

lating and scaling the normal vector so that it became a

radius vector in the unit sphere: this is the so-called Gauss map  $\mathcal{G}$ .  $\rightarrow$  Gauss map of the normal vectors within R. We can at once see that the cylinder, top-left in the illustration, has Gaussian curvature K = 0 everywhere. This is because all normal vectors on the surface will map to the same curve on the surface of the unit sphere (bottom-centre in the illustration); this curve has zero area, so the numerator in the definition of K vanishes. One might protest that the cylinder has a self-evidently curved surface, but Gauss was capturing a deeper distinction between surfaces. There is no distinction between the cylinder and a flat piece of paper in that the latter can be wrapped around the former without distorting distances; this 'wrapping' function is an example of a local isometry: a function which maps any curve onto one of the same length.

The value of K for the catenoid (top-right) is less immediate, but differential geometry brings calculus to our aid: we calculate K as  $(LN - M^2)/(EG - F^2)$  where E, F, G, and L, M and N are the coefficients of the first and second fundamental forms of the surface, respectively, calculated from its parameterisation  $\sigma(u, v)$  in terms of the first and second partial derivatives with respect to u and v. For the catenoid, we derive the value  $K = -\operatorname{sech}^4 u$ , a bell-shaped curve whose value is always negative.

The 'egregious' (remarkable) implication of Gauss's 1827 theorem is that Gaussian curvature is an 'intrinsic' property of a surface. To paraphrase: a 2-D bug can determine for itself whether it lives on a cylinder or a catenoid.





Gaussian curvature K of S at p.