

Reference: P. Petersen's Note. Fredrick Fong's Note. ICTP's video on DG. Do Carmo 1976

Ref. Elementary Diff. Geo.
Andrew Pressley.

Def. local chart and regular surface.

$M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ is called a regular surface if $\forall p \in M$. $\exists O \ni p$ open subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$. a map $\varphi: U \xrightarrow{\mathbb{R}^2} O \cap M$ s.t.

1) φ is smooth regarding as a map $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ 2) φ is bijective and φ^{-1} is continuous. 3) $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \neq 0 \quad \forall (u,v) \in U$.

Remark. The third requirement is equivalent to. $\left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \right)_{\text{mat}}$ has rank 2. $\Leftrightarrow d\varphi_p$ is injective from $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow T_p S$. (Defined later).

Level set Theorem.

Theorem 1.6. Let $g(x, y, z) : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function of three variables. Consider a non-empty level set $g^{-1}(c)$ where c is a constant. If $\nabla g(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq 0$ at all points $(x_0, y_0, z_0) \in g^{-1}(c)$, then the level set $g^{-1}(c)$ is a regular surface.

Proof: a simple application of Inverse function Thm.

**Inverse Func.
Thm.**

***THEOREM 4.1.5.** Let $q(u, v) : U \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be a parametrized surface. For every $(u_0, v_0) \in U$ there exists a neighborhood $(u_0, v_0) \in V \subset U$ such that the smaller parametrized surface $q(u, v) : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ can be represented as a Monge patch.

Def. Let S be a regular surface $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$. O is open set of $\mathbb{R}^2$.

A) $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable if $\forall$ local parametrization $X : U \rightarrow S$, $f \circ X : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable.

B) $f : O \rightarrow S$ is diff. if. $f : O \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is diff. in the usual sense. $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$

C) $f : M \rightarrow N$ is diff. if $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is diff. in the sense of A.

i.e. $f \circ X : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is diff.

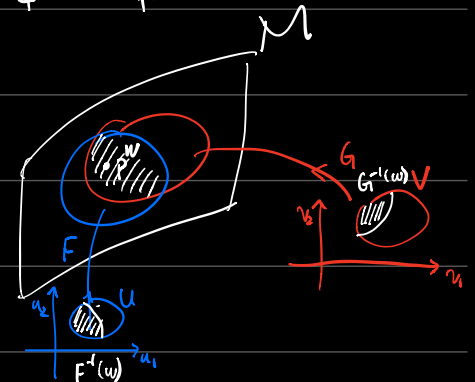
Note: If $f : O \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ smooth, so is $S \subseteq O$. $f|_S : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ restriction of f on surface S .

Transition maps between local charts

Proposition 1.11. Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a regular surface, and $F_\alpha(u_1, u_2) : U_\alpha \rightarrow M$ and $F_\beta(v_1, v_2) : U_\beta \rightarrow M$ be two smooth local parametrizations of M with overlapping images, i.e. $W := F_\alpha(U_\alpha) \cap F_\beta(U_\beta) \neq \emptyset$. Then, the transition maps defined below are also smooth maps:

$$(F_\beta^{-1} \circ F_\alpha) : F_\alpha^{-1}(W) \rightarrow F_\beta^{-1}(W)$$

$$(F_\alpha^{-1} \circ F_\beta) : F_\beta^{-1}(W) \rightarrow F_\alpha^{-1}(W)$$



Proof. We just prove the first one: $G_1 \circ F : F^{-1}(W) \rightarrow G_1^{-1}(W)$ is smooth.

$(v_1, v_2) = G_1^{-1} \circ F(u_1, u_2)$ By assumption, $\frac{\partial F}{\partial u_1} \times \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_2} \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow (\det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial u_2} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_2} \end{pmatrix}, \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial v_1} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v_2} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial v_1} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v_2} \end{pmatrix}, \det \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v_1} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v_1} \end{pmatrix}) \neq 0$.

Suppose $\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u_1, u_2)} \neq 0$. $\Rightarrow$ $\hat{x}$ -component of normal vector $\Leftrightarrow \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(v_1, v_2)} \neq 0$.

$\Rightarrow \lambda_z(x, y, z) = (x, y)$ then $\lambda_z \circ G_1(v_1, v_2) = (x(u_1, u_2), y(u_1, u_2))$ has Jacobian $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial u_2} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u_2} \end{bmatrix}$ non zero at p .

$\Rightarrow \lambda \circ G_1$ locally invertible, with smooth inverse.

$G_1^{-1} \circ F = (\lambda \circ G_1)^{-1} \circ (\lambda \circ F)$ is then smooth.

As a Corollary, the " $\forall$ parametrization" in the previous definition can be replaced by " $\ni$ ".

Tangent Space.

Def. $T_p M := \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \exists \alpha: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M, \alpha(0) = p, \alpha'(0) = v \}$

$$= \text{Span} \left\{ \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \mid \varphi: U \rightarrow M \text{ is a local chart around } p \right\}$$

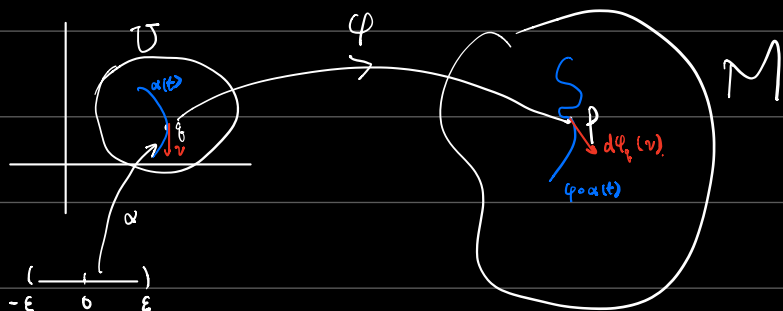
= image of $d\varphi_{\varphi^{-1}(p)}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Warning: $T_p S$ is NOT tangent plane at p .

Example $S = \{ z = x^2 + y^2 \} = \Gamma_f$ where $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2)$ is a regular surface. they are parallel and $T_p S$ passes through the origin so that it's a subspace.

A global parametrization is $\varphi(u, v) = (u, v, \frac{1}{2}(u^2 + v^2))$. $T_p S = \text{span} \left\{ \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \Big|_p, \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \Big|_p \right\} = \text{span} \{ (1, 0, u), (0, 1, v) \}$ if $p = \varphi(u_0, v_0)$.

Differential of a map at a point.

(A) $M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ regular surface. $p \in M$. $\varphi: U \rightarrow M$ is a local chart around p . $\varphi(q) = p$. $d\varphi_q: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ defined as:



Given $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\exists \alpha: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow U$ s.t.

$$\alpha(0) = q \text{ and } \alpha'(0) = v$$

$$d\varphi_q(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (\varphi \circ \alpha)(t).$$

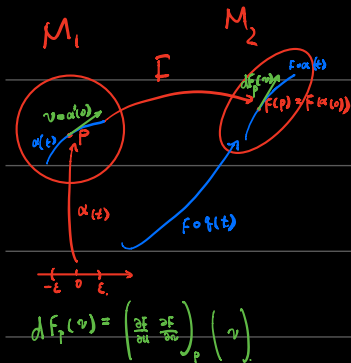
* Thm. This def. is independent of the curve α . (well-defined).

Proof. Let's compute $d\varphi_q$ directly:

$$d\varphi_q(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (\varphi \circ \alpha(t)) \stackrel{\text{Chain rule}}{=} \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \right) \cdot \left(\alpha'(0) \right) = \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v \end{pmatrix} \text{ So we only need information } q \text{ and } v.$$

Further, it show that $d\varphi_q: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3 = \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial u} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial v} \right)$ is linear and injective (by def. of regular surface)

(B) $F: M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ smooth. $dF_p: T_p M_1 \rightarrow T_{F(p)} M_2$ is defined by:



$$dF_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (F \circ \alpha(t))$$

$$dF_p(v) = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right)_p \cdot \begin{pmatrix} v \end{pmatrix}$$

Def. Regular value. $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is a regular value of $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ if $df_p \neq 0 \forall p \in f^{-1}(a)$

Critical point of M . $p \in M$ is critical if $df_p = 0$. is the zero linear map: $df_p(v) = 0 \forall v \in T_p M$.

*Thm. (Chain rule) $M_1 \xrightarrow{f} M_2 \xrightarrow{g} M_3$ Then $d(f \circ g)_p = dg_q \circ df_p$ where $q = f(p)$
 $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow r$

Proof. Pick $p \in M_1$. $v \in T_p M_1$, then $\exists \alpha(t) : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M_1$ s.t. $\alpha(0) = p$ $\alpha'(0) = v$. Then

• $\beta(t) = f \circ \alpha(t) : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M_2$ is a curve on M_2 with $\beta'(0) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) =$ tangent vector at q . $g \circ f \circ \alpha(t)$ is a curve on M_3 .

$$d(g \circ f)_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} (g \circ f \circ \alpha(t))$$

$$df_q \circ df_p(v) = dg_q \left(\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) \right) = \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} (g \circ \beta(s)) = \frac{d}{ds} \Big|_{s=0} (g \circ f \circ \alpha(s)) = d(g \circ f)_p(v)$$

vector in $T_q M_2$
 $\beta'(0)$

Examples. 1) Let A be real symmetric 4×4 matrix. $S = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^4 \mid (1 \ v^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ v \end{pmatrix} = 0 \}$

Define $f(v) = (1 \ v^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ v \end{pmatrix}$, then $S = f^{-1}(0)$. S is a regular surface iff 0 is a regular value of $f \Leftrightarrow df_p \neq 0 \ \forall p \in S$.

So let's compute $df_p(v)$: Take a curve $\alpha : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow S$. $\alpha(0) = p$ $\alpha'(0) = v$. Then $f \circ \alpha(t) = (1 \ \alpha(t)^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha(t) \end{pmatrix}$

By definition. $df_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) \stackrel{\text{product derivative rule}}{=} (0 \ \alpha'(0)^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \alpha(0) \end{pmatrix} + (1 \ \alpha(0)^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \alpha'(0) \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{A \text{ symmetric}}{=} 2 (1 \ p^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ v \end{pmatrix}$

$\alpha'(0)$ $\alpha'(0)$

$$df_p = 0 \Leftrightarrow df_p(v) = 0 \ \forall v \Leftrightarrow (1 \ p^T) A = (\lambda, \vec{0}) \text{ for some } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}. \text{ But } p \in f^{-1}(0), \text{ so } (1 \ p^T) A \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ p \end{pmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow (\lambda, \vec{0}) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ p \end{pmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0$$

Hence, 0 is NOT a regular value $(1 \ x^T) A = \vec{0}$ has solution.

2) $f: \mathbb{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable. $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is a regular value. $S = f^{-1}(a)$ a regular surface. Then: $T_p S = \ker(df_p: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$

Proof. " $\subseteq$ ": Pick $v \in T_p S$. $\exists \alpha : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow S$. $\alpha(0) = p$ $\alpha'(0) = v$

$$df_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} a = 0 \Rightarrow v \in \ker(df_p)$$

$\alpha(t) \in S$
 $f(\alpha(t)) = a$
 $\forall t$

" $\supseteq$ ": $T_p S \subseteq \ker(df_p)$, both are 2-dimension spaces so they have to be equal.
2D since a regular value, and $df_p: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

3) $S_a(r) = \{ p \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |p-a|^2 = r^2 \}$ Define $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(p) = |p-a|^2$. Then $S_a(r) = f^{-1}(r^2)$.

By 2), $T_p S_a(r) = \ker(df_p) = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid df_p(v) = 0 \} = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid v \perp \vec{a} \}$ agrees with our usual intuition.

Compute $df_p(v) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (|\alpha(t)-a|^2) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \langle \alpha(t)-a, \alpha(t)-a \rangle = 2 \langle \alpha'(0), \alpha-a \rangle = 2 \langle v, a \rangle$

4) Let A be a symmetric 3×3 real matrix. Use the notion of diff. map to show it's orthogonally diagonalizable with 3 eigenvalues.

Define $f: S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(p) = \langle A p, p \rangle$. Critical point of $f = \{ p \in S^2 \mid df_p = 0 \}$. Compute df_p :

$$df_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} (f \circ \alpha(t)) = \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \langle A \alpha(t), \alpha(t) \rangle = 2 \langle A \alpha(0), \alpha'(0) \rangle = 2 \langle A p, v \rangle$$

p is critical point
 $\uparrow$
 $d\mathcal{f}_p = 0 \Leftrightarrow d\mathcal{f}_p(v) = 0 \quad \forall v \in T_p S^2 \Rightarrow A_p \perp T_p S^2 \Rightarrow A_p = \lambda p$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $p \perp T_p S^2 \Leftrightarrow p$ is eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ . But $\mathcal{f}(p) = \langle A_p, p \rangle = \lambda$. So p is critical $\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{f}(p) = p = A_p$

• If $\mathcal{f}$ is const: $A = \text{nil}$ trivial

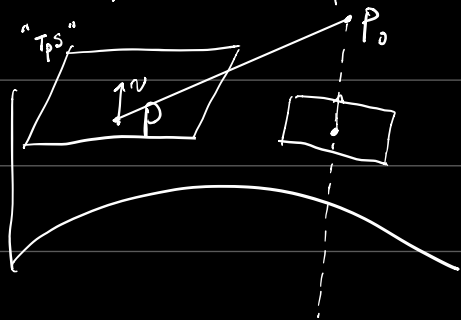
• If $\mathcal{f}$ is not const, S^2 is compact so $\mathcal{f}$ achieves its min and max, which are exactly the critical points of $\mathcal{f}$.

$\{p_1, p_2\}$ is unit vectors and $p_1 \perp p_2$: indeed, $[\mathcal{f}(p_1) - \mathcal{f}(p_2)] \langle p_1, p_2 \rangle = \langle \mathcal{f}(p_1)p_1, p_2 \rangle - \langle p_1, \mathcal{f}(p_2)p_2 \rangle = \langle A p_1, p_2 \rangle - \langle p_1, A p_2 \rangle = 0$ since A is symmetric.

The only one missing must be $\vec{n} = p_1 \times p_2$.

5) Fix $p_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$. $\mathcal{f}(p) = |p_0 - p|^2$. $\mathcal{f}: S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. then $d\mathcal{f}_p(v) = \frac{d}{dt} \big|_{t=0} (\mathcal{f} \circ \alpha(t)) = 2 \langle \alpha(0) - p_0, \alpha'(0) \rangle = 2 \langle p - p_0, v \rangle$

hence p is critical $\Leftrightarrow p_0 - p \perp v \quad \forall v \in T_p S^2 \Leftrightarrow$ the normal line at p passes p_0 .



First Fundamental Form (Riemannian Metric)

Definition. $I_p(\cdot)$ is a quadratic form on $T_p M$ defined as $I_p(v) = \langle v, v \rangle = |v|^2$ where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the usual dot product in $\mathbb{R}^3$.

Local coordinate expression: If $F(u, v)$ is a local chart around $p \in M$, then $\forall v \in T_p M, \exists \alpha: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$ $\alpha(0) = p, \alpha'(0) = v$.

Suppose $F(u_0, v_0) = p$. Write $\alpha(t) = F(u(t), v(t))$. $v = v^u \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} + v^v \frac{\partial F}{\partial v}$

$$I_p(v) = \langle v, v \rangle = \langle \alpha'(0), \alpha'(0) \rangle = \left\langle \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} u'(0) + \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} v'(0), \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} u'(0) + \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} v'(0) \right\rangle = \left(v^u \right)^2 \langle F_u, F_u \rangle + 2 v^u v^v \langle F_u, F_v \rangle + \left(v^v \right)^2 \langle F_v, F_v \rangle$$

In general, consider the corresponding bilinear form $I: T_p M \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$[I] = \begin{bmatrix} g_{uu} & g_{uv} \\ g_{vu} & g_{vv} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I(x, Y) = x^T [I] Y \quad \text{Now use local coordinate } \begin{cases} X = x^u \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} + x^v \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^u \\ x^v \end{bmatrix} \\ Y = y^u F_u + y^v F_v = \begin{bmatrix} F_u & F_v \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y^u \\ y^v \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

$$I(x, Y) = \begin{bmatrix} x^u & x^v \end{bmatrix} [I] \begin{bmatrix} y^u \\ y^v \end{bmatrix}$$

RMK. Although $[I]$ depends on parametrization F , $I(x, Y)$ does not since $T_p M$ does not depend on F .

Example 4. We shall compute the first fundamental form of a sphere at a point of the coordinate neighborhood given by the parametrization (cf. Example 1, Sec. 2-2)

$$\mathbf{x}(\theta, \varphi) = (\sin \theta \cos \varphi, \sin \theta \sin \varphi, \cos \theta).$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \theta} = (\cos \theta \cos \varphi, \cos \theta \sin \varphi, -\sin \theta)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \varphi} = (-\sin \theta \sin \varphi, \sin \theta \cos \varphi, 0)$$

$$[I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sin^2 \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } v \in T_p S^2, \text{ if } v = a x_\theta + b x_\varphi. \quad I(v) = |v|^2 = a^2 + b^2 \sin^2 \theta.$$

Theorem. (Area form)

Another familiar geometric quantity which is also related to g is the area of a surface. For simplicity, we focus on dimension 2 first. Suppose a regular surface Σ can be almost everywhere parametrized by $F(u, v)$ with $(u, v) \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ where D is a bounded domain, the area of this surface is given by:

$$A(M) = \iint_D \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right| du dv$$

It is also possible to express $\left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|$ in terms of the first fundamental form g . Let θ be the angle between the two vectors $\frac{\partial F}{\partial u}$ and $\frac{\partial F}{\partial v}$, then from elementary vector geometry, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|^2 &= \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \right|^2 \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|^2 \sin^2 \theta \\ &= \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \right|^2 \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|^2 - \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \right|^2 \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|^2 \cos^2 \theta \\ &= \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \right|^2 \left| \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right|^2 - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right)^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \right) \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right) - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial u} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial v} \right)^2 \\ &= g_{11}g_{22} - (g_{12})^2 \\ &= \det[g]. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$(7.2) \quad A(M) = \iint_D \sqrt{\det[g]} du dv$$

Thm. Change of variable formula.

If $F(u_1, \dots, u_n): U \rightarrow M$ is a parametrization

$\tilde{F}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is a reparametrization. Then

$$\left[g_{v_i v_j} \right] = \left[\frac{\partial(u_1, \dots, u_n)}{\partial(v_1, \dots, v_n)} \right]^T \left[g_{u_i u_j} \right] \left[\frac{\partial(u_1, \dots, u_n)}{\partial(v_1, \dots, v_n)} \right]$$

$\parallel$
 $\frac{\partial \tilde{F}}{\partial v_i} \cdot \frac{\partial \tilde{F}}{\partial v_j}$

↑
Jacobian

Proof: direct computation.

RMK. From this computation we see that the area form

Thm. arc-length on surface.

Consider a curve γ on a regular hypersurface $\Sigma^n \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ parametrized by $F(u_i)$. Suppose the curve can be parametrized by $\gamma(t)$, $a < t < b$, then from calculus we know the arc-length of the curve is given by:

$$L(\gamma) = \int_a^b |\gamma'(t)| dt$$

In fact one can express this above in terms of g . The argument is as follows:

Suppose $\gamma(t)$ has local coordinates $(\gamma^i(t))$ such that $F(\gamma^i(t)) = \gamma(t)$. Using the chain rule, we then have:

$$\gamma'(t) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i} \frac{d\gamma^i}{dt}$$

$\gamma(t) = F(u_1(t), \dots, u_n(t))$
 $\gamma'(t) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i} \frac{du_i}{dt}$

Recall that $|\gamma'(t)| = \sqrt{\langle \gamma'(t), \gamma'(t) \rangle}$ and that $\gamma'(t)$ lies on $T_p M$, we then have:

$$|\gamma'(t)| = \sqrt{g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))}$$

We can then express it in terms of the matrix components g_{ij} 's:

$$(7.1) \quad g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t)) = g_{ij} \frac{d\gamma^i}{dt} \frac{d\gamma^j}{dt}$$

where g_{ij} 's are evaluated at the point $\gamma(t)$. Therefore, the arc-length can be expressed in terms of the first fundamental form by:

$$L(\gamma) = \int_a^b \sqrt{g(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))} dt = \int_a^b \sqrt{g_{ij} \frac{d\gamma^i}{dt} \frac{d\gamma^j}{dt}} dt$$

and arc length element is unchanged by reparametrization,

since similar matrices have the same det.

Def. Isometry. A diffeomorphism $f: M \rightarrow N$ is called isometry if for any local parametrization F of M .

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial u_j} = \frac{\partial (f \circ F)}{\partial u_i} \cdot \frac{\partial (f \circ F)}{\partial u_j} \text{ i.e. } M \text{ and } N \text{ has the same first fundamental form.}$$

Two theorems are immediate:

Thm. If M, N isometric, $\gamma: (c-\epsilon, c+\epsilon) \rightarrow M$ is a curve on M , then $L(\gamma) = L(f \circ \gamma)$ i.e. the length invariant under f .

Thm. If M, N isometric, $D: U \rightarrow M$ is a region on M , then $\text{Area}(D) = \text{Area}(f \circ D)$ i.e. the surface area is invariant under f .

RMK. Although γ or D may be covered by more than 1 parametrizations, by summing up each piece, we may assume they are covered by a single chart.

• If $F: U \rightarrow M$ is a local chart for M , then $f \circ F: U \rightarrow N$ is a local chart for N since f is diffeomorphism.

Area preserving: $\det(I_1) = \det(I_2)$. **Conformal:** preserves angle, also called **isothermal**.

PROPOSITION 4.4.2. Let $q: U \rightarrow M_1$ be a parametrization and $F: M_1 \rightarrow M_2$ a map. The map is an isometry if

$$[I_1] = [I_2],$$

$F \circ q$ is a para- of M_2 .

area preserving if

$$\det[I_1] = \det[I_2],$$

and conformal if

$$[I_1] = \lambda^2 [I_2]$$

for some non-zero function λ .

DEFINITION 4.4.3. In case the map is a parametrization $q: U \rightarrow M$ then we always use the *Cartesian metric* on U given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

So the parametrization is an isometry or *Cartesian* when

$$[I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

area preserving when

$$\det[I] = 1,$$

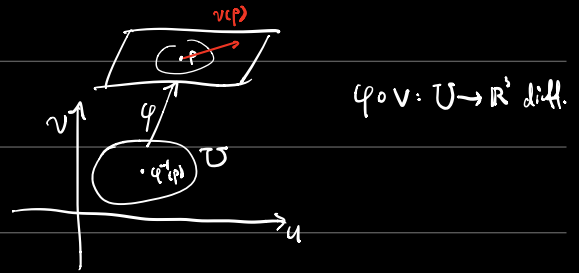
and conformal or *isothermal* when

$$g_{uu} = g_{vv}, \quad [I] = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & \\ & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda \neq 0.$$

$$g_{uv} = 0.$$

Def. Vector field on S . Given regular surface S . A vector field on S is a diff. map $V: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$.

V is "normal" if $V(p) \perp T_p S, \forall p \in S$. "Unitary" if $|V(p)| = 1$.



Lemma (local existence) If $\phi: U \rightarrow S$ is a local chart

Then $\exists$ a unitary normal vector field on $\phi(U)$. i.e. Every regular surface is locally orientable.

Proof. $\forall p \in \phi(U)$: By def. of local chart. $\left\{ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial u}, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial v} \right\}_{\phi^{-1}(p)}$ is linearly independent.

$\Rightarrow N^{\phi} = \frac{\phi_u \times \phi_v}{|\phi_u \times \phi_v|} \Big|_{\phi^{-1}(p)}$ is the unitary normal vector at point $\phi^{-1}(p)$. Warning: $N^{\phi}: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ is NOT a vector field on S but on U .

We change the domain of N^{ϕ} : $N(p) := N^{\phi} \circ \phi^{-1}(p): S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ Done. $\square$

Lemma (Global uniqueness) S connected. N_1, N_2 are both unitary normal vector fields on S . then

Either $N_1 = N_2$, or $N_1 = -N_2$ for all $p \in S$. i.e. it's impossible that $N_1(p) = N_2(p)$ but $N_1(q) = -N_2(q)$ for some $p, q \in S$.

Proof. $\forall p \in S$. $N_1(p), N_2(p) \perp T_p S$ So $N_1(p) = N_2(p)$ or $N_1(p) + N_2(p) = 0$

Assume the first case: $N_1(p) = N_2(p)$ and assume $\exists q \in S$. $N_1(q) = -N_2(q)$. Then define $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ by $f(p) = N_1(p) - N_2(p)$.

$g: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ by $g(q) = N_1(q) + N_2(q)$. $A := \{p \in S \mid f(p) = 0\} = f^{-1}(0)$ and $B = g^{-1}(0)$ are closed, disjoint subsets of S . By connectedness, either $A = \emptyset$ or $B = \emptyset$. By continuity of f, g $\square$

Def. Orientability

DEFINITION 1. A regular surface S is called orientable if it is possible to cover it with a family of coordinate neighborhoods in such a way that if a

point $p \in S$ belongs to two neighborhoods of this family, then the change of coordinates has positive Jacobian at p . The choice of such a family is called an orientation of S , and S , in this case, is called oriented. If such a choice is not possible, the surface is called nonorientable.

Example 1) $S = \{f^{-1}(a) \mid a \text{ is a regular point}\}$. $N(p) = \frac{\nabla f(p)}{|\nabla f(p)|}$ is a possible choice.

2) $S^2_p(r)$. $N(p) = \frac{p-r}{|p-r|}$ is a possible choice.

3) $S = T_f = \{(x, y, f(x, y))\}$. $N(p) = \frac{(1, 0, f_x) \times (0, 1, f_y)}{|(1, 0, f_x) \times (0, 1, f_y)|} = \frac{(f_x, f_y, -1)}{\sqrt{1+f_x^2+f_y^2}}$ is a possible choice.