

3 The First Variation

Let $X : M \hookrightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ be a regular surface and $(U, (x, y))$ be a coordinate neighbourhood. Let $X_1 = X_x$, $X_2 = X_y$, $g_{ij} = X_i \bullet X_j$, and $g = \det(g_{ij})$. Then

$$dA := \sqrt{g} \, dx \wedge dy$$

is a well defined two form on M and $dA \neq 0$ everywhere.

Let $f : M \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ be a continuous function of compact support, or suppose f does not change sign on M , then the integral of f on M is defined by

$$\int_M f := \int_M f \, dA.$$

When M is precompact and $f \equiv 1$, $\int_M dA$ is the area of the surface $X : M \hookrightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$.

The adjective “minimal” of minimal surfaces comes from the fact that at any point of the surface there exists a neighbourhood such that the surface in that neighbourhood has the least area among all surfaces with the same boundary.

To be precise, let $\Omega \subset M$ be a precompact domain and $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ be a surface. Let $X(t) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$, $-1 < t < 1$ and $X(0) = X$, such that $X(t)|_{\partial\Omega} = X|_{\partial\Omega}$, and $X(t, p) = X(t)(p)$ is C^2 on $\Omega \times (-1, 1)$. Such a family of surfaces is called a *variation of X* .

Consider the *area functional*

$$A(t) = \int_{\Omega} dA_t,$$

where dA_t is the area form induced by $X(t)$. The definition of minimal surface from the point view of the calculus of variations is that for any variation family $X(t)$,

$$\left. \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = 0. \tag{3.2}$$

We will prove that this is another equivalent definition of minimal surface.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that X is conformal. Let $p \in \Omega$ and $U \subset \Omega$ be an isothermal coordinate neighbourhood of p for X . On U , dA_t is expressed as

$$dA_t = \sqrt{\det[g_{ij}(t)]} \, dx \wedge dy,$$

where $z = x + iy$ is the isothermal coordinate and $g_{ij}(t) = X_i(t) \bullet X_j(t)$ (note that z may not be an isothermal coordinate for $X(t)$). Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \int_U dA_t &= \int_U \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} dA_t = \int_U \left. \frac{d\sqrt{\det[g_{ij}(t)]}}{dt} \right|_{t=0} dx \wedge dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_U \left. \frac{d \det[g_{ij}(t)]}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \{\det[g_{ij}(0)]\}^{-1/2} dx \wedge dy. \end{aligned}$$

We need the formula

$$\frac{d \det(g_{ij}(t))}{dt} = \det(g_{ij}(t)) \mathbf{Trace} \left(\left(\frac{dg_{ij}(t)}{dt} \right) (g^{ij}(t)) \right), \quad (3.3)$$

where $(g^{ij}(t)) = (g_{ij}(t))^{-1}$. To see this, let (e_1, \dots, e_n) be the standard orthonormal basis of \mathbf{R}^n . For any $n \times n$ matrix $A(t)$, we can write

$$A(t) = (A_1(t), \dots, A_n(t)) = (A(t)e_1, \dots, A(t)e_n),$$

where $A_i(t)$ is the i -th column of $A(t)$. If $\det A(t) \neq 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d \det A(t)}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \det(A(t)e_1, \dots, A(t)e_n) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \det \left(A(t)e_1, \dots, \frac{dA(t)}{dt} e_i, \dots, A(t)e_n \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \det A^{-1}(t) \det \left(A(t)e_1, \dots, \frac{dA(t)}{dt} e_i, \dots, A(t)e_n \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \det \left[A^{-1}(t) \left(A(t)e_1, \dots, \frac{dA(t)}{dt} e_i, \dots, A(t)e_n \right) \right] \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \det \left(e_1, \dots, A^{-1}(t) \frac{dA(t)}{dt} e_i, \dots, e_n \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \det \left(e_1, \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n \left(A^{-1}(t) \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right)_{ji} e_j, \dots, e_n \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \det \left(e_1, \dots, \left(A^{-1}(t) \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right)_{ii} e_i, \dots, e_n \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \sum_{i=1}^n \left(A^{-1}(t) \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right)_{ii} = \det A(t) \mathbf{Trace} \left(A^{-1}(t) \frac{dA(t)}{dt} \right) \\ &= \det A(t) \mathbf{Trace} \left(\frac{dA(t)}{dt} A^{-1}(t) \right). \end{aligned}$$

This establishes (3.3).

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \int_U dA_t &= \frac{1}{2} \int_U \frac{d \det(g_{ij}(t))}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} [\det(g_{ij}(0))]^{-1/2} dx \wedge dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_U \mathbf{Trace} \left[\left(\frac{dg_{ij}(t)}{dt} \right) (g^{ij}(t)) \right] \Big|_{t=0} \sqrt{\det(g_{ij}(0))} dx \wedge dy. \end{aligned}$$

Since X is conformal, we have $g^{ij}(0) = \Lambda^{-2} \delta_{ij}$. Thus

$$\mathbf{Trace} \left(\left(\frac{dg_{ij}(t)}{dt} \right) (g^{ij}(t)) \right) \Big|_{t=0} = \sum_{ij} \frac{dg_{ij}(t)}{dt} g^{ij}(t) \Big|_{t=0} = \Lambda^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{dg_{ii}(t)}{dt} \Big|_{t=0}.$$

Define the *variation field* E as

$$E(p) := \frac{dX(t)(p)}{dt} \Big|_{t=0}, \quad p \in \Omega.$$

Then

$$\frac{d g_{ii}(t)}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} = \frac{d(X_i \bullet X_i)}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} = 2E_i \bullet X_i.$$

Since (X_1, X_2, N) is a basis of \mathbf{R}^3 , where N is the unit normal, we can write $E = \alpha X_1 + \beta X_2 + \gamma N$, where α, β , and γ are C^1 functions defined in Ω . Using $N \bullet X_i = 0$, $\gamma = E \bullet N$, and

$$\gamma \Lambda^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^2 X_{ii} \bullet N = (E \bullet N)(\Delta_X X \bullet N) = 2(E \bullet N)(HN \bullet N) = 2H(E \bullet N),$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Trace} \left(\left(\frac{d g_{ij}(t)}{dt} \right) (g^{ij}(t)) \right) \Big|_{t=0} &= 2\Lambda^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^2 E_i \bullet X_i \\ &= 2(\alpha_1 + \beta_2) + 2\Lambda^{-2}(\alpha\Lambda_1^2 + \beta\Lambda_2^2) - 2\gamma\Lambda^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^2 X_{ii} \bullet N \\ &= 2(\alpha_1 + \beta_2) + 2\Lambda^{-2}(\alpha\Lambda_1^2 + \beta\Lambda_2^2) - 4H(E \bullet N). \end{aligned}$$

Again since X is conformal, $\sqrt{\det(g_{ij}(0))} = |X_1|^2 = |X_2|^2 = \Lambda^2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t=0} \int_U dA_t &= \frac{1}{2} \int_U \mathbf{Trace} \left(\left(\frac{d g_{ij}(t)}{dt} \right) (g^{ij}(t)) \right) \Big|_{t=0} \Lambda^2 dx \wedge dy \\ &= \int_U \mathbf{Div}(\Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta)) dx \wedge dy - 2 \int_U H(E \bullet N) dA_0 = \int_{\partial U} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n ds - 2 \int_U H(E \bullet N) dA_0, \end{aligned}$$

where n and ds are the outward unit normal vector field and the line element of ∂U in the Euclidean metric respectively. Dividing Ω into a finite number of disjoint isothermal coordinate neighbourhoods U_i ,

$$\sum_i \int_{\partial U_i \cap \Omega} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n_i ds_i = 0$$

since each arc in $\partial U_i \cap \Omega$ appears twice in the summation and with opposite unit normal. Moreover, because $\alpha = \beta = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, we have

$$\sum_i \int_{\partial U_i} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n_i ds_i = \sum_i \int_{\partial U_i \cap \Omega} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n_i ds_i + \int_{\partial\Omega} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n ds = 0,$$

where in the last integral n and ds are the outward unit normal vector field and the line element of $\partial\Omega$ in the Euclidean metric. Thus we finally have the *first variational formula* for the surface area functional:

$$\left. \frac{dA}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = -2 \int_{\Omega} H(E \bullet N) dA_0. \quad (3.4)$$

If X is minimal, then $H = 0$, so $\left. \frac{dA}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = 0$. On the other hand, if X is a stationary point for the area functional $A(t)$ (for example, if X has minimal area among all surfaces with the same boundary), then $\left. \frac{dA}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = 0$ for any variation of X . Since E can be any vector field, $\left. \frac{dA}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = 0$ forces that $H \equiv 0$, that is, X is a minimal surface.

Finally we will give an area formula for surfaces in \mathbf{R}^3 . Suppose $X : \Omega \hookrightarrow \mathbf{R}^3$ is an immersion; without loss of generality, we may assume that X is conformal. Let \vec{n} be the unit *conormal* on $X(\partial\Omega)$, i.e., \vec{n} is tangent to $X(\Omega)$ and is perpendicular to $X(\partial\Omega)$. Let ds be the line element of $X(\partial\Omega)$, (e_1, e_2) be the standard orthonormal basis on U_i in the Euclidean metric. Let $n_i = ae_1 + be_2$. The integral

$$\int_{\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega} \Lambda^2(\alpha, \beta) \bullet n_i ds_i$$

can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega} \Lambda^2(\alpha e_1 + \beta e_2) \bullet (ae_1 + be_2) ds_i \\ &= \int_{\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega} \Lambda^2(a\alpha + b\beta) ds_i = \int_{\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega} \Lambda^{-1}[E \bullet dX(n_i)] X^*(ds) \\ &= \int_{X(\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega)} \Lambda^{-1}[E \bullet dX(n_i)] ds = \int_{X(\partial U_i \cap \partial\Omega)} (E \bullet \vec{n}) ds, \end{aligned}$$

since $E = \alpha X_1 + \beta X_2 + \gamma N$, $dX(n_i) = aX_1 + bX_2$, $X^*(ds) = \Lambda ds_i$, and $\vec{n} = \Lambda^{-1}dX(n_i)$. Thus if we do not assume that α and β vanish on $\partial\Omega$, we have the first variation formula

$$\left. \frac{dA}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = -2 \int H(E \bullet N) dA_0 + \int_{X(\partial\Omega)} (E \bullet \vec{n}) ds. \quad (3.5)$$

Now let $a \in \mathbf{R}^3$ be any fixed vector; then $X(t)(p) = t(X(p) - a)$ is a variation of X , not fixed on boundary. Clearly $E(t)(p) = X(p) - a$ is the variation vector field independent of t . An easy calculation shows that

$$g_{ij}(t) = t^2 g_{ij}, \quad g^{ij}(t) = t^{-2} g^{ij}, \quad h_{ij}(t) = t h_{ij}.$$

Hence

$$dA_t = t^2 dA_1 = t^2 dA, \quad H(t) = t^{-1} H,$$

where $H = H(1)$, etc. Note that

$$A := \mathbf{Area} \text{ of } X(\Omega) = \int_{\Omega} dA,$$

and

$$A(t) := \mathbf{Area} \text{ of } X(t)(\Omega) = \int_{\Omega} dA_t = t^2 A.$$

Since $E(t) = X - a$, by (3.5)

$$2A = -2 \int H[(X - a) \bullet N] dA + \int_{X(\partial\Omega)} [(X - a) \bullet \vec{n}] ds. \quad (3.6)$$

This formula is useful when we derive the isoperimetric inequalities for minimal surfaces.