# MTH 203: Differential Geometry of Curves and Surfaces Semester 2, 2018-19 

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## 1 Curves

This section is based on Chapters 1-3 from [2].

### 1.1 Parametrized curves in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$

(i) A curve in $C \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is defined by a set

$$
\left\{x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: f_{i}(x)=c_{i}, \text { for } 1 \leq i \leq n-1\right\}
$$

where each $f_{i}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous functions, and $c_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$.
(ii) Examples of curves in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
(a) The parabola $C_{1}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}-y=0\right\}$.
(b) The circle $C_{2}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.
(c) The astroid $C_{3}=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2 / 3}+y^{2 / 3}=1\right\}$.
(iii) A parametrized curve in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a continuous map

$$
\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}: t \stackrel{\gamma}{\mapsto}\left(\gamma_{1}(t), \ldots, \gamma_{n}(t)\right)
$$

where $-\infty \leq \alpha<\beta \leq \infty$, and the $\gamma_{i}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous maps.
(iv) Examples of parametrized curves.
(a) A parametrization for the curve $C_{1}$ is

$$
\gamma_{1}:(-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}: t \stackrel{\gamma_{1}}{\longrightarrow}\left(t, t^{2}\right) .
$$

(b) A parametrization for the curve $C_{2}$ is

$$
\gamma_{2}:(-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}: t \stackrel{\gamma_{2}}{\longrightarrow}(\cos (t), \sin (t)) .
$$

(c) A parametrization for the curve $C_{3}$ is

$$
\gamma_{3}:(-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}: t \stackrel{\gamma_{3}}{\longrightarrow}\left(\cos ^{3}(t), \sin ^{3}(t)\right) .
$$

(v) A parametrized curve $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is said to be smooth is all the derivative $\frac{d^{k} \gamma_{i}}{d t^{k}}$, for $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ exist and are continuous. From here on, we will assume that all parametrizations are smooth.
(vi) Given a parametrized curve $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we define its tangent vector by

$$
\gamma^{\prime}(t)=\frac{d \gamma}{d t}
$$

(vii) If the tangent vector of a parametrized curve is constant, then the curve is a part of a straight line.
(viii) The arc length of a parametrized curve $\gamma(t)$ starting at $\gamma\left(t_{0}\right)$ is defined by the function

$$
s(t)=\int_{t_{0}}^{t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(u)\right\| d u
$$

(ix) Let $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametrized curve. Then the speed of $\gamma$ at $\gamma(t)$ is defined by $\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|$. The curve $\gamma$ is said to be of unit speed if $\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|=1$, for all $t \in(\alpha, \beta)$.
(x) Let $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a parametrized curve of unit speed. Then, either $\gamma^{\prime \prime}=0$, or $\gamma^{\prime \prime} \perp \gamma^{\prime}$.
(xi) A parematrized curve $\tilde{\gamma}:(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is said to be a reparametrization of a parametrized curve $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ if there exists a smooth bijective map $\phi:(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) \rightarrow(\alpha, \beta)$ such that $\phi^{-1}$ is smooth, and $\tilde{\alpha}(\tilde{t})=$ $\gamma(\phi(t))$, for all $\tilde{t} \in(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta})$.
(xii) If $\tilde{\gamma}$ is a reparametrization of $\gamma$, then $\gamma$ is a reparametrization of $\tilde{\gamma}$ via the map $\phi^{-1}$.
(a) For example, the curve $\tilde{\gamma}(t)=(\sin (t), \cos (t))$ is a reparametrization of $\gamma(t)=(\cos (t), \sin (t))$ via $\phi(t)=\pi / 2-t$.

### 1.2 Regular curves

(i) A point $\gamma(t)$ of a parametrized curve $\gamma$ is said to regular if $\gamma^{\prime}(t)=0$, and is said to be a singular point, otherwise.
(ii) A parametrized curve $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is said to regular, if $\gamma(t)$ is a regular point, for every $t \in(\alpha, \beta)$.
(iii) Examples of regular (or non-regular) curves.
(a) The logarithmic spiral $\gamma(t)=\left(e^{t} \cos (t), e^{t} \sin (t)\right)$ is regular, as $\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|^{2}=2 e^{2 t} \neq 0$.
(b) The twisted cubic $\gamma(t)=\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right), t \in(-\infty, \infty)$ is regular, as $\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|=\sqrt{1+4 t^{2}+9 t^{4}} \neq 0$.
(c) The regularity of a curve is dependent in its parametrization. For example, $\gamma(t)=\left(t^{3}, t^{6}\right)$ is a not a regular parametrization of the curve $y=x^{2}$.
(iv) Any reparametrization of a regular curve is regular.
(v) If $\gamma(t)$ is a regular curve, then its arc length $s(t)$ starting at any point of $\gamma$ is a smooth function of $t$.
(vi) A reparametrized curve is of unit speed if, and only if, its regular.
(vii) Let $\gamma$ be a regular curve, and let $\tilde{\gamma}$ be a reparametrization of $\gamma$ given by $\tilde{\gamma}(u(t))=\gamma(t)$, where $u$ is a smooth function of $t$. Then $\tilde{\gamma}$ is of unit speed if, and only if,

$$
u(t)= \pm s(t)+c,
$$

where $s(t)$ is a the arc length and $c$ is a constant.
(viii) Example of reparametrizations.
(a) The curve $\gamma(t)=e^{t} \cos (t), e^{t} \sin (t)$ has arc length $s(t)=\sqrt{2}\left(e^{t}-1\right)$, and a unit-speed reparametrization given by $t=\log (s / \sqrt{2}+1)$.
(b) The curve $\gamma(t)=\left(t, t^{2}, t^{3}\right)$ has arc-length given by the elliptic integral

$$
s(t)=\int_{0}^{t} \sqrt{1+4 u^{2}=9 u^{4}} d u
$$

(ix) The level set of a smooth function $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a set of the form

$$
\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: f(x)=c\right\}
$$

where $c \in \mathbb{R}$. A level set of a smooth function $f: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a level curve.
(x) Let $f(x, y)$ be a smooth function in two variables. Assume that, at every point of the level curve $C=\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: f(x, y)=0\right\}$, the
partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ are not both zero. If $P\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is a point of $C$, there exists a regular parametrized curve $\gamma(t)$ defined on an open interval containing 0 such that $\gamma(0)=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, and $\gamma(t) \in C$, for all $t$.
(xi) Let $\gamma$ be a regular parametrized curve in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, and let $\gamma\left(t_{0}\right)=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. Then there exists a smooth real-valued function $f(x, y)$ defined for all points $x$ and $y$ defined in open intervals containing $x_{0}$ and $y_{0}$, respectively, (satisfying the conditions of (x) above) such that $\gamma(t) \in\{(x, y) \in$ $\left.\mathbb{R}^{2}: f(x, y)=0\right\}$, for all $t$ in some open interval containing $t_{0}$.

### 1.3 Curvature of curves

(i) Let $\gamma$ be a unit speed curve with parameter $s$, and let $\dot{\gamma}=\frac{d \gamma}{d s}$. Then the curvature of $\gamma$ at a point $\gamma(s)$ is defined by

$$
\kappa(s)=\|\ddot{\gamma}(s)\| .
$$

(ii) Examples of curvature.
(a) The curvature of a line is zero.
(b) The curvature of a circle $\left.\left.\gamma(s)=x_{0}+R \cos (s / R)\right)+y_{0}+R \sin (s / R)\right)$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with center $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ and radius $R$ is given by $\kappa=1 / R$.
(iii) The curvature of a curve remains invariant under reparametrization.
(iv) Let $\gamma$ be a regular curve in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with parameter $t$. Then its curvature is given at the point $\gamma(t)$ is given by

$$
\kappa(t)=\frac{\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}(t) \times \gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|^{3}}
$$

where $\gamma^{\prime}(t)=\frac{d \gamma}{d t}$.
(v) For example, the curvature of the helix $h$ about $z$-axis

$$
h(\theta)=(a \cos (\theta), a \sin (\theta), b \theta),-\infty<\theta<\infty
$$

is given by $\kappa=|a| /\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)$.

### 1.4 Plane curves

(i) Let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed plane curve with parameter $s$, and let $T(s)$ denote the unit tangent vector at $\gamma(s)$.
(a) The signed unit normal $n(s)$ to $\gamma(s)$ (at $\gamma(s)$ ) is the unit vector obtained by rotating $T(s)=\dot{\gamma}(s)$ counter-clockwise by $\pi / 2$.
(b) Since $\ddot{\gamma}(s)$ is parallel to $n(s)$, it follows that $\ddot{\gamma}(s)=\kappa_{ \pm}(s) n(s)$, where $\kappa_{ \pm}(s)$ is called the signed curvature of $\gamma$. By definition, we have

$$
\kappa(s)=\|\ddot{\gamma}(s)\|=\left\|\kappa_{ \pm}(s) n(s)\right\|=\left|\kappa_{ \pm}(s)\right| .
$$

(ii) Let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed plane curve with parameter $s$, and let $\varphi(s)$ be the angle through which a fixed unit vector must be rotated counterclockwise to bring it into coincidence with the unit tangent vector $T$. Then

$$
\kappa_{ \pm}(s)=\frac{d \varphi}{d s}
$$

In particular, the signed curvature of a curve is the rate of rotation of its tangent vector.
(iii) Let $\kappa:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function. Then there exists a unit-speed curve $\gamma:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ whose signed curvature is $\kappa$ given by

$$
\gamma(s)=\left(\int_{s_{0}}^{s} \cos (\varphi(t)) d t, \int_{s_{0}}^{s} \sin (\varphi(t)) d t\right), \text { where } \varphi(s)=\int_{s_{0}}^{s} \kappa(u) d u
$$

Furthermore, if $\tilde{\gamma}:(\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is another unit-speed curve whose signed curvature is $\kappa$, then there exists a rigid motion $M$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that

$$
\tilde{\gamma}(s)=M(\gamma(s)), \text { for all } s \in(\alpha, \beta) .
$$

(iv) Examples of signed curvature.
(a) The signed curvature of a circle $\left.\gamma(s)=x_{0}+R \cos (s / R)\right)+y_{0}+$ $R \sin (s / R))$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is given by $\kappa_{ \pm}=1 / R$.
(b) By (iii), a plane curve whose signed curvature is $\kappa_{ \pm}(s)=s$ is given by the Fresnel's integrals

$$
\gamma(s)=\left(\int_{0}^{s} \cos \left(t^{2} / 2\right) d t, \int_{0}^{s} \sin \left(t^{2} / 2\right) d t\right)
$$

(v) Any regular plane curve whose curvature is a positive constant is a part of a circle.

### 1.5 Space curves

(i) Let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed curve in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with parameter $s$.
(a) Assuming that $k(s) \neq 0$, for any $s$, we define the principal normal of $\gamma$ at $\gamma(s)$ to be

$$
\eta(s)=\frac{1}{\kappa(s)} \frac{d T}{d s} .
$$

(b) We define the binormal vector of $\gamma$ at $\gamma(s)$ to be

$$
b(s)=T(s) \times \eta(s)
$$

(ii) The unit-vectors $T(s), \eta(s)$, and $b(s)$, form an orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, for every $s$.
(iii) At every point $\gamma(s)$ in a unit-speed space curve $\gamma, \dot{b}(s)=-\tau(s) \eta(s)$, where $\tau(s)$ is a scalar called the torsion of $\gamma$. As $\tau$ remains invariant under reparametrization, we define the torsion of an arbitrary regular curve $\gamma$ to be the torsion of the unit-speed reparametrization of $\gamma$.
(iv) Let $\gamma(t)$ be a regular curve with nowhere-vanishing curvature. Then

$$
\tau=\frac{\left(\gamma^{\prime} \times \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right) \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}}{\|\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}\|^{2}}
$$

where $\gamma^{\prime}=\frac{d \gamma}{d t}$ and $\dot{\gamma}=\frac{d \gamma}{d s}$.
(v) Let $\gamma$ be a regular space curve with nowhere-vanishing curvature. Then $\gamma(t)$ is contained in a plan (i.e. planar) if, and only if, $\tau=0$, at every point in $\gamma$.
(vi) (Serret-Frenet) Let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed space curve with nowhere-vanishing curvature. Then

$$
\left[\begin{array}{c}
\dot{T} \\
\eta \\
b
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & \kappa & 0 \\
-\kappa & 0 & \tau \\
0 & -\tau & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
T \\
\eta \\
b
\end{array}\right] .
$$

(vii) Let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed space curve with constant curvature and zero torsion. Then $\gamma$ is a part of a circle.
(viii) Let $\kappa, \tau: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be smooth functions with $\kappa>0$ everywhere. Then there exists a unit-speed curve $\gamma$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ whose curvature is $\kappa$ and torsion is $\tau$. Moreover, if $\tilde{\gamma}$ is another curve in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with curvature $\kappa$ and torsion $\tau$, then there exists a rigid motion $M$ (of $\left.\mathbb{R}^{3}\right)$ such that

$$
\tilde{\gamma}(s)=M(\gamma(s)), \text { for all } s
$$

### 1.6 Simple closed curves

(i) Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$ be a positive constant. A simple closed plane curve with period $k$ is a regular curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that

$$
\gamma(t)=\gamma\left(t^{\prime}\right) \Longleftrightarrow t-t^{\prime}=n k, \text { where } n \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

(ii) For example, the parametrized circle $\gamma(t)=\cos (2 \pi t / k), \sin (2 \pi t / k)$ is a simple closed curve of period $k$.
(iii) (Jordan Curve Theorem) Any simple closed plane curve $\gamma$ has an interior int $(\gamma)$ and an exterior $\operatorname{ext}(\gamma)$ such that:
(a) $\operatorname{int}(\gamma)$ is bounded,
(b) $\operatorname{ext}(\gamma)$ is unbounded, and
(c) both $\operatorname{int}(\gamma)$ and $\operatorname{ext}(\gamma)$ are connected.
(iv) Since every point $\gamma(t)$ in a simple closed plane curve $\gamma$ of period $k$ is traced out by an interval of length $k$, we may assume (without loss of generality) that

$$
\gamma:[0, k] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2} .
$$

(v) The length $\ell(\gamma)$ of a simple closed plane curve $\gamma:[0, k] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ of period $k$ is given by

$$
\ell(\gamma)=\int_{0}^{a}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\| d t
$$

(vi) Let $\gamma:[0, k] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ be a simple closed plane curve of period $k$. Then a unit-speed reparameterization $\tilde{\gamma}$ of $\gamma$ has period $\ell(\gamma)$.
(vii) A simple closed plane curve is said to be positively oriented if its signed unit normal $n(s)$ points inward toward $\operatorname{int}(\gamma)$ at every point in $\gamma(s)$ in $\gamma$. As a convention, we shall assume from here on that all simple closed curves are positively oriented.
(viii) If $\gamma(t)=(x(t), y(t))$ be a positively oriented simple closed plane curve with period $k$. Then the area of the interior of $\gamma$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{Area}(\operatorname{int}(\gamma))=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{k}\left(x y^{\prime}-y x^{\prime}\right) d t
$$

(ix) (Wirtinger's Inequality) Let $F:[0, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function such that $F(0)=F(\pi)=0$. Then

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi}\left(\frac{d F}{d t}\right)^{2} d t \geq \int_{0}^{\pi} F(t)^{2} d t
$$

with equality holding if, and only if, $F(t)=A \sin (t)$, for all $t \in[0, \pi]$, where $A$ is a constant.
(x) (Isoperimetric inequality) Let $\gamma$ be a simple closed plane curve. Then

$$
\text { Area }(\operatorname{int}(\gamma)) \leq \frac{1}{4 \pi} \ell(\gamma)^{2}
$$

with equality holding if, and only if, $\gamma$ is a circle.
(xi) The vertex of a plane curve $\gamma$ is a point where its signed curvature $\kappa_{ \pm}$ has a stationary point (i.e $\frac{d \kappa_{ \pm}}{d t}=0$ ).
(xii) For example, the curve $\gamma(t)=(a \cos (t), b \sin (t))$ has vertices at $t=$ $0, \pi / 2, \pi$, and $3 \pi / 2$.
(xiii) A simple closed plane curve $\gamma$ is said to be convex if for any two points $P, Q \in \operatorname{int}(\gamma)$, the straight line segment joining $P$ and $Q$ lies inside $\operatorname{int}(\gamma)$.
(xiv) (Four-vertex theorem) Every convex simple closed plane curve has at least four vertices.

## 2 Surfaces

This section is based on Chapters 2-3 from [1] and Chapters 3-4 from [3].

### 2.1 Regular surfaces

(i) A subset $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is called regular surface if, for each $p \in S$, there exists a neighborhood $V \ni p$, and a map $f: U \rightarrow V \cap S$ of an open set $U \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ onto $V \cap S$ such that:
(1) $f$ is differentiable, that is,

$$
f(u, v)=(x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v))
$$

has continuous partials of all orders,
(2) $f$ is a homeomorphism, and
(3) for each $q \in U$, the differential $d f_{q}: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is injective, that is, at least one of the Jacobians

$$
\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}, \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)}, \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)}
$$

is nonzero at $q \in U$.
The map $f$ is called a parametrization or local coordinates at $p$, and the neighborhood $V \cap S \ni p$ is called a coordinate neighborhood at $p$.
(ii) Examples of regular surfaces.
(a) The unit sphere $S^{2}=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=1\right\}$ is a regular surface with the parametrizations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{1}^{ \pm}:\left\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x^{2}+y^{2}<1\right\} \rightarrow S^{2}:(x, y) \stackrel{f_{1}^{ \pm}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(x, y, \pm \sqrt{1-x^{2}-y^{2}}\right) \\
& f_{2}^{ \pm}:\left\{(y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: y^{2}+z^{2}<1\right\} \rightarrow S^{2}:(y, z) \stackrel{f_{2}^{ \pm}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left( \pm \sqrt{1-y^{2}-z^{2}}, y, z\right) \\
& f_{3}^{ \pm}:\left\{(x, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: x^{2}+z^{2}<1\right\} \rightarrow S^{2}:(x, z) \stackrel{f_{3}^{ \pm}}{\longmapsto}\left(x, \pm \sqrt{1-x^{2}-z^{2}}, z\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The parametrizations above can also be described in the ususal spherical coordinates given by
$f(\theta, \varphi)=(\sin (\theta) \cos (\varphi), \sin (\theta) \sin (\varphi), \cos (\theta))$, where $0<\theta<\pi$ and $0<\varphi<2 \pi$.
(b) The torus $T^{2}$ is the surface generated by rotating a circle of radius $r$ about a straight line belonging to the plane of the circle and at a distance $a>r$ away from the center of the circle. $T^{2}$ is a regular surface with a parametrization given by

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(u, v)=((r \cos (u)+a) \cos (v),(r \cos (u)+a) \sin (v), r \sin (v)), \\
\text { where } 0<u<2 \pi \text { and } 0<v<2 \pi .
\end{gathered}
$$

(iii) Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$ be an open set, and let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable map. Then the graph of $f$ is a regular surface.
(iv) Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an open set, and let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ be a differentiable map.
(a) A point $p \in U$ is called a critical point if $d f_{p}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is not surjective.
(b) The image $f(p)$ of a critical point $p$ is called a critical value.
(c) A point in $f(U)$ that is a not a critical value is called a regular value.
(v) Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be an open set, and let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable map. If $q \in f(U)$ is a regular value, then $f^{-1}(q)$ is a regular surface.
(vi) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a regular surface, and let $p \in S$. Then there exists a neighborhood $V \ni p$ in $S$ such that $V$ is the graph of a differentiable function which has one of the following three forms:

$$
z=f(x, y), y=g(x, z), \text { and } x=h(y, z)
$$

(vii) Examples and nonexamples of regular surfaces.
(a) The torus $T^{2}$ in (ii)(b) is given by the equation

$$
z^{2}=r^{2}-\left(\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}-a\right)^{2} .
$$

Note that the function

$$
f(x, y, z)=z^{2}+\left(\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}-a\right)^{2}
$$

is differentiable, whenever $(x, y) \neq(0,0)$. Thus, $r^{2}$ is a regular value of $f$, and by ( v ), it follows that $T^{2}=f^{-1}\left(r^{2}\right)$ is a regular surface.
(b) The one-sheeted cone $C$ given by the equation $z=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}$ is not a regular surface for the following reason. If $C$ were regular, then by (vi), $C$ must be the graph of a diffrentiable function of the form $z=f(x, y)$, which has to agree with $z=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}$ in a neighborhood of $(0,0,0)$. But this is impossible, as $z=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}}$ is not differentiable at $(0,0)$.
(viii) Let $S$ be a regular surface, and let $p \in S$. If $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$, where $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is open, be an injective map with $p \in f(U) \subset S$ such that conditions (1) and (3) of (i) hold, then $f^{-1}$ is continuous.

### 2.2 Change of coordinates

(i) Let $S_{1}, S_{2}$ be regular surfaces, and let $V_{1} \subset S_{1}$ be an open set. A continuous map $\varphi: V \rightarrow S_{2}$ is said to be differentiable at $p \in V_{1}$ if, given parametrizations

$$
f_{i}: U_{i} \rightarrow S_{i}, \text { for } i=1,2
$$

with $p \in f_{1}(U)$ and $\varphi\left(f_{1}\left(U_{1}\right)\right) \subset f_{2}\left(U_{2}\right)$, the $\operatorname{map} f_{2}^{-1} \circ \varphi \circ f_{1}: U_{1} \rightarrow U_{2}$ is differentiable at $q=f_{1}^{-1}(p)$.
(ii) Two regular surfaces $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are said to be diffeomorphic if there exists a differentiable map $\varphi: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ with a differentiable inverse $\varphi^{-1}: S_{2} \rightarrow S_{1}$. Such a map $\varphi$ is called a diffeomorphism from $S_{1}$ to $S_{2}$.
(iii) Example of differentiable maps and diffeomorphisms.
(a) If $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ is a parametrization, then $f: U \rightarrow f(U)$ is a diffeomorphism.
(b) Let $S_{i}$, for $i=1,2$ be regular surfaces, let $S_{1} \subset V$, where, where $V$ is an open set of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. If $\varphi: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is a differentiable map such that $\varphi\left(S_{1}\right) \subset S_{2}$, then $\left.\varphi\right|_{S_{1}}: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is differentiable. In particular, the following maps are differentiable.
(1) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a surface that is symmetric about the $x y$-plane. Then its reflection about the $x y$-plane given by

$$
\rho: S \rightarrow S:(x, y, z) \stackrel{\rho}{\mapsto}(x, y,-z)
$$

is a diffeomorphism.
(2) Let $R_{z, \theta}$ be a rotation in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ about the $z$-axis counter-clockwise by $\theta$ radians. If $S$ is a regular surface such that $R_{z, \theta}(S) \subset S$, then $\left.R_{z, \theta}\right|_{S}$ is a diffeomorphism.
(3) For fixed nonzero real numbers $a, b, c$, the differentiable map

$$
\varphi: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}:(x, y, z) \stackrel{\varphi}{\mapsto}(x a, y b, z c)
$$

restricts to diffeomorphism from the sphere $S^{2}$ onto the ellipsoid $\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}:(x / a)^{2}+(y / b)^{2}+(z / c)^{2}=1\right\}$.
(iv) Let $S$ be a regular surface, and let $p \in S$. Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ and $g: V\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be two parametrizations of $S$ such that $p \in x(U) \subset$ $y(V)=W$. Then the change of coordinates defined by

$$
h:=f^{-1} \circ g: g^{-1}(W) \rightarrow g^{-1}(W)
$$

is a diffeomorphism.
(v) Let $S$ be a regular surface, let $V \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a open set such that $S \subset V$. If $f: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a differentiable function, then so is $\left.f\right|_{S}$.
(vi) Examples of differentiable functions on a regular surface $S$.
(a) For a fixed unit vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, the height function relative of $v$ defined by

$$
h_{v}: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: w \stackrel{h_{v}}{\longmapsto} w \cdot v
$$

is differentiable function on $S$.
(b) For a fixed unit vector $p_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, the function defined by

$$
f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: p \stackrel{f}{\mapsto}\left\|p-p_{0}\right\|^{2}
$$

is differentiable function on $S$.
(vii) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a differentiable map. Then:
(a) The map $f$ is called a parametrized surface.
(b) The set $f(U)$ is called the trace of $f$.
(c) The map $f$ is said to be regular if the differential $d f_{q}: \mathbb{R} 2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is injective for all $q \in U$.
(d) A point $p \in U$ where $d f_{p}$ is not injective is called a singular point of $f$.
(viii) Two important examples of parametrized surfaces.
(a) (Surface of revolution) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be the surface obtained by rotating a regular connected plane curve $C$ about an axis $\ell$ in the plane which does not intersect the curve. Then $S$ is called the surface of revolution generated by the curve $C$ with rotation axis $\ell$. In particular, let $C$ be a curve in the $x z$-plane with a parametrization

$$
x=f(v), z=g(v), a<v<b \text { and } f(v)>0,
$$

that is rotated about the $z$-axis. Then $S$ is a regular parametrized surface with a parametrization given by $F: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$, where

$$
F(u, v)=(f(v) \cos (u), f(v) \sin (u), g(v))
$$

and

$$
U=\left\{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}: 0<u<2 \pi \text { and } a<v<b\right\} .
$$

(b) Let $\alpha: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a non-planar parametrized curve. Then

$$
f_{\alpha}(x, y)=\alpha(x)+y \alpha^{\prime}(x),(x, y) \in I \times \mathbb{R}
$$

is a parametrized surface called the tangent surface. Restricting the domain of $f$ to $U=\{(t, v) \in I \times R: v \neq 0\}$, we see that $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is a regular surface whose trace has two connected components with a common boundary $\alpha(I)$.
(c) Let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a regular parametrized surface, and let $q \in U$. Then there exists a neighborhood $V \ni q$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ such that $f(V) \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ is a regular surface.

### 2.3 Tangent space

(i) Let $S$ be a regular surface. A tangent vector to $S$ at a point $p \in S$ is the tangent vector $\alpha^{\prime}(0)$ of differentiable paramterized curve $\alpha:(\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow S$ with $\alpha(0)=p$.
(ii) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{n}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ be a differentiable map. To each $p \in U$, we associate a linear map $d f_{p}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ called the differential of $f$ at $p$ which is defined as follows. Let $w \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and let $\alpha:(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow U$ be a differentiable curve such that $\alpha(0)=p$ and $\alpha^{\prime}(0)=w$. Then $\beta=f \circ \alpha$ is differentiable, and we define

$$
d f_{p}(w):=\beta^{\prime}(0)
$$

(iii) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a parametrization of a regular surface $S$, and let $q \in U$. Then the vector space $d f_{q}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ coincides with the set of tangent vectors to $S$ at $f(q)$.
(iv) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a parametrization of a regular surface $S$, and let $q \in U$. Then the plane $d f_{q}\left(\mathbb{R}^{2}\right)$ is called the tangent plane to $S$ at $p=f(q)$ denoted by $T_{p}(S)$. Moreover, the parametrization $f$ determines a choice of basis $\left\{f_{u}(q), f_{v}(q)\right\}$ of $T_{p}(S)$ called the basis associated with $f$.
(v) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a parametrization of a regular surface $S$, and let $q \in U$. Let $w=\alpha^{\prime}(0)$, where $\alpha=f \circ \beta$ and $\beta:(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow U$ is $\beta(t)=(u(t), v(t)), \beta(0)=q=f^{-1}(p)$. Then

$$
\alpha^{\prime}(0)=f_{u}(q) u^{\prime}(0)+f_{v}(q) v^{\prime}(0)=w .
$$

(vi) Let $S_{1}, S_{2}$ be regular surfaces, and let $\varphi=\left(\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}\right): V\left(\subset S_{1}\right) \rightarrow S_{2}$ be a differentiable map. Consider $w \in T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right)$ such that $w=\alpha^{\prime}(0)$, where $\alpha:(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow V: t \stackrel{\alpha}{\mapsto}(u(t), v(t))$ with $\alpha(0)=p$. Further, assume that the curve $\beta=\varphi \circ \alpha$ is such that $\beta(0)=\varphi(p)\left(\Longrightarrow \beta^{\prime}(0) \in T_{\varphi(p)}\left(S_{2}\right)\right)$. Then the map $d \varphi_{p}: T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right) \rightarrow T_{\varphi(p)}\left(S_{2}\right)$ defined by $d \varphi_{p}(w)=\beta^{\prime}(0)$ is linear define by

$$
\beta^{\prime}(0)=d \varphi_{p}(w)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial \varphi_{1}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial \varphi_{1}}{\partial v} \\
\frac{\partial \varphi_{2}}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial \varphi_{2}}{\partial v}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
u^{\prime}(0) \\
v^{\prime}(0)
\end{array}\right] .
$$

(vii) Examples of differentials of maps.
(a) For a fixed unit vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, the differential of the height function relative of $v$ defined by $h_{v}: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: w \stackrel{h_{v}}{\longmapsto} w \cdot v$ at $p \in S$ is given by

$$
\left(d h_{v}\right)_{p}(w)=w \cdot v, \forall w \in T_{p}(S)
$$

(b) The differential of the rotation $R_{z, \theta}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ about the $z$-axis by $\theta$ radians restricted to $S^{2}$ has a differential at $p \in S^{2}$ given by

$$
\left(d R_{z, \theta}\right)_{p}(w)=R_{z, \theta}(w), \forall w \in T_{p}\left(S^{2}\right)
$$

(viii) Let $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ be regular surfaces, and let $\varphi: U\left(\subset S_{1}\right) \rightarrow S_{2}$ be a differentiable map of an open set $U \subset S_{1}$ such that $d \varphi_{p}$ is an isomorphism at $p \in U$. Then $\varphi$ is a local diffeomorphism at $p$.

### 2.4 Orientation

(i) Let $V$ be a vector space of dimension 2 over $\mathbb{R}$.
(a) An orientation for $V$ is a choice of unit-length normal vector $N$ to $V$.
(b) With respect a fixed orientation $N$ for $V$, an ordered basis $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ basis for $V$ is said to be positively oriented if

$$
\frac{v_{1} \times v_{2}}{\left\|v_{1} \times v_{2}\right\|}=N
$$

(c) With respect a fixed orientation $N$ for $V$, an ordered basis $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ basis for $V$ is said to be negatively oriented if

$$
\frac{v_{1} \times v_{2}}{\left\|v_{1} \times v_{2}\right\|}=-N \text {. }
$$

(ii) Let $V, W$ be a vector spaces of dimension 2 over $\mathbb{R}$. Then an isomorphism $T: V \rightarrow W$ is said to be orientation-preserving if for any positively oriented ordered basis $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ for $V,\left\{T\left(v_{1}\right), T\left(v_{2}\right)\right\}$ is a positively oriented ordered basis for $W$.
(iii) Let $V, W$ be a vector spaces of dimension 2 over $\mathbb{R}$. Then an isomorphism $T: V \rightarrow W$ is orientation-preserving if, and only if, the matrix of $T$ with respect to any (choice of) positively oriented ordered bases for $V$ and $W$ has positive determinant.
(iv) Let $S$ be a regular surface. A unit normal vector $N_{p}$ to $S$ at $p \in S$ is a unit-length normal vector to $T_{p}(s)$, that is, $\left\langle N_{p}, v\right\rangle=0$, for all $v \in T_{p}(S)$.
(v) Let $S$ be a regular surface.
(a) A vector field on $S$ is a smooth map $F: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
(b) A vector $F: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ on $S$ is said to be a unit normal field if $T(p)=N_{p}$, for all $p \in S$, where $N_{p}$ is the unit vector to $S$ at $p$.
(vi) Let $S$ be a regular surface.
(a) An orientation for $S$ is a unit normal field on $S$.
(b) If $S$ has a orientation, then $S$ is said to be orientable.
(c) If $S$ has no orientation, then $S$ is said to be nonorientable.
(d) Let $S$ be orientable. Then $S$ together with a choice of orientation on it is called an oriented surface.
(vii) Examples of orientable (and nonorientable) surfaces.
(a) For a fixed nonzero unit vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^{3}$, the plane $P_{v} \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ with unit normal $v$ is given by

$$
P_{v}=\left\{w \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: w \cdot v=\text { const }\right\}
$$

Then $P_{v}$ is a regular orientable surface with an orientation $F$ on $P_{v}$ defined by $F(w)=v$, for all $w \in P_{v}$.
(b) Let $S$ be a regular surface that is realized as the level surface of a smooth map $f: \mathbb{R}^{3} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, that is, $S=f^{-1}(\lambda)$, for some regular value $\lambda$ of $f$. The $S$ is an orientable surface with a natural orientation $F: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
F(p)=\frac{\nabla f(p)}{\|\nabla f(p)\|}, \forall p \in S
$$

(c) It follows from (b) that the sphere $S^{2}$ is a orientable surface with an orientation given by $F(p)=p$, for all $p \in S^{2}$.
(d) Let $G_{f}=\{(x, y, f(x, y)):(x, y) \in U\}$ be the graph of a smooth function $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$, where $U$ is open. Then $G_{f}$ is a orientable surface with an orientation $F: G_{f} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
F(p)=\frac{\left(-f_{x}(p),-f_{y}(p), 1\right)}{\sqrt{f_{x}^{2}(p)+f_{y}^{2}(p)+1}}
$$

(e) The Möbius band $M$ given by the parametrization $f:(0,2 \pi) \times$ $(-1 / 2,1 / 2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ defined by

$$
f(u, v)=(\cos (u)(2+v \sin (u / 2)), \sin (u)(2+v \sin (u / 2)), v \cos (u / 2))
$$

is a nonorientable regular surface. To see this, we consider the coordinate neighborhoods $f_{i}: U_{i} \rightarrow V_{i} \subset M$, for $i=1$, 2 , where

$$
\begin{gathered}
U_{1}=\left\{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}:(u, v) \in(\pi / 3,5 \pi / 3) \times(-1 / 2,1 / 2)\right\} \\
\quad \text { and } \\
U_{2}=\left\{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}:(u, v) \in(4 \pi / 3,8 \pi / 3) \times(-1 / 2,1 / 2)\right\} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Let $N_{i}$ be the unit normal fields induced on $V_{i}$. It can be shown that there exists no global normal fields $N$ on $M$ such that $\left.N\right|_{V_{i}}=$ $N_{i}$.
(viii) A connected orientable regular surface has exactly two orientations; Each is the negative of the other.
(ix) The connected sum $\Sigma_{1} \# \Sigma_{2}$ of 2 regular surfaces $\Sigma_{i}$ is formed by deleting open disks $B_{i} \subset \Sigma_{i}$ and the identifying the resulting manifolds $\Sigma_{i}-B_{i}$ to each other along the resultant boundaries by a homeomorphism $h$ : $\partial \Sigma_{2} \rightarrow \partial \Sigma_{1}$ so that

$$
\Sigma_{1} \# \Sigma_{2}=\left(\Sigma_{1}-B_{1}\right) \sqcup_{h}\left(\Sigma_{2}-B_{2}\right) .
$$

(x) For $g \geq 1$, the connected sum of $g$ copies of the torus $T^{2}$ is called the closed orientable surface $S_{g}$ of genus $g$. For $k \geq 1$, the connected sum of $k$ copies of the real projective plane $\mathbb{R} P^{2}$ is called the closed nonorientable surface $N_{k}$ with $k$ crosscaps.
(xi) (Classification theorem for connected closed regular surfaces) Let $S$ be a be a closed (i.e. $\partial S=\emptyset$ ) connected regular surface.
(a) If $S$ is orientable, then $S$ is diffeomorphic to the 2-sphere $S^{2}$ or $S_{g}$, for some $g \geq 1$.
(b) If $S$ is nonorientable, then $S$ is diffeomorphic to $N_{k}$, for some $k \geq 1$.
(xii) Let $S, S^{\prime}$ be connected oriented regular surfaces, and $f: S \rightarrow S^{\prime}$ be a diffeomorphism. Then:
(a) $f$ is said to be orientation-preserving if for each $p \in S, d f_{p}$ : $T_{p}(S) \rightarrow T_{f(p)}\left(S^{\prime}\right)$ is orientation-preserving.
(b) $f$ is said to be orientation-reversing, if $f$ is not orientation-preserving.
(xiii) Examples of orientation-preserving (and reversing) diffeomorphisms.
(a) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a connected regular oriented surface that is left invariant by a rotation $A \in O(3)$ about the origin. Then the diffeomorphism $\left.A\right|_{S}: S \rightarrow S$ is orientation-preserving if, and only if $\operatorname{Det}(A)=1$.
(b) Let $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a connected regular oriented surface that is left invariant by a reflection $R_{P}$ about a plane in $P \subset \mathbb{R}^{3}$. Then $\left.R_{P}\right|_{S}: S \rightarrow S$ is a orientation-reversing diffeomorphism.
(xiv) Let $S, S^{\prime}$ be connected oriented regular surfaces, and $f: S \rightarrow S^{\prime}$ be a diffeomorphism. Then $f$ is orientation-preserving if, and only if, there exists a point $p \in S$ such that $d f_{p}: T_{p}(S) \rightarrow T_{f(p)}(S)$ is orientationpreserving.

### 2.5 Surface area

(i) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a surface patch with $q \in U$, and let $p=f(q)$. Choosing the standard basis $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}\right\}$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, the area distortion of the linear transformation $d f_{q}: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow T_{p}(S)$ is given by

$$
\left\|f_{u}(q) \times f_{v}(q)\right\| .
$$

(ii) Let $S$ be a regular surface, and let $R \subset S$.
(i) We call $R$ a polygonal region if $R$ is covered by a single coordinate chart $f: U \rightarrow S$ such that $f^{-1}(R)$ equal the union of the interior of a piecewise-regular simple closed curve with its boundary.
(ii) We define the area (or surface area) of a polygonal region $R$ by

$$
\operatorname{Area}(R)=\iint_{f^{-1}(R)}\left\|f_{u} \times f_{v}\right\| d A
$$

(iii) If $R$ is union of finitely many polygonal regions intersecting only along boundaries, then we define the area of $R$ as the sum of the areas over all of these polygonal regions.
(iv) We define the integral over a polygonal region $R$ of a smooth function $g: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$
\iint_{R} g d A=\iint_{f^{-1}(R)}(g \circ f) \cdot\left\|f_{u} \times f_{v}\right\| d A
$$

(v) If $\psi: U_{1} \rightarrow U_{2}$ is a diffeomorphism between open sets in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Let $\varphi: U_{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is smooth, and $K \subset U_{2}$ is a polygonal region. Then

$$
\iint_{K} \varphi d A=\iint_{\psi^{-1}(K)}(\varphi \circ \psi) \cdot\left\|\psi_{u} \times \psi_{v}\right\| d A .
$$

(iii) Examples of surface areas.
(a) The graph $G_{f}$ of a smooth function $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of covered by a single surface patch $g: U \rightarrow G:(x, y) \stackrel{g}{\mapsto}(x, y, f(x, y))$. Therefore, the area of a polygonal region $R \subset G$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{Area}(R)=\iint_{g^{-1}(R)} \sqrt{f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}+1} d A
$$

(b) The graph $G_{f}$ of a smooth function $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of covered by a single surface patch $g: U \rightarrow G:(x, y) \stackrel{g}{\mapsto}(x, y, f(x, y))$. Therefore, the area of a polygonal region $R \subset G$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{Area}(R)=\iint_{g^{-1}(R)} \sqrt{f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}+1} d A
$$

(c) The unit sphere $S^{2}$ is covered by the coordinate chart

$$
f:(0,2 \pi) \times(0, \pi) \rightarrow S^{2}:(\theta, \phi) \stackrel{f}{\mapsto}(\sin (\phi) \cos (\theta), \sin (\phi) \sin (\theta), \cos (\phi)) .
$$

Consequently,

$$
\operatorname{Area}\left(S^{2}\right)=4 \pi
$$

(d) If $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is a diffeomorphism between regular surfaces and $R \subset S_{1}$ is a polygonal region, then $f(R)$ is a polygonal region, and

$$
\operatorname{Area}(f(R))=\iint_{R}\left|f_{u} \times f_{v}\right| d A
$$

### 2.6 Isometries and the first fundamental form

(i) The first fundamental form of a regular surface $S$ assigns to each $p \in S$ the quadratic form

$$
I_{p}: T_{p}(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: x \stackrel{I_{p}}{\longmapsto}\|x\|_{p}^{2},
$$

where $\|x\|$ is the usual square norm in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.
(ii) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a surface patch. A tangent vector $w \in T_{p}(S)$ is the tangent vector to a parametrized curve $\alpha(t)=f(u(t), v(t))$, where $t \in(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ with $p=\alpha(0)=f\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)$. Consequently, we have

$$
I_{p}\left(\alpha^{\prime}(0)\right)=E\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+F u^{\prime} v^{\prime}+G\left(v^{\prime}\right)^{2},
$$

where

$$
E\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)=\left\langle f_{u}, f_{u}\right\rangle_{p}, F\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)=\left\langle f_{u}, f_{v}\right\rangle_{p}, \text { and } G\left(u_{0}, v_{0}\right)=\left\langle f_{v}, f_{v}\right\rangle_{p} .
$$

(iii) Let $S_{1}, S_{2}$ be regular surfaces . A diffeomorphism $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is called an isometry if $d f$ preserves their first fundamental forms, that is,

$$
\left\|d f_{p}(x)\right\|_{f(p)}^{2}=\|x\|_{p}^{2}, \forall p \in S_{1} \text { and } x \in T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right)
$$

This is equivalent to saying that $d f$ preserves the inner products of $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$, that is,

$$
\left\langle d f_{p}(x), d f_{p}(y)\right\rangle_{f(p)}=\langle x, y\rangle_{p}, \forall p \in S_{1} \text { and } x, y \in T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right)
$$

(iv) Examples of isometries.
(a) If $f$ is a rigid motion of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and $S$ is a regular surface, $f(S)$ is a regular surface and $\left.f\right|_{S}: S \rightarrow f(S)$ is an isometry.
(b) The cylindrical patch

$$
f:(-\pi, \pi) \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow C:(u, v) \stackrel{f}{\mapsto}(\cos (u), \sin (u), v)
$$

is an isometry.

### 2.7 Conformal and equiareal maps

(i) Let $S_{1}, S_{2}$ be regular surfaces. A diffeomorphism $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is called equiareal if

$$
\left\|f_{u}(p) \times f_{v}(p)\right\|=1, \forall p \in S_{1} .
$$

(ii) A diffeomorphism $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is equiareal if, and only if preserves the areas of polygonal regions.
(iii) Let $S_{1}, S_{2}$ be a regular surfaces. A diffeomorphism $f: S!S_{2}$ is called conformal if $d f$ is angle-preserving, that is,

$$
\angle(x, y)=\angle\left(d f_{p}(x), d f_{p}(y)\right), \forall p \in S_{1} \text { and } x, y \in T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right) .
$$

(iv) A diffeomorphism $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is conformal if, and only if, there exists a smooth positive-valued function $\lambda: S_{1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$
\left\langle d f_{p}(x), d f_{p}(y)\right\rangle_{f(p)}=\lambda(p)^{2} \cdot\langle x, y\rangle, \forall p \in S_{1} \text { and } x, y \in T_{p}\left(S_{1}\right)
$$

(v) Examples of equiareal and conformal maps.
(a) Given $\lambda>0$, the linear map $A: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by the matrix $A=\left(\begin{array}{cc}\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 1 / \lambda\end{array}\right)$ is equiareal, but not conformal.
(b) Given $\lambda>0$, the linear map $A: \mathbb{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ given by the matrix $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda\end{array}\right)$ is conformal, but not equiareal.
(c) The stereographic projection $\pi_{N}: S^{2} \backslash\{N\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ is conformal, but not equiareal.
(vi) A diffeomorphism $f: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ is an isometry if, and only if, it is equiareal and conformal.

## 3 The curvature of a surface

### 3.1 Gaussian curvature

(i) Let $S$ be an oriented surface with an orientation $N: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$.
(i) The Gauss map is the function $N$ regarded as function $S \rightarrow S^{2}$.
(ii) For each $p \in S$, the Weingarten map is the linear map

$$
W_{p}=-d N_{p}: T_{p}(S) \rightarrow T_{P}(S)
$$

(iii) For each $p \in S$,

$$
K(p)=\operatorname{Det}\left(W_{p}\right) \text { and } H(p)=\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Trace}\left(W_{p}\right)
$$

are respectively called the Gaussian curvature and the mean curvature of $S$ at $p$.
(ii) Let $S$ be an oriented surface, and $p \in S$. Then the Weingarten map $W_{p}$ is represented by a symmetric matrix with respect to any orthonormal basis of $T_{p}(S)$.
(iii) Examples of Gaussian and mean curvatures.
(i) Let $S$ be a two-dimensional subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. Since $S$ can be oriented by a constant unit normal field $N, W_{p}(v)=0$, for each $p \in S$ and each $v \in T_{p}(S)$. Thus, the

$$
K(p)=H(p)=0, \forall p \in S
$$

(ii) The sphere $S^{2}(r)$ of radius $r$ has an orientation given by $N(p)=$ $p / r$, for all $p \in S^{2}(r)$. Consequently,

$$
W_{p}=-\frac{1}{r}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), K(p)=\frac{1}{r^{2}}, \text { and } H(p)=-\frac{1}{r} .
$$

(iii) Let $u \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$ be open and $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function. Then $G_{f}$ is an orientable surface with an orientation $F: G_{f} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
F(p)=\frac{\left(-f_{x}(p),-f_{y}(p), 1\right)}{\sqrt{f_{x}^{2}(p)+f_{y}^{2}(p)+1}}, \forall p \in G_{f} .
$$

Let $q=\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ be critical point of $f$, and let $p=f(q)$. Then

$$
W_{p}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
f_{x x}(q) & f_{x y}(q) \\
f_{y x}(q) & f_{y y}(q)
\end{array}\right),
$$

and

$$
K(p)=f_{x x}(q) f_{y y}(q)-f_{x y}(q)^{2} .
$$

Thus, if $K(p)>0$, the $p$ is a local extremum, and if $K(p)<0$, then $p$ is a saddle point.

### 3.2 The second fundamental form

(i) A quadratic form $Q_{T}$ associated with a self-adjoint linear map $T: V \rightarrow$ $V$ is given by $Q_{T}: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: v \xrightarrow{Q_{T}}\langle v, T(v)\rangle$.
(ii) Let $S$ be a oriented regular surface, and let $p \in S$. Let $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis of $T_{p}(S)$ with respect to which $W_{p}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}k_{1} & 0 \\ 0 & k_{2}\end{array}\right)$.
(a) The eigenvectors $\pm v_{1}$ and $\pm v_{2}$ are called the principal directions of $S$ at $p$.
(b) The eigenvalues $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ are called the principal curvatures of $S$ at $p$. If $k_{1}=k_{2}$, then $p$ is called an umbilical point.
(c) The quadratic form associated to $W_{p}$ is called the second fundamental form $I I_{p}$ of $S$ at $p$, that is:

$$
I I_{p}(v)=\left\langle W_{p}(v), v\right\rangle=\left\langle-d N_{p}(v), v\right\rangle .
$$

(d) If $v \in T_{p}(S)$ with $\|v\|=1$, then $I I_{p}(v)$ is called the normal curvature of $S$ at $p$ in the direction of $v$.
(iii) Let $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of a self-adjoint linear map $T$ corresponding to eigenvalues $\lambda_{1} \leq \lambda_{2}$. Then

$$
Q_{T}\left(\cos (\theta) v_{1}+\sin (\theta) v_{2}\right)=\lambda_{1} \cos ^{2}(\theta)+\lambda_{2} \sin ^{2}(\theta)
$$

In particular, $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$ are the maximum and minimum values (resp.) of $Q_{T}$ on $S^{1}$.
(iv) By (iii), the action of $I I_{p}$ on an arbitrary unit tangent vector is given by

$$
I I_{p}\left(\cos (\theta) v_{1}+\sin (\theta) v_{2}\right)=k_{1} \cos ^{2}(\theta)+k_{2} \sin ^{2}(\theta) .
$$

In particular, $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ are the minimum and maximum normal curvatures. Moreover,

$$
K(p)=k_{1} k_{2} \text { and } H(p)=\frac{1}{2}\left(k_{1}+k_{2}\right) .
$$

(v) Curvature of the cylinder: Consider the cylinder of radius $r$ about the $z$-axis given by

$$
C(r)=\left\{(r \cos (\theta), r \sin (\theta), z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: \theta \in[0,2 \pi), z \in \mathbb{R}\right\}
$$

At $p_{0}=\left(r \cos \left(\theta_{0}\right), r \sin \left(\theta_{0}\right), z_{0}\right) \in C(r)$, we have

$$
W_{p_{0}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
-1 / r & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

So, its principal directions are

$$
v_{1}=\left(-\sin \left(\theta_{0}\right), \cos \left(\theta_{0}\right), 0\right) \text { and } v_{2}=(0,0,1)
$$

and its principal curvatures are

$$
k_{1}=-\frac{1}{r} \text { and } k_{2}=0
$$

Hence, $C(r)$ has constant Guassian and mean curvatures given by

$$
K=0 \text { and } H=-\frac{1}{2 r} .
$$

(vi) Let $S$ be an oriented regular surface, $p \in S$, and $v \in T_{p}(S)$ with $\|v\|=1$. Consider the family of all regular curves $\gamma$ in $S$. Consider the family $F_{p, \gamma}$ of all regular curves $\gamma$ in $S$ with $\gamma(0)=0$ and $\gamma^{\prime}(0)=v$. Then:
(a) For every curve $\gamma \in F_{p, \gamma}$, we have

$$
\left\langle\gamma^{\prime \prime}(0), N(p)\right\rangle=I I_{p}(v) .
$$

(b) The minimum curvature at $p$ among curves in the family (regarded as space curves) equals $\left|I I_{p}(v)\right|$.
(vii) Let $\kappa_{n}=I I_{p}(v)$, and let $\gamma$ be a unit-speed curve with $a=\gamma^{\prime \prime}(0)$. Then by (vi)(a), we have

$$
a=\kappa_{n} \cdot N(p)+\kappa_{g} \cdot R_{\pi / 2}(v)
$$

where $R_{\pi / 2}$ denotes a rotation of $T_{p}(S)$ by $\pi / 2$, and $\kappa_{n}$ and $\kappa_{g}$ are scalars. The scalars $\kappa_{n}$ (resp. $\kappa_{g}$ ) are called the normal (resp. geodesic) curvatures of $\gamma$ at $p$. Moreover, as $\kappa=\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}(0)\right\|$, we have

$$
\kappa^{2}=\kappa_{n}^{2}+\kappa_{g}^{2}
$$

### 3.3 The geometry of the Gauss map

(i) Let $S$ be an oriented regular surface with an orientation $N$, and let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow S$ be a local parametrization at $p \in S$ that is compatible with $N$. Let $\alpha(t)=f(u(t), v(t))$ be a parametrized curve on $S$ with $\alpha(0)=p$. Then:
(a) The second fundamental form in the basis $\left\{f_{u}, f_{v}\right\}$ is given by

$$
I I_{p}\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)=e\left(u^{\prime}\right)^{2}+2 f u^{\prime} v^{\prime}+g\left(v^{\prime}\right)^{2}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
e & =-\left\langle N_{u}, f_{u}\right\rangle=\left\langle N, f_{u u}\right\rangle \\
f & =-\left\langle N_{v}, f_{u}\right\rangle=\left\langle N, f_{u v}\right\rangle=\left\langle N, f_{v u}\right\rangle=-\left\langle N_{u}, f_{v}\right\rangle \\
g & =-\left\langle N_{v}, f_{v}\right\rangle=\left\langle N, f_{v v}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) The coefficients of the Weingarten map $W_{p}=\left(a_{i j}\right)_{2 \times 2}$ are given by the equations

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a_{11} & a_{21} \\
a_{12} & a_{22}
\end{array}\right)=-\left(\begin{array}{ll}
e & f \\
f & g
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
E & F \\
F & G
\end{array}\right)^{-1}=-\frac{1}{E G-f^{2}}\left(\begin{array}{ll}
e & f \\
f & g
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{cc}
G & -F \\
-F & E
\end{array}\right) .
$$

(c) The Gaussian curvature $K$ is given by

$$
K=\operatorname{Det}\left(W_{p}\right)=\frac{e g-f^{2}}{E G-F^{2}},
$$

and the mean curvature is given by

$$
H=\frac{1}{2} \frac{e G-2 f F+g E}{E G-F^{2}}
$$

(d) The principal curvatures $k_{1}, k_{2}$ are the roots of the quadratic equation

$$
k^{2}-2 H k+K=0,
$$

which are given by

$$
k=H \pm \sqrt{H^{2}-k}
$$

(ii) Some explicit computations of Gaussian curvature.
(a) The Gaussian curvature of the torus under the parametrization

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(u, v)=((a+r \cos (u)) \cos (v),((a+r \cos (u)) \sin (v), r \sin (u)), \\
0<u<2 \pi, 0<v<2 \pi
\end{gathered}
$$

can be computed to be

$$
K=\frac{\cos (u)}{r(a+r \cos (u))} .
$$

From this, it follows that

$$
K \begin{cases}=0, & \text { if } u=\pi / 2 \text { or } 3 \pi / 2, \\ <0, & \text { if } u \in(\pi / 2,3 \pi / 2), \text { and } \\ >0, & \text { if } u \in(0, \pi / 2) \sqcup(3 \pi / 2,2 \pi) .\end{cases}
$$

(b) Consider the surface of revolution as in 2.2 (viii)(a), where $f$ and $g$ are replaced by $\varphi$ and $\psi$, respectively, so that

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(u, v)=(\varphi(v) \cos (u), \varphi(v) \sin (u), \psi(v)), \\
0<u<2 \pi, a<v<b, \varphi(v) \neq 0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Assuming that the rotating curve is parametrized by arc length, we have

$$
G=\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)^{2}+\left(\psi^{\prime}\right)^{2}=1
$$

so that

$$
K=-\frac{\psi^{\prime}\left(\psi^{\prime} \varphi^{\prime \prime}-\psi^{\prime \prime} \varphi^{\prime}\right)}{\varphi}
$$

(c) Let $G_{f}=\{(x, y, f(x, y)):(x, y) \in U\}$ be the graph of a smooth function $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$, where $U$ is open. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
K=\frac{f_{x x} f_{y y}-f_{x y}^{2}}{\left(1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}\right)^{2}} \\
2 H=\frac{\left(1+f_{x}^{2}\right) f_{y y}-2 f_{x} f_{y} f_{x y}+\left(1+f_{y}^{2}\right) f_{x x}}{\left(1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}\right)^{3 / 1}}
\end{gathered}
$$

(iii) Let $S$ be an oriented surface, and let $p \in S$ with $K(p) \neq 0$. Then there exists a neighborhood of $p$ in $S$ restricted to which the Gauss map $N: S \rightarrow S^{2}$ is a diffeomorphism onto its image. Furthermore, $K(p)$ is positive (resp. negative) if, and only if, this diffeomorphism is orientation-preserving (resp. reversing) with respect to the given orientation $N$ of $S$.
(iv) Let $S$ be a regular surface, and let $p \in S$.
(a) If $K(p)>0$, then a sufficiently small neighborhood of $p$ in $S$ lies entirely on one side of the plane $p+T_{p}(S)$.
(b) If $K(p)<0$, then every neighborhood of $p$ in $S$ intersects both sides of the plane $p+T_{p}(S)$.

### 3.4 Minimal surfaces

(i) A regular parametrized surface is called minimal if its mean curvature vanishes everywhere.
(ii) Let $f: U\left(\subset \mathbb{R}^{2}\right) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a regular parametrized surface. Let $D \subset U$ be a bounded domain, and let $h: \bar{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differential function. The normal variation of $f(\bar{D})$ determined by $h$, is the map

$$
\varphi: \bar{D} \times(\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}
$$

defined by

$$
\varphi(u, v, t)=f(u, v)+t h(u, v) N(u, v),(u, v) \in \bar{D} \text { and } t \in(-\epsilon, \epsilon) .
$$

(iii) Given a bounded variation $\varphi$ as above, for each $t \in(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$, the map $f^{t}: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ given by

$$
f^{t}(u, v)=\varphi(u, v, t)
$$

is a parametrized regular surface for $\epsilon$ sufficiently small. Let $E^{t}, F^{t}, G^{t}$ be the coefficients of the first fundamental form of this surface. The area of $f^{t}(\bar{D})$ is given by

$$
A(t)=\int_{\bar{D}} \sqrt{E^{t} G^{t}-\left(F^{t}\right)^{2}} d u d v=\int_{\bar{D}} \sqrt{1-4 t h H+\bar{R}} \sqrt{E G-F^{2}} d u d v
$$

where $\bar{R}=R /\left(E G-F^{2}\right)$. Consequently,

$$
A^{\prime}(0)=-\int_{\bar{D}} 2 h H \sqrt{E G-F^{2}} d u d v
$$

(iv) Let $f: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{3}$ be a regular parametrized surface, and let $D \subset U$ be a bounded domain. Then $f$ is minimal if, and only if, $A^{\prime}(0)=0$ for all $D$ and all bounded variations of $f(\bar{D})$.
(v) A regular parametrized surface $f(u, v)$ is said to be isothermal if

$$
\left\langle f_{u}, f_{v}\right\rangle=\left\langle f_{v}, f_{u}\right\rangle \text { and }\left\langle f_{u}, f_{v}\right\rangle=0
$$

(vi) The mean curvature vector $\mathcal{H}$ of a regular parametrized surface is defined by $\mathcal{H}=H N$.
(vii) Let $f=f(u, v)$ be a regular parametrized surface, and $f$ be isothermal. Then

$$
f_{u u}+f_{v v}=2 \lambda^{2} \mathcal{H}
$$

where $\lambda^{2}=\left\langle f_{u}, f_{u}\right\rangle=\left\langle f_{v}, f_{v}\right\rangle$.
(viii) Let $f(u, v)=x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v))$ be a parametrized surface with isothermal coordinates. Then $f$ is minimal if, and only if, its coordinated functions $x(u, v), y(u, v)$, and $z(u, v)$ are harmonic.
(ix) Examples of minimal surfaces.
(a) The catenoid given by
$f(u, v)=(a \cosh (v) \cos (u), a \cosh (v) \sin (u), a v), u \in(0,2 \pi), v \in \mathbb{R}$, is the surface obtained by rotating the catenary $y=a \cosh (z / a)$ about the $z$-axis is a minimal surface. In fact, it is the only minimal surface of revolution.
(b) The helicoid given by
$f(u, v)=(a \sinh (v) \cos (u), a \sinh (v) \sin (u), a u), u \in(0,2 \pi), v \in \mathbb{R}$, is a minimal surface.

## 4 The Gauss-Bonnet Theorem

### 4.1 Geodesics

(i) A regular curve $\gamma: I \rightarrow S$ in a surface $S$ is called a geodesic if for every $t \in I$, the the acceleration vector $\gamma^{\prime \prime}(t)$ is a normal vector to $S$ at $\gamma(t)$ (i.e normal to $T_{\gamma(t)}(S)$ ).
(ii) (Existence and uniqueness of geodesics) Let $S$ be a regular surface, $p \in S$, and $v \in T_{p}(S)$ with $r=|v| \neq 0$. Then there exists $\epsilon=\epsilon(p, r)>0$ such that:
(a) There exists a geodesic $\gamma_{v}:(-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow S$ satisfying conditions $\gamma_{v}(0)=p$ and $\gamma_{v}^{\prime}(0)=v$.
(b) Any two geodesics with this domain satisying these initial conditions must be equal.

Furthermore, $\gamma_{v}(t)$ depends smoothly on $p, v, t$.
(iii) Examples of geodesics.
(a) A regular curve $\gamma$ in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ if, and only if, it is (or part of) a straight line parametrized by constant speed.
(b) There exists no geodesic between any two points on either side of the origin in $\mathbb{R}^{2} \backslash\{(0,0)\}$.
(c) Any geodesic on the unit sphere $S^{2}$ centered at the origin is a great circle (or a part of a great circle). That is, given $p \in S^{2}$ and $v \in T_{p}\left(S^{2}\right)$,

$$
\gamma(t)=(\cos (t)) p+(\sin (t)) v
$$

is a geodesic.
(d) The helix $\gamma(t)=(\cos (t), \sin (t), c t)$ is a geodesic in the cylinder $C=\left\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^{3}: x^{2}+y^{2}=1\right\}$.
(iv) (Clairaut's theorem) Let $S$ be a surface of revolution. Let $\beta: I \rightarrow S$ be a unit-speed curve in $S$. For every $s \in I$, let $\rho(s)$ denote the distance from $\beta(s)$ to the axis of rotation and let $\psi(s) \in[0, \pi]$ denote the angle between $\beta^{\prime}(s)$ and the longitudinal curve through $\beta(s)$.
(a) If $\beta$ is a geodesic, then $\rho(s) \sin (\psi(s))$ is constant on $I$.
(b) If $\rho(s) \sin (\psi(s))$ is a constant on $I$, then $\beta$ is a geodesic, provided no segment of $\beta$ equals a subsegment of a latitudinal curve.

### 4.2 The Local Gauss-Bonnet theorem

(i) Let $S$ be an oriented surface.
(a) A subset $R \subset S$ is called a region of $S$ if it equals the union of a open set in $S$ together with its boundary.
(b) A region $R \subset S$ is called regular if its boundary $(\partial R)$ equals the union of the finitely many piecewise-regular simple closed curves.
(c) A parametrization $\gamma:[a, b] \rightarrow R$ of a boundary component regular region in $S$ is said to be positively-oriented if $R$ is to one's left as one traverses $\gamma$.
(ii) (The Local Gauss-Bonnet Theorem) Let $S$ be an oriented regular surface and $R \subset S$ a polygonal region. Let $\gamma:[a, b] \rightarrow R$ be a unit-speed positively-oriented parametrization of $\partial R$, with signed angles denoted by $\left\{\alpha_{i}\right\}$. Then

$$
\underbrace{\int_{a}^{b} \kappa_{g}(t) d t+\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}}_{\text {angle displacement around } \gamma}=2 \pi-\iint_{R} K d A .
$$

### 4.3 The Global Gauss-Bonnet Theorem

(i) Let $S$ be a regular surface.
(a) A triangle in $S$ is a polygonal region with three vertices. The three smooth segments of the boundary of a triangular region are called edges.
(b) A triangulation of a regular region $R \subset S$ means a finite family $\left\{T_{1} \ldots, T_{F}\right\}$ of te triangles such that:
(1) $\cup_{i} T_{i}=R$, and
(2) if $i \neq j$, then $T_{i} \cap T_{j}=\emptyset$, or $T_{i} \cap T_{j}$ is a common edge, or $T_{i} \cap T_{j}$ is a common vertex.
(c) The Euler characteristic of a triangulation $\left\{T_{1} \ldots, T_{F}\right\}$ of $R$ is

$$
\chi=V-E+F
$$

(ii) Let $S$ be a regular surface, and $R \subset S$ be a regular region. Two distinct triangulations of $R$ has the same Euler characteristic.
(iii) Every regular surface admits a triangulation.
(iv) The Euler characteristic $\chi(S)$ of a regular surface $S$ is defined to be the Euler characteristic of any triangulation of $S$.
(v) The Euler characteristic of (the triangulation of) a regular surface is a topological invariant. That is, homeomorphic regular surfaces have the same Euler characteristic.
(vi) Examples of $\chi$ for surfaces.
(a) $\chi\left(S^{2}\right)=2$.
(b) $\chi\left(D^{2}\right)=1$, where $D^{2}$ is a closed disk. Consequently, $\chi(R)=1$, when $R$ is a simple polygonal region.
(c) $\chi(A)=0$, where $A$ is the annulus (or the cylinder).
(d) $\chi\left(S_{g}\right)=2-2 g$, where $S_{g}$ denoted the closed oriented surface of genus $g \geq 1$. In particular, $\chi\left(S_{g}\right)<0$, when $g \geq 2$.
(vii) (The Global Gauss-Bonnet Theorem) Let $S$ be an oriented regular surface and $R \subset S$ a regular region with unit-speed positively-oriented boundary components. Then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} \kappa_{g}(t) d t+\sum_{i} \alpha_{i}=2 \pi \chi(R)-\iint_{R} K d A
$$

where $\int_{a}^{b} \kappa_{g}(t)$ denotes the sum of the integrals over all boundary components of $R$, and $\sum \alpha_{i}$ denotes the sum of the signed interior angles over all vertices of all boundary components of $R$.

### 4.4 Some applications of the Gauss-Bonnet theorem

(i) If $S$ is a closed oriented surface, then

$$
\iint_{S} K d A=2 \pi \chi(S) .
$$

In particular, if $S$ has constant curvature $K$, then

$$
K \operatorname{Area}(S)=2 \pi \chi(S)
$$

(ii) If $S$ is a regular surface with $K \geq 0$, then two geodesics from a point $p \in S$ cannot again at a point $q \in S$ so that they cobound a region that is diffeomorphic to a disk.
(iii) If $S$ is a regular surface that is diffeomorphic to a cylinder with $K<0$, then $S$ has at most one closed geodesic (up to reparametrization).

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