

Introduction to Computational Manifolds and Applications

Part 1 - Foundations

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What is a surface?

A precise answer cannot really be given without introducing the concept of a manifold.

An informal answer is to say that a surface is a set of points in \mathbb{E}^3 such that, for every point *p* on the surface, there is a small neighborhood *U* of *p* that is continuously deformable into a little flat open disk.

Thus, a surface should really have some topology.

Also, locally, unless the point *p* is "singular", the surface looks like a plane.



As in the case of curves, properties of surfaces can be classified into *local properties* and *global properties*.

Local properties are the properties that hold in a small neighborhood of a point on a surface.

Curvature is a local property.

Local properties can be studied more conveniently by assuming that the surface is parametrized locally.



A parametric surface is a map

 $X:\Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$,

where Ω is some open subset of the plane \mathbb{E}^2 , and *X* is at least C^3 -continuous.



Actually, we will need to impose an extra condition on a surface *X* so that the tangent plane (and the normal) at any point is defined. Again, this leads us to consider curves on *X*.

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A curve *C* on *X* is defined as a map

 $C: t \mapsto X(u(t), v(t))$,

where *u* and *v* are continuous functions on some open interval *I* contained in Ω .





We also assume that the plane curve $t \mapsto (u(t), v(t))$ is regular, that is, that

$$\left(\frac{du}{dt}(t), \frac{dv}{dt}(t)\right) \neq (0, 0)$$

for all $t \in I$.



For example, the curves

 $v \mapsto X(u_0, v)$

for some constant u_0 are called *u*-curves, and the curves

 $u \mapsto X(u, v_0)$

for some constant v_0 are called *v*-curves. Such curves are also called the *coordinate* curves.





The tangent vector, $\frac{dC}{dt}(t)$, to *C* at *t* can be computed using the chain rule:

$$\frac{dC}{dt}(t) = \frac{dX}{du}(u(t), v(t)) \cdot \frac{du}{dt}(t) + \frac{dX}{dv}(u(t), v(t)) \cdot \frac{dv}{dt}(t).$$

Note that

$$\frac{dC}{dt}(t)$$
, $\frac{dX}{du}(u(t), v(t))$, and $\frac{dX}{dv}(u(t), v(t))$

are vectors, but for simplicity of notation, we omit the vector symbol in these expressions.



It is customary to use the following abbreviations: the partial derivatives

$$\frac{dX}{du}(u(t),v(t))$$
 and $\frac{dX}{dv}(u(t),v(t))$

are denoted as $X_u(t)$ and $X_v(t)$, or even as X_u and X_v , and the derivatives

$$\frac{dC}{dt}(t)$$
, $\frac{du}{dt}(t)$, and $\frac{dv}{dt}(t)$

are denoted as $\dot{C}(t)$, $\dot{u}(t)$ and $\dot{v}(t)$, or even as \dot{C} , \dot{u} , and \dot{v} .



When the curve *C* is parametrized by arc length *s*, we denote

$$\frac{dC}{ds}(s)$$
, $\frac{du}{ds}(s)$, and $\frac{dv}{ds}(s)$

as C'(s), u'(s), and v'(s), or even as C', u', and v'. Thus, we reserve the prime notation to the case where the parametrization of *C* is by arc length.

Note that it is the curve

$$C: t \mapsto X(u(t), v(t))$$

which is parametrized by arc length, not the curve

 $t \mapsto (u(t), v(t)).$



Using these notations, $\dot{C}(t)$ is expressed as follows:

 $\dot{C}(t) = X_u(t)\dot{u}(t) + X_v(t)\dot{v}(t)$,

or simply as

 $\dot{C} = X_u \dot{u} + X_v \dot{v}$.

Now, if we want $\dot{C} \neq 0$ for all regular curves

 $t\mapsto (u(t),v(t))$,

we must require that

 X_u and X_v

be linearly independent. Equivalently, we must require that the cross product, $X_u \times X_v$ be non-null.



Definition 3.1. A *surface patch X* is a map

 $X:\Omega
ightarrow \mathbb{E}^3$,

where Ω is some open subset of the plane \mathbb{R}^2 and where *X* is at least C^3 -continuous.

We say that the surface X is *regular at* $(u, v) \in \Omega$ iff $X_u \times X_v \neq 0$, and we also say that p = X(u, v) is a *regular point of* X. If $X_u \times X_v = 0$, we say that p = X(u, v) is a *singular point of* X. The surface X is *regular on* Ω iff $X_u \times X_v \neq 0$, for all points (u, v) in Ω .

The subset $X(\Omega)$ of \mathbb{E}^3 is called the *trace* of the surface *X*.

Surfaces

Parametric Surfaces

Let $\Omega =] -1, 1[\times] -1, 1[$, and let *X* be the surface patch defined by

$$x = \frac{2au}{u^2 + v^2 + 1}, y = \frac{2bv}{u^2 + v^2 + 1}, z = \frac{c(1 - u^2 - v^2)}{u^2 + v^2 + 1},$$

where *a*, *b*, *c* > 0.

The surface *X* is a portion of an *ellipsoid*, and it is shown below, for a = 5, b = 4, c = 3.





The curve $C(t) = X(t, t^2)$ on the surface X is also displayed, for $t \in [-1, 1[$.





For a more exotic example, the function $X : \mathbb{E}^2 \to \mathbb{E}^3$ defined by

 $F_1(u, v) = u,$ $F_2(u, v) = v,$ $F_3(u, v) = u^3 - 3v^2u,$

represents what is known as the *monkey saddle*.







It often desirable to define a (regular) surface patch $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$, where Ω is a *closed* subset of \mathbb{E}^2 .

If Ω is a closed set, we assume that there is some open subset U containing Ω and such that X can be extended to a (regular) surface over U (i.e., that X is at least C^3 -continuous).



Given a regular point p = X(u, v), since the tangent vectors to all the curves passing through a given point are of the form $X_u \dot{u} + X_v \dot{v}$, it is obvious that they form a vector space of dimension 2 isomorphic to \mathbb{R}^2 , called the *tangent space at p*, and denoted as $T_p(X)$.

Note that (X_u, X_v) is a basis of this vector space $T_p(X)$.



The set of tangent lines passing through p and having some tangent vector in $T_p(X)$ as direction is an affine plane called the *(affine)* tangent plane at p. Geometrically, this is an object different from $T_p(X)$ and it should be denoted differently (perhaps as $AT_p(X)$?).





The unit vector

$$N_p = \frac{X_u \times X_v}{\|X_u \times X_v\|}$$

is called the *unit normal vector at p*, and the line through *p* of direction N_p is the *normal line to X at p*.



This time, we can use the notation N_p for the line, to distinguish it from the vector N_p .



The fact that we are not requiring the map *X* defining a surface $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$ to be injective may cause problems. Indeed, if the map *X* is not injective, it may happen that

$$p = X(u_0, v_0) = X(u_1, v_1)$$

for some (u_0, v_0) and (u_1, v_1) such that

 $(u_0, v_0) \neq (u_1, v_1).$

Indeed, we really have two pairs of partial derivatives, i.e., $(X_u(u_0, v_0), X_v(u_0, v_0))$ and $(X_u(u_1, v_1), X_v(u_1, v_1))$, and the planes spanned by these pairs could be distinct.



In this case, there are really two tangent planes

 $T_{(u_0,v_0)}(X)$ and $T_{(u_1,v_1)}(X)$

at the point *p* where *X* has a self-intersection.

Similarly, the normal N_p is not well defined, and we really have two normals, $N_{(u_0,v_0)}$ and $N_{(u_1,v_1)}$, at p.

We can avoid the problem entirely by assuming that *X* is injective, although this will rule out some surfaces that come up in practice.

Surfaces

Parametric Surfaces

The tangent space, $T_p(X)$, may also be undefined when p is not a regular point. For example, consider the parametric surface X = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)) defined such that

$$x = u(u^{2} + v^{2}),$$

 $y = v(u^{2} + v^{2}),$
 $z = u^{2}v - v^{3}/3.$

Note that all the partial derivatives at (u, v) = (0, 0) are zero. So, the tangent space is undefined at the origin, and hence the origin is a singular point of the surface *X*. Indeed, one can check that the tangent lines to the surface at the origin do not lie in a plane.







In most applications, we are interested in the trace

 $S = X(\Omega)$

of a surface $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$, rather than the actual parametrization of *S* by *X*.

Since *S* is a subset of \mathbb{E}^3 , it inherits the subspace topology from \mathbb{E}^3 ; namely, a subset $U \subseteq S$ is open iff $U = S \cap B$, for some open subset $B \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$.



It is then natural to require not only that

 $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$

be injective and continuous, but that its inverse,

 $X^{-1}:S o \Omega$,

be continuous. This means that

 $X:\Omega\to \mathbb{E}^3$

is a *homeomorphism* between $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{E}^2$ and $S \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$, considered as a topological space. One of the benefits of requiring that *X* is a homeomorphism is that *S* can't have self-intersections.



We have the following provisional definition of a surface:

Definition 3.2. A *surface* is a subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$, such that there is some open subset $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{E}^2$, and some smooth map, $\varphi : \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$, such that φ is a homeomorphism from Ω to S, and $(d\varphi)_t$ is injective for every $t \in \Omega$; equivalently, the matrix $J(\varphi)(t)$ has rank 2.

The map φ is called a *parametrization* of the surface *S*.



The reason for requiring $(d\varphi)_t$ to be injective for every $t \in \Omega$ is to ensure that the tangent plane at $p = \varphi(t)$ be defined for all $p \in S$.

Definition 3.2 is good, in the sense that it allows us to "do calculus" on the surface *S*, by making use of the continuous maps φ and φ^{-1} . However, Definition 3.2 imposes a major restriction on the surfaces defined in this fashion: *they cannot be compact spaces*.

Intuitively speaking, we can't define closed surfaces. This is because if *S* was compact, then Ω would be compact too, because φ^{-1} is continuous; but this is absurd since Ω is open.

Consequently, a simple sphere, $S^2 \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$, is not a surface according to Definition 3.2.



The problem is that Definition 3.2 is *too global*. We need a *local definition*.

Instead of requiring a single parametrization for *S*, for every point *p* on *S*, we require that some open subset $U \subseteq S$ containing *p* have a parametrization, $\varphi_U : \Omega_U \to \mathbb{E}^3$, where φ_U is a homeomorphism from Ω_U to *U*. This leads us to the following definition:

Definition 3.3. A *surface* is a subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$, such that for every point $p \in S$, there is some open subset $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{E}^2$, some open subset $B \subseteq \mathbb{E}^3$ with $p \in B$, and a smooth map

$$arphi:\Omega
ightarrow\mathbb{E}^3$$
 ,

such that φ is a homeomorphism from Ω to $\varphi(\Omega) = U = S \cap B$, and $(d\varphi)_q$ is injective, where $q = \varphi^{-1}(p)$; equivalently, the Jacobian matrix $J(\varphi)(q)$ of $d\varphi$ at $q \in \Omega$ has rank 2.



Each map φ is called a *parametrization* of the surface *S*.

Clearly, we can define a surface in \mathbb{E}^N (where N > 3) by using smooth maps,

 $\varphi:\Omega \to \mathbb{E}^N$

which are homeomorphisms from an open subset, Ω , of \mathbb{E}^2 to an open subset, $U = \varphi(\Omega)$, of \mathbb{E}^N .



The unit sphere S^2 in \mathbb{E}^3 defined such that

$$S^{2} = \left\{ (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{E}^{3} \mid x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} = 1 \right\}$$

is a smooth surface, because it can be parametrized using the following two maps:

$$\varphi_1 : \mathbb{E}^2 \to S^2 - \{(0,0,1)\} \text{ and } \varphi_2 : \mathbb{E}^2 \to S^2 - \{(0,0,-1)\}$$

where

$$\varphi_1 : (u,v) \mapsto \left(\frac{2u}{u^2 + v^2 + 1}, \frac{2v}{u^2 + v^2 + 1}, \frac{u^2 + v^2 - 1}{u^2 + v^2 + 1}\right)$$

and

$$\varphi_2: (u,v) \mapsto \left(\frac{2u}{u^2+v^2+1}, \frac{2v}{u^2+v^2+1}, \frac{1-u^2-v^2}{u^2+v^2+1}\right)$$











The map φ_1 corresponds to the inverse of the *stereographic projection from the north pole*, $N = (0,0,1) \in \mathbb{E}^3$, onto the plane z = 0, and the map φ_2 corresponds to the inverse of the *stereographic projection from the south pole*, $S = (0,0,-1) \in \mathbb{E}^3$, onto the plane z = 0.





Using φ_1 , the open lower hemisphere is parametrized by the open disk of center *O* and radius 1 contained in the plane z = 0. Similarly, using φ_2 , the open upper hemisphere is parametrized by the open disk of center *O* and radius 1 contained in the plane z = 0.

The map φ_1^{-1} assigns local coordinates to the points in the open lower hemisphere of S^2 , while the map φ_2^{-1} assigns local coordinates to the points in the open upper hemisphere.



From Definition 3.3, we see that a surface is the union of the images of a collection of parametrizations. So, if a point *p* belongs to the ranges of two different parametrizations, we will dispose of two different coordinate systems near *p*. More specifically, let

$$X_i: U_i \to X_i(U) \subseteq S$$
, for $i = 1, 2$,

be two parametrizations of *S* such that $\Omega = X_1(U_1) \cap X_2(U_2)$ is nonempty. Then the map

$$h = X_2^{-1} \circ X_1 : X_1^{-1}(\Omega) \to X_2^{-1}(\Omega)$$

is a homeomorphism taking coordinates in U_1 with respect to X_1 into coordinates in U_2 with respect to X_2 . The map *h* is said to be a *change of parameters* or a *change of coordinates*.





It turns out that the map *h* is a diffeomorphism.



To prove this claim, we will use the following lemma:

Lemma 3.1. Let *S* be a surface and

 $X: U \to X(U) \subseteq S$

a parametrization whose image contains the point p. Let $q \in U$ be such that $q = X^{-1}(p)$. Then, there exists an open subset, V, of U containing the point q and an orthogonal projection,

$$\pi: \mathbb{E}^3 \to \mathbb{E}^2$$
 ,

onto some of the three coordinates planes of \mathbb{E}^3 such that $W = (\pi \circ X)(V)$ is open in \mathbb{E}^2 and

$$\pi \circ X: V \to W$$

is a diffeomorphism.







Theorem 3.2. Every change of coordinates is a diffeomorphism.





It is interesting to see how the unit normal vector N_p changes under a change of parameters.

Assume that u = u(r, s) and v = v(r, s), where $(r, s) \mapsto (u, v)$ is a diffeomorphism.



By the chain rule,

$$egin{aligned} & oldsymbol{X}_r imes oldsymbol{X}_s = \left(egin{aligned} X_u rac{\partial u}{\partial r} + oldsymbol{X}_v rac{\partial v}{\partial r}
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ight) \ & = \left(egin{aligned} rac{\partial u}{\partial r} rac{\partial v}{\partial s} - rac{\partial u}{\partial s} rac{\partial v}{\partial r}
ight) oldsymbol{(X}_u imes oldsymbol{X}_v) \ & = \left|egin{aligned} rac{\partial u}{\partial r} & rac{\partial u}{\partial s} \\ rac{\partial v}{\partial r} & rac{\partial v}{\partial s} \end{array}
ight| oldsymbol{(X}_u imes oldsymbol{X}_v) \ & = rac{\partial (u,v)}{\partial (r,s)} oldsymbol{(X}_u imes oldsymbol{X}_v), \end{aligned}$$

denoting the Jacobian determinant of the map $(r,s) \mapsto (u,v)$ as $\frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(r,s)}$.



Then, the relationship between the unit vectors $N_{(u,v)}$ and $N_{(r,s)}$ is

$$N_{(r,s)} = N_{(u,v)} \operatorname{sign} \left(\frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(r,s)} \right) \,.$$

We will therefore restrict our attention to changes of variables such that the determinant

$$\frac{\partial(u,v)}{\partial(r,s)}$$

is positive.



One should also note that the condition

 $X_u imes X_v
eq 0$

is equivalent to the fact that the Jacobian matrix, J(X)(u, v), of the derivative of the map $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{E}^3$ has rank 2, i.e., that the derivative $(dX)_{(u,v)}$ of X at (u, v) is injective.



Indeed, the Jacobian matrix of the derivative of the map

 $(u,v) \mapsto X(u,v) = (x(u,v), y(u,v), z(u,v))$

is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \end{pmatrix}$$

and $X_u \times X_v \neq 0$ is equivalent to saying that one of the minors of order 2 is invertible.

Thus, a regular surface patch is an immersion of an open subset of \mathbb{E}^2 into \mathbb{E}^3 .