

1 Introduction to Surface Theory

Differential geometry studies curves and surfaces using methods of calculus, linear algebra, tensor analysis, and differential equations. In applied mathematics, the geometry of surfaces appears in:

- fluid mechanics,
- elasticity theory,
- continuum mechanics,
- general relativity,
- computer graphics,
- shell structures,
- image processing,
- material science.

Surface theory provides the mathematical framework for describing curved membranes, thin films, planetary surfaces, and spacetime geometries. A surface in \mathbb{R}^3 is a geometric object that locally resembles the Euclidean plane.

Definition 1.1 (Regular Surface). A subset $S \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is called a **regular surface** if for every point $p \in S$, there exists an open set $U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and a smooth map

$$X : U \rightarrow S$$

such that:

- (i) X is smooth,
- (ii) X is a homeomorphism onto its image,
- (iii) the differential dX_q is injective for all $q \in U$.

The map $X(u, v)$ is called a **parametrization** of the surface.

1.1 Tangent Plane

Let

$$X(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v), z(u, v)).$$

Then the tangent vectors are

$$X_u = \frac{\partial X}{\partial u}, \quad X_v = \frac{\partial X}{\partial v}.$$

The tangent plane at a point $p = X(u_0, v_0)$ is spanned by X_u and X_v .

The unit normal vector is given by

$$N = \frac{X_u \times X_v}{\|X_u \times X_v\|}.$$

2 First and Second Fundamental Forms

2.1 First Fundamental Form

The first fundamental form measures lengths and angles on a surface.

Definition 2.1. The **first fundamental form** is

$$I = Edu^2 + 2Fdudv + Gdv^2,$$

where

$$E = \langle X_u, X_u \rangle, \quad F = \langle X_u, X_v \rangle, \quad G = \langle X_v, X_v \rangle.$$

The length of a curve

$$\gamma(t) = X(u(t), v(t))$$

on the surface is

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{E\dot{u}^2 + 2F\dot{u}\dot{v} + G\dot{v}^2} dt.$$

2.2 Second Fundamental Form

The second fundamental form measures curvature.

Definition 2.2. The **second fundamental form** is

$$II = Ldu^2 + 2Mdudv + Ndv^2,$$

where

$$L = \langle X_{uu}, N \rangle, \quad M = \langle X_{uv}, N \rangle, \quad N = \langle X_{vv}, N \rangle.$$

2.3 Curvatures

The Gaussian curvature is

$$K = \frac{LN - M^2}{EG - F^2}.$$

The mean curvature is

$$H = \frac{EN - 2FM + GL}{2(EG - F^2)}.$$

Example 2.3. For a sphere of radius r ,

$$K = \frac{1}{r^2}, \quad H = \frac{1}{r}.$$

3 Fundamental Equations of Surface Theory

The fundamental equations form the analytical backbone of modern surface theory. In applied mathematics, these equations are used to model:

- deformation of elastic shells,
- propagation of waves on curved surfaces,
- stress-strain relations in engineering,
- curvature-driven flows,
- geometric optics,
- numerical surface reconstruction.

The theory of surfaces is governed by three important equations:

1. Gauss Formula,
2. Weingarten Formula,
3. Gauss–Codazzi Equations.

3.1 Gauss Formula

The Gauss formula decomposes acceleration on a surface into tangential and normal components. In mechanics, this corresponds to separating motion constrained on a curved surface into:

- (i) intrinsic motion along the surface,
- (ii) extrinsic bending effects.

The second derivatives of the parametrization can be decomposed into tangential and normal components.

$$\begin{aligned} X_{uu} &= \Gamma_{11}^1 X_u + \Gamma_{11}^2 X_v + LN, \\ X_{uv} &= \Gamma_{12}^1 X_u + \Gamma_{12}^2 X_v + MN, \\ X_{vv} &= \Gamma_{22}^1 X_u + \Gamma_{22}^2 X_v + NN. \end{aligned}$$

Here Γ_{ij}^k are Christoffel symbols.

3.2 Weingarten Equations

The Weingarten equations describe the variation of the normal vector field. These equations are essential in:

- shape optimization,
- curvature flow,
- finite element shell analysis,
- computer-aided geometric design.

The derivatives of the normal vector are expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} N_u &= a_{11}X_u + a_{12}X_v, \\ N_v &= a_{21}X_u + a_{22}X_v. \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently,

$$dN = -S,$$

where S is the shape operator.

3.3 Gauss Equations

The Gaussian curvature can be written entirely in terms of the first fundamental form.

Theorem 3.1 (Gauss Theorema Egregium). *Gaussian curvature is an intrinsic invariant.*

The Gauss equation is

$$R_{1212} = LN - M^2.$$

3.4 Codazzi–Mainardi Equations

These equations provide compatibility conditions between the first and second fundamental forms.

$$\begin{aligned} L_v - M_u &= L\Gamma_{12}^1 + M(\Gamma_{12}^2 - \Gamma_{11}^1) - N\Gamma_{11}^2, \\ M_v - N_u &= L\Gamma_{22}^1 + M(\Gamma_{22}^2 - \Gamma_{12}^1) - N\Gamma_{12}^2. \end{aligned}$$

4 Fundamental Existence Theorem for Surfaces

The existence theorem is important in applied mathematics because it guarantees that prescribed metric and curvature data correspond to an actual physical or geometric surface.

Applications include:

- reconstruction of surfaces from experimental measurements,
- inverse problems in imaging,
- design of aerodynamic bodies,
- modeling biological membranes.

The fundamental theorem gives conditions under which a surface exists with prescribed fundamental forms.

Theorem 4.1 (Fundamental Existence Theorem). *Let*

$$I = Edu^2 + 2Fdudv + Gdv^2$$

and

$$II = Ldu^2 + 2Mdudv + Ndv^2$$

be quadratic forms defined on a simply connected domain.

Suppose:

(i) $EG - F^2 > 0$,

(ii) the Gauss and Codazzi equations are satisfied.

Then there exists a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 having I and II as its first and second fundamental forms. Moreover, the surface is unique up to rigid motions.

4.1 Importance

This theorem shows that the geometry of a surface is completely determined by the first and second fundamental forms satisfying compatibility conditions.

5 Umbilical Points and Surfaces

Umbilic points occur where bending is identical in every direction. Such points appear naturally in:

- optics,
- material stress analysis,
- shell theory,
- gravitational equipotential surfaces.

Definition 5.1 (Umbilic Point). A point on a surface is called an **umbilic point** if the principal curvatures are equal.

At an umbilic point,

$$k_1 = k_2.$$

Equivalently,

$$II = \lambda I$$

for some scalar function λ .

Example 5.2. Every point of a sphere is an umbilic point.

5.1 Compact Surfaces Whose Points are Umbilics

Theorem 5.3. A connected surface in \mathbb{R}^3 whose every point is umbilic is either:

- (i) a plane, or
- (ii) a sphere.

Idea of Proof. If every point is umbilic, then the shape operator satisfies

$$S = \lambda I.$$

Thus the normal curvature is the same in every direction.

Using Codazzi equations, one shows that λ is constant. Hence:

- if $\lambda = 0$, the surface is a plane,
- if $\lambda \neq 0$, the surface is a sphere.

□

Corollary 5.4. Every compact connected umbilic surface in \mathbb{R}^3 is a sphere.

6 Hilbert's Lemma

Hilbert's lemma and Hilbert's theorem play a major role in global geometry and nonlinear analysis.

In applied mathematics, negatively curved geometries appear in:

- chaotic dynamical systems,
- hyperbolic conservation laws,
- network geometry,
- relativistic spacetime models,
- geometric data analysis.

Hilbert's lemma and related results are important in global differential geometry.

Lemma 6.1 (Hilbert's Lemma). *Let S be a complete surface with constant negative curvature. Then geodesics diverge exponentially.*

6.1 Geometric Interpretation

For surfaces of negative curvature:

- triangles have angle sum less than π ,
- nearby geodesics move apart rapidly,
- Euclidean intuition fails.

Hilbert used such ideas in proving the impossibility of complete regular surfaces of constant negative curvature embedded in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Theorem 6.2 (Hilbert's Theorem). *There is no complete regular surface in \mathbb{R}^3 with constant negative Gaussian curvature.*

Example 6.3. The pseudosphere has constant negative curvature, but it is not complete.

7 Compact Surfaces of Constant Curvature

Surfaces of constant curvature are fundamental models in applied mathematics and physics.

Curvature	Geometry	Applications
Positive	Spherical	Planetary geometry, cosmology
Zero	Euclidean	Classical mechanics, engineering
Negative	Hyperbolic	Relativity, complex networks

Curvature strongly influences the topology and geometry of compact surfaces.

7.1 Positive Constant Curvature

Theorem 7.1. *A compact connected surface with constant positive Gaussian curvature is locally isometric to a sphere.*

The standard example is the sphere

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

7.2 Zero Curvature

If

$$K = 0,$$

then the surface is flat.

Examples include:

- plane,
- cylinder,
- torus obtained from Euclidean identifications.

7.3 Negative Constant Curvature

Compact surfaces of genus greater than one admit metrics of constant negative curvature.

Such surfaces are studied in hyperbolic geometry.

7.4 Gauss–Bonnet Theorem

Theorem 7.2 (Gauss–Bonnet). *For a compact oriented surface S ,*

$$\int_S K \, dA = 2\pi\chi(S),$$

where $\chi(S)$ is the Euler characteristic.

7.5 Applications

- Sphere: $\chi = 2$
- Torus: $\chi = 0$
- Double torus: $\chi = -2$

Thus curvature determines topological properties.

8 Complete Surfaces

Completeness is an important analytical property in applied mathematics.

Complete surfaces ensure:

- global solvability of geodesic equations,
- stability of physical trajectories,
- absence of artificial boundary singularities,
- well-posedness of geometric PDEs.

Complete manifolds arise naturally in:

- general relativity,
- geometric mechanics,
- heat flow analysis,
- diffusion processes,
- optimization on manifolds.

Definition 8.1 (Complete Surface). A surface is called **complete** if every geodesic can be extended indefinitely.

Completeness is analogous to completeness in metric spaces.

8.1 Hopf–Rinow Theorem

Theorem 8.2 (Hopf–Rinow). *For a connected Riemannian surface, the following are equivalent:*

- (i) *the surface is complete as a metric space,*
- (ii) *every geodesic is defined for all time,*
- (iii) *closed and bounded subsets are compact.*

8.2 Examples

Example 8.3 (Complete Surfaces). • Plane \mathbb{R}^2 ,

- Sphere,
- Cylinder.

Example 8.4 (Non-complete Surface). The open unit disk

$$D = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$$

with Euclidean metric is not complete.

8.3 Geodesic Completeness

A geodesic satisfies

$$\frac{d^2 u^k}{dt^2} + \sum_{i,j} \Gamma_{ij}^k \frac{du^i}{dt} \frac{du^j}{dt} = 0.$$

Completeness guarantees solutions exist for all parameter values.

9 Applications in Applied Mathematics

9.1 Applications of Surface Theory

1. Elastic shell and plate theory.
2. Curvature flow equations in image smoothing.
3. Minimal surfaces in fluid films.
4. Surface optimization in aerodynamics.
5. Differential geometry in robotics and control.
6. Geometric modeling in computer graphics.
7. General relativity and spacetime curvature.
8. Numerical simulation of curved interfaces.

9.2 Geometric Partial Differential Equations

Many geometric phenomena are governed by PDEs such as:

$$\Delta_g u = 0$$

(Laplace–Beltrami equation),

$$\frac{\partial X}{\partial t} = -HN$$

(mean curvature flow),

and

$$Ric(g) = \lambda g.$$

These equations are central in modern applied mathematics.