

Differential Geometry I

Week 6

Last week: We talked about the curvature diagram of a curve in the plane. When $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is naturally parametrized, it is the graph of the function $s \rightarrow \kappa^{\text{or}}(s)$.

- If γ is not naturally parametrized: It is the curve $t \rightarrow (s(t), \kappa^{\text{or}}(t))$.

If γ is a closed C^2 curve: $\kappa^{\text{or}}(0) = \kappa^{\text{or}}(l)$ ($l = \text{length of } \gamma$)

4 vertex theorem: Let $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a simple closed curve of class C^3 . Then γ has at least 4 vertices.

Remarks:

- Ellipse: Exactly 4 vertices:



- Circle: Every point is a vertex

- If the curve is not simple: Not true

e.g.

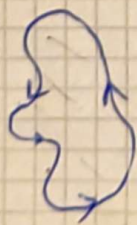


has 2 vertices.

Proof (by Osserman; see also the book by do Carmo for an alternative proof).

Assume without loss of generality that γ is parametrized by arc length. For simplicity, we will denote $\kappa_{\gamma}^{\text{or}}$ by κ .

- The curve is ^{closed} simple, so divides the plane into two regions:

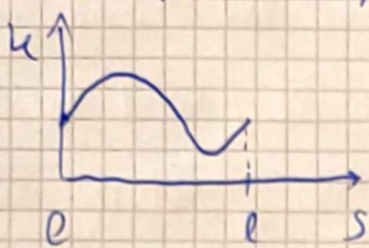


We will assume it is counter-clockwise oriented.

- A circle that is ~~clockwise~~ counter-clockwise oriented has $\kappa > 0$.

• Since γ is C^3 and closed:

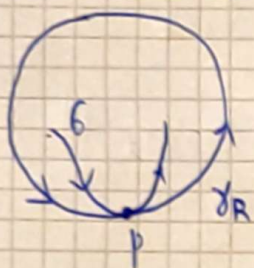
$$k(0) = k(l) \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{k}(0) = \dot{k}(l)$$



So k has at least two extrema
- we will show it has at least 4.

We will use two lemmas:

Lemma 1:



Assume that γ_R is a counter-clockwise circle of radius R .

Assume that σ is a curve inside γ_R , such that

$$\sigma(t_0) = \gamma_R(t_0) \quad \bullet \quad T_\sigma(t_0) = T_{\gamma_R}(t_0)$$

$$\text{Then } k_\sigma(t_0) \geq \frac{1}{R} = k_{\gamma_R}(t_0)$$

If we replace "inside" with "outside": $k_\sigma(t_0) \leq \frac{1}{R}$.

We proved this last time, when we talked about curves which are graphs of functions (I can locally express any curve as a graph of a function, if I identify the x axis with the tangent line).

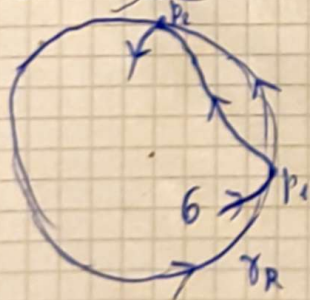
Lemma 2:

Let σ be a curve inside the circle γ_R (parametrized counter-clockwise) such that

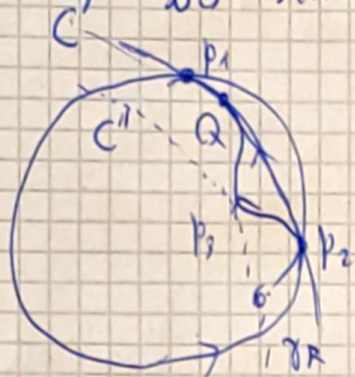
i) $\sigma \cap \gamma_R = \{p_1, p_2\}$, with p_1, p_2 in the same semi-circle of γ_R .

ii) At the two points p_1, p_2 : $T_\sigma = T_{\gamma_R}$.

Then \exists point p_3 on σ between p_1 and p_2 such that $k_{\sigma|_{p_3}} < \frac{1}{R}$.



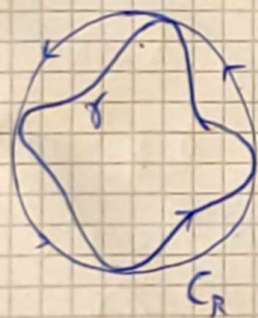
Proof: Choose a point Q on γ between p_1 and p_2 that lies strictly inside γ_R . Then, if Q is sufficiently close to p_1 : The circle going through p_1, Q, p_2 is close to γ_R , but has strictly bigger radius $R' > R$. Let's call this circle C' .



~~Translate~~ Translate C' away from $\{p_1, p_2\}$; there is a final time when it touches $\partial_{[p_1, p_2]}$, say at a point p_3 .

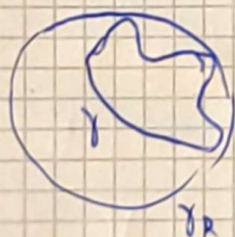
At this critical time: $\partial_{[p_1, p_2]}$ is outside C'' (the translate of C'), touching only at p_3 . By the previous lemma: ~~we~~ $\kappa \leq \frac{1}{R'} < \frac{1}{R}$. \square

Proof of the theorem (continued):



Let C_R be the circumscribed circle to the curve (i.e. the circle with the smallest radius).

- Not all points of $\gamma \cap C_R$ can lie in the same open semicircle: If that was the case

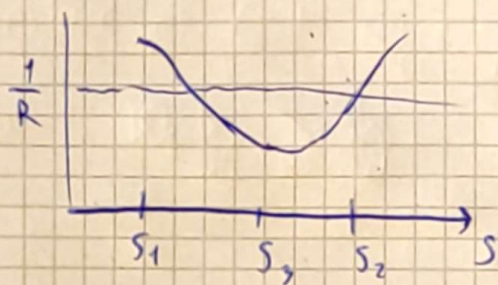


(see the picture on the left) then we could move the circle to the right and shrink it, hence contradicting the minimality of the radius.

Hence, $\gamma \cap C_R$ contains at least two points, and $\gamma \cap C_R$ is not contained inside an open semicircle (so if $\gamma \cap C_R$ only has two points: They have to be antipodal).

Let p_1, p_2 be two points on $\gamma \cap C_R$ such that they belong to the same closed semicircle and such that there exists a point p_3 on γ between p_1, p_2 lying ^{strictly} inside the circle.

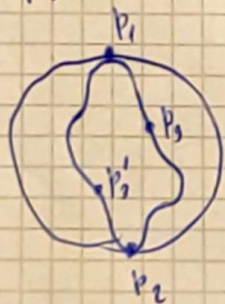
By the previous lemma: $\kappa|_{p_1}, \kappa|_{p_2} \geq \frac{1}{R}$
 $\kappa|_{p_3} < \frac{1}{R}$



So κ has a local minimum between p_1, p_2 .

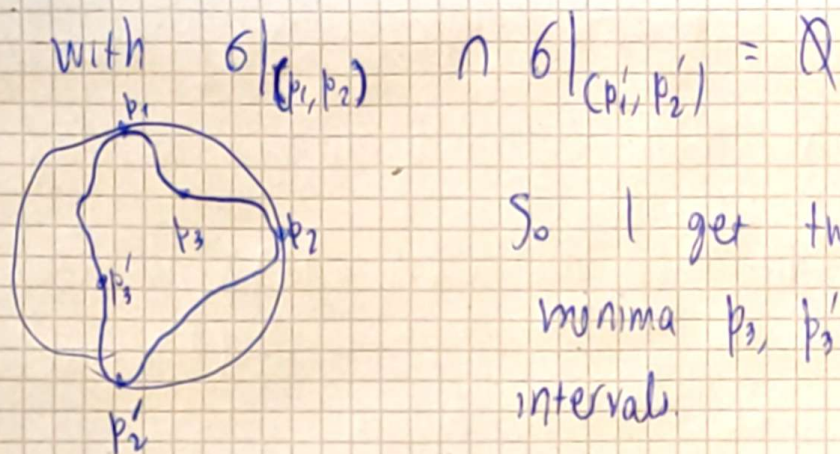
We consider two cases:

- If $\gamma \cap C_R$ is only two points $\{p_1, p_2\}$: They have to be antipodal, so we can ~~similarly find a local maximum~~ ~~on the other semi-circle as well~~ repeat the above process twice (once for each semi-circle)



\rightsquigarrow two local minima p_3, p_3' .

- If $\gamma \cap C_R$ has more than two points: I can form at least two pairs $\{p_1, p_2\}, \{p_1', p_2'\}$ of touching points



So I get two distinct local minima p_3, p'_3 in the corresponding intervals.

Overall: $u(s)$ has at least two local minima. Since it must have a local maximum as well, it has at least three local extrema. Since $u(0) = u(1)$, this means it must have at least four local extrema.



Note: The above proof in fact gives ^{at least} six vertices in the case when $\gamma \cap C_R$ consists of more than two points.

In order to talk about surfaces, submanifolds etc, we have to review some notions from differential calculus.

Directional derivatives and partial derivatives

Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a domain (i.e. open and connected set) and $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$. For $p \in U$, $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the directional derivative of f in the direction v at the point p is

$$D_v f(p) = \left. \frac{d}{dt} f(p+tv) \right|_{t=0} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(p+tv) - f(p)}{t} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

(if the limit exists)

If $\{e_1, \dots, e_m\}$ the Cartesian basis of \mathbb{R}^m
and (x_1, \dots, x_m) the associated coordinates:

Partial derivative of f : $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) = D_{e_i} f(p)$.

Note: The existence of all partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$, $i=1, \dots, m$, does not imply the ~~also~~ existence of the directional derivative in every direction: Eg $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{xy}{(x^2+y^2)^{3/4}}, & (x, y) \neq (0, 0), \\ 0, & (x, y) = (0, 0). \end{cases}$$

has $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(0, 0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(0, 0) = 0$, but for $v \neq e_1, e_2$, $D_v f(0, 0)$ is not defined (the limit is $+\infty$).

Def: A function $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is of class C^1 if it is continuous and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$, $i=1, \dots, m$, exist on U and are continuous. Similarly, of class C^k if all derivatives of order up to k exist and are continuous.

Notation: $C^k(U, \mathbb{R}^n)$: Functions taking values in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$C^k(U) = C^k(U, \mathbb{R})$$

$$C^\infty(U, \mathbb{R}^n) = \bigcap_{k > 0} C^k(U, \mathbb{R}^n).$$

Def: If $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, Jacobian matrix:

$$Df = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

Infinitesimally. Describe the "linearization" of f .

If $n=m$. Jacobian:

$$J_p = \det(Df).$$

So $J_f(p) \neq 0 \Rightarrow Df(p)$ is invertible.

Definition:

1. Diffeomorphism of class C^k between open sets U, V : A bijection $f: U \rightarrow V$ such that f and f^{-1} are of class C^k
($k=0$: Homeomorphism).

(Theorem: "Invariance of domain": If $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ are open and homeomorphic, then $n=m$)

2. A map $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a local diffeomorphism of class C^k at $p \in U$ if $\exists U' \subseteq U$ open containing p such that $V' = f(U')$ is open and $f: U' \rightarrow V'$ is a diffeomorphism of class C^k .

3. $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a local diffeomorphism if it is a local diffeomorphism around each $p \in U$.

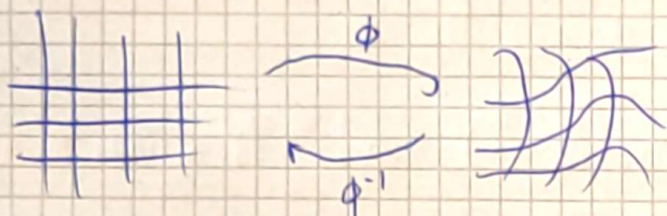
Remarks: • If f is a local diffeomorphism: It is not necessarily injective (or surjective)

• If f is a C^1 homeomorphism: It is not necessarily a diffeomorphism of class C^1 (e.g., $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $f(x) = x^3$)

But: If f is C^k and a diffeomorphism of class C^1
 \Rightarrow it is a diffeomorphism of class C^k .

Def: A system of (curvilinear) coordinates of class C^k on the open set $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a set $y_1, \dots, y_n: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Such that ~~the mapping~~ $\phi: (x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ is a diffeomorphism of class C^k from U to $V = \phi(U)$



• Note: i -th coordinate curve: The curve given by

$$\{y^1, \dots, y^{i-1}, y^{i+1}, \dots, y^n = \text{const}\}$$

Differentiable functions in the sense of Fréchet.

Def: $f: U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is differentiable in the sense of Fréchet at $p \in U$ if \exists linear map $A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$f(x) - f(p) = A \cdot (x-p) + o(\|x-p\|).$$

Note: If A exists, it is unique; we denote $df_p = A$.

Alternative expression: If $x = p+h$

$$f(p+h) = f(p) + df_p(h) + o(\|h\|).$$

$$\text{So } df_p(h) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{f(p+th) - f(p)}{h} \right) = \left. \frac{d}{dt} f(p+th) \right|_{t=0}$$

is the directional derivative of f in the direction h .

Examples i) If $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at p , $df_p(h) = f'(p) \cdot h$

ii) If $f: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is affine, i.e. $f(x) = Ax+b$,

$$\text{then } df_p(h) = A \cdot h$$

iii) If $f: M_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow M_n(\mathbb{R})$ is $f(A) = A^2$, $df_A(H) = A \cdot H + H \cdot A$

... is $f(A) = A^{-1}$: $df_A(H) = -A^{-1}HA^{-1}$

iv) The map $\det: GL_n(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has

$$d\det_A(H) = \det A \cdot \text{tr}(A^{-1} \cdot H).$$

Proposition (Chain rule): Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$, $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be open

and $f: U \rightarrow V$, $g: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^s$ be such that f is Fréchet differentiable at p and g is Fréchet differentiable at $f(p)$. Then

$$d(g \circ f)_p = dg_{f(p)} \circ df_p$$

Proof:

Use that $f(p+h) - f(p) = df_p(h) + o(\|h\|)$, $g(q+v) - g(q) = dg_q(v) + o(\|v\|)$

To compute

$$\begin{aligned} g \circ f(p+h) - g \circ f(p) &= g(f(p) + df_p(h) + o(\|h\|)) - g(f(p)) \\ &= g(\cancel{f(p)}) + dg_{f(p)}(df_p(h) + o(\|h\|)) + o(\|df_p(h)\| + o(\|h\|)) \\ &= dg_{f(p)}(df_p(h)) + o(\|h\|) \end{aligned}$$



Proposition:

If $f: U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is everywhere Fréchet differentiable and $\|df_p\| \leq C$

$\forall p$, then f is C -Lipschitz, i.e.

$$\forall x, y \in U: \|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq C \cdot \|x - y\|.$$

Proof:

$\forall x, y \in U$: If $\phi(t) = (1-t)x + ty$, $t \in [0, 1]$, is the line segment connecting x, y , then

$$f(x) - f(y) = f(\gamma(0)) - f(\gamma(1)) = - \int_0^1 \frac{d}{dt} (f(\gamma(t))) dt$$

$$= - \int_0^1 df_{\gamma(t)}(\dot{\gamma}(t)) dt = - \int_0^1 df_{\gamma(t)}(y-x) dt$$

$$\text{So } \|f(x) - f(y)\| = \left\| \int_0^1 df_{\gamma(t)}(x-y) dt \right\| \leq \int_0^1 \|df_{\gamma(t)}\| \|x-y\| dt \\ \leq C \|x-y\|. \quad \square$$

Theorem: If $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is C^1 , then f is Fréchet differentiable everywhere and, $\forall p \in U$ $df_p = \left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}(p) \right)$ ← Jacobian matrix.

In particular, if f is of class C^1 , then $p \rightarrow df_p$ is a continuous map.

Gradient:

Let (x_1, \dots, x_m) be the Cartesian coordinates on \mathbb{R}^m . Since each $x_i^0: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a linear function:

~~$$dx_i^0(v) = v_i$$~~

$$dx_i(v) = v_i \quad \forall v \in \mathbb{R}^m, \text{ at every point in } U.$$

If $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Fréchet differentiable at $p \in U$:

$\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^m$: We can decompose $v = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i e_i$

$$\text{So } df_p(v) = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i df_p(e_i).$$

$$\text{But } df_p(e_i) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(p+te_i) - f(p)}{t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i^0}(p)$$

$$\text{So } df_p(v) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(p) \cdot v_i = \langle \vec{\nabla} f, v \rangle,$$

Another way of expressing it:

$$df_p = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i$$

(True also when f is vector valued)

Note: For $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $p \in U$:

$df_p: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a covector of \mathbb{R}^m

while $\vec{\nabla} f_p$ is a vector of \mathbb{R}^m

So we represent $df_p = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \quad \dots \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m} \right)$, $\vec{\nabla} f = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m} \end{pmatrix}$

(row) (column)

The inverse function theorem:

Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be open and $f \in C^k(U, \mathbb{R}^n)$, $k \geq 1$. If $J_f(p) \neq 0$, then f is a local diffeomorphism around p .

(Proof: In the analysis I course).

Corollary: A map $f: U \rightarrow V$, $U, V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ open, is a global diffeomorphism if it is bijective and $J_f \neq 0$ everywhere.