# A Geometric Theory of Surface Area 

Part I: Non-parametric Surfaces

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Introduction: In 1902 Lebesgue [2] proposed that surface area be defined as the infimum of the limit inferiors of sequences of areas of piecewise linear functions which converge uniformly to the given surface. In 1910 Zoard De GEOCZE [3] published the conjecture that, without loss in generality, the sequences of piecewise linear functions may be restricted to polyhedra which are inscribed on the given surface. In 1950 MULHOLLAND [4] gave a proof of the correctness of this conjecture for non-parametric surfaces.

Despite the success of Lebesgue's definition in stimulating an enormous body of research, a number of mathematicians [5, 6, 7, 8] have sought a more simple and a more geometric definition of surface area. The aim is to discover a definite scheme for setting up sequences of suitably chosen polyhedra inscribed on the given surface such that the corresponding sequences of polyhedral areas converge to the Lebesgue area, whether this be finite or infinite. To the best of this writer's knowledge, every one of the definitions that to date have been proposed in this direction, is either less general than that of Lebesgue, or conflicts with it outside of the elementary case.

The present work provides, for non-parametric surfaces, a simple geometric definition of surface area which totally agrees with the Lebesgue definition.

A piecewise linear function is a polyhedron no face of which is normal to the $x y$ plane. In the present paper we do not make this restriction. We consider the set of all admissible polyhedra inscribed on the given surface (see later), subject only to the restriction that if $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ are
any two faces of such a polyhedron then the interiors of their projections on the $x y$ plane are disjoint.

In [9], we introduced the notion of piecewise flatness. However the discussion there was limited to continuously partially differentiable surfaces. In [10] the concept was extended to the general case of a continuous non-parametric surface. In the present paper we make a further extension of this concept as applied to non-parametric surfaces. For non-parametric surfaces, this extension leads to a general geometric theory of surface area which totally agrees with the Lebesgue theory.

The idea that underlies this theory is that, if a sequence of polyhedra ( $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ) inscribed on a given surface $S$ is to converge areawise to the surface $S$, then the orientations of the faces of the polyhedra must converge to the orientations of the pieces of $S$ which they respectively subtend.

Neglect of this consideration by Serret [1] a century ago led, subsequently, to the discovery of the Schwarz phenomenon. Lebesgue [2] himself did not take explicit cognizance of this principle with the effect that his definition of surface area, in the opinion of some mathematicians, is rather distant from the simple geometric situation. And, this definition is very intractable. So intractable, in fact, that, in the words of Tibor Radó [11], even such an intuitively simple proposition as that embodied in the Geöcze conjecture resisted the efforts of some of the ablest mathematicians for half a century.

In this paper we make use of inscribed triangular polyhedra every face of which has an angle which lies between a prescribed angle $\phi$ and $\pi-\phi, 0<\phi<\pi$. We refer to such polyhedra as admissible polyhedra. We also make use of triangles (inscribed in the given surface) having one angle between $\phi$ and $\pi-\phi$ and refer to them as admissible triangles. Since we limit our discussion to such polyhedra and to such triangles we shall, throughout, omit the qualifi-
 cation "admissible".

Our basic concept is that of the deviation of a triangle that is inscribed in the given surface.

Let $T$ be a triangle inscribed in a given surface $S$. Let $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ be any two triangles inscribed in $S$ and such that $\operatorname{Proj} T_{1} \in \operatorname{Proj} T$ and

Proj $T_{2} \subset \operatorname{Proj} T$, i. e., the projections of $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ on the $x y$ plane are subsets of that of $T$. Then, by $D(T)$, the deviation of $T$, we mean the supremum of the acute angles between the normals to $T_{1}$ and to $T_{2}$.

We now proceed formally.

1. We consider surfaces $S: z=f(x, y)$ defined and continuous on $E$, a closed set in the $x y$ plane consisting of the interior and the boundary of a closed simple polygon. A triangular polyhedron $\Pi$ is said to be inscribed on $S$ if all the vertices of $\Pi$ are in $S$ and $\operatorname{Proj}(\Pi)=E$. Of two such polyhedra $\Pi_{1}$ and $\Pi_{2}$, we say that $\Pi_{2}$ is a refinement of $\Pi_{1}$ if every vertex of $\Pi_{1}$ is a vertex of $\Pi_{2}$. A triangle $T$ is said to be inscribed in $S$ if all its vertices are in $S$.

If $T$ is a face of a polyhedron inscribed on $S$, then $D(T)=$ supremum of the angles between the normals to triangles $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ each inscribed in $S$ and such that $\operatorname{Proj}\left(T_{1} \cup T_{2}\right) \subset \operatorname{Proj} T$.

Definitions: $S=f(E)$ is said to be quasi-piecewise flat (qpf) if, for every $\alpha>0$ and every $\beta>0$, there exists a triangular polyhedron $\Pi$ inscribed on $S$ such that
a) For each of some of the faces of $\Pi$ (the so-called $\alpha$-regular faces), the deviation is less than $\alpha$, and
b) The sum of the areas of the faces of $I \Pi$ whose deviations are greater than or equal to $\alpha$, is less than $\beta$. We refer to these faces as $\alpha$-irregular faces.

We refer to such a polyhedron as an ( $\alpha, \beta$ ) polyhedron.
We consider infinite sequences ( $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ) of polyhedra inscribed on $S$ such that the corresponding sequences ( $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots$ ) and ( $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots$ ) both converge to zero. Clearly, if $S$ is $q p f$, such a sequence of inscribed polyhedra exists. We call it a regular sequence of inscribed polyhedra.

A regular sequence $\left(\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots\right)$ of polyhedra inscribed on $S$ is said to be strongly regular if $\sec \theta$ is bounded, $\theta$ being the acute angle between the $z$-axis and the normal to any face of any polyhedron in the sequence. A $q p f$ surface is said to be strongly quasi-piecewise flat ( $s q p f$ ) if $S$ permits the inscription of a strongly regular sequence ( $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ) of inscribed polyhedra.

Let $\Pi$ be a polyhedron inscribed on $S$ and let $m, m<\infty$, be an upper bound of the secant of the acute angles between the $z$-axis and the normals to the faces of $\Pi$. If $\Pi^{*}$ is a refinement of $\Pi$ such that $m$ is also
an upper bound of the secant of the acute angles between the $z$-axis and the normals to the faces of $\Pi^{*}$, then we refer to $\Pi^{*}$ as a regular refinement of $I I$.

By $D(P)$, the deviation of $P \in E$, we mean the infimum of the set of deviations of triangles $T$ inscribed in $S$ such that $P$ is in the interior of Proj $T$, unless $P$ is the boundary of $E$, in which case, we drop the requirement of interiority (i. e., it is sufficient then that $P \in \operatorname{Proj} T$ ).

Theorem 1. Let $S=f(E)$ be sqpf. Let $\left(\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be a strongly regular sequence of polyhedra insoribed on S. If $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots\right)$ is the corresponding sequence of polyhedral areas, then $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots\right)$ converges. Moreover, for all strongly regular sequences of polyhedra inscribed on $S$, the limit of the polyhedral areas is unique and independent of $\phi$, the particular admissibility number.

We make use of a lemma.
Lemma 1: Let $\Pi$ be an ( $\alpha, \beta$ ) polyhedron inscribed on $S$. Let $m, m<\infty$, be an upper bound of $\sec \theta$. Let $\Pi^{*}$ be a regular refinement of $\Pi$. Let $A$ denote the area of $\Pi, B$ the sum of the areas of the projections of the regular faces of $\Pi$, and $A^{*}$ the area of $\Pi^{*}$. Then $\left|A-A^{*}\right|<M B \alpha+\beta(1+m)$ where $M$ is a Lipschitz constant involved in the inequality

$$
\left|\sec \theta_{1}-\sec \theta_{2}\right|<M\left|\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right| .
$$

Proof of the lemma: sec $\theta$ is continuously differentiable on the closed interval $\left[0, \theta_{m}\right]$, where $\theta_{m}=\operatorname{arcsec} m$. Thus, sec $\theta$ is uniformly Lipsehitzian on $\left[0, \theta_{m}\right]$.

Let $A_{1}$ denote the sum of the areas of the $\alpha$-regular faces of $\Pi$ and $A_{1}^{*}$ the sum of the areas of the faces of $\Pi^{*}$ which are subtended by the regular faces of $\Pi$. Then, one shows easily [10] that $\left|A_{1}-A_{1}^{*}\right|<M B \alpha$.

Let $A_{2}$ denote the sum of the areas of the irregular faces of $I I$ and $A_{2}^{*}$ the sum of the areas of the faces of $\Pi^{*}$ which are subtended by the irregular faces of $\Pi$. Then, $\left|A_{2}-A_{2}^{*}\right| \leq A_{2}+A_{2} m<\beta(1+m)$. Thus, $\left|A-A^{*}\right|<M B \alpha+\beta(1+m)$.

We now proceed to the proof of Theorem 1.
Proof: Corresponding to the sequence ( $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ), let us consider the sequences $\left(\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots\right),\left(\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots\right)$ and ( $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots$ ), this last being the corresponding sequence of the areas of the polyhedra.

Let $m, m<\infty$, be a uniform upper bound of $\sec \theta$. Let $\varepsilon>0$ be given. Let $D$ denote the area of $E$.

There exists a positive integer $N_{1}$ such that if $n>N_{1}$, then

$$
\alpha_{n}<\frac{\varepsilon}{4 M D} \text { and } \beta_{n}<\frac{\varepsilon}{4(1+m)} .
$$

Also, there exists a positive integer $N_{2}$ such that if $n>N_{2}$, then every refinement of the polyhedron composed of the $\alpha_{n}$-regular faces of $\Pi_{n}$ is a regular refinement. Let $N$ be the larger of $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$.

Let $n_{1}>N$ and $n_{2}>N$.
Consider the union $U$ of the vertices of the $\alpha_{n_{1}}$-regular faces of $\Pi_{n_{1}}$ and the vertices of the $\alpha_{n_{2}}$-regular faces of $\Pi_{n_{2}}$. Let $A_{n_{1}}$ and $A_{n_{2}}$ denote the areas of $\Pi_{n_{1}}$ and of $\Pi_{n_{2}}$, respectively. The points of $U$, if necessary, with the addition of a finite set of well chosen points, give an admissible polyhedron which is a common refinement of $\Pi_{n_{1}}$ and $\Pi_{n_{2}}$. Let $B$ denote the area of this polyhedron.

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|A_{n_{1}}-B\right|<M D \alpha_{n_{1}}+\beta_{n_{1}}(1+m) \text { and } \\
& \left|A_{n_{2}}-B\right|<M D \alpha_{n_{2}}+\beta_{n_{2}}(1+m) . \\
& \left|A_{n_{1}}-B\right|<M D \frac{\varepsilon}{4 M D}+\frac{\varepsilon}{4(1+m)}(1+m)=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \\
& \left|A_{n_{3}}-B\right|<M D \frac{\varepsilon}{4 M D}+\frac{\varepsilon}{4(1+m)}(1+m)=\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \\
& \left|A_{n_{1}}-A_{n_{2}}\right|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the sequence $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots\right)$ converges.
One shows easily that for the set of all strongly regular sequences of polyhedra inscribed on $S$, the corresponding sequences of polyhedral areas converge to a unique limit and that this is independent of $\phi$ and $m$.

Theorem 2. Let $S=f(E)$ be any continuous surface and let $P$ be interior to $E$. If $D(P)=0$, then $f$ is continuously partially differentiable at $P$.

Here, as everywhere else in this paper, the partial derivatives are taken to exist provided the corresponding plane sections of $S$ have a tangent line at $f(P)$. As such these partials may be finite or infinite. Here, continuity of the partials at $P$ means that for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that if $f$ has finite partial derivatives at $P$ and at $Q$,
then if the distance between $P$ and $Q$ is less than $\delta$, it follows that $\left|f_{x}(P)-f_{x}(Q)\right|<\varepsilon$ and $\left|f_{y}(P)-f_{y}(Q)\right|<\varepsilon$.

We make use of an easily proved [10] lemma.
Lemma 2. Let $D(P)=0$. Let $\left(T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be an infinite sequence of triangles inscribed in $S$ and such that for each $n, P$ is an element of $\operatorname{Proj}\left(T_{n}\right)$. Let the corresponding sequence ( $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots$ ) of diameters of the triangles converge to zero. Let ( $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots$ ) be the corresponding sequence of unit vectors such that each $V_{n}$ is normal to $T_{n}$. Then the sequence ( $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots$ ) converges to a unique unit vector $V(P)$.

Corollary 1: If $D(P)=0$, then the surface $S$ has a normal line and a tangent plane at $Q=f(P)$.

We proceed to the proof of Theorem 2.
Let $C_{x}$ and $C_{y}$ be, respectively, the curves of intersection of $S$ with the planes through $Q$ parallel to the $x z$ plane and the $y z$ plane.

Let $\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots\right)$ be an infinite sequence of points on $C_{x}$ converging to $Q$. Let ( $V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots$ ) be the corresponding sequence of unit vectors from $Q$ through $q_{1}, q_{2}, q_{3}, \ldots$, respectively.

If the set $\left\{V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is finite then there exists a convergent subsequence of $\left(V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots\right)$. If the set $\left\{V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is infinite, then there exists a vector limit point of the set. There exists then a subsequence of ( $V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots$ ) which converges to this vector limit point. Thus, in either case, there exists a convergent subsequence.

Similarly, if $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots\right)$ is any sequence of points on $C_{y}$ converging to $Q$ and $\left(W r_{1}, W r_{2}, \ldots\right)$ is the corresponding sequence of unit vectors through $Q$ and through $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots\right)$ respectively, then there exists a convergent subsequence of ( $W r_{1}, W r_{2}, \ldots$ ).

Suppose now that there exist two subsequences of ( $V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots$ ) which converge to two distinct unit vectors. Let these be $V_{x}^{*}$ and $V_{x}^{* *}$. Let a subsequence of ( $W r_{1}, W r_{2}, \ldots$ ) converge to $V_{y}$. Then

$$
V_{x}^{*} \times V_{y} \neq V_{x}^{* *} \times V_{y} .
$$

This contradicts the foregoing lemma.
Since the sequences ( $V q_{1}, V q_{2}, \ldots$ ) converge to a unique limit vector, it follows that $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ exists at $P$. Similarly, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ exists at $P$. By a similar argument, one shows that $f$ has a directional derivative at $P$ in every direction.

We now show that the partial derivatives are continuous at $P$. We make use of the above corollary.
$D(P)=0$. Hence, for every $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $\delta>0$ such that if $T$ is any triangle inscribed in $S$ and $\operatorname{Proj} T \subset N(P, \delta)$, the $\delta$-neighborhood of $P$, then the acute angle between the normal to $S$ at $Q=f(P)$ and the normal to $T$ is less than $\varepsilon$.

Suppose that $P_{1} \in N\left(P, \frac{\delta}{2}\right)$ and $f_{x}$ and $f_{y}$ both exist at $P_{1}$. Let $Q_{1}=f\left(P_{1}\right)$. Consider $Q_{1} X$ and $Q_{1} Y$, the curves of intersection of $S$ with the planes through $Q_{1}$ and parallel to the $x z$ and the $y z$ planes, respectively. There exist tangent lines to $Q_{1} X$ and $Q_{1} Y$. There exists a small triangle $T_{1}=Q_{1} X_{1} Y_{1}$, where $X_{1} \in Q_{1} X, X_{1} \neq X, Y_{1} \in Q_{1} Y, Y_{1} \neq Y$, and $\operatorname{Proj} T_{1} \subset N(P, \delta)$. Since the acute angle between the normal to $S$ at $Q$ and the normal to the triangle $Q_{1} X_{1} Y_{1}$ is less than $\varepsilon$, it follows that $f_{x}$ and $f_{y}$ are both continuous at $P$.

Theorem 3. Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf. Then, for each $\varepsilon>0$, the set of the points $P$ for which $D(P) \geq \varepsilon$ is of Jordan measure zero.

Proof: Let $\varepsilon>0$ be given. Let $\beta>0$ be given.
There exists a finite triangulation of $E$ such that the deviation of each of the regular faces of the corresponding inscribed polyhedron $I I$ is less than $\varepsilon$ and the sum of the areas of the irregular faces is less than $\beta$. The deviation at each point $P$ which is interior to the projection of a regular face is less than $\varepsilon$. The deviation at points which are on the boundary of the projection of a regular face may be greater than or equal to $\varepsilon$, but the Jordan measure of this set is zero. The sum of the areas of the projections of the irregular face is less than $\beta$. Since $\beta>0$ is arbitrary, the set of the points $P \in E$ for which $D(P) \geq \varepsilon$ is of Jordan measure zero.

Corollary 2: If $S=f(E)$ is qpf, then the set of the points $P$ of $E$ at which $D(P) \neq 0$ is of Lebesgue measure zero.

Corollary 3: If $S=f(E)$ is qpf, then $f$ is partially differentiable on $E$ almost everywhere (in the Lebesgue sense). Also, $f$ is continuously partially differentiable on $E$ almost everywhere.

The foregoing corollary gives us a necessary condition if $S=f(E)$ is to be $q p f$. This condition is not sufficient for $S$ to be $q p t$.

Definition: Let $S=f(E)$. The function $f$ is said to be absolutely continuous on $E$ if for every $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that if $G$
is a finite set of non-overlapping triangles in $E$ the sum of whose areas is less than $\delta$, then the sum of the areas of the triangles inscribed in $S$ which are subtended by the triangles in $G$ is less than $\varepsilon$.

Theorem 4. Let $S=f(E)$, where $f$ is absolutely continuous on $E$. If for each $\varepsilon>0$, the set of points $P$ of $E$ for which $D(P) \geq \varepsilon$ is of Jordan measure zero, then $S$ is qpf.

Proof: Let $\alpha>0$ and $\beta>0$ be given. Let $\delta$ be the $\delta$ associated with $\varepsilon=\alpha$ in the definition of absolute continuity. There exists a simple set $F$ (i. e., the union of a finite set of closed rectangles), subset of $E$, which contains in its interior all the points $P$ of $E$ for which $D(P) \geq \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ and whose area (i. e., the area of $F$ ) is less than $\delta$. This set is finitely triangulable. Since $E$ itself is finitely triangulable, it is possible to obtain a new triangulation of $E$ which includes the triangulation of $F$.

Consider the set $\overline{E-F}$. For each point $R$ of $\overline{E-F}$ there exists a small triangle $T$ containing $R$ as an interior point and such that $D\left(T^{*}\right)<\alpha$, where $T^{*}$ is the triangle inscribed in $S$ such that Proj $T^{*}=T$. Letting $R$ range over all of $\overline{E-F}$ yields a covering $\Gamma$ of $\overline{E-F}$. Since $\overline{E-F}$ is compact, there exists a finite subset $\Gamma^{*}$ of $\Gamma$ which covers $\overline{E-F}$. These considerations yield a triangulation of $E$ which satisfies the definition of quasi-piecewise flatness.

Corollary 4: Let $S=f(E), f$ absolutely continuous on $E$. If, for each $\varepsilon>0$, the set $E_{\varepsilon}$ of the points $P$ of $E$ for which $D(P) \geq \varepsilon$ is of Lebesgue measure zero, then $S$ is $q p f$.

Proof: $E_{\varepsilon}$ is closed and bounded and so, is compact.
Theorem 5. Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf. If $f$ is continuously partially differentiable at $P \in E$, then $D(P)=0$.

We make use of a lemma.
Lemma 3. Let $z=f(x, y)$ be continuous on $E$ and be partially differentiable on $E$, except possibly on a set of Lebesque measure zero. Let $f_{x}$ and $f_{y}$ be continuous on their domains. Let $f$ be partially differentiable at $P:\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \in E$. Then, for each $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $\tau>0$ such that, if $|\Delta x|<\tau,|\Delta y|<\tau$ and $\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right) \in E$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Delta z=f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)= \\
& =f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta x+f_{y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta y+\eta \Delta x+\mu \Delta y+\overline{\Delta x}^{2} \overline{\Delta y}^{2}, \text { where } \\
& |\eta|<\varepsilon \text { and }|\mu|<\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof: We take up the case where $P:\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ is interior to $E$.
For given $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y,|\Delta x|<1$ and $|\Delta y|<1$, with the rectangle
 HIJK with center at $P:\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, a subset of $E$, the function $f(x+\Delta x, y+\Delta y)-f(x, y+\Delta y)$, as a function of $x$ and $y$, is continuous at $P$ Hence, there exists $\delta>0$ such that, if $Q:\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)$ is inside the square $A B C D$, then
$f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)=f\left(x_{1}+\Delta x, y_{1}+\Delta y\right)-$
$-f\left(x_{1}, y_{1}+\Delta y\right)+\lambda$, where $|\lambda|<\overline{\Delta x}^{2} \overline{\Delta y}^{2}$.
Inside the square $E F G H$ there exists a point $\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)$ at which $f_{x}$ and $f_{y}$ exist.
$f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)=f\left(x_{0}^{*}+\Delta x, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)-$
$-f\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)+\lambda$, where $|\lambda|<\overline{\Delta x}^{2} \overline{\Delta y}^{2}$.
Since $f_{x}$ exists at $\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right.$ ), for each $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $\alpha>0$ such that, if $|\Delta x|<\alpha$, then $f\left(x_{0}^{*}+\Delta x, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)=$ $=f_{x}\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right) \Delta x+\mu \Delta x$, where $|\mu|<\varepsilon$.

Thus, $f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)=f_{x}\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right) \Delta x+\mu \Delta x+\lambda$.
Since $f_{x}$ is continuous on its domain, there exists $\beta>0$ such that, if $|\Delta x|<\alpha$ and $|\Delta x|<\beta$, then

$$
f_{x}\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}+\Delta y\right)=f_{x}\left(x_{0}^{*}, y_{0}^{*}\right)+\theta, \text { where }|\theta|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}
$$

Thus, $/\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)=f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta x+\theta \Delta x+\mu \Delta x+\lambda$.
Since $f_{y}$ exists at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, there exists $\gamma>0$ such that, if $|\Delta y|<\gamma$, then $f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=f_{y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta y+\phi \Delta y$, where $|\phi|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$. Hence if $|\Delta x|$ and $|\Delta y|$ are each less than $\tau$, the lesser of $\alpha, \beta$, and $\gamma$, then
$f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x, y_{0}+\Delta y\right)-f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=f_{x}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta x+f_{y}\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) \Delta y+(\theta+\mu) \Delta x+\phi \Delta y+\lambda$, where $|\theta|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2},|\mu|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2},|\phi|<\varepsilon$ and $|\lambda|<\overline{\Delta x}^{2} \overline{\Delta y}^{2}$.

To complete the proof when $P$ is interior to $E$, take $\eta=\theta+\mu$, and $\mu=\phi$.

The case when $P$ is on the boundary of $E$, is handled in the obvious manner.

Corollaries of the lemma:
Under the hypothesis of the above lemma,
5. For each direction, the directional derivative of $f$ at $P$ exists in that direction.
6. The differential of $f$ at $P$ exists.
7. At $P, S$ has a tangent plane.
8. For each $\varepsilon>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that, if $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ are any two triangles in $S(P, \delta)$ then the acute angle between the normals to $T_{1}^{*}$ and $T_{2}^{*}$, triangles inscribed in $S$ and such that Proj $T_{1}^{*}=T_{1}$ and Proj $T_{2}^{*}=T_{2}$, is less than $\varepsilon$.

Theorem 5 is an immediate consequence of Corollary 9.
Corollary 9: Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf and let $P \in E$. Then $D(P)=0$ if and only if $f$ is continuously partially differentiable at $P$.

Definition: $P \in E$ is said to be an irregular point of $E$ if for every neighborhood $N(P, \delta)$, sec $\theta$ is unbounded, $\theta$ being the acute angle between the $z$-axis and the normal to a triangle $T$ inscribed in $S$ and such that $\operatorname{Proj}(T) \subset N(P, \delta)$. A point $Q \in E$ is said to be regular if it is not an irregular point of $E$.

Corollary 10: Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf. If $E$ does not contain any irregular points, then $S$ is sqpt.

Proof: $E$ is compact.
Theorem 6. Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf and let $E_{i}$ denote the set of the irregular points of $E$. If $E_{i}$ is of Lebesgue measure zero, then there exists a regular sequence ( $I_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ) of polyhedra inscribed on $S$ such that the corresponding sequence $\left(A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ of the polyhedral areas converges to the Lebesgue area of $S$, whether this be finite or infinite.

Proof: For every $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a closed subpolygon $E_{\varepsilon}^{*} \subset E$ ( $E_{\varepsilon}^{*}$ is a closed set bounded by a closed polygon) such that on $E_{\varepsilon}^{*}$ there exist no irregular points of $E$ and area of $E$-area of $E_{\varepsilon}^{*}<\varepsilon$.

Let $\left(\Pi_{1}^{*}, \Pi_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ be a strongly regular sequence of polyhedra inscribed on $E_{\epsilon}^{*}$. By Theorem 6 of [10] the corresponding sequence of areas $\left(A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ converges to the Lebesgue integral $\int_{E_{\varepsilon}^{*}} \sqrt{1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}}$. This, by Section 4 of [10], is precisely the Lebesgue area $L_{\varepsilon}$ of $S_{\varepsilon}^{*}=f\left(E_{\varepsilon}^{*}\right)$.

Consider now a sequence ( $\varepsilon_{1}, \varepsilon_{2}, \ldots$ ) converging to zero. Let ( $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots$ ) be a strongly regular sequence of polyhedra inscribed on $S_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}=f\left(E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}\right)$.

On $\bar{E}-E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}$ there exists a finite triangulation $A_{2}$ of area less than $\varepsilon_{2}$ which contains all the irregular points of $E$. Let

$$
E_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{*}=E_{e_{1}}^{*} \cup \overline{\left(\left(\overline{\left.E-E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}\right)}-\overline{\left.A_{2}\right)}\right)\right.}
$$

With ( $\Pi_{11}, \Pi_{12}, \ldots$ ) already constructed, we construct the corresponding strongly regular sequence ( $\Pi_{21}, \Pi_{22}, \ldots$ ) of polyhedra inscribed on $E_{i_{2}}^{*}$, seeing to it that, for each $i, \Pi_{2 i}$ contains $\Pi_{1 i}$ as a subpolyhedron. We construct the regular sequence ( $\Pi_{31}, \Pi_{32}, \ldots$ ) using $\left(\Pi_{21}, \Pi_{22}, \ldots\right)$ in analogous manner.

Continuing this procedure indefinitely gives us a sequence of sequence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \varepsilon_{1} ;\left(\Pi_{11}, \Pi_{12}, \ldots\right) \\
& \quad\left(A_{11}^{*}, A_{12}^{*}, \ldots\right) \text { converges to } \iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}}=L_{\varepsilon_{1}} \\
& \varepsilon_{2}:\left(\Pi_{21}, \Pi_{22}, \ldots\right) \\
& \quad\left(A_{21}^{*}, A_{22}^{*}, \ldots\right) \text { converges to } \int_{E_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{*}} \int_{\varepsilon_{\varepsilon_{2}}}=L \\
& \varepsilon_{3}:\left(\Pi_{31}, \Pi_{32}, \ldots\right) \\
& \quad\left(A_{31}^{*}, A_{32}^{*}, \ldots\right) \text { converges to } \iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{3}}^{*}}=L_{\varepsilon_{3}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider now the sequence $\left(\iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}}, \iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{*}}, \cdots\right)$. Here $\iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}} \leq \iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}} \leq \cdots$
If this sequence is unbounded then, by the additivity of Lebesgue area, the Lebesgue area of $S$ is infinite.

Now suppose that the sequence $\left(\iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}}, \iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{*}}, \ldots\right)$ is bounded. Then this sequence converges to a real number. Since the Lebesgue integral $\iint_{E} \sqrt{1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}}$ exists, the sequence $\left(\int_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}} \int, \int_{E_{\varepsilon_{7}}^{*}} \int, \ldots\right)$ converges to

$$
\int_{z} \sqrt{1+f_{x}+f_{y}^{2}}
$$

We now wish to set up a regular sequence of polyhedra $\left(\Pi_{1}^{*}, \Pi_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ inscribed on $S$ such that the corresponding sequence $\left(A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ converges to the Lebesgue area of $S$.
$\Pi_{1}^{*}$ is built from $\Pi_{11}$ by merely adjoining a polyhedron (having no face parallel to the $z$-axis) on $\overline{E-E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}} . \Pi_{2}^{*}$ is built from $\Pi_{22}$ by merely adjoining a polyhedron (having no face parallel to the $z$-axis) on $\overline{E-E_{\varepsilon_{\mathrm{p}}}^{*}}$, etc. Since the sequence $\left(\int_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}} \int, \int_{E_{\varepsilon_{0}}} \int, \ldots\right)$ converges to $\iint_{E} \sqrt{1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}}$, the sequence $\left(A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ also converges to $\iint_{E} \sqrt{1+f_{x}^{2}+f_{y}^{2}}$.

Since the corresponding sequence of piecewise linear functions of $x$ and $y$ converges uniformly to $S$, it follows by (4) of [10] that this limit of $\left(A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots\right)$ is the Lebesgue area of $S$.

The identical procedure followed in the case where the sequence $\left(\iint_{E_{\varepsilon_{1}}^{*}}, \int_{E_{\varepsilon_{2}}^{*}} \int, \ldots\right)$ is unbounded yields the limit $\infty$ which is the Lebesgue area of $S$.

We now consider the case where the set $E_{i}$ is of positive outer Lebesgue measure. For this we have the following theorem.

Theorem 7. Let $S=f(E)$ be qpf. If the set $E_{i}$ of the irregular points of $E$ is of positive outer Lebesgue measure, then the Lebesgue area of $S$ is infinite.

Proof: We make use of an easily proved lemma.
Lemma 4. At each point $Q$ of $E_{i}$, one of the two partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f(Q)}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f(Q)}{\partial y}$ does not exist finitely (if it exists at all).

To proceed to the proof of the theorem, suppose that $S$ is of finite Lebesgue area. Then, by a well known theorem [11], $f$ is finitely partially
differentiable almost everywhere on $E$. This contradicts the fact that $E_{i}$ is of positive outer Lebesgue measure.

We now consider the case where $S=f(E)$ is not $q p f$. There are two subcases:

1. The set $E^{*}$ of the points $P$ of $E$ for which $D(P) \neq 0$ is of Lebesgue measure zero. For this we have the following theorem.

Theorem 8. Let $S=f(E)$ be not qpf. Let $E^{*}$ be of Lebesgue measure zero. Then there exists a regular sequence ( $\Pi_{1}^{*}, \Pi_{2}^{*}, \ldots$ ) of polyhedra inscribed on $S$ such that the corresponding sequence ( $A_{1}^{*}, A_{2}^{*}, \ldots$ ) of polyhedral areas converges to the Lebesgue area of $S$, whether this be finite or infinite.

Proof: The proof is similar to that of Theorem 6.
We now take up case 2.
2. The set of $E^{*}$ is of positive Lebesgue outer measure. For this we have the following theorem:

Theorem 9. Let $S=f(E)$ be not $q p f$. Let $E^{*}$ be the set of points $P$ of $E$ for which $D(P) \neq 0$. If $E^{*}$ is of positive Lebesgue outer measure, then the Lebesgue area of $S$ is infinite.

Proof: We make use of two lemmas.
Lemma 5. There exists $\delta, \delta>0$, such that the set $E_{\delta}=\left\{\right.$ All $P \in E^{*}$ such that $D(P)>\delta\}$ is of positive outer Lebesgue measure.

Proof: Let $\delta_{n}=\frac{1}{n}$ for each positive integer $n$. Then $E^{*}=\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{\delta_{n}}$. If each $E_{\delta_{n}}$ is of zero outer Lebesgue measure, then each $E_{\delta_{n}}$ is Lebesgue measurable and its Lebesgue measure is zero. Since Lebesgue measure is completely additive, it follows that $E^{*}$ is measurable and its Lebesgue measure is zero. Hence, its outer Lebesgue measure is zero. This contradicts the hypothesis that $E^{*}$ is of positive outer Lebesgue measure.

Lemma 6. At each point $Q$ of $E^{*}$ one of the two partial derivatives, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ does not exist finitely (if it exists at all).

This lemma follows easily from the following elementary geometric proposition:

For each $\alpha, 0<\alpha \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$, there exists $\beta>0$ such that if two planes have a dihedral angle greater than $\alpha$, then either the angle between their traces on the $x z$ plane or the angle between their traces on the $y z$ plane is greater than $\beta$.

We now proceed to the proof of the main theorem.
Suppose that $S$ is of finite Lebesgue area. Then, by a well-known theorem [11], $f$ is finitely partially differentiable on $E$ almost everywhere. This contradicts the fact that $E^{*}$ is of positive Lebesgue outer measure. Hence $S$ is of infinite Lebesgue area.

The proofs of Theorems $6-9$ constitute a constructive proof of the validity of the Geöcze conjecture.

The foregoing theory constitutes a geometric theory of the area of a non-parametric surface. We have shown that, for non-parametric surfaces, this theory is totally equivalent to the analytic theory of Lebesgue. It may thus be looked upon as a geometric realization of the Lebesgue theory for such surfaces.

In this paper we have not exploited the fact that we permit our polyhedra to have some faces which are parallel to the $z$-axis. We shall do so in our treatment of the parametric surfaces.

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