April 24, 2024

Reference: Tapp, pp. Chapters 4 and 5

## **Topics:**

- Second fundamental form in local coordinates
  - As with the first fundamental form, we can also represent the second fundamental form in local coordinates.
  - That is, given a surface patch  $\sigma: U \xrightarrow{\sim} V \subset S$ , we can consider the function  $(\mathcal{F}_2)_{\mathbf{q}}: \mathbb{R}^2 = \mathrm{T}_{\mathbf{q}}U \to \mathbb{R}$  given by  $(\mathcal{F}_2)_{\mathbf{q}}(\vec{v}) = \mathrm{II}_{\mathbf{p}}(\mathrm{d}\sigma_{\mathbf{q}}(\vec{v})).$
  - As before, we can write this in the form

$$\mathcal{F}_2 = e \,\mathrm{d}u^2 + 2f \,\mathrm{d}u \,\mathrm{d}v + g \,\mathrm{d}v^2$$

where now  $e = II(\sigma_u)$ ,  $f = \mathcal{W}(\sigma_u, \sigma_v)$ , and  $g = II(\sigma_v)$ .

– We then obtain such formulas as

$$K = \frac{eg - f^2}{EG - F^2} \qquad H = \frac{eG - 2fF + gE}{EG - F^2} \qquad \{k_1, k_2\} = \{H - \sqrt{H^2 - K}, H + \sqrt{H^2 - K}\}.$$

- Total Gaussian curvature
  - Given a plane curve  $\gamma: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ , its total signed curvature  $\int_a^b \kappa_s dt$  can be interpreted as the signed length of the curve  $\vec{t}: [a, b] \to S^1$ , where by "signed" length we mean  $\int_{[a,b]} \vec{t}^* dV$ , where dV is the volume form on the circle (with its standard orientation).
  - Indeed, the oriented unit tangent vector at  $\vec{v} \in S^1$  is precisely  $R_{90}\vec{v}$ , and hence

$$\vec{t}^{*} \mathrm{d}V(\vec{e}_{1}) = \mathrm{d}V(\vec{t}') = \langle \vec{t}', R_{90}\vec{t} \rangle = \kappa_{\mathrm{s}} = \kappa_{\mathrm{s}} \,\mathrm{d}t(\vec{e}_{1}).$$

- The total signed curvature  $\int_S K \, dV_S$  of a surface can be given a similar interpretation, namely as the signed area  $\int_S \vec{N}^* \, dV_{S^2}$  of the Gauss map  $\vec{N} : S \to S^2$ .
- (In fact, this was Gauss' original definition of K: as the "infinitesimal signed area of the Gauss map".)
- In other words, the claim is that  $\vec{N}^* dV_{S^2} = K dV_S$ . To prove this, let  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in T_{\mathbf{p}}S$  be an orthonormal basis of tangent vector at some point so that  $dV_S(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = 1$  by definition of dV and  $\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = \vec{N}(\mathbf{p})$  by definition of  $\vec{N}$ .
- Let us write  $-d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{u}) = a\vec{u} + b\vec{v}$  and  $-d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v}) = c\vec{u} + d\vec{v}$ . Then, by definition,  $K(\mathbf{p}) = \det(\mathcal{W}_{\mathbf{p}}) = \det(-d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}) = \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = ad - bc.$
- On the other hand,

$$(\vec{N}^{*} dV_{S^{2}})(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = dV_{S^{2}}(d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{u}), d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v}))$$
$$= \langle d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{u}) \times d\vec{N}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v}), \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}) \rangle$$
$$= \langle (a\vec{u} + b\vec{v}) \times (c\vec{u} + d\vec{v}), \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}) \rangle$$
$$= \langle (ad - bc)\vec{N}(\mathbf{p}), \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}) \rangle$$
$$= ad - bc$$
$$= K(\mathbf{p}) dV_{S}(\vec{u}, \vec{v})$$

- as desired.
- Normal sections
  - Recall that we defined the normal curvature  $II_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v})$  of an oriented surface S at a point  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction  $\vec{v}$  to be the normal curvature  $\langle \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}), \gamma''(t_0) \rangle$  of any unit-speed curve  $\gamma$  on S with  $\gamma'(t_0) = \vec{v}$ .
  - However, one can also define them in terms of certain canonically defined curves called normal sections.
  - We consider the plane P through **p** parallel to  $\vec{N}(\mathbf{p})$  and  $\vec{v}$ , i.e., with normal vector  $\vec{n} = \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}) \times \vec{v}$ .
  - We now intersect P with S, and we claim that there is some small open set  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  containing **p** such that the intersection  $S \cap P \cap U$  is a smooth curve, i.e., a smooth 1-manifold.
  - Indeed, P is the zero-set of the function  $F(\vec{x}) = \langle \vec{x} \mathbf{p}, \vec{n} \rangle$  with derivative  $dF(\mathbf{p}) = \vec{n}^{\top}$  (i.e., with gradient  $\nabla F(\mathbf{p}) = \vec{n}$ ). And since S it is a 2-manifold, there is some neighbourhood W of  $\mathbf{p}$  and smooth function  $G: W \to \mathbb{R}$  with regular value 0 such that  $W \cap S = G^{-1}(0)$ ; moreover, we have that  $\nabla G(\mathbf{p}) \parallel \vec{N}(\mathbf{p})$ , i.e.,  $dG(\mathbf{p}) = \vec{u}^{\perp}$  for some  $\vec{u} \parallel \vec{N}(\mathbf{p})$ .
  - It follows that the function  $H: U \to \mathbb{R}^2$  given by  $H(\vec{x}) = (F(\vec{x}), G(\vec{x}))$  satisfies  $H^{-1}(0) = S \cap P \cap W$ , and  $dH(\mathbf{p})$  has linearly independent (in fact, orthogonal) rows  $\vec{n}^{\top}$  and  $\vec{u}^{\top}$ , and hence has  $\mathbf{p}$  as a regular point.
  - It then follows that 0 is a regular value of the restriction of H to some small neighbourhood  $U \subset W$  of  $\mathbf{p}$ , and hence by the inverse function theorem,  $C = H^{-1}(0) \cap U = P \cap S \cap U$  is a 1-manifold as claimed.
  - We can thus find a parametrization C near **p** by a unit-speed curve  $\gamma : (\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \to \mathbb{R}^3$ with  $\gamma(0) = \mathbf{p}$ .
  - The smooth curve  $\gamma$  is called the *normal section* of S at **p**.
  - By definition, it lies entirely inside the plane P, and hence  $\gamma''$  lies inside P as well. Since  $\gamma''(0) \perp \gamma'(0)$ , it follows that  $\gamma'' \parallel \vec{N}(\mathbf{p})$ , and hence that

$$\kappa(0) = |\gamma''(0)| = \langle \gamma''(0), \vec{N}(\mathbf{p}) \rangle = |\mathrm{II}_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v})|.$$

- We conclude that the absolute value of the normal curvature  $II_{\mathbf{p}}(\vec{v})$  is the curvature at  $\mathbf{p}$  of the normal section in the direction  $\vec{v}$ .
- Geodesics
  - Let  $\gamma$  be a unit-speed curve on an oriented surface S with unit normal vector field  $\vec{N}$ .
  - We can decompose  $\vec{a} = \gamma''$  as  $\vec{a} = \vec{a}^{\parallel} + \vec{a}^{\perp}$  with respect to  $\vec{N}$ .
  - We have already identified the second term in terms of the normal curvature  $\vec{a}^{\perp} = \kappa_n \vec{N}$ .
  - Since  $\gamma$  is unit-speed,  $\vec{a}$  is orthogonal to both  $\vec{v}$  and  $\vec{N}$ , and hence is parallel to  $R_{90}\vec{v} := \vec{N} \times \vec{v}$ , the "90 degree counter-clockwise rotation of  $\gamma'$  with respect to the chosen orientation".
  - We now set  $\kappa_{\rm g} = \langle \gamma'', R_{90} \vec{v} \rangle$ , so that we have  $\vec{a}^{\parallel} = \kappa_{\rm g} R_{90}(\vec{v})$  and hence

$$ec{a} = \kappa_{
m n} \cdot N + \kappa_{
m g} \cdot R_{90}(ec{v}).$$

- The quantity  $\kappa_{\rm g}$  is called the *geodesic curvature* of  $\gamma$ , and measure the bending of  $\gamma$  relative to the surface.
- If S is a plane, then  $\kappa_{\rm g}$  is just the signed curvature.

- We see that  $\kappa_{\rm g} = 0$  if and only if  $\gamma'' \parallel \vec{N}$ ; note that whether this holds is independent of orientation.
- Thus, in general, we define a *geodesic* on S to be a regular curve  $\gamma$  such that  $\gamma''(t)$  is orthogonal to S for all t.
- Hence, if  $\gamma$  is unit-speed, it is a geodesic if and only if  $\kappa_{g} = 0$ .
- In general, we have: every geodesic  $\gamma$  has constant speed. This follows immediately from the fact that  $\gamma' \perp \gamma''$ .
- On a plane, the geodesics are precisely the lines with constant-speed parametrization.
- We now state two fundamental facts about geodesics without proof.
- Proposition 5.3: for each  $\mathbf{p} \in S$  and each  $\vec{v} \in T_{\mathbf{p}}S$ , there exists a geodesic  $\gamma_{\vec{v}} : (a, b) \to S$  (where  $0 \in (a, b)$ ) with  $\gamma_{\vec{v}}(0) = \mathbf{p}$  and  $\gamma'_{\vec{v}}(0) = \vec{v}$ . Moreover, it is unique in the sense that for any other geodesic  $\hat{\gamma}_{\vec{v}} : (\hat{a}, \hat{b}) \to S$  with
- these properties,  $\gamma_{\vec{v}}$  and  $\hat{\gamma}_{\vec{v}}$  agree on their common domain  $(a, b) \cap (\hat{a}, \hat{b})$ .
- Note that, while we can sometimes choose the domain (a, b) to be all of  $\mathbb{R}$  (for example, when S is a plane), this isn't always the case. For example, if S is the puncture xy-plane  $S = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid z = 0 \text{ and } (x, y) \neq (0, 0)\}$ , and we take  $\mathbf{p} = (-1, 0, 0)$  and  $\vec{v} = (1, 0, 0)$ , then the maximal domain of  $\gamma_{\vec{v}}$  is  $(-\infty, 1)$ .
- This proposition is important because it allows us identify all the geodesics on a given surface.
- For example, every geodesic on S<sup>2</sup> is (a part of) a great circle  $\gamma(t) = \cos(at)\vec{u} + \sin(at)\vec{v}$ , where  $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in S^2$  are orthogonal.
  - Indeed, the great circles are clearly geodesic (since  $\gamma'(t) = -a \sin(at)\vec{u} + a\cos(at)\vec{v} \perp \gamma(t) = \vec{N}(\gamma(t))$ ), hence for any  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbf{S}^2$  and  $\vec{v} \in \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{p}}S$ , the unique geodesic  $\gamma_{\vec{v}}$  through  $\mathbf{p}$  with  $\gamma'_{\vec{v}}(0) = \vec{v}$  must be the great circle  $\gamma_{\vec{v}}(t) = \cos(at)\mathbf{p} + \sin(at)\vec{v}$ .
- By a similar argument, we can see that every geodesic on the cylinder  $C = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}$  is a helix  $\gamma(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, ct)$ .
- Next, Corollary 5.23: a curve  $\gamma$  is a geodesic if and only if it is *locally length-minimizing*. This means that for any  $t_0$  in the domain of  $\gamma$ , there is some  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for any  $t_1, t_2 \in (t_0 - \varepsilon, t_0 + \varepsilon)$ , if we set  $\mathbf{p} = \gamma(t_1)$  and  $\mathbf{q} = \gamma(t_2)$ , then  $\gamma|_{[t_1, t_2]}$  is the shortest path on S from  $\mathbf{p}$  to  $\mathbf{q}$ , i.e., any other curve  $\alpha \colon [a, b] \to S$  from  $\mathbf{p}$  to  $\mathbf{q}$  on S has greater arc-length than  $\gamma|_{[t_1, t_2]}$ :

$$\int_{a}^{b} |\alpha'(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t \ge \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |\gamma(t)| \, \mathrm{d}t = |\gamma'|(t_2 - t_1)$$

where for the last equation, we are using that  $\gamma$  has constant speed.

- In particular this tells us immediately that (Corollary 5.24): geodesics are intrinsic.
- This gives us a second proof that the helices are the geodesics on the cylinder, since we know what the geodesics in the plane are.
- Gauss-Bonnet
  - We finish our exploration of surfaces (though there is much more we are not covering
     – just look at some of the other sections in Tapp's book!) with the spectacular Gauss Bonnet theorem (which we will discuss, but not prove).