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 MathematicsRULED MINIMAL SURFACES IN $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ WITH DENSITY $\boldsymbol{e}^{\boldsymbol{z}}$ Doan The Hieu and Nguyen Minh Hoang

# RULED MINIMAL SURFACES IN $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ WITH DENSITY $e^{z}$ 

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#### Abstract

We classify ruled minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $e^{z}$. We show that there is a family of cylindrical ones and that there are no others. Also, all translation minimal surfaces are ruled.


## 1. Introduction

Manifolds with density, a new category in geometry, appear in many ways in mathematics, for example as quotients of Riemannian manifolds or as Gauss space. They are the smooth case of Gromov's mm -spaces. A density on a Riemannian manifold $M^{n}$ is a positive function $e^{\varphi(x)}$ used to weight volume and hypersurface area. Gauss space $G^{n}$ is Euclidean space with Gaussian probability density $(2 \pi)^{-n / 2} e^{-r^{2} / 2}$, a space very interesting to probabilists. For details about manifolds with density and some first results of Morgan's goal to "generalize all of Riemannian geometry to manifolds with density", see [Morgan 2005; 2009a; 2006; 2009b; Morgan and Maurmann 2009; Rosales et al. 2008; Corwin et al. 2006; Doan and Tran 2008]. See especially [2009a, Chapter 18], in which Morgan describes general manifolds with density and their relationship to Perelman's proof of the Poincaré conjecture. Following Gromov [2003, page 213], we define the natural generalization of the mean curvature of hypersurfaces on a manifold with density $e^{\varphi}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varphi}=H-\frac{1}{n-1} \frac{d \varphi}{d \boldsymbol{n}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, the mean curvature of a surface in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $e^{\varphi}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varphi}=H-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d \varphi}{d \boldsymbol{n}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H$ is the Euclidean mean curvature and $\boldsymbol{n}$ is the normal vector field of the surface. We call $H_{\varphi}$ the mean curvature with density or mean $\varphi$-curvature of the surface.

The literature of minimal surfaces began with Lagrange in 1760; his eponymous PDE is satisfied by minimal graphs of a $C^{2}$-function of two variables. At that time, the only known solutions to Lagrange's equation were planes. In 1776, Meusnier

[^0]solved the equation with the added assumption that the level curves were straight lines and obtained a ruled minimal surface, the helicoid. It is well known that the helicoid is the only ruled minimal surface besides the trivial case of planes; see [Barbosa and Colares 1986; do Carmo 1976]. In 1835, Scherk solved Lagrange's equation for translation functions, that is, those of the form $f(x, y)=g(x)+h(y)$, and discovered Scherk's minimal surfaces.

Often, a regular surface in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ can be considered locally as the graph of a function $X: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $U$ is a domain in $\mathbb{R}^{2}$. In this paper, we consider ruled minimal surfaces in space with log-linear density $\mathbb{R}^{3}=\mathbb{R}^{2} \times \mathbb{R}_{\varphi}$, where $\mathbb{R}_{\varphi}$ is the real line with log-linear density $e^{\varphi}$, which is equivalent to space with density $e^{z}$, as shown in Section 2 . We classify all ruled minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $e^{z}$. In contrast to the classical case, there are no noncylindrical ruled minimal surfaces, and there is a family of cylindrical ruled minimal surfaces. We also consider translation minimal surfaces and prove that all translation minimal surfaces are ruled.

All functions in this paper belong to the class $C^{2}$.

## 2. Minimal surfaces in spaces with densities

From the formula of the $\varphi$-curvature, it is clear that if we understand the geometric meaning of $d \varphi / d \boldsymbol{n}$ we can discover some simple minimal surfaces in a space with density. For example, in Gauss space, $d \varphi / d \boldsymbol{n}$ is the distance from the origin to the tangent hyperplane at the corresponding point of the surface. So it is easy to see that in Gauss space $G^{3}$ (see also [Corwin et al. 2006])

- planes have constant mean curvature, and planes passing through the origin are minimal;
- spheres about the origin have constant mean curvature and the one with radius $1 / \sqrt{2}$ is minimal;
- circular cylinders whose axes pass through the origin have constant curvature, and the one with radius 1 is minimal.
Let $\varphi(x)$ be the linear function $\varphi(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i}$ on Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, and consider the log-linear density $e^{\varphi(x)}$. Any set of points in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with constant density is a hyperplane. By a suitable change in coordinates, we can assume that the density has the form $e^{x_{n}}$, and therefore view the space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with density $e^{\varphi(x)}$ as the product $\mathbb{R}^{n-1} \oplus \mathbb{R}_{\varphi}$, where $\mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is Euclidean ( $n-1$ )-space and $\mathbb{R}_{\varphi}$ is the real line with density $e^{x_{n}}$.

Since $\nabla \varphi=(0,0, \ldots, 1), d \varphi / d \boldsymbol{n}=\langle\nabla \varphi, \boldsymbol{n}\rangle$ is the cosine of the angle between $\boldsymbol{n}$ and the $z$-axis. By the definition of the mean $\varphi$-curvature, it is easy to see that $H_{\varphi}$ does not change under a translation or a rotation about the $z$-axis, and moreover

- hyperplanes in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with density $e^{x_{n}}$ have constant mean curvature;
- hyperplanes in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with density $e^{x_{n}}$ that are parallel to the $x_{n}$-axis have zero mean curvature;
- circular hypercylinders with rules parallel to the $x_{n}$-axis have constant mean curvature.


## 3. Ruled minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $\boldsymbol{e}^{z}$

Now we consider the problem of classifying all ruled minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with a log-linear density. Coordinates in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ are denoted by $(x, y, z)$. Without loss of generality we can assume that the density is $e^{z}$.

Locally, a ruled surface is given by the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(u, v)=\alpha(u)+v \beta(u) \quad \text { for } u \in(a, b) \text { and } v \in(c, d) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can assume that $\left|\alpha^{\prime}\right|=1$, that $|\beta|=1$, and that $\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta\right\rangle=0$.
We will focus on the cases of cylindrical ruled surfaces ( $\beta$ constant) and noncylindrical ruled surfaces ( $\beta^{\prime} \neq 0$ for all $u \in(a, b)$ ).

Denote by $E, F$ and $G$ the coefficients of the first fundamental form and by $e, f$ and $g$ the coefficients of the second fundamental form. A direct computation yields

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
E=1+2 v\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle+v^{2}\left|\beta^{\prime}\right|^{2}, & F=0, & G=1 \\
e=\left\langle N, \alpha^{\prime \prime}+v \beta^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle, & f=\left\langle N, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle, & g=0
\end{array}
$$

where $\left.N=\left(\left(\alpha^{\prime}+v \beta^{\prime}\right) \wedge \beta\right) / \mid\left(\alpha^{\prime}+v \beta^{\prime}\right) \wedge \beta\right) \mid$. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{\varphi}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\left\langle N, \alpha^{\prime \prime}+v \beta^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle}{1+2 v\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle+v^{2}\left|\beta^{\prime}\right|^{2}}-\langle N, \nabla \varphi\rangle\right) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proposition 1. $H_{\varphi}=0$ if and only if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle & =\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \nabla \varphi\right\rangle \\
\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \beta^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle+\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle & =\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \nabla \varphi\right\rangle+\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, 2\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle \nabla \varphi\right\rangle \\
\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \beta^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle & \left.=\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta, 2\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle \nabla \varphi\right\rangle+\left.\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta,\right| \beta^{\prime}\right|^{2} \nabla \varphi\right\rangle \\
\left.\left.\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta,\right| \beta^{\prime}\right|^{2} \nabla \varphi\right\rangle & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. By (4), $H_{\varphi}=0$ if and only if

$$
\frac{\left\langle N, \alpha^{\prime \prime}+v \beta^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle}{1+2 v\left\langle\alpha^{\prime}, \beta^{\prime}\right\rangle+v^{2}\left|\beta^{\prime}\right|^{2}}=\langle N, \nabla \varphi\rangle .
$$

With $N$ as defined, this is an equality of polynomials in $v$. Identifying coefficients, we obtain the claim.

The case $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime} \neq \mathbf{0}$. From the last equation of Proposition 1 , we have $\left\langle\beta^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \nabla \varphi\right\rangle=0$. Since $\nabla \varphi=(0,0,1)$ and $\beta \perp \beta^{\prime}$, we see $\beta$ belongs to a plane containing the $z$-axis. After a rotation about the $z$-axis, we can assume that $\beta=(\cos t(u), 0, \sin t(u))$, with $t^{\prime} \neq 0$. Therefore the third equality of Proposition 1 becomes

$$
\left.\left.\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta,\right| \beta^{\prime}\right|^{2} \nabla \varphi\right\rangle=0
$$

From this we conclude that $\alpha^{\prime}$ belongs to the plane $\{y=0\}$ and the curve $\alpha$ lies on a plane parallel to the $x z$-plane. It is clear that $\alpha$ and $\beta$ satisfy the system of equations in Proposition 1.
Corollary 2. If $\beta^{\prime}(u) \neq 0$ for all $u \in(a, b)$, the ruled minimal surfaces determined by (3) are vertical planes.
If $\beta^{\prime}(v) \neq 0$ at some $v \in(a, b)$, then locally the surface is planar. Since minimal surfaces solve elliptic PDEs, Aronszajn's unique continuation theorems [1956; 1957] for solutions of elliptic PDEs guarantee that the surface is planar globally.

The case $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime}=\mathbf{0}$. Since $\beta^{\prime}=0, \beta=(a, b, c)=$ constant, and $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=1$, the system in Proposition 1 becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \alpha^{\prime \prime}\right\rangle & =\left\langle\alpha^{\prime} \wedge \beta, \nabla \varphi\right\rangle \\
\beta & =(a, b, c)=\mathrm{constant}
\end{aligned}
$$

The first of these implies $\alpha^{\prime \prime}-\nabla \varphi=m \alpha^{\prime}+n \beta$, and hence

$$
\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime}-\nabla \varphi, \alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle=m=-\left\langle\nabla \varphi, \alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle \quad \text { and } \quad\left\langle\alpha^{\prime \prime}-\nabla \varphi, \beta\right\rangle=n=-\langle\nabla \varphi, \beta\rangle .
$$

Thus, $\alpha^{\prime \prime}-\nabla \varphi=-\left\langle\nabla \varphi, \alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle \alpha^{\prime}-\langle\nabla \varphi, \beta\rangle \beta$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha^{\prime \prime}+\left\langle\nabla \varphi, \alpha^{\prime}\right\rangle \alpha^{\prime}=\nabla \varphi-\langle\nabla \varphi, \beta\rangle \beta \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the mean $\varphi$-curvature does not change under a rotation about $z$-axis, we can assume $a=0$. So we have $\nabla \varphi-\langle\nabla \varphi, \beta\rangle \beta=\left(0,-c b, 1-c^{2}\right)$. Because $b^{2}=1-c^{2}$, we have

$$
\nabla \varphi-\langle\nabla \varphi, \beta\rangle \beta=\left(0,-c b, b^{2}\right)
$$

Suppose that $\alpha=(x(u), y(u), z(u))$. Then this equation is equivalent to the system

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime \prime}+x^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}+y^{\prime} z^{\prime}=-c b, \quad z^{\prime \prime}+z^{\prime 2}=b^{2} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

We treat the special cases $\beta=(0,0, \pm 1)$ and $\beta=(0, \pm 1,0)$ first.
If $\beta=(0,0, \pm 1)$, the right side of (5) equals zero. We conclude that $\alpha^{\prime}$ and $\alpha^{\prime \prime}$ are parallel, and hence $\alpha^{\prime \prime}=0$. Thus, $\alpha$ is a straight line and we have this:
Proposition 3. If $\beta=(0,0, \pm 1)$, the ruled minimal surfaces determined by (3) are planes parallel to the $z$-axis.


Figure 1. Ruled minimal surface with $\beta=(0,1,0)$.

We can also treat this case by solving (6). In this case (6) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{\prime \prime}+x^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}+y^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad z^{\prime \prime}+z^{\prime 2}=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\beta \perp \alpha^{\prime}$, we get $z^{\prime}=0$, and hence $x^{\prime \prime}=y^{\prime \prime}=0$. We conclude that $\alpha=(x, y, z)$ is a straight line lying on the plane $z=$ constant. Hence the ruled surface is a plane parallel to the $z$-axis.

If $\beta=(0, \pm 1,0)$, then (6) becomes

$$
x^{\prime \prime}+x^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}+y^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad z^{\prime \prime}+z^{\prime 2}=1
$$

Since $\beta \perp \alpha^{\prime}$, we get $y^{\prime}=0$ and conclude that $\alpha$ lies on the plane $y=$ constant. The last equation above has the solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
z^{\prime} & =1-\frac{2}{1+A e^{2 u}}=\frac{A e^{2 u}-1}{A e^{2 u}+1} \\
z & =\log \left(1+A e^{2 u}\right)-u=\log \left(e^{-u}+A e^{u}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $A>0$, whereas the first equation gives

$$
x^{\prime}=B e^{-z} \frac{B}{e^{-u}+A e^{u}}=\frac{B e^{u}}{1+A e^{2 u}}
$$

hence

$$
x=\frac{B}{\sqrt{A}} \arctan \sqrt{A} e^{u}+C
$$

Since the mean $\varphi$-curvature does not change under a translation, we can put $C=0$.
Since $x^{\prime 2}+y^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}=1$, we have $4 A=B^{2}$. This proves:
Proposition 4. If $\beta=(0, \pm 1,0)$, a ruled minimal surface determined by (3) has a parametric equation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=2 \arctan \sqrt{A} e^{u}, \quad y= \pm v, \quad z=\log \left(e^{-u}+A e^{u}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 2. Ruled minimal surface with $\beta=(0,1 / \sqrt{2}, 1 / \sqrt{2})$.


Figure 3. Ruled minimal surface with $\beta=(0,0.1,0.99)$.
If $\beta=(0, b, c)$ with $b, c \neq 0$, the system (6) becomes

$$
x^{\prime \prime}+x^{\prime} z^{\prime}=0, \quad y^{\prime \prime}+y^{\prime} z^{\prime}=-c b, \quad z^{\prime \prime}+z^{\prime 2}=b^{2}
$$

Since $\beta \perp \alpha^{\prime}$, we get $b y^{\prime}=-c z^{\prime}$ and conclude that $\alpha$ lies on the plane $b y+c z+d=0$. The last equation above has the solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
z^{\prime} & =b-\frac{2 b}{1+A e^{2 b u}}=\frac{b A e^{2 b u}-b}{A e^{2 b u}+1} \\
z & =\log \left(1+A e^{2 b u}\right)-b u=\log \left(e^{-b u}+A e^{b u}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 4. Ruled minimal surface with $\beta=(0,0.01,0.999)$.
where $A>0$, whereas the first gives $x^{\prime}=B e^{-z}=B /\left(e^{-b u}+A e^{b u}\right)$, and hence

$$
x=\frac{B}{b \sqrt{A}} \arctan \left(\sqrt{A} e^{b u}\right)+C
$$

Since $x^{\prime 2}+y^{\prime 2}+z^{\prime 2}=1$, we have $4 A=B^{2}$ and another result:
Proposition 5. If $\beta=(0, b, c)$ with $b, c \neq 0$, the ruled minimal surface determined by (3) has a parametric equation of the form

$$
x=2 \arctan \sqrt{A} e^{b u}, \quad y=-\frac{c}{b} \log \left(e^{-b u}+A e^{b u}\right)+b v, \quad z=\log \left(e^{-b u}+A e^{b u}\right)+c v .
$$

We now combine the results above:
Theorem 6. Besides planes parallel to the $z$-axis, the ruled minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $e^{z}$ are the cylindrical ones given by Proposition 5.

## 4. Translation minimal surfaces in space with $\log$-linear density $\boldsymbol{e}^{z}$.

In this section we study translation minimal surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ with density $e^{z}$. We prove that all translation surfaces that are minimal must be ruled.
Theorem 7. A translation surface given by

$$
X(u, v)=(u, v, g(u)+h(v))
$$

is minimal if either $g(u)=a u+b$ or $h(v)=c v+d$.

Proof. A straightforward computation shows that $H_{\varphi}=0$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime \prime}\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right)+h^{\prime \prime}\left(1+g^{\prime 2}\right)=1+g^{\prime 2}+h^{\prime 2} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We fix $v=v_{0}$, and set $A=1-h^{\prime \prime}\left(v_{0}\right), B=1+h^{\prime 2}\left(v_{0}\right), C=1+h^{\prime 2}\left(v_{0}\right)-h^{\prime \prime}\left(v_{0}\right)$. Note that $B>0$ and $C=B-A-1$. Thus, $f$ satisfies $A g^{\prime 2}+B g^{\prime \prime}=C$, and hence $g^{\prime \prime}=\left(C-A g^{\prime 2}\right) / B$.

Substituting $g^{\prime \prime}$ into (9), we get

$$
g^{\prime 2}\left(h^{\prime \prime}-A\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right) / B-1\right)=1-h^{\prime \prime}+h^{\prime 2}-C\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right) / B
$$

This implies that unless $g^{\prime}=$ constant, we must have

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime \prime}-A\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right) / B-1 & =0 \\
1-h^{\prime \prime}+h^{\prime 2}-C\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right) / B & =0
\end{aligned}
$$

Substituting $h^{\prime \prime}$ from the first of these into the second, we obtain

$$
\left(1+h^{\prime 2}\right)(1-C / B-A / B)=1
$$

Noting that $C=B-A-1$, we get $h^{\prime 2}=B-1$. Thus, $h^{\prime}=$ constant.
Since the roles of $g$ and $h$ are the same, we only need to consider translation minimal surfaces of the form

$$
X(u, v)=(u, v, g(u)+c v+d)
$$

A straightforward computation shows that $g$ must be of the form

$$
g(u)=-\left(1+c^{2}\right) \log \left|\cos \frac{u+D}{\sqrt{1+c^{2}}}\right|
$$

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