

# VARIATIONS OF VOLUME

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## 1 Setup

Let  $(M, g)$  be a Riemannian manifold, and  $\iota: \Sigma \hookrightarrow M$  be an embedded submanifold. We will often write  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  instead of  $g$  and identify  $\iota(\Sigma)$  with  $\Sigma$ , as it is usual practice. We write  $\nabla$  and  $\nabla^\Sigma$  for the Levi-Civita connections of  $(M, g)$  and  $(\Sigma, \iota^*g)$ . We have

$$(a) \nabla_X Y = \nabla_X^\Sigma Y + \text{II}(X, Y), \quad (b) \nabla_X^M \xi = -A_\xi(X) + \nabla_X^\perp \xi, \quad (1.1)$$

for all  $X, Y \in \Gamma(T\Sigma)$  and  $\xi \in \Gamma(T\Sigma^\perp)$ , where  $\text{II}$  denotes the second fundamental form of  $\Sigma$  in  $(M, g)$ ,  $A_\xi$  is the shape operator associated with  $\xi$ , and  $\nabla^\perp$  is the normal connection of  $\Sigma$ . Shape operators are related to the second fundamental form via the relations

$$\langle \text{II}(X, Y), \xi \rangle = \langle A_\xi(X), Y \rangle. \quad (1.2)$$

The mean curvature vector  $\mathbf{H}_\Sigma \in \Gamma(T\Sigma^\perp)$  is the  $g$ -trace of  $\text{II}$ , and may be computed as

$$\mathbf{H}_\Sigma = g^{ij} \text{II}(\partial_i, \partial_j) = \sum_{i=1}^k \text{II}(E_i, E_i), \quad (1.3)$$

where  $k = \dim \Sigma$  and  $(x^1, \dots, x^k)$  are local coordinates on  $\Sigma$ , or  $(E_1, \dots, E_k)$  is a local orthonormal frame tangent to  $\Sigma$ . When not working with orthonormal frames, we use Einstein's summation convention<sup>1</sup>.

With the aid of a metric, one may compute the divergence of vector fields and tensor fields, in general. In our setup, we have a divergence operator  $\text{div}_g$  associated with  $(M, g)$ , and  $\text{div}_{\iota^*g}$  associated with  $(\Sigma, \iota^*g)$ . The latter has an obvious extension to vector fields that are tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$  (as opposed to acting just on vector fields that are tangent to  $\Sigma$ ).

**Definition 1.** The **tangential divergence**  $\text{div}_\Sigma: \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma) \rightarrow C^\infty(\Sigma)$  is defined by

$$\text{div}_\Sigma(X) = \text{tr}_{\iota^*g}((Y, Z) \mapsto \langle \nabla_Y X, Z \rangle) = g^{ij} \langle \nabla_{\partial_i} X, \partial_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle \nabla_{E_i} X, E_i \rangle, \quad (1.4)$$

where  $(x^1, \dots, x^k)$  are local coordinates on  $\Sigma$ , or  $(E_1, \dots, E_k)$  is a local orthonormal frame tangent to  $\Sigma$ .

<sup>1</sup>Whose true power consists in keeping a consistent index balance, not in omitting summation signs.

For any vector field  $X$  tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$ , we write  $X = X^\top + X^\perp$  according to the direct sum decomposition  $TM|_\Sigma = T\Sigma \oplus T\Sigma^\perp$ . Here is what we need to know about this tangential divergence operator:

**Proposition 2** (Main properties of  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma$ ).

(a)  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma(fX) = X^\top(f) + f \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X)$ , for all  $X \in \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma)$  and  $f \in C^\infty(\Sigma)$ .

(b)  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X) = \operatorname{div}_{t^*g}(X)$ , for all  $X \in \Gamma(T\Sigma)$ .

(c)  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X) = \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X^\top) - \langle \mathbf{H}_\Sigma, X \rangle$ , for all  $X \in \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma)$ .

**Remark.** In particular, the Laplacian  $\Delta_\Sigma f$  of a smooth function  $f: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (defined as  $\operatorname{div}_{t^*g}(\nabla^\Sigma f)$ ), may be computed as  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma(\nabla^\Sigma f)$ .

**Proof:** Noting that  $X^\top = g^{ij}\langle X, \partial_i \rangle \partial_j$  whenever  $(x^1, \dots, x^k)$  is a local coordinate system for  $\Sigma$ , we directly compute

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(fX) &= g^{ij}\langle \nabla_{\partial_i}(fX), \partial_j \rangle = g^{ij}\langle (\partial_i f)X + f\nabla_{\partial_i}X, \partial_j \rangle \\ &= g^{ij}\langle X, \partial_j \rangle \partial_i f + f g^{ij}\langle \nabla_{\partial_i}X, \partial_j \rangle = X^\top(f) + f \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X). \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

This proves (a). For (b), use (1.1-a): note that  $\langle \nabla_{\partial_i}X, \partial_j \rangle = \langle \nabla_{\partial_i}^\Sigma X, \partial_j \rangle$  and apply  $g^{ij}$ . Finally, as  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma$  is additive, it suffices to again use (1.1-a) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(X^\perp) &= g^{ij}\langle \nabla_{\partial_i}(X^\perp), \partial_j \rangle = -g^{ij}\langle X^\perp, \nabla_{\partial_i}\partial_j \rangle \\ &= -g^{ij}\langle X^\perp, \mathbf{II}(\partial_i, \partial_j) \rangle = -\langle X^\perp, \mathbf{H}_\Sigma \rangle \\ &= -\langle X, \mathbf{H}_\Sigma \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (1.6)$$

as required.  $\square$

In a similar manner to what was done for  $\operatorname{div}_\Sigma$ , we may also consider a ‘‘partial’’ Ricci tensor, acting on vector fields tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$ . Our sign convention for the Riemann curvature tensor is  $R(X, Y) = [\nabla_X, \nabla_Y] - \nabla_{[X, Y]}$ .

**Definition 3.** The **tangential Ricci tensor**  $\operatorname{Ric}_\Sigma^\top: \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma) \times \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma) \rightarrow C^\infty(\Sigma)$  is defined by

$$\operatorname{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(Y, Z) = \operatorname{tr}_{t^*g} R(\cdot, Y, Z, \cdot) = g^{ij}R(\partial_i, Y, Z, \partial_j) = \sum_{i=1}^k R(E_i, Y, Z, E_i), \quad (1.7)$$

for all vector fields  $Y$  and  $Z$  tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$ , where  $(x^1, \dots, x^k)$  are local coordinates on  $\Sigma$ , or  $(E_1, \dots, E_k)$  is a local orthonormal frame tangent to  $\Sigma$ .

**Remark.** When  $Y$  and  $Z$  above happen to be tangent to  $\Sigma$ ,  $\operatorname{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(Y, Z)$  still does not agree with the Ricci tensor of  $\Sigma$  itself evaluated at  $Y$  and  $Z$ . This is only guaranteed to happen when  $\Sigma$  is totally geodesic in  $(M, g)$ , that is, when  $\mathbf{II} = 0$ . In addition, when  $\Sigma$  is a 2-sided hypersurface<sup>2</sup> in  $M$  and  $\nu$  is a unit normal field along  $\Sigma$ , we have the relation  $\operatorname{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(Y, Z) = \operatorname{Ric}(Y, Z) - R(\nu, Y, Z, \nu)$ , and hence  $\operatorname{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(\nu, \cdot) = \operatorname{Ric}(\nu, \cdot)$ .

<sup>2</sup>2-sided means that the normal bundle of  $\Sigma$  in  $M$  is trivial, that is, that there is a globally defined unit normal field along  $\Sigma$ . When there is no metric present, one may define the notion of being 2-sided by using the quotient line bundle  $TM|_\Sigma/T\Sigma$  instead.

## 2 Variation formulas and examples

Let  $(M, g)$  be a Riemannian manifold, and  $\Sigma$  be an embedded submanifold, possibly with boundary. The **volume of  $\Sigma$**  is defined by

$$\text{vol}(\Sigma) = \int_{\Sigma} 1 \, d\mu_{\Sigma}, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $d\mu_{\Sigma}$  stands for the volume form<sup>3</sup> of the induced metric on  $\Sigma$ . When  $\dim \Sigma$  equals 1 or 2, “volume” means *arclength* or *area*, respectively. To understand variations of this volume functional, we will need to consider variations of submanifolds:

**Definition 4.** A **variation of  $\Sigma$  in  $M$**  is a smooth map  $F: \Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow M$  such that  $F(x, 0) = x$  for every  $x \in \Sigma$ . Then:

- (a)  $F$  is **compactly supported** if there is a compact subset  $K \subseteq \Sigma$  such that  $F(x, t) = x$  for all  $(x, t) \in (\Sigma \setminus K) \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ .
- (b)  $F$  is **boundary-fixing** if  $F(x, t) = x$  for all  $(x, t) \in \partial\Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ .
- (c) For each fixed  $t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ , the  **$t$ -stage of the variation** is  $\Sigma_t = F(\Sigma, t)$  (in other words,  $\Sigma_t$  is defined as the image of  $\Sigma$  under the partial map  $F_t = F(\cdot, t): \Sigma \rightarrow M$ . In particular,  $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma$ ).
- (d) The **variational vector field  $V$**  of  $F$  is defined as  $V = V_0$ , where in general we define  $V_t$ , for  $t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ , by

$$V_t(x) = \frac{d}{dt} F(x, t) \in T_{F(x,t)}M, \quad (2.2)$$

for every  $x \in \Sigma$ .

- (e)  $F$  is a **normal variation of  $\Sigma$**  if  $V_t(x) \in [T_{F(x,t)}\Sigma_t]^\perp$  for all  $(x, t) \in \Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ .

When  $F$  is not explicitly needed, one calls  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  a variation of  $\Sigma$  instead.

**Remark.** When  $F$  is either boundary-fixing, or compactly supported with  $\Sigma$  noncompact, we necessarily have  $V|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$ .

Given any variation  $F: \Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow M$  of  $\Sigma$  has been fixed, local coordinates  $(x^1, \dots, x^k)$  on an open subset  $U \subseteq \Sigma$  induce, for each  $t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ , local coordinates  $(x_t^1, \dots, x_t^k)$  on the open subset  $U_t = F(U, t)$  of  $\Sigma_t$  via the composition  $x_t^i = x^i \circ (F_t)^{-1}$ . Namely, as  $F(\cdot, 0) = \text{Id}_{\Sigma}$  is a diffeomorphism, so is  $F_t = F(\cdot, t): \Sigma \rightarrow \Sigma_t$  for  $t$  small enough, so that  $(F_t)^{-1}$  makes sense. Such coordinates satisfy the relations

$$dF_{(x,t)} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_x \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_t^i} \Big|_{F(x,t)} \quad \text{and} \quad dF_{(x,t)} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big|_t \right) = V_t(x), \quad (2.3)$$

for all  $(x, t) \in \Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ . In particular, the Lie bracket  $[V_t, \partial/\partial x_t^i]$  makes sense and *vanishes* due to naturality of the Lie bracket, as  $\partial/\partial x^i$  and  $\partial/\partial t$  commute as vector

<sup>3</sup>We assume that  $\Sigma$  is orientable, for simplicity. If not, treat  $d\mu_{\Sigma}$  as a density instead.

fields on  $\Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ . When doing coordinate computations, we will always assume that the coordinates on each stage  $\Sigma_t$  are related to coordinates on  $\Sigma$  via the above construction. For economy of notation, we will also write<sup>4</sup>  $\partial_{i,t}$  for  $\partial/\partial x_t^i$ .

Each  $\Sigma_t$  has its own volume form  $d\mu_{\Sigma_t}$ , so we may write  $(F_t)^*(d\mu_{\Sigma_t}) = v(t) d\mu_{\Sigma}$ , for a suitable smooth function  $v(t): \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , with  $v(0) = 1$ . Smoothness of  $F$  also ensures smoothness of  $v(t)(x)$  in the variable  $t$ . Noting that

$$\text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \int_{\Sigma_t} d\mu_{\Sigma_t} = \int_{F_t(\Sigma)} d\mu_{\Sigma_t} = \int_{\Sigma} (F_t)^* d\mu_{\Sigma_t} = \int_{\Sigma} v(t) d\mu_{\Sigma}, \quad (2.4)$$

we are justified in calling  $v$  the **volumetric density of the variation  $F$** .

**Proposition 5.** *For any variation  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  of  $\Sigma$ , the first and second derivatives of the volumetric density  $v$  are given by:*

$$(a) \quad \frac{dv}{dt}(t) = \text{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t) v(t)$$

and, assuming that the variation is normal,

$$(b) \quad \frac{d^2v}{dt^2}(t) = \left( \|\nabla^\perp V_t\|^2 - \text{Ric}_{\Sigma_t}^\top(V_t, V_t) - \|A_{V_t}\|^2 - \langle \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t}, \nabla_{V_t} V_t \rangle + \langle \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t}, V_t \rangle^2 \right) v(t)$$

**Proof:** The first step is to describe  $v(t)$  in coordinates. By evaluating both sides of  $(F_t)^* d\mu_{\Sigma_t} = v(t) d\mu_{\Sigma}$  at the coordinate vector fields  $(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_k)$  and using (2.3), we see that  $\sqrt{\det g(t)} = v(t) \sqrt{\det g(0)}$ , where  $g(t) = [g_{ij}(t)]_{i,j=1}^k$  is the matrix of components  $g_{ij}(t) = \langle \partial_{i,t}, \partial_{j,t} \rangle$ . Differentiating and applying *Jacobi's formula*<sup>5</sup>, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dv}{dt}(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\sqrt{\det g(t)}}{\sqrt{\det g(0)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g(0)}} \frac{1}{2} (\det g(t))^{-1/2} \frac{d}{dt} \det g(t) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det g(0)}} \frac{1}{2} (\det g(t))^{-1/2} \det g(t) \text{tr} \left( g(t)^{-1} \frac{dg}{dt}(t) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left( g(t)^{-1} \frac{dg}{dt}(t) \right) v(t). \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

However, we may compute this trace as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \left( g(t)^{-1} \frac{dg}{dt}(t) \right) &= g^{ij}(t) \frac{d}{dt} \langle \partial_{i,t}, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= g^{ij}(t) \langle \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{i,t}, \partial_{j,t} \rangle + g^{ij}(t) \langle \partial_{i,t}, \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= 2g^{ij} \langle \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{i,t}, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= 2g^{ij} \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= 2 \text{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t), \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

<sup>4</sup>We do **not** use the convention of writing derivatives as subscripts with commas or semi-colons.

<sup>5</sup>Namely,  $d(\det)_A(H) = \det A \text{tr}(A^{-1}H)$  for all  $A \in \text{GL}(k)$  and  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ . Any Lie group homomorphism  $\varphi: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  has  $\varphi \circ L_g = L_{\varphi(g)} \circ \varphi$  for all  $g \in G_1$ , and so  $d\varphi_g = d(L_{\varphi(g)})_e \circ d\varphi_e \circ (d(L_g)_e)^{-1}$  by the chain rule. Applying this principle to the Lie group homomorphism  $\det: \text{GL}(k) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  together with the easily verified identity  $d(\det)_{\text{Id}} = \text{tr}$  yields the Jacobi formula.

and (a) follows. Differentiating (a) and reusing it leads to

$$\frac{d^2 v}{dt^2}(t) = \left( \frac{d}{dt}(\operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t)) + (\operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t))^2 \right) v(t), \quad (2.7)$$

and so it remains to compute the  $t$ -derivative of  $\operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t)$ . From here on we assume that, for each  $t$ ,  $V_t$  is normal to  $\Sigma_t$ . Starting from

$$\frac{d}{dt} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t) = \left( \frac{d}{dt} g^{ij}(t) \right) \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle + g^{ij}(t) \frac{d}{dt} \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle, \quad (2.8)$$

we will compute each term in the right side separately. As

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} g_{kl}(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \langle \partial_{k,t}, \partial_{l,t} \rangle \\ &= \langle \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{k,t}, \partial_{l,t} \rangle + \langle \partial_{k,t}, \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{l,t} \rangle \\ &= \langle \nabla_{\partial_{k,t}} V_t, \partial_{l,t} \rangle + \langle \partial_{k,t}, \nabla_{\partial_{l,t}} V_t \rangle \\ &= -\langle A_{V_t}(\partial_{k,t}), \partial_{l,t} \rangle - \langle \partial_{k,t}, A_{V_t}(\partial_{l,t}) \rangle \\ &= -2 \langle A_{V_t}(\partial_{k,t}), \partial_{l,t} \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \frac{d}{dt} g^{ij}(t) \right) \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle &= -g^{ik}(t) \left( \frac{d}{dt} g_{kl}(t) \right) g^{\ell j}(t) \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= 2g^{ik}(t) \langle A_{V_t}(\partial_{k,t}), \partial_{l,t} \rangle g^{\ell j}(t) \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= -2g^{ik}(t) g^{\ell j}(t) \langle A_{V_t}(\partial_{k,t}), \partial_{l,t} \rangle \langle A_{V_t}(\partial_{i,t}), \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= -2 \|A_{V_t}\|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

In addition, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle &= \langle \nabla_{V_t} \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle + \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= R(V_t, \partial_{i,t}, V_t, \partial_{j,t}) + \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle + \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \nabla_{\partial_{j,t}} V_t \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

and thus

$$g^{ij}(t) \frac{d}{dt} \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle = -\operatorname{Ric}_{\Sigma}^{\top}(V_t, V_t) + \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(\nabla_{V_t} V_t) + \|A_{V_t}\|^2 + \|\nabla^{\perp} V_t\|^2. \quad (2.12)$$

Here, we have used self-adjointness of  $A_{V_t}$  to conclude that  $\|A_{V_t}^2\| = \|A_{V_t}\|^2$ , as well as the Pythagorean relation  $\|\nabla V_t\|^2 = \|A_{V_t}\|^2 + \|\nabla^{\perp} V_t\|^2$ . Finally, as  $\langle A_{V_t}(\cdot), V_t \rangle = 0$  implies that<sup>6</sup>  $\langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, Z_t \rangle = 0$  whenever  $Z_t \in \Gamma(T\Sigma_t)$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(\nabla_{V_t} V_t) &= g^{ij}(t) \langle \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= g^{ij}(t) \partial_{i,t} \langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \partial_{j,t} \rangle - g^{ij}(t) \langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} \partial_{j,t} \rangle \\ &= 0 - g^{ij}(t) \langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \Pi(\partial_{i,t}, \partial_{j,t}) \rangle \\ &= -\langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t} \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

Putting (2.10), (2.12), (2.13), and Proposition 2 together, (b) follows from (2.7).  $\square$

<sup>6</sup>Namely:  $\langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \partial_{i,t} \rangle = -\langle V_t, \nabla_{V_t} \partial_{i,t} \rangle = -\langle V_t, \nabla_{\partial_{i,t}} V_t \rangle = \langle V_t, A_{V_t}(\partial_{i,t}) \rangle = 0$ .

**Corollary 6.** For any compactly-supported variation  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  of  $\Sigma$ , we have:

$$(a) \quad \frac{d}{dt} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \int_{\Sigma_t} \text{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t) \, d\mu_{\Sigma_t},$$

and, assuming that the variation is normal,

$$(b) \quad \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \int_{\Sigma_t} \|\nabla^\perp V_t\|^2 - \text{Ric}_{\Sigma_t}^\top(V_t, V_t) - \|A_{V_t}\|^2 - \langle \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t}, \nabla_{V_t} V_t \rangle + \langle \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t}, V_t \rangle^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma_t}$$

**Proof:** As the variation has compact support, we may differentiate (2.4) under the integral sign and apply Proposition 5. The original definition of  $v(t)$  allows us to rewrite the resulting quantities as integrals over  $\Sigma_t$  (as opposed to integrals over  $\Sigma$ ).  $\square$

**Definition 7.** An embedded submanifold  $\Sigma$  of  $(M, g)$  is called **minimal** if

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = 0 \quad (2.14)$$

for every compactly supported and boundary-fixing variations  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  of  $\Sigma$ .

**Example 8.** No closed submanifold of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is minimal. More precisely, if  $\Sigma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is  $k$ -dimensional and closed, consider the compactly supported variation  $\{(1+t)\Sigma\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  and note that

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \text{vol}((1+t)\Sigma) = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} (1+t)^k \text{vol}(\Sigma) = k \text{vol}(\Sigma) > 0, \quad (2.15)$$

as a consequence of the general relation  $\text{vol}(\lambda\Sigma) = \lambda^k \text{vol}(\Sigma)$ , valid for  $\lambda \in (0, \infty)$ .

**Example 9.** A  $k$ -dimensional submanifold  $\Sigma$  of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is minimal if and only if all coordinate projections  $x^r|_\Sigma: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are harmonic functions. Abbreviating  $x^r|_\Sigma$  simply to  $x^r$ , assume that  $\Sigma$  is minimal, and let  $\eta \in C_c^\infty(\Sigma)$  be arbitrary. Writing  $(e_1, \dots, e_n)$  for the canonical basis of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  and regarding all such vectors as constant fields on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{div}_\Sigma(\eta e_r) &= g^{ij} \langle \nabla_{\partial_i}(\eta e_r), \partial_j \rangle = g^{ij} \langle (\partial_i \eta) e_r, \partial_j \rangle \\ &= g^{ij} \langle e_r, \partial_j \rangle \partial_i \eta = e_r^\top(\eta) \\ &= \langle e_r^\top, \nabla^\Sigma \eta \rangle = \langle \nabla^\Sigma x^r, \nabla^\Sigma \eta \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (2.16)$$

where  $\nabla^\Sigma f \in \Gamma(T\Sigma)$  denotes the gradient field of any smooth function  $f \in C^\infty(\Sigma)$ , and we use that the gradient  $\nabla^\Sigma x^r$  is obtained by projecting onto  $T\Sigma$  the full gradient  $\nabla x^r = e_r$ . In addition, Proposition 2 together with the definition of Laplacian  $\Delta_\Sigma$  gives us that  $\text{div}_\Sigma(\eta \nabla^\Sigma x^r) = \langle \nabla^\Sigma \eta, \nabla^\Sigma x^r \rangle + \eta \Delta_\Sigma x^r$ . Applying the first variation formula for both fields  $\eta e_r$  and  $\eta \nabla^\Sigma x^r$  gives us that

$$\int_\Sigma \langle \nabla^\Sigma x^r, \nabla^\Sigma \eta \rangle \, d\mu_\Sigma = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_\Sigma \langle \nabla^\Sigma \eta, \nabla^\Sigma x^r \rangle + \eta \Delta_\Sigma x^r \, d\mu_\Sigma = 0, \quad (2.17)$$

leading to

$$\int_{\Sigma} \eta \Delta_{\Sigma} x^r \, d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0. \quad (2.18)$$

Arbitrariness of  $\eta$  now implies that  $\Delta_{\Sigma} x^r = 0$ , as required. Conversely, assume that  $V \in \Gamma(TM|_{\Sigma})$  is compactly supported with  $V|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$ , and written as  $V = \sum_{r=1}^n V^r e_r$ . Then  $V^r \in C_c^{\infty}(\Sigma)$  for all  $r = 1, \dots, n$ , and thus (2.16) for  $\eta = V^r$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Sigma} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma}(V) \, d\mu_{\Sigma} &= \int_{\Sigma} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma} \left( \sum_{r=1}^n V^r e_r \right) \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^n \int_{\Sigma} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma}(V^r e_r) \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^n \int_{\Sigma} \langle \nabla^{\Sigma} V^r, \nabla^{\Sigma} x^r \rangle \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \\ &= - \sum_{r=1}^n \int_{\Sigma} V^r \Delta_{\Sigma} x^r \, d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (2.19)$$

as required. As one consequence of this equivalence, it now follows that if  $\Sigma$  is minimal, then it is contained in the convex hull of its boundary, which is defined as the intersection

$$\operatorname{Conv}(\partial\Sigma) = \bigcap \{H \mid H \text{ is a half-space in } \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } \partial\Sigma \subseteq H\}. \quad (2.20)$$

Indeed, let  $H$  be a half-space of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , written as  $H = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \varphi(x) \leq b\}$  for suitable  $\varphi \in (\mathbb{R}^n)^*$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since all the coordinate functions are harmonic on  $\Sigma$ , so is the restriction  $\varphi|_{\Sigma}$ . By the maximum principle for harmonic functions, there is  $x_0 \in \partial\Sigma$  for which  $\varphi|_{\Sigma}(x_0)$  is maximum. Now, it follows that if  $\partial\Sigma \subseteq H$ , then  $\Sigma \subseteq H$  as well: let  $x \in \Sigma$ , and estimate  $\varphi(x) \leq \varphi(x_0) \leq b$ , so that  $x \in H$ . This proves that  $\Sigma \subseteq \operatorname{Conv}(\partial\Sigma)$ .

**Example 10.** We may generalize the first part of Example 9, considering now submanifolds of the sphere  $S^n$  and of hyperbolic space  $\mathbb{H}^n$ . To treat them simultaneously, fix a parameter  $c \in \{1, -1\}$  and consider in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  the scalar product

$$\langle v, w \rangle_c = v^1 w^1 + \dots + v^n w^n + c v^{n+1} w^{n+1}, \quad (2.21)$$

for all  $v = (v^1, \dots, v^{n+1})$  and  $w = (w^1, \dots, w^{n+1})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . When  $c = 1$  we have classical Euclidean space, and when  $c = -1$  we have Minkowski space. This means that the space form

$$\mathbb{M}^n(c) = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \langle p, p \rangle_c = c\} \quad (2.22)$$

is the sphere for  $c = 1$ , and hyperbolic space for  $c = -1$ . We claim that a submanifold  $\Sigma \subseteq \mathbb{M}^n(c)$  is minimal if and only if all coordinate functions  $x^r: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfy the eigenvalue equation  $\Delta_{\Sigma} x^r + c k x^r = 0$ , where  $k = \dim \Sigma$ .

All formulas seen so far remain valid when the ambient manifold  $(M, g)$  is pseudo-Riemannian and with indefinite metric signature, provided that squared norms are suitably interpreted (e.g.,  $\|A\|^2 = \langle A, A \rangle$ , which may now vanish even when  $A \neq 0$ ).

The difficulty now is that the canonical basis  $(e_1, \dots, e_{n+1})$  of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is not in general tangent to  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$ . Denoting by  $P$  the position vector field of  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  (i.e., given

by  $P(x) = x \in T_x(\mathbb{R}^{n+1})$ , for every  $x \in \mathbb{M}^n(c)$ , we consider the orthogonal projections  $\tilde{e}_r(x) = e_r - c\langle e_r, P \rangle P$ , that is,  $\tilde{e}_r(x) = e_r - cx^r P$ . The Levi-Civita connection  $\nabla$  of  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$  is given by  $\nabla_X Y = dY(X) - c\langle dY(X), P \rangle P$ , and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_X \tilde{e}_j &= d\tilde{e}_j(X) - c\langle d\tilde{e}_j(X), P \rangle P \\ &= -c dx^r(X)P - cx^r X - c\langle -c dx^r(X)P - cx^r X, P \rangle P \\ &= -c dx^r(X)P - cx^r X + c dx^r(X)P + 0 \\ &= -cx^r X. \end{aligned} \quad (2.23)$$

Repeating (2.16) with  $\tilde{e}_r$  instead of  $e_r$  and (2.23) instead of  $\nabla_X e_j = 0$  leads to

$$\operatorname{div}_\Sigma(\eta \tilde{e}_r) = \langle \nabla^\Sigma x^r, \nabla^\Sigma \eta \rangle - ck\eta x^r, \quad (2.24)$$

for all  $\eta \in C_c^\infty(\Sigma)$ . This means that, if  $\Sigma$  is minimal, (2.17) now reads

$$\int_\Sigma \langle \nabla^\Sigma x^r, \nabla^\Sigma \eta \rangle - ck\eta x^r d\mu_\Sigma = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_\Sigma \langle \nabla^\Sigma \eta, \nabla^\Sigma x^r \rangle + \eta \Delta_\Sigma x^r d\mu_\Sigma = 0, \quad (2.25)$$

so that

$$\int_\Sigma \eta (\Delta_\Sigma x^r + ckx^r) d\mu_\Sigma = 0, \quad (2.26)$$

and thus  $\Delta_\Sigma x^r + ckx^r = 0$  by arbitrariness of  $\eta$ . Conversely, if  $\Delta_\Sigma x^r + ckx^r = 0$  holds for  $r = 1, \dots, n+1$ , then  $\Sigma$  must be minimal: (2.19) boils down to

$$\int_\Sigma \operatorname{div}_\Sigma(V) d\mu_\Sigma = - \sum_{r=1}^{n+1} \int_\Sigma V^r (\Delta_\Sigma x^r + ckx^r) d\mu_\Sigma = 0, \quad (2.27)$$

for every compactly supported  $V \in \Gamma(TM|_\Sigma)$ .

**Remark.** The above example is easily modified to provide the obvious analogous conclusions for other indefinite signature space forms, such as the de Sitter space  $\mathbb{S}_1^n = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid \langle p, p \rangle_{-1} = 1\}$ , etc. (here, it becomes  $\Delta_\Sigma x^r + kx^r = 0$ , just as in the sphere  $\mathbb{S}^n$ ).

Due to the general relation

$$\int_\Sigma \operatorname{div}_\Sigma V d\mu_\Sigma = - \int_\Sigma \langle \mathbf{H}_\Sigma, V \rangle d\mu_\Sigma + \int_{\partial\Sigma} \langle V, N \rangle d\mu_{\partial\Sigma}, \quad (2.28)$$

valid as a consequence of the divergence theorem (with  $N$  being the unit outward conormal to  $\partial\Sigma$  along  $\Sigma$ ), we see that:

- (i)  $\Sigma$  is minimal if and only if<sup>7</sup>  $\mathbf{H}_\Sigma = 0$ .
- (ii) purely tangential compactly supported variations produce no variation.

With item (i) in mind, the next example should not be surprising:

<sup>7</sup>Considering only boundary-fixing variations allows us to ignore the boundary term in (2.28), while the  $L^2$  inner product between compactly supported vector fields tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$  is nondegenerate.



**Example 11.** Consider again the space forms  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$  from Example 10, and also set  $\mathbb{M}^n(0) = \mathbb{R}^n$  so we can discuss all three of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $S^n$ , and  $\mathbb{H}^n$  together. Letting  $\Sigma$  be a submanifold of  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$  and writing  $P$  for the position vector field of  $\Sigma$ , we claim that  $\Delta_\Sigma P + ckP = \mathbf{H}_\Sigma$  (this is usually written just as  $\Delta_\Sigma x + ckx = \mathbf{H}_\Sigma$ ), where the Laplacian  $\Delta_\Sigma P$  is defined componentwise.

To see this, we will repeatedly use the following general fact: whenever  $(M, g)$  is a pseudo-Riemannian manifold and  $N$  is a nondegenerate submanifold of  $M$ , the formula  $(\text{Hess}_M f)(X, Y) = (\text{Hess}_N(f|_N))(X, Y) - df(\text{II}(X, Y))$  holds for  $X, Y \in \Gamma(TN)$ , with  $\text{II}$  denoting the second fundamental form of  $N$  in  $M$ .

The second fundamental form of  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  (set to zero when  $c = 0$ ) is given by  $(X, Y) \mapsto c\langle dY(X), P \rangle P = -c\langle X, Y \rangle P$  (as seen by differentiating  $\langle Y, P \rangle = 0$  in the direction of  $X$ ), so that  $(\text{Hess}_{\mathbb{M}^n(c)} x^r)(X, Y) = dx^r(-c\langle X, Y \rangle P) = -cx^r\langle X, Y \rangle$ , and thus

$$(\text{Hess}_\Sigma x^r) = -cx^r\langle X, Y \rangle + dx^r(\text{II}(X, Y)) \tag{2.29}$$

for all  $X, Y \in \Gamma(T\Sigma)$ , with  $\text{II}$  denoting the second fundamental form of  $\Sigma$  in  $\mathbb{M}^n(c)$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_\Sigma x^r &= g^{ij}(\text{Hess}_\Sigma x^r)(\partial_i, \partial_j) \\ &= g^{ij}(-cx^r g_{ij} + dx^r(\text{II}(\partial_i, \partial_j))) \\ &= -ckx^r + dx^r(\mathbf{H}_\Sigma), \end{aligned} \tag{2.30}$$

leading to  $\Delta_\Sigma x^r + ckx^r = dx^r(\mathbf{H}_\Sigma)$ , as required.

Item (ii) is the reason we have focused on normal variations in the previous result. Observe that evaluating item (b) of Corollary 6 at  $t = 0$  yields that the second derivative of  $\text{vol}(\Sigma_t)$  at  $t = 0$  equals

$$\int_\Sigma \|\nabla^\perp V\|^2 - \text{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(V, V) - \|A_V\|^2 - \langle \mathbf{H}_\Sigma, \nabla_{V_t} V_t|_{t=0} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{H}_\Sigma, V \rangle^2 d\mu_\Sigma. \tag{2.31}$$

However, the term  $\nabla_{V_t} V_t|_{t=0}$  depends not only on the vector field  $V$ , but also on the variation  $F$  itself. In general, the value  $(\nabla_X Y)_p$  depends on  $X_p$  and on the values of  $Y$  along a small piece of the integral curve of  $X$  passing through  $p$ , and this means that  $\nabla_V V$  is not even well-defined in our setting. More precisely, evaluating  $\nabla_{V_t} V_t$  at  $t = 0$  does define a vector field tangent to  $M$  along  $\Sigma$ , but also eliminates transverse information that  $V$  by itself cannot recover.

This issue disappears in the case where  $\Sigma$  is minimal, as (2.31) gets simplified to

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \Big|_{t=0} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \int_\Sigma \|\nabla^\perp V\|^2 - \text{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(V, V) - \|A_V\|^2 d\mu_\Sigma. \tag{2.32}$$

The right side of (2.32) depends only on  $V$  and not on the variation itself. For this reason, it is usually denoted by  $I_\Sigma(V, V)$ , and  $I_\Sigma$  is called the **index form** of  $\Sigma$ . This motivates the following definition:

**Definition 12.** A minimal submanifold  $\Sigma$  of  $(M, g)$  is **stable** if

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \Big|_{t=0} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) \geq 0 \tag{2.33}$$

for every boundary-fixing normal variation  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  of  $\Sigma$  or, equivalently, if

$$\int_{\Sigma} \|\nabla^{\perp} V\|^2 d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq \int_{\Sigma} \text{Ric}_{\Sigma}^{\top}(V, V) + \|A_V\|^2 d\mu_{\Sigma} \quad (2.34)$$

for every  $V \in \Gamma(T\Sigma^{\perp})$  with  $V|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$ .

### 3 The hypersurface case and the Gauss formula

Let  $(M, g)$  be a Riemannian manifold, and assume this time that  $\iota: \Sigma \hookrightarrow M$  is an embedded 2-sided hypersurface in  $M$ , with a fixed choice of a unit normal field  $\nu \in \Gamma(T\Sigma^{\perp})$ . Writing  $A$  for the shape operator associated with  $\nu$ , we have the Gauss formula<sup>8</sup>

$$R^{\Sigma}(X, Y, Z, W) = R(X, Y, Z, W) + \langle AY, Z \rangle \langle AX, W \rangle - \langle AX, Z \rangle \langle AY, W \rangle, \quad (3.1)$$

valid for all  $X, Y, Z, W \in \Gamma(T\Sigma)$ . Writing the mean curvature vector as<sup>9</sup>  $\mathbf{H} = H\nu$  and ( $\iota^*g$ )-tracing in the variables  $X$  and  $W$  yields

$$\text{Ric}^{\Sigma}(Y, Z) = \text{Ric}_{\Sigma}^{\top}(Y, Z) + H\langle AY, Z \rangle - \langle AY, AZ \rangle \quad (3.2)$$

which, rewritten without  $\text{Ric}_{\Sigma}^{\top}$ , reads

$$\text{Ric}^{\Sigma}(Y, Z) = \text{Ric}(Y, Z) - \text{Ric}(\nu, \nu) + H\langle AY, Z \rangle - \langle AY, AZ \rangle. \quad (3.3)$$

Taking the ( $\iota^*g$ )-trace yet again, we obtain

$$s^{\Sigma} = s^M - 2\text{Ric}(\nu, \nu) + H^2 - \|A\|^2, \quad (3.4)$$

where  $s^M$  and  $s^{\Sigma}$  are the scalar curvatures of  $(M, g)$  and  $(\Sigma, \iota^*g)$ , respectively. Here,  $\|A^2\| = \|A\|^2$  by self-adjointness of  $A$ . Note also that  $\|A\|^2 = \|\Pi\|^2$  vanishes if and only if  $\Sigma$  is totally geodesic in  $(M, g)$ . A convenient rearrangement of (3.4) is

$$\text{Ric}(\nu, \nu) = \frac{1}{2}(s^M - s^{\Sigma} + H^2 - \|A\|^2). \quad (3.5)$$

Now, every  $V \in \Gamma(T\Sigma^{\perp})$  may be written as  $V = \eta\nu$  for some  $\eta \in C^{\infty}(\Sigma)$ , with  $V|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$  if and only if  $\eta|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$ , and  $V$  compactly supported if and only if  $\eta$  is. As  $\nabla^{\perp}\nu = 0$  (since differentiating  $\langle \nu, \nu \rangle = 1$  in the direction of  $X$  leads to  $\langle \nabla_X^{\perp}\nu, \nu \rangle = 0$  and thus  $\nabla_X^{\perp}\nu = 0$ ), we have that  $\|\nabla^{\perp}V\|^2 = \|\nabla^{\perp}(\eta\nu)\|^2 = \|\text{d}\eta \otimes \nu\|^2 = \|\nabla^{\Sigma}\eta\|^2$ . Also note that  $A_V = A_{\eta\nu} = \eta A$ . Putting all of this together, we have that

$$I_{\Sigma}(\eta, \eta) = \int_{\Sigma} \|\nabla^{\Sigma}\eta\|^2 - (\text{Ric}(\nu, \nu) + \|A\|^2)\eta^2 d\mu_{\Sigma}. \quad (3.6)$$

<sup>8</sup>Conveniently expressed in general codimension as  $R^{\Sigma} = R + \Pi \oslash \Pi$ , where  $\oslash$  is the Kulkarni-Nomizu product between  $TM$ -valued twice-covariant symmetric tensor fields: it is defined by  $2(T \oslash S)(X, Y, Z, W) = \langle T(Y, Z), S(X, W) \rangle - \langle T(X, Z), S(Y, W) \rangle + \langle S(Y, Z), T(X, W) \rangle - \langle S(X, Z), T(Y, W) \rangle$ .

<sup>9</sup>Here,  $H$  is the **mean curvature scalar associated with**  $\nu$ . Replacing  $\nu$  with  $-\nu$  causes  $H$  to be replaced with  $-H$  (as the vector  $\mathbf{H}$  must remain invariant).

Integrating by parts and using that  $V|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$ , we also obtain

$$\begin{aligned} I_{\Sigma}(\eta, \eta) &= \int_{\Sigma} -\eta \Delta_{\Sigma} \eta - (\text{Ric}(v, v) + \|A\|^2) \eta^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \\ &= - \int_{\Sigma} \eta L_{\Sigma} \eta \, d\mu_{\Sigma}, \end{aligned} \tag{3.7}$$

where the **stability operator** of  $\Sigma$  acting on functions is given by

$$L_{\Sigma} \eta = \Delta_{\Sigma} \eta + (\text{Ric}(v, v) + \|A\|^2) \eta. \tag{3.8}$$

Observe that  $L_{\Sigma}$  is elliptic (its principal symbol equals the one of  $\Delta_{\Sigma}$ ) and self-adjoint. It is a well-known fact that the first Dirichlet eigenvalue<sup>10</sup>  $\lambda_1(L_{\Sigma})$  is non-negative, and expressed via a Rayleigh quotient:

$$\lambda_1(L_{\Sigma}) = \min_{\eta} \left\{ - \int_{\Sigma} \eta L_{\Sigma} \eta \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \mid \int_{\Sigma} \eta^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} = 1 \right\} \geq 0. \tag{3.9}$$

**Proposition 13.** *If  $(M, g)$  has  $\text{Ric} > 0$ , then  $M$  does not contain any closed stable minimal 2-sided hypersurfaces.*

**Proof:** If  $\Sigma$  were such a hypersurface, one could set  $\eta = 1$  in the stability condition

$$\int_{\Sigma} \|\nabla^{\Sigma} \eta\|^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq \int_{\Sigma} (\text{Ric}(v, v) + \|A\|^2) \eta^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \tag{3.10}$$

to obtain

$$0 \geq \int_{\Sigma} \text{Ric}(v, v) + \|A\|^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq \int_{\Sigma} \text{Ric}(v, v) \, d\mu_{\Sigma} > 0, \tag{3.11}$$

a contradiction. □

A small modification of the above argument gives:

**Proposition 14.** *If  $(M, g)$  has  $\text{Ric} \geq 0$ , then any closed stable minimal 2-sided hypersurface  $\Sigma$  of  $M$  is totally geodesic. In addition,  $\text{Ric}(v, v) = 0$  (for any unit normal field  $v$  along  $\Sigma$ ) and  $s^M|_{\Sigma} = s^{\Sigma}$ . When  $\dim M = 3$ , the surface  $\Sigma$  (when connected) must be homeomorphic to a sphere or isometric to a flat torus.*

**Proof:** Choosing  $\eta = 1$ , we see that the strict inequality in (3.11) now becomes weak and leads to

$$\int_{\Sigma} \text{Ric}(v, v) + \|A\|^2 \, d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0. \tag{3.12}$$

As each term in the above integrand is non-negative, continuity leads to  $\text{Ric}(v, v) = 0$  and also to  $\|A\|^2 = 0$  (and hence  $A = 0$ ). The relation between scalar curvatures now follows from (3.4). When  $\dim M = 3$ , we may apply the Gauss-Bonnet theorem to  $\Sigma$ , using the relation  $s^{\Sigma} = 2K^{\Sigma}$ , with  $K^{\Sigma}$  being the Gaussian curvature of  $\Sigma$ . Namely, as  $s^{\Sigma} \geq 0$ , we have that

$$\chi(\Sigma) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\Sigma} K^{\Sigma} \, d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq 0 \implies \chi(\Sigma) = 0 \text{ or } \chi(\Sigma) = 1, \tag{3.13}$$

<sup>10</sup>By a Dirichlet eigenvalue of an operator  $L$  we mean a real number  $\lambda$  such that there is a non-zero function  $f$  with  $f|_{\partial\Sigma} = 0$  and  $Lf + \lambda f = 0$ .

and the dichotomy follows from the classification of closed surfaces. In the case where  $\Sigma$  is a torus,  $\chi(\Sigma) = 0$  implies that  $\int_{\Sigma} s^{\Sigma} d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0$ , so that  $s^{\Sigma} \geq 0$  implies that  $s^{\Sigma} = 0$  by continuity. □

The assumption that  $\text{Ric} \geq 0$  in the previous result may be somewhat weakened when  $\dim M = 3$ .

**Proposition 15.** *If  $(M, g)$  has  $s^M \geq 0$  and  $\dim M = 3$ , then any stable minimal torus  $\Sigma$  is totally geodesic and flat, with  $\text{Ric}(v, v) = 0$  for any chosen unit normal field  $v$  along  $\Sigma$ .*

**Proof:** In general, substituting (3.5) into (3.10) gives us a rephrased stability condition

$$\int_{\Sigma} \|\nabla^{\Sigma} \eta\|^2 d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Sigma} s^M - s^{\Sigma} - H^2 + \|A\|^2 d\mu_{\Sigma}. \tag{3.14}$$

We know that  $\int_{\Sigma} s^{\Sigma} d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0$  by the Gauss-Bonnet theorem, as  $\Sigma$  is a torus. If  $\Sigma$  is also minimal and stable, then setting  $\eta = 1$  in the above yields

$$0 \geq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Sigma} s^M + \|A\|^2 d\mu_{\Sigma} \geq 0, \tag{3.15}$$

as  $s^M \geq 0$ . Therefore  $s^M = 0$  along  $\Sigma$  and  $\|A\|^2 = 0$ , so  $\Sigma$  is totally geodesic. We may now integrate (3.5) to obtain  $\int_{\Sigma} \text{Ric}(v, v) d\mu_{\Sigma} = 0$ . This means that the constant function  $\text{vol}(\Sigma)^{-1/2}$  is an eigenfunction for  $L_{\Sigma}$  and that  $\lambda_1(L_{\Sigma}) = 0$  is the first eigenvalue, in view of (3.9). More precisely, we know that the minimum of the integrals  $-\int_{\Sigma} \eta L_{\Sigma} \eta d\mu_{\Sigma}$  is nonnegative, but that the value zero was indeed realized by the constant function  $\text{vol}(\Sigma)^{-1/2}$ , so such minimum in fact equals zero. This means that  $\text{Ric}(v, v) = L_{\Sigma}(1) = 0$  (this spectral argument is crucial in passing from “average zero” to “pointwise zero”). In any case, (3.5) now implies that  $s^{\Sigma} = 0$  as well. □

For our next result, we’ll describe (still in the hypersurface case) how the mean curvature of the stages of a variation evolves. First, note that

$$\mathbf{H} = H\nu \implies H = -\text{div}_{\Sigma} \nu, \tag{3.16}$$

by a direct computation:

$$\text{div}_{\Sigma} \nu = g^{ij} \langle \nabla_{\partial_i} \nu, \partial_j \rangle = -g^{ij} \langle \nu, \nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_j \rangle = -g^{ij} \langle \nu, \text{II}(\partial_i, \partial_j) \rangle = -\langle \nu, \mathbf{H} \rangle = -H. \tag{3.17}$$

Thus:

**Proposition 16.** *Let  $\{\Sigma_t\}_{t \in (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon)}$  be a normal variation of  $\Sigma$ , and write the variational vector fields as  $V_t = \eta_t \nu_t$ , where  $\nu_t$  is an unit normal field along  $\Sigma_t$  and  $\eta_t$  is a suitable smooth function. Denoting by  $A_t$  and  $H_t$  the shape operator and mean curvature scalar of  $\Sigma_t$  associated with  $\nu_t$ , respectively, we have*

$$\eta_t \frac{d}{dt} H_t = -\|\nabla^{\Sigma_t} \eta_t\|^2 + (\text{Ric}(v_t, v_t) + \|A_t\|^2) \eta_t^2 \tag{3.18}$$

**Proof:** From (2.10), (2.12), (2.13), we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(V_t) = -\|A_{V_t}\|^2 - \operatorname{Ric}_{\Sigma_t}^\top(V_t, V_t) - \langle \nabla_{V_t} V_t, \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma_t} \rangle + \|\nabla^\perp V_t\|^2. \quad (3.19)$$

Substituting  $V_t = \eta_t v_t$  yields

$$\frac{d}{dt} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(\eta_t v_t) = -\|A_t\|^2 \eta_t^2 - \operatorname{Ric}(v_t, v_t) \eta_t^2 - V_t(\eta_t) H_t + \|\nabla^{\Sigma_t} \eta_t\|^2. \quad (3.20)$$

However, due to Proposition 2 and the product rule, the left side above reads

$$\frac{d}{dt} \operatorname{div}_{\Sigma_t}(\eta_t v_t) = \frac{d}{dt}(-\eta_t H_t) = -V_t(\eta_t) H_t - \eta_t \frac{d}{dt} H_t. \quad (3.21)$$

Hence, (3.18) follows.  $\square$

**Example 17.** For  $a > 0$  and a smooth function  $f: [a, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ , consider in the product  $M = [a, \infty) \times \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$  the Riemannian metric

$$g = \frac{dr^2}{f(r)} + r^2 g^\circ, \quad (3.22)$$

where  $g^\circ$  is the standard round metric in  $\mathbb{S}^{n-1}$ . Observe that if  $\theta_2, \dots, \theta_n$  is an orthonormal coframe for the sphere (i.e.,  $g^\circ = \theta_2 \otimes \theta_2 + \dots + \theta_n \otimes \theta_n$ ), then the volume form of  $\mathbb{S}^{n-1}$  equals  $d\mu_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} = \theta_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \theta_n$ . As  $f(r)^{-1/2} dr, r\theta_2, \dots, r\theta_n$  is an orthonormal coframe for  $(M, g)$ , the same principle yields

$$d\mu_M = \frac{dr}{f(r)^{1/2}} \wedge (r\theta_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (r\theta_n) = \frac{r^{n-1}}{f(r)^{1/2}} dr \wedge d\mu_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}}. \quad (3.23)$$

For a fixed value of  $r \in [a, \infty)$ , we will compute the mean curvature scalar of the slice  $\Sigma = \{r\} \times \mathbb{S}^{n-1}$  associated with the unit normal field  $\nu = f(r)^{1/2} \partial_r$ . To do so, consider the variation  $F: \Sigma \times (-\varepsilon, \varepsilon) \rightarrow M$  given by  $F((r, x), t) = (r + tf(r)^{1/2}, x)$ , so that  $V = \nu$ . To do so, we will use the (valid, as  $\partial\Sigma = \emptyset$ ) formula

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \operatorname{vol}(\Sigma_t) = - \int_{\Sigma} \langle \mathbf{H}_{\Sigma}, V \rangle d\mu_{\Sigma} \quad (3.24)$$

which, due to symmetry reasons, reduces to

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \operatorname{vol}(\Sigma_t) = -H \operatorname{vol}(\Sigma). \quad (3.25)$$

To explicitly compute  $\operatorname{vol}(\Sigma_t)$ , observe that  $d\mu_{\Sigma} = \iota_{f(r)^{1/2} \partial_r} d\mu_M = r^{n-1} d\mu_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}}$  as a consequence of (3.23), so that replacing  $r$  with  $r + tf(r)^{1/2}$  yields

$$d\mu_{\Sigma_t} = (r + tf(r)^{1/2})^{n-1} d\mu_{\mathbb{S}^{n-1}} = \left(1 + \frac{tf(r)^{1/2}}{r}\right)^{n-1} d\mu_{\Sigma}, \quad (3.26)$$

and thus, differentiating the newfound relation

$$\text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \left(1 + \frac{tf(r)^{1/2}}{r}\right)^{n-1} \text{vol}(\Sigma), \quad (3.27)$$

we obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \text{vol}(\Sigma_t) = \frac{(n-1)f(r)^{1/2}}{r} \text{vol}(\Sigma). \quad (3.28)$$

Hence,  $H = -(n-1)f(r)^{1/2}/r$ .

We can proceed further by observing that, for geometric reasons,  $\Sigma$  is totally umbilic in  $M$ . Hence all the eigenvalues of  $A$  are equal to  $H/(n-1) = -f(r)^{1/2}/r$ , meaning that  $\|A\|^2 = (n-1)f(r)/r^2$ . Using that  $s^\Sigma = (n-1)(n-2)/r^2$ , relation (3.4) becomes

$$\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{r^2} = s^M - 2\text{Ric}(v, v) + \frac{(n-1)^2 f(r)}{r^2} - \frac{(n-1)f(r)}{r^2}. \quad (3.29)$$

The strength of the approach here is that we may solve for  $\text{Ric}(v, v)$ , and then  $s^M$ , without resorting to further computations involving Christoffel symbols or moving frames. As  $\eta_0 = 1$ , the formula given in Proposition 16 reduces to

$$\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} H_t = \text{Ric}(v, v) + \frac{(n-1)f(r)}{r^2}. \quad (3.30)$$

However, by replacing  $r$  with  $r + tf(r)^{1/2}$ , we see that

$$H_t = -\frac{(n-1)f(r + tf(r)^{1/2})^{1/2}}{r + tf(r)^{1/2}}, \quad (3.31)$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} H_t &= \frac{-(n-1)\frac{1}{2}f(r)^{-1/2}f'(r)f(r)^{1/2}r + (n-1)f(r)^{1/2}f(r)^{1/2}}{r^2} \\ &= \frac{-(n-1)\frac{f'(r)}{2}r + (n-1)f(r)}{r^2} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)}{r^2} \left( -\frac{rf'(r)}{2} + f(r) \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.32)$$

Then (3.30) gives us that

$$\text{Ric}(v, v) = -\frac{(n-1)rf'(r)}{2r^2}, \quad (3.33)$$

so (3.29) now reads, after factoring out  $(n-1)/r^2$ ,

$$\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{r^2} = s^M + \frac{(n-1)}{r^2} (rf'(r) + (n-1)f(r) - f(r)). \quad (3.34)$$

We conclude that

$$s^M = \frac{(n-1)}{r^2} ((n-2)(1-f(r)) - rf'(r)). \quad (3.35)$$

## 4 The geodesic case

Let  $(M, g)$  be a Riemannian manifold, and  $\Sigma \hookrightarrow M$  be an embedded **curve**, that is,  $\dim \Sigma = 1$ . We assume that  $\Sigma$  is parametrized by a unit speed regular curve  $\gamma: I \rightarrow \Sigma$ . It follows from differentiating  $\langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 1$  that  $\langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 0$ , and thus  $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} = \text{II}(\dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma})$ . Thus, the mean curvature vector is given by  $H_\Sigma = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}$ . Hence,  $\Sigma$  is minimal if and only if  $\gamma$  is a geodesic.

Now, let  $V$  be a vector field normal to a unit speed geodesic  $\gamma: I \rightarrow \Sigma$ , that is, with  $\langle V, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 0$ . Differentiating and using that  $\dot{\gamma}$  is a geodesic, we see that  $\langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} V, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 0$ , so that  $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} V = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}^\perp V$  and  $A_V = 0$ . As  $\text{Ric}_\Sigma^\top(V, V) = R(\dot{\gamma}, V, V, \dot{\gamma})$ , the stability condition (2.34) reads

$$\int_I \|\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} V\|^2 - R(\dot{\gamma}, V, V, \dot{\gamma}) \, ds \geq 0 \tag{4.1}$$

or, equivalently,

$$- \int_I \langle V, \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} V - R(\dot{\gamma}, V) \dot{\gamma} \rangle \, ds \geq 0. \tag{4.2}$$

The stability operator  $L_\Sigma$  is given by  $L_\Sigma V = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} V - R(\dot{\gamma}, V) \dot{\gamma}$  and its kernel consists of classical Jacobi fields (as predicted).