact solution to  $Ux = b$ . Suppose  $b'$  is an approximation to  $b$  and  $x'$  is the least-squares solution to  $Ux = b'$ . We call  $d = b' - b$  the **input error** and  $e = x' - x$  the **output error**. Consider the special case when  $Ux' = b'$  so that  $Ue = d$ . The following theorem shows that the magnitude of  $e$  can be much larger than the magnitude of  $d$ .

**Theorem 1** If  $Ue = d$ , then

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{max}}} \|d\| \leq \|e\| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{min}}} \|d\|$$

where  $\lambda_{min}$  and  $\lambda_{max}$  are the smallest and largest eigenvalues of  $U^T U$ .

**Proof** let  $V = U^T U$  and note that  $V$  is symmetric and positive-definite so it has eigenvalues  $0 < \lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$  with associated orthonormal eigenvectors  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ . Then

$$\|d\|^2 = d^T d = e^T U^T U e = e^T V e.$$

Write  $e = c_1 p_1 + \dots + c_n p_n$  so that  $\|e\|^2 = c_1^2 + \dots + c_n^2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} e^T V e &= (c_1 p_1 + \dots + c_n p_n)^T V (c_1 p_1 + \dots + c_n p_n) = \\ &= (c_1 p_1 + \dots + c_n p_n)^T (\lambda_1 c_1 p_1 + \dots + \lambda_n c_n p_n) = \lambda_1 c_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n c_n^2. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\lambda_1 \|e\|^2 \leq \|d\|^2 \leq \lambda_n \|e\|^2$$

from which the result follows easily.

In our example,  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{min}}} = 3.83$  so we see that this scale factor may not be insignificant. In general, if  $e$  is a solution to  $Ux = d$ , we call  $s_1 = \|e\|/\|d\|$  the **first scale factor**.

Theorem 1 tells us that the magnitude of the output error can be greater than the magnitude of the input error. The next theorem tells us that matters can still get much much worse. We use  $e$  to construct an approximate Weingarten matrix. This error vector can create serious problems both because of its length and its direction.

**Theorem 2** Suppose the Weingarten matrix  $W$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  with associated orthonormal eigenvectors  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  and  $W' = W + \begin{pmatrix} e_a & e_b \\ e_b & e_c \end{pmatrix}$  has eigenvalues  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  with associated orthonormal eigenvectors  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ . Let  $e = (e_a, e_b, e_c)$ ,  $\alpha$  denote the angle between  $p_1$  and the first local coordinate vector, and  $\beta$  denote the angle between  $v = \begin{pmatrix} 2e_b \\ e_c - e_a \end{pmatrix}$  and  $r_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\alpha) \\ \sin(2\alpha) \end{pmatrix}$ . Then the angle error  $\theta$  between  $p_1$  and the approximated eigenvector  $q_1$  satisfies

$$\tan(2\theta) = \frac{\|v\| \cos \beta}{\|v\| \sin \beta + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2}.$$

In particular, the angle error will be largest when  $\beta = 0$  and smallest when  $\beta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

**Proof** Let  $P$  be the matrix with  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  as its columns and  $Q$  be the matrix with  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  as its columns. We begin the proof by noting that

- (a)  $p_1^T p_1 = p_2^T p_2 = 1$ .
- (b)  $p_1^T p_2 = p_2^T p_1 = 0$ .

$$(c) \quad W = P \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix} P^T = \lambda_1 p_1 p_1^T + \lambda_2 p_2 p_2^T.$$

$$(d) \quad W' = Q \begin{pmatrix} \tau_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \tau_2 \end{pmatrix} Q^T = \tau_1 q_1 q_1^T + \tau_2 q_2 q_2^T.$$

Then from (c) and (d),  $W' = W + E$  implies

$$(1) \quad \tau_1 q_1 q_1^T + \tau_2 q_2 q_2^T = \lambda_1 p_1 p_1^T + \lambda_2 p_2 p_2^T + E$$

Now, let  $\theta$  be the angle between  $p_1$  and  $q_1$ . Then

$$p_1^T q_1 = \cos \theta$$

$$p_1^T q_2 = \cos\left(\theta + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin \theta$$

$$p_2^T q_1 = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right) = \sin \theta$$

$$p_2^T q_2 = \cos \theta$$

If we multiply (1) on the left by  $p_1^T$  and on the right by  $p_1$  we obtain:

$$(2) \quad \tau_1 \cos^2 \theta + \tau_2 \sin^2 \theta = \lambda_1 + p_1^T E p_1.$$

Similarly, if we multiply (1) on the left by  $p_2^T$  and on the right by  $p_2$ , or on the left by  $p_1^T$  and on the right by  $p_2$  we obtain, respectively:

$$(3) \quad \tau_1 \sin^2 \theta + \tau_2 \cos^2 \theta = \lambda_2 + p_2^T E p_2.$$

$$(4) \quad \tau_1 \sin \theta \cos \theta - \tau_2 \sin \theta \cos \theta = p_1^T E p_2.$$

Subtracting equation (3) from equation (2), and multiplying equation (4) by 2, we obtain, respectively:

$$(5) \quad (\tau_1 - \tau_2) \cos(2\theta) = p_1^T E p_1 - p_2^T E p_2 + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2.$$

$$(6) \quad (\tau_1 - \tau_2) \sin(2\theta) = 2p_1^T E p_2.$$

Finally, dividing equation (6) by equation (5) we get the result:

$$(7) \quad \tan(2\theta) = \frac{2p_1^T E p_2}{p_1^T E p_1 - p_2^T E p_2 + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2}.$$

We can rewrite this expression in order to make it easier to understand. Observe that since  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  are orthonormal they can be written in the form:

$$p_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \end{pmatrix} \quad p_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin \alpha \\ \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the angle between the eigenvectors of  $A$  and the local coordinate vectors. Plugging this into equation (7) we obtain:

$$(8) \quad \tan(2\theta) = \frac{(e_c - e_a) \sin(2\alpha) + 2e_b \cos(2\alpha)}{2e_b \sin(2\alpha) - (e_c - e_a) \cos(2\alpha) + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2}.$$

Now let

$$r_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(2\alpha) \\ \sin(2\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \quad r_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sin(2\alpha) \\ -\cos(2\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} 2e_b \\ e_c - e_a \end{pmatrix}$$

Then we can rewrite (8) as

$$(9) \quad \tan(2\theta) = \frac{v^T r_1}{v^T r_2 + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$$

If we let  $\beta$  be the angle between  $v$  and  $r_1$  we get

$$(10) \quad \tan(2\theta) = \frac{\|v\| \cos \beta}{\|v\| \sin \beta + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2}$$

Then the error will be largest when  $\beta = 0$  and smallest when  $\beta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

Note that if  $B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$v = \begin{pmatrix} 2e_b \\ e_c - e_a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} e = Be.$$

Also note that

$$B^T B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has largest eigenvalue  $\lambda = 4$ , with associated eigenvector  $(0, 1, 0)^T$ . It is not hard to show in a manner similar to Theorem 1 that  $\|e\|$  can be scaled by as much as  $\sqrt{\lambda} = 2$  when multiplied by  $B$ .

Theorem 2 tells us that the principal direction error is caused by both the magnitude of  $v$  and its direction with respect to  $r_1$ . We can think of the magnitude of  $v$  as a product of two different scalings,  $s_1$  and  $s_2$ , of the original input error  $d$ , first by multiplying  $d$  by  $U$  to get  $e$ , and then multiplying  $e$  by  $B$  to get  $v$ . The first scale factor can be as large

as  $1/\sqrt{\lambda_{min}}$  if  $d$ 's direction is the same as the direction of  $p_{min}$  (Recall that  $\lambda_{min}$  is the smallest eigenvalue of  $U^T U$  with associated eigenvector  $p_{min}$ ). The second scale factor can be as much as 2, if  $e$  is in the direction of  $(0, 1, 0)^T$ .

We used Theorem 1 and 2 to construct our three approximate curvature vectors. First note that the least-squares solution to  $Ue = d$  is an exact solution to  $U^T Ue = U^T d$ . We found  $d_1$  by finding a solution to  $U^T d = p_{min}$  and then scaled it down to have a length of 0.5. Then we let  $b_1 = b - d_1$ . This guaranteed that we would find  $e$  with length as large as possible.

We found  $d_2$  and  $d_3$  as follows. We know that  $e = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T d$  so that  $Be = B(U^T U)^{-1} U^T d$ . We solved  $B(U^T U)^{-1} U^T d = r_1$  to find  $d_2$  and  $B(U^T U)^{-1} U^T d = r_2$  to find  $d_3$ . We then scaled them both to have length 0.5 and let  $b_2 = b - d_2$  and  $b_3 = b - d_3$ .

The following table summarizes the calculation for each of the three approximations. In the second to last column we show what the error would have been only due to  $\beta$ , i.e. we set  $s = 1$ .

Approx	$s_1$	$s_2$	$s = s_1 s_2$	$\beta$	Error if s=1	Error
$b_1$	3.83	0.585	2.24	66.8°	24°	66.0°
$b_2$	0.78	0.835	0.65	0°	19.2°	13.6°
$b_3$	2.09	0.62	1.3	90°	0°	0°

We have shown that small errors in computing such quantities as normal curvature can significantly amplify the resulting angle error in principal direction. In particular, the problem is a combination of both the magnitude of the errors we make and the direction in which we make them. The former can be controlled to some extent. For example, the cubic method does a better job of controlling error magnitude than the others because it uses third-order approximations rather than second-order ones. The direction problem seems to be related to the local geometry of the mesh. It seems possible that some constraint on the mesh design might minimize rotation errors.

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## APPENDIX 1

LM1 Rot	Ave. degree Err			0-5 degrees			5-10 degrees			> 10 degrees		
	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C
0	3.8	5.3	4.4	87	82	90	3	8	2	10	10	8
1	4.4	3.5	4.6	85	88	89	4	3	2	11	9	9
2	4.6	2.7	3.7	87	89	89	2	2	2	11	9	9
3	4.8	3.4	3.7	87	89	90	0	1	2	13	10	8
4	4.5	4.7	3.7	88	86	89	2	2	3	10	12	8
5	4.8	5.3	4.1	85	85	89	7	4	3	8	11	8
6	5.3	7.1	5.7	79	78	85	12	7	2	9	15	13
7	7.7	9.1	7.2	70	72	83	13	9	2	17	19	15
8	10.0	10.4	7.5	66	65	81	10	10	3	24	25	16
9	11.6	12.5	6.6	59	57	79	13	15	6	28	28	15
10	14.2	14.8	8.4	51	45	78	13	23	4	36	32	18
11	16.3	17.8	9.3	48	38	76	12	18	6	40	44	18
12	20.1	21.6	10.2	45	28	73	10	21	5	45	51	22
13	23.3	25.4	11.1	40	22	71	8	24	5	52	54	24
14	25.0	26.9	11.4	34	21	69	8	19	6	58	60	25
15	25.9	29.1	11.7	26	21	69	21	20	6	53	59	25
16	25.2	30.0	11.6	25	22	68	18	15	7	57	63	25
17	23.9	30.6	11.9	17	27	69	23	15	5	60	58	26

LM2 Rot	Ave. degree Err			0-5 degrees			5-10 degrees			> 10 degrees		
	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C
0	3.2	7.2	4.1	92	74	90	0	11	1	8	15	9
1	4.9	8.8	7.3	87	71	84	2	11	1	11	18	15
2	6.3	10.4	6.8	84	65	82	2	11	4	14	24	14
3	8.0	13.4	7.7	82	46	78	2	18	5	16	36	17
4	9.0	14.9	8.0	81	47	78	1	13	4	18	40	18
5	8.7	15.9	10.5	78	39	73	6	16	5	16	45	22
6	9.1	18.0	10.0	73	31	70	8	16	5	19	53	25
7	9.9	20.4	10.5	67	21	70	10	20	6	23	59	24
8	11.0	22.3	10.7	68	17	69	8	17	6	24	66	25
9	11.2	24.5	10.7	65	21	70	9	13	4	26	66	26
10	12.9	26.4	10.7	60	16	68	11	14	8	29	70	24
11	14.9	29.9	10.9	54	15	66	15	16	9	31	69	25
12	15.8	28.8	11.8	48	23	66	18	17	7	34	60	27
13	17.4	28.1	11.4	45	29	67	16	12	6	39	59	27
14	18.6	35.2	11.1	47	22	67	11	17	7	42	61	26
15	18.6	35.3	11.5	45	26	67	13	13	6	42	61	27
16	17.0	33.4	11.3	46	27	67	16	13	6	38	60	27
17	13.9	34.5	11.0	41	24	67	31	13	6	28	63	27

LM3 Rot	Ave. degree Err			0-5 degrees			5-10 degrees			> 10 degrees		
	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C
0	6.6	6.3	2.0	84	82	95	4	7	1	12	11	4
1	6.1	6.4	2.0	85	83	95	3	5	0	12	12	5
2	5.4	6.1	2.0	90	87	95	2	4	1	8	9	4
3	4.6	4.2	2.0	90	87	96	2	5	1	8	8	3
4	3.1	3.8	1.5	91	86	96	3	7	0	6	7	4
5	1.3	3.0	0.8	96	89	98	0	3	0	4	8	2
6	1.5	1.6	0.3	96	95	98	1	3	1	3	2	1
7	1.6	2.5	0.5	92	89	97	3	7	1	5	4	2
8	2.5	3.8	1.1	91	87	97	1	4	0	8	9	3
9	3.3	3.5	2.1	91	86	95	0	5	1	9	9	4
10	4.6	3.5	2.1	88	90	95	2	2	0	10	8	5
11	6.3	6.7	2.1	85	81	95	2	6	1	13	13	4
12	6.6	6.3	2.0	84	82	95	4	7	1	12	11	4
13	6.1	6.4	2.0	85	83	95	3	5	0	12	12	5
14	5.4	6.1	2.0	90	87	95	2	4	1	8	9	4
15	4.6	4.2	2.0	90	87	96	2	5	1	8	8	3
16	3.1	3.8	1.5	91	86	96	3	7	0	6	7	4
17	1.3	3.0	0.8	96	89	98	0	3	0	4	8	2

LM4 Rot	Ave. degree Err			0-5 degrees			5-10 degrees			> 10 degrees		
	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C
0	0.9	1.2	0.3	94	96	98	3	1	1	3	3	1
1	2.0	1.3	0.6	92	95	97	0	2	1	8	3	2
2	1.8	2.8	1.2	94	91	97	1	4	0	5	5	3
3	1.9	3.0	2.0	93	89	95	1	3	1	6	8	4
4	3.7	4.2	2.1	89	89	95	2	1	0	9	10	5
5	4.6	5.0	2.0	91	87	95	0	5	1	9	8	4
6	3.5	2.5	2.0	92	93	95	1	3	2	7	4	3
7	2.4	2.5	1.6	94	92	95	0	3	1	6	5	4
8	1.5	1.7	0.7	94	95	97	1	1	2	5	4	1
9	0.9	1.2	0.3	94	96	98	3	1	1	3	3	1
10	2.0	1.3	0.6	92	95	97	0	2	1	8	3	2
11	1.8	2.8	1.2	94	91	97	1	4	0	5	5	3
12	2.0	3.0	2.0	92	89	95	2	3	1	6	8	4
13	3.7	4.2	2.1	89	89	95	2	1	0	9	10	5
14	4.6	5.0	2.0	91	87	95	0	5	1	9	8	4
15	3.5	2.5	2.0	92	93	95	1	3	2	7	4	3
16	2.4	2.5	1.6	94	92	95	0	3	1	6	5	4
17	1.5	1.7	0.7	94	95	97	1	1	2	5	4	1

LM5 Rot	Ave. degree Err			0-5 degrees			5-10 degrees			> 10 degrees		
	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C	N	Q	C
0	8.8	8.1	1.9	68	63	95	12	21	1	20	16	4
1	8.4	8.0	1.5	72	66	96	9	13	1	19	21	3
2	7.1	6.5	1.5	65	66	96	18	14	1	17	20	3
3	6.7	5.9	0.6	66	67	98	19	17	0	15	16	2
4	6.5	6.8	0.7	66	66	97	17	14	1	17	20	2
5	7.4	7.6	1.2	66	62	97	16	20	0	18	18	3
6	8.5	8.2	1.9	67	67	95	13	14	0	20	19	5
7	9.4	7.4	2.0	68	73	95	10	13	1	22	14	4
8	10.3	9.5	2.2	67	73	95	11	6	0	22	21	5
9	10.3	9.6	2.1	68	70	95	13	10	1	19	20	4
10	9.3	9.2	2.0	69	68	95	10	11	1	21	21	4
11	9.0	9.1	2.1	72	69	94	7	9	2	21	22	4
12	8.3	7.7	2.0	77	75	95	7	12	1	16	13	4
13	7.6	7.3	2.0	80	79	95	7	8	1	13	13	4
14	5.9	6.8	2.0	86	79	95	4	9	0	10	12	5
15	4.2	4.9	2.0	89	84	95	3	7	1	8	9	4
16	2.9	3.8	0.9	89	89	96	3	3	2	8	8	2
17	2.6	3.1	0.6	92	92	98	3	4	1	5	4	1