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3. Differential and Curvature

Differential

History of Differential



While the concept of the derivative or differential is nowadays one of the basic concepts in modern mathematics, it took a while to find a clean mathematical definition.

The notation $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is due to Leibniz who called dx and dy an "infinitely small change of x resp. y.

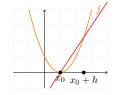
In 1924, Courant mentioned that the idea of the differential as infinite small expression "lacks any meaning" and is therefore "useless".

The modern notion of derivatives and differential is due to Cauchy and Weierstraß, which we want to revise in order to extend it later to smooth mappings between manifolds.

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Derivative according to Cauchy

Curvature of 2D Objects

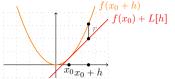


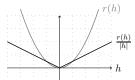
The derivative $f'(x_0)$ of a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ at the position $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is

$$f'(x_0) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

While this is a working mathematical definition, it is a bit difficult to extend it to arbitrary functions $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, since we cannot "divide by vectors".

Differential according to Weierstraß





Given a function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and a postion $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, its differential $Df(x_0)$ is the unique linear mapping $L\colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + L[h] + r(h)$$
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{r(h)}{|h|} = 0$$

Jacobi Matrix

Push-Forward Curvature of 2D Objects

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a differentiable function and $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$. The differential

$$Df(x_0) \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$$

is a linear mapping.

Using the canonical bases $\{e_1,\ldots,e_m\}$ for \mathbb{R}^m and $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$ for \mathbb{R}^n , $Df(x_0)$ can be written in matrix form, the Jacobi matrix

$$Df(x_0)[h] = J \cdot h \qquad J = \begin{pmatrix} J_{1,1} & \cdots & J_{1,m} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ J_{n,1} & \cdots & J_{n,m} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J_{i,j} = \langle e_i, J \cdot e_j \rangle = \langle e_i, Df(x_0)[e_j] \rangle = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f^i(x_0 + h \cdot e_j) - f^i(x_0)}{h} = \hat{o}_j f^i(x_0)$$

Chain Rule



Let $f\colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and $g\colon \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}^m$ be differentiable functions. Then we have

$$\begin{split} (f\circ g)(x_0+h) &= f\left(g(x_0) + Dg(x_0)[h] + r_g(h)\right) \\ &= (f\circ g)(x_0) + Df(g(x_0))\left[Dg(x_0)[h] + r_g(h)\right] + \\ &\quad r_f\left(Dg(x_0)[h] + r_g(h)\right) \\ &= (f\circ g)(x_0) + Df(g(x_0))\left[Dg(x_0)[h]\right] + r(h) \end{split}$$

Thus we have

$$D(\mathbf{f} \circ \mathbf{g})(x_0) = \mathbf{Df}(g(x_0)) \circ \mathbf{Dg}(x_0)$$

Chain Rule (Example)

Let $g_1,g_2\colon\mathbb{R}^m\to\mathbb{R}^n$ and $f\colon\mathbb{R}^n\times\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}^n$ with f(x,y):=x+y, we have

$$\begin{split} D(g_1 + g_2)(x_0) = &D(f \circ g)(x_0) = Df(g(x_0)) \cdot Dg(x_0) \\ = & \left(\text{id} \quad \text{id} \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} Dg_1(x_0) \\ Dg_2(x_0) \end{pmatrix} = Dg_1(x_0) + Dg_2(x_0) \end{split}$$

Let $g_1, g_2 \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f \colon \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x, y) := x \cdot y$, we have

$$\begin{split} D(g_1 \cdot g_2)(x_0) = & D(f \circ g)(x_0) = Df(g(x_0)) \cdot Dg(x_0) \\ = & \left(g_2(x_0) \quad g_1(x_0)\right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} Dg_1(x_0) \\ Dg_2(x_0) \end{pmatrix} \\ = & Dg_1(x_0) \cdot g_2(x_0) + Dg_2(x_0) \cdot g_1(x_0) \end{split}$$

Interpretation of the Differential

Given a function $f \colon \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ and a position $p \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the equation

$$f(p+v) = f(p) + Df(p)[v] + r(v)$$

can be interpreted as following:

- p describes a **point** in the space on which f is defined,
- v describes the **direction** in which we change the point p
- Df(p)[v] describes the **direction** in which f changes if we change the point pin the direction v.

For vector spaces, there is no distinction between points and directions. For manifolds M, points p will be on the manifold and directions on the tangent space



Push-Forward

Curve Representation of Tangent Vectors

tangent vector $v \in T_pM$ as a curve $c: (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \to M$ with c(0) = p.



To see this, let us look at the manifold from the point of view of a coordinate mapping $x: U \to M$ with $0 \in U \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and x(0) = p.

Since $v \in T_pM = \operatorname{Im}(Dx(0))$, we know that there is an $h \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that Dx(0)[h] = v.

Using

$$c\colon (-\varepsilon,\varepsilon)\to M$$

$$c(t) = x(t \cdot h),$$

we have

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$$Dc(0) = Dx(0 \cdot h) \cdot h = v.$$

Alternative Definition of Tangent Vectors

Given a point $p \in M$ of a d-dimensional submanifold $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we define

$$\mathcal{C}_pM:=\{c\colon (-\varepsilon,\varepsilon)\to M|\exists \varepsilon>0: c \text{ is smooth and } c(0)=p\}.$$

The goal is to define T_pM by defining an equivalence relation on C_pM :

$$c_1 \sim c_2$$
 : \Leftrightarrow $Dc_1(0) = Dc_2(0),$

It is easy to check that \sim satisfies reflexivity, symmetry and transitivity.

It turns out $T_pM=\mathcal{C}_pM/\sim$, which provides us with an alternative definition for the tangent space T_pM .

The advantage of this rather theoretical definition is that for any $v \in T_pM$ we can choose a curve $c \in v$ that passes through p and vice versa, i.e., any curve c that passes through a point p defines a tangent vector v := [c].

Differential as Push-Forward

Given two submanifolds M and N as well as a function $f: M \to N$. For $p \in M$ and $q = f(p) \in N$, the differential Df(p) is the push-forward

$$Df(p): T_pM \to T_qN$$

$$[c] \mapsto [f \circ c]$$

Assuming that $x_p \colon U_p \to M$ is a coordinate mapping for $p = x_p(0)$ and $x_q \colon U_q o N$ is a coordinate mapping for $q = x_q(0)$, the push-forward definition becomes

$$Df(p)[v] = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (x_q \circ x_q^{-1} \circ f \circ x_p)(t \cdot h) \right|_{t=0},$$

where $v = Dx_p(0)[h]$.

It is easy to show that the push-forward is a linear mapping. Excercise.

Coordinate Interpretation

Differential Push-Forward Curvature of 2D Objects

Given coordinate mappings $x_p\colon U_p\to M$ and $x_q\colon U_q\to N$ with $p=x_p(0)$ and $q=f(p)=x_q(0)$, the differential becomes

$$Df(p)[v] = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (x_q \circ x_q^{-1} \circ f \circ x_p)(t \cdot h) \right|_{t=0}.$$

If we were to apply the chain rule, we would obtain

$$Df(p)[v] = \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x_q})\big(x^{-1}(q)\big) \cdot \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x_q^{-1}})(q) \cdot \mathbf{Df}(p) \cdot \mathbf{Dx_p}(0) \cdot \mathbf{h}$$

 $Dx_p(0) \cdot h$ defines the tangent vector $v \in T_pM$.

Df(p) is the differential of f ignoring the submanifolds M and N.

- $D(x_q^{-1})(q)$ is the pseudo-inverse of $D(x_q)(x_q^{-1}(q))$.
- $D(x_q)(x^{-1}(q)) \cdot D(x_q^{-1})(q)$ projects a vector onto T_qM .

What is a Matrix?

Linear mappings are commonly represented by matrices. We want to emphasize the difference between a matrix and a linear mapping.

Given an m-dimensional $\mathbb R$ -vector space X, an n-dimensional $\mathbb R$ -vector space Yand a linear mapping $L: X \to Y$, we can represent L by finite many scalars.

To this end, let $\mathcal{B}_X = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ and $\mathcal{B}_Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ bases of X and Yrespectively. Then we know that for each $x_i \in \mathcal{B}_X$ we have

$$L(x_j) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} y_i.$$

for some $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$.

We write this a_{ij} in a matrix A and call $A = \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}_Y}^{\mathcal{B}_X}(L) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ the representing matrix of L with respect to the basis \mathcal{B}_X and \mathcal{B}_Y .

Matrix of the Differential

Differential

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Given two submanifolds M and N as well as a function $f\colon M\to N$. For $p\in M$ and $q=f(p)\in N$, the differential $Df(p)\colon T_pM\to T_qN$ is a linear mapping, but in general we do not have a canonical matrix representation.

This means that any basis \mathcal{B}_p of T_pM and \mathcal{B}_q of T_qN would define a different matrix $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}_p}^{\mathcal{B}_p}(Df(p)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $n = \dim(N)$ and $m = \dim(M)$.

Since $T_pM=\mathrm{Im}(Dx(0)),\ \mathcal{B}_p=\{Dx(0)[e_1],\ldots,Dx(0)[e_m]\}$ would be a natural way of defining a basis of $T_pM.$ Nonetheless, the resulting matrix would then depend on the coordinate mappings x_p and x_q that we choose for $p\in M$ and $q\in N$ respectively.

While there is no unique matrix that describes the differential, it is important to note that $\operatorname{rank} Df(p)$ is independent of the choosen coordinate mappings.

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Planar Curves and Normals

Differential

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Given a 2D object O and its boundary, the 1D submanifold $M:=\partial O$, we like to define the normal vector n(p) for each point $p\in M$.

Given a coordinate mapping $x\colon U\to M$ with x(0)=p, we have $T_pM=\mathrm{Im}(Dx(0))$ and a normal vector might be defined via

$$n(p) = \frac{1}{\|Dx(0)\|} \begin{pmatrix} +Dx^2(0) \\ -Dx^1(0) \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{S}^1$$

Since M is of codimension 1, n(p) is up to the sign uniquely defined.

Thus, we have a smooth mapping

$$n\colon M\to \mathbb{S}^1$$

Derivative of the Normal Field

that defines a unique normal vector field of M. Why?

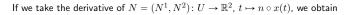
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Differential

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Curvature of 2D Object



$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} N^1(x(t)) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\dot{x}^2(t)}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|} = \frac{\ddot{x}^2(t) \|\dot{x}(t)\| - \dot{x}^2(t) \frac{\ddot{x}^1(t) + \ddot{x}^2(t)}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|}}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^2} \\ &= \frac{\ddot{x}^2(t) \|\dot{x}(t)\|^2 - \dot{x}^2(t) \cdot (\ddot{x}^1(t) + \ddot{x}^2(t))}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^3} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} N^2(x(t)) &= \frac{-\ddot{x}^1(t) \|\dot{x}(t)\|^2 + \dot{x}^1(t) \cdot (\ddot{x}^1(t) + \ddot{x}^2(t))}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^3} \end{split}$$

Note that DN(p) is not necessarily in T_pM . Thus, we have to project it onto T_nM . To this end, let us choose $\{\dot{x}(t)\}$ as the base of T_nM .

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Curvature of Implicit Submanifolds

Differential Push-Forward Curvature of 2D Objects



If $F:\mathbb{R}^2\to\mathbb{R}$ has the regular value $c\in\mathbb{R}$, how can we use F in order to compute the curvature of M at $p\in M$?

The normal field n can be defined as $n(p) = \frac{\nabla F(p)}{\|\nabla F(p)\|}.$

Since n is also defined in a neighborhood of M, we can compute its derivative $Dn\colon M\to\mathbb{R}^{2\times 2}$. If we write the linear mapping Dn(p) with respect to the basis $\mathcal{B}_p=\{\nabla F(p),\nabla F(p)^\perp\}$, we obtain

$$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{B}_p}^{\mathcal{B}_p}(Dn(p)) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & * \ * & \kappa(p) \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore, we have

$$\kappa(p) = \operatorname{tr} Dn(p) = \operatorname{div} \left(\frac{\nabla F(p)}{\|\nabla F(p)\|} \right)$$

Differential Due

Curvature of 2D Objects

Curvature of 2D Objects

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Differential of the Normal Mapping



Differential

Push-Forwar

urvature of 2D Object

Given a point $p \in M$ of $M \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, we have

$$Dn(p): T_pM \to T_{n(p)}\mathbb{S}^1.$$

Since we have

$$T_{n(p)}\mathbb{S}^1 = n(p)^{\perp} = T_p M,$$

we know that Dn(p) is an <code>endomorphism</code>, *i.e.*, a linear mapping that maps the vector space T_pM onto itself.

Because $\dim T_p M = 1$, Dn(p) maps a vector $v \in T_p M$ to $\kappa(p) \cdot v$.

This scalar value $\kappa(p) \in \mathbb{R}$ is called the **curvature** of M at the position p.

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Push-Forward

Curvature

Curvature of 2D Object

Overall, we have $Dn(p)[\dot{x}(t)] = \kappa(t) \cdot \dot{x}(t)$.

Therefore, we have

$$\kappa(t) = \frac{\left\langle \dot{N}(t), \dot{x}(t) \right\rangle}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^2} = \frac{\dot{x}^1(t)\ddot{x}^2(t) \|\dot{x}(t)\|^2 - \dot{x}^2(t)\ddot{x}^1(t) \|\dot{x}(t)\|^2}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^5}$$
$$= \frac{\det \left(\dot{x}(t), \ddot{x}(t) \right)}{\|\dot{x}(t)\|^3}$$

By construction, we know that curvature is invariant with respect to

- Translation. Why?
- Rotation. Why?
- Reparametrization. Why?

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Literature

n-Forward Curvature of 2D Objects



Differentia

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