

The screwing motion, the null system, and the linear complex

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The present exposition can be recommended especially for the purpose of lecturing at technical institutes. I have published its foundations in a treatise on the variation of the positions of rigid systems in volume 6 of *Schlömilch's Zeitschrift für Mathematik und Physik*.

1. A screwing motion is given by its axis C , a translation $d\sigma$ in the direction of C , and a rotation $d\tau$ around C . Let the perpendicular $ac = x$ be dropped from an arbitrary point a in space to C . a will describe a helix in a certain sense whose tangent A at a will define an angle φ with C such that:

$$x = \frac{d\sigma}{d\tau} \cdot \tan \varphi.$$

The *non-zero constant* $d\sigma/d\tau = k$ is called the *parameter of the motion*. A is perpendicular to ca , and is called the *translation ray of the point a*.

If one considers the translation rays of all points of ca then one will see that they define a ruled family of equilateral paraboloids T_0 that has C, ac for its vertex lines and k for its distribution parameter. T_0 is the *translation surface of the lines ac*.

If a , with a translation ray A , were subjected to a finite screwing motion then the displaced ray A would remain the translation ray for the displaced point a .

We now draw a plane E through a that is perpendicular to A and call it the *null plane of a*, which we give the notation of ϵ . In this way, any point ϵ of space will be assigned a plane E that goes through it that contains the perpendicular ϵc from ϵ to C that is possible. Conversely, an arbitrary plane E that cuts C – say, at c – will be the null plane of any of its points ϵ . There is a line ca in E that goes through c and is perpendicular to C . From what was just said, ϵ must be on it. If one imagines the translation surface T_0 that belongs to ca then one and only one of its lines that are perpendicular to ca will also be perpendicular to E , and it will then meet E at the point ϵ , for which E will be the null plane, and ϵ will be its *null point*. If E and ϵ are at the basis of the screwing motion then the displaced point ϵ will always remain the null point of the displaced plane E . *The null system consists of the points of space and their null planes.*

The null system is obviously well-defined when the screw axis C is known, along with the translation of any point. Now, if only the translation ray of a were given then

The fact that the locus of ϵ is now a line \mathfrak{G} will easily come to light when one observes that $e c$ describes an equilateral paraboloid when e is assumed to vary on G : This paraboloid has a line \mathfrak{G} that belongs to the same family as C, G in common with the plane that is erected vertically to \mathfrak{G}' , and that will be the desired locus. If one calls the angle of inclination of \mathfrak{G} over the horizontal plane w_0 then one will see that:

$$\frac{\tan w_0}{\tan w_0} = \frac{c''e''}{c''e''} = \frac{x_0}{x_0}.$$

It follows from this that the plane \mathfrak{E}_0 that that goes through \mathfrak{G} and $c_0 e_0$ has its null point at e_0 . If one then bases the argument that was just carried out upon the \mathfrak{G} that was just found, instead of G then that must imply that G is the locus of the null points e of the planes \mathfrak{E} that possibly go through \mathfrak{G} , which is where we started. G, \mathfrak{G} are called *conjugate lines because any axis is a pencil of planes that have their null points in the others.*

Here, however, one must especially take note when $\angle w_0 = 0$, because the paraboloid that facilitates the proof would no longer exist then. As a horizontal plane, E_0 would also have its null point at c_0 now, such that the null system would first be determined when one assigned a null point ϵ_1 to a second plane E_1 that goes through G .

If E_1 meets the axis C at c_1 and if $c_1 \epsilon_1$ is parallel to G then the null point of E_1 must lie anywhere on the line $c_1 \epsilon_1$, so it will also be

arbitrary as long as the null system is not already assumed to be given. If E denotes a third plane through G, ϵ , its null point, and w its inclination angle above the horizontal then one will have:

$$\frac{\tan w}{\tan w_1} = \frac{c \epsilon}{c_1 \epsilon_1}.$$

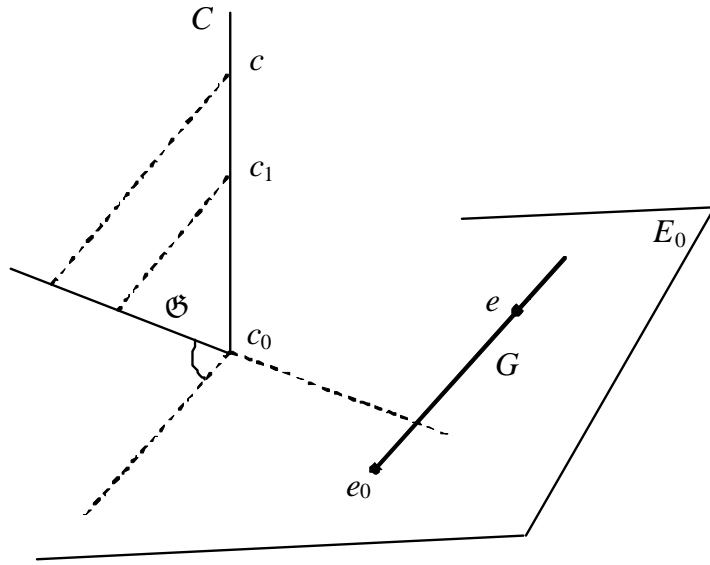


Figure 2.

It will then follow that $\frac{c \epsilon}{c_1 \epsilon_1} = \frac{c_0 c}{c_0 c_1}$; i.e., the locus of ϵ is a line \mathfrak{G} that goes through c_0

and is perpendicular to $c_0 e_0$. One will have $\tan \varpi_0 = \frac{c_0 c}{c \epsilon}$ for them, and since $\tan w =$

$$\frac{c_0 c}{e_0 c_0}, \text{ one will have } \frac{\tan \varpi}{\tan w} = \frac{c_0 e_1}{c \epsilon}.$$

One sees from this that e_0 is the null point of the plane \mathfrak{E}_0 that contains \mathfrak{G} , c_0 , e_0 . Finally, if \mathfrak{E} is drawn through \mathfrak{G} arbitrarily, and ϖ is its angle with the horizontal plane

then one will have $\frac{\tan \varpi}{\tan \varpi_0} = \frac{c_0 e}{c_0 e_0}$, as above, if e means the point of intersection of G and

\mathfrak{G} . However, e_0 is the null point of \mathfrak{E}_0 , so e is that of \mathfrak{E} .

3. The foregoing discussion immediately yields these consequences:

a) Two conjugate G , \mathfrak{G} are skew.

b) If the angle between G , C is not $\pi/2$ then the same thing will be true for $\angle \mathfrak{G}$, C , and G , \mathfrak{G} , C will determine an equilateral paraboloid that will have C for its vertex line and $e_0 \epsilon_0$ for the shortest transversal of G , \mathfrak{G} .

c) By contrast, if $\angle G$, $C = \pi/2$ then \mathfrak{G} , C will intersect, and conversely, if G meets the axis C then one must have $\angle \mathfrak{G}$, $C = \pi/2$.

d) If $\angle G$, $\mathfrak{G} = \pi/2$ then G , \mathfrak{G} must be the translation rays of the points e_0 , ϵ_0 , since the null plane of e_0 that goes through \mathfrak{G} will be perpendicular to G . Conversely, if G is the translation ray of e_0 then \mathfrak{G} must be rectangular to G , since \mathfrak{G} will lie in the null plane of e_0 . *The translation rays will then be paired as rectangular conjugates lines.*

e) If G is parallel to C then the translation rays will be parallel to the points of G , so they will also be their null planes; i.e., \mathfrak{G} will be at infinity. This also sheds light upon the fact that the null points to parallel planes are found on lines that are parallel to C . Thus, if two points have parallel translations then their connecting lines C must be parallel.

f) Let E be an arbitrary plane that intersects C , such that its null point ϵ lies at a finite point. Any line G that is thought of as being in E , but not going through ϵ will have a conjugate G that goes through ϵ , but does not lie in E . *It will then follow that the null planes of all points of E will go through ϵ , and all possible planes that go through ϵ will have their null points in E .*

Now, when G is drawn through ϵ , the null planes of its points must all contain G , or else G would have to coincide with its conjugates. The pencil of rays (ϵ) that is present in E consists of such self-conjugate lines – viz., the so-called *complex rays* – and any point in space will be the center of such a pencil of rays.

g) If E is parallel to C then one will draw a G that is rectangular to C in E and consider its conjugate \mathfrak{G} . Any point e on G will have a null plane \mathfrak{E} that goes through \mathfrak{G} . If one then draws a parallel to C through e that lies in E then any point of it must possess a null plane that is parallel to \mathfrak{E} . Thus, an arbitrary line of the plane E will have a conjugate that is parallel to \mathfrak{G} , which will then also run parallel to E . More briefly:

The null point of E is to be thought of as being at infinity in the direction that goes through \mathfrak{G} , and the complex rays that are found in E will all have that direction.

4. The translation surface for the lines G in space.

a) Let G be parallel to C . The parallel translations of the points of G will trace out a plane.

b) Let G be the translation ray of the point e_0 . Its conjugate \mathfrak{G} will, in turn, likewise be the translation ray for the point ϵ_0 , and the plane $\epsilon_0 G$ will be the translation surface of G . Since the translation of a point e that is chosen on G will be perpendicular to the plane that joins \mathfrak{G} with e , *the translation rays that are present in the plane $\epsilon_0 G$ will envelop a parabola* whose focal point will be ϵ_0 . Should any translation whatsoever be in a plane E whose null point is ϵ – say, the point e – then the null plane of e must obviously include the translation ray of ϵ .

c) Let G be either parallel to C , a translation, or a complex ray, and let \mathfrak{G} be its conjugate.

The angle G, \mathfrak{G} is either 0 or $\pi/2$. From a known theorem, since they will be perpendicular to the planes $\mathfrak{G}e$, the translation rays of the points e that are found on G will be *the lines of a common (not equilateral) paraboloid* whose vertex lines are G , and the translation ray will be its axis C at the next-lying point e_0 . For that reason, these two lines cannot define a right angle, since otherwise G, \mathfrak{G} would have to be parallel.

d) Let G be a complex ray. Its translation surface is always an *equilateral* paraboloid. If one then drops the perpendicular ec from any point e to the C then Gc will be the null plane of e . However, the line ec will describe a paraboloid as e varies that will contact the plane Gc at e . If one constructs the normal paraboloid that belongs to G for it then one will obtain the translation surface in question.

Thus, the complex ray can be defined as a line that occurs as the translation surface of an equilateral paraboloid or also as one from which a point has a translation that is perpendicular to it; *any other point on it must then behave similarly* (*).

It is important for the kinetic theory of curvature to stress the difference that exists between a screwing motion and a rotation: For the former, a complex ray will always describe a *skew* element. For the latter, by contrast, it will describe a *planar* one, and the

(*) The property of the change in position of a rigid line that is emphasized here can make the connection between the lines of curvature of parallel surfaces immediately recognizable.

point of intersection of infinitely-close complex rays will yield a point of the rotational axis.

5. The quadratic complex of translation rays.

Let A_1 be the translation ray of the point a_1 . What is the locus of the possible translations A through a_1 , and where does the point a to which they belong lie? *Chasles* first answered this question, and thus took a step that led to the tetrahedral complex by a closely-related generalization. One will arrive at the ray A in a very simple way when one looks for it in the planes E that are drawn through A_1 .

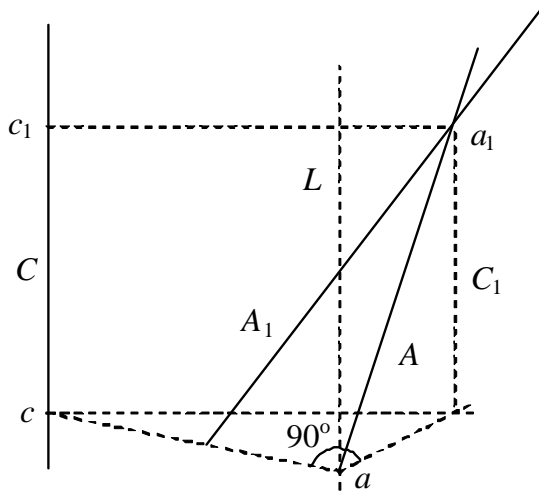


Figure 3.

One has a certain parabola in E to which A_1 is tangent, and which admits a tangent that goes through a_1 ; it will then be A . One now exhibits the shortest transversal ac of A, C , which meets the conjugate to A at right angles, and must therefore be cut by the translations of all points of the line A , and thus those of A_1 , as well. ac is therefore easy to find: It lies in the plane E , and is perpendicular to C . Once one has drawn ac , one drops a perpendicular to it from a_1 whose foot will be a . Now, in order to get the locus of A , one needs only to take a parallel C_1 to C and the plane-pair C_1A, A_1A : Since ca , as well as C , is rectangular to A , and cuts A_1 , moreover, the two aforementioned planes

will define a right angle, and their line of intersection A will generate a second-degree cone with edges A_1, C_1 .

Finally, if one thinks of the line $\mathcal{C} \parallel C$ as going through a then the planes $C\mathcal{C}, C_1\mathcal{C}$ will intersect at right angles along it, and it will follow that \mathcal{C} lives on a cylinder of rotation with the edges C, C_1 . The cylinder and the cone will intersect each other in a space curve of order three – viz., the locus of a . One also immediately confirms that this space curve is found on the translation paraboloid that belongs to the complex ray $a_1 c_1$.

6. The fundamental ways of determining the null system (or linear complex).

The first manner of determination that we shall use is the one for which the axis C is given, along with a point a and its translation ray A .

Second. Two conjugate lines G, \mathfrak{G} are given, and the translation ray A of any point a_1 in their shortest transversal $e_0 e_0$. In fact the translation rays of the three points e_0, e_0, a_1 will thus be known. They will determine an equilateral paraboloid whose one vertex

line lies along e_0, ϵ_0 , while the second one must, in turn, be the axis C . Conversely, if this is assumed then the complex will be established by a_1, A_1 alone.

Third. Two conjugates G, \mathfrak{G} , and the translation ray A of any point a in space can be taken to be the determining data, assuming that A is perpendicular to the transversal t that is possible from a to G, \mathfrak{G} .

The fact that the extra condition must be fulfilled will follow from the fact that the transversal \mathfrak{G} that we spoke of will meet the plane Ga at the null point, and will thus be a complex ray. Moreover, the assumption of a, A comes down to the same thing as when one assigns an arbitrary plane to a null point that is found anywhere – here, at a – on the transversal t to G, \mathfrak{G} that is contained in E . If E then cuts the shortest transversal of G, \mathfrak{G} at a_1 then a_1 will be the null point of the plane E_1 that joins that shortest transversal with a . For that reason, if one determines (from 2) the complex in such a way that the translation of a_1 is perpendicular to E_1 then E will include the null point a , since a will appear as the point of intersection of two complex rays a_1a, t that are found in E .

Fourth. One is given G, \mathfrak{G} as conjugates and a complex ray l that does not cut G, \mathfrak{G} : An arbitrary plane E through l will contain a transversal t over G, \mathfrak{G} . The point of intersection tl would be the null point of E in the possible complex, and (from 3), one can assume this.

Fifth. Three skew complex rays a, b, c are given, along with a plane E and its null point e , if E does not contact the hyperboloid abc . There is a transversal to a, b that lies in E , which will be called G , and a second \mathfrak{G} will contain the point e . If one observes that any complex ray that meets an arbitrary line must also meet its conjugate then one will see that G, \mathfrak{G} will be conjugate in the possible complex; from 4, it will be determined by the ray c . Since any transversal of G, \mathfrak{G} is now a complex ray, the entire ruled family abc will belong to the complex rays, while the guiding family will consist of pair-wise conjugate lines.

We further infer that if four skew a, b, c, d admit two and only two transversals then they will be conjugate in all complexes that contain those four as rays. Any fifth ray e that does not cut G, \mathfrak{G} will suffice to determine that complex.

Now, if five skew lines a, b, c, d, e are present, and no line exists that cuts four of them then there will also be, in general, a single complex that has the five of them as rays: Let the hyperboloids abc, cde be denoted by H_1, H_2 , respectively. A plane that goes through c will contain a transversal G to a, b, c and a transversal Γ to c, d, e . G, Γ intersect at a point 1 that lies in H_1 , as well as H_2 . A line δ of the family cde will go through 1. Either δ will also belong to the family abc or it will not. In the first case, one can take G to be conjugate to any other transversal of $abc\delta$, and d to be determined by a complex that obviously also contains e as a ray, since it will contain three lines $c\delta l$ of the family cde . In the second case, δ will cut the hyperboloid H_1 at perhaps the point 2, in addition to 1. Let the transversal that goes through 2 over abc be \mathfrak{G} . The ray δ must be

present in the complex that corresponds to our requirement, so G , \mathfrak{G} must be conjugate in it. If one assumes this then it will be determined in such a way that it will possess the ray d , as well. However, both families abc , cde will, in turn, be present in it.

It is not by any means trivial to also draw one's attention to the fact that δ contacts the surface H_1 at the point 1. We will be led to consider the complex ray from a new viewpoint by this in itself.

7. The complex ray as the union of two infinitely-close (i.e., neighboring) conjugates.

Let G be an arbitrary line and let \mathfrak{G} be its conjugate, where the shortest transversal of the two has a finite length. If a, b, c, d then mean any four complex rays that are skew to 2 and meet G, \mathfrak{G} , but do not lie hyperboloidally then the hyperboloid abc will be cut by d on G and \mathfrak{G} . By contrast, if G is a complex ray then d must obviously be tangent to that hyperboloid at the point of intersection d, G – i.e., \mathfrak{G} will now be the line of the hyperboloid that is skew to G and lies infinitely close to it. One must infer from this what one means by the phrase “infinitely-neighboring skew lines G, \mathfrak{G} ”: If one thinks of any hyperboloid through G then the line on it that belongs to the same family as G will be its neighbor. Any point e of G is the center of a pencil of rays in whose plane \mathfrak{G} is thought to be; that plane is, in fact, the tangential plane to H at e . Thus, if a hyperboloid osculates H along G then it will likewise contain the neighboring \mathfrak{G} . Since it suffices for this that the hyperboloid possess the same tangential planes at three different points of G , it will easily follow that ∞^3 hyperboloids through G and a well-defined neighbor \mathfrak{G} are possible. If 1, 2, 3 are three points in space then they will determine three planes G_1, G_2, G_3 that contact H at e_1, e_2, e_3 on G . The lines e_11, e_22, e_33 will then determine a new hyperboloid H_1 that will, as a result of the definition, contain the same neighboring line to G to as H does.

Now, the question arises of whether the determination of a complex by two conjugates and a plane with its null point will still be valid when the conjugates G, \mathfrak{G} are neighboring.

We assume that G is a complex ray and the infinitely-close conjugate \mathfrak{G} is known; in other words, one is given the null points of three planes that go through G or also three complex rays a, b, c that go through different points on G . From what was just said, the null points of all points of G will be the associated tangential planes of the hyperboloid abc .

Now, if the arbitrary plane E cuts G at the point e , and \mathfrak{G} is the null plane of e then the null point of E must obviously lie on the line of intersection $E\mathfrak{G}$. If it were chosen arbitrarily here and joined with the point Ga through the line G_1 then the line of intersection \mathfrak{G}_1 of the planes E, Ga would have to belong to G_1 as its conjugate. If one assumes this and assigns the plane Gb to the null point Gb then a complex will be determined (from 3) that is the only one that will satisfy the requirements that were

posed. It is clear that one can also choose a complex ray that is skew to G in order to establish it.

A complex is thus given by four skew rays a, b, c, d , and a fifth one G that is cut by three of them.

If G encounters only two of them a, b then the complex will likewise be determined. In order to see this, one takes the hyperboloid Gcd , so the plane Ga will have the line G_1 in common with it, and its conjugate that goes through the point Ga must be a line \mathfrak{G}_1 that is different from G . If this were assumed then one could make the plane Gb correspond to the point of intersection G, b as a null point, with which, the complex in question would then be found.

Finally, if a alone were cut by G then, from 5, the complex would be established by the rays b, c, d , and the plane $G a$ with its null point Ga . The case that was pointed out in 6, in which the auxiliary line δ is tangent to the hyperboloid H_1 at the point 1, will also find its resolution by our process.
