

- I. We need to understand smooth surfaces mathematically
- II. It's easiest to start with smooth curves & build up from there
- III. In a parameterised curve, the direction vector is the first derivative  $dt$
- IV. Unfortunately, there are multiple equations describing any given curve
- V. The solution to this is to pick one parameterization based on the distance along the curve - i.e. the Arc Length Parameterization (ALP)
- VI. Working with the ALP means you have no distortion in your description
- VII. We used the derivatives to find the curvature of the curve
- VIII. We want to do the same for surfaces
- IX. We can study surfaces by looking at them as a set of curves - eg cross-sections
- X. When we do this, we look isoparametric curves - curves following  $u$  or  $v$  across the surface.
- XI. We discovered the Jacobian matrix  $J$ , and the first & second fundamental forms **I** and **II** which capture forms of distortion
- XII. We saw that these describe the relationship between a small circle in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and a small ellipse on the surface called the ellipse of anisotropy.
- XIII. We observed that ideally we would have a surface parameterization where the ellipse was always a circle.
- XIV. But it can't be done, so we need to look at "intrinsic" properties of the surface instead.
- XV. We defined the two principal curvatures of the surface using a variation on the isoparametric curves.  $K_1, K_2$  combine to give  $K$ ,  $H$ , the Gaussian & mean curvatures, of which  $K$  is intrinsic.

Now we start simplifying & turn it into something we can use

Define an "operator" over the group of functions to be a mapping that takes a function  $f$  as a parameter and returns a new function  $g$

e.g.  $| \cdot |$  is the absolute value operator  
Pass in  $f$  and it returns  $|f|$

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$f(x)$$

$$|f|: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$|f|(x) \neq |f(x)|$$

semantically

The operator  $\nabla$  takes a function  $f$  and returns

vector where each element has as many components as  $f$

$$\nabla f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) \text{ a vector-valued function}$$

The operator  $\text{div}$  takes a function  $f$  and returns

$$\rightarrow \text{adds the components} \quad \text{div } f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \quad \text{div-divergence}$$

Define  $\Delta f$  the Laplace operator ("del f") to be

$$\Delta f = \text{div } \nabla f$$

$$= \text{div} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}$$

$\rightarrow$  really just a variation on Pythagoras  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

On a surface  $S$ , defined by  $\mathbf{X}(u, v)$  [the position function  $\mathbf{X}: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ ]

$$\Delta \mathbf{X} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{X}}{\partial v^2}$$

$$= \mathbf{X}_{uu} + \mathbf{X}_{vv}$$

Related to this is the "Laplace-Beltrami" operator

$$\Delta_S f = \text{div}_S \nabla_S f, \text{ but everyone is sloppy and writes}$$

$$\Delta f = \text{div } \nabla f \text{ instead}$$

Note that the Laplace-Beltrami operator applies to any function  $f$  on the surface - e.g. colour position

so if we apply Laplace-Beltrami to the position function  $\mathbf{X}$ , it has been proved that:

$$\underbrace{\Delta_S \mathbf{X}}_{\text{intrinsic}} = -2H \underbrace{\vec{n}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{mean} \\ \text{curvature}}} \underbrace{\quad}_{\substack{\nwarrow \\ \text{normal vector}}} \quad [\text{stated without proof}]$$

we will estimate this

Now, in an ideal world, there would be a perfect parameterisation, and a side effect of that would be that the direction vectors of the isoparametric curves would be orthogonal to each other, would be units, and the first fundamental form  $\mathbf{I}$  would be the identity matrix. But then the normal vector would be length 1.

We cheat. We assume that  $\|\vec{n}\| = 1$ , since we usually have a unit normal available. Then if we have approximated  $\Delta_S \mathbf{X}$  and assumed  $\|\vec{n}\| = 1$ , we can solve for  $H$ .

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$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_S \mathbf{X} &= \operatorname{div} \nabla \mathbf{X}_S = \operatorname{div} \left( \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial v} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{X}}{\partial v^2} \\ &= \text{another vector} \end{aligned}$$

vector quantities

All of this is for smooth surfaces.

We have triangulated meshes, so we have to do it again [more or less] to work out what this means in practice