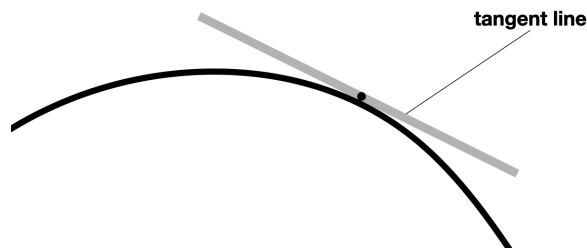
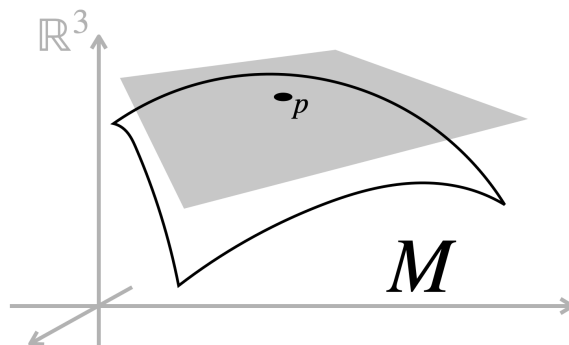


Tangent Space Basis

Think of a curve. We will locate this curve in a dimension which we can easily imagine, in \mathbb{R}^2 . Now, draw a line which lightly touches the curve at just one specific point. This is a **tangent line**.



Now say that instead of a line, we draw a 2 dimensional space, much like a loosely hanging sheet. This is a **manifold**. It is located in a 3 dimensional space \mathbb{R}^3 . Say we pick a point p , and want to draw something equivalent to a tangent line but in 2 dimensions. We would therefore draw a **tangent space**. It's labeled as T_pM and literally means “the tangent space of the manifold M at the point p ”.



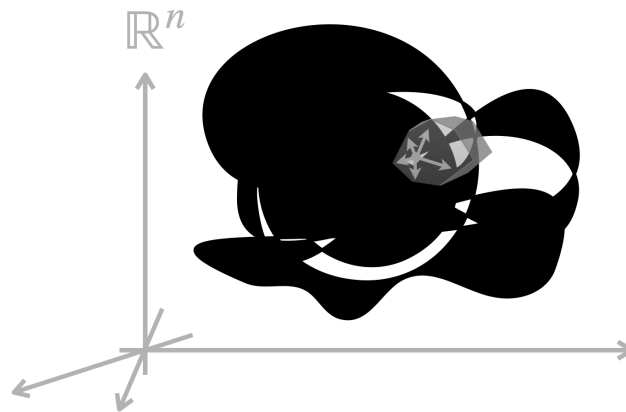
Mathematically, we would describe the tangent space just like how we describe locations in everyday space using coordinates, we describe directions in the tangent space using **coordinate systems** tied to the manifold.

Tangent spaces are abstract constructions that represent all possible directions in which one can move from a point on a manifold. This concept is known as a **vector**. Vectors are like “arrows” which have direction, and magnitude,

On a curved line, there are only two possible directions for vectors: forward and backward along the curve.

On a 2-dimensional tangent plane, there are infinitely many possible directions, forming a “circle of choices” or directions around the point p . These vectors tell us all the possible directions we can travel in the immediate neighborhood of p .

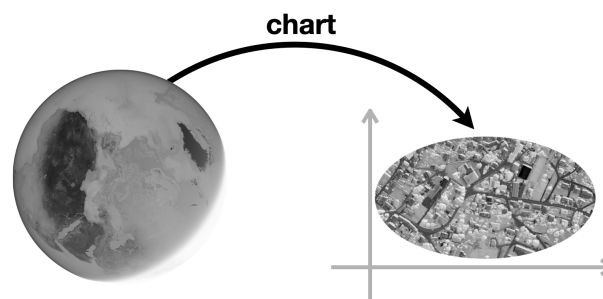
When we have a higher dimensional manifold embedded in a higher dimensional Euclidean space, these vector spaces become abstract, and impossible to visualize. These spaces still touch the manifold at one specific point.



But here's the catch: Manifolds don't actually need to be embedded in a higher dimensional space.

A manifold does not have to have a space surrounding it. It *is* the space, and there is nothing beyond it. That's why vectors can't poke out of it, because there's nothing to poke out into.

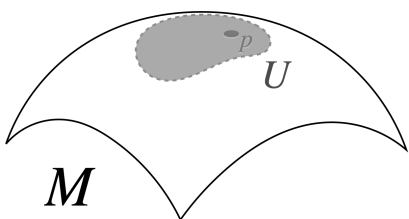
This is similar to zooming in on a globe of the Earth until it looks flat. That's what we're doing conceptually when we use **charts** to map part of a curved manifold onto Euclidean space, where we can perform calculus.



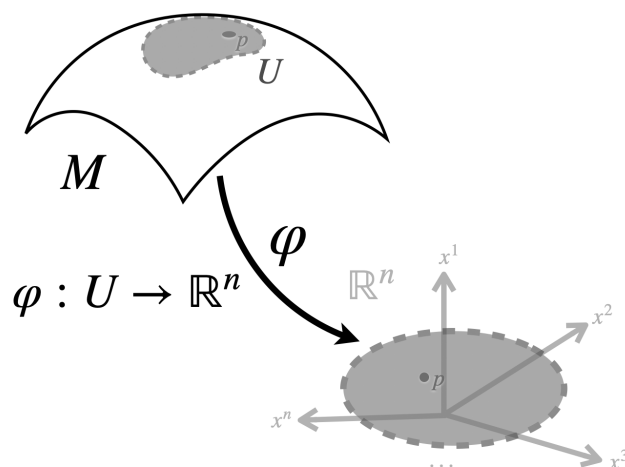
So the question becomes: how are we supposed to do that? And how would you map an entire tangent space? First, let's start with finding just one single vector.

We have a manifold M , and pick a point p . Since we are talking about a manifold in higher dimensions, it's pretty hard to pin-point the exact location of the p . So instead, we create a

neighborhood of points where p floats freely, but does not exit the boundaries of the region, and label it U . It is formally called an **open subset** of M .

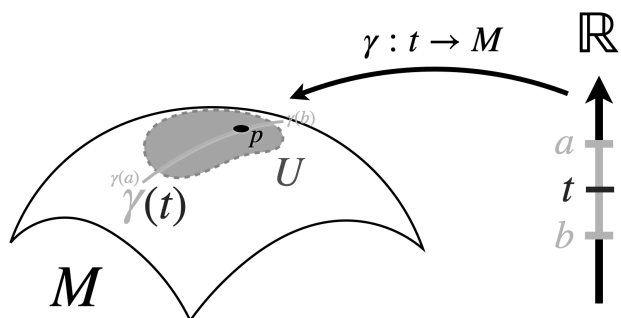


In order to perform any kind of calculus at all on p and on U , we have to map it to a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , where calculus is well-defined. This is done using a chart φ .



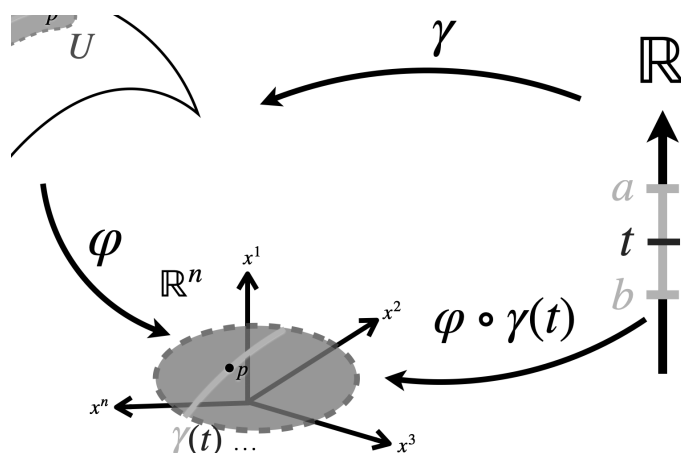
Say we have a curve γ passing through the manifold through the point p . Here, we also have to map the parameter of time, or t .

t which finds itself in another Euclidean space \mathbb{R} . The line itself is just one dimensional representing "time". t takes values in the interval $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. We therefore map it to M .



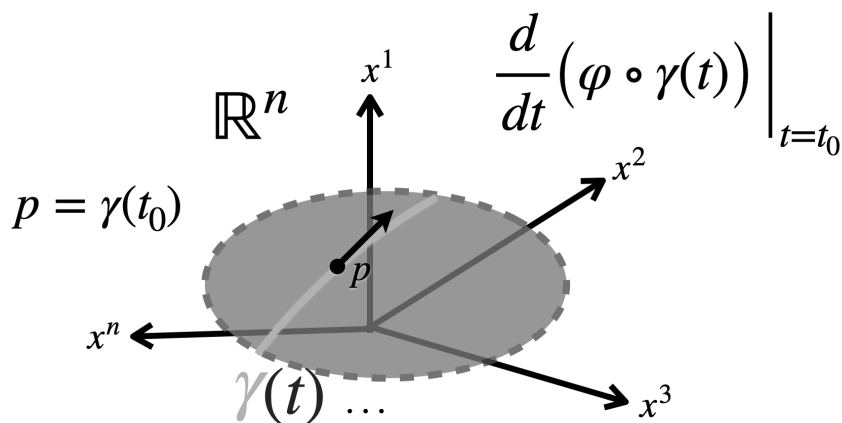
The parameter t tells us where we are on the curve at a specific time. For example, $\gamma(t_0) = p$ means that at time t_0 , the curve passes through the point p .

To calculate the velocity of the curve at p , we need to work in a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , where derivatives are well-defined. To do this we combine the chart φ and the curve $\gamma(t)$. The composition $\varphi \circ \gamma$ maps the curve on the manifold to a curve in \mathbb{R}^n .



Once the curve is mapped to Euclidean space, we can finally compute the velocity vector at point p by taking the derivative of $\varphi \circ \gamma(t)$ with respect to t .

This derivative gives the velocity vector of the curve at the point $p = \gamma(t_0)$, but now expressed in terms of the local coordinates.



All of this was to introduce tangent vectors as **velocities of curves** passing through a point p on the manifold M . But this is not enough for practical analysis because a single tangent vector is

just one direction of movement at p , but instead we need to describe all possible directions at p , which form the **tangent space** $T_p M$. This is where the idea of tangent space basis comes in.

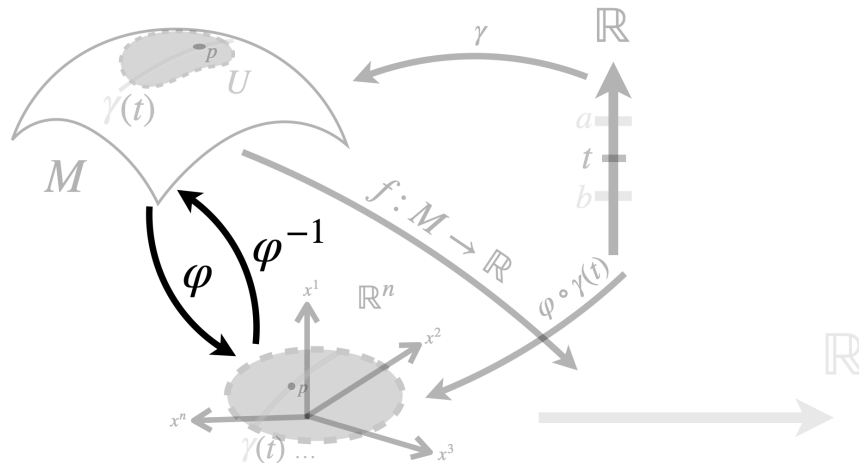
We need to introduce an arbitrary function $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, an entirely different field called a **scalar field**. What it does is assign scalars to each point on M . Scalars are much like vectors, except they don't have a direction. It's much like velocity versus temperature, for example.

Say we want to find the rate of change of our function f as we walk along our curve $\gamma(t)$. We want to look at a new definition of "velocity" relative to this test function at our point p on the manifold.

$$\left. \frac{df \circ \gamma(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0}$$

But, here's a really fun trick we can do, by introducing φ and its inverse. It's a trick because, now, it doesn't really do anything, it's just like adding zero.

$$\left. \frac{d(f \circ \varphi^{-1} \circ \varphi \circ \gamma)(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0}$$



Because this introduction is quote on quote harmless, we can therefore put it like this:

$$= \left. \frac{d((f \circ \varphi^{-1}) \circ (\varphi \circ \gamma))(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0}$$

Now, we will introduce the chain rule:

$$= \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial(f \circ \varphi^{-1})(x)}{\partial x_i} \right|_{x=\varphi \circ \gamma(t_0)} \left. \frac{d(\varphi \circ \gamma)^i(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0}$$

Which brings us here:

$$= \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial(f \circ \varphi^{-1})(x)}{\partial x_i} \right|_{x=\varphi(p)} \left. \frac{d(\varphi \circ \gamma)^i(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0}$$

Since $p = \gamma(t_0)$. With the left part being the basis for component i , and the right part the “velocity” of component i with respect to φ .

We’re going to rewrite the basis like this:

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \right)_p (f) := \frac{\partial(f \circ \varphi^{-1})(\varphi(p))}{\partial x_i}$$

φ is specified by x^i . The f was only needed to define the basis of the tangent space. It was arbitrary, and we can get rid of it now.

So for every tangent vector $v \in T_p M$, we have this:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= \sum_{i=1}^n u(x^i) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \right)_p \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left. \frac{d(\varphi \circ \gamma)^i(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=t_0} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \right)_p \end{aligned}$$

The basis is actually a set of differential operators, not the actual vectors on the test function f , which make up a vector space.

tangent space

