Classical differential geometry

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This note is written for teaching during the undergraduate tutoring program in 2019 fall semester. Main resources I refered are books by Manfredo P. do Carmo [], and Richard S. Millman and George D. Parker [].

 $\begin{array}{l} First\ Written: October\ 22,\ 2019. \\ Last\ Updated: October\ 22,\ 2019. \end{array}$

1. Introduction

1.1. **Parametrizations and coordinates.** For each text on classical differential geometry, the definitions frequently vary. In this note, we define as follows.

Definition 1.1. An m-dimensional parametrization is a smooth map $\alpha: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

(1) $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is open,

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- (2) α is one-to-one (optional),
- (3) the Fréchet derivative $d\alpha: U \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is injective everywhere.

The Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is called the *ambient space*.

The first condition is necessary to avoid differentiating at points that are not in the interior of domain. Of course, it is possible to generalize the definition of differentiation on boundary points, but we will not introduce the notion for simplicity.

For the second condition, although it is written to be optional, we will always require the injectivity of α in this note. If not, two distinct ordered tuple of real numbers may represent the same point. To describe a geometric object that cannot be covered by a single injective parametrization, such as a circle or a sphere, we can admit several parametrizations.

The third condition is the most important one. This condition is paraphrased as follows: the set of partial derivatives $\{\partial_i \alpha(p)\}_{i=1}^m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is linearly independent at every point $p \in U$. Differential geoemtry do not consider parametrizations that fail this; for example, t=0 should be excluded from the domain of a curve parametrization $t\mapsto (t^2,t^3,t^4)$.

Definition 1.2. A subset $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a *regular curve* (resp. *regular surface*) if there exists a one-dimensional (resp. two-dimensional) parametrization whose image is exactly M.

All curves and surfaces in this note are assumed to be regular. We also just often say that α is a regular curve (resp. regular surface) for a particular parametrization α . However, note that a curve or surface admits infinitely many parametrizations. We can solve many geometry or physics problems very easily by choosing an appropriate parametrization.

Definition 1.3. Let $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a regular curve or a regular surface. The inverse $\varphi: M \to U$ of a parametrization is called a *coordinate map*.

Coordinates and parametrizations give equivalent information except that the direction is opposite (only if parametrization satisfies the injectivity). We mostly take a parametrization for a curve while coordinates are more usefully taken in more-than-one-dimensional geometry such as a surface, or the timespace. Reparametrization is just a choice of another parametrization for the same curve or surface. As said, the choice of coordinate(parametrization) is extremely important in differential geometry.

When developing a theory of differential geometry, the followings are considered to be important issues:

- Well-definedness of a structure with respect to the dependency on parametrizations (coordinates).
- Existence of a coordinate system that has nice properties we want.

- 1.2. **Differentiation.** Differentiation in differential geometry can be understood in many different viewpoints. We, here, review the two kinds of main usages of differentiation: differentiation of parametrizations, and differentiation by directional vectors. Do not forget that all differentiations in this note will be done thanks to the structure of the ambient space \mathbb{R}^n .
- 1.2.1. Differentiation of parametrizations. We introduce the notion of tangent spaces, geometrically the spaces of vectors that starts from each base point, by differentiation of parametrization. Before that, let us make sure the notations for differentiation. The precise definition of differentiation is skipped.

Notation. Let $\alpha: I \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a regular curve. Its tangent vector is denoted by

$$\alpha' = \dot{\alpha} = \frac{d\alpha}{dt} : I \to \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Let $\alpha: U \to \mathbb{R}^n$ be a regular surface. Its tangent vectors are denoted by

$$\alpha_x = \partial_x \alpha = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x}, \ \alpha_y = \partial_y \alpha = \frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial y} : U \to \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Now we define tangent spaces in several equivlent ways:

Definition 1.4. Let M be a regular curve or a regular surface with parametrization $\alpha: U \to M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$. Let $p \in M$ be a point.

The tangent space of M at p, denoted by T_pM , can be defined as either one of the followings:

- (1) the span of linearly independent set of vectors $\{\partial_i \alpha\}_{i=1}^m \subset \mathbb{R}^n$,
- (2) the image of the Fréchet derivative $d\alpha_p : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$. This definition is independent on the parametrization α ,
- (3) the set of vectors $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that there exists a curve $\gamma: I \to M$ satisfying $\gamma(0) = p$ and $\gamma'(0) = v$.

Remark. We can show the three conditions are equivalent, but the proof will not be given; what is more important is to understand the role and meaning of tangent spaces. There exist a lot more neat characterizations for tangent spaces we will not cover.

Remark. We can easily check that $T_p\mathbb{R}^3 = \mathbb{R}^3$ for any $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$. The notation $T_p\mathbb{R}^3$ will be used to emphasize that a vector in \mathbb{R}^3 is geometrically recognized to cast from the point p.

- 1.2.2. Differentiation by tangent vectors.
- 1.3. Linear algebra on tangent spaces.
 - 2. Local theory of curves
- 2.1. Theory.

2.1.1. Reparametrization.

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Definition 2.1. A parametrization α of a regular curve is called a *unit speed curve* or an *arc-length parametrization* when it satisfies $\|\alpha'\| = 1$.

Theorem 2.1. Every regular curve may be assumed to have unit speed. Precisely, for every regular curve, there is a parametrization α such that $\|\alpha'\| = 1$.

Proof. Suppose we have a parametrization $\beta: I_t \to \mathbb{R}^d$ for a given regular curve. Define $\tau: I_t \to I_s$ such that

$$\tau(t_0) := \int_0^{t_0} \|\beta'(t)\| \, dt.$$

Since τ is smooth and $\tau' > 0$ everywhere so that τ is strictly increasing, the inverse $\tau^{-1}: I_s \to I_t$ is smooth by the inverse function theorem. Define $\alpha: I_s \to \mathbb{R}^d$ by $\alpha:=\beta\circ\tau^{-1}$. Then, by the chain rule,

$$\alpha' = \frac{d\alpha}{ds} = \frac{d\beta}{dt} \frac{d\tau^{-1}}{ds} = \beta' \left(\frac{d\tau}{dt}\right)^{-1} = \frac{\beta'}{\|\beta'\|}.$$

2.1.2. Frenet-Serret frame. The Frenet-Serret frame is defined for nondegenerate regular curves. It provides with a useful orthonormal basis of $T_p\mathbb{R}^3 \supset T_pC$ for points p on a regular curve C.

Definition 2.2. We call a curve parametrized as $\alpha: I \to \mathbb{R}^3$ is nondegenerate if the normalized tangent vector $\alpha'/\|\alpha'\|$ is never locally constant everywhere. In other words, α is nowhere straight.

Definition 2.3 (Frenet-Serret frame). Let α be a nondegenerate curve. The tangent unit vector, normal unit vector, binormal unit vector are $T_p\mathbb{R}^3$ -valued vector fields on α defined by:

$$\mathbf{T}(t) := \frac{\alpha'(t)}{\|\alpha'(t)\|}, \qquad \mathbf{N}(t) := \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{\|\mathbf{T}'(t)\|}, \qquad \mathbf{B}(t) := \mathbf{T}(t) \times \mathbf{N}(t).$$

The set of vector fields $\{T, N, B\}$, which is called *Frenet-Serret frame*, form an orthonormal basis of $T_p\mathbb{R}^3$ at each point p on α . The Frenet-Serret frame is uniquely determined up to sign as α changes.

2.1.3. Differentiation of Frenet-Serret frame.

Definition 2.4. Let α be a nondegenerate curve. The *curvature* and *torsion* are scalar fields on α defined by:

$$\kappa(t) := \frac{\langle \mathbf{T}'(t), \mathbf{N}(t) \rangle}{\|\alpha'\|}, \quad \tau(t) := -\frac{\langle \mathbf{B}'(t), \mathbf{N}(t) \rangle}{\|\alpha'\|}.$$

Note that $\kappa > 0$ cannot vanish by definition of nondegenerate curve. This definition is independent on α .

Theorem 2.2 (Frenet-Serret formula). Let α be a nondegenerate curve. Then,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{T}' \\ \mathbf{N}' \\ \mathbf{B}' \end{pmatrix} = \|\alpha'\| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \kappa & 0 \\ -\kappa & 0 & \tau \\ 0 & -\tau & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{T} \\ \mathbf{N} \\ \mathbf{B} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. Note that $\{T, N, B\}$ is an orthonormal basis.

Step 1: Show that T', B', N are parallel. Two vectors T' and N are parallel by definition. Since $\langle T, B \rangle = 0$ and $\langle B, B \rangle = 1$ are constant, we have

$$\langle B',T\rangle = \langle B,T\rangle' - \langle B,T'\rangle = 0, \qquad \langle B',B\rangle = \tfrac{1}{2}\langle B,B\rangle' = 0,$$

which show B' and N are parallel. By the definition of κ and τ , we have

$$T' = \|\alpha'\|\kappa N, \qquad B' = -\|\alpha'\|\tau B.$$

Step 2: Describe N'. Since

$$\langle \mathbf{N}', \mathbf{T} \rangle = -\langle \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{T}' \rangle = -\|\alpha'\|\kappa,$$

$$\langle \mathbf{N}', \mathbf{N} \rangle = \frac{1}{2}\langle \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{N} \rangle' = 0,$$

$$\langle \mathbf{N}', \mathbf{B} \rangle = -\langle \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{B}' \rangle = \|\alpha'\|\tau,$$

we have

$$N' = \|\alpha'\|(-\kappa T + \tau B).$$

Remark. Skew-symmetry in the Frenet-Serret formula is not by chance. Let X(t) be the curve of orthogonal matrices $(T(t), N(t), B(t))^T$. Then, the Frenet-Serret formula reads

$$X'(t) = A(t)X(t)$$

for a matrix curve A(t). Since $X(t+h) = R_t(h)X(t)$ for a family of orthogonal matrices $\{R_t(h)\}_h$ with $R_t(0) = I$, we can describe A(t) as

$$A(t) = \left. \frac{dR_t}{dh} \right|_{h=0}.$$

By differentiating the relation $R_t^T(h)R_t(h) = I$ with respect to h, we get to know that A(t) is skew-symmetric for all t. In other words, the tangent space $T_ISO(3)$ forms a skew symmetric matrix.

Proposition 2.3. Let α be a nondegenerate curve.

$$\kappa = \frac{\|\alpha' \times \alpha''\|}{\|\alpha'\|^3}, \qquad \tau = \frac{\alpha' \times \alpha'' \cdot \alpha'''}{\|\alpha' \times \alpha''\|}.$$

Proof. If we let $s = \|\alpha'\|$, then

$$\alpha' = sT,$$

$$\alpha'' = s'T + s^2 \kappa N,$$

$$\alpha''' = (s'' - s^3 \kappa^2)T + (3ss'\kappa + s^2 \kappa')N + (s^3 \kappa \tau)B.$$

Now the formulas are easily derived.

2.2. **Problems.** We are interested in a curve, not a particular parametrization. By the Theorem 2.1, we may always assume that a parametrization α has unit speed. Let α be a nondegenerate unit speed space curve, and let $\{T, N, B\}$ be the Frenet-Serret frame for α . Consider a diagram as follows:

$$\langle \alpha, T \rangle = ? \longleftrightarrow \langle \alpha, N \rangle = ? \longleftrightarrow \langle \alpha, B \rangle = ?$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\langle \alpha', T \rangle = 1 \qquad \langle \alpha', N \rangle = 0 \qquad \langle \alpha', B \rangle = 0.$$

Here the arrows indicate which term we are able to get by differentiation. For example, if we know a condition

$$\langle \alpha(t), T(t) \rangle = f(t),$$

then we can obtain

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$$\langle \alpha(t), N(t) \rangle = \frac{f'(t) - 1}{\kappa(t)}$$

by direct differentiation since we have known $\langle \alpha', T \rangle$ but not $\langle \alpha, N \rangle$, and further

$$\langle \alpha(t), \mathbf{B}(t) \rangle = \frac{\left(\frac{f'(t)-1}{\kappa(t)}\right)' + \kappa(t)f(t)}{\tau(t)}$$

since we have known $\langle \alpha, T \rangle$ and $\langle \alpha', N \rangle$ but not $\langle \alpha, B \rangle$. Thus, $\langle \alpha, T \rangle = f$ implies

$$\alpha(t) = f(t) \cdot T + \frac{f'(t) - 1}{\kappa(t)} \cdot N + \frac{\left(\frac{f'(t) - 1}{\kappa(t)}\right)' + \kappa(t)f(t)}{\tau(t)} \cdot B,$$

when given $\tau(t) \neq 0$.

We suggest a strategy for space curve problems:

- Build and differentiate equations of the following form:
 - \langle (interesting vector), (Frenet-Serret basis) \rangle = (some function).
- Aim for finding the coefficients of the position vector in the Frenet-Serret frame, and obtain relations of κ and τ by comparing with assumptions.
- Heuristically find a constant vector and show what you want directly.

Here we give example solutions of several selected problems. Always α denote a reparametrized unit speed nondegenerate curve in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Problem 2.1. A curve whose normal lines always pass through a fixed point lies in a circle.

Solution. Step 1: Formulate conditions. By the assumption, there is a constant point $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$ such that the vectors $\alpha - p$ and N are parallel so that we have

$$\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0, \qquad \langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = 0.$$

Our goal is to show that $\|\alpha - p\|$ is constant and there is a constant vector v such that $\langle \alpha - p, v \rangle = 0$.

Step 2: Collect information. Differentiate $\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0$ to get

$$\langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = -\frac{1}{\kappa}.$$

Differentiate $\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = 0$ to get

$$\tau = 0$$
.

Step 3: Complete proof. We can deduce that $\|\alpha - p\|$ is constant from

$$(\|\alpha - p\|^2)' = \langle \alpha - p, \alpha - p \rangle' = 2\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0.$$

Also, if we heuristically define a vector v := B, then v is constant since

$$v' = -\tau \mathbf{N} = 0,$$

and clearly $\langle \alpha - p, v \rangle = 0$

Problem 2.2. A spherical curve of constant curvature lies in a circle.

Solution. Step 1: Formulate conditions. The condition that α lies on a sphere can be given as follows: for a constant point $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$,

$$\|\alpha - p\| = \text{const}$$
.

Also we have

$$\kappa = \text{const}$$
.

Step 2: Collect information. Differentiate $\|\alpha - p\|^2 = \text{const to get}$

$$\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0.$$

Differentiate $\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0$ to get

$$\langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = -\frac{1}{\kappa}.$$

Differentiate $\langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = -1/\kappa = \text{const to get}$

$$\tau \langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = 0.$$

There are two ways to show that $\tau = 0$.

Method 1: Assume that there is t such that $\tau(t) \neq 0$. By the continuity of τ , we can deduce that τ is locally nonvanishing. In other words, we have $\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = 0$ on an open interval containing t. Differentiate $\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = 0$ at t to get $\langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = 0$ near t, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $\tau = 0$ everywhere.

Method 2: Since $\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle$ is continuous and

$$\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = \pm \sqrt{\|\alpha - p\|^2 - \langle \alpha - p, T \rangle^2 - \langle \alpha - p, N \rangle^2} = \pm \text{const},$$

we get $\langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = \text{const.}$ Differentiate to get $\tau \langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = 0$. Finally we can deduce $\tau = 0$ since $\langle \alpha - p, N \rangle \neq 0$.

Step 3: Complete proof. The zero torsion implies that the curve lies on a plane. A planar curve in a sphere is a circle. \Box

Problem 2.3. A curve such that $\tau/\kappa = (\kappa'/\tau\kappa^2)'$ lies on a sphere.

Solution. Step 1: Find the center heuristically. If we assume that α is on a sphere so that we have $\|\alpha - p\| = r$ for constants $p \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and > 0, then by the routine differentiations give

$$\langle \alpha - p, T \rangle = 0, \qquad \langle \alpha - p, N \rangle = -\frac{1}{\kappa}, \qquad \langle \alpha - p, B \rangle = -\left(\frac{1}{\kappa}\right)' \frac{1}{\tau},$$

that is,

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$$\alpha - p = -\frac{1}{\kappa} \mathbf{N} - \left(\frac{1}{\kappa}\right)' \frac{1}{\tau} \mathbf{B}.$$

Step 2: Complete proof. Let us get started the proof. Define

$$p := \alpha + \frac{1}{\kappa} N + \left(\frac{1}{\kappa}\right)' \frac{1}{\tau} B.$$

We can show that it is constant by differentiation. Also we can show that

$$\langle \alpha - p, \alpha - p \rangle$$

is constant by differentiation. So we are done.

Problem 2.4. A curve with more than one Bertrand mates is a cylindrical helix.

Solution. Step 1: Formulate conditions. Let β be a Bertrand mate of α so that we have

$$\beta = \alpha + \lambda N, \qquad N_{\beta} = \pm N,$$

where λ is a function not vanishing somewhere and $\{T_{\beta}, N_{\beta}, B_{\beta}\}$ denotes the Frenet-Serret frame of β . We can reformulate the conditions as follows:

$$\langle \beta - \alpha, T \rangle = 0 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle \beta - \alpha, N \rangle = \lambda \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle \beta - \alpha, B \rangle = 0$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\langle T_{\beta}, T \rangle = ? \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle T_{\beta}, N \rangle = 0 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle T_{\beta}, B \rangle = ?$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\langle N_{\beta}, T \rangle = 0 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle N_{\beta}, N \rangle = \pm 1 \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle N_{\beta}, B \rangle = 0.$$

Note that β is not unit speed.

Step 2: Collect information. Differentiate $\langle \beta - \alpha, N \rangle = \lambda$ to get

$$\lambda = \text{const} \neq 0.$$

Differentiate $\langle \beta - \alpha, T \rangle = 0$ and $\langle \beta - \alpha, B \rangle = 0$ to get

$$\langle T_{\beta}, T \rangle = \frac{1 - \lambda \kappa}{\|\beta'\|}, \qquad \langle T_{\beta}, B \rangle = \frac{\lambda \tau}{\|\beta'\|}.$$

Differentiate $\langle T_{\beta}, T \rangle$ and $\langle T_{\beta}, B \rangle$ to get

$$\frac{1 - \lambda \kappa}{\|\beta'\|} = \text{const}, \qquad \frac{\lambda \tau}{\|\beta'\|} = \text{const}.$$

Thus, there exists a constant μ such that

$$1 - \lambda \kappa = \mu \lambda \tau$$

if α is not planar so that $\tau \neq 0$.

We have shown that the torsion is either always zero or never zero at every point: $\lambda \tau / \|\beta'\| = \text{const.}$ The problem can be solved by dividing the cases, but in this solution we give only for the case that α is not planar; the other hand is easy.

Step 3: Complete proof. If

$$\beta_1 = \alpha + \lambda_1 N, \qquad \beta_2 = \alpha + \lambda_2 N$$

are different Bertrand mates of α with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, then (κ, τ) solves a two-dimensional linear system

$$\begin{cases} \kappa + \mu_1 \tau = \lambda_1^{-1}, \\ \kappa + \mu_2 \tau = \lambda_2^{-1}. \end{cases}$$

It is nonsingular since $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ implies $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$, which means we can represent κ and τ in terms of constants $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \mu_1$, and μ_2 . Therefore, κ and τ are constant.

Here is a well-prepared problem set for exercises.

Problem 2.5 (Plane curves). Let α be a nondegenerate curve in \mathbb{R}^3 . TFAE:

- (1) the curve α lies on a plane,
- (2) $\tau = 0$,
- (3) the osculating plane constains a fixed point.

Problem 2.6 (Helices). Let α be a nondegenerate curve in \mathbb{R}^3 . TFAE:

- (1) the curve α is a helix,
- (2) $\tau/\kappa = \text{const}$,
- (3) normal lines are parallel to a plane.

Problem 2.7 (Sphere curves). Let α be a nondegenerate curve in \mathbb{R}^3 . TFAE:

- (1) the curve α lies on a sphere,
- (2) $(1/\kappa)^2 + ((1/\kappa)'/\tau)^2 = \text{const},$
- (3) $\tau/\kappa = (\kappa'/\tau\kappa^2)'$,
- (4) normal planes contain a fixed point.

Problem 2.8 (Bertrand mates). Let α be a nondegenerate curve in \mathbb{R}^3 . TFAE:

- (1) the curve α has a Bertrand mate,
- (2) there are two constants $\lambda \neq 0$, μ such that $1/\lambda = \kappa + \mu \tau$.

3. Local theory of surfaces

3.1. Theory.

3.1.1. Reparametrization. The inner product on T_pS induced from the standard inner product of \mathbb{R}^3 can be represented as a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

in the basis $\{(1,0,0),(0,1,0),(0,0,1)\}\subset \mathbb{R}^3$, but also as a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_y \rangle \\ \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_x \rangle & \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_y \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

in the basis $\{\alpha_x, \alpha_y\} \subset T_p S$.

Definition 3.1. Let α be a regular surface.

$$E := \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_x \rangle, \qquad F := \langle \alpha_x, \alpha_y \rangle, \qquad G := \langle \alpha_y, \alpha_y \rangle.$$

3.1.2. Gauss map.

Definition 3.2. Let α be a regular surface. The Gauss map or normal unit vector $\nu: U \to \mathbb{R}^3$ is a $T_p\mathbb{R}^3$ -valued vector field on α defined by:

$$\nu(x,y) := \frac{\alpha_x \times \alpha_y}{\|\alpha_x \times \alpha_y\|}(x,y).$$

The set of vector fields $\{\alpha_x, \alpha_y, \nu\}$ form a basis of $T_p \mathbb{R}^3$ at each point p on α . The Gauss map is uniquely determined up to sign as α changes.

3.1.3. Differentiation of tangent vectors.

Definition 3.3. Let α be a regular surface. The *Christoffel symbols* refer to eight scalar functions $\{\Gamma_{ij}^k\}_{i,j,k=1}^2$ on α defined by

$$\begin{split} \partial_x \alpha_x &= \alpha_{xx} =: \Gamma^1_{11} \alpha_x + \Gamma^2_{11} \alpha_y + L \nu, \\ \partial_x \alpha_y &= \alpha_{xy} =: \Gamma^1_{12} \alpha_x + \Gamma^2_{12} \alpha_y + M \nu = \\ \partial_y \alpha_x &= \alpha_{yx} =: \Gamma^1_{21} \alpha_x + \Gamma^2_{21} \alpha_y + M \nu, \\ \partial_y \alpha_y &= \alpha_{yy} =: \Gamma^1_{22} \alpha_x + \Gamma^2_{22} \alpha_y + N \nu. \end{split}$$

The functions L, M, and N are not Christoffel symbols, and will be defined again later. The Christoffel symbols do depend on α . 3.1.4. Differentiation of normal vector.