# Generic affine differential geometry of curves in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. 

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#### Abstract

This paper considers curves in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. It defines affine arc-length and affine curvatures. The family of affine distance functions is generalised, along with the family of affine height functions. A new basis is constructed that makes the conditions for $A_{k}$ singularity types easier to calculate, and applications are given to geometrical problems.


## 1 Introduction

In this paper, we consider the affine differential geometry of space curves, i.e. the geometric properties of smooth curves in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, which remain invariant under the actions of $\operatorname{SL}(n, \mathbb{R})=\{X \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R}): \operatorname{det}(X)=1\}$ and the translation group. Such actions are called equi-affine transformations and preserve volume. In particular we generalise some of the results of S. Izumiya and T. Sano, found in [2] and [3], from two and three dimensions to $n$ dimensions.

We generalise the classical ideas of affine curvatures, affine arc-length, families of affine distance functions, and families of affine height functions we also calculate the conditions for $A_{k}$ singularities of these two families. Our methods are directly applicable to the study of families of functions and their bifurcation sets and our proofs are more direct than those in [3]; they show the underlying, governing dynamic.

In $\S 2$ we introduce the affine arc-length parameter for a curve $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Parametrising a curve by affine arc-length ensures the first $n$ derivatives of $\gamma$ with respect to affine arc-length always span a volume of +1 . The condition for such a parametrisation to exist is also found in $\S 2$.

In $\S 3$ we consider the classical affine curvatures of $\gamma$. These arise naturally from the affine arc-length parametrisation. A general formula in terms of $n$ and $i$ is given for calculating the $i$-th affine curvature of a curve in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Finally a system of affine Serret-Frenet differential equations is given for the classical curvatures.

The family of affine distance functions on a curve parametrised by affine arclength is defined in $\S 4$; we also give a formula for an arbitrarily parametrised curve. Moreover, $\S 5$ follows this path exactly, but with the family of affine height functions.

In $\S 6$ a new equi-affine frame is found for the curve. This frame has the property that its ordered members span a volume of +1 ; it is defined in terms of the derivatives of $\gamma$ and the derivatives of the affine curvatures and is denoted as $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\}$. Moreover, a new system of affine Serret-Frenet formulae arise with this frame, giving new affine curvatures (which we call affine torsions and write as $\sigma_{i}$ ). Again formulae in terms of $n$ and $i$ are given for the $i$-th affine torsion of a curve in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

In $\S 7$ we use the new frame $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\}$ to rewrite the family of affine distance functions and height functions. Conditions for these two families to have $A_{k}$ singularities are given in terms of the $\mathbf{T}_{i}$ and $\sigma_{j}$.

Finally, in $\S \S 7.1$ it is shown that the families are always $(p)$-versally unfolded for a generic space curve and geometrical applications are given.

Since determinants measure volume, and volume remains unchanged by equiaffine transformations, the determinant is an affine invariant and will play a central role in this study. Let $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ be an ordered set (i.e. a list) of $n$ vectors in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Then let $\left[v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right]$ denote the determinant of the matrix whose $i$-th column is the vector $v_{i}$. Then $\left[v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right]$ is equal to the volume spanned by the vectors in $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$.

## 2 Affine arc-length

Let $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval, and $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ a smooth space curve. We seek an affine invariant parametrisation for $\gamma$ of the lowest possible order. As is the convention for $n=2,3$ we choose a parametrisation, in terms of the affine arclength parameter $s$, such that $\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=1$ for all $s \in I$. Throughout this paper, prime denotes differentiation with respect to the affine arc-length parameter $s$, thus $\gamma^{\prime}=d \gamma / d s$ etc, whereas a dot is reserved for differentiation with respect to an arbitrary parameter $t$, thus $\dot{\gamma}=d \gamma / d t$ etc. Using basic properties of determinants, it is easy to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]\left(\frac{d t}{d s}\right)^{n(n+1) / 2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Assuming that $\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=1$ we obtain

$$
s(t)=\int\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]^{2 / n(n+1)} d t
$$

Thus for $t_{1} \leq t \leq t_{2}$, affine arc-length is given by

$$
\int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}}\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]^{2 / n(n+1)} d t
$$

Remark 1 Let $J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and consider a curve $\alpha: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ parametrised by euclidean arc-length. We define the tangent vector $\mathbf{V}_{1}$ to be the unit vector in the direction of $\dot{\alpha}$. The second basis vector $\mathbf{V}_{2}$ is in the subspace $\langle\dot{\alpha}, \ddot{\alpha}\rangle$, is of unit length, is perpendicular to $\mathbf{V}_{1}$, and together with $\mathbf{V}_{1}$ spans an area of +1 . The third basis vector $\mathbf{V}_{3}$ is in the subspace $\langle\dot{\alpha}, \ddot{\alpha}, \dddot{\alpha}\rangle$, is of unit length, is perpendicular to $\mathbf{V}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{V}_{2}$, and together with $\mathbf{V}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{V}_{2}$ spans a volume of +1 . Proceeding in this fashion, the $(k+1)$-st basis vector is in the space $\left\langle d^{i} \alpha / d t^{i}: 1 \leq i \leq k\right\rangle$, is of unit length, is perpendicular to $\left\{\mathbf{V}_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq k\right\}$, and together with $\left\{\mathbf{V}_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq k\right\}$ spans a volume of +1 .

Definition 2.1 Given a smooth curve parameterised by euclidean arc-length, the euclidean curvature is given by $\kappa=\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{V}_{2}$ and the higher euclidean torsions are given by $\tau_{i}=\dot{\mathbf{V}}_{i+1} \cdot \mathbf{V}_{i+2}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n-2$.

Remark 2 Letting $t$ be euclidean arc-length and writing $\kappa$ for the euclidean curvature of $\gamma$ and $\left\{\tau_{1}, \ldots, \tau_{n-2}\right\}$ for the higher euclidean torsions gives

$$
\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=\kappa^{n-1} \prod_{i=1}^{n-2} \tau_{i}^{n-i-1}
$$

Then Equation (1) shows that if $\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=0$ for some $t$, then the affine arc-length parametrisation in unobtainable, since $0 \neq 1$. Hence, if any of the euclidean curvatures or euclidean torsions become zero at certain points, the affine arc-length parameter can not be defined at such points. Hence, in all that follows, $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ shall be chosen such that the image of $\gamma$ has everywhere non-zero euclidean curvature and euclidean torsions.

## 3 Affine curvatures

Here we define the affine curvatures of a curve. Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be parametrised by affine arc-length, so that $\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]=1$ for all $s \in I$. Then differentiating with respect to $s$ gives $\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}, \gamma^{(n+1)}\right]=0$. Hence the set of vectors $\left\{\gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}, \gamma^{(n+1)}\right\}$ is linearly dependent. Therefore, there must exist functions $\mu_{i}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma^{(n+1)}+\mu_{1} \gamma^{\prime}+\mu_{2} \gamma^{\prime \prime}+\cdots+\mu_{n-1} \gamma^{(n-1)}=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The functions $\mu_{i}$ are called the affine curvatures of $\gamma$. Notice that

$$
\mu_{i}=(-1)^{n-i+1}\left[\gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(i-1)}, \gamma^{(i+1)}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n+1)}\right]
$$

The $\mu_{i}$ are given by determinants; an equi-affine transformation of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ leaves the affine curvatures unchanged. These affine curvatures are truly affine invariants.

These definitions give Serret-Frenet type formulae. Let $\Gamma=\left(\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right)^{\top}$ where $T$ denotes transpose; then for $M \in \operatorname{Mat}(n, \mathbb{R})$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Gamma^{\prime}=M \Gamma \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that if $M=\left(m_{i, j}\right)$ then

$$
m_{i, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
1 & \text { if } j-i=1  \tag{4}\\
-\mu_{j} & \text { if } i=n \\
0 & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Hence $\operatorname{det}(M)=(-1)^{n} \mu_{1}$.
Example. Let $n=3$, so that $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$, then

$$
\frac{d}{d s}\left(\begin{array}{c}
\gamma^{\prime} \\
\gamma^{\prime \prime} \\
\gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 \\
-\mu_{1} & -\mu_{2} & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}
\gamma^{\prime} \\
\gamma^{\prime \prime} \\
\gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## 4 Affine distance functions

Here we give a general definition of the affine distance function introduced in two and three-dimensions in [3].

Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be parametrised by affine arc-length. Given $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $s \in I$, we get $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, an $n$-parameter family of affine distance functions defined on the curve, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta(\mathbf{x}, s)=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right] \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The zero level-set of $\Delta\left(\mathbf{x}, s_{0}\right)$ is given by $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that for some $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\mathbf{x}=\gamma\left(s_{0}\right)+\lambda_{1} \gamma^{\prime}\left(s_{0}\right)+\lambda_{2} \gamma^{\prime \prime}\left(s_{0}\right)+\cdots+\lambda_{n-1} \gamma^{(n-1)}\left(s_{0}\right)
$$

This is the set of points $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ of affine distance zero from $\gamma\left(s_{0}\right)$. It is easy to see that the other level-sets are hyperplanes parallel to this one.

Given an open interval $J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, and an arbitrary parametrisation for the curve $\gamma: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$. The family of affine distance functions $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$
\Delta(\mathbf{x}, t)=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \dot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right]\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]^{(1-n) /(1+n)}
$$

## 5 Affine height functions

Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be parametrised by affine arc-length. Let $S^{n-1}=\left\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}\right.$ : $\|\mathbf{x}\|=1\}$ be the unit hypersphere in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. We can define a family of functions on the curve, parametrised by $S^{n-1}$. This family $H: S^{n-1} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the family of affine height functions, where

$$
H(\mathbf{x}, s)=\left[\mathbf{x}, \gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right]
$$

Let $J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval, then for an arbitrary parametrisation, the affine height functions are given by $H: S^{n-1} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where

$$
H(\mathbf{x}, t)=\left[\mathbf{x}, \dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right]\left[\dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right]^{(1-n) /(1+n)}
$$

## 6 Equi-affine frames

Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and let $\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ be a list of vectors $v_{i} \in T_{\mathbf{x}} \mathbb{R}^{n}$. The vectors are said to constitute an equi-affine frame if and only if $\left[v_{1}, \ldots, v_{n}\right]=1$. It is clear that $\left\{\gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n)}\right\}$ forms an equi-affine frame with each $\gamma^{(i)} \in T_{\gamma(s)} \mathbb{R}^{n}$ for all $s \in I$.

The aim here is to define a new equi-affine frame for $\gamma$. This is motivated by later applications to singularity theory. Furthermore, the affine Serret-Frenet formulae with respect to this new equi-affine frame will be more analogous to the euclidean Serret-Frenet formulae. For example, if the euclidean torsion $\tau_{n-2}$ is zero then the curve can be contained in $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$. This means the last basis vector, say $\mathbf{V}_{n}$, is constant. (If $n=3$ then the binormal vector $\mathbf{B}$ is constant and $\gamma$ is then a plane curve.) Given the affine Serret-Frenet formulae in Equation (3) and Equation (4), if $\mu_{n-1}=0$, this in no way means that $\gamma^{(n-1)}$ is constant.

Given any smooth functions $\lambda_{i, j}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the vectors

$$
\gamma^{(i)}+\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \lambda_{i, j} \gamma^{(j)} \quad \text { for all } \quad 1 \leq i \leq n
$$

form an equi-affine frame. The classical case is when $\lambda_{i, j}(s)=0$ for all $s \in I$ and $(i, j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. Consider the vector given by $i=n$, that is

$$
v=\gamma^{(n)}+\lambda_{n, 1} \gamma^{\prime}+\lambda_{n, 2} \gamma^{\prime \prime}+\cdots+\lambda_{n, n-1} \gamma^{(n-1)} .
$$

We wish the derivative of $v$ to depend on only one other member of the equi-
affine frame. Setting $\lambda_{i, j} \equiv 0$ for all $(i, j) \in\{\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}-\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}\}$ gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
v^{\prime} & =\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}\left(\lambda_{n, i}^{\prime}-\mu_{i}\right) \gamma^{(i)}+\lambda_{n, i} \gamma^{(i+1)} \\
& =\left(\lambda_{n, 1}^{\prime}-\mu_{1}\right) \gamma^{\prime}+\lambda_{n, n-1} \gamma^{(n)}+\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}\left(\lambda_{n, i}^{\prime}-\mu_{i}+\lambda_{n, i-1}\right) \gamma^{(i)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $v^{\prime}$ is to be independent of $v$ it follows that $\lambda_{n, n-1} \equiv 0$. In order to remove dependency on other derivatives set $\lambda_{n, i-1}=\mu_{i}-\lambda_{n, i}^{\prime}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$. Starting with $i=n-1$ gives $\lambda_{n, n-2}=\mu_{n-1}-\lambda_{n, n-1}^{\prime}=\mu_{n-1}$. In turn, putting $i=n-2$ gives $\lambda_{n, n-3}=\mu_{n-2}-\mu_{n-1}^{\prime}$. Putting $i=n-3$ gives $\lambda_{n, n-4}=$ $\mu_{n-3}-\mu_{n-2}^{\prime}+\mu_{n-1}^{\prime \prime}$. Continuing this process for $2 \leq i \leq n-1$ gives

$$
\lambda_{n, n-i}=\sum_{j=1}^{i-1}(-1)^{j+1} \mu_{n-i+j}^{(j-1)}
$$

Then finally, the vector $v^{\prime}$ becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{\prime}=\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1}(-1)^{i} \mu_{i}^{(i-1)}\right) \gamma^{\prime}=\sigma_{n-1} \gamma^{\prime}, \text { say } \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the derivative of $v$ depends only on one vector and is more analogous to the euclidean Serret-Frenet system.

This has found a new basis vector, namely $v$. Let us call it $\mathbf{T}_{n}$ and search for a new basis $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1} \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\}$. It is clear that $\mathbf{T}_{1}=\gamma^{\prime}$; this gives the affine tangent vector. Thus we have the identity $\mathbf{T}_{n}^{\prime}=-\sigma_{n-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$.

We wish to find a new equi-affine frame which satisfies the additional vector differential equations $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$. These can be written as $\mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ if we set $\sigma_{0} \equiv 0$ and $\mathbf{T}_{n+1} \equiv \mathbf{0}$. From the affine arc-length construction, the functions $\mu_{i}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ arise naturally. Thus the $\sigma_{i}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ will be expressed in terms of the $\mu_{i}$ and their derivatives.

Consider the affine Serret-Frenet formulae in matrix form $\Gamma^{\prime}=M \Gamma$, where $\Gamma$ and $M$ are defined above in Equation (3) and Equation (4). Each new basis vector $\mathbf{T}_{i}$ can be expressed in terms of $\Gamma$ :

$$
\mathbf{T}_{i}=\gamma^{(i)}+\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \lambda_{i, j} \gamma^{(j)} \quad \text { for all } \quad 1 \leq i \leq n
$$

This can be written in matrix notation as $T=\Lambda \Gamma$ where $T$ is the matrix whose $i$-th row is the vector $\mathbf{T}_{i}$. Furthermore we can write $T^{\prime}=\Sigma T$ where $\Sigma$ is derived from the identities $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, and $\mathbf{T}_{n}^{\prime}=-\sigma_{n-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$.

Thus we have $\Gamma^{\prime}=M \Gamma, T=\Lambda \Gamma$, and $T^{\prime}=\Sigma T$. It follows that $\Lambda^{\prime} \Gamma+\Lambda \Gamma^{\prime}=$ $\Sigma T$. In turn, this gives $\Lambda^{\prime} \Gamma+\Lambda M \Gamma=\Sigma T$. This finally yields $\Lambda^{\prime} \Gamma+\Lambda M \Gamma=\Sigma \Lambda \Gamma$, or simply $\Lambda^{\prime}+\Lambda M=\Sigma \Lambda$. Here $M$ is known to us, and is given by the identity

$$
\gamma^{(n+1)}+\mu_{1} \gamma^{\prime}+\cdots+\mu_{n-1} \gamma^{(n-1)}=0 .
$$

Writing $\Sigma=\left(\sigma_{i, j}\right)$ gives $\sigma_{i, j}=1$ for all $j-i=1, \sigma_{i, 1}=-\sigma_{i-1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$, and $\sigma_{i, j}=0$ otherwise. Writing $\Lambda=\left(\lambda_{i, j}\right)$ gives $\lambda_{i, j}=1$ for all $i-j=0$ and $\lambda_{i, j}=0$ for all $j-i>0$, i.e. $\Lambda$ is a lower triangular matrix with 1 in each position along the leading diagonal.

Let $X=\left(x_{i, j}\right)$ where $X=\Lambda^{\prime}+\Lambda M-\Sigma \Lambda$; we wish to make $X$ into the zero matrix. On the leading diagonal of $X$ we have $x_{i, i}=\lambda_{i, i-1}-\lambda_{i+1, i}$. Since $\lambda_{1,0}=0$ it follows that $\lambda_{i, i-1}=0$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n$. This implies that $\Lambda$ has zero along the diagonal $i-j=1$. Thus each $\mathbf{T}_{i}$ will not have a component of $\gamma^{(i-1)}$.

Consider $x_{i, j}$ such that $i-j=1$. It follows that $x_{n, n-1}=\lambda_{n, n-2}-\mu_{n-1}$, $x_{i, i-1}=\lambda_{i, i-2}-\lambda_{i+1, i-1}$ for all $3 \leq i \leq n-1$, and $x_{2,1}=\sigma_{1}-\lambda_{3,1}$. Since $x_{i, j}=0$ for all $(i, j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ it follows that

$$
\mu_{n-1}=\lambda_{n, n-2}=\lambda_{n-1, n-3}=\ldots=\lambda_{i, i-2}=\ldots=\lambda_{3,1}=\sigma_{1}
$$

Considering each diagonal in turn, $i-j=1,2,3, \ldots, n-1$ gives the following expressions for the $\sigma_{i}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{1} & =a_{1,1} \mu_{n-1} \\
\sigma_{2} & =a_{2,1} \mu_{n-1}^{\prime}+a_{2,2} \mu_{n-2}, \\
\sigma_{3} & =a_{3,1} \mu_{n-1}^{\prime \prime}+a_{3,2} \mu_{n-2}^{\prime}+a_{3,3} \mu_{n-3}, \\
\sigma_{i} & =\sum_{j=1}^{i} a_{i, j} \mu_{n-j}^{(i-j)},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the $a_{i, j}$ are entries in an $(n-1) \times(n-1)$ lower triangular matrix, we have $a_{i, j}=1$ for all $i=j$ and $a_{i, j}=0$ for all $i<j$. When $i>j$ we have

$$
a_{i, j}=(-1)^{i+j}\binom{n-j-1}{i-j}=(-1)^{i+j} \frac{(n-j-1)!}{(i-j)!(n-i-1)!} .
$$

It follows that the $\sigma_{i}$ are then given by

$$
\sigma_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{i}(-1)^{i+j}\binom{n-j-1}{i-j} \mu_{n-j}^{(i-j)}
$$

Given the existence of $\Sigma$ and $M$ is known, it is easy to find $\Lambda$ for all $i-j \geq 1$

$$
\lambda_{i, j}=\sum_{k=1}^{i-j-1}(-1)^{i-j-k-1}\binom{n-j-k-1}{i-j-k-1} \mu_{n-k}^{(i-j-k-1)} .
$$

In the present section we have proved the following

Proposition 6.1 Given a curve $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ parametrised by affine arc-length. An equi-affine basis $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\}$ satisfying the vector differential equations $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-i} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-2$, and $\mathbf{T}_{n}=-\sigma_{n-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$, can always be found.

## 7 Singularities of $\Delta(\mathbf{x}, s)$ and $H(\mathbf{x}, s)$

Given a curve $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we consider the full bifurcation set of the family of affine distance functions $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Given a fixed $\mathbf{x}_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, if there exists $s_{0} \in I$ such that $\Delta^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{0}\right)=\Delta^{\prime \prime}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{0}\right)=0$ then the family of affine distance functions is said to have a degenerate singularity at $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}_{0}$. Given a fixed $\mathbf{x}_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, if there exists $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right) \in I \times I$ such that $\Delta\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{1}\right)=\Delta\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{2}\right)$ and $\Delta^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{1}\right)=\Delta^{\prime}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{2}\right)=0$ then the family of affine distance functions is said to have a multi-local singularity at $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}_{0}$.

The full bifurcation set is then the closure of points $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has either a multi-local or degenerate singularity at $\mathbf{x}$. The bifurcation set is thus a subset of the parameter space. Similar ideas apply if we replace $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $H: S^{n-1} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

We use the standard $A_{k}(k \geq 2)$ notation for a degenerate singularity and $A_{1}^{2}, A_{1} A_{2}$ etc for a multi-local singularity.

Next we consider the condition for $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to have an $A_{k}$ singularity.
Theorem 7.1 Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a smooth space curve parametrised by affine arc-length. For $0 \leq k \leq n-1$, the family of affine distance functions $\Delta$ : $\mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has an $A_{k}$ singularity at $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if and only if, for $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\mathbf{x}=\gamma+\lambda_{1} \mathbf{T}_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n-k-1} \mathbf{T}_{n-k-1}+\lambda_{n} \mathbf{T}_{n} \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda_{n-k-1} \neq 0
$$

The family of affine distance functions $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has an $A_{n}$ singularity at $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if and only if given $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0 ; \sigma_{n-1}^{\prime} \neq 0$, and

$$
\mathbf{x}=\gamma+\frac{1}{\sigma_{n-1}} \mathbf{T}_{n}
$$

The family of affine distance functions $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has an $A_{n+1}$ singularity at $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if and only if given $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0 ; \sigma_{n-1}^{\prime}=0, \sigma_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \neq 0$, and

$$
\mathbf{x}=\gamma+\frac{1}{\sigma_{n-1}} \mathbf{T}_{n}
$$

Proof Consider the equi-affine basis $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\} \subset T_{\gamma} \mathbb{R}^{n}$. We have

$$
\Delta(\mathbf{x}, s)=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right]=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right]
$$

Notice that $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, and $\mathbf{T}_{n}^{\prime}=$ $-\sigma_{n-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$. It follows, using also $(\mathbf{x}-\gamma)^{\prime}=-\mathbf{T}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}$, that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta^{\prime} & =\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{i-1}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i=2}^{n-1}\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{i-1}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right] \\
& =\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, for all $0 \leq m \leq n-1$, one can show that

$$
\Delta^{(m)}=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-m-1}, \mathbf{T}_{n-m+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]
$$

It follows that, for $\lambda_{j} \in \mathbb{R}, \Delta^{(m)}=0$ if and only if

$$
\mathbf{x}-\gamma=\lambda_{1} \mathbf{T}_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n-m-1} \mathbf{T}_{n-m-1}+\lambda_{n-m+1} \mathbf{T}_{n-m+1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} \mathbf{T}_{n}
$$

This means that $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, for $0 \leq k \leq n-1$, gives an $A_{\geq k}$ singularity if and only if, for some $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\mathbf{x}-\gamma=\lambda_{1} \mathbf{T}_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n-k-1} \mathbf{T}_{n-k-1}+\lambda_{n} \mathbf{T}_{n}
$$

The additional condition for exactly $A_{k}$ is $\lambda_{n-k-1} \neq 0$.
Thus $\Delta^{\prime}=\ldots=\Delta^{(n-1)}=0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x}-\gamma=\lambda \mathbf{T}_{n}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. This gives the condition for $A_{\geq n-1}$.

Let us now consider higher singularity types. Since $\Delta^{(n-1)}=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]$, it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta^{(n)} & =-1-\sum_{i=2}^{n} \sigma_{i-1}\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{i-1}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] \\
& =-1+\sum_{i=2}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} \sigma_{i-1} \Delta^{(n-i)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\Delta^{\prime}=\ldots=\Delta^{(n)}=0$ if and only if $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0$ and $\mathbf{x}-\gamma=\sigma_{n-1}^{-1} \mathbf{T}_{n}$. This gives the condition for an $A_{\leq n}$ singularity. Next we consider $\Delta^{(n+1)}$ and $\Delta^{(n+2)}$ in turn:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta^{(n+1)}=\sum_{i=2}^{n}(-1)^{i+1}\left(\sigma_{i-1}^{\prime} \Delta^{(n-i)}+\sigma_{i-1} \Delta^{(n-i+1)}\right) \\
& \Delta^{(n+2)}=\sum_{i=2}^{n}(-1)^{i+1}\left(\sigma_{i-1}^{\prime \prime} \Delta^{(n-i)}+2 \sigma_{i-1}^{\prime} \Delta^{(n-i+1)}+\sigma_{i-1} \Delta^{(n-i+2)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume that $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\ldots=\Delta^{(n)}=0$, it follows that $\Delta^{(n+1)}=0$ if and only if $\sigma_{n-1}^{\prime} \sigma_{n-1}^{-1}=0$, i.e. if and only if $\sigma_{n-1}^{\prime}=0$.

In order to express $\Delta^{(n+2)}$ in terms of $\Delta^{(k)}$ for $0 \leq k \leq n-1$ it is necessary to consider the case $i=2$ separately in the formula for $\Delta^{(n+2)}$. Denoting this by $\alpha$ gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha & =-\left(\sigma_{1}^{\prime \prime} \Delta^{(n-2)}+2 \sigma_{1}^{\prime} \Delta^{(n-1)}+\sigma_{1} \Delta^{(n)}\right) \\
& =-\left(\sigma_{1}^{\prime \prime} \Delta^{(n-2)}+2 \sigma_{1}^{\prime} \Delta^{(n-1)}+\sigma_{1}\left(-1+\sum_{i=2}^{n}(-1)^{i+1} \sigma_{i-1} \Delta^{(n-i)}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\Delta^{(n+2)}$ can be written in terms of $\Delta^{(k)}$ for $0 \leq k \leq n-1$. Assume that $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0$ and $\Delta^{\prime}=\ldots=\Delta^{(n+1)}=0$, it follows that $\Delta^{(n+2)}=0$ if and only if $\sigma_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \sigma_{n-1}^{-1}=0$, i.e. if and only if $\sigma_{n-1}^{\prime \prime}=0$.

Since the condition for type $A_{k}$ is that $\Delta^{\prime}=\ldots=\Delta^{(k)}=0$ and $\Delta^{(k+1)} \neq 0$, the result follows.

Theorem 7.2 Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a smooth space curve parametrised by affine arc-length. Then for $0 \leq k \leq n-1$, the family of affine height functions $H: S^{n-1} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has an $A_{k}$ singularity at $\mathbf{x} \in S^{n-1}$ if and only if, for some $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$
\mathbf{x}=\lambda_{1} \mathbf{T}_{1}+\ldots+\lambda_{n-k-1} \mathbf{T}_{n-k-1}+\lambda_{n} \mathbf{T}_{n} \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda_{n-k-1} \neq 0
$$

The family of affine height functions has an $A_{n}$ singularity if and only if there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \neq 0$ such that

$$
\mathbf{x}=\lambda \mathbf{T}_{n}, \quad \sigma_{n-1}=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{n-1}^{\prime} \neq 0
$$

Moreover, the family of affine height functions has an $A_{n+1}$ singularity if and only if there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda \neq 0$ such that

$$
\mathbf{x}=\lambda \mathbf{T}_{n}, \quad \sigma_{n-1}=\sigma_{n-1}^{\prime}=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \sigma_{n-1}^{\prime \prime} \neq 0
$$

Proof This is proved similarly to Theorem 7.1.

## 7.1 ( $\mathbf{p}$ )-Versality condition

Here we consider the conditions for the two above families to be a ( $p$ )-versal unfoldings, i.e. to be versal when considered as potential functions. Due to the uniqueness of bifurcation sets, see [1], if a family of functions is a ( $p$ )versal unfolding then each neighbourhood of its bifurcation set will be locally diffeomorphic to a standard model. Hence the local structure of the bifurcation set is determined up to diffeomorphism. Using the basic ideas of unfoldings found in [1] we have the following:

Criterion 7.3 Let $F:\left(\mathbb{R}^{n} \times I,\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{0}\right)\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an $n$-parameter unfolding of $f:\left(I, s_{0}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which has type $A_{k}$ as $s_{0}$, and consider

$$
\mathcal{S}=\left\{\left.j^{k-1}\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s\right)\right)\right|_{s=s_{0}}: 1 \leq i \leq n\right\}
$$

where $j^{k-1}$ denotes the $(k-1)$-jet. Let $\mathbb{R}[s]$ denote the ring of polynomials in $s$ and let $\mathfrak{m}$ denote the maximal ideal consisting of polynomials with zero constant term. Finally let $\left\langle s^{k}\right\rangle$ denote the ideal of polynomial multiples of $s^{k}$. Then $F$ is $(p)$-versal if and only if the elements of $\mathcal{S}$ span the real vector space $\mathfrak{m} /\left\langle s^{k}\right\rangle$.

Criterion 7.3 is equivalent to the following:
Proposition 7.4 Let $j^{k-1}\left(\partial F / \partial x_{i}\left(\mathbf{x}_{0}, s_{0}\right)\right)\left(s_{0}\right)=\alpha_{1, i} s+\alpha_{2, i} s^{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{k-1, i} s^{k-1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $F$ is a $(p)$-versal unfolding of the singularity of type $A_{k}$ if and only if the $(k-1) \times n$ matrix of coefficients $\left(\alpha_{j, i}\right)$ has rank $k-1$.

Theorem 7.5 Given a smooth space curve $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ parametrised by affine arc-length. The family of affine distance functions $\Delta: \mathbb{R}^{n} \times I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on the curve is a $(p)$-versal unfolding of the singularity type $A_{\leq n+1}$ if and only if $\sigma_{n-1} \neq 0$, where $\sigma_{n-1}$ is given in Equation (6). Thus there is no extra condition, the family is implicitly ( $p$ )-versal.

Proof Let $\gamma: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be smooth, and let $\gamma(0)=0$. Consider the frame $\left\{\mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right\}$ where $\mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{2}, \mathbf{T}_{i}^{\prime}=\mathbf{T}_{i+1}-\sigma_{i-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, and $\mathbf{T}_{n}^{\prime}=-\sigma_{n-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}$. The affine distance function may be rewritten in terms of the $\mathbf{T}_{i}$, thus

$$
\Delta(\mathbf{x}, s)=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \gamma^{\prime}, \ldots, \gamma^{(n-1)}\right]=\left[\mathbf{x}-\gamma, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right]
$$

Let $\Delta_{x_{i}}=\partial \Delta / \partial x_{i}$, and consider the vector $\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}=\left(\Delta_{x_{1}}, \ldots, \Delta_{x_{n}}\right)$. Then by Proposition 7.4 , to show the family $\Delta(\mathbf{x}, s)$ is $(p)$-versal, one needs to shows that the first $n$ derivatives of $\mathbf{v}$, with respect to $s$, are linearly independent.

Let $e_{1}=(1,0, \ldots, 0), e_{2}=(0,1,0, \ldots, 0)$, etc, where $e_{i} \in T_{\gamma} \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Consider $\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}$, we have

$$
\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}=\left(\left[e_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right], \ldots,\left[e_{n}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right]\right)
$$

Notice that each $\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right]$ is independent of $\mathbf{x}$. In what follows, it is enough to consider $\Delta_{x_{i}}=\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right]$ alone.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta_{x_{i}}^{\prime} & =\sum_{j=1}^{n-1}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j}^{\prime}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1} \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right] \\
& =\sum_{j=2}^{n-1}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}-\sigma_{j-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1} \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}\right] \\
& =\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, consider $\Delta_{x_{i}}^{\prime \prime}$, which is found in the same way. Given that $\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}^{\prime}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]=$ $\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}^{\prime}\right]=0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta_{x_{i}}^{\prime \prime} & =\sum_{j=2}^{n-2}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j}^{\prime}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1} \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right], \\
& =\sum_{j=2}^{n-2}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}-\sigma_{j-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1} \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-2}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right], \\
& =\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-3}, \mathbf{T}_{n-1}, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Continuing in this fashion gives the general answer:

$$
\Delta_{x_{i}}^{(m)}=\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n-m-1}, \mathbf{T}_{n-m+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]
$$

for all $1 \leq m \leq n-1$. Thus we need only consider the final case $m=n$. Notice that $\Delta_{x_{i}}^{(n-1)}=\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]$, and so it follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta_{x_{i}}^{(n)} & =\sum_{j=2}^{n}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j}^{\prime}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] \\
& =\sum_{j=2}^{n}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}-\sigma_{j-1} \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right], \\
& =-\sum_{j=2}^{n} \sigma_{j-1}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] \\
& =\sum_{j=2}^{n}(-1)^{j+1} \sigma_{j-1}\left[e_{i}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{j-1}, \mathbf{T}_{j+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] \\
& =\sum_{j=2}^{n}(-1)^{j+1} \sigma_{j-1} \Delta_{x_{i}}^{(n-j)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The aim here is to show that $\left[\Delta_{\mathrm{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathrm{x}}^{(n)}\right] \neq 0$. Due to the fact that

$$
\Delta_{x_{i}}^{(n)}=\sum_{j=2}^{n}(-1)^{j+1} \sigma_{j-1} \Delta_{x_{i}}^{(n-j)},
$$

it follows that $\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)}$ is a linear combination of $\left\{\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-2)}\right\}$. It follows that $\left[\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n)}\right]=0 \Longleftrightarrow \sigma_{n-1}\left[\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}\right]=0$.

The aim now is to show that $\left[\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}\right] \neq 0$. Consider the $n \times n$ matrix $X=\left(x_{i, j}\right)$ where

$$
x_{i, j}=\left[e_{j}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{i-1}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right] .
$$

It follows that $\operatorname{det}(X)=\left[\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-2)}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}\right]= \pm\left[\Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{\prime}, \ldots, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}^{(n-1)}, \Delta_{\mathbf{x}}\right]$. Let $T$ be the matrix whose $i$-th column is $\mathbf{T}_{i}$. Furthermore, let $A=\left(a_{i, j}\right)$ be the adjoint matrix of $T$. Since

$$
a_{i, j}=(-1)^{i+1}\left[e_{j}, \mathbf{T}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{i-1}, \mathbf{T}_{i+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{T}_{n}\right]
$$

it follows that $a_{i, j}=(-1)^{i+1} x_{i, j}$, which implies $\operatorname{det}(X)= \pm \operatorname{det}(A)$. Next consider the well known identity $T^{-1}=\operatorname{det}(T)^{-1} A$, it follows that $\operatorname{det}(T)^{n-1}=$ $\operatorname{det}(A)$. Thus $\operatorname{det}(X)= \pm \operatorname{det}(T)^{n-1}= \pm 1 \neq 0$. From this and the calculations for type $A_{k}$, the result now follows.

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