# ON THE ARCHIMEDEAN CHARACTERIZATION OF PARABOLAS 

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#### Abstract

Archimedes knew that the area between a parabola and any chord $A B$ on the parabola is four thirds of the area of triangle $\triangle A B P$ where P is the point on the parabola at which the tangent is parallel to $A B$. We consider whether this property (and similar ones) characterizes parabolas. We present five conditions which are necessary and sufficient for a strictly convex curve in the plane to be a parabola.


## 1. Introduction

A parabola is the set of points in the plane which are equidistant from a point $F$ called the focus and a line $l$ called the directrix. Archimedes found some interesting area properties of parabolas.

Consider the region bounded by a parabola and a chord $A B$. Let $P$ be the point on the parabola where the tangent is parallel to the chord $A B$. The line through $P$ parallel to the axis of the parabola meets chord $A B$ at a point $V$. Then, he showed that the area of the parabolic region is $a|P V|^{3 / 2}$ for some constant $a$, which depends only on the parabola.

Furthermore, he proved that the area of the parabolic region is $4 / 3$ times the area of triangle $\triangle A B P$ whose base is the chord and whose third vertex is $P$. For the proofs of Archimedes, see Chapter 7 of [8].

In this paper, we consider whether this property (and similar ones) characterizes parabolas. As a result, we present five conditions which are necessary and sufficient for a strictly convex curve in the plane to be a parabola.

Usually, a curve $X$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is called convex if it bounds a convex domain in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

[^0]Hereafter, we will say that a convex curve $X$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ is strictly convex if the curve is smooth (that is, $C^{2}$ ) and is of positive curvature $\kappa$ with respect to the unit normal $N$ pointing to the convex side. Hence, in this case we have $\kappa(s)=\left\langle X^{\prime \prime}(s), N(X(s))\right\rangle>0$, where $X(s)$ is an arclength parametrization of $X$.

For a smooth function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined on an open interval, we will also say that $f$ is strictly convex if the graph of $f$ has positive curvature $\kappa$ with respect to the upward unit normal $N$. This condition is equivalent to the positivity of $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ on $I$.

First of all, we prove the following characterization of parabolas:
Theorem 1. Let $X$ be the graph of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $f$ is a quadratic polynomial if and only if $X$ satisfies Condition: (A) For a point $P$ on $X$ and a chord $A B$ of $X$ parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$, let $V$ denote the point where the line through $P$ parallel to the $y$-axis meets $A B$. Then the area of the region bounded by the curve and $A B$ is $a|P V|^{3 / 2}$, where $a$ is a positive constant which depends only on the curve $X$.

Second, we prove:
Theorem 2. Let $X$ be the graph of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $f$ is a quadratic polynomial if and only if $X$ satisfies Condition: (B) For a sufficiently small $k>0$, let $X_{k}$ denote the graph of $y=f(x)+k$. For any point $V$ on $X_{k}$, let the tangent at $V$ meet the curve $X$ at $A$ and $B$. Then the region $S$ bounded by $X$ and the chord $A B$ has constant area (say, $\phi(k))$ independent of the choice of $V$.

Since $|P V|=k$, Theorem 1 is a special case of Theorem 2 for $\phi(k)=a k^{3 / 2}$, where $a$ is a constant.

Now, for an arbitrary strictly convex curve $X$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ which is not necessarily the graph of a function, we consider the following condition:
(C) For a point $P$ on $X$ and a chord $A B$ of $X$ parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$, the area of the region bounded by the curve and $A B$ is $4 / 3$ times the area of triangle $\triangle A B P$.

Then, we prove the following characterization of parabolas, which is the main theorem of this article.
Theorem 3. Let $X$ be a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $X$ is a parabola if and only if it satisfies Condition (C).

In order to prove Theorems 1,2 and 3 , first of all, in Section 2 we establish a new geometric meaning of curvature $\kappa$ of a plane convex curve $X$ at a point $P \in M$ with $\kappa(P)>0$ (Lemma 6). For the curvature function $\kappa$ of a plane curve, we refer to [3].

As applications of Theorem 3, we may prove some generalizations of Theorems 1 and 3 as follows.

Corollary 4. Let $X$ be a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $X$ is a parabola if and only if it satisfies Condition:
(D) For a point $P$ on $X$ and a chord $A B$ of $X$ parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$, the area of the region bounded by the curve and $A B$ is $a(P)|\triangle A B P|^{b(P)}$, where $a(P)$ and $b(P)$ are some functions of $P$ and $|\triangle A B P|$ denotes the area of the triangle $\triangle A B P$.

Finally, for the graph $X$ of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, we consider the following Condition:
(E) For a point $P$ on $X$ and a chord $A B$ of $X$ parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$, let $V$ denote the point where the line through $P$ parallel to the $y$-axis meets $A B$. Then the area of the region bounded by the curve and $A B$ is $a(P)|P V|^{b(P)}$, where $a(P)$ and $b(P)$ are some functions of $P$.

Then we prove:
Corollary 5. Let $X$ be the graph of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then $X$ satisfies Condition ( E ) if and only if $X$ is a parabola, which is given by either a quadratic polynomial $f$ or a function $f$ in (3.26) according as the function $a(P)$ is constant or not.

It follows from Corollary 5 that Theorem 1 is a corollary of Theorem 3.
To prove Corollaries 4 and 5, first of all, we show that $b(P)$ must be 1 in Corollary 4 (respectively, $3 / 2$ in Corollary 5). Then we can show that $X$ satisfies Condition (C). Hence, it follows from Theorem 3 that Corollaries 4 and 5 hold.

Among the graphs of functions, Á. Bényi et al. proved some characterizations of parabolas ( $[1,2]$ ) and B. Richmond and T. Richmond established a dozen characterizations of parabolas using elementary techniques ([7]). In their papers, parabola means the graph of a quadratic polynomial in one variable.

For an example, consider a function $f(x)=b\{(1-c x)-\sqrt{1-2 c x}\}$ in (3.26) with $b, c>0$ defined on $I=\left(-\infty, \frac{1}{2 c}\right)$. Then, the function $f$ is strictly convex and its graph $X$ satisfies Condition (C) (but neither (A) nor (B)). Note that $X$ is not the graph of a quadratic polynomial, but an open part of the parabola given in (3.27).

Throughout this article, all curves are smooth (that is, $C^{3}$ ) and connected, unless otherwise mentioned.

## 2. Preliminaries and Theorems 1 and 2

Suppose that $X$ is a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with the unit normal $N$ pointing to the convex side. For a fixed point $P \in X$, and for a sufficiently small $h>0$, consider the line $l$ passing through $P+h N(P)$ which is parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$. Let's denote by $A$ and $B$ the points where the line $l$ intersects the curve $X$.

We denote by $S_{P}(h)$ (respectively, $\left.R_{P}(h)\right)$ the area of the region bounded by the curve $X$ and chord $A B$ (respectively, of the rectangle with a side $A B$ and another one on the tangent of $X$ at $P$ with height $h>0$ ). We also denote by $L_{P}(h)$ the length $|A B|$ of the chord $A B$. Then we have $R_{P}(h)=h L_{P}(h)=$ $2|\triangle A B P|$, where $|\triangle A B P|$ denotes the area of the triangle $\triangle A B P$.

We may adopt a coordinate system $(x, y)$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ in such a way that $P$ is taken to be the origin $(0,0)$ and the $x$-axis is the tangent line of $X$ at $P$. Furthermore, we may assume that $X$ is locally the graph of a non-negative strictly convex function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

For a sufficiently small $h>0$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{P}(h) & =\int_{f(x)<h}\{h-f(x)\} d x \\
R_{P}(h) & =h L_{P}(h)=h \int_{f(x)<h} 1 d x \tag{2.1}
\end{align*}
$$

The integration is taken on the interval $I_{P}(h)=\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x)<h\}$.
On the other hand, we also have

$$
S_{P}(h)=\int_{y=0}^{h} L_{P}(y) d y
$$

This shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}^{\prime}(h)=L_{P}(h), \quad \text { and thus } \quad R_{P}(h)=h S_{P}^{\prime}(h) \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

First of all, we prove the following lemma, which acts a key role in this article.

Lemma 6. Suppose that $X$ is a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with the unit normal $N$ pointing to the convex side. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{h}} L_{P}(h)=\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\kappa(P)}} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\kappa(P)$ is the curvature of $X$ at $P$ with respect to the unit normal $N$.
Proof. As above, we may adopt a coordinate system $(x, y)$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ in such a way that $P$ is taken to be the origin $(0,0)$ and $X$ is locally the graph of a nonnegative strictly convex function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=0$. Then $N$ is the upward unit normal.

The Taylor's formula of $f(x)$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=a x^{2}+f_{3}(x), \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a=f^{\prime \prime}(0) / 2$, and $f_{3}(x)$ is an $O\left(|x|^{3}\right)$ function. Since $\kappa(P)=f^{\prime \prime}(0)>0$, we see that $a$ is positive.

Now, we let $x=\sqrt{h} \xi$. Then, together with (2.1), (2.4) gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{h}} L_{P}(h) & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{h}} \int_{f(x)<h} 1 d x \\
& =\int_{a \xi^{2}+g_{3}(\sqrt{h} \xi)<1} 1 d \xi \tag{2.5}
\end{align*}
$$

where $g_{3}(\sqrt{h} \xi)=f_{3}(\sqrt{h} \xi) / h$. Since $f_{3}$ is an $O\left(|x|^{3}\right)$ function, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|g_{3}(\sqrt{h} \xi)\right| \leq C \sqrt{h}|\xi|^{3} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C$ is a constant. As $h \rightarrow 0$, it follows from (2.5) and (2.6) that

$$
\begin{align*}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{h}} L_{P}(h) & =\int_{a \xi^{2}<1} 1 d \xi  \tag{2.7}\\
& =\frac{2}{\sqrt{a}}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $\kappa(P)=2 a$, this completes the proof of Lemma 6 .
Remark. From Lemma 6, we get a new geometric meaning of curvature $\kappa(P)$ of a plane convex curve $X$ at a point $P \in X$ with $\kappa(P)>0$. That is, we obtain

$$
\kappa(P)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{8 h}{L_{P}(h)^{2}}
$$

Now, we give a proof of Theorem 1.
Let $X$ be the graph of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $I$ is an open interval. Then $N$ is given by the upward unit normal. For a fixed point $P=(x, f(x))$ on $X$ and a small number $h>0$, consider the line $l$ passing through the point $P+h N(P)$ which is parallel to the tangent to $X$ at $P$.

Then the hypothesis shows that $S_{P}(h)=a|P V|^{3 / 2}$ for small $h>0$, where $a$ is a constant depending only on $X$. Note that $|P V|=h \sec \theta$, where $f^{\prime}(x)=\tan \theta$ is the slope of the tangent line at $P$. Hence we have:

$$
\begin{align*}
S_{P}(h) & =a(\sec \theta)^{3 / 2} h^{3 / 2} \\
& =a W(x)^{3 / 2} h^{3 / 2} \tag{2.8}
\end{align*}
$$

where $W(x)=\sqrt{1+f^{\prime}(x)^{2}}$. Thus (2.2) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=\frac{3}{2} a W(x)^{3 / 2} h^{1 / 2} \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore it follows from Lemma 6 that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(P)=\frac{32}{9 a^{2} W(x)^{3}} \tag{2.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the curvature $\kappa(P)$ of $X$ at $P=(x, f(x))$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(P)=\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(x)}{W(x)^{3}} \tag{2.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

we see that $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ is a constant. Hence $f(x)$ is a quadratic polynomial. This completes the proof of the if part of Theorem 1.

By a straightforward calculation, it is trivial to prove the only if part of Theorem 1. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.

Second, we give a proof of Theorem 2.
Let $X$ be the graph of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $I$ is an open interval. Then $N$ is given by the upward unit normal. We fix a point $P(x, f(x))$ on $X$. For a sufficiently small $h>0$, consider the line $l$ passing through $P+h N(P)$ which is parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$. Let's denote by $A$ and $B$ the points where the line $l$ intersects the curve $X$.

Then the chord $A B$ is tangent to $X_{k}$ at $V(x, f(x)+k)$, where $k=h W$ and $W(x)=\sqrt{1+f^{\prime}(x)^{2}}$. The hypothesis shows that $S_{P}(h)=\phi(k)$. It follows from (2.2) that

$$
\begin{align*}
& L_{P}(h)=S_{P}^{\prime}(h)=W(x) \phi^{\prime}(h W) \\
& R_{P}(h)=h L_{P}(h)=h W(x) \phi^{\prime}(h W) \tag{2.12}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{L_{P}(h)}{\sqrt{h}}=\frac{\phi^{\prime}(k)}{\sqrt{k}} W(x)^{3 / 2} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a fixed point $P(x, f(x))$ on $X$, it follows from $k=h W(x)$ that $h \rightarrow 0$ is equivalent to $k \rightarrow 0$. Thus, Lemma 6 implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{k \rightarrow 0} \frac{\phi^{\prime}(k)}{\sqrt{k}}=W(x)^{-3 / 2} \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{h}} L_{P}(h)=\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\kappa(P)}} W(x)^{-3 / 2} \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we denote by $\alpha$ the limit of the left hand side of (2.14), which is independent of $P$, then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(P)=\frac{8}{\alpha^{2} W(x)^{3}} \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly to the proof of Theorem 1 , we see that $f(x)$ is a quadratic polynomial. This completes the proof of the if part of Theorem 2.

For a proof of the only if part of Theorem 2, see Example 1.2 in [6, p. 6]. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

## 3. Main theorem

In this section, we prove Theorem 3, which is the main theorem of this article.

Let $X$ denote a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ with the unit normal $N$ pointing to the convex side. Suppose that $X$ satisfies Condition (C). Then, for $P \in X$ and a sufficiently small $h>0$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=\frac{2}{3} R_{P}(h) \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By differentiating (3.1) with respect to $h$, it follows from (2.2) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=2 h L_{P}^{\prime}(h) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=c(P) \sqrt{h}, \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c=c(P)$ is a constant depending on $P$. Furthermore, Lemma 6 implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
c(P)=\frac{2 \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{\kappa(P)}} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to prove Theorem 3, first, we fix an arbitrary point $A$ on $X$.
As before, we take a coordinate system $(x, y)$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}: A$ is taken to be the origin $(0,0)$ and $x$-axis is the tangent line of $X$ at $A$. Furthermore, we may regard $X$ to be locally the graph of a non-negative strictly convex function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=0$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(0)>0$.

For any point $B(x, f(x))$ with $x \neq 0$, we denote by $P$ the point on $X$ such that the chord $A B$ is parallel to the tangent of $X$ at $P$. Then we have $P=(g(x), f(g(x)))$, for a function $g: \mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies $|g(x)|<|x|$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
x f^{\prime}(g(x))=f(x) . \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $g(x)$ tends to 0 as $x \rightarrow 0$, we may assume that $g(0)=0$.
We prove the following lemma, which plays a crucial role in the proof of Theorem 3.
Lemma 7. $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ satisfy

$$
\begin{gather*}
x^{3} f^{\prime \prime}(g(x))=8\{f(x) g(x)-x f(g(x))\},  \tag{3.6}\\
x f(x)=\frac{4}{3}\{f(x) g(x)-x f(g(x))\}+2 \int_{0}^{x} f(t) d t . \tag{3.7}
\end{gather*}
$$

Proof. Consider the triangle $\triangle A B C$, where $C$ denotes the point $(x, 0)$. Then we have $|A C|^{2}+|B C|^{2}=|A B|^{2}$. Note that by definition, $|A B|^{2}=L_{P}(h)^{2}$, where $h$ denotes the distance from $P$ to the chord $A B$. This shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2}+f(x)^{2}=L_{P}(h)^{2} . \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The distance $h$ from $P$ to the chord $A B$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=\frac{\epsilon\{f(x) g(x)-x f(g(x))\}}{\sqrt{x^{2}+f(x)^{2}}}, \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\epsilon=1$ for $x>0$ and $\epsilon=-1$ for $x<0$.
Since the curvature $\kappa(P)$ of $X$ at $P$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(P)=\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(g(x))}{\left(\sqrt{1+f^{\prime}(g(x))^{2}}\right)^{3}} \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

it follows from (3.3), (3.4) and (3.5) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{p}(h)^{2}=\frac{8 h}{\kappa(P)}=\frac{8\left(x^{2}+f(x)^{2}\right)}{f^{\prime \prime}(g(x)) x^{3}}\{f(x) g(x)-x f(g(x))\} . \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Together with (3.8), this implies that (3.6) holds.
In order to prove (3.7), we consider the area of triangle $\triangle A B C$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\epsilon}{2} x f(x)=S_{P}(h)+\epsilon \int_{0}^{x} f(t) d t \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\epsilon=1$ for $x>0$ and $\epsilon=-1$ for $x<0$. By assumption, we have $S_{P}(h)=(4 / 3)|\triangle A B P|$. Hence we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=\frac{2 \epsilon}{3}\{f(x) g(x)-x f(g(x))\} . \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Together with (3.12), this implies that (3.7) holds.
Next, with the help of Lemma 7, we show that in a neighborhood of an arbitrary point $A \in X$, the curve $X$ is a parabola.

By differentiating (3.7) with respect to $x$, it follows from (3.5) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(g(x))=g(x) f^{\prime}(x)-\frac{3}{4}\left\{x f^{\prime}(x)-f(x)\right\} . \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Differentiating (3.5) with respect to $x$, and using again (3.5), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime}(g(x))=\frac{x f^{\prime}(x)-f(x)}{x^{2} g^{\prime}(x)} . \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, together with (3.14), (3.6) shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime \prime}(g(x))=\frac{x f^{\prime}(x)-f(x)}{x^{3}}\{6 x-8 g(x)\} . \tag{3.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from (3.15) and (3.16) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{x f^{\prime}(x)-f(x)\right\}\left\{8 g(x) g^{\prime}(x)-6 x g^{\prime}(x)+x\right\}=0 . \tag{3.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $f(x)$ is strictly convex, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
8 g(x) g^{\prime}(x)-6 x g^{\prime}(x)+x=0 . \tag{3.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we let $y=g(x)$, then (3.18) becomes $x d x+(8 y-6 x) d y=0$. By putting $y=v x$, we get a separable differential equation, and hence we can solve (3.18). Since $g(0)=0$, we see that $g(x)=x / 2, x / 4$ or

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=\frac{1}{4 c}(c x+1-\sqrt{1-2 c x}) \tag{3.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c$ is a nonzero constant.
By differentiating (3.14) with respect to $x$, it follows from (3.5) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{x g(x)-\frac{3}{4} x^{2}\right\} f^{\prime \prime}(x)+x g^{\prime}(x) f^{\prime}(x)-g^{\prime}(x) f(x)=0 . \tag{3.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $g(x)=x / 2$, then (3.20) shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{2} f^{\prime \prime}(x)-2 x f^{\prime}(x)+2 f(x)=0 \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

of which general solutions are given by $a x^{2}+b x$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=0$, it follows from (3.21) that $f(x)=a x^{2}$ for some positive constant $a$. Thus, in a neighborhood of $A$, the curve $X$ is a parabola.

If $g(x)=x / 4$, then (3.20) yields that

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 x^{2} f^{\prime \prime}(x)-x f^{\prime}(x)+f(x)=0 \tag{3.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

For some $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, the general solutions of (3.22) are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=a x+b \sqrt{|x|} \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

This contradicts to $f^{\prime}(0)=0$.
If $g(x)=\frac{1}{4 c}(c x+1-\sqrt{1-2 c x})$, it follows from (3.20) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(1-2 c x)\{\sqrt{1-2 c x}-(1-c x)\} f^{\prime \prime}(x)+c^{2} x f^{\prime}(x)-c^{2} f(x)=0 \tag{3.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

The general solutions of (3.24) are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=a x+b(1-\sqrt{1-2 c x}) \tag{3.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $f(x)$ satisfies $f(0)=f^{\prime}(0)=0$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(0)>0,(3.25)$ shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=b\{(1-c x)-\sqrt{1-2 c x}\} \tag{3.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b$ is a positive constant. Hence, in a neighborhood of $A$, the curve $X$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
b^{2} c^{2} x^{2}+2 b c x y+y^{2}-2 b y=0 \tag{3.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows from the classification theorem of quadratic polynomials in $x$ and $y$ that the curve defined by (3.27) is a parabola.

Summarizing the above discussions, we see that the curve $X$ is locally a parabola.

Finally, we show that the curve $X$ is a parabola as follows.
First, consider two parabolas $\Phi_{1}$ and $\Phi_{2}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. For each $i=1,2$, let's denote by $\phi_{i}$ a connected open arc of the parabola $\Phi_{i}$.

Suppose that the two arcs $\phi_{1}$ and $\phi_{2}$ share a common subarc $\phi$. We fix a point $A$ on the subarc $\phi$. As before, we take a coordinate system $(x, y)$ of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ : $A$ is taken to be the origin $(0,0), x$-axis is the tangent line of $\phi$ at $A$ and $\phi$ lies in the upper half plane. Then for each $i=1,2$, the parabolic $\operatorname{arc} \phi_{i}$ is locally the graph of $f_{i}$ which is either of the form $f_{i}(x)=a_{i} x^{2}$ with $a_{i}>0$ or of the form in (3.26) with $b=b_{i}>0, c=c_{i} \neq 0$. That is, the parabola $\Phi_{i}$ is of the form $y=a_{i} x^{2}$ with $a_{i}>0$ or of the form in (3.27) with $b=b_{i}>0, c=c_{i} \neq 0$.

Since $f_{1}$ is equal to $f_{2}$ around $x=0, f_{1}$ and $f_{2}$ have the same derivatives at the origin. Hence, we immediately see that $\Phi_{1}=\Phi_{2}$ because $f_{i}^{\prime \prime}(0)=$ $2 a_{i}, f_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime}(0)=0$ or $f_{i}^{\prime \prime}(0)=b_{i} c_{i}^{2}, f_{i}^{\prime \prime \prime}(0)=3 b_{i} c_{i}^{3}$ in each case for $i=1,2$.

Next, let's fix a point $A$ on the curve $X$. Then an open arc of $X$ containing $A$ is a parabolic arc $\phi_{0}$ of a parabola $\Phi_{0}$. For an arbitrary point $B$ on the curve $X$, the compactness of the closed arc $A B$ of $X$ shows that there exist consecutive points $A=P_{0}, P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}=B$ on $X$ and open arcs $\phi_{0}, \phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{n}$ of $X$ such that 1) for each $i=0,1, \ldots, n, P_{i}$ lies on $\left.\phi_{i}, 2\right)$ each $\phi_{i}$ is a parabolic arc, 3) $\left\{\phi_{i}\right\}$ covers the closed arc $A B$ of $X$.

Since $\phi_{i}$ and $\phi_{i+1}$ share a common subarc for each $i=0,1, \ldots, n-1$, a successive use of the above argument shows that every $\phi_{i}$ is an arc of the parabola $\Phi_{0}$, and hence $B \in \Phi_{0}$. Therefore we see that $X$ is the parabola $\Phi_{0}$.

This completes the proof of the if part of Theorem 3.
For a proof of the only if part of Theorem 3 , see Chapter 7 of [8], which is originally due to Archimedes. This completes the proof of Theorem 3.

## 4. Corollaries and remarks

In this section, first of all, we prove Corollaries 4 and 5.
First, suppose that a strictly convex curve $X$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ satisfies Condition (D) with $b(P)=1$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=\frac{a(P)}{2} h L_{P}(h) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By differentiating (4.1) with respect to $h$, it follows from (2.2) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2-a(P)) L_{P}(h)=a(P) h L_{P}^{\prime}(h) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Solving (4.2), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=c(P) h^{d(P)} \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c=c(P)$ is a constant depending on $P$ and $d(P)=(2-a(P)) / a(P)$.
It follows from (4.3) and Lemma 6 that $d(P)=1 / 2$, and hence, $a(P)=4 / 3$. Thus, the curve $X$ satisfies Condition (C).

Now, suppose that $X$ satisfies Condition (D) with $b(P) \neq 1$. Then we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=a(P) 2^{-b(P)}\left\{h L_{P}(h)\right\}^{b(P)} \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

which shows that $b(P)>0$. By differentiating (4.4) with respect to $h$, it follows from (2.2) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}^{\prime}(h)+h^{-1} L_{P}(h)=c(P) h^{-b(P)} L_{P}(h)^{2-b(P)} \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c(P)=2^{b(P)} a(P)^{-1} b(P)^{-1}$. Solving the Bernoulli equation (4.5), we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{h L_{P}(h)\right\}^{b(P)-1}=c(P)(b(P)-1) \ln h+d(P) \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d(P)$ is a constant depending on $P$.
In case $b(P)>1$, by letting $h \rightarrow 0$, (4.6) leads to a contradiction. In case $b(P) \in(0,1)$, multiplying the both sides of (4.6) by $h^{\alpha(P)}$ with $\alpha(P)=$ $(1-b(P)) / 2>0$, and then by letting $h \rightarrow 0$, we get a contradiction. This shows that $b(P)$ must be 1 .

Together with the above discussion on the case $b(P)=1$, Theorem 3 completes the proof of Corollary 4.

Next, we prove Corollary 5.
Suppose that the graph $X$ of a strictly convex function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ satisfies Condition (E). Then for a fixed point $P(x, f(x))$ on $X$ and for $h>0$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=a(P)|P V|^{b(P)} \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $|P V|=h W(x)$ with $W(x)=\sqrt{1+f^{\prime}(x)^{2}}$, by differentiating (4.7) with respect to $h$, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=a(P) b(P) W(x)^{b(P)} h^{b(P)-1} \tag{4.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, it follows from Lemma 6 that $b(P)=3 / 2$. This shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{P}(h)=a(P) W(x)^{3 / 2} h^{3 / 2} \quad \text { and } \quad L_{P}(h)=\frac{3}{2} a(P) W(x)^{3 / 2} \sqrt{h} \tag{4.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta A B P=\frac{1}{2} h L_{P}(h)=\frac{3}{4} a(P) W(x)^{3 / 2} h^{3 / 2}=\frac{3}{4} S_{P}(h), \tag{4.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which shows that $X$ satisfies Condition (C). Therefore, it follows from the proof of Theorem 3 that $X$ is a parabola, which is given by either a quadratic polynomial $f$ or a function $f$ in (3.26).

Conversely, if $f$ is a quadratic polynomial, Theorem 1 shows that the graph $X$ of $f$ satisfies Condition (E) with a constant $a(P)$ and $b(P)=3 / 2$. If $f$ is a function in (3.26), it is straightforward to show that the graph $X$ of $f$ satisfies Condition (E) with a nonconstant function $a(P)$ and $b(P)=3 / 2$.

This completes the proof of Corollary 5.
Together with (3.1)-(3.4) and Theorem 3, the same argument as in the proof of Corollary 5 shows:

Corollary 8. Let $X$ denote a strictly convex curve in the plane $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then, the following are equivalent.

1) $X$ satisfies Condition (C).
2) $S_{P}(h)=a(P) h^{3 / 2}$, where $a(P)$ is a function of $P \in X$.
3) $S_{P}(h)=a(P) h^{b(P)}$, where $a(P)$ and $b(P)$ are some functions of $P \in X$.
4) $X$ is a parabola.

Remark 9. It follows from our proofs that Theorem 3 holds even if a strictly convex (hence, $C^{3}$ ) curve $X$ satisfies Condition (C) for sufficiently small $h>0$ at every point $P \in X$.

Finally, we give an example of a convex curve which satisfies Condition (C) for sufficiently small $h>0$ at every point $P \in X$, but it is not a parabola. Note that the example is not $C^{2}$, and hence it is not strictly convex either.

Example 10. Consider the graph $X$ of a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is given by

$$
f(x)= \begin{cases}9 x^{2}, & \text { if } x<0  \tag{4.11}\\ \frac{9}{4} x^{2}, & \text { if } x \geq 0\end{cases}
$$

Then, the function $f$ is not $C^{2}$ at the origin, and hence the curve $X$ is not strictly convex. It is straightforward to show that if $P$ is the origin, then for all $h>0$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{P}(h)=\sqrt{h}, \quad \text { and } \quad S_{P}(h)=\frac{2}{3} R_{P}(h) . \tag{4.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $X$ satisfies Condition (C) at the origin for all $h>0$. If $P \in X$ is not the origin, then there exists a positive number $\varepsilon(P)$ such that for every positive number $h$ with $h<\varepsilon(P)$, $X$ satisfies Condition (C).

Thus, $X$ satisfies Condition (C) for sufficiently small $h>0$ at every point $P \in X$. But it is not a parabola.

Remark 11. In [4] and [5], the authors proved the higher dimensional versions of Theorems 1 and 2, respectively.

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