

# Differential Geometry Notes

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Source files: [https://git.simonxiang.xyz/math\\_notes/files.html](https://git.simonxiang.xyz/math_notes/files.html)

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## Curves and Surfaces

### 1.1 Curves

A curve  $\mathcal{C} := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid f(x, y) = c\}$ . Curves in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  are defined similarly. These are called **level curves**.

**Definition 1.1.** A **parametrized curve** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a map  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  for some  $\alpha, \beta$  with  $-\infty \leq \alpha \leq \beta \leq \infty$ . A parametrized curve whose image is contained in a level curve  $\mathcal{C}$  is called a **parametrization** of  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Example 1.1.** We parametrize the parabola. If  $\gamma(t) = (\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t))$ , the components  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  of  $\gamma$  must satisfy  $\gamma_2(t) = \gamma_1(t)^2$  for all  $t \in (\alpha, \beta)$ . The parametrization  $\gamma: (-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $\gamma(t) = (t, t^2)$  works, as well as  $\gamma(t) = (t^3, t^6)$ ,  $\gamma(t) = (2t, 4t^2)$ , and so on.

For the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , we could try  $x = t$ , but that only hits half of  $S^1$ . What satisfies  $\gamma_1(t)^2 + \gamma_2(t)^2 = 1$ ?  $\gamma_1(t) = \cos t$  and  $\gamma_2(t) = \sin t$  do. The interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$  is overkill since the map has infinite degree.

**Example 1.2.** Consider the *astroid*  $\gamma(t) = (\cos^3 t, \sin^3 t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$  for all  $t$ , then  $x = \cos^3 t$ ,  $y = \sin^3 t$  satisfy  $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = 1$ .

A function  $f: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **smooth** if  $\frac{d^n f}{dt^n}$  exists for all  $n \geq 1$  and  $t \in (\alpha, \beta)$ . Smoothness is preserved under addition, multiplication, composition, etc. You differentiate vector valued functions componentwise, and we denote  $d\gamma/dt$  by  $\dot{\gamma}(t)$ ,  $d^2\gamma/dt^2$  by  $\ddot{\gamma}(t)$ , etc.

**Definition 1.2.** If  $\gamma$  is a parametrized curve, then  $\dot{\gamma}(t)$  is the **tangent vector** of  $\gamma$  at the point  $\gamma(t)$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** If the tangent vector of a parametrized curve is constant, then the image of the curve is a straight line.

*Proof.* If  $\dot{\gamma}(t) = \mathbf{a}$  for all  $t$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$  is constant, then

$$\gamma(t) = \int \frac{d\gamma}{dt} dt = \int \mathbf{a} dt = t\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b},$$

where  $\mathbf{b}$  is another constant vector. □

**Example 1.3.** The **limaçon** is the parametrized curve  $\gamma(t) = ((1 + 2\cos t)\cos t, (1 + 2\cos t)\sin t)$ ,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . There's a self intersection at the origin, the tangent vector is  $\dot{\gamma}(t) = (-\sin t - 2\sin 2t, \cos t + 2\cos 2t)$ . This is well defined, but takes two different values at  $t = 2\pi/3$  and  $t = 4\pi/3$ .

### 1.2 Arc Length

The length of a straight line segment between two points  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is  $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$ , given the standard norm/inner product/metric/blah on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 1.3.** The **arc-length** of a curve  $\gamma$  starting at  $\gamma(t_0)$  is the function  $s(t)$  given by

$$s(t) = \int_{t_0}^t \|\dot{\gamma}(u)\| du.$$

**Example 1.4.** For a **logarithmic spiral**  $\gamma(t) = (e^{kt} \cos t, e^{kt} \sin t)$ , we have  $\dot{\gamma} = (e^{kt}(k \cos t - \sin t), e^{kt}(k \sin t + \cos t))$ , so  $\|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 = e^{2kt}(k \cos t - \sin t)^2 + e^{2kt}(k \sin t + \cos t)^2 = (k^2 + 1)e^{2kt}$ . Then the arc length of  $\gamma$  starting at  $\gamma(0) = (1, 0)$  is

$$s = \int_0^t \sqrt{k^2 + 1} e^{ku} du = \frac{\sqrt{k^2 + 1}}{k} (e^{kt} - 1).$$

Note that the arc-length is differentiable, that is,

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{t_0}^t \|\dot{\gamma}(u)\| du = \|\dot{\gamma}(t)\|.$$

**Definition 1.4.** If  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a parametrized curve, its **speed** at the point  $\gamma(t)$  is  $\|\dot{\gamma}(t)\|$ , and  $\gamma$  is said to be a **unit-speed** curve if  $\dot{\gamma}(t)$  is a unit vector for all  $t \in (\alpha, \beta)$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** Let  $\mathbf{n}(t)$  be a unit vector that is a smooth function of parameter  $t$ . Then the dot product  $\dot{\mathbf{n}}(t) \cdot \mathbf{n}(t) = 0$  for all  $t$ , i.e.,  $\dot{\mathbf{n}}(t)$  is zero or orthogonal to  $\mathbf{n}(t)$  for all  $t$ . If  $\gamma$  is a unit-speed curve, then  $\ddot{\gamma}$  is zero or perpendicular to  $\dot{\gamma}$ .

*Proof.* We differentiate  $\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 1$  to get  $\dot{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{n} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{n}} = 0$ , so  $\dot{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 0$ . ⊠

### 1.3 Reparametrization

A parametrized curve  $\tilde{\gamma}: (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is a **reparametrization** of a parametrized curve  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  if there is a smooth bijective map  $\phi: (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}) \rightarrow (\alpha, \beta)$  (the *reparametrization map*) such that the inverse map  $\phi^{-1}: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta})$  is also smooth and  $\tilde{\gamma}(\tilde{t}) = \gamma(\phi(\tilde{t}))$  for all  $\tilde{t} \in (\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta})$ .

Note that since  $\phi$  has a smooth inverse,  $\gamma$  is a reparametrization of  $\tilde{\gamma}$ , since  $\tilde{\gamma}(\phi^{-1}(t)) = \gamma(\phi(\phi^{-1}(t))) = \gamma(t)$  for all  $t \in (\alpha, \beta)$ .

**Example 1.5.** We can reparametrize the circle as  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = (\sin t, \cos t)$ . To show this, we want to find a reparametrization map  $\phi$  such that  $(\cos \phi(t), \sin \phi(t)) = (\sin t, \cos t)$ .  $\phi(t) = \pi/2 - t$  works.

**Definition 1.5.** A point  $\gamma(t)$  of a parametrized curve  $\gamma$  is called a **regular point** if  $\dot{\gamma}(t) \neq \mathbf{0}$ ; otherwise  $\gamma(t)$  is a **singular point** of  $\gamma$ . A curve is **regular** if all of its points are regular.

**Proposition 1.3.** Any reparametrization of a regular curve is regular.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\tilde{\gamma}$  is a reparametrization of  $\gamma$ , let  $t = \phi(\tilde{t})$  and  $\psi = \phi^{-1}$  such that  $\tilde{t} = \psi(t)$ . Differentiating both sides of  $\phi(\psi(t)) = t$  WRT  $t$  gives  $\frac{d\phi}{dt} \frac{d\psi}{dt} = 1$ . So  $d\phi/d\tilde{t}$  is never zero. Since  $\tilde{\gamma}(\tilde{t}) = \gamma(\phi(\tilde{t}))$ , differentiating again gives  $\frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{d\tilde{t}} = \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \frac{d\phi}{d\tilde{t}}$ , so  $d\tilde{\gamma}/d\tilde{t}$  is never zero, if  $d\gamma/dt$  is never zero. ⊠

**Proposition 1.4.** If  $\gamma(t)$  is regular, then  $s$  is a smooth function of  $t$ .

*Proof.* Recall that  $\frac{ds}{dt} = \|\dot{\gamma}(t)\| = \sqrt{\dot{u}^2 + \dot{v}^2}$ . Since  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is smooth on  $(0, \infty)$ , along with  $u$  and  $v$ , and  $\dot{u}^2 + \dot{v}^2 > 0$  for all  $t$  (since  $\gamma$  is regular),  $s$  itself is also smooth. ⊠

**Proposition 1.5.** A parametrized curve has a unit-speed reparametrization iff it is regular.

*Proof.* Suppose a parametrized curve  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  has a unit-speed reparametrization  $\tilde{\gamma}$ , with a reparametrization map  $\phi$ . Letting  $t = \phi(\tilde{t})$ , we have  $\tilde{\gamma}(\tilde{t}) = \gamma(t)$  and so

$$\frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{d\tilde{t}} = \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \frac{dt}{d\tilde{t}} \implies \left\| \frac{d\tilde{\gamma}}{d\tilde{t}} \right\| = \left\| \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \right\| \left| \frac{dt}{d\tilde{t}} \right|.$$

Since  $\tilde{\gamma}$  is unit speed,  $\|d\tilde{\gamma}/d\tilde{t}\| = 1$ , so  $d\gamma/dt$  cannot be zero. ⊠

Let's talk about curvature. Curvature measures the extent to which a curve isn't contained in a straight line, while torsion measures the extent to which a curve isn't contained in a plane (so planes have zero torsion). We discover that torsion and curvature determine the shape of a curve.

## 2.1 Curvature

**Definition 2.1.** If  $\gamma$  is a unit-speed curve with parameter  $t$ , its **curvature**  $\kappa(t)$  at the point  $\gamma(t)$  is defined as  $\|\ddot{\gamma}(t)\|$ .

Note that curvature is defined for unit speed curves in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for  $n \geq 2$ . The curvature of a circle is  $1/R$ . If  $\gamma$  is regular, then we can just define the curvature as  $\kappa(\tilde{\gamma})$ , where  $\tilde{\gamma}$  is the unit speed parametrization of  $\gamma$ . Sometimes its hard to write down explicit parametrizations so let's find a definition that doesn't depend on that.

**Proposition 2.1.** Let  $\gamma(t)$  be regular in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Then

$$\kappa = \frac{\|\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^3}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $s$  be a unit speed parametrization of  $\gamma$ . Then  $\dot{\gamma} = \frac{d\gamma}{dt} = \frac{d\gamma}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt}$ , so

$$\kappa = \left\| \frac{d^2\gamma}{ds^2} \right\| = \left\| \frac{d}{ds} \left( \frac{d\gamma}{ds} \right) \right\| = \left\| \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\frac{d\gamma}{ds}}{\frac{ds}{dt}} \right) \right\| = \left\| \frac{\frac{ds}{dt} \frac{d^2\gamma}{ds^2} - \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} \frac{d\gamma}{ds}}{\left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)^3} \right\|.$$

Now  $(ds/dt)^2 = \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 = \dot{\gamma} \cdot \dot{\gamma}$ , and differentiating WRT  $t$  gives  $\frac{ds}{dt} \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} = \dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma}$ . Combining this with our huge equation above we have

$$\kappa = \left\| \frac{\left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)^2 \ddot{\gamma} - \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} \frac{ds}{dt} \dot{\gamma}}{\left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)^4} \right\| = \frac{\|(\dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma})\ddot{\gamma} - (\dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma})\dot{\gamma}\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^4}.$$

Since  $a \times (b \times c) = (a \cdot c)b - (a \cdot b)c$ , we have  $\dot{\gamma} \times (\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma}) = (\dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma})\ddot{\gamma} - (\dot{\gamma} \cdot \dot{\gamma})\ddot{\gamma}$ . Furthermore,  $\dot{\gamma}$  and  $\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma}$  are orthogonal, so  $\|\dot{\gamma} \times (\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma})\| = \|\dot{\gamma}\| \|\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma}\|$ . Therefore

$$\frac{\|(\dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma})\ddot{\gamma} - (\dot{\gamma} \cdot \ddot{\gamma})\dot{\gamma}\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^4} = \frac{\|\dot{\gamma} \times (\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma})\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^4} = \frac{\|\dot{\gamma}\| \|\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma}\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^4} = \frac{\|\ddot{\gamma} \times \dot{\gamma}\|}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|^3}.$$

□

This formula for curvature makes sense if  $\dot{\gamma} \neq 0$ . So the curvature is defined for all regular points on a curve.

**Example 2.1.** Consider the **circular helix** defined by

$$\gamma(\theta) = (a \cos \theta, a \sin \theta, b\theta), \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R},$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants. The **radius** of the helix is  $a$  and the **pitch** is  $2\pi b$ . To compute the curvature, note that  $\|\dot{\gamma}(\theta)\| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ , so  $\dot{\gamma}(\theta)$  is never zero (and hence  $\gamma$  is regular) for  $a \neq 0$  and  $b \neq 0$ . The book does this with some cross product stuff, and it turns out to be constant with curvature  $\frac{|a|}{a^2 + b^2}$ . If  $b = 0$ , this projects the helix onto the plane, and so the curvature is  $1/|a|$ . If  $a = 0$ , then the helix is a straight line, so the curvature is zero.

## 2.2 Plane curves

Say  $\gamma(s)$  is unit speed in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and let  $\mathbf{t} = \dot{\gamma}$  be the **tangent vector** of  $\gamma$ . Define  $\mathbf{n}_s$ , the **signed unit normal** of  $\gamma$ , to be the unit vector obtained by rotating  $\mathbf{t}$  counterclockwise by  $\pi/2$ . Now  $\dot{\mathbf{t}} = \ddot{\gamma}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{t}$ , and therefore parallel to  $\mathbf{n}_s$ . So we have a scalar  $\kappa_s$  such that  $\ddot{\gamma} = \kappa_s \mathbf{n}_s$ . This  $\kappa_s$  is the **signed curvature** of  $\gamma$ . Since  $\|\mathbf{n}_s\| = 1$ , we have

$$\kappa = \|\ddot{\gamma}\| = \|\kappa_s \mathbf{n}_s\| = |\kappa_s|.$$

Positive curvature curves outward, negative curvature points inward. For  $\gamma$  a regular but not unit-speed curve, define  $\mathbf{t}$ ,  $\mathbf{n}_s$ , and  $\kappa_s$  as the ones corresponding to its unit speed parametrization  $\tilde{\gamma}(s)$ , where  $s$  is the arc-length of  $\gamma$ . So  $\mathbf{t} = \frac{d\gamma/dt}{ds/dt} = \frac{d\gamma/dt}{\|\dot{\gamma}\|}$ ,  $\mathbf{n}_s$  is obtained by rotating  $\mathbf{t}$  counterclockwise by  $\pi/2$ , and

$$\frac{d\mathbf{t}}{dt} = \frac{d\mathbf{t}}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt} = \kappa_s \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{n}_s = \kappa_s \left\| \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \right\| \mathbf{n}_s.$$

If  $\gamma$  is unit-speed, the direction of the tangent vector  $\dot{\gamma}(s)$  is measured by  $\varphi(s)$  where  $\dot{\gamma}(s) = (\cos \varphi(s), \sin \varphi(s))$ . The angle  $\varphi(s)$  is not always unique, but we do always have a *smooth* choice:

**Proposition 2.2.** Let  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  be a unit-speed curve, let  $s_0 \in (\alpha, \beta)$ , and let  $\varphi_0$  satisfy

$$\dot{\gamma}(s_0) = (\cos \varphi_0, \sin \varphi_0).$$

Then we have a unique smooth function  $\varphi: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\varphi(s_0) = \varphi_0$  and that  $\dot{\gamma}(s) = (\cos \varphi(s), \sin \varphi(s))$  for all  $s \in (\alpha, \beta)$ .

*Proof.* time is finite □

**Definition 2.2.** The smooth function  $\varphi$  is the **turning angle** of  $\gamma$  determined by the condition  $\varphi(s_0) = \varphi_0$ .

**Proposition 2.3.** Let  $\gamma(s)$  be a unit-speed plane curve, and let  $\varphi(s)$  be a turning angle for  $\gamma$ . Then  $\kappa_s = d\varphi/ds$ . So the signed curvature is the rate at which the tangent vector of the curve rotates.

*Proof.* Now  $\mathbf{t} = (\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi)$ , so  $\dot{\mathbf{t}} = \dot{\varphi}(-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi)$ . Since  $\mathbf{n}_s = (-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi)$ ,  $\dot{\mathbf{t}} = \kappa_s \mathbf{n}_s$ . □

**Example 2.2.** Let us compute the signed curvature of the catenary with parametrization  $\gamma(t) = (t, \cosh t)$ . Then  $\dot{\gamma} = (1, \sinh t)$ , and

$$s = \int_0^t \sqrt{1 + \sinh^2 t} dt = \sinh t.$$

If  $\varphi$  is the angle between  $\dot{\gamma}$  and the  $x$ -axis,  $\tan \varphi = \sinh t = s$ , so  $\sec^2 \varphi \frac{d\varphi}{ds} = 1$ , and so

$$\kappa_s = \frac{d\varphi}{ds} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 \varphi} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 \varphi} = \frac{1}{1 + s^2}.$$

**Corollary 2.1.** Define the **total signed curvature** of a unit-speed closed curve  $\gamma$  of length  $\ell$  as  $\int_0^\ell \kappa_s(s) ds$ . Then the total signed curvature of a closed plane curve is an integer multiple of  $2\pi$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma$  be a unit-speed closed plane curve with length  $\ell$ . The total signed curvature is

$$\int_0^\ell \frac{d\varphi}{ds} ds = \varphi(\ell) - \varphi(0),$$

where  $\varphi$  is a turning angle for  $\gamma$ . Since  $\gamma$  is  $\ell$ -periodic,  $\gamma(s + \ell) = \gamma(s)$ . So  $\dot{\gamma}(s + \ell) = \dot{\gamma}(s)$ , in particular  $\dot{\gamma}(\ell) = \dot{\gamma}(0)$ . So

$$(\cos \varphi(\ell), \sin \varphi(\ell)) = (\cos \varphi(0), \sin \varphi(0)),$$

implying that  $\varphi(\ell) - \varphi(0)$  is an integer multiple of  $2\pi$ . □

An **isometry** is a map  $M: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  of the form  $M = T_{\mathbf{a}} \circ \rho_\theta$ , where  $\rho_\theta$  is an anticlockwise rotation by an angle  $\theta$  about the origin, and  $T_{\mathbf{a}}$  is the translation by  $\mathbf{a}$ . That is,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_\theta(x, y) &= (x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta, x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta), \\ T_{\mathbf{a}}(\mathbf{v}) &= \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{a}. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $k: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be smooth. Then we have a unit speed curve  $\gamma: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  whose signed curvature is  $k$ . Furthermore, if  $\tilde{\gamma}: (\alpha, \beta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  is another unit-speed curve with signed curvature  $k$ , there exists an isometry  $M$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that  $\tilde{\gamma}(s) = M(\gamma(s))$  for all  $s \in (\alpha, \beta)$ .

*Proof.* HURRY UP PLEASE IT'S TIME<sup>1</sup> □

**Example 2.3.** Any regular plane curve  $\gamma$  whose curvature is a positive constant is part of a circle. Since  $\kappa_s \pm \kappa$ , the possibility of a curve having  $\kappa_s = \kappa$  at some points and  $\kappa_s = -\kappa$  other places is null because  $\gamma$  is continuous (precisely, by IVT). Given  $\kappa_s$  we want to find a parametrized circle with such signed curvature. By our theorem, every curve with constant curvature maps onto this circle by an isometry. This shows what we wanted to show.

A unit speed parametrization of the circle is  $\gamma(s) = (R \cos \frac{s}{R}, R \sin \frac{s}{R})$ , with tangent vector  $(-\sin \frac{s}{R}, \cos \frac{s}{R})$  making an angle  $\pi/2 + s/R$  with the  $x$ -axis. So the signed curvature of  $\gamma$  is  $\frac{d}{ds}(\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{s}{R}) = \frac{1}{R}$ . So the curve of radius  $1/\kappa_s$  has signed curvature  $\kappa_s$ . If  $\kappa_s < 0$ , the curve  $\tilde{\gamma}(s) = (R \cos \frac{s}{R}, -R \sin \frac{s}{R})$  has signed curvature  $-\frac{1}{R}$ .

<sup>1</sup>I have an exam tomorrow and am cramming material, hence all the omitted proofs.

**Example 2.4.** Simple curvatures can lead to complicated curves. For example, if  $\kappa_s(s) = s$ , taking  $s_0 = 0$  we have  $\varphi(s) = \int_0^s u \, du = \frac{s^2}{2}$ , so

$$\gamma(s) = \left( \int_0^s \cos\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt, \int_0^s \sin\left(\frac{t^2}{2}\right) dt \right)$$

The curve is really pretty, and is called *Cornu's Spiral*. These integrals cannot be evaluated in 'elementary functions', and are called *Fresnel's integrals*. They arise when studying diffraction of light.

**Remark 2.1.** How do we compute  $\kappa_s$  in general?

- (1) Compute the standard curvature and find out the sign,
- (2) Use the formula  $\kappa_s = d\varphi/ds$ , then note that  $\tan \varphi = y\text{-component of } \gamma' \text{ divided by } x\text{-component of } \gamma'$ , and use  $\sec^2 \varphi \frac{d\varphi}{ds} = \text{whatever}$ ,
- (3) Note that  $\mathbf{t} = \gamma' / \|\gamma'\|$  and  $d\mathbf{t}/ds := \kappa_s \mathbf{n}_s$ , where  $\mathbf{n}_s = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{t}$ .

## 2.3 Space curves

Curves in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  are not determined by their curvature. Let  $\gamma(s)$  be unit-speed in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , and  $\mathbf{t} = \dot{\gamma}$  be its unit tangent. If  $\kappa(s)$  is non-zero, define the **principal normal** of  $\gamma$  at  $\gamma(s)$  to be the vector  $\mathbf{n}(s) = \frac{1}{\kappa(s)} \dot{\mathbf{t}}(s)$ . Since  $\|\dot{\mathbf{t}}\| = \kappa$ ,  $\mathbf{n}$  is a unit vector. Since  $\mathbf{t} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{t}} = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{t}$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  are actually orthogonal. Then the **binormal** vector  $\mathbf{b} := \mathbf{t} \times \mathbf{n}$  is orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{t}$  and  $\mathbf{n}$ , so we have  $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}\}$  an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Furthermore, this basis is *right-handed*, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{t} \times \mathbf{n}, \quad \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{t}, \quad \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{b}.$$

Note that  $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = \dot{\mathbf{t}} \times \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{t} \times \dot{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{t} \times \dot{\mathbf{n}}$ . Since  $\dot{\mathbf{b}}$  is orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{t}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , it must be a scalar multiple of  $\mathbf{n}$ , that is,  $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = -\tau \mathbf{n}$  for some  $\tau$ . Let us call the  $\tau$  the **torsion** of  $\gamma$ . Note that curvature and torsion are well-defined for any regular curve.

**Proposition 2.4.** Let  $\gamma(t)$  be a regular curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with nowhere vanishing curvature. Then

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

*Proof.* (algebra) ⊠

**Example 2.5.** Let us compute the torsion of the circular helix  $\gamma(\theta) = (a \cos \theta, a \sin \theta, b\theta)$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\gamma}(\theta) &= (-a \sin \theta, a \cos \theta, b), \\ \ddot{\gamma}(\theta) &= (-a \cos \theta, -a \sin \theta, 0), \\ \dddot{\gamma}(\theta) &= (a \sin \theta, -a \cos \theta, 0), \\ \|\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}\|^2 &= a^2(a^2 + b^2), \quad (\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}) \cdot \dddot{\gamma} = a^2 b, \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\tau = \frac{(\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}) \cdot \dddot{\gamma}}{\|\dot{\gamma} \times \ddot{\gamma}\|^2} = \frac{a^2 b}{a^2(a^2 + b^2)} = \frac{b}{a^2 + b^2}.$$

**Proposition 2.5.** Let  $\gamma$  be a regular curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with nowhere vanishing curvature. Then the image of  $\gamma$  is contained in a plane iff  $\tau = 0$  at all points on  $\gamma$ .

*Proof.* Suppose the image of  $\gamma$  is contained in a plane  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{N} = d$ , where  $\mathbf{N}$  is a constant vector,  $d$  is a constant scalar, and  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ . Assume  $\mathbf{N}$  is a unit vector, then differentiating  $\gamma \cdot \mathbf{N} = d$  wrt  $s$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{N} &= 0 \implies \dot{\mathbf{t}} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0. \\ &\implies \kappa \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0 \\ &\implies \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

So both  $\mathbf{n}$  and  $\mathbf{t}$  are orthogonal to  $\mathbf{N}$ , which implies  $\mathbf{b}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{N}$ . So  $\mathbf{b}(s) = \pm \mathbf{N}$  for all  $s$ . In either case,  $\mathbf{b}$  is constant, so  $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = 0$ , and  $\tau = 0$ .

Now assume  $\tau = 0$ . Then  $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = 0$ , and  $\mathbf{b}$  is constant. Consider

$$\frac{d}{ds}(\gamma \cdot \mathbf{b}) = \dot{\gamma} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0,$$

so  $\gamma \cdot \mathbf{b}$  is a scalar (say  $d$ ). So  $\gamma$  is contained in the plane  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{b} = d$ . □

We know that  $\dot{\mathbf{t}} = \kappa \mathbf{n}$  and  $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = -\tau \mathbf{n}$  by definition, but we don't know how to compute  $\dot{\mathbf{n}}$ . Since  $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{b}\}$  form a right-handed orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we have  $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{t}$ . So

$$\dot{\mathbf{n}} = \dot{\mathbf{b}} \times \mathbf{t} + \mathbf{b} \times \dot{\mathbf{t}} = -\tau \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{t} + \kappa \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{n} = -\kappa \mathbf{t} + \tau \mathbf{b}.$$

**Theorem 2.2** (Frenet-Serret equations). *Let  $\gamma$  be unit-speed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with nowhere vanishing curvature. Then*

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\mathbf{t}} &= \kappa \mathbf{n}, \\ \dot{\mathbf{n}} &= -\kappa \mathbf{t} + \tau \mathbf{b} \\ \dot{\mathbf{b}} &= -\tau \mathbf{n}.\end{aligned}$$

*These equations are called the **Frenet-Serret equations**. Note that the matrix in the matrix equation*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \kappa & 0 \\ -\kappa & 0 & \tau \\ 0 & -\tau & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{n} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\mathbf{t}} \\ \dot{\mathbf{n}} \\ \dot{\mathbf{b}} \end{bmatrix}$$

*is skew-symmetric, that is,  $A = -A^T$ .*

**Theorem 2.3.** *Let  $\gamma(s)$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}(s)$  be two unit-speed curves in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with the same curvature  $\kappa(s) > 0$  and torsion  $\tau(s)$  for all  $s$ . Then we have an isometry  $M$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that*

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

*Furthermore, if  $k$  and  $t$  are smooth function with  $k > 0$  everywhere, then there is unit-speed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  whose curvature is  $k$  and torsion is  $t$ .*

Lecture 3

## Global properties of curves

### 3.1 Simple closed curves

**Definition 3.1.** A **simple closed curve** in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a closed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with no self-intersections. We say  $\gamma$  is **positively-oriented** if the signed unit normal  $\mathbf{n}_s$  of  $\gamma$  points into  $\gamma^\circ$  at each point of  $\gamma$ .

**Hopf's Umlaufsatz.** *The total signed curvature of a simple closed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is  $\pm 2\pi$ .*

We already know that the total signed curvature of any closed curve is an integer multiple of  $2\pi$ , the *Umlaufsatz* (German for 'rotation theorem') states that this integer must be  $\pm 1$ .

### 3.2 The isoperimetric inequality

The **area** in a simple closed curve is given by  $\mathcal{A}(\gamma) = \int_{\gamma^\circ} dx dy$ , which can be computed by Green's theorem.

**Green's Theorem.** *Let  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  be smooth and  $\gamma$  be a positively oriented simple closed curve. Then*

$$\int_{\gamma^\circ} \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) dx dy = \int_{\gamma} f(x, y) dx + g(x, y) dy.$$

**Proposition 3.1.** If  $\gamma(t) = (x(t), y(t))$  is a positively-oriented simple closed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with period  $T$ , then

$$\mathcal{A}(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T (x\dot{y} - y\dot{x}) dt.$$

*Proof.* Let  $f = -\frac{1}{2}y$ ,  $g = \frac{1}{2}x$  in Green's theorem, then  $\mathcal{A}(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\gamma} x dy - y dx$ .  $\square$

**Isoperimetric Inequality.** Let  $\gamma$  be a simple closed curve,  $\ell(\gamma)$  be its length, and  $\mathcal{A}(\gamma)$  be the area contained in it. Then

$$\mathcal{A}(\gamma) \leq \frac{1}{4\pi} \ell(\gamma)^2,$$

and equality holds iff  $\gamma$  is a circle.

Use something called Wirtinger's Inequality.

### 3.3 The four vertex theorem

**Definition 3.2.** A **vertex** of a curve  $\gamma(t)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  is a point where its signed curvature  $\kappa_s$  has a stationary point, i.e., where  $d\kappa_s/dt = 0$ .

**Four Vertex Theorem.** Every simple closed curve in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  has at least four vertices.

Lecture 4

## Surfaces in three dimensions

### 4.1 What are surfaces?

Do you know what open sets are?

**Definition 4.1.** A subset  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is **open** if for  $\mathbf{a} \in U$ , there exists an  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that every  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  within a distance  $\varepsilon$  of  $\mathbf{a}$  also lies in  $U$ . Using equations:

$$\mathbf{a} \in U \text{ and } \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{a}\| < \varepsilon \implies \mathbf{u} \in U.$$

In simpler terms, every point has a neighborhood contained in  $U$ .

$\mathbb{R}^n$  is open but the closed ball is not. Consider a map  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . We say  $f$  is **continuous** at  $\mathbf{a}$  if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for  $\mathbf{u} \in X$ ,

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{a}\| < \delta \implies \|f(\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{a})\| < \varepsilon.$$

This is equivalent to the fact that the preimage of an open set is open. See here for more details: [simonxiang.xyz/blog/topological-continuity-simplicity-in-abstraction](https://simonxiang.xyz/blog/topological-continuity-simplicity-in-abstraction)<sup>2</sup>. Homeomorphism are continuous bijections with a continuous inverse.

**Definition 4.2.** A set  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  is a **surface** if for every  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathcal{S}$ , there is an open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$  and an open set  $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  containing  $\mathbf{p}$  such that  $\mathcal{S} \cap W$  is homeomorphic to  $U$ . Basically, locally a surface has to look like a 2-manifold (rather, it is a 2-manifold). A homeomorphism  $\sigma : U \rightarrow \mathcal{S} \cap W$  defined above is a **surface patch** or **parametrization** of the open subset  $\mathcal{S} \cap W$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ . A collection of charts covering  $\mathcal{S}$  forms an **atlas** of  $\mathcal{S}$ .

OK, we called surface patches charts in differential topology, so I will be calling surface patches charts from now on. Aren't we missing the condition that charts have to be  $C^\infty$  compatible as well to form an atlas?

<sup>2</sup>shameless plug



**Example 4.1.** A plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a 2-manifold with a single chart. Let  $\mathbf{a}$  lie in the plane, and  $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}$  be orthogonal unit vectors parallel to the plane. If  $\mathbf{v}$  also lies in the plane, then  $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a}$  is parallel to the plane, so  $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a} = u\mathbf{p} + v\mathbf{q}$ . So the surface patch is  $\sigma(u, v) = \mathbf{a} + u\mathbf{p} + v\mathbf{q}$ , with inverse  $\sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{v}) = ((\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{p}, (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{q})$ . This is clearly a continuous homeomorphism.

**Example 4.2.** Why do we talk about charts? Consider a *circular cylinder*, the set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  a fixed distance from an axis. For example, say the circle is of radius 1 around the  $z$ -axis, which we will call the *unit cylinder*. This is defined by

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1\}.$$

We can parametrize this by  $\sigma(u, v) = (\cos u, \sin u, v)$ . The map  $\sigma$  is continuous but not injective, since it's periodic. Restricting to an interval of length less than  $2\pi$  gives an injective map, say  $[0, 2\pi]$ . However, although the restriction  $\sigma|_V$  where  $V = \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid u \in [0, 2\pi]\}$  is injective,  $V$  is not open and so  $\sigma|_V$  is not a surface patch. If we restrict  $\sigma$  to  $U = V^\circ = \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid u \in (0, 2\pi)\}$ , then  $\sigma|_U$  is a chart. However,  $\sigma|_U$  does not hit the line  $x = 1, y = 0$  in  $\mathcal{S}$ , so it does not cover  $\mathcal{S}$ .

We need another chart to make an atlas. So consider the chart  $\sigma|_{\tilde{U}}$ , where  $\tilde{U} = \{(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid u \in [-\pi, \pi]\}$ . This covers  $\mathcal{S}$  sans the line  $x = -1, y = 0$ . Joining these two charts give an atlas, and so  $\mathcal{S}$  is a surface.

**Example 4.3.** Say hello to your old friend  $S^2$ , defined by

$$S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}.$$

A popular parametrization is given by latitude  $\theta$  and longitude  $\varphi$ : projecting a point  $p$  on the sphere down to the  $xy$ -plane gives a point  $q$ , then  $\theta$  is the angle between  $p$  and  $q$ , and  $\varphi$  is the angle between  $q$  and the positive  $x$ -axis. Circles corresponding to  $\theta$  are called **parallels**, and those corresponding to  $\varphi$  are called **meridians**.

To find an explicit parametrization, we want to express  $p$  in terms of  $\theta$  and  $\varphi$ . The  $z$ -component is  $\sin \theta$  by looking at the triangle. **come back to this since it's important but not essentially important, essentially parametrizing the sphere and showing it's a 2-manifold with two charts**

**Example 4.4.** Our next (non)example is the **circular cone** with a vertex at a point  $\mathbf{v}$  with an axis a straight line  $\ell$  passing through  $\mathbf{v}$ , and an angle  $\alpha$ , where  $\alpha \in (0, \pi/2)$ . It consists of the set of points  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3$  such that the straight line through  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{p}$  makes an angle  $\alpha$  with the line  $\ell$ . For example, for  $\mathbf{v}$  the origin,  $\ell$  the  $z$ -axis and  $\alpha = \pi/4$  we have the circular cone defined by

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 = z^2\}.$$

If we take the image of a chart around the origin in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , by path-connectedness we can find a path from  $c$  to  $b$ , where  $c$  corresponds to a point  $q$  in the upper cone and  $b$  corresponds to a point  $p$  in the lower cone. Furthermore, we can choose this path to avoid the origin, so its preimage in  $\mathcal{S}$  is a path joining the hemispheres that avoids the origin. However,  $\mathcal{S} \setminus \{0\}$  is not connected, and  $p$  and  $q$  lie in different connected components, so this is a contradiction.

If we delete the origin, we do get a surface  $\mathcal{S}_- \cup \mathcal{S}_+$ , with an atlas consisting of two charts given by the inverse of projection.

Usually a point  $\mathbf{a}$  on a surface will lie in more than two charts. If we want two charts  $\sigma, \tilde{\sigma}$  to speak to each other, consider the **transition maps**  $\sigma^{-1} \circ \tilde{\sigma}, \tilde{\sigma}^{-1} \circ \sigma$ .

## 4.2 Smooth surfaces

We will use the following abbreviations:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial u} = \partial_u \mathbf{f}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}}{\partial u^2} = \partial_{uu} \mathbf{f}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}}{\partial u \partial v} = \partial_{uv} \mathbf{f}, \quad \text{etc.}$$

Answer to my question above: surface is a codeword for topological manifold, while smooth surface is a codeword for smooth manifolds. You know what smooth functions are.

**Definition 4.3.** A surface patch  $\sigma: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is **regular** if it is smooth and the vectors  $\partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma$  are LI at all  $(u, v)$ . Equivalently, the product  $\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma$  should be non-zero at each point in  $U$ .

I guess my usage of chart earlier was incorrect, it's just a local homeomorphism onto its image. Now charts are *allowable surface patches*, or a regular surface patch  $\sigma: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  that is a homeomorphism onto its image. An atlas is what you think it is. (We've talked about compatible charts, where is the condition that charts have to be compatible for a smooth manifold?)

**Example 4.5.** A plane living in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is a surface, as well as the unit cylinder and  $S^2$ .

The book states the condition I've been waiting for as a proposition, that is, the transition maps are smooth. Interesting.

**Proposition 4.1.** Let  $U$  and  $\tilde{U}$  be open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\sigma: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a regular surface patch. Let  $\Phi: \tilde{U} \rightarrow U$  be a smooth bijection with smooth inverse. Then  $\tilde{\sigma} = \sigma \circ \Phi: \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  is a regular surface patch.

*Proof.* We have  $\tilde{\sigma}$  smooth because the composition of smooth maps is smooth. For regularity, let  $(u, v) = \Phi(\tilde{u}, \tilde{v})$ . By the chain rule, we have

$$\partial_{\tilde{u}} \tilde{\sigma} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \tilde{u}} \partial_u \sigma + \frac{\partial v}{\partial \tilde{u}} \partial_v \sigma, \quad \partial_{\tilde{v}} \tilde{\sigma} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial \tilde{v}} \partial_u \sigma + \frac{\partial v}{\partial \tilde{v}} \partial_v \sigma,$$

so

$$\partial_{\tilde{u}} \tilde{\sigma} \times \partial_{\tilde{v}} \tilde{\sigma} = \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial \tilde{u}} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \tilde{v}} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial \tilde{v}} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \tilde{u}} \right) \partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma.$$

Note that the scalar is just the Jacobian determinant of  $\Phi$ , which is nonzero ( $J(\Phi^{-1}) = J(\Phi)^{-1}$ , so  $J(\Phi)$  is invertible). We conclude that  $\tilde{\sigma}$  is regular.  $\square$

We say the chart  $\tilde{\sigma}$  is a **reparametrization** of  $\sigma$ , and  $\Phi$  is a **reparametrization map**. Note that  $\sigma$  is a reparametrization of  $\tilde{\sigma}$  by  $\Phi^{-1}$ . Also note that any two charts are reparametrizations of each other. This is important because we don't want things to depend on our choice of chart. From now on, surface means smooth surface and charat means smooth chart (whoops I've already been doing this). We also assume surfaces are connected.

### 4.3 Smooth maps

Say  $\mathcal{S}_1, \mathcal{S}_2$  are surfaces covered by single charts  $\sigma_1: U_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\sigma_2: U_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ . Then a map  $f: \mathcal{S}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_2$  is **smooth** if the map  $\sigma_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \sigma_1: U_1 \rightarrow U_2$  is smooth.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} U_1 & \xrightarrow{\sigma_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \sigma_1} & U_2 \\ \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \\ \downarrow \sigma_1 & & \downarrow \sigma_2 \\ \mathcal{S}_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathcal{S}_2 \\ \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \end{array}$$

Suppose  $\tilde{\sigma}_1: \tilde{U}_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  and  $\tilde{\sigma}_2: \tilde{U}_2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  are reparametrizations of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  with reparametrization maps  $\Phi_1: \tilde{U}_1 \rightarrow U_1$  and  $\Phi_2: \tilde{U}_2 \rightarrow U_2$ . We want to show that  $\tilde{\sigma}_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \tilde{\sigma}_1: \tilde{U}_1 \rightarrow \tilde{U}_2$  is smooth (provided the other map is smooth).

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \tilde{\sigma}_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \tilde{\sigma}_1 & & \\ & \nearrow \Phi_1 & & \nwarrow \Phi_2 & \\ \tilde{U}_1 & \xrightarrow{\quad} & U_1 & \xrightarrow{\sigma_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \sigma_1} & U_2 & \xleftarrow{\quad} & \tilde{U}_2 \\ & \searrow \sigma_1 & \downarrow \sigma_1 & & \downarrow \sigma_2 & \swarrow \sigma_2 & \\ & & \mathcal{S}_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathcal{S}_2 & & \end{array}$$

If we write  $\tilde{\sigma}_2^{-1} = \Phi_2^{-1} \circ \sigma_2^{-1}$  and  $\tilde{\sigma}_1 = \sigma_1 \circ \Phi_1$ , then substituting and applying the associative property gives the map as  $\Phi_2^{-1} \circ (\sigma_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \sigma_1) \circ \Phi_1$ , which is smooth if each component is. We have the middle component smooth by assumption, and the  $\Phi_i$  are smooth by definition. The composition of smooth functions is also smooth:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & & \xrightarrow{(\sigma_3^{-1} \circ g \circ \sigma_2^{-1}) \circ (\sigma_2 \circ f \circ \sigma_1) = \sigma_3^{-1} \circ (g \circ f) \circ \sigma_1} & & \\
 & \swarrow & & \searrow & \\
 U_1 & \xrightarrow{\sigma_2^{-1} \circ f \circ \sigma_1} & U_2 & \xrightarrow{\sigma_3^{-1} \circ g \circ \sigma_2} & U_3 \\
 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \\
 \downarrow \sigma_1 & & \downarrow \sigma_2 & & \downarrow \sigma_3 \\
 \mathcal{S}_1 & \xrightarrow{f} & \mathcal{S}_2 & \xrightarrow{g} & \mathcal{S}_3 \\
 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 & & \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3
 \end{array}$$

We choose the same chart  $U_2$  that gets mapped onto by  $U_1$  and maps to  $U_3$  since choice of chart is independent of smoothness, as we have just shown. Bijective Smooth maps  $f : \mathcal{S}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_2$  with smooth inverse are called **diffeomorphisms**. A smooth map  $f : \mathcal{S}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_2$  is a **local diffeomorphism** if for any  $p \in \mathcal{S}_1$ , we have an open  $\mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathcal{S}_1$  such that  $f|_{\mathcal{O}}$  is a diffeomorphism onto its image.

**Proposition 4.2.** *Let  $f : \mathcal{S}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_2$  be a local diffeomorphism. If  $f$  is injective and  $\sigma_1$  a smooth chart on  $\mathcal{S}_1$ , then  $f \circ \sigma_1$  is a smooth chart on  $\mathcal{S}_2$ .*

**Example 4.6.** Consider the map from the  $yz$ -plane to the unit cylinder  $\mathcal{S}$ , wrapping each line parallel to the axis around the cylinder at height  $z$ . This map is defined by  $f(0, y, z) = (\cos y, \sin y, z)$ . This is not injective, so not a diffeomorphism, but is a local diffeomorphism. Parametrizing by the chart  $\pi(u, v) = (0, u, v)$  and using the atlas  $\{\sigma|_U, \sigma|_{\tilde{U}}\}$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ , let  $p = (0, a, b)$  be a point in the  $yz$ -plane. If  $a$  is not an even multiple of  $2\pi$ , then we have an  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $2\pi n < a < 2(n+1)\pi$  and

$$f(\pi(u, v)) = \sigma(u - 2\pi n, v) \quad \text{if } 2\pi n < u < 2(n+1)\pi.$$

So  $f$  is a diffeomorphism from the open set  $\mathcal{O} = \{(0, y, z) \mid 2\pi n < y < 2(n+1)\pi\}$  of the plane to the open set  $f(\mathcal{O}) = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathcal{S} \mid x \neq 1\}$ . We use the other chart if  $a$  is not an odd multiple of  $\pi$ .

## 4.4 Tangents and derivatives

A **tangent vector** to a surface  $S^3$  is the tangent vector at  $p$  of some curve in  $S$ . The **tangent space**  $T_p S$  at  $p$  is the set of all tangent vectors to  $S$  at  $p$ .

**Proposition 4.3.** *Let  $\sigma : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a chart containing some  $p \in S$ , and  $(u, v)$  be coordinates in  $U$ . The tangent space  $T_p S$  is the subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  spanned by  $\partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u(t), v(t))$  be smooth. Then by the chain rule we have  $\dot{\gamma} = \partial_u \sigma \dot{u} + \partial_v \sigma \dot{v}$ . So  $\dot{\gamma}$  is a linear combination of  $\partial_u \sigma$  and  $\partial_v \sigma$ . Conversely, any vector in a subspace spanned by  $\partial_u \sigma$  and  $\partial_v \sigma$  is of the form  $\lambda \partial_u \sigma + \mu \partial_v \sigma$ . Define  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u_0 + \lambda t, v_0 + \mu t)$ . Then  $\gamma$  is smooth in  $S$ , and at  $t = 0$  we have  $\dot{\gamma} = \lambda \partial_u \sigma + \mu \partial_v \sigma$ . So every vector in the space is the tangent vector of some curve.  $\square$

Denote the vectors  $\partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma$  that span  $T_p S$  as the **parameter curves** on the surface. Suppose  $f : S \rightarrow \tilde{S}$  is smooth: the derivative should measure how a point  $f(p) \in \tilde{S}$  changes when  $p$  moves to a nearby point, say  $q$ , of  $S$ . If  $p$  and  $q$  are close, the line near them should be tangent to  $S$  at  $p$ . So we expect that the derivative of  $f$  at  $p$  associates to any tangent vector to  $S$  at  $p$  a tangent vector to  $\tilde{S}$  at  $f(p)$ . In other words, the derivative of  $f$  should be a map  $D_p f : T_p S \rightarrow T_{f(p)} \tilde{S}$ .

**Definition 4.4.** Let  $w \in T_p S$  be a tangent vector to  $S$  at  $p$ . Then  $w$  is the tangent vector at  $p$  of a curve  $\gamma$  in  $S$  passing through  $p$ , say  $w = \dot{\gamma}(t_0)$ . Then  $\tilde{\gamma} = f \circ \gamma$  is a curve in  $\tilde{S}$  passing through  $f(p)$  when  $t = t_0$ , so  $\tilde{w} = \dot{\tilde{\gamma}}(t_0) \in T_{f(p)} \tilde{S}$ . We say the **derivative**  $D_p f$  of  $f$  at  $p \in S$  is the map  $D_p f : T_p S \rightarrow T_{f(p)} \tilde{S}$  such that  $D_p f(w) = \tilde{w}$  for any tangent vector  $w \in T_p S$ .

**Proposition 4.4.** *The derivative is linear.*

**Proposition 4.5.**

<sup>3</sup>Surfaces are now denoted  $S$ , I'm tired of typing `\mathcal{S}`.

(i) If  $S$  is a surface and  $p \in S$ , then the derivative of the identity at  $p$  is  $\text{id}: T_p S \rightarrow T_p S$ .

(ii) Chain rule,  $D_p(f_2 \circ f_1) = D_{f_1(p)}f_2 \circ D_p f_1$ .

(iii) If  $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is a diffeomorphism then  $D_p f: T_p S_1 \rightarrow T_{f(p)} S_2$  is invertible.

**Proposition 4.6.** Let  $f: S \rightarrow \tilde{S}$  be smooth. Then  $f$  is a local diffeomorphism iff for all  $p \in S$ ,  $D_p f: T_p S \rightarrow T_{f(p)} \tilde{S}$  is invertible.

todo:section on orientability

Lecture 5

## Examples of surfaces

### 5.1 Level surfaces

**Theorem 5.1.** Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  such that for each  $p \in S$ , there is a  $W_p \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$  open and a smooth  $f: W \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

(i)  $S \cap W = \{(x, y, z) \in W \mid f(x, y, z) = 0\}$ ,

(ii)  $\nabla f$  is nonvanishing at  $p$ .

Then  $S$  is a smooth surface.

**Example 5.1.** We can construct  $S^2$  in this manner by letting  $W = \mathbb{R}^3$  and considering the single function  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1$ , since the gradient  $\nabla f = (2x, 2y, 2z)$  is nonvanishing.

**Example 5.2.** Consider the cone cut out by  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - z^2$ , which vanishes at the origin. Then the cone minus the origin is a surface.

### 5.2 Quadric surfaces

**Definition 5.1.** A **quadric** is the a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^3$  defined by an equation of the form

$$v^t A v + b^t v + c = 0,$$

where  $v = (x, y, z)$ ,  $A$  is a constant symmetric  $3 \times 3$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^3$  is constant,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  is a scalar. Explicitly, for  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_4 & a_6 \\ a_4 & a_2 & a_5 \\ a_6 & a_5 & a_3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $b = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  we have

$$a_1 x^2 + a_2 y^2 + a_3 z^2 + 2a_4 xy + 2a_5 yz + 2a_6 xz + b_1 x + b_2 y + b_3 z + c = 0.$$

Some quadrics which are not surfaces include  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 0$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 = 0$ ,  $xy = 0$ .

**Theorem 5.2.** Up to isometry, every non-empty quadric with not all zero coefficients can be transformed into one of the following:

(i) Ellipsoid:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} + \frac{z^2}{r^2} = 1$ .

(ii) One sheeted hyperboloid:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} - \frac{z^2}{r^2} = 1$ .

(iii) Two sheeted hyperboloid:  $\frac{z^2}{r^2} - \frac{x^2}{p^2} - \frac{y^2}{q^2} = 1$ .

(iv) Elliptic paraboloid:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} = z$ .

(v) Hyperbolic paraboloid:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} - \frac{y^2}{q^2} = z$ .

- (vi) Quadric cone:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} - \frac{z^2}{r^2} = 0$ .
- (vii) Elliptic cylinder:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} = 1$ .
- (viii) Hyperbolic cylinder:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} - \frac{y^2}{q^2} = 1$ .
- (ix) Parabolic cylinder:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} = y$ .
- (x) Plane:  $x = 0$ .
- (xi) Two parallel planes:  $x^2 = p^2$ .
- (xii) Two intersection planes:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} - \frac{y^2}{q^2} = 0$ .
- (xiii) Straight line:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} = 0$ .
- (xiv) Point:  $\frac{x^2}{p^2} + \frac{y^2}{q^2} + \frac{z^2}{r^2} = 0$ .

*Proof.* oh save me there's a proof todo: this

☒

**Corollary 5.1.** Every nonempty quadric of types (i)-(x) is a surface (for (vi) remove the vertex).

### 5.3 Ruled surfaces and surfaces of revolution

**Definition 5.2.** A **ruled surface** is a surface that is a union of straight lines, called the **rulings** (or **generators**) of the surface.

If the rulings are all parallel, then  $S$  is a **generalized cylinder**. We don't want a curve that passes through all the lines to be tangent to the rulings (intersect transversely??). Some noninteresting stuff happened.

### 5.4 Compact surfaces

**Example 5.3.** You know what a compact set is. Some examples:

- Spheres are compact subspaces of  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . They are clearly bounded, and closed since the complement  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus S^n = B^{n+1} \cup (\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \setminus D^{n+1})$ , a union of two open sets (where  $B^{n+1}$  is the open  $n$ -ball and  $D^{n+1}$  is the closed  $n$ -disk).
- Planes are not compact since they're unbounded. Neither are open disks since they're open.
- In our  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , the torus and the other genus  $n$  surfaces are also compact. These turn out to classify compact 2-manifolds up to diffeomorphism:

**Theorem 5.3.** Up to diffeomorphism, the only compact 2-manifolds are the genus  $n$  surfaces for  $n \geq 0$ .

A corollary of this:

**Corollary 5.2.** Every compact surface is orientable.

*Proof.* By the Jordan separation theorem we can separate a genus  $n$  surface into a bounded interior and unbounded exterior. Define the unit normal at each point on the surface to point toward the exterior. ☒

### 5.5 Triply orthogonal systems

We skipped this section.

### 5.6 Applications of the IFT

This section too.

## The first fundamental form

Now we do some geometry.

### 6.1 Lengths of curves on surfaces

**Definition 6.1.** Let  $p \in S$ . The **first fundamental form** of  $S$  at  $p$  associates to tangent vectors  $v, w \in T_p S$  the scalar  $\langle v, w \rangle_{p,S} = v \cdot w$ .

This is an inner product for  $S$  at  $p$ . If you know how tensors work, at each point we can write  $g = g_{ij}^{(x)} dx^i \otimes dx^j$ , and we can calculate the coefficients of the metric tensor by  $g_{ij} = g(\partial_i, \partial_j)_x = \langle \partial_i, \partial_j \rangle_x$ . Traditionally, for  $\sigma(u, v)$  a patch, if  $p \in \text{im } \sigma$  we have  $\partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma$  spanning  $T_p S$ . Define  $du: T_p S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $dv: T_p S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , by

$$du(v) = \lambda, \quad dv(v) = \mu \quad \text{if } v = \lambda \partial_u \sigma + \mu \partial_v \sigma.$$

(These are 1-forms, the basis vectors of the cotangent space.) Then  $\langle v, v \rangle = \lambda^2 \langle \partial_u \sigma, \partial_u \sigma \rangle + 2\lambda\mu \langle \partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma \rangle + \mu^2 \langle \partial_v \sigma, \partial_v \sigma \rangle$ . If we write  $E = \|\partial_u \sigma\|^2$ ,  $F = \partial_u \sigma \cdot \partial_v \sigma$ ,  $G = \|\partial_v \sigma\|^2$ , then

$$\langle v, v \rangle = E\lambda^2 + 2F\lambda\mu + G\mu^2 = Edu^2 + 2Fdudv + Gdv^2.$$

If  $\gamma \subseteq \text{im } \sigma$ ,  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u(t), v(t))$  for  $u, v$  smooth. Then  $\dot{\gamma} = \dot{u}\partial_u \sigma + \dot{v}\partial_v \sigma$ , so  $\langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = E\dot{u}^2 + 2F\dot{u}\dot{v} + G\dot{v}^2$ , and the length of  $\gamma$  is given by  $\int (E\dot{u}^2 + 2F\dot{u}\dot{v} + G\dot{v}^2)^{1/2} dt$ .

**Example 6.1.** For a plane  $\sigma(u, v) = \mathbf{a} + u\mathbf{p} + v\mathbf{q}$  for unit vectors  $\mathbf{p} \perp \mathbf{q}$ , we have  $\partial_u \sigma = \mathbf{p}$ ,  $\partial_v \sigma = \mathbf{q}$ , then  $E = \|\partial_u \sigma\|^2 = \|\mathbf{p}\|^2 = 1$ ,  $F = \partial_u \sigma \cdot \partial_v \sigma = 0$ ,  $G = \|\mathbf{q}\|^2 = 1$ . So  $g_{ij} = \delta_{ij}^i$ , and the first fundamental form is  $du^2 + dv^2$ .

**Example 6.2.** From now on we write  $E = g_{11}$ ,  $F = g_{12} = g_{21}$ ,  $G = g_{22}$ . For a surface of revolution of the form  $\sigma(u, v) = (f(u) \cos v, f(u) \sin v, g(u))$ , since  $\partial_u \sigma = (f \cos v, f \sin v, \dot{g})$ ,  $\partial_v \sigma = (-f \sin v, f \cos v, 0)$ , we have  $g_{11} = \dot{f}^2 + \dot{g}^2 = 1$  (since the curve is unit speed),  $g_{12} = g_{21} = 0$ ,  $g_{22} = f^2$ . So the fff is  $du^2 + f(u)^2 dv^2$ . If we take  $u = \theta$ ,  $v = \phi$ ,  $f(\theta) = \cos \theta$ ,  $g(\theta) = \sin \theta$ , this gives us the fff of  $S^2$  as  $d\theta^2 + \cos^2 \theta d\phi^2$ .

**Example 6.3.** A generalized cylinder  $\sigma(u, v) = \gamma(u) + v\mathbf{a}$  as  $g_{ij} = \delta_{ij}^i$ , and so the fff is  $du^2 + dv^2$  as well.

### 6.2 Isometries of surfaces

The plane and generalized cylinder have the same fff, which is because they're isometric (intrinsic curvature?). However, this doesn't hold for the sphere, because you can't "wrap" a piece of paper around it.

**Definition 6.2.** If  $S_1, S_2$  are surfaces, a smooth map  $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is a **local isometry** if it takes any curve in  $S_1$  to a curve of the same length in  $S_2$ . If  $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is a local isometry, then  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are **locally isometric**.

We will see that every local isometry is a local diffeomorphism, and a global diffeomorphism that is also a local isometry is just an **isometry**. Let  $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  be smooth and  $p \in S_1$ . For  $v, w \in T_p S_1$ , define

$$f^* \langle v, w \rangle_p = \langle D_p f(v), D_p f(w) \rangle_{f(p)}.$$

Then  $f^* \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$  is a symmetric bilinear form because the inner product is symmetric and the derivative is bilinear.

**Theorem 6.1.** A smooth map  $f: S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is a local isometry iff the symmetric bilinear forms  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$  and  $f^* \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$  on  $T_p S_1$  are equal for all  $p \in S_1$ .

*Proof.* For  $\gamma_1$  a curve in  $S_1$ , a curve has length  $\int_{t_0}^{t_1} \langle \dot{\gamma}_1, \dot{\gamma}_1 \rangle^{1/2} dt$ . Then the length of  $\gamma_2 = f \circ \gamma_1$  is

$$\int_{t_0}^{t_1} \langle \dot{\gamma}_2, \dot{\gamma}_2 \rangle^{1/2} dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \langle Df(\dot{\gamma}_1), Df(\dot{\gamma}_1) \rangle^{1/2} dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} f^* \langle \dot{\gamma}_1, \dot{\gamma}_1 \rangle^{1/2} dt.$$

So if  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$  and  $f^* \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_p$  are the same, curves have the same length. OTOH, suppose the integrals are equal, then the integrands are the same, that is,  $\langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = f^* \langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle$ . So  $\langle v, v \rangle = f^* \langle v, v \rangle$  since tangent vectors are tangent to a curve.  $\square$

Since  $f$  is a local isometry iff  $\langle D_p f(v), D_p f(w) \rangle_{f(p)} = \langle v, w \rangle_p$ ,  $D_p f$  is then an isometry. Then every local isometry is a local diffeomorphism, since if it wasn't we would have a nontrivial  $v \in T_p S_1$  such that  $v \in \ker(D_p f)$ , or  $D_p f(v) = 0$ . But

$$0 \neq \langle v, v \rangle_p \langle D_p f(v), D_p f(v) \rangle_{f(p)} = \langle 0, 0 \rangle_p = 0,$$

a contradiction.

**Corollary 6.1.** *A local diffeomorphism is a local isometry iff for any surface patch  $\sigma_1$  of  $S_1$ , the patches  $\sigma_1$  and  $f \circ \sigma_1$  of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  respectively have the same fff.*

*Proof.* Same process as Theorem 6.1. □

This actually shows that if  $p \in S_1$  is in  $\text{im } \sigma_1$ , then  $\sigma_1$  and  $f \circ \sigma_1$  have the same fff at  $p$  iff  $D_p f$  is an isometry. It follows that if  $p \in \text{im } \sigma_2$ , then  $\sigma_1$  and  $f \circ \sigma_1$  have the same fff at  $p$  iff the same is true of  $\sigma_2$  and  $f \circ \sigma_2$ .

**Example 6.4.** The unit cylinder, the generalized cone, and the plane are locally isometric.

It turns out there is another class of circles locally isometric to a plane, called **tangent developables**, the tangent bundle to a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

### 6.3 Conformal mappings of surfaces

Conformal mappings don't preserve length, but they do preserve angle. Say  $\gamma, \tilde{\gamma} \subseteq S$  and  $p \in \gamma \cap \tilde{\gamma}$ . We define the **angle**  $\theta$  of intersection of  $\gamma$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}$  at  $p$  as the angle between the tangent vectors  $\dot{\gamma}$  and  $\dot{\tilde{\gamma}}$  (at  $t = t_0, t = \tilde{t}_0$  respectively). Then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\dot{\gamma} \cdot \dot{\tilde{\gamma}}}{\|\dot{\gamma}\| \|\dot{\tilde{\gamma}}\|} = \frac{\langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\tilde{\gamma}} \rangle}{\langle \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle^{1/2} \langle \dot{\tilde{\gamma}}, \dot{\tilde{\gamma}} \rangle^{1/2}}.$$

If  $\gamma$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}$  lie in a surface patch  $\sigma$  such that  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u(t), v(t))$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = \sigma(\tilde{u}(t), \tilde{v}(t))$  for some smooth  $u, v, \tilde{u}, \tilde{v}$ , then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{g_{11}\dot{u}\dot{\tilde{u}} + g_{12}(\dot{u}\dot{\tilde{v}} + \dot{\tilde{u}}\dot{v}) + g_{22}\dot{v}\dot{\tilde{v}}}{(g_{11}\dot{u}^2 + 2g_{12}\dot{u}\dot{v} + g_{22}\dot{v}^2)^{1/2}(g_{11}\dot{\tilde{u}}^2 + 2g_{12}\dot{\tilde{u}}\dot{\tilde{v}} + g_{22}\dot{\tilde{v}}^2)^{1/2}}.$$

**Example 6.5.** The **parameter curves** on a surface patch  $\sigma(u, v)$  can be parametrized by  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u_0, t)$ ,  $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = \sigma(t, v_0)$ , where  $u_0$  is the constant value of  $u$  and  $t_0$  is the constant value of  $v$ . Then  $u(t) = t_0$ ,  $v(t) = t$ , and  $\dot{u} = 0$ ,  $\dot{v} = 1$ . Similarly,  $\tilde{u}(t) = t$ ,  $\tilde{v}(t) = v_0$ , and  $\dot{\tilde{u}} = 1$ ,  $\dot{\tilde{v}} = 0$ . These parameter curves intersect at  $\sigma(u_0, v_0)$ , so  $\cos \theta = g_{11}/\sqrt{g_{12}g_{22}}$ . In particular, the parameter curves are orthogonal iff  $g_{11} = 0$ .

**Definition 6.3.** For  $S_1, S_2$  surfaces, a **conformal map**  $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is a local diffeomorphism such that for  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  two curves on  $S_1$  intersecting at a point  $p \in S_1$ , the angle of intersection of  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  at  $p$  is equal to the angle of intersection of  $\tilde{\gamma}_1$  and  $\tilde{\gamma}_2$  at  $f(p)$ , if  $\tilde{\gamma}_1, \tilde{\gamma}_2$  are the images of the curves under  $f$ .

So as we said earlier, conformal mappings preserve angle. Note that the angle is only well defined when both curves are regular.

**Theorem 6.2.** *A local diffeomorphism  $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is conformal iff there is a function  $\lambda : S_1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that*

$$f^* \langle v, w \rangle_p = \lambda(p) \langle v, w \rangle_p \quad \text{for all } p \in S_1 \text{ and } v, w \in T_p S_1.$$

*Proof.* todo: come back □

**Corollary 6.2.** *A local diffeomorphism  $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is conformal iff for any surface patch  $\sigma$  of  $S_1$ , the fff of the patches of  $S_1$  and  $f \circ \sigma$  of  $S_2$  are proportional (i.e., differ by a scalar multiple).*

**Example 6.6.** If  $g_{ij}dx^i \otimes dx^j$  denotes the usual metric on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\hat{g}_{ij}dx^i \otimes dx^j$  denotes the round metric on  $S^2$ , we have

$$g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{g}_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{(1+u^2+v^2)^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{4}{(1+u^2+v^2)^2} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{4}{(1+u^2+v^2)^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{4}{(1+u^2+v^2)^2} g_{ij}.$$

So stereographic projection is a conformal mapping.

A natural question to ask is when we have a conformal map between two surfaces. It turns out this is always true locally.

**Theorem 6.3.** *Every surface has an atlas consisting of conformal surfaces patches.*

No proof, it's too hard (even do Carmo doesn't prove it!).

## 6.4 Equiareal maps and a theorem of Archimedes

Recall that parameter curves  $u \mapsto \sigma(u, v_0)$  and  $v \mapsto \sigma(u_0, v)$  are the ones that if you take their derivative, you get the basis for  $T_p S$  denoted  $\{\partial_u, \partial_v\}$ . Fixing  $(u_0, v_0) \in U$ , we get a parallelogram with edges  $\partial_u \sigma \Delta u, \partial_v \sigma \Delta v$  (corresponding to a small change in  $u, v$  on the surface) and  $u = u_0 + \Delta u, v = v_0 + \Delta v$ . The area of this parallelogram is  $\|\partial_u \sigma \Delta u \times \partial_v \sigma \Delta v\| = \|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| \Delta u \Delta v$ .

**Definition 6.4.** The **area**  $\mathcal{A}_\sigma(R)$  of the part  $\sigma(R)$  of a surface patch  $\sigma : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  corresponding to a region  $R \subseteq U$  is defined by

$$\mathcal{A}_\sigma(R) = \int_R \|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| du dv.$$

If  $R$  is contained in a rectangle entirely contained in  $U$ , then the area will be finite. It turns out this cross product is easily computable.

**Proposition 6.1.**  $\|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| = (EG - F^2)^{1/2} = \sqrt{g_{11}g_{22} - (g_{12})^2}$ .

*Proof.* Recall that  $(a \times b) \cdot (c \times d) = (a \cdot c)(b \cdot d) - (a \cdot d)(b \cdot c)$ . Then

$$\|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| = (\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma) \cdot (\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma) = (\partial_u \sigma \cdot \partial_v \sigma)(\partial_v \sigma \cdot \partial_u \sigma) - (\partial_u \sigma \cdot \partial_u \sigma)(\partial_v \sigma \cdot \partial_v \sigma) = EG - F^2. \quad \square$$

So our definition of area is  $\mathcal{A}_\sigma(R) = \int_R (EG - F^2)^{1/2} du dv$ . Sometimes we denote  $(EG - F^2)^{1/2} du dv$  by  $d\mathcal{A}_\sigma$ . Is this definition invariant under our choice of chart?

**Proposition 6.2.** *The area of a surface patch is invariant under reparametrization.*

*Proof.* Let  $\sigma : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a surface patch and  $\tilde{\sigma} : \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$  be a reparametrization of  $\sigma$ , with reparametrization map  $\Phi : \tilde{U} \rightarrow U$ . If  $\Phi(\tilde{u}, \tilde{v}) = (u, v)$ , we have  $\tilde{\sigma}(\tilde{u}, \tilde{v}) = \sigma(u, v)$ . Let  $\tilde{R} \subseteq \tilde{U}$  be a region, and let  $R = \Phi(\tilde{R}) \subseteq U$ . We want to show that

$$\int_R \|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| du dv = \int_{\tilde{R}} \|\partial_{\tilde{u}} \tilde{\sigma} \times \partial_{\tilde{v}} \tilde{\sigma}\| d\tilde{u} d\tilde{v}.$$

We have seen that  $\partial_{\tilde{u}} \tilde{\sigma} \times \partial_{\tilde{v}} \tilde{\sigma} = \det(J(\Phi)) \partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma$ , so the RHS becomes  $\int_{\tilde{R}} |\det(J(\Phi))| \|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| d\tilde{u} d\tilde{v}$ . Apply the change of variables formula for double integrals and this becomes  $\int_R \|\partial_u \sigma \times \partial_v \sigma\| du dv$ , and we are done.  $\square$

**Definition 6.5.** A local diffeomorphism  $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is **equiareal** if it takes any region in  $S_1$  to a region of the same area in  $S_2$ . We assume that the area of the regions are small enough to be contained in a single chart.

Now we state an analogue of Theorem 6.1.

**Theorem 6.4.** *A local diffeomorphism  $f : S_1 \rightarrow S_2$  is equiareal iff for any surface patch  $\sigma(u, v)$  on  $S_1$ , the fff's  $E_i, F_i, G_i$  for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$  satisfy*

$$E_1 G_1 - F_1^2 = E_2 G_2 - F_2^2.$$

*Proof.* Exercise.  $\square$

Think of  $S^2$  sitting inside a unit cylinder. You can “flatten”  $S^2$  by considering the unique line that goes through each point  $p \in S^2$  and the  $z$ -axis (excluding the poles). Then this line intersects the cylinder at a point  $q$ ; let  $f$  be the map that sends  $p \mapsto q$ . Explicitly, say  $p = (x, y, z)$  and  $q = (X, Y, Z)$ . Since the line connecting  $p$  and  $q$  is parallel to the  $xz$ -plane, we have  $z = Z$  and  $(X, Y) = \lambda(x, y)$  for  $\lambda$  a scalar. Since  $(X, Y, Z)$  is on the cylinder we know  $1 = X^2 + Y^2 = \lambda^2(x^2 + y^2)$ , so  $\lambda = \pm(x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2}$ . Taking the plus sign, we have

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



**Archimedes' Theorem.** *The map  $f$  is an equiareal diffeomorphism.*

*Proof.* Consider the standard atlas for  $S^2$  (minus the poles) given by  $\sigma(\theta, \varphi) = (\cos \theta \cos \varphi, \cos \theta \sin \varphi, \sin \theta)$ , defined on  $\{\theta, \varphi \mid \theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2], \varphi \in [0, 2\pi]\}$  and  $\{\theta, \varphi \mid \theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2], \varphi \in [-\pi, \pi]\}$ . The image of  $\sigma$  under  $f$  is  $\tilde{\sigma}(\theta, \varphi) = (\cos \varphi, \sin \varphi, \sin \theta)$ . This gives an atlas for the cylinder in between the planes  $z = 1, z = -1$  (denote this surface  $C$ ), defined on the same open sets as  $S^2$ . We want to show that  $E_1 G_1 - F_1^2 = E_2 G_2 - F_2^2$ , so we can apply Theorem 6.4.

From before, we know that  $E_1 = 1, F_1 = 0$ , and  $G_1 = \cos^2 \theta$  for  $\sigma$ . For  $\tilde{\sigma}$ , we have  $\partial_\theta \tilde{\sigma} = (0, 0, \cos \theta)$ ,  $\partial_\varphi \tilde{\sigma} = (-\sin \varphi, \cos \varphi, 0)$ . So  $E_2 = \cos^2 \theta, F_2 = 0$ , and  $G_2 = 1$ . Therefore

$$E_1 G_1 - E_2 G_2 + F_2^2 - F_1^2 = (\cos^2 \theta - \cos^2 \theta) + 0 - 0 = 0. \quad \square$$

**Definition 6.6.** A **spherical triangle** is a triangle on a sphere whose sides are arcs of great circles.

**Theorem 6.5.** *The area of a spherical triangle on the  $S^2$  with internal angles  $\alpha, \beta$ , and  $\gamma$  is  $\alpha + \beta + \gamma - \pi$ .*

*Proof.* By Archimedes' theorem, if we cut out a lune by two planes with angle  $\theta$ , it has area  $2\theta$ . If  $A, B, C$  are the points on the spherical triangle that correspond to  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ , consider the lune connecting  $A$  and  $A'$  with area  $2\alpha$ , where  $A'$  is the antipodal point of  $A$ . Note that each lune can be decomposed into  $ABC$  + an extra region. So adding gives

$$3\mathcal{A}(ABC) + \mathcal{A}(\text{three extra regions}) = 2\alpha + 2\beta + 2\gamma.$$

If you draw a picture, it can be seen that the three extra regions plus  $\mathcal{A}(ABC)$  actually make up the hemisphere containing  $A$  in the interior and  $\widehat{BC}$  in the boundary. So

$$\begin{aligned} 2\mathcal{A}(ABC) + \overbrace{\mathcal{A}(ABC) + \mathcal{A}(\text{three extra regions})}^{\text{has area } 2\pi} &= 2\alpha + 2\beta + 2\gamma \implies \\ 2\mathcal{A}(ABC) + 2\pi &= 2\alpha + 2\beta + 2\gamma \implies \\ \mathcal{A}(ABC) &= \alpha + \beta + \gamma - \pi. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

We will eventually see a generalization of this result where  $S^2$  becomes an arbitrary surface and great circles become arbitrary curves.

Lecture 7

## Curvature of surfaces

How “curved” is a surface? We will see something new called the second fundamental form. It turns out a surface is determined up to isometry by its first and second fundamental forms, like how a unit-speed plane curve is determined up to isometry by its signed curvature.

### 7.1 The second fundamental form

We work with oriented surfaces. Suppose  $\sigma$  is a surface patch in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with standard unit normal  $\mathbf{N}$ . As  $(u, v)$  change by  $\Delta u, \Delta v$  and becomes  $(u + \Delta u, v + \Delta v)$ , the surface moves away from  $T_{\sigma(u, v)}S$  by a distance  $(\sigma(u + \Delta u, v + \Delta v) - \sigma(u, v)) \cdot \mathbf{N}$ . By Taylor's theorem,

$$\sigma(u + \Delta, v + \Delta v) - \sigma(u, v) = \partial_u \sigma \Delta u + \partial_v \sigma \Delta v + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_{uu} \sigma (\Delta u)^2 + 2\partial_{uv} \sigma \Delta u \Delta v + \partial_{vv} \sigma (\Delta v)^2) + \text{remainder},$$

where  $(\text{remainder})/((\Delta u)^2 + (\Delta v)^2)$  tends to zero as  $(\Delta u)^2 + (\Delta v)^2$  tends to zero. Since  $\partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma$  are tangent to the surface (hence orthogonal to  $\mathbf{N}$ ), the deviation from the tangent plane becomes

$$\frac{1}{2}(L(\Delta u)^2 + 2M\Delta u \Delta v + N(\Delta v)^2) + \text{remainder},$$

where

$$L = \partial_{uu}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N}, \quad M = \partial_{uv}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N}, \quad N = \partial_{vv}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N}.$$

We see that  $L(\Delta u)^2 + 2M\Delta u\Delta v + N(\Delta v)^2$  is the analogue for the surface of the curvature  $\kappa(\Delta t)^2$  in the case of a curve.

**Definition 7.1.** The expression  $L du^2 + 2M dudv + N dv^2$  is the **second fundamental form** of the surface patch. From now on, sff is used in place of “second fundamental form”. The corresponding symmetric bilinear form on the tangent plane is defined by

$$\langle \langle v, w \rangle \rangle = L du(v)du(w) + M(du(v)dv(w) + du(w)dv(v)) + N dv(v)dv(w).$$

**Example 7.1.** Consider the plane, since  $\partial_u\sigma, \partial_v\sigma$  are both constant, we have  $\partial_{uu}\sigma = \partial_{uv}\sigma = \partial_{vv}\sigma = 0$ . So the sff of a plane is zero.

**Example 7.2.** Given a surface of revolution  $\sigma(u, v) = (f(u)\cos v, f(u)\sin v, g(u))$ , assume  $f(u) > 0$  for all  $u$  and  $u \mapsto (f(u), 0, g(u))$  is unit-speed (so  $\dot{f}^2 + \dot{g}^2 = 1$ ). Since  $\partial_u\sigma = (\dot{f}\cos v, \dot{f}\sin v, \dot{g})$ ,  $\partial_v\sigma = (-f\sin v, f\cos v, 0)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_u\sigma \times \partial_v\sigma &= (-f\dot{g}\cos v, -f\dot{g}\sin v, f\dot{f}), \\ \|\partial_u\sigma \times \partial_v\sigma\| &= f, \\ \mathbf{N} &= \frac{\partial_u\sigma \times \partial_v\sigma}{\|\partial_u\sigma \times \partial_v\sigma\|} = (-\dot{g}\cos v, -\dot{g}\sin v, \dot{f}), \\ \partial_{uu}\sigma &= (\ddot{f}\cos v, \ddot{f}\sin v, \ddot{g}), \\ \partial_{uv}\sigma &= (-\dot{f}\sin v, \dot{f}\cos v, 0), \\ \partial_{vv}\sigma &= (-f\cos v, -f\sin v, 0), \\ L = \partial_{uu}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N} &= \dot{f}\ddot{g} - \ddot{f}\dot{g}, \\ M = \partial_{uv}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N} &= 0, \\ N = \partial_{vv}\sigma \cdot \mathbf{N} &= f\dot{g} \implies \\ \text{sff} &= (\dot{f}\ddot{g} - \ddot{f}\dot{g})du^2 + f\dot{g}dv^2. \end{aligned}$$

If the surface is  $S^2$  where  $u = \theta, v = \varphi, f(\theta) = \cos \theta, g(\theta) = \sin \theta$ , we have the sff of  $S^2$  as  $d\theta^2 + \cos^2 \theta d\varphi^2$ . This turns out to be the same as the fff of  $S^2$ . If the surface is the unit cylinder, then  $f(u) = 1, g(u) = u$ , so  $L = M = 0, N = 1$ , so the sff is  $dv^2$ .

## 7.2 The Gauss and Weingarten maps

An approach to defining curvature of surfaces is by considering the rate at which  $\mathbf{N}$  varies. The values of  $\mathbf{N}$  at  $S$  are recorded by its **Gauss map**  $\mathcal{G}$ , defined by

$$\mathcal{G}_S: S \rightarrow S^2, \quad p \mapsto \mathbf{N}_p.$$

The rate at which  $\mathbf{N}$  varies is measured by  $D_p\mathcal{G}: T_pS \rightarrow T_{\mathcal{G}(p)}S^2$ . Since  $T_{\mathcal{G}(p)} \perp \mathbf{N}_p$ , this is equivalent to  $T_pS$  and so the Gauss map is an endomorphism  $T_pS \rightarrow T_pS$ .

**Definition 7.2.** Let  $p \in S$ . The **Weingarten map**  $\mathcal{W}_{p,S}$  of  $S$  at  $p$  is defined by  $\mathcal{W} = -D_p\mathcal{G}$ . The **second fundamental form** of  $S$  at  $p \in S$  is the bilinear form  $T_pS$  given by

$$\langle \langle v, w \rangle \rangle_{p,S} = \langle \mathcal{W}(v), w \rangle_{p,S}, \quad v, w \in T_pS.$$

**Lemma 7.1.** Let  $\sigma(u, v)$  be a surface patch with standard unit normal  $\mathbf{N}(u, v)$ . Then

$$\mathbf{N}_u \cdot \partial_u\sigma = -L, \quad \mathbf{N}_u \cdot \partial_v\sigma = \mathbf{N}_v \cdot \partial_u\sigma = -M, \quad \mathbf{N}_v \cdot \partial_v\sigma = -N.$$

*Proof.* We have  $\mathbf{N} \cdot \partial_u\sigma = \mathbf{N} \cdot \partial_v\sigma = 0$ . Differentiate wrt  $u$  to get  $\mathbf{N}_u \cdot \partial_u\sigma = -\mathbf{N} \cdot \partial_{uu}\sigma = -L$ , and the other equalities follow in a similar manner.  $\square$

**Proposition 7.1.** Let  $p \in S$ ,  $\sigma(u, v)$  be a surface patch of  $S$  such that  $p \in \text{im } \sigma$ , and let  $L du^2 + 2M du dv + N dv^2$  be the sff of  $\sigma$ . Then for any  $v, w \in T_p S$ ,

$$\langle \langle v, w \rangle \rangle = L du(v)du(w) + M(du(v)dv(w) + du(w)dv(v)) + N dv(v)dv(w).$$

*Proof.* Since both sides of the equation are bilinear forms, we just have to check that they agree when  $v$  and  $w$  are  $\partial_u \sigma$  or  $\partial_v \sigma$ . This boils down to showing

$$\langle \langle \partial_u \sigma, \partial_u \sigma \rangle \rangle = L, \quad \langle \langle \partial_u \sigma, \partial_v \sigma \rangle \rangle = \langle \langle \partial_v \sigma, \partial_u \sigma \rangle \rangle = M, \quad \langle \langle \partial_v \sigma, \partial_v \sigma \rangle \rangle = N.$$

Let  $\sigma(u_0, v_0) = p$ . Then

$$\mathcal{W}(\partial_u \sigma) = -\frac{d}{du} \Big|_{u=u_0} \mathcal{G}(\sigma(u, v_0)) = \frac{d}{du} \Big|_{u=u_0} \mathbf{N}(u, v_0) = -\mathbf{N}_u,$$

where  $\mathbf{N}$  is the standard unit normal of  $\sigma$ . Similarly,  $\mathcal{W}(\partial_v \sigma) = -\mathbf{N}_v$ . So

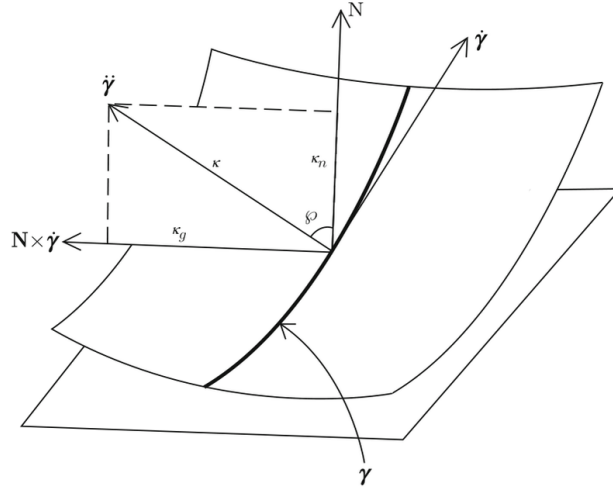
$$\langle \langle \partial_u \sigma, \partial_u \sigma \rangle \rangle = \langle \mathcal{W}(\partial_u \sigma), \partial_u \sigma \rangle = -\mathbf{N}_u \cdot \partial_u \sigma = L.$$

The other equations follow in a similar manner. □

**Corollary 7.1.** The sff is a symmetric bilinear form. Equivalently, the Weingarten endomorphism is self-adjoint.

### 7.3 Normal and geodesic curvatures

If  $\gamma$  is a unit speed curve on an oriented surface  $S$ , then  $\dot{\gamma}$  is a unit vector, and therefore a tangent vector to  $S$ . So  $\dot{\gamma} \perp \mathbf{N}$ , and  $\dot{\gamma}, \mathbf{N}$ , and  $\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma}$  are mutually orthogonal. Since  $\ddot{\gamma} \perp \dot{\gamma}$ , it must be a linear combination of  $\mathbf{N}$  and  $\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma}$ , where  $\ddot{\gamma} = \kappa_n \mathbf{N} + \kappa_g (\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma})$ .



**Definition 7.3.** The scalars  $\kappa_n$  and  $\kappa_g$  are the **normal curvature** and **geodesic curvature** of  $\gamma$ , respectively.

Note that these change sign when  $\mathbf{N}$  does, so in general only the magnitudes of  $\kappa_n$  and  $\kappa_g$  are well defined.

**Proposition 7.2.** We have

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_n &= \ddot{\gamma} \cdot \mathbf{N}, & \kappa_g &= \ddot{\gamma} \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma}), \\ \kappa^2 &= \kappa_n^2 + \kappa_g^2, \\ \kappa_n &= \kappa \cos \psi, & \kappa_g &= \pm \kappa \sin \psi, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\kappa$  is the curvature of  $\gamma$  and  $\psi$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{N}$  and the principal normal  $\mathbf{n}$  of  $\gamma$ .

*Proof.* To show  $\kappa_n = \ddot{\gamma} \cdot \mathbf{N}$ , note that  $\dot{\gamma} = \kappa_n \mathbf{N} + \kappa_g (\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma})$ , so  $\ddot{\gamma} \cdot \mathbf{N} = \kappa_n \mathbf{N} \cdot \mathbf{N} + \kappa_g (\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma}) \cdot \mathbf{N}$ , which implies that  $\ddot{\gamma} \cdot \mathbf{N} = \kappa_n$  since the vectors  $\mathbf{N}$  and  $\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma}$  are orthogonal. A similar process shows that  $\kappa_g = \ddot{\gamma} \cdot (\mathbf{N} \times \dot{\gamma})$ . **todo: not sure how to show  $\kappa^2 = \kappa_n^2 + \kappa_g^2$ ?** Since  $\ddot{\gamma} = \kappa n$ , **todo:?**  $\square$

As a unit speed parameter  $t$  is changed to another parameter  $\pm t + c$ , then  $\kappa_n \mapsto \kappa_n$  and  $\kappa_g \mapsto \pm \kappa_g$ , so  $\kappa_n$  is well defined for any regular curve while  $\kappa_g$  is only well defined up to sign.

**Proposition 7.3.** If  $\gamma$  is unit-speed on an oriented surface  $S$ , its normal curvature is given by  $\kappa_n = \langle \dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma} \rangle$ . If  $\sigma$  is a surface patch of  $S$  and  $\gamma(t) = \sigma(u(t), v(t))$  is a curve in  $\sigma$ , then we also have  $\kappa_n = L\dot{u}^2 + 2M\dot{u}\dot{v} + N\dot{v}^2$ .

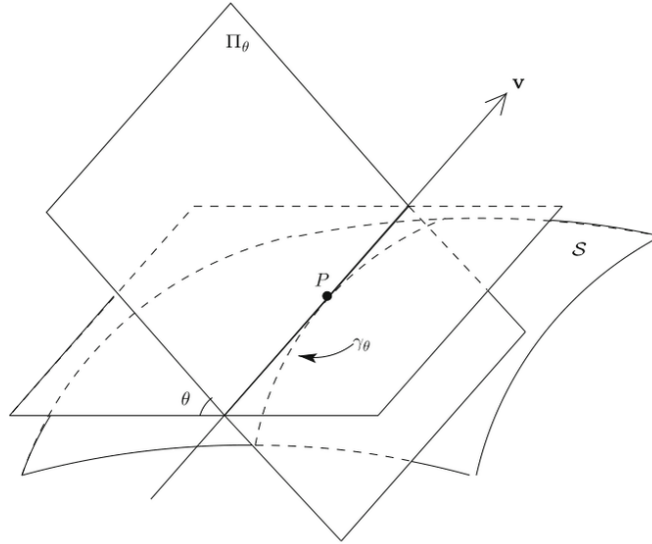
So two curves that intersect at  $p$  and have the parallel tangent vectors there have the same normal curvature at  $p$ . **todo: how?**

*Proof.* Since  $\dot{\gamma}$  is tangent to  $S$ ,  $\mathbf{N} \cdot \dot{\gamma} = 0$ . So  $\mathbf{N} \cdot \ddot{\gamma} = -\dot{\mathbf{N}} \cdot \dot{\gamma}$ . Note that  $\dot{\mathbf{N}} = \frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{G}(\gamma(t)) = -\mathcal{W}(\dot{\gamma})$ , therefore

$$\kappa_n = \mathbf{N} \cdot \ddot{\gamma} = -\dot{\mathbf{N}} \cdot \dot{\gamma} = \langle \mathcal{W}(\dot{\gamma}), \dot{\gamma} \rangle = \langle \dot{\gamma}, \ddot{\gamma} \rangle. \quad \square$$

While the normal curvature depends on the sff, the geodesic curvature only depends on the fff.

**Meusnier's Theorem.** Let  $p \in S$  and  $v \in T_p S$ . Let  $\Pi_\theta$  be the plane spanned by  $v$  and making an angle  $\theta$  with  $T_p S$ . Suppose  $\Pi_\theta$  intersects  $S$  at a curve with curvature  $\kappa_\theta$ . Then  $\kappa_\theta \sin \theta$  is independent of  $\theta$ .



*Proof.* Suppose  $\gamma_\theta$  is a unit speed parametrization of the aforementioned curve. Then at  $p$ ,  $\dot{\gamma}_\theta = \pm v$ , so  $\ddot{\gamma}_\theta$  is perpendicular to  $v$  and parallel to  $\Pi_\theta$ . Then  $\psi = \pi/2 - \theta$ , so  $\kappa_n = \kappa_\theta \cos(\pi/2 - \theta) = \kappa_\theta \sin \theta$ , but  $\kappa_n$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .  $\square$

An important case is where  $\gamma$  is a **normal section** of the surface, i.e.,  $\gamma$  is the intersection of the surface with a plane  $\Pi$  that is orthogonal to the tangent plane of the surface at each point of  $\gamma$ .

**Corollary 7.2.** The curvature, normal curvature  $\kappa_n$ , and geodesic curvature  $\kappa_g$  of a normal section of a surface are related by  $\kappa_n = \pm \kappa$ ,  $\kappa_g = 0$ .

*Proof.* We have  $\kappa_n = \kappa \sin \theta$  where  $\theta = \pm \pi/2$ . For the second part,  $\kappa^2 = \kappa_n^2 + \kappa_g^2$ , and since  $\kappa = \pm \kappa_n$ , we must have  $\kappa_g = 0$ .  $\square$