

# Riemannian Examples

Misha Gromov

September 14, 2026

## Contents

|                                                                                                   |    |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| 1 (Quasi)divergences, Metrics $\lambda$ -Lipschitz Maps Length Preserving Maps, Riemannian Spaces | 1  |
| 2 Riemannian Isometric                                                                            | 10 |

## 1 (Quasi)divergences, Metrics $\lambda$ -Lipschitz Maps Length Preserving Maps, Riemannian Spaces

A real valued function  $D = D(x_1, x_2) \geq 0$  in two variables

$$D : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

also written as  $D(x_1 || x_2)$  is called *quasidivergence* if it is positive,

$$D(x_1 || x_2) \geq 0$$

and it vanishes on the diagonal  $\{x_1 = x_2\} \in X \times X$ ,

$$x_1 = x_2 \implies D(x_1 || x_2) = 0$$

If  $D$  vanishes *if and only if* the points are equal,

$$D(x_1 || x_2) = 0 \iff x_1 = x_2$$

then  $D$  is called *divergence*.

*Remark: Amari Regularity.* In the original definition by Amari  $X$  is a smooth manifold and  $D$  must be twice or thrice continuously differentiable on the diagonal. <https://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/978-4-431-55978-8>

**Example: Kullback–Leibler Divergence.** Let  $P = \{p_i\}, Q = \{q_i\}$  be strictly positive probability measures on a countable set  $I$ ,

$$p_i, q_i > 0, i \in I, \sum_{i \in I} p_i = 1 \text{ and } \sum_{i \in I} q_i = 1.$$

Then

$$D_{QL}(P||Q) =_{def} \sum_{i \in I} p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} = - \sum_{i \in I} p_i \log \frac{q_i}{p_i}$$

Since  $\log x$  is a concave ( $\curvearrowright$ ) function,

$$\sum_{i \in I} p_i \log \frac{q_i}{p_i} \leq \log \sum_{i \in I} p_i \frac{q_i}{p_i} \leq \log \sum_{i \in I} q_i = \log 1 = 0 \implies D_{QL} \geq 0,$$

where the implication

$$D_{KL}(x_1||x_2) = 0 \implies p_i = q_i, i \in I$$

follows from strict concavity of  $\log$ .

Thus the Kullback–Leibler  $D_{KL}$  is indeed a divergence. .

**Subexample: Shannon Entropy.** The traditional definition of Shannon entropy of a probability measure on countable set reads

$$ent(P = \{p_i\}) =_{def} - \sum_{i \in I} p_i \log_2 p_i.$$

If  $I$  is a finite set of cardinality  $N$ , then "ent" is equal to  $\log N$  minus the KL-divergence of  $P$  from *equidistributed*  $Q_{uni \frac{1}{N}} = \{\frac{1}{N}, \frac{1}{N}, \frac{1}{N}, \dots, \frac{1}{N}\}$ ,

$$ent(P) = \log N - D_{KL}(P||Q_{uni \frac{1}{N}})$$

The basic property of the Shannon entropy is *multiplicative additivity*:

$$ent(P \times Q) = \{p_i \cdot q_j\} = ent(P = \{p_i\}) + ent(Q = \{q_j\}).$$

In fact, the probability conditions  $\sum_i p_i = 1$  and  $\sum_j q_j = 1$  imply that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(i,j) \in I \times J} p_i q_j \log p_i q_j &= \left( \sum_j q_j \right) \sum_i p_i \log p_i + \left( \sum_i p_i \right) \sum_j q_j \log q_j = \\ &= \sum_i p_i \log p_i + \sum_j q_j \log q_j \end{aligned}$$

(This additivity property agrees with a physicist's definition of the entropy as  $\log$  of the number of micro states, and suggests a more conceptual mathematical definition, see <https://www.ihes.fr/gromov/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/structre-serch-entropy-july5-2012.pdf>)

The KL=divergence is also *multiplicatively additive*:

$$P = P_1 \otimes P_2, \quad Q = Q_1 \otimes Q_2.$$

Then

$$D_{KL}(P_1 \otimes P_2 || Q_1 \otimes Q_2) = D_{KL}(P_1 || Q_1) + D_{KL}(P_2 || Q_2).$$

Indeed, set

$$P_1 = (p_i), \quad Q_1 = (q_i), \quad P_2 = (r_j), \quad Q_2 = (s_j),$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{\text{KL}}(P_1 \otimes P_2 \parallel Q_1 \otimes Q_2) &= \sum_{i,j} p_i r_j \log \frac{p_i r_j}{q_i s_j} \\
&= \sum_{i,j} p_i r_j \left( \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} + \log \frac{r_j}{s_j} \right) \\
&= \sum_i p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} + \sum_j r_j \log \frac{r_j}{s_j} \\
&= D_{\text{KL}}(P_1 \parallel Q_1) + D_{\text{KL}}(P_2 \parallel Q_2).
\end{aligned}$$

**Lipschitz Maps and Lipschitz Constants.** A map between divergence or quasi-divergence spaces

$$f : (X, D_X) \rightarrow (Y, D_Y)$$

is  $\lambda$ -*Lipschitz*,<sup>1</sup>  $\lambda \geq 0$ , if

$$D_Y(f(x_1) \parallel f(x_2)) \leq \lambda \cdot D_X(x_1 \parallel x_2) \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in X.$$

The minimal such  $\lambda \geq 0$  is called Lipschitz constant and denoted  $Lip(f)$ . Clearly

$$Lip(f_1 \circ f_2) \leq Lip(f_1) \cdot Lip(f_2)$$

A map  $f$  is  $\lambda$ -*bi-Lipschitz* if

$$\lambda^{-1} D_X(x_1 \parallel x_2) \leq \lambda \cdot D_Y(f(x_1) \parallel f(x_2)) \leq D_X(x_1 \parallel x_2) \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in X.$$

If a  $\lambda$ -bi-Lipschitz map  $f$  is bijective (one-to-one and onto) then the inverse map is also  $\lambda$ -bi-Lipschitz.

**Metric Spaces.** Divergence  $D$  is upgraded to (square of ) *metric* if

( $\triangle$ ) it (or  $\sqrt{D}$ ) satisfies the *triangle inequality*  $D(x_1, x_2) + D(x_2, x_3) \geq D(x_1, x_3)$

and

( $\cdot \leftrightarrow \cdot$ ) it is *symmetric*  $D(x_1, x_2) = D(x_2, x_1)$ .

*On Amari Regularity and non-Regularity.* The triangle inequality is incompatible with Amari regularity (Prove it). For instance the metric  $|x_1 - x_2|$  is not twice differential at  $x_1, = x_2$ . Yet the square of it is.

**$\triangle$ -Remark** The  $\triangle$ -inequality is hard to verify for a given divergence function  $D$ ; in most examples of such a  $D$  this inequality is enforced by the very definition of  $D$

**Edge-Metric Example.** Let  $X$  be the vertex set of a connected graph and  $d = d(e) > 0$  be a strictly positive positive function on the edges of  $X$  called *edge length*

The corresponding edge metric  $D(x_1, x_2)$  is the infimum of the length of edge paths between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . Equivalently it is the supremum of the functions,

which are equal to  $d$  on pairs of vertices joint by an edge of length  $d$  and

which satisfy the triangle inequality.

**Euclidean/Pythagorean Example** The triangle inequality

$$\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - y_i)^2} + \sqrt{\sum_i (y_i - z_i)^2} \geq \sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - z_i)^2}$$

---

<sup>1</sup>I might be more logical to call it  $\sqrt{\lambda}$ -Lipschitz, since, at least locally,  $D$  behaves as  $dist^2$ .

however simple is by no means trivial.

**Isometric and Contracting Maps.** A map between metric spaces

$$f : (X, dist_X) \rightarrow (Y, dist_Y)$$

is *isometric* if the distance is preserved,

$$dist_Y(f(x_1), f(x_2)) = dist_X(x_1, x_2) \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in X,$$

In the Lipschitz terms this is the same as  $(\lambda = 1)$ -bi-Lipschitz.

Such maps are rare. Yet, these are abundant in the Euclidean world according to the following:

**Main Euclidean theorem<sup>2</sup>:** Partially defined isometric maps

$$\mathbb{R}^m \supset X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

extends to isometric maps to all space

$$\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Distance decreasing, or 1-Lipschitz maps are called contracting.

Remarkably, these satisfy the extension property as well.

**Kirszbraun Theorem.** A partially defined contracting map

$$\mathbb{R}^m \supset X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

always extends to a contracting map from all of the space

$$\mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n.$$

*Corollary/Example/Lemma.* Let  $\{x_i\} \subset S^{n-1} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $i \in I$ , be a subset in the unit sphere  $S^{n-1} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}_{\|x\|=1}$  and let  $x \mapsto x' \in S^{n-1}$  be a contracting map  $\{x_i\} \rightarrow \{x'_i\} \subset S^{n-1}$ . If the convex hull of  $\{x'_i\}$  contains the origin  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^n \supset S^{n-1}$ , then the map  $\{x'_i\} \rightarrow \{x'_i\}$  is an isometry.

**Ask gpt:** What are metric spaces  $X$ , where all partial contracting maps  $X \supset Y \rightarrow X$  extend to such maps  $X \rightarrow X$ ?

When is this extension property equivalent to that for isometric maps?

Beside the Euclidean, both properties are enjoyed by *hyperbolic spaces of constant negative curvature* and with minor restrictions by spherical spaces. (We prove that along with the Kirszbraun Theorem in lecture ??).

**When is a Metric Space Riemannian?** Let  $(X, dist)$  be a metric space. The  $r$ -ball at  $x_0 \in X$  is

$$B_{x_0}(r) = \{x \in X\}_{dist(x, x_0) \leq r}.$$

---

<sup>2</sup>For  $m, n = 3$ , this must have been known for more than 23 centuries but I don't know where it was first formulated in the the present terms

The metric  $dist$  called infinitesimally  $n$ -Euclidean at  $x_0$  if all sufficiently small balls  $B_{x_0}(r), r > 0$ , admit  $\lambda$ -bi-Lipschitz maps onto Euclidean domains (e.g. Euclidean  $r$ -ball)

$$f_r : B_{x_0}(r) \rightarrow U_r \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

where

$$\lambda \rightarrow 1 \text{ for } r \rightarrow 0.$$

In other words small balls are approximately isometric to the Euclidean ones.

A good way to visualise the definition is to multiply  $dist$  by a large constant  $A$  (e.g.  $A = 1/r$ ) and express the above by saying that the (scaled) pointed metric spaces  $(A \times X, x_0) = (X, x_0, A \cdot dist)$  *Lipschitz converge* to  $(\mathbb{R}^n, y_0 = 0, dist_{Eucl})$

*Exercises.* Work out a definition of Lipschitz convergence.

2. Define a distance between metric spaces using  $\log \lambda$ .

3. Suggests other vague ideas of mathematical concepts and ask chat gpt to make these precise.

Now define Riemannian in the following way:

(a) A metric is of "Riemannian origin" if it is infinitesimally Euclidean at all points.

(b) A metric function  $dist(x_1, x_2)$  is of "Riemannian origin" if its square  $dist(x_1, x_2)^2$  is twice differential on the diagonal  $\{x_1 = x_2\}$

**From Divergence (e.g a metric) to Riemannian Tensor (Quadratic form)  $g$**

The definition of a *Riemannian metric tensor* is usually preceded by the definition of an abstract smooth manifold  $X$  which corresponds in physics to an empty space. This makes it awkward.

Alternatively, (quasi)following Riemann start with  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  – an open subset and

$$g = \{g_{ij}\} = \{g_{ij}(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}$$

is a function with values in square symmetric matrices representing positive definite quadratic  $n$ -forms written as

$$g = \sum_{i,j} g_{ij} dx_i dx_j.$$

Here the coordinates  $x_i$  are regarded as functions on  $X$  and their differentials  $dx_i$  are linear forms.

The key word is still missing: these are *differential* forms both quadratic and linear ones : they are not functions on some linear space but the form  $g_{ij}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is a bilinear function on the tangent space  $T_{x_1, \dots, x_n}(X)$ .

In the coordinate terms this "differential" corresponds to the transformation rule under changes of coordinates.

$$g = g_{ij}(x(y)) \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_\alpha} \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial y_\beta} dy_\alpha dy_\beta.$$

In the modern language,  $g$  is defined invariantly to start with as a family  $g(x)$   $x \in X$  of quadratic forms on the *tangent* spaces  $T_x(X)$ , where "tangent" makes the forms "differential".

Intuitively, however, if  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$  or if it is an open subset in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  it is hard not to confuse the tangent spaces from  $\mathbb{R}^n \supset X$  itself since these are "almost naturally" isomorphic. This is much better seen if  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is a smooth hypersurface.

**From Riemannian metric tensor  $g(x)$  to the distance function  $dist(x_1, x_2)$**

(A) Riemannian  $g$  assigns *length* to all smooth curves in  $X$  as follows.

$$g = \sum_{i,j} g_{ij}(x) dx^i dx^j,$$

$$x(t) = (x^1(t), \dots, x^n(t)), \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

The length of  $x(t)$  is  $\int_a^b \left( \sum_{i,j} g_{ij}(x(t)) \frac{dx^i}{dt} \frac{dx^j}{dt} \right)^{1/2} dt$ .

Then  $dist(x_1, x_2)$  is defined as the infimum of lengths of the curves from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$

**Hessian Geometries** Let  $f(x) \geq 0$  be a *positive*  $C^2$ -smooth (twice continuously differential) function on a smooth manifold  $X$ , which vanishes at the point  $x_0 \in$ .

Then the second differential of  $f$  at  $x_0$  defines a positive semi-definite quadratic form at  $x_0$ , that is on the tangent space  $T_{x_0}(X)$ : the second derivative of  $f$  restricted to a smooth curve  $[0, 1] \ni t \mapsto x \in X$  issuing from  $x_0$  with speed  $\tau \in T_{x_0}$  depends on  $\tau$  but not on a particular curve,

$$(d^2 f(x = x_0))(\tau, \tau) = \frac{d^2 f(x(t=0))}{dt^2}.$$

*Corollary/Example.* If  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $x_0 = 0$ , then  $|f(x) - f(-x)| = o(\|x\|^2)$  for  $\|x\| \rightarrow 0$ .

Next let  $D(x_1||x_2)$  be a  $C^2$ -smooth quasi-divergence. Then the second differential is defined as a quadratic form, on the tangent bundle  $T(X \times X)$  restricted to the diagonal  $X_\Delta \subset X \times X$ , call it  $g = g_D$ .

Since  $D$  vanishes on  $X_\Delta$  the forms factors through

$$T(X_\Delta) \subset T(X \times X)|_{X_\Delta}$$

and defines a form on the quotient bundle

$$T_\Delta = (T(X \times X)|_{X_\Delta})/T(X_\Delta).$$

Since the bundle  $T_\Delta \rightarrow X_\Delta$  is equal (canonically isomorphic/equivalent) to  $T(X) \rightarrow X$  the form  $g = g_\Delta$  becomes a quadratic form on  $X$ .

Since  $D \geq 0$  this  $g$  is positive semidefinite. If  $X$  is a domain in a Euclidean space and the function  $D(x_1||x_2)$  is strictly (locally) convex with respect to  $x_1$  near the diagonal

**KL-Example**

For two distributions  $p, q$ ,

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \sum_i p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i}.$$

If  $q = p + dp$ , then

$$D_{KL}(p||p + dp) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{(dp_i)^2}{p_i} + O(|dp|^3).$$

and

$$g_{KL} = \sum_i \frac{(dp_i)^2}{p_i} = \frac{\sum_i \partial^2(p_i \log p_i)}{\partial^2 p_i}.$$

Thus  $g_{KL}$  equal to the *Fisher Metric*, that is the Hessian of the minus  $(\log_e)$  entropy

$$\Phi = \Phi(p_i) = \sum_i \partial^2(p_i \log p_i).$$

(This Hessian explicitly depends on the affine structure in the simplex, while in the definition of  $g_{KL}$  one uses only the smooth structure.)

The self map of the positive cone  $\mathbb{R}_+^n = \{x_i > 0\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  for  $x_i \mapsto p_i = x_i^2$

$$\left( \{x_i > 0\}, 4 \sum_i dx_i^2 \right) \rightarrow \left( \{p_i > 0\}, \sum_i \frac{(dp_i)^2}{p_i} \right)$$

is an isometry, since  $dp = 2x_i dx_i$ , and

$$\frac{(dp_i)^2}{p_i} = \frac{4x_i^2(dx_i)^2}{x_i^2} = 4(dx_i)^2.$$

$dp = 2x_i dx_i$ ,

**Riemanni Families** Let  $g_t$ ,  $t \in [a, b]\mathbb{R}$  also written as  $dX_t^2$  be a family of Riemannin metrics on  $X$ . Then  $g^\times = dt^2 + gX_t^2$  is a Riemannin metric on  $X \times [a, b]$

**Warped Product Example.** Given a metric  $g = dX^2$  on  $X$  and a positive function  $c(t) > 0$  one gets a metric  $dt^2 + c^2(t)dX^2$  on  $X \times [a, b]$

## Euclidean, Spherical, Hyperbolic

Let  $\mathbf{S}_{n-1}$  be the unit sphere with its spherical Riemannin metric  $d\mathbf{S}_{n-1}^2$ .

Then the Euclidean metric on  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \mathbf{0} = (\mathbb{R}_+ \setminus 0) \times \mathbf{S}_{n-1}$  is  $dr^2 + r^2 d\mathbf{S}_{n-1}^2$ .

| Space                     | Metric                                 | Radial factor $c(r)$ |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------|
| Euclidean $\mathbb{R}^n$  | $dr^2 + r^2 d\mathbf{S}_{n-1}^2$       | $r$                  |
| Sphere $S^n$ (radius 1)   | $dr^2 + \sin^2 r d\mathbf{S}_{n-1}^2$  | $\sin r$             |
| Hyperbolic $\mathbb{H}^n$ | $dr^2 + \sinh^2 r d\mathbf{S}_{n-1}^2$ | $\sinh r$            |

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

*Exercise.* Let  $X = \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$  with the Euclidean  $dX^2 = \sum_{i=1, \dots, n-1} dx_i^2$   
Show that the metric  $dt^2 + e^{2t}dX^2$  is the hyperbolic one.

**SOLUTION BY CHAT GPT**

Let

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad |x|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2.$$

Consider the hyperboloid

$$-X_0^2 + X_1^2 + \cdots + X_{n+1}^2 = -1, \quad X_0 > 0,$$

with the metric induced from

$$-dX_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} dX_i^2.$$

Define

$$X_i = e^t x_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

and

$$X_0 = \frac{1}{2} (e^t (1 + |x|^2) + e^{-t}),$$

$$X_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} (e^t (1 - |x|^2) - e^{-t}).$$

Then

$$X_0 + X_{n+1} = e^t,$$

and

$$X_0 - X_{n+1} = e^{-t} + e^t |x|^2.$$

Hence

$$-X_0^2 + X_{n+1}^2 = -(X_0 + X_{n+1})(X_0 - X_{n+1}) = -1 - e^{2t} |x|^2.$$

Since

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 = e^{2t} |x|^2,$$

we obtain

$$-X_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} X_i^2 = -1.$$

Now put

$$A = X_0 + X_{n+1} = e^t, \quad B = X_0 - X_{n+1} = e^{-t} + e^t |x|^2.$$

Since

$$X_0 = \frac{A+B}{2}, \quad X_{n+1} = \frac{A-B}{2},$$

we have

$$-dX_0^2 + dX_{n+1}^2 = -dA dB.$$

Furthermore,

$$dA = e^t dt,$$

and

$$dB = (-e^{-t} + e^t |x|^2) dt + 2e^t \sum_{i=1}^n x_i dx_i.$$

Therefore

$$-dA dB = (1 - e^{2t} |x|^2) dt^2 - 2e^{2t} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i dx_i dt.$$

Also,

$$dX_i = e^t(dx_i + x_i dt),$$

so

$$\sum_{i=1}^n dX_i^2 = e^{2t} \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i^2 + 2e^{2t} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i dx_i dt + e^{2t}|x|^2 dt^2.$$

Adding,

$$-dX_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} dX_i^2 = dt^2 + e^{2t} \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i^2.$$

On the same hyperboloid, introduce geodesic polar coordinates

$$X_0 = \cosh r,$$

and

$$(X_1, \dots, X_{n+1}) = \sinh r \omega, \quad \omega \in S^n.$$

Then

$$dX_0 = \sinh r dr,$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} dX_i^2 = \cosh^2 r dr^2 + \sinh^2 r dS^2.$$

Therefore

$$-dX_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} dX_i^2 = -\sinh^2 r dr^2 + \cosh^2 r dr^2 + \sinh^2 r dS^2,$$

and hence

$$-dX_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} dX_i^2 = dr^2 + \sinh^2 r dS^2.$$

Thus

$$\boxed{dt^2 + e^{2t} \sum_{i=1}^n dx_i^2 = dr^2 + \sinh^2 r dS^2.}$$

The coordinate transformation is given by

$$\cosh r = \frac{1}{2} (e^t(1 + |x|^2) + e^{-t}),$$

$$\sinh r \omega_i = e^t x_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

and

$$\sinh r \omega_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} (e^t(1 - |x|^2) - e^{-t}).$$

## 2 Riemannian Isometric

Let

$$f = (f^1, \dots, f^n) : \mathbb{R}^m \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \quad m \leq n.$$

We equip both spaces with their standard Euclidean metrics.

The map  $f$  is an isometric immersion if, for every  $X, Y \in T_x \mathbb{R}^m$ ,

$$\langle df_x(X), df_x(Y) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \langle X, Y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m}.$$

Using the standard coordinates

$$x = (x^1, \dots, x^m),$$

this condition is equivalent to

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \right\rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \delta_{ij}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq m.$$

Since

$$f = (f^1, \dots, f^n),$$

we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} = \left( \frac{\partial f^1}{\partial x^i}, \dots, \frac{\partial f^n}{\partial x^i} \right).$$

Therefore the isometric immersion equations are

$$\boxed{\sum_{\alpha=1}^n \frac{\partial f^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial f^\alpha}{\partial x^j} = \delta_{ij}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq m.}$$

Equivalently,

$$\boxed{\sum_{\alpha=1}^n \partial_i f^\alpha \partial_j f^\alpha = \delta_{ij}.}$$

If  $Df$  denotes the  $n \times m$  Jacobian matrix

$$Df = \left( \frac{\partial f^\alpha}{\partial x^i} \right),$$

then the same equations can be written as

$$\boxed{(Df)^T Df = I_m.}$$

Thus the  $m$  vectors

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^m}$$

form an orthonormal system in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

In particular,

$$\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \right|^2 = 1$$

for every  $i$ , and

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^j} \right\rangle = 0, \quad i \neq j.$$

*Question to chat gpt* What is the minimal  $N$  such that all *flat Riemannian* manifolds  $X$ , i.e locally isometric to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  admit Riemannian isometric immersions to  $\mathbb{R}^N$ ?

More specifically are there such  $X$  homeomorphic to  $n$ -tori which admit no Riemannian isometric immersions to  $\mathbb{R}^{2n}$ ?