

# Differential Geometry Class Notes

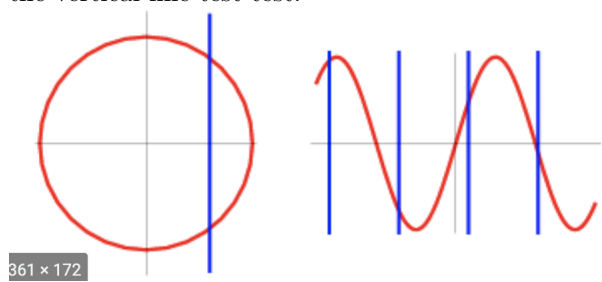
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## 1 Regular Curves

Overview of key concepts will be covered in today's lecture. Definition A *parametrized differentiable curve* is a differentiable map  $\alpha : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  of an open interval  $I = (a, b)$  of the real line  $\mathbb{R}$  into  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Limitations of multivariable functions for complex shapes: As we learned in 8th grade a function can return only one value for each input. This means that certain shapes are not possible. We see this visually with the vertical line test.



But a circle can be modeled easily with a parametric curve. Use  $I = (0, 2\pi)$ ,  $\alpha(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t))$

Definition *Regular curves* are curves where at least the second derivative exists and  $\alpha'(t) \neq 0$ . These are curves to which you can fit data. we require  $\alpha'(t) \neq 0$  to guarantee the existence of tangent vectors. Later we also require  $\alpha''(t) \neq 0$  to guarantee the existence of normal vectors.

- $x^2 + y^2 = 1$
- $\alpha(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t))$
- $\begin{cases} x = \sin(t) \\ y = \cos(t), 0 < t \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$
- $\beta(t) = e^{it}$

Note: The second is a parametrized curve. Also the second and third have different orientations. The first one, does not tell us any orientations.

Let's see another example. A helix in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The parametrized helix can be written as a 3D curve

$$\gamma(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t), t)$$

When the curve is parameterized by *arc length* (i.e., speed at each point is 1), then we can use the Frenet Frame to describe the curve locally. You can think of this as a three-arrowed axis which travels along the curve and describes the rate change of these frames along the curve.

**Recall:** a function being differentiable can be tested by looking at whether

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$$

exists and is continuous for all  $i$  and  $j$  (This is called  $C^1$  differentiable). This is a sufficient condition for  $f$  being  $C^1$  differentiable. However, when we speak of parameterized curves being “differentiable”, we really mean smooth or infinitely differentiable, i.e.  $f \in \mathbb{C}^\infty$

Recall: a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is differentiable only if each of its  $m$  component functions is differentiable.

**Example Helix:**  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , such that  $z$  can be anything. Observe that this function, in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , is a circle.

We may parameterize the circle as

$$\begin{cases} x(t) = a \cos(t) \\ y(t) = a \sin(t) \end{cases} \quad 0 < t \leq 2\pi$$

which implies the parametrized curve being

$$\alpha(t) = (a \cos(t), a \sin(t))$$

The following is a different parametrized curve even they have the same trace.

$$\begin{cases} x = \sin(t) \\ y = \cos(t) \end{cases} \quad 0 < t \leq 2\pi$$

which implies the parametrized curve is

$$\beta(t) = (a \sin(t), a \cos(t))$$

for the parameter  $0 < t \leq 2\pi$ .

Consider another parametrized curve, which have same trace

$$\begin{cases} x = \cos(2\pi t) \\ y = \sin(2\pi t) \end{cases} \quad 0 < t \leq 1$$

Which may be written as

$$\gamma(t) = (a \cos(2\pi t), a \sin(2\pi t))$$

These parameterizations trace out the same curve and we say that they have the same *trace*. Q: why do we need to use parametrized curve?

A: Let's understand the reason by above examples. A parametrized curve describes a curve as a particle, it records the moving particle orientations, even back and forth motion in the middle of a circle or a motion cover the circle many times. But  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  is after the "battle", just leaving us a trace. Therefore parametrized curves can capture dynamics and kinematics in physics and computer vision (e.g. see a person moving forward then backward on pedestrian walkways.)

Consider the magnitude of the derivative of the first parameterization. We find that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\alpha'(t)\| &= \sqrt{(-a \sin(t))^2 + (a \cos(t))^2} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2(\sin^2 t + \cos^2(t))} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2} \\ &= a. \end{aligned}$$

For the other parameterization,  $\gamma$ , we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma'(t) &= (-2\pi a \sin(2\pi t), 2\pi a \cos(2\pi t)) \\ \|\gamma'(t)\| &= \sqrt{(-2\pi a)^2(\sin^2 t + \cos^2(t))} \\ &= 2\pi a. \end{aligned}$$

Example 3.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha: \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\ t &\rightarrow (t^3, t^2) = \alpha(t) \\ \alpha'(t) &= (3t^2, 2t) = \vec{0} \\ &\begin{cases} 3t^2 = 0 \\ 2t = 0 \end{cases} \quad t = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\alpha$  at  $t=0$  is not regular.

Example 4.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha: \mathbb{R} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2 \\ t &\rightarrow (t^3 - 4t, t^2 - 4) = \alpha(t) \\ \alpha'(t) &= (3t^2 - 4, 2t) = \vec{0} \iff \begin{cases} 3t^2 - 4 = 0 \\ 2t = 0 \end{cases} \quad t = 0, -4 \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Every point is regular.

Example 5. See the slides. Example 6. Find the intersection curve in a parametric form of sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 2^2$  and cylinder  $(x - 1)^2 + y^2 = 1$ . This will be our homework!

Solution: Hint: Let

$$\begin{cases} x - 1 = \cos(t) \\ y = \sin(t) \\ z = s \end{cases}$$

Then, plug this set of equations into the equation of the sphere. You get

$$(1 + \cos(t))^2 + \sin(t)^2 + s^2 = 4.$$

Then you can solve for  $s$  in terms of  $t$ . This is called a Viviani curve. If you want to find the length of this curve, then the length formula is non-integrable. Our homework will be to find a parametrization of this curve, and approximate the length of this curve use numerical method.

## 2 Arc Length of a Curve

**Definition.** Arc length. Refer to handout. Example: consider the circle

$$\alpha(t) = (\cos(t), \sin(t)),$$

where  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Equivalently, consider

$$\beta(t) = (\cos(2\pi t), \sin(2\pi t)),$$

where  $t \in [0, 1]$

**Definition.**  $\alpha$  is parameterized by arc length if and only if it has unit speed.

In the above example,  $\alpha$  is parameterized by arc length but  $\beta$  is not. That is since

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha'(t) &= (-\sin(t), \cos(t)) \\ \|\alpha'(t)\| &= 1\end{aligned}$$

while

$$\begin{aligned}\beta'(t) &= (-2\pi \sin(t), 2\pi \cos(t)) \\ \|\beta'(t)\| &= 2\pi\end{aligned}\quad (\text{which is not } 1).$$

Why do we need a curve parameterized by arc length? Here is why.

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha(s) & && (\text{parameterized by arc length}) \\ \|\alpha'(s)\| &= 1 \\ \|\alpha'(s)\|^2 &= 1 \\ \alpha'(s) \cdot \alpha'(s) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

When you take the derivative of both sides, you get

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha''(s) \cdot \alpha'(s) + \alpha'(s) \cdot \alpha''(s) &= 0 \\ 2(\alpha''(s) \cdot \alpha'(s)) &= 0 \\ \alpha''(s) &\perp \alpha'(s)\end{aligned}$$

Which shows that the second derivative of  $\alpha$  is guaranteed to be orthogonal to its velocity if it is parameterized by arc length. This has applications to the Frenet Frame.

**Definition.** Frenet Frame. With  $\|\alpha'(s)\| = 1$ , let  $\vec{t} = \alpha'(s)$  be the tangent vector. Then, let

$$\vec{n} = \frac{\alpha''(s)}{\|\alpha''(s)\|}.$$

Define  $\vec{b} = \vec{t} \times \vec{n}$ . Now  $\{\vec{t}, \vec{n}, \vec{b}\}$  forms the Frenet Frame, which is an orthonormal frame.

Now taking the derivative of  $\vec{b} = \vec{t} \times \vec{n}$ , you get torsion, Here is some work showing that.

$$\vec{b}'(s) = \vec{t}'(s) \times \vec{n}(s).$$

Claim:

$$\vec{b}'(s) = \tau(s)\vec{n}(s).$$

Proof: Key idea: we prove  $\vec{b}'(s) \perp \vec{t}(s)$  and  $\vec{b}'(s) \perp \vec{b}(s)$ ; which will force  $\vec{b}'(s)\vec{n}(s)$

We start with

$$\vec{b}(s) = \vec{t}(s) \times \vec{n}(s).$$

We take the derivative of both sides to get

$$\vec{b}'(s) = \text{vect}'(s) \times \vec{n}(s) + \vec{t}(s) \times \vec{n}'(s)$$

The left term of the RHS is zero since  $\vec{t}'(s)$  is  $\vec{n}(s)$ , which implies that  $\vec{b}''(s) \perp \vec{t}(s)$ .

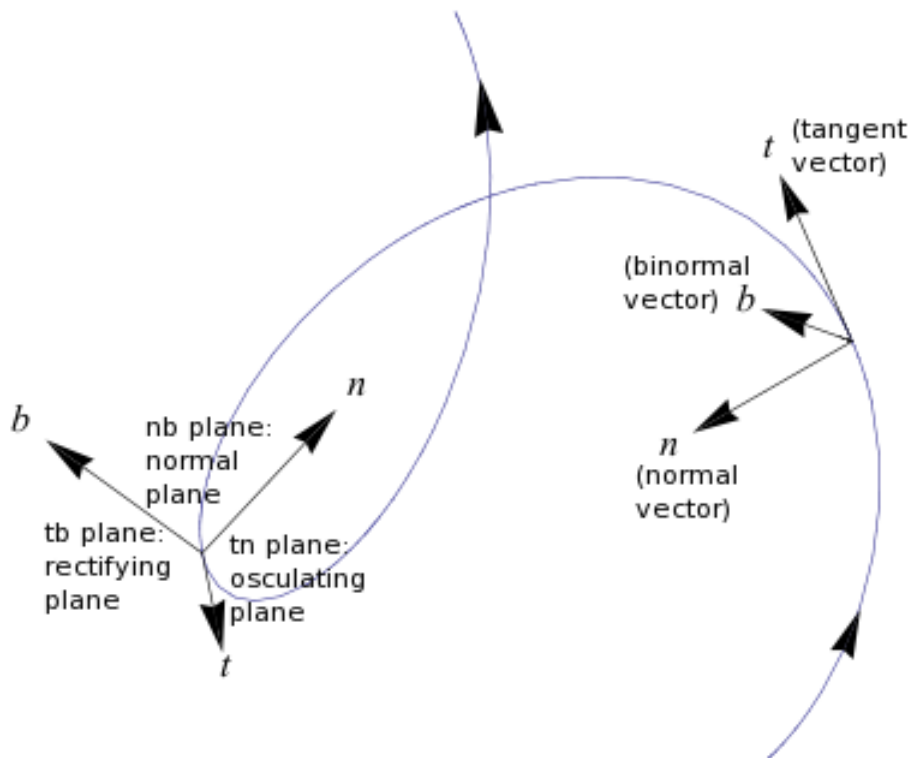
To prove the second claim, we again start with

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{b}(s) &= \vec{t}(s) \times \vec{n}(s) \\ \|\vec{b}(s)\| &= \|\vec{t}(s) \times \vec{n}(s)\| \\ &= \|\vec{t}(s)\| \|\vec{n}(s)\| \sin \theta \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Having shown that, we note the implication that

$$\begin{aligned}\|\vec{b}(s)\|^2 &= 1 \\ \vec{b}(s) \cdot \vec{b}(s) &= 1 && \text{(Now take the derivative.)} \\ \vec{b}'(s) \cdot \vec{b}(s) + \vec{b}(s) \cdot \vec{b}'(s) &= 0 \\ 2\vec{b}'(s) \cdot \vec{b}(s) &= 0 \\ \vec{b}'(s) \perp \vec{b}(s)\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\alpha''(s) = (\alpha'(s))'$ . That is you can interpret the second derivative of a curve  $\alpha$  as the rate of change of its tangent vectors.

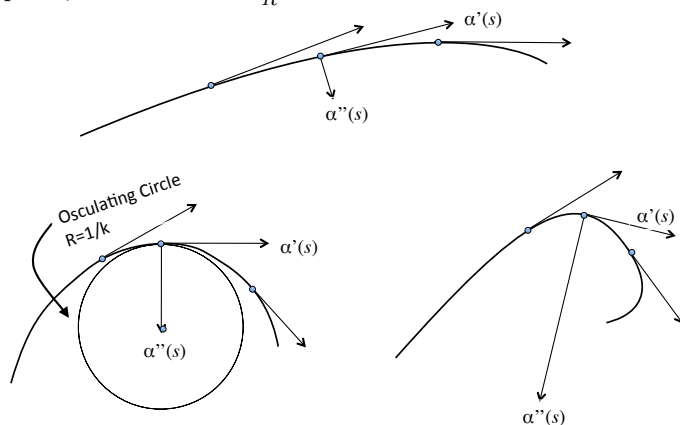


Definition The speed is  $\tau(s)$

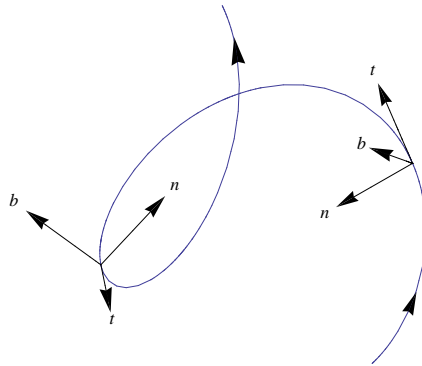
Definition Curvature. Let  $\alpha : I \rightarrow^3$  be a curve parametrized by arc length  $s \in I$ . The number  $\|\alpha''(s)\| = k(s)$  is called the *curvature* of  $\alpha$  at  $s$ .

Geometric Meaning Let  $\alpha : I = (a, b) \rightarrow^3$  be a curve parametrized by arc length  $s$ . Since the tangent vector  $\alpha'(s)$  has unit length, the norm  $\|\alpha''(s)\|$  of the second derivative measures the rate of change of the angle which neighboring tangents make with the tangent at  $s$ .  $\|\alpha''(s)\|$  gives, therefore, a measure of how rapidly the curve pulls away from the tangent line at  $s$ , in a neighborhood of  $s$ .

Another geometric meaning: Curvature is related to the radius of the circle most closely fitting a curve at a point, such that  $K = \frac{1}{R}$ .



Torsion Since  $b(s)$  is a unit vector, the length  $\|b'(s)\|$  measures the rate of change of the neighboring osculating planes with the osculating plane at  $s$ ; that is  $b'(s)$  measures how rapidly the curve pulls away from the osculating plane at  $s$ , in a neighborhood of  $s$ .



Let  $\alpha : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a curve parametrized by arc length  $s$  such that  $\alpha''(s) \neq 0, s \in I$ . The number  $\tau(s)$  defined by  $\vec{b}'(s) = \tau(s)\vec{n}(s)$  is called the *torsion* of  $\alpha$  at  $s$ .

### 3 Frenet Formula

$$\begin{cases} \vec{t}'(s) &= 0\vec{t}(s) + k(s)\vec{n}(s) + 0\vec{b}(s) \\ \vec{n}'(s) &= -k(s)\vec{t}(s) + 0\vec{n}(s) + \tau(s)\vec{b}(s) \\ \vec{b}'(s) &= 0\vec{t}(s) + \tau(s)\vec{n}(s) + 0\vec{b}(s) \end{cases}$$

Let's figure out what is  $\vec{n}'(s)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{n}(s) &= \vec{b}(s) \times \vec{t}(s) \\ \vec{n}'(s) &= \vec{b}'(s) \times \vec{t}(s) + \vec{b}(s) \times \vec{t}'(s) \\ &= \tau(s)\vec{n}(s) \times \vec{t}(s) + \vec{b} \times k(s)\vec{n}(s) \\ &= -\tau(s)\vec{b}(s) - k(s)\vec{t}(s) \end{aligned}$$

This exercise has shown us that we can fill in the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{t}'(s) \\ \vec{n}'(s) \\ \vec{b}'(s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & k(s) & 0 \\ -k(s) & 0 & \tau(s) \\ 0 & \tau(s) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vec{t}(s) \\ \vec{n}(s) \\ \vec{b}(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

called the Frenet Formula.

This is important because it theoretically gives us a key new method to study curved objects (such as manifolds!) by using a linear algebra problem.

For instance, consider a surface

$$\mathbf{X}(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)),$$

this could be the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ , with parameterization

$$\mathbf{X}(u, v) = (\cos u \cos v, \sin u \cos v, \sin v).$$

Using Frenet's Formula, you can examine the behavior local to any point.

This can be applied to applications such as

- identifying anomalous behavior from UAVs
- determining the trajectory of a cell phone using the onboard sensor data, and using the trajectory to analyze gait and identify users
- robotic surgery

## 4 Local Canonical Form for Curves

Local canonical form is an approximation. You get it by Taylor expanding around a single point. Consider any curve  $\alpha(s)$ . Let's expand around 0.

$$\alpha(s) = \alpha(0) + s\alpha'(0) + \frac{s^2}{2!}\alpha''(0) + \frac{s^3}{3!}\alpha'''(0) + \dots$$

$\alpha(0)$ ,  $\alpha'(0)$  and th

$$= (x(s), y(s), z(s))$$

Now, Taylor expand each dimension.

$$= (x(0) + x'(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}x''(0)t^2 + \dots \quad y(0) + y'(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}y''(0)t^2 + \dots \quad z(0) + z'(0)t + \frac{1}{2!}z''(0)t^2 + \dots)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} x(0) \\ y(0) \\ z(0) \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} x'(0) \\ y'(0) \\ z'(0) \end{pmatrix} t + \dots$$

Recall now that

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha'''(s) &= (\alpha''(s))' \\ &= (k(s)\vec{n}(s))' \\ &= k'(s)\vec{n}(s) + \vec{n}'(s)k(s) \\ &= k'(s)\vec{n}(s) + (-k\vec{t} - \tau\vec{b})k(s) \end{aligned}$$

We can similarly investigate the other terms of the Taylor expansion. We use

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha'(s) &= \vec{t}(s) \\ \alpha''(s) &= k(s)\vec{n}(s) \\ \alpha'''(s) &= k'(s)\vec{n}(s) + (-k\vec{t} - \tau\vec{b})k(s) \end{aligned}$$

Let  $R$  be the remainder after expanding to 4 terms. which allows us to collect

$$\alpha(s) - \alpha(0) = \left[ s - \frac{s^3}{3!}k^2(s) \right] \tau(s) + \left[ \frac{s^2}{2!}k(s) + \frac{s^3}{3!}k'(s) \right] \vec{n}(s) + \left[ \frac{s^3}{3!}\tau(s)k(s) \right] \vec{b}(s) + \vec{R}$$



which gives us a local representation of the curve, called Local Canonical Form.

$$x(s) = s - \frac{s^3}{3!}k^2(s) + R_x$$

$$y(s) = \frac{k}{2}s^2 + \frac{s^3}{3!}k'(s) + R_y$$

$$z(s) = -\frac{k\tau}{3!}s^3 + R_z$$