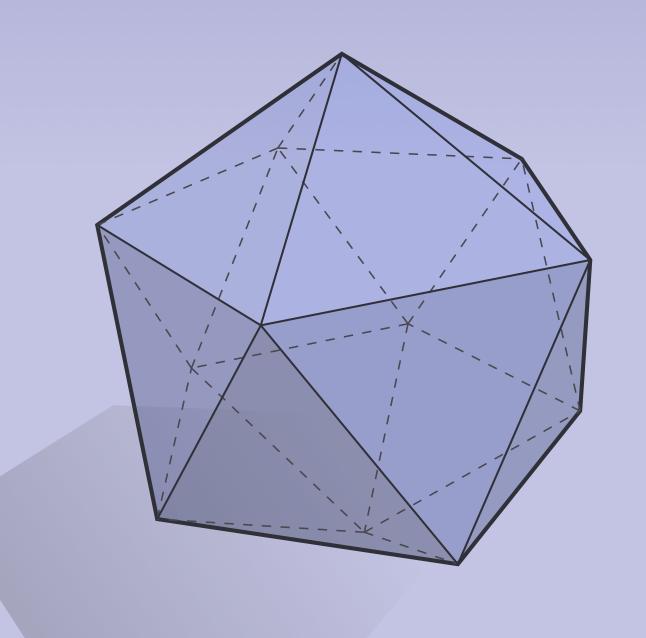


## DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL GEOMETRY:

#### AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION

**Keenan Crane • CMU 15-458/858** 

# LECTURE 12: SMOOTH SURFACES I



## DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL GEOMETRY:

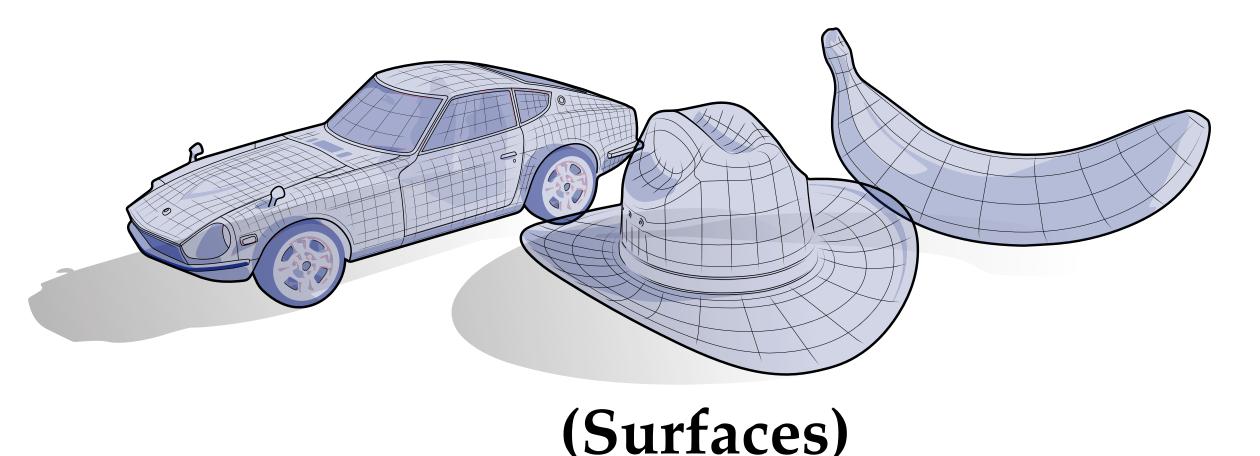
#### AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION

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#### From Curves to Surfaces

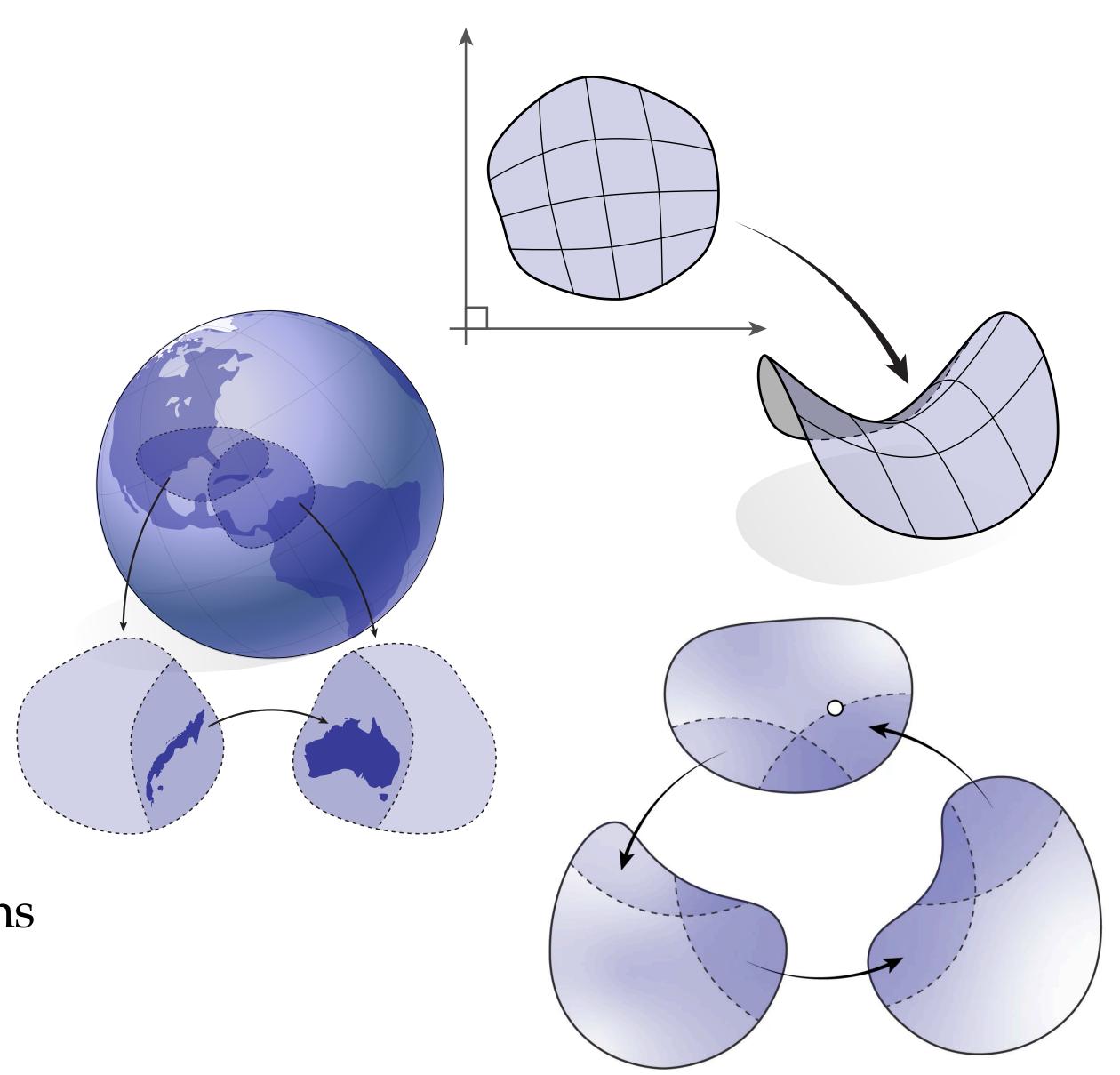
- Previously: saw how to talk about 1D curves (both smooth and discrete)
- Today: will study 2D curved surfaces (both smooth and discrete)
  - •Some concepts remain the same (e.g., differential); others need to be generalized (e.g., curvature)
  - •Still use exterior calculus as our lingua franca





#### Surfaces—From Local to Global to Intrinsic...

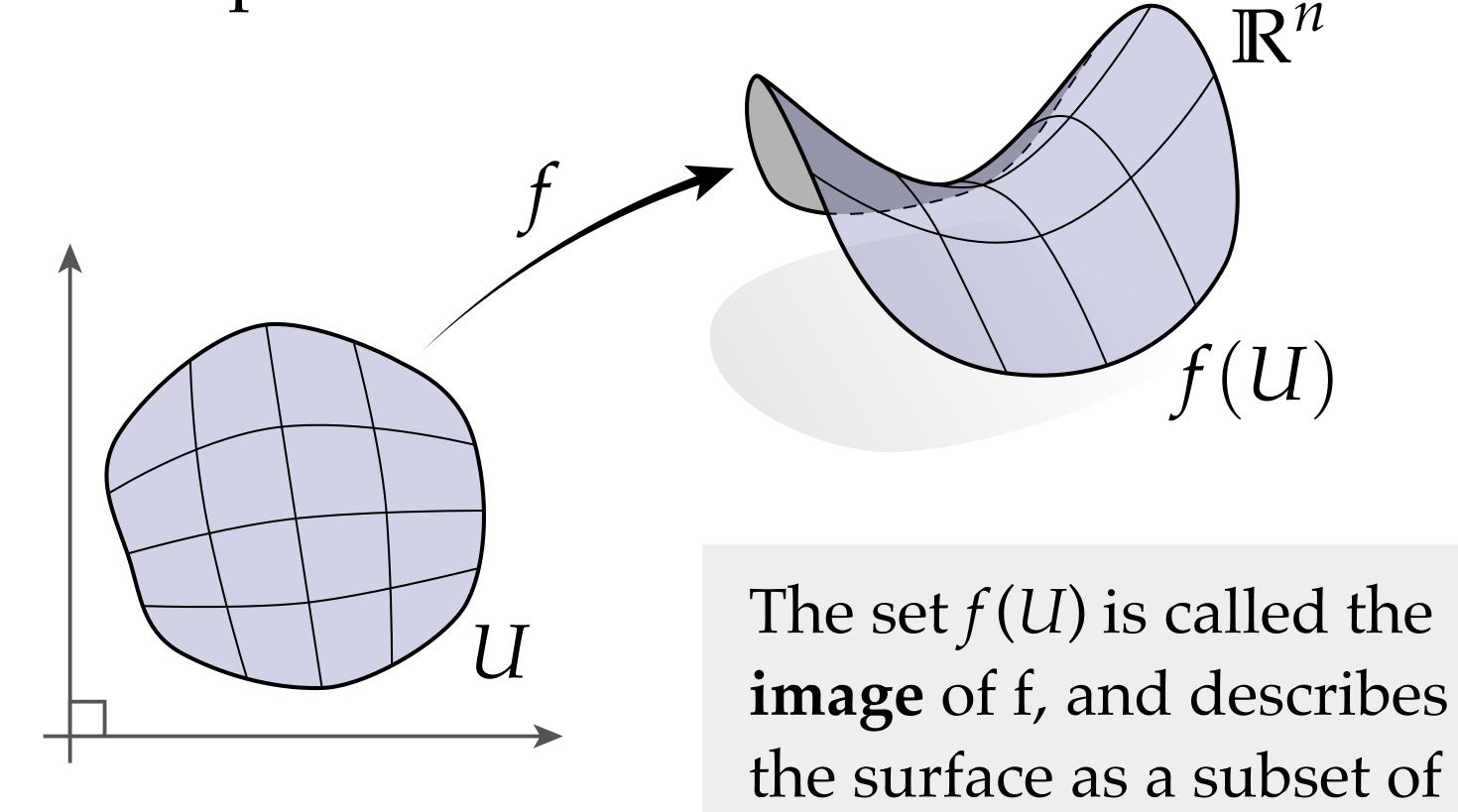
- Local picture. Will initially describe surfaces in terms of the geometry of a local patch.
  - As with curves, parameterization gives an *extrinsic* description: how does it sit in space?
- Global picture. Can piece several local pieces together to describe a whole surface, rather than one patch. (Still extrinsic.)
- Intrinsic picture. From here, can "throw away" embeddings into space—induced *Riemannian metric* retains a "memory" of the shape
  - In fact, we never needed an embedding at all! Can describe manifolds purely *intrinsically*.
- (Discrete picture.) mesh geometry via edge lengths (*intrinsic*), rather than vertex positions (*extrinsic*).



## Parameterized Surfaces

#### Parameterized Surface

A parameterized surface is a map  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$  from a two-dimensional region  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  into space.



 $\mathbb{R}^n$  rather than as a map.

\*Continuous, differentiable, smooth, ...

#### Parameterized Surface—Example

For example, can express a saddle as a parameterized surface:

$$U := \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : u^2 + v^2 \le 1\}$$

$$f : U \to \mathbb{R}^3; (u, v) \mapsto (u, v, u^2 - v^2)$$

#### Reparameterization

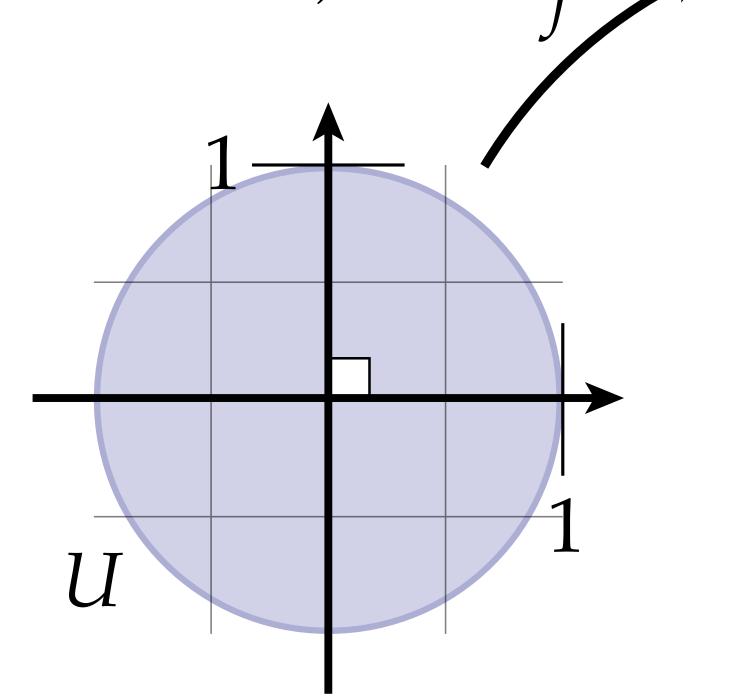
Many different parameterizations describe the same surface:

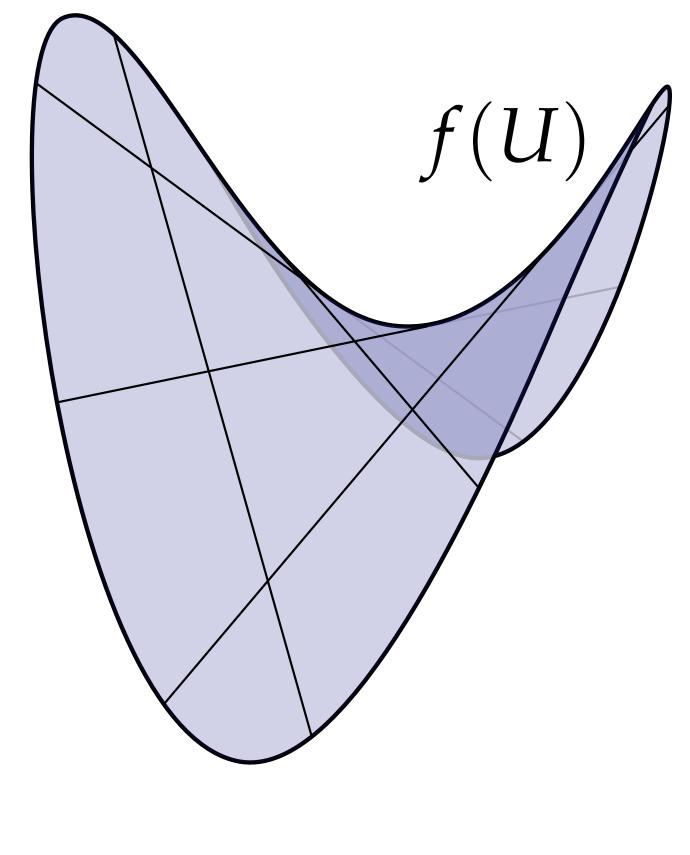
$$U := \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : u^2 + v^2 \le 1\}$$

$$\tilde{f}: U \to \mathbb{R}^3; (u,v) \mapsto (u+v,u-v,4uv)$$

This "reparameterization symmetry" can be a major challenge in applications—e.g., trying to decide if two parameterized surfaces (or meshes) describe the same shape.

Analogy: graph isomorphism





#### Reparameterization

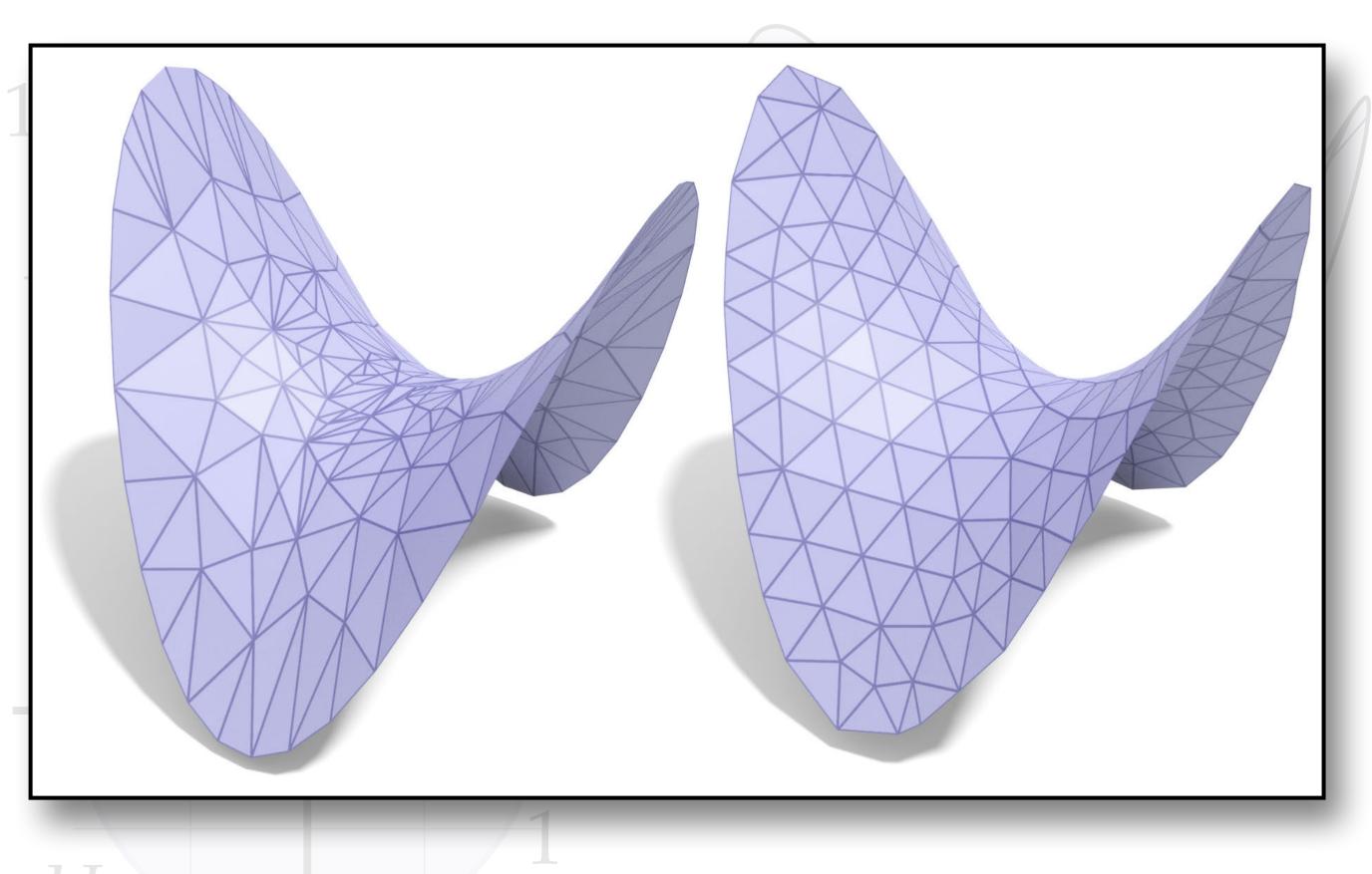
Many different parameterizations describe the same surface:

$$U := \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : u^2 + v^2 \le 1$$

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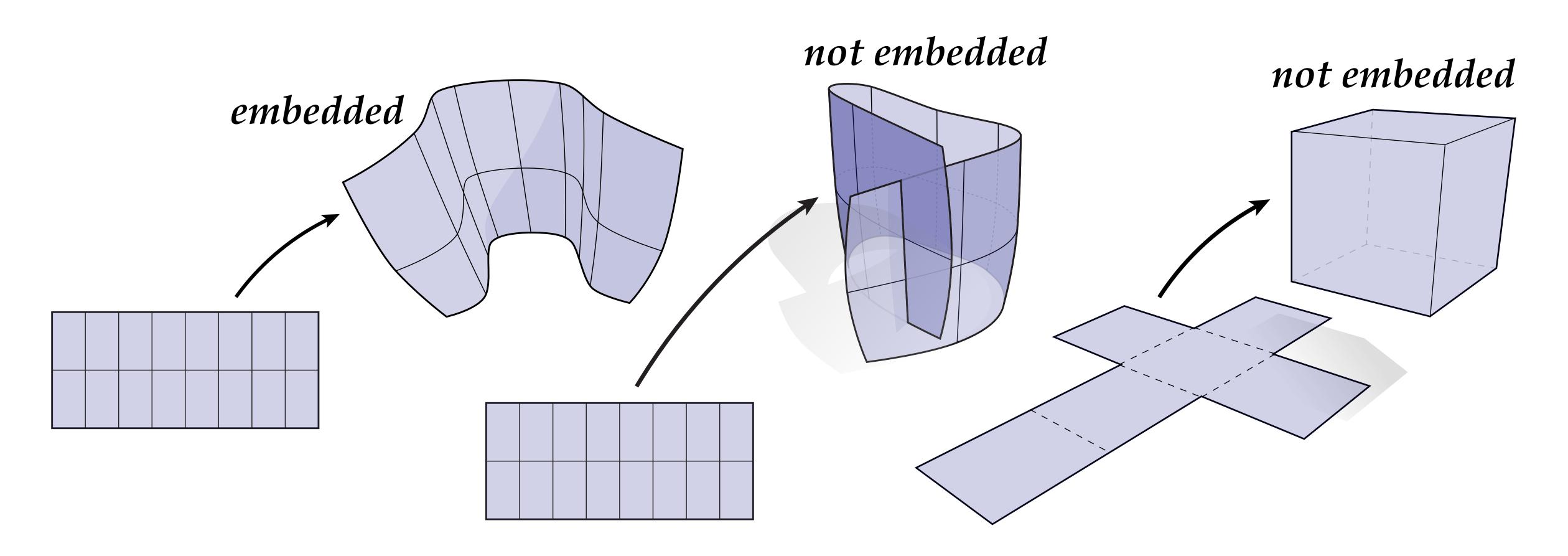
This "reparameterization symmetry" can be a major challenge in applications—e.g., trying to decide if two parameterized surfaces (or meshes) describe the same shape.

Analogy: graph isomorphism



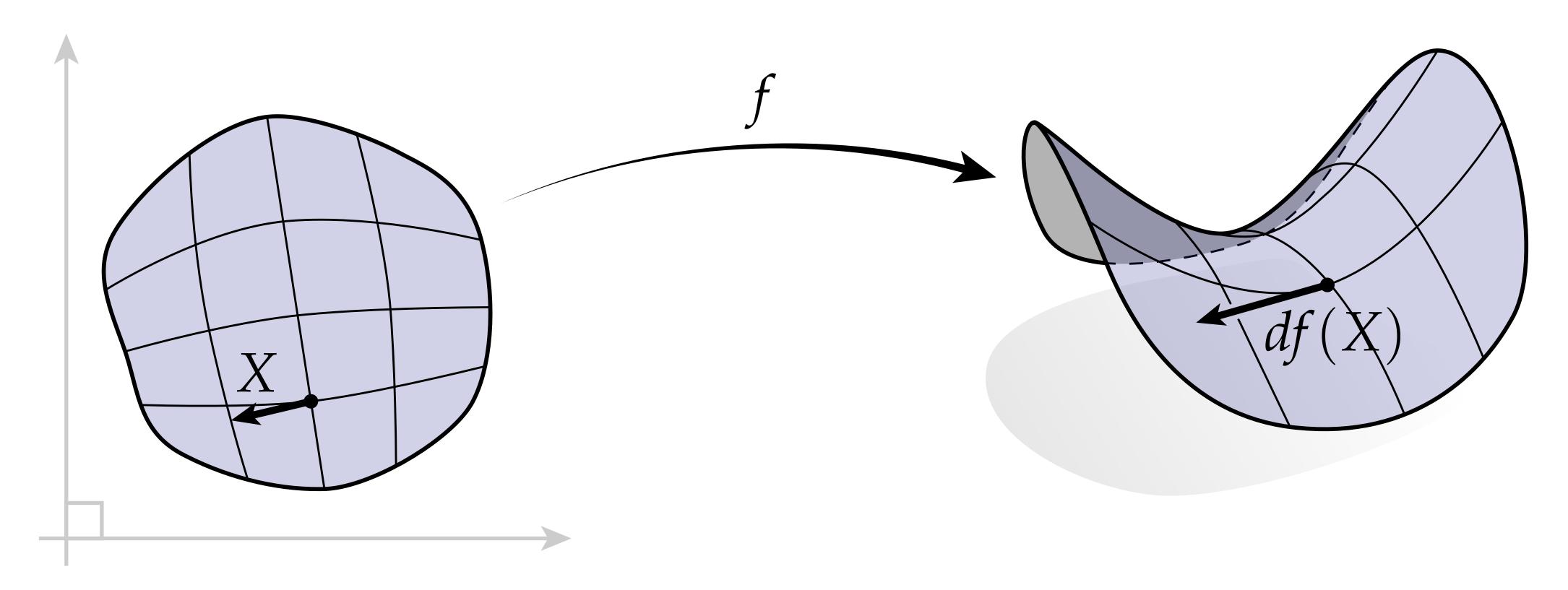
#### Embedded Surface

- Loosely speaking, an embedding "preserves the topology" of the domain
- More precisely, a parameterized surface f is an **embedding** if it is a continuous bijection onto its image f(U), with continuous inverse



### Differential of a Surface

Intuitively, the *differential* of a parameterized surface tells us how tangent vectors on the domain get "stretched out" into space:



We say that *df* "pushes forward" vectors X into  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , yielding vectors df(X)

#### Differential in Coordinates

More explicitly, the differential is the exterior derivative of the parameterization:

$$f: U \to \mathbb{R}^3; (u,v) \mapsto (u,v,u^2-v^2)$$

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} dv =$$

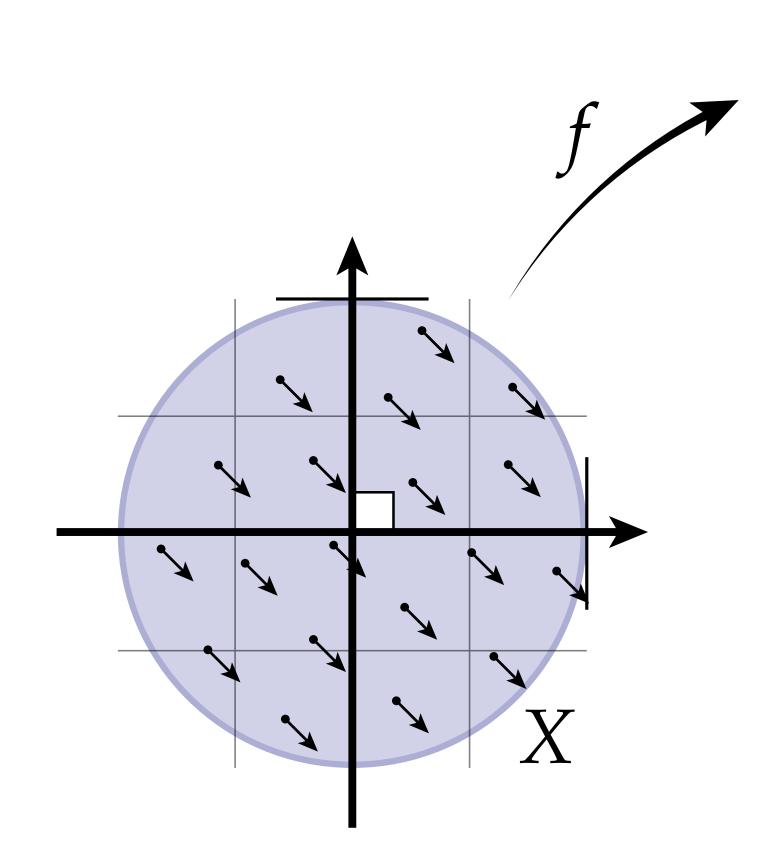
$$(1,0,2u)du + (0,1,-2v)dv$$

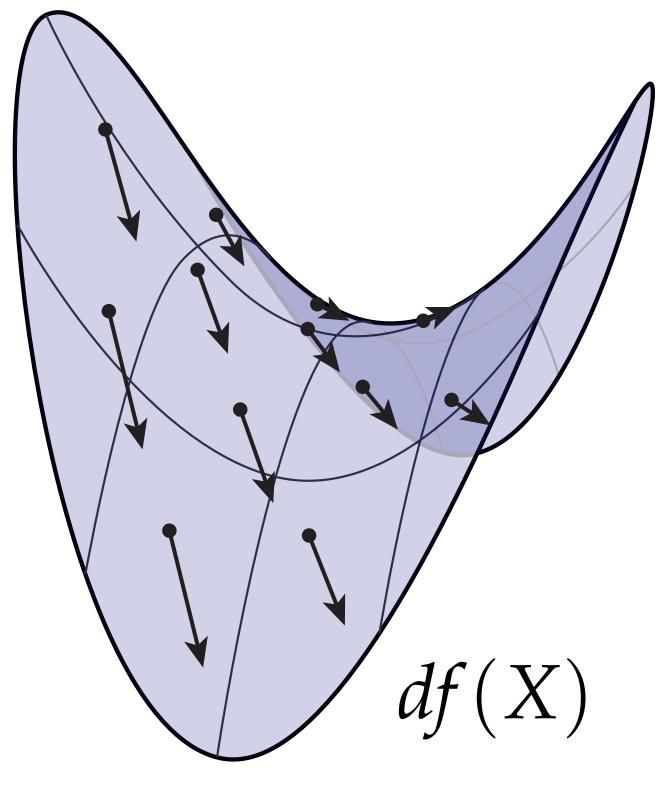
To "push forward" a vector field *X*:

$$X := \frac{3}{4} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$df(X) = \frac{3}{4}(1, -1, 2(u+v))$$

E.g., at 
$$u=v=0$$
:  $(\frac{3}{4}, -\frac{3}{4}, 0)$ 





### Differential—Matrix Representation (Jacobian)

**Definition.** Consider a map  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , and let  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  be coordinates on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the *Jacobian* of f is the matrix

$$J_{f} := \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f^{1}}{\partial x^{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f^{1}}{\partial x^{n}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f^{m}}{\partial x^{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f^{m}}{\partial x^{n}} \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $f^1, \ldots, f^m$  are the components of f w.r.t. some coordinate system on  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . This matrix represents the differential in the sense that  $df(X) = J_f X$ .

(In solid mechanics, also known as the deformation gradient.)

**Note:** does not generalize to infinite dimensions! (*E.g.*, maps between functions.)

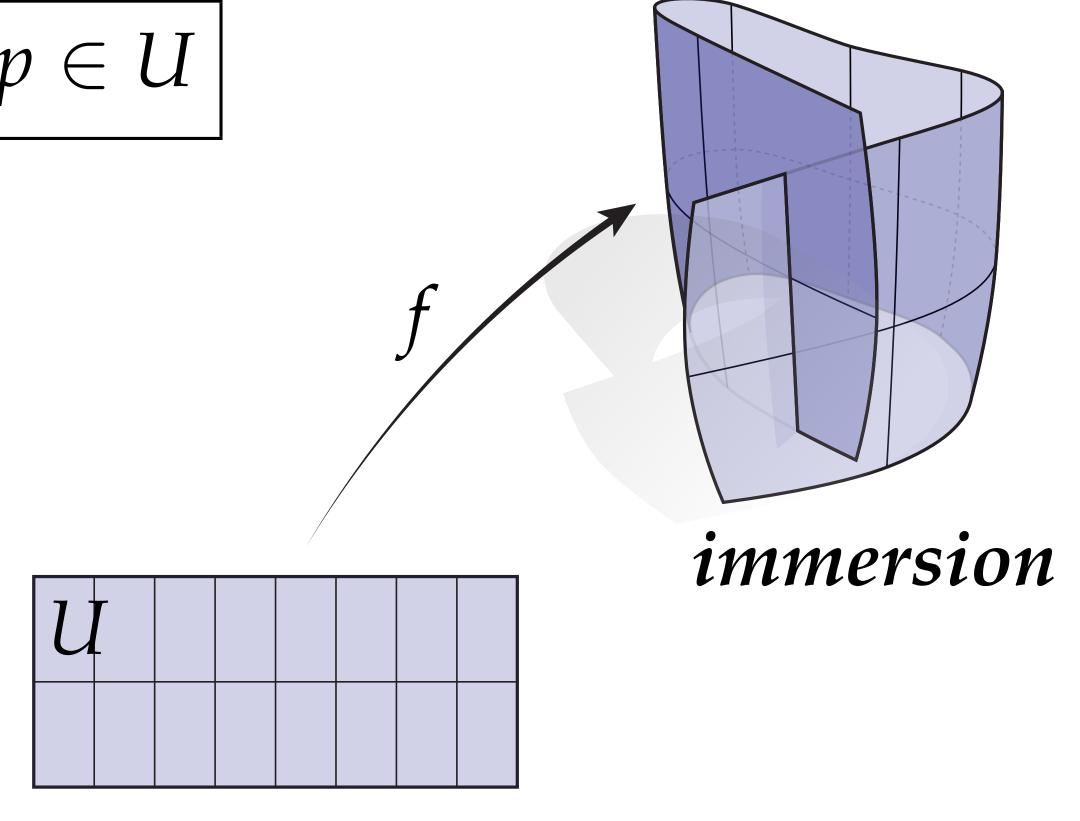
#### Immersed Surface

A map  $f: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$  is an *immersion* if its differential df is nondegenerate

$$df(X)|_p = 0 \iff X|_p = 0 \qquad \forall p \in U$$

Key idea: as long as surface is immersed, quantities like tangents, normals, etc., are well-defined—even if there are self-intersections!

Fact. Any immersion is locally an embedding and vice versa (*C*<sup>1</sup>).



Intuition: no region of the surface gets "pinched" / "squashed"

#### Immersion—Example

Consider the standard parameterization of the sphere:

$$f(u,v) := (\cos(u)\sin(v),\sin(u)\sin(v),\cos(v))$$

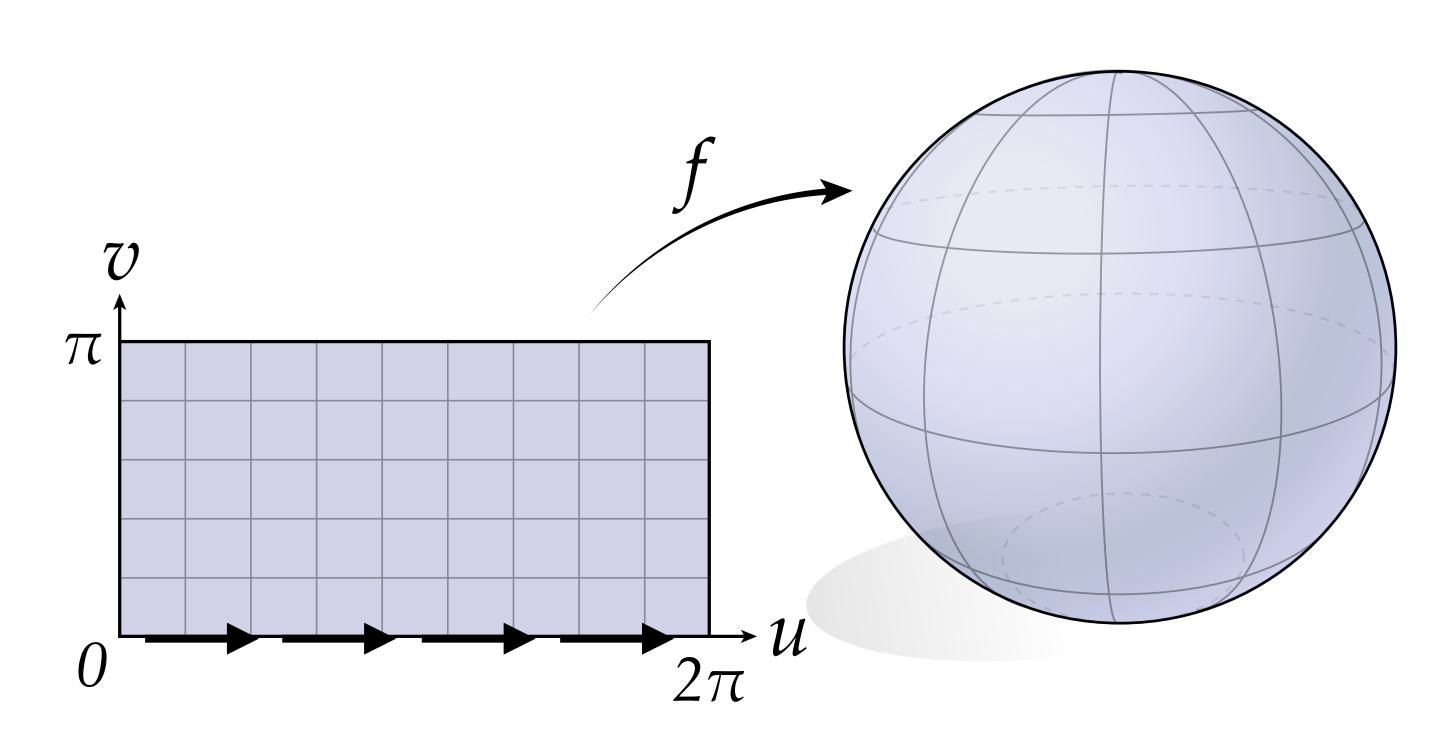
$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}du + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}dv = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(u)\sin(v), & \cos(u)\sin(v), & 0 \\ \cos(u)\cos(v), & \cos(v)\sin(u), & -\sin(v) \end{pmatrix} du + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}dv = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(u)\sin(v), & \cos(u)\sin(v), & 0 \\ \cos(u)\cos(v), & \cos(v)\sin(u), & -\sin(v) \end{pmatrix} dv$$

**Q:** Is *f* an immersion?

**A:** No: when v = 0 we get

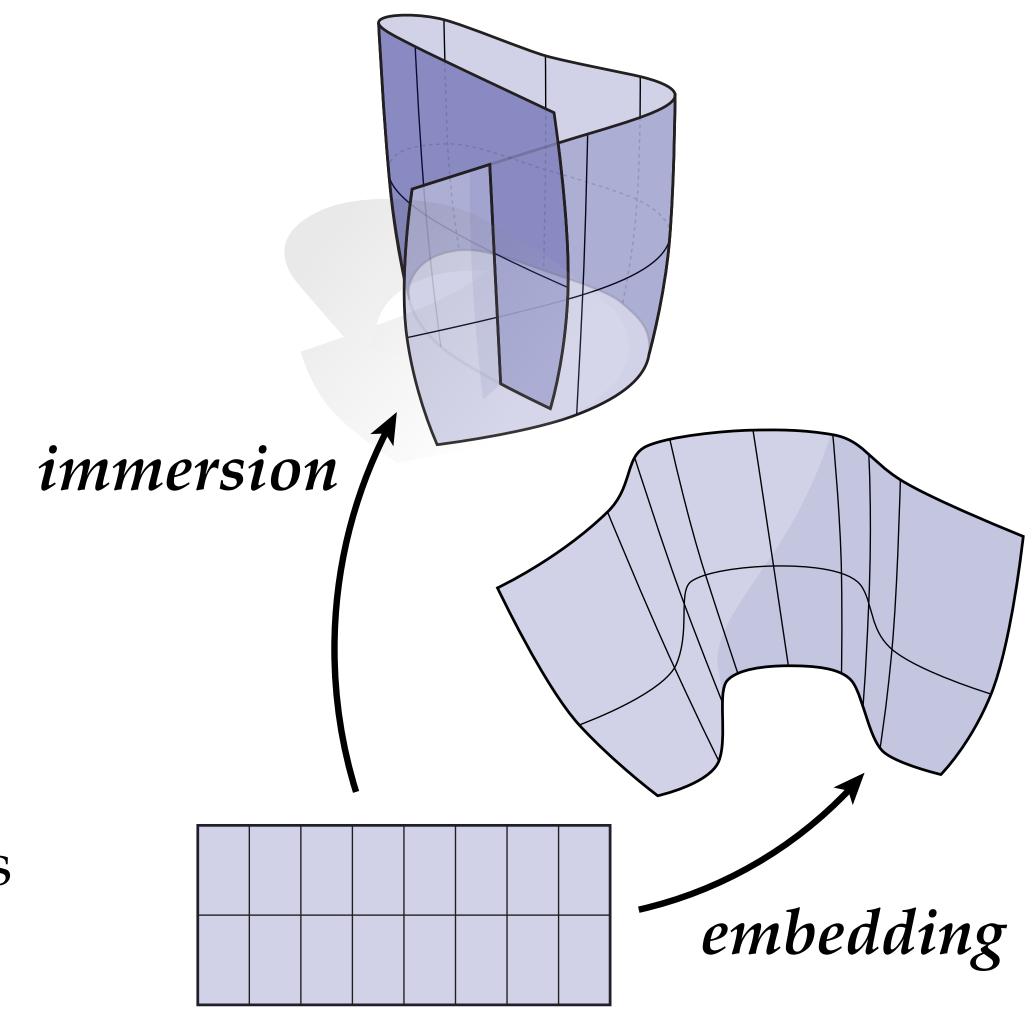
$$(cos(u), sin(u), -sin(v)) du +$$

Can't walk "east/west" at poles!



#### Immersion vs. Embedding

- Immersions are fairly common notion of "nice" / "regular surface: can pass through themselves (non-physical) but still provide <u>local</u> quantities like tangents, normals, metric, etc.
- Immersions also natural model for how we often think about discrete geometry: <u>local</u> quantities (angles, lengths, etc.) are perfectly well-defined, even if there happen to be self-intersections
- Ensuring a surface is immersed (local) typically easier than ensuring it is embedded (global)
  - roughly speaking: sum of two immersions is "usually" immersion; less likely for embeddings
  - e.g., mesh with random vertex coordinates will likely be immersed but not embedded



## Regular Homotopy

- Regular homotopy notion of "nice motion"
  - -no pinches, sharp creases, or stops
- More formally:

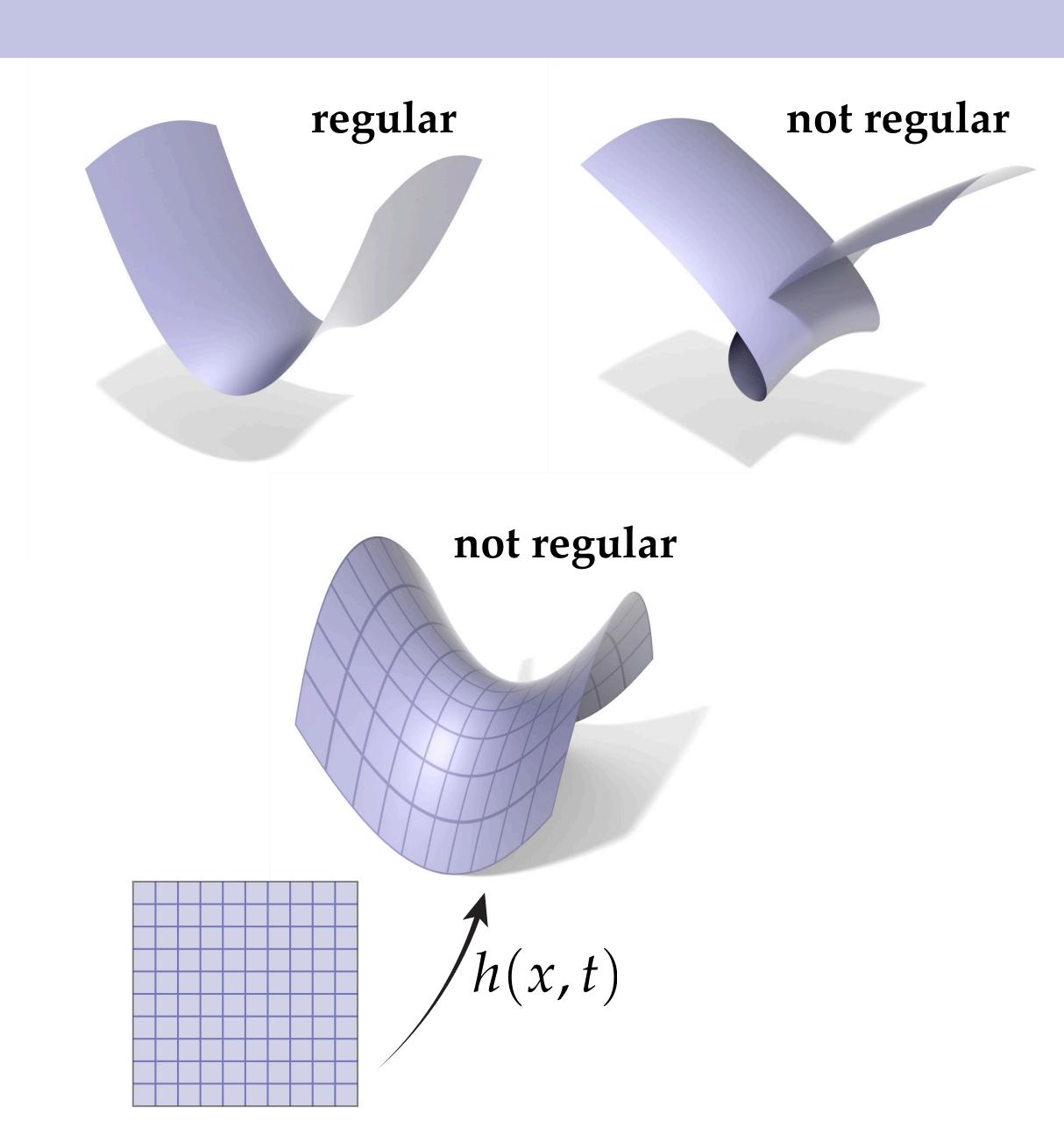
$$f_0, f_1: U \to \mathbb{R}^3$$

 $h: U \times [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  continuous

$$h(x,0) = f_0(x)$$

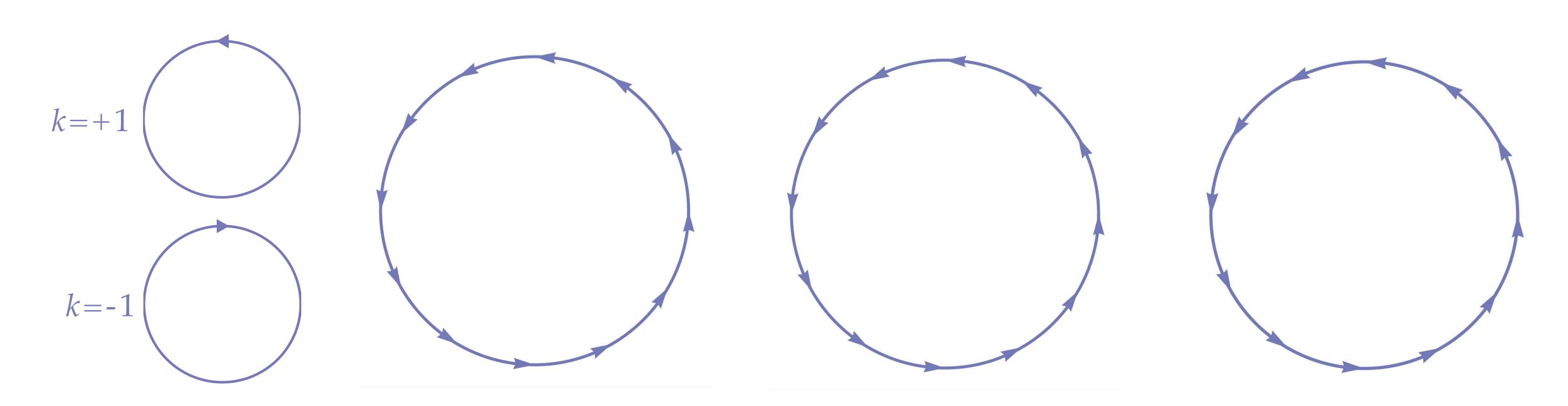
$$h(x,1) = f_1(x)$$

 $h(\cdot,t)$  is an immersion for all t



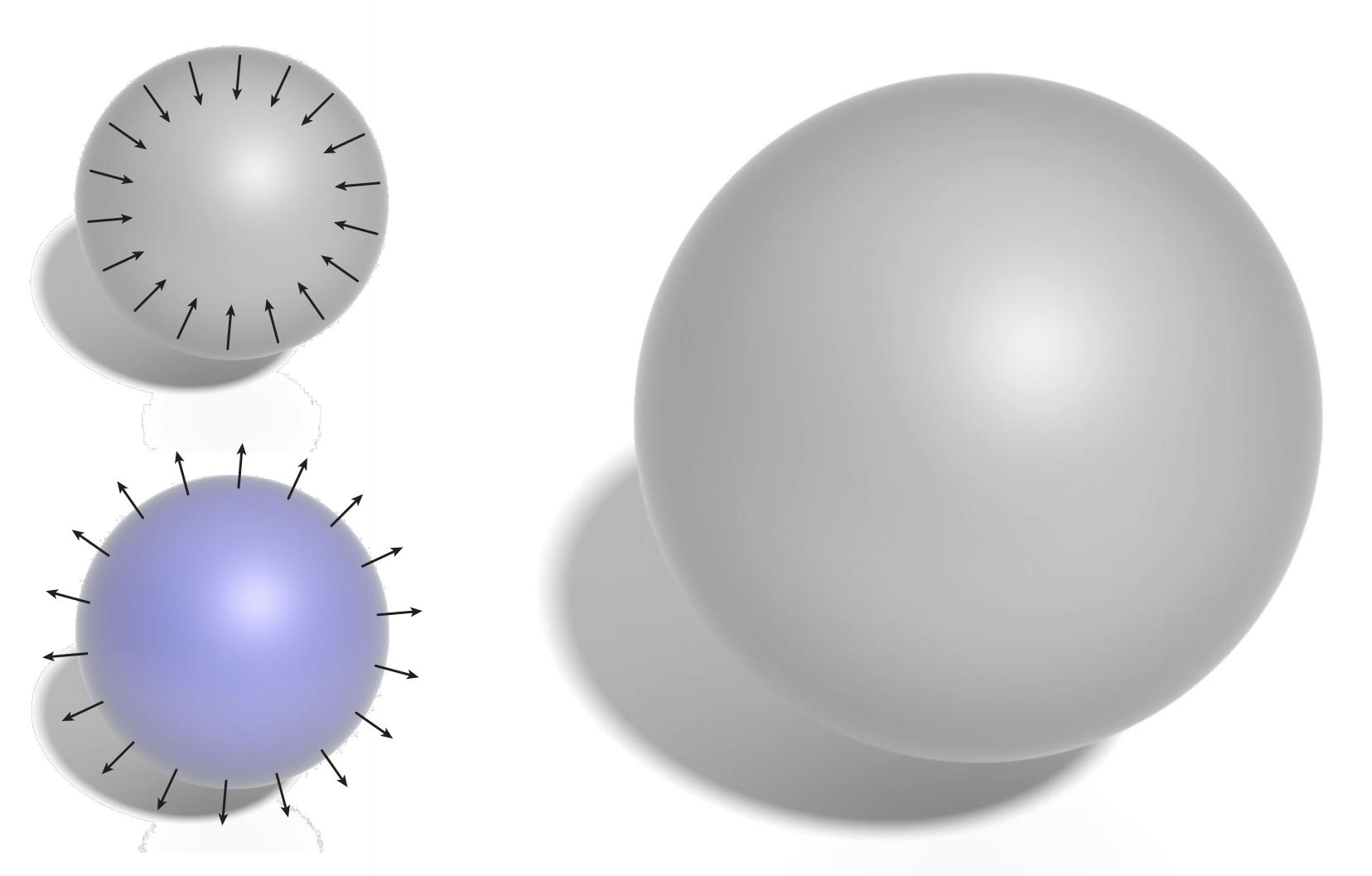
#### Review: Circle Eversion

- (Whitney-Graustein) For curves in 2D, turning number determines regular homotopy class
  - e.g., can't turn circle inside-out while remaining immersed



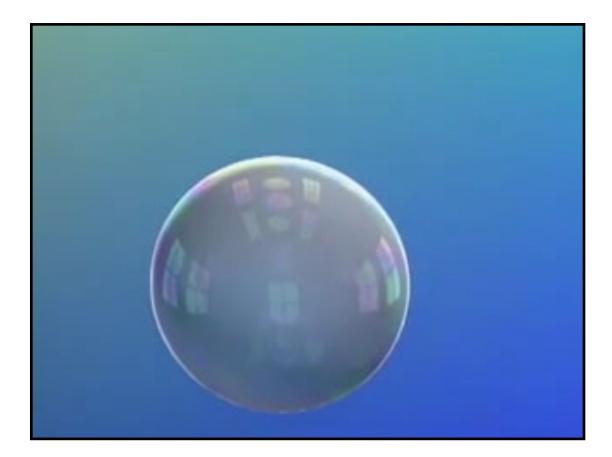
What about surfaces in 3D? (Can you turn the sphere inside out?)

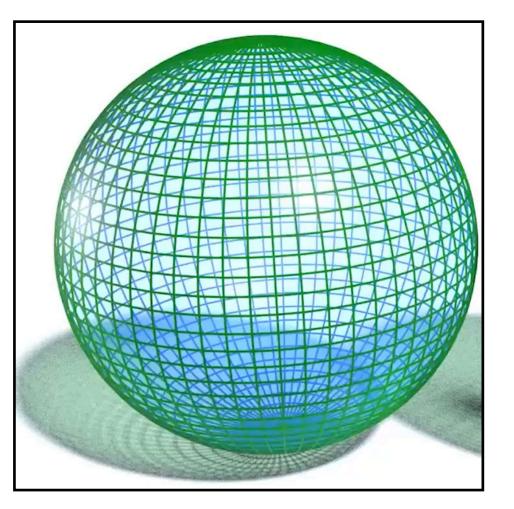
#### Sphere Eversion



See video: Outside In (Thurston/Geometry Center, 1994)

"Optiverse" eversion
Francis/Kusner/Sullivan

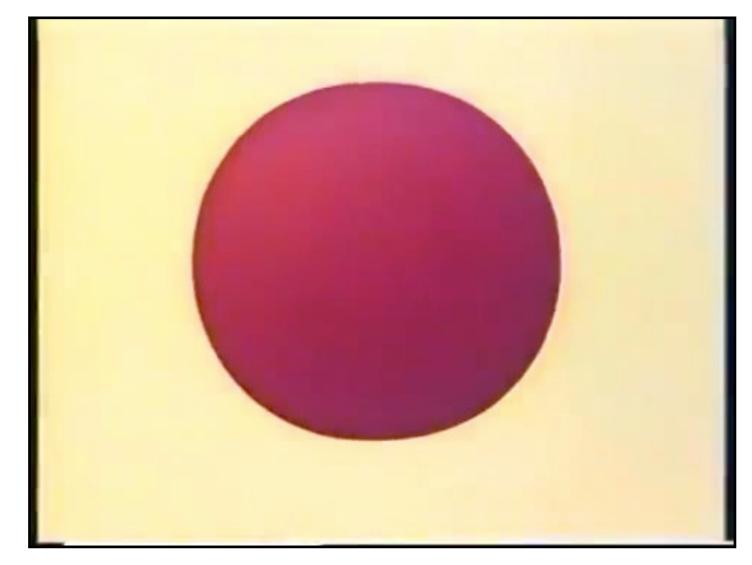




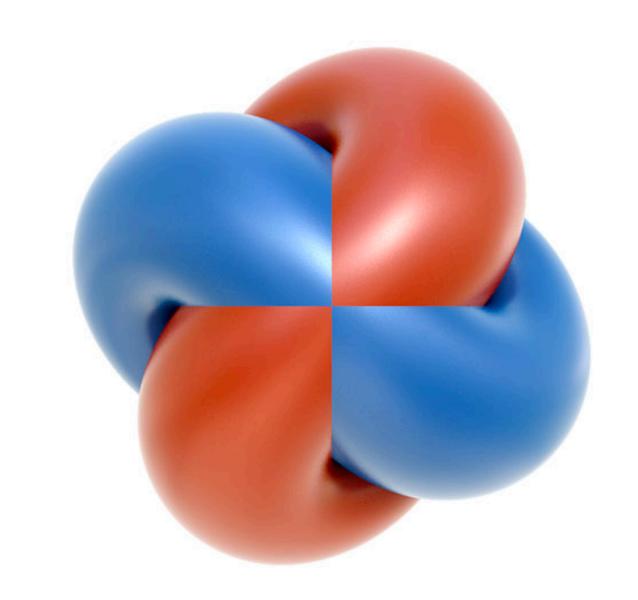
ruled eversion(Bednorz & Bednorz; Padilla)

#### Morin Sphere Eversion





"Turning the Sphere Inside Out" (1976) (director: Nelson Max)



3D prints by Arnaud Chéritat

"Our spatial imagination is framed by manipulating objects ... You act on objects with your hands, not with your eyes"

—Bernhard Morin

## Riemannian Metric

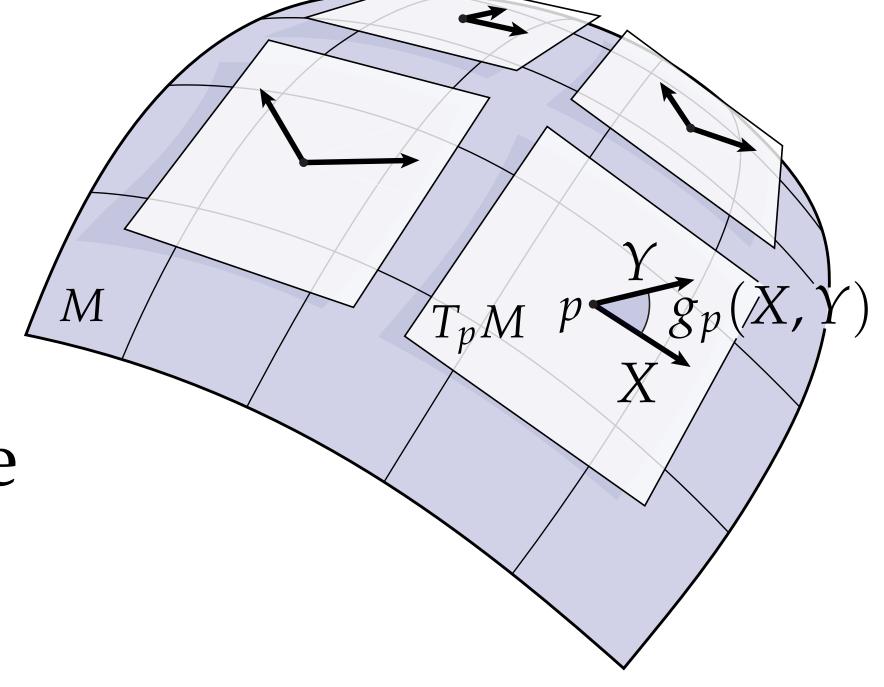
#### Riemann Metric

• Many quantities on manifolds (curves, surfaces, etc.) ultimately boil down to measurements of lengths and angles of tangent vectors *X*, *Y* 

• This information is encoded by the so-called Riemannian metric\* g(X,Y)

abstractly: smoothly-varying positive-definite bilinear form

• For immersed surface, can (and will!) describe more concretely/geometrically

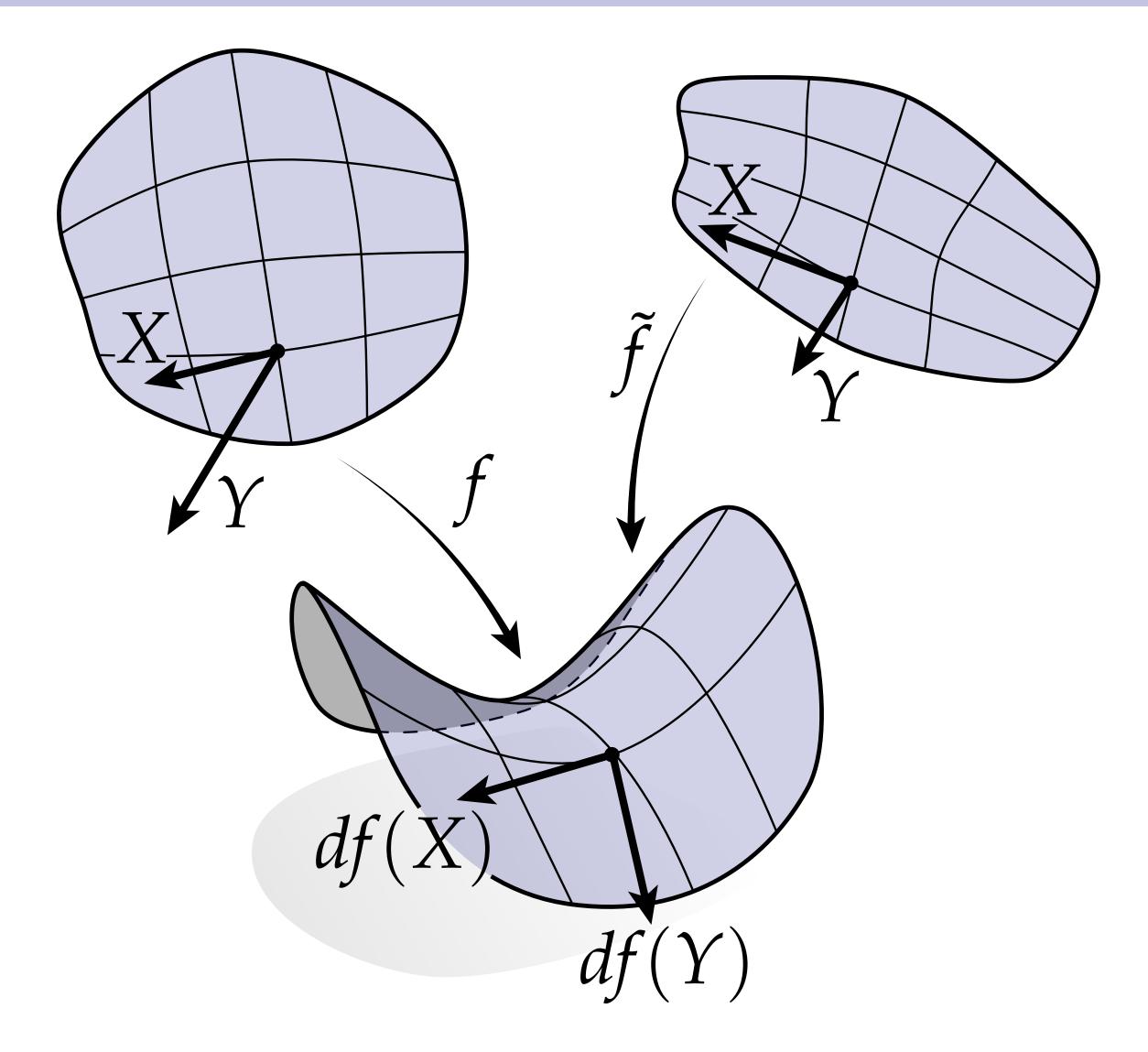


\*Note: not the same as a point-to-point distance metric d(x,y)

#### Metric Induced by an Immersion

- For an immersion *f*, how should we measure inner product of vectors *X*, *Y* represented in its domain *U*?
  - should **not** use the usual inner product on the plane! (Why not?)
- Planar inner product tells us *nothing* about actual length & angle on the surface—gives the same result for any parameterization!
- Instead, use induced metric

$$g(X,Y) := \langle df(X), df(Y) \rangle$$



Key idea: induced metric accounts for "stretching"

## Induced Metric—Matrix Representation

• Metric is a bilinear map from a pair of vectors to a scalar, which we can represent as a 2x2 matrix I called the *first fundamental form*:

$$g(X,Y) = X^T \mathbf{I} Y$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{I}_{ij} = g\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}\right) = \left\langle df\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}\right), df\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}\right)\right\rangle$$

• Alternatively, can express first fundamental form via Jacobian:

$$g(X,Y) = \langle df(X), df(Y) \rangle = (J_f X)^{\mathsf{T}} (J_f Y) = X^{\mathsf{T}} (J_f^{\mathsf{T}} J_f) Y$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{I} = J_f^{\mathsf{T}} J_f$$

• Note: depends on the point p—could write  $g_p(X,Y) = \langle df_p(X), df_p(Y) \rangle$ 

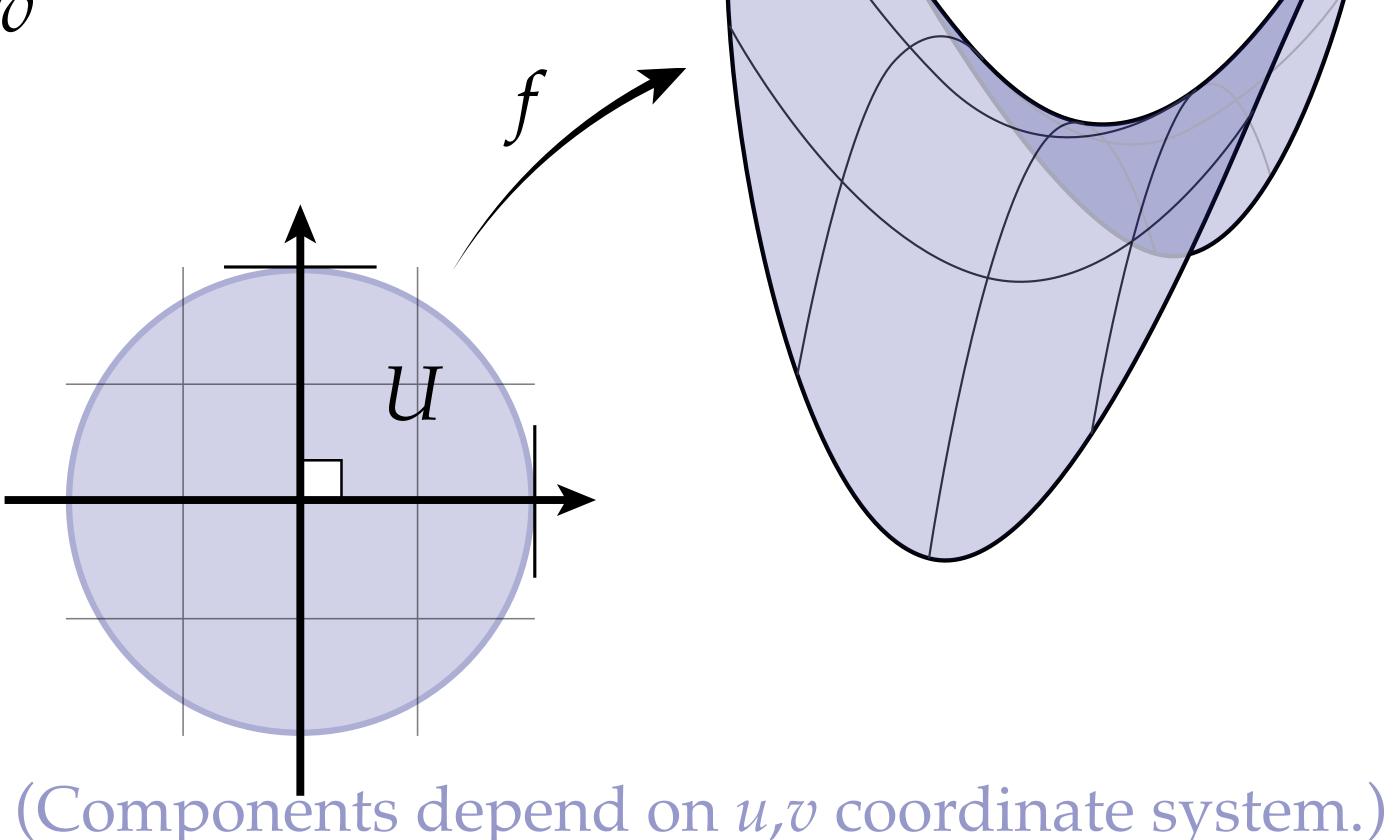
#### Induced Metric—Example

Can use the differential to obtain the induced metric:

$$f: U \to \mathbb{R}^3; (u,v) \mapsto (u,v,u^2 - v^2)$$
  
 $df = (1,0,2u)du + (0,1,-2v)dv$ 

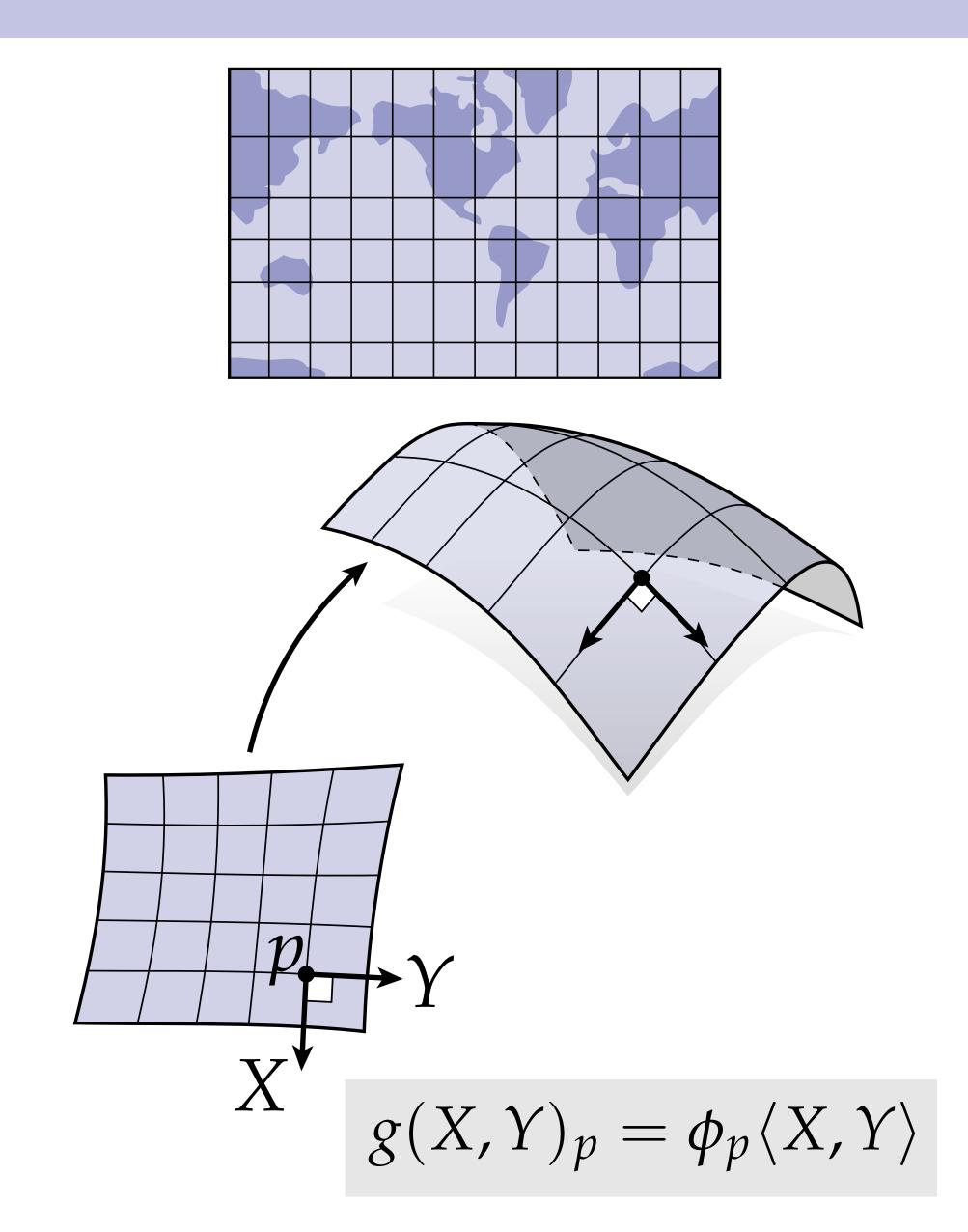
$$J_f = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 2u & -2v \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{I} = J_f \, J_f 
= \begin{bmatrix} 1 + 4u^2 & -4uv \\ -4uv & 1 + 4v^2 \end{bmatrix} G$$



#### Conformal Coordinates

- As we've just seen, there can be a complicated relationship between length & angle on the domain (2D) and the image (3D)
- For curves, we simplified life by using an *arc-length* or *isometric* parameterization: lengths on domain are identical to lengths along curve
- For surfaces, usually not possible to preserve all *lengths* (e.g., globe). Remarkably, however, can always preserve *angles* (**conformal**)
- Equivalently, a parameterization *f* is *conformal* if at each point the induced metric is simply a positive rescaling of the 2D Euclidean metric
  - one coordinate-invariant number, rather than three



## Example (Enneper Surface)

Consider the surface

f(u,v) := 
$$\begin{bmatrix} uv^2 + u - \frac{1}{3}u^3 \\ \frac{1}{3}v(v^2 - 3u^2 - 3) \\ (u - v)(u + v) \end{bmatrix}$$

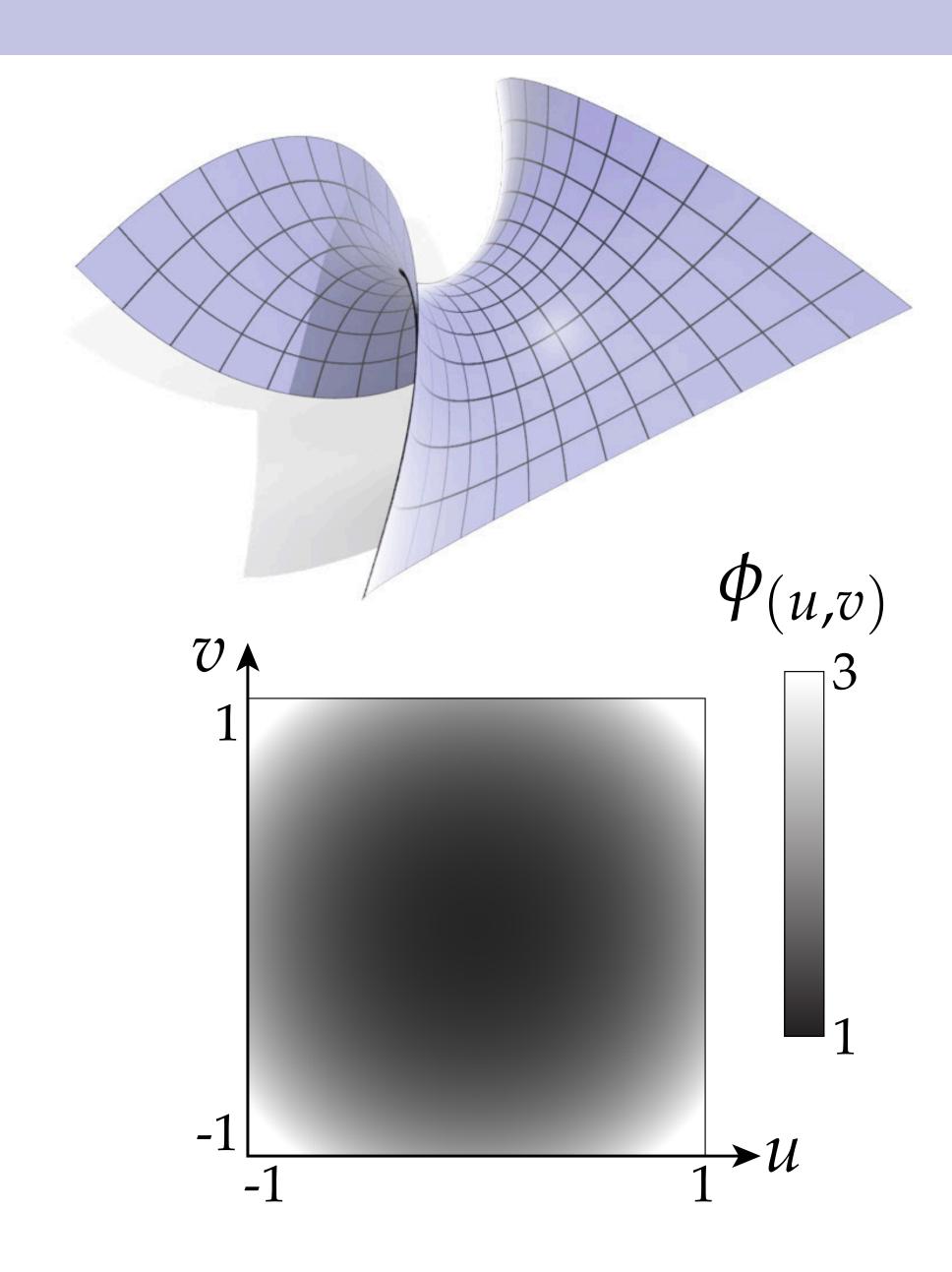
Its Jacobian matrix is

$$J_f = \begin{bmatrix} -u^2 + v^2 + 1 & 2uv \\ -2uv & -u^2 + v^2 - 1 \\ 2u & -2v \end{bmatrix}$$

Its metric then works out to be just a scalar function times the usual metric of the Euclidean plane:

$$\mathbf{I} = J_f^T J_f = \left( u^2 + v^2 + 1 \right)^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This function is called the *conformal scale factor*.



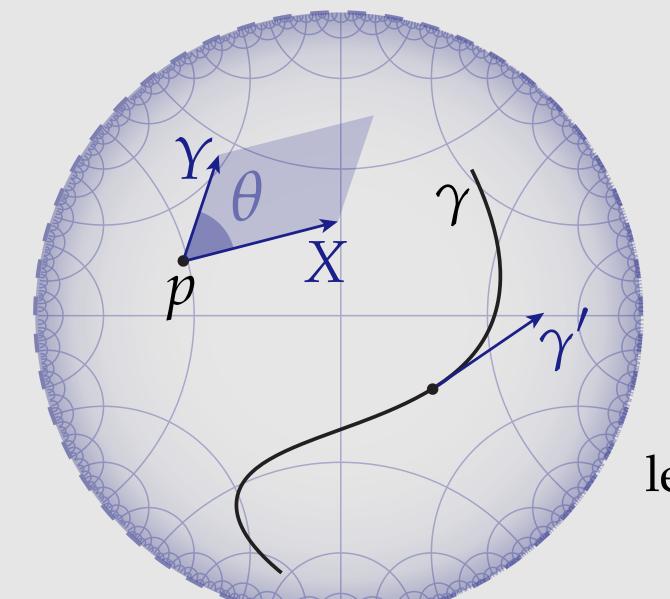
#### Abstract Riemannian Metric

- Ultimately, induced Riemannian metric is just a (smoothly-varying) inner product at each point
- Suppose we just write down some arbitrary smoothly-varying inner product (*Riemannian metric*)
- (Intrinsic viewpoint) Key idea in differential geometry: don't need to know "where this metric came from" / how it sits in space
  - -given only an inner product, can still measure angles, lengths, areas, distances, ... via the usual formulas

Example: hyperbolic metric on unit disk.

$$U := \{ p \in \mathbb{R}^2 : |p| < 1 \}$$

$$g_p(X, Y) = \frac{4}{(1 - |p|^2)^2} \langle X, Y \rangle$$



$$|X| = \sqrt{g_p(X, X)}$$

$$\theta = \arccos (g_p(X/|X|, Y/|Y))$$

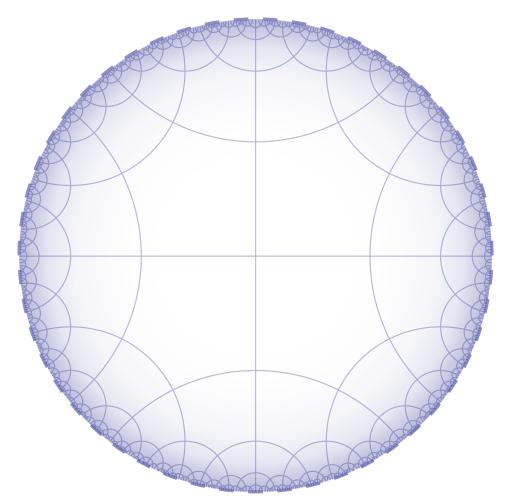
$$area(X,Y) = \sqrt{\det(g_p)}(X \times Y)$$

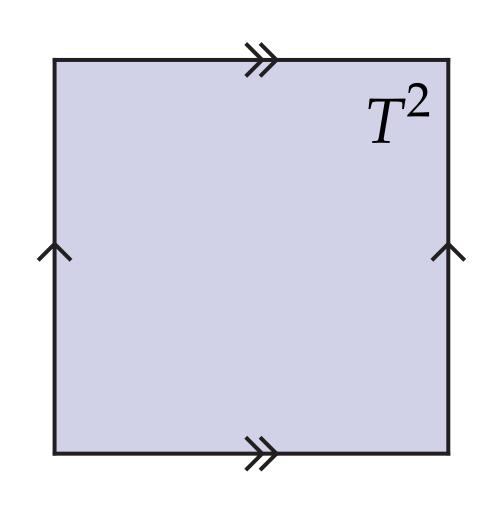
length(
$$\gamma$$
) =  $\int_0^L g_{\gamma(s)}(\gamma', \gamma')^{1/2} ds$ 

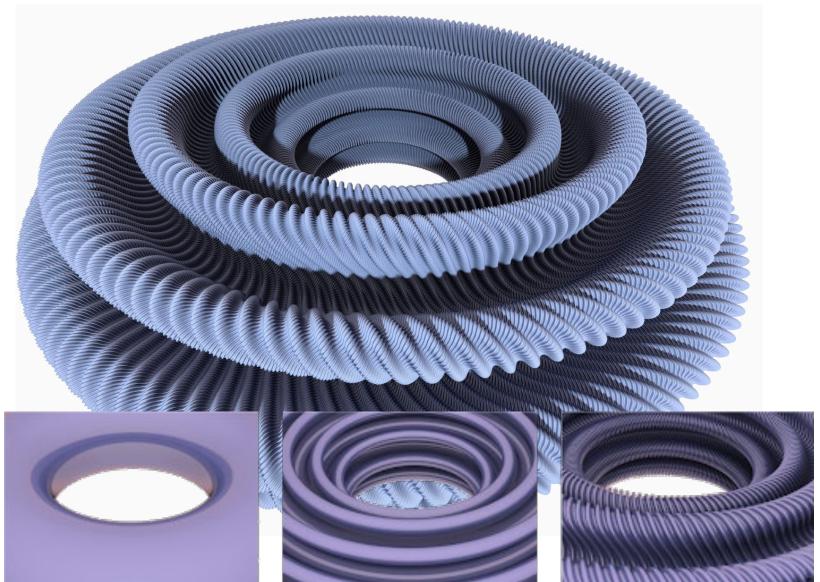
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## Embedding Theorems

- Still natural to ask: given a Riemannian metric g, can we find an embedding f such that  $g(X,Y) = \langle df(X), df(Y) \rangle$ ?
- Lots of theorems about this topic—depends on things like the continuity of *f*
- (Hilbert.) For instance, can't find smooth embedding of hyperbolic metric into  $\mathbb{R}^3$
- Positive result: Nash embedding theorems
  - always have global *C*<sup>k</sup> embedding in sufficiently high dimension
  - given a "short" embedding (doesn't increase distance), exists a  $C^1$  embedding of n-manifold in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$



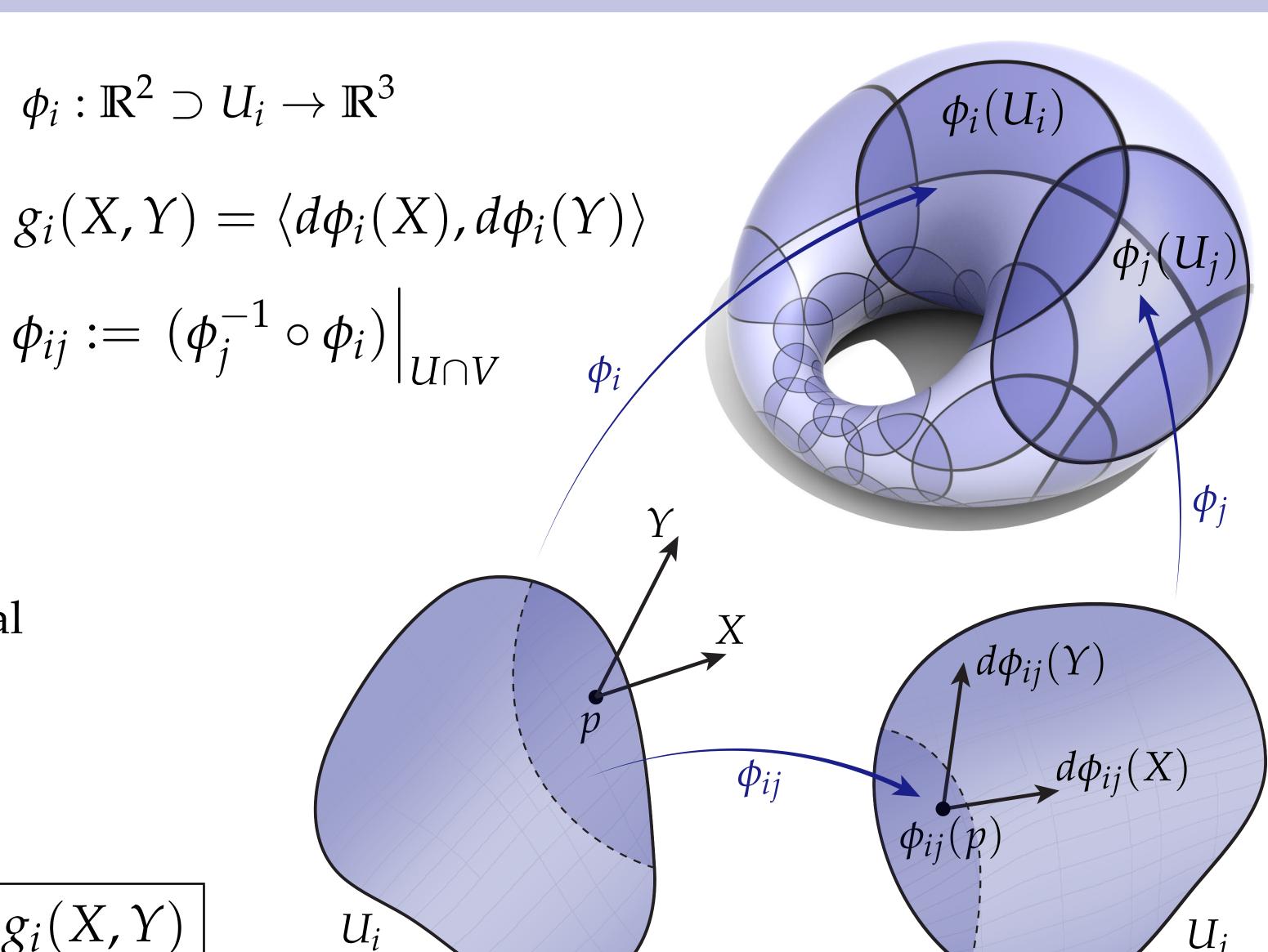




#### Atlas & Charts

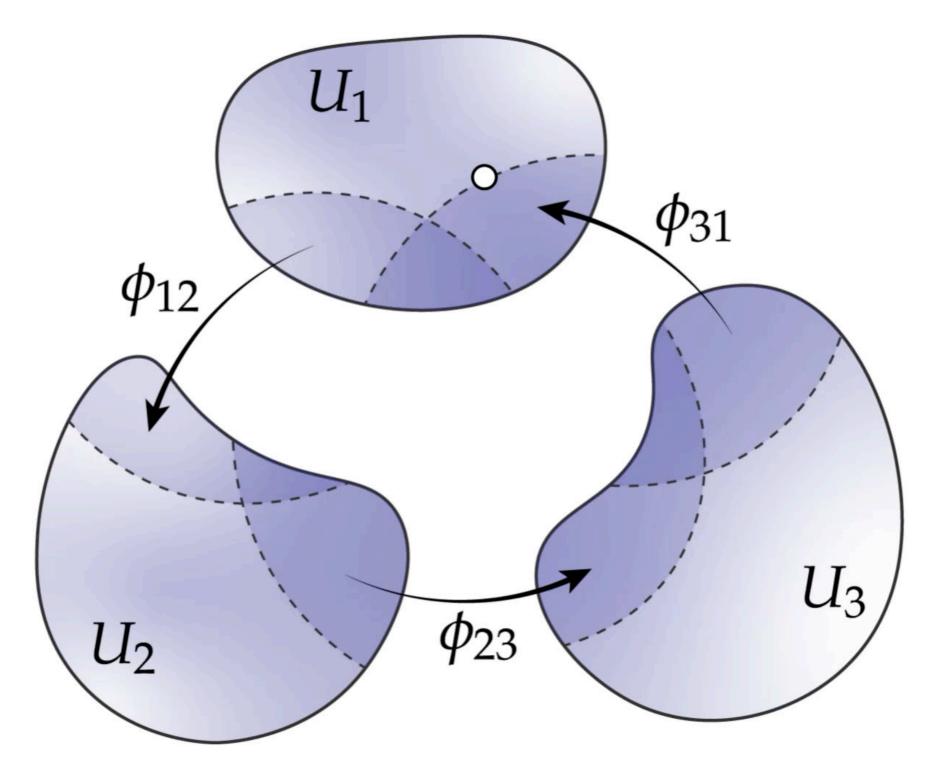
- Most surfaces aren't easily expressed as the image of one parameterized "patch"
- Instead, cover a surface with overlapping patches ("charts")
- As usual, each chart  $\phi_i$  defines an induced Riemannian metric  $g_i$
- Though things look different in local charts, the induced metrics give identical measurements (by definition)

$$g_j(d\phi_{ij}(X), d\phi_{ij}(Y)) = g_i(X, Y)$$



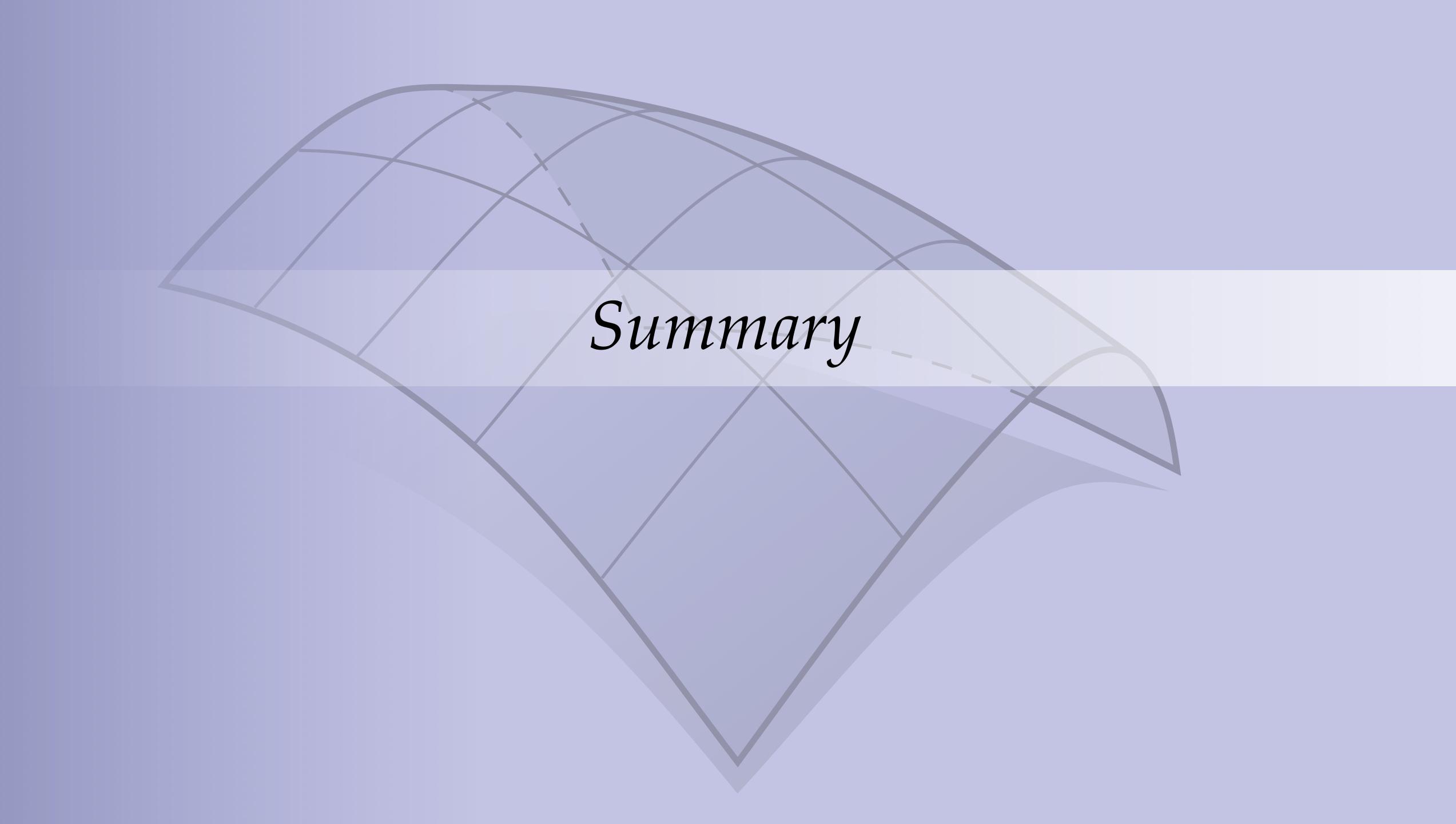
#### Abstract Riemannian Manifold

- Can again adopt *intrinsic* viewpoint: don't need to know where metric came from, as long as agreement across charts
- Leads to notion of *Riemannian manifold*. Roughly speaking\*:
- $_{-}$  collection of open sets  $U_i \subset \mathbb{R}^n$
- $_{-}$  transition maps  $\phi_{ij}$  on overlaps (differentiable both ways)
- $_{-}$  local metric  $g_i$  per patch, compatible on overlaps
- Riemannian manifold *M* is "union" of all these pieces
- $\underline{\hspace{0.1cm}}$  do not need embeddings  $\phi_i:U_i o \mathbb{R}^m$
- This information is again often enough to "do geometry" (measure lengths, angles, areas, distances, ...)
- **Key idea:** works even when geometry is not—or cannot—be embedded in low dimensions



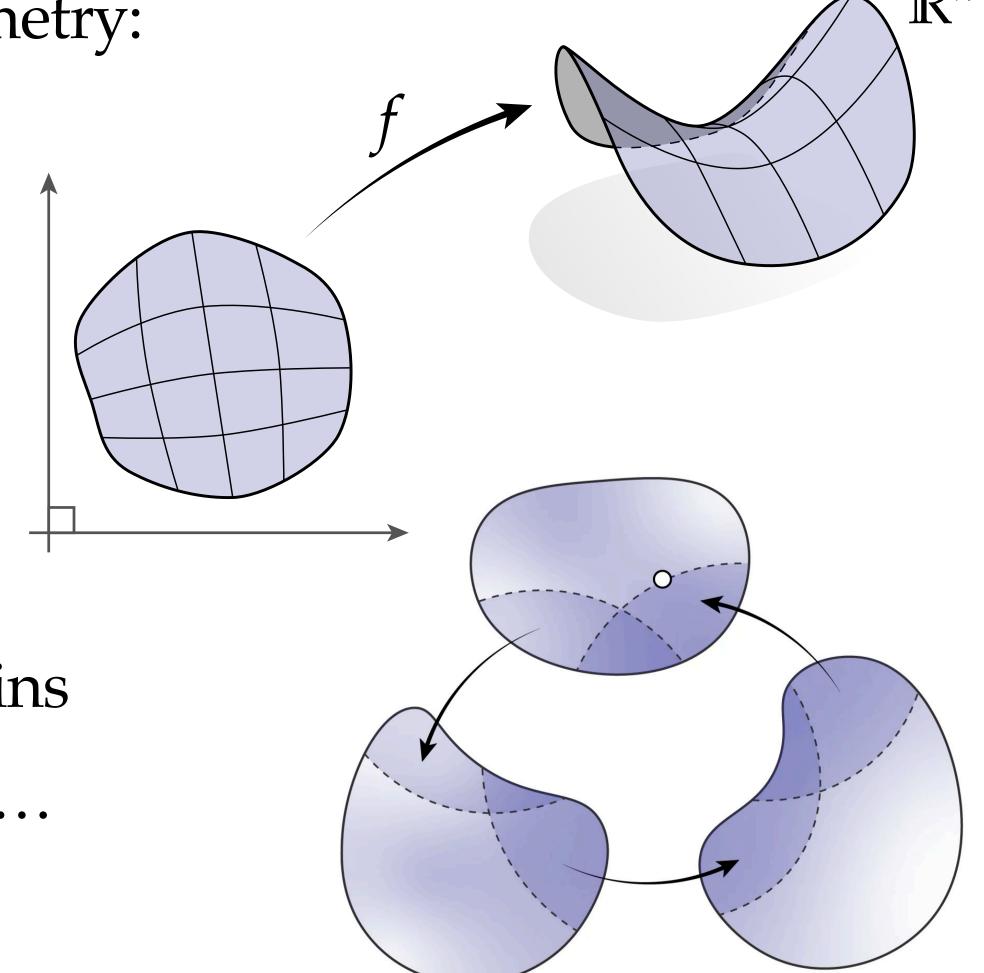
$$g_j(d\phi_{ij}(X),d\phi_{ij}(Y))=g_i(X,Y)$$

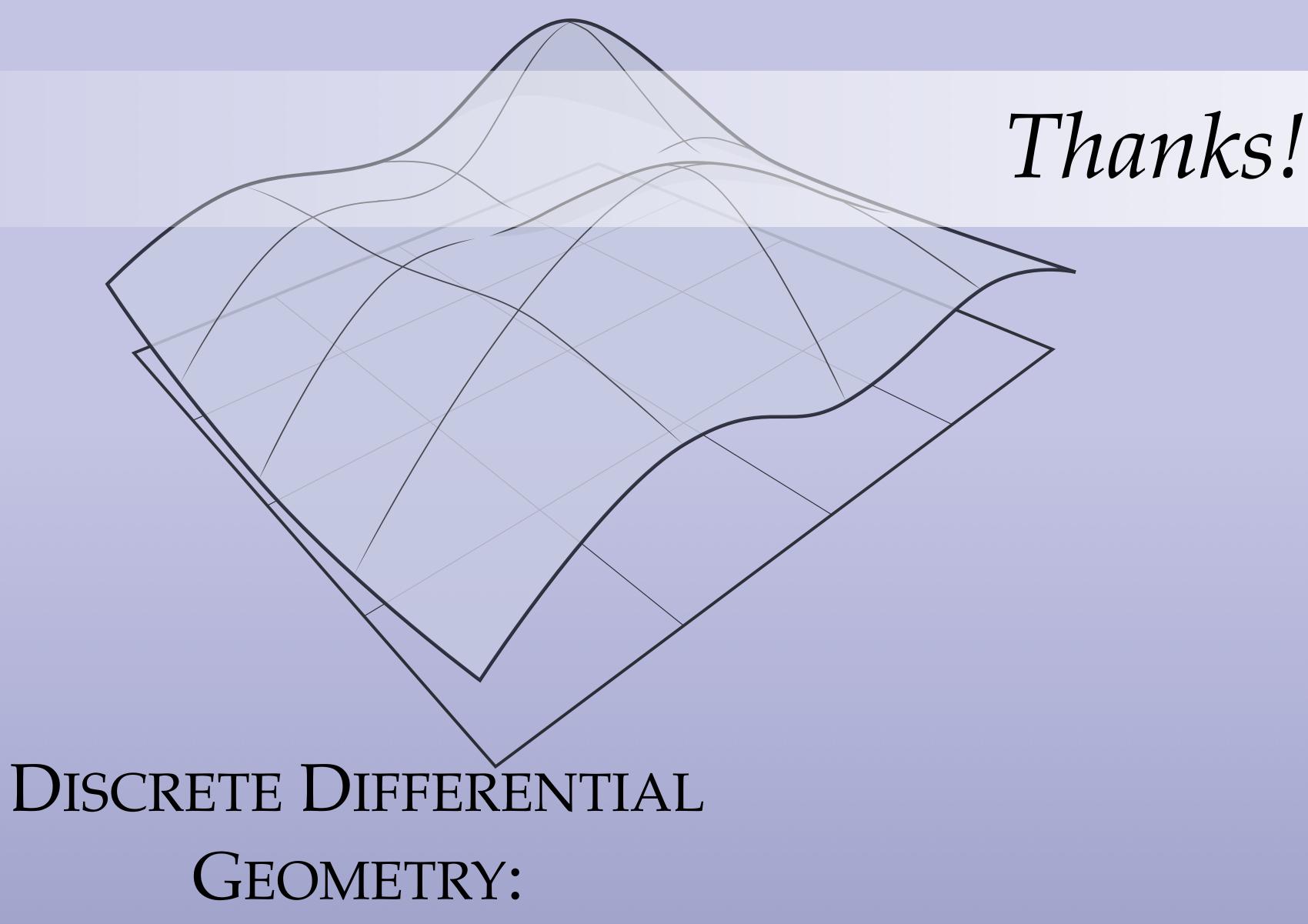
<sup>\*</sup>To make this more precise, need notion of *topological spaces* (takes some work to define...)



#### Smooth Surfaces I—Summary

- Introduced two very important descriptions of geometry:
- (Extrinsic) Parameterization
  - encode geometry as map into  $\mathbb{R}^n$
  - describes where points are in space
  - patch together local parameterizations
- (Intrinsic) Riemannian metric
  - encode geometry via inner product on local domains
  - lets you measure angles, lengths, areas, distances, ...
  - to be meaningful, metrics must agree on overlaps
- Next time: more extrinsic geometry, connect to exterior calculus





#### AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION

**Keenan Crane • CMU 15-458/858**