Orbits of triangles obtained by interior division of sides

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Abstract: Plane triangles are classified by similarity. Let Ω be the set of these equivalence classes of triangles, and $[ABC] \in \Omega$ be the class of triangles which are similar to ΔABC , Putting $x = \angle A$, $y = \angle B$, $z = \angle C$, [ABC] is represented by a point in $\Pi = \{(x, y, z) \mid x + y + z = \pi, x, y, z > 0\}$. By making interior division of sides of ΔABC , we define an orbit in Π , starting from [ABC]. It is determined by a differentiable dynamical system, and is the intersection of Π and the surface $\cot x + \cot y + \cot z = \mathrm{const.}$

Key words: Triangles; interior division; convex closed curve; four-vertex theorem.

- 1. Introduction. We consider here the set T of all triangles on the Euclidean plane. Triangles in T are classified by similarity. In this note, we say that ΔABC is similar to $\Delta A'B'C'$ and write as $\Delta ABC \simeq \Delta A'B'C'$ if $\angle A = \angle A'$, $\angle B = \angle B'$, $\angle C = \angle C'$. It defines an equivalency. Put
- (1.1) $[ABC] = \{ \Delta A'B'C' \mid \Delta A'B'C' \simeq \Delta ABC \}$ Obviously $[ABC] \cap [A'B'C'] \neq \emptyset$ if and only if [ABC] = [A'B'C']. We define
- (1.2) $\Omega = (T/\simeq) = \{[ABC] \mid \Delta ABC \in T\}.$ Note that, in general, [ABC], [BCA], and [CAB] are mutually distinct in Ω .

Write $\angle A = x$, $\angle B = y$, $\angle C = z$, then [ABC] is represented as a point in \mathbb{R}^3 . Ω is idenified with the set

(1.3) $\Pi = \{(x, y, z) | x + y + z = \pi, x > 0, y > 0, z > 0\}$. The class of regular triangles is denoted by a point $(\pi/3, \pi/3, \pi/3)$. Points on the boundary of Π denote degenerate triangles. A point in Π corresponding to [ABC] is denoted also by [ABC].

Consider a triangle $\triangle ABC \in [ABC]$. On each side of it, take the point of interior division with the ratio t:(1-t), where $0 \le t \le 1$. The point on the side AB is denoted by A(t). Similarly for B(t) and C(t) on BC and CA, respectively. Put

(1.4) $T_0(ABC) = \{ [A(t)B(t)C(t)] \mid 0 \le t \le 1 \}.$ $T_0(ABC)$ is represented by a continuous arc in $\Pi \subset \mathbf{R}^3$ which connects [ABC] with [BCA]. Obviously T_0 $(ABC) \cup T_0$ $(BCA) \cup T_0$ (CAB) is a closed curve in Π . Since B = A(1), C = B(1), A = C(1), we may define A(1 + t) B(1 + t)C(1 + t), $0 \le t \le 1$, as A(2 + t)B(2 + t)C(2 + t) may be defined as A(2 + t)B(2 + t)C(2 + t) may be defined as A(2 + t)B(2 + t)C(2 + t). Now for any A(3 + t)C(2 + t) be the greatest integer not exceeding A(3 + t)C(2 + t) we define

(1.5)
$$[A(t)B(t)C(t)] = \begin{cases} [A(t^*)B(t^*)C(t^*)], & \text{if } [t] = 3m + 0 \text{ for some integer } m, \\ [B(t^*)C(t^*)A(t^*)], & \text{if } [t] = 3m + 1 \text{ for some integer } m, \\ [C(t^*)A(t^*)B(t^*)], & \text{if } [t] = 3m + 2 \text{ for some integer } m. \end{cases}$$

For example, if -1 < t < 0, then [t] = -1 = -3 + 2 and $t^* = 1 - |t|$. Hence [A(t)B(t)] = [C(1 - |t|)A(1 - |t|)B(1 - |t|)]. By (1.5), we define as a continuation of (1.4),

(1.6) $T(ABC) = \{ [A(t)B(t)C(t)] \mid t \in \mathbf{R} \},$ which is represented by a closed curve in Π .

There are some investigations on triangles obtained by interior division of sides of ΔABC , e.g. [4]. However, as far as I know, we have almost no knowledge about the set T(ABC), except the case when t=1/2, where $\Delta B(1/2)C(1/2)A(1/2) \simeq \Delta ABC$.

In this note we investigate the set T(ABC). Establishing some lemmas on 2×2 matrices, we will see that T(ABC) is a continuously differentiable curve, and find the system of differential equations which determines the curve. It shows that T(ABC) is a convex curve, represented by the intersection of Π and the surface

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 $\cot x + \cot y + \cot z = \text{const.}$

2. Some lemmas. Since Ω is identified with the set $\Pi \subseteq \mathbf{R}^3$, we can introduce naturally a topology in Ω .

The proof of the following lemma is easy and may be omitted.

Lemma 2.1. Triangles $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle A$ (t) B(t)C(t) share the center of gravity in common for any t.

Take a Cartesian coordinate system. We may suppose that the center of gravity of $\triangle ABC$ is at the origin. Put the coordinates of the vertices to be $A=(a_1,\,a_2)$, $B=(b_1,\,b_2)$, then we have $C=(c_1,\,c_2)=(-a_1-b_1,\,-a_2-b_2)$. Then we get by an easy calculation, for $0 \le t \le 1$,

$$\begin{split} A(t) &= ((1-t)a_1 + tb_1, \ (1-t)a_2 + tb_2), \\ B(t) &= ((1-t)b_1 + tc_1, \ (1-t)b_2 + tc_2) \\ &= (-ta_1 + (1-2t)b_1, \ -ta_2 + (1-2t)b_2), \\ C(t) &= ((1-t)c_1 + ta_1, \ (1-t)c_2 + ta_2) \\ &= ((2t-1)a_1 + (t-1)b_1, \ (2t-1)a_2 + (t-1)b_2), \end{split}$$

which is written as

since $\Delta A(t)B(t)C(t)$ is determined by A(t) and B(t). For $\Delta A(1+t)B(1+t)C(1+t)=\Delta B(t)C(t)A(t)$, $0 \le t \le 1$, we have

$$A(1+t) = B(t) = ((1-t)b_1 + tc_1, (1-t)b_2 + tc_2)$$

$$= (-ta_1 + (1-2t)b_1, -ta_2 + (1-2t)b_2),$$

$$B(1+t) = C(t) = ((1-t)c_1 + ta_1, (1-t)c_2 + ta_2)$$

$$= ((2t-1)a_1 + (t-1)b_1, (2t-1)a_2 + (t-1)b_2),$$

hence

$$\begin{pmatrix}A(1+t)\\B(1+t)\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}-t&1-2t\\2t-1&t-1\end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix}a_1&a_2\\b_1&b_2\end{pmatrix}.$$

Similarly we have for ΔA (2+t)B (2+t) $C(2+t) = \Delta C(t)B(t)A(t)$, $0 \le t \le 1$,

$$\begin{split} A(2+t) &= \mathsf{C}(t) = ((1-t)c_1 + ta_1, \ (1-t)c_2 + ta_2) \\ &= ((2t-1)a_1 + (t-1)b_1, \ (2t-1)a_2 \\ &+ (t-1)b_2), \end{split}$$

 $B(2+t) = A(t) = ((1-t)a_1 + tb_1, (1-t)a_2 + tb_2),$ and

$$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} A(2+t) \\ B(2+t) \end{smallmatrix} \right) = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 2t-1 & t-1 \\ 1-t & t \end{smallmatrix} \right) \left(\begin{smallmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \end{smallmatrix} \right).$$

We define a matrix M(t), $t \in \mathbf{R}$, as follows: Let $t^* = t - [t]$, $0 \le t^* < 1$, where [t] is the greatest integer not exceeding t,

(2.1)
$$M(t) = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} 1-t^* & t^* \\ -t^* & 1-2t^* \end{pmatrix}, & \text{if } [t] = 3m+0, \\ \begin{pmatrix} -t^* & 1-2t^* \\ 2t^*-1 & t^*-1 \end{pmatrix}, & \text{if } [t] = 3m+1, \\ \begin{pmatrix} 2t^*-1 & t^*-1 \\ 1-t^* & t^* \end{pmatrix}. & \text{if } [t] = 3m+2. \end{cases}$$

By (2.1) we have for $0 \le t \le 1$,

$$(2.1') \begin{cases} M(3m-t) \\ = M(3(m-1)+2+(1-t)) = M(2+(1-t)), \\ M(3m-1-t) \\ = M(3(m-1)+1+(1-t)) = M(1+(1-t)), \\ M(3m-2-t) \\ = M(3(m-1)+(1-t)) = M(1-t). \end{cases}$$

Lemma 2.2. Suppose that $0 \le s$, $t \le 1$.

(i) If $s + t \leq 1$, then

(2.2)
$$\begin{cases}
M(s)M(t) = M(2+s)M(1+t) \\
= M(1+s)M(2+t) = L(s,t)M(k), \\
M(1+s)M(t) = M(s)M(1+t) \\
= M(2+s)M(2+t) = L(s,t)M(1+k), \\
M(1+s)M(1+t) = M(2+s)M(t) \\
= M(s)M(2+t) = L(s,t)M(2+k),
\end{cases}$$

where

(2.2')
$$L(s, t) = 1 - 3st, \quad k = \frac{s + t - 3st}{1 - 3st},$$

(ii) If $1 < s + t \le 2$, then

(2.3)
$$\begin{cases}
M(s)M(t) = M(2+s)M(1+t) \\
= M(1+s)M(2+t) = L(s, t)M(1+k), \\
M(1+s)M(t) = M(s)M(1+t) \\
= M(2+s)M(2+t) = L(s, t)M(2+k), \\
M(1+s)M(1+t) = M(2+s)M(t) \\
= M(s)M(2+t) = L(s, t)M(k),
\end{cases}$$

where

(2.3')
$$L(s, t) = 1 - 3(1 - s)(1 - t),$$

$$1 - k = \frac{(1 - s) + (1 - t) - 3(1 - s)(1 - t)}{1 - 3(1 - s)(1 - t)}.$$

Proof. We prove only for M(s)M(t). Other cases are similarly proved. Obviously

M(s)M(t)

$$= \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 - s - t & s + t - 3st \\ -s - t + 3st & 1 - 2s - 2t + 3st \end{array} \right).$$

(i) Note that
$$1 - 3st \ge t + s - 3st = (t + s) - \frac{3}{4}(s + t)^2 + \frac{3}{4}(s - t)^2 > 0$$
 if $0 < s + t \le 1$.

From

$$1-s-t=L(1-k), t+s-3st=Lk,$$

 $1-2s-2t+3st=L(1-2k),$

we obtain the result.

(ii) Since $0 \le 1 - s$, $1 - t \le 1$, we have $(1 - s) + (1 - t) \le 1$. From

$$1 - s - t = -Lk, s + t - 3st = L(1 - 2k),$$

$$1 - 2s - 2t + 3st = L(k - 1).$$

we obtain the result.

For the inverse matrices we have, by easy calculations.

Lemma 2.3. For any $0 \le t \le 1$, we have Lemma 2.3. For any $0 \le t \le 1$, we have $M(t)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(2 + (1 - t))$ $= \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(-t),$ $M(1 + t)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(1 + (1 - t))$ $= \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(-1 - t),$ $M(2 + t)^{-1} = \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(1 - t)$ $= \frac{1}{3t^2 - 3t + 1} M(-2 - t).$

In connection with (2.2), we consider the functional equation

(2.5)
$$\phi(\sigma + \tau) = \frac{\phi(\sigma) + \phi(\tau) - 3\phi(\sigma)\phi(\tau)}{1 - 3\phi(\sigma)\phi(\tau)},$$

Put $\sigma = 0$. Since $3\phi(\tau)^2 - 3\phi(\tau) + 1 \neq 0$, we have that $\phi(0) = 0$. Differentiating with respect to σ and puting $\sigma = 0$, we obtain

$$\frac{dy}{d\tau} = \phi'(0)(3y^2 - 3y + 1), \ y = \phi(\tau).$$

Using $\phi(0) = 0$, requiring that $\phi(1) = 1$, we obtain as a solution of (2.5)

$$(2.6) \quad \phi_0(\sigma) = \frac{2 \tan(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma)}{\sqrt{3} + 3 \tan(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma)}$$

$$= \frac{2 \sin(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma)}{\sqrt{3} \cos(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma) + 3 \sin(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma)}, \quad 0 \le \sigma \le 1,$$

taking $\phi'_0(0) = 4\pi \sqrt{3}/9 = 2.4184...$ $\phi_0(\sigma)$ satisfies (2.5) if $0 \le \sigma$, τ , $\sigma + \tau \le 1$.

For any $\sigma \in \mathbf{R}$ we define

(2.6')
$$\phi(\sigma) = [\sigma] + \phi_0(\sigma - [\sigma]).$$

It is easy to see that $\phi(\sigma)$ is strictly monotone increasing and satisfies

$$(2.6") \quad \phi(0) = 0, \ \phi(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2}, \ \phi(1) = 1,$$

$$\phi(\frac{1}{2} + \sigma) + \phi(\frac{1}{2} - \sigma) = 1 \ (0 \le \sigma \le \frac{1}{2}).$$

For any $s \in \mathbf{R}$ let $s^* = s - \lceil s \rceil$, $s^* = \phi(\sigma^*)$, 0 $\leq \sigma^* < 1$. Putting $\sigma = [s] + \sigma^*$, we get s = ϕ (σ). Note that the function ϕ (σ) defined by (2.6) is of the class C^1 but not of C^2 .

Put

(2.7)
$$K(\sigma) = M(\phi(\sigma)),$$

for $\sigma \in \mathbf{R}$. Write

$$s = \phi(\sigma) = [s] + s^*, t = \phi(\tau) = [t] + t^*, 0 \le s^*, t^* < 1, s^* = \phi(\sigma^*), t^* = \phi(\tau^*).$$

If $s^* + t^* \le 1$, then we see that $\sigma^* + \tau^* \le 1$ by (2.6"). Using (2.1) and (2.1'), we get from (2.2)and (2.2') that, by (5.5),

 $K(\sigma)K(\tau) = L(s^*, t^*)K(\sigma + \tau),$ (2.8)

where $L(s^*, t^*)$ is the constant in (2.2'). Note that $\phi(\sigma)$ satisfies the functional equation (2.5) only when $0 \le \sigma$, τ , $\sigma + \tau \le 1$, not for general σ ,

Now we consider (2.3) and (2.3). For $0 \le s$, $t \le 1, s + t > 1$, we put $1 - s = \phi(\sigma'), 1 - t$ $= \phi(\tau')$ and consider the equation, in connection with (2.3'),

(2.5')
$$\phi(\sigma' + \tau')$$

$$=\frac{\psi(\sigma')+\psi(\tau')-3\psi(\sigma')\psi(\tau')}{1-3\psi(\sigma')\psi(\tau')},$$

 $0 \le \sigma', \tau' \le 1$

As in (2.5) we obtain
$$\phi(\sigma') = \frac{2\tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma'\right)}{\sqrt{3} + 3\tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma'\right)}$$

Put $\sigma = 1 - \sigma'$. Then, using the addition formula

(2.9)
$$1 - \psi(1 - \sigma) = \frac{\sqrt{3} + \tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3} - \frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma\right)}{\sqrt{3} + 3\tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3} - \frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma\right)}$$
$$= \frac{2\tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma\right)}{\sqrt{3} + 3\tan\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\sigma\right)} = \phi(\sigma).$$

Since s+t>1, we have (1-s)+(1-t)< 1. As in (2.6") we see that $\sigma' + \tau' < 1$. Thus $\sigma + \tau = (1 - \sigma') + (1 - \tau') > 1$. By (2.9), for $0 < \sigma + \tau - 1 \le 1,$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \psi(\sigma' + \tau') &= 1 - \psi(2 - (\sigma + \tau)) \\ &= 1 - \psi(1 - (\sigma + \tau - 1)) = \phi(\sigma + \tau - 1). \\ \text{By (2.6') we get, if } 0 &\leq \sigma, \ \tau \leq 1, \ \sigma + \tau > 1, \end{aligned}$$

$$\phi(\sigma + \tau) = 1 + \phi(\sigma + \tau - 1)
= 1 + (1 - \phi(\sigma' + \tau')).$$

By (2.7) we obtain $K(\sigma + \tau) = M(1 + \phi(\sigma + \tau))$ -1)) in this case. Therefore, using (2.1) and (2.1'), we see from (2.3) and (2.3') that (2.8)holds also for the case $s^* + t^* > 1$. Noting (2.4) we see that (2.8) holds for any σ , $\tau \in \mathbf{R}$.

Lemma 2.4. Let M(t), $\phi(\sigma)$, $K(\sigma)$ be defined by (2.1) - (2.1), (2.6) - (2.6), and (2.7), respectively, then we have

 $K(\sigma)K(\tau) = \text{const. } K(\sigma + \tau), \ \sigma, \ \tau \in \mathbf{R}.$

3. Orbits of triangles obtained by interior division of sides. We have defined triangles $\Delta A(t)B(t)C(t)$, $t \in \mathbf{R}$, from the original ΔABC by interior division of sides. Their equivalence classes [A(t)B(t)C(t)] are represented by the matrices M(t) in (2.1). M(t) may be replaced by $K(\tau) = M(\phi(\tau))$ in (2.7).

The class $[A(t)B(t)C(t)] = [A(\phi(\tau))B$ $(\phi(\tau))C(\phi(\tau))$] is represented by the point $\mathfrak{p}(\tau) = (x(\tau), y(\tau), z(\tau))$ in the set Π in (1.3). We write the point $\mathfrak{p}(\tau)$ as

 $\mathfrak{p}(\tau) = \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$, denoting that it has originated from $\triangle ABC$.

Then $\mathfrak{T}(\sigma, [A(t)B(t)C(t)])$ denotes the class of triangles obtained from $\Delta A(t)B(t)C(t)$, in place of $\triangle ABC$, by interior division of sides with the ratio $s:(1-s), s=\phi(\sigma)\in[0,1)$. Since a const. multiplication does not alter the similarity of triangles, we obtain, by Lemma 2.4:

Theorem 3.1. With the notations stated above, we have

$$\mathfrak{T}(\sigma, \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])) = \mathfrak{T}(\sigma + \tau, [ABC]), \sigma,$$

$$\tau \in \mathbf{R}, \mathfrak{T}(0, [ABC]) = [ABC].$$

Thus $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$ forms a 1-parameter group, hence defines a dynamical system.

The set T(ABC) in (1.6) is the trajectory of $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$, which is a simple closed curve. If $T(ABC) \cap T(A'B'C') \neq \emptyset$, then T(ABC) =T(A'B'C').

The interior of the set Π in (1.3) is filled up with these closed trajectories T(ABC).

Suppose $0 \le t \le 1$. The angles $\angle A(t)$ and $\angle A (1+t)$ at the vertices A (t), A (1+t) of $\Delta A(t)B(t)C(t)$ and $\Delta A(1+t)B(1+t)C(1+t)$ t), respectively, are given by

(3.1)
$$\cos(\angle A(t)) = \frac{f(t)}{g(t)h(t)},$$

 $\cos(\angle A(1+t)) = \frac{f(1+t)}{g(1+t)h(1+t)},$

in which we put, writing $p = a_1^2 + a_2^2$, $q = a_1b_1$ $+ a_2b_2, r = b_1^2 + b_2^2,$

$$f(t) = \overline{A(t)B(t)} \cdot \overline{A(t)C(t)}$$

$$= (2 - 3t)p - (9t^2 - 9t + 1)q + (3t - 1)r,$$

$$g(t) = |\overline{A(t)B(t)}| = \sqrt{p + 2(3t - 1)q + (3t - 1)^2r},$$

$$h(t) = |\overline{A(t)C(t)}| = \sqrt{(3t - 2)^2p - 2(3t - 2)q + r}.$$

$$f(1+t) = \overline{A(1+t)B(1+t)} \cdot \overline{A(1+t)C(1+t)}$$

= $(3t-1)p + (9t^2 - 3t - 1)q + (9t^2 - 9t + 2)r$,

$$g(1+t) = |\overrightarrow{A(1+t)B(1+t)}|$$

= $\sqrt{(3t-1)^2p + 2(9t^2 - 9t + 2)q + (3t-2)^2r}$,

$$h(1+t) = |\overrightarrow{A(1+t)C(1+t)}|$$

= $\sqrt{p + (6t-2)q + (9t^2 - 6t + 1)r}$.

Then

$$\lim_{t \to 1-0} \frac{f'(t)}{f(t)} - \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{f'(1+t)}{f(1+t)} = 6,$$

$$\lim_{t \to 1-0} \frac{g'(t)}{g(t)} - \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{g'(1+t)}{g(1+t)} = 3,$$

$$\lim_{t \to 1-0} \frac{h'(t)}{h(t)} - \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{h'(1+t)}{h(1+t)} = 3.$$

Since
$$\frac{d}{dt}\log\cos(\angle A(t)) = \frac{f'(t)}{f(t)} - \frac{g'(t)}{g(t)} - \frac{h'(t)}{h(t)}$$
,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\log\cos(\angle A(1+t)) = \frac{f'(1+t)}{f(1+t)} - \frac{g'(1+t)}{g(1+t)} - \frac{h'(1+t)}{h(1+t)},$$

and $\lim_{t\to 1-0}\cos(\angle A(t))=\lim_{t\to +0}\cos(\angle A(1+t))$ t)), we obtain that

$$\lim_{t\to 1-0}\frac{d}{dt}\cos(\angle A(t))=\lim_{t\to +0}\frac{d}{dt}\cos(\angle A(1+t)).$$

Similarly

$$\lim_{t \to 1-0} \frac{d}{dt} \cos(\angle A(1+t)) = \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{d}{dt} \cos(\angle A(2+t)),$$
$$\lim_{t \to 1-0} \frac{d}{dt} \cos(\angle A(2+t)) = \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{d}{dt} \cos(\angle A(t)).$$

Thus we know that $\angle A$ (t), $t \in \mathbb{R}$, is continuously differentiable. Note that the side length

 $|\overline{A(t)}B(t)|$ is not so at $t=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,\ldots$ Similarly for $\angle B(t)$ and $\angle C(t)$.

Since the equivalence class [A(t)B(t)C(t)] $= \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC]), t = \phi(\tau)$, is represented by the point $(x(\tau), y(\tau), z(\tau)) = (\angle A(t), \angle B(t)),$ $\angle C(t)$), we obtain the following theorem:

Theorem 3.2. The dynamical system $\mathfrak{T}(\tau)$ [ABC]) is continuously differentiable.

Now we will obtain the system of differential equations for $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$. Since

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma} \mathfrak{T}(\tau + \sigma, [ABC]) = \frac{d}{d\tau} \mathfrak{T}(\tau + \sigma, [ABC])$$
$$= \frac{d}{d\sigma} \mathfrak{T}(\sigma, \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])),$$

we get, by taking $\sigma = 0$,

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(3.2)
$$\frac{d}{d\tau} \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC]) = \frac{d}{d\sigma} \mathfrak{T}(\sigma, \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])) |_{\sigma=0}.$$

We will find $\frac{d}{d\sigma}\,\mathfrak{T}$ (σ , [ABC]) $|_{\sigma=0}$. Using the same notations as above, we get by (3.1)

(3.2')
$$\frac{d}{dt}\cos(\angle A(t))|_{t=0} = \frac{27(pr-q^2)(p+2p)}{(p-2q+r)^{3/2}(4p+4q+r)^{3/2}}.$$

By an elementary calculation, writing $a = |\overrightarrow{BC}|$, $b = |\overrightarrow{CA}|$, $c = |\overrightarrow{AB}|$, $a^2 = p + 4q + 4r$, $b^2 = 4p + 4q + r$, $c^2 = p - 2c + r$, hence

$$p = \frac{1}{9}(-a^2 + 2b^2 + 2c^2),$$

$$q = \frac{1}{18}(a^2 + b^2 - 5c^2), r = \frac{1}{9}(2a^2 - b^2 + 2c^2).$$

Write $\alpha = \sin(\angle A)$, $\beta = \sin(\angle B)$, $\gamma = \sin(\angle C)$. Using the sine theorem: $a/\alpha = b/\beta = c/\gamma$, we have by (3.2')

(3.3)
$$\alpha \frac{d}{dt} \angle A(t) \mid_{t=0}$$

$$= \frac{(\beta^2 - \gamma^2)(\alpha^4 + \beta^4 + \gamma^4 - 2\beta^2 \gamma^2 - 2\gamma^2 \alpha^2 - 2\alpha^2 \beta^2)}{4\beta^3 \gamma^3}.$$

Hence by (3.2) and (3.3), substituting ΔA (t) B(t)C(t) for ΔABC , we obtain the required system of differential equations. Writing $u = \sin x(\tau)$, $v = \sin y(\tau)$, $w = \sin z(\tau)$, where ($x = \sin x(\tau)$), $x = \sin x(\tau)$) and $x = \sin x(\tau)$, we get, with $x = \sin x(\tau)$ where $x = \sin x(\tau)$, we get, with $x = \sin x(\tau)$ where $x = \sin x(\tau)$, we get, with $x = \sin x(\tau)$ and $x = \sin x(\tau)$.

(3.4)
$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx}{d\tau} = \phi'(0) \\ \frac{(v^2 - w^2)(u^4 + v^4 + w^4 - 2v^2w^2 - 2w^2u^2 - 2u^2v^2)}{4uv^3w^3} \\ = u^2(v^2 - w^2)S, \\ \frac{dy}{d\tau} = \phi'(0) \\ \frac{(w^2 - u^2)(u^4 + v^4 + w^4 - 2v^2w^2 - 2w^2u^2 - 2u^2v^2)}{4vw^3u^3} \\ = v^2(w^2 - u^2)S, \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{dz}{d\tau} = \phi'(0)$$

$$\frac{(u^2 - v^2)(u^4 + v^4 + w^4 - 2v^2w^2 - 2w^2u^2 - 2u^2v^2)}{4wu^3v^3}$$

$$= w^2(u^2 - v^2)S,$$

where $u = \sin x$, $v = \sin y$, $w = \sin z$ and (3.4') S = S(u, v, w)

$$=\frac{4\pi}{3\sqrt{3}}\frac{u^4+v^4+w^4-2v^2w^2-2w^2u^2-2u^2v^2}{4u^3v^3w^3}.$$

Since $uvw \neq 0$ in Π , and a trajectory of (3.4) remains in Π if it starts at a point of the same set, we know by [2, p. 34, Theorem 8.1] that

(3.5) $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$ is analytic with respect to τ .

We note that $t = \phi(\tau)$ is a C^1 (but not C^2) function of τ .

The only fixed point of (3.4) in Π is u=v=w, that is $x=y=z=\pi/3$. Further in (3.4), if we change v and w (hence y and z) and τ to τ , we obtain the same system. Hence the trajectory is symmetric with respect to the plane y-z=0. Similarly for z-x=0, x-y=0. Therefore we have, identifying $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$ with its trajectory T(ABC).

Theorem 3.3. Trajectory $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$ is a closed curve which is symmetric with respect to the planes y-z=0, z-x=0, x-y=0. Therefore it encircles the point $(\pi/3, \pi/3, \pi/3)$.

It degenerates to one point if and only if $\triangle ABC$ is a regular triangle.

Note that, for the system (3.4), the eigenvalues at the fixed point ($\pi/3$, $\pi/3$, $\pi/3$) are 0 (with eigenvector orthogonal to Π) and pure imaginary numbers.

Now we will show the trajectories are convex. Put $\mathfrak{p}(\tau) = \mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$. Since $\mathfrak{p}(\tau)$ is a plane curve on Π , its curvature $\kappa(\tau)$ is given by

(3.6)
$$\kappa(\tau) = \text{the component of } \frac{\dot{\mathfrak{p}}(\tau) \times \dot{\mathfrak{p}}(\tau)}{|\dot{\mathfrak{p}}(\tau)|^3},$$

orthogonal to Π ,

where $\dot{}$ denotes differentiation with respect to τ . If we would prove that $\kappa(\tau) > 0$, then the trajectory $\mathfrak{p}(\tau)$ should be known to be convex. [1]

Since $\mathfrak{h} = {}^{t}(1, 1, 1)$ is orthogonal to Π , we aim to show that

$$(\mathfrak{p}(\tau) \times \mathfrak{p}(\tau)) \cdot \mathfrak{h} = \begin{vmatrix} \dot{y} & \dot{z} \\ \ddot{y} & \ddot{z} \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} \dot{z} & \dot{x} \\ \ddot{z} & \ddot{x} \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} \dot{x} & \dot{y} \\ \ddot{x} & \ddot{y} \end{vmatrix} > 0.$$

Consider the system (3.4). Put, with $u = \sin x$, v

$$= \sin y$$
 and $w = \sin z$,

$$X = u^{2}(v^{2} - w^{2}), Y = v^{2}(w^{2} - u^{2}),$$

 $Z = w^{2}(u^{2} - v^{2}).$

Then, with
$$S = S(u, v, w)$$
 in (3.4'),

Then, with
$$S = S(u, v, w)$$
 in (3.4'),
$$\begin{vmatrix} \dot{y} & \dot{z} \\ \ddot{y} & \ddot{z} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} YS & ZS \\ \dot{Y}S + Y\dot{S} & \dot{Z}S + Z\dot{S} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} Y & Z \\ \dot{Y} & \dot{Z} \end{vmatrix} (S(u, v, w))^2,$$

hence it suffices to see positiveness of
$$K = \left(\left| \begin{array}{cc} Y & Z \\ \dot{Y} & \dot{Z} \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} Z & X \\ \dot{Z} & \dot{X} \end{array} \right| + \left| \begin{array}{cc} X & Y \\ \dot{X} & \dot{Y} \end{array} \right| \right) \left(S(u, v, w) \right)^2.$$

$$\left| egin{array}{c|c} Y & Z \\ \dot{y} & \dot{z} \end{array} \right| + \left| egin{array}{c|c} Z & X \\ \dot{z} & \dot{x} \end{array} \right| + \left| egin{array}{c|c} X & Y \\ \dot{x} & \dot{y} \end{array} \right|$$

$$= 2(\dot{u}(w^2 - v^2)uv^2w^2 + \dot{v}(u^2 - w^2)u^2vw^2 + \dot{w}(v^2 - u^2)u^2v^2w).$$

Since $\dot{u} = \cos x \, \dot{x}$ etc., we obtain by (3.4)

(3.7) $K = -6u^2v^2w^2F(x, y, z)(S(u, v, w))^3$ where

 $F(x, y, z) = \cos x(v^2 - w^2)^2 u + \cos y(w^2 - w^2)^$ $(u^2)^2 v + \cos z (u^2 - v^2)^2 w$

 $= \cos x \sin x (\sin^2 y - \sin^2 z)^2 + \cos y \sin y$ $(\sin^2 z - \sin^2 x)^2 + \cos z \sin z (\sin^2 x - \sin^2 y)^2.$

First we note that u, v, w > 0 and $u \pm v \pm v$ $w \neq 0$ for $(x, y, z) \in \Pi$. Hence $u^4 + v^4 + w^4 - 2v^2w^2 - 2w^2u^2 - 2u^2v^2$

$$u^4 + v^4 + w^4 - 2v^2w^2 - 2w^2u^2 - 2u^2v^2$$

 $= (u + v + w)(u + v - w)(u - v + w)(u - v - w) \neq 0$ and $S(u, v, w) \neq 0$ for $(x, y, z) \in \Pi$. On the other hand S(u, v, w) < 0 for x = y = z = $\pi/3$, therefore S(u, v, w) < 0 in Π .

Next note that min $\{F(x, y, z) \mid x, y, z \ge a\}$ $0, x + y + z = \pi$ is attained at $P_0 = (\pi/3, \pi/3)$ $\pi/3$, $\pi/3$) and equals 0. Thus F(x, y, z) > 0for $(x, y, z) \in \Pi \setminus \{P_0\}$, which shows that $\kappa(\tau) > 0$. Hence

Theorem 3.4. Trajectory T(ABC) is a convex closed curve if it is not one point.

By the well known Four-Vertex Theorem [1], $\mathfrak{T}(\tau, [ABC])$ possesses at least 4 vertices. In fact, it admits 6 vertices at intersections with the planes x - y = 0, y - z = 0, z - x = 0.

By (3.4) we see

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} + \frac{dy}{d\tau} + \frac{dz}{d\tau} = 0, \quad \frac{1}{u^2} \frac{dx}{d\tau} + \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{dy}{d\tau} + \frac{1}{w^2} \frac{dz}{d\tau} = 0.$$

Since $u = \sin x$, $v = \sin y$, $w = \sin z$, we obtain that

(3.8)
$$x + y + z = \text{const.} = \pi$$
,

$$(3.9) \quad \cot x + \cot y + \cot z = \text{const.}$$

Therefore we obtain the following Theorem:

Theorem 3.5. Trajectory T(ABC) is given by the intersection of surfaces (3.8) and (3.9), where the const. in (3.9) is equal to $\cot(\angle A) + \cot$ $(\angle B) + \cot(\angle C)$.

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