# Differential Geometry

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# 1 Regular curves in Euclidean spaces

Let V be a finite-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then a  $C^k$  regular curve in V is a mapping:

$$x: I \to V \tag{1.1}$$

Here I is an interval, and we require that x is  $C^k$  and that  $x'(t) \neq 0$  for any  $t \in I$  (this last requirement is what makes the curve regular).

Given a  $C^k$  regular curve  $x: I \to V$ . Then if  $\varphi$  is a  $C^k$  bijection from the interval J to I having  $\varphi' > 0$ , we consider x equivalent to the regular curve  $y: J \to V, y = x \circ \varphi$ .

We now assume V has an inner product  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  and an induced norm  $||v|| = \sqrt{(v, v)}$ . Then for a regular curve x we define an arc length function s(t) by:

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = ||x'(t)|| \tag{1.2}$$

Or equivalently:

$$s(t) = \int ||x'(t)|| dt \tag{1.3}$$

This means that two arc length functions differ only by a constant. Since x' is never zero, ||x'(t)|| > 0, and so s(t) is strictly increasing. As a integral of a  $C^{k-1}$  function it is itself  $C^k$ .

We now definte the function X(s(t)) = x(t). Being a composition of two  $C^k$  functions, so is X. So we can always parametrize a regular curve by its arc length. The derivative of X is found by the chain rule:

$$\frac{dX}{ds} = \frac{dx}{dt}\frac{dt}{ds} = x'(t(s))\frac{1}{ds/dt} = \frac{x'(t(s))}{||x'(t(s))||}$$
(1.4)

Here we've used, that since there is a bijection between I and s(t) we can regard t as a function of s. Taking the norm, we get ||X'(s)|| = 1. Squaring

this gives  $||X'(s)||^2 = (X'(s), X'(s)) = 1$ . Differentiate with respect to s to get:

$$2(X''(s), X'(s)) = 0 (1.5)$$

So the second derivate is orthogonal to the tangent X'(s).

### 1.1 Example: Circular curve

Let  $x_0 \in V$  and let  $r_1, r_2 \in V$  be perpendicular vectors, each of length R. Then we can make a circular curve centered in  $x_0$ , radius R, and in the plane spanned by  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  by:

$$x(s) = x_0 + r_1 \cos(s/R) + r_2 \sin(s/R) \tag{1.6}$$

The tangent, i.e. the first derivative is:

$$x'(s) = \frac{1}{R} [-r_1 \sin(s/R) + r_2 \cos(s/R)]$$
 (1.7)

The second derivative is:

$$x''(s) = -\frac{1}{R^2} [r_1 \sin(s/R) + r_2 \cos(s/R)] = -\frac{1}{R^2} (x(s) - x_0)$$
 (1.8)

This is pointed at the center of the circle and has a magnitude of ||x''(s)|| = 1/R.

### 1.2 Curvature of regular Euclidean curves

Inspired by the circular curve example, we make the following definition:

**Definition 1.1.** Given a regular  $C^2$  curve in V parametrized by arc length: x(s) and a point on the curve where  $x''(s) \neq 0$ .

Then n = x''(s)/||x''(s)|| is called the principal normal to the curve at x(s).

1/||x''(s)|| is known as the radius of curvature at x(s). The circle with center at x(s) + x''(s)/||x''(s)||, radius equal to the radius of curvature, in the plane spanned by x'(s) and n is known as the osculating circle.

 $\kappa = ||x''(s)||$  is called the curvature of the curve at x(s), even if equal to zero. So when  $\kappa \neq 0$  we have  $x''(s) = n\kappa$ 

What if out curve x(t) is not parametrized by arc length s? Then we can still calculate curvature by using the X function: x(t) = X(s(t)). The first dervative of x can be found using the chain rule:

$$x'(t) = \frac{dX}{dt} = \frac{dX}{ds}\frac{ds}{dt} = X'(s)\frac{ds}{dt}$$
 (1.9)

And the second derivative by the multiplication rule:

$$x''(t) = X''(s) \left(\frac{ds}{dt}\right)^2 + X'(s) \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}$$
 (1.10)

Remember that ds/dt = ||x'(t)||:

$$x''(t) = X''(s)||x'(t)||^2 + X'(s)\frac{d}{dt}||x'(t)||$$
(1.11)

Consider the last derivative:

$$\frac{d}{dt}||x'(t)|| = \frac{d}{dt}\sqrt{(x'(t), x'(t))} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{(x'(t), x'(t))}}2(x'(t), x'') = \frac{(x'(t), x''(t))}{||x'(t)||}$$
(1.12)

Rearranging terms and using equation 1.4 we get:

$$X''(s)||x'(t)||^2 = x''(t) - \frac{(x'(t), x''(t))}{||x'(t)||^2}x'(t)$$
(1.13)

Finally we can find the second derivative of X:

$$X''(s) = \frac{x''(t)}{||x'(t)||^2} - \frac{(x'(t), x''(t))}{||x'(t)||^4} x'(t)$$
(1.14)

$$= \frac{1}{||x'(t)||^2} \left( x''(t) - \frac{(x'(t), x''(t))}{||x'(t)||^2} x'(t) \right)$$
(1.15)

This means that the curvature is:

$$\kappa = ||X''(s)|| = \frac{1}{||x'(t)||^2} \left\| x''(t) - \frac{(x'(t), x''(t))}{||x'(t)||^2} x'(t) \right\|$$
(1.16)

## 1.3 Regular curves in $\mathbb{R}^2$

Let x(t) be a regular curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Then we may attach a sign to the curvature  $\kappa$ . Let x(s) be a parametrization of the curve by arc length. Then if  $||x''(s)|| \neq 0$ , we know that x'(s) and x''(s) are perpendicular. Because we're in two dimensions, x''(s) is either rotated 90 degrees in positive of negative direction (conter-clockwise or clockwise). This determines the sign of the curvature.

Now consider a regular curve x(s) in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that is also closed and simple, i.e. one that is periodic, and has no self-intersections apart from this. If the arc length is L we will still let the parametrization be defined for all  $s \in \mathbb{R}$ , so that:

$$x(s) = x(s') \Leftrightarrow s' - s = nL, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$
(1.17)

Since ||x'(s)|| = 1 we can parametrize:

$$x'(s) = (\cos(\theta(s)), \sin(\theta(s)), 0 \le s \le L \tag{1.18}$$

Now differentiate to find x''(s):

$$x''(s) = (-\sin(\theta(s)), \cos(\theta(s))) \frac{d\theta}{ds} = \widehat{x'(s)} \frac{d\theta}{ds}$$
 (1.19)

Which means that the signed curvature is  $\kappa(s) = d\theta/ds$ . So we can integrate:

$$\int_0^L \kappa(s) \ ds = \theta(L) - \theta(0) \tag{1.20}$$

This means that the integral must be a multiple of  $2\pi$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** The integral 1.20 is equal to  $\pm \pi$ , with the positive sign if the curve lies entirely to the left of some tangent line and the overall motion is counter-clockwise.

*Proof.* Without loss of generality we can assume that x(0) is the point with the lowest second coordinate value. This implies that x'(0) = (1,0), i.e. in the direction of the first axis because of the counter-clockwise motion.

Define the relative cord direction:

$$x(t,s) = \frac{x(t) - x(s)}{||x(t) - x(s)||}, 0 \le s < t \le L$$
(1.21)

This is well-defined since the curve is closed, so the denominator never becomes zero. When s=t we set x(s,s)=x'(s), which makes the function continuous on the triangle  $T=\{(t,s)\in\mathbb{R}^2|0\leq s\leq t\leq T\}$ .

T is simply connected and by construction ||x(t,s)|| = 1, so there exists a continuous function  $\varphi: T \to \mathbb{R}^2$  so that:

$$x(t,s) = (\cos(\varphi(t,s)), \sin(\varphi(t,s))), \quad \varphi(s,s) = \theta(s)$$
 (1.22)

We wish to evaluate:

$$\theta(L) - \theta(0) = \varphi(L, L) - \varphi(0, 0) \tag{1.23}$$

Because of the chosen geometry, we have x(0,0) = x'(0) = (1,0). So  $\varphi(0,0)$  must be a multiple of  $2\pi$ . We choose 0. So we only need to consider the value of  $\varphi(L,L)$ .

To do this, start by noticing, that since we chose  $\varphi(0,0) = 0$ , we can never have  $\varphi(L,L) > 2\pi$ , because of the location of x(0). Now consider  $\varphi(L,t)$  in the limit  $t \to L$ . Again, because of the geometry, we must have  $\varphi(L,L) \leq 2\pi$ . This leaves  $2\pi$  as the only option.

#### 1.4 Torsion and binormal

Back to the general case. Consider a  $C^k$  curve with arc length as parameter x(k). If  $k \geq 3$  we can differentiate the principal normal. Since ||n(s)|| = 1, we have  $||n(s)||^2 = (n(s), n(s)) = 1$ . Differentiation gives 2(n'(s), n(s)) = 0, so n'(s) is normal to n(s).

Now define a new quantity:

$$\tau(s) = ||n'(s) + \kappa(s)x'(s)|| \tag{1.24}$$

This is known as the *torsion* of the curve. The vector inside the norm turns out to have scalar product with both x'(s) and n(s) equal to zero.

For x'(s):

$$(n'(s) + \kappa(s)x'(s), x'(s)) = (n'(s), x'(s)) + \kappa(x'(s), x'(s)) = (n'(s), x'(s)) + \kappa$$
(1.25)

The inner product can be found by differentiation of (n(s), x'(s)):

$$\frac{d}{ds}(n(s), x'(s)) = (n'(s), x'(s)) + (n(s), x''(s))$$
(1.26)

But since n(s) and x'(s) are normal, this means:

$$(n'(s), x'(s)) = -(n(s), x''(s))$$
(1.27)

$$= -\left(\frac{x''(s)}{||x''(s)||}, x''(s)\right) \tag{1.28}$$

$$= -||x''(s)|| = -\kappa \tag{1.29}$$

This shows the desired result.

n(s) is a bit easier:

$$(n'(s) + \kappa(s)x'(s), n(s)) = (n'(s), n(s)) + \kappa(x'(s), n(s)) = 0 + 0 = 0 \quad (1.30)$$

So it seems like  $n'(s) + \kappa(s)x'(s)$  is normal to both x'(s) and n(s). Unless it is equal to zero. If the dimensionality of V is less than three, this must be the case as there's not room for another perpendicular vector.

For  $\tau(s) \neq 0$  we define the *binormal* of the curve to be the normalized version of this vector:

$$b(s) = \frac{n'(s) + \kappa(s)x'(s)}{\tau(s)}$$
(1.31)

We may now continue the process and differentiate the following equations:

$$(b(s), x'(s)) = 0, \quad (b(s), n(s)) = 0, \quad (b(s), b(s)) = 1$$
 (1.32)

First equation:

$$(b'(s), x'(s)) + (b(s), x''(s)) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (b'(s), x'(s)) = -(b(s), x''(s)) = 0 \quad (1.33)$$

Second equation:

$$(b'(s), n(s)) + (b(s), n'(s)) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (b'(s), n(s)) = -(b(s), n'(s)) \tag{1.34}$$

The right hand side can be calculated as follows:

$$(b(s), n'(s)) = (b(s), n'(s)) + \kappa \underbrace{(b(s), x'(s))}_{0}$$
 (1.35)

$$= (b(s), n'(s) + \kappa x'(s))$$
 (1.36)

$$= \left(b(s), \frac{1}{\tau}b(s)\right) = \frac{\tau^2}{\tau} = \tau(s) \tag{1.37}$$

So  $(b'(s), n(s)) = -\tau(s)$ .

Third equation:

$$2(b'(s), b(s)) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (b'(s), b(s)) = 0 \tag{1.38}$$

#### 1.5 The Frenet formulas

#### 1.5.1 In 3 dimensions

If  $\dim V = 3$  we know that the three mutually perpendicular unit vectors x'(s), n(s), and b(s) form an orthonormal basis for V. Their dynamics can be summed up as follows:

$$x''(s) = +\kappa(s)n(s) \tag{1.39}$$

$$n'(s) = -\kappa(s)x'(s) + \tau(s)b(s)$$
(1.40)

$$x''(s) = +\kappa(s)n(s)$$
 (1.39)  
 $n'(s) = -\kappa(s)x'(s) + \tau(s)b(s)$  (1.40)  
 $b'(s) = -\tau(s)n(s)$  (1.41)

Or in matrix form:

$$\frac{d}{ds} \begin{pmatrix} x'(s) \\ n(s) \\ b(s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \kappa(s) & 0 \\ -\kappa(s) & 0 & \tau(s) \\ 0 & \tau(s) & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x'(s) \\ n(s) \\ b(s) \end{pmatrix}$$
(1.42)

These are the Frenet formulas in three dimensions. But how can we generalize to an arbitrary number of dimensions?