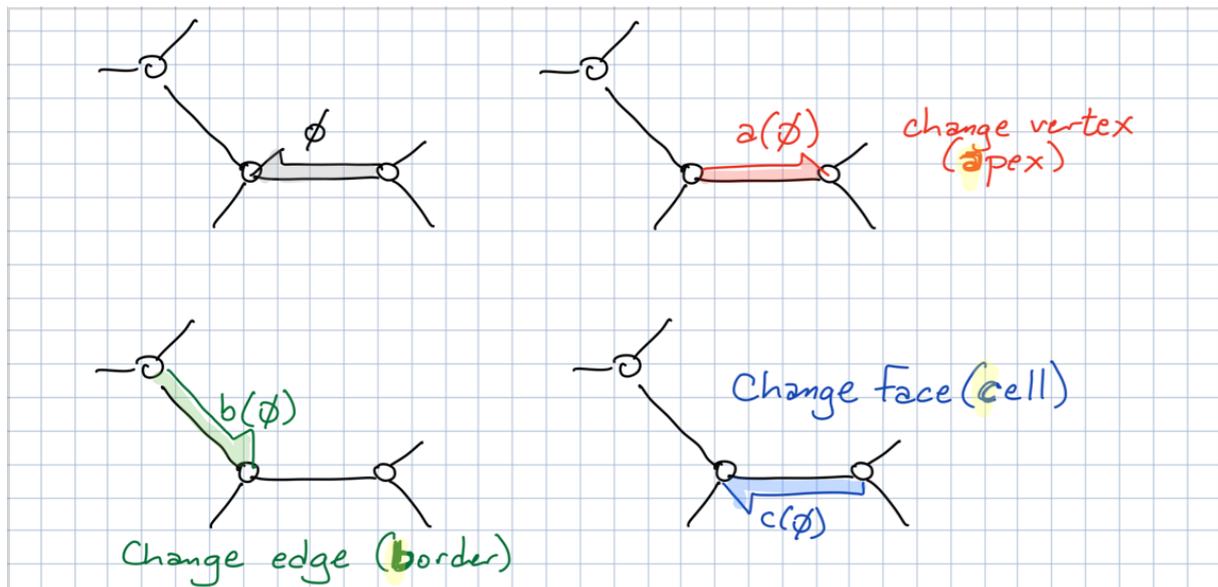


# CS 7301.003.20F Lecture 14–October 5, 2020

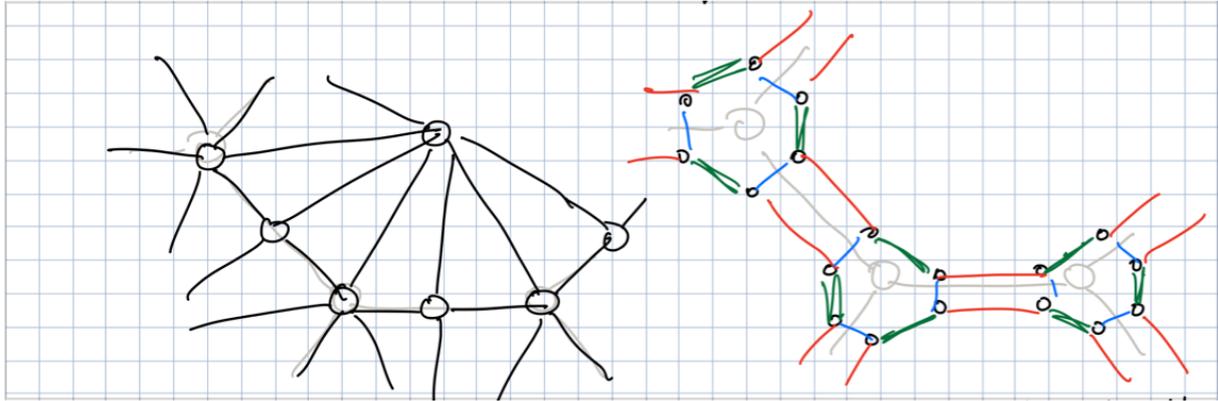
Main topics are `#surface_maps`.

## Reflection Systems

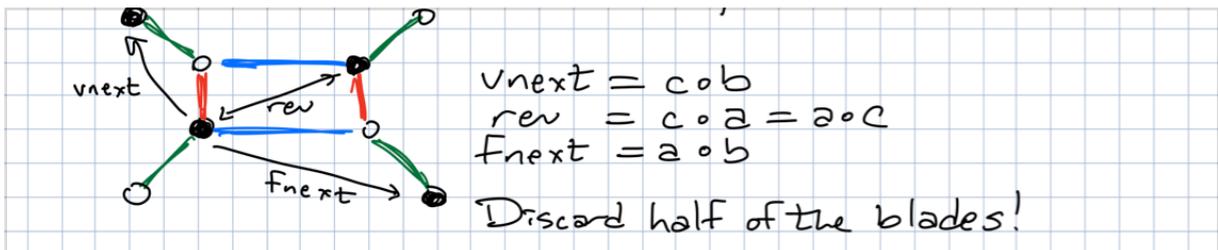
- When working with non-orientable surfaces, it's useful to describe an embedding using something called a *reflection system*  $(\Phi, a, b, c)$ .
- Each member of  $\Phi$  is called a *blade* or *flag*.
- Each of  $a, b,$  and  $c$  is an involution on  $\Phi$  such that  $a \circ c = c \circ a$ .



- 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*  $G^{\text{box}}$ . Here, we replace each vertex of degree  $\delta$  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  $(\Phi, c, b, a)$ . 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  $\Phi$  can be partitioned into  $\Phi^+$  and  $\Phi^-$  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.)

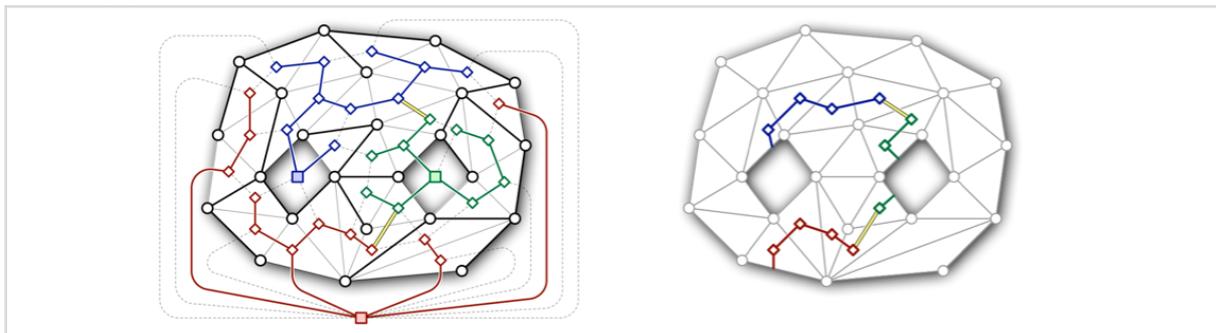
## Classification

- 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!
- $\text{Sigma}(g, h) = \text{Sigma}(g - 1, h + 2)$  if  $h > 0$ .
- Implying every surface is either the orientable  $\text{Sigma}(g, 0)$  for some  $g \geq 0$  or the non-orientable  $\text{Sigma}(0, g)$  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*.

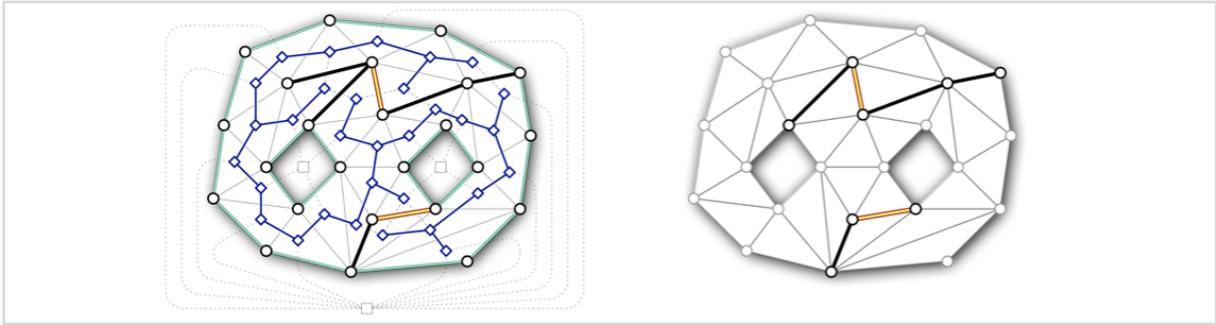
## Surface with Boundary

- 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  $|L| = 2g + h + b - 1$

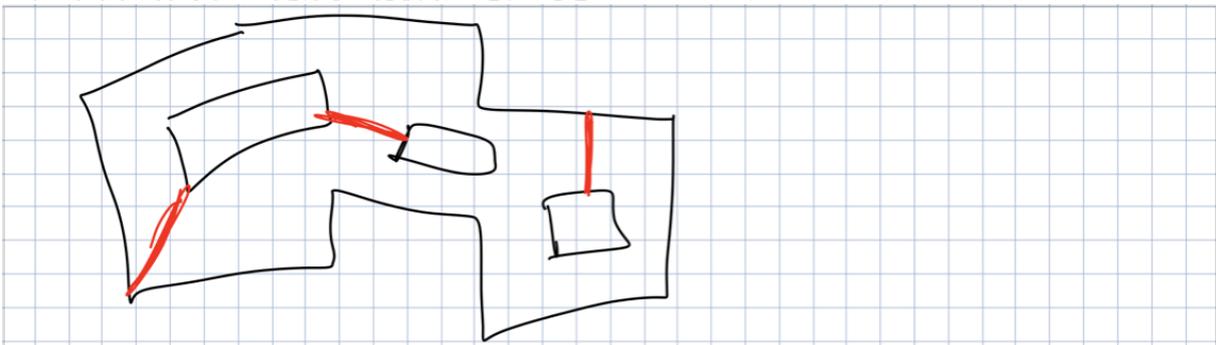
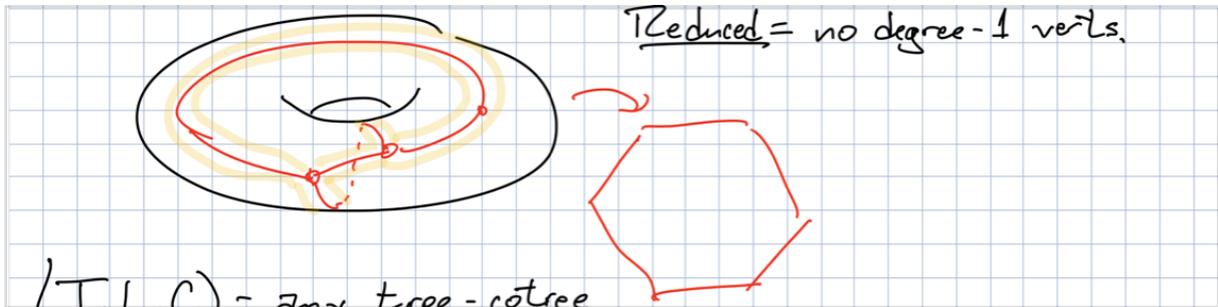


- This decomposition is useful for understanding how certain paths in the primal graph move around handles and twists. The fundamental cycle or puncture-to-puncture path created by adding any edge of  $L$  to  $F$  is analogous to an edge in a triangulated polygon with holes.
- There's also the *forest-cotree 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.