# Introduction to Computational Manifolds and Applications 

## Part 1 - Foundations

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## CURVES

## Parametric curves

Properties of curves can be classified into local properties and global properties.

Local properties are the properties that hold in a small neighborhood of a point on the curve.

For instance, curvature is a local property.

Local properties can be more conveniently studied by assuming that the curve is parametrized locally.

A proper study of global properties of curves really requires the introduction of the notion of a manifold.


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Recall that the Euclidean space $\mathbb{E}^{m}$ is obtained from the vector space $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ by defining the standard inner product

$$
\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) \cdot\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{m}\right)=x_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+x_{m} y_{m} .
$$

The corresponding Euclidean norm is

$$
\left\|\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)\right\|=\sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+\cdots+x_{m}^{2}} .
$$

Let $\mathcal{E}=\mathbb{E}^{m}$, for some $m \geq 2$. Typically, $m=2$ or $m=3$.

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From a kinematics point of view, a curve can be defined as a continuous map

$$
f:] a, b[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}
$$

from an open interval $I=] a, b[$ of $\mathbb{R}$ to the Euclidean space $\mathcal{E}$.


We can think of the parameter $t \in] a, b[$ as time, and the function $f$ gives the position $f(t)$ of a moving particle, at time $t$. The image $f(I) \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ of the interval $I$ is the trajectory of the particle.

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In fact, only asking that $f$ be continuous turns out to be too liberal, as rather strange curves turn out to be definable, such as "square-filling curves", due to Peano, Hilbert, Sierpinski, and others.

A very pretty square-filling curve due to Hilbert is defined by a sequence $\left(h_{n}\right)$ of polygonal lines $h_{n}:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1] \times[0,1]$ starting from the simple pattern $h_{0}$ (a "square cap" $\square$ ) shown on the left below:


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It can be shown that the sequence ( $h_{n}$ ) converges (pointwise) to a continuous curve

$$
h:[0,1] \rightarrow[0,1] \times[0,1]
$$

whose trace is the entire square $[0,1] \times[0,1]$. Curve $h$ is nowhere differentiable and has infinite length!


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Actually, there are many fascinating curves that are only continuous, fractal curves being a major example, but for our purposes, we need the existence of the tangent at every point (except perhaps for finitely many points).

This leads us to require that

$$
f:] a, b[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}
$$

be at least continuously differentiable. We also say that $f$ is a $C^{1}$-function.

However, asking that $f:] a, b\left[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}\right.$ be a $C^{p}$-function for $p \geq 1$, still allows unwanted curves.

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For example, the plane curve given by

$$
f(t)= \begin{cases}\left(0, e^{1 / t}\right) & \text { if } t<0 \\ (0,0) & \text { if } t=0 \\ \left(e^{-1 / t}, 0\right) & \text { if } t>0\end{cases}
$$

is a $C^{\infty}$-function, but $f^{\prime}(0)=0$, and thus the tangent at the origin is undefined.

What happens is that the curve has a sharp "corner" at the origin.

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Similarly, the plane curve defined such that

$$
f(t)= \begin{cases}\left(-e^{1 / t}, e^{1 / t} \sin \left(e^{-1 / t}\right)\right) & \text { if } t<0 ; \\ (0,0) & \text { if } t=0 ; \\ \left(e^{-1 / t}, e^{-1 / t} \sin \left(e^{1 / t}\right)\right) & \text { if } t>0 ;\end{cases}
$$

is a $C^{\infty}$-function, but $f^{\prime}(0)=0$. In this case, the curve oscillates more and more around the origin.

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The problem with the above examples is that the origin is a singular point for which $f^{\prime}(0)=0$ (a stationary point).

Although it is possible to define the tangent when $f$ is sufficiently differentiable and when for every $t \in] a, b\left[, f^{(p)}(t) \neq 0\right.$ for some $p \geq 1$ (where $f^{(p)}$ denotes the $p$-th derivative of $f$ ), a systematic study is rather cumbersome.

Thus, we will restrict our attention to curves having only regular points, that is, for which $f^{\prime}(t) \neq 0$ for every $\left.t \in\right] a, b[$.

However, we allow functions $f:] a, b[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ that are not necessarily injective, unless stated otherwise.

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Definition 1.1. An open curve (or open arc) of class $C^{p}$ is a map

$$
f:] a, b[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}
$$

of class $C^{p}$, with $p \geq 1$, where $] a, b[$ is an open interval (allowing $a=-\infty$ or $b=+\infty$ ). The set of points

$$
f(] a, b[)
$$

in $\mathcal{E}$ is called the trace of the curve $f$. A point $f(t)$ is regular at $t \in] a, b\left[\right.$ iff $f^{\prime}(t)$ exists and $f^{\prime}(t) \neq 0$, and stationary otherwise. A regular open curve (or regular open arc) of class $C^{p}$ is an open curve of class $C^{p}$, with $p \geq 1$, such that every point is regular, i.e., $f^{\prime}(t) \neq 0$ for every $t \in] a, b[$.

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For example, a parabola is defined by the map

$$
f(t)=\left(2 t, t^{2}\right) .
$$

The trace of this curve corresponding to the interval $(-1,1)$ is shown below:


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The curve defined by

$$
f(t)=\left(1-t^{2}, t\left(1-t^{2}\right)\right)
$$

is known as a nodal cubic.


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The curve defined by

$$
f(t)=\left(t^{2}, t^{3}\right)
$$

is known as a cuspidal cubic.


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Definition 1.2. A curve (or arc) of class $C^{p}$ is a map

$$
f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{E},
$$

with $p \geq 1$, such that the restriction of $f$ to $] a, b\left[\right.$ is of class $C^{p}$, and where

$$
f^{(i)}(a)=\lim _{t \rightarrow a, t>a} f^{(i)}(t) \quad \text { and } \quad f^{(i)}(b)=\lim _{t \rightarrow b, t<b} f^{(i)}(t)
$$

exist, where $0 \leq i \leq p$. A regular curve (or regular arc) of class $C^{p}$ is a curve of class $C^{p}$, with $p \geq 1$, such that every point is regular, i.e., $f^{\prime}(t) \neq 0$ for every $t \in[a, b]$. The set of points

$$
f([a, b])
$$

in $\mathcal{E}$ is called the trace of the curve $f$.
It should be noted that even if $f$ is injective, the trace $f(I)$ of $f$ may be self-intersecting.

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Consider the curve $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{E}^{2}$ given by,

$$
f(t)=\left(\frac{t\left(1+t^{2}\right)}{1+t^{4}}, \frac{t\left(1-t^{2}\right)}{1+t^{4}}\right) .
$$

The trace of this curve is called the lemniscate of Bernoulli, and it has a self-intersection at the origin.


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The map $f$ is continuous, and in fact bijective, but its inverse $f^{-1}$ is not continuous.

Self-intersection is due to the fact that

$$
\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} f(t)=\lim _{t \rightarrow+\infty} f(t)=f(0)
$$

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If we consider a curve

$$
f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}
$$

and we assume that $f$ is injective on the entire closed interval $[a, b]$, then the trace

$$
f([a, b])
$$

of $f$ has no self-intersection. Such curves are usually called Jordan arcs or simple arcs.

Because $[a, b]$ is compact, $f$ is in fact a homeomorphism between $[a, b]$ and $f([a, b])$.

Many fractal curves are only continuous Jordan arcs that are not differentiable.

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It is possible that the trace of a curve be defined by many parameterizations, as illustrated by the unit circle, which is the trace of the parameterized curves $\left.f_{k}:\right] 0,2 \pi\left[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}\right.$ (or $f_{k}:[0,2 \pi] \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{E}$ ), where

$$
f_{k}(t)=(\cos k t, \sin k t),
$$

with $k \geq 1$.

A clean way to handle this phenomenon is to define a notion of geometric arc curve. For our purposes, it suffices to define a notion of change of parameter which does not change the "geometric shape" of the trace.

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Recall that a diffeomorphism $g:] a, b[\rightarrow] c, d\left[\right.$ of class $C^{p}$ from an open interval $] a, b[$ to another open interval $] c, d[$ is a bijection, such that both $g:] a, b[\rightarrow] c, d\left[\right.$ and its inverse $\left.g^{-1}:\right] c, d[\rightarrow$ ] $a, b\left[\right.$ are $C^{p}$-functions.

This implies that $g^{\prime}(t) \neq 0$ for every $\left.t \in\right] a, b[$.

Definition 1.3. Two regular curves $f:] a, b[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ and $h:] c, d\left[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}\right.$ of class $C^{p}$, with $p \geq 1$, are $C^{p}$-equivalent iff there is a diffeomorphism $\left.g \rightarrow\right] a, b[\rightarrow] c, d\left[\right.$ of class $C^{p}$ such that $f$ is equal to $h \circ g$.

It is immediately verified that Definition 1.3 yields an equivalence relation on open curves.

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For instance, consider the regular curves $f:[-1,1] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ and $h:[2,6] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ given by

$$
f(t)=\left(2 t, t^{2}\right) \quad \text { and } \quad h(s)=\left(s-4, \frac{s^{2}-8 s+16}{4}\right) .
$$

Note that $f=h \circ g$, where $g:[-1,1] \rightarrow[2,6]$ is the diffeomorphism given by $g(r)=2 \cdot r+4$.


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Definition 1.4. For any open curve $f:] a, b\left[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}\right.$ of class $C^{p}$ (or curve $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ of class $C^{p}$ ), with $p \geq 1$, given any point $M_{0}=f(t)$ on the curve, if $f$ is locally injective at $M_{0}$ and for any point $M_{1}=f(t+h)$ near $M_{0}$, if the line $T_{t, h}$ determined by the points $M_{0}$ and $M_{1}$ has a limit $T_{t}$ when $h \neq 0$ approaches 0 , we say that $T_{t}$ is the tangent line to $f$ in $M_{0}=f(t)$ at $t$.


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For simplicity, we will often say tangent, instead of tangent line.

The definition is simpler when $f$ is a simple curve (there is no danger that $M_{1}=M_{0}$ when $h \neq 0$ ).

The following lemma shows why regular points are important.

Lemma 1.1. For any open curve $f:] a, b\left[\rightarrow \mathcal{E}\right.$ of class $C^{p}$ (or curve $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ of class $C^{p}$ ), with $p \geq 1$, given any point $M_{0}=f(t)$ on the curve, if $M_{0}$ is a regular point at $t$, then the tangent line to $f$ in $M_{0}$ at $t$ exists and is determined by the derivative $f^{\prime}(t)$ of $f$ at $t$.

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If $f^{\prime}(t)=0$, the above argument breaks down.

However, if $f$ is a $C^{p}$-function and $f^{(p)}(t) \neq 0$ for some $p \geq 2$, where $p$ is the smallest integer with that property, we can show that the line $T_{t, h}$ has the limit determined by $M_{0}$ and the derivative $f^{(p)}(t)$. Thus, the tangent line may still exist at a stationary point.

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For example, the curve $f$ defined by the map $t \mapsto\left(t^{2}, t^{3}\right)$ is a $C^{\infty}$-function, but $f^{\prime}(0)=0$. Nevertheless, the tangent at the origin is defined for $t=0$ (it is the $x$-axis).


