

GEOMETRY: HOMEWORK 4

DUE OCTOBER 12

1. SOME LINEAR ALGEBRA

1.1. Change of basis. Let V be an n -dimensional vector space over \mathbb{R} . Let $\{\mathbf{v}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ and $\{\mathbf{w}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ be two bases for V . Then,

$$\mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n L_i^j \mathbf{w}_j \quad (1.1)$$

for some $[L_i^j] \in \text{GL}(n; \mathbb{R}) = \{\text{invertible } n \times n \text{ matrices}\}$. It follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a^i \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^j a^i \right) \mathbf{w}_j .$$

In other words, $\sum_{i=1}^n a^i \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n b^j \mathbf{w}_j$ if and only if

$$\sum_{i=1}^n L_i^j a^i = b^j . \quad (1.2)$$

In the concrete case, \mathbb{R}^n , (1.1) and (1.2) read

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{v}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 & \mathbf{w}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{w}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} L_1^1 & L_2^1 & \cdots & L_n^1 \\ L_1^2 & L_2^2 & \cdots & L_n^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ L_1^n & L_2^n & \cdots & L_n^n \end{bmatrix} ,$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} L_1^1 & L_2^1 & \cdots & L_n^1 \\ L_1^2 & L_2^2 & \cdots & L_n^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ L_1^n & L_2^n & \cdots & L_n^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a^1 \\ a^2 \\ \vdots \\ a^n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b^1 \\ b^2 \\ \vdots \\ b^n \end{bmatrix} .$$

1.2. Change of basis in dual space. Its dual vector space, $V^* = \text{Hom}(V; \mathbb{R})$, has two bases¹, $\{\mathbf{v}_i^*\}_{i=1}^n$ and $\{\mathbf{w}_i^*\}_{i=1}^n$. From

$$\mathbf{w}_i^*(\mathbf{v}_j) = \mathbf{w}_i^* \left(\sum_{k=1}^n L_j^k \mathbf{w}_k \right) = L_j^i ,$$

¹Be careful about the dual basis. For instance, consider $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and $\{(1, 0), (1, 1)\}$ for \mathbb{R}^2 . Use the standard inner product to identify $(\mathbb{R}^2)^*$ with \mathbb{R}^2 . Their dual bases are $\{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$ and $\{(1, -1), (0, 1)\}$, respectively. From this example, the notation $(1, 0)^*$ only makes sense with a choice of basis.

one finds that

$$\mathbf{w}_i^* = \sum_{j=1}^n L_j^i \mathbf{v}_j^* .$$

Sometimes the index is raised to make the notation more consistent. Write \mathbf{v}_i^* by $\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i$, and \mathbf{w}_i^* by $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^i$. The equation is

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}^i = \sum_{j=1}^n L_j^i \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j . \quad (1.3)$$

Similarly, $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{a}_i \hat{\mathbf{v}}^i = \sum_{j=1}^n \hat{b}_j \hat{\mathbf{w}}^j$ is equivalent to

$$\sum_{j=1}^n L_i^j \hat{b}_j = \hat{a}_i . \quad (1.4)$$

1.3. Bilinear form on V . The set of bilinear forms on V is a vector space of dimension n^2 . It has the following basis²: $\{\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j\}_{i,j=1}^n$, which are defined on the basis by

$$(\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j)(\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_\ell) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } i = k \text{ and } j = \ell; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In other words, $(\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j)(\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_\ell) = \delta_k^i \delta_\ell^j$. Another basis, $\{\mathbf{w}_k\}_{k=1}^n$, of V leads to another basis, $\{\hat{\mathbf{w}}^k \otimes \hat{\mathbf{w}}^\ell\}_{k,\ell}$, of bilinear forms on V . One can check that

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{w}}^j = \sum_{k,\ell=1}^n L_k^i L_\ell^j (\hat{\mathbf{v}}^k \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^\ell) . \quad (1.5)$$

The set of bilinear forms on V has a natural decomposition into symmetric and anti-symmetric part. The symmetric part has dimension $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1) = n + \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$. The basis is constituted of $\{\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^i\}_{i=1}^n$ with $\{\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j + \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^i\}_{i \neq j}$. The anti-symmetric part has dimension $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$, and has basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j - \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j \otimes \hat{\mathbf{v}}^i\}_{i \neq j}$.

2. TANGENT PLANES OF A REGULAR SURFACE

Now, let S be a regular surface. Suppose that (Ω_1, \mathbf{X}) and (Ω_2, \mathbf{Y}) be two coordinate chart for S , and $\mathbf{X}(\Omega_1) \cap \mathbf{Y}(\Omega_2) \neq \emptyset$. Denote the coordinate for $\Omega_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ by (u^1, u^2) , and the coordinate for $\Omega_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ by (ξ^1, ξ^2) .

For any $p \in \mathbf{X}(\Omega_1) \cap \mathbf{Y}(\Omega_2)$, apply the discussion of section 1 to $V = T_p S$. The two bases are

$$\left\{ \mathbf{v}_i = \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i} \right\}_{i=1}^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \mathbf{w}_j = \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \xi^j} \right\}_{j=1}^2 . \quad (2.1)$$

²During the class, we use the notation $\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{v}}^j$. The standard notation is \otimes .

By applying the chain rule on $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{Y} \circ (\mathbf{Y}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{X})$,

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \xi^j} \frac{\partial \xi^j}{\partial u^i}$$

Comparing it with (1.1),

$$L_i^j = \frac{\partial \xi^j}{\partial u^i} \quad (2.2)$$

in this current setting.

2.1. Tangent vector. The modern notation for the above bases of $T_p S$ are

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u^i} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^i}, \quad \text{respectively.}$$

A vector of $T_p S$ can be written as $\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i}$, which just means $\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i}$.

The first advantage for this notation is for taking derivative. Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \supset S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function. Then, the differential of f in the direction of $\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i}$ is

$$(Df)|_p \left(\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i} \right) = (D(f \circ \mathbf{X})) \begin{bmatrix} a^1 \\ a^2 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_i a^i \frac{\partial (f \circ \mathbf{X})}{\partial u^i} \Big|_p.$$

The second advantage is related to the first one. The relation (1.2) says that

$$\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial}{\partial u^i} = \sum_j b^j \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^j} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \sum_i \frac{\partial \xi^j}{\partial u^i} a^i = b^j. \quad (2.3)$$

This can be seen by re-doing the chain rule computation:

$$\begin{aligned} (Df) \left(\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i} \right) &= \sum_i a^i \frac{\partial (f \circ \mathbf{X})}{\partial u^i} \\ &= \sum_i a^i \frac{\partial ((f \circ \mathbf{Y}) \circ (\mathbf{Y}^{-1} \circ \mathbf{X}))}{\partial u^i} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} a^i \frac{\partial (f \circ \mathbf{Y})}{\partial \xi^j} \frac{\partial \xi^j}{\partial u^i} \\ &= (Df) \left(\sum_j b^j \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \xi^j} \right) = \sum_j b^j \frac{\partial (f \circ \mathbf{Y})}{\partial \xi^j}. \end{aligned}$$

People usually abuse the notation, and write it as

$$\sum_i a^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial u^i} = \sum_{i,j} a^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi^j} \frac{\partial \xi^j}{\partial u^i} = \sum_j b^j \frac{\partial f}{\partial \xi^j}.$$

By ignoring f , one finds the relation between a^i and b^j , (2.3).

2.2. Cotangent vector. A cotangent vector is an element of the dual space of $T_p S$. The dual space is denoted by $T_p^* S$. It has basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i\}_{i=1}^2$ which is defined by

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}^i \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^k} \right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = k ; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise .} \end{cases}$$

Another basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{w}}^j\}_{j=1}^2$ is defined by the same way. The modern notation for them are

$$du^i \quad \text{and} \quad d\xi^j , \quad \text{respectively .}$$

In the modern notation, the defining relation reads

$$du^i \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial u^k} \right) = \delta_k^i .$$

By (1.3) and (2.2), the transition rule between different bases is

$$d\xi^i = \sum_j \frac{\partial \xi^i}{\partial u^j} du^j , \quad (2.4)$$

which looks just like the chain rule.

2.3. Symmetric bilinear forms. The first and second fundamental forms are symmetric bilinear forms. That is to say, for each $p \in S$, they are symmetric bilinear forms on $T_p S$, and are smooth in the sense of smooth coefficient functions in coordinate charts. Denote

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^i}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{X}}{\partial u^j} \right\rangle \text{ by } g_{ij}(u) , \quad \text{and} \quad \left\langle \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \xi^k}, \frac{\partial \mathbf{Y}}{\partial \xi^\ell} \right\rangle \text{ by } \tilde{g}_{k\ell}(\xi) .$$

Due to (2.4) and (1.5),

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k,\ell} \tilde{g}_{k\ell} d\xi^k \otimes d\xi^\ell &= \sum_{k,\ell,i,j} \tilde{g}_{k\ell} \frac{\partial \xi^k}{\partial u^i} \frac{\partial \xi^\ell}{\partial u^j} du^i \otimes du^j \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \left(\sum_{k,\ell} \tilde{g}_{k\ell} \frac{\partial \xi^k}{\partial u^i} \frac{\partial \xi^\ell}{\partial u^j} \right) du^i \otimes du^j = \sum_{i,j} g_{ij} du^i \otimes du^j . \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

By matching the coefficients in front of the basis,

$$\sum_{k,\ell} \tilde{g}_{k\ell}(\xi(x)) \frac{\partial \xi^k}{\partial u^i} \frac{\partial \xi^\ell}{\partial u^j} = g_{ij}(x) . \quad (2.6)$$

3. HOMEWORK

- (1) Consider the spherical coordinate for \mathbb{S}^2 ,

$$(\sin \rho \cos \theta, \sin \rho \sin \theta, \cos \rho) .$$

- (a) Work out the expression of the first fundamental form in terms of this spherical coordinate.
 (b) Consider the stereographic projection, $\frac{1}{1+u^2+v^2}(2u, 2v, 1-u^2-v^2)$. Find $\rho(u, v)$ and $\theta(u, v)$, and then apply (2.5) and (2.6) to find the expression of the first fundamental form in terms of the stereographic projection.

- (2) Consider the Poincaré metric³ on the unit disk $D = \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | u^2 + v^2 < 1\}$:

$$\frac{4}{(1-u^2-v^2)^2}(du \cdot du + dv \cdot dv) ,$$

and consider the following metric on the upper half plane $\mathbb{H} = \{(\xi, \eta) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | \eta > 0\}$:

$$\frac{1}{\eta^2}(d\xi \cdot d\xi + d\eta \cdot d\eta) .$$

From Gauss's Theorema Egregium, these data determine their Gaussian curvatures, K_D and $K_{\mathbb{H}}$ (by some complicated formula we did not do in class).

- (a) Consider the map

$$\begin{aligned} D &\rightarrow \mathbb{H} \\ (u, v) &\mapsto \frac{1}{(1-u)^2+v^2}(-2v, 1-u^2-v^2) . \end{aligned}$$

One can check that this map is a diffeomorphism (you do not have to do this part). Check that this map defines a local isometry.

- (b) For any $a > 0$, show that $(\xi, \eta) \rightarrow (a\xi, a\eta)$ defines a (local) isometry of \mathbb{H} . For any $b \in \mathbb{R}$, show that $(\xi, \eta) \rightarrow (\xi + b, \eta)$ defines a (local) isometry of \mathbb{H} .

(Hint: To avoid confusion, you can denote the coordinate of the domain by (ξ_1, η_1) , and the coordinate of the codomain by (ξ_2, η_2) .)

- (c) Use part (a) and (b) to conclude⁴ that $K_D = K_{\mathbb{H}} = \text{constant}$.

(Remark: The same argument can be used to prove that a round sphere has constant Gaussian curvature.)

- (d) Recall Beltrami's pseudo-sphere S :

$$(\alpha(t) \cos \theta, \alpha(t) \sin \theta, \beta(t))$$

³It just means given a first fundamental form abstractly.

⁴In fact, the statement for Theorema Egregium is only for regular surface in \mathbb{R}^3 . Let us pretend the statement works in this abstract setting as well, and see what can be learnt from it.

where $\alpha(t) = e^t$ and $\beta(t) = \int_0^t \sqrt{1 - e^{2s}} ds$. We calculate this example in class. Its first fundamental form and Gaussian curvature are

$$I = dt \cdot dt + e^{2t} d\theta \cdot d\theta \quad \text{and} \quad K \equiv -1 ,$$

respectively. Construct a local isometry between open subsets of S and \mathbb{H} . What is the constant in part (c)?

(3) Let S be a regular surface.

- (a) Suppose that the normal of S at some point p is $(0, 0, 1)$. Prove that on a neighborhood of p , S can be described by the graph of some function over the xy -plane.
- (b) Let Γ be a 2-plane passing through p , and is *not* (parallel to) $T_p S$. Prove that for any open neighborhood U of p in S , the points of U cannot be on only one side of Γ .

(Hint: Let N_Γ be a normal vector of Γ . The condition says that there exists some $V \in T_p S$ such that $\langle V, N_\Gamma \rangle \neq 0$. From the definition of a regular surface, there exists a curve $\gamma(t)$ on S such that $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\gamma'(0) = V$.)

(4) Let S be a regular surface.

- (a) At some $p \in S$, suppose that there exist some other point $p_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and an open neighborhood U of p in S such that

$$|q - p_0| \leq |p - p_0| \quad \text{for any } q \in U .$$

Denote $|p - p_0|$ by r . Show that $p - p_0$ is parallel to the normal of S at p , and the Gaussian curvature of S at p is no less than $1/r^2$, $K(p) \geq \frac{1}{r^2}$.

(Hint: Remember that any symmetric matrix is diagonalizable by an orthonormal basis. Part (3a) and (3b) may help you.)

- (b) Suppose that S is *compact*. Prove that there exists some $p \in S$ where $K(p) > 0$. (Hint: Consider $r = \max_{\mathbf{x} \in S} |\mathbf{x}|$. By compactness, r is finite. Consider the sphere of radius r centered at the origin.)

(5) Is the converse of (4a) true? Namely, suppose that $K(p) \geq \frac{1}{r^2}$ for some $r > 0$. Can you find some $p_0 \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that

$$|q - p_0| \leq r$$

for any q on an open neighborhood of p in S ? You only need to give a heuristic argument.

(Remark: There is a similar statement for plane curves.)