

The iso-taxicab Gauss curvature

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Abstract. The Iso-Taxicab geometry is a non-Euclidean Geometry. It was defined in 1989 by K.O. Sowell. The aim of this paper is to introduce the Iso-Taxicab Gauss Curvature. We shall prove that in the case of $I-IV$ or $II-V$ orientation $K = 0$. But, in the case of $III-VI$ orientation $K < 0$.

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1 Introduction

The most popular, well known geometry is the Euclidean Geometry. Non-Euclidean geometries are usually difficult. In 1975, E. F. Krause introduced a new geometry, *taxicab geometry*, by using the metric

$$d_T(A, B) = |a_1 - b_1| + |a_2 - b_2|$$

for $A = (a_1, a_2)$, $B = (b_1, b_2)$ in Euclidean plane. The Taxicab Geometry is a non-Euclidean Geometry. It is, on the contrary, very easy to understand and has many beautiful applications in human life [3].

In 1989, using the similar argument, K. O. Sowell has introduced a new non-Euclidean geometry, *Iso-Taxicab geometry*. As it is mentioned by Sowell in [9] that in iso-taxicab geometry three distance functions arise depending upon the relative positions of the points A and B . At the origin three axes occur : the x -axis, the y -axis and the y' -axis. This latter axis, forms an angle of 60° with the x -axis and the y -axis. The three axes separate the plane into six regions called hextants. These hextants will be numbered $I-VI$ in a counterclockwise direction (Figure 1).

Points will still be named by ordered pairs $A = (a_1, a_2)$ of real numbers with respect to the x -axis and y -axis. At any point in the plane three lines may be drawn parallel to the axes. Depending on the position of the points, any two points may have $I-IV$, $II-V$ or $III-VI$ orientation to one another. If, for example, $A \in I$, $B \in IV$, then the line $[AB]$ has $I-IV$ orientation. With this, the distance function for iso-taxicab geometry can be written as:

$$d_I(A, B) = \begin{cases} (i) & |a_1 - b_1| + |a_2 - b_2| & , & I-IV \text{ orientation} \\ (ii) & |a_2 - b_2| & , & II-V \text{ orientation} \\ (iii) & |a_1 - b_1| & , & III-VI \text{ orientation} \end{cases}$$

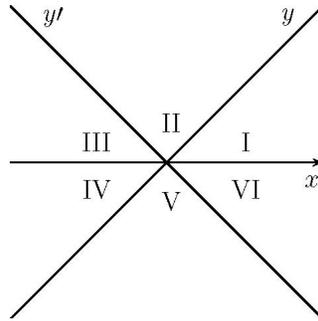


Figure 1:

If the two points lie on a line parallel to the x -axis, then formula (iii) is used; if the two points lie on a line parallel to the y -axis or to the y' -axis, then formula (ii) is used.

The definition of the inner-product and the norm in taxicab geometry is given in [2] and the definition of the inner-product in iso-taxicab geometry is given in [1]. We recall these definitions and then we will define the norm in iso-taxicab geometry.

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The similarities and differences of taxicab and iso-taxicab geometries are also given in [9]. Let's remind some of them :

(1). Because angle measure is not dependent upon the distance function, angles may be measured as they are in both Euclidean and Taxicab Geometry.

(2). Only Euclidean plane geometry has a rotation invariant metric; therefore one should expect properties involving angle measurement to be altered in taxicab geometries. Specifically, the side-angle-side axiom may be assumed in neither iso-taxicab geometry nor in taxicab geometry. Of course, any theorem which relies on the side-angle-side axiom is also invalid in each of these taxicab geometries. Among these are the angle-side-angle theorem and the side-side-side theorem.

(3). The taxicab circle is a square and $\pi_T = 4$. The iso-taxicab circle is hexagon. Because the circumference of iso-taxicab circle is six times the radius, $\pi_I = 3$.

(4). Using an equilateral triangle as a unit of area, we can find areas of figures in iso-taxicab geometry. It is easy to prove that the formula for the area of an iso-taxicab circle is $A = 2 \cdot \pi_I \cdot r^2$ "equi-tri" units, whereas the formula for the area of a taxicab circle is $A = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \pi_T \cdot r^2$ square units.

2 The Iso-taxicab Inner Product

Let's first give the 21 cases that α and β be in.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
α	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>IV</i>
β	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>
	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
α	<i>IV</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>V</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>VI</i>	<i>VI</i>	
β	<i>III</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>	<i>III</i>	<i>IV</i>	<i>V</i>	

Diagram 1.

Definition 1 Let $\alpha = (a_1, a_2)$, $\beta = (b_1, b_2) \in R^2$. On the account of Diagram 1, we define the iso-taxicab inner-product by

$$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle_I = \begin{cases} a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 & , \quad 1, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21 \\ a_2 b_2 & , \quad 2, 5, 14 \\ a_1 b_1 & , \quad 3, 6, 19 \end{cases}$$

3 The Iso-taxicab Gauss Curvature

In this final section, we define the Gauss Curvature of Iso-taxicab plane.

Definition 2 (*The Iso-Taxicab Unit Circle*)

It is clear that the iso-taxicab unit circle is hextant. The formula for iso-taxicab unit circle can be given as

$$C_I = \begin{cases} |x| + |y| = 1 & , \quad I - IV \text{ orientation} \\ |y| = 1 & , \quad II - V \text{ orientation} \\ |x| = 1 & , \quad III - VI \text{ orientation} \end{cases}$$

Considering the circle of radius r , we can define the following polar parametrization of Iso-taxicab plane.

Definition 3 Let (u, v) be any point in R_7^2 . We define the polar parametrization of (u, v) as

$$\varphi(u, v) = \begin{cases} (u \cos v, u \sin v) & , \quad I - IV \text{ orientation} \\ (u \cos v, u) & , \quad II - V \text{ orientation} \\ (-u, u \sin v) & , \quad III - VI \text{ orientation} \end{cases}$$

Using this parametrization, let's now compute the Gauss Curvature.

Theorem 1. *The Gauss Curvature K of Iso-Taxicab plane is 0 in the case of $I - IV$ orientation or $II - V$ orientation, and negative in the case of $III - VI$ orientation.*

Proof. Notice that we have three cases.

Case 1. ($I - IV$ orientation).

$$\varphi(u, v) = (u \cos v, u \sin v)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_u &= (\cos v, \sin v) \\ \varphi_v &= (-u \sin v, u \cos v)\end{aligned}$$

Obviously φ_u has $I - IV$ orientation and φ_v has $II - V$ or $III - VI$ orientation. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\|\varphi_u\| &= 1, \\ \|\varphi_v\| &= u \cos v \text{ or } \|\varphi_v\| = u \sin v \\ \text{and } \langle \varphi_u, \varphi_v \rangle &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\{\varphi_u, \varphi_v\}$ is an orthogonal basis. If

$$\begin{aligned}E_1 &= \varphi_u \\ E_2 &= \frac{1}{u \cos v} \varphi_v\end{aligned}$$

then $\{E_1, E_2\}$ becomes orthonormal. Let $\{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$ be the dual base to $\{E_1, E_2\}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= du \\ \theta_2 &= u \cos v dv\end{aligned}$$

By using the first structural equations [5], we obtain connection 1-form as $w_{12} = \cos v dv$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned}d\theta_1 &= w_{12} \wedge \theta_2 \\ d\theta_2 &= w_{21} \wedge \theta_1\end{aligned}$$

So

$$dw_{12} = 0$$

We know that [5]

$$dw_{12} = -K \theta_1 \wedge \theta_2$$

Using this fact, we get

$$K = 0$$

as desired.

In the case of *III – VI* orientation for φ_v , $\|\varphi_v\| = u \sin v$, the proof is similar.

Case 2. (*II – V* orientation).

$$\varphi(u, v) = (u \cos v, u)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_u &= (\cos v, 1) \\ \varphi_v &= (-u \sin v, 0)\end{aligned}$$

Here notice that φ_u has *II – V* orientation and φ_v has *III – VI* or *I – IV* orientation. Suppose φ_v has *III – VI* orientation (Case of *I – IV* orientation is the same). Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\|\varphi_u\| &= 1, \\ \|\varphi_v\| &= u \sin v \text{ and} \\ &< \varphi_u, \varphi_v > = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\{\varphi_u, \varphi_v\}$ is an orthogonal basis. Let $\{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$ be the dual base to $\{E_1, E_2\}$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= dv \\ \theta_2 &= -du + \cos v dv\end{aligned}$$

As a result, on account of the structural equations, we obtain

$$K = 0$$

as desired.

Case 3. (*III – VI* orientation).

$$\varphi(u, v) = (-u, u \sin v)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi_u &= (-1, \sin v) \\ \varphi_v &= (0, u \cos v)\end{aligned}$$

So, φ_u has *III – VI* orientation and φ_v has *II – V* or *I – IV* orientation. In either case,

$$\begin{aligned}\|\varphi_u\| &= 1, \\ \|\varphi_v\| &= u \cos v \text{ and} \\ &< \varphi_u, \varphi_v > = 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\{\varphi_u, \varphi_v\}$ is an orthogonal basis. If

$$\begin{aligned}E_1 &= \varphi_u = (-1, \sin v) \\ E_2 &= \frac{1}{u \cos v} \varphi_v = (0, 1)\end{aligned}$$

then $\{E_1, E_2\}$ becomes orthonormal. If $\{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$ is the dual base to $\{E_1, E_2\}$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= -du \\ \theta_2 &= \sin v du + dv\end{aligned}$$

If w_{12} is the connection 1-form, using the first structural equations we get

$$\begin{aligned}w_{12} &= \cos v \sin v du + \cos v dv \\ dw_{12} &= (-\sin^2 v + \cos^2 v) dv \wedge du\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand [5],

$$dw_{12} = -K \theta_1 \wedge \theta_2$$

an hence

$$K = \sin^2 v - \cos^2 v.$$

Notice that for $v \in III$ or $v \in VI$, $\cos^2 v = 1$ and $\sin^2 v < 1$. As a result, we get $K < 0$, as claimed. \square

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