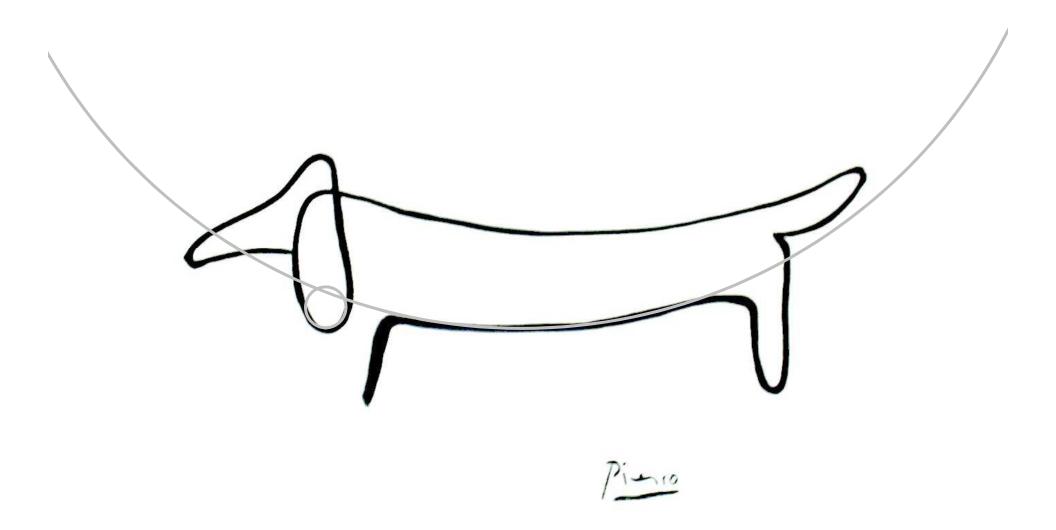
Local Analysis of 2D Curve Patches

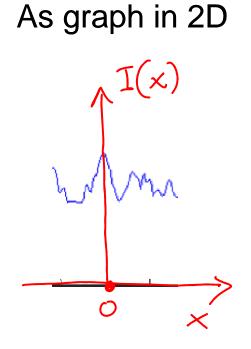


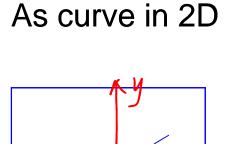
Topic 4.2:

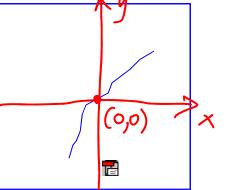
Local analysis of 2D curve patches

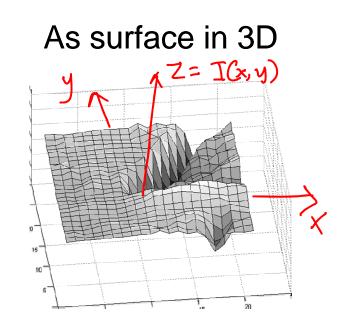
- Representing 2D image curves
- Estimating differential properties of 2D curves
 - Tangent & normal vectors
 - The arc-length parameterization of a 2D curve
 - The curvature of a 2D curve

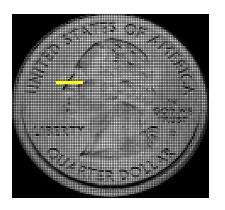
Local Analysis of Image Patches: Outline

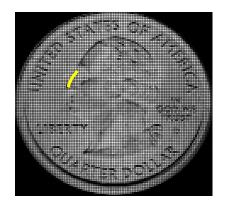


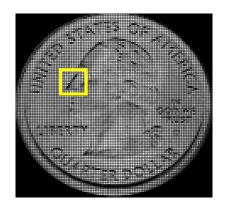




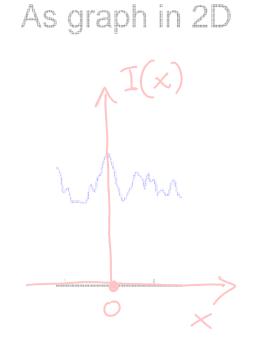




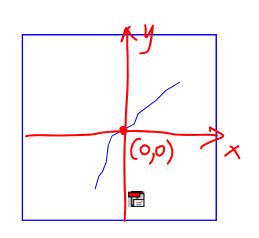


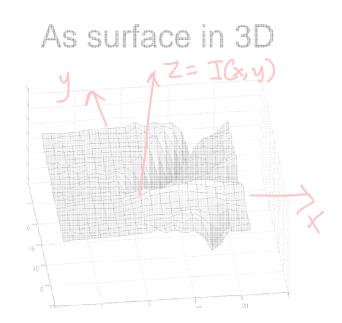


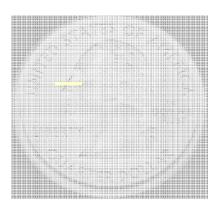
Local Analysis of Image Patches: Outline

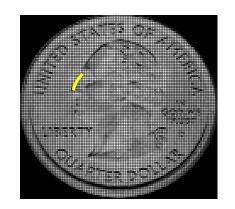


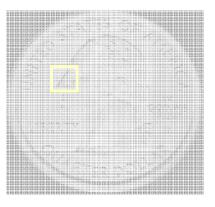
As curve in 2D



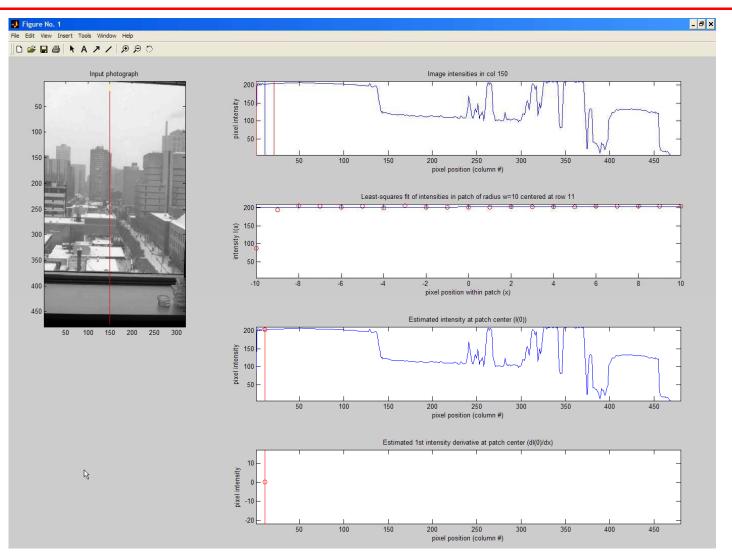






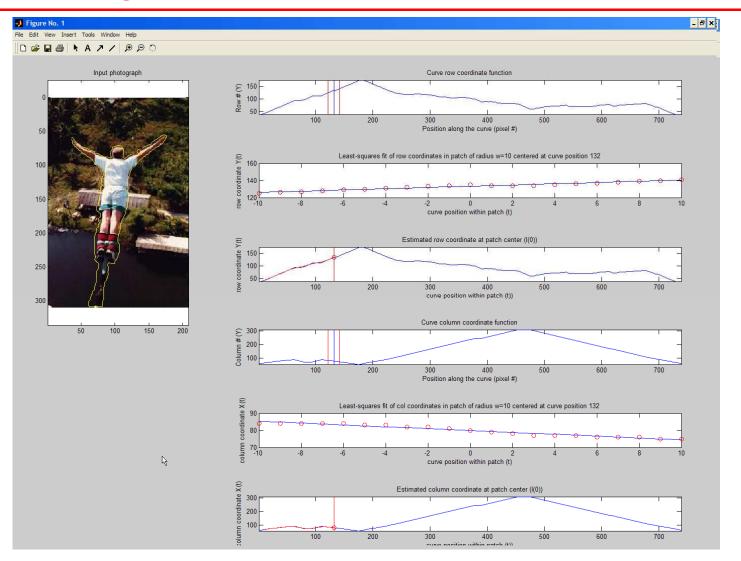


Estimating Intensities & their Derivatives



Don't go, or you'll miss out!

Estimating Intensities & their Derivatives



Don't go, or you'll miss out!

Representing & Analysing 2D Curves, why?



- Useful representation for:
 - Object boundaries
 - Isophote regions (groups of pixels with the same intensity)

Representing & Analysing 2D Curves, how?



Math is our friend:

- Provides an unambiguous representation
- Enables computation of useful properties



A parametric 2D curve is a continuous mapping

γ: (a,b) -> R² value of parameter value of parameter at end

where

t -> (x(t), y(t))

curve pavameter (indicates position along the curve) Point along the curve at position t



Example: a boundary curve t = pixel # along the boundary x(t) = x coordinate of the tth pixel y(t) = y coordinate of the tth pixel



To fully describe a curve we need the two functions x(t) and y(t), called the Coordinate Functions.



A closed 2D curve is a continuous mapping

γ: (a,b) -> R²

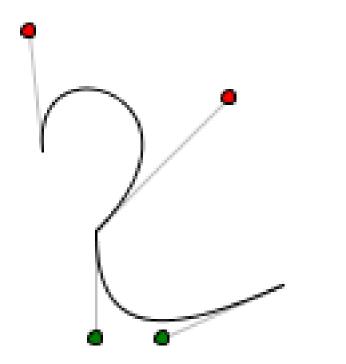
value of parameter at end

where $t \rightarrow (x(t), y(t))$

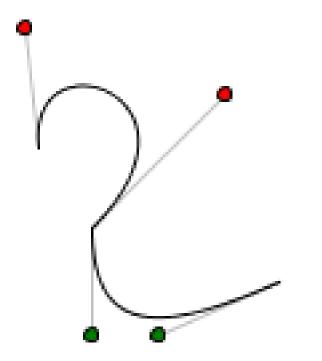
such that (x(a), y(a)) = (x(b), y(b)).



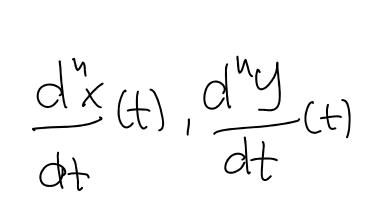
A curve is smooth when...



Smooth 2D Curves

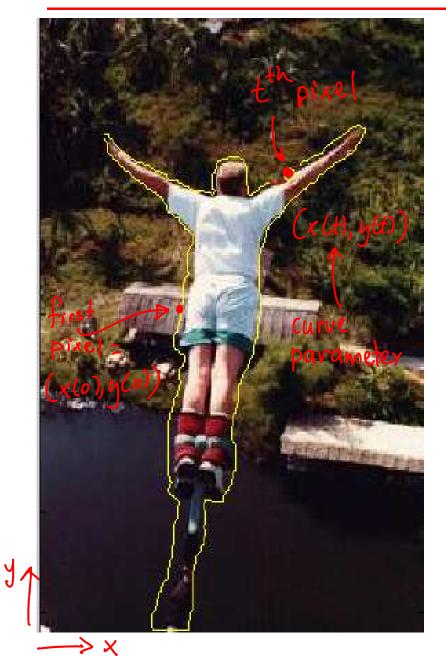


A curve is smooth when all the derivatives of the Coordinate Functions exist



for all n,t

Derivatives of the Coordinate Functions

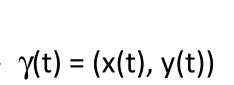


The 1st and 2nd derivatives of x(t), y(t) are extremely informative about the shape of a curve.

Topic 4.2:

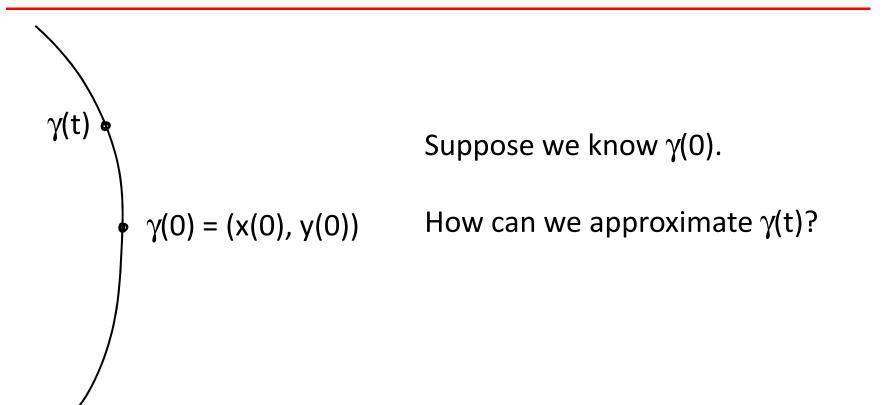
Local analysis of 2D curve patches

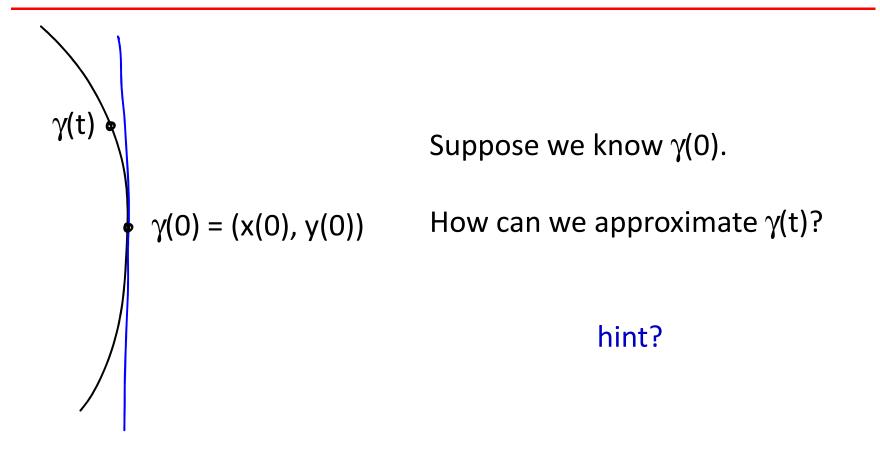
- Representing 2D image curves
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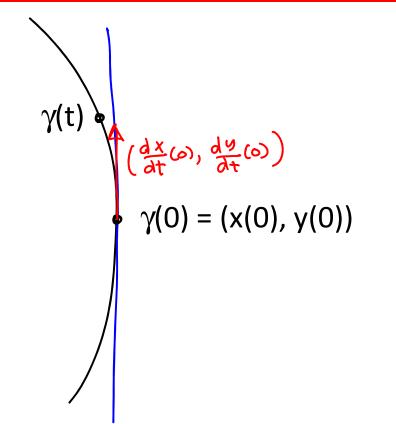


Notation:

- γ(t) maps a number (t) to a 2D point (x(t), y(t)).
- This type of function is called a vector-valued function.







Suppose we know $\gamma(0)$.

How can we approximate $\gamma(t)$?

Using the derivative (tangent)!

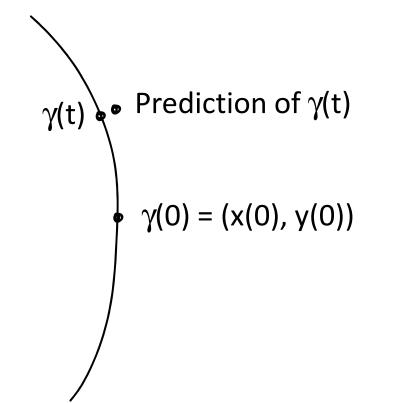
/

$$\gamma(t) \bullet \gamma(0) + t \cdot \left(\frac{dx}{dt}(0), \frac{dy}{dt}(0)\right)$$
Su
$$\gamma(0) = (x(0), y(0))$$
He

Suppose we know $\gamma(0)$.

How can we approximate $\gamma(t)$?

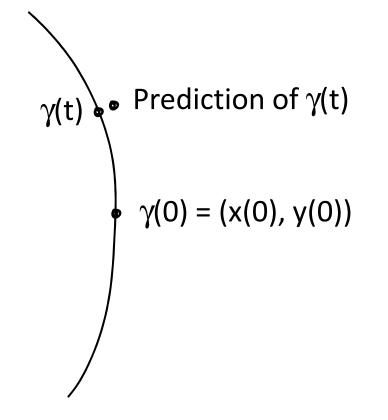
Using the derivative (tangent)!



Good! But not great.

Can we do any better?

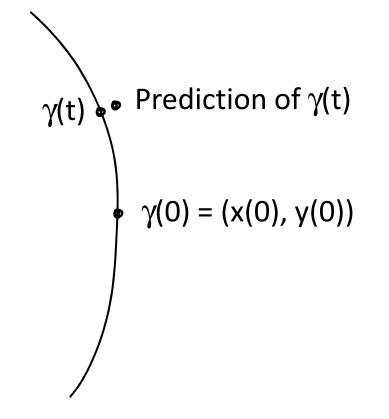
If so, how?



Good! But not great.

Add more information about the curve, like the 2nd, 3rd,... or the nth derivative!

Familiar?



Good! But not great.

Add more information about the curve, like the 2nd, 3rd,... or the nth derivative!

This is a Taylor-Series approximation

$$\gamma(t) = \gamma(0) + t \cdot \left(\frac{dx}{dt}(0), \frac{dy}{dt}(0)\right)$$
$$\gamma(0) = (x(0), y(0))$$

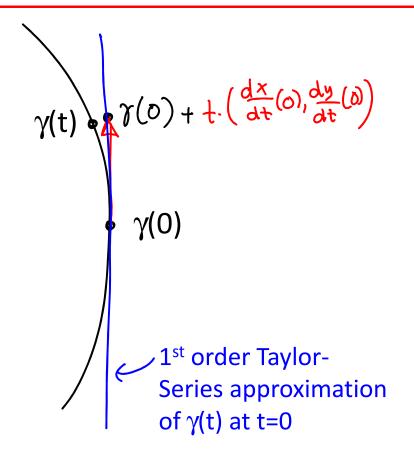
Formally: the 1st order Taylor-Series approximation to $\gamma(t)$ near $\gamma(0)$ is:

$$\gamma(\Delta t) = \gamma(0) + \Delta t \cdot \frac{d\gamma}{dt}(0), so$$

$$\gamma(t) = (\chi(t), y(t))$$

$$\simeq (\chi(0) + t \cdot \frac{d\chi}{dt}(0), y(0) + t \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}(0))$$

$$= (\chi(0), y(0)) + t \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}(0) + t \cdot \frac{d\chi}{dt}(0), y(0) + t \cdot \frac{d\chi}{dt$$



Definition.

The tangent vector at $\gamma(t)$ is equal to the first derivative of the function, at that point. In this case:

$$\frac{dr}{dt}(t) = \left(\frac{dx}{dt}(t), \frac{dy}{dt}(t)\right)$$

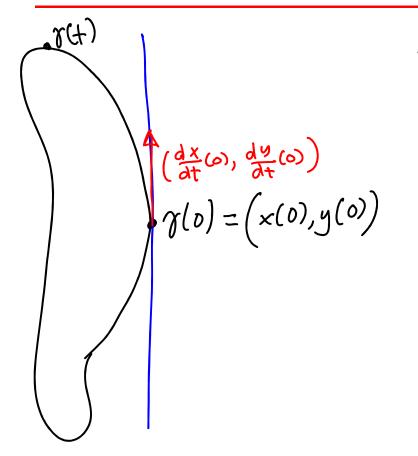
 $\gamma(t) = \gamma(0) + t \cdot \left(\frac{dx}{dt}(0), \frac{dy}{dt}(0)\right)$ γ(0)

In general, the derivative of a vector valued function is the derivative of the n coordinate functions, so if

$$f(t) = (f_1(t), \dots, f_n(t))$$

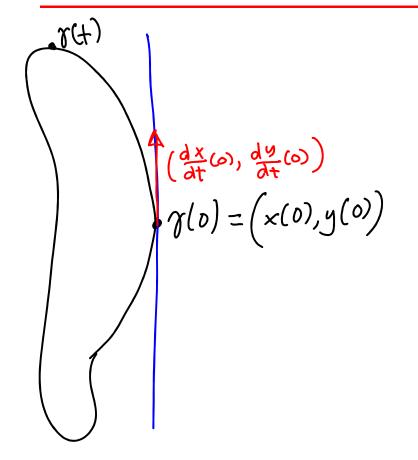
The derivative of f at (t) is:

$$\frac{df}{dt}(t) = \left(\frac{df_1}{dt}(t), \dots, \frac{df_n}{dt}(t)\right)$$



We can parameterize a curve γ in (infinitely) many different ways, for instance:

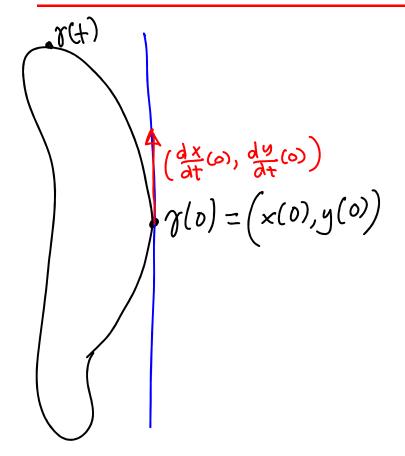
- 1. Make t the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Make t the actual length of the curve between γ(0) and γ(t), in meters (or inches, or light-years).



We can parameterize a curve γ in (infinitely) many different ways, for instance:

- 1. Make t the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Make t the actual length of the curve between γ(0) and γ(t), in meters (or inches, or light-years).

But the key property is that the direction of the tangent remains unchanged, regardless of the scale of the parameter.



The direction of the tangent remains unchanged, regardless of the scale of the parameter.

Really?

Can we prove it?

Proof:

Let's parameterize the curve γ in two ways:

- 1. Take t = the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Take s = f(t) as the parameter, where f(t) is simply any differentiable function.

Proof:

Let's parameterize the curve γ in two ways:

- 1. Take t = the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Take s = f(t) as the parameter, where f(t) is simply any differentiable function.

In 1, we know the derivative of γ is simply

$$\frac{d\mathcal{T}}{dt} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{dx}{dt}, & \frac{dy}{dt} \end{array}\right)$$

Proof:

Let's parameterize the curve γ in two ways:

- 1. Take t = the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Take s = f(t) as the parameter, where f(t) is simply any differentiable function.
- In 1, we know the derivative of γ is simply

$$\frac{d\mathcal{T}}{dt} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{dx}{dt}, & \frac{dy}{dt} \end{array}\right)$$

In 2, the chain rule tells us that if s=f(t) and $\gamma(s)$ then:

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = \left(\frac{dx}{ds}, \frac{df}{dt}, \frac{dy}{ds}, \frac{df}{dt}\right) = \frac{df}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{ds}, \frac{dy}{ds}\right)$$

which correspond to

Proof:

Let's parameterize the curve γ in two ways:

- 1. Take t = the number of pixels between $\gamma(0)$ and $\gamma(t)$
- Take s = f(t) as the parameter, where f(t) is simply any differentiable function.
- In 1, we know the derivative of $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ is simply

$$\frac{d\mathcal{T}}{dt} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{dx}{dt}, & \frac{dy}{dt} \end{array}\right)$$

In 2, the chain rule tells us that if s=f(t) and $\gamma(s)$ then:

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = \left(\frac{dx}{ds}, \frac{df}{dt}, \frac{dy}{ds}, \frac{df}{dt}\right) = \frac{df}{dt} \left(\frac{dx}{ds}, \frac{dy}{ds}\right)$$

multiplicative $\frac{dy}{ds}$

Definition. The Unit Tangent is:

$$T(t)$$

$$a | ways has$$

$$L | ength = 1$$

$$T(o)$$

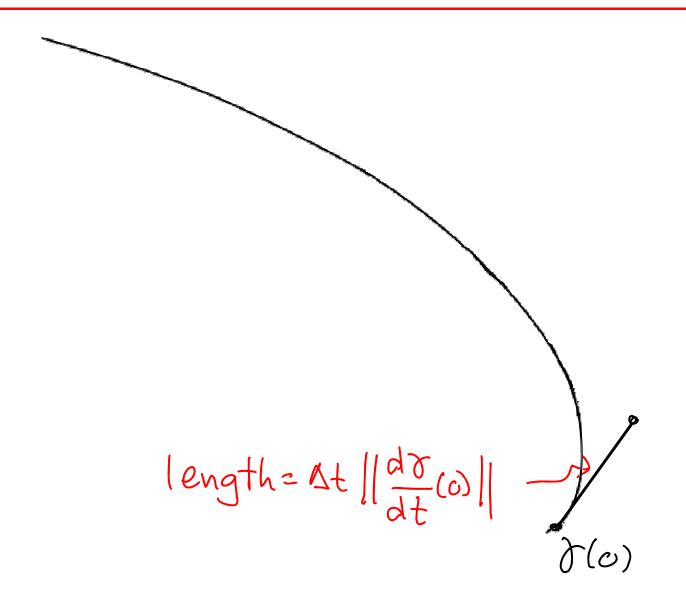
$$T(o) = (x(o), y(o))$$

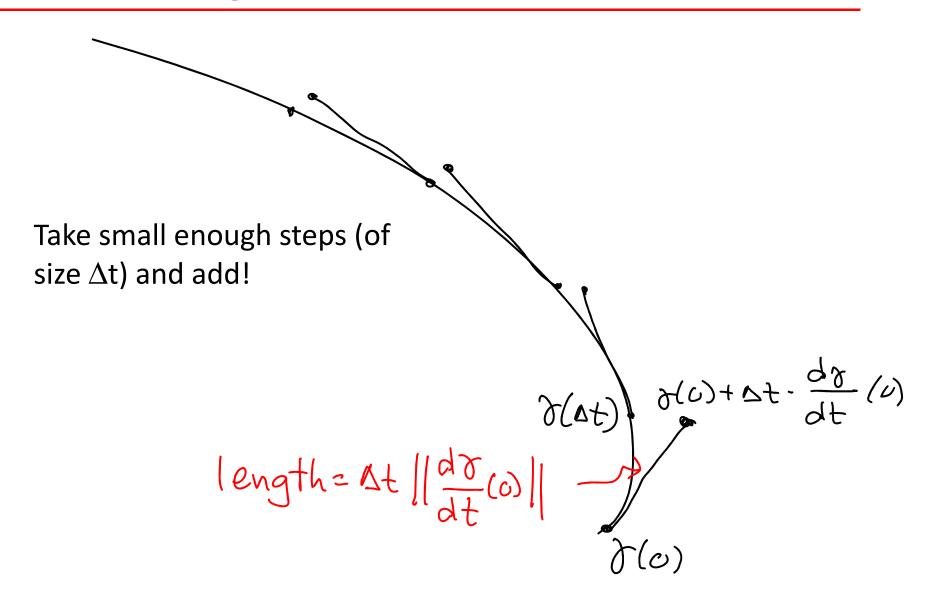
$$T(t) = \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t) \cdot \frac{1}{\left\|\frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t)\right\|_{1}^{2}}$$

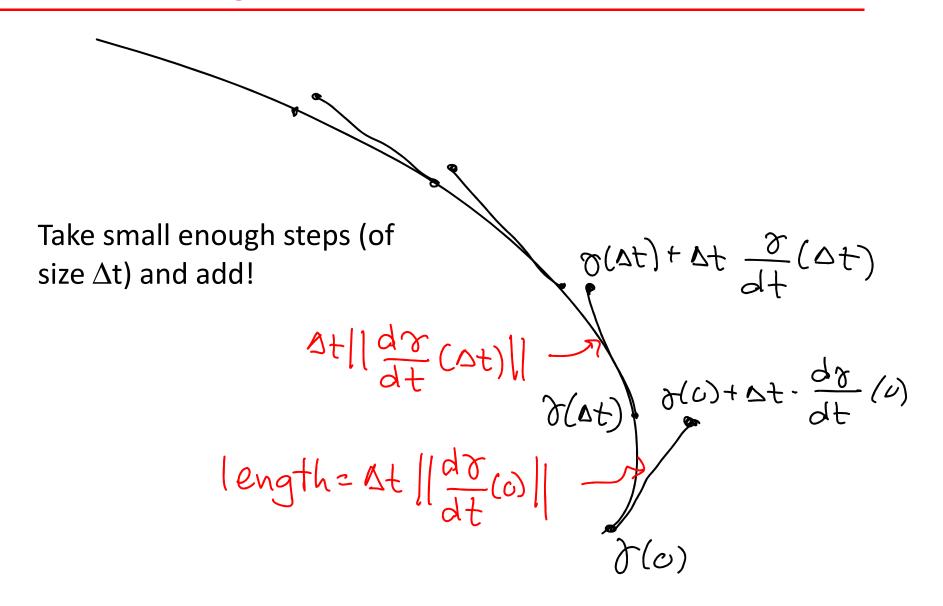
The unit tangent vector does not depend on the choice of the parameter t

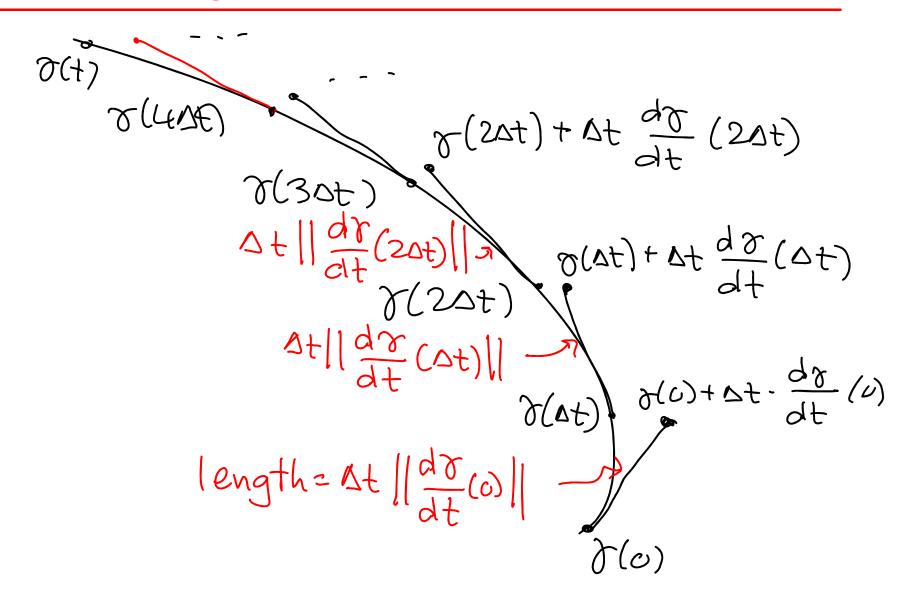
The Arc-Length of a Curve

How can we approximate the length of a curve?









This is called a piece-wise-linear length approximation.

$$S(t) = \Delta t \left\| \frac{dr}{dt}(0) \right\| +$$

$$\Delta t \left\| \frac{dr}{dt}(\Delta t) \right\| + \cdots$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{U}(\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(2\Delta t) + \Delta t \frac{d\mathcal{J}}{dt}(2\Delta t) \\ \mathcal{J}(3\Delta t) & \Delta t || \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}(2\Delta t) || \mathcal{J} & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) + \Delta t \frac{d\mathcal{J}}{dt}(\Delta t) \\ \mathcal{J}(2\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(2\Delta t) \\ \Delta t || \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt}(\Delta t) || \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) + \Delta t \cdot \frac{d\mathcal{J}}{dt}(\Delta t) \\ \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) + \Delta t \cdot \frac{d\mathcal{J}}{dt}(\Delta t) \\ |ength = \Delta t || \frac{d\mathcal{J}}{dt}(\Delta t) || & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) \\ \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) \\ \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) & \mathcal{J}(\Delta t) \end{aligned}$$

And what if we make the steps smaller and smaller?

O(+)

γ(

O(t)

Then we get the following definition! The arc-length s(t) of the curve γ (t) is given by:

$$s(t) = \int \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du$$

JUSE $\gamma(2\Delta t) + \Delta t \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial L} (2\Delta t)$ N30t) $\sigma(\Delta t) + \Delta t \frac{d\sigma}{d\sigma}(\Delta t)$ Y(20t) $\frac{ds}{dt}(u)$ d(at) d(c)+ st. length=1

For example, lets think about the circle

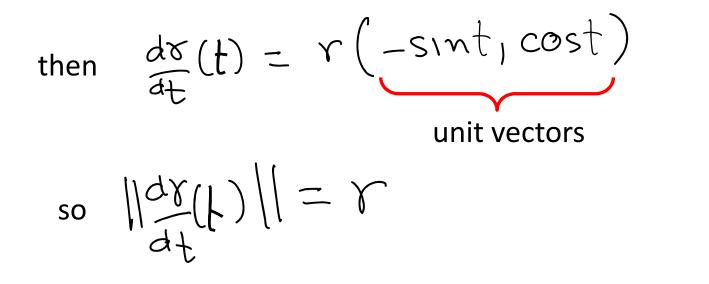
What do we expect

For example, lets think about the circle

Proportional to the radius and the number of pixels in the circle

Example: The arc length of a circle with radius r, whose curve equation can be written as:

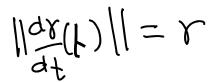
 $\gamma(t) = r (\cos(t), \sin(t))$



 $s(t) = \int \left\| \frac{dy}{dt}(u) \right\| du$

Example: The arc length of a circle with radius r, whose curve equation can be written as:

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

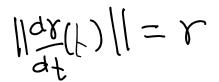


Now, substituting on the definition, we get:

$$s(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{dx}{dt} (u) \| du = \int_{0}^{t} r du = rt$$

Example: The arc length of a circle with radius r, whose curve equation can be written as:

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



Now, substituting on the definition, we get:

$$s(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du = \int_{0}^{t} rdu = rt$$

Proportional to the radius... yes! Proportional to the number of pixels in the circle... yes!

Now, can we parameterize the function $\gamma(t)$ using the arc-length function itself?

$$S(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du$$

Now, can we parameterize the function $\gamma(t)$ using the arc-length function itself?

$$s(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du$$
 Yes!

Now, can we parameterize the function $\gamma(t)$ using the arc-length function itself?

$$S(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{d \mathcal{X}}{dt}(u) \right\| du$$
 Yes!

A parameterization γ (s) where the curve parameter is the arclength is (thoughtfully and originally) named the arc-length parameterization.

Now, can we parameterize the function $\gamma(t)$ using the arc-length function itself?

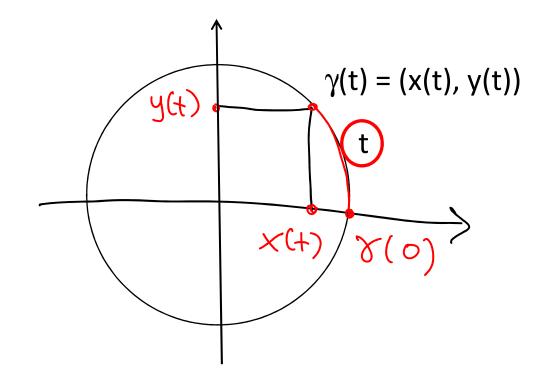
$$S(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du$$
 Yes!

Lets use the circle again as an example. We know that the arclength of a circle is s(t) = rt, or for short s = rt.

Which means that $t = \frac{s}{r}$, so the arc-length parameterization is: $r(\cos \frac{s}{r}, \sin \frac{s}{r})$

Arc-length parameterization of the circle.

Using $\gamma(s) = r(\cos \frac{s}{r}, \sin \frac{s}{r})$ the following holds:



Now, we know that the arc-length is $S(t) = \int_{0}^{t} \left\| \frac{dv}{dt}(u) \right\| du$

We also know that an arc-length parameterization $\gamma(s)$ is one where the curve parameter is the arc-length

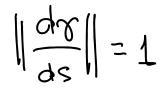
Knowing these two facts, a property we can derive is that $\gamma(s)$ is an arc-length parameterization of a curve if and only if

$$\left\|\frac{dr}{ds}\right\| = 1$$

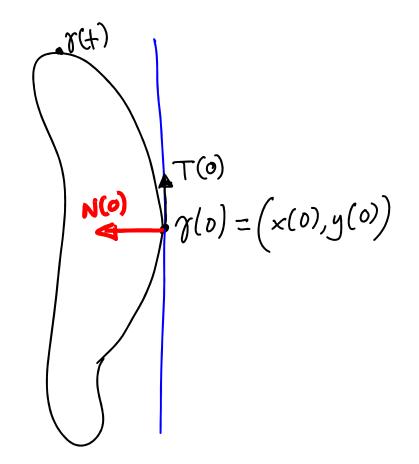
 γ (s) is an arc-length parameterization of a curve if and only if

$$\begin{split} \left\|\frac{dr}{ds}\right\| &= 1 \quad Proof: \\ \frac{dr}{dt} &= \frac{dr}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dt} \quad (chain rule) \\ & \Leftrightarrow \frac{dr}{dt} &= \frac{dr}{ds} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{0}^{t} \left\|\frac{dr}{dt}(u)\right\| du\right) \\ & \Leftrightarrow \frac{dr}{dt} &= \frac{dr}{ds} \cdot \left\|\frac{dr}{dt}\right\| \\ & \Leftrightarrow \left\|\frac{dr}{dt}\right\| &= \left\|\frac{dr}{ds}\right\| \cdot \left\|\frac{dr}{dt}\right\| \\ & \Leftrightarrow \left\|\frac{dr}{dt}\right\| &= 1 \end{split}$$

 γ (s) is an arc-length parameterization of a curve if and only if



This is a very useful property of arc-length parameterized curves, because the tangent -estimated as the derivative of the curve- is always a unit-tangent! Let's look at the normal vector now



$$\gamma(t)$$

$$a | ways has$$

$$(ength = 1)$$

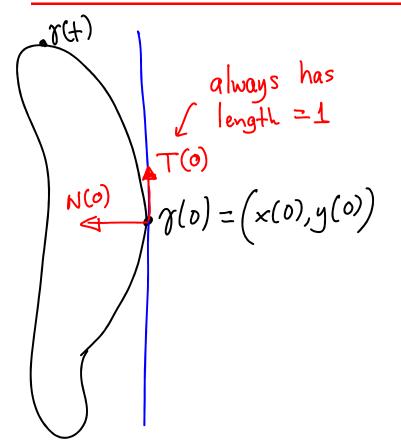
$$T(0)$$

$$\gamma(0) = (x(0), y(0))$$

Today we learnt that the unit tangent is $T(t) = \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t) \cdot \frac{l}{\left\| \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t) \right\|_{2}}$

How do we estimate the Unit Normal?

The Unit Normal Vector



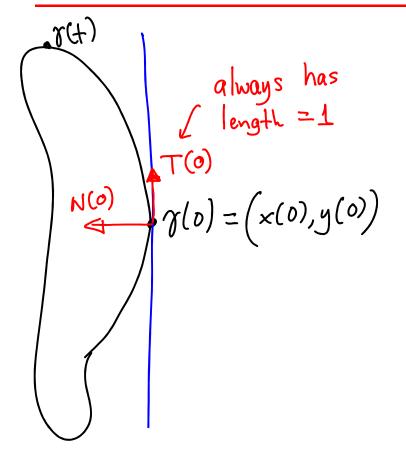
Today we learnt that the unit tangent is

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t) \cdot \frac{1}{\left\|\frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t)\right\|},$$

9

As the orthogonal vector to T(t). The (unit) normal vector N(t) is the counter-clockwise rotation of T(t) by 90 degrees.

The Unit Normal Vector



Today we learnt that the unit tangent is

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t) \cdot \frac{1}{\left\|\frac{d\sigma}{dt}(t)\right\|},$$

9

As the orthogonal vector to T(t). The (unit) normal vector N(t) is the counter-clockwise rotation of T(t) by 90 degrees.

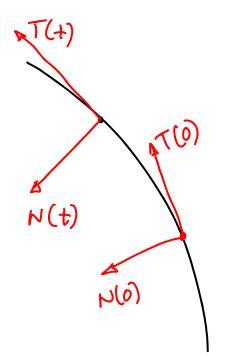
$$N(t) = \frac{1}{\left\| \left(\frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dx}{dt} \right) \right\|_{2}} \left(-\frac{dy}{dt}(t), \frac{dx}{dt}(t) \right)$$

Aside: what are orthogonal vectors?

Vectors **a** and **b** are orthogonal if and only if their dot product is zero. So if $\mathbf{a} = [a_x, a_y]$, and $\mathbf{b} = [b_x, b_y]$, then **a** and **b** are orthogonal if and only if:

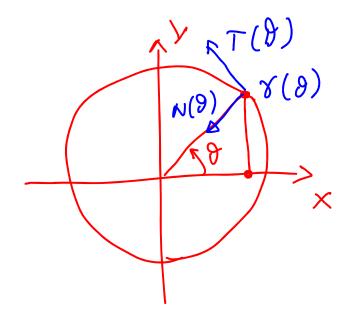
$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} a_x & a_y \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} b_x \\ b_y \end{array} \right) = a_x b_x + a_y b_y = 0$$

The Moving Frame



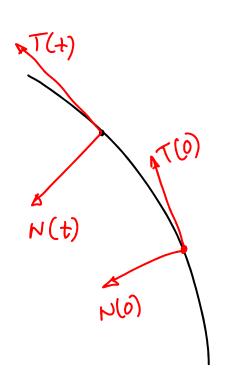
Putting the unit Tangent and the unit Normal together we get: The Moving Frame, defined as the pair of orthogonal vectors {T(t), N(t)} The Moving Frame

For example, the circle



 $\gamma(\vartheta) = \rho(\cos\vartheta, \sin\vartheta)$ $T(\vartheta) = (-\sin\vartheta, \cos\vartheta)$ $N(\vartheta) = (-\cos\vartheta, -\sin\vartheta)$

The Moving Frame



Noteworthy:

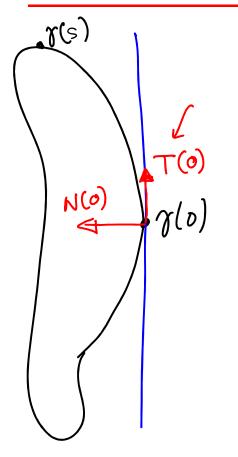
- 1. As we change the parameter t, the moving frame rotates
- 2. The faster the frame rotates, the more "curved" the curve is
- The speed at which the moving frame is rotating can be estimated using a 1st order Taylor-series near t=0.

Topic 4.2:

Local analysis of 2D curve patches

- Representing 2D image curves
- Estimating differential properties of 2D curves
 - Tangent & normal vectors
 - The arc-length parameterization of a 2D curve
 - The curvature of a 2D curve

Arc-Length Parameterization: T(s) & N(s)



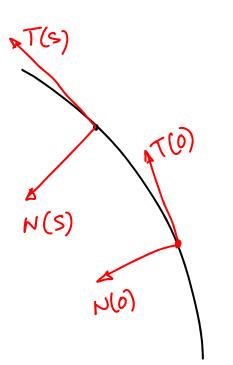
We know that:

The unit tangent is: $T(s) = \frac{df}{ds}(s)$

And that the unit normal is the 90-deg counter-clockwise rotation:

$$N(s) = \left(-\frac{dy}{ds}(s), \frac{dx}{ds}(s)\right)$$

Note that we use "s" as the parameter to denote arc-length parameterizations. And we arc-length parameterizations because the expressions are simpler (see last slide of this lecture for comparison).



Theorem. Definition of curvature.

If s is the arc-length of a curve, then

$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s)$$

$$\frac{dN}{ds}(s) = -k(s) \cdot T(s)$$

x(0)

T(S)

N(S)

ds

6)4

The traditional way of writing the 1st order Taylor approximation of the moving frame is:

$$\{T(s), N(s)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \\\{s. \frac{dT}{ds}(0), s\frac{dN}{ds}(0)\}$$

But if we use the curvature k(s), it becomes

$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s) + \begin{cases} T(s), N(s) \\ S \cdot k(s) \cdot N(s) \\ S \cdot k(s) \\ S \cdot k(s)$$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{ T(t), N(t) \} = \{ T(0), N(0) \} + \{ t \cdot k(0) \cdot N(0), -t \cdot k(0) \cdot T(0) \}$ Proof of theorem $\cdot Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) for some$ $\cdot Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) u(1, v(s))$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\left\{ T(t), N(t) \right\} = \left\{ T(o), N(o) \right\} + \left\{ t \cdot k(o) \cdot N(o), -t \cdot k(o) \cdot T(o) \right\}$ $\frac{Proof}{theorem} \circ t + T(s) = \left(u(s), v(s) \right) for some}{uc_{1,vc}}$ $\cdot Let \quad T(s) = \left(u(s), v(s) \right) \frac{dv}{ds}(s)$ $\cdot Then \quad \frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{du}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s) \right)$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\left\{ T(t), w(t) \right\} = \left\{ T(o), w(o) \right\} + \left\{ t \cdot k(o) \cdot w(o), -t \cdot k(o) \cdot T(o) \right\}$ Proof of theorem $\cdot \text{Let} \quad T(s) = (w(s), v(s)) \text{ for some} \\ \cdot \text{Let} \quad T(s) = (w(s), v(s)) \frac{1}{w(s)} \frac{1}{w(s)}$ $\cdot \text{Then} \quad \frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{dw}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s) \right)$ $\cdot \text{Length of} \quad T(s) \ge 1 \quad \forall s \Longrightarrow$ $derivative \quad of \quad (\text{length})^2 = 0 \implies$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{T(t), N(t)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \{t, k(0), N(0), -t, k(0), T(0)\}$ Proof of theorem
Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) u(1, v(s)) . Then $\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{du}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s)\right)$ · Length of T(s) z1 ₩s => derivative of $(length)^2 = 0 \Longrightarrow$ $\frac{d}{ds}\left(u^{2}(s)+v^{2}(s)\right)=0$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{T(t), N(t)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \{t, k(0), N(0)\} - t \cdot k(0) \cdot T(0)\}$ Proof of theorem • Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) u(1, v(1)). Then $\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{du}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s)\right)$ · Length of T(s) z1 # => derivative of $(length)^2 = 0 \Longrightarrow$ $\cdot \frac{d}{ds} \left(u^2(s) + v^2(s) \right) = 0 \implies$ $2u(s) \cdot \frac{du}{ds}(s) + 2v(s) \cdot \frac{dv}{ds}(0) = 0 \implies$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{T(t), N(t)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \{t, k(0), N(0)\} - t \cdot k(0) \cdot T(0)\}$ Proof of theorem
Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) u(1, v(s)) . Then $\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{du}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s)\right)$ · Length of T(s) z1 # => derivative of $(length)^2 = 0 \Longrightarrow$ $\cdot \frac{d}{ds} \left(u^2(s) + v^2(s) \right) = 0 \implies$ $2u(s) \cdot \frac{du}{ds}(s) + 2v(s) \cdot \frac{dv}{ds}(0) = 0 \implies$ $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{du}{ds}(s) & \frac{dv}{ds}(s) \\ \frac{du}{ds}(s) & \frac{dv}{ds}(s) \end{bmatrix} = 0$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{T(t), N(t)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \{t.k(0), N(0), -t.k(0), T(0)\}$ Proof of theorem
Let T(s) = (u(s), v(s)) u(1, v(s)) . Then $\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \left(\frac{du}{ds}(s), \frac{dv}{ds}(s)\right)$ · Length of T(s) z1 # => derivative of $(length)^2 = 0 \Longrightarrow$ $\cdot \frac{d}{ds} \left(u^2(s) + v^2(s) \right) = 0 \implies$ $2u(s) \cdot \frac{du}{ds}(s) + 2v(s) \cdot \frac{dv}{ds}(0) = 0 \implies$ $\frac{dT_{G}}{ds} \left[\frac{du}{ds} (s) \frac{dv}{ds} (s) \right] \left[\frac{u(s)}{v(s)} \right] = 0$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes:

$$\left\{ T(t), w(t) \right\} = \left\{ T(\omega), w(\omega) \right\} + \left\{ t \cdot k(\omega) \cdot N(\omega), -t \cdot k(\omega) \cdot T(\omega) \right\}$$

$$\frac{dT}{ds} \left\{ \frac{du}{ds} (s), \frac{dv}{ds} (s) \right\} \begin{bmatrix} u(s) \\ v(s) \\ v(s) \end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies$$

$$\frac{dT}{ds} \left\{ 0, is \text{ orthogonal to } T(s) \implies$$

$$\frac{dT}{ds} \left\{ 0, is \text{ orthogonal to } T(s) \implies$$

$$\frac{dT}{ds} \left\{ 0, is \text{ orthogonal to } T(s) \implies$$
And the scaling constant is k(s)
$$\frac{dT}{dt} \left\{ 0, is \text{ orthogonal to } T(s) \implies$$

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$$\frac{dT}{dt} \left\{ 0, is \text{ orthogonal to } T(s) \implies$$

$$\frac{dT}{dt} \left\{ 0,$$

dt

6)4

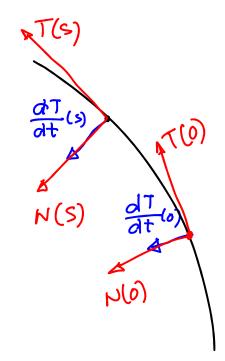
$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s)$$

The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{ T(t), N(t) \} = \{ T(o), N(o) \} + \{ t \cdot k(o) \cdot N(o), -t \cdot k(o) \cdot T(o) \}$

And the scaling constant is k(s)

$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s)$$

What is this constant saying?



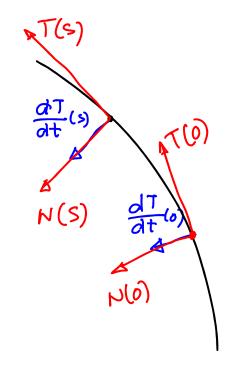
The 1st order Taylor-series approximation becomes: $\{ T(t), N(t) \} = \{ T(o), N(o) \} + \{ t \cdot k(o) \cdot N(o), -t \cdot k(o) \cdot T(o) \}$

And the scaling constant is k(s)

$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s)$$

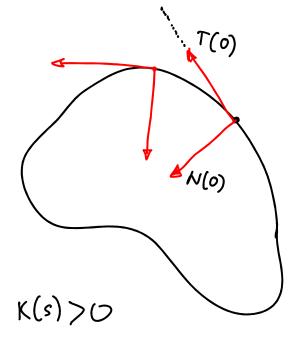
What is this constant saying?

How much of the Normal do we need to add to the Tangent T(0) to approximate the tangent at T(t).



Interpreting the Sign of the Curvature k(s)

$$\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = k(s) \cdot N(s)$$



curve bends in the direction of the normal $\frac{dN}{dS}(s) = -k(s) \cdot T(s)$ T(0) KN(0) K(S)CU curve bends in the opposite direction from the normal

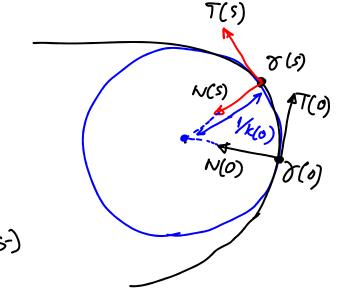
Interpreting the Absolute Value of k(s)

$$\{T(t), N(t)\} = \{T(0), N(0)\} + \{t \cdot k(0) \cdot N(0), -t \cdot k(0) \cdot T(0)\}$$

What is the intuition of the above equation then?

The equation is saying, look we can approximate $\gamma(s)$ (by approximating the Tangent and the Normal) using a circle that:

- passes through $\gamma(0)$,
- is tangent to T(0), and
- passes through $\gamma(s)$



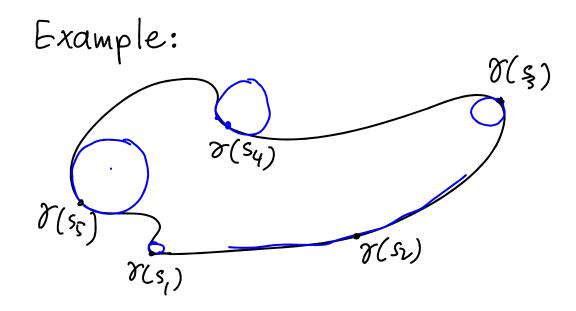
. The radius of the circle is 1/k(s-)

The Arc-Length Parameterization & k(s)

Example: the curvature of a circle of radius r.

Parametric equation: $g(t) = r (\cos t, \sin t)$.

Arc-length parameterization $\Im(s) = \Im(\cos \frac{s}{r}, sm \frac{s}{r})$ First derivative $\frac{d\Im}{ds}(s) = (-sm, \frac{s}{r}, \cos \frac{s}{r}) = T(s)$ Second derivative $\frac{dT}{ds}(s) = \frac{1}{r}(-\cos \frac{s}{r}, -sm \frac{s}{r}) = (\prod_{r} N(s))$ $(urvature \stackrel{off}{dt} + circle)$ The Circle of Curvature k(s)



k(t) for Non-Arc-Length Parameterizations



Prove that if $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$ the curvature at y(f) is given by the formula $K(t) = \frac{\frac{dx}{dt} \cdot \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} - \frac{dx}{dt^2} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}}{\left[\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2\right]^{3/2}}$

The 1st and 2nd derivatives of X(+), y(t) are extremely informative about the curves shape!!