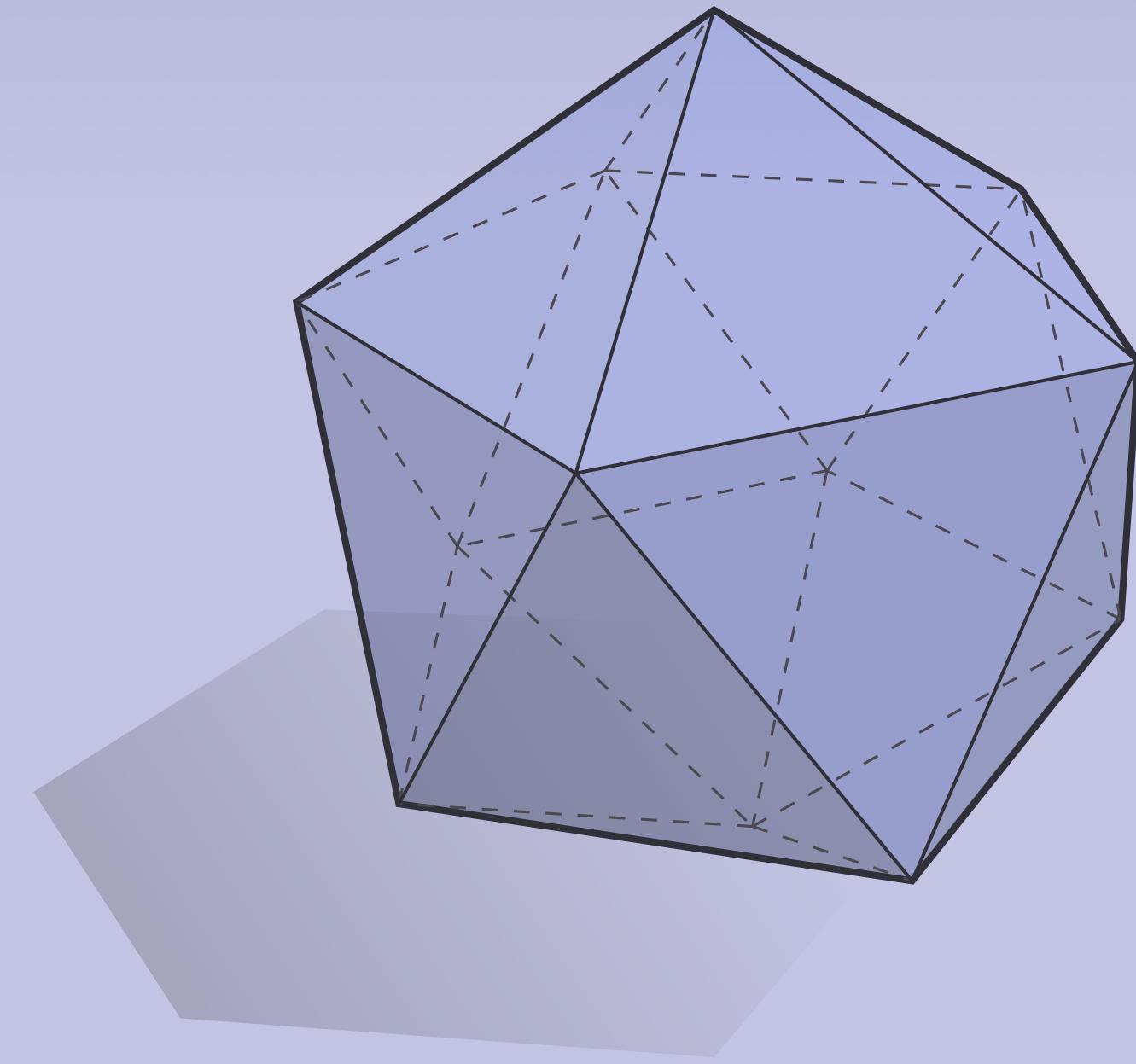


DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL
GEOMETRY:
AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION
Keenan Crane • CMU 15-458/858

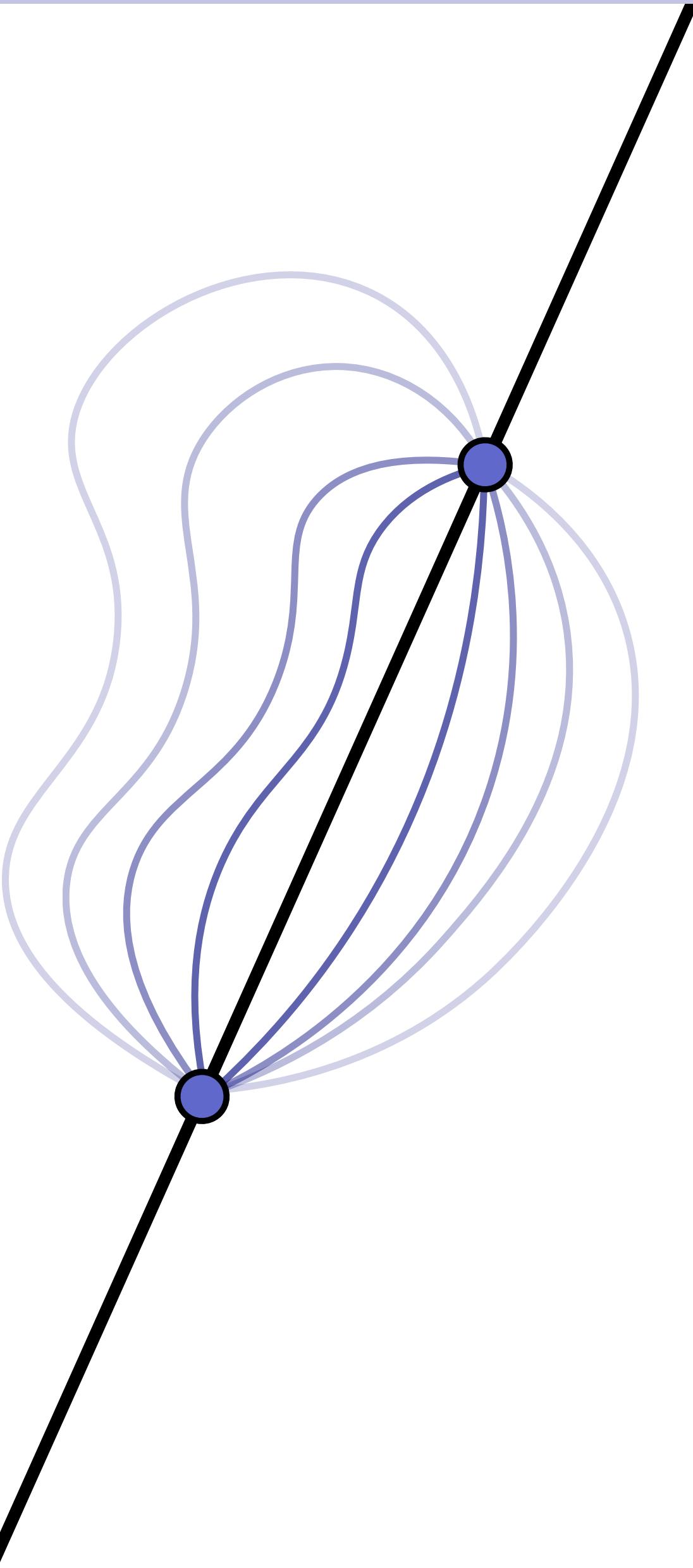
LECTURE 20: GEODESICS



DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL
GEOMETRY:
AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION
CMU 15-458/858 • Keenan Crane

Geodesics – Overview

- Generalize the notion of *lines* to curved spaces
- Ordinary lines have two basic features:
 1. straightest — no curvature / acceleration
 2. shortest — (locally) minimize length
- Geodesics share these same *local* properties, but may exhibit different behavior *globally*
- Part of the “origin story” of both classical and differential geometry...



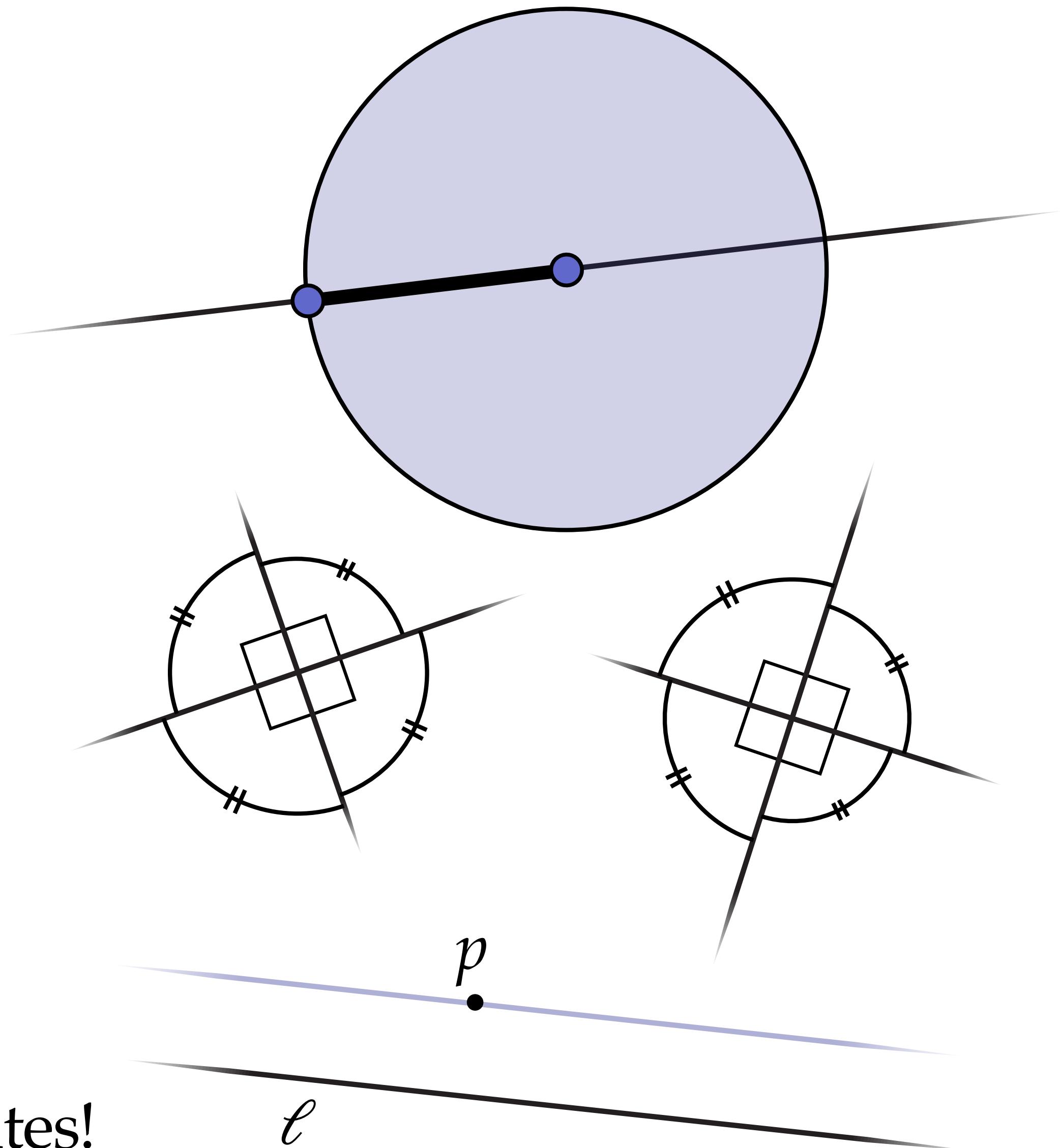
Key idea: geodesic is straightest, (locally) shortest curve

Euclidean Geometry

Euclid (c. 300BC) used five basic “postulates” as a starting point for geometry:

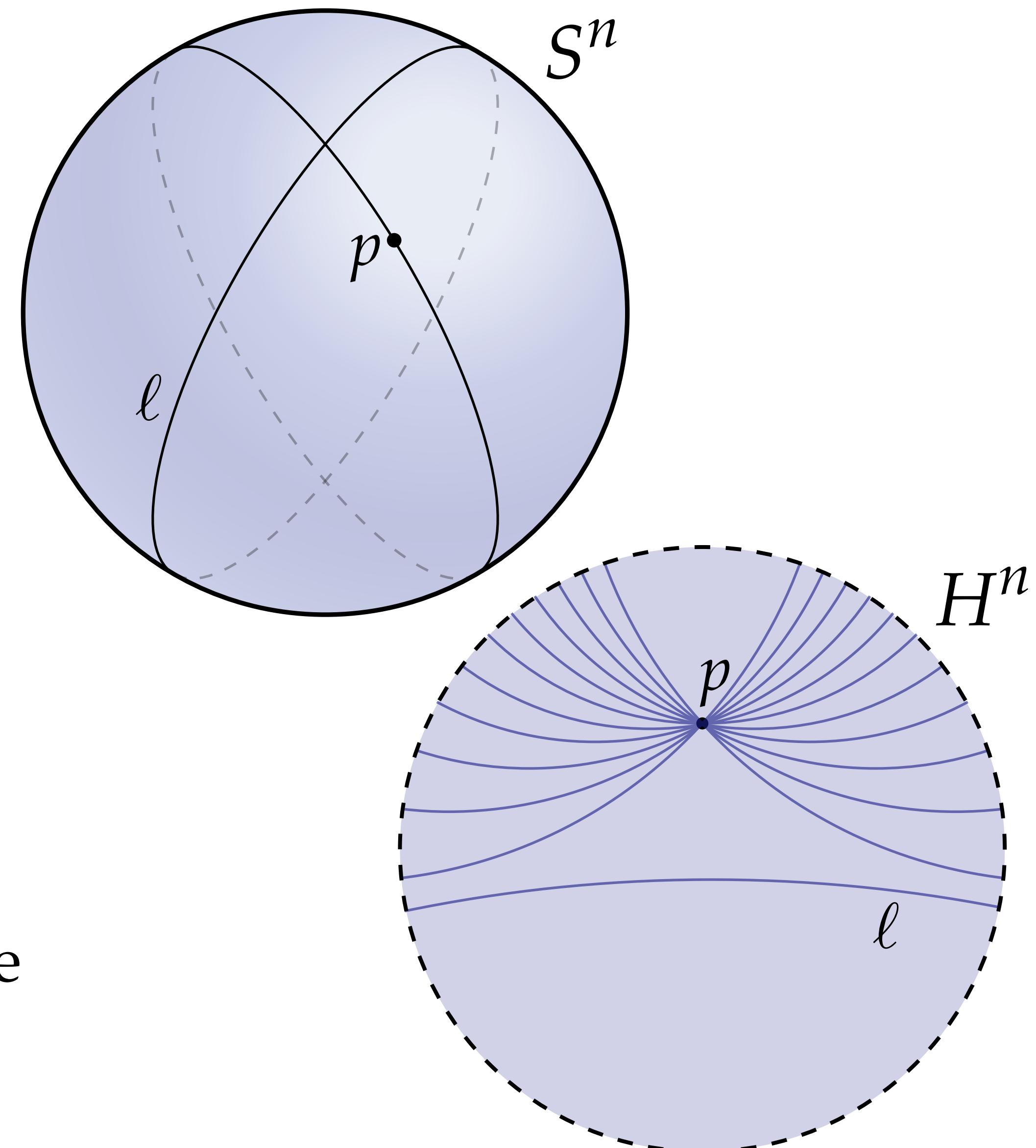
- I. Any two points can be connected by a straight line segment
- II. Any line segment can be extended into a line
- III. For any segment, there's a circle centered at one endpoint, with the segment as a radius
- IV. All right angles are congruent
- V. For any line ℓ and point p not on ℓ , there's a unique line parallel to ℓ passing through p

Idea: *everything else can be proved from these postulates!*

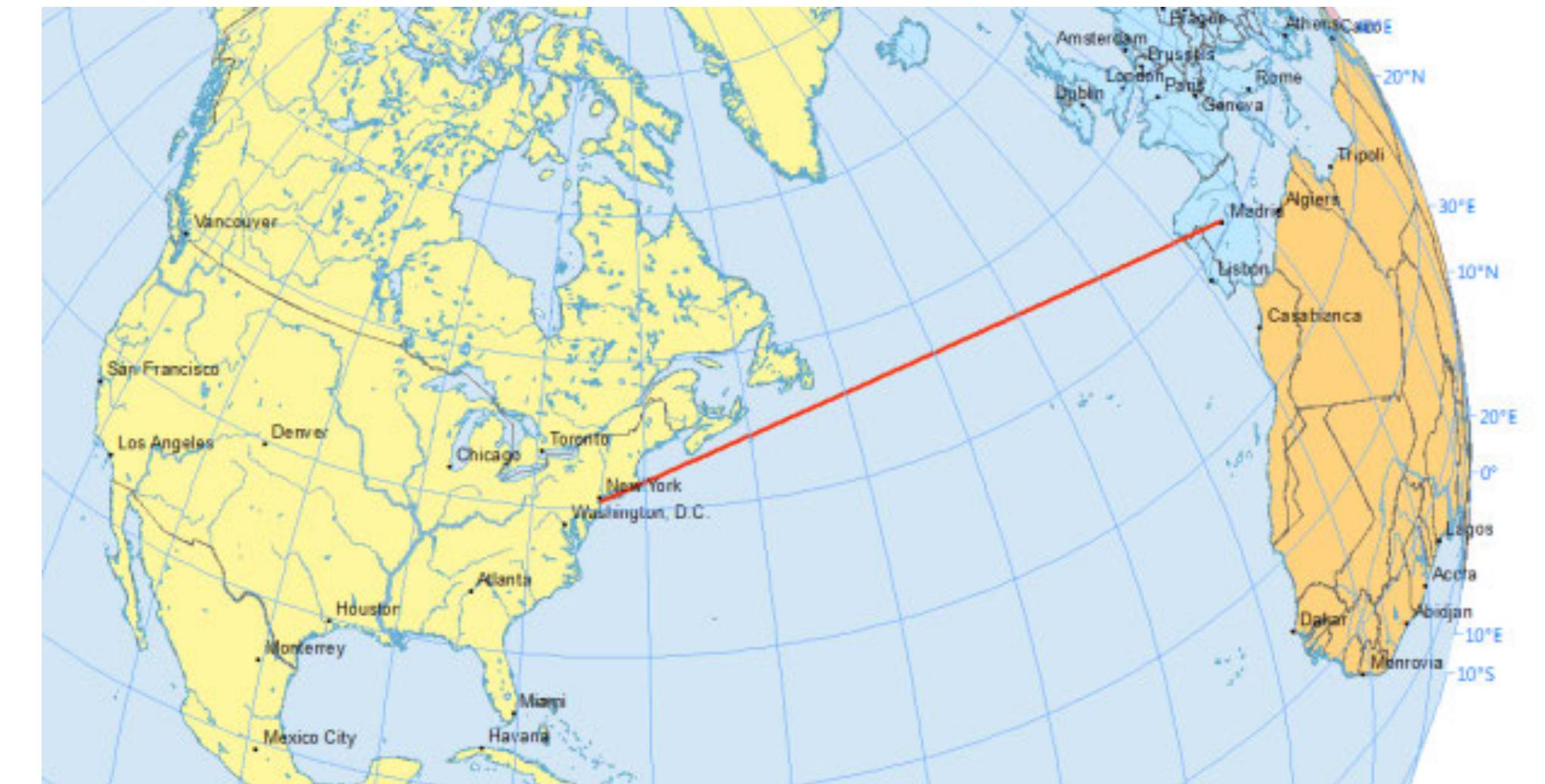
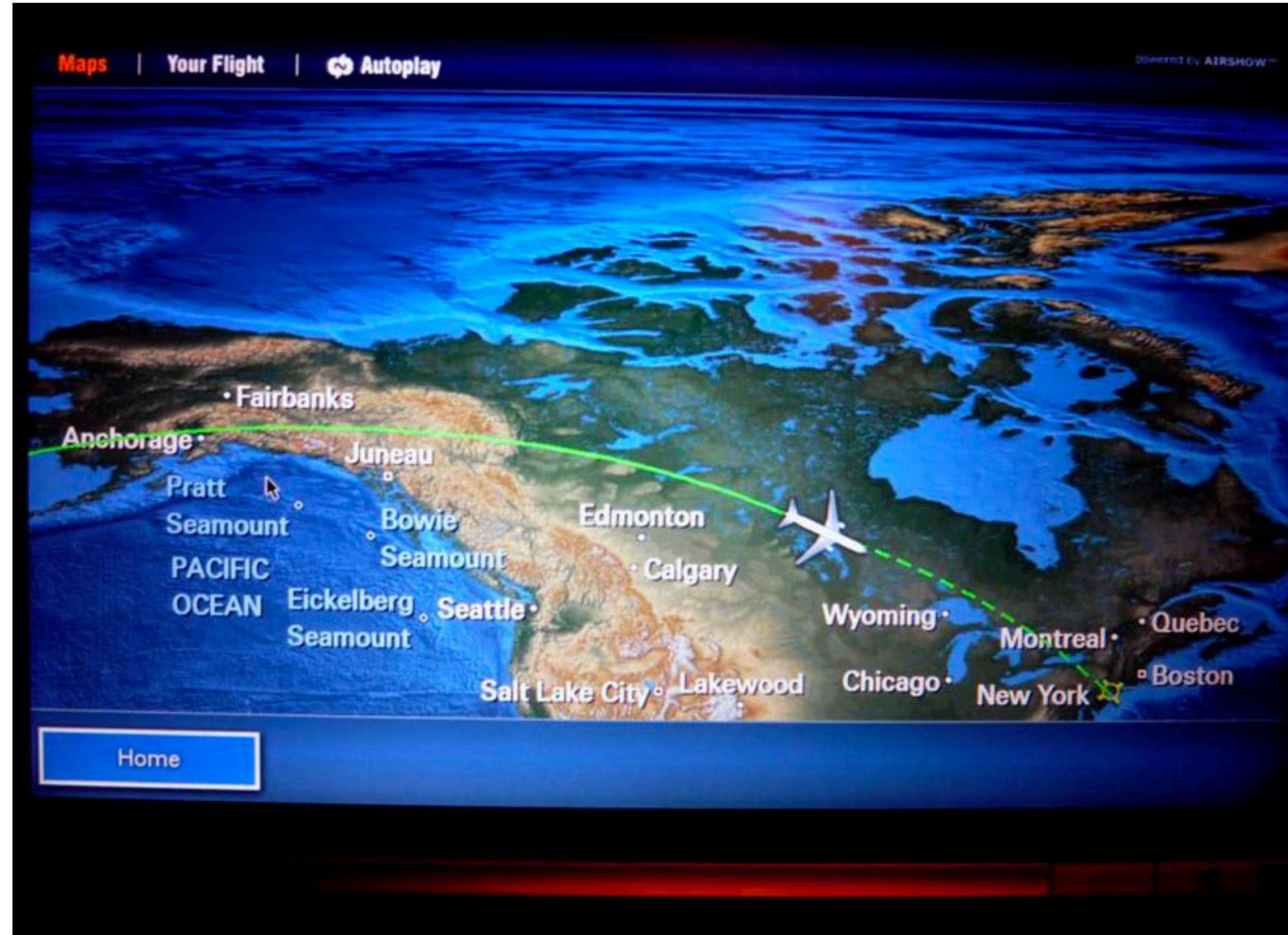


Non-Euclidean Geometry

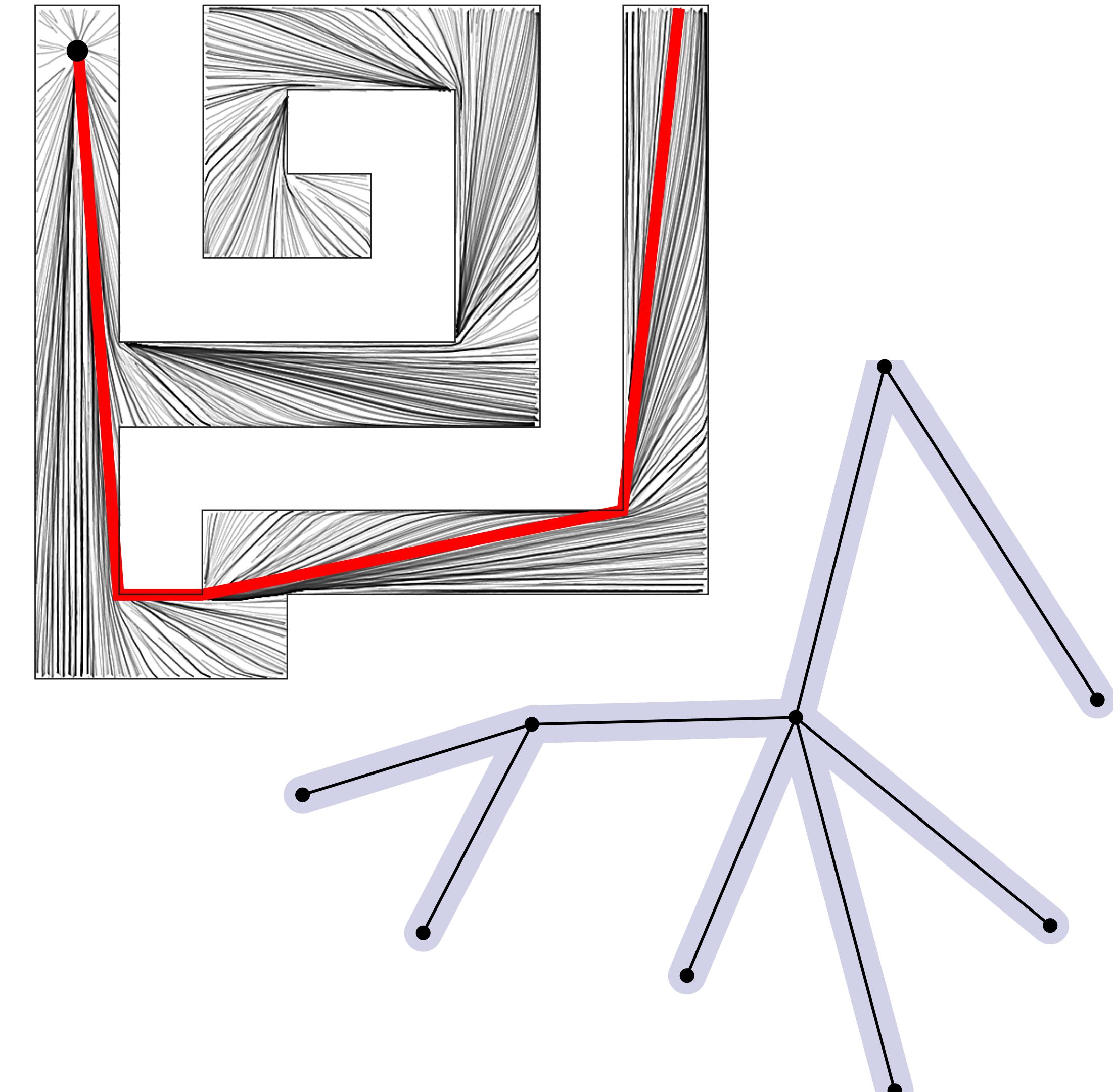
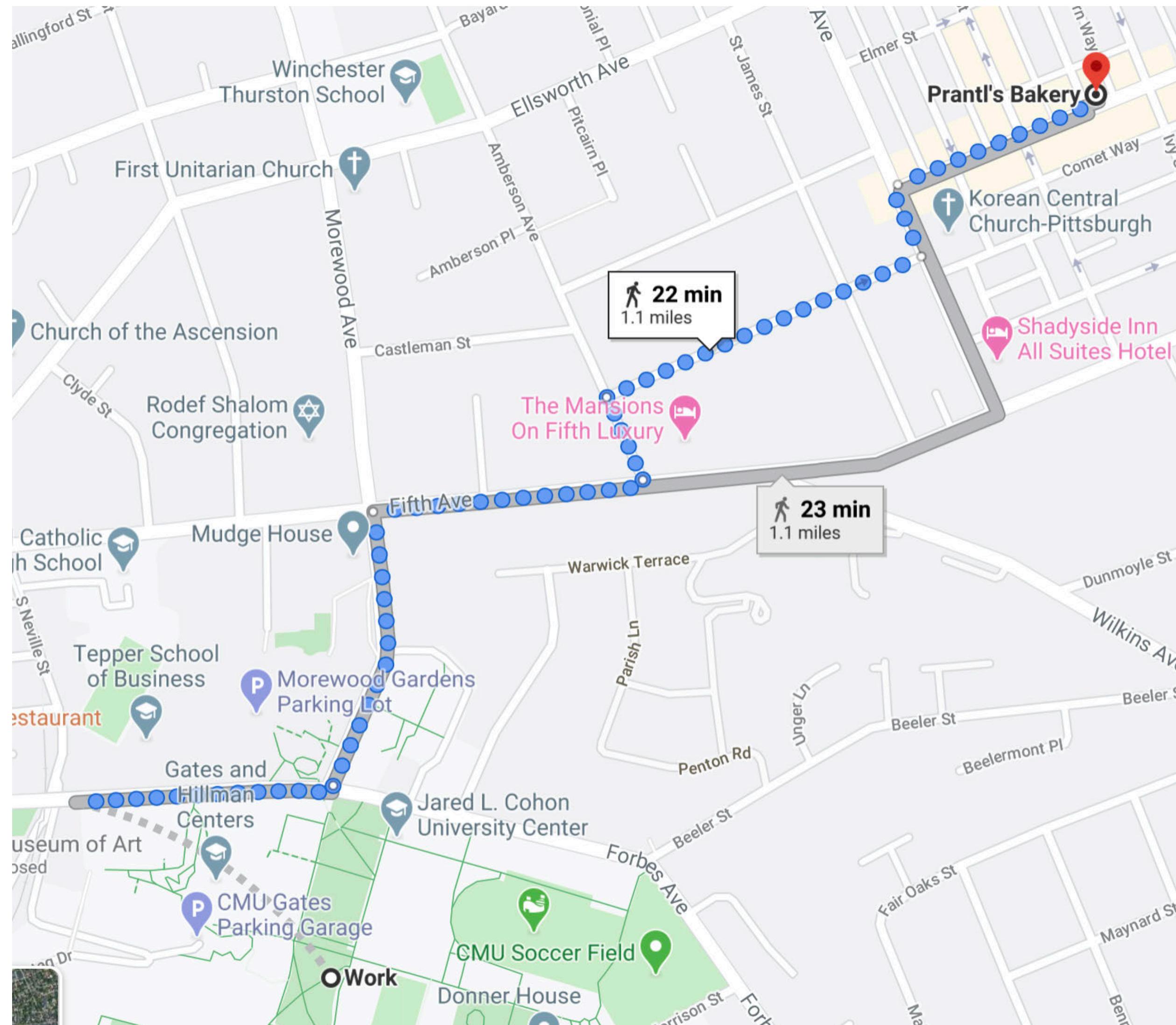
- Many attempts to prove parallel postulate from first four. After two thousand years...
- (Lobachevsky, Bolyai, Gauss, ...) Not possible! There are other logically consistent geometries where parallel postulate doesn't hold:
 - **Elliptic:** no parallel lines through a point—all lines intersect
 - **Hyperbolic:** parallel line through point is not unique
- More generally: “lines” or *geodesics* on curved surfaces will behave differently than in the plane
 - Will try to understand this behavior today...



Examples of Geodesics – Great Arcs on the Sphere

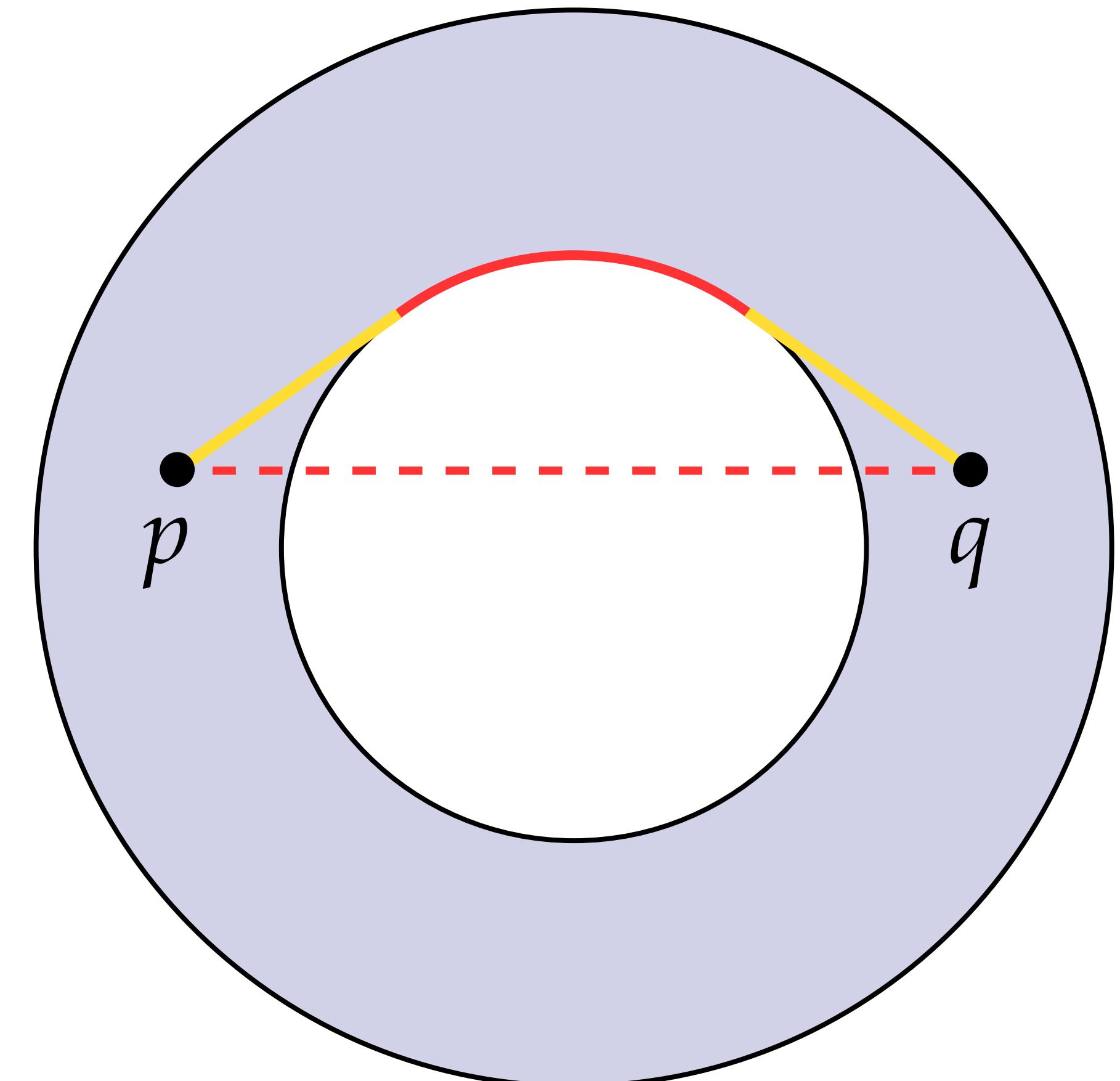


Examples of Geodesics – Shortest Paths in Graphs



Aside: Geodesics on Domains with Boundary

- On domains with boundary, *shortest* path will not always be *straight*
 - can also “hug” pieces of the boundary (curvature will match boundary curvature, acceleration will match boundary normal)
 - on the interior, path will still be both shortest & straightest
- For simplicity, we will mainly consider domains without boundary



Examples of Geodesics – Paths of Light

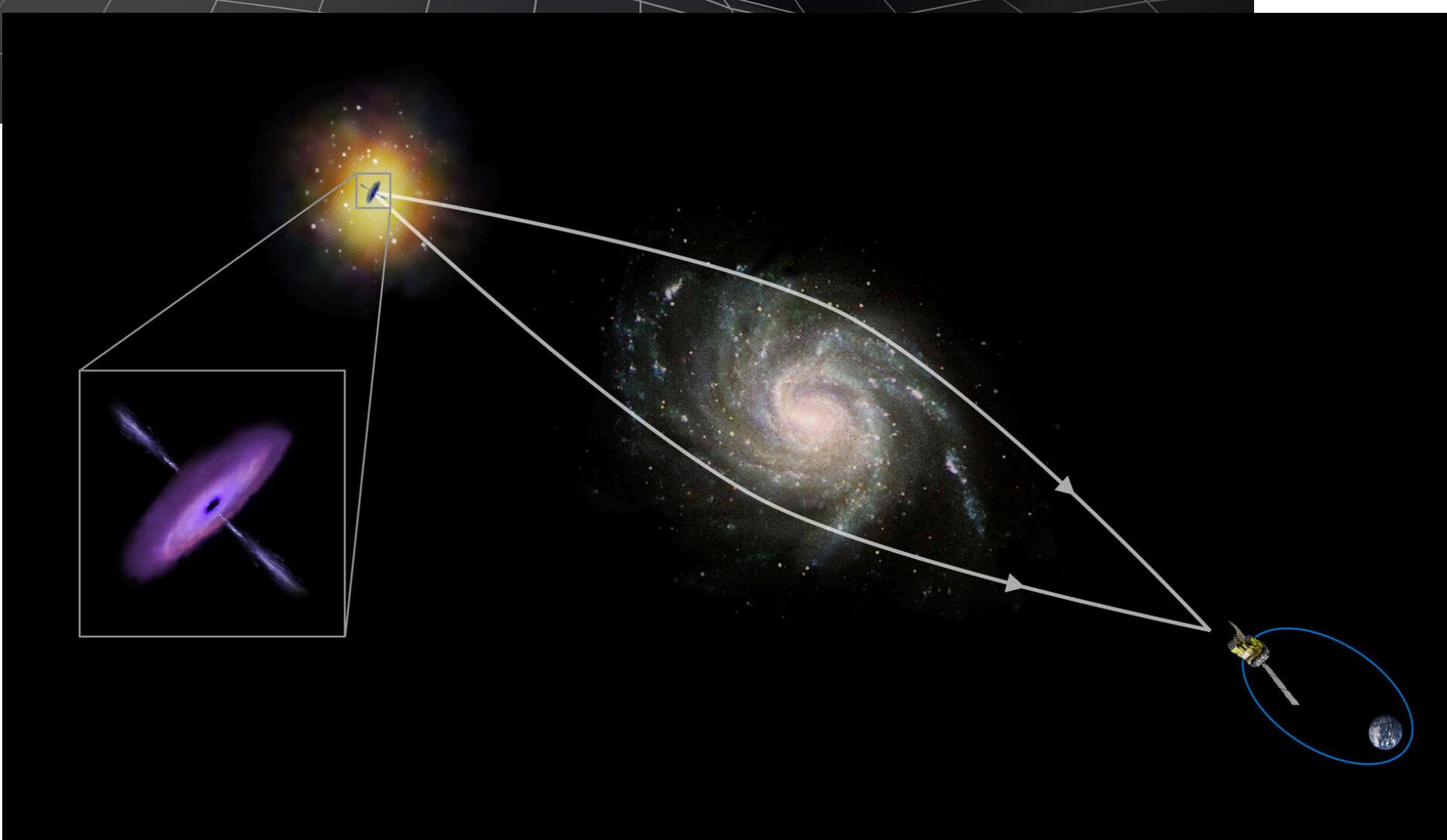
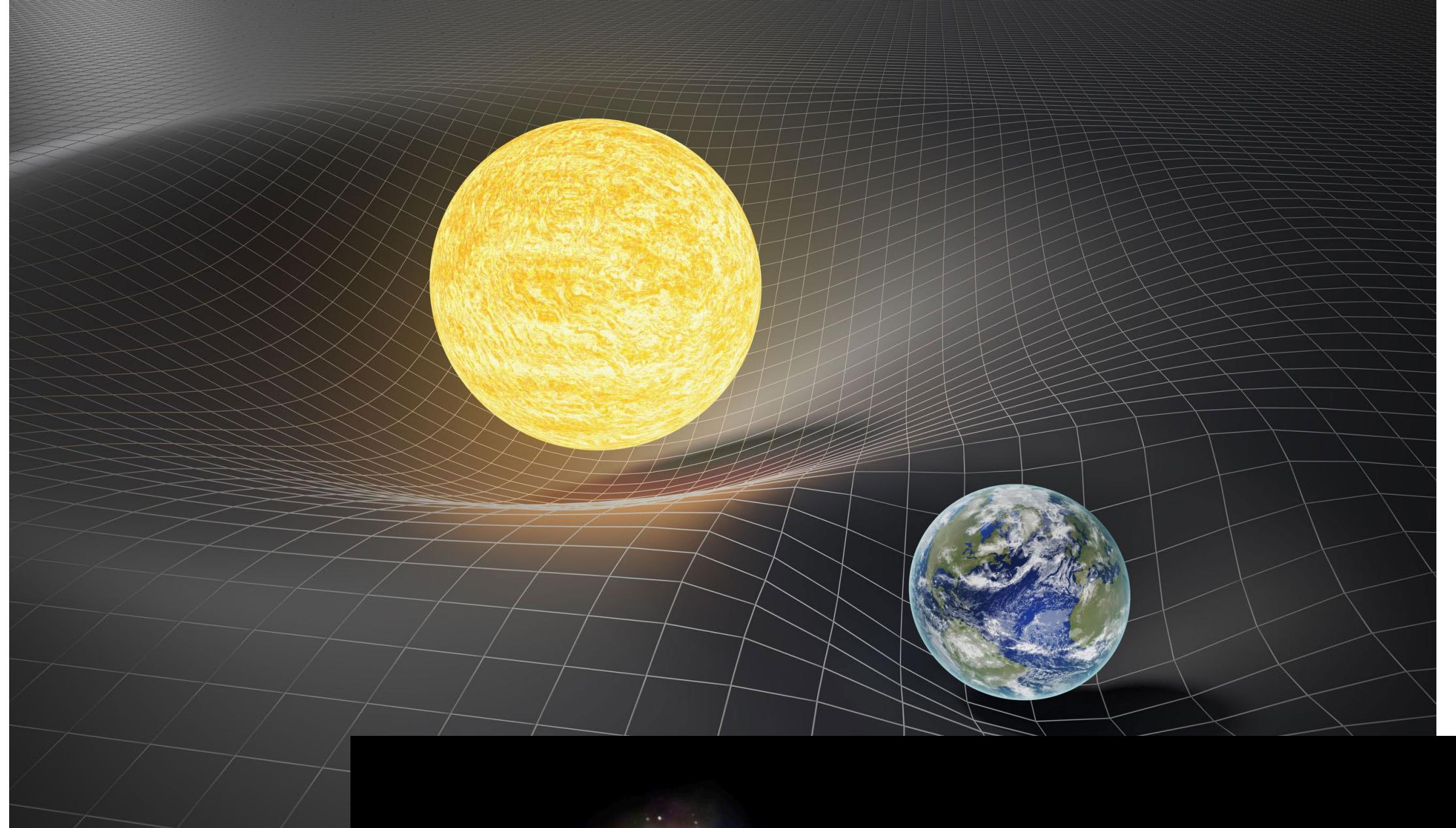


image credit: European Space Agency

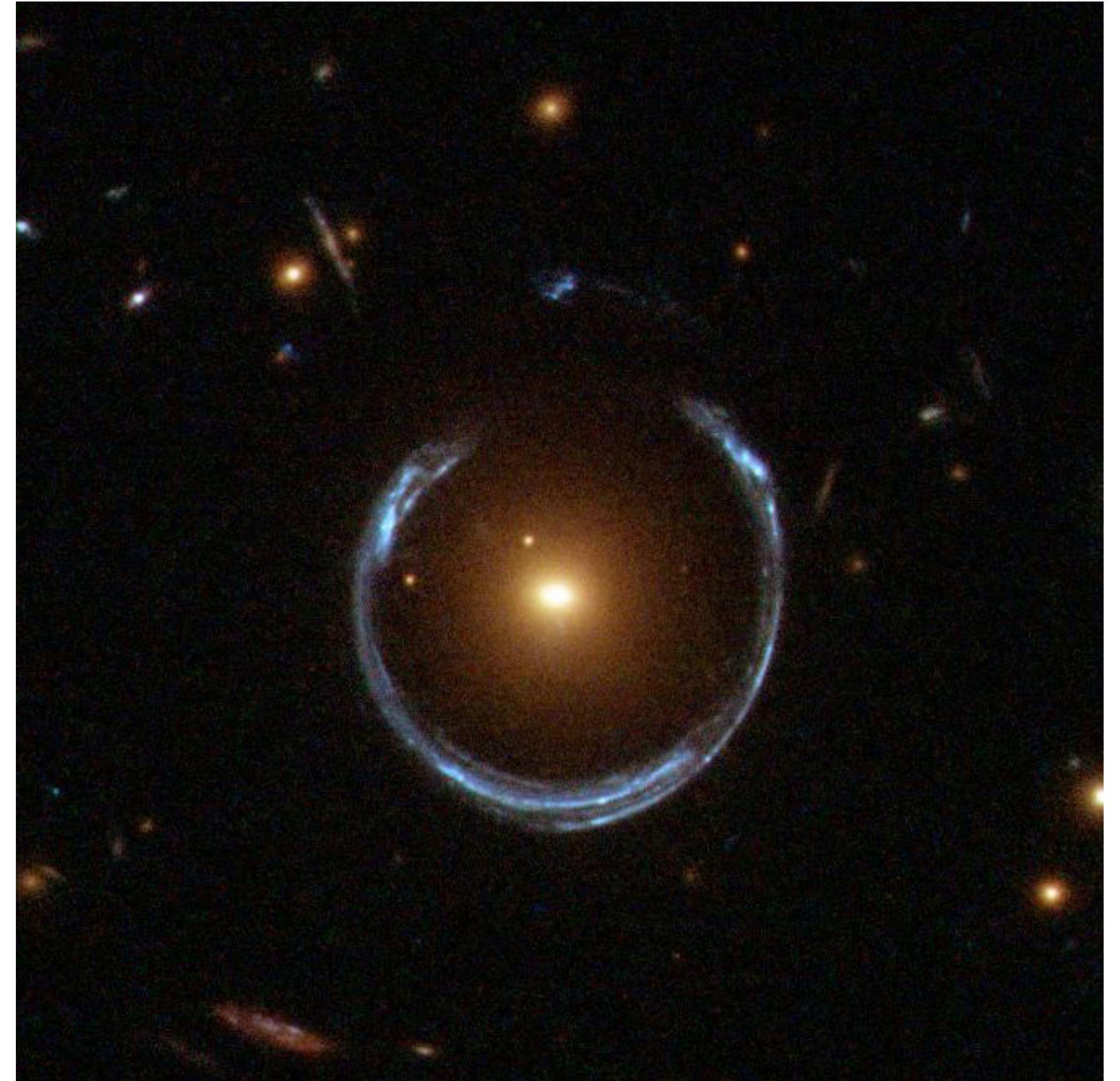
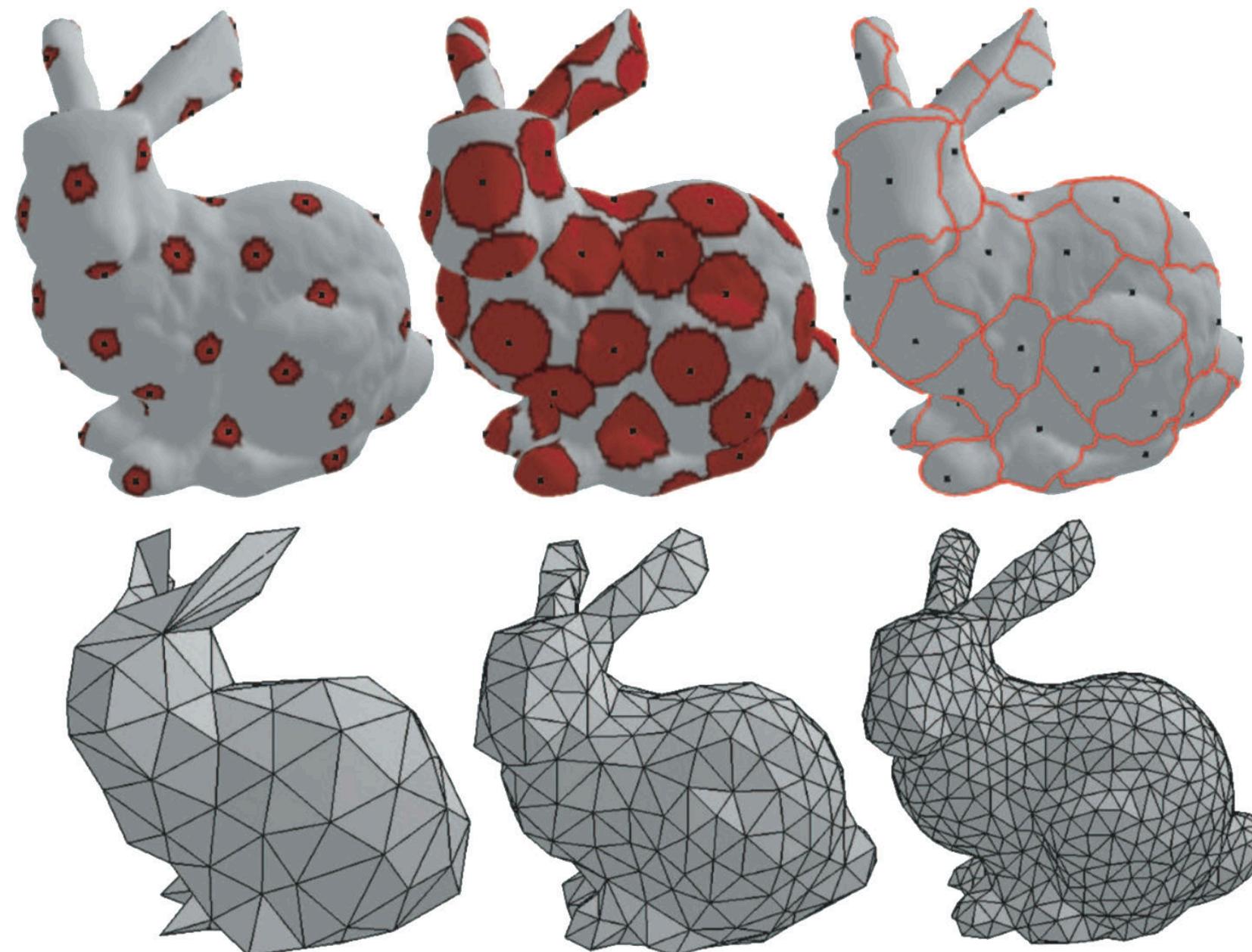


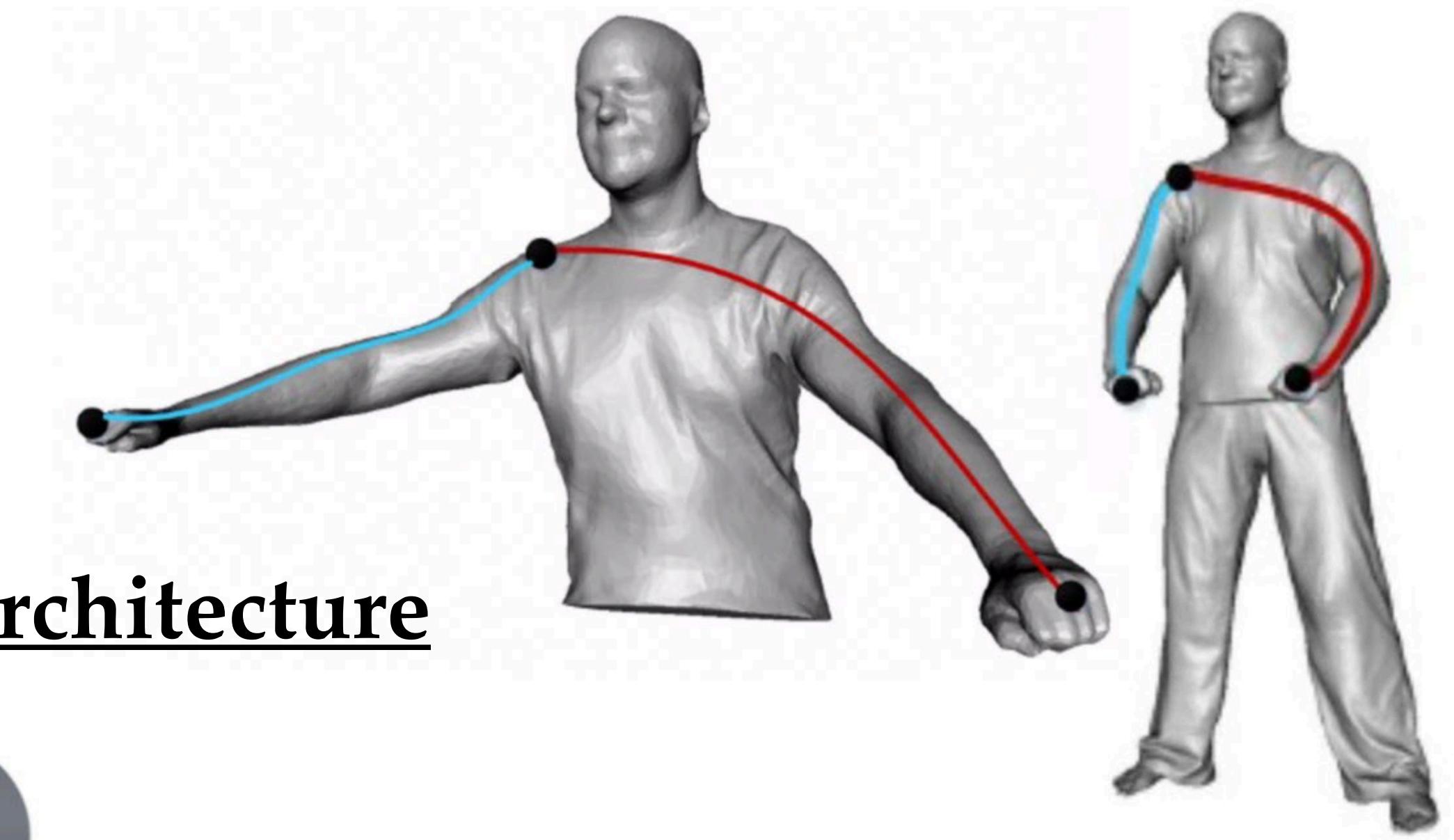
image credit: ESA/Hubble & NASA

Examples of Geodesics – Geometry Processing

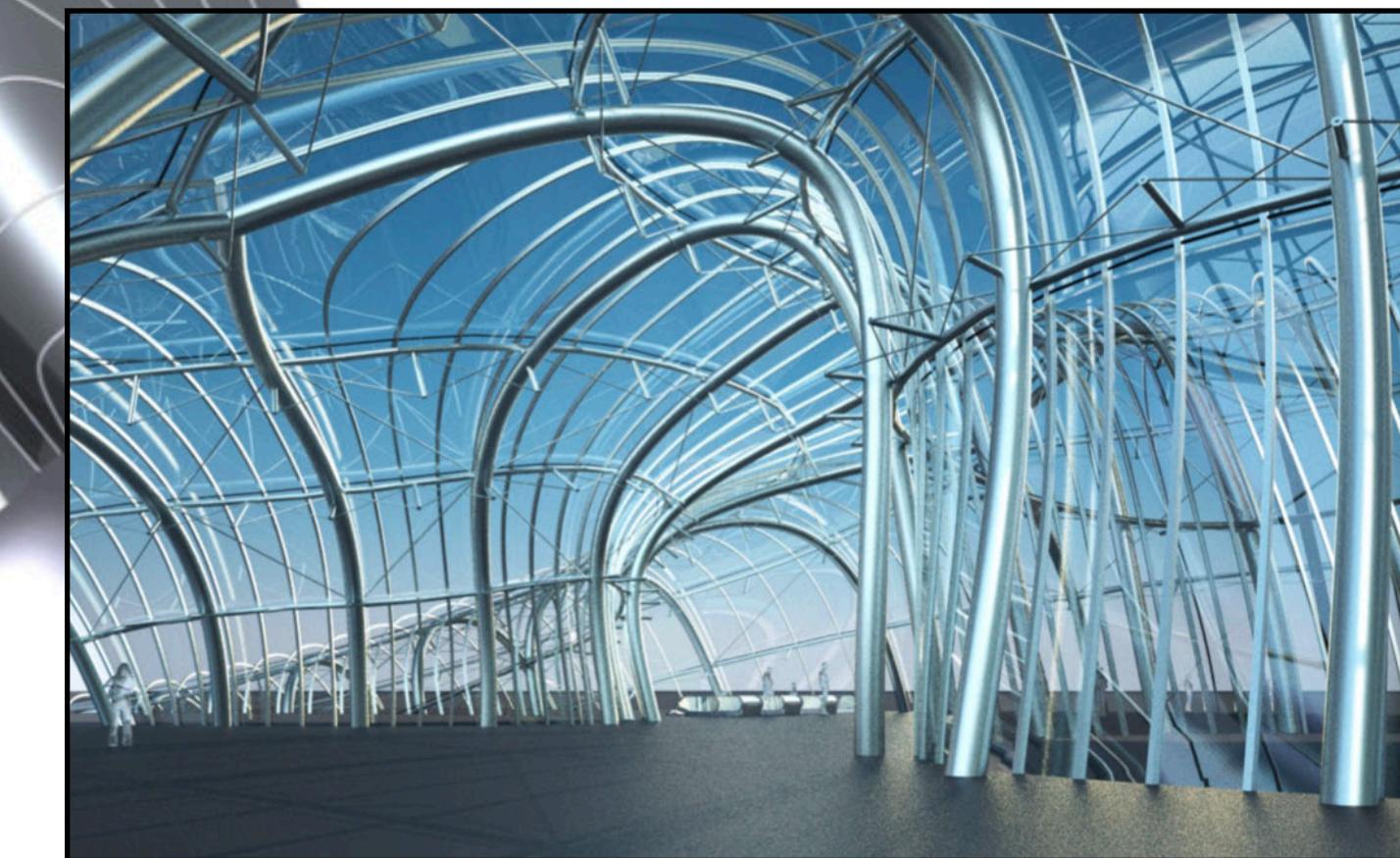
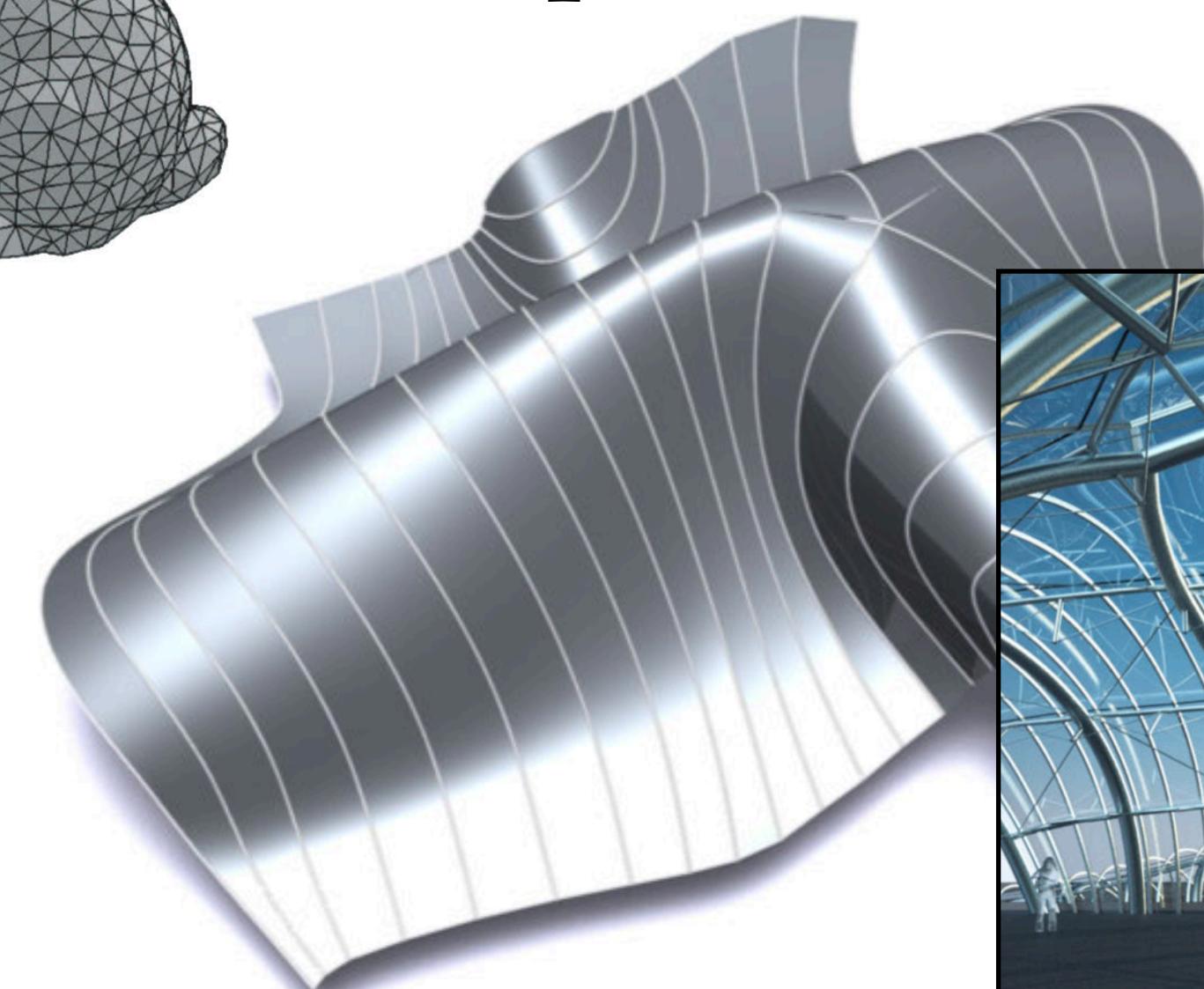
surface remeshing



shape analysis / correspondence

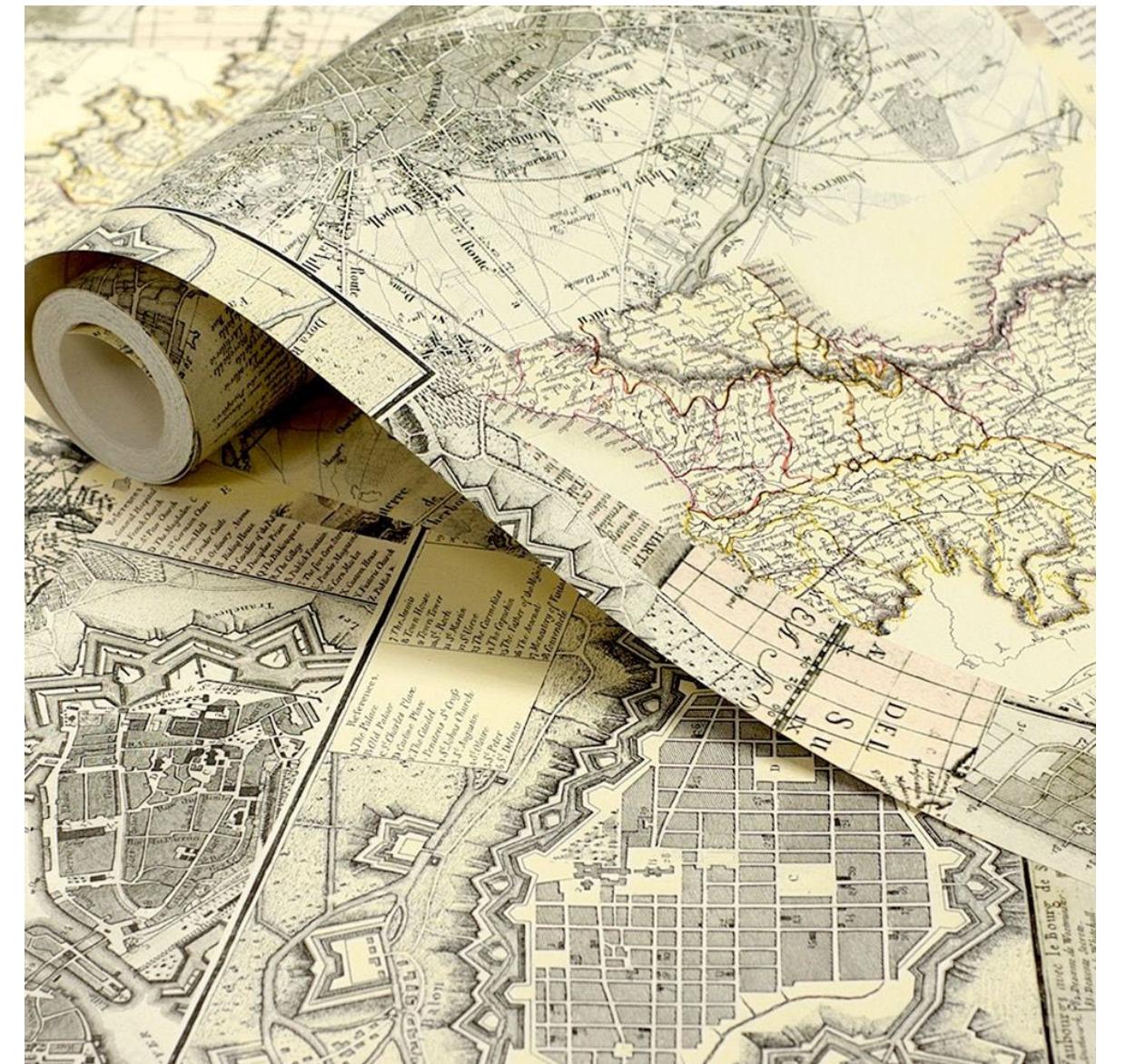


computational architecture



Isometry Invariance of Geodesics

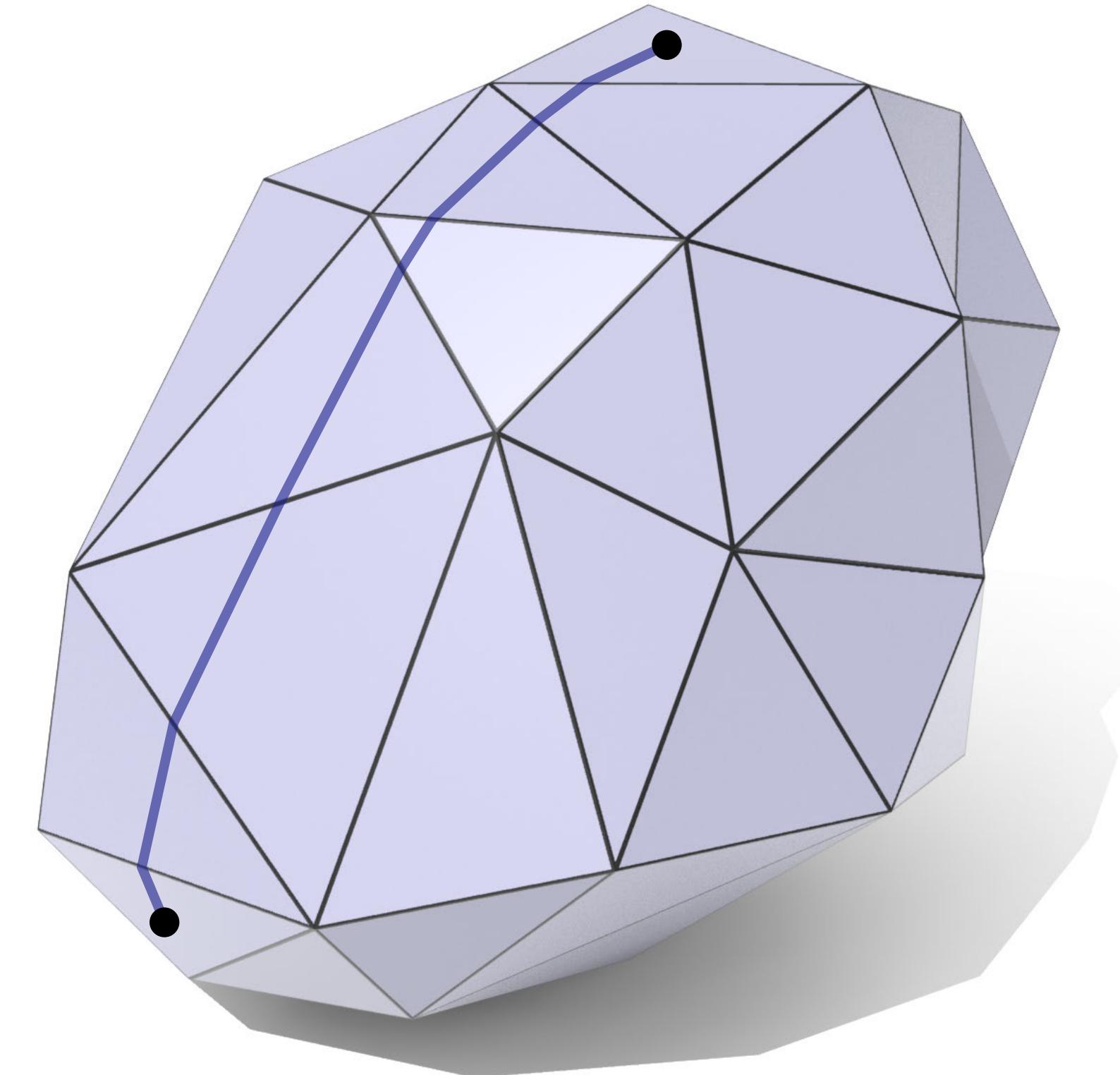
- *Isometries* are special deformations that do not change the intrinsic geometry
 - Formally: preserves the *Riemannian metric* (which measures lengths & angles of tangent vectors)
- For instance, folding up a map doesn't change angle between north and south, or areas of land masses
- Likewise, the shortest path between two cities does not change if we roll up a map



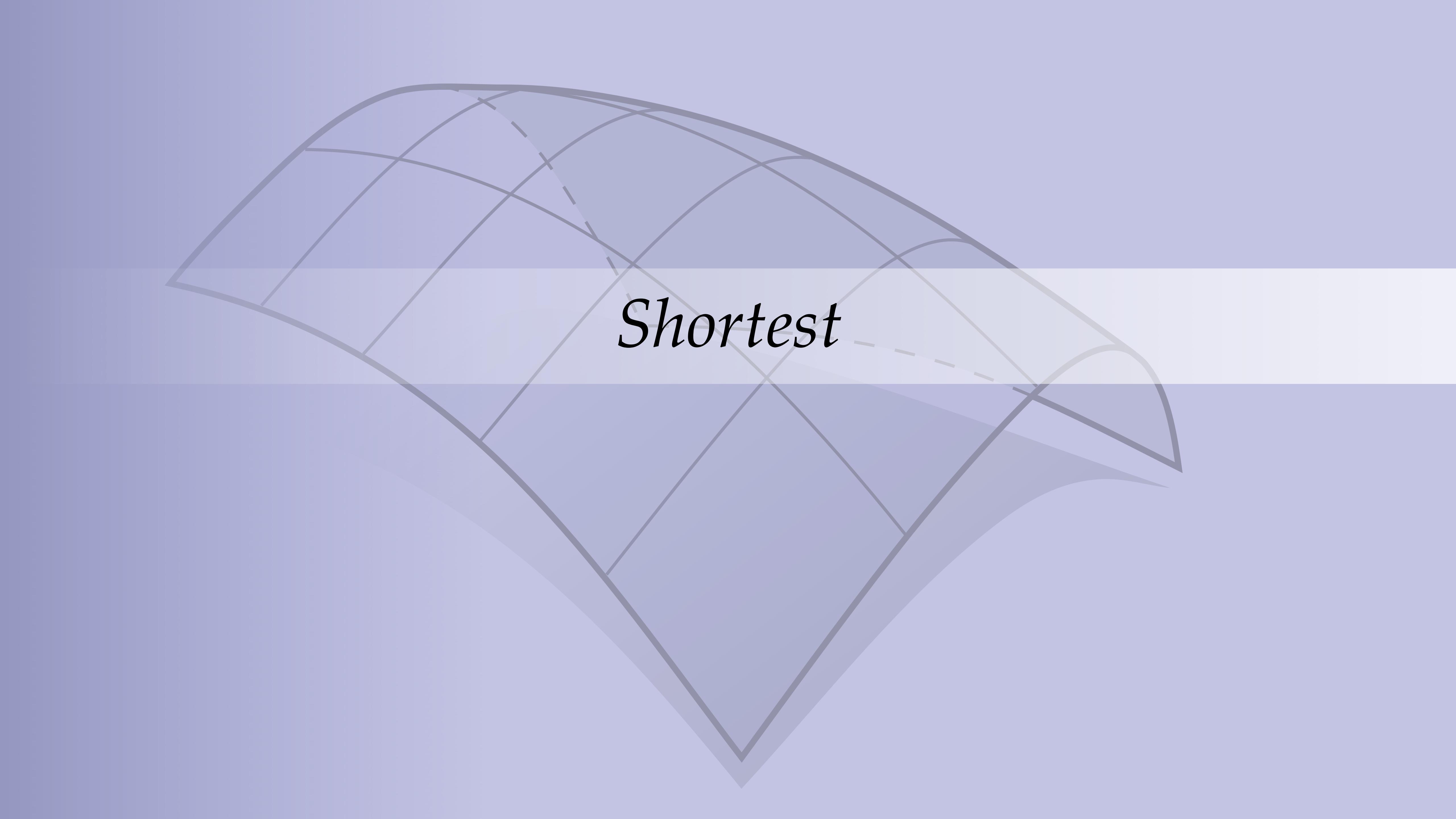
Key fact: geodesics are *isometry invariant*.

Discrete Geodesics

- How can we come up with a definition of *discrete* geodesics?
- Play “The Game” of DDG and consider different smooth starting points:
 - *straightest (zero acceleration)*
 - *locally shortest*
 - *no geodesic curvature*
 - *harmonic map from interval to manifold*
 - *gradient of distance function*
 - ...
- Each starting point will have different consequences



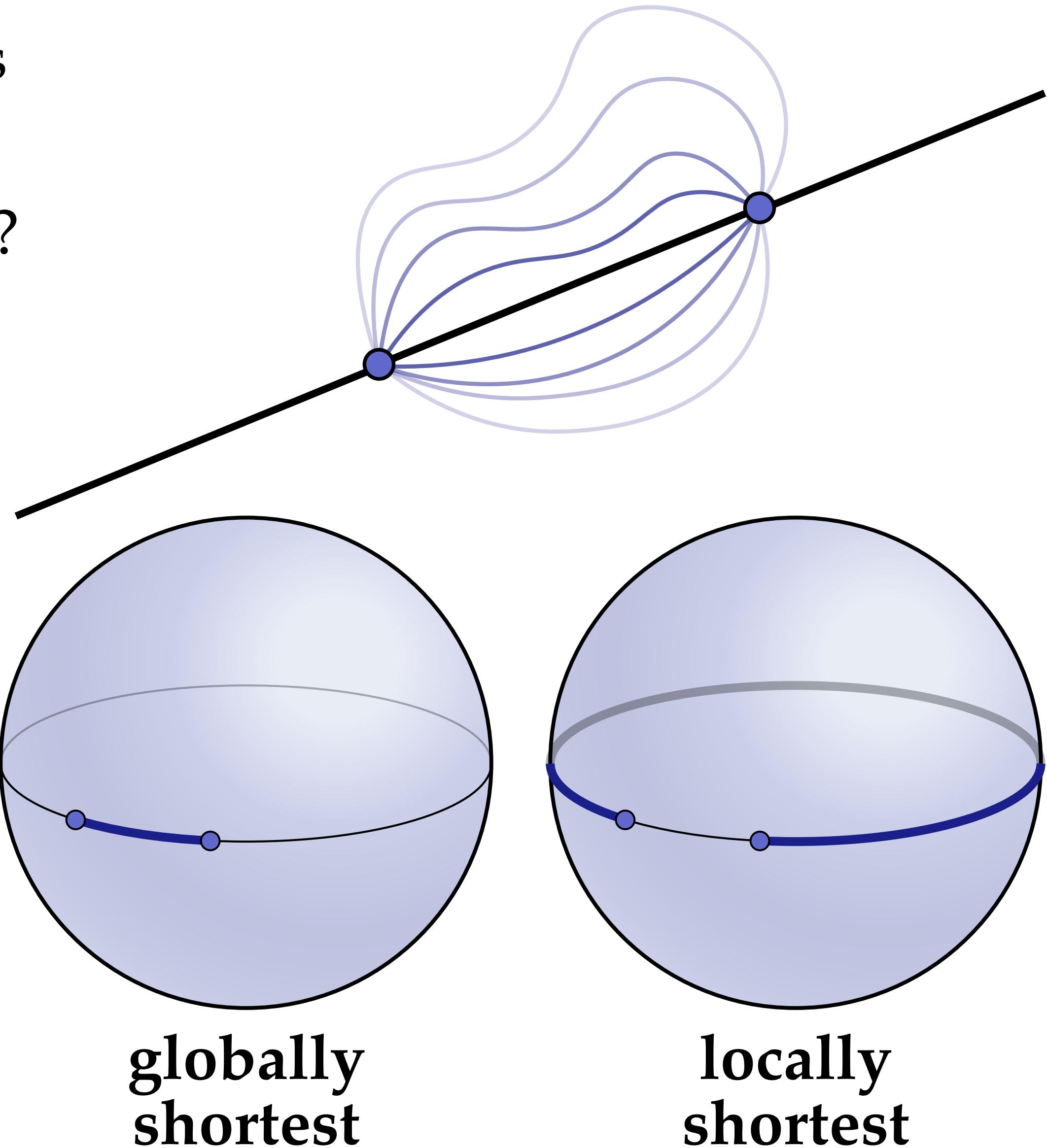
Observation: for simplicial surfaces will see that shortest and straightest disagree



Shortest

Locally Shortest Paths

- A Euclidean line segment can be characterized as the shortest path between two distinct points
- How can we characterize a whole Euclidean line?
 - ...where are the endpoints?
- Say that it's *locally shortest*: for any two “nearby” points on the path, can't find a shorter route
 - “nearby” means shortest path is **unique**
- This description directly gives us one possible definition for geodesics
- Note that *locally* shortest does not imply *globally* shortest!
 - Both are geodesic paths



Dirichlet Energy and Curve Length

Recall *Dirichlet energy*, which measures “smoothness”:

planar curve

$$\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

Dirichlet energy

$$E_D(\gamma) = \int_0^1 |\gamma'(t)|^2 dt$$

Can write γ as a reparameterization of a unit-speed curve:

unit-speed curve

$$\hat{\gamma} : [0, L] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

speed function

$$c : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

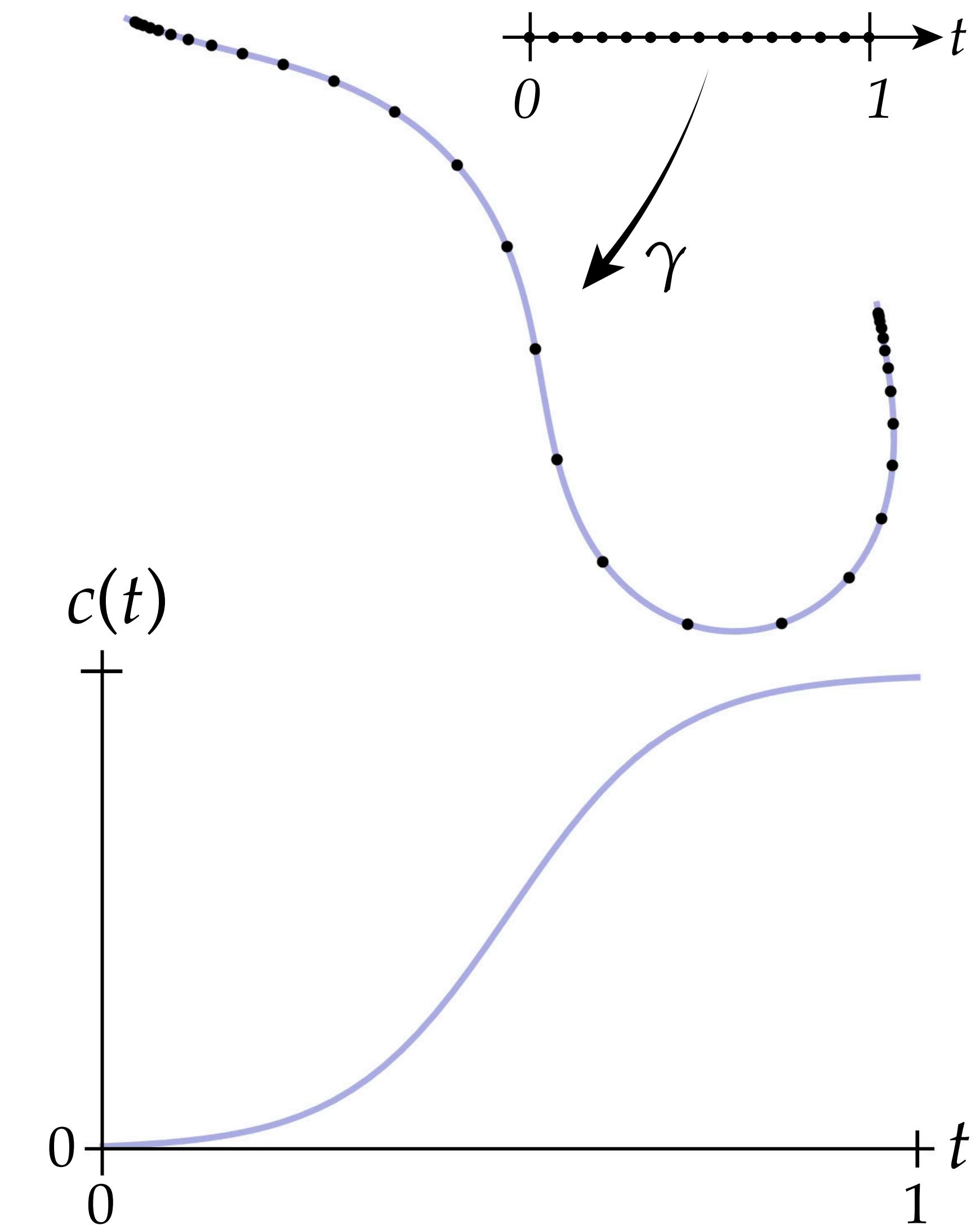
$$c(0) = 0, c(1) = L$$

$$\boxed{\gamma(t) = \hat{\gamma}(c(t))}$$

$$|\gamma'(t)| = |c'(t)|$$

Now let's try to find the *smoothest* curve...

$$\min_{\gamma} E_D(\gamma) = \min_{\hat{\gamma}} \left(\min_c \int_0^1 (\underbrace{c'(t)}_{\rightarrow L})^2 dt \right) = \min_{\hat{\gamma}} L^2$$



Key idea: for a curve, minimizing Dirichlet energy will minimize length.

Shortest Planar Curve – Variational Perspective

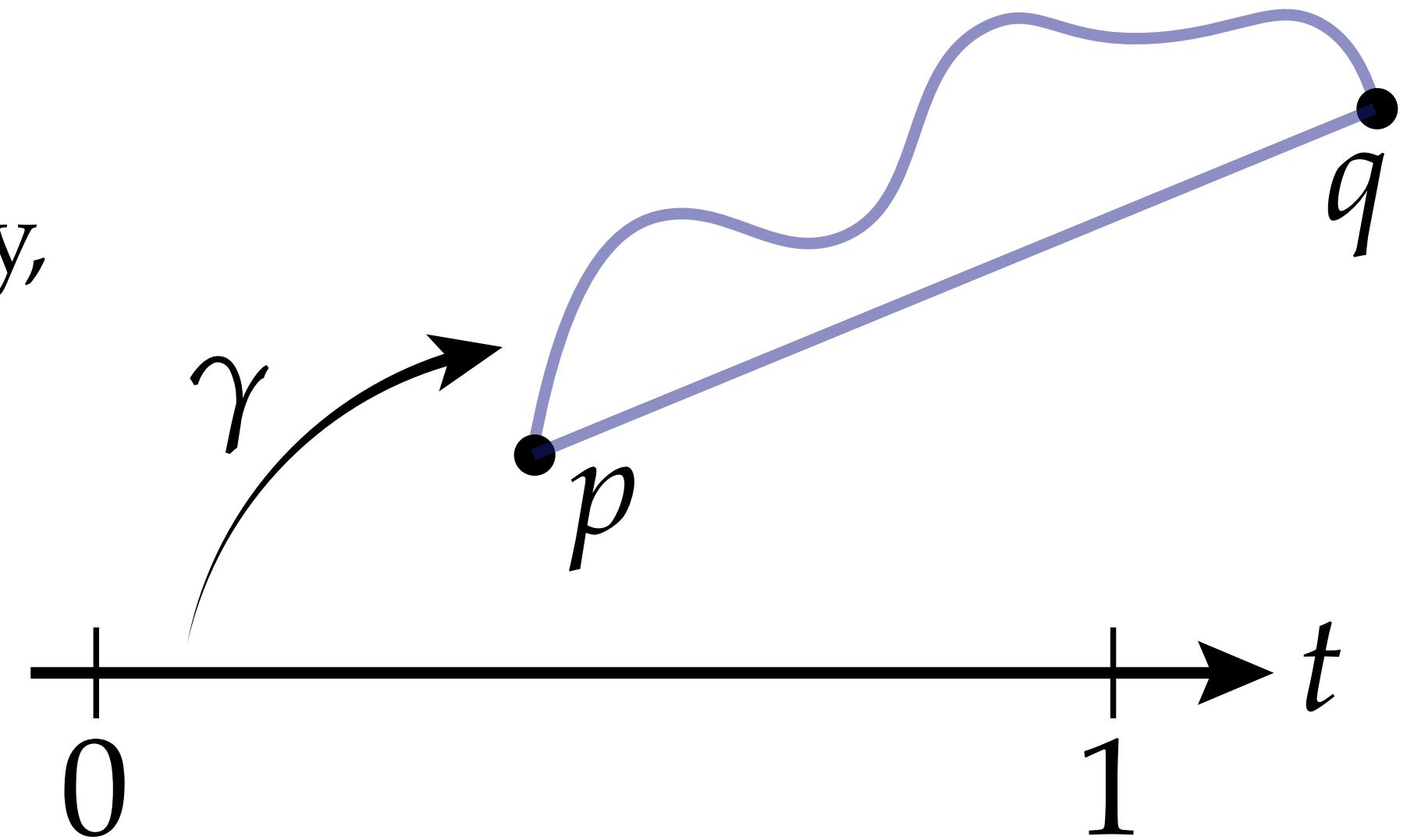
- Consider again a curve $\gamma(t): [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$
- Can find shortest path by minimizing Dirichlet energy, subject to fixed endpoints $\gamma(0)=p, \gamma(1)=q$:

$$\min_{\gamma} \int_0^1 |\gamma'(t)|^2 dt$$

(integration by parts)

$$\iff \min_{\gamma} - \int_0^1 \langle \gamma(t), \gamma''(t) \rangle dt$$

- Taking gradient w.r.t. γ yields a 1D Poisson equation
- Q: Solution? A: Linear function!



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \gamma(t) &= 0 \\ \gamma(0) &= p \\ \gamma(1) &= q \end{aligned}$$

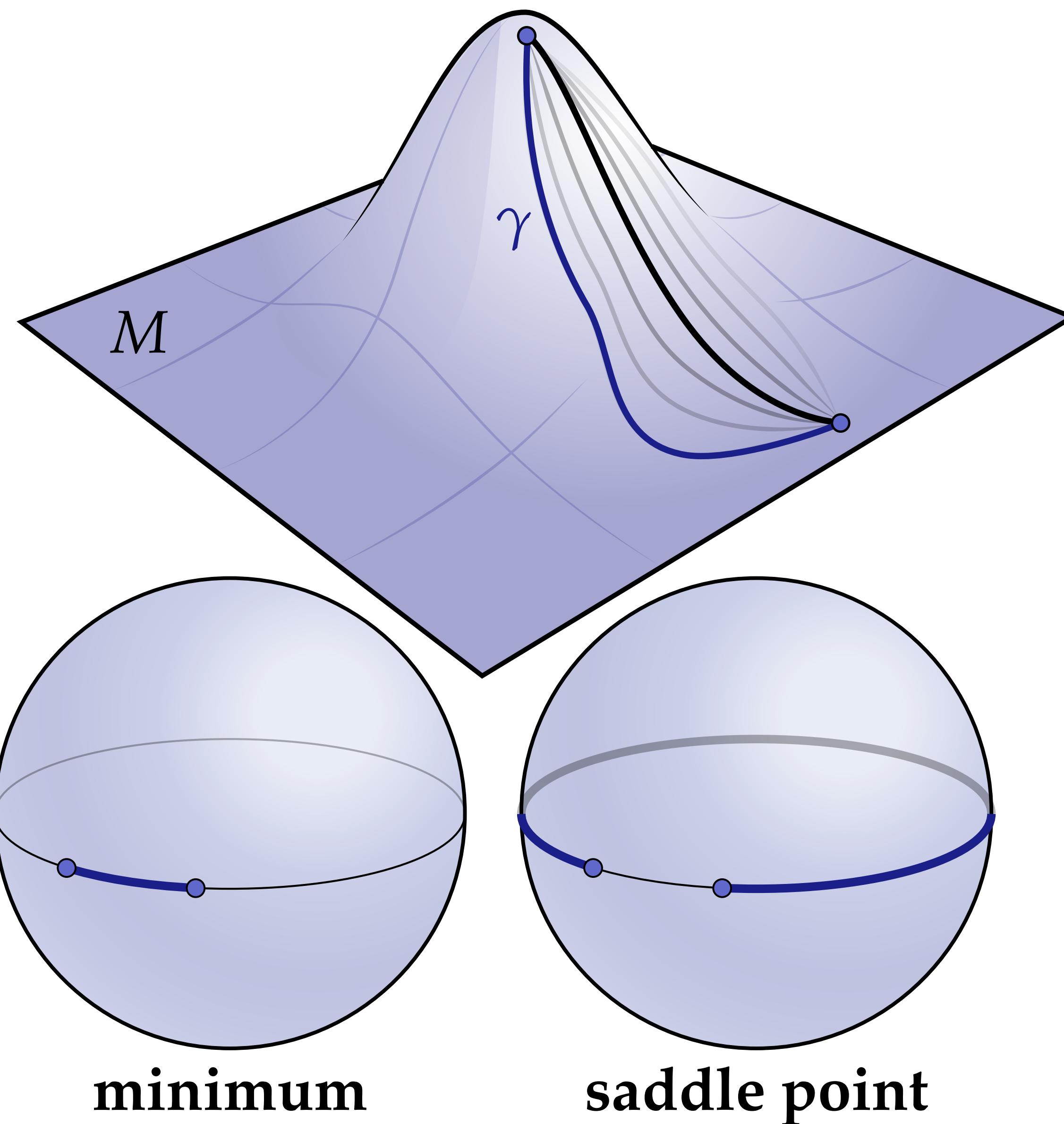
Key idea: geodesics are harmonic functions

Shortest Geodesic – Variational Perspective

- Essentially same story on a curved surface (M, g)
- Consider a differentiable curve $\gamma: [0,1] \longrightarrow M$
- Dirichlet energy is then

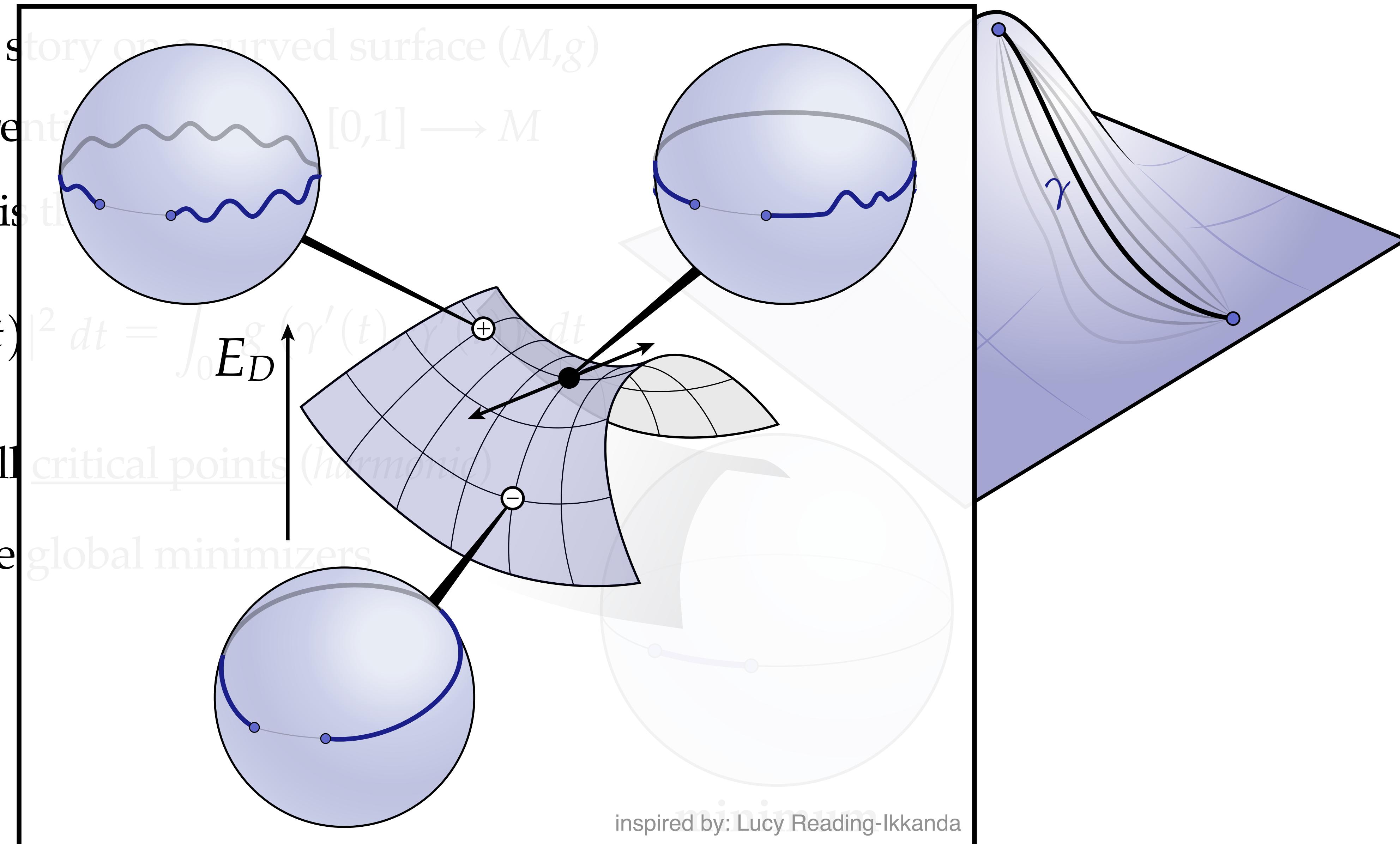
$$E_D(\gamma) = \int_0^1 |\gamma'(t)|^2 dt = \int_0^1 g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$$

- Geodesics are still critical points (*harmonic*)
- May no longer be global minimizers



Shortest Geodesic – Variational Perspective

- Essentially same story on curved surface (M,g)
- Consider a different function space $[0,1] \rightarrow M$
- Dirichlet energy is
$$E_D(\gamma) = \int_0^1 |\gamma'(t)|^2 dt = \int_0^1 g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$$
- Geodesics are still critical points (Harmonic)
- May no longer be global minimizers

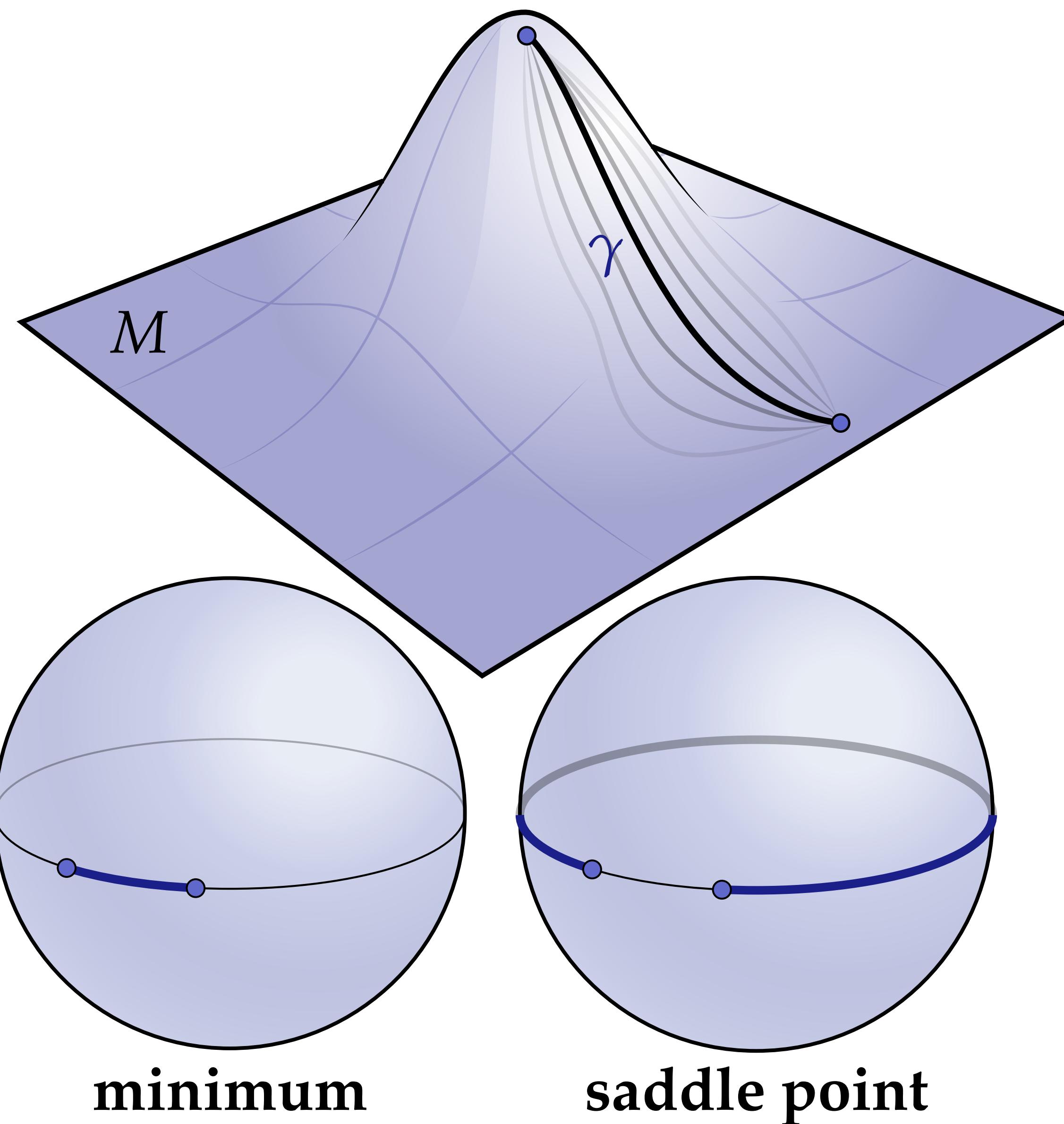


Shortest Geodesic – Variational Perspective

- Essentially same story on a curved surface (M, g)
- Consider a differentiable curve $\gamma: [0,1] \longrightarrow M$
- Dirichlet energy is then

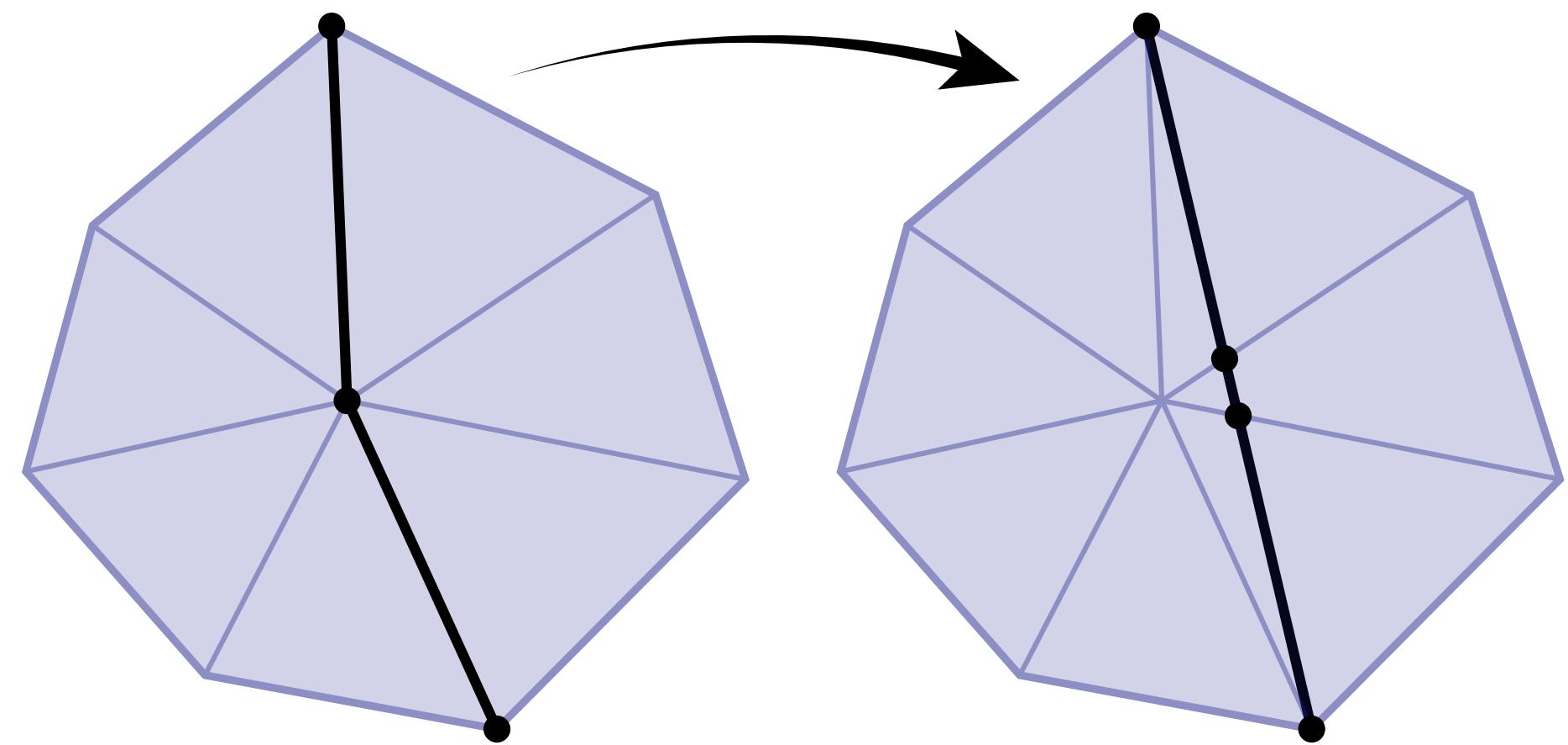
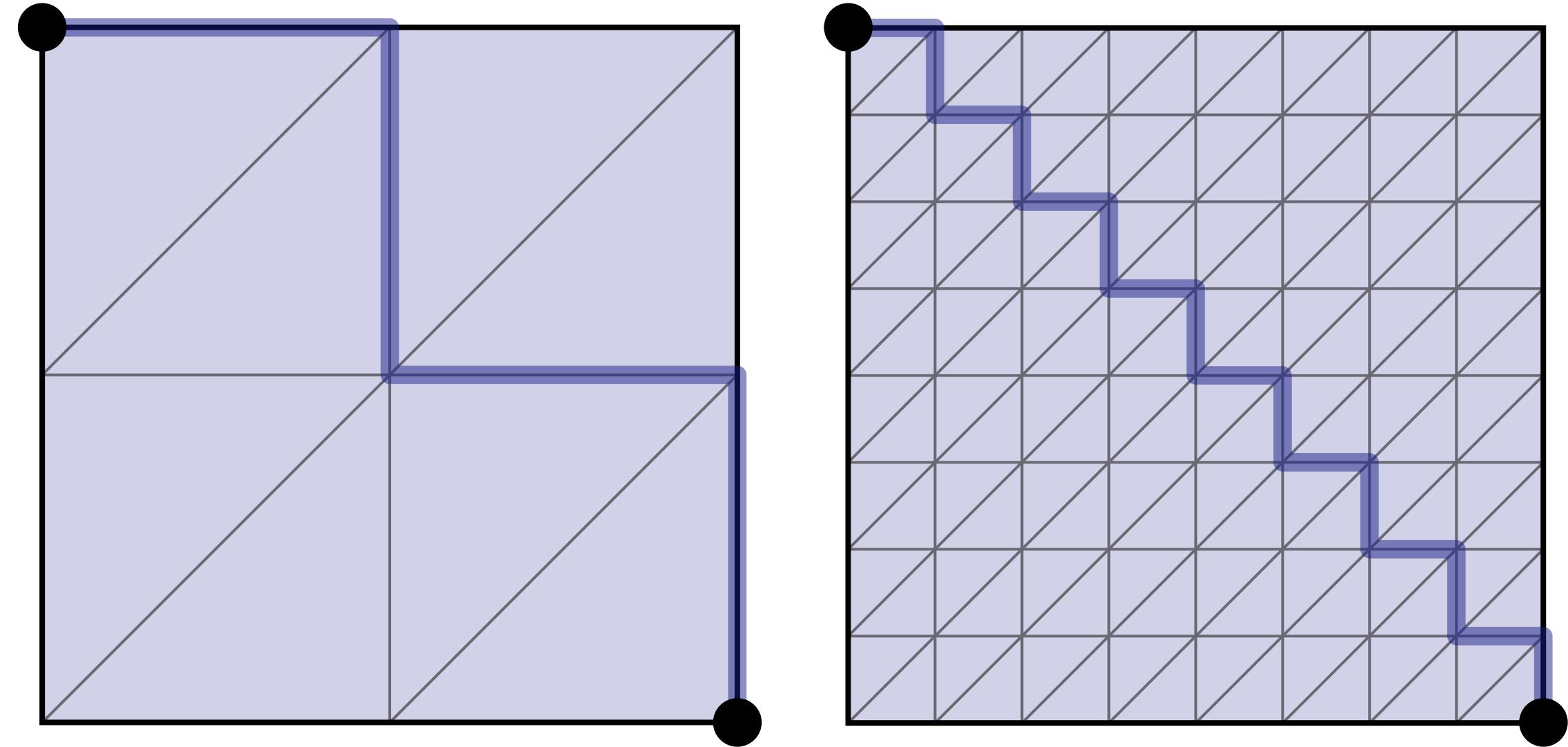
$$E_D(\gamma) = \int_0^1 |\gamma'(t)|^2 dt = \int_0^1 g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t)) dt$$

- Geodesics are still critical points (*harmonic*)
- May no longer be global minimizers
- Hence, geodesics no longer found by solving easy linear equation (Laplace)
 - Will *need numerical algorithms!*



Discrete Shortest Paths – Boundary Value Problem

- Q: How can we find a shortest path in the discrete case?
- Dijkstra's algorithm obviously comes to mind, but a shortest path in the edge graph is almost never geodesic
 - even if you refine the mesh!
- To get *locally* shortest path, could iteratively straighten Dijkstra path by until no more progress can be made
- What if we want to compute the *globally* shortest path?



Discrete Shortest Paths – Vertices

- Even *locally* shortest paths near vertices require some care—different behavior depending on angle defect Ω

- Flat ($\Omega = 0$)

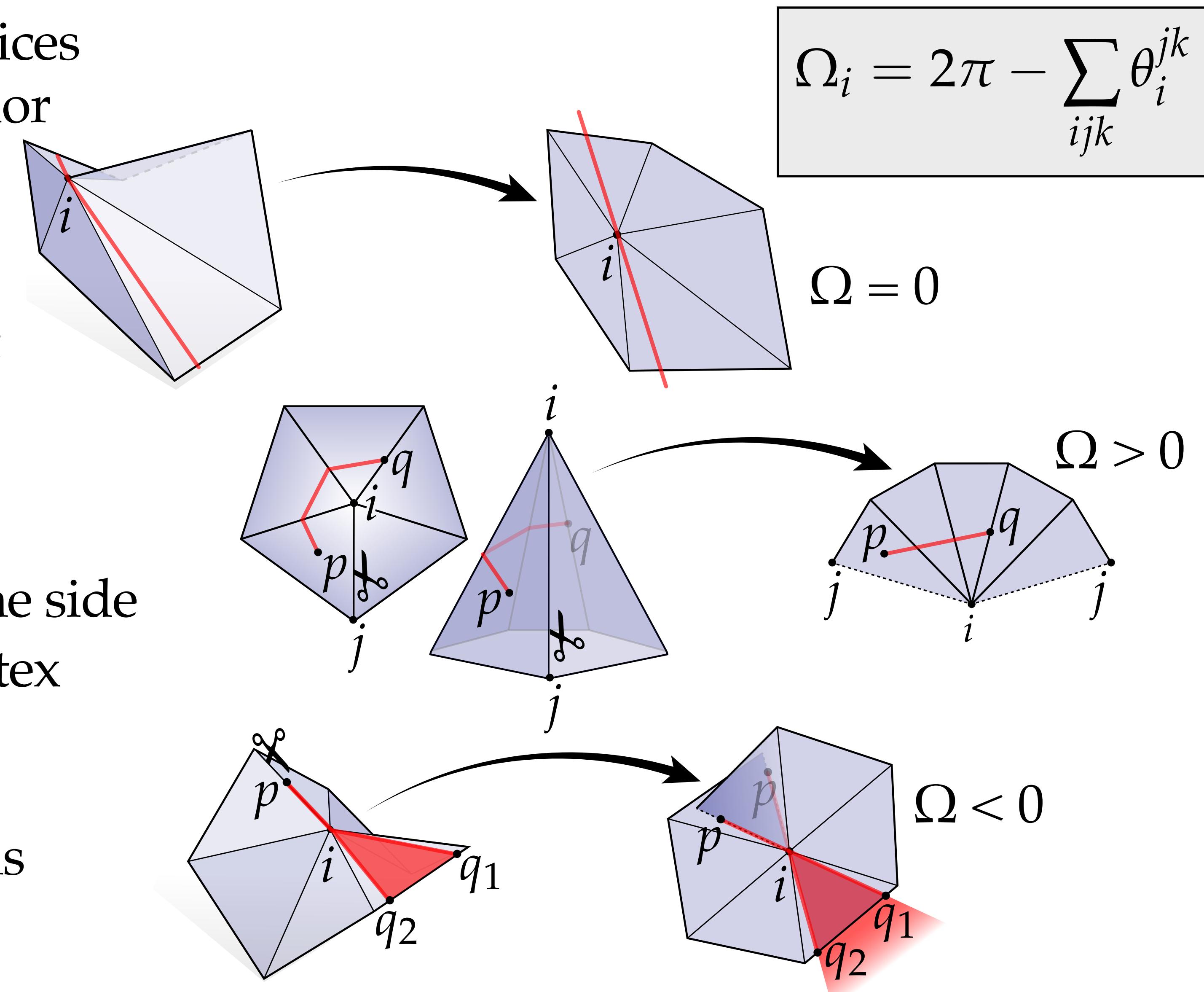
Shortest path simply goes straight through the vertex

- Cone ($\Omega > 0$)

Can always faster to go around one side or the other; never *through* the vertex

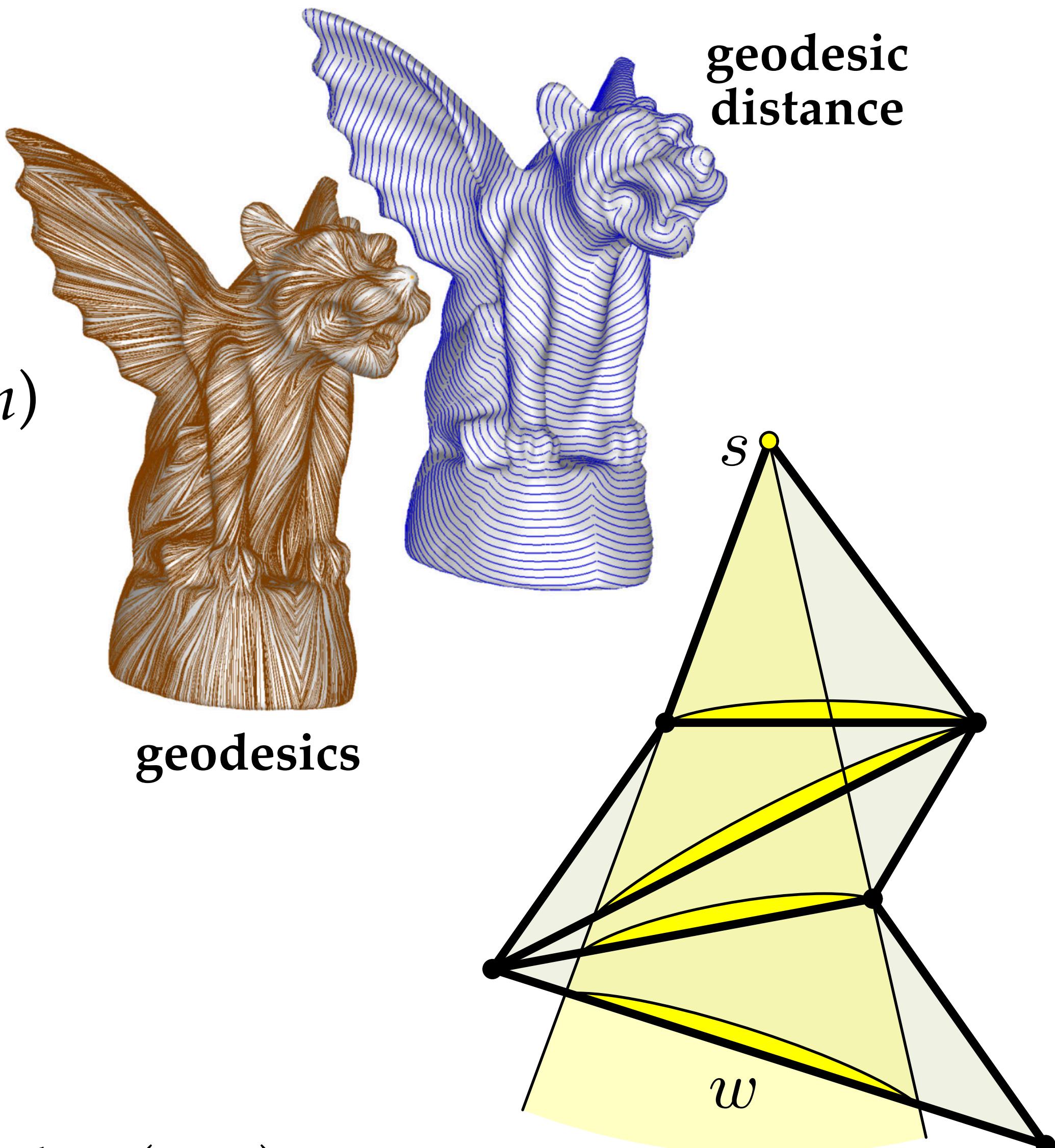
- Saddle ($\Omega < 0$)

Always *many* locally shortest paths passing through a saddle vertex.



Algorithms for Shortest Polyhedral Geodesics

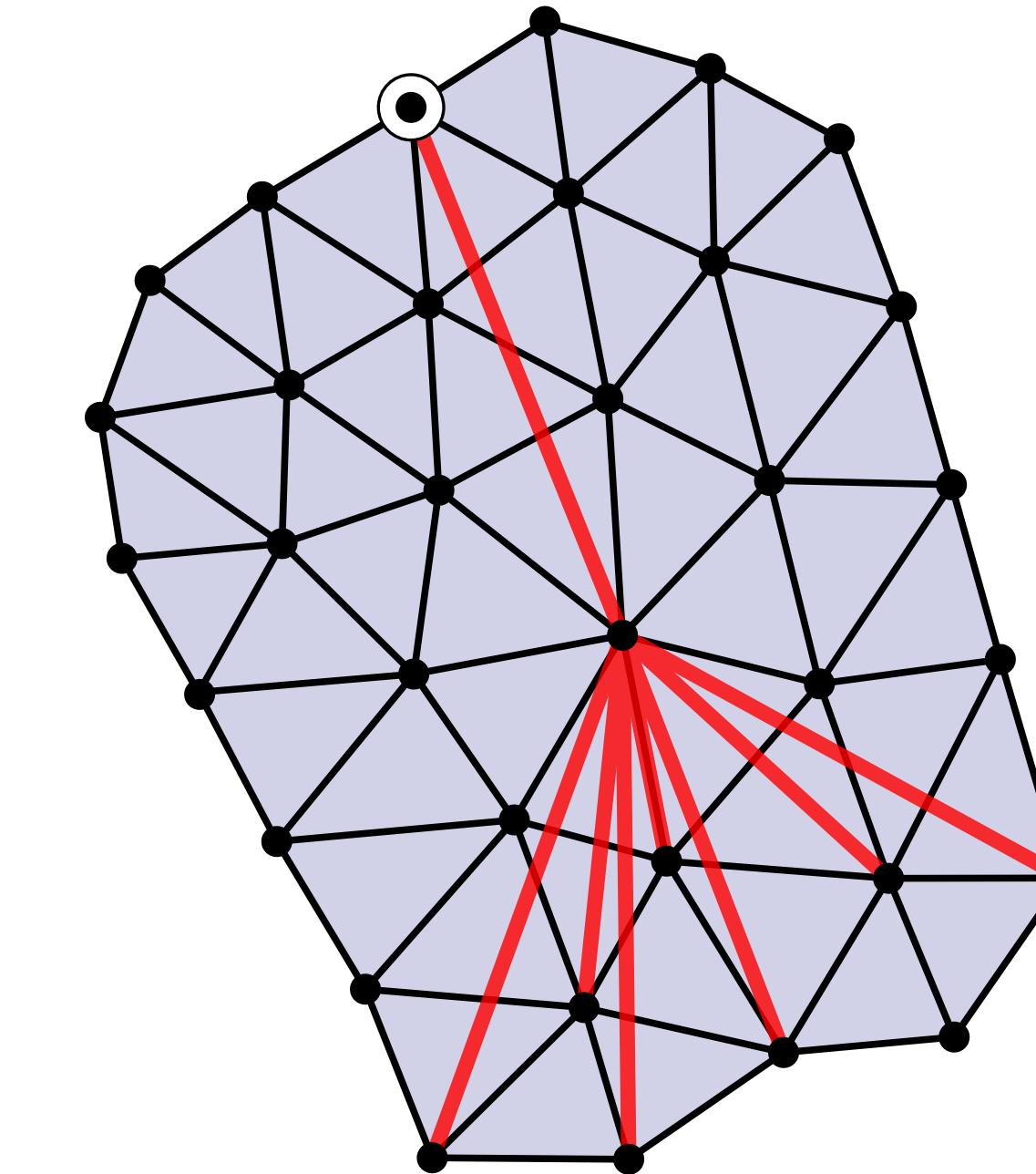
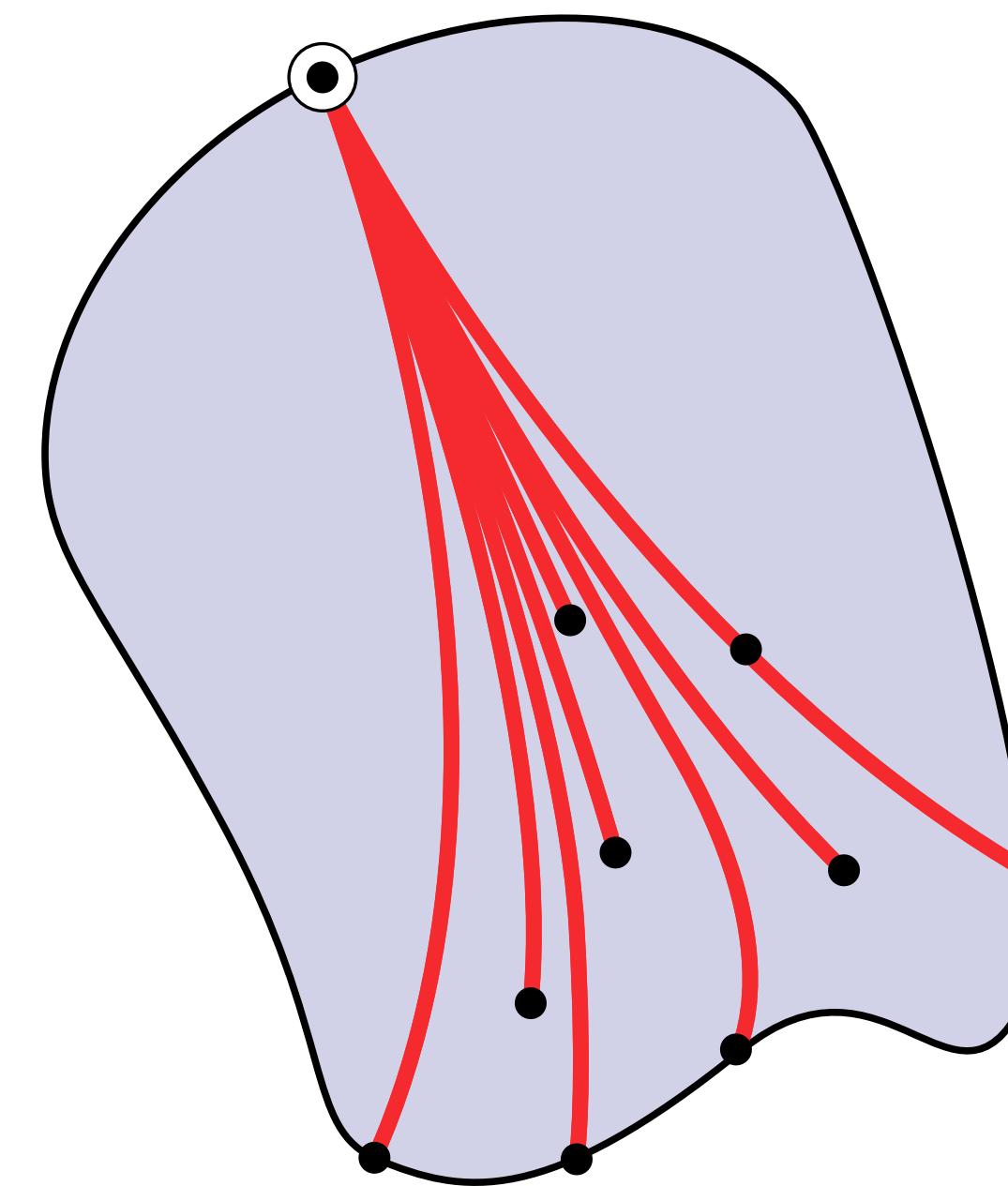
- Algorithms for *shortest* polyhedral geodesics generalize Dijkstra's algorithm to include paths through triangles
- Mitchell, Mount, Papadimitrou (MMP)
“*The Discrete Geodesic Problem*” (1986) — $O(n^2 \log n)$
- **Basic idea:** track intervals or “windows” of common geodesic paths
- Many subsequent improvements by pruning windows, approximation, ... though still quite expensive (same asymptotic complexity)



See: Surazhsky et al. “*Fast Exact and Approximate Geodesics on Meshes*” (2005)

Shortest Geodesics – Smooth vs. Discrete

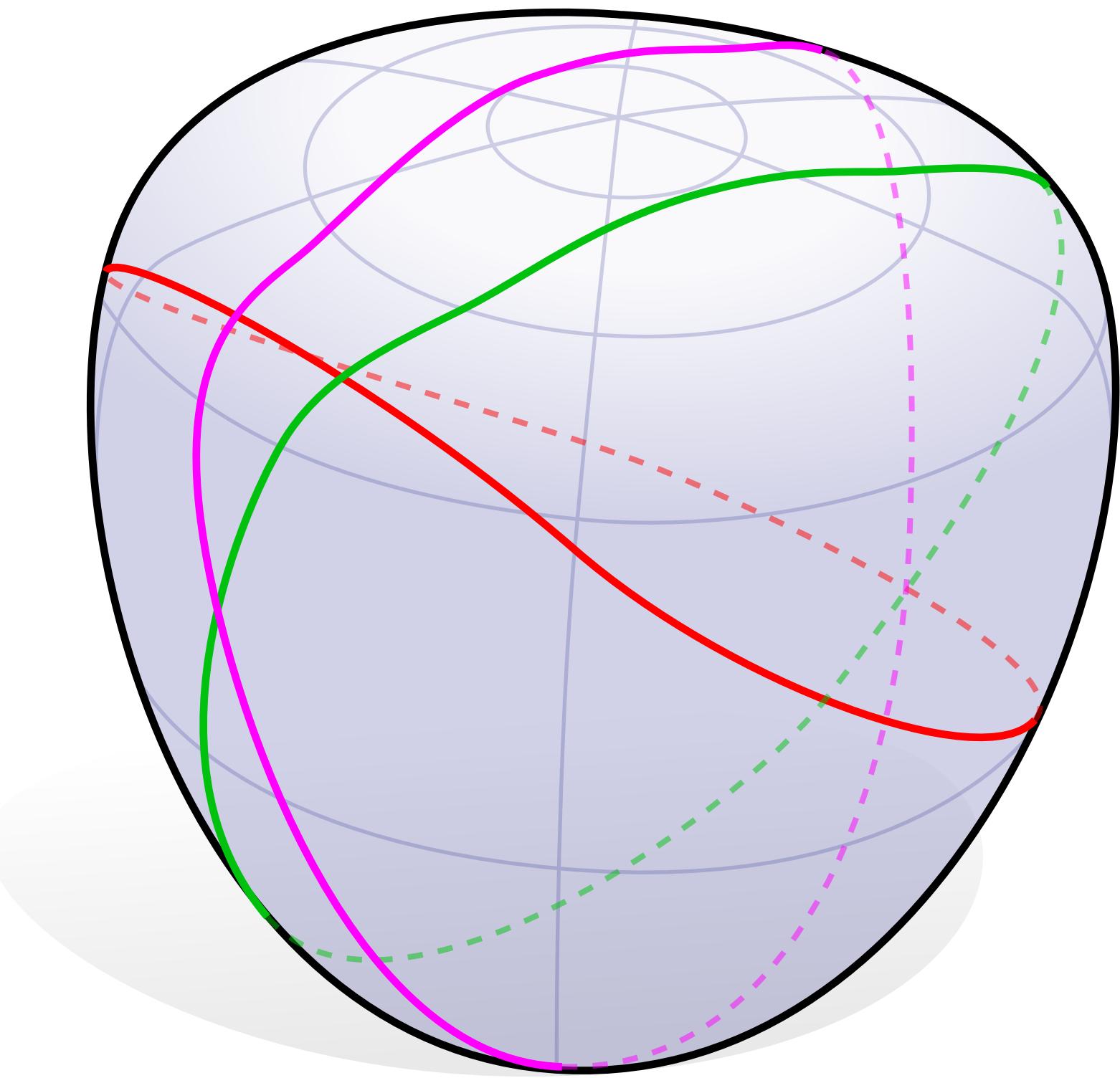
- **Smooth:** two minimal geodesics γ_1, γ_2 from a source p to distinct points p_1, p_2 (resp.) intersect only if $\gamma_1 \subseteq \gamma_2$ or $\gamma_2 \subseteq \gamma_1$
- **Discrete:** many geodesics can coincide at saddle vertex (“*pseudo-source*”)



Note: *Shortest polyhedral geodesics may not faithfully capture behavior of smooth ones!*

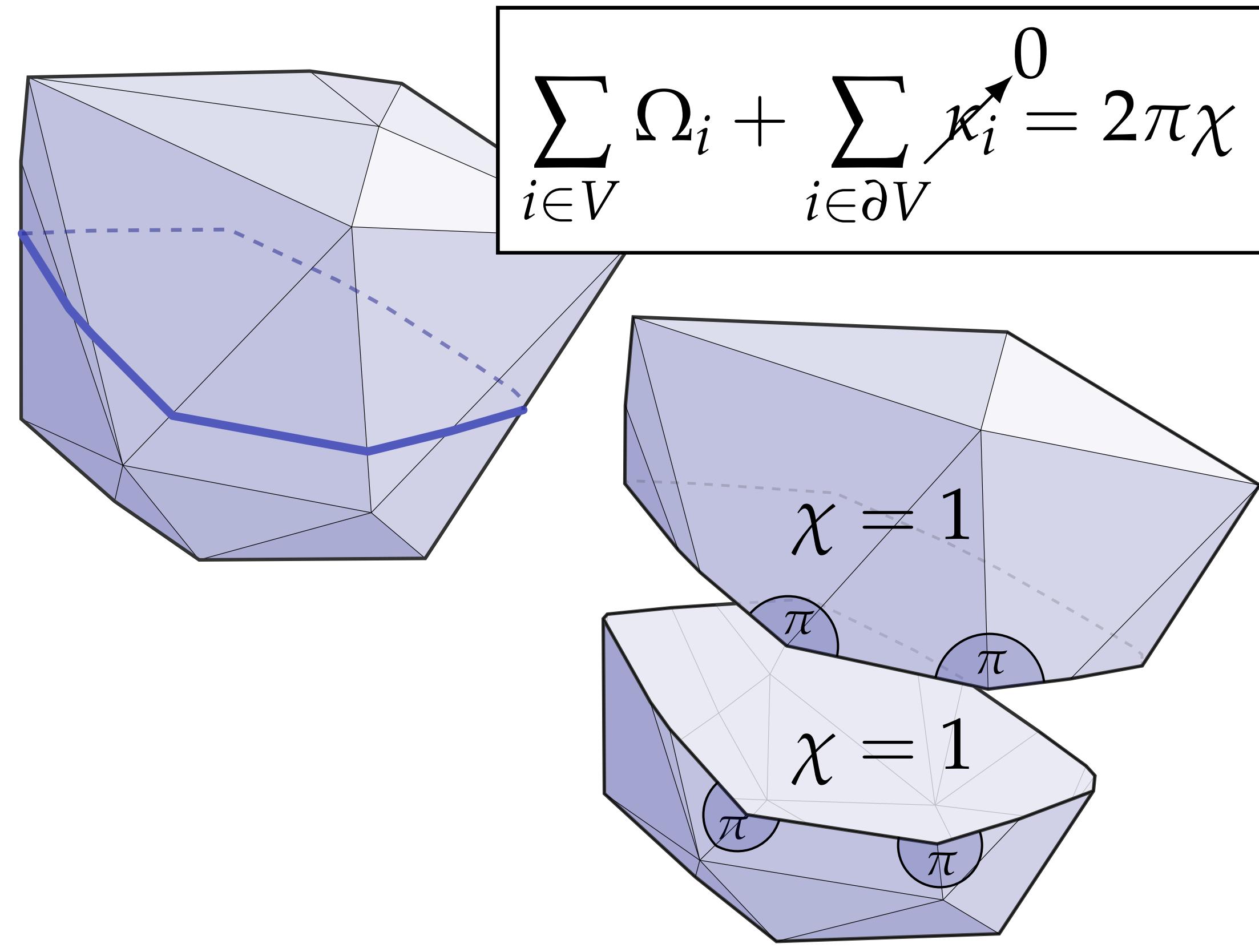
Closed Geodesics

- **Theorem.** (Birkhoff 1917) Every smooth convex surface contains a simple closed geodesic, *i.e.*, a geodesic loop that does not cross itself (“*Birkhoff equator*”)
- **Theorem.** (Lyusternik & Shnirel'man 1929)
Actually, there are at least three—and this result is sharp: *only* three on some smooth surfaces.



Closed Geodesics

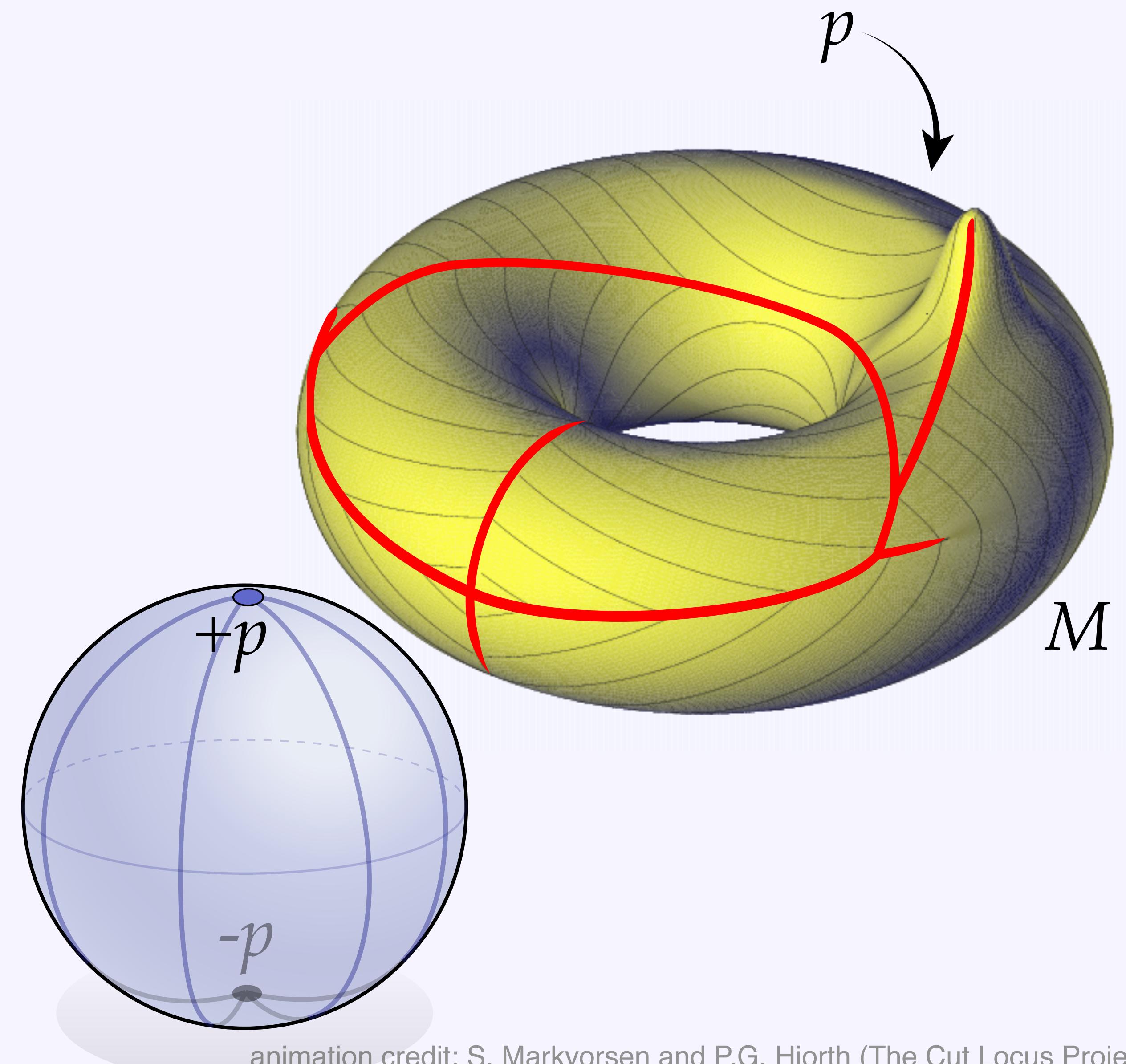
- **Theorem.** (Birkhoff 1917) Every smooth convex surface contains a simple closed geodesic, *i.e.*, a geodesic loop that does not cross itself (“*Birkhoff equator*”)
- **Theorem.** (Lyusternik & Shnirel'man 1929)
Actually, there are at least three—and this result is sharp: *only* three on some smooth surfaces.
- **Theorem.** (Galperin 2002) Most convex polyhedra do not have simple closed geodesics (in the sense of discrete *shortest* geodesics).
- *Shortest* characterization of discrete geodesics again fails to capture properties from smooth setting.



A *shortest* geodesic can't pass through convex vertices. So, by Gauss-Bonnet, a closed geodesic would have to partition vertices into two sets that each have total angle defect of exactly 2π .

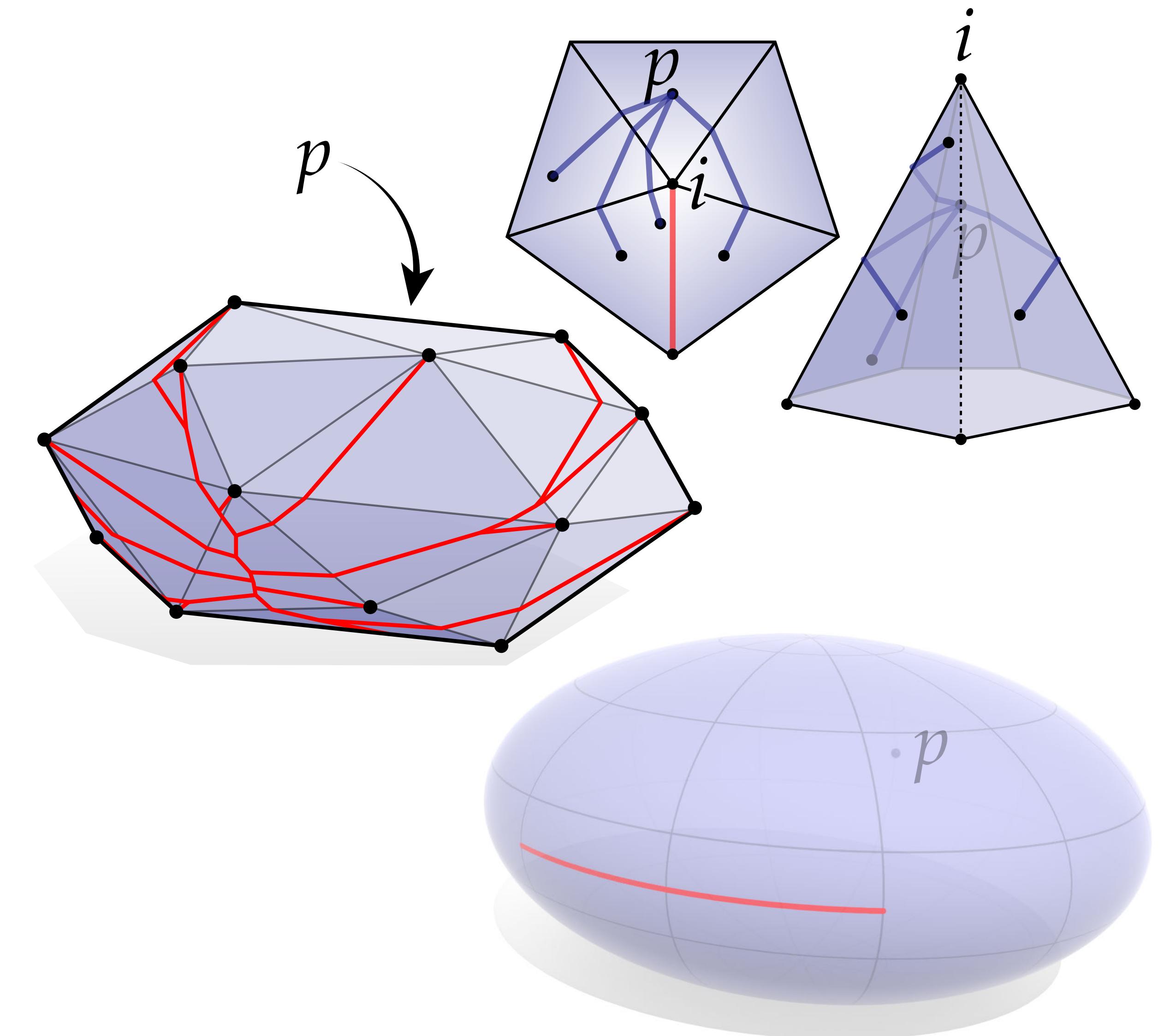
Cut Locus & Injectivity Radius

- For a source point p on a smooth surface M , the *cut locus* is the set of all points q such that there is not a unique (globally) shortest geodesic between p and q .
 - *injectivity radius* is the distance to the closest point on the cut locus
- E.g., on a sphere cut locus of any point $+p$ is the antipodal point $-p$
 - injectivity radius covers whole sphere
- In general can be *much* more complicated (and smaller injectivity radius...)



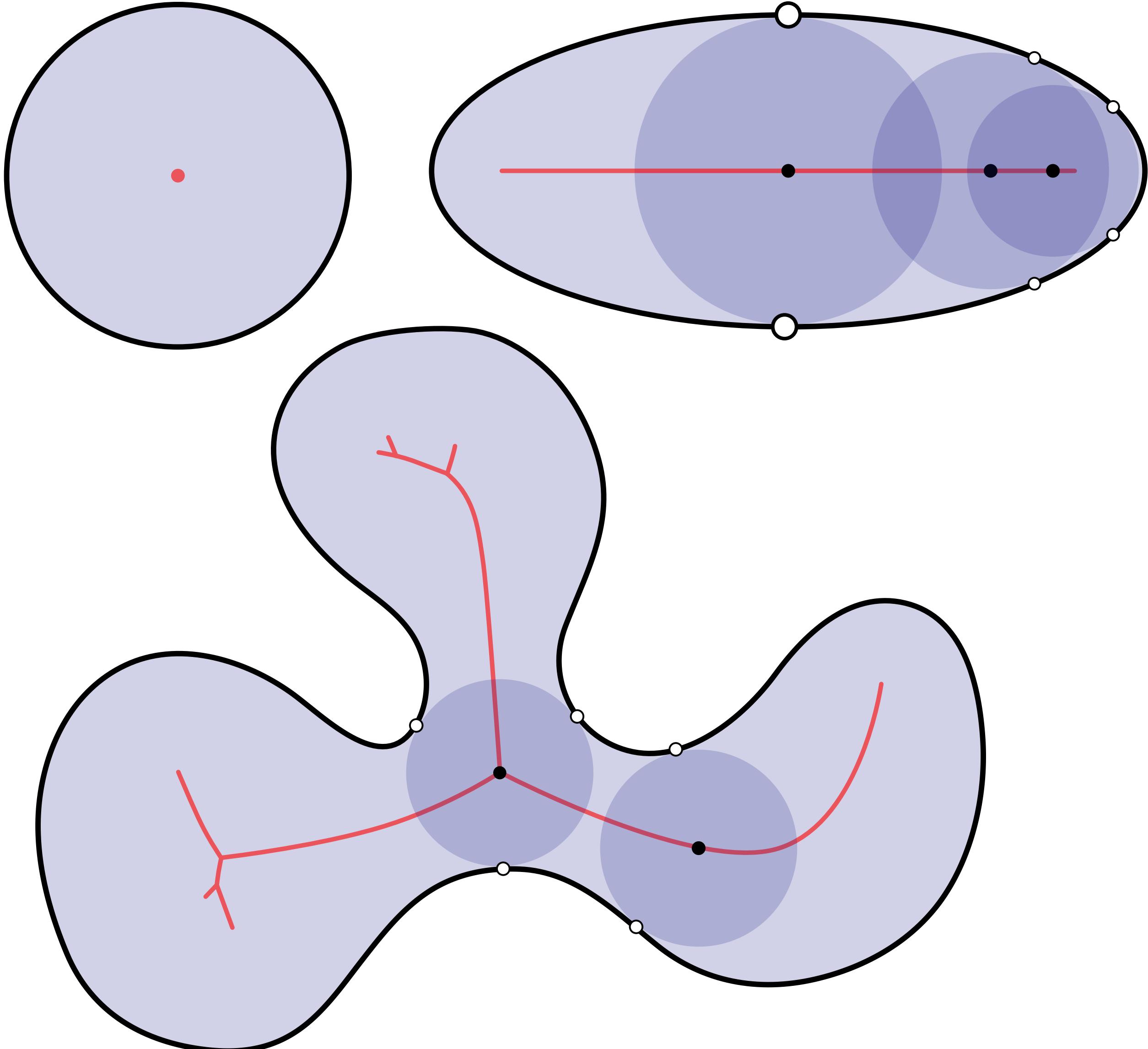
Discrete Cut Locus

- What does cut locus look like for polyhedral surfaces?
- Recall that it's always shorter to go “around” a cone-like vertex (i.e., vertex with positive curvature $\Omega_i > 0$)
- Hence, polyhedral cut locus will contain every cone vertex in the entire surface
- Can look *very* different from the smooth cut locus!



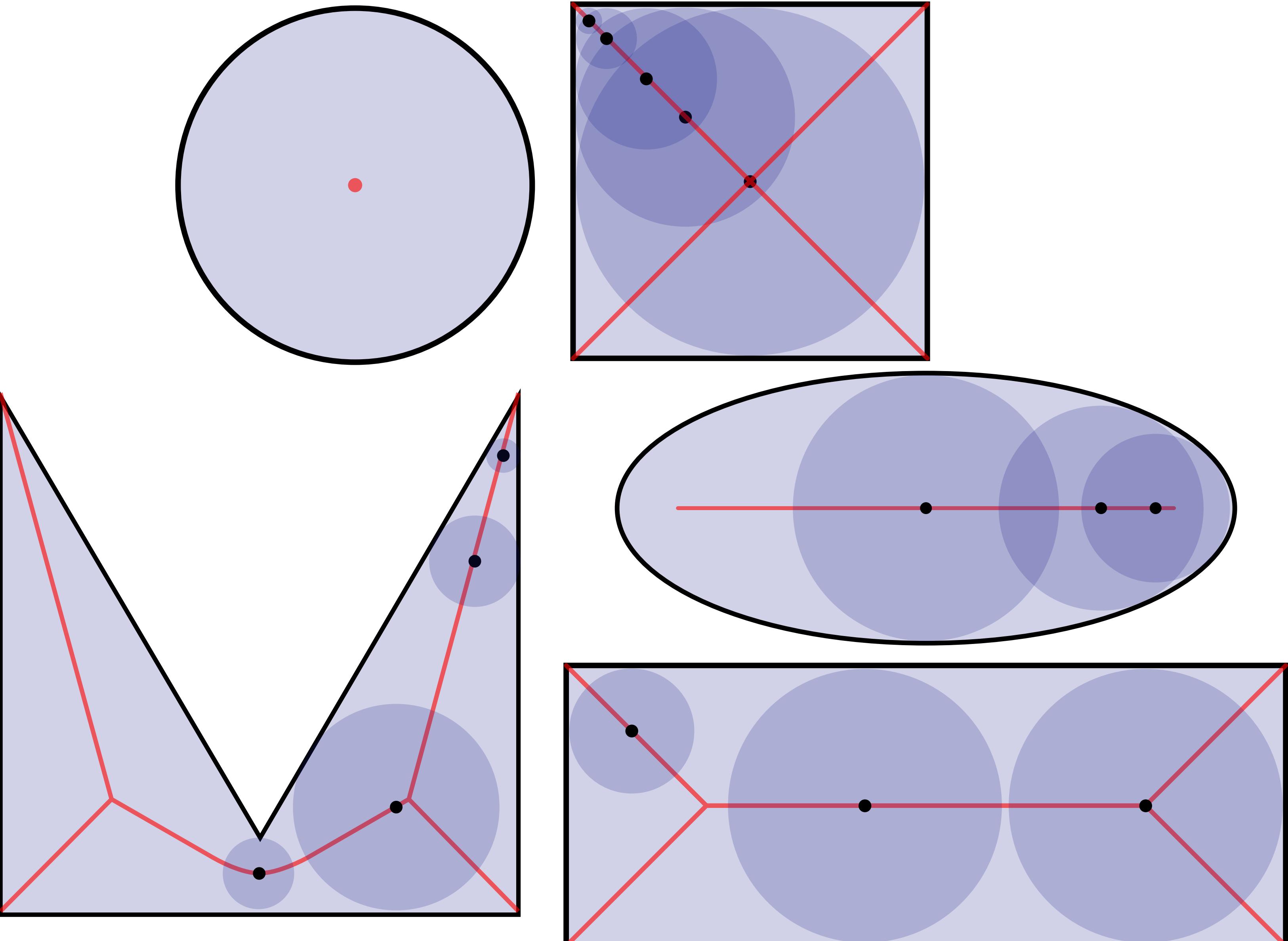
Medial Axis

- Similar to the cut locus, the *medial axis* of a surface or region is the set of all points p that do not have a unique closest point on the boundary
- A *medial ball* is a ball with center on the medial axis, and radius given by the distance to the closest point
- Like cut locus, can get quite complicated!
- Typically three branches (*why?*)
- Provides a “dual” representation: can recover original shape from
 - medial axis
 - radius function



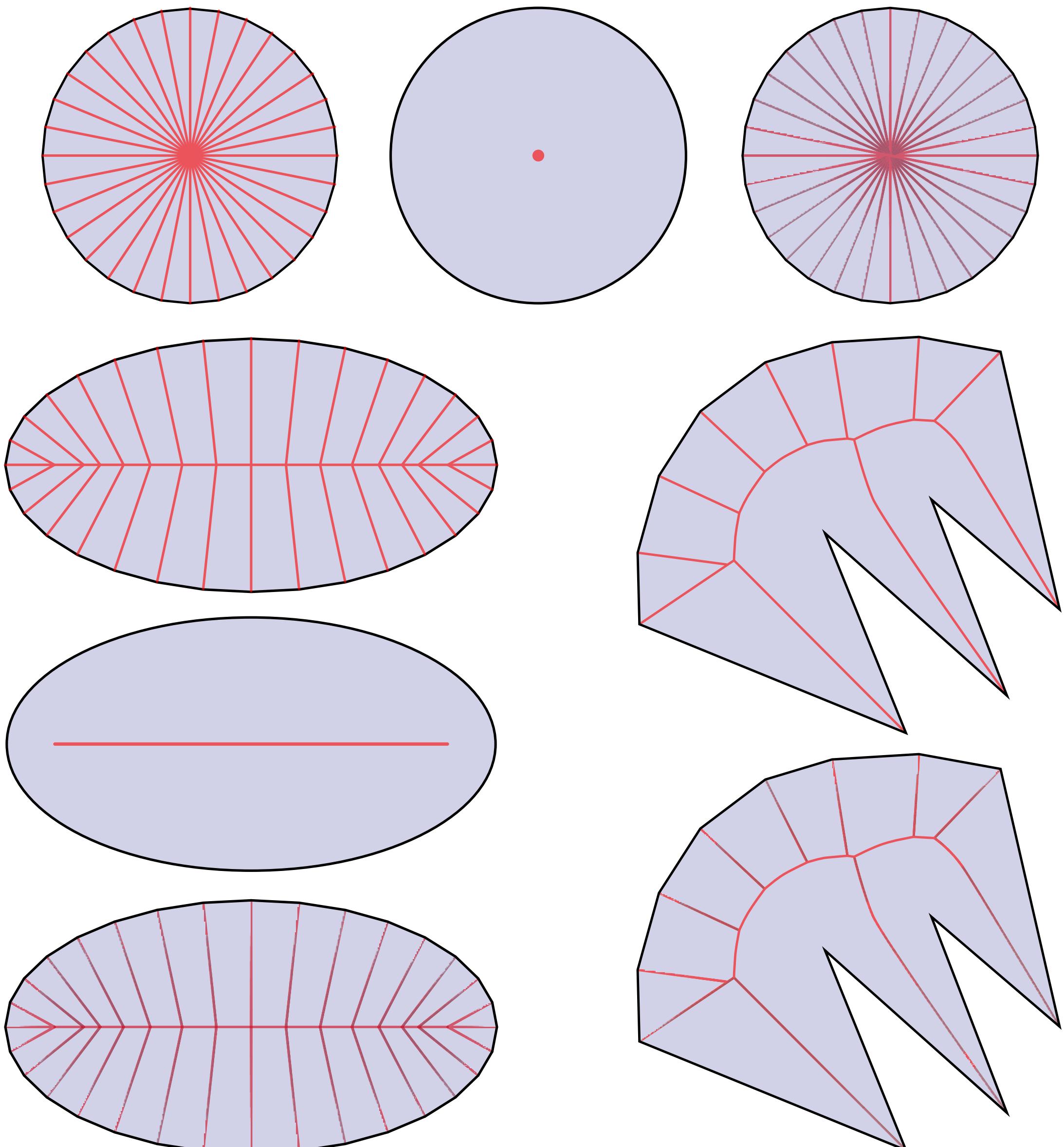
Discrete Medial Axis

- What does the medial axis of a discrete domain look like?
- Let's start with a square.
(What did the medial axis for a circle look like?)
- What about a rectangle?
(What happened with an ellipse?)
- How about a nonconvex polygon?
 - *surprise*: no longer just straight edges!



Discrete Medial Axis

- In general, medial axis touches *every* convex vertex
- May not look much like true (smooth) medial axis!
- One idea: “filter” using radius function...
 - still hard to say exactly which pieces should remain
- Lots of work on alternative “*shape skeletons*” for discrete curves & surfaces



Medial Axis in 3D

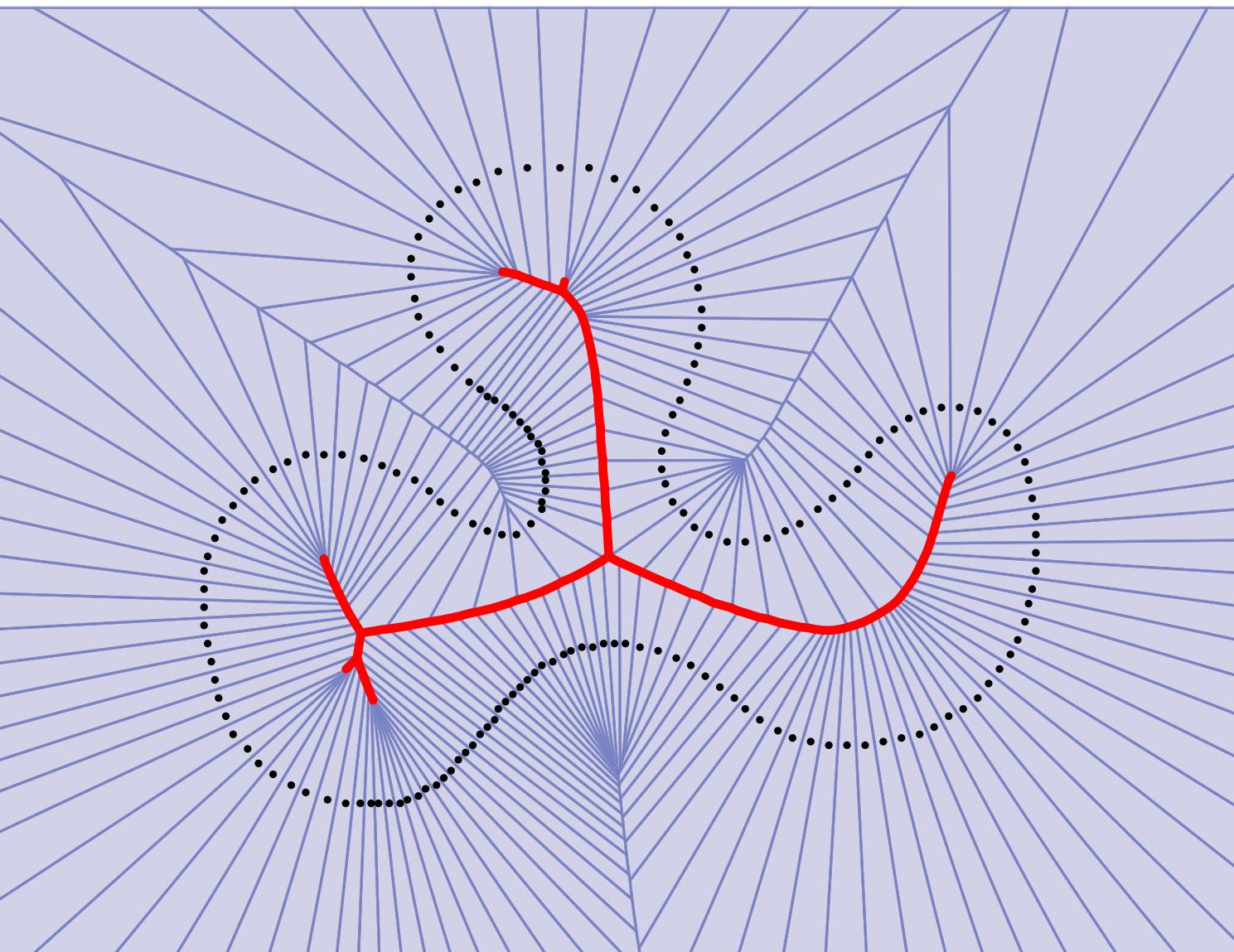
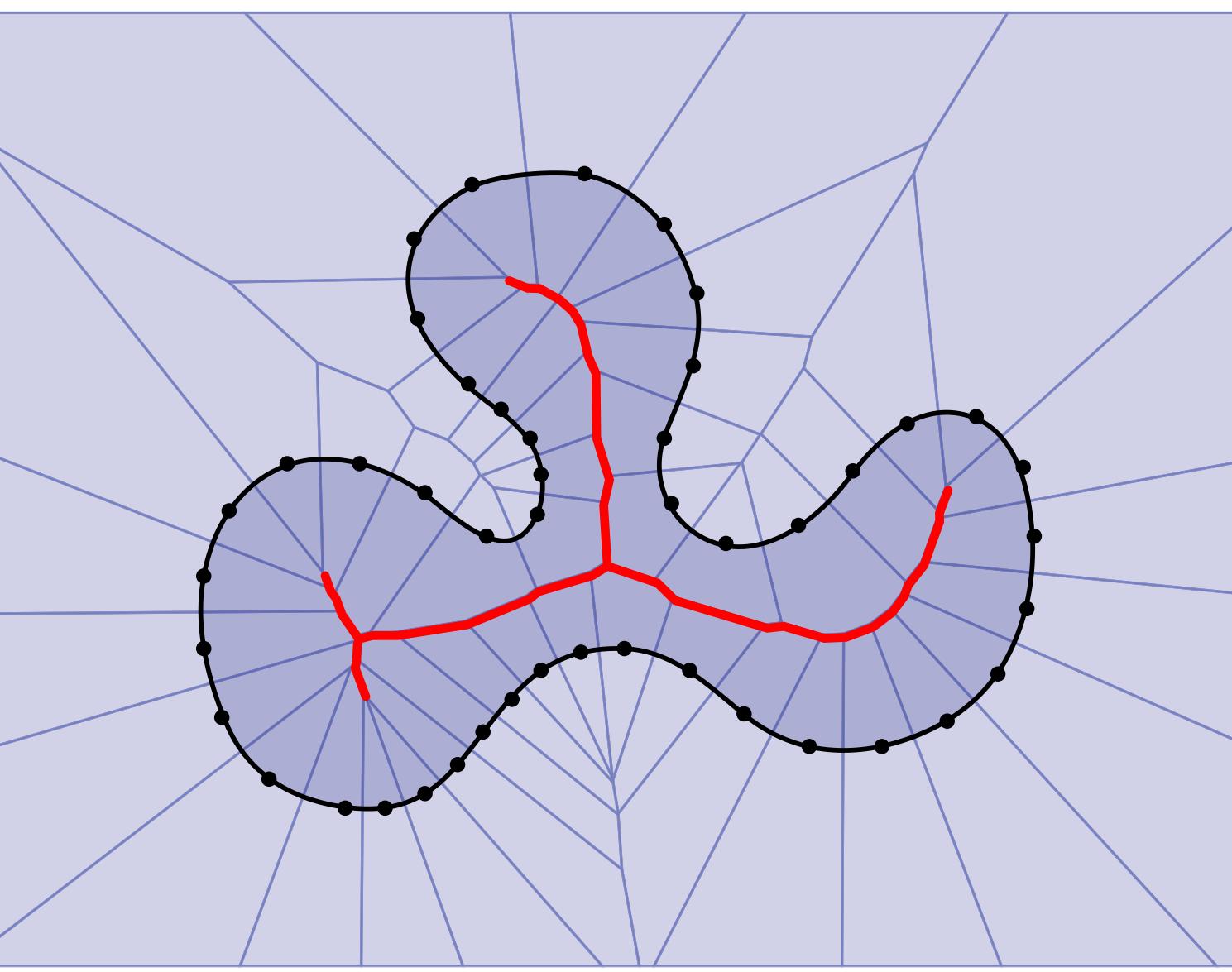
Same definition applies in any dimension—provides notion of “skeleton” for a shape:



Hard to compute exactly (e.g., quadratic pieces); often approximate by simplicial complex.

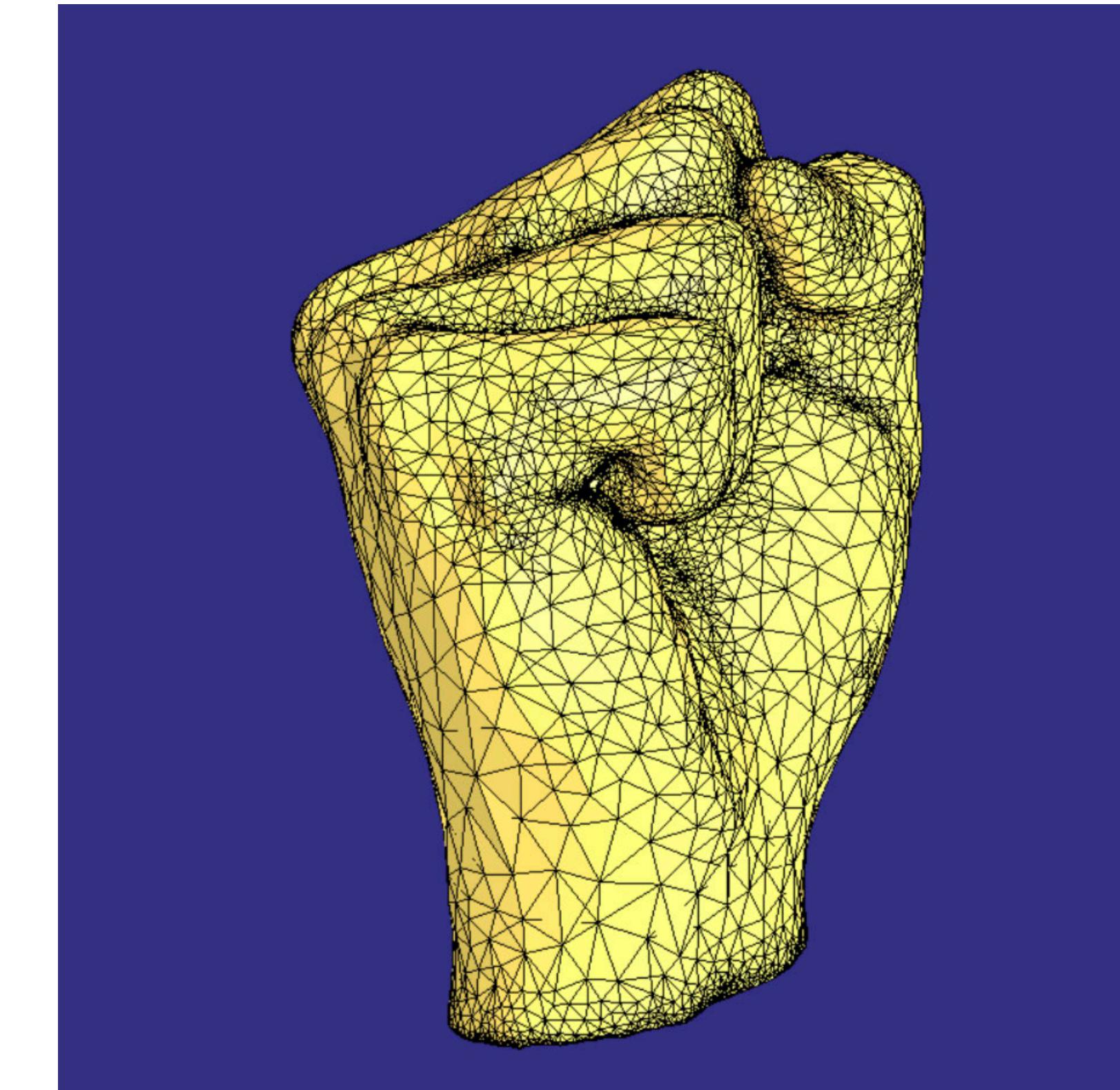
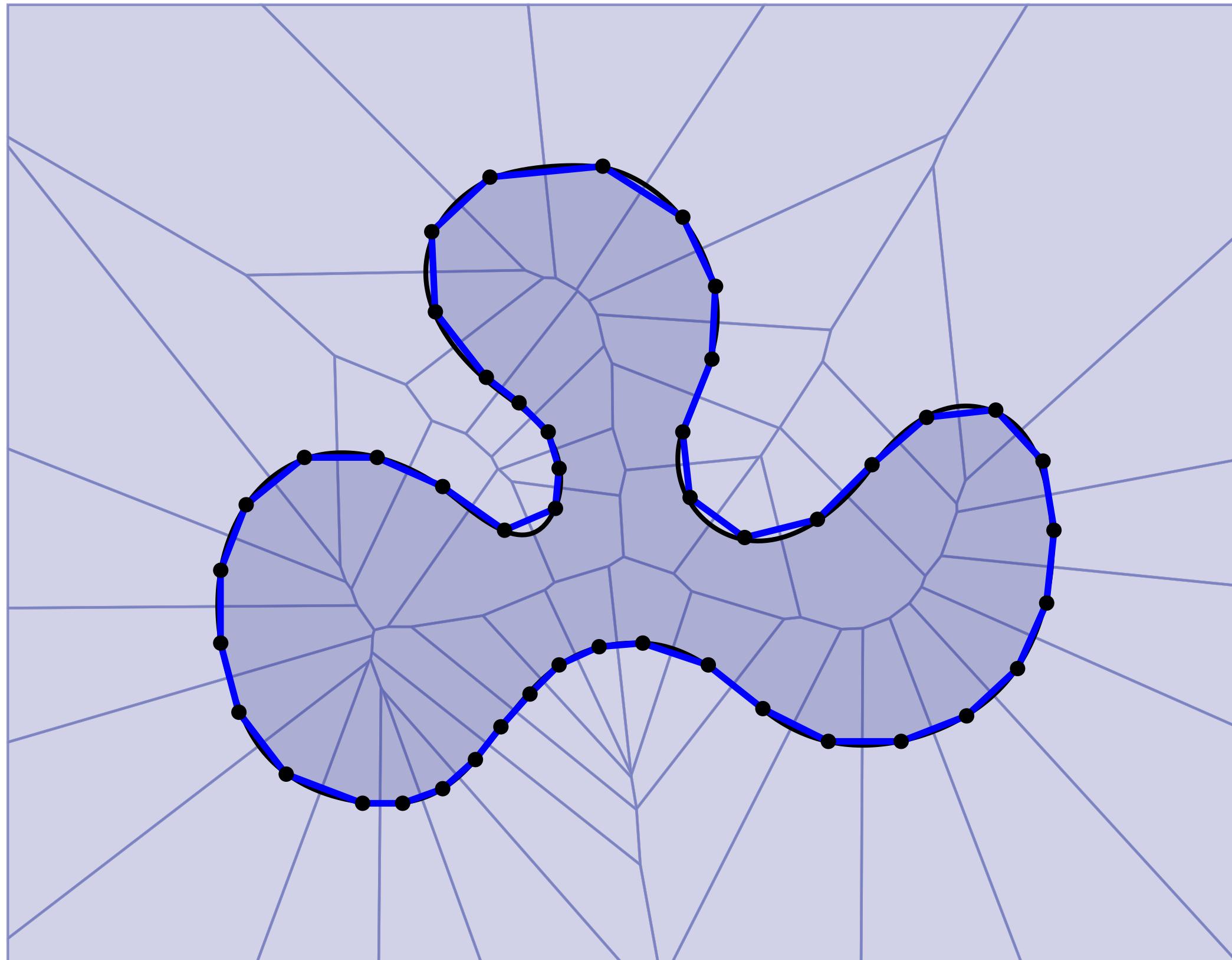
Computing the Medial Axis

- Many algorithms for computing / approximating medial axis & other “shape skeletons”
- One line of thought: use *Voronoi diagram* as starting point:
 - sample points on boundary
 - compute Voronoi diagram
 - keep “short” facets of tall / skinny cells
- With enough points, get correct topology



Medial Axis & Surface Reconstruction

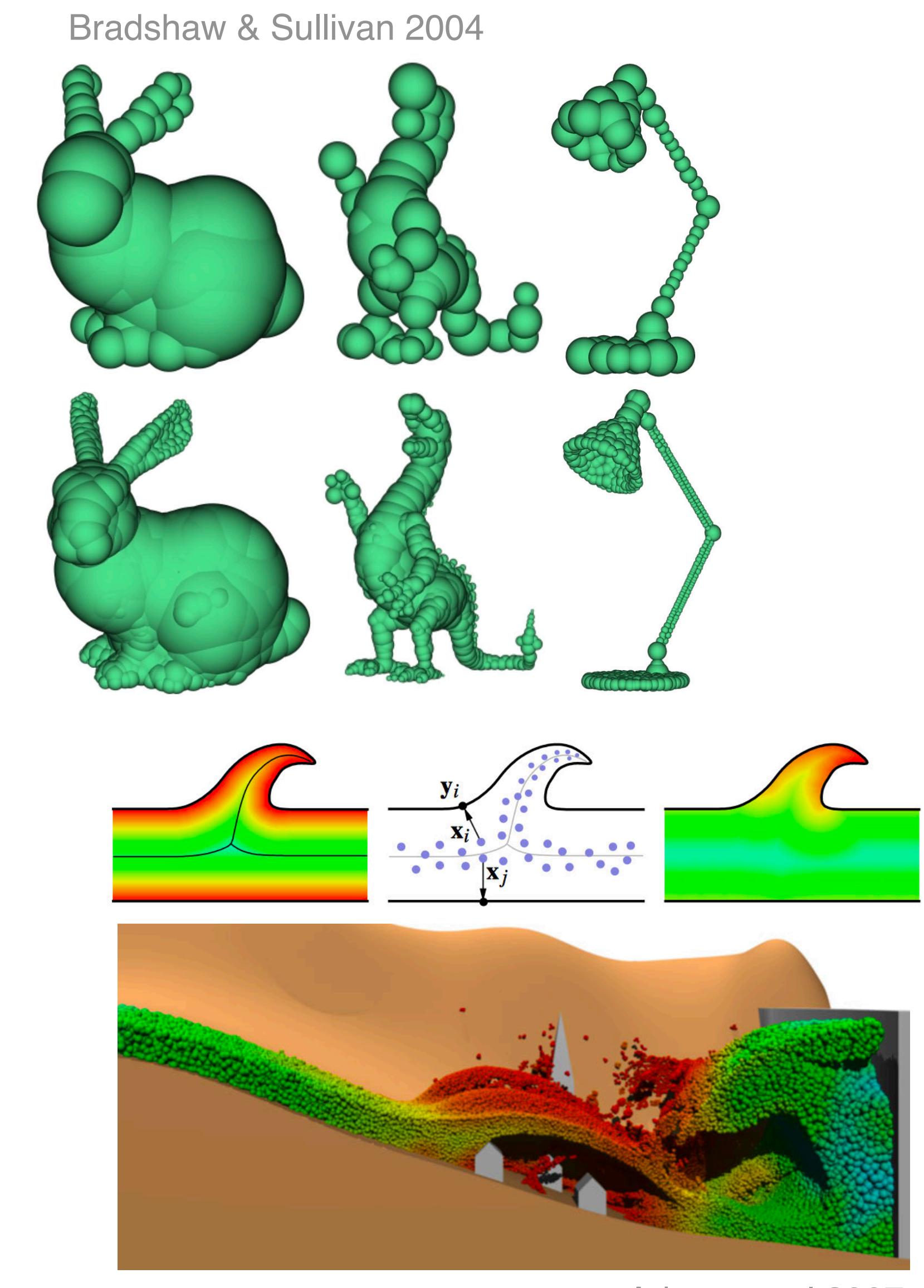
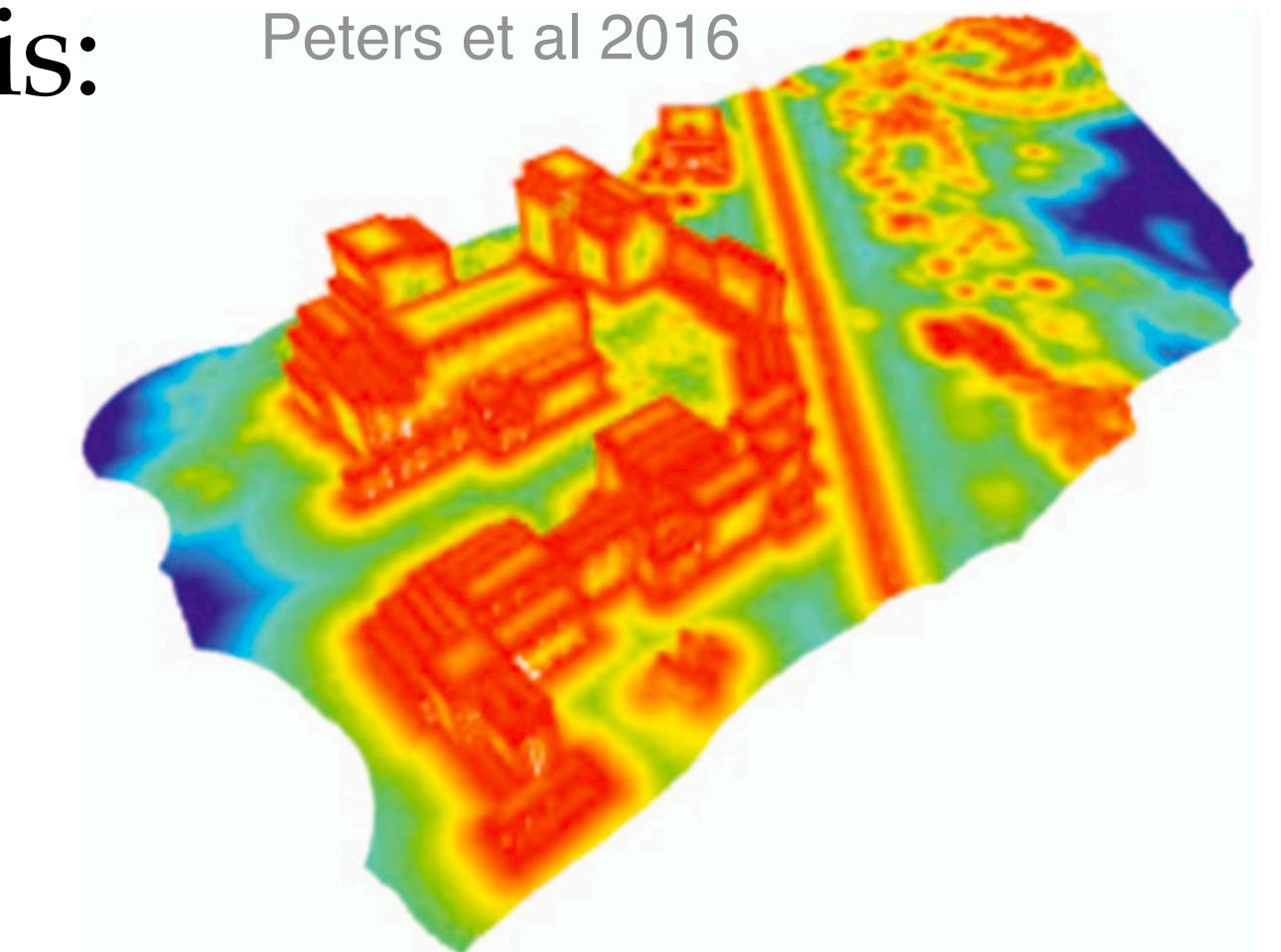
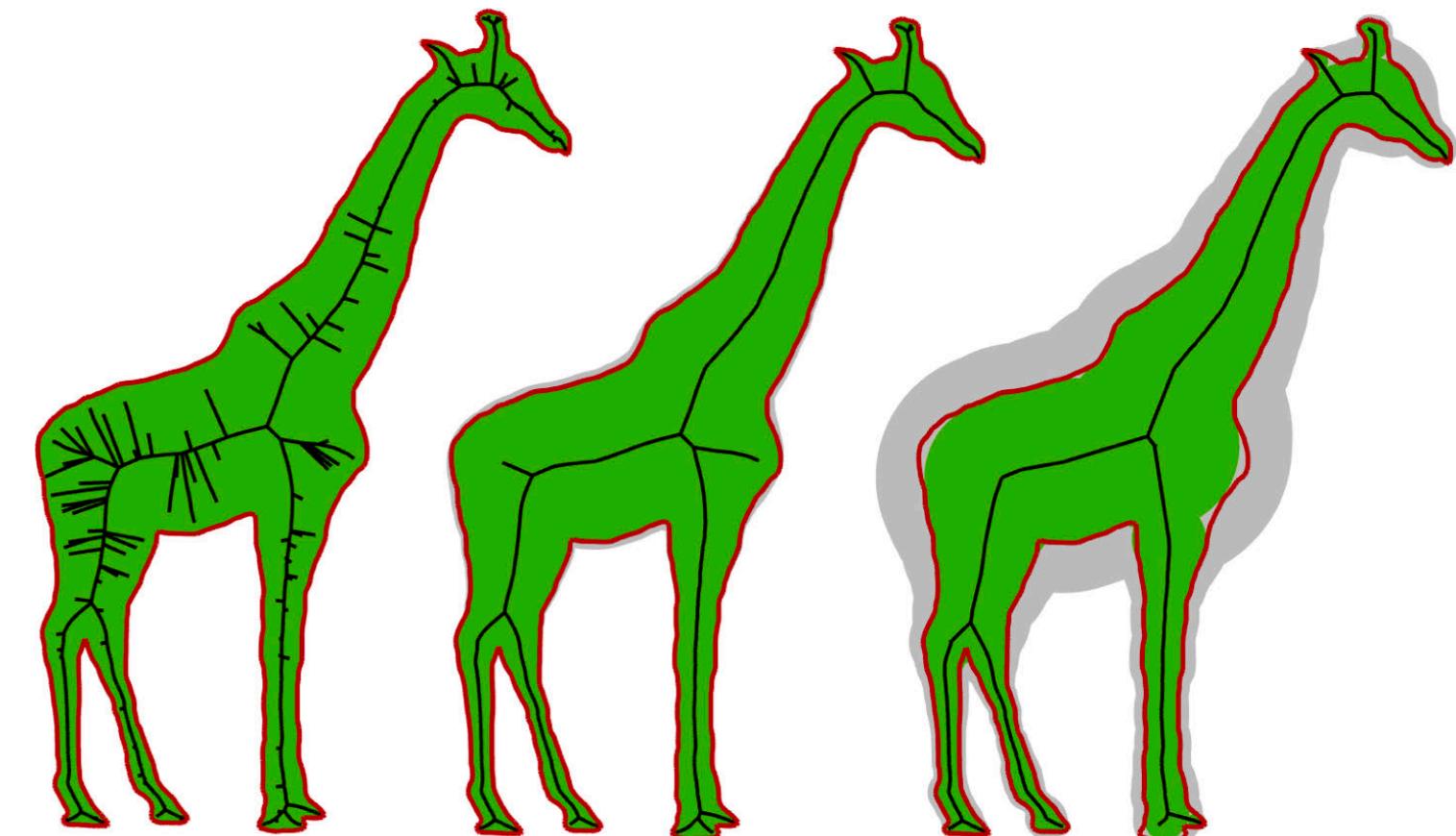
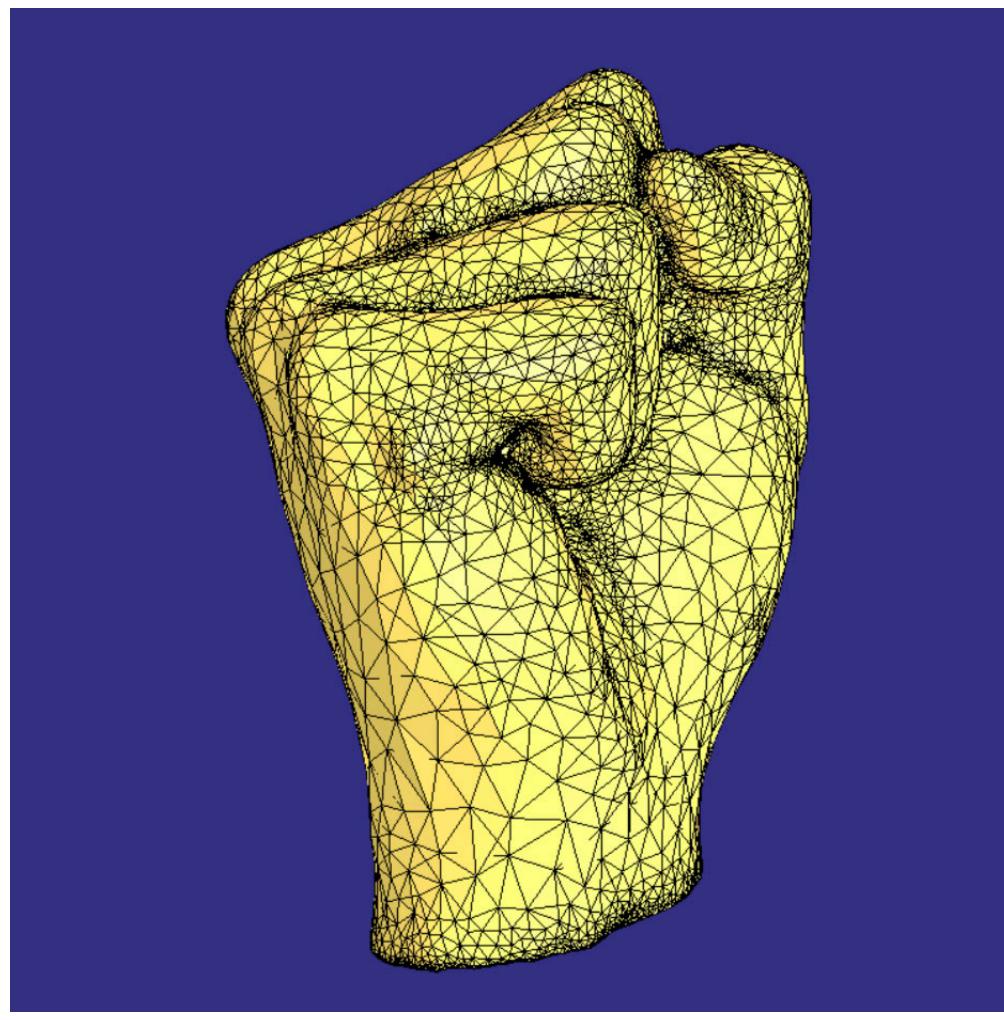
- Can use similar approach for **surface reconstruction** from points
 - connect *centers* of skinny cells that meet along “long” edges
- In 3D, gives surface reconstruction with guarantees on topology (w/ enough points)

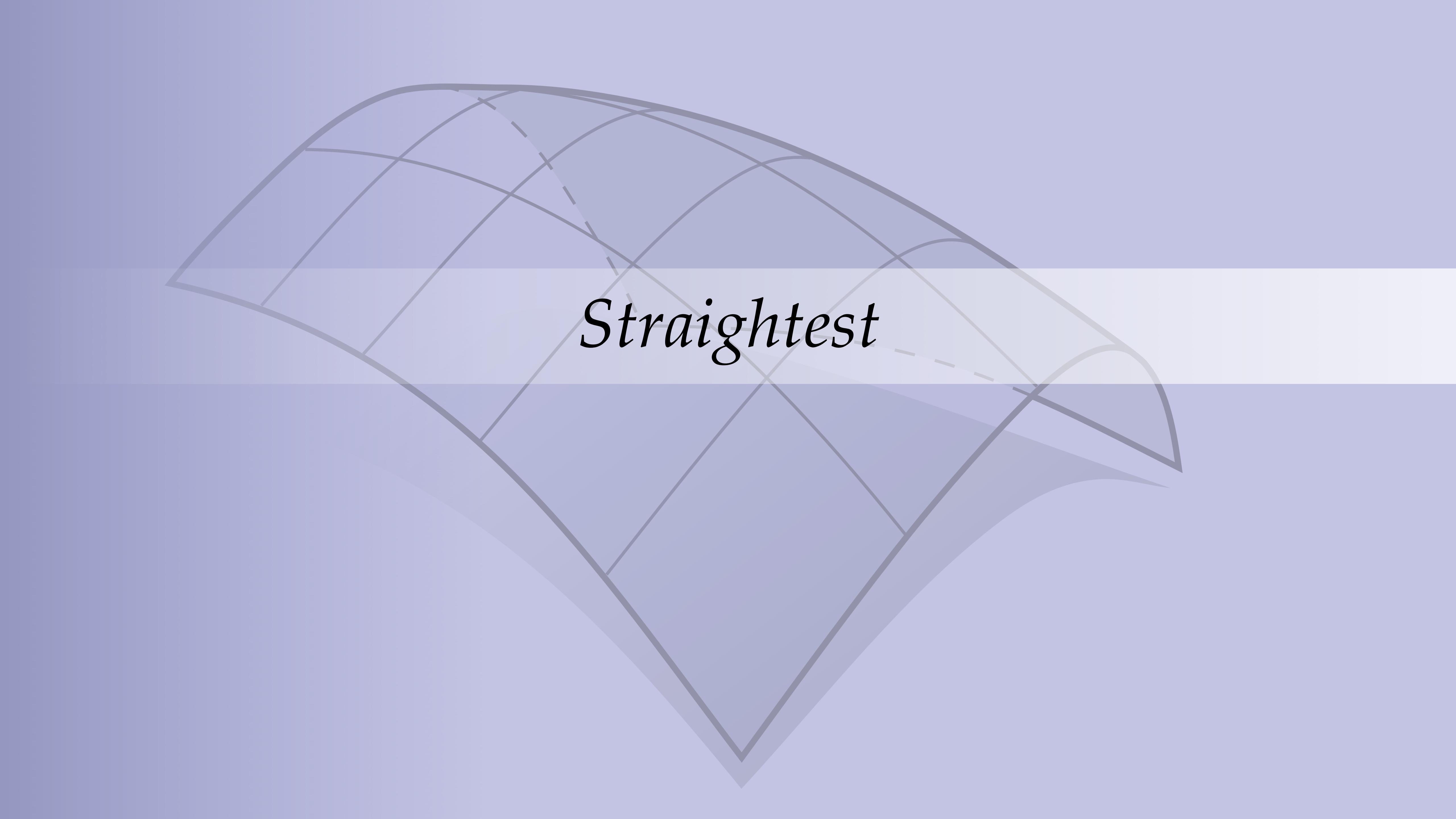


Amenta et al, "A New Voronoi-Based Surface Reconstruction Algorithm"

Medial Axis – Applications

- Many applications of medial axis:
 - surface reconstruction
 - shape skeletons
 - local feature size
 - fast collision detection
 - fluid simulation
 - ...

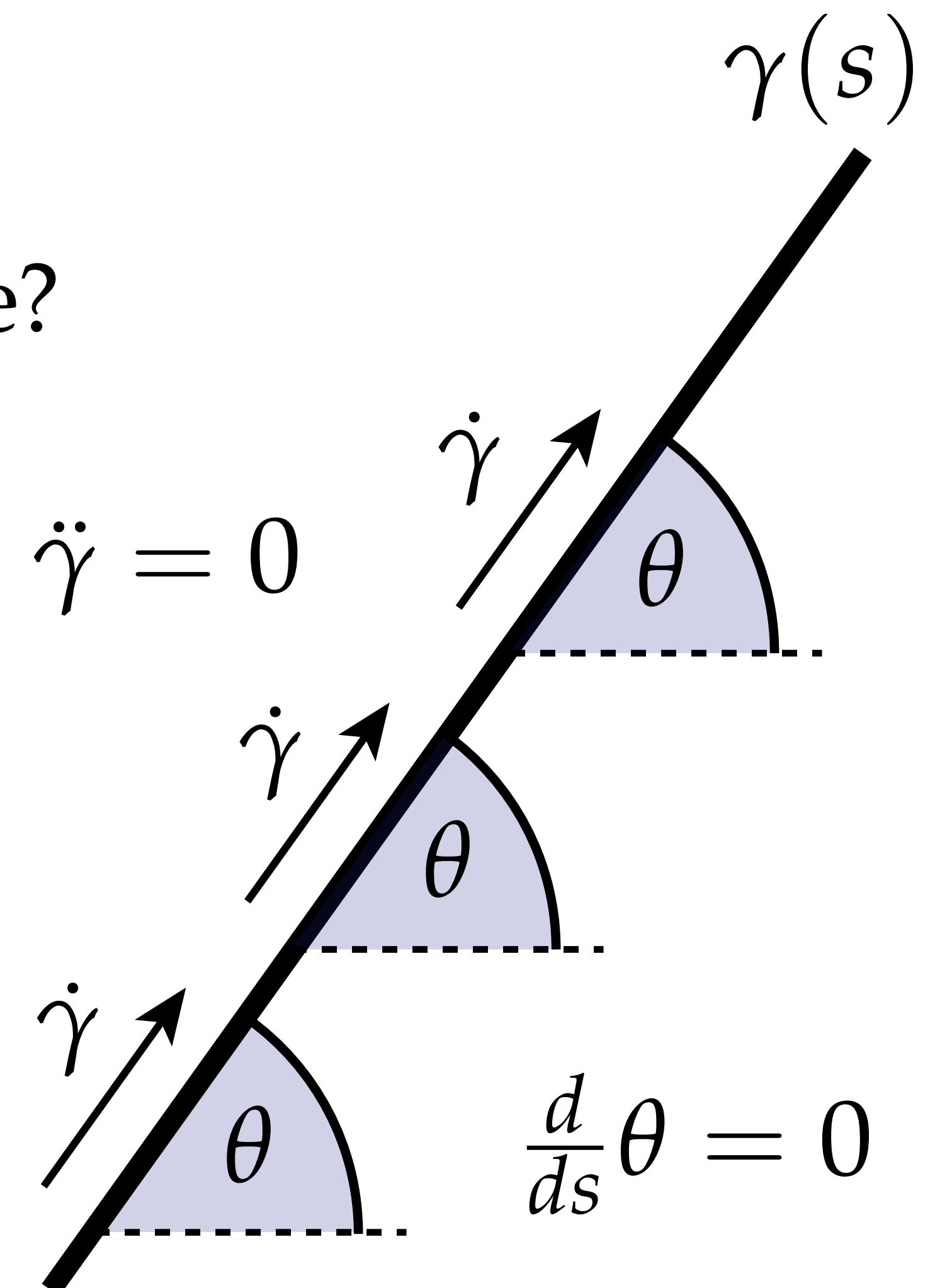




Straightest

Straightest Paths

- A Euclidean line can be characterized as a curve that is “as straight as possible”
- Q: How can we make this statement more precise?
 - **geometrically:** no curvature
 - **dynamically:** no acceleration
- How can we generalize to curves in manifolds?
 - **geometrically:** no *geodesic curvature*
 - **dynamically:** zero *covariant derivative*



Straightness – Geometric Perspective

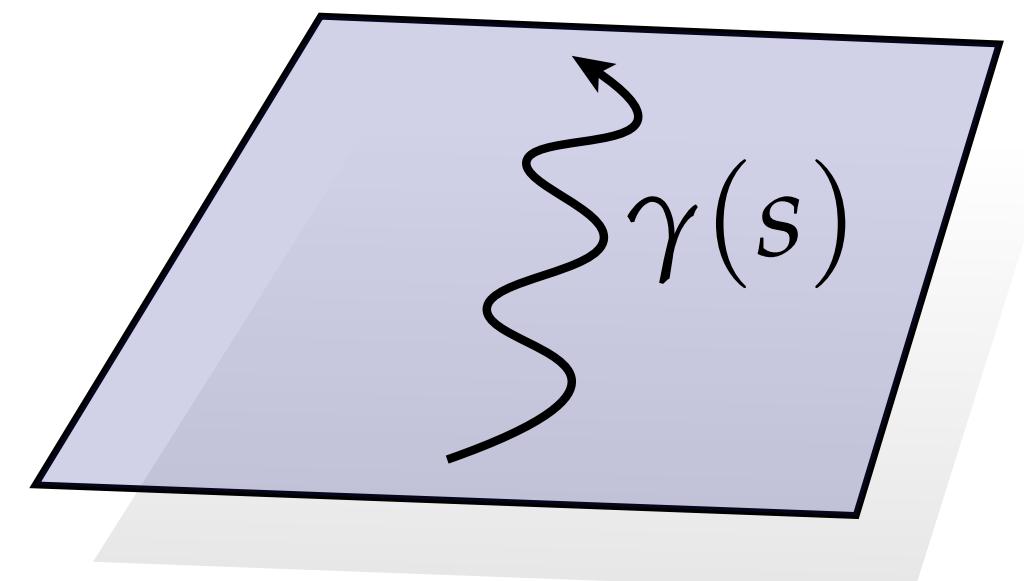
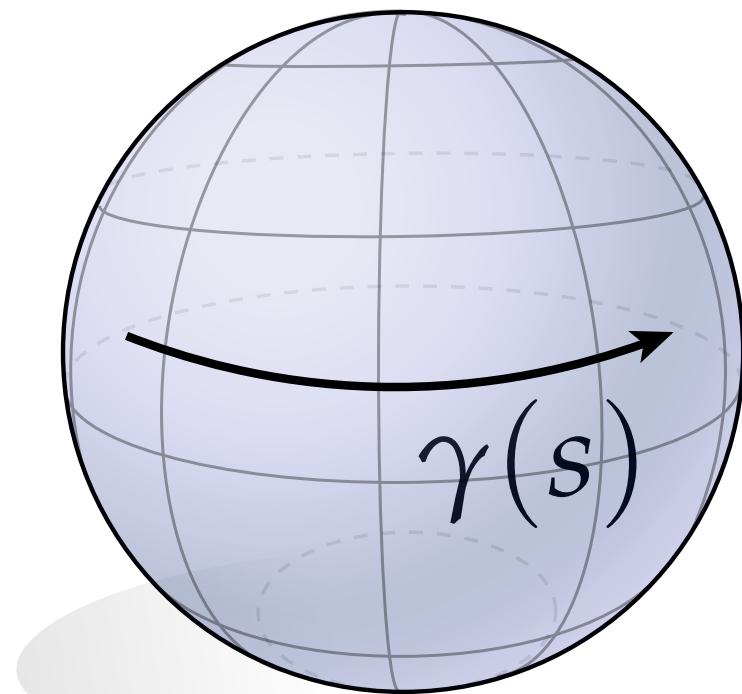
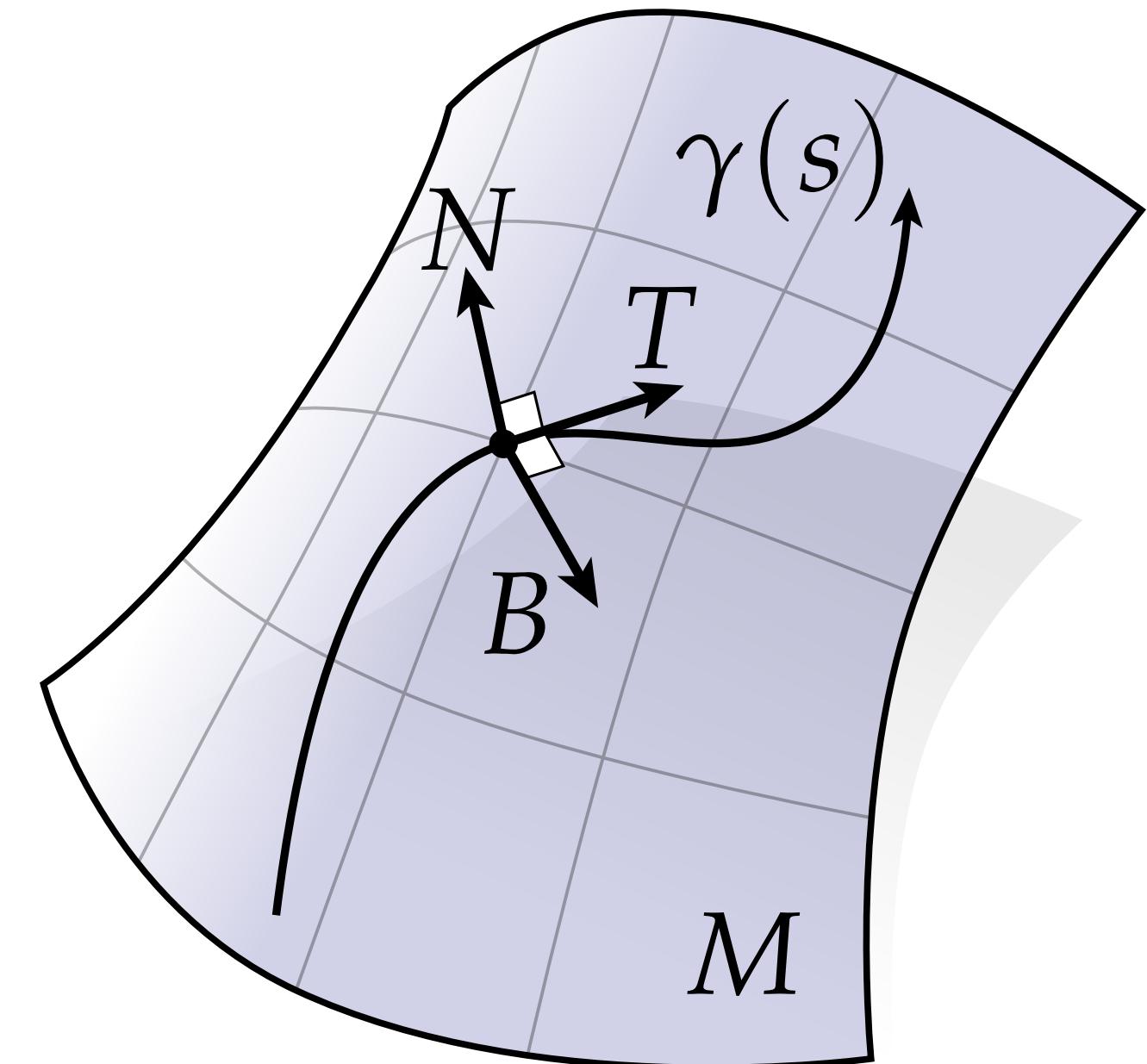
- Consider a curve $\gamma(s)$ with tangent T in a surface with normal N , and let $B := T \times N$.
- Can decompose “bending” into two pieces:

$$\kappa_n := \left\langle N, \frac{d}{ds} T \right\rangle \quad \text{normal curvature}$$

$$\kappa_g := \left\langle B, \frac{d}{ds} T \right\rangle \quad \text{geodesic curvature}$$

- Curve is “forced” to have normal curvature due to curvature of M
- Any additional bending beyond this minimal amount is geodesic curvature

Key idea: geodesic is curve where $\kappa_g = 0$



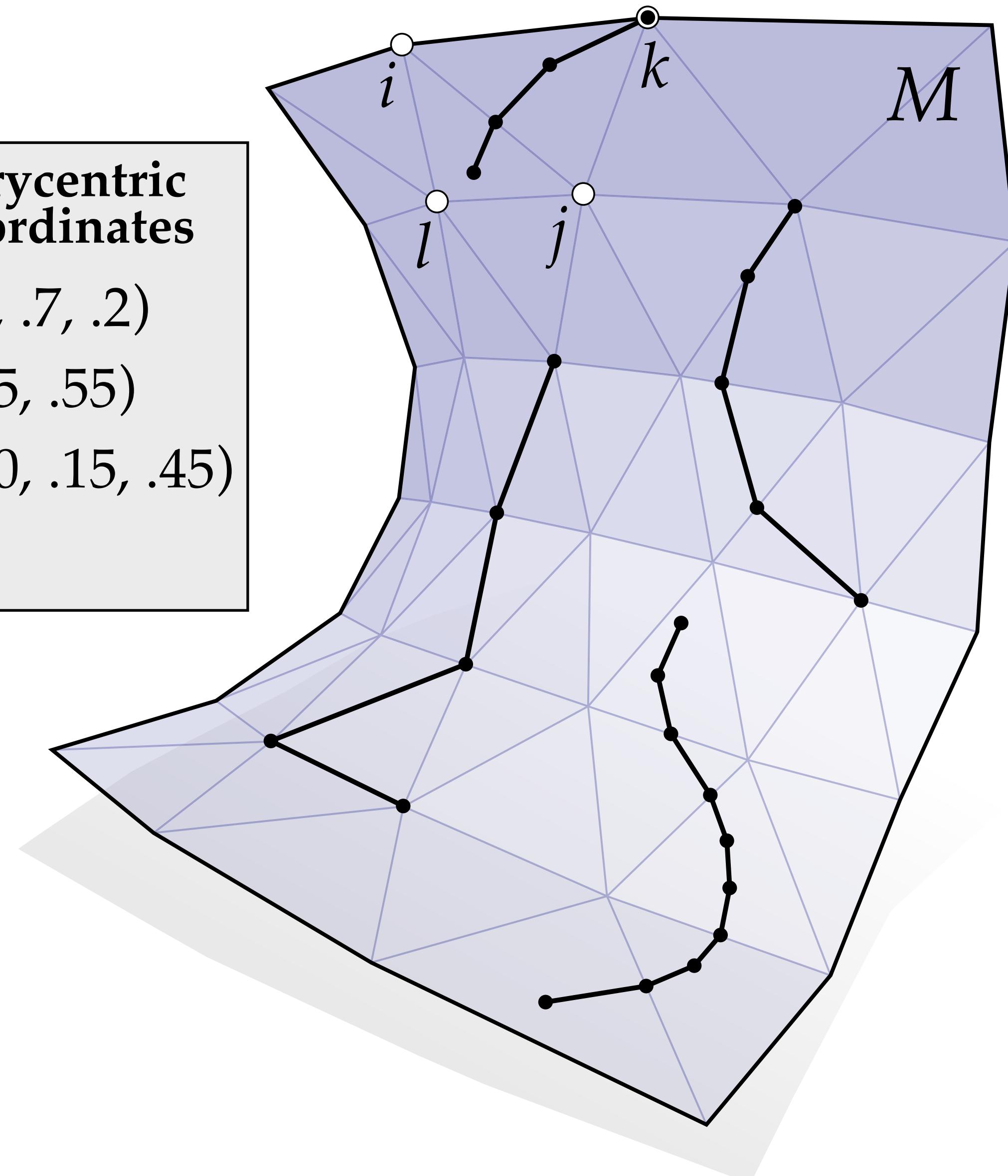
large κ_n ;
small κ_g

large κ_g ;
small κ_n

Discrete Curves on Discrete Surfaces

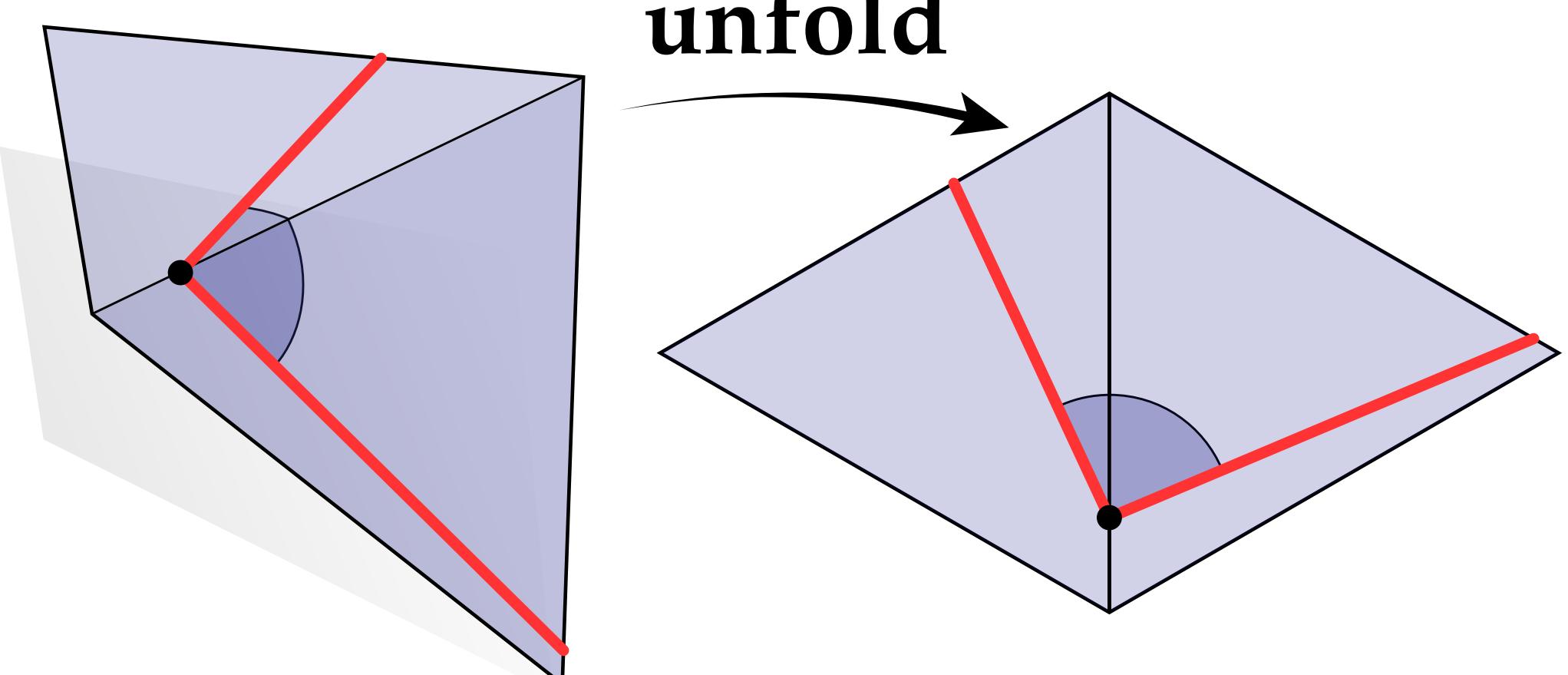
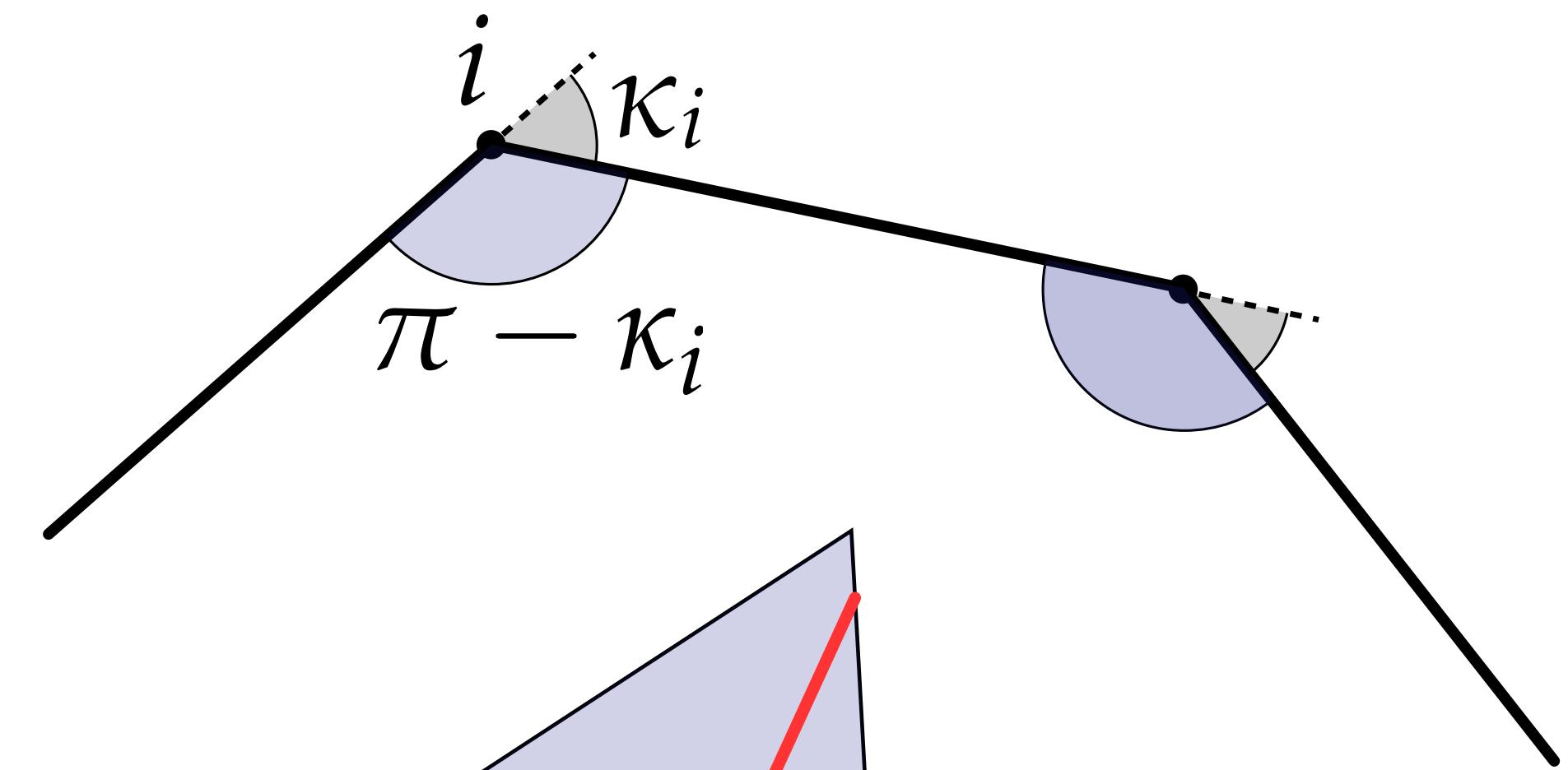
- To understand straightest curves on discrete surfaces, first have to define what we mean by a *discrete curve*
- One definition: a discrete curve in a simplicial surface M is any continuous curve γ that is piecewise linear in each simplex
- Doesn't have to be a path of edges: could pass through faces, have multiple vertices in one face, ...
- Encode as sequence of simplices (not all same degree), and barycentric coordinates for each simplex

simplex	barycentric coordinates
ilj	(.1, .7, .2)
ij	(.45, .55)
ijk	(.40, .15, .45)
k	(1)



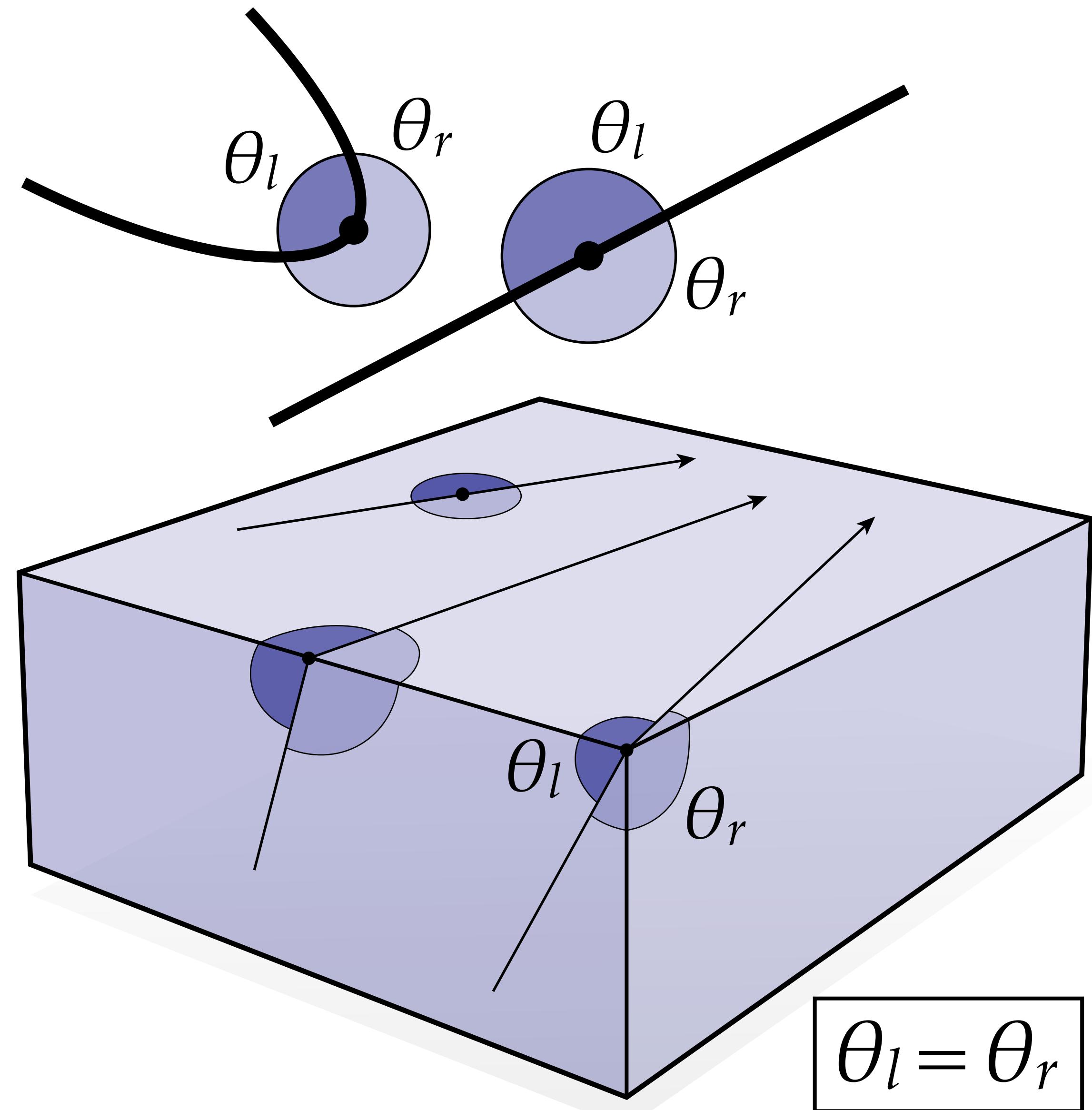
Discrete Geodesic Curvature

- For planar curve, one definition of discrete curvature was *turning angle* κ_i
- Since most points of a simplicial surface are *intrinsically flat*, can adopt this same definition for discrete geodesic curvature
- *Faces*: just measure angle between segments
- *Edges*: “unfold” and measure angle
- *Vertices*: not as simple—can’t unfold!
 - Recall trouble w/ **shortest geodesics...**



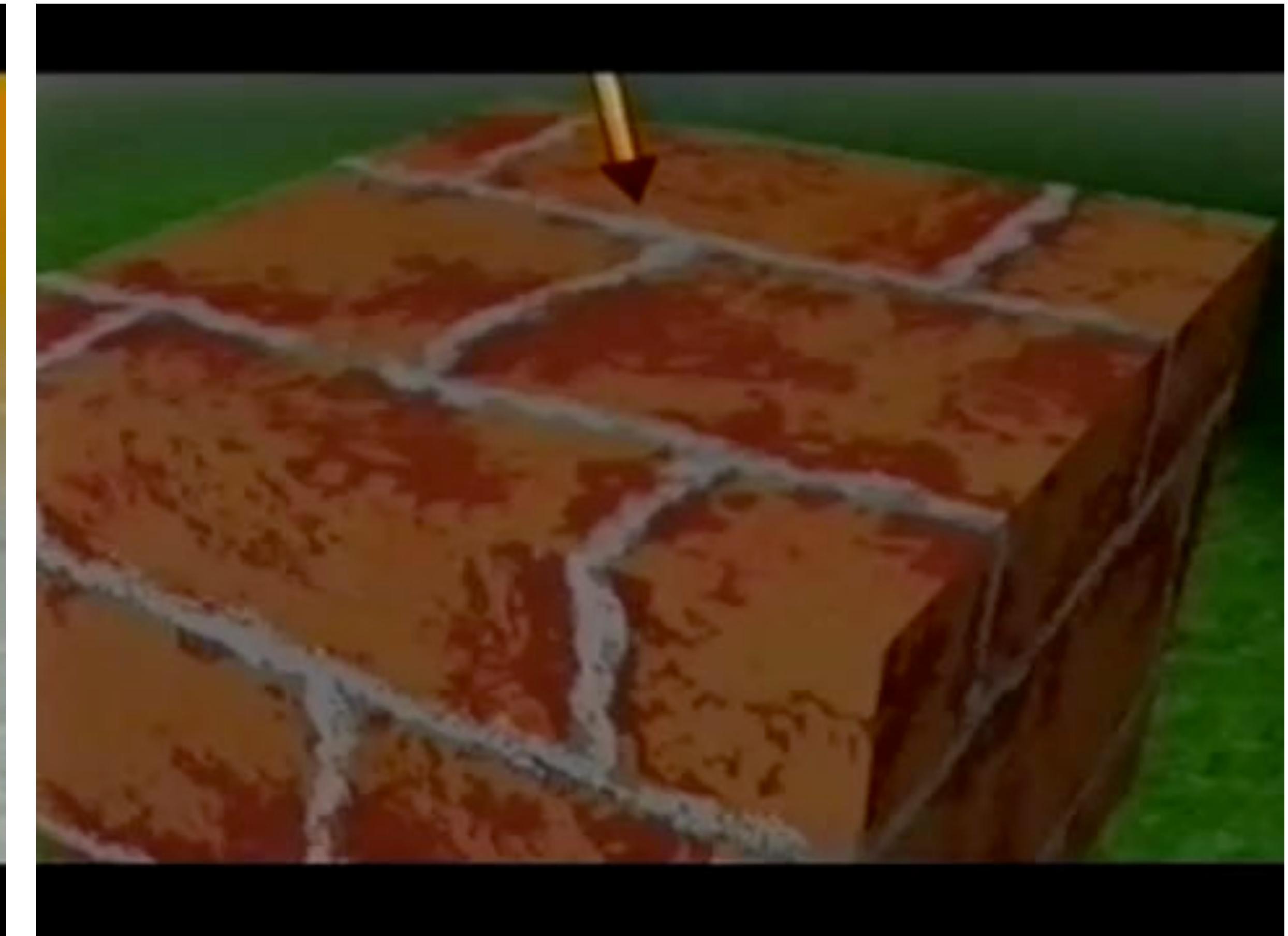
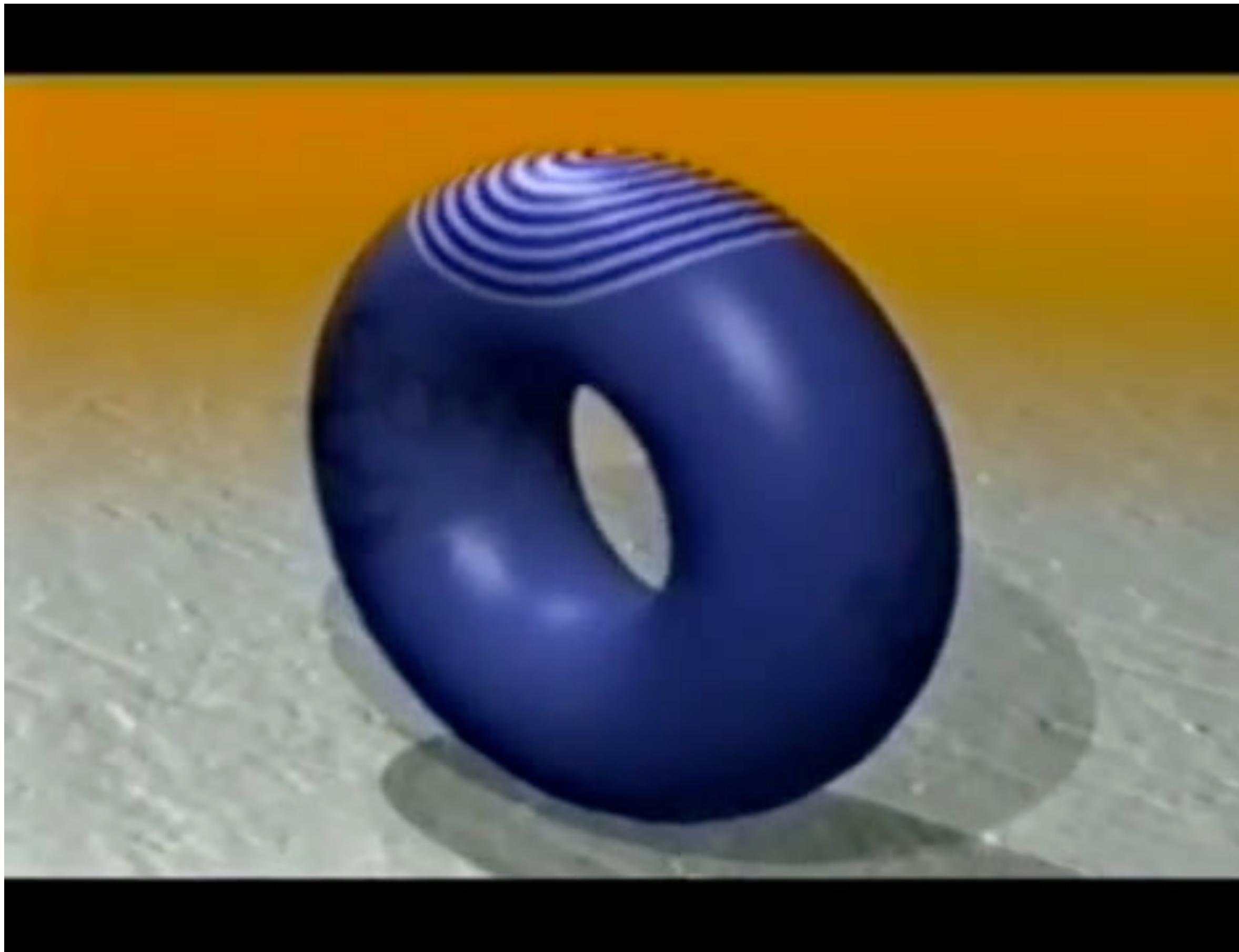
Discrete Straightest Geodesics

- In the smooth setting, characterized geodesics as curves with zero geodesic curvature
- In the discrete setting, have a hard time at vertices: can't unfold, no *shortest* paths through some vertices...
- Alternative smooth characterization: just have same angle on either side of the curve
- Translates naturally to the discrete setting: equal angle sum on either side of the curve
- Provides definition of discrete **straightest** geodesics (Polthier & Schmies 1998)



Geodesics and Waves

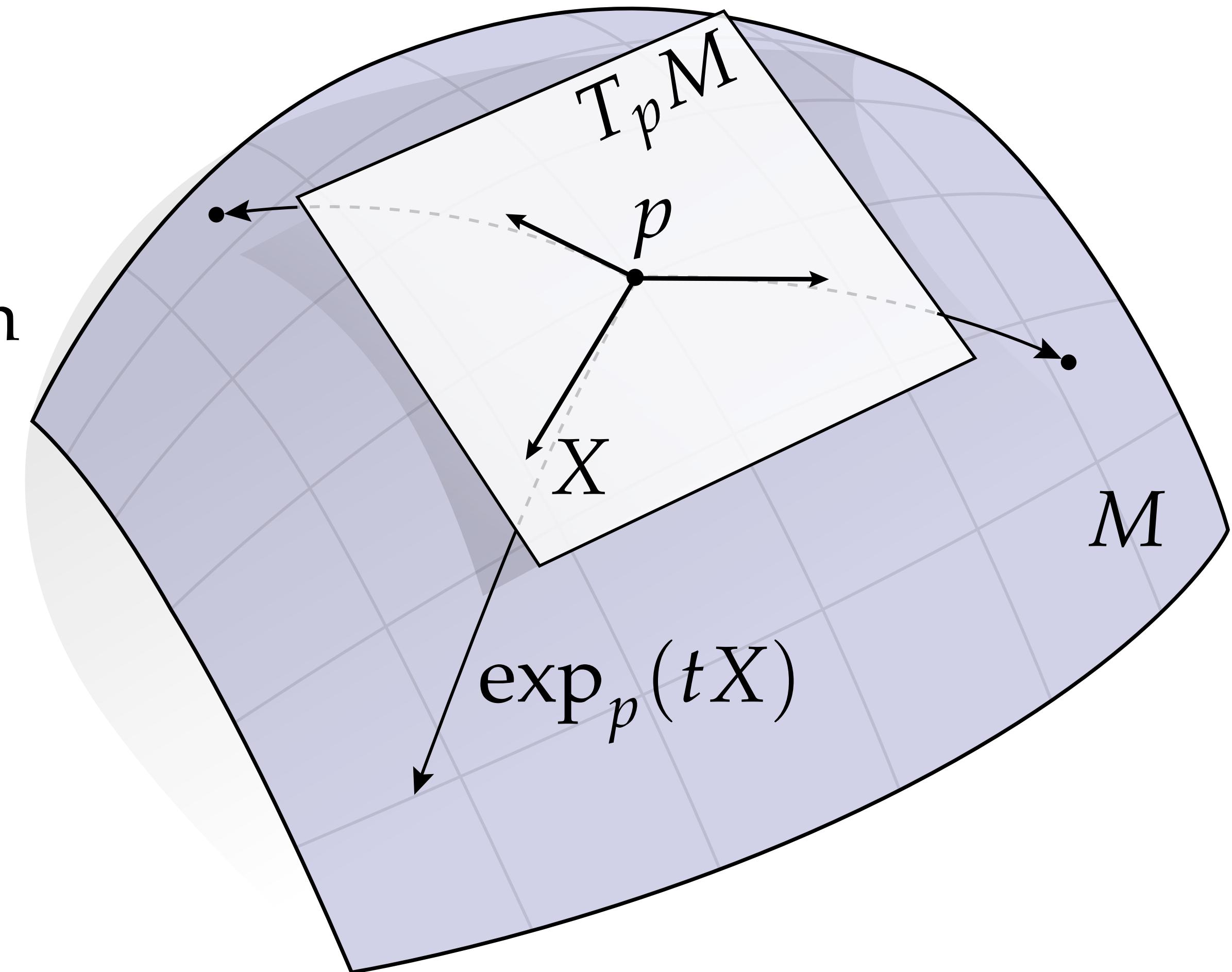
Might seem that geodesics are “unlikely” to pass exactly through a vertex, but consider simulating a continuous wavefront—how should it behave when it hits a vertex?



Exponential Map

- At a point p of a smooth surface M , the *exponential map* $\exp_p: T_p M \rightarrow M$ takes a tangent vector X to the point reached by walking along a geodesic in the direction $X/|X|$ for distance $|X|$

exponential map at p tangent vectors points
 $\exp_p: T_p M \rightarrow M$



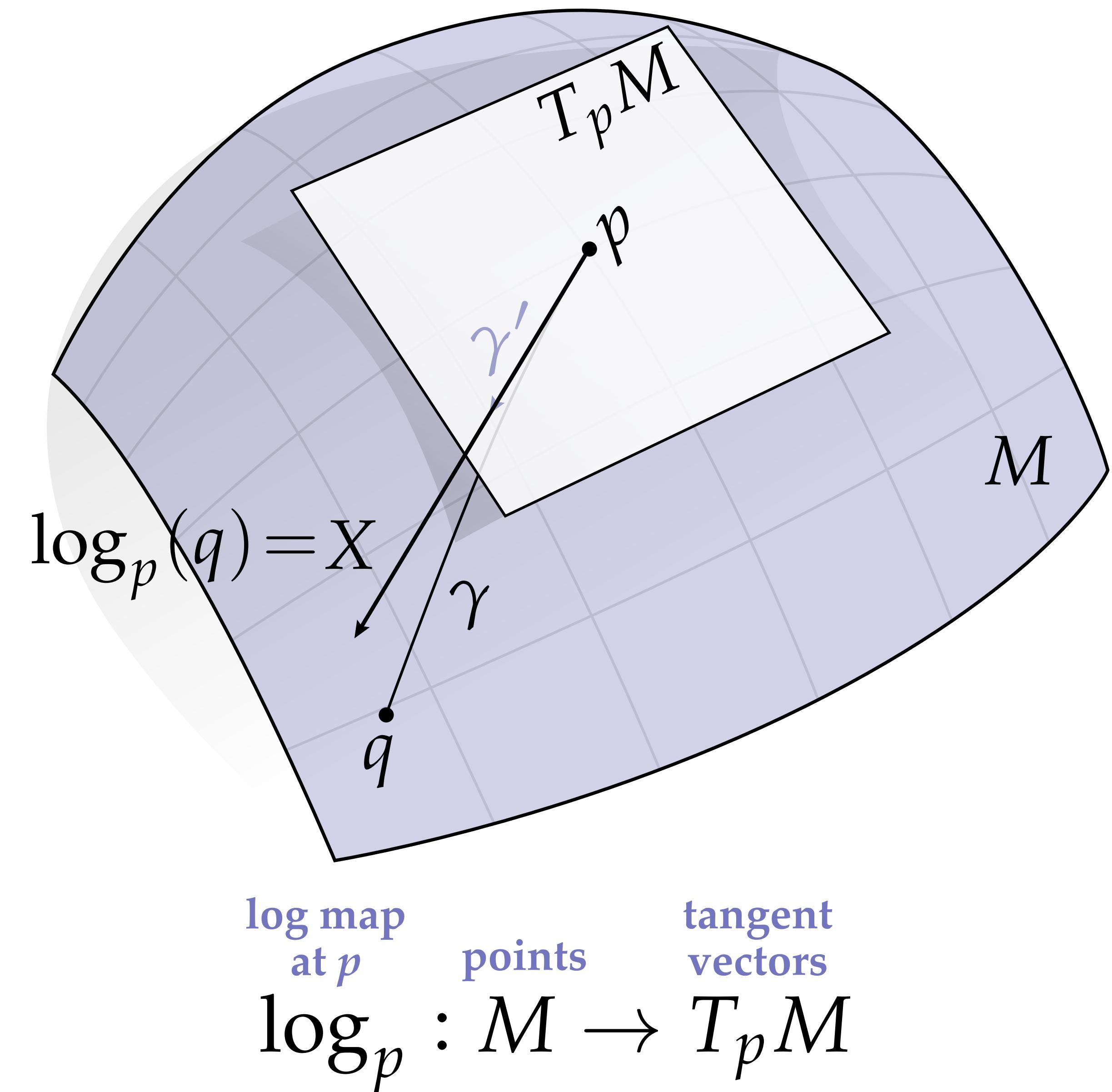
- Can also imagine that \exp “wraps” the tangent plane around the surface

Key idea: provides notion of “translation” for curved domains

Logarithmic Map

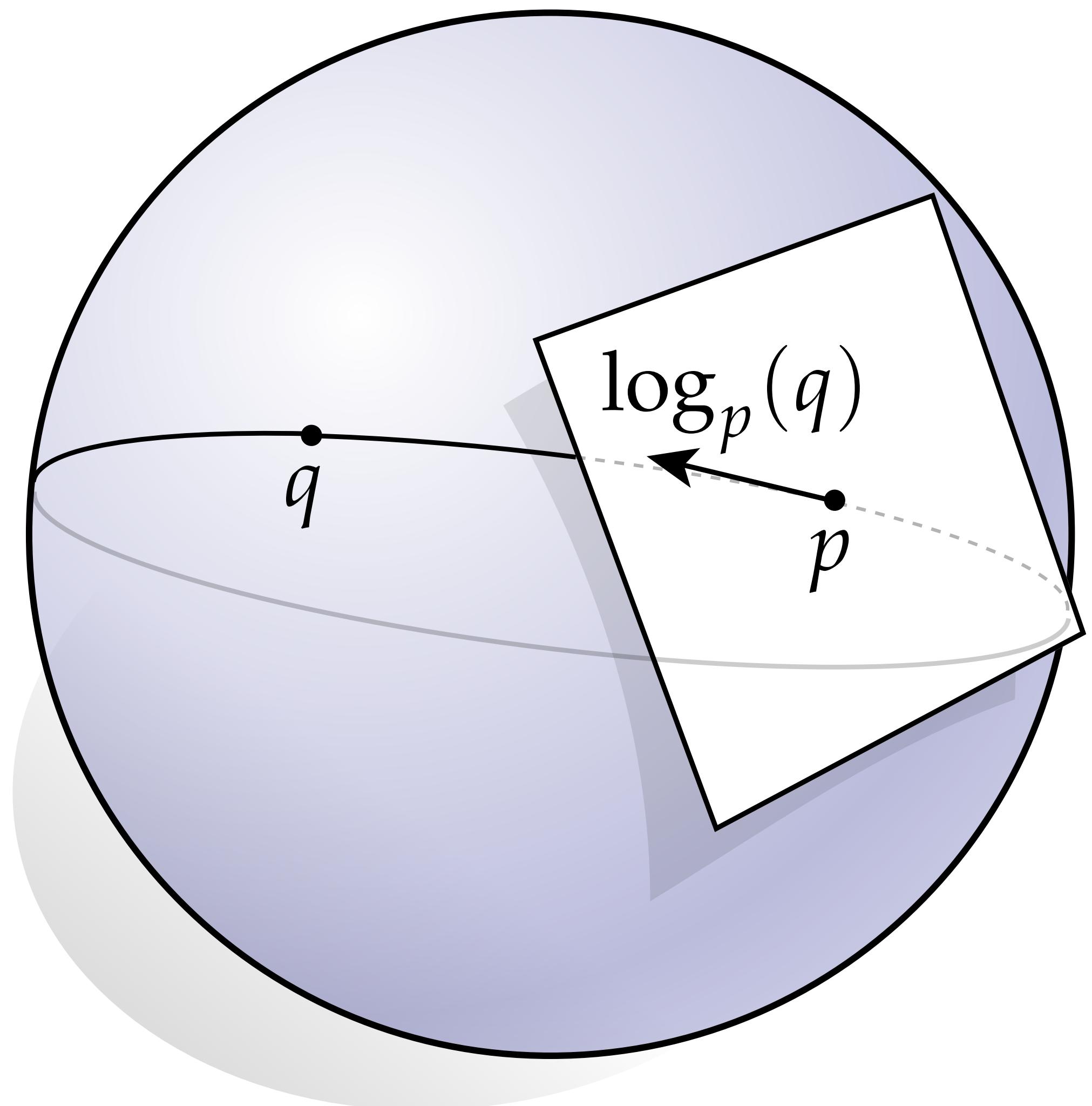
- Q: Is the exponential map *surjective*? I.e., can we reach every point q from p ?
- A: Yes (Hopf-Rinow): Consider a smooth surface M without boundary. Then
 - find the shortest geodesic γ from p to q
 - let X be a vector in direction γ' w/ length $|\gamma|$
 - then by construction, $\exp_p(X) = q$
 - Can also write $\log_p(q) = X$
- Map from q to X is called the *log map*

Q: Is the log map uniquely determined?



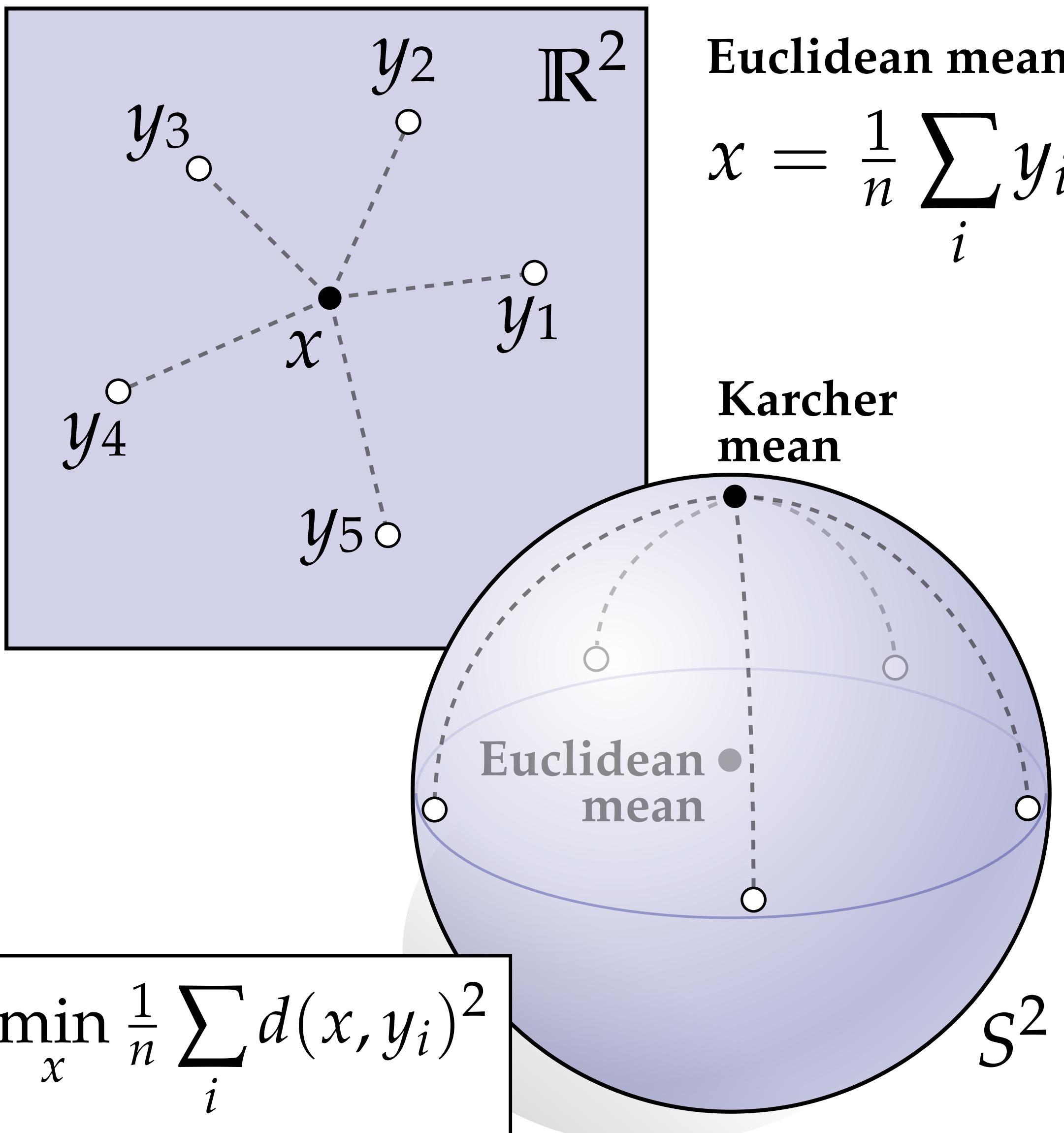
Exponential Map – Injectivity

- Equivalently, is the exponential map always *injective*? (I.e., is there a unique geodesic that takes us from p to q ?)
- No! Consider the exponential map on the sphere...
- By convention, log map therefore gives the *smallest* vector X such that $\exp_p(X) = q$
- Q: Why are exp/log map useful?
- A: Allows us to *locally* work with points on curved spaces as though they are just vectors in a flat space



Averages on Surfaces

- Average of points in the plane is easy: just add up coordinates, divide by number of points
- How do we talk about an average of points on a curved surface?
 - average of coordinates may no longer be on the surface
 - might not even know how surface is embedded into space...
- Motivates idea of *Karcher mean*:
 - average is point that minimizes sum of squared geodesic distances to all points
 - in the plane, agrees with usual notion of “average” in the plane (why?)

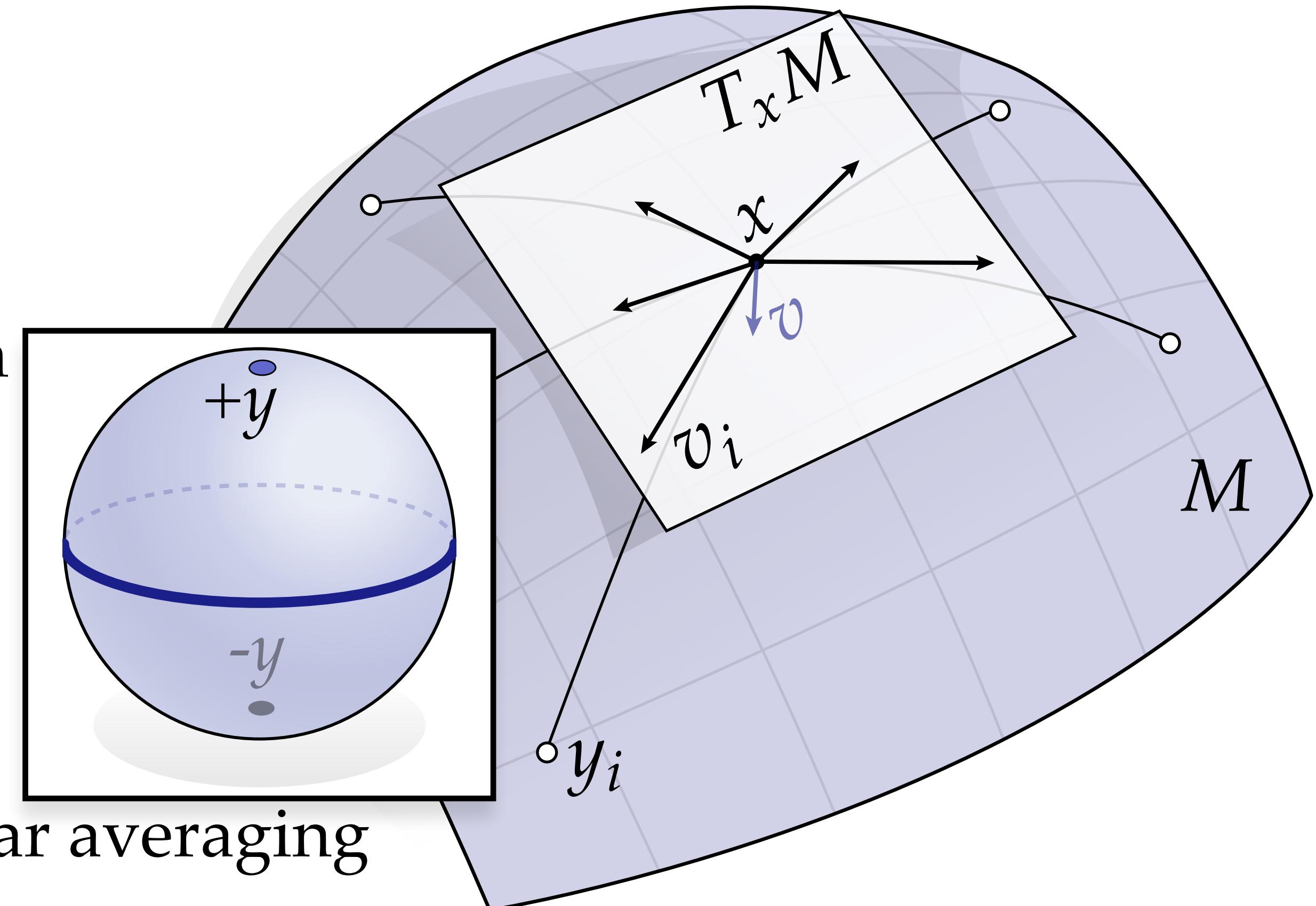


Karcher Mean via Log Map

- Want to compute mean of points y_i
- Iterative algorithm:
 - pick a random initial starting point x
 - compute the log v_i of all points y_i
 - compute the mean v of all the vectors v_i
 - move x to $\exp_x(v)$ and repeat
- Will quickly converge to *some* Karcher mean
 - in general may not be unique—consider two points $y_1 = -y_2$ on the sphere
- Can also be used to average, e.g., rotations

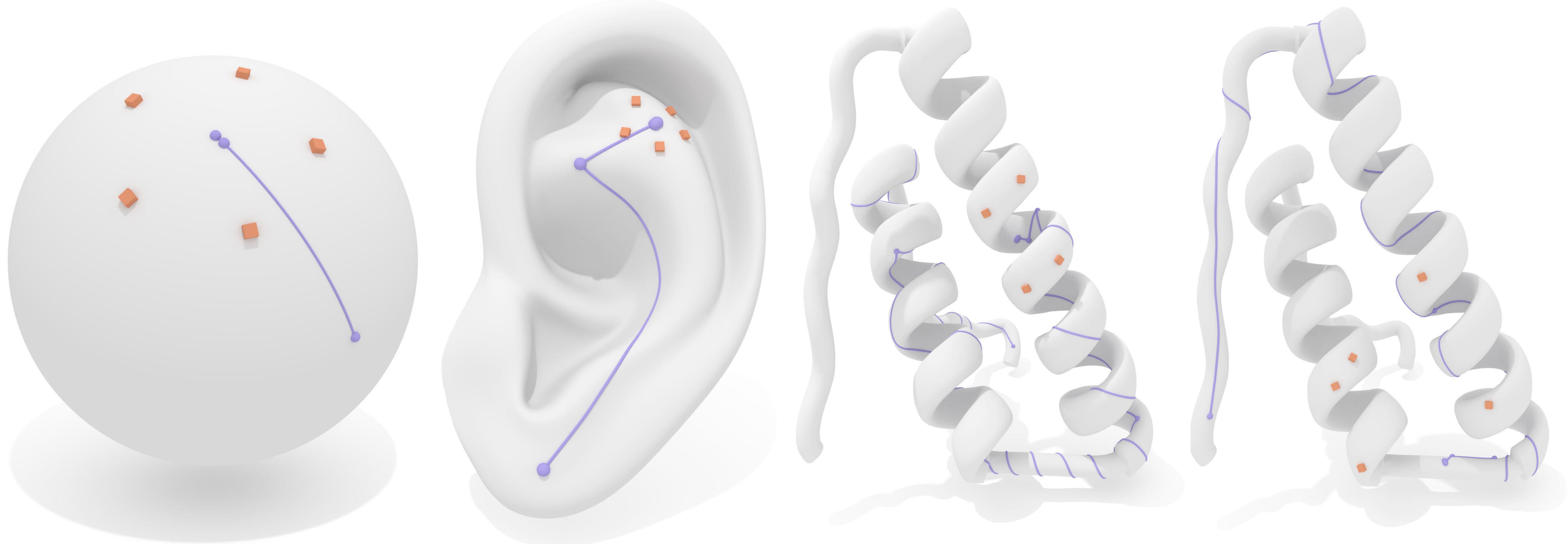
$$v \leftarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \log_x(y_i)$$

$$x \leftarrow \exp_x(v)$$



Key idea: turn “curved averaging” into linear averaging

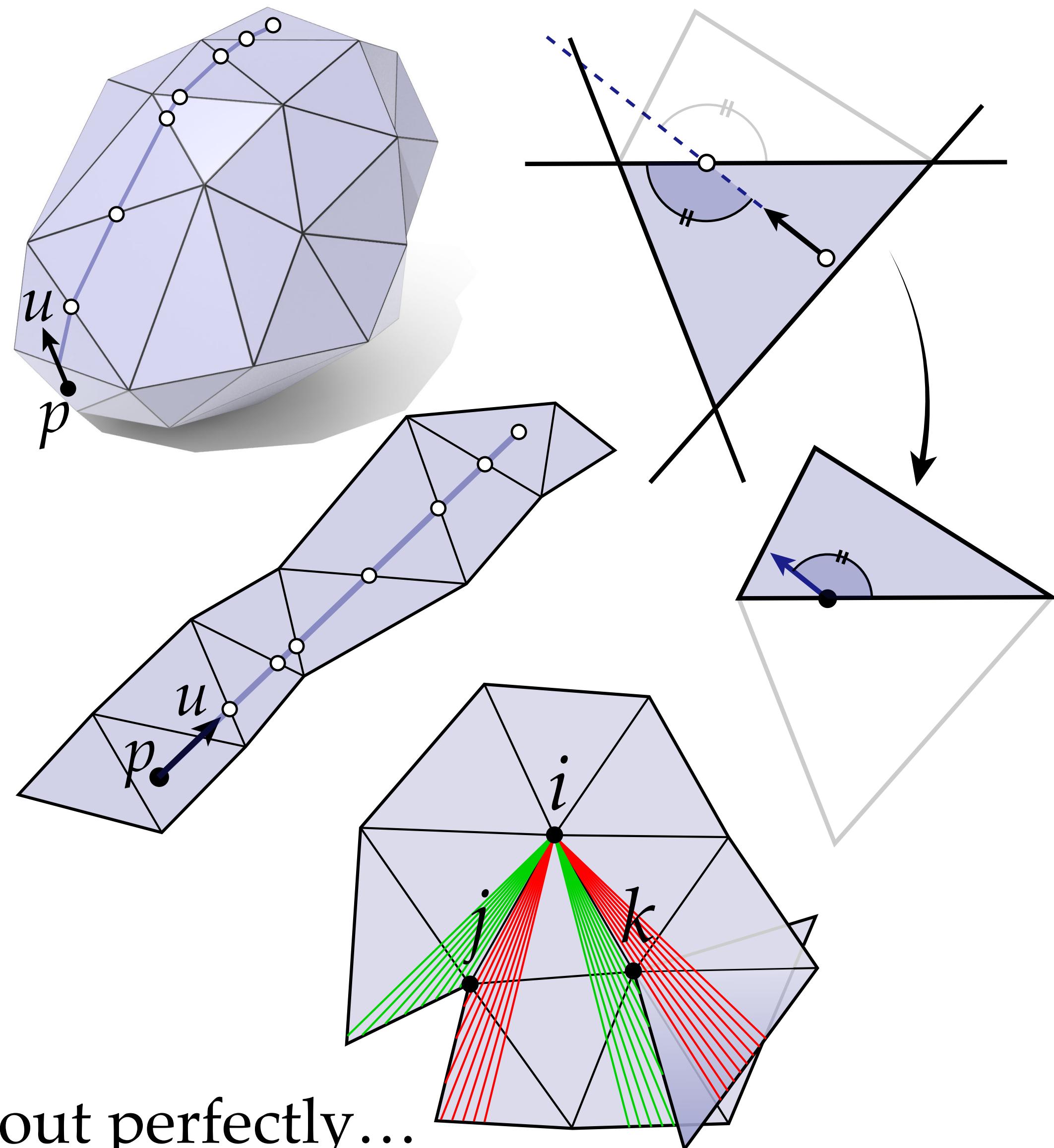
Karcher Mean – Examples



Notice: not always as easy as taking Euclidean average & projecting onto surface!

Discrete Exponential Map

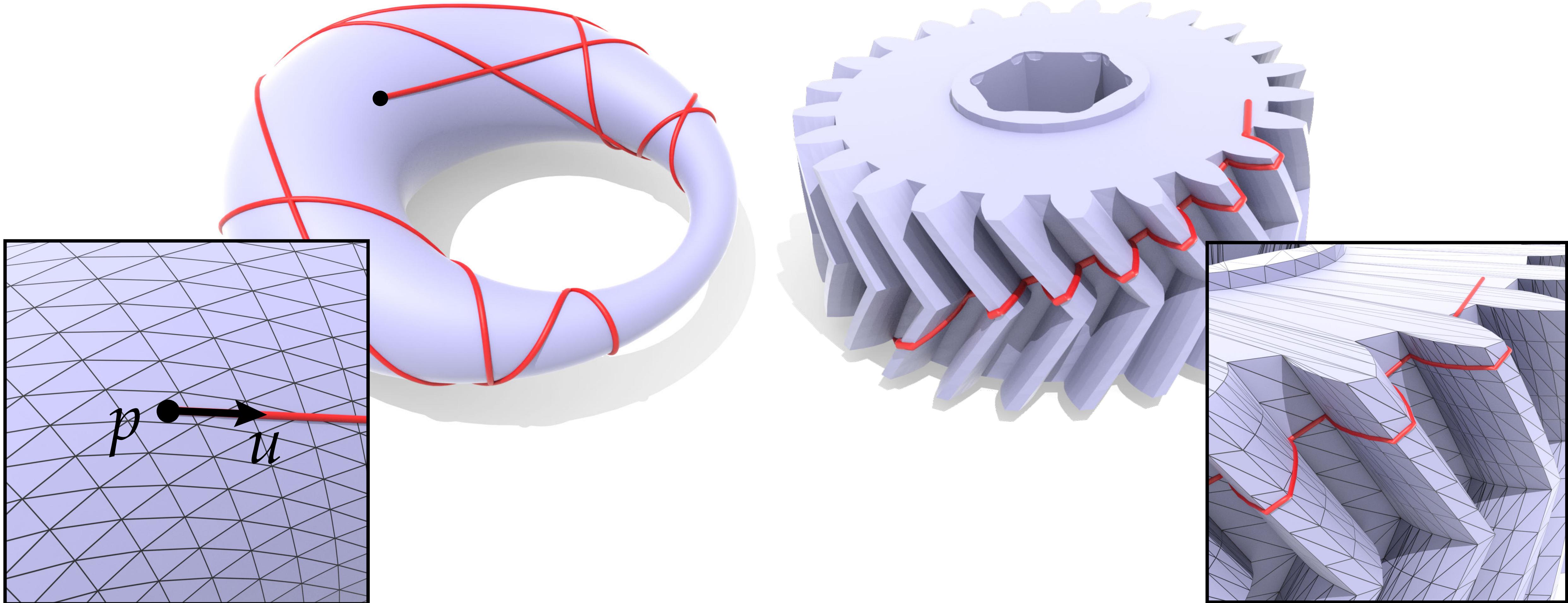
- Easy to evaluate exp map on discrete surfaces
- Given point p and vector u , start walking along u
 - i.e., just intersect ray with edges of triangle
 - continue w/ same angle in next triangle
 - if we hit a vertex, continue in direction that makes equal angles (*straightest*)
- Q: How big is the injectivity radius?
- A: Distance to the closest cone vertex ($\Omega > 0$)
- Q: Is the discrete exponential map surjective?
- A: No! Consider a saddle vertex ($\Omega < 0$)



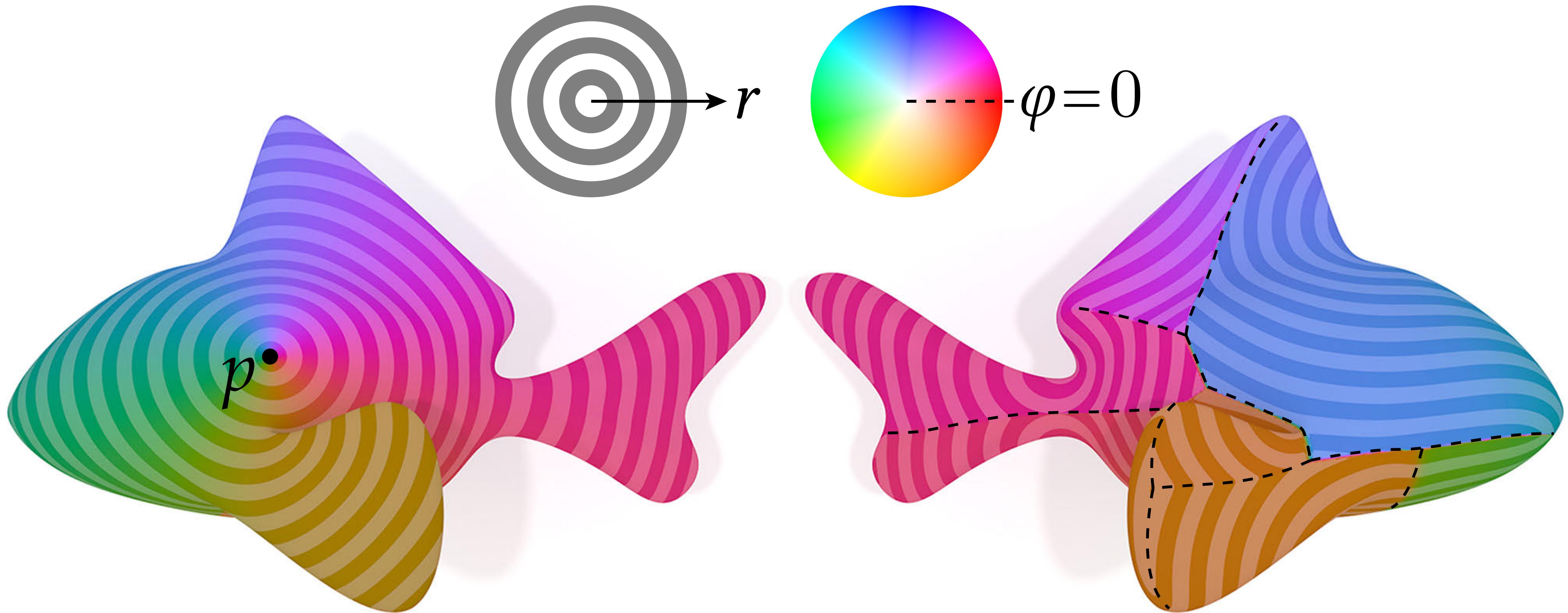
Notice: like “shortest”, “straightest” doesn’t work out perfectly...

Discrete Exponential Map – Examples

- Discrete exponential map provides a practical way to *approximate* geodesics on smooth surfaces (by triangulating them), and gives *exact* geodesics on discrete surfaces



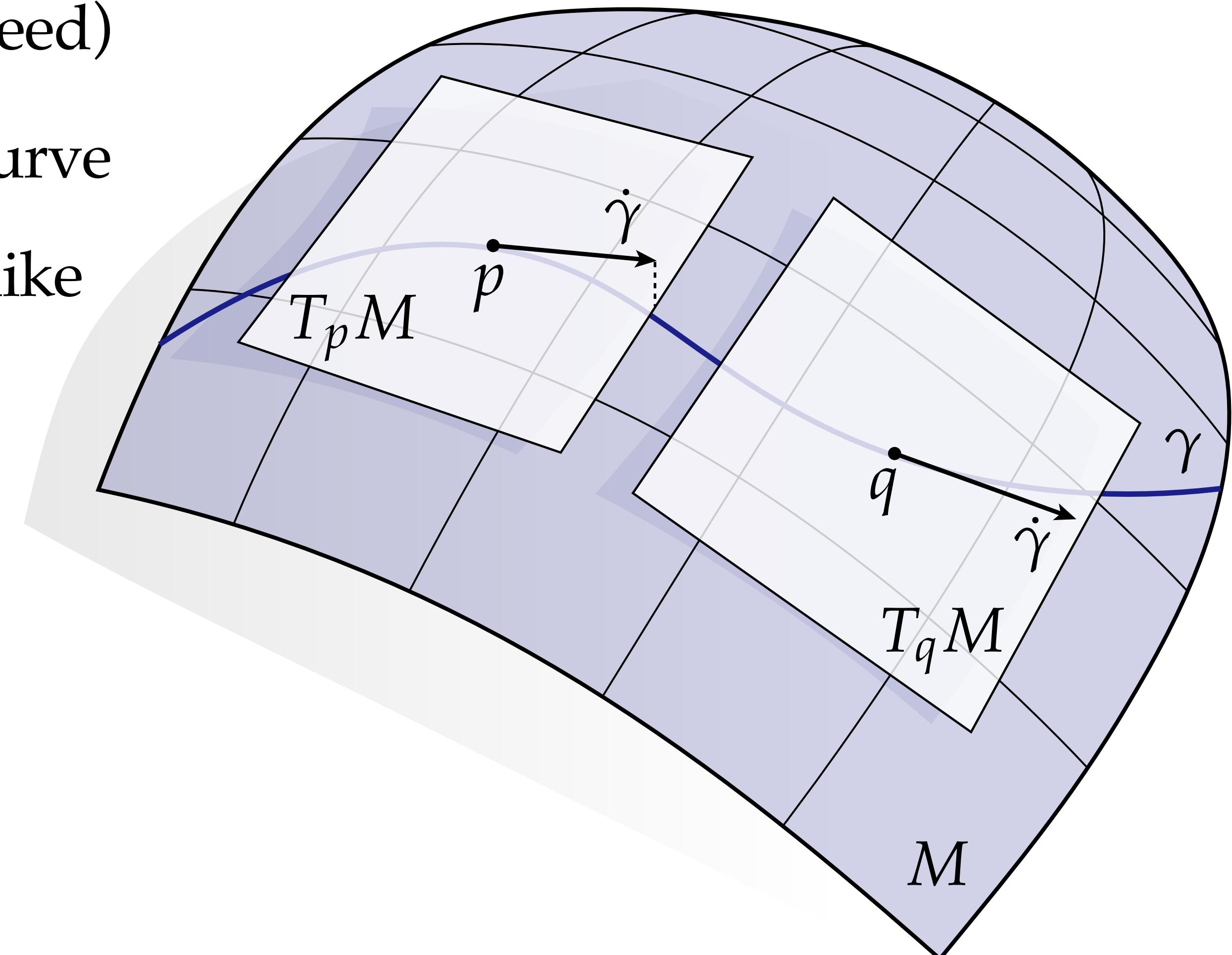
Computing the Log Map



Sharp, Soliman, Crane, "The Vector Heat Method" (2019)

Straightness – Dynamic Perspective

- Dynamic perspective: geodesic has zero tangential acceleration
- Consider curve $\gamma(t): [a,b] \rightarrow M$ (*not* unit speed)
- *Tangential velocity* is just the tangent to the curve
- *Tangential acceleration* should be something like the “tangential change in the tangent,” but:
 - **extrinsically**, change in tangent is not a tangent vector
 - **intrinsically**, tangents belong to different vector spaces
- So, how do we measure acceleration?

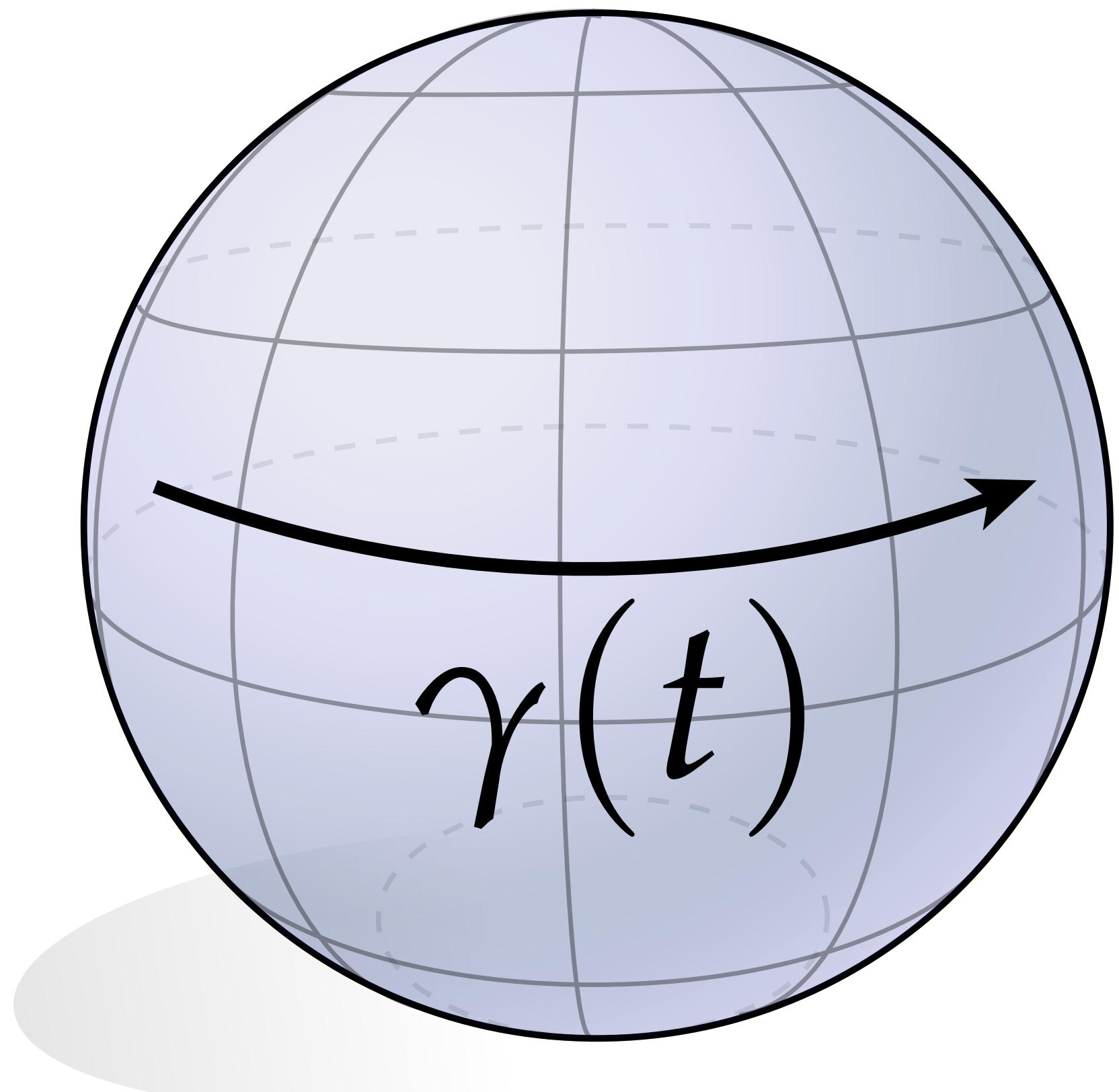


Geodesic Equation

The *covariant derivative* ∇ provides another characterization of geodesics:

$$\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} = 0$$

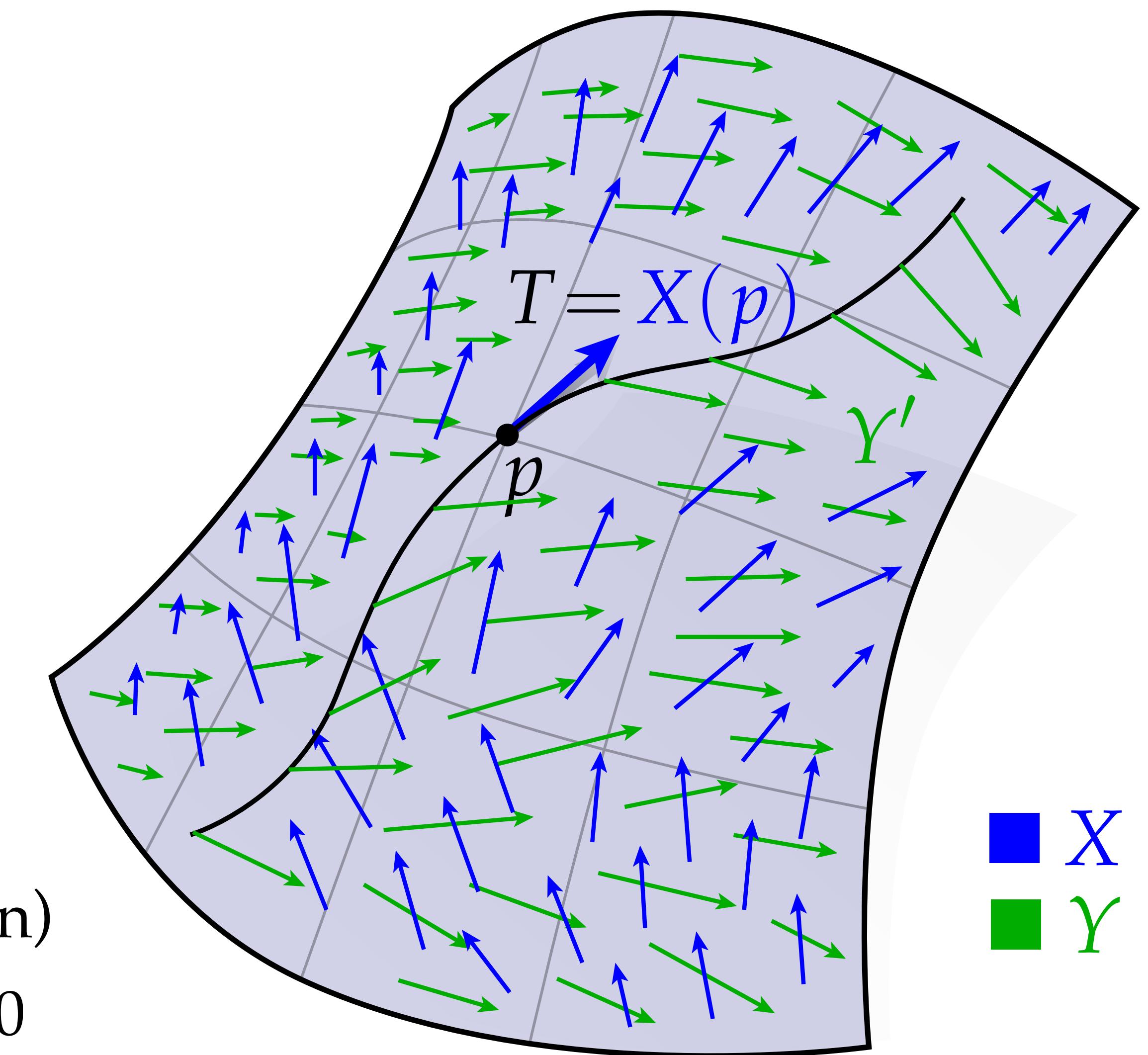
tangent to curve
change along tangent direction



Intuition: no “in-plane turning” as we move along the curve.

Covariant Derivative – Extrinsic

- Suppose we want to measure how fast a vector field Y is changing along another vector field X at a point p
- Find a curve $\gamma(t)$ with tangent $X(p)$ at p
- Restrict Y to a vector field $Y'(t) := Y(\gamma(t))$
- Take the derivative dY'/dt
- Removing the normal component gives the *covariant derivative* $\nabla_X Y$ of Y along X
- Sound familiar?
 - not so different from how we defined *geodesic curvature* (change of T in B direction)
 - which explains geodesic equation $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} = 0$



Key idea: covariant derivative gives change in one vector field along another.

Covariant Derivative – Intrinsic Definition

- Since geodesics are intrinsic, can also define “straightness” using only the metric g
- For any function ϕ , tangent vector fields X, Y, Z , operator ∇ uniquely determined by

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_Z(X + Y) &= \nabla_Z X + \nabla_Z Y \\ \nabla_{X+Y}Z &= \nabla_X Z + \nabla_Y Z \\ \nabla_{\phi X}Y &= \phi \nabla_X Y \\ \nabla_X(\phi Y) &= (D_X \phi)Y + \phi \nabla_X Y\end{aligned}$$

(linearity)

(product rule)

$$D_Z g(X, Y) = g(\nabla_Z X, Y) + g(X, \nabla_Z Y)$$

$$\nabla_X Y - \nabla_Y X = [X, Y]$$

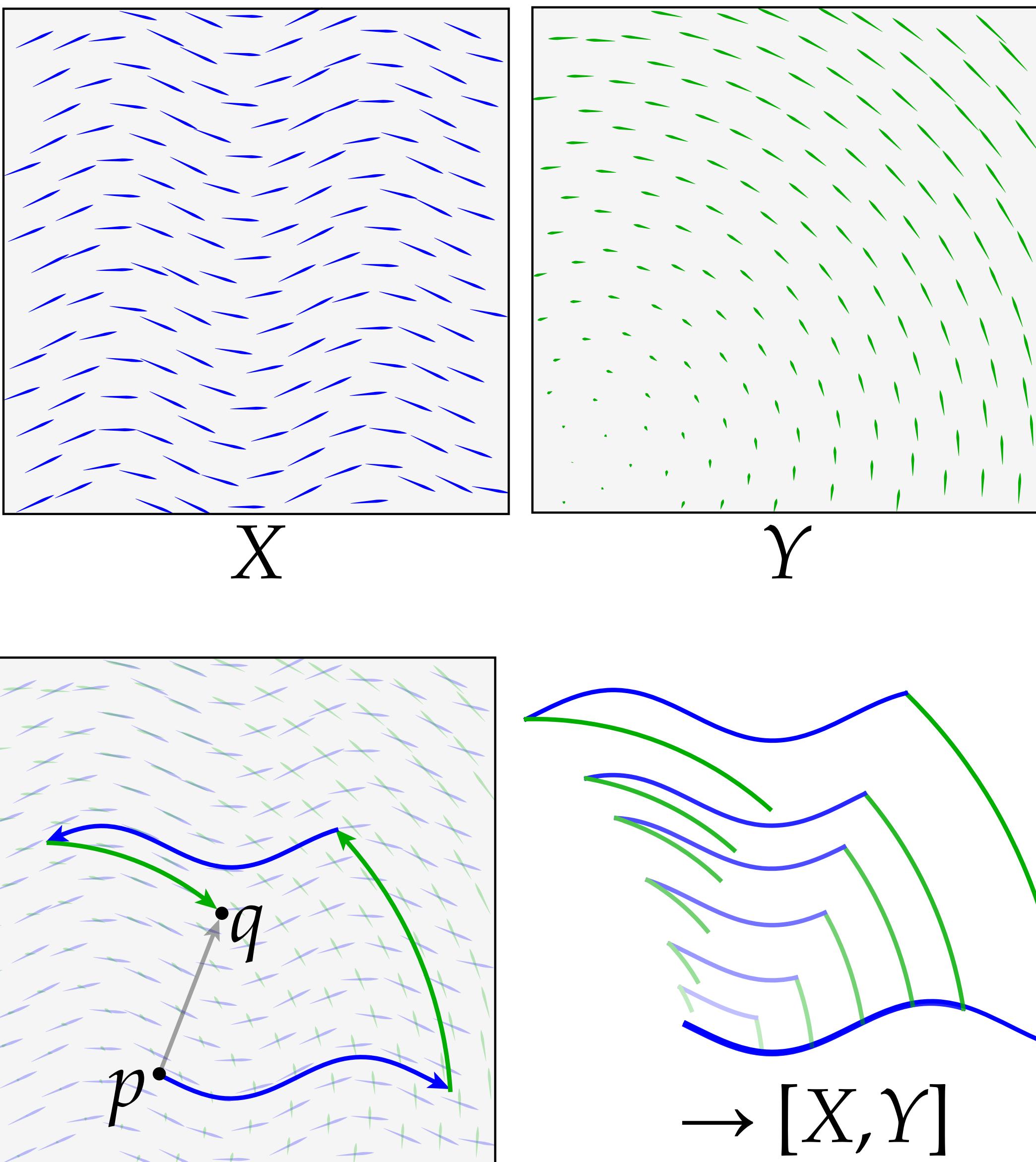
“compatible w/ metric”

“torsion free”

Lie Bracket of Vector Fields

- The *Lie bracket* $[X, Y]$ measures failure of flows along two vector fields X, Y to commute
- Starting at any point p , follow X for time $\tau > 0$, then Y , then $-X$, then $-Y$ to arrive at a point q
- Lie bracket at p is vector given by limit of $(q-p)/\tau$ as $\tau \rightarrow 0$
- For vector fields expressed in local coordinates u_1, \dots, u_n , can write as

$$[X, Y] = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \left(X^j \frac{\partial}{\partial u_j} Y^i - Y^j \frac{\partial}{\partial u_j} X^i \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial u^i}$$



Covariant Derivative from Metric

Claim. Covariant derivative is uniquely determined by the Riemannian metric g .

Proof. For any three vector fields U, V, W , we have

$$D_U g(V, W) = g(\nabla_U V, W) + g(V, \nabla_U W) \quad (1)$$

$$D_V g(W, U) = g(\nabla_V W, U) + g(W, \nabla_V U) \quad (2)$$

$$D_W g(U, V) = g(\nabla_W U, V) + g(U, \nabla_W V) \quad (3)$$

By symmetry and bilinearity of the metric g , adding (1) and (2) and subtracting (3) gives

$$\begin{aligned} D_U g(V, W) + D_V g(W, U) - D_W g(U, V) &= \\ g(\nabla_U V + \nabla_V U) + g([U, W], V) + g([V, W], U) &= \\ 2g(\nabla_V U, W) + g([U, V], W) + g([V, W], U) + g([U, W], V). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$g(\nabla_V U, W) = \frac{1}{2} (D_U g(V, W) + D_V g(W, U) - D_W g(U, V) - g([U, V], W) - g([V, W], U) - g([U, W], V)).$$

Key observation: can solve for covariant derivative in terms of data we know (metric g).

Christoffel Symbols

- Let X_1, \dots, X_n be our usual basis vector fields (in local coordinates)
- *Christoffel symbols* tell us how to differentiate one basis along another: $\nabla_{X_j} X_i = \Gamma_{ij}^k X_k$
- By linearity, we then know how to take *any* covariant derivative

Recall the expression

$$g(\nabla_V U, W) = \frac{1}{2} (D_U g(V, W) + D_V g(W, U) - D_W g(U, V) - g([U, V], W) - g([V, W], U) - g([U, W], V)).$$

Since $[X_i, X_j] = 0$ for any two coordinate vector fields, we get

$$2g(\nabla_{X_k} X_i, X_j) = D_{X_i} g(X_k, X_j) + D_{X_k} g(X_j, X_i) - D_{X_j} g(X_i, X_k).$$

In terms of Christoffel symbols, the left-hand side is

$$2g(\Gamma_{ik}^p X_p, X_j) = 2\Gamma_{ik}^p g(X_p, X_j) = 2\Gamma_{ik}^p g_{pj}$$

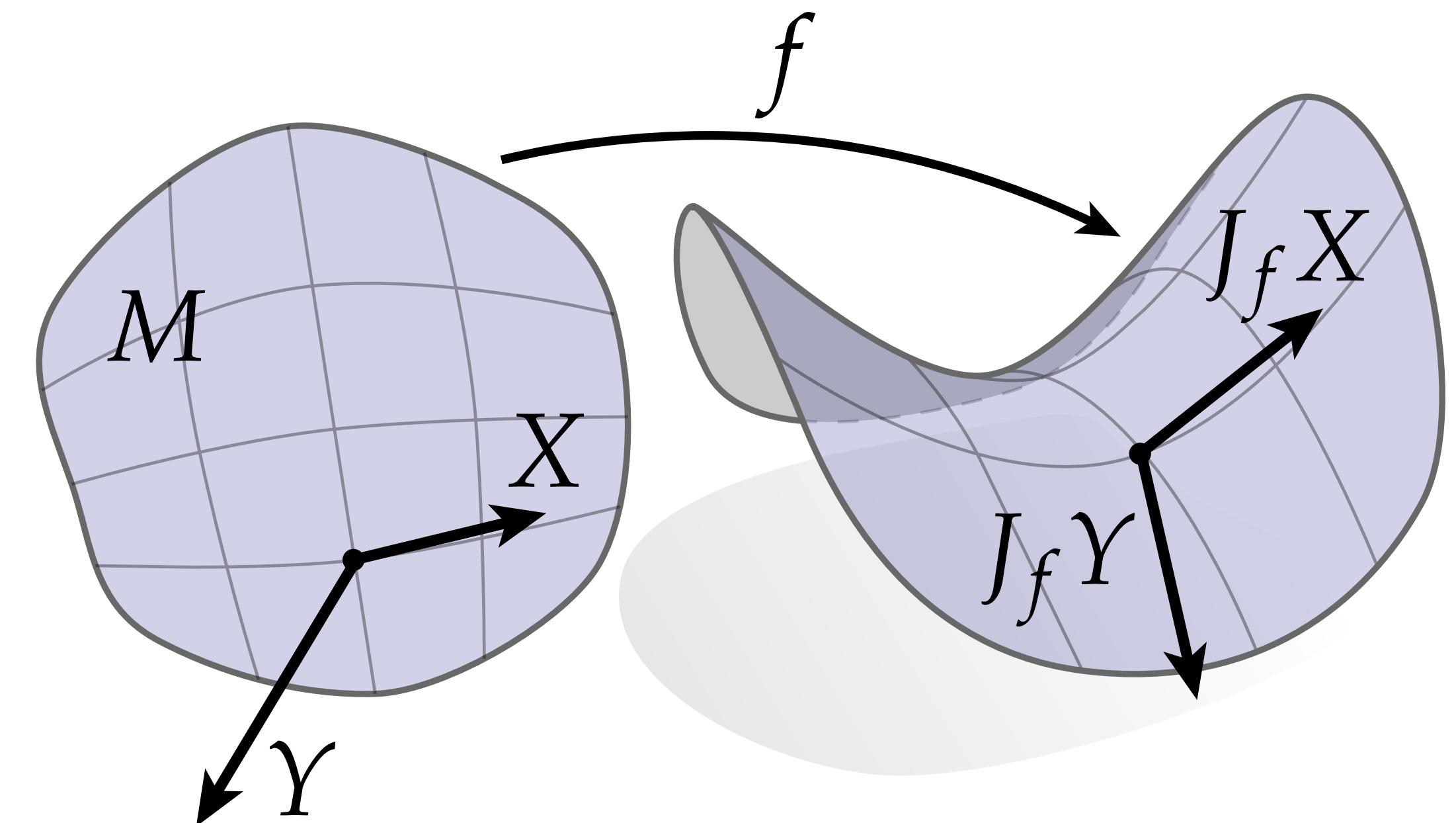
and we can write the right-hand side as $g_{kj,i} + g_{ji,k} - g_{ik,j}$.

Hence, our final expression for the Christoffel symbols is

$$\boxed{\Gamma_{ik}^p = \frac{1}{2} g^{pj} (g_{ij,k} + g_{jk,i} - g_{ki,j})}$$

Solving the Geodesic Equation

- Can use Christoffel symbols to numerically compute geodesics on smooth surfaces
- Given surface $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$
 - write out Jacobian J_f
 - write out metric $g = J_f^\top J_f$ and its inverse g^{ij}
 - write out Christoffel symbols Γ
 - express geodesic equation via Γ
- From here, can use any standard numerical integrator (e.g., Runge-Kutta) to step an initial position/direction forward in “time”



$$\Gamma_{ik}^p = \frac{1}{2} g^{pj} (g_{ij,k} + g_{jk,i} - g_{ki,j})$$

$$\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} = 0$$

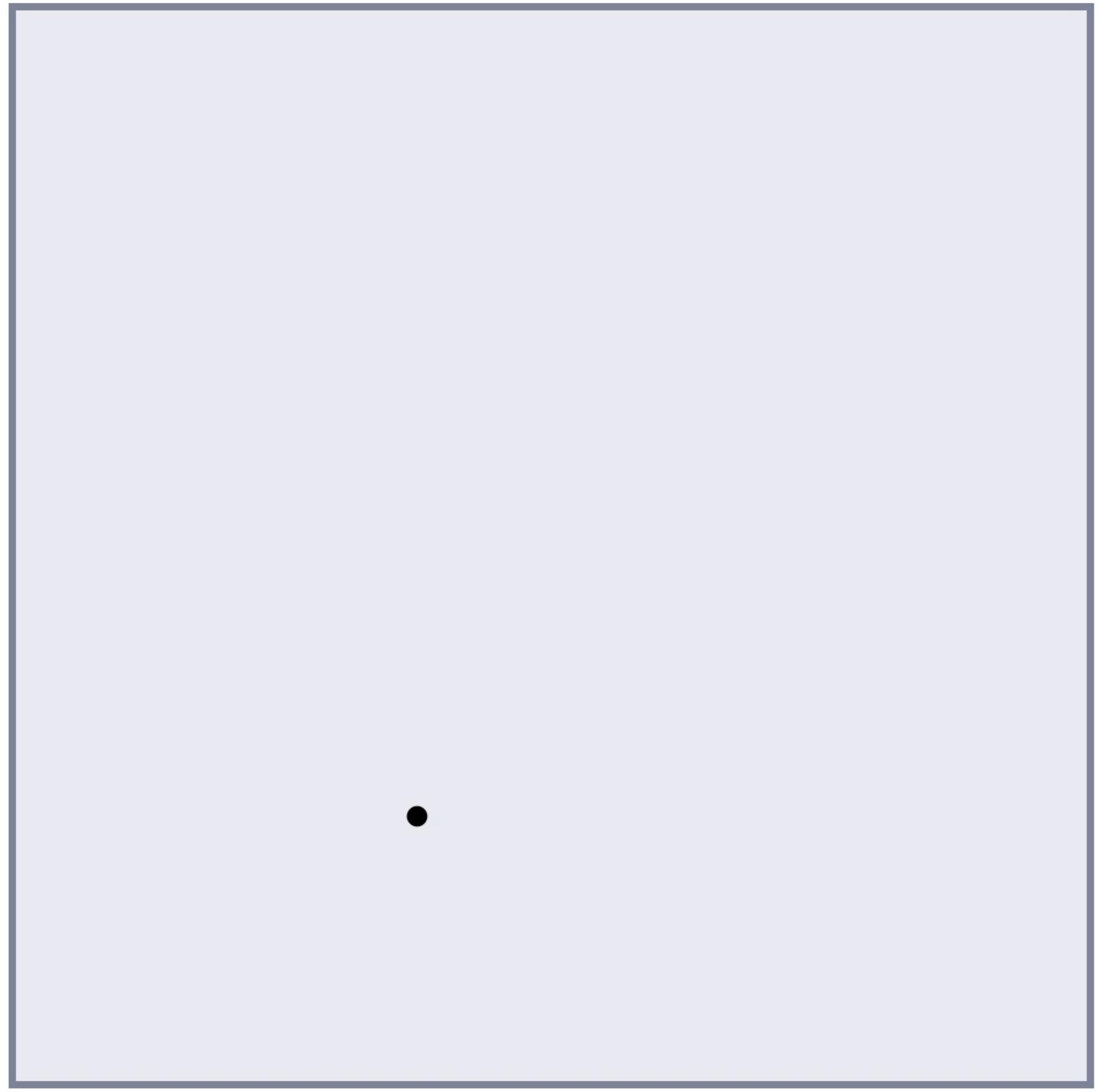
$$\nabla_{X_j} X_i = \Gamma_{ij}^k X_k$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\ddot{\gamma}^k + \Gamma_{ij}^k \dot{\gamma}^i \dot{\gamma}^j = 0}$$

Solving the Geodesic Equation



- Apply f to resulting curve in parameter domain to get a geodesic on the surface



$$\Rightarrow \ddot{\gamma}^k + \Gamma_{ij}^k \dot{\gamma}^i \dot{\gamma}^j = 0$$

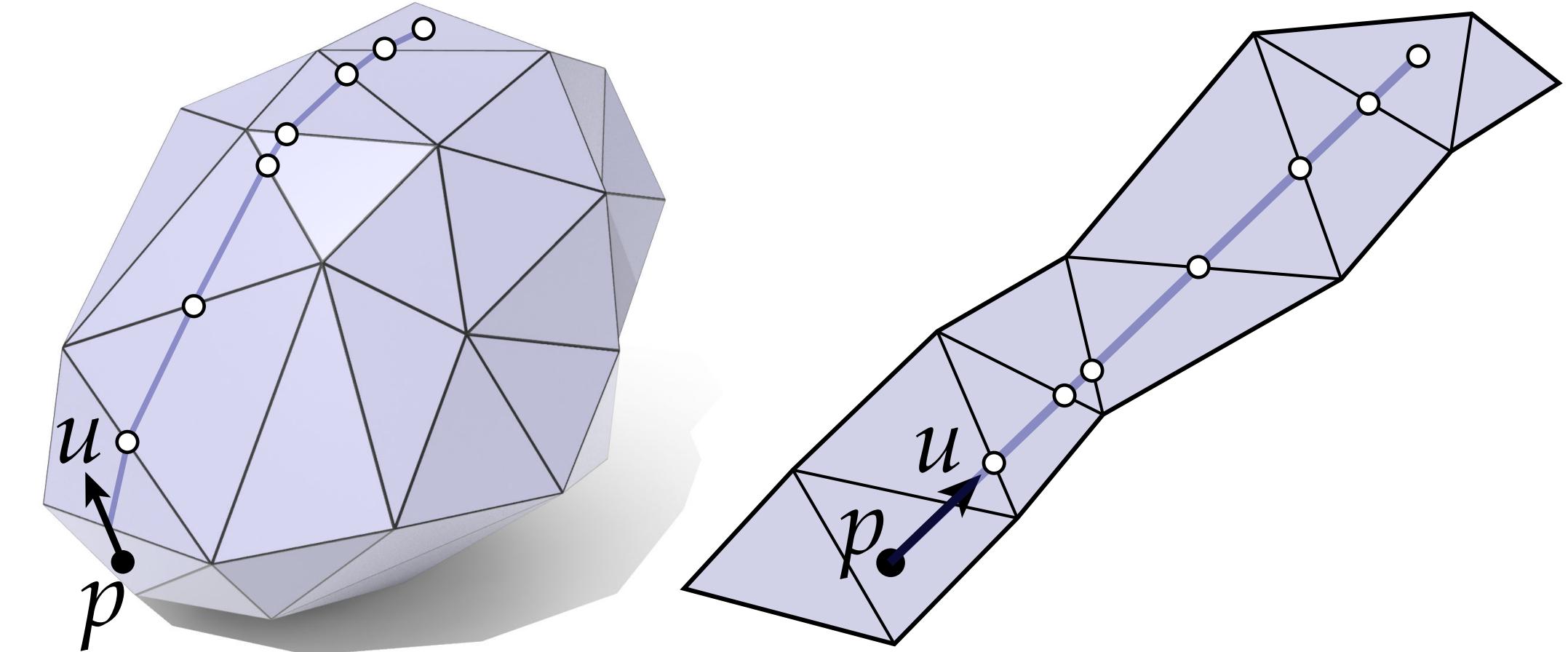
Computing Geodesics on a Parametrized Surface

Now have two ways to solve initial value problem for a smooth parameterized surface f :

- Discretization
 - triangulate the surface f
 - trace rays along discrete surface
- ODE integration
 - write metric g in terms of f
 - write Christoffel symbols Γ in terms of g
 - solve geodesic equation via ODE solver

Q: What are the pros / cons?

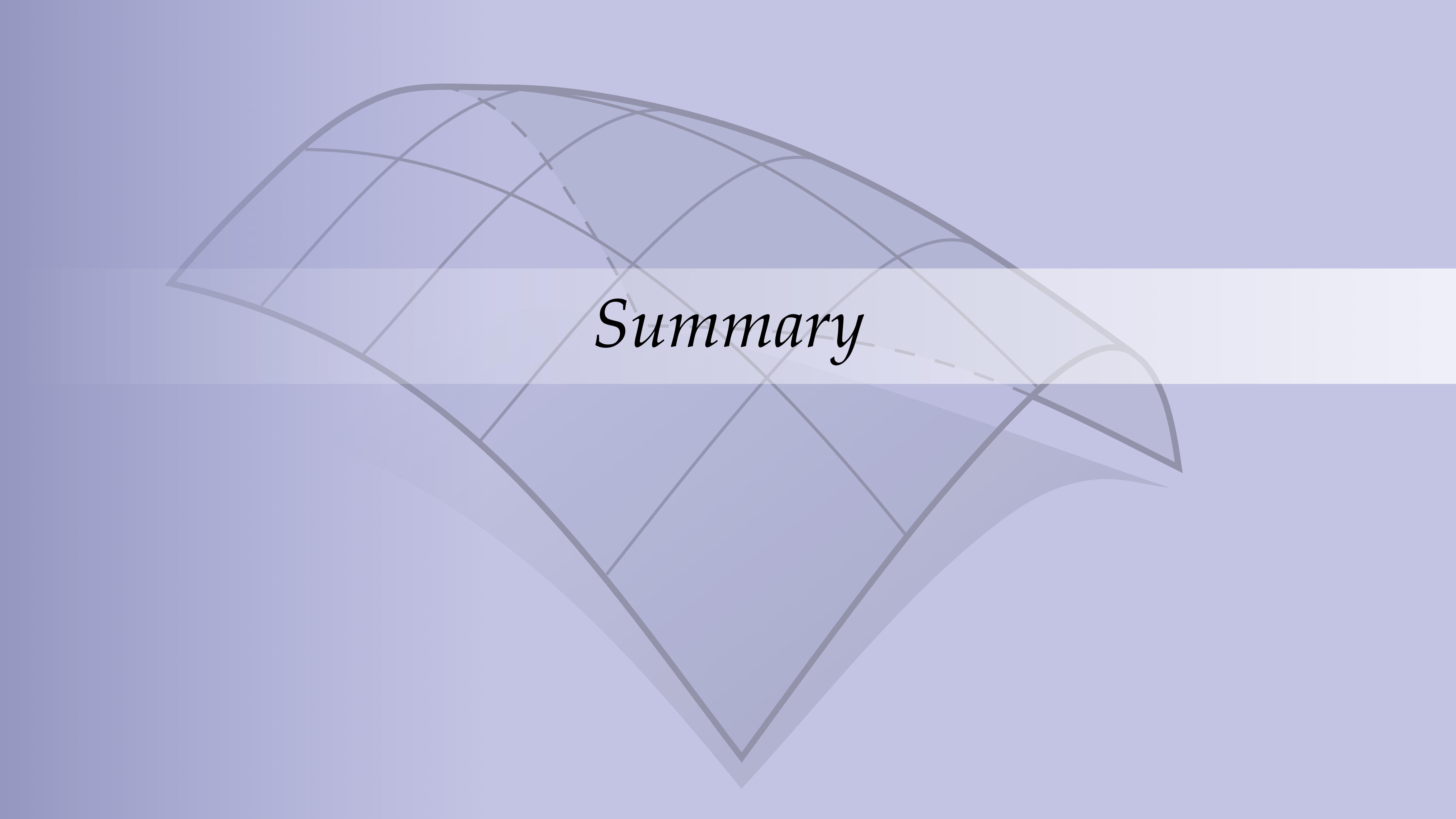
- speed, memory, accuracy, *simplicity*...
- generality (smooth *and* discrete)



$$g = J_f^\top J_f$$
$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{2} g^{pj} (g_{ij,k} + g_{jk,i} - g_{ki,j})}_{\Gamma_{ik}^p}$$

$$\ddot{\gamma}^k + \Gamma_{ij}^k \dot{\gamma}^i \dot{\gamma}^j = 0$$

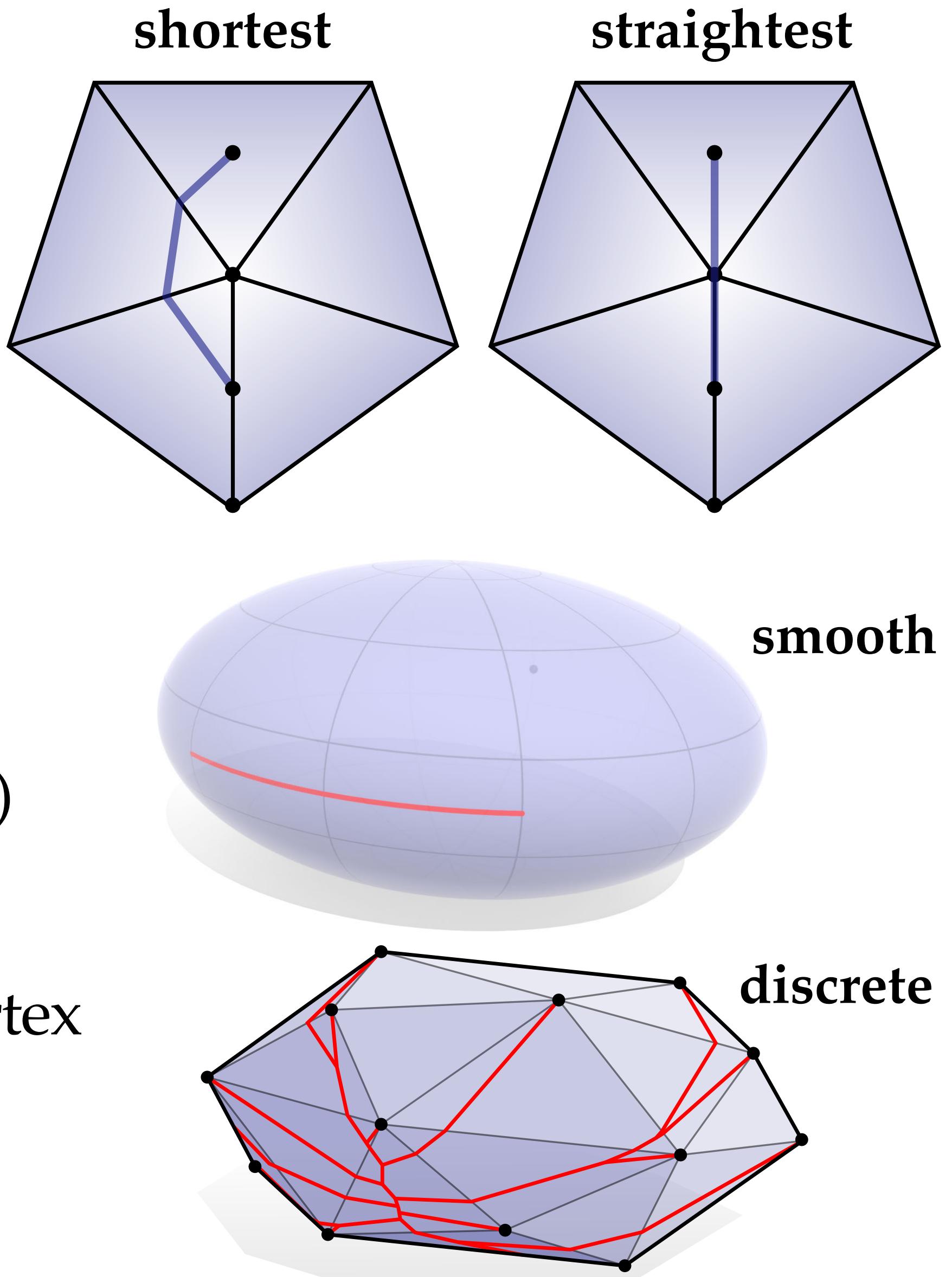
.

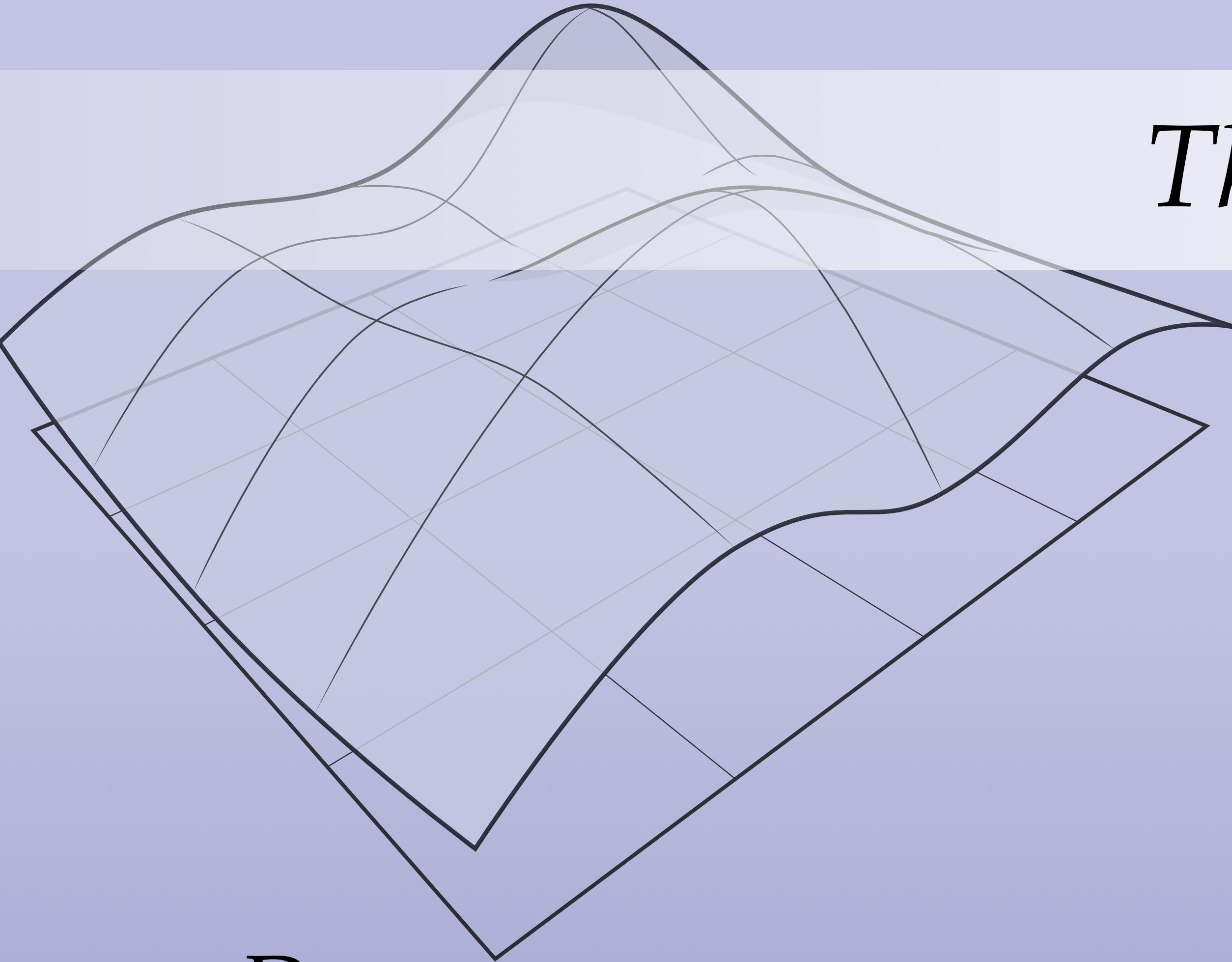


Summary

Geodesics – Shortest vs. Straightest, Smooth vs. Discrete

- In smooth setting, several equivalent characterizations:
 - shortest (harmonic)
 - straightest (zero curvature, zero acceleration)
- In discrete setting, characterizations no longer agree!
 - **shortest** natural for boundary value problem
 - **straightest** natural for initial value problem
 - *convex*: shortest paths are straightest (but not vice versa)
 - *nonconvex*: shortest may not even be straightest! (saddles)
- *Neither* definition faithfully captures all smooth behavior:
 - (shortest) cut locus / medial axis touches *every* convex vertex
 - (straightest) exponential map is not surjective
- Use the right tool for the job (*and look for other definitions!*)





Thanks!

DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL
GEOMETRY:
AN APPLIED INTRODUCTION

Keenan Crane • CMU 15-458/858