

## 6. EXAMPLES

In this section, we deal with the mathematics of Examples 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 11.

**Example 2.** *The visibility of surfaces of revolution*

A surface of revolution is generated by rotating a planar curve  $\gamma$  about an axis in the plane of the curve. We may assume that  $\gamma$  is in the  $x^1x^3$  plane and has a parametric representation

$$\vec{x}(t) = (r(t), 0, h(t)) \quad (t \in I \subset \mathbb{R}) \text{ where } r(t) > 0 \text{ on } I,$$

and that the axis of rotation is the  $x^3$ -axis. Furthermore we assume

$$(r'(u^1))^2 + (h'(u^1))^2 \neq 0 \text{ on } I, \quad (6.1)$$

which is a natural assumption connected with the smoothness of  $\gamma$ . We put  $u^1 = t$  and write  $u^2$  for the angle of rotation. Then the surface of rotation  $RS(\gamma)$  generated by  $\gamma$  in this way has a parametric representation

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}(u^i) &= (r(u^1) \cos u^2, r(u^1) \sin u^2, h(u^1)) \\ & \quad ((u^1, u^2) \in D = I \times (0, 2\pi)) \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

Putting  $\vec{u} = \vec{u}(u^2) = (\cos u^2, \sin u^2, 0)$  and  $\vec{e}^3 = (0, 0, 1)$ , we may write (6.2) as

$$\vec{x}(u^i) = r(u^1)\vec{u} + h(u^1)\vec{e}^3 \quad ((u^1, u^2) \in D). \quad (6.3)$$

First we determine the intersections of the surface of rotation  $RS(\gamma)$  with a straight line  $g$  given by a parametric representation

$$\vec{y}(t) = \vec{p} + t\vec{v} \quad (t \in \mathbb{R}) \quad (6.4)$$

where  $\vec{p} = (p^1, p^2, p^3)$  and  $\vec{v} = (v^1, v^2, v^3)$ , that is we find  $(u^1, u^2) \in D$  and  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  with

$$r(u^1)\vec{u} + h(u^1)\vec{e}^3 - (\vec{p} + t\vec{v}) = \vec{0}. \quad (6.5)$$

This implies

$$h(u^1) - (p^3 + tv^3) = 0. \quad (6.6)$$

First we consider the case  $v^3 \neq 0$  when  $g$  is not orthogonal to the axis of rotation of  $RS(\gamma)$ . Then (6.6) implies

$$t = \frac{h(u^1) - p^3}{v^3}. \quad (6.7)$$

We put

$$\vec{a} = \vec{p} - \frac{p^3}{v^3}\vec{v} \text{ and } \vec{b} = \frac{1}{v^3}\vec{v}$$

and, taking the square in (6.5) and substituting (6.7), we obtain

$$r^2(u^1) + h^2(u^1) = \left( \vec{p} - \frac{p^3}{v^3} \vec{v} + \frac{h(u^1)}{v^3} \vec{v} \right)^2 = (\vec{a} + h(u^1)\vec{b})^2.$$

Hence we must find the zeros  $u^1 \in I$  of

$$f(u^1) = r^2(u^1) + h^2(u^1) - (\vec{a} + h(u^1)\vec{b})^2 = 0. \quad (6.8)$$

Using the zeros  $u_0^1$  of (6.8), we determine the values  $t_0 = t(u_0^1)$  in (6.7) and finally the values  $u_0^2 \in (0, 2\pi)$  from

$$\cos u_0^2 = \frac{p^1 + t_0 v^1}{r(u_0^1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin u_0^2 = \frac{p^2 + t_0 v^2}{r(u_0^1)}. \quad (6.9)$$

Now a point  $P \in RS(\gamma)$  is invisible if and only if, with  $\vec{p} = \vec{OP}$  and  $\vec{v} = \vec{PC}$ , there is a solution  $u_0^1 \in I$  of (6.8) with corresponding  $t_0 > 0$  from (6.7) and  $u_0^2 \in (0, 2\pi)$  from (6.9).

Now we consider the case  $v^3 = 0$  when the straight line  $g$  is orthogonal to the axis of rotation of  $RS(\gamma)$ . Then (6.6) implies

$$f(u^1) = h(u^1) - p^3 = 0. \quad (6.10)$$

We determine the zeros  $u_0^1 \in I$  of (6.10). For each  $u_0^2$  there are at most two intersections with the corresponding parallel, that is with the  $u^2$  line corresponding to  $u_0^1$ . The corresponding values  $t_0 = t(u_0^1)$  are the solutions of

$$t^2 \vec{v}^2 + 2t \vec{p} \bullet \vec{v} + \vec{p}^2 - (r^2(u_0^1) + h^2(u_0^1)) = 0. \quad (6.11)$$

Finally we have to determine the values  $u_0^2$  from (6.9). Now a point  $P \in RS(\gamma)$  is invisible if and only if, with  $\vec{p} = \vec{OP}$  and  $\vec{v} = \vec{PC}$ , there is a solution  $u_0^1 \in I$  of (6.10) with corresponding  $t_0 > 0$  from (6.11) and  $u_0^2 \in (0, 2\pi)$  from (6.9). We observe, that if  $P$  is a point of the surface of revolution then  $\vec{p}^2 = r^2(u_0^1) + h^2(u_0^1)$  and (6.11) reduces to a linear equation.

The algorithm described above is implemented in the procedure *RotST.Visibility*.

The procedure *RotST.NotHidden* is very similar with the single exception that now, in general, the point  $P$  under consideration is not a point of the surface of revolution, and so we need to find the solutions of the quadratic equation (6.11) in the special case  $v_3 = 0$ .

**Example 3.** (a) *The contour of surfaces of revolution*

We consider a surface of revolution  $RS$  with a parametric representation (6.2). Then

$$\vec{n}(u^i) = r(u^1) \left( r'(u^1) \vec{e}^3 - h'(u^1) \vec{u}(u^2) \right).$$

So condition (2) for  $P \in RS$  with position vector  $\vec{OP} = \vec{x}(u^i)$  to be a contour point is

$$-r(u^1)h'(u^1) + h(u^1)r'(u^1) - r'(u^1)\vec{c} \bullet \vec{e}^3 + h'(u^1)\vec{c} \bullet \vec{u}(u^2) = 0, \quad (6.12)$$

since  $r(u^1) \neq 0$ . Taking into account the symmetry of rotation, we may assume  $\vec{c} = \|\vec{c}\|(\cos \Theta, 0, \sin \Theta)$  with  $\|\vec{c}\| > 0$  and  $\Theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ .

First we study the case  $\vec{c} \bullet \vec{u}(u^2) = 0$  when the centre of projection is on the axis of rotation. Then (6.12) yields

$$g_1(u^1) = r(u^1)h'(u^1) - r'(u^1)(h(u^1) - \vec{c} \bullet \vec{e}^3) = 0. \quad (6.13)$$

Contour lines are the parallels that correspond to the solutions  $u_0^1 \in I$  of (6.13).

Now we consider the case  $\vec{c} \bullet \vec{u}(u^2) \neq 0$  when the centre of projection is not on the axis of rotation. First we determine the zeros  $u_0^1 \in I$  of

$$g_2(u^1) = h'(u^1) = 0. \quad (6.14)$$

Since  $r'(u_0^1) \neq 0$  by the condition in (6.1), it follows from (6.12) that

$$h(u_0^1) = \vec{c} \bullet \vec{e}^3. \quad (6.15)$$

Therefore each parallel corresponding to a solution  $u_0^1 \in I$  of both (6.14) and (6.15) is a contour line. Now we consider the interval  $I$  without the solutions of (6.14). By the choice of  $\vec{c}$ , the condition in (6.12) is equivalent with

$$h'(u^1)\|\vec{c}\| \cos \Theta \cos u^2 = r(u^1)h'(u^1) + r'(u^1) \left( \|\vec{c}\| \sin \Theta - h(u^1) \right).$$

Since  $\vec{c} \bullet \vec{u}^2 \neq 0$  implies  $\cos \Theta \neq 0$ , the last condition is equivalent with

$$\cos(u^2) = a(u^1) = \frac{r'(u^1) (\|\vec{c}\| \sin \Theta - h(u^1)) + r(u^1)h'(u^1)}{h'(u^1)\|\vec{c}\| \cos \Theta} \quad (6.16)$$

From (6.16) we can determine  $u^2(u^1)$  for those values  $u^1 \in I$  for which  $|a(u^1)| \leq 1$ .

(b) *Lines of intersection of planes and surfaces of revolution*

If  $E$  is a plane with normal vector  $\vec{N}$  and  $P$  a point in  $E$  then the intersection of  $E$  with the surface of revolution  $RS$  is given by

$$\left( (r(u^1) \cos u^2, r(u^1) \sin u^2, h(u^1)) - \vec{OP} \right) \bullet \vec{N} = 0,$$

by (3). In view of the symmetry of rotation, we may assume that  $n^2 = 0$  for the second component of the vector  $\vec{N}$ . Putting  $a_0 = \vec{OP} \bullet \vec{N}$ , we conclude

$$n^1 r(u^1) \cos u^2 + n^3 h(u^1) - a_0 = 0. \quad (6.17)$$

First we consider the case when  $g_2(u^1) = n^1 r(u^1) = 0$ . Then  $\vec{N}$  is parallel to the axis of rotation, since  $r(u^1) \neq 0$ . The lines of intersection are the parallels corresponding to the values  $u_0^1$  that are the zeros of

$$g_1(u^1) = n^3 h(u^1) - a_0 = 0.$$

Otherwise, if  $g_2(u^1) = 0$  then we can solve (6.17) for

$$\cos u^1 = -\frac{g_1(u^1)}{g_2(u^1)} \quad (6.18)$$

and obtain  $u^2(u^1)$  for those  $u^1 \in I$  for which

$$\left| \frac{g_1(u^1)}{g_2(u^1)} \right| \leq 1.$$

(c) *Lines of intersection of surfaces of revolution*

Let  $RS(\gamma)$  and  $RS(\gamma^*)$  be surfaces of revolution generated by the smooth curves  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma^*$  which are given by the parametric representations  $(r(t), 0, h(t))$  ( $t \in I$ ) and  $(r^*(t^*), 0, h^*(t^*))$  ( $t^* \in I^*$ ) with  $r(t) > 0$  on  $I$ ,  $r^*(t^*) > 0$  on  $I^*$ ,

$$(r'(t))^2 + (h'(t))^2 > 0 \text{ on } I \text{ and } (r'^*(t^*))^2 + (h'^*(t^*))^2 > 0 \text{ on } I^*. \quad (6.19)$$

For the lines of intersection of  $RS(\gamma)$  and  $RS(\gamma^*)$  we must have

$$r(u^1) \cos u^2 = r^*(u^{*1}) \cos u^{*2}, \quad r(u^1) \sin u^2 = r^*(u^{*1}) \sin u^{*2}$$

and

$$h(u^1) = h^*(u^{*1}) \text{ for all } u^1, u^{*1} \in I \cap I^* \text{ and } u^2, u^{*2} \in (0, 2\pi).$$

Squaring the first two equations and adding them yields  $(r(u^1))^2 = (r^*(u^{*1}))^2$ , hence  $r(u^1) = r^*(u^{*1})$ , since  $r(u^1), r^*(u^{*1}) > 0$  on  $I \cap I^*$ , and then also  $u^2 = u^{*2}$  from the first two equations, since the map  $v \mapsto (\cos v, \sin v)$  is one to one on  $(0, 2\pi)$ . Furthermore it follows from the conditions in (6.19) that at every point  $u^1 \in I$ , at least one of

the functions  $r'$  or  $h'$  is unequal to zero. We assume that  $r'(u_0^1) \neq 0$  for some  $u_0 \in I$ . By the continuity of  $r'$  there is a neighbourhood  $N_0 = N(u_0^1) \subset I$  such that  $r'$  is unequal to zero on  $N_0$ , hence the inverse function  $\phi$  of  $r$  exists on  $N_0$ . Thus  $u^1 = \phi(r^*(u^{*1}))$  on  $N_0$ , and so the line of intersection is locally given by the zeros of the function

$$f(u^{*1}) = h(\phi(r^*(u^{*1}))) - h^*(u^*) \text{ on the set } \phi(N_0) \cap I^*.$$

The other cases are treated in exactly the same way.

**Example 4.** *Some algebraic curves*

An important class of two-dimensional or *planar* curves is that of algebraic curves of order  $n$ , given by equations, that is the class

$$\mathcal{C}_n = \left( X = (x^1, y^1) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \sum_{0 \leq k+m \leq n} a_{km} (x^1)^k (x^2)^m = 0 \ (a_{km} \in \mathbb{R}) \right).$$

The most familiar algebraic curves are the *conic sections*, that is the curves in the family  $\mathcal{C}_2$ .

As a first example, we consider *Cassini curves*; they are curves in  $\mathcal{C}_4$  and can geometrically be defined as the set of all points for which the product of the distances from two given points is constant. If the product has the value  $a^2$  and the distance between the given two points is equal to  $2c$ , then the corresponding Cassini curve is given by the equation

$$f(x^1, x^2; a, c) = \left( (x^1)^2 + (x^2)^2 \right)^2 - 2c^2 (x^2 - y^2)^2 + c^4 - a^4 = 0.$$

Introducing polar coordinates  $x^1 = \rho \cos \phi$  and  $x^2 = \rho \sin \phi$ , we obtain

$$\rho^4 - 2c^2 \rho^2 \cos 2\phi + c^4 - a^4 = 0.$$

A *lemniscate* is the special case  $a = c$  of a Cassini curve.

Now we consider two fifth order algebraic curves, namely *double egg lines* and *rosettes*. A double egg line has an application in the problem of doubling a cube. It has the following geometric definition. Let  $S_r(0)$  be the circle line of radius  $r > 0$  and centred at the origin, and  $A$  and  $B$  be distinct points on  $S_r(0)$ . Furthermore let  $F$  be the intersection of the straight line  $\overline{OA}$  with the straight line through  $B$  which is orthogonal to  $\overline{OA}$  and  $P$  be the intersection of the the straight line  $\overline{OB}$  with the line through  $F$  which is orthogonal to  $\overline{OB}$ . If  $B$  moves along the circle line  $C_r(0)$  then a double egg line is the set of all points  $P$  that are constructed in the way just described. Introducing Cartesian coordinates with the  $x^1$  axis along the vector  $\overrightarrow{OA}$ , we obtain

$$f(x^1, x^2; r) = \left( (x^1)^2 + (x^2)^2 \right)^3 - r^2 (x^1)^4 = 0$$

as an equation for the double egg line, or, in polar coordinates

$$\rho = r \cos^2 \phi.$$

This yields a parametric representation

$$\vec{x}(t) = r(\cos^3(t), \cos^2(t) \sin(t)) \quad (t \in [0, 2\pi]).$$

A rosette has the following geometric definition. Let  $\overline{AB}$  be a straight line segment of length  $a$  the end points of which move along the axes of a Cartesian coordinate system with its centre in the origin  $O$ . If  $P$  is the intersection of  $\overline{AB}$  with the straight line through  $O$  which is orthogonal to  $\overline{AB}$  then a rosette is the set of all points  $P$  which are constructed in the way just described. A rosette is given by the equation

$$f(x^1, x^2; a) = \left( (x^1)^2 + (x^2)^2 \right)^3 - a^2 (x^1 x^2)^2 = 0;$$

a parametric representation is

$$\vec{x}(t) = \frac{a}{2} \sin 2t (\cos t, \sin t) \quad (t \in [0, 2\pi]).$$

**Example 5.** *The envelope of a family of ellipses*

Let  $\alpha > 0$  be fixed. We consider the family  $\Gamma^\alpha = \{\gamma_c : c \in (0, 1)\}$  of curves  $\gamma_c$  given by the equations

$$\frac{|x^1|^\alpha}{c^\alpha} + \frac{|x^2|^\alpha}{(1-c)^\alpha} - 1 = 0. \quad (6.20)$$

Then (7) becomes

$$\frac{|x^1|^\alpha}{c^{\alpha+1}} - \frac{|x^2|^\alpha}{(1-c)^{\alpha+1}} = 0, \quad (6.21)$$

and (6.20) and (6.21) yield

$$|x^2|^\alpha = (1-c)^\alpha - \frac{(1-c)^\alpha}{c^\alpha} |x^1|^\alpha \quad (6.22)$$

and

$$|x^1|^\alpha = \frac{c^{\alpha+1}}{(1-c)^{\alpha+1}} |x^2|^\alpha. \quad (6.23)$$

Substituting (6.22) in (6.23) and (6.23) in (6.22), we obtain

$$|x^1|^\alpha = c^{\alpha+1} \quad \text{and} \quad |x^2|^\alpha = (1-c)^{\alpha+1},$$

or, putting  $\beta = \alpha/(\alpha + 1)$

$$|x^1|^\beta + |x^2|^\beta - 1 = 0.$$

In the special case  $\alpha = 2$ ,  $\Gamma^2$  is a family of ellipses and its envelope is the astroid given by the equation

$$|x^1|^{2/3} + |x^2|^{2/3} - 1 = 0.$$

**Example 6.** *Orthogonal trajectories of generalized circle lines*

Let  $I \subset (0, \infty)$   $\alpha > 0$  and  $\Gamma^\alpha$  be the family of all curves given by the equations

$$f(x^1, x^2) = |x^1|^\alpha + |x^2|^\alpha = c^\alpha.$$

In the special case of  $\alpha = 2$ , the curves  $\gamma_c \in \Gamma^2$  are circle lines of radius  $c$ , centred at the origin. For  $\alpha \geq 1$ , the curves in  $\Gamma^\alpha$  are the boundaries of the balls of radius  $c$ , centred at the origin, with respect to the norm  $\|\cdot\|_\alpha$  defined by

$$\|(x^1, x^2)\|_\alpha = (|x^1|^\alpha + |x^2|^\alpha)^{1/\alpha}.$$

The differential equation (8) for the orthogonal trajectories becomes

$$\alpha \operatorname{sgn}(x^1) |x^1|^{\alpha-1} \frac{dx^2}{dx^1} = \alpha \operatorname{sgn}(x^2) |x^2|^{\alpha-1} \text{ for } x^1, x^2 \neq 0,$$

and it follows that

$$\int \operatorname{sgn}(x^1) |x^1|^{-\alpha} dx^1 = \int \operatorname{sgn}(x^2) |x^2|^{-\alpha} dx^2$$

with solutions

$$\log |x^1| = \log |x^2| + \delta \text{ for } \alpha = 2$$

and

$$|x^1|^{2-\alpha} = |x^2|^{2-\alpha} + \delta \text{ for } \alpha \neq 2$$

where  $\delta$  is a constant of integration. Thus the orthogonal trajectories of the family  $\Gamma^2$  of circle lines are the rays given by

$$|x^2| = k|x^1| \quad (k \in (0, \infty))$$

and, for  $\alpha \neq 2$ , the curves  $\gamma_k^{\alpha,1}$  given by the equations

$$f(x^1, x^2; k, \alpha) = |x^1|^{2-\alpha} - |x^2|^{2-\alpha} + k = 0 \quad (k \in \mathbb{R}).$$

**Example 11.** *Lines of constant slope on surfaces of revolution*

We determine all curves on surfaces of revolution that have a constant angle  $\beta \in [0, \pi)$  with the axis of rotation, that is with the vector  $\vec{e}^3$ .

First, we recall a few well-known notations from the theory of curves and surfaces. Let  $S$  be a surface with a parametric representation  $\vec{x}(u^i)$  of class  $C^r$  ( $r \geq 1$ ) on some domain  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ . Then the functions  $g_{ik} : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with

$$g_{ik} = \vec{x}_i \bullet \vec{x}_k \quad (i, k = 1, 2) \text{ where } \vec{x}_k = \frac{\partial \vec{x}}{\partial u^k}$$

are called the *first fundamental coefficients of  $S$* . If  $\gamma$  is a curve on  $S$  with a parametric representation  $\vec{x}(s) = \vec{x}(u^i(s))$  where  $s$  is the arc length along  $\gamma$ , then  $\|\dot{\vec{x}}(s)\| = 1$  where the dot denotes differentiation with respect to  $s$ . We remark that

$$\|\dot{\vec{x}}(s)\| = \vec{x}_i \bullet \vec{x}_k \dot{u}^i \dot{u}^k = g_{ik} \dot{u}^i \dot{u}^k$$

where the sum is taken with respect to  $i, k = 1, 2$ .

Let the surface of revolution  $RS$  be given by the parametric representation (6.2). Then its first fundamental coefficients are given by

$$g_{11} = g_{11}(u^1) = (r'(u^1))^2 + (h'(u^1))^2, \quad g_{12} = 0$$

and

$$g_{22} = g_{22}(u^1) = r^2(u^1).$$

Let  $\vec{x}(u^i(s))$  be the parametric of a curve  $\gamma$  on  $RS$  where  $s$  denotes the arc length along  $\gamma$ . If  $\gamma$  is to be a line of constant slope with the angle  $\beta$  to the  $x^3$  axis, then the equation

$$\dot{\vec{x}} \bullet \vec{e}^3 = h'(u^1) \dot{u}^1 = \cos \beta \quad (6.24)$$

must hold. First we consider the case  $\beta \neq \pi/2$ . Then solutions of (6.24) exist only in subintervals  $J \subset I$  for which  $h'(u^1) \neq 0$ . Since  $\|\dot{\vec{x}}\| = 1$  and

$$\frac{1}{(\dot{u}^1)^2} = \frac{(h'(u^1))^2}{\cos^2 \beta},$$

it follows that

$$\left(\frac{du^2}{du^1}\right)^2 = \frac{(h'(u^1))^2 / \cos^2 \beta - g_{11}(u^1)}{g_{22}(u^1)},$$

hence

$$\frac{du^2}{du^1} = \frac{1}{|\cos \beta|} \sqrt{\frac{(h'(u^1))^2 - g_{11}(u^1) \cos^2 \beta}{g_{22}(u^1)}}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} u^2(u^1) &= \frac{1}{|\cos \beta|} \int \sqrt{\frac{(h'(u^1))^2 - g_{11}(u^1) \cos^2 \beta}{g_{22}(u^1)}} du^1 \\ &= \int \frac{\sqrt{(h'(u^1))^2 \tan^2 \beta - (r'(u^1))^2}}{r(u^2)} du^1 \end{aligned}$$

in those subintervals  $J$  of  $I$  in which

$$|r'(u^1)| \leq |\tan \beta \cdot h'(u^1)|.$$