# Path-Space Differentiable Rendering 

Supplemental Document

CHENG ZHANG, University of California, Irvine<br>BAILEY MILLER, Carnegie Mellon University<br>KAI YAN, University of California, Irvine<br>IOANNIS GKIOULEKAS, Carnegie Mellon University<br>SHUANG ZHAO, University of California, Irvine

## 1 DIFFERENTIATING INTEGRALS OVER EVOLVING SURFACES

Our derivation of differential path integrals in $\S 5$ of the paper relies heavily on mathematical preliminaries described in $\S 3.1$ and §3.2. Specifically, in §3.1 of the paper, we present mathematical tools for expressing the evolution of surfaces, local velocities of surface/curve points driven by such evolutions, and scene derivatives of scalar fields defined on evolving surfaces. In $\S 3.2$, we further show a transport relation proposed by Cermelli et al. [2005] that calculates derivatives of integrals defined on evolving surfaces.
In what follows, we use a few simple examples to demonstrate how these mathematical concepts and tools work.

### 1.1 Translating Square

We first consider a unit square that evolves by translating along the direction $(1,1,1)$. That is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{M}(\pi)=\left\{(x, y, \pi) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: \pi<x, y<1+\pi\right\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$. Eq. (1) effectively gives the trajectory of the translating square:

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{T} & :=\{(x, \pi): x \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)\} \\
& =\left\{(x, y, \pi, \pi) \in \mathbb{R}^{4}: \pi<x, y<1+\pi\right\} . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

There exist infinitely many combinations of reference configuration $\mathcal{B}$ and motion X that produce this trajectory. For instance, if we pick

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{B}:=\left\{(x, y, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: 0<x, y<1\right\}, \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

it is easy to verify that the motion

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(\boldsymbol{p}, \pi)=p+(\pi, \pi, \pi) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all material points $\boldsymbol{p} \in \mathcal{B}$, gives the trajectory (2). The corresponding reference map that transforms $\mathcal{M}(\pi)$ back to the reference $\mathcal{B}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{P}(x, \pi)=x-(\pi, \pi, \pi), \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$.
Velocities of surface points. The motion in Eq. (4) induces a global parameterization $\hat{x}^{\mathrm{global}}(\xi, \pi)$ of the translating square via

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{x}^{\text {global }}(\xi, \pi)=\mathrm{x}\left(\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, 0\right), \pi\right)=\left(\xi_{1}+\pi, \xi_{2}+\pi, \pi\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\xi}=\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}\right) \in(0,1)^{2}$. Under this surface parameterization, a spatial point $(x, y, \pi) \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$ has local coordinates $(x-\pi, y-\pi)$.

Further, it holds that, for any spatial point $x \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$ with local coordinates $\xi$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\text {global }}(x, \pi):=\frac{\partial \hat{x}^{\text {global }}}{\partial \pi}(\xi, \pi)=\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi}\left(\xi_{1}+\pi, \xi_{2}+\pi, \pi\right)=(1,1,1) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, the local velocity of all (spatial) points on the square equals ( $1,1,1$ ).

Alternatively, we can also parameterize the square locally without relying on the motion in Eq. (4). One possibility is to set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{x}^{\text {local }}\left(\xi, \pi^{\prime}\right)=\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, \pi^{\prime}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with respect to any fixed $\pi$ and spatial point $(x, y, \pi) \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$. Under this parameterization, the spatial point has local coordinates $(x, y)$ and local velocity

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\text {local }}(x, \pi)=\frac{\partial \hat{x}^{\text {local }}}{\partial \pi^{\prime}}\left(\xi, \pi^{\prime}\right)=\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi^{\prime}}\left(\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, \pi^{\prime}\right)=(0,0,1) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the surface normal $\boldsymbol{n}$ of the evolving square remains constantly $(0,0,1)$, the scalar normal velocity of all $x \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$ equals

$$
\begin{equation*}
V=\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}=\underbrace{(1,1,1)}_{\text {Eq. (7) }} \cdot(0,0,1)=\underbrace{(0,0,1)}_{\text {Eq. (9) }} \cdot(0,0,1)=1 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

confirming its parameterization-independence. Additionally, the global parameterization (6) gives the local tangential velocity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{v}_{\text {tan }}^{\text {global }}=v^{\text {global }}-V \boldsymbol{n}=(1,1,1)-1(0,0,1)=(1,1,0), \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{M}(\pi)$. The local parameterization (8), on the contrary, provides zero local tangential velocity. That is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
v_{\tan }^{\text {local }}=(0,0,0) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Scene derivatives. We consider a scalar field

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(x, \pi)=x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{x}=(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
Under the global parameterization (6), a spatial point $\boldsymbol{x}=(x, y, \pi) \in$ $\mathcal{M}(\pi)$ has local coordinates $\xi=(x-\pi, y-\pi)$. The scene derivative
given by this parameterization for any fixed $\pi$ and $x$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{\varphi}^{\text {global }}(x, \pi) & =\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi^{\prime}} \varphi\left(\hat{x}^{\text {global }}\left(\xi, \pi^{\prime}\right), \pi^{\prime}\right)\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi} \\
& =\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi^{\prime}} \varphi\left(\left(x-\pi+\pi^{\prime}, y-\pi+\pi^{\prime}, \pi^{\prime}\right), \pi^{\prime}\right)\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi}  \tag{14}\\
& =\left.\frac{\partial\left[\left(x-\pi+\pi^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(y-\pi+\pi^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right]}{\partial \pi^{\prime}}\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi} \\
& =2(x+y+\pi) .
\end{align*}
$$

As the surface gradient of $\varphi$ at $x$ equals $(\partial \varphi / \partial x, \partial \varphi / \partial y, 0)=(2 x, 2 y, 0)$, the corresponding normal scene derivative is

$$
\begin{align*}
\stackrel{\square}{\varphi}(x, \pi) & =\dot{\varphi}^{\operatorname{global}}(x, \pi)-\underbrace{v_{\tan }^{\text {global }}(x, \pi)}_{\text {Eq. }(11)} \cdot\left(\operatorname{grad}_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi\right)(x, \pi)  \tag{15}\\
& =2(x+y+\pi)-(1,1,0) \cdot(2 x, 2 y, 0) \\
& =2 \pi
\end{align*}
$$

Under the local parameterization (8), a spatial point $x=(x, y, \pi) \in$ $\mathcal{M}(\pi)$ has local coordinates $\boldsymbol{\xi}=(x, y)$. The scene derivative for any fixed $\pi$ and $x$, in this case, equals

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{\varphi}^{\operatorname{local}}(x, \pi) & =\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi^{\prime}} \varphi\left(\hat{x}^{\operatorname{local}}\left(\xi, \pi^{\prime}\right), \pi^{\prime}\right)\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi} \\
& =\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi^{\prime}} \varphi\left(\left(x, y, \pi^{\prime}\right), \pi^{\prime}\right)\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi}  \tag{16}\\
& =\left.\frac{\partial\left[x^{2}+y^{2}+\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right]}{\partial \pi^{\prime}}\right|_{\pi^{\prime}=\pi} \\
& =2 \pi .
\end{align*}
$$

Computing the corresponding normal scene derivative yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\stackrel{\square}{\varphi}(x, \pi)=\dot{\varphi}^{\operatorname{local}}(x, \pi)-\underbrace{v_{\tan }^{\operatorname{local}}(x, \pi)}_{\text {Eq. }(12)} \cdot\left(\operatorname{grad}_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi\right)(x, \pi)=2 \pi, \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

which agrees with Eq. (15). This is expected since normal scene derivatives are parameterization-independent.

Differentiating surface integrals. We now consider the problem of differentiating the surface integral of $\varphi(\boldsymbol{x}, \pi)$ in Eq. (13) over the translating square $\mathcal{M}(\pi)$.

Given the Eqs. (1) and (13), it holds that, for fixed $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi(x, \pi) \mathrm{d} A(\boldsymbol{x}) \\
= & \int_{\pi}^{\pi+1} \int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+\pi^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} x \mathrm{~d} y  \tag{18}\\
= & 3 \pi^{2}+2 \pi+\frac{2}{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, we know that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \pi} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi(x, \pi) \mathrm{d} A(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \pi}\left(3 \pi^{2}+2 \pi+\frac{2}{3}\right)=6 \pi+2 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

In what follows, we use the transport relation expressed in Eq. (11) from $\S 3.2$ of the paper to calculate the derivative of Eq. (19). Since
$\varphi$ is continuous and the plane has zero curvature, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \pi} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi \mathrm{d} A=\int_{\mathcal{M}} \stackrel{\square}{\varphi} \mathrm{d} A+\int_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \varphi V_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \mathrm{d} \ell \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{\partial \mathcal{M}}$ indicates the normal velocity of a point on the square's boundary.

Given Eq. (15), it holds that the interior term equals

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\mathcal{M}} \stackrel{\square}{\varphi} \mathrm{d} A=\int_{\mathcal{M}} 2 \pi \mathrm{~d} A=2 \pi \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

To calculate the remaining boundary term, we need to have available the normal velocity $V_{\partial \mathcal{M}}$. Since this quantity is parameterizationindependent, we parameterize the boundary curve $\partial \mathcal{M}$ globally using Eq. (6) so that all boundary points have local velocity $(1,1,1)$. Then, $V_{\partial \mathcal{M}}$ remains constant on each edge of the square:

- All points on the edges with unit normal $(0,-1,0)$ and $(-1,0,0)$ have $V_{\partial \mathcal{M}}=-1$;
- Those on the edges with unit normal $(0,1,0)$ and $(1,0,0)$ have $V_{\partial \mathcal{M}}=1$.

It follows that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \int_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \varphi V_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \mathrm{d} \ell \\
= & \int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}-\left[x^{2}+\pi^{2}+\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} x+\int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}\left[x^{2}+(\pi+1)^{2}+\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} x+ \\
& \int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}-\left[\pi^{2}+y^{2}+\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} y+\int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}\left[(\pi+1)^{2}+y^{2}+\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} y \\
= & \int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}\left[(\pi+1)^{2}-\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} x+\int_{\pi}^{\pi+1}\left[(\pi+1)^{2}-\pi^{2}\right] \mathrm{d} y \\
= & (2 \pi+1)+(2 \pi+1)=4 \pi+2 . \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \pi} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi \mathrm{d} A=\underbrace{\int_{\mathcal{M}} \stackrel{\square}{\varphi} \mathrm{d} A}_{\text {Eq. (21) }}+\underbrace{\int_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \varphi V_{\partial \mathcal{M}} \mathrm{d} \ell}_{\text {Eq. (22) }} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

which agrees with Eq. (19).

### 1.2 Scaling Sphere

Our second example involves a scaling sphere centered at the origin. Specifically, ${ }^{1}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{M}(r)=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=r^{2}\right\} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $r>0$.
Let the reference configuration be the unit sphere:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{B}=\mathbb{S}^{2}:=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=1\right\} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, it is easy to verify that the motion

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(\boldsymbol{p}, r)=r \boldsymbol{p} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]for any fixed $r$, gives a smooth one-to-one mapping from $\mathcal{B}$ to the scaling sphere $\mathcal{M}(r)$. This motion further induces a global parameterization of the sphere such that, a spatial point $x \in \mathcal{M}(r)$ has local velocity
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\text {global }}(x, r)=\frac{x}{\|x\|}=\frac{x}{r} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

which has zero tangential component (i.e., $v_{\text {tan }}^{\text {global }}=0$ ). Since the surface normal at $x \in \mathcal{M}(r)$ on the sphere is $x / r$, the scalar normal velocity at $x$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
V=v^{\text {global }} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}=\frac{x}{r} \cdot \frac{x}{r}=\frac{x \cdot x}{r^{2}}=1 . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Additionally, for $\varphi(x, r)$ defined in Eq. (13),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\stackrel{\square}{\varphi}(x, \pi)=\dot{\varphi}^{\text {local }}(x, r)=\left.\frac{\partial}{\partial r^{\prime}} \underbrace{\varphi\left(\mathrm{X}\left(\boldsymbol{p}, r^{\prime}\right), r^{\prime}\right)}_{=\left(r^{\prime}\right)^{2}}\right|_{r^{\prime}=r}=2 r \text {. } \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Differentiating surface integrals. We now consider the problem of differentiating the surface integral of $\varphi(x, r)$ over the scaling square. Since $\varphi(x, r)=r^{2}$ for all $x \in \mathcal{M}(r)$, it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi \mathrm{d} A=4 \pi r^{4}, \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} r} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi \mathrm{d} A=16 \pi r^{3} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note that the scaling square has no boundary and that the total curvature $\kappa$ equals $-2 / r$ for all $x \in \mathcal{M}(r)$. Hence, when differentiating the surface integral using the transport relation from Eq. (11) of the paper, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \pi} \int_{\mathcal{M}} \varphi \mathrm{d} A & =\int_{\mathcal{M}}(\text { 号 }-\varphi \kappa V) \mathrm{d} A \\
& =\int_{\mathcal{M}}\left(2 r-r^{2} \frac{-2}{r}\right) \mathrm{d} A  \tag{32}\\
& =\int_{\mathcal{M}} 4 r \mathrm{~d} A \\
& =\left(4 \pi r^{2}\right)(4 r)=16 \pi r^{3}
\end{align*}
$$

which agrees with Eq. (31).

## 2 CHANGE-OF-VARIABLE JACOBIAN

When introducing our material-form reparameterization of the direct-illumination integral in $\S 4.1$ of the paper, a key ingredient is the Jacobian determinant capturing the change of variable from spatial points $\boldsymbol{x}$ to material points $\boldsymbol{p}$.
Precisely, at $x=X(\boldsymbol{p}, \pi)$, this term captures the ratio of the infinitesimal area $\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ spanned by $\boldsymbol{d}_{\alpha}=X(\boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{d}, \pi)-x$ and $\boldsymbol{e}_{\alpha}=X(\boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{e}, \pi)-\boldsymbol{x}$ to the area $\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{p}}$ spanned by $\alpha \boldsymbol{d}$ and $\alpha \boldsymbol{e}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(\boldsymbol{p})=\left|\frac{\mathrm{d} A(\boldsymbol{x})}{\mathrm{d} A(\boldsymbol{p})}\right|=\lim _{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{x}}}{\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{p}}}=\lim _{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left|\boldsymbol{d}_{\alpha} \times \boldsymbol{e}_{\alpha}\right|}{|\alpha \boldsymbol{d} \times \alpha \boldsymbol{e}|}, \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

where " $x$ " denotes vector cross product (see Figure 1).
We consider a special case where the reference configuration $\mathcal{B}$ is a triangle with vertices $\boldsymbol{p}_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ for $i=1,2,3$. For any $\boldsymbol{p} \in \mathcal{B}$ with barycentric coordinates ( $s, t$ ), that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{p}=(1-s-t) \boldsymbol{p}_{1}+s \boldsymbol{p}_{2}+t \boldsymbol{p}_{3} . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$



Fig. 1. Given a deformation $X(\cdot, \pi)$ with fixed $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$, the Jacobian term of Eq. (33) equals the ratio of the infinitesimal areas $\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{x}}$ and $\Delta A_{\boldsymbol{p}}$.

Then, we can set $\boldsymbol{d}=\boldsymbol{p}_{2}-\boldsymbol{p}_{1}$ and $\boldsymbol{e}=\boldsymbol{p}_{3}-\boldsymbol{p}_{1}($ for all $\boldsymbol{p})$. Further,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{d}=(1-s-t-\alpha) \boldsymbol{p}_{1}+(s+\alpha) \boldsymbol{p}_{2}+t \boldsymbol{p}_{3}  \tag{35}\\
& \boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{e}=(1-s-t-\alpha) \boldsymbol{p}_{1}+s \boldsymbol{p}_{2}+(t+\alpha) \boldsymbol{p}_{3} . \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

Given $\dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$ for $i=1,2,3$, let

$$
\begin{align*}
X(\boldsymbol{p}, \pi) & =(1-s-t)\left(\boldsymbol{p}_{1}+\pi \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{1}\right)+s\left(\boldsymbol{p}_{2}+\pi \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{2}\right)+t\left(\boldsymbol{p}_{3}+\pi \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{3}\right) \\
& =\boldsymbol{p}+\pi\left[(1-s-t) \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{1}+s \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{2}+t \dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{3}\right], \tag{37}
\end{align*}
$$

for all $\boldsymbol{p}$ with barycentric coordinates $(s, t)$. It follows that

$$
\begin{align*}
\boldsymbol{d}_{\alpha} & =X(\boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{d}, \pi)-\mathrm{X}(\boldsymbol{p}, \pi)=\alpha(\boldsymbol{d}+\pi \dot{\boldsymbol{d}}),  \tag{38}\\
\boldsymbol{e}_{\alpha} & =\mathrm{X}(\boldsymbol{p}+\alpha \boldsymbol{e}, \pi)-\mathrm{X}(\boldsymbol{p}, \pi)=\alpha(\boldsymbol{e}+\pi \dot{\boldsymbol{e}}), \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\dot{\boldsymbol{d}}:=\dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{2}-\dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{1}$ and $\dot{\boldsymbol{e}}:=\dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{3}-\dot{\boldsymbol{p}}_{1}$. Thus, the change-of-variable Jacobian determinant of Eq. (33) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(\boldsymbol{p})=\frac{\left|\boldsymbol{d} \times \boldsymbol{e}+\pi(\boldsymbol{d} \times \dot{\boldsymbol{e}}+\dot{\boldsymbol{d}} \times \boldsymbol{e})+\pi^{2}(\dot{\boldsymbol{d}} \times \dot{\boldsymbol{e}})\right|}{|\boldsymbol{d} \times \boldsymbol{e}|}, \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is independent of the barycentric coordinates $(s, t)$ of $\boldsymbol{p}$. In other words, under the motion of Eq. (37), $J$ remains constant for all material points $\boldsymbol{p} \in \mathcal{B}$.

When $\pi=0$, it is easy to verify that $J(\boldsymbol{p})$ given by Eq. (40) equals one. On the contrary, the derivative $\partial J / \partial \pi$, which can be calculated using automatic differentiation, is generally non-zero.

## REFERENCES

Paolo Cermelli, Eliot Fried, and Morton E Gurtin. 2005. Transport relations for surface integrals arising in the formulation of balance laws for evolving fluid interfaces. Journal of Fluid Mechanics 544 (2005), 339-351.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We use " $r$ " instead of " $\pi$ " as the parameter in this example since we will be using the latter to indicate Archimedes' constant (i.e., the ratio of a circle's circumference to its diameter).

