

Discrete Approximation of the Curvature of Arcs

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Abstract

We study a (global) definition of curvature applicable to non-smooth curves, based on the relationship between the curvature vector and the variation of arc length.

1 Introduction

The purpose of this note is to first study the concept of curvature for piecewise linear arcs. Thereafter we consider the situation when a sequence $\{\gamma_\nu\}$ of such arcs approximates a smooth arc γ . We discuss the approximation properties of the curvatures of the arcs γ_ν to the curvature of the arc γ .

Let $I \subset \mathbf{R}$ be a closed interval $[a, b]$ and let $\gamma : I \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$ be a smooth arc. Letting $\frac{d}{ds}$ denote the differentiation with respect to arc length, we denote by $T(s) = \frac{d\gamma}{ds}$ and $\kappa(s) = \frac{dT}{ds}$, the unit tangent and the curvature vector of γ , respectively. If the dimension $d = 2$ we recall that if $T(s) = (\xi, \eta)$ then the principal unit normal to γ is given by $(-\eta, \xi)$. Since in this case $N(s)$ and $\kappa(s)$ are parallel, we can write $\kappa(s) = k(s)N(s)$, and the quantity $k(s)$ is called the curvature of γ . We also recall, that if the dimension $d \geq 3$ then the Euclidean norm of the curvature vector is the curvature of γ .

In order to motivate our definition of curvature for non-smooth curves, we recall the relationship between the curvature vector and the variation of arc length. Let $Q : I \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$ be a smooth vector valued function. Setting $\gamma_\epsilon = \gamma + \epsilon Q$ we see that γ_ϵ is a smooth arc for ϵ in a neighbourhood of 0. The arc length $L(\epsilon)$ of γ_ϵ is given by

$$L(\epsilon) = \int \left| \frac{d\gamma}{ds} + \epsilon \frac{dQ}{ds} \right| ds,$$

where $|w|$ denotes the Euclidean norm of a vector in \mathbf{R}^d . Again, L is a smooth function of ϵ in a neighbourhood of 0. Letting \dot{L} denote the derivative of L with respect to ϵ evaluated for $\epsilon = 0$, we find that

$$\dot{L} = \int \left\langle \frac{d\gamma}{ds}, \frac{dQ}{ds} \right\rangle ds$$

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so that if $Q(a) = Q(b) = 0$ we have that

$$(1) \quad \dot{L} = - \int \langle \kappa(s), Q(s) \rangle ds.$$

Here $\langle v, w \rangle$ denotes the scalar product of two vectors in \mathbf{R}^d .

Hence the curvature vector $\kappa(s)$ measures the variation of the arc length.

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{P_0, \dots, P_M\} \subset \mathbf{R}^d$ be an ordered finite set of distinct points and let $\Gamma = \Gamma_{\mathcal{P}}$ be the corresponding piecewise linear arc connecting the nodes P_0, \dots, P_M , in this order. Since Γ may be interpreted as closed or open, we shall mention explicitly what interpretation we are using. In any case, our convention is that $P_0 \neq P_M$. We will also use the convention that indices are counted modulo $M+1$, so that for instance P_{-1} corresponds to P_M .

We take the relation (1) as our starting point for the definition of a curvature vector for Γ . To this end, let $Q_0, \dots, Q_M \in \mathbf{R}^d$ and $\epsilon \in \mathbf{R}$. We will use the convention that $Q_0 = Q_M = 0$ if Γ is open. Set $P_i^\epsilon = P_i + \epsilon Q_i$ and let Γ^ϵ be the corresponding curve. Letting $T_i = (P_i - P_{i-1})/|P_i - P_{i-1}|$ and

$$(2) \quad N_i = T_i - T_{i+1}$$

we see that if $L(\epsilon)$ denotes the arc length of Γ^ϵ then

$$(3) \quad \dot{L} = \Sigma \langle Q_i, N_i \rangle .$$

This formula is valid when Γ is open, because $Q_0 = Q_M = 0$ in that case.

Let $\text{PL}(\Gamma)$ denote the class of continuous, real valued and piecewise linear functions on γ with nodes at P_0, \dots, P_M . We notice that we have two natural scalar products on $\text{PL}(\Gamma)$. For $\alpha, \beta \in \text{PL}(\Gamma)$ they are defined by

$$(4) \quad (\alpha, \beta) = \int \alpha \beta ds$$

and

$$(5) \quad \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \Sigma \alpha(P_i) \beta(P_i).$$

In order to find the analogue of (1) we next study the relationship between these two scalar products. To this end we introduce two operators \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}_0 . We let \mathcal{B} be the symmetric and positive operator on $\text{PL}(\Gamma)$ for which

$$(6) \quad (\alpha, \beta) = \langle \alpha, \mathcal{B}\beta \rangle$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in \text{PL}(\Gamma)$. Letting $\text{PL}_0(\Gamma)$ be the class of functions $f \in \text{PL}(\Gamma)$ that vanish at the end points of Γ , we define \mathcal{B}_0 as the positive and symmetric operator on $\text{PL}_0(\Gamma)$ for which (6) holds for all α, β in $\text{PL}_0(\Gamma)$.

For $0 \leq \nu \leq M$ we now define $f_\nu \in \text{PL}(\Gamma)$ as the functions satisfying $f_\nu(P_\mu) = 1$ if $\nu = \mu$ and 0 otherwise. The operator \mathcal{B} is represented in the basis $\{f_\nu\}_0^M$ by the $(M+1) \times (M+1)$ -matrix $(B_{\mu\nu})$ where

$$(7) \quad B_{\mu\nu} = \int f_\mu f_\nu ds, \quad 0 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M$$

It is easily seen that $\int f_\mu f_\nu ds = 0$ if $|\mu - \nu| > 1$, $\int f_\mu f_\nu ds = |P_\mu - P_\nu|/6$ if $|\mu - \nu| = 1$ and $\int f_\nu^2 ds = (|P_\nu - P_{\nu-1}| + |P_\nu - P_{\nu+1}|)/3$. Setting $a_\nu = |P_\nu - P_{\nu-1}|/6$ we therefore have that the matrix $(B_{\mu\nu})$, $0 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M$ is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2(a_0 + a_M) & a_1 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_0 \\ a_1 & 2(a_1 + a_2) & a_2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_{M-1} & 2(a_{M-1} + a_M) & a_M \\ a_0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_M & 2(a_0 + a_M) \end{pmatrix}$$

Since $\{f_\nu\}_{\nu=1}^{M-1}$ is a basis for $\text{PL}_0(\Gamma)$ we have that the operator \mathcal{B}_0 is represented by the $(M-1) \times (M-1)$ -matrix $(B_{\mu\nu}^0)$, $1 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M-1$, where again

$$(8) \quad B_{\mu\nu}^0 = \int f_\mu f_\nu ds, \quad 1 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M-1.$$

This matrix has the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2(a_1 + a_2) & a_2 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ a_2 & 2(a_2 + a_3) & a_3 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_{M-2} & 2(a_{M-2} + a_{M-1}) & a_{M-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & a_{M-1} & 2(a_{M-1} + a_M) \end{pmatrix}$$

We now denote the inverses of \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}_0 by \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{E}_0 , respectively. We extend \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{E}_0 to act on vector valued functions simply by letting them act on each component separately. We define \mathcal{N} as the \mathbf{R}^d -valued piecewise linear function on Γ with knots at P_0, \dots, P_M for which

$$(9) \quad \mathcal{N}(P_i) = N_i, \quad 0 \leq i \leq M,$$

where N_i is defined by (2). We can now define the curvature vector for a closed polygonal curve.

Definition 1.1. *Let Γ be a closed polygon in \mathbf{R}^d with nodes at P_0, \dots, P_M and let \mathcal{N} be defined by (9). The curvature vector \mathcal{K} of Γ is then defined by $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{N})$.*

For Γ a non-closed curve we define \mathcal{N}_0 as the \mathbf{R}^d -valued piecewise linear function on Γ with knots at P_0, \dots, P_M for which

$$(10) \quad \mathcal{N}_0(P_i) = \begin{cases} N_i & \text{if } 1 \leq i \leq M-1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We can now define the curvature vector \mathcal{K}_0 for a non-closed polygon Γ .

Definition 1.2. *Let Γ be a non closed polygon in \mathbf{R}^d with nodes at P_0, \dots, P_M and let \mathcal{N}_0 be defined by (10). The curvature vector \mathcal{K}_0 of Γ is then defined by $\mathcal{K}_0 = \mathcal{E}_0(\mathcal{N}_0)$.*

2 Approximation

We will next study the approximation properties of the curvature vectors for polygons. Let $I \subset \mathbf{R}$ be a closed interval $[a, b]$ and suppose $\gamma : I \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$ is a smooth arc which is at least twice continuously differentiable. A collection \mathcal{P} of points P_0, \dots, P_M is called a partition of γ if there are t_0, \dots, t_M such that $a \leq t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_M \leq b$ and $P_i = \gamma(t_i)$. We say that the partition is closed if $t_0 = a$ and $t_M < b$ and we say that it is non-closed if $t_0 = a$ and $t_M = b$. We will of course declare the polygon Γ associated to \mathcal{P} , closed or non closed simultaneously with \mathcal{P} . If \mathcal{P} is closed we set $|\mathcal{P}| = \max |P_i - P_{i-1}|$, $0 \leq i \leq M$ and in the case when \mathcal{P} is non-closed we put $|\mathcal{P}| = \max |P_i - P_{i-1}|$, $1 \leq i \leq M$. We recall that we count indices modulo $M + 1$.

We need to compare functions defined on Γ and γ , respectively. To this end we define the map $\mathcal{R} : I \rightarrow \Gamma$ as follows. If $t_i \leq t \leq t_{i+1}$ we can write $t = (1 - \theta)t_i + \theta t_{i+1}$ and we set $\mathcal{R}(t) = (1 - \theta)P_i + \theta P_{i+1}$. This defines \mathcal{R} on I if \mathcal{P} is non closed. If \mathcal{P} is closed and $t_M < t \leq b$ we write $t = (1 - \theta)t_M + \theta b$ and we set $\mathcal{R}(t) = (1 - \theta)P_M + \theta P_0$. If $f \in \text{PL}(\Gamma)$ we denote by $f(t)$ the value of f at $\mathcal{R}(t)$.

We can now formulate our approximation result.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $I \subset \mathbf{R}$ be a closed interval $[a, b]$ and suppose $\gamma : I \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$ be a smooth arc which is at least twice continuously differentiable. Also assume that γ is parametrised by the arc length, i.e. $|\gamma'(t)| = 1$ for all $t \in I$. Let κ denote the curvature vector of γ .*

Suppose that $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}^{(\mu)}$ is a sequence of non closed partitions of γ with curvature vectors $\mathcal{K}_0 = \mathcal{K}_0^{(\mu)}$. If $\lim |\mathcal{P}^{(\mu)}| = 0$ then for every compact set $F \subset (a, b)$ we have that

$$\limsup \{|\kappa(t) + \mathcal{K}_0^{(\mu)}(t)| : t \in F\} = 0.$$

If γ is a smooth and closed curve and the partitions $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}^{(\mu)}$ are closed with $\lim |\mathcal{P}^{(\mu)}| = 0$ then

$$\limsup \{|\kappa(t) + \mathcal{K}_0^{(\mu)}(t)| : t \in I\} = 0.$$

We will need some preliminary results before giving the proof of the theorem. We begin by considering two matrices related to \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{B}_0 . Let $(B_{\mu\nu})$ and $(B_{\mu\nu}^0)$ be the matrices defined by (7) and (8). We define the matrices $\beta = (\beta_{\mu\nu})$ and $\beta^0 = (\beta_{\mu\nu}^0)$ by

$$(11) \quad \beta_{\mu\nu} = B_{\mu\nu} / B_{\mu\mu}, \quad 0 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M$$

and

$$(12) \quad \beta_{\mu\nu}^0 = B_{\mu\nu}^0 / B_{\mu\mu}^0, \quad 1 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M - 1.$$

If $\xi \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is an n -dimensional vector we put $\|\xi\|_\infty = \max\{|\xi_i| : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$.

Lemma 2.1. *The matrix $\beta = (\beta_{\mu\nu})$ is invertible on \mathbf{R}^{M+1} and*

$$(13) \quad \|\xi\|_\infty / 2 \leq \|\beta\xi\|_\infty \leq 3\|\xi\|_\infty / 2.$$

Furthermore, there are universal constants a and b such that if $a = (a_{\mu\nu})$ denotes the inverse of β then

$$|a_{\mu\nu}| \leq a e^{-b\|\mu - \nu\|}.$$

Here $\|x\|$ denotes the distance from the integer x to 0 modulo $M + 1$, i.e. $\|x\| = \inf\{|x + s(M + 1)| : s \in \mathbf{Z}\}$.

Proof. We first observe that $\beta_{\mu\nu} \geq 0$ and $\sum_{\mu} \beta_{\mu\nu} = 3/2$, which yields the right hand side of (13). Let the matrix $\alpha = (\alpha_{\mu\nu})$ be defined by $\alpha_{\mu\mu} = 0$ and $\alpha_{\mu\nu} = \beta_{\mu\nu}$ if $\mu \neq \nu$. Since $\sum_{\mu} \alpha_{\mu\nu} = 1/2$ it follows that $\|\alpha\xi\|_{\infty} \leq \|\xi\|_{\infty}/2$. Since $\beta\xi = \xi + \alpha\xi$ it follows from the triangle inequality that $\|\beta\xi\|_{\infty} \geq \|\xi\|_{\infty} - \|\alpha\xi\|_{\infty} \geq \|\xi\|_{\infty}/2$. Hence the invertability follows, together with the left hand side of (13).

Define the sequence $\{r_i\}$ by $r_0 = \beta_{0M}$ and $r_i = \beta_{ii-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq M$. Extend next $\{r_i\}$ to be $(M + 1)$ -periodic on the integers \mathbf{Z} and set $r_i^* = 1/2 - r_i$. Let $\Lambda = (\lambda_{\mu\nu})$ be the infinite matrix defined by $\lambda_{\mu\mu-1} = r_{\mu}$, $\lambda_{\mu\mu+1} = r_{\mu}^*$ and $\lambda_{\mu\nu} = 0$ otherwise. Let Λ^N be the N -th power of Λ and denote by $(\lambda_{\mu\nu}^{(N)})$ the coefficients of Λ^N . Since the coefficients of Λ are non negative and $\sum_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu\nu} = 1/2$ it follows that $e_{N+1} \leq e_N$ where $e_N = \sup\{\lambda_{\mu\nu} : \mu, \nu \in \mathbf{Z}\}$. Using that $e_1 \leq 1/2$ it therefore follows by induction that

$$(14) \quad 0 \leq \lambda_{\mu\nu} \leq 2^{-N-1}.$$

We now claim that

$$(15) \quad \lambda_{\mu\nu} \leq 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}.$$

The inequality is obviously true for $N = 1$ and we proceed by induction. Clearly (14) verifies (15) when $\mu = \nu$. From the definition of Λ follows that

$$\lambda_{\mu\nu}^{(N+1)} \leq r_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu-1\nu}^{(N)} + r_{\mu}^* \lambda_{\mu+1\nu}^{(N)}.$$

Assuming that (15) holds for N we see that if $\mu > \nu$ then $\lambda_{\mu\nu}^{(N+1)} \leq 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}(2r_{\mu} + r_{\mu}^*/2) = 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}(3r_{\mu}/2 + 1/4)$ and since $0 \leq r_{\mu} \leq 1/2$ we see that (15) holds in this case. If $\mu < \nu$ we see that $\lambda_{\mu\nu}^{(N+1)} \leq 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}(r_{\mu}/2 + 2r_{\mu}^*) = 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}(1 - 3r_{\mu}/2)$ and using that $r_{\mu} \geq 0$ we see that (15) holds also in this case, which completes the induction argument. Multiplying (14) and (15) and taking the square root gives that $\lambda_{\mu\nu}^{(N)} \leq 2^{-(|\mu-\nu|+N+1)/2}$. Let \mathcal{I} denote the identity operator on \mathbf{Z} and let \mathcal{A} denote the inverse of $\mathcal{I} + \Lambda$. Since we have that \mathcal{A} is given by the Neumann series

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{I} + \sum_{N=1}^{\infty} (-1)^N \Lambda^N$$

we have that the coefficients $a_{\mu\nu}$ of \mathcal{A} satisfy the bound $|a_{\mu\nu}| \leq c2^{-|\mu-\nu|/2}$ for some universal constant c . If now $0 \leq \mu, \nu \leq M + 1$ we have that $\alpha_{\mu\nu} = \sum_s a_{(s(M+1)+\mu)\nu}$, where the summation is taken over all integers. With $b = \log \sqrt{2}$ we therefore have that $|\alpha_{\mu\nu}| \leq c(3e^{-b\|\mu-\nu\|} + 2\sum_{s \geq 2} e^{b(|\mu-\nu|-s(M+1))})$. Adding, we therefore see that there is a constant $c_1 > 0$ such that $|\alpha_{\mu\nu}| \leq c(3e^{-b\|\mu-\nu\|} + c_1 e^{-b(M+1)})$. Since $\|\mu-\nu\| < M + 1$ we see that (13) follows, which completes the proof of the lemma. \square

Lemma 2.2. *The matrix $\beta^0 = (\beta_{\mu\nu}^0)$ is invertible on \mathbf{R}^{M-1} and*

$$(16) \quad \|\xi\|_{\infty}/2 \leq \|\beta^0 \xi\|_{\infty} \leq 3\|\xi\|_{\infty}/2.$$

Furthermore, there are universal constants b and c such that if $a^0 = (a_{\mu\nu}^0)$ denotes the inverse of β^0 then

$$|a_{\mu\nu}^0| \leq ce^{-b|\mu-\nu|}.$$

Proof. Let the matrix $\alpha = (\alpha_{\mu\nu})$ be defined by $\alpha_{\mu\mu} = 0$ and $\alpha_{\mu\nu} = \beta_{\mu\nu}^0$ if $\mu \neq \nu$. Since $\sum_{\mu} \alpha_{\mu\nu} \leq 1/2$ it follows that $\|\alpha\xi\|_{\infty} \leq \|\xi\|_{\infty}/2$. Since $\beta\xi = \xi + \alpha\xi$ it follows from the triangle inequality that $\|\beta\xi\|_{\infty} \geq \|\xi\|_{\infty} - \|\alpha\xi\|_{\infty} \geq \|\xi\|_{\infty}/2$ and $\|\beta\xi\|_{\infty} \leq \|\xi\|_{\infty} + \|\alpha\xi\|_{\infty} \leq 3\|\xi\|_{\infty}/2$, which establishes (16). The arguments leading to (14) and (15) can be used for the matrix α to show that

$$0 \leq \alpha_{\mu\nu}^{(N)} \leq \min(2^{-(N+1)}, 2^{-|\mu-\nu|}) \leq 2^{-(|\mu-\nu|+N+1)/2},$$

where $\alpha_{\mu\nu}^{(N)}$ denotes the coefficients of the N -th power α^N of α . We have the Neumann representation

$$a^0 = \mathcal{I} + \sum_1^{\infty} (-1)^N \alpha^N,$$

so $|a_{\mu\nu}^0| \leq 2^{-|\mu-\nu|/2} (1 + \sum_1^{\infty} 2^{-(N+1)/2})$, which completes the proof of the lemma. \square

We will need the following elementary estimates for the matrices β and β^0 .

Lemma 2.3. *Let β and β^0 be as above. If $\{\xi\}_0^M$ is an $(M+1)$ -dimensional vector with $\omega = \max\{|\xi_i - \xi_{i-1}| : 0 \leq i \leq M\}$ then*

$$\|\beta\xi - 3\xi/2\|_{\infty} \leq \omega/2.$$

If $\{\xi\}_1^{M-1}$ is an $(M-1)$ -dimensional vector with $\omega = \max\{|\xi_i - \xi_{i-1}| : 2 \leq i \leq M-1\}$ and $\eta = \beta^0\xi$ then

$$(17) \quad |\eta_i - 3\xi_i/2| \leq \begin{cases} |\xi_1|/2 + \omega/2 & \text{if } i = 1, \\ \omega/2 & \text{if } 2 \leq i \leq M-2, \\ |\xi_{M-1}|/2 + \omega/2 & \text{if } i = M-1. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Letting $\eta = \beta\xi$ we have in the closed case that $|\eta_i - 3\xi_i/2| = |\beta_{ii-1}(\xi_{i-1} - \xi_i) + \beta_{ii+1}(\xi_{i+1} - \xi_i)| \leq \omega/2$ since the sum of the off-diagonal elements of β equals $1/2$ for each row. The same argument also gives the middle part of the inequality for β^0 . Furthermore, $|\eta_1 - 3\xi_1/2| = |\beta_{12}^0(\xi_2 - \xi_1) + (1/2 - \beta_{12}^0)\xi_1| \leq \omega/2 + |\xi_1|/2$ and $|\eta_{M-1} - 3\xi_{M-1}/2| = |\beta_{M-2, M-1}^0(\xi_{M-2} - \xi_{M-1}) + (1/2 - \beta_{M-2, M-1}^0)\xi_{M-1}| \leq \omega/2 + |\xi_{M-1}|/2. \quad \square$

We can now give the proof of the theorem.

Proof of Theorem (2.1). We begin by considering N_i as defined by (2). Let $\Omega(r) = \max|\gamma''(t) - \gamma''(u)|$, where the maximum is taken over all $t, u \in [a, b]$ for which $|u - t| \leq r$. Also, let $m = \max\{|\gamma''(t)| : t \in [a, b]\}$ and set $\omega(r) = \Omega(r) + (1 + m)r$. We have from Taylor's formula that

$$(18) \quad \gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t) = h\gamma'(t) + h^2\gamma''(t)/2 + h^2q$$

where $|q| \leq \Omega(|h|)$. Since we have assumed that $|\gamma'(t)| = 1$ we have that $\langle \gamma'(t), \gamma''(t) \rangle = 0$. Hence

$$(19) \quad |\gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t)| = |h|(1 + he_1)$$

where $|e_1| \leq C\omega(|h|)$ for some constant C . Consequently, we have that

$$(20) \quad \frac{\gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t)}{|\gamma(t+h) - \gamma(t)|} = \text{sign}(h)\gamma'(t) + |h|\gamma''(t)/2 + he_2$$

where $|e_2| \leq C\omega(|h|)$ for some constant C . Here $\text{sign}(h)$ equals 1 if $h > 0$ and -1 otherwise.

We will now consider the case when the polygon $\{P_i = \gamma(t_i)\}$ is closed. We set $\delta_i = t_{i+1} - t_{i-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq M-1$, $\delta_0 = t_1 - t_0 + b - t_M$ and $\delta_M = b - t_{M-1}$. Using the above, we see that $N_i = -\delta_i \gamma''(t_i) + \delta_i e_3$, where $|e_3| \leq C\omega(\delta_i)$. Since we have by (7) that $B_{ii} = (|P_i - P_{i-1}| + |P_{i+1} - P_i|)/3$ it follows from (19) that

$$(21) \quad \delta_i / B_{ii} = 3 + E,$$

Letting \mathcal{K} denote the the curvature vector we therefore find that $\beta\mathcal{K} = -3\xi/2 + e_3$, where $\xi_i = \gamma''(t_i)$ and $|e_3| \leq C\omega(|\mathcal{P}|)$. From Lemma (2.3) follows that $\|\beta\xi - 3\xi/2\|_\infty \leq \Omega(|\mathcal{P}|)$. Using Lemma (2.1) we therefore have that $\|\mathcal{K} + \xi\|_\infty \leq C\omega(|\mathcal{P}|)$, which proves the theorem in the closed case.

We briefly outline the modifications of the above argument for the non-closed case. The only difference is the analysis at the endpoints. Proceeding as above one finds that $\beta^0(\mathcal{K}^0 + \xi) = e_4 + f$, where $\|e_4\|_\infty \leq C\omega(|\mathcal{P}|)$ and $\|f\|_\infty \leq Cm$, where $m = \max\{|\gamma''(t)| : t \in [a, b]\}$. Furthermore, $f_i = 0$ whenever $2 \leq i \leq M-2$. If a denotes the inverse of β^0 we have that if $\eta = af$ and $2 \leq i \leq M-2$ then by Lemma (2.2), $|\eta_i| \leq Cm(e^{-b|i-1|} + e^{-b|i+1-M|})$. Let now $a < a' < b' < b$ and set $\delta = \min(a' - a, b - b')$. It is easily seen that if $t_i \in [a', b']$ then $|i-1||\mathcal{P}| \geq \delta$ and $|i+1-M||\mathcal{P}| \geq \delta$, so that $|\eta_i| \leq Ce^{-b\delta/|\mathcal{P}|}$. Hence $\max\{|\mathcal{K}_i^0 + \xi_i| : t_i \in [a', b']\} \leq C(\omega(|\mathcal{P}|) + e^{-b\delta/|\mathcal{P}|})$, which yields the theorem in the non-closed case. \square

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