## Research Article

# Normal and Osculating Planes of $\Delta$-Regular Curves 

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We present the normal and osculating planes of the curves parameterized by a compact subinterval of a time scale.

## 1. Introduction

Concept of calculus on time scales (or measure chains) was initiated by Hilger and Aulbach $[1,2]$ in order to unify discrete and continuous analyses. This theory is appealing because it provides a useful tool for modeling dynamical processes. Since a time-scale is a closed subset of the reals [3], curves may have scattered points in multidimensional time scale spaces. Therefore, $\Delta$-differentiation plays a major role in investigation of curves parameterized by an arbitrary time scale.

The results in this paper were motivated by geometric interpretation of the results presented in [4].

In this paper, we consider planes whose normal is $\Delta$-differentiable vector that is each component of the vector is $\Delta$-differentiable (i.e., normal planes) and which contain first and second order $\Delta$-differentiable vectors (i.e., osculating planes). In this study we present the normal and osculating planes of the curves parameterized by a compact subinterval of a time scale. Since we need vector valued functions to study $\Delta$-differentiable vectors of curves, we first define the concept of vector valued functions on time scales in Section 2. In [5] Guseinov and Özylmaz introduced the tangent line for $\Delta$-regular curves in 3-dimensional time scales; then in [4] Bohner and Guseinov obtained the equation of such tangent line. The tangent line can also be studied in the concept of partial $\Delta$-differentiation. In Section 3, we obtain the equations of tangent vectors of planar curves by using partial $\Delta$-differentiation. Then we derive the equation of the normal plane for a $\Delta$-regular curve. In Section 4 , we present the basic theorem to construct osculating plane of a curve and obtain the equation of this plane by using first- and-second order $\Delta$-derivatives.

We refer the reader to resources such as $[3,4,6,7]$ and $[8,9]$ for more detailed discussions on the calculus of time scales and on the differential geometry of curves, respectively.

## 2. Vector-Valued Functions on Time Scales

Let $n$ be fixed. Let $\mathbb{T}_{i}$ denote a time scale for each $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Let us set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Lambda^{n}=\mathbb{T}_{1} \times \mathbb{T}_{2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{T}_{n}=\left\{t=\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right): t_{i} \in \mathbb{T}_{i} \forall i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}\right\} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call $\Lambda^{n}$ an $n$-dimensional time scale. $\Lambda^{n}$ is also a complete metric space with

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(x, y)=\left(\sum_{i}^{n}\left|x_{i}-y_{i}\right|^{2}\right)^{1 / 2} \quad \text { for } x, y \in \Lambda^{n} \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let a time-scale parameter $t$ vary in an interval $[a, b]$. If to each value $t \in[a, b]$ we assign a vector $r(t)$, then we say that a vector-valued function $r(t)$ with argument $t \in[a, b]$ is given. Assume that coordinates $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ are fixed; then the representation of vector-valued function $r(t)$ is equivalent to the representation of scalar functions $x_{1}(t), x_{2}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)$; that is, $r(t)=\left\{x_{1}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)\right\}$.

Definition 2.1. A vector $r_{0}$ is called the limit of the vector-valued function $r(t)$ as $t \rightarrow t_{0}$ if the length of the vector $r(t)-r\left(t_{0}\right)$ tends to zero as $t \rightarrow t_{0}$. Here we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} r(t)=r\left(t_{0}\right) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that the vector-valued function $r(t)$ has a limit if and only if each one of the functions $x_{1}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)$ has a limit as $t \rightarrow t_{0}$.

Definition 2.2. $\Delta$-Derivative of a vector-valued function can be obtained by $\Delta$-differentiating components $x_{1}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)$ of $r(t)$; that is,

$$
\begin{equation*}
r^{\Delta}(t)=\left\{x_{1}^{\Delta}(t), \ldots, x_{n}^{\Delta}(t)\right\} \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Precisely, for the $\Delta$-derivative $r^{\Delta}(t)$ of the vector-valued function $r(t)$, we call the limit

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{s \rightarrow t} \frac{r(\sigma(t))-r(s)}{\sigma(t)-s} \tag{2.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If this limit exists, then $r(t)$ is called $\Delta$-differentiable.

Proposition 2.3. Let $r_{1}(t)$ and $r_{2}(t)$ be vector-valued functions. Then
(i) $\left(r_{1}(t)+r_{2}(t)\right)^{\Delta}=r_{1}^{\Delta}(t)+r_{2}^{\Delta}(t)$,
(ii) $\left(r_{1} r_{2}\right)^{\Delta}=r_{1}^{\Delta} r_{2}+r_{1}^{\sigma} r_{2}^{\Delta}$.

The $\Delta$-differentiation of the inner products and vector products of vector-valued functions, is computed by the consecutive differentiation of the cofactors.

Proposition 2.4. Let $r_{1}(t)$ and $r_{2}(t)$ be vector-valued functions, let $\times$ be Euclidean vector product, and let Euclidean inner product. Then
(i) $\left(r_{1} \cdot r_{2}\right)^{\Delta}=r_{1}^{\Delta} \cdot r_{2}+r_{1}^{\sigma} \cdot r_{2}^{\Delta}$,
(ii) $\left(r_{1} \times r_{2}\right)^{\Delta}=r_{1}^{\Delta} \times r_{2}+r_{1}^{\sigma} \times r_{2}^{\Delta}=r_{1}^{\Delta} \times r_{2}^{\sigma}+r_{1} \times r_{2}^{\Delta}$.

Definition 2.5 (Taylor's expansion for vector-valued functions). Assume that $n$ times $\Delta$ derivative of the vector-valued function $r(t)$ exist and are $r d$-continuous, then we can write Taylor's expansions for the components; $x_{1}(t), \ldots, x_{n}(t)$ as

$$
\begin{align*}
x_{1}(t) & =h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{1}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{1}^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{1}^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+\cdots+o_{1}\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right) \\
& \vdots  \tag{2.6}\\
x_{n}(t) & =h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{n}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{n}^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) x_{n}^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+\cdots+o_{n}\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right),
\end{align*}
$$

where $h_{0}(r, s) \equiv 1, h_{k+1}(r, s)=\int_{s}^{r} h_{k}(\tau, s) \Delta \tau$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}_{0}$, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)=\int_{t_{0}}^{\rho^{n-1}(t)} h_{n-1}(t, \sigma(\tau)) x_{i}^{\Delta^{n}}(\tau) \Delta \tau \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i=\{1, \ldots, n\}$.
This system of three equations can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(t)=h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+\cdots+o\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right), \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $o\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right)$ denotes a vector whose length is an infinitesimal since $\lim _{t \rightarrow t_{0}} g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)=0$.
Remark 2.6. There exists one essential difference between Taylor's expansions of vectorvalued function and scalar function. If we consider Taylor's expansion for a scalar function $f(t)$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
o\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right)=f^{\Delta^{k+1}}(\xi) h_{k+1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi$ is a point between $\rho^{n-1}(t)$ and $t_{0}$. For a vector-valued function we cannot write similar formula for the corresponding infinitesimal vector, because in general for different components of the vector $o\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right)$ the corresponding points $\xi$ are different. However, it is more important to note that the length of the vector $o\left(g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right)$ is an infinitesimal with respect to $g_{n}\left(t, t_{0}\right)$.

## 3. Tangent Line to a Curve

Let $\mathbb{T}$ be a time scale.
Definition 3.1. A $\Delta$-regular curve $\Gamma$ is defined as a mapping

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=f_{1}(t), \quad y=f_{2}(t), \quad z=f_{3}(t), \quad t \in[a, b] \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

of the segment $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{T}, a<b$, to the space $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, where $f_{1}, f_{2}, f_{3}$ are real-valued functions defined on $[a, b]$ and $\Delta$-differentiable on $[a, b]^{\kappa}$ with $r d$-continuous $\Delta$-derivatives and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|f_{1}^{\Delta}(t)\right|^{2}+\left|f_{2}^{\Delta}(t)\right|^{2}+\left|f_{3}^{\Delta}(t)\right|^{2} \neq 0 \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 3.2. A line $\Omega_{0}$ passing through the point $P_{0}$ is called the delta tangent line to the curve $\Gamma$ at the point $P_{0}$ if the following held.
(i) $\mathscr{L}_{0}$ passes also through the point $P_{0}^{\sigma}=\left(x\left(\sigma\left(t_{0}\right)\right), y\left(\sigma\left(t_{0}\right)\right), z\left(\sigma\left(t_{0}\right)\right)\right)$.
(ii) If $P_{o}$ is not an isolated point of the curve $\Gamma$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\substack{P \rightarrow P_{0} \\ P \neq P_{0}}} \frac{d\left(P, \varrho_{0}\right)}{d\left(P, P_{0}\right)} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $P$ is the moving point of the curve $\Gamma, d\left(P, \Omega_{0}\right)$ is the distance from the point $P$ to the line $\mathscr{L}_{0}$, and $d\left(P, P_{0}\right)$ is the distance from the point $P$ to the point $P_{0}^{\sigma}$.

Theorem 3.3. For any point $P_{0}$ of the curve $\Gamma$ there exists the tangent to $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$ and the directing vector of the tangent is $\Delta$-differential of its position vector function $r^{\Delta}\left(t^{0}\right)$, where $r\left(t^{0}\right)=P_{0}$ for $t^{0} \in \mathbb{T}$.

Proof. This theorem can be proven as in [5], Theorem 3.3.
Let three functions $x: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, y: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $z: \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given. Let us set $x(\mathbb{T}):=\mathbb{T}_{1}, y(\mathbb{T})=\mathbb{T}_{2}$, and $z(\mathbb{T})=\mathbb{T}_{3}$. We will assume that $\mathbb{T}_{1}, \mathbb{T}_{2}$, and $\mathbb{T}_{3}$ are time scales. Denote by $\sigma_{1} \Delta_{1}, \sigma_{2} \Delta_{2}, \sigma_{3} \Delta_{3}$ the forward jump operators and delta operators for $\mathbb{T}_{1}, \mathbb{T}_{2}$, and $\mathbb{T}_{3}$, respectively.

Under the above assumptions, let functions $\phi: \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\varphi: \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given.

Consider a space curve given by two equations.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \phi(x, y, z)=0  \tag{3.4}\\
& \varphi(x, y, z)=0
\end{align*}
$$

If $x=x(t), y=y(t), z=z(t)$ is the position vector of the considered curve, then, substituting these three functions into (3.4), we obtain two equalities:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \phi(x(t), y(t), z(t))=0 \\
& \varphi(x(t), y(t), z(t))=0 . \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

If the functions $\phi$ and $\varphi$ are $\sigma_{1}$-completely differentiable, then, $\Delta$-differentiation of these two equalities leads

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial \phi}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{1}}}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{1}}}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0 \\
& \frac{\partial \varphi}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{1}}}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{1}}}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0 \tag{3.6}
\end{align*}
$$

If $\phi$ and $\varphi$ are $\sigma_{2}$-completely differentiable, then $\Delta$-differentiation of (3.5) leads us to obtain the following two equations:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{2}}}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{2}}}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0  \tag{3.7}\\
& \frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{2}}}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{2}}}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0
\end{align*}
$$

If $\phi$ and $\varphi$ are $\sigma_{3}$-completely differentiable, then $\Delta$-differentiation of (3.5) leads us to obtain the following two equations:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{3}}}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{3}}}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0  \tag{3.8}\\
& \frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{3}}}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi^{\sigma_{3}}}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \varphi}{\Delta_{3} z} z^{\Delta}=0
\end{align*}
$$

Other combinations of $\sigma_{i}$-completely differentiability of $\phi$ and $\varphi$ can be shown similarly. The components $\left\{x^{\Delta}, y^{\Delta}, z^{\Delta}\right\}$ of the tangent vector satisfy the system consisting of two equations: (3.6), (3.7), and (3.8).

Assume that $\phi$ is $\sigma_{1}$-completely differentiable planar curve given by the equations $\phi(x, y)=0, z=0$ satisfying the condition $\left(\partial \phi / \Delta_{1} x\right)^{2}+\left(\partial \phi^{\sigma_{1}} / \Delta_{2} y\right)^{2} \neq 0$; then the components of the tangent vector $r^{\Delta}=\left\{x^{\Delta}, y^{\Delta}\right\}$ are the solution of the linear equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \phi}{\Delta_{1} x} x^{\Delta}+\frac{\partial \phi^{\sigma_{1}}}{\Delta_{2} y} y^{\Delta}=0 \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, $\left\{x^{\Delta}, y^{\Delta}\right\}=\mu\left\{-\partial \phi^{\sigma_{1}} / \Delta_{2} y, \partial \phi / \Delta_{1} x\right\}$, and the equation of tangent is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\tilde{x}-x_{0}}{-\partial \phi\left(\sigma_{1}\left(x_{0}\right), y_{0}\right) / \Delta_{2} y}=\frac{\tilde{y}-y_{0}}{\partial \phi\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) / \Delta_{1} x} \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

If planar curve $\phi$ is $\sigma_{2}$-completely differentiable, then equation of tangent plane becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left(\tilde{x}-x_{0}\right)}{-\left(\partial \phi\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) / \Delta_{2} y\right)}=\frac{\left(\tilde{y}-y_{0}\right)}{\partial \phi\left(x_{0}, \sigma_{2}\left(y_{0}\right)\right) / \Delta_{1} x} \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 3.4. Let $\Gamma$ be a smooth and completely differentiable space curve. The plane passing through points $P_{0} \in \Gamma$ and orthogonal to the vector tangent to $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$ is called the plane normal to $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$.

Denote by $\hat{r}$ the position vector of the normal plane. Since this plane is orthogonal to the vector $r^{\Delta}$ and contains the point with position vector $\widehat{r}-r\left(t_{0}\right)$, the equation of the normal plane is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\widehat{r}-r\left(t_{0}\right)\right) \cdot r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)=0 \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

The vectors orthogonal to the tangent are called the vectors normal to $\Gamma$.

## 4. Osculating Plane of a Curve

Let $P_{0}$ be a point of a curve $\Gamma$. Take two points $Q_{1}, Q_{2} \in \Gamma$ situated right side of $P_{0}^{\sigma}$. If the points $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ tend to $P_{0}^{\sigma}$, then the limit position of the plane containing $P_{0}, P_{0}^{\sigma}, Q_{1}, Q_{2}$ is called the osculating plane of $\Gamma$ at the point $P_{0}$.

Theorem 4.1. Let $\Gamma$ be a $\Delta$-regular curve represented as $r=r(t)$. Assume that the vectors $r{ }^{\Delta}$ and $r^{\Delta^{2}}$ are not collinear at point $P_{0}$. Then there exists the osculating plane of $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$ and it is spanned by the vectors $r^{\Delta}$ and $r^{\Delta^{2}}$.

Proof. If $P_{0}=P_{0}^{\sigma}$, that is, $P_{0}$ is right-dense point of $\Gamma$, then this theorem can be proven as in differential geometry concept.

Let $P_{0}$ be a right-scattered point of $\Gamma$. Then, the positions vector of $\underset{P_{0} Q_{1}}{\rightarrow}$ and $\overrightarrow{P_{0} Q_{2}}$ are $a_{1}=r\left(t_{0}+\tau_{1}\right)-r\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $a_{2}=r\left(t_{0}+\tau_{2}\right)-r\left(t_{0}\right)$, respectively. That is, these vectors, if linearly independent, span the plane $E$.

This plane is also spanned by the vectors $v^{(i)}=a_{i} / \tau_{i}$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$ or by the vectors

$$
\begin{equation*}
v^{(1)}, \quad w=\frac{2\left(v^{(2)}-v^{(1)}\right)}{\tau_{2}-\tau_{1}} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the means of Taylor's formula, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
r\left(t_{0}+\tau_{i}\right)=h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+o\left(g_{2}\left(t_{0}\right)\right) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
v^{(1)} & =r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+\frac{\tau_{1}}{2} r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+o\left(\tau_{1}\right)  \tag{4.3}\\
w & =r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+o(1)
\end{align*}
$$

Consequently, if $\tau_{i} \rightarrow 0$ for $i \in\{1,2\}$, then $v^{(1)} \rightarrow r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $w \rightarrow r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)$.
These vectors, if linearly independent, determine the limiting position of the plane $E$ passing through the points $P_{0}, P_{0}^{\sigma}, Q_{1}, Q_{2}$.

Corollary 4.2. If the vectors $r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)$ and $r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)$ are collinear, then the limit position of considering plane is not determined. For instance, take a straight line

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(t)=a+b t \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a, b$ are constant vectors and $t \in \mathbb{T}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)=b, \quad r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)=0, \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

so the osculating plane of the straight line is not determined uniquely. If $r^{\Delta}(t)$ and $r^{\Delta^{2}}(t)$ are collinear, then the corresponding point of $\Gamma$ is called the straightening point of $\Gamma$.

Theorem 4.3. The osculating plane of a planar curve coincides with the plane containing this curve.
Proof. Let us consider the Taylor expansion of the position vector $r(t)$ at the neighborhood of $P_{0}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
r\left(t_{0}+\tau\right)=h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right)+o\left(g_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The curve $\bar{\Gamma}$, determined by the expantion,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{r}=h_{0}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{1}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta}\left(t_{0}\right)+h_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right) r^{\Delta^{2}}\left(t_{0}\right) \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

is situated in the osculating plane of $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$; the difference between the position vectors of $\Gamma$ and $\bar{\Gamma}$ is a sufficiently small vector

$$
\begin{equation*}
r\left(t_{0}+\tau\right)-\bar{r}(\tau)=o\left(g_{2}\left(t, t_{0}\right)\right) \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence a sufficiently small neighborhood of $P_{0}$ on the space curve $\Gamma$ is near to the planar curve $\bar{\Gamma}$ situated in the osculating plane of $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$.

Now let us write the equation of the osculating plane of $\Gamma$ at $P_{0}$. Let $\hat{r}$ be the position vector of the osculating plane. Since $r^{\Delta}$ and $r^{\Delta^{2}}$ span the osculating plane, the vector product $r^{\Delta} \times r^{\Delta^{2}}$ is orthogonal to the osculating plane. The vector $\hat{r}-r\left(t_{0}\right)$ belongs to the osculating plane; therefore, the inner product of these vectors is equal to zero:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\widehat{r}-r\left(t_{0}\right)\right) \cdot\left(r^{\Delta} \times r^{\Delta^{2}}\right)=0 . \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

With respect to coordinate functions, this equation has the following form:

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{lll}
\hat{x}-x\left(t_{0}\right) & x^{\Delta} & x^{\Delta^{2}}  \tag{4.10}\\
\widehat{y}-y\left(t_{0}\right) & y^{\Delta} & y^{\Delta^{2}} \\
\hat{z}-z\left(t_{0}\right) & z^{\Delta} & z^{\Delta^{2}}
\end{array}\right)=0 .
$$

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