# LINEAR WEINGARTEN REVOLUTION SURFACES IN THREE-DIMENSIONAL PSEUDO-GALILEAN SPACE 

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we classify the revolution surfaces in the pseudo-Galilean space $G_{3}^{1}$ having a linear relationship between the Gaussian $(K)$ curvature and the mean $(H)$ curvature i.e., $a H+b K=c$, where $a, b, c$ are constants. In special cases, we classify the revolution surfaces having null Gaussian curvature and null mean curvature. Further, we study the revolution surfaces satisfying $\Delta x_{i}=\lambda_{i} x_{i}$, where $\Delta$ is the Laplacian operator with respect to first fundamental form, $\lambda_{i}^{\prime} s$ are the eigenvalue values and $x_{i}^{\prime} s$ are the coordinate functions of the given surface.


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## 1 Introduction

In addition to the Euclidean geometry, various type of geometries have been developed in the last two centuries. One natural possible extension is to define in projective manner, where one expresses metric properties through projective relations. For this purpose A. Cayley and F. Klein fixed conic (called absolute) at infinity and all metric relations are considered in projective relations with respect to the absolute. Due to the nature of the absolute various geometries are possible. Galilean and pseudo-Galilean geometry are among the nine Cayley-Klein geometries. These are the ambient spaces in which we study the nature of the surfaces. The detailed development can be found in [23]. In Galilean and pseudo-Galilean spaces ruled surfaces and tubular surfaces have been studied in $[16,21]$. One of the important problems in classical differential geometry is to classify the surfaces with null Gaussian and null mean curvature. In particular, a surface is called as developable if its Gaussian curvature becomes zero. In this case, we say that this surface is topologically similar to a flat surface, i.e., it can be flattened onto a plane

[^0]without distortions. Null curvature surfaces have applications in microeconomics in the way when production function graph has vanishing Gaussian curvature, one can predict an efficient analysis of isoquants by projections, without losing important information about their geometry [3].
A surface is called a Weingarten surface if there is a smooth relation $\sigma\left(\kappa_{1}, \kappa_{2}\right)=0$ between its principal curvatures $\kappa_{1}$ and $\kappa_{2}$. This relation implies that there exists a functional relation $\varphi(H, K)=0$, where $H$ and $K$ are the mean and the Gaussian curvatures, respectively. The existence of a functional relation is equivalent to the vanishing of the corresponding Jacobian determinant given by $\left|\frac{\partial(H, K)}{\partial\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)}\right|=0$ [24]. The trivial case is when $\varphi=a H+b K-c$, where $a, b, c$ are constants with $a^{2}+b^{2} \neq 0$, then the surface is called linear Weingarten(L.W.) surface. When the constant $a=0$, the L.W. surface reduces to surface with constant Gaussian curvature. When the constant $b=0$, the L.W. surface reduces to surface with constant mean curvature. In such a sense a L.W. surface can be regarded as a natural generalisation of surfaces with constant Gaussian and constant mean curvature.
The study of Weingarten surfaces was initiated by J. Weingarten in 1861 [27] followed by E. Beltrami [6], Darboux [9], S. Lie [20] and many others. W. Kühnel studied the ruled Weingarten surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}[18]$ and Minkowski space $\mathbb{E}_{1}^{3}[10]$. When the ambient space is pseudo-Galilean space, tubular and ruled surfaces were studied in [16] and [25]. C.W. Lee studied the linear Weingarten rotation surfaces in three dimensional pseudo-Galilean space [19]. M. E Aydin et.al obtained the conditions for factorable surfaces to be minimal and developable in pseudo-Galilean space [2]. D.W. Yoon [28] obtained some of the classification results for the revolution surfaces in three dimensional pseudo-Galilean spaces. For more study of linear Weingarten surfaces we refer [14, 17, 29].

## 2 Preliminaries

The pseudo-Galilean geometry is one of the Cayley-Klein geometries of projective signature $(0,0,+,-)$. The absolute of the pseudo-Galilean geometry is an ordered triplet $(\omega, f, I)$, where $\omega$ is the absolute plane in the three dimensional projective space $P_{3}(\mathbb{R}), f$ is the absolute line in $\omega$ and $I$ is the fixed hyperbolic involution of the points of $f$. The geometry of a pseudo-Galilean space $G_{3}^{1}$ can be found in the dissertation [12] and the theory of curves and surfaces are described in [11] and [13], respectively. Homogeneous coordinates of $G_{3}^{1}$ are written in such a way that the absolute plane $\omega$ is given by $x_{0}=0$, the absolute line $f$ by $x_{0}=x_{1}=0$ and the hyperbolic involution by $\left(0: 0: x_{2}: x_{3}\right) \longmapsto\left(0: 0: x_{3}: x_{2}\right)$, which is equivalent to the requirement that the conic $x_{2}^{2}-x_{3}^{2}=0$ is the absolute conic. The metric relations are introduced with respect to the absolute figure. In affine coordinates defined by $\left(x_{0}: x_{1}: x_{2}: x_{3}\right)=(1: x: y: z)$. The distance
between the points $P=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ and $Q=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}\right)$ is defined by

$$
d(P, Q)= \begin{cases}\left|y_{1}-x_{1}\right| & \text { if } \quad x_{1} \neq y_{1} \\ \sqrt{\left(y_{2}-x_{2}\right)^{2}-\left(y_{3}-x_{3}\right)^{2}} & \text { if } \quad x_{1}=y_{1}\end{cases}
$$

The scalar product of two vectors $P=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ and $Q=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}\right)$ in pseudoGalilean space is defined as

$$
P \cdot Q= \begin{cases}x_{1} y_{1}, & \text { if } \quad x_{1} \neq 0 \text { or } y_{1} \neq 0, \\ x_{2} y_{2}-x_{3} y_{3} & \text { if } \quad x_{1}=0 \text { and } y_{1}=0 .\end{cases}
$$

A vector $P=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ is called isotropic or non-isotropic if $x_{1}=0$ or $x_{1} \neq 0$, respectively. All the unit non-isotropic vectors are of the form $\left(1, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$. The isotropic vector $P=\left(0, x_{2}, x_{3}\right)$ is called spacelike, timelike and lightlike if $x_{2}^{2}-x_{3}^{2}>$ $0, x_{2}^{2}-x_{3}^{2}<0$ and $x_{2}= \pm x_{3}$, respectively. The pseudo-Galilean cross product of $P$ and $Q$ is defined as

$$
P \times Q=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
0 & -e_{2} & e_{3} \\
x_{1} & x_{2} & x_{3} \\
y_{1} & y_{2} & y_{3}
\end{array}\right|
$$

In pseudo-Galilean space $G_{3}^{1}$ there are two types of rotations:
(1) Pseudo-Euclidean rotation defined by

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}=x,  \tag{1}\\
\bar{y}=y \cosh t+z \sinh t, \\
\bar{z}=y \sinh t+z \cosh t .
\end{array}\right.
$$

(2) Isotropic rotation defined as

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\bar{x}(t)=x+b t,  \tag{2}\\
\bar{y}(t)=y+x(t)+b \frac{t^{2}}{2}, \\
\bar{z}=z,
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $t \in R$ and $b$ is some positive constant.
Let $M$ be a $C^{r}, r \geqslant 1$ surface in $G_{3}^{1}$ parameterised by

$$
\mathbf{X}\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(X\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right), Y\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right), Z\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)\right) .
$$

Denote $R_{i}=\frac{\partial R}{\partial u_{i}}, R=X, Y, Z$ and $i=1,2$. Then $M$ is called admissible surface if and only if $X_{i} \neq 0$ for some $i=1,2$. Define a function $W$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
W=\sqrt{\left|\left(X_{1} Y_{2}-X_{2} Y_{1}\right)^{2}-\left(X_{1} Z_{2}-X_{2} Z_{1}\right)^{2}\right|} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The unit normal vector field $N$ of $M$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=\frac{1}{W}\left(0, X_{1} Z_{2}-X_{2} Z_{1}, X_{1} Y_{2}-X_{2} Y_{1}\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $N \cdot N= \pm 1=\epsilon$, there are two types of admissible surfaces: spacelike surfaces having timelike unit normal $(\epsilon=-1)$ and timelike surface having spacelike normal
$(\epsilon=1)$ [2].
Let us denote

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{i}=\frac{\partial X}{\partial u_{i}} \text { and } h_{i j}=\left(0, Y_{i}, Z_{i}\right) \cdot\left(0, Y_{j}, Z_{j}\right), \quad i, j=1,2 . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first fundamental form in matrix form $M$ in $G_{3}^{1}$ is written as

$$
d s^{2}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
d s_{1}^{2} & 0 \\
0 & d s_{2}^{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $d s_{1}^{2}=\left(g_{1} d u_{1}+g_{2} d u_{2}\right)^{2}$ and $d s_{2}^{2}=h_{11} d u_{1}^{2}+2 h_{12} d u_{1} d u_{2}+h_{22} d u_{2}^{2}$. The second fundamental form coefficients of $M$ in $G_{3}^{1}$ are given by

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
L_{i j}=\epsilon \frac{1}{g_{1}}\left(g_{1}\left(0, Y_{i j}, Z_{i j}\right)-g_{i j}\left(0, Y_{1}, Z_{1}\right)\right) \cdot N  \tag{6}\\
\quad=\epsilon \frac{1}{g_{2}}\left(g_{2}\left(0, Y_{i j}, Z_{i j}\right)-g_{i j}\left(0, Y_{2}, Z_{2}\right)\right) \cdot N
\end{array}\right\}
$$

The Gaussian and the mean curvature of $M$ is defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
K & =-\epsilon \frac{L_{11} L_{22}-L_{12}^{2}}{W^{2}} \\
H & =-\epsilon \frac{X_{2}^{2} L_{11}-2 X_{1} X_{2} L_{12}+X_{1}^{2} L_{22}}{2 W^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

respectively.
A surface $M$ is called as a finite Chen-type if its coordinate functions can be written finitely as a sum of eigenfunctions of its Laplacian [7]. Afterward, various authors have classified the various finite type surfaces in Euclidean space $\mathbb{E}^{3}$ and in other spaces. In [26] Takahashi states that minimal surfaces and spheres are the only surfaces in $\mathbb{E}^{3}$ satisfying

$$
\Delta \mathbf{X}=\lambda \mathbf{X}
$$

For more studies of finite type of surfaces, we refer [4, 5, 15]. Let $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)$ be a local coordinate system of $M$, then the Laplacian of the first fundamental form on $M$ is given by [22]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta=-\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{D}}} \sum_{i, j=1}^{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{i}}\left(\sqrt{\mathcal{D}} g^{i j} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{j}}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g_{i j}$ are the components of $d s^{2}, \mathcal{D}=\operatorname{det}\left(g_{i j}\right)$ and $\left(g^{i j}\right)=\left(g_{i j}\right)^{-1}$.
In this paper, we investigate the linear Weingarten revolution surfaces i.e., the revolution surfaces satisfying the relation $a H+b K=C$. In particular, we classify the NGC(Null Gaussian curvature) revolution surfaces and the revolution surfaces with vanishing mean curvature. Further, we study the finite type revolution surfaces in $G_{3}^{1}$, i.e., $M$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \mathbf{X}_{i}=\lambda_{i} \mathbf{X}_{i} . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We furnish the study by providing some figures also.

## 3 Revolution surfaces of type $I$ and type $I I$ in $G_{3}^{1}$

Rotating a non-isotropic curve $(f(u), g(u), 0), g>0$, around the x-axis by pseudo-Euclidean rotation, we obtain a surface

$$
\begin{equation*}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(f\left(u_{1}\right), g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Again rotating a non-isotropic curve $(f(u), 0, g(u)), g>0$, around the x-axis we obtain a surface

$$
\begin{equation*}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(f\left(u_{1}\right), g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}\right) . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call (9) and (10) as a revolution surface of type $I$ and type $I I$, respectively.
Now suppose $M$ is a revolution surface of type I. Then from (5), we get $g_{1}=f^{\prime}, \quad g_{2}=0$, $h_{11}=0, \quad h_{12}=0, \quad h_{22}=-g^{2}$,
The components of the first fundamental form $d s^{2}$ on $M$ are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{11}=1, \quad g_{12}=0, \quad g_{22}=-g^{2} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The unit normal vector is given by

$$
N=\frac{1}{W}\left(0, f^{\prime} g \sinh u_{2}, f^{\prime} g \cosh u_{2}\right)
$$

where $W=f^{\prime} g$.
Also the second fundamental coefficients are given as
$L_{11}=\frac{\epsilon}{W f_{1}}\left(f^{\prime 2} g g^{\prime \prime}-f^{\prime} f^{\prime \prime} g g^{\prime}\right), \quad L_{12}=0, \quad L_{22}=\frac{\epsilon}{w} f^{\prime} g^{2}$.
Theorem 1. The revolution surfaces of type I are of Weingarten type.
Proof. It can be easily seen that the Gaussian curvature and the mean curvature of $M$ is

$$
\begin{gather*}
K=-\epsilon \frac{f^{\prime} g^{\prime \prime}-g^{\prime} f^{\prime \prime}}{f^{\prime}} \cdot \frac{1}{f^{\prime 2} g},  \tag{12}\\
H=\frac{-1}{2 g}, \tag{13}
\end{gather*}
$$

respectively. Equations (12) and (13) yield that $K$ and $H$ depend on the coordinate $u_{1}$ implying $\left|\frac{\partial(K, H)}{\partial\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)}\right|=0$, which implies that the surface is of Weingarten type.

Theorem 2. Let $M$ be a linear Weingarten revolution surface of type I in $G_{3}^{1}$. Then $M$ is of the form
(1) When $M$ is timelike and $c=0$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right)  \tag{14}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=-\frac{m u_{1}^{2}}{2}+c_{1} u_{1}+c_{2}, \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R .
\end{array}\right.
$$

(2) When $M$ is spacelike and $c=0$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right)  \tag{15}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=\frac{m u_{1}^{2}}{2}+c_{1} u_{1}+c_{2}, \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R .
\end{array}\right.
$$

(3) When $M$ is timelike and $c \neq 0$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right) ;  \tag{16}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=-\frac{m}{n}+c_{1} \cos \left(\sqrt{n} u_{1}\right)+c_{2} \sin \left(\sqrt{n} u_{1}\right), \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R .
\end{array}\right.
$$

(4) When $M$ is spacelike $c \neq 0$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right) ;  \tag{17}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=-\frac{m}{n}+c_{1} e^{\sqrt{n} u_{1}}+c_{2} e^{-\sqrt{n} u_{1}}, \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Since $M$ is a linear Weingarten revolution surface $M$ of type I, i.e., the Gaussian and the mean curvature of $M$ satisfies a relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a H+b K=c, \quad a, b, c \in R \text { and }(a, b, c) \neq(0,0,0) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Without loss of generality assuming $b \neq 0$. Dividing both sides of (18) by $b$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 m H+K=n, \quad \text { where } \frac{a}{b}=2 m, \frac{c}{b}=n \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $f, g$ are $C^{r}, r \geqslant 1$ arbitrary functions of $u_{1}$, assuming $f\left(u_{1}\right)=u_{1}$. Substituting (12) and (13) in (18), we get

$$
-\frac{m}{g}-\epsilon\left(\frac{g^{\prime \prime}}{g}\right)=n
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon g^{\prime \prime}+n g+m=0 \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now when $c=0$ i.e., $n=0$, from (20), we obtain

$$
\epsilon g^{\prime \prime}+m=0 .
$$

Integrating the above equation twice for $\epsilon=1,-1$, we obtain (14) and (15), respectively.
For $c \neq 0$ and $\epsilon=1,-1$, from (20), we obtain (16) and (17), respectively.


Figure 1: Timelike L.W. revolution for $c=0$.


Figure 2: Spacelike L.W. revolution for $c=0$.


Figure 3: Timelike L.W. revolution for $c \neq 0$.


Figure 4: Spacelike L.W. revolution for $c \neq 0$

Corollary 1. Let $M$ be a NGC revolution surface of type I in $G_{3}^{1}$, then $M$ is of the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right)  \tag{21}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=\epsilon\left(c_{1} u_{1}+c_{2}\right), \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. For $M$ to be a NGC revolution surface, using $a=0$ and $c=0$ in (20), which implies that $n=0$ and $m=0$, i.e., we get

$$
\epsilon g^{\prime \prime}=0 .
$$

Integrating the above equation twice, we obtain (21).
Corollary 2. Let $M$ be a revolution surface of type I of constant Gaussian curvature in $G_{3}^{1}$, then $M$ is of the form
(1) When $M$ is timelike

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right) ;  \tag{22}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=c_{1} \cos \left(\sqrt{n} u_{1}\right)+c_{2} \sin \left(\sqrt{n} u_{1}\right), \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R .
\end{array}\right.
$$

(2) When $M$ is spacelike

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right)  \tag{23}\\
g\left(u_{1}\right)=c_{1} e^{\sqrt{n} u_{1}}+c_{2} e^{-\sqrt{n} u_{1}}, \quad c_{1}, c_{2} \in R
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Since $M$ is a revolution surface of constant Gaussian curvature, i.e., $a=0$ in (18), which implies from (19) $m=0$,
Thus, from (20), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon g^{\prime \prime}+n g=0 . \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting $\epsilon=1$ i.e., $M$ is timelike and $\epsilon=-1$ i.e., $M$ is spacelike in (24), we obtain (22) and (23), respectively.

Corollary 3. There are no minimal revolution surfaces of type I in $G_{3}^{1}$.
Proof. The proof follows easily from (13).
Remark 1. The same results hold for the revolution surfaces of type II.

## 4 Revolution surfaces of type $I I I$ in $G_{3}^{1}$

Definition 1. Using the isotropic rotation to rotate the isotropic curve ( $0, f\left(u_{1}\right)$, $g\left(u_{1}\right)$ ) about the $z$-axis, we obtain a revolution surface of type III given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{2}, f\left(u_{1}\right)+\frac{u_{2}^{2}}{2 b}, g\left(u_{1}\right)\right), \quad b \neq 0 . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3. The revolution surfaces of type III are of Weingarten type.

Proof. Assuming that the curve is parameterised by $f^{\prime 2}-g^{\prime 2}=-\epsilon, \epsilon= \pm 1$. One can easily deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=-\frac{f^{\prime \prime}}{b} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=-\frac{\epsilon f^{\prime \prime}}{2 \sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (26) and (27), both $K$ and $H$ are independent of $u_{2}$, which implies that $\left|\frac{\partial(H, K)}{\partial\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)}\right|=0$. Hence the result follows.

Theorem 4. Let $M$ be a linear Weingarten revolution surface of type III, then $M$ is of the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{2}, f\left(u_{1}\right)+\frac{u_{2}^{2}}{2 b}, g\left(u_{1}\right)\right)  \tag{28}\\
f\left(u_{1}\right)= \pm \sqrt{p\left(\frac{n}{H}-2 m\right)^{2}-\epsilon} u_{1} \\
g\left(u_{1}\right)= \pm p\left(\frac{n}{H}-2 m\right) u_{1}+d_{2}, \quad \text { where } d_{2} \text { is some constant. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Using (26) and (27), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
H & =-\frac{\epsilon f^{\prime \prime}}{2 \sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}} \\
& =\frac{\epsilon b K}{2 \sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}} \\
& =\frac{\epsilon p K}{\sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}}, \quad \text { where } \frac{b}{2}=p . \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

From (29), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}= \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{p K}{H}\right)^{2}-\epsilon} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Integrating (30), we have

$$
f= \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{p K}{H}\right)^{2}-\epsilon} u_{1}+d_{1}, \quad \text { where } d_{1} \text { is a constant of intergration. }
$$

Now assuming that $M$ is a linear Weingarten revolution surface of type $I I I$, from (19), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
f= \pm \sqrt{p^{2}\left(\frac{n}{H}-2 m\right)^{2}-\epsilon} u_{1}+d_{1} . \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Choosing $d_{1}=0$ and using the parametrization equation, we can easily deduce

$$
\begin{equation*}
g= \pm p\left(\frac{n}{H}-2 m\right) u_{1}+d_{2}, \quad \text { where } d_{2} \text { is some constant. } \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (31) and (32), the result follows.


Figure 5: L.W. Revolution surface of type III
Theorem 5. Let $M$ be a linear Weingarten revolution surface of type III in $G_{3}^{1}$, then $M$ is of the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{2}, f\left(u_{1}\right)+\frac{u_{2}^{2}}{2 b}, u_{1}\right) ; \\
f\left(u_{1}\right)=f\left(u_{1}\right)=\frac{ \pm(1 \pm 2 m p) \operatorname{Exp}\left(\mp \frac{-2 n p}{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) u_{1}}-c_{1}\right)}{2 p n} \pm \frac{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) \operatorname{Exp}\left( \pm \frac{-2 n p}{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) u_{1}}+c_{1}\right)}{8 p n}+c_{2} .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Since $f, g$ are arbitrary functions $C^{r}, r \geq 1$ functions of $u_{1}$. Assuming $g\left(u_{1}\right)=u_{1}$. Then for $d_{2}=0$, from (32), we have

$$
u_{1}= \pm p\left(\frac{n}{H}-2 m\right) u_{1},
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
H \pm 2 m p H= \pm p n . \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (33) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) f^{\prime \prime} \pm 2 p n \sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}=0 \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (34), we obtain
$\begin{aligned} f\left(u_{1}\right)= & \frac{ \pm(1 \pm 2 m p) \operatorname{Exp}\left(\mp \frac{-2 n p}{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) u_{1}}-c_{1}\right)}{2 p n} \pm \frac{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) \operatorname{Exp}\left( \pm \frac{-2 n p}{\epsilon(1 \pm 2 m p) u_{1}}+c_{1}\right)}{8 p n} \\ & +c_{2},\end{aligned}$
where $c_{1}, c_{2} \in \mathbb{R}$.
Hence, the result follows.

### 4.1 Amalgamatic curvature

For hypersurfaces in Euclidean $n$-spaces, a new kind of curvature called as amalgamatic curvature was defined in [8]. In particular when $n=3$, the amalgamatic curvature is the harmonic ratio of the principal curvatures, i.e., the ratio of the Gaussian and the mean curvature. Indeed in the above results, we see that for the cases $c=0$, the results reduce to amalgamatic case.


Figure 6: L.W. revolution surface of type III

Corollary 4. Let $M$ be a revolution surface of type III in the pseudo-Galilean space $G_{3}^{1}$ with the ratio $\frac{K}{H}=c_{1} \neq 0$, where $c_{1}$ is a constant, then $M$ is of the form

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)=\left(u_{2}, f\left(u_{1}\right)+\frac{u_{2}^{2}}{2 b}, g\left(u_{1}\right)\right)  \tag{35}\\
f\left(u_{1}\right)=\sqrt{p^{2} c_{1}^{2}-\epsilon} u_{1}+c_{2} \\
g\left(u_{1}\right)= \pm p c_{1}+c_{3}
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $c_{2}$ and $c_{3}$ are constants.
Proof. From (29), we have

$$
H=\frac{\epsilon p K}{\sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}}
$$

or,

$$
\frac{\sqrt{f^{\prime 2}+\epsilon}}{\epsilon p}=\frac{K}{H}=c_{1}
$$

or,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}=\sqrt{p^{2} c_{1}^{2}-\epsilon} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Integrating (36), we obtain

$$
f=\sqrt{p^{2} c_{1}^{2}-\epsilon} u_{1}+c_{2},
$$

where $c_{2}$ is a constant.
Now since $f^{\prime 2}-g^{\prime 2}=-\epsilon$, we get

$$
g= \pm p c_{1}+c_{3}
$$

where $c_{3}$ is a constant.

## 5 Finite type of revolution surface in $G_{3}^{1}$

Theorem 6. Let $M$ be a revolution surface of type I satisfying $\Delta x_{i}=\lambda_{i} x_{i}$, then $g$ is of the form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (1) } \pm \frac{u_{1}}{\sqrt{2}}+c, \\
& \text { (2) } \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}}} \sinh \left[\frac{1}{2}\left( \pm \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}} u_{1}+2 \sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}} c\right)\right], \\
& \text { where } \lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}>0 \text { and } c \text { is a constant. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Let $M$ be a revolution surface given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
M=\left(u_{1}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \cosh u_{2}, g\left(u_{1}\right) \sinh u_{2}\right) . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (11), we have

$$
\left(g_{i j}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0  \tag{38}\\
0 & -g^{2}
\end{array}\right) \text { and }\left(g_{i j}\right)^{-1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{-1}{g^{2}}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Using (7) and (38), we can easily find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta=-\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial u_{1}^{2}}-\frac{g^{\prime}}{g} \frac{\partial}{\partial u_{1}}+\frac{1}{g^{2}} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial u_{2}^{2}} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $M$ satisfies (8), from (37) and (39), we obtain

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\lambda_{1} u_{1}=-\frac{g^{\prime}}{g}  \tag{40}\\
\lambda_{2} g \cosh u_{2}=\left(-g^{\prime \prime}-\frac{g^{\prime 2}}{g}+\frac{1}{g}\right) \cosh u_{2} \\
\lambda_{3} g \sinh u_{2}=\left(-g^{\prime \prime}-\frac{g^{\prime 2}}{g}+\frac{1}{g}\right) \sinh u_{2}
\end{array}\right.
$$

From (40), we see that $M$ is of at most two types. Rewriting (40), we have

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\lambda_{1} u_{1}=-\frac{g^{\prime}}{g},  \tag{41}\\
\lambda_{2} g=\left(-g^{\prime \prime}-\frac{g^{\prime 2}}{g}+\frac{1}{g}\right) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Now, we classify (37) according to the different possibilities of $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$.
Case1: If $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}=0$, from (41), we arrive at a contradiction. So there exist no revolution surfaces in this case.
Differentiating the first equation of (41) w.r.t. $u_{1}$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}=-\frac{g g^{\prime \prime}-g^{\prime 2}}{g^{2}} \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using (42) in the second equation of (41), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 g^{\prime 2}+\left(\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}\right) g^{2}-1=0 \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Case2: If $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2} \neq 0$, from (43), we have

$$
g= \pm \frac{u_{1}}{\sqrt{2}}+c
$$

Case3: If $\lambda_{1}=0, \lambda_{2} \neq 0$, from (43), we have

$$
g=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{2}}} \sinh \left[\frac{1}{2}\left( \pm \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\lambda_{2}} u_{1}+2 \sqrt{\lambda_{2}} c\right)\right] .
$$

Case4: If $\lambda_{1} \neq 0, \lambda_{2}=0$, from (43), we obtain

$$
g=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}}} \sinh \left[\frac{1}{2}\left( \pm \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\lambda_{1}} u_{1}+2 \sqrt{\lambda_{1}} c\right)\right]
$$

Case5: If $\lambda_{1} \neq \lambda_{2} \neq 0$, from (43), we get

$$
g=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}}} \sinh \left[\frac{1}{2}\left( \pm \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}} u_{1}+2 \sqrt{\lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}} c\right)\right], \lambda_{1}-\lambda_{2}>0
$$

and $c$ is a constant. From case 5 , we see that cases 2, 3, 4 follow from case 5 by fixing up the values of $\lambda_{1}$ and $\lambda_{2}$.
Hence the result follows.


Figure 7: Finite type of revolution surface

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