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#### Abstract

We study rays in von Mangoldt planes, which has applications to the structure of open complete manifolds with lower radial curvature bounds. We prove that the set of souls of any rotationally symmetric plane of nonnegative curvature is a closed ball, and if the plane is von Mangoldt we compute the radius of the ball. We show that each cone in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ can be smoothed to a von Mangoldt plane.


## 1. Introduction

Let $M_{m}$ denote $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ equipped with a smooth, complete, rotationally symmetric Riemannian metric given in polar coordinates as $g_{m}:=d r^{2}+m^{2}(r) d \theta^{2}$; let $o$ denote the origin in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. We say that $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane if its sectional curvature $G_{m}:=-m^{\prime \prime} / m$ is a nonincreasing function of $r$.

The Toponogov comparison theorem was extended in [Itokawa et al. 2003] to open complete manifolds with radial sectional curvature bounded below by the curvature of a von Mangoldt plane, leading to various applications in [Shiohama and Tanaka 2002; Kondo and Ohta 2007; Kondo and Tanaka 2011] and generalizations in [Mashiko and Shiohama 2006; Kondo and Tanaka 2010; Machigashira 2010].

A point $q$ in a Riemannian manifold is called a critical point of infinity if each unit tangent vector at $q$ makes angle $\leq \pi / 2$ with a ray that starts at $q$. Let $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ denote the set of critical points of infinity of $M_{m}$; clearly $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is a closed, rotationally symmetric subset that contains every pole of $M_{m}$, so that $o \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$. One reason for studying $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is the following consequence of the generalized Toponogov theorem of [Itokawa et al. 2003].

Lemma 1.1. Let $\hat{M}$ be a complete noncompact Riemannian manifold with radial curvature bounded below by the curvature of a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$, and let $\hat{r}$ and $r$ denote the distance functions to the basepoints $\hat{o}$ and $o$ of $\hat{M}$ and $M_{m}$, respectively. If $\hat{q}$ is a critical point of $\hat{r}$, then $\hat{r}(\hat{q})$ is contained in $r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$.

[^0]Combined with the critical point theory of distance functions [Grove 1993; Greene 1997, Lemma 3.1; Petersen 2006, §11.1], Lemma 1.1 implies the following.

Corollary 1.2. In the setting of Lemma 1.1, for any c in $[a, b] \subset r\left(M_{m}-\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$,

- the $\hat{r}^{-1}$-preimage of $[a, b]$ is homeomorphic to $\hat{r}^{-1}(a) \times[a, b]$, and the $\hat{r}^{-1}$-preimages of points in $[a, b]$ are all homeomorphic,
- the $\hat{r}^{-1}$-preimage of $[0, c]$ is homeomorphic to a compact smooth manifold with boundary, and the homeomorphism maps $\hat{r}^{-1}(c)$ onto the boundary,
- if $K \subset \hat{M}$ is a compact smooth submanifold, possibly with boundary, such that $\hat{r}(K) \supset r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$, then $\hat{M}$ is diffeomorphic to the normal bundle of $K$.
If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $G_{m}(0) \leq 0$, then $G_{m} \leq 0$ everywhere, so every point is a pole, and hence $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=M_{m}$ so that Lemma 1.1 yields no information about the critical points of $\hat{r}$. Of course, there are other ways to get this information, as illustrated by classical Gromov's estimate: if $M_{m}$ is the standard $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, then the set of critical points of $\hat{r}$ is compact; see, for example, [Greene 1997, p. 109].

The following theorem determines $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ when $G_{m} \geq 0$ everywhere; note that the plane $M_{m}$ in (i)-(iii) need not be von Mangoldt.
Theorem 1.3. If $G_{m} \geq 0$, then:
(i) $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is the closed $R_{m}$-ball centered at o for some $R_{m} \in[0, \infty]$.
(ii) $R_{m}$ is positive if and only if $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2}$ is finite.
(iii) $R_{m}$ is finite if and only if $m^{\prime}(\infty)<\frac{1}{2}$.
(iv) If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $R_{m}$ is finite, then the equation $m^{\prime}(r)=\frac{1}{2}$ has a unique solution $\rho_{m}$, and the solution satisfies $\rho_{m}>R_{m}$ and $G_{m}\left(r_{m}\right)>0$.
(v) If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $R_{m}$ is finite and positive, then $R_{m}$ is the unique solution of the integral equation

$$
\int_{x}^{\infty} \frac{m(x) d r}{m(r) \sqrt{m^{2}(r)-m^{2}(x)}}=\pi
$$

Here is a sample application of Theorem 1.3 (iv) and Corollary 1.2:
Corollary 1.4. Let $\hat{M}$ be a complete noncompact Riemannian manifold with radial curvature from the basepoint $\hat{o}$ bounded below by the curvature of a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$. If $G_{m} \geq 0$ and $m^{\prime}(\infty)<\frac{1}{2}$, then $\hat{M}$ is homeomorphic to the metric $\rho_{m}$-ball centered at $\hat{o}$, where $\rho_{m}$ is the unique solution of $m^{\prime}(r)=\frac{1}{2}$.

Theorem 1.3 should be compared with the following results of Tanaka:

- The set of poles in any $M_{m}$ is a closed metric ball centered at $o$ of some radius $R_{p}$ in $[0, \infty]$ [Tanaka 1992b, Lemma 1.1].
- $R_{p}>0$ if and only if $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2}$ is finite and $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>0$ [Tanaka 1992a].
- If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then $R_{p}$ is a unique solution of an explicit integral equation [Tanaka 1992a, Theorem 2.1].

It is natural to wonder when the set of poles equals $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$, and we answer the question when $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt.

Theorem 1.5. If $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane, then:
(a) If $R_{p}$ is finite and positive, then the set of poles is a proper subset of the component of $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ that contains $o$.
(b) $R_{p}=0$ if and only if $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=\{o\}$.

Of course $R_{p}=\infty$ implies $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=M_{m}$, but the converse is not true: Theorem 1.11 ensures the existence of a von Mangoldt plane with $m^{\prime}(\infty)=\frac{1}{2}$ and $G_{m} \geq 0$, and for this plane $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=M_{m}$ by Theorem 1.3, while $R_{p}$ is finite by Remark 4.7.

We say that a ray $\gamma$ in $M_{m}$ points away from infinity if $\gamma$ and the segment $[\gamma(0), o]$ make an angle $<\frac{\pi}{2}$ at $\gamma(0)$. Define $A_{m} \subset M_{m}-\{o\}$ as follows: $q \in A_{m}$ if and only if there is a ray that starts at $q$ and points away from infinity; by symmetry, $A_{m} \subset \mathfrak{C}_{m}$.
Theorem 1.6. If $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane, then $A_{m}$ is open in $M_{m}$.
Any plane $M_{m}$ with $G_{m} \geq 0$ has another distinguished subset, namely the set of souls, that is, points produced via the soul construction of Cheeger-Gromoll.
Theorem 1.7. If $G_{m} \geq 0$, then $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is equal to the set of souls of $M_{m}$.
Recall that the soul construction takes as input a basepoint in an open complete manifold $N$ of nonnegative sectional curvature and produces a compact totally convex submanifold $S$ without boundary, called a soul, such that $N$ is diffeomorphic to the normal bundle to $S$. Thus if $N$ is contractible, as happens for $M_{m}$, then $S$ is a point. The soul construction also gives a continuous family of compact totally convex subsets that starts with $S$ and ends with $N$, and according to [Mendonça 1997, Proposition 3.7] $q \in N$ is a critical point of infinity if and only if there is a soul construction such that the associated continuous family of totally convex sets drops in dimension at $q$. In particular, any point of $S$ is a critical point of infinity, which can also be seen directly; see the proof of [Maeda 1974/1975, Lemma 1]. In Theorem 1.7 we prove conversely that every point of $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is a soul; for this $M_{m}$ need not be von Mangoldt.

In regard to Theorem 1.3 (iii), it is worth mentioning $G_{m} \geq 0$ implies that $m^{\prime}$ is nonincreasing, so $m^{\prime}(\infty)$ exists, and moreover, $m^{\prime}(\infty) \in[0,1]$ because $m \geq 0$. As we note in Remark A. 5 for any von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$, the limit $m^{\prime}(\infty)$ exists as a number in $[0, \infty]$. It follows that if $G_{m} \geq 0$ or if $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then
$M_{m}$ admits total curvature, which equals $2 \pi\left(1-m^{\prime}(\infty)\right)$ and hence takes values in $[-\infty, 2 \pi]$; thus $m^{\prime}(\infty)=\frac{1}{2}$ if and only if $M_{m}$ has total curvature $\pi$. Standard examples of von Mangoldt planes of positive curvature are the one-parametric family of paraboloids, all satisfying $m^{\prime}(\infty)=0$ [Shiohama et al. 2003, Example 2.1.4], and the one-parametric family of two-sheeted hyperboloids parametrized by $m^{\prime}(\infty)$, which takes every value in $(0,1)$ [Shiohama et al. 2003, Example 2.1.4].

A property of von Mangoldt planes, discovered in [Elerath 1980; Tanaka 1992b] and crucial to this paper, is that the cut locus of any $q \in M_{m}-\{o\}$ is a ray that lies on the meridian opposite $q$. (If $M_{m}$ is not von Mangoldt, its cut locus is not fully understood, but it definitely can be disconnected [Tanaka 1992a, p. 266], and known examples of cut loci of compact surfaces of revolution [Gluck and Singer 1979; Sinclair and Tanaka 2006] suggest that it could be complicated.)

As we note in Lemma 3.14, if $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane, and if $q \neq o$, then $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ if and only if the geodesic tangent to the parallel through $q$ is a ray. Combined with Clairaut's relation this gives the following "choking" obstruction for a point $q$ to belong to $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ (see Lemma 3.3):
Proposition 1.8. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, then $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$ and $m(r)>$ $m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for $r>r_{q}$, where $r_{q}$ is the $r$-coordinate of $q$.

The above proposition is immediate from Lemmas 3.3 and 3.14. We also show in Lemma 3.10 that if $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $\mathfrak{C}_{m} \neq o$, then there is $\rho$ such that $m(r)$ is increasing and unbounded on $[\rho, \infty)$.

The following theorem collects most of what we know about $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ for a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ with some negative curvature, where the case $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)=0$ is excluded because then $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=\{o\}$ by Proposition 1.8.
Theorem 1.9. If $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane with a point where $G_{m}<0$ and such that $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>0$, then
(1) $M_{m}$ contains a line and has total curvature $-\infty$,
(2) if $m^{\prime}$ has a zero, then neither $A_{m}$ nor $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is connected,
(3) $M_{m}-A_{m}$ is a bounded subset of $M_{m}$,
(4) the ball of poles of $M_{m}$ has positive radius.

In Example 6.1 we construct a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ to which Theorem 1.9 (2) applies. In Example 6.2 we produce a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ such that neither $A_{m}$ nor $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is connected while $m^{\prime}>0$ everywhere. We do not know whether there is a von Mangoldt plane such that $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ has more than two connected components.

Because of Lemma 1.1 and Corollary 1.2, one is interested in subintervals of $(0, \infty)$ that are disjoint from $r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$, as, for example, happens for any interval on which $m^{\prime} \leq 0$, or for the interval $\left(R_{m}, \infty\right)$ in Theorem 1.3. To this end we prove the following result, which is a consequence of Theorem 6.3.

Theorem 1.10. Let $M_{n}$ be a von Mangoldt plane with $G_{n} \geq 0, n(\infty)=\infty$, and such that $n^{\prime}(x)<\frac{1}{2}$ for some $x$. Then for any $z>x$ there exists $y>z$ such that if $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane with $n=m$ on $[0, y]$, then $r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$ and $[x, z]$ are disjoint.

In general, if $M_{m}$ and $M_{n}$ are von Mangoldt planes with $n=m$ on $[0, y]$, then the sets $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{n}$ could be quite different. For instance, if $M_{n}$ is a paraboloid, then $\mathfrak{C}_{n}=\{o\}$, but by Example 6.2 for any $y>0$ there is a von Mangoldt $M_{m}$ with some negative curvature such that $m=n$ on $[0, y]$, and by Theorem 1.9 the set $M_{m}-\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is bounded and $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ contains the ball of poles of positive radius.

Basic properties of von Mangoldt planes are described in Appendix A. In particular, in order to construct a von Mangoldt plane with prescribed $G_{m}$ it suffices to check that 0 is the only zero of the solution of the Jacobi initial value problem (A.7) with $K=G_{m}$, where $G_{m}$ is smooth on $[0, \infty)$. Prescribing values of $m^{\prime}$ is harder. It is straightforward to see that if $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane such that $m^{\prime}$ is constant near infinity, then $G_{m} \geq 0$ everywhere and $m^{\prime}(\infty) \in[0,1]$. We do not know whether there is a von Mangoldt plane with $m^{\prime}=0$ near infinity, but all the other values in $(0,1]$ can be prescribed:
Theorem 1.11. For every $s \in(0,1]$ there is $\rho>0$ and a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ such that $m^{\prime}=s$ on $[\rho, \infty)$.

Thus each cone in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ can be smoothed to a von Mangoldt plane, but we do not know how to construct a (smooth) capped cylinder that is von Mangoldt.

Structure of the paper. We collect notations and conventions in Section 2. Properties of von Mangoldt planes are reviewed in Appendix A, while Appendix B contains a calculus lemma relevant to continuity and smoothness of the turn angle. Section 3 contains various results on rays in von Mangoldt planes, including the proofs of Theorem 1.6 and Proposition 1.8. Planes of nonnegative curvature are discussed in Section 4, where Theorems 1.3 and 1.7 are proved. A proof of Theorem 1.11 is in Section 5, and the other results stated in the introduction are proved in Section 6.

## 2. Notations and conventions

All geodesics are parametrized by arclength. Minimizing geodesics are called segments. Let $\partial_{r}$ and $\partial_{\theta}$ denote the vector fields dual to $d r$ and $d \theta$ on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Given $q \neq o$, denote its polar coordinates by $\theta_{q}$ and $r_{q}$. Let $\gamma_{q}, \mu_{q}$, and $\tau_{q}$ denote the geodesics defined on $[0, \infty)$ that start at $q$ in the directions of $\partial_{\theta}, \partial_{r}$, and $-\partial_{r}$, respectively. We refer to $\left.\tau_{q}\right|_{\left(r_{q}, \infty\right)}$ as the meridian opposite $q$; note that $\tau_{q}\left(r_{q}\right)=o$. Also set $\kappa_{\gamma(s)}:=\angle\left(\dot{\gamma}(s), \partial_{r}\right)$.

We write $\dot{r}, \dot{\theta}, \dot{\gamma}$, and $\dot{\kappa}$ for the derivatives of $r_{\gamma(s)}, \theta_{\gamma(s)}, \gamma(s)$, and $\kappa_{\gamma(s)}$ by $s$, and write $m^{\prime}$ for $d m / d r$; similar notations are used for higher derivatives.

Let $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$ denote the maximum of the angles formed by $\mu_{q}$ and rays emanating from $q \neq o$; let $\xi_{q}$ denote the ray with $\xi_{q}(0)=q$ for which the maximum is attained, that is, such that $\kappa \xi_{q}(0)=\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$.

A geodesic $\gamma$ in $M_{m}-\{o\}$ is called counterclockwise if $\dot{\theta}>0$ and clockwise if $\dot{\theta}<0$. A geodesic in $M_{m}$ is clockwise, counterclockwise, or can be extended to a geodesic through $o$. If $\gamma$ is clockwise, then it can be mapped to a counterclockwise geodesic by an isometric involution of $M_{m}$.
Convention. Unless stated otherwise, any geodesic in $M_{m}$ that we consider is either tangent to a meridian or counterclockwise.

Due to this convention the Clairaut constant and the turn angle defined below are nonnegative, which will simplify notations.

## 3. Turn angle and rays in $M_{m}$

This section collects what we know about rays in $M_{m}$ with emphasis on the cases when $G_{m} \geq 0$ or $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$. Let $\gamma$ be a geodesic in $M_{m}$ that does not pass through $o$, so that $\gamma$ is a solution of the geodesic equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{r}=m m^{\prime} \dot{\theta}^{2}, \quad \dot{\theta} m^{2}=c \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c$ is called the Clairaut constant of $\gamma$. The equation $\dot{\theta} m^{2}=c$ is the so-called Clairaut's relation, which, since $\gamma$ is assumed counterclockwise, can be written as $c=m\left(r_{\gamma(s)}\right) \sin \kappa_{\gamma(s)}$. Thus $0 \leq c \leq m\left(r_{\gamma}(s)\right)$ where $c=m\left(r_{\gamma}(s)\right)$ only at points where $\gamma$ is tangent to a parallel, and $c=0$ when $\gamma$ is tangent to a meridian.

A geodesic is called escaping if its image is unbounded; for example, any ray is escaping.
Fact 3.2. (1) A parallel through $q$ is a geodesic in $M_{m}$ if and only if $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)=0$ [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 7.1.4].
(2) A geodesic $\gamma$ in $M_{m}$ is tangent to a parallel at $\gamma\left(s_{0}\right)$ if and only if $\dot{r}_{\gamma\left(s_{0}\right)}=0$.
(3) If $\gamma$ is a geodesic in $M_{m}$ and $\dot{r}_{\gamma(s)}$ vanishes more than once, then $\gamma$ is invariant under a rotation of $M_{m}$ about $o$ [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 7.1.6] and hence not escaping.

Lemma 3.3. If $\gamma_{q}$ is escaping, then $m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for $r>r_{q}$, and $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$.
Proof. Since $\gamma_{q}$ is escaping, the image of $s \rightarrow r_{\gamma_{q}}(s)$ contains $\left[r_{q}, \infty\right)$, and $q$ is the only point where $\gamma_{q}$ is tangent to a parallel. The Clairaut constant of $\gamma_{q}$ is $c=m\left(r_{q}\right)$, hence $m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for all $r>r_{q}$. It follows that $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right) \geq 0$. Finally, $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right) \neq 0$ else $\gamma_{q}$ would equal the parallel through $q$.
Lemma 3.4. If $\gamma$ is an escaping geodesic that is tangent to the parallel $P_{q}$ through $q$, then $\gamma \backslash\{q\}$ lies in the unbounded component of $M_{m} \backslash P_{q}$.

Proof. By reflectional symmetry and uniqueness of geodesics, $\gamma$ locally stays on the same side of the parallel $P_{q}$ through $q$, that is, $\gamma$ is the union of $\gamma_{q}$ and its image under the reflecting fixing $\mu_{q} \cup \tau_{q}$. If $\gamma$ could cross to the other side of $P_{q}$ at some point $\gamma(s)$, then $\left|r_{\gamma(s)}-r_{q}\right|$ would attain a maximum between $\gamma(s)$ and $q$, and at the maximum point $\gamma$ would be tangent to a parallel. Since $\gamma$ is escaping, it cannot be tangent to parallels more than once, hence $\gamma$ stays on the same side of $P_{q}$ at all times, and since $\gamma$ is escaping, it stays in the unbounded component of $M_{m} \backslash P_{q}$.

For a geodesic $\gamma:\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right) \rightarrow M_{m}$ that does not pass through $o$, we define the turn angle $T_{\gamma}$ of $\gamma$ as

$$
T_{\gamma}:=\int_{\gamma} d \theta=\int_{s_{1}}^{s_{2}} \dot{\theta}_{\gamma(s)} d s=\theta_{\gamma\left(s_{2}\right)}-\theta_{\gamma\left(s_{1}\right)}
$$

Clairaut's relation reads $\dot{\theta}=c / m^{2} \geq 0$ so the above integral $T_{\gamma}$ converges to a number in $[0, \infty]$. Since $\gamma$ is unit speed, we have $(\dot{r})^{2}+m^{2} \dot{\theta}^{2}=1$. Combining this with $\dot{\theta}=c / m^{2}$ gives

$$
\dot{r}=\operatorname{sign}(\dot{r}) \sqrt{1-\frac{c^{2}}{m^{2}}}
$$

which yields a useful formula for the turn angle: if $\gamma$ is not tangent to a meridian or a parallel on $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right)$, so that $\operatorname{sign}\left(\dot{r}_{\gamma(s)}\right)$ is a nonzero constant, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d \theta}{d r}=\frac{\dot{\theta}}{\dot{r}}=\operatorname{sign}\left(\dot{r}_{\gamma(s)}\right) F_{c}(r) \quad \text { where } \quad F_{c}:=\frac{c}{m \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

and thus if $r_{i}:=r_{\gamma\left(s_{i}\right)}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{\gamma}=\operatorname{sign}(\dot{r}) \int_{r_{1}}^{r_{2}} F_{c}(r) d r \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $c^{2} \leq m^{2}$, this integral is finite except possibly when some $r_{i}$ is in the set $\left\{m^{-1}(c), \infty\right\}$. The integral (3.6) converges at $r_{i}=m^{-1}(c)$ if and only if $m^{\prime}\left(r_{i}\right) \neq 0$. Convergence of (3.6) at $r_{i}=\infty$ implies convergence of $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2} d r$, and the converse holds under the assumption $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>c$; this assumption is true when $G_{m} \geq 0$ or $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$, as follows from Lemma 3.10.

Example 3.7. If $\gamma$ is a ray in $M_{m}$ that does not pass through $o$, then $T_{\gamma} \leq \pi$ else there is $s$ with $\left|\theta_{\gamma(s)}-\theta_{\gamma(0)}\right|=\pi$, and by symmetry the points $\gamma(s)$ and $\gamma(0)$ are joined by two segments, so $\gamma$ would not be a ray.

Example 3.8. If $T_{\gamma_{q}}$ is finite, then $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right) \neq 0$ and $m^{-2}$ is integrable on $[1, \infty)$, as follows immediately from the discussion preceding Example 3.7.

Lemma 3.9. If $\gamma:[0, \infty) \rightarrow M_{m}$ is a geodesic with finite turn angle, then $\gamma$ is escaping.
Proof. Note that $\gamma$ is tangent to parallels in at most two points, for otherwise $\gamma$ is invariant under a rotation about $o$, and hence its turn angle is infinite. Thus after cutting off a portion of $\gamma$ we may assume it is never tangent to a parallel, so that $r_{\gamma(s)}$ is monotone. By assumption $\theta_{\gamma(s)}$ is bounded and increasing. By Clairaut's relation $m\left(r_{\gamma(s)}\right)$ is bounded below, so that $m(0)=0$ implies that $r_{\gamma(s)}$ is bounded below. If $\gamma$ were not escaping, then $r_{\gamma(s)}$ would also be bounded above, so there would exist a limit of $\left(r_{\gamma(s)}, \theta_{\gamma(s)}\right)$ and hence the limit of $\gamma(s)$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$, contradicting the fact that $\gamma$ has infinite length.
Lemma 3.10. If $m^{-2}$ is integrable on $[1, \infty)$, then
(1) the function $(r \log r)^{-\frac{1}{2}} m(r)$ is unbounded,
(2) if $G_{m} \geq 0$, then $m^{\prime}>0$ for all $r$,
(3) if $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then $m^{\prime}>0$ for all large $r$,
(4) if either $G_{m} \geq 0$ or $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$, then $m(\infty)=\infty$.

Proof. Since $m^{-2}$ is integrable, the function $(r \log r)^{-\frac{1}{2}} m(r)$ is unbounded, and in particular, $m$ is unbounded. If $G_{m} \geq 0$ everywhere, then $m^{\prime}$ is nonincreasing with $m^{\prime}(0)=1$, and the fact that $m$ is unbounded implies that $m^{\prime}>0$ for all $r$. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, and $G_{m}\left(\rho_{0}\right)<0$, then $G_{m}<0$ for $r \geq \rho_{0}$, that is, $m^{\prime}$ is nondecreasing on $\left[\rho_{0}, \infty\right)$. Since $m$ is unbounded, there is $\rho>\rho_{0}$ with $m(\rho)>m\left(\rho_{0}\right)$ so that $\int_{\rho_{0}}^{\rho} m^{\prime}=m(\rho)-m\left(\rho_{0}\right)>0$. Hence $m^{\prime}$ is positive somewhere on $\left(\rho_{0}, \rho\right)$, and therefore on $[\rho, \infty)$. Finally, since $m$ is an unbounded increasing function for large $r$, the limit $\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)=m(\infty)$ exists and equals $\infty$.

Lemma 3.11. If $\gamma_{q}$ is escaping, then $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ if and only if there is a neighborhood $U$ of $q$ such that $\gamma_{u}$ is escaping for each $u \in U$.

Proof. First, recall that $m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for $r>r_{q}$ and $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$ by Lemma 3.3. We shall prove the contrapositive: $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)=m\left(r_{q}\right)$ if and only if there is a sequence $u_{i} \rightarrow q$ such that $\gamma_{u_{i}}$ is not escaping.

If there is a sequence $z_{i} \in M_{m}$ with $r_{z_{i}} \rightarrow \infty$ and $m\left(r_{z_{i}}\right) \rightarrow m\left(r_{q}\right)$, then there are points $u_{i} \rightarrow q$ on $\mu_{q}$ with $m\left(r_{u_{i}}\right)=m\left(r_{z_{i}}\right)$. If $\gamma_{u_{i}}$ is escaping, then it meets the parallel through $z_{i}$, so Clairaut's relation implies that $\gamma_{u_{i}}$ is tangent to the parallels through $u_{i}$ and $z_{i}$, which cannot happen for an escaping geodesic.

Conversely, suppose there are $u_{i} \rightarrow q$ such that $\gamma_{i}:=\gamma_{u_{i}}$ is not escaping. Let $R_{i}$ be the radius of the smallest ball about $o$ that contains $\gamma_{i}$, and let $P_{i}$ be its boundary parallel. Note that $R_{i} \rightarrow \infty$ as $\gamma_{i}$ converges to $\gamma_{q}$ on compact sets and $\gamma_{q}$ is escaping, and hence $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)=\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} m\left(R_{i}\right)$. For each $i$ there is a sequence $s_{i, j}$ such that the $r$-coordinates of $\gamma_{i}\left(s_{i, j}\right)$ converge to $R_{i}$, which implies
$\kappa_{\gamma_{i}\left(s_{i, j}\right)} \rightarrow \pi / 2$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$ and $i$ is fixed. (Note that if $\gamma_{i}$ is tangent to $P_{i}$, then $s_{i, j}$ is independent of $j$, namely, $\gamma\left(s_{i, j}\right)$ is the point of tangency.) By Clairaut's relation, $m\left(R_{i}\right)=m\left(r_{u_{i}}\right)$, hence $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)=m\left(r_{q}\right)$.

Lemma 3.12. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then a geodesic $\gamma:[0, \infty) \rightarrow M_{m} \backslash\{o\}$ is a ray if and only if $T_{\gamma} \leq \pi$.

Proof. The "only if" direction holds even when $M_{m}$ is not von Mangoldt by Example 3.7. Conversely, if $\gamma$ is not a ray, then $\gamma$ meets the cut locus of $q$, which by [Tanaka 1992b] is a subset of the opposite meridian $\tau_{\gamma(0)} \mid\left(r_{\gamma(0)}, \infty\right)$. Thus $T_{\gamma}>\pi$.

Lemma 3.13. If $\gamma$ is a ray in a von Mangoldt plane, and if $\sigma$ is a geodesic with $\sigma(0)=\gamma(0)$ and $\kappa_{\gamma(0)}>\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$, then $\sigma$ is a ray and $T_{\sigma} \leq T_{\gamma}$.

Proof. Set $q=\gamma(0)$. If $\kappa_{\gamma(0)}=\pi$, then $\gamma=\tau_{q}$, so $\tau_{q}$ is a ray, which in a von Mangoldt plane implies that $q$ is a pole [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 7.3.1], so that $\sigma$ is also a ray. If $\kappa_{\gamma(0)}<\pi$ and $\sigma$ is not a ray, then $\sigma$ is minimizing until it crosses the opposite meridian $\left.\tau_{q}\right|_{\left(r_{q}, \infty\right)}$ [Tanaka 1992b]. Near $q$ the geodesic $\sigma$ lies in the region of $M_{m}$ bounded by $\gamma$ and $\mu_{q}$ hence before crossing the opposite meridian $\sigma$ must intersect $\gamma$ or $\mu_{q}$, so they would not be rays. Finally, $T_{\sigma} \leq T_{\gamma}$ holds as $\sigma$ lies in the sector between $\gamma$ and $\mu_{q}$.

Lemma 3.14. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $q \neq o$, then $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray if and only if $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$.

Proof. If $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray, then $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ by symmetry. If $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, then either $q$ is a pole and there is a ray in any direction, or $q$ is not a pole. In the latter case $\tau_{q}$ is not a ray [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 7.3.1], hence by the definition of $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ there is a ray $\gamma$ with $\kappa_{\gamma(0)} \geq \pi / 2$, so $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray by Lemma 3.13.

Recall that $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$ is the maximum of the angles formed by $\mu_{q}$ and rays emanating from $q \neq o$, and $\xi_{q}$ is the ray for which the maximum is attained. It is immediate from definitions that $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ if and only if $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right) \geq \pi / 2$. Lemmas $3.15,3.16$, and 3.17 were suggested by the referee.

Lemma 3.15. $\mathfrak{C}_{m} \neq\{o\}$ if and only if ${\lim \inf _{r \rightarrow \infty}} m>0$ and $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2}$ is finite.
Proof. The "if" direction holds because by the main result of [Tanaka 1992a] the assumptions imply that the ball of poles has a positive radius. Conversely, if $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}-\{o\}$, then $\xi_{q}$ is a ray different from $\mu_{q}$. By [Tanaka 1992a, Lemma 1.3 and Proposition 1.7] if either $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m=0$ or $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2}=\infty$, then $\mu_{q}$ is the only ray emanating from $q$.

Lemma 3.16. The limit of the segments $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$ is $\xi_{q}$.

Proof. The segments $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ subconverge to a ray $\sigma$ that starts at $q$. Since $\xi_{q}$ is a ray, it cannot cross the opposite meridian $\left.\tau_{q}\right|_{\left(r_{q}, \infty\right)}$. As $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ and $\xi_{q}$ are minimizing, they only intersect at $q$, and hence the angle formed by $\mu_{q}$ and [ $\left.q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ is $\geq \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$. It follows that $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \geq \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$, which must be an equality as $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$ is a maximum, so $\sigma=\xi_{q}$.
Lemma 3.17. The function $r \rightarrow \hat{\kappa}(r)$ is left continuous and upper semicontinuous. In particular, the set $\left\{q: \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)<\alpha\right\}$ is open for every $\alpha$.

Proof. If $\hat{\kappa}$ is not left continuous at $r_{q}$, then there exists $\varepsilon>0$ and a sequence of points $q_{i}$ on $\mu_{q}$ such that $r_{q_{i}} \rightarrow r_{q}$ - and either $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q_{i}}\right)-\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)>\varepsilon$ or $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)-\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q_{i}}\right)>\varepsilon$. In the former case $\xi_{q_{i}}$ subconverge to a ray that makes a larger angle with $\mu_{q}$ than $\xi_{q}$, contradicting the maximality of $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$. In the latter case, $\xi_{q_{i}}$ intersects $\xi_{q}$ for some $i$. Therefore, by Lemma 3.16 the segment $\left[q_{i}, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ intersects $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ for large enough $s$ at a point $z \neq \tau_{q}(s)$, so $\tau_{q}(s)$ is a cut point of $z$ which cannot happen for a segment. This proves that $\hat{\kappa}$ is left continuous. A similar argument shows that

$$
\limsup _{r_{q_{i}} \rightarrow r_{q}^{+}} \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q_{i}}\right) \leq \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)
$$

so that $\hat{\kappa}$ is upper semicontinuous, which implies that $\left\{q: \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)<\alpha\right\}$ is open for every $\alpha$.

Lemmas 3.12 and 3.14 imply that on a von Mangoldt plane $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right) \geq \pi / 2$ if and only if $T_{\gamma_{q}} \leq \pi$; the equivalence is sharpened in Theorem 3.24, whose proof occupies the rest of this section.
Lemma 3.18. If $\sigma$ is escaping and $0<\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \leq \pi / 2$, then $T_{\sigma}=\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}(r) d r$; moreover, if $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}=\pi / 2$, then $c=m\left(r_{q}\right)$.

Proof. This formula for $T_{\sigma}$ is immediate from (3.6) once it is shown that $\left.\sigma\right|_{(0, \infty)}$ is not tangent to a meridian or a parallel. If $\left.\sigma\right|_{(0, \infty)}$ were tangent to a meridian, $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$ would be 0 or $\pi$, which is not the case. Since $\sigma$ is escaping, Fact 3.2 implies that $\sigma$ is tangent to a parallel at most once; that is, $\dot{r}_{\sigma}$ has at most one zero. If $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}=\pi / 2$, then $\sigma$ is tangent to the parallel through $\sigma(0)$, and so $\left.\sigma\right|_{(0, \infty)}$ is not tangent to a parallel. Finally, if $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}<\pi / 2$, then $\sigma$ is not tangent to a parallel, else it would be tangent to a parallel through $u$ with $r_{u}>r_{q}$, which would imply $r_{\sigma(s)} \leq r_{u}$ for all $s$ by Lemma 3.4, which cannot happen for an escaping geodesic.

To better understand the relationship between $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)$ and $T_{\gamma_{q}}$, we study how $T_{\sigma}$ depends on $\sigma$, or equivalently on $\sigma(0)$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$, when $\sigma$ varies in a neighborhood of a ray $\gamma_{q}$.
Lemma 3.19. If $G_{m} \geq 0$ or $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$, then the function $u \rightarrow T_{\gamma_{u}}$ is continuous at each point $u$ where $T_{\gamma_{u}}$ is finite.

Proof. If $T_{\gamma_{u}}$ is finite, then $\gamma_{u}$ is escaping by Lemma 3.9, and hence $T_{\gamma_{u}}=\int_{r_{u}}^{\infty} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$ by Lemma 3.18. We need to show that this integral depends continuously on $r_{u}$.

By Lemmas 3.3 and 3.10 and the discussion preceding Example 3.7, the assumptions on $G_{m}$ and the finiteness of $T_{\gamma_{u}}$ imply that $m(r)>m\left(r_{u}\right)$ for $r>r_{u}, m^{-2}$ is integrable, $m^{\prime}\left(r_{u}\right)>0$, and $m(\infty)=\infty$. Hence there exists $\delta>r_{u}$ with $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{\left[r_{u}, \delta\right]}>0$, and $m(r)>m(\delta)$ for $r>\delta$; it is clear that small changes in $u$ do not affect $\delta$.

Write $\int_{r_{u}}^{\infty} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}=\int_{r_{u}}^{\delta} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}+\int_{\delta}^{\infty} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$. On $\left[r_{u}, \delta\right]$ we can write $F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}=$ $h\left(r, r_{u}\right)\left(r-r_{u}\right)^{-1 / 2}$ for some smooth function $h$. Since $\left(r-r_{u}\right)^{-1 / 2}$ is the derivative of $2\left(r-r_{u}\right)^{1 / 2}$, one can integrate $F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$ by parts which easily implies continuous dependence of $\int_{r_{u}}^{\delta} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$ on $r_{u}$.

Continuous dependence of $\int_{\delta}^{\infty} F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$ on $r_{u}$ follows because $F_{m\left(r_{u}\right)}$ is continuous in $r_{u}$, and is dominated by $\mathrm{Km}^{-2}$ where $K$ is a positive constant independent of small changes of $r_{u}$.

Next we focus on the case when $\sigma(0)$ is fixed, while $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$ varies near $\pi / 2$. To get an explicit formula for $T_{\sigma}$ we need the following.
Lemma 3.20. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, and $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray, then there is $\varepsilon>0$ such that every geodesic $\sigma:[0, \infty) \rightarrow M_{m}$ with $\sigma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \in[\pi / 2, \pi / 2+\varepsilon]$ is tangent to a parallel exactly once, and if $u$ is the point where $\sigma$ is tangent to a parallel, then $m^{\prime}>0$ on $\left[r_{u}, r_{q}\right]$.
Proof. If $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}=\pi / 2$, then $\sigma=\gamma_{q}$, so it is tangent to a parallel only at $q$, as rays are escaping. If $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}>\pi / 2$, then $\sigma$ converges to $\gamma_{q}$ on compact subsets as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, so for a sufficiently small $\varepsilon$ the geodesic $\sigma$ crosses the parallel through $q$ at some point $\sigma(s)$ such that $\kappa_{\sigma(s)}<\pi / 2$. Since $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray, rotational symmetry and Lemma 3.13 imply that $\left.\sigma\right|_{[s, \infty)}$ is a ray, so $\sigma$ is escaping. Thus $\sigma$ is tangent to a parallel at a point $u$ where $r_{\sigma(s)}$ attains a minimum, and is not tangent to a parallel at any other point by Fact 3.2. Finally, $r_{u}=\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} r_{q}$, and since $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$ by Proposition 1.8, we get $m^{\prime}>0$ on $\left[r_{u}, r_{q}\right]$ for small $\varepsilon$.

Under the assumptions of Lemma 3.20 the Clairaut constant $c$ of $\sigma$ equals $m\left(r_{u}\right)=m\left(r_{q}\right) \sin \kappa_{\sigma(0)}$, and the turn angle of $\sigma$ is given by

$$
\begin{align*}
& T_{\sigma}=\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{m\left(r_{q}\right)}(r) d r \quad \text { if } \kappa_{\sigma(0)}=\frac{\pi}{2} \quad \text { and }  \tag{3.21}\\
& T_{\sigma}=\int_{r_{u}}^{\infty} F_{c}(r) d r-\int_{r_{q}}^{r_{u}} F_{c}(r) d r=\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}(r) d r+2 \int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}(r) d r \tag{3.22}
\end{align*}
$$

if $\pi / 2<\kappa_{\sigma(0)}<\pi / 2+\varepsilon$. These integrals converge, that is, $T_{\sigma}$ is finite, as follows from Example 3.8 and Lemmas 3.10 and 3.20.

Since any geodesic $\sigma$ with $\sigma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \in[0, \pi / 2+\varepsilon]$ has finite turn angle, one can think of $T_{\sigma}$ as a function of $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$ where $\sigma$ varies over geodesics with $\sigma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \in[0, \pi / 2+\varepsilon]$.

Lemma 3.23. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, and $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray, then there is $\delta>\pi / 2$ such that the function $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \rightarrow T_{\sigma}$ is continuous and strictly increasing on $[\pi / 2, \delta]$, and continuously differentiable on $(\pi / 2, \delta]$; moreover, the derivative of $T_{\sigma}$ is infinite at $\pi / 2$.

Proof. The Clairaut constant $c$ of $\sigma$ equals $m\left(r_{u}\right)=m\left(r_{q}\right) \sin \kappa_{\sigma(0)}$, so the assertion is immediate from (elementary but nontrivial) Lemma B. 2 about continuity and differentiability of the integrals (3.21) and (3.22).

Theorem 3.24. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt and $q \neq o$, then
(1) $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)>\pi / 2$ if and only if $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$,
(2) $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)=\pi / 2$ if and only if $T_{\gamma_{q}}=\pi$.

Proof. (1) If $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)>\pi / 2$, then any geodesic $\sigma$ with $\sigma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)} \in$ $\left[\pi / 2, \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)\right]$ is a ray, and so has turn angle $\leq \pi$. By Lemma 3.23 the turn angle is increasing at $\pi / 2$, so $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$. Conversely, if $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$, then by Lemma 3.23 the turn angle is continuous at $\pi / 2$, so any geodesic $\sigma$ with $\sigma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\sigma(0)}$ near $\pi / 2$ has turn angle $<\pi$, and is therefore a ray, so $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)>\pi / 2$.
(2) This follows from (1) and the fact that $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right) \geq \pi / 2$ if and only if $T_{\gamma_{q}} \leq \pi$.

Proof of Theorem 1.6. By Theorem 3.24 we know that $q \in A_{m}$ if and only if $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$, and by Lemma 3.19 the map $u \rightarrow T_{\gamma_{u}}$ is continuous at $q$, so the set $\left\{u \in M_{m} \mid T_{\gamma_{u}}<\pi\right\}$ is open, and hence so is $A_{m}$.

Another proof of Theorem 1.6. Fix $q \in A_{m}$ so that $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$ by Theorem 3.24. Fix $\varepsilon>0$ such that $\varepsilon+T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$. Let $P_{q}$ be the parallel through $q$. Then there is a ray $\gamma$ with $\gamma(0)=q$ and $\kappa_{\gamma(0)}>\pi / 2$ such that $\gamma$ intersects $P_{q}$ at points $q$ and $\gamma(t)$, and the turn angle of $\left.\gamma\right|_{(0, t)}$ is $<\varepsilon$.

For an arbitrary sequence $q_{i} \rightarrow q$ we need to show that $q_{i} \in A_{m}$ for all large $i$. Let $\gamma_{i}:[0, \infty) \rightarrow M_{m}$ be the geodesic with $\gamma_{i}(0)=q_{i}$ and $\kappa_{\gamma_{i}(0)}=\kappa_{\gamma(0)}$. Since $\gamma_{i}$ converge to $\gamma$ on compact sets, for large $i$ there are $t_{i}>0$ such that $\gamma_{i}\left(t_{i}\right) \in P_{q}$ and $t_{i} \rightarrow t$. The angle formed by $\gamma$ and $\mu_{\gamma(t)}$ is $<\pi / 2$. Rotational symmetry and Lemma 3.13 imply that if $i$ is large, then $\left.\gamma_{i}\right|_{[t i, \infty)}$ is a ray whose turn angle is $\leq T_{\gamma_{q}}$. The turn angles of $\left.\gamma_{i}\right|_{\left(0, t_{i}\right)}$ converge to the turn angle of $\left.\gamma\right|_{(0, t)}$, which is $<\varepsilon$. Thus $T_{\gamma_{i}}<T_{\gamma_{q}}+\varepsilon<\pi$ for large $i$, so that $\gamma_{i}$ is a ray by Lemma 3.12, and hence $q_{i} \in A_{m}$.

## 4. Planes of nonnegative curvature

A key consequence of $G_{m} \geq 0$ is monotonicity of the turn angle and of $\hat{\kappa}$.
Proposition 4.1. Suppose that $M_{m}$ has $G_{m} \geq 0$. If $0<r_{u}<r_{v}$ and $\gamma_{u}$ has finite turn angle, then $T_{\gamma_{u}} \leq T_{\gamma_{v}}$ with equality if and only if $G_{m}$ vanishes on $\left[r_{u}, \infty\right]$.

Proof. The result is trivial when $G$ is everywhere zero. Since $\gamma_{u}$ has finite turn angle, $m^{-2}$ is integrable, and hence $m$ is a concave function with $m^{\prime}>0$ and $m(\infty)=\infty$ by Lemma 3.10.

Set $x:=r_{q}$, so that the turn angle of $\gamma_{q}$ is $\int_{x}^{\infty} F_{m(x)}$. As $m^{\prime}>0$, we can change variables by $t:=m(r) / m(x)$ or $r=m^{-1}(\operatorname{tm}(x))$ so that

$$
\int_{x}^{\infty} F_{m(x)}(r) d r=\int_{1}^{m(\infty) / m(x)} \frac{d t}{l(t, x) t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}=\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{d t}{l(t, x) t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}
$$

where $l(t, x):=m^{\prime}(r)$. Computing

$$
\frac{\partial l(t, x)}{\partial x}=m^{\prime \prime}(r) \frac{\partial r}{\partial x}=\frac{m^{\prime \prime}(r) t m^{\prime}(x)}{m^{\prime}(r)}=-G(r) \frac{t m^{\prime}(x)}{m^{\prime}(r)} \leq 0
$$

we see that $l(t, x)$ is nonincreasing in $x$. Thus if $r_{u}<r_{v}$, then $l\left(t, r_{u}\right) \geq l\left(t, r_{v}\right)$ for all $t$ implying $T_{\gamma_{u}} \leq T_{\gamma_{v}}$. The equality occurs precisely when $l(t, x)$ is constant on $[1, \infty) \times\left[r_{u}, r_{v}\right]$, or equivalently, when $G\left(m^{-1}(\operatorname{tm}(x))\right)$ vanishes on $[1, \infty) \times$ [ $\left.r_{u}, r_{v}\right]$, which in turn is equivalent to $G=0$ on $\left[r_{u}, \infty\right)$, because $\operatorname{tm}(x)$ takes all values in $\left(m\left(r_{u}\right), \infty\right)$ so $m^{-1}(\operatorname{tm}(x))$ takes all values in $\left(r_{u}, \infty\right)$.

Lemma 4.2. If $G_{m} \geq 0$, then $\hat{\kappa}$ is nonincreasing in $r$.
Proof. Let $u_{1}, u_{2}$, and $v$ be points on $\mu_{v}$ with $0<r_{u_{1}}<r_{u_{2}}<r_{v}$. By Lemma 3.16 the ray $\xi_{u_{i}}$ is the limit of geodesic segments that join $u_{i}$ with points $\tau_{v}(s)$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$. The segments $\left[u_{1}, \tau_{v}(s)\right]$ and $\left[u_{2}, \tau_{v}(s)\right]$ only intersect at the endpoint $\tau_{v}(s)$ for if they intersect at a point $z$, then $z$ is a cut point for $\tau_{v}(s)$, so $\left[\tau_{v}(s), u_{i}\right]$ cannot be minimizing. Hence the geodesic triangle with vertices $u_{1}, v$, and $\tau_{v}(s)$ contains the geodesic triangle with vertices $u_{2}, v$, and $\tau_{v}(s)$. Since $G_{m} \geq 0$, the former triangle has larger total curvature, which is finite as $M_{m}$ has finite total curvature. As $m$ only vanishes at 0 , concavity of $m$ implies that $m$ is nondecreasing.

If $m$ is unbounded, Clairaut's relation implies that the angles at $\tau_{v}(s)$ tend to zero as $s \rightarrow \infty$. By the Gauss-Bonnet theorem $\kappa_{\xi_{1}(0)}-\kappa_{\xi_{2}(0)}$ equals the total curvature of the "ideal" triangle with sides $\xi_{1}, \xi_{2}$, and $\left[u_{1}, u_{2}\right]$. Thus $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{u_{1}}\right) \geq \hat{\kappa}\left(r_{u_{2}}\right)$ with equality if and only if $G_{m}$ vanishes on $\left[r_{u_{1}}, \infty\right)$.

If $m$ is bounded, then $\int_{1}^{\infty} m^{-2}=\infty$, so by [Tanaka 1992a, Proposition 1.7] the only ray emanating from $q$ is $\mu_{q}$ so that $\hat{\kappa}=0$ on $M_{m} \backslash\{o\}$. For future use note that in this case the angle formed by $\mu_{q}=\xi_{q}$ and $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ tends to zero as $s \rightarrow \infty$, so Clairaut's relation together with the boundedness of $m$ imply that the angle at $\tau_{q}(s)$ in the bigon with sides $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ and $\tau_{q}$ also tends to zero as $s \rightarrow \infty$.
Remark 4.3. By the above proof if $G_{m} \geq 0$ and $m^{-2}$ is integrable on $[1, \infty)$, then $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{1}\right)=\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{2}\right)$ for some $r_{2}>r_{1}$ if and only if $G_{m}$ vanishes on $\left[r_{1}, \infty\right)$.
Proof of Theorem 1.3. (i) Since rays converge to rays, $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is closed. As $o \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, rotational symmetry and Lemma 4.2 imply that $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is a closed ball.
(ii) Since $m$ is concave and positive, it is nondecreasing, so $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m>0$, and the claim follows from Lemma 3.15.
(iii) We prove the contrapositive that $M_{m}=\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ if and only if $m^{\prime}(\infty) \geq \frac{1}{2}$. Note that the latter is equivalent to $c\left(M_{m}\right) \leq \pi$, where $c(Z)$ denotes the total curvature of a subset $Z \subseteq M_{m}$ which varies in $[0,2 \pi]$.

Suppose $c\left(M_{m}\right) \leq \pi$. Fix $q \neq o$, and consider the segments [ $q, \tau_{q}(s)$ ] that by Lemma 3.16 converge to $\xi_{q}$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$. Consider the bigon bounded by $\left[q, \tau_{q}(s)\right]$ and its symmetric image under the reflection that fixes $\tau_{q} \cup \mu_{q}$. As in the proof of Lemma 4.2 we see that the angle at $\tau_{q}(s)$ goes to zero as $s \rightarrow \infty$, so the sum of angles in the bigon tends to $2\left(\pi-\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)\right)$, which by the Gauss-Bonnet theorem cannot exceed $c\left(M_{m}\right) \leq \pi$. We conclude that $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right) \geq \pi / 2$, so $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$.

Conversely, suppose that $\mathfrak{C}_{m}=M_{m}$. Given $\varepsilon>0$ find a compact rotationally symmetric subset $K \subset M_{m}$ with $c(K)>c\left(M_{m}\right)-\varepsilon$. Fix $q \neq o$ and consider the rays $\xi_{\mu_{q}(s)}$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$. If all these rays intersect $K$, then they subconverge to a line [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 6.1.1], so by the splitting theorem $M_{m}$ is the standard $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, and $c\left(M_{m}\right)=0<\pi$. Thus we can assume that there is $v$ on the ray $\mu_{q}$ such that $\xi_{v}$ is disjoint from $K$. Therefore, if $s$ is large enough, then $K$ lies inside the bigon bounded by $\left[v, \tau_{v}(s)\right]$ and its symmetric image under the reflection that fixes $\tau_{q} \cup \mu_{q}$. The sum of angles in the bigon tends to $2\left(\pi-\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{v}\right)\right)$, and by the Gauss-Bonnet theorem it is bounded below by $c(K)$. Since $v \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, we have $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{v}\right) \geq \pi / 2$, and hence $c(K) \leq \pi$. Thus $c\left(M_{m}\right)<\pi+\varepsilon$, and since $\varepsilon$ is arbitrary, we get $c\left(M_{m}\right) \leq \pi$, which completes the proof of (iii).
(iv) Since $R_{m}$ is finite, $m^{\prime}(\infty)<\frac{1}{2}$ by (iii). As $m^{\prime}(0)=1$, the equation $m^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{2}$ has a solution $\rho_{m}$. As $G_{m} \geq 0$, the function $m^{\prime}$ is nonincreasing, so uniqueness of the solution is equivalent to positivity of $G_{m}\left(\rho_{m}\right)$. Since $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, $G_{m}\left(\rho_{m}\right)>0$ for otherwise $G_{m}$ would have to vanish for $r \geq \rho_{m}$, implying $m^{\prime}(\infty)=$ $m^{\prime}\left(\rho_{m}\right)=\frac{1}{2}$, so $R_{m}$ would be infinite.

Now we show that $\rho_{m}>R_{m}$. This is clear if $R_{m}=0$ because $\rho_{m} \geq 0$ and $m^{\prime}(0)=1 \neq \frac{1}{2}=m^{\prime}\left(\rho_{m}\right)$. Suppose $R_{m}>0$. Then $m^{-2}$ is integrable by Lemma 3.15, so $m^{\prime}>0$ everywhere by the proof of Lemma 3.10. Hence for any $r_{v} \geq \rho_{m}$ we have $m\left(r_{v}\right) \geq m\left(\rho_{m}\right)$, which implies $\operatorname{tm}\left(r_{v}\right)>m\left(\rho_{m}\right)$ for all $t>1$. Thus $m^{-1}\left(\operatorname{tm}\left(r_{v}\right)\right)>m^{-1}\left(m\left(\rho_{m}\right)\right)=\rho_{m}$. Applying $m^{\prime}$ to the inequality, we get in notations of Proposition 4.1 that $l\left(t, r_{v}\right)<m^{\prime}\left(\rho_{m}\right)=\frac{1}{2}$, where the inequality is strict because $G_{m}\left(r_{m}\right)>0$ by (iv). Now (4.5) below implies

$$
T_{\gamma_{v}}=\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{d t}{l\left(t, r_{v}\right) t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}>\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{2 d t}{t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}=\pi
$$

Since $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, $v \notin \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ by Lemma 3.14. In summary, if $r_{v} \geq \rho_{m}$, then $v \notin \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, so $\rho_{m}>R_{m}$.
(v) Since $R_{m}$ is positive and finite, and $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, there are geodesics tangent to parallels whose turn angles are $\leq \pi$ and $>\pi$. By Proposition 4.1, the turn angle is monotone with respect to $r$, so let $r_{q}$ be the (finite) supremum of all $x$ such that $\int_{x}^{\infty} F_{m(x)}<\pi$. Since $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is closed, $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ so that $T_{\gamma_{q}} \leq \pi$. In fact, $T_{\gamma_{q}}=\pi$ for if $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$, then $r_{q}$ is not maximal because by Theorems 1.6 and 3.24 the set of points $q$ with $T_{\gamma_{q}}<\pi$ is open in $M_{m}$. If $G_{m}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$, then by monotonicity $r_{q}$ is a unique solution of $T_{\gamma_{q}}=\pi$. If $G_{m}\left(r_{q}\right)=0$, then $\left.G_{m}\right|_{\left.r_{q}, \infty\right)}=0$ as $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, so (4.5) implies that the turn angle of each $\gamma_{v}$ with $r_{v} \geq r_{q}$ equals $\pi /\left(2 m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)\right)$. So $m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)=\frac{1}{2}$ but this case cannot happen as $R_{m}$ is infinite by (iii).

In preparation for a proof of Theorem 1.7 we recall that the Cheeger-Gromoll soul construction with basepoint $q$, described, for example, in [Sakai 1996, Theorem V.3.4], starts by deleting the horoballs associated with all rays emanating from $q$, which results in a compact totally convex subset. The next step is to consider the points of this subset which are at maximal distance from its boundary, and these points in turn form a compact totally convex subset, and after finitely many iterations the process terminates in a subset with empty boundary, called a soul. As we shall see below, if $G_{m} \geq 0$, then the soul construction with basepoint $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m} \backslash\{o\}$ takes no more than two steps; more precisely, deleting the horoballs for rays emanating from $q$ results either in $\{q\}$ or in a segment with $q$ as an endpoint. In the latter case the soul is the midpoint of the segment.

In what follows we let $B_{\sigma}$ denote the (open) horoball for a ray $\sigma$ with $\sigma(0)=q$, that is, the union over $t \in[0, \infty)$ of the metric balls of radius $t$ centered at $\sigma(t)$. Let $H_{\sigma}$ denote the complement of $B_{\sigma}$ in the ambient complete Riemannian manifold.

Lemma 4.4. Let $\sigma$ be a ray in a complete Riemannian manifold $M$, and let $q=\sigma(0)$. Then for any nonzero $v \in T_{q} M$ that makes an acute angle with $\sigma$, the point $\exp _{q}(t v)$ lies in the horoball $B_{\sigma}$ for all small $t>0$.

Proof. This follows from the definition of a horoball for if $\Upsilon$ denotes the image of $t \rightarrow \exp _{q}(t v)$, then

$$
\lim _{s \rightarrow+0} \frac{d(\sigma(s), \Upsilon)}{d(\sigma(s), q)}=\sin \angle\left(v^{\prime}(0), \sigma^{\prime}(0)\right)<1
$$

so $B_{\sigma}$ contains a subsegment of $\Upsilon-\{q\}$ that approaches $q$.
Proof of Theorem 1.7. For $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, let $C_{q}$ denote the complement in $M_{m}$ of the union of the horoballs for rays that start at $q$; note that $C_{q}$ is compact and totally convex. If $C_{q}$ equals $\{q\}$, then $q$ is a soul. Otherwise, $C_{q}$ has positive dimension and $q \in \partial C_{q}$. Set $\gamma:=\xi_{q}$; thus $\gamma$ is a ray.
Case 1. Suppose $\pi / 2<\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)<\pi$. Let $\bar{\gamma}$ be the clockwise ray that is mapped to $\gamma$ by the isometry fixing the meridian through $q$. We next show that $q$ is the
intersection of the complements of the horoballs for rays $\mu_{q}, \gamma$, and $\bar{\gamma}$, implying that $q$ is a soul for the soul construction that starts at $q$. As $\kappa_{\gamma(0)}>\pi / 2$, any nonzero $v \in T_{q} M_{m}$ forms angle $<\pi / 2$ with one of $\mu^{\prime}(0), \gamma^{\prime}(0)$, or $\bar{\gamma}^{\prime}(0)$, so $\exp _{q}(t v)$ cannot lie in the intersection of $H_{\mu_{q}}, H_{\gamma}$, and $H_{\bar{\gamma}}$ for small $t$, and since the intersection is totally convex, it is $\{q\}$.

Case 2. Suppose $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)=\pi / 2$, so that $\gamma=\gamma_{q}$, and suppose that $G_{m}$ does not vanish along $\gamma$. By symmetry and Lemma 4.4, it suffices to show that every point of the segment $[o, q)$ near $q$ lies in $B_{\gamma}$. Let $\alpha$ be the ray from $o$ passing through $q$. The geodesic $\gamma$ is orthogonal to $\alpha$, and it suffices to show that there is a focal point $w$ of $\alpha$ along $\gamma$ (for this would imply that there is a family of geodesics of the same length that minimize the distance from $w$ to $\alpha$, and since the geodesics cannot minimize beyond the focal point, all points near $q$ on $\alpha$, except $q$, are in $B_{\gamma}$ [Sakai 1996, Lemma III.2.11]).

Any $\alpha$-Jacobi field along $\gamma$ is of the form $j n$ where $n$ is a parallel nonzero normal vector field along $\gamma$ and $j$ solves $j^{\prime \prime}(t)+G_{m}\left(r_{\gamma(t)}\right) j(t)=0, j(0)=1, j^{\prime}(0)=0$. Since $G_{m} \geq 0$, the function $j$ is concave, so due to its initial values, $j$ must vanish unless it is constant. The point where $j$ vanishes is focal. If $j$ is constant, then $G_{m}=0$ along $\gamma$, which is ruled out by assumption.
Case 3. Suppose $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)=\pi$, that is, $\gamma=\tau_{q}$. For any vector $v \in T_{q} M_{m}$ pointing inside $C_{q}$, for small $t$ the point $\exp _{q}(t v)$ is not in the horoballs for $\mu_{q}$ and $\tau_{q}$, and hence $v$ is tangent to a parallel, that is, $C_{q}$ is a subsegment of the geodesic $\alpha$ tangent to the parallel through $q$. As $C_{q}$ lies outside the horoballs for $\mu_{q}$ and $\tau_{q}$, these rays there cannot contain focal points of $\alpha$, implying that $G_{m}$ vanishes along $\mu_{q}$ and $\tau_{q}$, and hence everywhere, by rotational symmetry, so that $M_{m}$ is the standard $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, and $q$ is a soul.
Case 4. Suppose $\hat{\kappa}\left(r_{q}\right)=\pi / 2$, so that $\gamma=\gamma_{q}$, and suppose that $G_{m}$ vanishes along $\gamma$. By rotational symmetry $G_{m}(r)=0$ for $r \geq r_{q}$, so $m(r)=a r+m(0)$ for $r \geq r_{q}$ where $a>0$, as $m$ only vanishes at 0 . The turn angle of $\gamma$ can be computed explicitly as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{x}^{\infty} \frac{d r}{m(r) \sqrt{\frac{m(r)^{2}}{m(x)^{2}}-1}}=\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{d t}{a t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}=-\left.\frac{1}{a} \operatorname{arccot}\left(\sqrt{t^{2}-1}\right)\right|_{1} ^{\infty}=\frac{\pi}{2 a} \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x:=r_{q}$. Since $\gamma$ is a ray, we deduce that $a \geq \frac{1}{2}$.
Let $z \leq x$ be the smallest number such that $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{[z, \infty)}=a$; thus there is no neighborhood of $z$ in $(0, \infty)$ on which $G_{m}$ is identically zero.

Note that $m(r)=a(r-z)+m(z)$ for $r \geq z$, so the surface $M_{m}-B(o, z)$ is isometric to $C-B\left(\bar{o}, m\left(r_{q}\right) / a\right)$ where $C$ is the cone with apex $\bar{o}$ such that cutting $C$
along the meridian from $\bar{o}$ gives a sector in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ of angle $2 \pi a$ with the portion inside the radius $m\left(r_{q}\right) / a$ removed.

Since $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray, Lemma 4.4 implies the existence of a neighborhood $U_{q}$ of $q$ such that each point in $U_{p}-[o, q]$ lies in a horoball for a ray from $q$.

We now check that $o$ lies in the horoball of $\gamma_{q}$. Concavity of $m$ implies that the graph of $m$ lies below its tangent line at $z$, so evaluating the tangent line at $r=0$ and using $m(0)=0$ gives $m(z) / a>z$. The Pythagorean theorem in the sector in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ of angle $2 \pi a$ implies that

$$
d_{M_{m}}\left(\gamma_{q}(s), o\right)=\sqrt{s^{2}+\left(x-z+\frac{m(z)}{a}\right)^{2}}+z-\frac{m(z)}{a}
$$

which is $<s$ for large $s$, implying that $o$ is in the horoball of $\gamma_{q}$.
To realize $q$ as a soul, we need to look at the soul construction with arbitrary basepoint $v$, which starts by considering the complement in $M_{m}$ of the union of the horoballs for all rays from $v$, which by the above is either $v$ or a segment $[u, v]$ contained in $(o, v$ ], where $u$ is uniquely determined by $v$. It will be convenient to allow for degenerate segments for which $u=v$; with this convention the soul is the midpoint of $[u, v]$. Since $z$ is the smallest such that $\left.G_{m}\right|_{[z, \infty)}=0$, the focal point argument of Case 2 shows that $u=v$ when $0<r_{v}<z$. Set $y:=r_{v}$, and let $e(y):=r_{u}$; note that $0<e(y) \leq y$, and the midpoint of $[u, v]$ has $r$-coordinate $h(y):=(y+e(y)) / 2$.

To realize each point of $M_{m}$ as a soul, it suffices to show that each positive number is in the image of $h$. Since $h$ approaches zero as $y \rightarrow 0$ and approaches infinity as $y \rightarrow \infty$, it is enough to show that $h$ is continuous and then apply the intermediate value theorem.

Since $e(y)=y$ when $0<y<z$, we only need to verify continuity of $e$ when $y \geq z$. Let $v_{i}$ be an arbitrary sequence of points on $\alpha$ converging to $v$, where as before $\alpha$ is the ray from $o$ passing through $q$. Set $v_{i}:=r_{v_{i}}$. Arguing by contradiction suppose that $e\left(y_{i}\right)$ does not converge to $e(y)$. Since $0<e\left(y_{i}\right) \leq y_{i}$ and $y_{i} \rightarrow y$, we may pass to a subsequence such that $e\left(y_{i}\right) \rightarrow e_{\infty} \in[0, y]$. Pick any $w$ such that $r_{w}$ lies between $e_{\infty}$ and $e(y)$. Thus there is $i_{0}$ such that either $e\left(y_{i}\right)<r_{w}<e(y)$ for all $i>i_{0}$, or $e(y)<r_{w}<e\left(y_{i}\right)$ for all $i>i_{0}$. As $y \geq z$, we know that $G_{m}$ vanishes along $\gamma_{v}$, so every $\alpha$-Jacobi field along $\gamma_{v}$ is constant. Therefore, the rays $\gamma_{v_{i}}$ converge uniformly (!) to $\gamma_{v}$, as $v_{i} \rightarrow v$, and hence their Busemann functions $b_{i}$ and $b$ converge pointwise. Thus $b_{i}(w) \rightarrow b(w)$, but we have chosen $w$ so that $b(w)$ and $b_{i}(w)$ are all nonzero, and $\operatorname{sign}(b(w))=-\operatorname{sign}\left(b_{i}(w)\right)$, which gives a contradiction proving the theorem.

Remark 4.6. In Cases 1, 2, and 3 the soul construction terminates in one step, namely, if $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, then $\{q\}$ is the result of removing the horoballs for all rays
that start at $q$. We do not know whether the same is true in Case 4 because the basepoint $v$ needed to produce the soul $q$ is found implicitly, via the intermediate value theorem, and it is unclear how $v$ depends on $q$, and whether $v=q$.

Remark 4.7. Let $M_{m}$ be as in Case 4 with $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{[z, \infty)}=\frac{1}{2}$. If $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then no point $q$ with $r_{q} \geq z$ is a pole because by (4.5) the turn angle of $\gamma_{q}$ is $\pi$, which by Theorem 3.24 cannot happen for a pole.

## 5. Smoothed cones made von Mangoldt

Proof of Theorem 1.11. It is of course easy to find a von Mangoldt plane $g_{m_{x}}$ that has zero curvature near infinity, but prescribing the slope of $m^{\prime}$ there takes more effort. We exclude the trivial case $x=1$ in which $m(r)=r$ works.

For $u \in\left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right]$ set $K_{u}(r)=1 /\left(4(r+1)^{2}\right)-u$, and let $m_{u}$ be the unique solution of (A.7) with $K=K_{u}$. Then $g_{m_{u}}$ is von Mangoldt. For $u>0$ let $z_{u} \in[0, \infty)$ be the unique zero of $K_{u}$; note that $z_{u}$ is the global minimum of $m_{u}^{\prime}$, and $z_{u} \rightarrow \infty$ as $u \rightarrow 0$.

Lemma 5.1. The function $u \rightarrow m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right)$ takes every value in $(0,1)$ as $u$ varies in (0, $\frac{1}{4}$ ).

Proof. One verifies that $m_{0}(r)=\ln (r+1) \sqrt{r+1}$, that is, the right hand side solves (A.7) with $K=K_{0}$. Then $m_{0}^{\prime}=(2+\ln (r+1)) /(2 \sqrt{r+1})$ is a positive function converging to zero as $r \rightarrow \infty$. By Sturm comparison $m_{u} \geq m_{0}>0$ and $m_{u}^{\prime} \geq m_{0}^{\prime}>0$.

We now show that $m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $u \rightarrow+0$. To this end fix an arbitrary $\varepsilon>0$. Fix $t_{\varepsilon}$ such that $m_{0}^{\prime}\left(t_{\varepsilon}\right)<\varepsilon$. By continuous dependence on parameters ( $m_{u}, m_{u}^{\prime}$ ) converges to ( $m_{0}, m_{0}^{\prime}$ ) uniformly on compact sets as $u \rightarrow 0$. So for all small $u$ we have $m_{u}^{\prime}\left(t_{\varepsilon}\right)<\varepsilon$ and also $t_{\varepsilon}<z_{u}$. Since $m_{u}^{\prime}$ decreases on $\left(0, z_{u}\right)$, we conclude that $0<m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right)<m_{u}^{\prime}\left(t_{\varepsilon}\right)<\varepsilon$, proving that $m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right) \rightarrow 0$ as $u \rightarrow+0$.

On the other hand, $m_{1 / 4}^{\prime}\left(z_{1 / 4}\right)=1$ because $z_{1 / 4}=0$ and by the initial condition $m_{1 / 4}^{\prime}(0)=1$. Finally, the assertion of the lemma follows from continuity of the map $u \rightarrow m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right)$, because then it takes every value within $(0,1)$ as $u$ varies in ( $0, \frac{1}{4}$ ). (To check continuity of the map fix $u_{*}$, take an arbitrary $u \rightarrow u_{*}$ and note that $z_{u} \rightarrow z_{u_{*}}$, so since $m_{u}^{\prime}$ converges to $m_{u_{*}}^{\prime}$ on compact subsets, it does so on a neighborhood of $z_{u_{*}}$, so $m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right)$ converges to $m_{u_{*}}^{\prime}\left(z_{u_{*}}\right)$.)

Continuing the proof of the theorem, fix an arbitrary $u>0$. The continuous function $\max \left(K_{u}, 0\right)$ is decreasing and smooth on $\left[0, z_{u}\right]$ and equal to zero on $\left[z_{u}, \infty\right)$. So there is a family of nonincreasing smooth functions $G_{u, \varepsilon}$ depending on the small parameter $\varepsilon$ such that $G_{u, \varepsilon}=\max \left(K_{u}, 0\right)$ outside the $\varepsilon$-neighborhood of $z_{u}$. Let $m_{u, \varepsilon}$ be the unique solution of (A.7) with $K=G_{u, \varepsilon}$; thus $m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime}(r)=m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}+\varepsilon\right)$ for all $r \geq z_{u}+\varepsilon$. If $\varepsilon$ is small enough, then $G_{u, \varepsilon} \leq K_{0}$, so $m_{u, \varepsilon} \geq m_{0}>0$ and
$m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime} \geq m_{0}^{\prime}>0$. By continuous dependence on parameters, the function $(u, \varepsilon) \rightarrow m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime}$ is continuous, and moreover $m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}+\varepsilon\right) \rightarrow m_{u}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}\right)$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, and $u$ is fixed.

Fix $x \in(0,1)$. By Lemma 5.1 there are positive $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ such that $m_{v_{1}}^{\prime}\left(z_{v_{1}}\right)<$ $x<m_{v_{2}}^{\prime}\left(z_{v_{2}}\right)$. Letting $u$ of the previous paragraph to be $v_{1}, v_{2}$, we find $\varepsilon$ such that $m_{v_{1}, \varepsilon}^{\prime}\left(z_{v_{1}}+\varepsilon\right)<x<m_{v_{2}, \varepsilon}^{\prime}\left(z_{v_{2}}+\varepsilon\right)$, so by the intermediate value theorem there is $u$ with $m_{u, \varepsilon}^{\prime}\left(z_{u}+\varepsilon\right)=x$. Then the metric $g_{m_{u, \varepsilon}}$ has the asserted properties for $\rho=z_{u}+\varepsilon$.

## 6. Other applications

Proof of Lemma 1.1. Assuming $\hat{r}(\hat{q}) \notin r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$ we will show that $\hat{q}$ is not a critical point of $\hat{r}$. Since $\hat{M}$ is complete and noncompact, there is a ray $\hat{\gamma}$ emanating from $\hat{q}$. Consider the comparison triangle $\Delta\left(o, q, q_{i}\right)$ in $M_{m}$ for any geodesic triangle with vertices $\hat{o}, \hat{q}$, and $\hat{\gamma}(i)$. Passing to a subsequence, arrange so that the segments [ $q, q_{i}$ ] subconverge to a ray, which we denote by $\gamma$. Since $q \notin \mathfrak{C}_{m}$, the angle formed by $\gamma$ and $[q, o]$ is $>\pi / 2$, and hence for large $i$ the same is true for the angles formed by $\left[q, q_{i}\right]$ and $[q, o]$. By comparison, $\hat{\gamma}$ forms angle $>\pi / 2$ with any segment joining $\hat{q}$ to $\hat{o}$, that is, $\hat{q}$ is not a critical point of $\hat{r}$.

Proof of Theorem 1.5. (a) Let $P_{m}$ denote the set of poles; it is a closed metric ball [Tanaka 1992b, Lemma 1.1]. Moreover, $P_{m}$ clearly lies in the connected component $A_{m}^{o}$ of $A_{m} \cup\{o\}$ that contains $o$, and hence in the component of $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ that contains $o$. By Theorem $1.6 A_{m}$ is open in $M_{m}$, so $A_{m} \cup\{o\}$ is locally path-connected, and hence $A_{m}^{o}$ is open in $M_{m}$. If $P_{m}$ were equal to $A_{m}^{o}$, the latter would be closed, implying $A_{m}^{o}=M_{m}$, which is impossible as the ball has finite radius.
(b) The "if" direction is trivial as $P_{m} \subset \mathfrak{C}_{m}$. Conversely, if $\mathfrak{C}_{m} \neq\{o\}$, then by Lemma $3.15 \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ is integrable and $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>0$, so $R_{p}>0$ [Tanaka 1992a].

Proof of Theorem 1.9. By assumption there is a point of negative curvature, and since the curvature is nonincreasing, outside a compact subset the curvature is bounded above by a negative constant. As $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>0, m$ is bounded below by a positive constant outside any neighborhood of 0 , so $\int_{0}^{\infty} m=\infty$. Hence the total curvature $2 \pi \int_{0}^{\infty} G_{m}(r) m(r) d r$ is $-\infty$.

Hence there is a metric ball $B$ of finite positive radius centered at $o$ such that the total curvature of $B$ is negative, and such that no point of $G_{m} \geq 0$ lies outside $B$. By [Shiohama et al. 2003, Theorem 6.1.1, p. 190], for any $q \in M_{m}$ the total curvature of the set obtained from $M_{m}$ by removing all rays that start at $q$ is in $[0,2 \pi]$. So for any $q$ there is a ray that starts at $q$ and intersects $B$.

If $q$ is not in $B$, then the ray points away from infinity, so $q \in A_{m}$ and any point on this ray is in $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$. Thus $M_{m}-A_{m}$ lies in $B$. Since $\mathfrak{C}_{m} \neq\{o\}$, Theorem 1.5 implies
that $R_{p}>0$. Letting $q$ run to infinity the rays subconverge to a line that intersects $B$; see, for example, [Shiohama et al. 2003, Lemma 6.1.1, p. 187].

If $m^{\prime}\left(r_{p}\right)=0$, the parallel through $p$ is a geodesic but not a ray, so Lemma 3.14 implies that no point on the parallel through $p$ is in $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$. Since $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ contains $o$ and all points outside a compact set, $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is not connected; the same argument proves that $A_{m}$ is not connected.

Example 6.1. Here we modify [Tanaka 1992b, Example 4] to construct a von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ such that $m^{\prime}$ has a zero, and neither $A_{m}$ nor $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ is connected. Given $a \in(\pi / 2, \pi)$ let $m_{0}(r)=\sin r$ for $r \in[0, a]$, and define $m_{0}$ for $r \geq a$ so that $m_{0}$ is smooth, positive, and $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m_{0}>0$. Thus $K_{0}:=-m_{0}^{\prime \prime} / m_{0}$ equals 1 on $[0, a]$. Let $K$ be any smooth nonincreasing function with $K \leq K_{0}$ and $\left.K\right|_{[0, a]}=1$. Let $m$ be the solution of (A.7); note that $m(r)=\sin (r)$ for $r \in[0, a]$ so that $m^{\prime}$ vanishes at $\pi / 2$. By Sturm comparison $m \geq m_{0}>0$, and hence $M_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane. Since $m^{\prime}(a)<0$ and $m>0$ for all $r>0$, the function $m$ cannot be concave, so $K=G_{m}$ eventually becomes negative, and Theorem 1.9 implies that $A_{m}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ are not connected.

Example 6.2. Here we construct a von Mangoldt plane such that $m^{\prime}>0$ everywhere but $A_{m}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ are not connected. Let $M_{n}$ be a von Mangoldt plane such that $G_{n} \geq 0$ and $n^{\prime}>0$ everywhere, and $R_{n}$ is finite (where $R_{n}$ is the radius of the ball $\mathfrak{C}_{n}$ ). This happens, for example, for any paraboloid, any two-sheeted hyperboloid with $n^{\prime}(\infty)<\frac{1}{2}$, or any plane constructed in Theorem 1.11 with $n^{\prime}(\infty)<\frac{1}{2}$. Fix $q \notin \mathfrak{C}_{n}$. Then $\gamma_{q}$ has turn angle $>\pi$, so there is $R>r_{q}$ such that $\int_{r_{q}}^{R} F_{n\left(r_{q}\right)}>\pi$. Let $G$ be any smooth nonincreasing function such that $G=G_{n}$ on $[0, R]$ and $G(z)<0$ for some $z>R$. Let $m$ be the solution of (A.7) with $K=G$. By Sturm comparison $m \geq n>0$ and $m^{\prime} \geq n^{\prime}>0$ everywhere; see Remark A.10. Since $m=n$ on $[0, R]$, on this interval we have $F_{m\left(r_{q}\right)}=F_{n\left(r_{q}\right)}$, so in the von Mangoldt plane $M_{m}$ the geodesic $\gamma_{q}$ has turn angle $>\pi$, which implies that no point on the parallel through $q$ is in $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$. Now Theorem 1.9 (3) and (4) imply that $A_{m}$ and $\mathfrak{C}_{m}$ are not connected.

Theorem 6.3. Let $M_{m}$ be a von Mangoldt plane such that $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{[0, y]}>0$ and $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{[x, y]}$ $<\frac{1}{2}$. Set $f_{m, x}(y):=m^{-1}(\cos (\pi b) m(y))$, where $b$ is the maximum of $m^{\prime}$ on $[x, y]$. If $x \leq f_{m, x}(y)$, then $r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$ and $\left[x, f_{m, x}(y)\right]$ are disjoint.

Proof. Set $f:=f_{m, x}$. Arguing by contradiction assume there is $q \in \mathfrak{C}_{m}$ with $r_{q} \in[x, f(y)]$. Then $\gamma_{q}$ has turn angle $\leq \pi$, so if $c:=m\left(r_{q}\right)$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi & \geq \int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} \frac{c d r}{m \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}}>\int_{r_{q}}^{y} \frac{c d r}{m \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}} \\
& =\int_{c}^{m(y)} \frac{c d m}{m^{\prime}(r) m \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}} \geq \int_{c}^{m(y)} \frac{c d m}{b m \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}}=\frac{1}{b} \arccos \left(\frac{c}{m(y)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

so that $\pi b>\arccos (c /(m(y)))$, which is equivalent to $\cos (\pi b) m(y)<m\left(r_{q}\right)$.
On the other hand, $m(f(y))$ is in the interval $[0, m(y)]$ on which $m^{-1}$ is increasing, so $f(y)<y$, and therefore $m$ is increasing on $[x, f(y)]$. Hence $r_{q}<f(y)$ implies $m\left(r_{q}\right)<m(f(y))=\cos (\pi b) m(y)$, which is a contradiction.
Proof of Theorem 1.10. We use the notation of Theorem 6.3. The assumptions on $n$ imply $n^{\prime}>0,\left.n^{\prime}\right|_{[x, \infty)}<\frac{1}{2}$, and $b=n^{\prime}(x)$. Hence $f_{n, x}$ is an increasing smooth function of $y$ with $f_{n, x}(\infty)=\infty$. In particular, if $y$ is large enough, then $f_{n, x}(y)>z>x$; fix $y$ that satisfies the inequality. Now if $M_{m}$ is any von Mangoldt plane with $m=n$ on $[0, y]$, then $f_{m, x}(y)=f_{n, x}(y)$, so $M_{m}$ satisfies the assumptions of Theorem 6.3, so $[x, z]$ and $r\left(\mathfrak{C}_{m}\right)$ are disjoint.

## Appendix A: Von Mangoldt planes

The purpose of this appendix is to discuss what makes von Mangoldt planes special among arbitrary rotationally symmetric planes.

For a smooth function $m:[0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ whose only zero is 0 , let $g_{m}$ denote the rotationally symmetric inner product on the tangent bundle to $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ that equals the standard Euclidean inner product at the origin and elsewhere is given in polar coordinates by $d r^{2}+m(r)^{2} d \theta^{2}$. It is well known (see, for example, [Shiohama et al. 2003, §7.1]) that:

- Any rotationally symmetric complete smooth Riemannian metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is isometric to some $g_{m}$. (As before, $M_{m}$ denotes $\left(\mathbb{R}^{2}, g_{m}\right)$.)
- If $\bar{m}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denotes the unique odd function such that $\left.\bar{m}\right|_{[0, \infty)}=m$, then $g_{m}$ is a smooth Riemannian metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ if and only if $m^{\prime}(0)=1$ and $\bar{m}$ is smooth.
- If $g_{m}$ is a smooth metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, then $g_{m}$ is complete, and the sectional curvature of $g_{m}$ is a smooth function on $[0, \infty)$ that equals $-m^{\prime \prime} / m$.
It is easier to visualize $M_{m}$ as a surface of revolution in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, so we recall:
Lemma A.1. (1) $M_{m}$ is isometric to a surface of revolution in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ if and only if $\left|m^{\prime}\right| \leq 1$.
(2) $M_{m}$ is isometric to a surface of revolution $(r \cos \phi, r \sin \phi, g(r))$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ if and only if $0<m^{\prime} \leq 1$.

Proof. (1) Consider a unit speed curve $s \rightarrow(x(s), 0, z(s))$ in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ where $x(s) \geq 0$ and $s \geq 0$. Rotating the curve about the $z$-axis gives the surface of revolution

$$
(x(s) \cos \phi, x(s) \sin \phi, z(s))
$$

with metric $d s^{2}+x(s)^{2} d \phi^{2}$. The meridians starting at the origin are rays, so for this metric to be equal to $d s^{2}+m(s)^{2} d \phi^{2}$ we must have $m(s)=x(s)$. Since the
curve has unit speed, $\left|x^{\prime}(s)\right| \leq 1$, so a necessary condition for writing the metric as a surface of revolution is $\left|m^{\prime}(s)\right| \leq 1$. It is also sufficient for if $\left|m^{\prime}(s)\right| \leq 1$, then we could let $z(s):=\int_{0}^{s} \sqrt{1-\left(m^{\prime}(s)\right)^{2}} d s$, so that now $(m(s), z(s))$ has unit speed.
(2) If, furthermore, $m^{\prime}>0$ for all $s$, then the inverse function of $m(s)$ makes sense, and we can write the surface of revolution $(m(s) \cos \phi, m(s) \sin \phi, z(s))$ as $(x \cos \phi, x \sin \phi, g(x))$ where $x:=m(s)$ and $g(x):=z\left(m^{-1}(x)\right)$. Conversely, given the surface $(x \cos \phi, x \sin \phi, g(x))$, the orientation-preserving arclength parametrization $x=x(s)$ of the curve $(x, 0, g(x))$ satisfies $x^{\prime}>0$.
Example A.2. The standard $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is the only von Mangoldt plane with $G_{m} \leq 0$ that can be embedded into $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ as a surface of revolution because $m^{\prime}(0)=1$ and $m^{\prime}$ is nondecreasing afterwards.
Example A.3. If $G_{m} \geq 0$, then $m^{\prime} \in[0,1]$ because $m>0, m^{\prime}$ is nonincreasing, and $m^{\prime}(0)=1$, so that $M_{m}$ is isometric to a surface of revolution in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$. In fact, if $m^{\prime}\left(s_{0}\right)=0$, then $\left.m\right|_{\left[s_{0}, \infty\right)}=m\left(s_{0}\right)$, that is, outside the $s_{0}$-ball about the origin $M_{m}$ is a cylinder. Thus except for such surfaces $M_{m}$ can be written as

$$
(x \cos \phi, x \sin \phi, g(x)) \quad \text { for } g(x)=\int_{0}^{m^{-1}(x)} \sqrt{1-\left(m^{\prime}(s)\right)^{2}} d s
$$

Paraboloids and two-sheeted hyperboloids are von Mangoldt planes of positive curvature [Shiohama et al. 2003, p. 234-235] and are of the form $(x \cos \phi, x \sin \phi, g(x))$.

The defining property $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$ of von Mangoldt planes clearly restricts the behavior of $m^{\prime}$. Let $Z\left(G_{m}\right)$ denote the set where $G_{m}$ vanishes; as $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, $Z\left(G_{m}\right)$ is closed and connected, and hence it could be equal to the empty set, a point, or an interval, while $m^{\prime}$ behaves as follows.
(i) If $G_{m}>0$, then $m^{\prime}$ is decreasing and takes values in $(0,1]$.
(ii) If $G_{m} \leq 0$, then $m^{\prime}$ is nondecreasing and takes values in $[1, \infty)$.
(iii) If $Z\left(G_{m}\right)$ is a positive number $z$, then $m^{\prime}$ decreases on $[0, z)$ and increases on $(z, \infty)$, and $m^{\prime}$ may have two, one, or no zeros.
(iv) If $Z\left(G_{m}\right)=[a, b] \subset(0, \infty]$, then $m^{\prime}$ decreases on $[0, a)$, is constant on $[a, b]$, and increases on $(b, \infty)$ if $b<\infty$. Also either $\left.m^{\prime}\right|_{[a, b]}=0$ or else $m^{\prime}$ has two, or no zeros.
Remark A.4. All the above possibilities occur with one possible exception: in Cases (iii) and (iv) we are not aware of examples where $m^{\prime}$ vanishes on $Z\left(G_{m}\right)$.
Remark A.5. Thus if $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt, then $m^{\prime}$ is monotone near infinity, so $m^{\prime}(\infty)$ exists; moreover, $m^{\prime}(\infty) \in[0, \infty]$, for otherwise $m$ would vanish on $(0, \infty)$. It follows that $M_{m}$ admits total curvature, which equals

$$
\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} G_{m} m d r d \theta=-2 \pi \int_{0}^{\infty} m^{\prime \prime}=2 \pi\left(1-m^{\prime}(\infty)\right) \in[-\infty, 2 \pi] .
$$

Here the total curvature of a subset $A \subset M_{m}$ is the integral of $G_{m}$ over $A$ with respect to the Riemannian area form $m d r d \theta$, provided the integral converges to a number in $[-\infty, \infty]$, in which case we say that $A$ admits total curvature.
Remark A.6. The zeros of $m^{\prime}$ correspond to parallels that are geodesics and are of interest. In contrast with restrictions on the zero set of $m^{\prime}$ for von Mangoldt planes, if $M_{m}$ is not necessarily von Mangoldt, then any closed subset of $[0, \infty)$ that does not contain 0 can be realized as the set of zeros of $m^{\prime}$. (Indeed, for any closed subset of a manifold there is a smooth nonnegative function that vanishes precisely on the subset [Bröcker and Jänich 1982, Whitney's Theorem 14.1]. It follows that if $C$ is a closed subset of $[0, \infty)$ that does not contain 0 , then there is a smooth function $g:[0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ that is even at 0 , satisfies $g(0)=1$, and is such that $g(s)=0$ if and only if $s \in C$. If $m$ is the solution of $m^{\prime}=g$ and $m(0)=0$, then $M_{m}$ has the promised property.)

A common way of constructing von Mangoldt planes involves the Jacobi initial value problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{\prime \prime}+K m=0, \quad m(0)=0, \quad m^{\prime}(0)=1, \tag{A.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $K$ is smooth on $[0, \infty)$. It follows from the proof of [Kazdan and Warner 1974, Lemma 4.4] that $g_{m}$ is a complete smooth Riemannian metric on $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ if and only if the following condition holds:

$$
\text { the (unique) solution } m \text { of (A.7) is positive on }(0, \infty)
$$

Remark A.8. A basic tool that produces solutions of (A.7) satisfying condition ( $\star$ ) is the Sturm comparison theorem that implies that if $m_{1}$ is a positive function that solves (A.7) with $K=K_{1}$, and if $K_{2}$ is any nonincreasing smooth function with $K_{2} \leq K_{1}$, then the solution $m_{2}$ of (A.7) with $K=K_{2}$ satisfies $m_{2} \geq m_{1}$, so that $g_{m_{2}}$ is a von Mangoldt plane.
Example A.9. If $K$ is a smooth function on $[0, \infty)$ such that $\max (K, 0)$ has compact support, then a positive multiple of $K$ can be realized as the curvature $G_{m}$ of some $M_{m}$; of course, if $K$ is nonincreasing, then $M_{m}$ is von Mangoldt. (Indeed, in [Kazdan and Warner 1974, Lemma 4.3] Sturm comparison was used to show that if $\int_{t}^{\infty} \max (K, 0) \leq 1 /(4 t+4)$ for all $t \geq 0$, then $K$ satisfies $(\star)$, and in particular, if $\max (K, 0)$ has compact support, then there is a constant $\varepsilon>0$ such that the above inequality holds for $\varepsilon K$.)
Remark A.10. A useful addendum to Remark A. 8 is that the additional assumption $m_{1}^{\prime} \geq 0$ implies $m_{2}^{\prime} \geq m_{1}^{\prime}>0$. (Indeed, the function $m_{1}^{\prime} m_{2}-m_{1} m_{2}^{\prime}$ vanishes at 0 and has nonpositive derivative $\left(-K_{1}+K_{2}\right) m_{1} m_{2}$, so $m_{1}^{\prime} m_{2} \leq m_{1} m_{2}^{\prime}$. As $m_{1}, m_{2}$, and $m_{1}^{\prime}$ are nonnegative, so is $m_{2}^{\prime}$. Hence, $m_{1} m_{2}^{\prime} \leq m_{2} m_{2}^{\prime}$, which gives $m_{1}^{\prime} m_{2} \leq m_{2} m_{2}^{\prime}$, and the claim follows by canceling $m_{2}$.)

Question A.11. Let $m_{0}:\left[r_{0}, \infty\right) \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a smooth function such that $r_{0}>0$ and $-m_{0}^{\prime \prime} / m_{0}$ is nonincreasing. What are sufficient conditions for (or obstructions to) extending $m_{0}$ to a function $m$ on $[0, \infty)$ such that $g_{m}$ is a von Mangoldt plane?

## Appendix B: A calculus lemma

This appendix contains an elementary lemma on continuity and differentiability of the turn angle, which is needed for Theorem 3.24.

Given numbers $r_{q}>r_{0}>0$, let $m$ be a smooth self-map of $(0, \infty)$ such that

- $m^{\prime}>0$ on $\left[r_{0}, r_{q}\right]$,
- $m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for $r>r_{q}$,
- $m^{-2}$ is integrable on $(1, \infty)$,
- $\liminf _{r \rightarrow \infty} m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$.

Example B.1. Suppose $G_{m} \geq 0$ or $G_{m}^{\prime} \leq 0$. If $\gamma_{q}$ is a ray on $M_{m}$, and $r_{0}$ is sufficiently close to $r_{q}$, then $m$ satisfies the above properties by Lemmas 3.3, 3.8, and 3.10.

Set $c_{0}:=m\left(r_{0}\right)$ and $c_{q}:=m\left(r_{q}\right)$. Let $T=T(c)$ be the function given by the integral (3.21) for $c=c_{q}$, and by the sum of integrals (3.22) for $c_{0} \leq c \leq c_{q}$, where $F_{c}$ is given by (3.5) and $r_{u}:=m^{-1}(c)$, where $m^{-1}$ is the inverse of $\left.m\right|_{\left[r_{0}, r_{q}\right]}$.
Lemma B.2. Under the assumptions of the previous paragraph, $T$ is continuous on ( $c_{0}, c_{q}$ ], continuously differentiable on $\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$, and $T^{\prime}(c) \sqrt{c_{q}^{2}-c^{2}}$ converges to $-1 /\left(m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)\right)<0$ as $c \rightarrow c_{q}-$.
Proof. By definition $T$ equals $\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}+\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}$ if $c \in\left[c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$ and $T=\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}$ if $c=c_{q}$. Step 1 shows that $\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}$ depends continuously on $c \in\left[c_{0}, c_{q}\right]$, while Step 2 establishes continuity of $T$ at $c_{q}$. In Steps 3 and 4 we prove continuous differentiability and compute the derivatives of integrals $\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}$ and $\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}$ with respect to $c \in\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$. Step 5 investigates the behavior of $T^{\prime}(c)$ as $c \rightarrow c_{q}$.

Recall that the integral $\int_{a}^{b} H_{c}(r) d r$ depends continuously on $c$ if for each $r \in$ $(a, b)$ the map $c \rightarrow H_{c}(r)$ is continuous, and every $c$ has a neighborhood $U_{0}$ in which $\left|H_{c}\right| \leq h_{0}$ for some integrable function $h_{0}$. If in addition each map $c \rightarrow H_{c}(r)$ is $C^{1}$, and every $c$ has a neighborhood $U_{1}$ where $\left|\partial H_{c} / \partial c\right| \leq h_{1}$ for an integrable function $h_{1}$, then $\int_{a}^{b} H_{c}(r) d r$ is $C^{1}$ and differentiation under the integral sign is valid; the same conclusion holds when $H_{c}$ and $\partial H_{c} / \partial c$ are continuous in the closure of $U_{1} \times(a, b)$.
Step 1. The integrand $F_{c}$ is smooth over $\left(r_{u}, \infty\right)$, because the assumptions on $m$ imply that $m(r)>c$ for $r>r_{u}$.

Since $0<c \leq c_{q}$ we have $F_{c} \leq F_{c_{q}}=c_{q} /\left(m \sqrt{m^{2}-c_{q}^{2}}\right)$ which is integrable on $\left(r_{q}, \infty\right)$. Indeed, fix $\delta>r_{q}$ and note that since $m^{-2}$ is integrable on $(\delta, \infty)$, so is
$F_{c_{q}}$. To prove integrability of $F_{c_{q}}$ on $\left(r_{q}, \delta\right)$, note that

$$
h(r):=\frac{m(r)-m\left(r_{q}\right)}{r-r_{q}}
$$

is positive on $\left[r_{q}, \infty\right)$, as $h\left(r_{q}\right)=m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)>0$ and $m(r)>m\left(r_{q}\right)$ for $r>r_{q}$. Then $F_{c_{q}}$ is the product of $\left(r-r_{q}\right)^{-1 / 2}$ and a function that is smooth on $\left[r_{q}, \delta\right]$, and hence $F_{c_{q}}$ is integrable on $\left(r_{q}, \delta\right)$.

Thus the integrals $\int_{r_{q}}^{\delta} F_{c}(r) d r$ and $\int_{\delta}^{\infty} F_{c}(r) d r$ depend continuously on $c \in$ $\left(0, c_{q}\right]$, and hence so does their sum $\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}(r) d r$.
Step 2. As $c \rightarrow c_{q}$, the integral $\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}$ converges to zero, for if $K$ is the maximum of $\left(m m^{\prime} \sqrt{m+c}\right)^{-1}$ over the points with $r \in\left[r_{0}, r_{q}\right]$ and $c \in\left[c_{0}, c_{q}\right]$, then

$$
\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c} \leq K \int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} \frac{m^{\prime} d r}{\sqrt{m-c}}=K \int_{0}^{c_{q}-c} \frac{d t}{\sqrt{t}}
$$

which goes to zero as $c \rightarrow c_{q}$. Thus $T$ is continuous at $c=c_{q}$.
Step 3. To find an integrable function dominating $\partial F_{c} / \partial c$ on $\left(r_{q}, \infty\right)$ locally in $c$, note that every $c \in\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$ has a neighborhood of the form $\left(c_{0}, c_{q}-\delta\right)$ with $\delta>0$, and over this neighborhood

$$
\frac{\partial F_{c}}{\partial c}=\frac{m}{\left(m^{2}-c^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}} \leq \frac{m}{\left(m^{2}-\left(c_{q}-\delta\right)^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}}
$$

where the right hand side is integrable over $\left[r_{q}, \infty\right)$, as $m^{-2}$ is integrable at $\infty$; thus

$$
\frac{d}{d c} \int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} F_{c}=\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty} \frac{m}{\left(m^{2}-c^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}} d r
$$

is continuous with respect to $c \in\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$. This integral diverges if $c=m\left(r_{q}\right)$.
Step 4. To check continuity of $\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}$ change variables via $t:=m / c$ so that $r=$ $m^{-1}(t c)$. Thus $d t=m^{\prime}(r) d r / c=n(t c) d r / c$ where $n(r):=m^{\prime}\left(m^{-1}(r)\right)$, and

$$
\int_{r_{u}}^{r_{q}} F_{c}(r) d r=\int_{1}^{c_{q} / c} \bar{F}_{c}(t) d t \quad \text { where } \quad \bar{F}_{c}(t)=\frac{1}{n(t c) t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}
$$

Since $m^{\prime}>0$ on $\left[r_{0}, r_{q}\right]$ and $n(t c)=m^{\prime}(r)$, the function $\bar{F}_{c}$ is smooth over $\left(1, c_{q} / c\right)$. To prove the continuity of $\int_{1}^{c_{q} / c} \bar{F}_{c}$, fix an arbitrary $(u, v) \subset\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$. If $c \in(u, v)$ and $t \in\left(1, c_{q} / c\right)$, then $m^{-1}(t c)$ lies in the $m^{-1}$-image of $\left(u,(v / u) c_{q}\right)$, which by taking the interval $(u, v)$ sufficiently small can be made to lie in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of $\left[r_{0}, r_{q}\right]$, so we may assume that $m^{\prime}>0$ on that neighborhood. It follows that the maximum $K$ of $1 /(n(t c))$ over $c \in[u, v]$ and $t \in\left[1, c_{q} / c\right]$ is finite, and $\left|\bar{F}_{c}\right| \leq K /\left(t \sqrt{t^{2}-1}\right)$ for $c \in(u, v)$, that is, $\left|F_{c}\right|$ is locally dominated by an integrable function that is independent of $c$; for the same reason the conclusion also
holds for

$$
\frac{\partial \bar{F}_{c}}{\partial c}=-\frac{n^{\prime}(t c)}{n(t c)^{2} \sqrt{t^{2}-1}}
$$

Finally, given $c_{*} \in\left(c_{0}, c_{q}\right)$, fix $\delta \in\left(1, c_{q} / c_{*}\right)$ and write $\int_{1}^{c_{q} / c} \bar{F}_{c}=\int_{1}^{\delta} \bar{F}_{c}+\int_{\delta}^{c_{q} / c} \bar{F}_{c}$ for $c$ varying near $c_{*}$. The first summand is $C^{1}$ at $c_{*}$, as the integrand and its derivative are dominated by the integrable function near $c_{*}$. The second summand is also $C^{1}$ at $c_{*}$ as the integrand is $C^{1}$ on a neighborhood of $\left\{c_{*}\right\} \times\left[\delta, c_{q} / c\right]$. By the integral Leibniz rule

$$
\frac{d}{d c} \int_{1}^{c_{q} / c} \bar{F}_{c}=-\frac{c_{q}}{c^{2}} \bar{F}_{c}\left(\frac{c_{q}}{c}\right)-\int_{1}^{c_{q} / c} \frac{n^{\prime}(t c) d t}{n(t c)^{2} \sqrt{t^{2}-1}} .
$$

The first summand equals $-\left(m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right) \sqrt{c_{q}^{2}-c^{2}}\right)^{-1}$, and the second summand is bounded.
Step 5. Let us investigate the behavior of $\int_{r_{q}}^{\infty}\left(m /\left(m^{2}-c^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}\right) d r$ from Step 3 as $c \rightarrow c_{q}-$. Fix $\delta>r_{q}$ such that $m^{\prime}>0$ on $\left[r_{0}, \delta\right]$ and write the above integral as the sum of the integrals over $\left(r_{q}, \delta\right)$ and $(\delta, \infty)$. The latter one is bounded. Integrate the former integral by parts as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{r_{q}}^{\delta} \frac{m m^{\prime}}{m^{\prime}\left(m^{2}-c^{2}\right)^{3 / 2}} d r & =-\int_{r_{q}}^{\delta} \frac{1}{m^{\prime}} d\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right) \sqrt{c_{q}^{2}-c^{2}}}-\frac{1}{m^{\prime}(\delta) \sqrt{\delta^{2}-c^{2}}}-\int_{r_{q}}^{\delta} \frac{m^{\prime \prime} d r}{\left(m^{\prime}\right)^{2} \sqrt{m^{2}-c^{2}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Only the first summand is unbounded as $c \rightarrow c_{q}-$. The terms from Steps 4 and 5 enter into $T^{\prime}$ with coefficients 2 and 1 , respectively, so as $c \rightarrow c_{q}$ -

$$
T^{\prime}(c) \sqrt{c_{q}^{2}-c^{2}} \rightarrow-\frac{1}{m^{\prime}\left(r_{q}\right)}<0
$$

as the bounded terms multiplied by $\sqrt{c_{q}^{2}-c^{2}}$ disappear in the limit.

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IGor Belegradek
School of Mathematics
Georgia Institute of Technology
686 Cherry Street
AtLanta, GA 30332-0160
United States
ib@math.gatech.edu
Eric Choi
Department of Mathematics and Computer Science
Emory University
400 Dowman Dr., W401
Atlanta, GA 30322
United States
ericchoi314@gmail.com
Nobuhiro Innami
Department of Mathematics
Faculty of Science
Niigata University
NiIGATA 950-2181
JAPAN
innami@math.sc.niigata-u.ac.jp

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Department of Mathematics Stanford University Stanford, CA 94305-2125
finn@math.stanford.edu
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Department of Mathematics
University of California
Los Angeles, CA 90095-1555
liu@math.ucla.edu

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qing@cats.ucsc.edu
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Department of Mathematics
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jonr@math.ucla.edu

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