

## Lecture Notes 4

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### 3.2 Ratio of areas

In the previous subsection we gave a geometric interpretation for the sign of Gaussian curvature. Here we describe the geometric significance of the magnitude of  $K$ .

If  $V$  is a sufficiently small neighborhood of  $p$  in  $M$  (where  $M$ , as always, denotes a regular embedded surface in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ ), then it is easy to show that there exist a patch  $(U, X)$  centered at  $p$  such that  $X(U) = V$ . Area of  $V$  is then defined as follows:

$$\text{Area}(V) := \int \int_U \|D_1 X \times D_2 X\| du^1 du^2.$$

Using the chain rule, one can show that the above definition is independent of the the patch.

**Exercise 3.2.1.** Let  $V \subset \mathbf{S}^2$  be a region bounded in between a pair of great circles meeting each other at an angle of  $\alpha$ . Show that  $\text{Area}(V) = 2\alpha$  (*Hints:* Let  $U := [0, \alpha] \times [0, \pi]$  and  $X(\theta, \phi) := (\cos \theta \sin \phi, \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \phi)$ . Show that  $\|D_1 X \times D_2 X\| = |\sin \phi|$ . Further, note that, after a rotation we may assume that  $X(U) = V$ . Then an integration will yield the desired result).

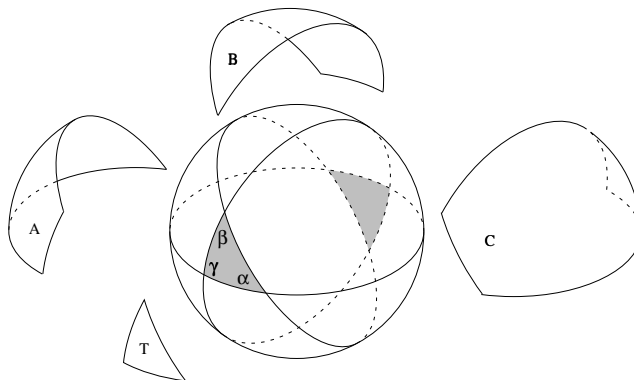
**Exercise 3.2.2.** Use the previous exercise to show that the area of a geodesic triangle  $T \subset \mathbf{S}^2$  (a region bounded by three great circles) is equal to sum of its angles minus  $\pi$  (*Hints:* Use the picture below:  $A + B + C + T = 2\pi$ , and  $A = 2\alpha - T$ ,  $B = 2\beta - T$ , and  $C = 2\gamma - T$ ).

Let  $V_r := B_r(p) \cap M$ . Then, if  $r$  is sufficiently small,  $V_r \subset X(U)$ , and, consequently,  $U_r := X^{-1}(V_r)$  is well defined. In particular, we may compute the area of  $V_r$  using the patch  $(U_r, X)$ . In this section we show that

$$|K(p)| = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{Area}(n(V_r))}{\text{Area}(V_r)}.$$

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**Exercise 3.2.3.** Recall that the mean value theorem states that  $\int \int_U f du^1 du^2 = f(\bar{u}^1, \bar{u}^2) \text{Area}(U)$ , for some  $(\bar{u}^1, \bar{u}^2) \in U$ . Use this theorem to show that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{Area}(n(V_r))}{\text{Area}(V_r)} = \frac{\|D_1 N(0, 0) \times D_2 N(0, 0)\|}{\|D_1 X(0, 0) \times D_2 X(0, 0)\|}$$

(Recall that  $N := n \circ X$ .)

**Exercise 3.2.4.** Prove Lagrange's identity: for every pair of vectors  $v, w \in \mathbf{R}^3$ ,

$$\|v \times w\|^2 = \det \begin{vmatrix} \langle v, v \rangle & \langle v, w \rangle \\ \langle w, v \rangle & \langle w, w \rangle \end{vmatrix}.$$

Now set  $g(u^1, u^2) := \det[g_{ij}(u^1, u^2)]$ . Then, by the previous exercise it follows that  $\|D_1 X(0, 0) \times D_2 X(0, 0)\| = \sqrt{g(0, 0)}$ . Hence, to complete the proof of the main result of this section it remains to show that

$$\|D_1 N(0, 0) \times D_2 N(0, 0)\| = K(p) \sqrt{g(0, 0)}.$$

We prove the above formula using two different methods:

*METHOD 1.* Recall that  $K(p) := \det(S_p)$ , where  $S_p := -dn_p: T_p M \rightarrow T_p M$  is the shape operator of  $M$  at  $p$ . Also recall that  $D_i X(0, 0)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , form a basis for  $T_p M$ . Let  $S_{ij}$  be the coefficients of the matrix representation of  $S_p$  with respect to this basis, then

$$S_p(D_i X) = \sum_{j=1}^2 S_{ij} D_j X.$$

Further, recall that  $N := n \circ X$ . Thus the chain rule yields:

$$S_p(D_i X) = -dn(D_i X) = -D_i(n \circ X) = -D_i N.$$

**Exercise 3.2.5.** Verify the middle step in the above formula, i.e., show that  $dn(D_i X) = D_i(n \circ X)$ .

From the previous two lines of formulas, it now follows that

$$-D_i N = \sum_{j=1}^2 S_{ij} D_j X.$$

Taking the inner product of both sides with  $D_k N$ ,  $k = 1, 2$ , we get

$$\langle -D_i N, D_k N \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^2 S_{ij} \langle D_j X, D_k N \rangle.$$

**Exercise 3.2.6.** Let  $F, G: U \subset \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$  be a pair of mappings such that  $\langle F, G \rangle = 0$ . Prove that  $\langle D_i F, G \rangle = -\langle F, D_i G \rangle$ .

Now recall that  $\langle D_j X, N \rangle = 0$ . Hence the previous exercise yields:

$$\langle D_j X, D_k N \rangle = -\langle D_{kj} X, N \rangle = -l_{ij}.$$

Combining the previous two lines of formulas, we get:  $\langle D_i N, D_k N \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^2 S_{ij} l_{jk}$ ; which in matrix notation is equivalent to

$$[\langle D_i N, D_j N \rangle] = [S_{ij}][l_{ij}].$$

Finally, recall that  $\det[\langle D_i N, D_k N \rangle] = \|D_1 N \times D_2 N\|^2$ ,  $\det[S_{ij}] = K$ , and  $\det[l_{ij}] = Kg$ . Hence taking the determinant of both sides in the above equation, and then taking the square root yields the desired result.

Next, we discuss the second method for proving that  $\|D_1 N \times D_2 N\| = K\sqrt{g}$ .

*METHOD 2.* Here we work with a special patch which makes the computations easier:

**Exercise 3.2.7.** Show that there exist a patch  $(U, X)$  centered at  $p$  such that  $[g_{ij}(0, 0)]$  is the identity matrix. (*Hint:* Start with a Monge patch with respect to  $T_p M$ )

Thus, if we are working with the coordinate patch referred to in the above exercise,  $g(0, 0) = 1$ , and, consequently, all we need is to prove that  $\|D_1 N(0, 0) \times D_2 N(0, 0)\| = K(p)$ .

**Exercise 3.2.8.** Let  $f: U \subset \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{S}^2$  be a differentiable mapping. Show that  $\langle D_i f(u^1, u^2), f(u^1, u^2) \rangle = 0$  (*Hints:* note that  $\langle f, f \rangle = 1$  and differentiate).

It follows from the previous exercise that  $\langle D_i N, N \rangle = 0$ . Now recall that  $N(0, 0) = n \circ X(0, 0) = n(p)$ . Hence, we may conclude that  $N(0, 0) \in T_p M$ . Further recall that  $\{D_1 X(0, 0), D_2 X(0, 0)\}$  is now an orthonormal basis for  $T_p M$  (because we have chosen  $(U, X)$  so that  $[g_{ij}(0, 0)]$  is the identity matrix). Consequently,

$$D_i N = \sum_{k=1}^2 \langle D_i N, D_k X \rangle D_k X,$$

where we have omitted the explicit reference to the point  $(0, 0)$  in the above formula in order to make the notation less cumbersome (it is important to keep in mind, however, that the above is valid only at  $(0, 0)$ ). Taking the inner product of both sides of this equation with  $D_j N(0, 0)$  yields:

$$\langle D_i N, D_j N \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^2 \langle D_i N, D_k X \rangle \langle D_k X, D_j N \rangle.$$

Now recall that  $\langle D_i N, D_k X \rangle = -\langle N, D_{ij} X \rangle = -l_{ij}$ . Similarly,  $\langle D_k X, D_j N \rangle = -l_{kj}$ . Thus, in matrix notation, the above formula is equivalent to the following:

$$[\langle D_i N, D_j N \rangle] = [l_{ij}]^2$$

Finally, recall that  $K(p) = \det[l_{ij}(0, 0)] / \det[g_{ij}(0, 0)] = \det[l_{ij}(0, 0)]$ . Hence, taking the determinant of both sides of the above equation yields the desired result.

### 3.3 Product of principal curvatures

For every  $v \in T_p M$  with  $\|v\| = 1$  we define the *normal curvature* of  $M$  at  $p$  in the direction of  $v$  by

$$k_v(p) := \langle \gamma''(0), n(p) \rangle,$$

where  $\gamma: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$  is a curve with  $\gamma(0) = p$  and  $\gamma'(0) = v$ .

**Exercise 3.3.1.** Show that  $k_v(p)$  does not depend on  $\gamma$ .

In particular, by the above exercise, we may take  $\gamma$  to be a curve which lies in the intersection of  $M$  with a plane which passes through  $p$  and is normal to  $n(p) \times v$ . So, intuitively,  $k_v(p)$  is a measure of the curvature of an orthogonal cross section of  $M$  at  $p$ .

Let  $UT_pM := \{v \in T_pM \mid \|v\| = 1\}$  denote the *unit tangent space* of  $M$  at  $p$ . The *principal curvatures* of  $M$  at  $p$  are defined as

$$k_1(p) := \min_v k_v(p), \quad \text{and} \quad k_2(p) := \max_v k_v(p),$$

where  $v$  ranges over  $UT_pM$ . Our main aim in this subsection is to show that

$$K(p) = k_1(p)k_2(p).$$

Since  $K(p)$  is the determinant of the shape operator  $S_p$ , to prove the above it suffices to show that  $k_1(p)$  and  $k_2(p)$  are the eigenvalues of  $S_p$ .

First, we need to define the *second fundamental form* of  $M$  at  $p$ . This is a bilinear map  $\text{II}_p: T_pM \times T_pM \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  defined by

$$\text{II}_p(v, w) := \langle S_p(v), w \rangle.$$

We claim that, for all  $v \in UT_pM$ ,

$$k_v(p) = \text{II}_p(v, v).$$

The above follows from the following computation

$$\begin{aligned} \langle S_p(v), v \rangle &= -\langle dn_p(v), v \rangle \\ &= -\langle (n \circ \gamma)'(0), \gamma'(0) \rangle \\ &= \langle (n \circ \gamma)(0), \gamma''(0) \rangle \\ &= \langle n(p), \gamma''(0) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

**Exercise 3.3.2.** Verify the passage from the second to the third line in the above computation, i.e., show that  $-\langle (n \circ \gamma)'(0), \gamma'(0) \rangle = \langle (n \circ \gamma)(0), \gamma''(0) \rangle$  (*Hint:* Set  $f(t) := \langle n(\gamma(t)), \gamma'(t) \rangle$ , note that  $f(t) = 0$ , and differentiate.)

So we conclude that  $k_i(p)$  are the minimum and maximum of  $\text{II}_p(v)$  over  $UT_pM$ . Hence, all we need is to show that the extrema of  $\text{II}_p$  over  $UT_pM$  coincide with the eigenvalues of  $S_p$ .

**Exercise 3.3.3.** Show that  $\text{II}_p$  is symmetric, i.e.,  $\text{II}_p(v, w) = \text{II}_p(w, v)$  for all  $v, w \in T_pM$ .

By the above exercise,  $S_p$  is a self-adjoint operator, i.e.,  $\langle S_p(v), w \rangle = \langle v, S_p(w) \rangle$ . Hence  $S_p$  is orthogonally diagonalizable, i.e., there exist orthonormal vectors  $e_i \in T_p M$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , such that

$$S_p(e_i) = \lambda_i e_i.$$

By convention, we suppose that  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2$ . Now note that each  $v \in UT_p M$  may be represented uniquely as  $v = v^1 e_1 + v^2 e_2$  where  $(v^1)^2 + (v^2)^2 = 1$ . So for each  $v \in UT_p M$  there exists a unique angle  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$  such that

$$v(\theta) := \cos \theta e_1 + \sin \theta e_2;$$

Consequently, bilinearity of  $\Pi_p$  yields

$$\Pi_p(v(\theta), v(\theta)) = \lambda_1 \cos^2 \theta + \lambda_2 \sin^2 \theta.$$

**Exercise 3.3.4.** Verify the above claim, and show that minimum and maximum values of  $\Pi_p$  are  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  respectively. Thus  $k_1(p) = \lambda_1$ , and  $k_2(p) = \lambda_2$ .

The previous exercise completes the proof that  $K(p) = k_1(p)k_2(p)$ , and also yields the following formula which was discovered by Euler:

$$k_v(p) = k_1(p) \cos^2 \theta + k_2(p) \sin^2 \theta.$$

In particular, note that by the above formula there exists always a pair of *orthogonal* directions where  $k_v(p)$  achieves its maximum and minimum values. These are known as the *principal directions* of  $M$  at  $p$ .