### ON HELICES IN THE EUCLIDEAN n-SPACE

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#### 1. Introduction.

A *helix* in a Euclidean *n*-space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a curve for which the tangents are inclined at a constant angle  $v + \frac{1}{2}\pi$  to a line m. We call m and any line parallel to m a line of reference for the helix. The lines of reference may be determined as lines parallel to a non-zero vector e which is called a *vector of reference* for the curve.

In section 2 we show some properties of a helix  $\gamma$ , of its projection  $\gamma_1$  on a hyperplane perpendicular to the lines of reference, and of its involutes. The properties are generalizations of well-known theorems on helices in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Section 3 contains a construction of a helix  $\gamma$  with given angle of inclination and whose projection on a hyperplane is a given curve  $\gamma_1$ . We prove that if  $\gamma_1$  itself is a helix then the constructed helix  $\gamma$  will be situated in another hyperplane, and  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_1$  will be affinely connected. If  $\gamma_1$  is not a helix, the curve  $\gamma$  does not lie in any (proper) subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Finally we state in section 4 a theorem on helices in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , for which there exist m linearly independent vectors of reference.

## 2. Projections and involutes of a helix.

Let  $\gamma$  denote a regular curve in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  given by its parametric equation  $\overrightarrow{OP} = r(s)$ ,  $s \in I$ , with the unit tangent vector r'(s) = t, and let e denote a non-zero vector. If the equation

$$t(s) \cdot e = c,$$

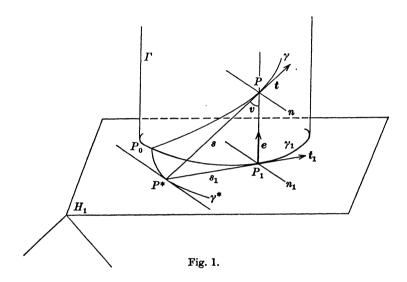
where  $c \neq 0$  is a constant, is valid for any  $s \in I$ , then  $\gamma$  is a *helix* with angle of inclination v determined by  $c = |e| \cos(e, t) = |e| \cos v$ , and with e as a vector of reference.

Let  $H_1$  denote a hyperplane through a point  $P_0$  of  $\gamma$  and perpendicular to the vector e. The projection  $\gamma_1$  of  $\gamma$  on  $H_1$  is the intersection between

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the hyperplane and the projecting cylinder  $\Gamma$ , whose generators are lines of reference for  $\gamma$ . By development of  $\Gamma$  into a plane the generators will be developed into a pencil of parallel lines. The curves  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_1$  are transformed into straight lines, the first one cutting the parallel lines at the angle v, while the second one will be a normal to the pencil. Hence both curves are *geodesics* on  $\Gamma$ . Corresponding arclengths s and  $s_1$  of  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma_1$  are obviously connected by the equation

$$(2.2) s_1 = s \sin v.$$



Let  $\gamma^*$  denote the *involute* of  $\gamma_1$  starting at  $P_0$ . To a point  $P \in \gamma$  corresponds a point  $P_1 \in \gamma_1$  and a point  $P^* \in \gamma^*$  (fig. 1). Since  $P^*P_1$  has the length  $s_1$  of  $P_0P_1$  the equation (2.2) shows that  $P^*P$  has the length s of  $P_0P$ . I.e. the *involute of*  $\gamma_1$  is also involute of the helix  $\gamma$ . This implies that the involutes of a helix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are all lying in hyperplanes orthogonal to the lines of reference. The tangent to  $\gamma^*$  at  $P^*$  is parallel to the principal normal n to  $\gamma$  at P and to the principal normal  $n_1$  to  $\gamma_1$  at  $P_1$ , and it is perpendicular to the tangent plane to  $\Gamma$  along the generator through P and  $P_1$ .

In order to find a relation between the radius of curvature  $\varrho$  of  $\gamma$  at P and  $\varrho_1$  of  $\gamma_1$  at  $P_1$  we remark, that the osculating plane of  $\gamma_1$  at  $P_1$  is the projection of the osculating plane of  $\gamma$  at P. Since the principal normals n and  $n_1$  are parallel, the projection of the osculating circle at P on  $H_1$  is an ellipse with semiaxes a and b, where  $a = \varrho$  and  $b = \varrho \sin v$ . The radius

of curvature for the ellipse at the vertex  $P_1$  is determined by  $b^2/a$ , and the wanted relation is

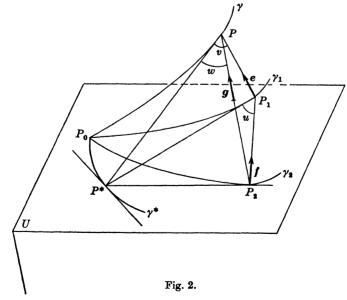
$$\varrho_1 = \varrho \sin^2 v.$$

### 3. Construction of helices.

We shall show how a helix with given angle of inclination v and with given projection  $\gamma_1$  on a hyperplane  $H_1$  may be constructed. Let  $P_0$  be an arbitrary point of  $\gamma_1$ , and let  $s_1$  denote the arclength of  $\gamma_1$  measured from  $P_0$ . From a point  $P_1 = P_1(s_1)$  we draw a vector  $P_1P = s_1$  cot ve, where e is a unit normal vector to  $H_1$  (fig. 1). When  $P_1$  traverses  $\gamma_1$ , the point P traverses a curve  $\gamma$  lying on a cylinder  $\Gamma$  with the normals to  $H_1$  as generators. By development of  $\Gamma$  into a plane  $\gamma$  is transformed into a line which intersects the developed generators at the angle v. Hence, v is the desired helix. The vector v is a vector of reference for v.

For a closer examination of the helix  $\gamma$  we must distinguish between two cases according as  $\gamma_1$  is a helix in  $H_1$  or not.

1°. Let  $\gamma_1$  be a helix in  $H_1$  with a vector f as vector of reference, and let U denote an (n-2)-dimensional subspace of  $H_1$  passing through the point  $P_0$  with f as normal vector. The projection of  $\gamma_1$  on U is called  $\gamma_2$ ,  $P_2$  denotes the projection of the point  $P_1$  and u is the angle of inclination



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of the helix  $\gamma_1$  (fig. 2). The formerly considered involute  $\gamma^*$  of  $\gamma_1$  issuing from  $P_0$  is now lying in the subspace U and is common involute of the three curves  $\gamma$ ,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$ . Let  $P^*$  be the point on  $\gamma^*$  which corresponds to the points P,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . The four points  $P^*$ , P,  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are vertices of a tetrahedron which has a right angle along the edge  $P^*P_1$ , since e is a normal vector to  $H_1$ , and where the angles u and v in the right triangles  $P^*P_2P_1$  and  $P^*P_1P$  have constant values. Consequently, tetrahedrons corresponding to different positions of  $P^*$  are similar.

When  $P^*$  traverses  $\gamma^*$ , the lines  $P^*P$ ,  $P^*P_1$  and  $P^*P_2$  will envelope the evolutes  $\gamma$ ,  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  of  $\gamma^*$ . The edges  $P_2P_1$  and  $P_1P$  keep their directions determined by the vectors  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{e}$ , and this implies that also the third edge  $P_2P$  has a constant direction, fixed by a vector  $\mathbf{g}$ . Since both  $\mathbf{e}$  and  $\mathbf{f}$  are normal vectors to U the vector  $\mathbf{g}$  will be a normal vector to U, and  $\gamma$  is then lying in the hyperplane H, which contains the subspace U and which in the pencil of hyperplanes with basis U is determined by the vector  $\mathbf{g}$ . In this hyperplane H the curve  $\gamma_2$  is the projection of  $\gamma$  on U.

Thus we have shown that if  $\gamma_1$  is a helix in  $H_1$  then the constructed helix  $\gamma$  is lying in a hyperplane H. Since  $\gamma_1$  is the projection of  $\gamma$  there is an affine connection between the two curves. The two projecting cylinders with basis  $\gamma_2$  through  $\gamma$  or  $\gamma_1$  are congruent and may be transformed into each other by rotations about the subspace U.

We can find the angle of inclination w of the helix  $\gamma$  with respect to the lines of reference determined by the vector g. The tetrahedron  $P*PP_1P_2$  is lying in a space of three dimensions. In this space we consider a sphere with center P\* intersecting the faces of the tetrahedron with common vertex P\* in a right spherical triangle with legs  $\frac{1}{2}\pi - u$  and  $\frac{1}{2}\pi - v$  and with hypotenuse  $\frac{1}{2}\pi - w$ . Hence the angle w is determined by the equation

$$\sin w = \sin u \sin v.$$

2°. Now we assume that  $\gamma_1$  is not a helix and in addition that  $\gamma_1$  does not lie in a subspace of  $H_1$ . We will show that in this case the constructed helix  $\gamma$  does not lie in a hyperplane.

If  $\gamma$  did lie in a hyperplane H with normal vector e' (linearly independent of e) let  $t = t(s_1)$  as above denote the unit tangent vector to  $\gamma$ . Then the equation

$$(3.1) t \cdot e' = 0$$

is satisfied. Let k and k' denote arbitrary constants. Then (2.1) and (3.1) give

$$\mathbf{t} \cdot (k\mathbf{e} + k'\mathbf{e}') = k\mathbf{c}.$$

Now the constants k and k' may be chosen such that ke + k'e' is a vector f perpendicular to e, and we get

$$\mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{f} = c_1,$$

where  $c_1$  is a new constant.

Since e is assumed to be a unit vector we have  $t \cdot e = \cos v$ , and we find between the linearly dependent vectors e, t and the unit tangent vector  $t_1$  to  $\gamma_1$  (fig. 1) the relation

$$\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{e} \cos v + \mathbf{t}_1 \sin v.$$

By means of (3.3) we now find

$$\mathbf{t_1} \cdot \mathbf{f} = c_2 ,$$

where  $c_2$  is a constant. Since f is perpendicular to e it belongs to the vector space of  $H_1$ . The equation (3.5) shows that according to  $c_2 \neq 0$  or  $c_2 = 0$  the curve  $\gamma_1$  is a helix in  $H_1$  or lying in a subspace of  $H_1$ , contrary to our assumption on  $\gamma_1$ . Hence  $\gamma$  does not lie in a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

# 4. Helices with m linearly independent vectors of reference.

In section 3.1° we have seen that the constructed helix is lying in a hyperplane and has two linearly independent vectors of reference e and g. In this section we study the general case where a helix  $\gamma$ , given as above by  $\overrightarrow{OP} = r(s)$ , has m linearly independent vectors of reference  $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_m$ , corresponding to the m equations

(4.1) 
$$t \cdot e_i = c_i \neq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., m$$
.

For m=1, the curve  $\gamma$  is called an ordinary helix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_m$  denote arbitrary constants we find

$$\mathbf{t} \cdot \sum k_i \mathbf{e}_i = \sum k_i c_i.$$

This equation shows that any vector in the vector space  $V = V^m$  which is spanned by the vectors  $e_i$ , for which  $\sum k_i c_i \neq 0$ , is a vector of reference for  $\gamma$ . The equation

(4.3) 
$$\sum k_i c_i = k_1 c_1 + k_2 c_2 + \ldots + k_m c_m = 0$$

has m-1 linearly independent solutions  $(k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_m)$  corresponding to m-1 linearly independent vectors  $e'_1, e'_2, \ldots, e'_{m-1}$  spanning a vector space of m-1 dimensions  $V' \subset V$ . For any of these vectors an equation

$$\mathbf{t}(s) \cdot \mathbf{e'}_{j} = 0$$

is valid. Integration of (4.4) shows that the curve  $\gamma$  is lying in a hyperplane with  $e'_j$  as normal vector. Hence  $\gamma$  is lying in the intersection of m-1 linearly independent hyperplanes, i.e. in a subspace R' of n-m+1 dimensions, with V' as normal vector space.

The vector space V contains a one-dimensional vector space kv, the vectors of which are orthogonal to V' and consequently lying in the vector space that belongs to R'. Hence  $\gamma$  is an ordinary helix in R' with v as a vector of reference.

Thus any helix in  $R^n$  may be regarded as an ordinary helix in a subspace of  $R^n$ . The number of linearly independent vectors of reference determines the dimension of the subspace, in which the ordinary helix is lying.

The helix  $\gamma$  which we have considered in section 3.1° is not an ordinary helix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , but it is ordinary in some subspace R' of n-m+1 dimensions where  $m \geq 2$ . The helix  $\gamma$  examined in section 3.2° does not lie in any subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and consequently it is an ordinary helix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . For this helix  $\gamma$  we have m=1.

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