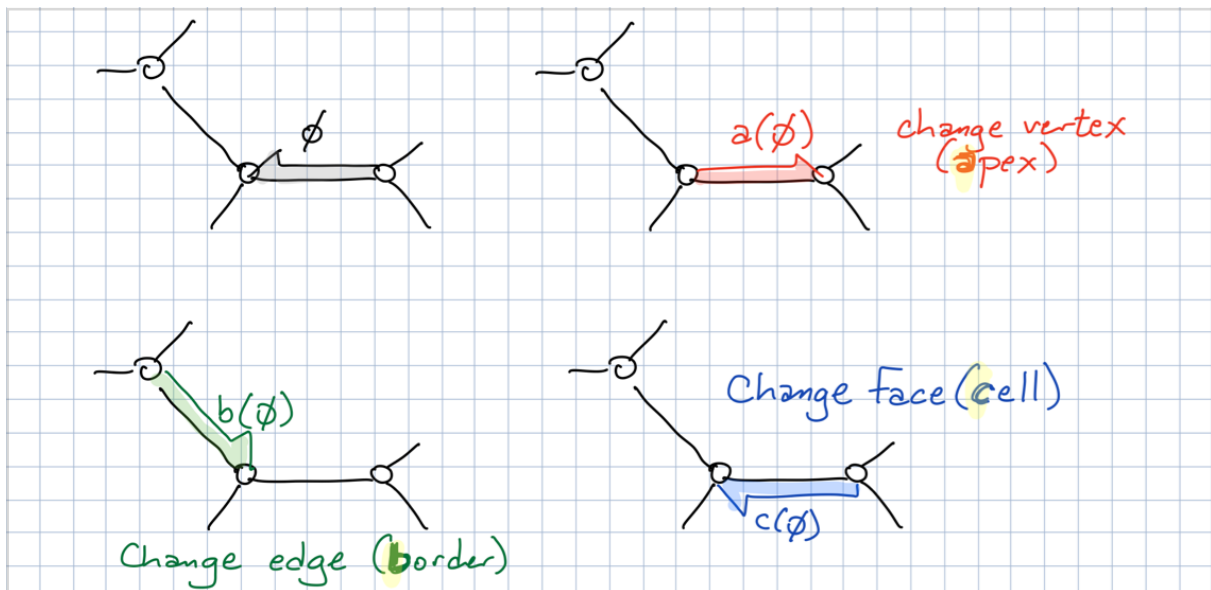


CS 7301.003.20F Lecture 14–October 5, 2020

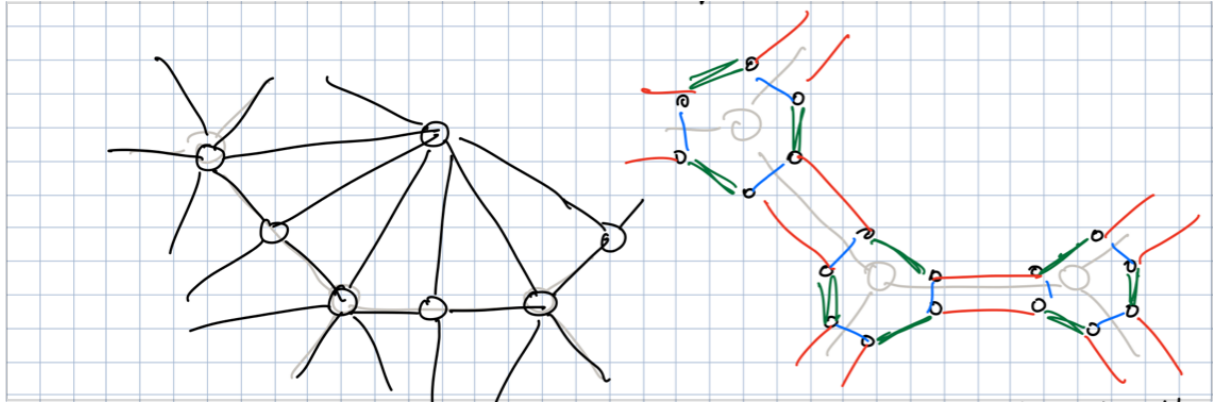
Main topics are `#surface_maps`.

Reflection Systems

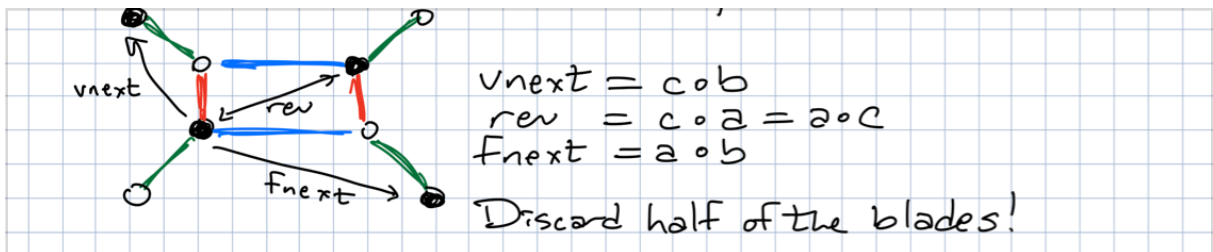
- When working with non-orientable surfaces, it's useful to describe an embedding using something called a *reflection system* (Φ, a, b, c) .
- Each member of Φ is called a *blade* or *flag*.
- Each of $a, b,$ and c is an involution on Φ such that $a \circ c = c \circ a$.



- Different orbits create the structures we're already used to:
 - Orbits of a form polygonal schema sides.
 - Orbits of b form polygonal schema corners.
 - Orbits of c form darts.
 - Orbits of permutation group $\langle b, c \rangle$ form vertices.
 - Orbits of $\langle a, c \rangle$ form edges.
 - Orbits of $\langle a, b \rangle$ form faces.
- There's two ways of thinking about the blade and a, b, c that may be a bit more intuitive.
- Blade can represent faces of the *barycentric subdivision* G^+ . Here, we take G , add a node to each face and to the middle of each edge, and connect nodes of incident objects. In particular "edge nodes" all have degree 4.



- They can also represent vertices of the *band decomposition* G^{box} . Here, we replace each vertex of degree δ with a $2\text{-}\delta$ -gon and replace edges with rectangles. Each involution a, b, c represent a single edge of the band decomposition.
- The dual of the reflection system can be defined as (Φ, c, b, a) . Notice how $G^{\text{box}} = (G^*)^{\text{box}}$, $G^{\text{box}+} = (G^*)^{\text{box}+}$, and $(G^{\text{box}})^{\text{box}*} = G^{\text{box}+}$.
- The reflection system can be used to describe a map on any compact surface, just like the signed polygonal schemas and rotation systems.
- I won't show the details but it turns out you can go between any one of the three to any other in $O(m)$ time where m is the total complexity of the system.
- Finally, your surface is orientable if and only if the reflection system is bipartite, meaning Φ can be partitioned into Φ^+ and Φ^- where each involution goes between the two.
- In this case, we can even define a rotation system where
 - $v_{\text{next}} = b \circ c$
 - $rev = c \circ a = a \circ c$
 - $f_{\text{next}} = b \circ a$



(Yes, this image has cw and ccw mixed up so I fixed the equalities.)

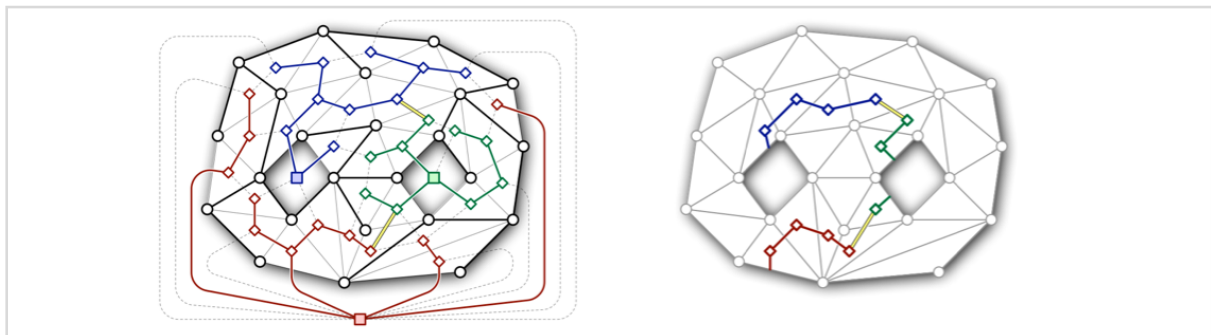
Classification

- I won't prove it during the semester, but there really aren't that many different surfaces (up to homeomorphism).
- Every compact surface is homeomorphic to some $\Sigma(g, h)$, which is the sphere with g handles + h twists, subspaces homeomorphic to the Möbius band.
- And it's orientable if and only if it is $\Sigma(g, 0)$.
- Euler's formula in full generality becomes $V - E + F = 2 - 2g - h$, and that implies any system of loops will have $2g + h$ loops.

- But actually, there are even fewer surfaces than implied by the above!
- $\Sigma(g, h) = \Sigma(g - 1, h + 2)$ if $h > 0$.
- Implying every surface is either the orientable $\Sigma(g, 0)$ for some $g \geq 0$ or the non-orientable $\Sigma(0, g)$ for some $g > 0$.
- Either way, g is the *genus* of the surface as defined earlier. We also say the $2g + h$ part of Euler's formula is the *Euler genus*.

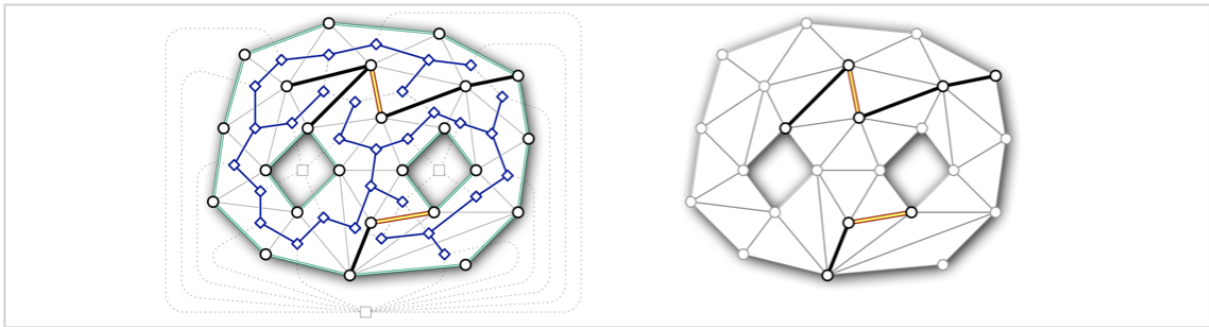
Surface with Boundary

- Beyond non-orientability, there's one more way to generalize compact 2-manifolds.
- Normally, the neighborhood around points look homeomorphic to the plane, but in a *surface with boundary*, there are some neighborhoods homeomorphic to the half plane. Imagine cutting open holes out of the surface.
- Combinatorially, we represent boundary components by just marking a disjoint subset of faces as "gone". In the dual graph, these "gone" dual vertices look more like punctures.
- Now recall how we can decompose the edges in a surface without boundary into three sets (T, C, L) where T and C are primal and dual spanning tree and $|L| = 2g + h$. There are actually two natural generalizations of this decomposition to surfaces with boundary, and they both have applications that we'll see next week.
- First is the *tree-coforest decomposition* (T, F, L) .
 - $T =$ spanning tree of G
 - $F =$ spanning forest of G^* with one tree per puncture
 - $L = E \setminus (T \cup F)$
 - So $|L| = 2g + h + b - 1$

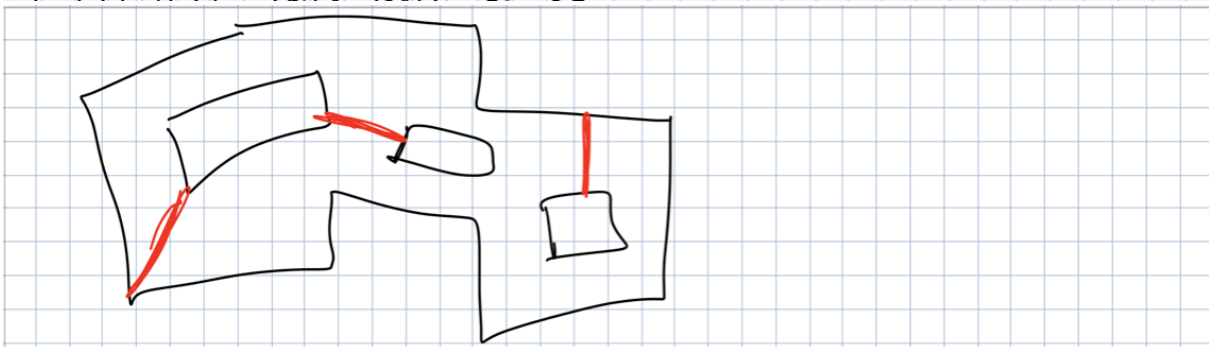
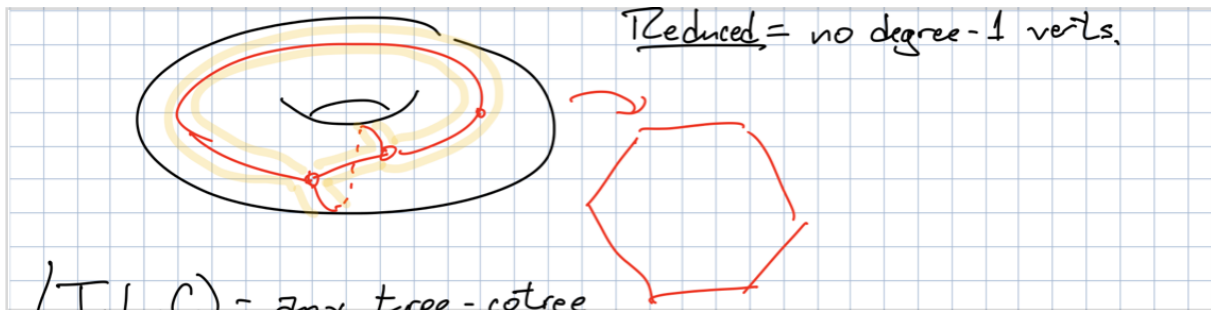


- This decomposition is useful for understanding how certain paths in the primal graph move around handles and twists. The fundamental cycle or puncture-to-puncture path created by adding any edge of L to F is analogous to an edge in a triangulated polygon with holes.
- There's also the *forest-cotree decomposition* $(\text{partial } G, F, C, L)$.
 - $\text{partial } G =$ boundary edges
 - $C =$ spanning tree of $G^* \setminus \text{punctures}$
 - $F =$ spanning forest of G with each tree containing one boundary vertex

- $L = E \setminus (\text{partial } G \cup C \cup G)$
- $|L| = |E| - |C| - |F| - |\text{partial } G| = 2g + h + (\# \text{ boundary vertices} - 1) + b + (\# \text{ boundary vertices}) = 2g + h + b - 1$



- This decomposition is useful because $T \cup L$ forms a *cutgraph*, a subgraph of G that cuts the surface into a disk (observe how the non-boundary faces are now simply connected, because C is a spanning tree of $G^* \setminus \text{punctures}$).



- Often, the most useful cutgraphs are the *reduced* ones, meaning a cutgraph with no degree-1 vertices. For example, if you want to map a texture to a surface, you can use a reduced cutgraph as your seam.
- Cutgraphs are also useful because "interesting" cycles on the surface are forced to cross them.
- You can reduce an arbitrary cutgraph (like $T \cup L$) by iteratively removing degree-1 vertices. Think of it as trimming the "hair" off the cutgraph.