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THEORETICAL

A SEQUEL TO— ELEMENTARY PLANE GEOMETRY INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE

BY

AL. LED BAKER, M.A., F.R.S.C. Professor of Mathematics, University of Toronto.

Authorized by the Minister of Education for use in the Schools of Ontario

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THE question of improvement in the teaching of elementary Geometry has been so long under consideration and discussion, that agreement in the main has been reached as to the lines along which reform should proceed. Thus the Report of the Committee of the British Association, the Report of the Committee of the Mathematical Association (formerly the Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching), the Report of the Syndicate of the Senate of the University of Cambridge, as well as the various publications on Elementary Geometry that have recently appeared, differ in details rather than in principles. There is a general consensus of opinion on the following points:

(1). The study of formal demonstrative Geometry should be preceded by a practical course in inductive or experimental Geometry. There is general accord that this practical course should be continued during the period of elementary geometric studies. Thus the Senate of the University of Cambridgo has decided that, "The paper in Geometry shall contain questions on Practical and on Theoretical Geometry. Every candidate shall be expected to answer questions in both branches of the subject."

(2). The subject should not be dissociated from other branches of mathematics—Arithmetic and Algebra—studied at the same time. This introduction of the idea of number makes possible an important change in the theory of Ratio

and Proportion, and in other respects modernizes the subject. It marks of course a complete break with the spirit of Euclid.

(3). A considerable number of the propositions in Euclid are of little or no importance in the scientific development of the subject, and should be discarded. A large part of Euclid, Book II., loses significance by reason of the permissive use of algebraic forms. Much of Euclid, Book IV., is best dealt with as exercises in practical constructive Geometry. The change in the theory of Proportion makes certain propositions in Euclid, Book VI., very simple, or even unnecessary. The' time thus set free may well be devoted to some more advanced branch of Geometry, e.g., the elements of Analytical Geometry.

In my "Elementary Plane Geometry—Inductive and Deductive" I have sought to show how a practical course in measurement, use of simple instruments, and accurate construction may afford a training of value in itself, and also of service in anticipating the truths afterwards reached by deductive Geometry. In the present book I trust the second and third of the reforms, which teachers of mathematics have had in mind for years, and which are recommended in the Reports above referred to, may be found to have been judiciously carried out.

I have not thought it wise to separate the Problems from the Theorems. In recently published text-books on Geometry much stress is naturally laid on accuracy of construction, and it seems only fair to show how a construction may be made before directing its employment in a Theorem. In a strictly logical system of Geometry there is something to be said in favor of the Euclidean practice of avoiding as much as possible the hypothetical construction. To relegate Problems to a subordinate place is to deprive them of their

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due importance; and to classify Theorems and Problems separately, and then direct that they be taken up as parallel courses, is not to classify at all, but rather to create inconvenience and confusion. I havo helped the learner to distinguish between Theorems and Problems by enunciating the former in black-face type and the latter in italics.

Ratio and Proportion, with Similar Triangles, have been taken up at an early period in the course. This arrangement seems fully justified : much additional power is thereby acquired, many demonstrations are simplified, and the theory of Ratio and Proportion presents no difficulty when it is not sought to include incommensurable quantities. Indeed, one of the most urgent reasons for modifying the course in Geometry is the fact that, in the past, very many pupils have left school without any knowledge of that most important problem in science,—the theory of similar triangles. Placed early in the course, it is likely to come under the notice of all.

In the Introduction certain fundamental theorems are reached which seem to flow immediately from the conception of a straight line, and from the definitions of the right angle and of parallel lines. These theorems correspond to Propositions 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 32 of Euclid, Book I. It would have been very easy to throw the demonstrations into the rigid form adopted in the Propositions. The student, however, encounters, in the Propositions, quite enough of the syllogistic form. Indeed, many leave school with the notion that nothing has been proved unless the proof has been arranged in the manner of Euclid's Propositions. The theorems in question are fundamental, and it was thought that their fundamental character would best be appreciated by leaving them associated with the geometrical elements and definitions from which they immediately spring.

Similarly, in developing the symmetry of the circle in the Introduction to Book IV., certain theorems have been considered which in other books rank as separate propositions. Their truth is appreciated so immediately on realizing the symmetry of the circle that it seemed well to place them in a discussion which dealt with symmetry.

In the theory of parallel lines, what may be called the directional conception of parallelism has been adopted. This seems to be more in accordance with our common notions than the negativism of Euclid's definition of parallels. It is a further advantage that a beginning be made with an exact use of the idea of direction, an idea so fruitful in various departments of mathematics. Props. 1-3 of Additional Propositions, however, offer an alternative treatment of the subject.

It is hoped that the part which the centre of similitude is made to play in dealing with the theory of similar polygons, will be felt to be a natural way of reaching results, and will be generally approved of.

The Exercises have been attached to the Propositions to which they seemed to belong, and of which they furnish applications.

Very many recommend that the definitions be given as needed. This arrangement has the effect of scattering them through tho text. I have placed t'.em in the Introduction, that they may readily be referred to when wanted. The teacher is advised to take them up as they are required.

Toronto, September, 1904

A. B.

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GEOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS.

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INTRODUCTION.

Volumes, Surfaces and Lines,

1. The volume of a body is the amount of space it occupies.

A volume has length, breadth and bickness, and therefore is said to be of three din missions.

2. The surface of a body is the boundary which separates it from that part of space not occupied by the body.

A surface has length and breadth, and therefore is said to be of two dimensions.

The term surface is also applied to the boundary, without thickness, but with length and breadth, which separates one portion of space from another.

3. The intersections of surfaces are lines.

A line has length only, and therefore is said to be of one dimension.

The term line is also applied to the boundary, without breadth, but with length, which separates one portion of a surface from another portion of the same surface.

4. The intersections of lines are points.

A point has neither length, breadth nor thickness, and therefore is said to have no dimensions.

It has position.

The term point is also applied to the division, withont length, which separates one portion of a line from another portion of the same line.

The ends of a line are points.

5. We may represent a line by a pencil mark, and a point by a dot with a pencil. We must, however, remember that these are only representations, for a dot made with a pencil has length, breadth and even thickness, inappreciable though they may be.

The Straight Line.

6. A straight line is a line which lies evenly between its extreme points.

In interpreting the words "lies evenly," we see that a straight line is the shortest distance between its extreme points.

7. A straight line throughont its entire length has the same direction. Indeed, in the ultimate analysis of our conception of direction, we reach a straight line.

Hence, if two straight lines coincide in part, they coincide as far as the one or the other is continued. Otherwise we should have such a result as the annexed figure presents,

where ABC and ABD are both snpposed to be straight lines. The parts RC and BD have A B C different directions, and therefore cannot both have the same direction as the common part AB. Hence, each

of the lines ABC, ABD cannot have the same direction thronghout its entire length, i.e., they cannot both be straight lines.

8. If two straight lines intersect they have different directions, *i.e.*, they deviate from one another, and it is considered self-evident that, beyond the point of intersection,

beyond the point of intersection, one of the lines cannot turn towards the other and

again intersect it. This is expressed by saying that,— Two straight lines can intersect in only one point.

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Two straight lines cannot enclose a space. Or,

If two straight lines have two common points, then they coincide as far as the one or the other is continued.

We see also that any straight line may be made to coincide with any other straight line as far as one or the other is continued. For, let the lines be placed so as to intersect in A, and let B be a point in one of the lines. Let AB be turned about A until B falls on the other line. Since now the lines have two points common, they must coincide.

9. A line is denoted by the letters at its extremities, as the line AB; or by a single letter, as the line a.

10. A plane surface, or a a plane, is that in which any two points being taken, the straight line joining them lies wholly in that surface.

A system of geometry in which all the points and lines are supposed to lie in a plane, is called **Plane Geometry.** The present work deals with Plane Geometry only.

Angles,

11. Let a straight line rotate in a plane, say the plane of the paper, about the point O; and suppose that, starting from the position OA, it rotates into the position OB. The amount of



turning which the line has done in rotating about O from the position OA to the position OB, is called an angle.

The point O is called the vertex of the angle.

The lines OA, OB are called the arms of the angle. The angle is denoted by the three letters AOB, the letter at the vertex being the middle one of the three. If not more than one angle be at the point O, it may be denoted by the single letter O. The angle may also be spoken of as the angle α , the letter α being written within the angle.

12. It is to be carefully noted that the size of the angle in no way depends on the lengths of the arms



OA, OB. Thus, of these three angles, α is the greatest, β is the least, and γ is intermediate in size.

Any two lines which have different directions form an angle (or angles) at their point of intersection, and this angle measures the deviation in their directions.

13. If the lines AOB, COD intersect at O, the angles AOC, EOD are said to be vertically posite angles. The angles AOD, BOC are also said to be vertically opposite angles.

Let the line COD rotate abont 0 in the direction indicated by the arrow-heads. When the part OC coincides with OA, the part OD must coincide with OB (§ 7). Hence, the two angles AOC, BOD, being generated by the same amount of rotation, maintained in the same direction, must be equal. Similarly, the angles AOD, BOC are equal. That is,-If two straight lines cut one another, the vertically opposite angles are equal.

14. In the adjacent figure the angle AOD is equal to the sum of the angles AOB, BOC, COD.

The angle COD is equal to the difference of the angles AOD, AOC.

The snm of the two angles AOC, COD is equal to the sum of the three angles AOB, BOC, COD.

The angle BOC is common to the angles AOC, BOD. The angles AOB, BOC are said to be adjacent angles: as are also the angles BOC, COD.

The Right Angle.

15. When one straight line standing on another straight line makes the adjacent angles equal, each of these angles is called a right angle, and the straight



line which stands on the other is called a perpendicular to it.

Thus, if BOA is a straight line, and the augles AOC, BOC are equal, each is a right angle.

16. If the line OC be snpposed to start from the position OA, and rotate about O to the posi tion OB, the augle AOC continu-

ally increases, and the angle BOC continually decreases. So that if these angles be once equal, they cannot again be equal, nor could they previously have been equal. Thus only one line can be drawn from 0 perpendicular to (and on the same side of) OB.

Ā

The above consideration shows that any angle can have only one line bisecting it. In a similar way we may show that a given line can have only oue point of bisection.

17. Let OC be perpendicular to AB, and O'C' perpendicular to A'B'. Suppose the straight line AOB be made to coincide with A'O'B', so that O may coincide with O'.



Then OC will coincide with O'C', since, as we have just seen (§16), there can be only one line at \mathfrak{I}' perpendicular

to A'O'B'. It follows that all right angles are equal to one another.

18. The angle which one part of a straight line makes Ō with the adjacent part, e.g., OA with OB, is evidently equal to two right angles. Such an angle is sometimes called a straight angle.

Conversely, if OA makes with OB an angle equal to two right angles, then OA and OB are in one and the same straight

line. For, if not, let OC be in the same straight line with OA. A Then the angle AOC is equal to two right angles, and therefore (§ 17) is equal to the angle AOB, which plainly is not possible.

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If any number of lines, OC, OD, OE, OF, be drawn from a point O in the straight line AB, such lines being on the same side of AB, the sum of the angles BOC, COD, DOE, EOF, FOA is evidently equal to two right angles.

same straight line. For if the angles BOC, COA be together equal to two right angles, and OB be not in the same straight line with OA, let OK be in A



Conversely, if the sum of any number of such adjacent angles be two right angles, the first and final bounding lines are in one and the



the same straight line with OA. Then the angles AOB, AOK, being both equal to two right angles, are equal to one another, which is evidently impossible.

Since, if AOB be a straight line, OA makes with OB an angle equal to two right angles, on whichever side of AOB we regard the angle as formed, it follows that all the angles at a point, as AOC, COD, DOE,



EOF, FOA, are together equal to four right angles.

19. That we may measure angles and express their magnitudes numerically, the right angle is divided into 90 equal angles called degrees; each degree is divided into 60 equal angles called minutes, and each minute is divided into 60 equal angles called seconds.

An angle of 35 degrees, 47 minutes, 23 seconds, is written 35° 47' 23".

Thus the right angle is expressed by 90°; the *straight* angle by 180°; and the entire angular interval at a point by 360°.

If a line make two complete revolutions about its end (or about any point in the linc), it may be said to have generated an angle of 720°. There is thus no limit to the magnitude an angle may have.

When the sum of two angles is 90°, the one is said to be the **complement** of the other.

When the sum of two angles is 180°, the one is said to be the **supple**-

ment of the other.

A protractor is an instrument for constructing angles of given magnitude, and for measuring angles



that are constructed. Two forms of the protractor are here given. Its use is evident. In the first form the



graduations are at equal intervals, since, as will subsequently be shown, in a circle equal arcs subtend equal angles at the centre.

20. An angle less than a right angle, is called an acute angle.

An angle greater than a right angle, is called an **obtuse** angle.

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· Rectilineal Figures.

21. A plane **figure** is one which is enclosed by oue or more bounding lines, straight or curved, and lying in the same plane. The sum of these bounding lines is called the **perimeter** of the figure.

If the bounding lines are all straight lines, it is called a plane rectilineal figure, and these straight lines are called its sides.

22. A triangle, or trilateral, is a figure contained by three straight lines.

Any angular point may be called the **vertex**, and the opposite side may then be called the **base**.



23. A quadrilateral, or quadrangle, is a plane figure contained by four straight lines, as ABCD.

A straight line joining opposite angular points of a quadrilateral, is called a **diagonal**. AC and BD are diagonals.



24. A polygon is a plane figure contained by more than four straight lines.



25. An equilateral triangle is one whose three sides are equal.



An **isosceles** triangle is one which has two equal sides.



A scalene triangle is one which has three unequal sides.



26. A right - angled triangle is one which has a right angle.

The side opposite the right angle is called the **hypotenuse**.

• An acute - angled triangle is one which has three acute angles.

It will appear later that every triangle has at least two acute angles.

An obtuse-angled triangle is one which has an obtuse angle.

The Circle.

27. A circle is a plane figure contained by one line which is called the circumference, and is such that all straight lines drawn from a certain point within it, called the centre, to the circumference are equal to one another.

A radius of a circle is a straight line drawn from the centre to the circumference, as OA, or OB, or OC. By definition of a circle all radii of the same circle are equal to one another.



A diameter of a circle is a straight line drawn through the centre of the circle, and terminated both ways by the circumference, as AOB.

A semicircle is the fignre contained by a diameter and the part of the circumference cut off by that diameter, as ACBOA.

A part of the circumference, as DFE, is called an arc of the circle.

A straight line joining two points on the circumference, is called a chord, as DE.

A secant is a straight line which meets the circumference of a circle in two points, entting it in at least one.

A segment of a circle is the figure contained by a straight line and the part of the circumference which it cuts off, as DEFD.

The figure contained by two radii of a circle and the part of the circumference between their extremities, is called a sector, as OBCO.

The circumference is often spoken of as the circle, and half the circumference as a semicircle.

A point is said to be on a circle when it is on the circumference.

A point is said to be within a circle when it is within the circumference.

Parallel Lines.

28. Parallel straight lines are such as have the same direction.

Since they have the same direction, they can never incet on being produced



ever so far either way. For if they met they would intersect, and at the point of intersection have different directions; and therefore throughout their entire lengths they would have different directions,

since each straight line maintains the same direction throughout its entire length. Hence if they met, they could not be parallel.

If two straight lines be parallel to the same straight line, they both have the same direction as this line, and therefore the same direction as one another; that is, they are parallel to one another.

29. Since parallel lines have the same direction, they each deviate by the same amount from any other direction; that is, they make the same angle with any other line which intersects them.

Thus AB and CD being parallel lines, and FE intersecting them, the angles α and β are equal. Here α is called the exterior angle, and β the interior angle, and β the interior and opposite angle with respect to α .



The forms FE and EF may be used to denote opposite directions.

Conversely, if the angles α and β be equal, the lines AB, CD deviate by the same amount from the direction FE. Hence AB and CD have the same direction, and are therefore parallel.

The equality of these angles, and the fact that the lines do not meet, will be taken as the characteristics of parallel lines.

30. If a line make one complete rotation about any point **O**, in the course of this rotation it takes every

possible direction in the plane, and therefore in some position must have had the same direction as any line a.

We may express this by saying that through any point in the plane a line passes, or may be conceived as passing, perallel to any other line



parallel to any other line in the plane.

31. Let ABC be a triangle, and suppose $(\S 30)$ CD to be the direction through C parallel to BA. Then, from the characteristic of parallel lines (§ 29), the angles

 β , β are equal, and also the angles α , α . But the verticallyopposite angles α , α' are equal (§ 13). Hence the sum of the three angles α' , β , γ of the triangle is equal to the sum of the angles at C, *i.e.* (§ 18), is equal to two right angles. That



is, the three angles of any triangle are together equal to two right angles.

Also, since β at C is equal to β at B, and α at C to α' at A, therefore the angle ACE is equal to the sum of the angles CAB, ABC. That is, the exterior angle of any triangle is equal to the sum of the two interior and opposite angles, and, therefore, is greater than either of them.

 $\mathbf{22}$

Also, since the three angles of any triangle are together equal to two right angles, therefore any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

Quadrilaterals involving Parallelism.

32. A parallelogram is a quadrilateral whose opposite sides are parallel.

A rectangle is a parallelogram which has one of its angles a right angle.



It will afterwards appear that all the angles of a rectangle are right angles.

A rhombus is a quadrilateral all of whose sides are equal.

A square is a quadrilateral all of whose sides are equal, and one of whose angles is a right angle.

. It will afterwards appear that all the angles of a square are right

A trapezium is a quadrilateral which has two of its sides parallel.

angles.







The Postulates.

83. It is assumed that the following elementary constructions, called **Postulates**, are possible:

(1) A straight line may be drawn from any one point to any other point.

(2) A finite (or terminated) straight line may be produced to any length in that straight line.

(3) A circle may be described with any given point as centre, and with any given length as radius.

These constructions are assumed to be possible with the help of a straight ruler and a pair of compasses.

It will be noted that in the third postulate it is assumed that the compasses may be used for transferring a distance from one position to another. This assumption seems fair, since in such transference the distance between the points of the compasses is even less likely to be interfered with than in describing a circle.

Even such simple instruments as the set-square, parallel rulers, etc., are not supposed to be used. The constructions we make with them can also be made with the straight ruler and compasses, though of course not so rapidly. It is in keeping with the spirit of deductive geometry to limit, as much as possible, both the number of instruments used for construction, and also the self-evident principles on which our reasoning is based.

Axioms.

34. The following elementary truths are taken for granted as requiring no proof, or as being *self-evident*. They form the basis of our subsequent reasoning. Some of them we have already employed.

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(1) Things which are equal to the same thing are equal to one another.

(2) If equals be added to equals, the wholes are equal.

(3) If equals be taken from equals, the remainders are equal.

(4) If equals be added to unequals, the wholes are unequal.

(5) If equals be taken from unequals, the remainders are unequal.

(6) Things which are double of the same thing, or of equal things, are equal to one another.

This is really a consequence of axioms 1 and 2.

We may extend this axiom, and say that things which are the same multiples of the same thing, or of equal things, are equal to one another.

(7) Things which are halves of the same thing, or of equal things, are equal to one another.

We may extend this axiom, and say that things which are the same sub-multiples of the same thing, or of equal things, are equal to one another.

(8) The whole is greater than its part.

(9) Any figure, or diagram, can be transferred from one position to another without change of shape or size.

Magnitudes which can be made to coincide are equal.

The placing of one geometrical magnitude upon another is called the method of superposition, and the one magnitude is said to be applied to the other.

(10) Two straight lines cannot enclose a space.

Already (§ 8) this axiom has been stated in other forms.

(11) If a straight line fall on two parallel lines, it makes the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite angle.

This axiom has already been considered (§ 29).

That all right angles are equal is sometimes given as an axiom. This, however, has been proved (§ 17). It is an immediate result of our conception of a straight line, of the definition of a right angle, and of axiom 7.

If we wished we could add to the preceding list of self-evident truths. Thus, if A is equal to B, and B greater than C, it is evident that A is greater than C. Again, if A is greater than B, and C greater than D, it is evident that A together with C is greater than B together with D, all magnitudes being of the same kind. To these, others may be added. Axiom 4 is likely to be used in the form,—If A be greater than B, and C equal to D, then A together with C is greater than B together with D. A similar modification holds for axiom 5.

Propositions.

35. A Proposition in geometry is a separate disenssion, and is either a Problem or a Theorem.

In a **Problem** some geometrical construction is made; in a **Theorem** some geometrical truth is established.

In a proposition we usually have:

(1) The General Enunciation, in which the geometrical construction to be made, or the geometrical truth to be established, is stated in general terms.

(2) The Particular Enunciation, in which the general enunciation is applied to a particular figure.

(3) The Construction, which shows what lines are to be drawu.

(4) The **Demonstration**, or **Proof**, which shows that the problem has been solved, or that the theorem is true.

A Corollary to a proposition is a statement of a fact which follows immediately from the proposition.

In the onunciation of a theorem, the **Hypothesis** is that which is assumed to bo true, and the **Concinsion** is that which has to be proved.

One theorem is said to be the **Converse** of another when the hypothesis of the former becomes the conclusion of the latter.
SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The following may be used in writing out the propositions :---

-	for	is equal to, are equal to, equal to, equal.	In	for	Introduction.
			prop.		proposition.
		therefore.	cor.	•••	corollary.
			hyp.	••	hypothesis.
2	••	angie.	er.	••	centre.
rt. 4		right angle.	const.		construction.
			gr.	••	greater.
		perpendicular.	opp.	••	opposite.
or po	chi-		int.		Interior.
Δ		triangle.	ext.		exterior.
_			alt.	••	alternate.
0	••,	circle.	adj.		adjacent.
Oce.	••	circumference.	sq.		square.
>		is greater than, are greater than, greater than, be greater than.	rect.	••	rectangle.
			quadl.	••	quadrilateral.
			rad.		radius.
<		is less than, are less than, less than, be less than.	isos.		isosceles.
			= lat.	••	equilateral.
			= 4 r		equiangular.
H	••	parallel.	st. line	••	straight line.
11775		parallelogram.	pt.		point.

TRIANGLES.

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES WITH SUBSIDIARY CONSTRUCTIONS AND THEOREMS.

BISECTIONS.

PERPENDICULARS.

Loci.

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ANGLES OF A POLYGON.

CERTAIN GEOMETRICAL INEQUALITIES.



Congruent Triangles with Subsidiary Constructions and Theorems,

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.

To construct a triangle of which the sides shall be equal to three given straight lines, any two whatever of which are together greater than the third.



Let a, b, c be the three given st. lines, any two being greater than the third.

It is required to construct $a \bigtriangleup whose$ sides shall be = to a, b, c.

Take any st. line BC = a.

With cr. B, and radius = c, describe an arc of a circle.

With er. C, and radius = b, describe an arc of a circle, cutting the former arc at A.

Join AB, AC.

Then **ABC** is the required \triangle .

For by construction the three sides, BC, CA, AB, are = to the three given st. lines a, b, c, respectively.

Since a straight line is the shortest distance between its ends (In., \S 6), any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side. Hence the condition "any two whatever of which are together greater than the third" becomes necessary.

If one of the given lines be greater than the sum of the other two, it will be found that the circles will not intersect, one lying either wholly within, or wholly without, the other.

The construction of the Proposition, of course, includes the construction of equilateral and isoseeles triangles as particular cases.

If the circles be more fully drawn, they will intersect also below **BC**. We thus get a second triangle, on the other side of **BC**, whose sides are of the required lengths.

Exercises.

1. Describe two equilateral triangles with a given straight line AB as common side.

2. On a given straight line AB as base, describe an isoseeles triangle with sides twice AB.

3. Describe a triangle with sides 2, 3 and 4 inches.

4. Describe a triangle with sides 60, 70 and 100 millimetres.

5. In the Proposition b and c being unequal, describe on the same side of BC a second triangle whose sides are equal to a, b and c.

6. In the preceding question show that the vertex of the second triangle cannot coincide with the vertex of the first.

BOOK L. CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

PROPOSITION II. THEOREM.

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The angles at the base of an isosceles triangle are equal.



Let ABC be an isosceles \triangle , having side AB = side AC. Then $\angle ABC = \angle ACB$.

Reverse the \triangle **ABC**, leaving its trace behind, so that it takes the position **A**'C'**B**', **C**' being the new position of **C**, **B**' the new position of **B**, and **A**' of **A**.

Apply the $\triangle A'C'B'$ to the $\triangle ABC$, so that A' falls on A, and A'C' on AB.

Then $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B}'$ will fall upon **AC**, because $\angle \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B}'$ is $\angle \mathbf{BAC}$ in another position.

Also C' will fall on B, because A'C' = AC = AB.

And B' will fall on C, because A'B' = AB = AC.

.: C'B' coincides with BC.

Hence $\angle A'C'B'$, which is $\angle ACB$, coincides with and is equal to $\angle ABC$.

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Cor. 1. If the equal sides AB, AC be produced to D and E, the \angle s DBC, ECB, on the other side of the base, are also equal.

For

 $\angle ABC + \angle DBC = 180^{\circ}$ = $\angle ACB + \angle ECB.$ (In., § 19.) And $\angle ABC = \angle ACB.$ $\therefore \angle DBC = ECB.$



Cor. 2. All the angles of an equilateral triangle are equal to one another. Each of them is \therefore 60°. (In., § 31.)

Exercises.

1. If two iso-celes triangles are on the same base and on the same side of it, one triangle is entirely within the other.

2. Prove that the opposite angles of a rhombus are equal to one another.

3. If two angles of a triangle are unequal, the sides opposite to them are also unequal.

4. ABC is an isosceles triangle having AB equal to AC. BA is produced to D. Prove that angle DCB is greater than DBC.

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

BOOK I.

PROPOSITION III. THEOREM.

If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides opposite to them are also equal.



Let $\triangle ABC$ have $\angle ABC = \angle ACB$. Then side AB = side AC.

Reverse \triangle ABC, leaving its trace behind, so that it takes the position A'C'B', C' being the new position of C, B' the new position of B, and A' of A.

Apply the $\triangle A'C'B'$ to the $\triangle ABC$, so that C' rests on **B**, and C'B' on **BC**.

Then **B'** coincides with **C**, because C'B' = BC. Also since $\angle B'C'A' = \angle BCA = \angle CBA$; $\therefore C'A'$ falls on **BA**. And since $\angle C'B'A' = \angle CBA = \angle BCA$; $\therefore B'A'$ falls on **CA**.

Hence A' lies on both the lines BA and CA.

: it coincides with A.

And C'A', i.e., CA, is equal to BA.

Cor. If a triangle be equiangular it is also equilateral.

NOTE: Proposition III. is the *converse* of Proposition II. Possibly it might have been more logically introduced after we have seen how to construct an angle equal to another. It is placed here that these converse propositions may be associated. No immediate use is made of it.

Exercises.

1. If two sides of a triangle are unequal, the angles opposite to them are also unequal.

2. If when two sides of a triangle are produced the exterior angles are equal, show that the triangle is isosceles.

3. ABC is a triangle having the angle ABC double the angle BAC. If BD bisect the angle ABC, and meet AC in D, show that DA = DB.

4. If in the triangle ABC, the angles B and C be each double the angle A, and BD bisect the angle B, what three lines in the figure are equal to one another?

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

BOOK I.

PROPOSITION IV. THEOREM.

If the three sides of one triangle be respectively equal to the three sides of another triangle, the triangles are equal in every respect.



Let ABC, DEF be the $\triangle s$, having AB = DE, BC = EF, CA = FD.

Then the riangless are equal in all respects.

Apply the $\triangle DEF$, so that E rests on B, and EF on BC. Then F falls on C, since EF = BC.

Let DEF take the position GBC. Join AG.

Because BG = BA; $\therefore \angle BGA = \angle BAG$. (Prop. 2.)

Because CG = CA; $\therefore \angle CGA = \angle CAG$.

Hence the whole $\angle BGC =$ the whole $\angle BAC$.

That is, $\angle EDF = \angle BAC$.

Evidently, in like manner, it follows that $\angle DEF = \angle ABC$, and $\angle DFE = \angle ACB$.

That is, in the two $\triangle s$, the $\angle s$ which are opposite equal sides are equal.

The \angle GBC being = \angle ABC, and \angle GCB = \angle ACB, suppose \triangle GBC to rotate about BC into coincidence with ABC. BG will coincide with BA, because \angle GBC = \angle ABC. Also, CG will coincide with CA, because \angle GCB = \angle ACB. Hence G, lying on both BA and CA, will coincide with

A; and the \triangle GBC coincides with and is equal to the \triangle ABC.

That is, $\triangle DEF = \triangle ABC$ in area.

NOTE 1. The pupil may be left to modify the preceding proof to meet the case where **AG** falls without the triangles, or passes through **B** or **C**.

NOTE 2. Other ways of stating the preceding proposition are to



say that two such triangles are the same triangle in different positions; or that if the sides of a triangle are fixed, the angles are fixed, and the area is fixed.

Exercises.

1. ABC, DBC are two isosceles triangles on the same base BC, but upon opposite sides of it. Show that AD bisects the angles BAC, BDC.

2. State the preceding proposition when the isosceles triangles are on the same side of BC.

3. On a given line BD as diagonal, construct a quadrilateral ABCD, such that AD = BC, and AB = DC. Examine what angles in the figure are equal to ono another.

4. Equilateral triangles on equal bases are equal in all respects.

5. Two eircles whose centres are A and B intersect in C and D. Show that the triangles CAB, DAB are equal in all respects.

6. On a diagonal AC, 3 inches in length, construct a rhombus ABCD with sides $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in length. Show that AC bisects the angles at A and C.

7. Prove that the opposite angles of a rhombus arc equal.

8. ACB, ADB are two triangles on the same side of AB, with AC = BD and AD = BC. If AD, BC meet in O, prove that the triangles OAB and OCD are isosceles.

BOOK I. CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

PROPOSITION V. PROBLEM.

At a given point in a given straight line to construct an angle equal to a given angle.



Let A be the given pt. in the given straight line BC, and DEF the given \angle .

It is required to construct at A an \angle equal to DEF, and such that AC shall be one of its bounding lines.

With E as centre, describe a circle cutting ED in G and EF in H. Join GH.

With \underline{A} as centre and radius = EG, describe a circle cutting \underline{AC} in \underline{K} .

With K as centre and radius = GH, describe a circle cutting the preceding in L.

Join AL, LK.
Then in
$$\triangle$$
s AKL, EGH,
 $AK = EG$,
 $KL = GH$,
 $LA = HE$;
The equal in all many to $(D = A)$

 $\therefore \Delta s$ are equal in all respects (Prop. 4); and $\angle KAL = \angle GEH = \angle DEF$.

Exercises.

I. With a protractor construct an angle of 59°, and by the method of the proposition construct an angle equal to it. With the protractor test the accuracy of the construction.

2. In the side AB, or in AB produced, of a triangle ABC, find a point equidistant from B and C.

3. On a given line as base, construct nn isosceles triangle with each of the angles at the base equal to a given angle.

4. Construct a triangle, having given the base, one of the angles at the base, and the sum of the sides.

5. Construct a triangle, having given the base, one of the angles at the base, and the difference of the sides.

6. A is a point without a line BC of given length. Find a point P in BC, such that AP + PB = CB.

7. A is a given point, and B is a given point in a given straight line. Find a point P in the given line, such that the sum of AP and PB may be equal to a given length.

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CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

PROPOSITION VI. THEOREM.

If two triangles have two sides of one equal respectively to two sides of the other, and the included angles equal, the triangles are equal in all respects.



Let ABC, DEF be two $\triangle s$, such that AB = DE, AC = DF, and $\triangle BAC = \triangle EDF$.

Then the $\triangle s$ are equal in all respects.

Apply the $\triangle DEF$ to the $\triangle ABC$, so that D rests on A, and DE on AB.

Then DF falls on AC, because $\angle EDF = \angle BAC$.

And DE falling on AB, E must coincide with B, because DE = AB.

Also DF falling on AC, F must coincide with C, because DF = AC.

 $\therefore \triangle DEF$ coincides with $\triangle ABC$, and is equal to it in all respects.

That is, BC = EF, $\angle ABC = \angle DEF$, $\angle ACB = \angle DFE$, and $\triangle s$ are equal in area.

BOOK I.

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NOTE. Two such triangles are indeed the same triangle in different positions.

Another way of stating the proposition is to say that if two sides and the included angle of a triangle are fixed, the remaining side and angles are fixed, and the area is fixed.

Exercises.

1. Two straight lines AB, CD bisect one another at E. Prove that the triangles AEC, BED are equal in all respects. Also the triangles BEC, AED.

2. With the vertex A of an isosceles triangle ABC as centre, a circle is described which cuts the equal sides AB, AC in D and E respectively. Show that the triangles ACD, ABE are equal in all respects.

3. The sides AB, AD of a quadrilateral ABCD are equal, and the diagonal AC bisects the angle BAD; prove that the sides CB, CD are equal, and that the diagonal AC bisects the angle BCD.

4. Two quadrilaterals ABCD, EFGH have AB = EF, BC = FG, CD = GH, $\angle ABC = \angle EFG$, $\angle BCD = \angle FGH$. Prove that the quadrilaterals are equal in all respects.

5. Two points in the base of an isosceles triangle are equidistant from the ends of the base. Show that they are also equidistant from the vertex.

6. Show that the diagonals of a rhombus bisect one another at right angles.

7. On opposite sides of AB equal angles BAC, BAD are constructed, and AC is taken equal to AD. Show that AB bisects CD at right angles.

8. The equal sides AB, AC of an isosceles triangle are produced, and E and F are taken in the productions, so that AE = AF. BF and CE are joined. Show that BF = CE.

9. In the preceding question, if BF and CE intersect in O, show that AO bisects the angle BAC.

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

PROPOSITION VH. THEOREM.

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If two triangles have two angles of one equal to two angles of the other, each to each, and therefore $(In., \S 31)$ the third angles in each equal, and a side of the first equal to the corresponding side of the other, the triangles are equal in all respects.



Let ABC, DEF be two $\triangle s$ in which $\angle BAC = \angle EDF$, and $\angle ABC = \angle DEF$,

and consequently $\angle ACB = \angle DFE$ (In., § 31);

and also let BC = EF.

Then the $\triangle s$ are equal in all respects.

Apply the $\triangle DEF$ to the $\triangle ABC$, so that E falls on B, and EF on BC.

Then \mathbf{F} must coincide with \mathbf{C} , because $\mathbf{EF} = \mathbf{BC}$.

Also because $\angle FED = \angle CBA$, the side ED must coincide with BA.

And because $\angle EFD = \angle BCA$, the side FD must coincide with CA.

Hence the point D, which falls on both BA and CA, must coincide with A, where BA, CA intersect.

Therefore the $\triangle DEF$ coincides with the $\triangle ABC$, and is equal to it in all respects.

So that AB = DE, AC = DF, and the $\triangle s$ are equal in area.

NOTE. Two such triangles are the same triangle in different positions.

Another way of stating the proposition is to say that if two angles of a triangle are fixed, and a side also fixed (whether it be adjacent to both given angles or adjacent to one and opposite the other), then the remaining angle and sides are fixed, and the area is fixed.

Propositions IV., VI., and VII. are very important. Their real significance may be expressed thus:

A triangle is fixed and determinate if

- (1) Its three sides are given.
- (2) Two sides and the included angle are given.
- (3) One side and two angles are given.

Two triangles which are equal in all respects, so that the one may be made to econcide with the other, are said to be **congruent**. Two triangles which have the same area, may be said to be *equal*, though differing in shape.

Exercises.

1. On a given line as diagonal, construct a quadrilateral, so that this diagonal shall bisect the angles through which it passes; and show that the other diagonal is bisected at right angles by this.

2. From the sides AB, BC, CA of an equilateral triangle ABC, equal lengths AF, BD, CE are cut. BE and CF intersect in G, CF and AD in H, AD and BE in K. Show that the triangles CDH, AEK, BFG are equal in all respects.

Show also that the triangle GHK is equilateral.

CONGRUENT TRIANGLES.

BOOK I.

PROPOSITION VIII. THEOREM.

If two sides of one triangle be respectively equal to two sides of another triangle, and the angles opposite to one pair of equal sides be equal, then the angles opposite to the other pair of equal sides are either equal or supplementary; and, if equal, then the triangles are equal in all respects.



In the $\triangle s$ ABC, DEF, let AB = DE, AC = DF, and $\angle ABC = \angle DEF$.

Then the $\angle s$ ACB, DFE are either equal or supplementary.

If the $\angle ACB$ (Fig. 2) and the $\angle DFE$ be equal, the third $\angle s$ BAC, EDF are equal; and the sides AB, DE being equal, the $\triangle s$ ABC, DEF are equal in all respects.

If $\angle ACB$ (Fig. 1) be not = $\angle DFE$, make $\angle EDG = \angle BAC$. Then in $\triangle s$ ABC, DEG,

$\angle ABC = \angle DEG$,

$$\angle DAC = \angle EDG,$$

side AB = side DE;

: these $\triangle s$ are equal in all respects. (Prop. 7.)

 $\therefore \angle DFG = \angle DGF = \angle ACB.$

But $\angle DFG$ is supplementary to $\angle DFE$;

 \therefore \angle ACB is supplementary to \angle DFE.

Cor. The following corollary of Prop. VIII. is important:

If two right-angled triangles have their hypotenuses equal, and one side of the one equal to one side of the other, the triangles are equal in all respects.



Let \triangle s ABC, DEF have right \angle s at B and E; also AB = DE and AC = DF: then \triangle s are equal in all respects.

For by Prop. VIII. the $\angle s$ at **C** and **F** are either equal or supplementary.

They cannot be supplementary, since they are both acute (In., § 31), the \angle s at **B** and **E** being right \angle s.

Hence the $\angle s$ at **C** and **F** are equal;

 $\therefore \angle s$ at A and D are equal (In., §31);

and $\triangle s$ are equal in all respects (Prop. 6).

NOTE. In referring to the various cases in which two triangles are congruent, Prop. VIII. is often spoken of as the **ambiguous case**.

Exercises.

I. In the triangles ABC, DEF, the angles ABC, DEF being equal, and the angles ACB, DFE being supplemental, if AB be equal to DE, show that AC is equal to DF.

2. In the preceding, the angles ABC, DEF being equal, and the angles ACB, DFE supplemental, if AC be equal to DF, show that AB is equal to DE.

3. Give an alternative proof of the proposition stated in the Cor. to Prop. vill., making AB coincide with DE, and placing CB in same st. line with EF.

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Bisections.

PROPOSITION IX. PROBLEM.

To bisect a given angle.



Let BAC be the given \angle . It is required to bisect it.

With centre A and any radius, describe an arc of a circle cutting AB, AC in D and E respectively.

With centres D and \dot{E} and any equal radii, describe area of eircles intersecting in F.

Join AF. It bisects the \angle BAC. Join FD, FE. In \triangle s DAF, EAF, AD = AE, AF is common to \triangle s, DF = EF. Hence \angle DAF = \angle EAF; (Prop. 4.) and AF bisects \angle BAC. 47

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Exercises.

1. Construct angles of 45° , 54° , 60° , 138° , and bisect them by the method of the proposition.

2. For the same angle BAC, take the radius AD of various lengths, and also the radius DF(=EF) of various lengths, and show, hy accurate construction, that the same bisecting line is always obtained.

3. Show that any point in the bisector of the vertical angle of an isosceles triangle is equidistant from the extremities of the base.

4. ABC is an isosceles triangle, and the equal angles at B and C are bisected by lines which meet the opposite sides in E and D. Show that BE = CD.

5. ABC is an isosceles triangle, and the equal angles at B and C are bisected by lines which meet in O. Show that BO = CO. Also show that AO bisects the angle at A.

6. Show that, in an isosceles triangle, the bisector of the vertical angle bisects the base at right angles.

7. In the Proposition show that any point in AF, or AF produced either way, is equally distant from D and E.

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BISECTIONS.

PROPOSITION X. PROBLEM.

To bisect a given straight line.



Let AB be the given st. line. It is required to bisect it. With centres A and B, and equal radii, describe arcs of circles intersecting at C. With centres A and B, and equal radii, describe ares of circles intersecting at D. Join CD, cutting AB in E. AB is bisected at E. Join AC, BC, AD, BD. In $\triangle s$ ACD, BCD, AC == BC, **CD** is common to $\triangle s$. AD = BD; $\therefore \angle ACD = \angle BCD.$ (Prop. 4.) Again, in $\triangle s$ ACE, BCE, AC = BC,**CE** is common to $\triangle s$, $\angle ACE = \angle BCE;$ $\therefore AE = BE;$ (Prop. 6.) and AB is bisected at E.

NOTE. The radii of all the eircles might have been the same, and the trouble of readjusting the compasses would have been saved. The method of the proposition, however, has been followed in order to indicate what was essential,—the equality of the radii in pairs.

Evidently the radii must be greater than half the length of AB, that the circles may intersect.

Exercises.

1. If, in the Proposition, the radii BC, AD be equal, and also the radii AC, BD equal, show that CD still bisects AB, and that it is bisected by AB.

2. Prove that the straight lines which join the middle points of the equal sides of an isosceles triangle to the ends of the base, are equal.

3. A straight line AB is bisected at C, and on the same side of the line triangles ADC, BEC are described, having AD, DC respectively equal to BE, EC. Prove that AE is equal to BD.

4. The bisector of the vertical angle of a triangle also bisects the base. Show that the triangle is isosceles. Could the angles at the base be supplemental?

5. Show how to bisect AB by describing only two circles.

6. In the Proposition show that if a point be equally distant from the points A and B, it must lie in the line CD.

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PERPENDICULARS.

Perpendiculars.

PROPOSITION XI. PROBLEM.

To draw a perpendicular to a given straight line from a given point in it.



Let **AB** be the given st. line, and **C** the given pt. in it. It is required to draw from **C** a st. line \perp **r** to **AB**. Take **CD**=**CE**.

With centres **D** and **E**, and equal radii, describe ares of circles intersecting at **F**.

Join CF.

CF is $\perp r$ to AB.

Join DF and EF.

In $\triangle s$ DCF, ECF,

DC = EC,

CF is common to $\triangle s$,

$$DF = EF$$
;

 $\therefore \angle DCF = \angle ECF; \quad (Prop. 4.)$ But they are adjacent $\angle s;$ $\therefore each is a right \angle ; \quad (In., \S 15.)$

and CF is
$$\perp r$$
 to AB.

NOTE: It will be observed that Prop. xi. is a particular case of Prop. ix., tho angle to be bisected in Prop. xi. being a *straight* angle. The constructions and proofs are practically the same in both propositions.

PROPOSITION XII. PROBLEM.

To draw a perpendicular to a given straight line of unlimited length from a given point not on the line.



Let AB be the given'st. linc, and C the given pt. It is required to draw from C a st. line $\pm r$ to AB. With centre C, describe an arc of a circle to cut AB in D and E.

With **D** and **E** as centres, and equal radii, describe arcs of circles intersecting at **F**.

> Join CF, cutting AB in G. Then CG is *Lr* to AB. In $\triangle s$ DCF, ECF, DC = EC. CF is common to $\triangle s$, $\mathbf{DF} = \mathbf{EF}$: $\therefore \angle DCF = \angle ECF.$ (Prop. 4.) Again, in \triangle s DCG, ECG, DC = EC, CG is common to $\triangle s$, $\angle DCG = \angle ECG$: $\therefore \triangle s$ are equal in all respects; (Prop. 6.) and $\angle DGC = \angle EGC$. But they are adjacent $\angle s$; \therefore each is a rt. \angle ; (In., § 15.) and CG is $\perp r$ to AB.

PERPENDICULARS.

Exercises.

1. If one angle of a triangle is equal to the sum of the other two, what is the first angle?

2. Divide a right-angled triangle into two isosceles triangles.

3. From the end of a line draw a perpendicular to it without producing the line.

4. Two straight lines AB, CD intersect in O; and the angles AOC, AOD are bisected by OE, OF. Show that OE is at right angles to OF.

5. From D, which is not in either of the lines AB, AC, draw a line DEF which shall cut off equal lengths AE, AF from AB, AC.

6. Construct an isosceles triangle, having given the vertical angle and the perpendicular from the vertical angle on the base.

7. Construct an isosceles triangle, having given its perimeter and the perpendicular from the vertex on the base.

8. Show that, if perpendiculars be dropped on the arms of an angle from any point in the line bisecting the auglo, these perpendiculars are equal.

9. If C be the middle point of AB, and CD be drawn perpendicular to AB, then every point in CD is equidistant from A and B.

10. Perpendiculars drawn from the ends of the base of an isosceles triangle to the sides are equal.

11. Three straight lines AB, AC, AD are drawn from A, and the angles BAC, CAD are bisected by the straight lines AE, AF. Show that if the angle EAF be a right angle, the lines AB, AD are in the same straight line.

12. If the bisector of an angle of a triangle be perpendicular to the opposite side, the triangle is isosceles.

13. A straight line ABC is drawn on a sheet of paper, which is then folded about B, so that BC falls on BA. Show that the crease in the paper is perpendicular to BA and BC.

14. In a triangle ABC, perpendiculars are dropped from B and C on the opposite sides. Show that the angles these perpendiculars make with one another are B+C and A.

15. A and B are two given points in the plane of the paper. Find a straight line such that if the paper be folded about it, A shall coincide with B.

Additional Exercises.

1. Four straight lines meet in a point in such a way that opposite angles are equal to one another. Prove that the lines are, two and two, in the same straight line.

2. If two straight lines intorsect, show that the bisectors of vertieally opposite angles are in the same straight line.

3. The opposite sides AB, CD of a quadrilateral ABCD are equal, and the straight lines bisecting AD, BC at right angles meet in O. Show that the triangles OAB, ODC are equal in all respects.

4. On a given straight line as diagonal, construct an equilateral four-sided figure (i.e., a rhombus), the sides being of given length.

What limitation is there as to lengths of the sides?

5. Show that in the rhombus

(1) The opposite angles are equal.

(2) The diagonals hisect the angles through which they pass.

(3) The diagonals bisect one another at right angles.

6. Construct a rhomhus with sides of given length, and with one of its angles given.

Show that this angle with the other angle of the rhomlass make up two right angles (In., \S 31).

7. In the preceding question, when the given angle of the rhombus is a right angle, show that all the angles are right angles, *i.e.*, that the figure you have constructed is a square.

8. On a given line as diagonal, construct a four-sided figure having its opposite sides equal.

What limitation is there as to lengths of sides?

9. Show that in the quadrilateral with opposite sides equal, eenstructed in preceding question,

(1) The opposite angles are equal.

- (2) A diagonal divides the angles through which it passes into angles that are equal alternately.
- (3) A diagonal divides the figure into triangles that are equal in area.
- (4) The diagonals bisect one another.

10. Construct a quadrilateral with opposite sides equal and of given magnitude, and with one of its angles given.

Show that this angle with the other angle of the figure make up two right angles.

EXERCISES.

BOOK L.

11. On the circumference of a circle whose centre is O, three points A, B, C are taken, such that the straight lines AB, BC are equal. Show that OB bisects AC at right angles; also that OB bisects the angles AOC, ABC.

12. From the ends B, C of the base of a triangle ABC, straight lines are drawn intersecting in F and meeting the opposite sides, or opposite sides produced in D and E. Show that if FB = FC, and FD = FE, the triangle is isosceles.

13. A straight line AOB, ln which OA=OB, rotates about the fixed point O. Show that the perpendiculars from A and B on muy line through O are always equal to one another.

14. If In a quadrilateral ABCD, the sides AB nud CD be equal, show that the line joining the middle points of BC and AD is equally inclined to AB and CD. (Use preceding exercise.)

15. In a right-angled triangle the hypotenuse is doublo the line from its middlo point to the right angle.

16. If, is a right-nngled trinngle, one of the acute angles be double the other, show that the hypotenuse is double the smaller side.

How many degrees are there is each angle of the figuro?

17. If, in a right-angled trianglo, the hypotenuse be double the smallest side, show that one of the acute angles is double the other.

18. From two given points on the same side of n given line, draw two lines which shall meet in that line and make equal angles with it.

19. Through two given points on opposite sides of a given straight line, draw two straight lines which shall meet in the given straight line, and iaelude an angle bisected by the given straight line.

20. Prove by superposition that if all the sides of one quadrilateral be equal respectively and in order to the sides of another quadrilateral, and if also an angle in one be equal to the corresponding angle in the other, then the quadrilaterals are equal in all respects.

21. In the quadrilateral ABCD, the sides AB and AD are equal, and the angles ABC, ADC are equal; show that BC and CD are equal.

22. Construct a right-nngled triangle, having given the lengths of the hypotenuse and of one side.

23. If the sides AB, AC of a triangle ABC be produced to D and E, and if the bisectors of the angles BCE, CBD meet in O, show that the perpendiculars from O on BD, BC, CE are all equal.

Loci.

Locus of a point.—The locus of a point is the path traced out by the point when it moves in accordance with some fixed law.

Thus if a point P move so that its distance from a fixed point O is always the same (OP), the locus of P is the circumference of the circle whose centre is O and radius OP.

The *law* in this case is the constancy of the distance of P from the fixed point O.

One of the most valuable ap[•] 'ications of the idea of locus may be illustrated thus: Suppose the curve **ABCD**..

to be the locus of a point which satisfies one set of conditions (*i.e.*,

follows one law); and the curve EBFD.. to be the locus of a point which satisfies another set of conditions (*i.e.*, follows another law); then the points of intersection of the curves, B, D, \ldots , evidently are points which satisfy both sets of conditions, *i.e.*, obey both laws.

Thus, if one of these circles be the locus of a pt. which is at a distanee of 20 millimetres from A, and the other





BOOK L.

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circle be the locus of a point which is at a distance of 15 millimetres from **B**, then **C** and **D** are points which fulfil both conditions, *i.e.*, are 20 millimetres from **A** and 15 millimetres from **B**.

The student will at once see that as far back as Prop. I. we were covertly using the notion of locus. We wanted a point that was at a distance c from **B**, and a distance b from **C**. Accordingly we constructed part of the locus of points at a distance c from **B**, and part of the locus of points at a distance b from **C**. The intersection of these loci gave the point **A** songht.

Ex. 1. To find the locus of a point which moves so that its distances from two given straight lines AB, CD are equal to one another.

Evidently the locus sought is one or other of the lines OP, OQ which bisect the angles between AB, CD.

It is left to the stu-

dent to show that, whatever be the position of P on OP, PE = PF; and that, whatever be the position of Q on OQ, QG = QH.

Also that no point not on OP or OQ can be equally distant from AB and CD.

Ex. 2. To find the locus of a point which moves so that its distances from two fixed points,

A and B, are equal to one another.

Evidently the locus sought is the line PN, which bisects at right angles the line joining Aand B.

It is left to the student to

ANB



show that, whatever be the position of \mathbf{P} on \mathbf{NP} , $\mathbf{PA} = \mathbf{PB}$.

Also, to show that no point outside of PN can be equally distant from A and B.

Ex. 3. To find a point which is equidistant from three given straight lines.

Let AB, BC, CD be the three given straight lines.

Then if **BO** bisect the angle between **AB** and **BC**, **BO** is (Ex. 1.) the locus of points equidistant from **AB** and **BC**.

Also, if CO bisect the angle between BC and CD,



CO is the locus of points equidistant from BC and CD. Hence O, the intersection of BO and CO, is a point equidistant from AB, BC and CD.

What other locus than BO is there of points equidistant from AB and BC?

What other locus than CO is there of points equidistant from BC and CD ?

Discover three points in addition to O, which are equidistant from AB, BC, CD.

Ex. 4. To find a point which is equidistant from three given points.

Let A, B, C be the three given points.

Then if FO bisect AB at right angles, FO is (Ex. 2.) the locus of all points equidistant from A and B.



Also, if EO bisect AC at right

angles, EO is the locus of all points equidistant from A and C.

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Loci.

Hence O, the intersection of FO and EO, is a point equidistant from A, B and C.

If a circle be described with centre O and radius OA, OB, or OC, it will pass through the three points A, B and C, and be described about the triangle ABC.

Exercises.

1. In Exercise 3 above, show that, if a line be drawn from O to the intersection of AB and CD, it bisocts the angle between AB and CD.

It follows that the lines bisecting the angles of a triangle meet in a point.

2. In Exercise 4 above, show that, if a perpondicular be dropped from O on BC, it bisects BC.

It follows that the lines bisecting at right angles the sides of a triangle meet in a point.

3. Right-angled triangles are described on a given straight line as hypotenuse. Find the locus of the intersection of the lines which form the right angle.

4. OX, OY are two fixed straight lines at right angles. Points A and B aro taken on OX, OY respectively, such that AB is of constant length. Find the locus of the middle point of AB.

5. Find the locus of the centre of a circle of given radius which rolls on the outside of a given circlo. (The line joining the centres of two circles in contact passes through the point of contact.)

6. Find the locus of the centre of a circle of given radius which rolls on the inside of a given circle.

7. A point is subject to the conditions, (1) that it lies on a given line XY; (2) that it is equidistant from two fixed points A and B. Find the position of the point.

8. A point is subject to the conditions, (1) that it lies on the circumference of a given circle; (2) that it is equidistant from two fixed points A and B within the circle. Find the positions of the point. If A, B lie without the circle, can the point always be found?

9. A point is subject to the conditions, (1) that it lies on a given line XY; (2) that it is equidistant from the given straight lines AB and CD. Find the point's position.

Angles of a Polygon.

In § 31 of the Introduction it was shown that,-

The three angles of any triangle are together equal to two right angles.

Two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

The exterior angle of any triangle is equal to the sum of the two interior and opposite angles, and therefore is greater than either of them.

The following, some of which have already been used, are obvious consequences of the first of these truths,—

If two triangles have 'two ungles of the one respectively equal to two angles of the other, then the third angle of the one is equal to the third angle of the other.

At least two angles of every triangle are acute.

In any right-angled triangle the two acute angles are complementary.

If one angle of a triangle is equal to the sum of the other two, the triangle is right-angled.

The sum of the angles of any quadrilateral figure is equal to four right angles, for it can be divided into two triangles.

The following is an important corollary to § 31, Introductiou:



The sum of all the interior angles of a polygon of n sides is equal to 2n-4 right angles.

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ANGLES OF A POLYGON.

For any polygon ABCD.. of n sides may be divided up into n triangles.

And the angles of each triangle are equal to 2 right angles.

Therefore the angles of the n triangles are equal to 2n right angles.

Of these angles, the angles at 0 make up 4 right angles.

Therefore the sum of the interior angles of the polygon is 2n - 4 right angles.

A regular polygon is one which has all its sides equal, and also all its angles equal.

If a regular polygon have n angles, the magnitude of each angle is evidently

 $\frac{2n-4}{n}$ right angles.

If the sides of any polygon be produced in order, then all the exterior angles so formed are together equal to 4 right angles.



For suppose a line to start from the position AB, and to rotate in succession through the exterior angles marked at B, C, ..., into the positions BC, CD, On returning to the position AB, it has evidently made

a complete revolution; *i.e.*, has turned through 4 right angles. Hence the sum of the exterior angles is 4 right angles.

Since the sum of both exterior and interior angles at A, B, C, ... is 2n right angles; therefore the sum of the interior angles is 2n-4 right angles, as before proved.

The preceding proposition continues to hold, even where re-entrant angles occur in the polygon. In this case, however, we must consider the exterior angle at



the re-entrant angle (D) to be negative, for there the rotation referred to in the demonstration of the proposition, is evidently in a direction contrary to the other rotations. If therefore we wish to word the proposition so as to admit of no exception, we may say that the *algebraic* sum of the exterior angles is equal to 4 right angles.

Evidently the exterior angle of any regular polygon is $\frac{4}{2}$ of a right angle.

Exercises.

1. From the fact that the sum of the exterior angles of a rolygon fs 4 right angles, deduce the sum of the interior angles of the polygon.

2. Find the number of degrees in the angle of a regular pentagon; also the number of degrees in the exterior angle of a regular pentagon.

3. Find the number of degrees in the angle of a regular hexagon; also the number of degrees in the exterior angle of a regular hexagon.

4. If alternate sides of a polygon be produced to meet, show that the sum of the angles at the vertices so formed is 2n-8 right angles.

5. If the bisectors of the angles B and C, of the triangle ABC, meet at O, show that the angle $BOC = 90^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2} A$.

6. If the bisectors of the exterior angles at B and C, of the triangle ABC, meet at O, show that the angle $BOC = 90^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2} A$.

7. The acute angle between any two straight lines is equal to the acute angle between any two straight lines at right angles to the former.

8. In a triangle ABC, if perpendiculars, dropped from B and C on the opposite sides, meet at O, show that the angle BOC = B + C.

9. If ABCD be any quadrilateral, and the bisectors of the angles at **B** and C meet at O, show that the angle $BOC = \frac{1}{2} (A + D)$.

10. How many sides has a regular polygon, if each exterior angle be 40° ?

11. The angles at the base of an isosce is triangle ars each double the vertical angle. How many degrees are there in each of the angles?

12. Construct a quadrilateral ABCD, such that $A + C = 180^{\circ}$, and therefore, of course $B + D = 180^{\circ}$. Show that the exterior angle at any corner is equal to the interior angle at the opposite corner.

13. In a triangle ABC, AD is perpendicular to BC, and AE bisects the angle at A. Show that the angle DAE is equal to half the difference between the angles at B and C.

14. Through a point A, outside a given straight line BC, draw a straight line which shall make with BC an angle equal to a given angle. (Drawing a line parallel to another not permitted.)
Certain Geometrical Inequalities.

The next five theorems are illustrations of geometrical inequalities. We have already had examples of such. Thus, from In., § 6, we see that any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side, since a straight line is the shortest distance between its extreme points. Again, in § 31 of In., it was shown that the exterior angle of any triangle is greater than either of the interior and opposite angles; and also that any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

PROPOSITION XIII. THEOREM.

If one side of a triangle be greater than another side, the angle opposite the greater side is greater than the angle opposite the less.



Let ABC be a \triangle having AC>AB. Then the \angle ABC is $> \angle$ ACB. From AC cut off AD = AB. Join BD.

Then exterior $\angle ADB$ is > the interior and opposite $\angle ACB$. (In., § 31.)

But $\angle ABD = \angle ADB$, because AB = AD; (Prop. 2.) $\therefore \angle ABD > \angle ACB$;

still greater therefore is $\angle ABC$ than $\angle ACB$.

PROPOSITION XIV. THEOREM.

If one angle of a triangle be greater than another, the side opposite the greater angle is greater than the side opposite the less.



Let ABC be the \triangle having $\angle ABC > \angle ACB$. Then the side AC is > the side AB. At B make $\angle CBD = \angle ACB$. (Prop. 5.) Then DB = DC; (Prop. 3.) $\therefore AC = AD + DC = AD + DB$, which is > AB. (In., § 6.) That is, AC > AB.

NOTE. This Proposition is the converse of Prop. XIII.

COROLLARY: The perpendicular is the shortest line that can be drawn from a given point to a given line; and a line nearer to the perpendicular is less than one more remote.



For if $\angle ADE$ be a rt. \angle , then $\angle AED$ is < rt. \angle . Hence AD < AE.

Also $\angle AEF$ is an obtuse \angle , since it is $> \angle ADE$; (In., §31.) $\therefore \angle AEF > \angle AFE$, and AF > AE.

Evidently only two equal straight lines can be drawn from A to BC; *i.e.*, on opposite sides of AD, and making equal angles with it.

This corollary shows why we speak of the perpendicular from a point to a line, as *the distance* from the point to the line.

Exercises.

1. In a right-angled triangle the hypotenuse is the greatest side.

2. If one side of a triangle be less than another side, the angle opposite the smaller side must be an acute angle.

3. ABCD is a quadrilateral of which AD is the longest side, and BC the shortest. Show that the angle ABC is greater than the angle ADC; and the aogle BCD greater than the angle BAD.

4. ABC is a triangle, and the angle A is bisected by AD, meeting BC in D. Show that BA is greater than BD, and CA greater than CD.

CERTAIN INEQUALITIES.

BOOK I.

5. Every straight line drawn from the vertex of a triangle to the base, is less than the greater of the two sides, or than either of them if they be equal.

6. The greatest side of any triangle makes acute angles with each of the other sides.

7. The angles ABC, ACB of the triangle ABC are bisected by OB, OC. If AB be greater than AC, then OB is greater than OC.

8. In triangle ABC, side AB is greater than side AC. The angle A is bisected by a line meeting BC at D. Show that BD is greater than CD. (From AB cut off AE equal to AC, and join ED.)

The following are consequences of the fact that any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side.

9. Show that the sum of the diagonals of any quadrilateral figure is less than the sum of the sides.

10. Show that the sum of the diagonals of any quadrilateral figure is greater than half the sum of the sides.

11. The sum of the diagonals of a quadrilateral is less than the sum of any four lines that can be drawn from any point (except the intersection of the diagonals) to the four angular points.

12. If O be any point within the equilateral triangle ABC, show that any two of the straight lines OA, OB, OC are together greater than the third.

13. The difference of any two sides of a triangle is less than the third side.

14. In any triangle any two sides are together greater than twice the median which bisects the remaining side. (Produce median a distance equal to it; join end to either extremity of base of triangle.)

5. In any rectilineal figure the sum of the distances of any point from the augular points of the figure is greater than half the perimeter.

16. The sum of the two diagonals of any quadrilateral is greater than that of either pair of opposite sides.

17. In the triangle ABC, the line AD bisects the angle at A and meets BC at D. Show that the difference between AB and AC is greater than the difference between BD and DC.

PROPOSITION XV. THEOREM.

If from the ends of one side of a triangle there be drawn two straight lines to a point within the triangle, these two straight lines are together less than the sum of the two other sides of the triangle.



Let ABC be a \triangle , and from B, C, the ends of the side BC, let BD, DC be drawn to a pt. D within the \triangle . Then the sum of BD, DC is less than the sum of BA, AC. Produce BD to meet AC in E. In \triangle BAE, BA + AE > BE. To each add EC. Then BA + AC > BE + EC. Again, in \triangle CED, CE + ED > CD. To each add DB. Then BE + EC > BD + DC. But it has been shown that BA + AC > BE + EC; \therefore , a fortiori, BA + AC > BD + DC.

BOOK I.

CERTAIN INEQUALITIES.



COROLLARY: If lines BD, DE, EF, FC be drawn as in the figure, there being no re-entrant angle, it at once appears that BA + AC > BG + GC > BD + DE + EF + FC. Whatever be the number of lines BD, DE,, the proof applies.

Exercises.

1. In the Proposition, show that the angle BDC is greater than the angle BAC.

2. In the Corollary, show that the angle between any two of the lines within the triangle is greater than the angle BAC.

3. The sum of the distances of any point within a triangle from its angular points is less than the perimeter of the triangle.

4. In the Proposition, show that the difference between BA + AC and BD + DC is less than twice AD.

5. Prove that the angle BDC is greater than the angle BAC, by joining AD and producing it.

6. If two triangles be on the same base and on the same side of it, and have equal vertical angles the vertex of each triangle must be outside the other triangle.

7. Show that the perimeter of a triangle is greater than that of any triangle which can be formed by joining any three points within it.

8. Two rectilineal figures are upon the same base, one of them being entirely within the other and having no re-entrant angles. Show that the outer figure has the greater perimeter.

PROPOSITION XVI. THEOREM.

If two triangles have two sides of the one eqnal to two sides of the other, each to each, but the angle contained by the two sides of the one greater than the angle contained by the two sides of the other; then the base of that which has the greater angle is greater than the base of the other.



Let ABC, DEF be two \triangle s, having AB = DE, AC = DF; but the \angle BAC > the \angle EDF.

Then the base BC is > the base EF. Apply the △ABC so that A falls on D, and AB on DE. Then B coincides with E, because AB = DE. Let C fall at G. If F falls on EG, then evidently EG>EF and ∴ BC>EF. But if not, let DH bisect ∠FDG, and meet EG in H. Join FH.

Then in $\triangle s$ FDH. GDH.

 $\mathbf{DF} = \mathbf{DG},$

DH is common to $\triangle s$, $\angle FDH = \angle GDH$:

 \therefore **FH** = **GH**. (Prop. 6.)

Then $\mathbf{EH} + \mathbf{HG} = \mathbf{EH} + \mathbf{HF}$, which is > **EF**. That is, **EG** (or **BC**) is > **EF**.

BOOK I. CERTAIN INEQUALITIES.

PROPOSITION XVII. THEOREM.

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If two triangles have two sides of the one coual to two sides of the other, each to each, but the base of the one greater than the base of the other; then the angle contained by the sides of that which has the greater base is greater tuan the angle contained by the sides of the other.



Let ABC, DEF be two $\triangle s$, having AB = DE, AC = DF, but BC > EF.

Then the $\angle BAC > the \angle EDF$.

For if $\angle BAC$ be not $> \angle EDF$.

it must be either equal to it or less.

But $\angle BAC$ cannot be = $\angle EDF$.

for then BC would be = EF, (Prop. 6.) which is contrary to hypothesis.

Nor can $\angle BAC$ be < the $\angle EDF$.

for then BC would be <EF, (Prop. 16.) which also is contrary to hypothesis.

 \therefore the $\angle BAC >$ the $\angle EDF$.

Exercises.

1. ABCD is a quadrilateral having AB and CD equal, but the diagonal BD greater than the diagonal AC. Prove that the angle BCD is greater than the angle ABC.

2. ABC is a triangle having the angle ABC greater than the angle ACB. If AD be drawn to the middle point of BC, show that the angle ADC is obtuse.

3. ABC is a triangle having AB less than AC, and P is any point in the line joining A to the middle point of BC. Show that P is nearer to B than to C.

4. ABC is a triangle having the sides AB, AC fixed in length, and AB being greater than AC. The side AB remaining fixed in position, draw the locus of C as the angle BAC varies from O^o to 180^o.

What statement can you make as to the changes in the length of a line drawn from a fixed point without a circle to a point on the circumference, as the **position** of the latter point varies?

5. The same as Exercise 4, but with AB less than AC.

In the second part, the fixed point is now within the circle.

6. If one chord of n circle be greater than another, the angle subtended at the centre by the former is greater than the angle subtended at the centre by the latter.

7. State and prove the converse of Exercise 6.

8. The side AB of the triangle ABC is greater than the side AC. From BA, CA equal parts BD, CE are cut off. Show that BE is greater than CD.

BOOK II.

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PARALLELISM.

PARALLEL LINES. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.



BOOK IL.

PARALLEL LINES.

Parallel Lines.

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM,

To draw a straight line through a given point, parallel to a given straight line.



Let A be the given point, and BC the given st. line. It is required to draw through A a st. line || to BC. Through A draw any st. line, DAE, cutting BC in E. At the pt. A in the st. line DAE, make the \angle DAF = the \angle AEC, and exterior to it.

Produce FA to G.

Then the st. line GAF, drawn through A, is \parallel to BC. For the st. line DAE, falling on the st. lines GF, BC, makes the ext. \angle DAF = the int. and opp. \angle AEC;

 \therefore GAF, drawn through A, is || to BC. (In., § 29.)

Angles situated as GAE, AEC, are called alternate angles.

Angles situated as FAE, AEC, are spoken of as the two interior angles on the same side (of the transversal DAE.)

PROPOSITION II. THEOREM.

If a straight line fall on two parallel straight lines, it makes (1) the alternate angles equal, and (2) the two interior angles on the same side together equal to two right angles.



Let the st. line EH fall on the || st. lines AB, CD.

Then (1) the alternate $\angle s$ AFG, FGD are equal; and (2) the two interior $\angle s$ BFG, FGD on the same side are together = two rt. $\angle s$.

(1) Because AB is || to CD, and EH falls upon them, the ext. \angle EFB is = int. and opp. \angle FGD. (In., § 29.) But \angle AFG is = vertically opp. \angle EFB; (In., § 13.) $\therefore \angle$ AFG = \angle FGD.

(2) Because AB is || to CD, and EH falls upon them, the ext. \angle EFB is = int. and opp. \angle FGD. To each add the \angle BFG. Then \angle EFB + \angle BFG = \angle BFG + \angle FGD.

But $\angle EFB + \angle BFG = two rt. \angle s$; (In., § 18.)

 $\therefore \angle BFG + \angle FGD = two rt. \angle s.$

BOOK II.

PARALLEL LINES.



In the preceding diagram all the angles marked α are equal to one another; and also all the angles marked β are equal to one another.

Moreover we have, in all cases, $\alpha + \beta = 180^{\circ}$.

PROPOSITION III. THEOREM.

If a straight line, falling on two other straight lines, make (1) the alternate angles equal to one another; or (2) the two interior angles on the same side together equal to two right angles, then the two straight lines are parallel.



Let the st. line EH, falling on the two st. lines AB, CD, make (1) the alt. \angle s AFG, FGD equal, or (2) the two int. \angle s BFG, FGD, on the same side, together = 2 rt. \angle s.

Then AB is || to CD.

(1) Because $\angle AFG = \angle FGD$, (Hyp.) and $\angle AFG = \angle EFB$; (In., § 13.) $\therefore \angle EFB = \angle FGD$.

Hence AB is || to CD. (In., § 29.)

(2) Again, because $\angle BFG + \angle FGD = 2$ rt. $\angle s$, (Hyp.)

and $\angle \mathbf{EFB} + \angle \mathbf{BFG} = 2$ rt. $\angle s$; (In., § 18.)

 $\therefore \ \angle \mathbf{EFB} + \angle \mathbf{BFG} = \angle \mathbf{BFG} + \angle \mathbf{FGD},$

Take away the common $\angle BFG$,

and $\angle \mathbf{EFB} = \angle \mathbf{FGD}$.

Hence AB is \parallel to CD. (In., § 29.)

PARALLEL LINES.

BOOK II.

Exercises.

1. Straight lines which are perpendicular to the same straight line are parallel to one another.

2. If a straight line meet two or more parallel straight lines, and be perpendicular to one of them, it is also perpendicular to the others. Show also that the perpendicular distance between the same two parallel lines is constant.

3. If the arms of two angles be parallel, each to each, the angles are either equal or supplementary.

4. Two straight lines AB, CD bisect one another at O. Show that AC, BD are parallel, and also AD, CB.

5. A line is intercepted by two parallel lines and is bisected at P. Show that any other line through P, and intercepted by the parallel lines, is bisected at P.

6. If a quadrilateral have its angles right angles, show that its opposite sides are parallel.

7. Show that the opposite sides of a rhombus are parallei.

8. Construct a parallelogram, having given one of its angles, and the lengths of the sides which aro the arms of this angle.

9. If one angle of a parallelogram be a right angle, i.e., if it be a rectangle (see Definition), show that all its angles are right angles.

10. Construct a square according to its definition, and show that its opposite sides are parallel, and that all its angles are right angles.

11. AD bisects the angle BAC; and E is a point in AB such that AE = ED. Show that ED is parallel to AC.

12. Show that if two straight lines be drawn from two of the angular points of a triangle to the opposite sides, these two straight lines cannot bisect each other.

13. If the straight line which bisects the exterior angle of a triangle be parallel to the opposite side, the triangle is isosceles.

14. Any straight line drawn parallel to the base of an isosceles triangle makes equal angles with the sides.

For additional Exercises, see p. 88.

Notes.

1. "Since parallel lines have the same direction, they each deviate by the same amount from any other direction" (In., § 29). In making this statement we assume that directions which are not the same, intersect; *i.e.*, that any two lines which are not parallel intersect, such lines being produced, if necessary.

2. If a transversal fall across two lines which are not parallel, since the four interior angles at the two points of intersection are together equal to four right angles, the interior angles on one side of the transversal are together less, and those on the other side are together greater than two right angles; for if on either side they were equal to two right angles the lines would be parallel. (Prop. 3, Bk. II.)

Such lines evidently intersect on that side of the transversal on which are the angles together less than two right angles; otherwise we should have two angles of a triangle together greater than two right angles. (In., \S 31.)

As exercises, the student may now prove that **BO**, **CO** (Ex. 3, p. 58) meet; also **EO**, **FO** (Ex. 4, p. 58); and later, when Prop. 13, **Bk**. II., is reached, he can show that **NA**. **LK** meet.

PARALLEL LINES.

BOOK II.

PROPOSITION IV. THEOREM.

Straight lines which join the extremities of equal and parallel straight lines towards the same parts, are themselves equal and parallel.



Let the equal and || st. lines AB, CD be joined toward the same parts by AC and BD.

Then AC and BD are both equal and ||.

Join BC.

Since AB is \parallel to CD, the alt. \angle s ABC, BCD are equal. Then in \triangle s ABC, DCB,

AB = CD,

BC is common to Δs_{i}

 $\angle ABC = \angle BCD$; (Prop. 2, Bk. II.)

 $\therefore \Delta s$ are equal in all respects;

and AC = BD.

Also ∠ ACB = ∠ DBC. But these are alternate ∠s; ∴ AC is || to BD. (Prop. 3, Bk. II.)

PROPOSITION V. THEOREM.

The opposite sides and angles of a parallelogram are equal to one another, and each diagonal divides the parallelogram into two triangles equal in all respects.



Let ABCD be a $||^m$, and AC its diagonal. Then AB=CD, AD=CB, \angle ABC= \angle CDA, \angle BAD= \angle DCB; and the \triangle s ABC, CDA are equal in all respects. In \triangle s ABC, CDA,

> $\angle BAC = \angle DCA$, being alt. $\angle s$, (Prop. 2, Bk. II.) $\angle BCA = \angle DAC$, """",

> > AC is common to Δs ;

 $\therefore \bigtriangleup s$ are equal in all respects. (Prop. 7, Bk. I.) Hence AB = CD.

> CB = AD, $\angle ABC = \angle CDA.$

Also, since ∠BAC = ∠DCA, and ∠DAC = ∠BCA;
.: whole ∠BAD = whole ∠DCB.

PARALLEL LINES.

COROLLARY 1: If one of two lines be divided

BOOK II.

into equal segments, and through the points of section parallel lines be drawn intersecting the other line, the parallel lines divide this other line into equal segments.



Let AB, BC, CD ... be equal to one another, and BB', CC', DD', ... parallel lines.

Let B'K, C'L, .. be drawn parallel to AD.

Then BK, CL, ... arc parallelograms, and the lines AB, B'K, C'L, ... are all equal.

Evidently the Δs , **ABB'**, **B'KC'**, **C'LD'**, ... are therefore equal in all respects.

Hence the lines AB', B'C', C'D', ... are all equal to one another, though in general, of course, not equal to the segments AB, BC, ...

COROLLARY 2: The preceding suggests a means of dividing a given line into any number of equal parts.

For let AD' be the given line. Through A draw any line AX, and on it take equal lengths AB, BC, CD.

Join DD', and through B, C, draw lines parallel to DD'.

Then by the preceding corollary the segments of AD' are equal.



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Exercises.

1 Show that the diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.

2. Show that the diagonals of any rhombus (including a square) bisect each other at right angles.

3. Show that a quadrilateral is a parallelogram-

(1) If one pair of opposite sides are equal and parallel.

(2) If pairs of opposite sides are equal.

(3) If pairs of opposite angles are equal.

(4) If the diagonals bisect each other.

4. Show that the diagonals of a rectangle are equal.

5. Show that if the diagonals of a parallelogram are equal, it must be a rectangle; and that if, in addition, they are at right angles, it must be a square.

6. Show that any straight line through the intersection of the diagonals of a parallelogram divides the parallelogram into two equal parts.

7. Through a given point D within a given angle BAC, draw a straight line BDC, such that BD is equal to DC.

8. If a diagonal of a parallelogram bisects the angles through which it passes, the figure is a rhombus.

9. If two railway tracks of the same gauge intersect at any angle, the figure thus formed is a rhombus.

10. The diagonals of a rhombus bisect one another at right angles.

11. Draw a straight line DE parallel to the base BC of a triangle ABC, and terminated by the sides or sides produced, so that DE may be of given length.

12. If two opposite sides of a quadrilateral are parallel, and the other two sides equal but not parallel, prove that the angles adjacent to each of the parallel sides are equal.

13. Describe a rhombus having its angular points on the sides of a given parallelogram, such that one diagonal of the rhombus passes through a given point.

14. Show that if the bisectors of the angles of a quadrilateral form a rectangle, the quadrilateral must be a parallelogram.

BOOK IL.

15. AB, CD, EF are three parallel straight lines, ACE being a straight line, and also BDF. Show that if AC, CE are equal, so also are BD, DF.

16. Find axes of symmetry, and also a centre of symmetry for,--

(1) square; (2) rectangle; (3) rhombus.

What sort of symmetry do you discover in an ordinary parallelogram?

17. What symmetry do you discover in the quadrilateral ABCD, if AB=AD, and CB=CD?

18. ABC is a triangle, and through D, the bisection of AB, a line is drawn parallel to BC. Show that this line bisects AC also.

Conversely, show that the line joining the middle points of AB and AC is parallel to BC.

19. ABCD is a parallologram, and E, F are the bisections of the sides BC, AD. Show that DE, BF trisect the diagonal AC.

20. If the middle points of adjacent sides of a quadrilateral be joined, the figure thus formed is a parallelogram.

21. The straight lines joining the middle points of the opposite sides of any quadrilateral bisect each other.

22. In Exercise 15, show that CD is an arithmetic mean between AB and EF, *i.e.*, that it is half their sum.

23. Any straight line drawn from the vertex of a triangle to the base, is bisected by the line which joins the middle points of the sides.

24. The three straight lines which join the middle points of the sides of a triangle, divide the triangle into four triangles which are equal in all respects, and each equiangular to the original triangle.

25. If through the angular points of a triangle, straight lines be drawn parallel to the opposite sides, the triangle so formed has its sides double the sides of the original triangle, and its angles equal to those of the original triangle.

Hence show (Ex. 2, p. 59) that lines through the angular points of a triangle perpendicular to the opposite sides, meet in a point.

Equivalence of Areas.

PROPOSITION VI. THEOREM.

Parallelograms on the same base and between the same parallels are equal in area.



Let ABCD, EBCF be two $||^{ms}$ on the same base BC, and between the same $||^s$ AF, BC.

Then these \parallel^{ms} are equal in area. In Δs EAB, FDC, AB=DC, being opp. sides of a \parallel^{m} , (II., 5.) int. $\angle EAB=ext. \angle FDC$, (In., § 29.) ext. $\angle AEB=int. \angle DFC$; $\therefore \Delta EAB=\Delta FDC$; (I., 7.)

: fig. ABCF less \triangle FDC = fig. ABCF less \triangle EAB; that is $||^m$ ABCD = $||^m$ EBCF.

BOOK II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

COROLLARY: Parallelograms on equal bases and between the same parallels are equal in area.



For BC and FG being equal, if the $||^m$ EFGH be moved to the left, so that FG coincides with BC, the conditions of the Proposition itself are realized, and the provelograms are equal.

AREA OF A PARALLELOGRAM. $T' \sim ||^m$ ABCD and the rectangle EBCF, being on the same base and between the same parallels, are equal in area:

 \therefore area of ABCD = area of EBCF, = BC × BE = base × altitude.



Exercises.

1. Construct a rhombus equal to a given parallelogram, and having each of its sides equal to the longer side of the parallelogram.

2. In the preceding question, what condition is necessary that the rhombus may be constructed with each of its sides equal to the shorter side of the parallelogram ?

3. Make a rectangle equal to a given parallelogram, and having one of its sides equal to a side of the parallelogram.

4. Show that if the lengths of the sides of a parallelogram be given, its area will be greatest when it is a rectangle.

5. Show that parallelograms with equal bases and equal altitudes are equal.

6. Show that equal parallelograms with equal bases must have equal altitudes.

7. Equal parallelograms with the same altitude must be on equal bases.

8. Divide a parallelogram into foar equal parallelograms.

9. Construct a parallelogram equal to a given parallelogram, having one side equal to a side of the latter, and another side of given magnitude. What limit is there to the length of this latter side?

10. Construct a parallelogram equal to a given parallelogram, having one side equal to a side of the latter and an angle adjacent to this side of given magnitude.

11. ABCD is a parallelogram; AE, DF are drawn parallel to each other to meet BC, produced if necessary in E, F; AG, EH are drawn parallel to each other to meet DF, produced if necessary in G, H. Prove that the parallelograms ABCD, AEHG are equal in area.

To follow Exercises on p. 79.

12. If from any point in the straight line bisecting any angle, lines be drawn parallel to the arms of the angle, these lines are equal to one aaother, and the resulting figure is a rhombus.

13. Through each angular point of a triangle a straight line is drawn parallel to the opposite side. Show that the triangle formed by these lines is equiaagular to the given triangle.

14. If two triangles have two angles of the one equal to two angles of the other, and be equal in area, then they are equal in all respects.

15. Find a point hetween two intersecting straight lines, such that perpendiculars from the point on the lines may be of given length.

16. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the altitude, and the length of the line from the vertex to the middle point of the base.

17. A straight line DE parallel to the base BC of a triangle ABC, makes the lengths BD, CE equal to one another. Show that the triangle ABC is isosceles.

BOOK II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

PROPOSITION VII. THEOREM.

Triangles on the same base and between the same parallels are equal in area.



Let the Δs ABC, DBC be on the same base BC, and between the same $\parallel^{s} AD$, BC.

Then these Δs are equal in area.

Produce AD both ways to E and F.

Through B draw BE \parallel to CA; and through C draw CF \parallel to BD.

Then the $\|^{ms}$ EBCA, DBCF, being on the same base BC, and between the same $\|^s$, are equal in area. (II., 6.)

But $\triangle ABC$ is half $||^m EBCA$, (II., 5.)

and $\triangle DBC$ is half $\parallel^m DBCF$;

 $\therefore \Delta ABC = \Delta DBC.$

COROLLARY: Triangle 3 on equal bases and between the same parallels are equal in area.



For BC and EF being equal, if the $\triangle DEF$ be moved to the left, so that EF coincides with BC, the conditions of the Proposition itself are realized, and the triangles are equal in area.

PROPOSITION VIII. THEOREM.

Triangles, equal in area, on the same base, or on equal bases that are in the same straight line, and on the same side of the base line, are between the same parallels.



Let **ABC** and **DBC** (or **DEF**) be two Δs equal in area, on the same base **BC**, or on equal bases **BC**, **EF** that are in the same st. line, and on the same side of the base line.

Then these Δs are between the same ||*; that is, AD is || to BC.

For if AD be not || to BC, through A draw AG || to BC, meeting DB (or DE) in G.

Then Δs **ABC**, **GBC** (or **GEF**) are equal in area. (II., 7.) But the Δs **ABC**, **DBC** (or **DEF**) are equal in area; (Hyp.)

 $\therefore \Delta s$ GBC, DBC (or GEF, DEF) are equal in area:

a part equal to the whole, which is impossible. Hence \mathbf{AG} cannot be \parallel to \mathbf{BC} .

Similarly it can be shown that no other st. line through A, except AD, is \parallel to BC;

 \therefore **AD** is || to **BC**.

Exercises.

1. Find the locus of the vertex of a trianglo whose base is given and area constant.

2. If two triangles have equal altitudes and equal areas, their bases must be equal.

A median is a line drawn from any angle of a triangle to the bisection of the opposite side.

8. Show that the median of a triangle divides it into two parts equal in area.

4. In the triangle ABC, BE and CF, the medians through B and C, intersect in O. Prove the following:

- (1) Triangles FBC, ECB are equal.
- (2) Triangles OFB, OEC are equal.
- (3) Triangles OFB, OFA are equal.
- (4) Triangles OFA, OEA are equal.
- (5) If D be the bisection of BC, then AO, OD aro in the same straight line.

Hence the three medians of a triangle pass through the same point.

5. Prove that a parallelogram is divided by the diagonals inte four equal areas.

6. ABC is a triangle, and AD the median through A. If E be any point in AD, show that the triangles EAB, EAC are equal in area.

7. Prove by means of Props. VII. and VIII. that the straight line joining the bisections of the sides of a triangle is parallel to the base.

8. On the base of a given triangle construct an isosceles triangle equal in area.

9. If the middle points of the sides of any quadrilateral are joined in order, show that the parallelogram so formed is half the quadrilateral, the quadrilateral having no re-entrant angle.

10. Two triangles of equal area stand on the same base but on opposite sides of it. Show that the line joining their vertices is bisected by the base or base produced.

BOOK II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

11. Two triangles have two sides of the one equal to two sides of the other, each to each, but the ingles contained by these sides supplementary. Prove that the triviagles are equal in area.

12. ABCD is a parallelogram, s., i P is any point in AC. Show that the triangles ABP, ADP are equal in area, and also the triangles CBP, CDP.

13. P is a point within the triangle ABt', such that the triangles APB, APC are equal in area. Show that AP produced bisects BC.

14. AB, AC are two intersecting lines, and D, E, any two points in AB. Draw DF, EG terminated by AC and intersecting in O, such that the triangles OED, OFG may be equal in area.

15. ABC is any triangle, and D any point in AB. Through D dniw a line which shall divide the triangle into two parts equal in area.

16. ABCD is a quadrilateral which is hisceted by AC. Show that BD is bisected by AC.

17. If two triangles have the same altitude, but the base of one he a multiple of the base of the other, show that the former triangle is the same multiple of the latter.

18. If O be the point in which the medians AD, BE, CF of a triangle ABC intersect (Ex. 4), show that AO = 2OD, BO = 2OE, CO = 2OF.

PROPOSITION IX. THEOREM.

If a triangle and a parallelogram be on the same base and between the same parallels, the parallelogram is double of the triangle.



Let the $\triangle ABC$ and the $||^m$ DBCE be on the same base BC, and between the same $||^s$ DA, BC.

Then the \parallel^m is double the Δ . Join **DC**.

Then Δs DBC, ABC are equal in area. (II., 7.)

But \parallel^m **DBCE** is double of \triangle **DBC**; (II., 5.)

 $\therefore \parallel^m$ **DBCE** is double of $\triangle ABC$.

BOOK II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

COROLLARY. Evidently if the parallelogram and triangle be on equal bases and between the same parallels, the parallelogram is double of the triangle.

AREA OF A TRIANGLE. The triangle ABC and the rectangle DBCE, being on the same

base, and between the same parallels, the rectangle is double of the triangle;

:, area of ABC = $\frac{1}{2}$ area of DBCE = $\frac{1}{2}$ BC × BD = $\frac{1}{2}$ base × altitude of \triangle .



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Exercises.

1. Show that in a right-angled triangle 11. rectangle contained by the two sides is equal to the rectangle contained by the hypotenuse and the perpendicular on it from the right angle.

2. O is any point within the parallelogram ABCD. Show the the sum of the triangles OAB, OCD is equal to the sum of the triangles OAD, OBC.

3. ABCD is a parallelogram, and P, Q any points in AB, BC, respectively. Show that the triangles PCD, QAD are equal in area.

4. ABC is a triangle and E, F are the middle points of AC, AB, respectively. Show that the triangle AFE is one quarter of ABC.

5. If two sides of a triangle be given in length, show that its area is greatest when they contain a right angle.

6. Show that the area of a rhombus is half the rectangle contained by its diagonals.

7. ABCD is a parallelogram whose diagonals intersect in E, and O is any other point in the parallelogram. Show that the difference between the triangles OAB, OBC is twice the triangle OBE.

8. ABCD is a quadrilateral having BC parallel to AD, and E is the middle point of DC. Show that the triangle AEB is half the quadrilateral.

9. On the same side of the straight line ABC equal rectangles ABDE, ACFG are described. Show that BG and FD are parallel.

10. In the preceding question, what additional condition must be introduced, that B(4 and FI) may be parallel, if parallelograms be substituted for rectangles?

11. Through the angular points of a quadrilateral straight lines are drawn parallel to the diagonals. Show that the parallelogram so formed is double the quadrilateral in area.

12. O is any point within the parallelogram ABCD. Show that the sum of the areas of the triangles OAB, OCD is half the area of the parallelogram.

13. From any point within a given equilateral triangle, perpendiculars are let fall on the three sides. Show that the sum of these perpendiculars is constant for the sum equilateral triangle.

14. If the sides AB, AD of a rhombus be bisected in E, F, show that the area of the triangle CEF is three-eighths of the area of the rhombus.

15. ABCD is a parallelogram, and EF, parallel to BD, euts CB, CD in E and F respectively. Show that the triangles ABE, AFD are equal in area.

16. If through the vertices A, B, C of a trianglo parallel lines be drawn intersecting the sides opposite these points in D, E, F, show that the area of the triangle DEF is twice that of ABC.

17. Any parallelograms ABDE, ACFG are described externally on the sides AB, AC of a triangle ABC, and DE, FG meet in H. On BC a parallelogram BKLC is constructed, having its sides BK, CL equal and parallel to AH. Show that BKLC is in area equal to the sum of the areas of ABDE and ACFG.

18. If P be a point within the triangle ABC, such that the sum of the areas of the triangles PAB, PAC is constant, prove that the locus of P is a straight line.

What does this proposition become when the point P moves along its locus outside the triangle ABC?

II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

PROPOSITION X. THEOREM.

The complements of the parallelograms about the diagonal of any parallelogram are equal in area.



Let **ABCD** be a $||^{m}$, and **BE**, **ED** the complements of the $||^{ms}$ about the diagonal **AC**, formed by drawing **FEG**, **HEK** || to **AB**, **AD**, respectively, through any point **E** on **AC**.

Then the complements BE, ED are equal in area.

Since AHEF is a $||^m$ and AE its diagonal;

 $\therefore \triangle AHE = \triangle AFE.$ (II., 5.)

Since EGCK is a \parallel^m and EC its diagonal; $\therefore \triangle EGC = \triangle EKC.$

Hence $\triangle AHE + \triangle EGC = \triangle AFE + \triangle EKC$.

But whole $\triangle ABC =$ whole $\triangle ADC$:

: the remainder, the complement BE.

= the remainder, the complement ED.
Exercises.

1. In the figure of the Proposition, show that the triangles AED, AEB are equal in area.

Also that the triangles FHG, HFK are equal in area.

2. Show also that HF and GK are parallel.

3. Where must E be, that the parallelograms HF, GK may be equal?

4. Prove the converse of the Proposition,—that if the areas of BE, ED are equal, then E must lie on AC.

5. In the Proposition, show that if ABCD be a rhombus, so also is each of the figures HF, GK; also that if ABCD be a square, then are HF, GK squares.

6. If ABCD in the Proposition, be a rhombus, show that BE, ED are not only equal in area, but can be made to coincide with one another, *i.e.*, arc congruent.

7. In the figure of the Proposition, show that the triangles HEC, FEC are equal in area.

8. In the same figure, show that BD and GL are parallel. (Both are bisected by AC.)

EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

BOOK II.

PROPOSITION XI. PROBLEM.

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To describe a parallelogram equal to a given triangle, and having an angle equal to a given angle.



Let ABC be the given \triangle , and **D** the given \angle . It is required to construct a $||^m$ equal to ABC, and having an \angle equal to **D**.

Bisect BC at E.

Join AE.

At the point E in EC make the $\angle CEF =$ the $\angle D$. Through A draw AFG || to BC, and through C draw CG || to EF.

Then **ECGF** is the required $\|^m$.

Because \triangle s **ABE**, **AEC** are on equal bases **BE**, **EC**, and between the same $||^{s}$, they are equal (II., 7, Cor.); and \triangle **ABC** is double of \triangle **AEC**.

Also, because $\triangle AEC$ and $||^m ECGF$ are on the same base EC and between the same $||^s$, the $||^m ECGF$ is double of $\triangle AEC$. (II., 9.)

 $\therefore \parallel^m \mathbf{ECGF} \text{ is } = \triangle \mathbf{ABC}, \text{ and it has } \angle \mathbf{CEF} = \angle \mathbf{D}.$

PROPOSITION XII. PROBLEM.

To describe a parallelogram equal to a given rectilineal figure, and having an angle equal to a given angle.



Let **ABCD** be the given rectilineal figure, and **E** the given \angle .

It is required to describe a \parallel^m equal to ABCD, and having an \angle equal to $\angle E$.

Join DB.

Through C draw CF || to DB, to meet AB produced in F. Join DF.

Then $\triangle \neg \neg B = \triangle CDB$, (II., 7.)

and to each adding $\triangle DAB$,

 \triangle **DAF** = figure ABCD.

Describe the $||^m$ GFHL = \triangle DAF, and having \angle FGL = given \angle E. (II., 11.)

Then \parallel^m GFHL is equal to the given figure ABCD, and it has the \angle FGL equal to the given \angle E.

In the same way, if the given figure have five or more sides, it ean, by a repetition of the construction given in the Proposition, be reduced to a triangle, and a parallelogram may be described equal to it, with an angle equal to the given angle.

Exercises.

1. Construct a rectangle equal to the sum of two given rectangles.

2. Construct a rectangle equal to the difference of two given rectangles.

3. Construct a rectangle equal to the sum of two given squares.

4. Construct a triangle equal in area to the triangle ABC, but having one of its sides of given length BD. (Lay off BD on BC or BC produced.)

5. Construct a triangle equal in area to n given triangle and having a given altitude.

6. ABC is a given triangle, and D a given point. Construct a triangle equal in area to ABC and heving its vertex at D.

7. Construct a triangle equal in area to a given quadrilateral ABCD, the triangle having a given altitude.

8. Show how to divide a triangle into n equal parts by straight lines drawn through one of its angles.

9. Hence show how to cut off from n given triangle an nth part by a straight line drawu through a point in one of its sides.

10. Construct a triangle equal in area to the triangle ABC, and having BD (in BC or BC produced) for one of its sides, and one of its ungles of any given magnitude.

PROPOSITION XIII. PROBLEM.

On a given straight line to describe a parallelogram equal in area to a given triangle, and having an angle equal to a given angle.



Let **AB** be the given st. line, **DEF** the given \triangle , and **C** the given \angle .

It is required to describe a $||^m$ on AB, equal to DEF, and having an \angle equal to C.

On **BA** produced construct a \triangle **GHA** equal to \triangle **DEF**. (I., 1.)

Biseet AH in K. (I., 10.)

At A in KA construct the $\angle KAM = \angle C$. (I., 5.) Through G draw GN || to AB. (II., 1.)

Through K, B draw KL, BN \parallel AM, and meeting GN in L and N, respectively.

Join NA, and produce it to meet LK produced in P.

Through P draw $PQR \parallel$ to AB, and meeting MA produced in Q, and NB produced in R.

Then **AR** is the \parallel^m required.

For since **AR** and **AL** are complements of the $||^{ms}$ about the diameter **PN** of the $||^m$ **LR**, they are equal to one another. (II., 10.)

But since K is the bisection of AH, the $||^m$ AL is equal to the \triangle GHA (II., 11), that is, to the \triangle DEF;

 $\therefore \parallel^m \mathbf{AR} = \triangle \mathbf{DEF}.$

BOOK II. EQUIVALENCE OF AREAS.

Also its $\angle QAB$ is $= \angle KAM$, which is $= \angle C$. $\therefore \parallel^m AR$ has been described on AB, $= \triangle DEF$, and with $\angle QAB = \angle C$.

NOTE. If, instead of a triangle, the given figure be any polygon, such polygon may be reduced to a triangle of equal area, and the construction may then proceed as in the Proposition.

Exercises.

1. On each of two sides of an equilateral triangle a parallelogram is described. Show how to apply to the third side a parallelogram whose area is equal to the sum of these two areas, and having an angle of given magnitude.

2. Construct a rectangle equal to a given square, when the length of one side of the rectangle is given.

3. Describe a triangle equal to a given parallelogram, having a side of given length and an angle of given magnitude.

4. Construct a parallelogram equal in area to a given triangle and having the same perimeter as the triangle.

5. Construct a rhombus equal in area to a given parallelogram, and having a side common with the parallelogram.

6. On one side of a quadrilateral construct a rectangle equal in area to the given quadrilateral.

7. On a given base make a rectangle equal to a given rectangle.

8. Construct a rhombus equal in area to a given triangle, and having its sides equal to a given straight line. When does the construction become impossible?

9. Show that the sides of squares of equal area are equal.

10. Describe a triangle equal to a given parallelogram, and having an angle equal to a given rectilineal angle.

11. The sum of the two parallel sides of a trapezium is double the line joining the middle points of the other two sides.

12. Given the middle points of the sides of a triangle, construct the triangle.

13. If on the sides of a square, points be taken equidistant from each of the angles, taken in order, these points are the angular points of another square.

14. If in the preceding exercise the points be taken on the sides of a rhombus, and joined, what is the figure so formed ?

15. ABCD is a parallelogram on a fixed luse AB, and of constant area. Find the locus of the intersection of its diagonals.

16. If a quadrilateral has one pair of opposite sides parallel, and two opposite angles equal, it is a parallelogram.

17. If a quadrilateral has two opposite sides equal, and also two opposite angles equal, both being obtuse, then the figure is a parallelogram.

18. ABC is a triangle. Construct a triangle equal in area, having its vertex at a given point in BC, and its base in the same straight line as AB.

19. Construct a triangle, having given the points of bisection of two sides, and a point of trisection of the third.

20. The triangle which has two of its sides equal to the diagonals of a quadrilateral, and the angle between them equal to either of the angles between these diagonals, is equal to the quadrilateral in area.

21. Construct a triangle equal in area to a given triangle ABC, having its base in the same straight line as AB and of given length, and its vertex in a given line not parallel to AB.

22. The feet of the perpendiculars drawn from A upon the internal and external bisectors of the angles at B and C of the triangle ABC, hie on the straight line joining the middle points of AB and AC.

23. Having given two sides of a triangle and the median from their intersection to the middle point of the opposite side, construct the triangle.

24. Having given the three medians of a triangle, construct the triangle.

25. Show that if the line joining the middle points of two opposite sides of a quadrilateral bisect the quadrilateral, these opposite sides are parallel.

26. If two parallelograms have a common diagonal, the angular points through which this diagonal does not pass are the corners of a third parallelogram.

BOOK iII.

RATIO AND PROPORTION.

INTRODUCTION.

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LINES IN PROPORTION.

SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

RELATION BETWEEN SQUARES ON SIDES OF A TRIANGLE.



INTRODUCTION.

Introduction.

1. If two quantities, **A** and **B**, are of the *same kind*, the ane may be compared with the other.

This comparison may consist in considering whether \mathbf{A} is greater than, equal to, or less than \mathbf{B} .

Usually, however, a more profitable comparison consists in considering how many times \mathbf{A} contains \mathbf{B} , or what part \mathbf{A} is of \mathbf{B} ; or, supposing \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} expressed in terms of a common unit, in considering what multiple, part, or parts, the number representing \mathbf{A} is of that representing \mathbf{B} .

Thus, if **A** and **B** be lines containing a common unit of length m and n times respectively, we receive a very *workable* comparison of **A** and **B** from considering what multiple, part, or parts, m is of n.

2. Ratio is the relation of two magnitudes of the same kind to one another in respect of quantity, the comparison of the magnitudes being made by considering what *mulliple*, *part or parts*, the one is of the other.

The idea of ratio is exceedingly fundamental. It is not easy, in considering magnitude, to get away from the idea. It is with us when we speak of bisecting a line or angle; or of dividing a line into a number of equal parts; or above, when we speak of expressing **A** in terms of a unit; or when we speak of a parallelogram being double of a triangle.

The ratio of **A** to **B** is represented by the form $\mathbf{A} : \mathbf{B}$, or by m : n, where m and n are numbers expressing **A** and **B** respectively, in terms of a common unit.

Since the fraction $\frac{m}{n}$ represents the multiple, part or parts, that m is of n, it expresses the ratio m : n, that is the ratio of A to B.

A and B, or m and n, are called the terms of the ratio. The first term is called the **antecedent**; the second term the **consequent**.

3. PROPORTION: Four magnitudes are said to be in proportion, or to be proportionals, when the ratio of the first to the second is equal to the ratio of the third to the fourth.

Thus, if A, B, C, D be the magnitudes

$$\mathbf{A}:\mathbf{B}=\mathbf{C}:\mathbf{D}.$$

A and D are called the extremes; B and C the means. D is said to be a fourth proportional to A, B and C.

If A and B, expressed in terms of a common unit, be represented by a and b; and C and D, expressed in terms of a common unit, be represented by c and d, we have

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$$

4. The truth of the following equations between these symbols will be at once apparent as consequences of the above equation:

$$ad = bc,$$

$$\frac{a}{c} = \frac{b}{d},$$

$$\frac{a+b}{b} = \frac{c+d}{d},$$

$$\frac{a-b}{b} = \frac{c-d}{d},$$

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INTRODUCTION,

a+b c+d u-b r-d' $\frac{a+r}{c} = \frac{b+d}{d},$ &e.

Conversely, if any of these equations holds, then a: b=c: d, or A: B=C: D.

5. In dealing with ratio and proportion, we shall consider ourselves justified in passing at once from the letter-designations of magnitudes, to the numbers expressing the magnitudes in terms of known unit or units, and *eice versa*. Indeed, we may treat the letterdesignations of lines, etc., us if they were numbers expressing the magnitudes of the lines, etc., and not only add and subtract but also multiply and divide them.

6. Continued Proportion.—Quantities are said to be in continued proportion when the ratio of the first to the second is equal to the ratio of the second to the third, and so on.

Thus, if \mathbf{A} : $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B}$: $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}$: $\mathbf{D} = \ldots$; then \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{C} , \mathbf{D} , \ldots are said to be in continued proportion.

If in the continued proportion three quantities only are involved, A, B and C,—so that $\frac{A}{B} = \frac{B}{C}$, or $AC = B^{c}$, then C is said to be a third proportional to A and B; and B is said to be a mean proportional between A and C.

7. If there be two rectangles of the same altitude c, whose areas are represented by **A** and **B**, and bases by a and b, then $\mathbf{A} = ac$, $\mathbf{B} = bc$;



that is, rectangles of the same altitude are to one another as their bases.

[This result is so fundamental and so associated with our every-day experience, being the principle regulating the value of most articles that are sold by the length, that some may think even the above simple demonstration uncalled for. We must recollect, however, that the truth of the form $\mathbf{A} = ac$ depends on the fact that by drawing two sets of parallel lines, \mathbf{A} can be divided into ac equal squares, and this in turn depends on principles that have been developed in connection with parallel lines and parallelograms. Or again, if we divide



the reetangles into equal parts by parallel lines drawn through the ends of each unit of length of base, and so obtain at onee

$$\mathbf{A}:\mathbf{B}=a:b,$$

The must remember that our assurance that these parts are equal comes from our knowledge of the properties of parallels and parallelograms.]

LINES IN PROPORTION.

Lines in Proportion.

PROPOSITION I. THEOREM.

Triangles of the same altitude are to one another as their bases.



Let the \triangle s **ABC**, **ACD** have the same altitude, namely the \perp r from **A** on **BD**.

Then the $\triangle ABC$ is to the $\triangle ACD$ as BC is to CD.

On the bases **BC** and **CL**, construct the rectangles **BCFE**, **CDGF**, each of half the altitude of the \triangle s.

Then reet. $EC = \triangle ABC$, and reet. $FD = \triangle ACD$.

And $\triangle ABC : \triangle ACD = reet. EC : reet. FD,$

= **BC** : **CD.** (III., In., § 7.)

Proposition 9 of "Additional Propositions" after Book V., is an alternative proof of this theorem, and may be substituted for the preceding demonstration. It has, possibly, an advantage over the preceding proof, in showing clearly *why* the triangles are as their bases.

Note. In stating a proportion we may read the symbol : "is to," and = "as." Or we may say,—"The ratio of .. to ... is equal to the ratio of .. to ..." We may use similar language where the ratios are expressed in the form of fractions.

PROPOSITION II. THEOREM.

If a straight line be drawn parallel to one side of a triangle, it cuts the other sides proportionally.

And conversely, if a straight line cut two sides of a triangle proportionally, it is parallel to the third side.



Let DE be || to BC, a side of the $\triangle ABC$. Then BD is to DA as CE is to EA. Join BE, CD. Because **BC** is || to **DE**; $\therefore \triangle EDB = \triangle DEC$. And EDA is another \triangle . $\therefore \triangle EDB : \triangle EDA = \triangle DEC : \triangle EDA.$ But $\triangle EDB : \triangle EDA = BD : DA$. (III., 1.) and $\triangle DEC : \triangle EDA = CE : EA;$ \therefore BD : DA = CE : EA. Conversely, let BD be to DA as CE to EA. Then DE is || to BC. The same construction being made since BD : DA = CE : EA; (III., 1.) and **BD** : **DA** = \triangle **EDB** : \triangle **EDA**. also $CE : EA = \triangle DEC : \triangle EDA$:

III. LINES IN PROPORTION. $\therefore \triangle EDB : \triangle EDA = \triangle DEC : \triangle EDA;$ and $\therefore \triangle EDB = \triangle DEC.$ And these $\triangle s$ are on the same base DE; $\therefore DE \text{ is } \parallel \text{ to } BC. \quad (II., 8.)$ COROLLARY. Since $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ Again, since $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ Again, since $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}A \\ DB\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}A \\ DB\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\BD\\EC:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\EA:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\EA:\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{c}BD\\EA:\end{array}$

The same results may be obtained from the figures, by following the method of the Proposition.

or $\frac{AB}{AD} = \frac{AC}{AE}$.

An indirect proof of the converse may easily be arranged,—Draw DF parallel to BC, meeting AC in F, and then show that F and E coincide.

Proposition 10 of "Additional Propositions" after Book V., is an alternative proof of this theorem, and may be substituted for the preceding demonstration. It has, possibly, an advantage over the preceding proof, in showing clearly *why* the sides are ϵ t proportionally.

Exercises.

1. The straight line joining the middle points of the sides of a triangle is parallel to the base, and is one-half the base.

2. If in a quadrilateral ABCD, the sides AB, CD be parallel, prove that any straight line parallel to AB divides AD and BC proportionally

BOOK III.

3. A fixed point O is joined to various points in a given straight line AB. Prove that all the points which divide the joining lines in the same ratio, lie on a straight line which is parallel to AB. Express this theorem as a question in loci.

4. Show that the triangles into which a quadrilateral is divided by its diagonals, form a proportion.

5. If ABCD be a trapezium having AB parallel to DC, and AC, BD intersect in O; show that the triangle OAD is a mean proportional between the triangles OCD, OAB.

6. The diagonals of a trapezium cut one another proportionally; and any straight line drawn parallel to either of the parallel sides cuts the other sides in the same ratio.

7. The diagonals of a trapezium one of whose parallel sides is double the other, cut one another at points of trisection.

8. The medians of a triangle cut one another at a point of trisection.

9. ABCD is a parallelogram, and E, F are the middle points of the sides AD, BC, respectively. Show that BE, FD triseet AC.

10. In the same parallelogram, if G be the bisection of CD, show that BE, BG trisect AC.

11. From any point O on the diagonal AC of a quadrilateral ABCD, OP is drawn parallel to AB to meet BC in P, and OQ is drawn parallel to AD to meet CD in Q. Show that PQ is parallel to BD.

12. The point D divides the base BC of the triangle ABC in the ratio m:n. If O be any point in a:D, show that the ratio of the areas OAB, OAC is m:n. Prove converse.

13. Find a point O within the triangle ABC, such that triangle OBC=2 triangle OCA=4 triangle QAB.

14. In a triangle ABC, the lines AD, BE, CF, drawn to the opposite sides intersect in O. If AF: FB = p:q and BD: DC = q:r, and the area of the triangle OAF be represented by pk, obtain the following expressions for areas of triangles in the figure,—

OFB =
$$qk$$
, OAB = $(p+q)k$, OAC = $\frac{r}{a}(p+q)k$, BOC = $\frac{r}{a}(p+q)k$.

Hence show that CE: EA = r: p.

Obtain expressions for areas of remaining triangles in the figure,

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LINES IN PROPORTION.

PROPOSITION III. THEOREM.

If the vertical angle of a triangle be bisected by a straight line which also cuts the base, the segments of the base have the same ratio which the other sides of the triangle have to one another.



Let the vertical \angle **BAC** of the \triangle **ABC** be bisected by **AD** which cuts the base in **D**.

Then BD is to DC as BA to AC.

Through C draw CE \parallel to AD, to meet BA produced in E.

Then since AD is || to CE,

 $\angle ACE = \angle CAD;$ also $\angle AEC = \angle BAD;$ but $\angle BAD = \angle CAD;$ (Hyp.)

 $\therefore \angle AEC = \angle ACE,$

and $AE = \angle AC$.

But BD : DC = BA : AE, since AD is || to EC; (III., 2.) $\therefore BD : DC = BA : AC$.

Conversely, if the segments of the base have the same ratio which the sides of the triangle have to one another, the straight line drawn from the vertex to the point of sectior bisects the vertical angle.

> Let BD be to DC as BA to AC. Then AD bisects the \angle BAC. The same construction being made, since BD : DC = BA : AC, (Hyp.) and BD : DC = BA : AE, AD being || to EC; \therefore AE = AC, and \angle AEC = \angle ACE. But \angle AEC = \angle BAD, and \angle ACE = \angle DAC; \therefore \angle BAD = \angle DAC, and AD bisects \angle BAC.

PROPOSITION IV. THEOREM.

If the exterior angle at the vertex of a triangle be bisected by a straight line which also cuts the base produced, the segments of the base have the same ratio which the other sides of the triangle have to one another.



Let the exterior \angle at the vertex **A** of the \triangle **ABC** be bisected by **AD**, which cuts the base in **D**. Then **BD** is to **DC** as **BA** to **AC**. Through **C** draw **CE** || to **AD**, to meet **BA** in **E**. Then, since **AD** is || to **CE**, \angle **ACE** = \angle **CAD**; also \angle **AEC** = \angle **FAD**; but \angle **FAD** = \angle **CAD**; (Hyp.) \angle \angle **ACE** = \angle **AEC**, and **AE** = **AC**. But **BD**: **DC** = **BA** : **AE**, since **AD** is || to **EC**; (III., 2.) \therefore **BD** : **DC** = **BA** : **AC**.

Conversely, if the segments into which the base is divided externally have the same ratio which the sides of the triangle have to one another, the straight line drawn from the vertex to the point of section bisects the exterior angle at the vertex.

> Let BD be to DC as BA to AC. Then AD bisects the exterior $_$ at A. The same construction being made, since BD : DC = BA : AC, (Hyp.) and BD : DC = BA : AE, AD being || to EC; \therefore AE = AC, and \angle AEC = \angle ACE. But' \angle AEC = \angle FAD, and \angle ACE = \angle DAC; $\therefore \angle$ FAD = \angle DAC, and AD bisects $_$ CAF.

Propositions III. and IV. are in reality one and the same proposition. An enunciation applicable to both may be given as follows,—If a straight line bisect either of the angles which two straight lines make with one another, and a transversal fatl across the three, the segments of the transversal between the bisecting line and the two straight lines, have the same ratio as the intercepts made by the transversal on the two straight lines. It is to be noted that the word "triangle" is not mentioned in the preceding statement.

An analogous enunciation may be formed to include both converses.

NOTE. The term *transversal* is applied to a line fall ing across a number of other lines, especially when these latter lines radiate from a point. Lines radiating from a point are said to form a *pencil of rays*.

In Prop. III., BC is divided *internally* at D; in Prop. IV., *externally* at D; and in the latter case D is considered as much a point of division of BC, and BD, DC as much segments of BC, as in the former case.

Brevity might have been secured by combining Props. III. and IV. into one, but it is at least no disadvantage to the learner to repeat in IV. the reasoning he has already met with in III.

If both internal and external angles at the vertex are bisected, we obtain the following result,—



Hence, $\frac{1}{BD}$, $\frac{1}{BC}$, $\frac{1}{BD'}$ are in Arithmetic Progression, and therefore BD, BC, BD' are in Harmonic Progression; and the straight line BC is said to be *harmonically* divided.

Generally a straight line is harmonically divided when it is divided internally and externally in the same ratio. **BC** is thus divided.

The points **B**, **D**, **C**, **D'** are said to form a harmonic range; and the lines **AB**, **AD**, **AC**, **AD'** a harmonic pencil.

Exercises.

1. A point D is taken in BC, a side of the triangle ABC, and the angles ADB, ADC are bisected by DE, DF, meeting AB, AC in E and F, respectively. If EF be parallel to BC, show that D must be the bisection of BC.

Prove also the converse of this,—that if D be the middle point of BC, then EF is parallel to BC.

2. If a, b, c be the sides of the triangle ABC, opposite the angles A, B, C, and D, D' the points where the internal and external bisectors of A meet BC, prove that

DD' =
$$\frac{2abc}{b^2 - c^2}$$
, or $\frac{2abc}{c^2 - b^2}$.

8. If BC be divided harmonically in D and D', show that

$$\frac{1}{BD} + \frac{1}{BD'} = \frac{2}{BC'}$$

4. AD bisects the angle A of the triangle ABC, and meets the base in D. E is the middle point of BC. Show that

$$ED = \frac{a}{2} \frac{(b-c)}{(b+c)}, \text{ or } \frac{a}{2} \frac{(c-b)}{(b+c)},$$

where a, b, c are the sides opposite to A, B, C.

Similar Triangles.

Two rectilineal figures are said to be equiangular when the angles of the first, taken in order, are equal respectively to the angles of the second, taken in the same order.

In such figures, a side of one is said to correspond to a side of the other, when the angles adjacent to the former side correspond to the angles adjacent to the latter side. Such sides are called corresponding sides.

Two rectilineal figures are said to be similar when they are equiangular, and the ratio of each side of the one to the corresponding side of the other is the same.

That two figures may be similar it is necessary that both conditions be satisfied; i.e.,-

(1) The figures must be equiangular.

(2) The ratio between corresponding sides must be constant.

Two figures may fulfil the second condition, *e.g.*, a square and a rhombus, without fulfilling the first; and two figures may satisfy the first condition, *e.g.*, a square and a rectangle, without satisfying the second.

It will be shown, however, that in the particular case of triangles cach condition involves the other.

Figures which are similar are, in popular language, spoken of as having the same *shape*, though possibly differing in . ize.

In stating the proportionality of the sides of two triangles ABC, DEF, the form

> AB: DE = BC: EF = CA: FD,or AB = BC = CACA = BC = CA \overline{FD}

is preferable to

AB	DE	BC	EF	CA	FD
BC	EF'	CA "	FD'	AB	DE'

since the former statement is briefer, and makes prominent the constancy of the ratio between corresponding sides.

SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

PROPOSITION V. THEOREM.

If two triangles are equiangular, the ratios of corresponding sides are equal.



Let ABC, DEF be two Δs , in which $\angle A = _D$, $_B = \angle E$ and $\bigcirc _C = _F$.

Then AB is to DE as BC to EF, as CA to FD. Let the \triangle DEF be placed on \triangle ABC, so that E coincides with B, ED falls on BA, and EF on BC.

Let D', F' be the new positions of D, F.

Then since $\angle D' = \angle A$, D'T' is || to AC;

AB: D'B = BC: BF';

i.e., AB : DE = BC : EF.

Similarly, by placing the $\triangle DEF$ on $\triangle ABC$ so that F econoides with C, FE falls on CB and FD on CA, it may be proved that BC: EF=CA: FD.

	AB	_BC	CA
•	DE	ĒF	=FD'

Hence Δs which are equiangular have the ratios between corresponding sides equal, and are therefore *similar.* (p. 121)

PROPOSITION VI. THEOREM.

If the ratios of the three sides of one triangle to the three sides of another triangle, taken in order, be equal, the triangles are equiangular.



Let ABC, DEF be two Δs , in which AB: DE=BC: EF =CA: FD.

Then the Δs are equiangular.

On the side of EF remote from D, construct the $\angle GEF = -B$, and the $_GFE = \angle C$.

Then Δs ABC, GEF are equiangular;

AB: GE = BC: EF. (III., 5.)But AB: DE = BC: EF; (Hyp.) $\therefore GE = DE.$

Similarly it may be proved that GF = DF. Hence the Δs DEF, GEF are equiangular. But Δs ABC, GEF are equiangular; $\therefore \Delta s$ ABC, DEF are equiangular.

Triangles, therefore, which have the ratios of the three sides of the one to the three sides of the other, taken in order, equal, are *similar*.

It will be noted that it is between corresponding sides, according to the definition of corresponding sides, that the ratio is constant.

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BOOK III.

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PROPOSITION VII. THEOREM.

If two triangles have one angle of the one equal to one angle of the other, and the sides about the equal angles proportionals, the triangles are equiangular.



Let ABC, DEF be two Δs , in which $\Delta A = \Delta D$, and AB is to DE as AC to DF.

Then the Δs are equiangular.

Let the $\triangle DEF$ be placed on the $\triangle ABC$, so that D falls on A, DE on AB, and DF on AC; and let E', F' be the new positions of E and F.

> Then since AB: DE = AC: DF, *i.e.*, AB: AE' = AC: AF'; $\therefore E'F'$ is \parallel to BC. (III., 2.) Hence $\angle B = \angle E' = \angle E$, and $\angle C = \angle F' = \angle F$; and the triangles are equiangular.

Therefore, if two triangles have an angle in cach equal, and the sides about these angles proportionals, the triangles are *similar*.

PROPOSITION VIII. THEOREM.

If the ratios of two sides of one triangle to two sides of another triangle be equal, and if the angles opposite to one pair of these sides be equal, the angles opposite to the other pair of sides are either equal or supplementary.



Let ABC, DEF be two $\triangle s$, in which AB is to DE as AC to DF, and $\angle B = \angle E$.

Then either the $\angle s$ at C and F are equal, and \therefore the $\triangle s$ equiangular; or $\angle C + \angle F = 2$ rt. $\angle s$.

If $\angle C$ be not = $\angle F$, then $\angle A$ is not = $\angle D$. Make then $\angle EDF' = \angle BAC$, and produce EF, if necessary, to meet DF' in F'.

Then $\triangle s$ ABC, DEF' are equiangular;

 \therefore **AB** : **DE** = **AC** : **DF'**. (III., 5.)

But AB : DE = AC : DF; (Hyp.)

$$\therefore \mathbf{DE} = \mathbf{DF}';$$

and $\therefore \angle DF'F = \angle DFF'$.

Hence $\angle \mathbf{C} = \angle \mathbf{DF'F} = \angle \mathbf{DFF'} = 2 \text{ rt. } \angle \mathbf{s} - \angle \mathbf{DFE};$ and $\angle \mathbf{C} + \angle \mathbf{F} = 2 \text{ rt. } \angle \mathbf{s}.$

Therefore, if the angles at C and F be not supplementary, the triangles are equiangular and therefore similar.

BOOK III. SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

It may be that something in the data respecting the triangles will show that the angles at C and F cannot be supplementary, *i.e.*, that the triangles are similar.

Angles which are supplementary are both right angles, or one is acuto and the other obtuse.

Hence, if the given angles at \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{E} be right angles, or obtuse angles, the angles at \mathbf{C} and \mathbf{F} must be both acute, and cannot be supplementary; and the triangles are similar.

Again, if AC be greater than, or equal to AB (and therefore DF greater than, or equal to DE), the angle ABC is greater than or equal to the angle ACB, and the angle DEF greater than or equal to the angle DFE. Hence both the angles ACB, DFE are acute; and the triangles are similar.

Lastly, if for any reason we know the angles ACB, DFE to be both acute, or both obtuse, they cannot be supplementary; and the triangles are similar. If one of the angles ACB, DFE he known to be a right angle, the other is either equal to it, or supplementary, *i.e.*, again equal to it; and the triangles are similar.

TRIGONOMETRICAL RATIOS. If BAC be any angle, and if from any point P in AC or AB, a perpendicular PN



be drawn to **AB** or **AC**, the following names are given to the ratios of the sides of the right-angled triangle **PAN**, to one another:

The	ratio	AP	is called	the sine of the	e 74	A , w	ritte	n sin A .
	"	AN AP	44	cosire	44	•	"	cos A.
	"	PN AN	44	tangent	"	,	44	tan A.
	"	AN PN	\$6	cotangent	46	, '	+6	cot A.
	"	AP ĀN	"	secant	66	•	"	sec A.
	"	AP PN	"	cosecant	٤.	,	66	cosec A

These six ratios are called the trigonometrical ratios of the $\angle A$.

It will be observed that though three different triangles, **PAN**, are constructed, they are all similar to one another, and each of the above ratios has the same value for all of them. In other words each of the above ratios is constant for the same angle.

Construct angles of 29°, 35°, 43°, 57°, 69°, 75°; for each accurately form the right-angled triangle **PAN**; measure accurately the lengths of its sides to the nearest millimetre; and calculate to two decimal places the numerical values of the six trigonometrical ratios for each of these angles.

The best results will be obtained by making the triangle **PAN** somewhat large,—say with a base **AN** of about 100 millimetres.

Exercises.

1. If ABC, DEF be similar triangles, and the ratio between corresponding sides be represented by k, show that any two corresponding lines in the two figures are in this ratio k; for example,—

SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

BOOK IIL

- (1) Perpendiculars from corresponding angles on opposite sides are in the ratio k.
- (2) Corresponding segments between feet of perpendiculars and corresponding angles, are in the ratio k.
- (8) Medians from corresponding angles are in the ratio k.
- (4) Lines bisecting corresponding angles and terminated by opposite sides are in the ratio k.
- (5) Lines from the bisections of corresponding sides to the corresponding trisections of corresponding sides are in the ratio k.
- (6) Corresponding segments of sides made by the lines in (3) and (4) are in the ratio k.

2. If any straight line EF, parallel to the side BC of a triangle ABC, cut AB, AC in E and F, show that EF is bisected by the median from A.

3. AOB is a perpendicular to two parallel lines, and COD, terminated by the parallel lines, AC, DB, passes through any point O in AOB. Show that AO:OB=CO:OD.

4. ABC, DBC are any two triangles on the same base BC, and between the same parallels. Show that the parts intercepted by the sides of the triangles on any straight line parallel to BC are equal.

5. Every straight line parallel to the base of a triangle cuts off a similar triangle.

6. ABC is a triangle having the angle B double of the angle C, and the bisector of B means AC in D. Show that the triangles ARC, ADB are similar, and that AB is a mean proportional between AC and AD.

7. Show that two isosceles triangles are similar, if their vertical angles are equal.

8. Show that the ratio of the perpendiculars from two given points A and B, on any straight lino which cuts AB in a fixed point, is constant.

9. ABCD is a quadrilateral in which AB is parallel to and half of CD. Show that any line through O, the intersection of the diagonals, and terminated by AB, CD, is trisected at O.

10. ABCD is a quadrilateral baving the sides AB, CD parallel. Show that the line joining the middle point of CD to the intersection of the diagonals, will, on being produced, biseet AB.

11. ABC is a triangle, and perpendiculars AD, BE are drawn to the epposite sides, intersecting in P. Show that AP.PD = BP.PE.

12. Three lines AB, AC, AD pass through a point, and parallel lines are drawn intersecting them. Shew that the segments into which AC divides the portions of the parallels intercepted by AB, AD, are in a constant ratio for a given direction of the parallels.

13. AB and CD are two parallel lines, and CD is hiseeted at E. AC, BE meet in F, and AE, BD meet in G. Show that FG is parallel to AB.

14. AB, CD are two parallel lines, and AD, BC intersect in O. Show that the triangles AOB, AOC, COD form a continued proportion.

15. In the figure of the preceding question

 $\frac{\triangle AOB}{\triangle AOC} = \frac{BO}{OC} = \frac{AB}{CD},$ also $\frac{\triangle AOC}{\triangle COD} = \frac{AO}{OD} = \frac{AB}{CD}.$

What therefore is the ratio of the areas of the triangles AOB, COD? What sort of triangles are these?

If two triangles ABC, DEF be similar, place them so as to form a figure analogous to that in the preceding question, and hence show that their areas are as BC^2 to EF^2 .

16. Through any point D in the base BC of the triangle ABC, DE and DF are drawn parallel to AB, AC, meeting AB, AC in F and E. Show that the triangle AFE is a mean preportional between the triangles DCE, DBF.

17. From a figure calculate the cosine and tangent of 27°, and apply your results to find AB and BC in the triangle ABC, where

 $A = 27^{\circ}, C = 90^{\circ}, AC = 230$ feet.

18. From a figure calculate the cosine of 70° , and apply your result to the solution of the following problem: To find the distance of an object B from A, a base line AC is measured and found to be 750 feet; the angles A and C are measured and found to be 70° and 90° respectively. Express AB in feet.

19. From a figure calculate the sine of 73°, and apply your result to the solution of the following problem : In a triangle ABC, the sides AB, BC are 720 and 480 feet respectively, and the \angle B is 73°; find the length of the perpendicular from A on BC, and calculate the area of the triangle.

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SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

20. In a triangle ABC, if b and c be the lengths of the sides opposite the angles B and C respectively, show that the area of the triangle is $\frac{1}{2} bc \sin A$.

Exercises such as the following are of great practical value :

21. P is a distant object. A base line AB of 720 feet is measured, and the angles PAB, PBA are found to be 75° and 80° respectively. By constructing a triangle P'A'B' equiangular to PAB, having A'B' 50 millimetres in length, and measuring P'A', P'B' in millimetres, use the property of similar triangles to find approximately PA and PB.

22. Similarly, AB is 200 yards; angles PAB, PBA are 80° and 85° respectively; A'B' is 80 millimetres. Find approximately PA and PB by measuring the lengths of P'A', P'B' in millimetres.

23. Similarly, AB is 480 feet; the angles PAB, PBA are 63° and 70° respectively; A'B' is 55 millimetres. Find approximately PA and PB by measuring the lengths of P'A', P'B' in millimetres.

21. In the preceding question, test the accuracy of your result by constructing P'A'B' with B'A'=100 millimetres, or A'B'=75 millimetres, measuring P'A', P'B' in millimetres, and thence again. by similar triangles, finding PA and PB.

25. The triangle ABC has $\angle A = 35^{\circ}$, AB = 270 ft., AC = 480 ft. Construct a triangle A'B'C' with $\angle A' = 35^{\circ}$, $A'B' = 2\frac{1}{2}$ in., A'C' = 4 in., which thus is similar to ABC. Employ the similarity of the triangles to find approximately $\angle B$, $\angle C$ and side BC.

26. The triangle ABC has $\angle A = 57^{\circ}$, AB = 340 yds., AC = 460 yds. Construct a triangle A'B'C' with $\angle A' = 57^{\circ}$, A'B' = 68, A'C' = 92 millimetres, which thus is similar to ABC. Employ the similarity of the triangles to find approximately $\angle B$, $\angle C$ and side BC.

27. The triangle ABC has $\angle B = 75^{\circ}$, AB = 750 ft., AC = 1100 ft. Construct on paper a similar triangle, and use the similarity of the triangles to find approximately $\angle A$, $\angle C$ and side BC.

In such numerical exercises as the seven preceding, the teacher should solve the triangles by the usual trigonometrical formulæ, that he may inform the class as to the closeness of their approximations reached by instrumental methods.

These numerical exercises may, of course, be multiplied indefinitely.

PROPOSITION IX. PROBLEM.

To divide a given straight line similarly to a given divided straight line.



Let **AB** be the given st. line to be divided, and **AC** the other given st. line divided at **D** and **E**.

It is required to divide AB similarly to AC. Let AB, AC be placed so as to be coterminous at A. Join BC.

Through D and E draw DF, EG || to BC. Then AB is divided at F, G similarly to AC. Through D draw DHK || to AB.

Since HE is \parallel to KC;

 $\therefore \mathbf{DH} : \mathbf{HK} = \mathbf{DE} : \mathbf{EC}. \quad (III., 2.)$

But DH = FG, and HK = GB; (II., 5.)

 \therefore FG : GB = DE : EC.

Again, since FD is || to GE;

 $\therefore \mathbf{AF}: \mathbf{FG} = \mathbf{AD}: \mathbf{DE}. \quad (III., 2.)$

Hence AB has been divided at F and G similarly to AC at D and E.

COROLLARY. If is be required to divide a given line in a given ratio, as the ratio **AB**: **BC**, let **AB**, **BC** be



placed so as to be in a straight line, and divide the given line similarly to AC by the method of the proposition.

NOTE. When AB has been divided similarly to AC, whatever relation exists between the segments of AC, the same relation exists between the corresponding segments of AB. Thus, if A, D, E, C form a harmonic range, so also do A, F, G, B. If AE is divided at D so that the rectangle AE.ED equals the square on AD, then also $AG.GF = AF^2$; and so on. This proposition is most easily seen in its general form, as follows: Let a, b, c, \ldots be the segments of AC, and a', b', c', \ldots the corresponding segments of AB. Then

$$\frac{a}{a'} = \frac{b}{b'} = \dots = k, \text{ say };$$

so that $a = a'k, b = b'k, \dots$

The relation between a, b, ... will be expressed by an equation which must be homogeneous, for we could not have an expression in which lines would be added to rectangles, and both to enbes. Substituting, then, a'k, b'k, ... for a, b, ..., we shall find that k divides out, and shall have the original equation, but with a', b', ... replacing a, b, ...
PROPOSITION X. PROBLEM. .

To find a fourth proportional to three given straight lines.



Let A, B, C be the three given st. lines. It is required to find a fourth proportional to them. Draw the lines DE, DF. Take DG=A, GH=B, and DK=C. Join GK, and draw HL || to GK. Then KL is a fourth proportional to A, B, C. Since GK is || to HL; ∴ DG:GH=DK:KL. (III., 2.) Hence A: B=C:KL, and KL is a fourth proportional to A, B, C.

BOOK III.

SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

COROLLARY. The proposition includes the finding of a third proportional to two given lines, A, B. For repeat the line B, and find a fourth proportional to A, B, B. Let this be C. Then A:B=B:C; *i.e.*, C is a third proportional to A, B.

Exercises.

1. C is any point in the line AB. In AB produced, find a point D such that

$$\frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AC}{CB}$$

2. If A be a point without a circle, whose centro is O, and lines drawn from A to the circumference be divided in a constant ratio, show that the locus of the point of division is a circle whose centro is the point where **AO** is divided in the same ratio.

3. Given the sum of two lines and their ratio; find the lines.

4. Given the difference of two lines and their ratio ; find the lines.

5. Find the locus of a point which moves so that the perpendiculars from it, on two given straight lines, are in a given ratio.

6. Find a point O within a triangle ABC, such that if perpendiculars be dropped on the sides a, b, c, the ratios of the perpendiculars may be a; b; c.

7. Find three lines which are to one another as three given rectangles are to one another. (Prop. 10, Bk. II.)

8. Divide a triangle ABC into three triangles OBC, OCA, OAB, such that these triangles may be in given ratios.

9. OX, OY are two given straight lines, and OA, OB are taken on them respectively, so that the sum of OA, OB is constant. Lines are drawn through A and B parallel to OY, OX; show that the locus of their intersection is a straight line.

10. ABCD is a parallelogram, and DEF is drawn cutting AB in E and CB produced in F. Show that CF is a fourth proportional to EA, AD, AB.

11. If the perpendiculars from two fixed points on a straight line passing between them be in a given ratio, the straight line must pass through a third fixed point.

12. Find a straight line such that the perpendiculars on it from three fixed points may be in given raties to each other.

PROPOSITION XI. THEOREM.

If two triangles are similar, the ratio of their areas is equal to the ratio of the squares on their corresponding sides.



Let ABC, DEF be similar Δs .

The ratio of their areas is equal to the ratio of the squares on corresponding sides.

Let AG, DH be the altitudes of the Δs .

Then $\frac{\Delta ABC}{\Delta DEF} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{BC}{EF} \cdot \frac{AG}{DH} = \frac{BC}{EF} \cdot \frac{AG}{DH}$

But since $\angle B = \angle E$, and $\angle G = \angle H$, the $\triangle s$ ABG, DEH are similar;

AG AB	
· DH DE	
	AB
△DEF EF	DE
BC	BC
EF	EF
BC ²	CA ² AB ²
EF ²	$FD^2 DE^2$

. .

BOOK III.

SIMILAR TRIANGLES.

Exercises.

1. Make a triangle similar to mother triangle, and four times its size.

2. Show that two similar triangles are to one another as the squares on the mechanis from corresponding angles.

3. ABC is a triangle, and AD, CF are perpendiculars from A and C on BC and AB respectively. Show that the triangles ABD, CBF are in the ratio AB^2 ; BC^2 .

4. ABC is a triangle, and AD, BE, CF are the perpendiculars from the angular paints on the opposite sides. Show that the areas of the triangles ABC, DBF are to one another as the squares on AC and DF,

5. If one of two similar triangles has its sides 25 per cent. larger than the corresponding sides of the other, what is the ratio of the areas? What if 25 per cent. less?

6. ABC, DEF are two similar triangles. Find two lines whose lengths are in the same ratio as the areas of these triangles.

PROPOSITION XII. THEOREM.

In a right-angled triangle, if a perpendicular be drawn from the right angle to the hypotenuse, the triangles on each side of it are similar to the whole triangle and to one another.



Let ABC be a Δ , having C a rt. \angle ; and let CD be $\perp \mathbf{r}$ to AB.

Then the Δs ADC, CDB are similar to the whole ΔACB , and to one another.

In Δs ADC, ACB,

 $\angle \mathbf{A}$ is common,

rt. $\angle ADC = rt. \angle ACB$;

 \therefore the Δs ADC, ACB are similar.

In like manner the Δs CDB, ACB may be shown to be similar.

Hence the \triangle s ADC, CDB are similar.

BOOK III.

COROLLARY 1. Since the Δs ADC, ACB are similar, $\frac{AD}{AC} = \frac{AC}{AB}$, or $AC^2 = AD \cdot AB$.

In like manner BC² = BD.AB.

COROLLARY 2. Since the Δs ADC, CDB are similar, AD = DCDC = DB.

Henee DC is a mean proportional between AD and DB.

Accordingly, to find a mean proportional between two given lines AD, DB, place them in the same straight line. On the line which together they form, describe a semicircle, the angle in which may readily be shown to be a right angle. Through D draw DC, perpendicular to AB, to meet the semicircle. DC is a mean proportional between AD and DB.

COROLLARY 3. Evidently $DC^2 = AD \cdot DB$, so that the eonstruction in Cor. 2 gives us the means of finding the side of a square equal in area to a given rectangle.

Hence we can describe a square equal to a given triangle, first describing a rectangle equal to the triangle. (II., 11.)

Hence also we can describe a square equal to a given rectilineal figure. (II., 12.)

Relation between Squares on Sides of a Triangle.

PROPOSITION XIII. THEOREM.

In a right-angled triangle, the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.



Let ABC be a \triangle having the rt. \angle ACB.

Then the square on AB is equal to the sum of the squares on AC and CB.

From C draw CD perpendicular to AB.

Since the Δs ADC, ACB are similar, (III., 12.)

 $\frac{\mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^{2}}{\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{2}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{C}}{\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{B}}.$ Since the $\Delta \mathbf{s}$ CDB, ACB are similar, $\frac{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{C}^{2}}{\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{2}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}}{\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{B}}.$ Hence $\frac{\mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^{2} + \mathbf{B} \mathbf{C}^{2}}{\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{2}} = \frac{\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{C} + \Delta \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B}}{\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{B}}.$ But $\Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{C} + \Delta \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{B} = \Delta \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C} \mathbf{B}$; $\therefore \mathbf{A} \mathbf{C}^{2} + \mathbf{B} \mathbf{C}^{2} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{2}.$

BOOK III. SQUARES ON SIDES OF TRIANGLE.

Note. The largest square may be cut up so as to form the two other squares, as indicated in the following figure:



The lines DK, EH are drawn \parallel to AC, and the lines EF, AG, BH \parallel to BC.

The triangles AGD, DFE, BHE are readily shown to be equal in all respects to the triangle ACB, and in the process AK, KE are shown to be the squares on AC, CB, respectively.

The triangle AGD may be turned about A, in the direction indicated by the arrow-head, into the position ACB; the triangle EFD may be turned about E, in the direction indicated by the arrow-head, into the position EHB.

Thus the largest square is transformed into the squares AK, KE, which are the squares on AC, CB respectively.

Exercises.

1. The side of a right-ungled isosceles triangle is to the hypotenuse as 1 to $\sqrt{2}$.

Show how to bisect a triangle by a lino parallel to a side.

2. Find a line which bears to a given line the ratio $\sqrt{3}$ to 1, and also the ratio 1 to $\sqrt{3}$.

Givon a square, construct a square three times, and also unother one-third the given one.

3. Construct a square equal to the sum of three given squares.

4. Describe a square equal to the difference of two given squares.

5. AD is the perpendicular from A on the side BC of the triangle ABC. Show that the difference between the squares on AB, AC is equal to the difference between the squares on BD, DC.

6. ABC is a triangle having the right angle C, and CD is perpendicular to AB. Show that the square on AB exceeds the squares on AD, DB by twice the square on CD.

7. If a quadrilateral has its diagonals at right angles to each other, show that the right-angled triangle formed with one pair of opposite sides has its hypotenuse equal to the hypotenuse of the right-angled triangle formed with the other pair of opposite sides.

8. Divide a given straight line into two segments, such that the square on one segment is double the square on the other.

(Find two lines which are as $\sqrt{2}$ to 1, place them in the same straight line, and divide the given line similarly to this.)

9. ABC is an equilateral triangle, and AD is the perpendicular to BC. Show that the sides of the triangle ABD are in the rutios $1:2:\sqrt{3}$.

10. The sum of the squares on the sides of a rhombus is equal to the sum of the squares on its diagonals.

11. If similar triangles be described on the three sides of a rightangled triangle, the triangle on the hypotenuse is equal in area to the sum of the two other triangles.

12. Divide a straight line into two parts, such that the sum of their squares may be equal to a given square, when possible.

(At end of line muke an angle of 45°, etc.)

13. The square on the side opposite the obtuso angle of an obtuseangled triangle, is greater than the sum of the squares on the sides containing the obtuse angle.

BOOK III. SQUARES ON SIDES OF TRIANGLE.

14. If the square on one side of a triangle be less than the sum of the squares on the two other sides, the angle contained by these sides is an acute angle; if greater, nn obtuse angle. (Use Prop. 13, **Bk.** I.)

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15. Given $(2n+1)^2 + (2n^2+2n)^2 = (2n^2+2n+1)^2$,

by assigning to n in succession the values $1, 2, 3, \ldots$, form a series of whole numbers, in groups of three, such that each group gives the lengths of the sides of a right-angled triangle.

16. Prove by an application of the Proposition, that if in two right-angled triangles the hypotenuses are equal, and a side in one equal to a side in the other, the triangles are equal in .11 respects.

17. If ABCD be a quadrilateral and $AB^2 + CD^2 = AD^2 + BC^2$, then AC, BD are at right angles.

18. ABCD is a rectangle, and P any point whatever. Show that $PA^2 + PC^2 = PB^2 + PD^2$.

19. If a square and a rectangle have the same area, the perimeter of the rectangle is greater than that of the square.

20. In the triangle ABC a perpendicular is drawn from A to BC, meeting it at D, between B and C. Show that if AD is a mean proportional between BD and DC, the angle BAC is a right angle.

The **projection** of a terminated straight line on any other straight line is the length intercepted between the feet of the perpendiculars from the ends of the terminated line on the other.



Thus the projection on XY of AB is CD, of EG is EH, of FG is FH, of KM is NM, etc. The projections of both EG and FG on HG is HG itself; and similarly the projections of both KL and KM on KN is KN.

PROPOSITION XIV. THEOREM.

In any triangle the square on the side opposite any angle, according as the angle is obtuse or acute, is greater or less than the sum of the squares on the sides containing the angle, by twice the rectangle contained by either of these sides and the projection upon it of the other.



Let ABC be a Δ , and from C let CN be drawn $\perp r$ to AB, so that AN is the projection of AC on AB.

Then $BC^2 \mp 2BA \cdot AN = BA^2 + AC^2$, according as the $\angle A$ is obtuse or acute.

At A make $\angle BAA_1 = \angle C$, and $\angle CAA_2 = \angle B$, so that the $\triangle s BA_1A$, AA_2C are similar to the $\triangle BAC$, the $\angle s$ at A_1 , A_2 being = $\angle BAC$.

Thus AA_1A_2 is an isosceles Δ , and the $\perp r AN_1$ bisects it.

Then
$$\frac{\Delta BA_1A}{\Delta BAC} = \frac{BA^2}{BC^2}$$
, (III., 11.)
and $\frac{\Delta AA_2C}{\Delta BAC} = \frac{AC^2}{BC^2}$;
 $\frac{\Delta BA_1A + \Delta AA_2C}{\Delta BAC} = \frac{BA^2 + AC^2}{BC^2}$;

BOOK III. SQUARES ON SIDES OF TRIANGLE.

or
$$\frac{\triangle BAC \mp \triangle AA_1A_2}{\triangle BAC} = \frac{BA^2 + AC^2}{BC^2}$$
;
or $1 \mp \frac{2A_1N_1}{BC} = \frac{BA^2 + AC^2}{BC^2}$; (III., 1.)

or $BC^2 \neq 2A_1N_1$. $BC = BA^2 + AC^2$.

But $\frac{\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{N}_1}{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{N}} = \frac{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{N}_1}{\mathbf{C}\mathbf{N}}$, from similar $\triangle \mathbf{s} \ \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{N}_1$, **CAN**; = $\frac{\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}}{\mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}}$, $\triangle \mathbf{s} \ \mathbf{C}\mathbf{N}\mathbf{B}$, $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{N}_1\mathbf{B}$ being similar. · Hence $\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{N}_1$. $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}$. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{N}_1$,

and $BC^2 \neq 2BA$. $AN = BA^2 + AC^2$.

NOTE. The preceding demonstration includes Prop. XIII., for if the $\angle BAC$ be a right angle, the triangle AA_1A_2 vanishes, and we have $1 = \frac{BA^2 + AC^2}{BC^2}$. Indeed the above proof shows that 47th, Book I., and 12th and 13th, Book II., of Euclid, may all be regarded as one and the same proposition. It has been thought well, however, from its extreme simplicity, to make a separate proposition of the case in which the angle referred to in the enunciation is a right angle.

Proposition 12 of "Additional Propositions" after Book V., is an alternative proof of this theorem, and may be substituted for the preceding demonstration.

The construction in the Proposition suggests generalizations of certain propositions which are usually stated with reference to right-angled triangles. Thus **AB** is a mean proportional between **CB** and **BA**₁; **AC** is a mean proportional between **BC** and **CA**₂; **AA**₁ (=**AA**₂) is a mean proportional between **BA**₁, and **A**₂**C**.

The proof is shortened if the truth stated in Ex. 1, page 128, be assumed; for then, after

 $\mathbf{BC}^2 \neq 2\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{N}_1$. $\mathbf{BC} = \mathbf{BA}^2 + \mathbf{AC}^2$,

from similar $\triangle s BA_1 A$, BAC,

we have $\frac{\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{N}_1}{\mathbf{AN}} = \frac{\mathbf{BA}}{\mathbf{BC}}$, or $\mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{N}_1 \cdot \mathbf{BC} = \mathbf{BA} \cdot \mathbf{AN}$, and $\mathbf{BC}^2 \neq 2\mathbf{BA} \cdot \mathbf{AN} = \mathbf{BA}^2 + \mathbf{AC}^2$.

COROLLARY. If the sum of the squares on two sides of a triangle be equal to the square on the third side, the angle opposite this third side is a right angle, for when the angle is obtuse or acute, the Proposition shows that another equation holds.

Exercises.

1. In a triangle in which A is an acute angle, and a, b, c are the lengths of the sides opposite to A, B, C respectively, show that

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$$
.

2. If ABC be a triangle, and AD be the median to the middle point of BC, show that

$$AB^{3} + AC^{4} = 2AD^{4} + 2DC^{4}.$$

3. If AD, BE, CF be the three medians of a triangle ABC, show that

$3(\mathbf{AB}^{\mathfrak{g}} + \mathbf{BC}^{\mathfrak{g}} + \mathbf{CA}^{\mathfrak{g}}) = 4(\mathbf{AD}^{\mathfrak{g}} + \mathbf{BE}^{\mathfrak{g}} + \mathbf{CF}^{\mathfrak{g}}).$

4. The sum of the squares on the sides of a parallelogram is equal to the sum of the squares on the diagonals.

5. In a quadrilateral the sum of the squares on the diagonals is twice the sum of the squares on the straight lines joining the middle points of opposite sides.

6. In the figure of Prop. xiv., if the angle BAC becomes more and more obtuse, until A finally coincides with BC, what does the proposition become?

7. The sides of a triangle are 5, 2 $\sqrt{13}$, 9. Find the perpendicular on the longest side from the opposite angle, and thence the area of the triangle.

BOOK III. SQUARES ON SIDES OF TRIANGLE.

8. If a, b, c bo the sides of a triangle, and p be the perpendicular on c, show that

$$p^{*} = b^{*} - \left(\frac{b^{*} + c^{*} - a^{*}}{2c}\right)^{*} = \frac{(a + b + c)(b + c - a)(c + a - b)(a + b - c)}{4c^{*}}.$$

Hence show that

1

8

e

d

0-

ar

of

4 area = $\sqrt{(a+b+c)(b+c-a)(c+a-b)(a+b-c)}$.

9. The sum of the squares on the sides of any quadrilateral is equal to the sum of the squares on the diagonals, together with four times the square on the straight line joining the middle points of the diagonals.

10. Construct a triangle, having given its base, its area, and the sum of the squares on its sides. (By Ex. 2, the median to centre of base is given.)

II. If from an end of the base of an isosceles triangle a perpendicular be drawn to the exposite side, then twice the rectangle contained by that side and its segment adjacent to the base, is equal to the square on the base.

12. Find the locus of a point which moves so that the sum of the squares on lines joining it to two given points is constant. (Use $\mathbf{Ex}, 2$.)

13. What is the magnitude of the obtuse angle of a triangle, when the square on the side opposite the obtuse angle is greater than the sum of the squares on the sides containing it, by the rectangle contained by these two sides ?

14. If squares bo described on the three sides of any triangle, and perpendiculars from the angles on the opposite sides bo continued so as to divide each square into two rectangles, then any two rectangles having angular points at the same angle of the triangle are equal.

15. Make the figure and go through the demonstration of Prop. xiv., when the angle at A is less than each of the angles at B and C.

16. If a, b be the sides of a right-angled triangle which contain the right angle, and p the perpendicular from the right angle on the hypotenuse, then $\frac{1}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2} = \frac{1}{n^2}$.

17. If the medians of a triangle ABC intersect in O, provo that $AB^2 + BC^2 + CA^2 = 3(OA^2 + OB^2 + OC^2).$

18. Through a given point O draw three lines OA, OB, OC of givon lengths, such that the points A, B, C may be in the same straight line, and one of these points equidistant from the other two.

19. ABC is a triangle, and FE, varying in position, is drawn parallel to the base BC. Show that the locus of the intersection of BE, CF is the median through A bisecting BC.

20. If the bisectors of the angles A, C, of a quadrilateral ABCD meet on the diagonal BD, show that the bisectors of the angles B, D, meet on the diagonal AC.

21. ABC is a triangle, and the perpendiculars AD, BE, CF, from A, B, C on the opposite sides, meet in O. Show that AO.OD = BO.OE = CO.OF.

22. D, E, Fare points on the sides of the triangle ABC. The angles which FD, ED make with BC are equal; likewise those which DE, FE make with CA; and those which EF, DF make with AB. Show that AD, BE, CF are perpendicular to BC, CA, AB, respectively. (Prove that equal angles at D are each = $\angle A$, etc. Then show that angles BFC, BDA are equal, etc.)

23. A BCD is a quadrilateral whose diagonals AC, BD, intersect in O, and the angles ABD, ACD are equal. Prove that the triangles OAD, OBC are equiangular.

24. A triangle ABC, whose angles are of given magnitude, has A at a fixed point, and C moving along a fixed line EF. Show that the locus of B is a fixed line. (Construct a triangle ABC with angles of given magnitude, and having BC coincident with EF. Then the locus required is the line through B, making an angle B+C with EF.)

25. If two triangles are to one another as the squares on their bases, and have an angle in one adjacent to the base equal to an angle in the other adjacent to the base, the triangles are equiangular.

26. If two isosceles triangles are to one another as the squares on their bases, show that the triangles are equiangular.

27. A, B, C . re three fixed points. Through C draw a straight line so that the parts of it intercepted between C and the perpendiculars on the line from A and B, may be in a given ratio.

28. ABC is a triangle, and the angle BAC is bisected by AD, which meets BC in D. The middle point of BC is E. Show that ED is to EB as the difference between Δs ADC, ADB to Δ ABC.

BOOK IV.

THE CIRCLE.

INTRODUCTION : SYMMETRY. CHORDS AND RADIUS-VECTORS. ANGLES IN A CIRCLE. TANGENTS. SEGMENTS OF INTERSECTING CHORDS.



BOOK IV. INTRODUCTION: SYMMETRY.

Introduction: Symmetry.

1. The circle has already been defined, as well as its various parts and some of the lines that are associated with it.

Having the notion of locus, we may define the circlo as the locus of a point which moves so as to be at a constant distance from a fixed point.

2. In considering the form of the curve, we readily see that a straight line cannot meet it in more than two points, or, no three points on it can be in the same straight line; for example, the three points A, B and C. For each angle at B, being an

angle of an isosceles triangle, is less than a right angle, and therefore their snm is less than two right angles, and BC is inclined to AB at an angle less than 180°. This result is true, however small AB and BC may be, which shows why we say the circle is everywhere



concave to its centre. Of conrse we have here proved that no part of the circumference of a circle can be a straight line.

3. The fundamental quality of the circle, next to the equality of its radii, and as a consequence of the equality of its radii, is its symmetry.

Central Symmetry.

4. In the first place, every line drawn through the centre, from circumference to circumference, *i.e.*, every diameter, is bisected at the centre. This is called central symmetry.

Other figures than the circle have this central symmetry. Thus every line through the intersection of the diagonals of any parallelogram, and terminated by the periphery, is bisected at such intersection.

Axial Symmetry.

5. In the second place, every chord drawn at right angles to a diameter is bisected by that diameter. This is called axial symmetry, *i.e.*, symmetry with respect to an axis. Thus let the chord BDC be perpendicular to the diameter XY; then BD=DC.



For, in \triangle s ODB, ODC, rt. \angle s at D are equal; also \because OB=OC, \angle OBD= \angle OCD; $\therefore \angle$ DOB= \angle DOC. Also sides DO, OB=sides DO, OC; \therefore BD=DC. (I., 6.)

Thus wherever there is on the circumference a point \mathbf{B} on one side of a diameter, directly opposite, on the other side of the diameter, and at the same distance from it, is another point \mathbf{C} , also on the circumference.

Alternative Proof of Preceding Theorem :

Suppose the circle folded about the diameter YX. Then the point **B** must fall on the circumference at the other side of XY; for if it fell outside or inside, we should have radii of unequal lengths. Let **B** fall on **C**. When the circle is unfolded, **BC** must be at right

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angles to XY, for if it eut XY obliquely, the process of folding would not bring B and C together. Also, that B and C may fall together, BC must be bisected by XY. That is, XY bisects BC at right angles.

6. This symmetry with respect to a diameter, holds with respect to every diameter. Thus there



is an infinite number of axes with respect to which the eircle is symmetrical and the eircle may be said to have infinite axial symmetry, or to be infinitely symmetrical. It is in this infinite axial symmetry that the circle differs from all oth r figures.



Other figures enjoy axial symmetry to a limited degree, *i.e.*, with respect to a limited number of axes. Thus the isosceles triangle is symmetrical with respect

to one axis; the rectangle with respect to two; the equilateral triangle with respect to three; the square with respect to four; the regular pentagon with respect to five; and so on. The circle alone is symmetrical with respect to an infinite number.

The following cousequences of this axial symmetry may be noted :

7. If a circle be folded about any diameter, one semieircumference completely coincides with the other, each point on the circumference coinciding with the corresponding point on the opposite side of the diameter, for each chord perpendicular to the diameter folds over on itself, its ends coinciding. In axial symmetry, the point which corresponds to another is often spoken of as its *image*.

8. If from a point without a circle a line be drawn to the centre, and on opposite sides of this, making equal angles with it, lines be drawn to the circumference, the corresponding segments of these lines are equal. Thus if the angles at A be equal, AD and AE are equal, and also AF, AG. For, folding the figure about AC, AD falls on AE, because the angles at A are equal, and one semi-circumference on



the other. Hence the points F and G coincide, and also **D** and **E**, since the figure on one side of **AC** eoincides completely with the figure on the other side.

In like manner, if the point A be within the circle, and the angles at A be equal, on folding the circle about

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AC, F and G must coincide, and also E and D. Thus AF = AGand AE = AD.

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9. The converse to the proposition that a diameter bisects all chords at right angles to it, is also true, viz.,—a line bisecting any chord at right angles is a diameter, for



such a line is the locus of all points at equal distances from the ends of the chord, and therefore must pass through the centre. It follows that a diameter through the bisection of a chord is at right angles to it.

10. If two circles intersect they cannot have the same centre, for then having equal radii (the line from common centre to point of intersection) and a common centre, they would be entirely coincident.

Also if two circles intersect in one point they must intersect in another, since they are closed figures.

11. Let the two circles whose centres are A and B, intersect. The line through A and B, since on it lie diameters of both circles, is an axis of symmetry for both circles. Hence if C be a point of intersection, *i.e.*, a point common to both circles, then C's "image" on the other side of AB must also be a point common



to both eircles. Hence,—If two circles intersect, the line joining their centres bisects at right angles the line joining their points of intersection.

Of course, conversely, as has already been shown, the line bisecting at right angles the common chord passes through both centres (§ 9).

12. It follows that two circles cannot have more than two points common, for if they had three common points 0 D and D

common points, C, D and E, then both centres would lie in the lines bisecting CD and DE at right angles, and as these lines can have only one common point, we should have intersecting circles with a common centre, which (\S 10) has been shown to be impossible.



Homogeneity of Circumference.

13. Thirdly, there is an important correspondence between an are of a circle and the rest of the eircumference of the same circle, which may be stated as follows:

If an arc of a circle be supposed rigidly connected with the centre, and to rotate about the centre, it con-

tinues, during such motion, to coincide throughout its entire length with the eircumference.

Thus, if the are **AB** be supposed rigidly connected with the eentre **O**, and to rotate about **O**, it will, throughout its entire length, continue to eoineide with the eireumference.



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For no part of the arc, in any new position, could fall outside the circumference, as A'G, since then we should have radii OC, OD of the same circle unequal. Nor can any part of the arc fall within the circumference for the same reason. Nor can the arc eut the circumference, as at G, for then part of it would lie without the circumference; and part within.

Hence we may say that the circumference of any (the same) eirele is homogeneous,—each part is the same as the rest.

Important consequences follow from this:

14. In the same circle, equal arcs subtend equal angles at the centre. For let AB, CD be equal ares, and let AB be turned about 0 until A coincides with C; then B will coincide with D, and the angles AOB, COD coincide with one another and are equal.

Conversely, in the same circle if two angles at the centre be equal, they are subtended by equal arcs. For if the angles AOB, COD be equal, rotating AOB about 0, when OA coincides with OC, A coincides with C: OB coincides

with OD, and B with D. Hence the arcs AB, CD coincide, and are equal.

15. In the same circle, equal chords cut off equal arcs. For if the ehords AB, CD be equal, the triangles OAB, OCD, having all their other sides





equal, are equal in all respects. Turning, then, OAB about O, when A coincides with C, B coincides with D, and the arcs AKB, CLD coincide and are equal.

Conversely, in the same circle, if two arcs be equal their chords are equal. For if the arcs AKB, CLD be equal, turning AKB about 0, when A coincides with C, B coincides with D, and the chords AB, CD coincide and are equal.

16. Evidently also, equal chords in a circle are equally distant from the centre. For if the chords AB, CD be equal, the triangles OAB, OCD, having all their other sides equal, are equal in all respects. Turning, then, the triangle OAB about O, it can be made to coincide completely with OCD, and the perpendiculars from O on the coincideut bases, coincide and are equal.

Conversely, chords which are equally distant from the centre are equal to one another. For, let the chords AB, CD be at equal distances, OM, ON, from the centrc. Let the figure OAKB rotate about O, until OM coincides with ON, and M with N. Then AB and CD



will fall together, being both perpendicular to the same line; also A and C must coincide, and B and D; otherwise we should have the same straight line CD (AB) meeting the circumference in more than two points.

17. If two circles have equal radii, they are equal; for, placing them so that their centres coincide, their circumferences will also coincide, because the radii are equal.

The preceding six properties, though demonstrated of the same circle, are also true of equal circles, as is evident if the circles be placed in coincidence.

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Chords and Radius-Vectors.

A straight line drawn from a point, called the origin or pole, to a line, straight or curved, is called a radiusvector.

Thus AD, AE, AF, AG (§ 8, pp. 154-5) are radiusvectors, A being the origin or pole.

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.

To find the centre of a given circle.



Let ABC be the given circle. It is required to find its centre.

Draw any chord AB; bisect it at D; from D draw EDC at rt. \angle s to AB, meeting the circumference at C and E; bisect CE in F. Then F is the centre of the circle.

Because EC bisects AB at rt. $\angle s$; \therefore EC is the locus of all points equally distant from A and B.

 \therefore the centre lies in EC; and \therefore must be at F, its point of bisection.

COROLLARY. If only an arc of the circle be given, so that the line which bisects the chord at rt. $\angle s$ may not meet the arc in two points, the following construction will give the centre:

Draw two chords AB, BC; bisect them at right angles by the lines DF, EF, intersecting in F. Then the centre lies on each of the lines DF, EF; and therefore must be at F, where they intersect.



This gives the solution of the problem,—An arc, or a segment of a circle being given, to describe the circle of which it is the arc, or segment; for, the centre being found, the circle may be completed.

Exercises.

Norz. In the exercises, the results of the preliminary discussion on the symmetry of the circle may of course be employed.

1. The locus of the centres of all circles which pass through two given points, is a straight line.

2. The locus of the middle points of all parallel chords of a circle, is the diameter perpendicular to the chords.

3. The straight lines bisecting at right angles the sides of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, all pass through the same point.

4. Describe a circle with a given point as centre, and cutting a given circle at the ends of a diameter.

5. AB, AC are two equal chords in a circle; show that the straight line which bisects the angle BAC passes through the centre.

6. Describe a circle which shall pass through three given points that are not in the same straight line.

7. Describe, when possible, a circle that shall pass through two . given points, and have a given radius.

8. Through a given point within a circle, draw a chord that shall be bisected at that point.

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9. The parts of a straight line intercepted between the circumferences of two concentric circles are equal.

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10. The line joining the middle points of two parallel chords in a circle, passes through the centre.

11. Describe a circle which shall pass through two given points and have its contro in a given line.

12. Two chords of a circle, AB, AC, make equal angles with the radius through A. Show that AB = AC.

13. If two circles cut one another, any two parallel straight lines drawn through the points of intersection, and terminated by the circles, nre equal.

14. The greater of two chords in a circle subtends the greater angle at the centre.

15. Find the shortest distance between the circumferences of two circles which do not meet.

16. Find the shortest distance between the circumferences of two concentric circles.

17. ABCD is a parallelogram, and a circle is described to pass through the three points A, B, C (Ex. 6). Show that it cannot pass also through D unless the parallelogram be a rectangle.

18. If from a point without a circle, two equal lines be drawn to the circle and produced, they are equally distant from the centre.

PROPOSITION II. THEOREM.

If from a point within a circle more than two equal straight lines can be drawn to the circumference, that point is the centre of the circle.



Let ABC be the circle, and let the three lines OA, OB, OC, from the point O within the circle, to the circumference, be equal.

Then 0 must be the centre of the circle.

Join AB, BC.

Because OAB, OBC are isosceles $\triangle s$, the st. lines bisecting at rt. $\angle s$ the bases AB, BC, must pass through the vertex of each, which is the point **O**. (Loci, Ex. 2.)

But the st. lines bisecting at rt. \angle s the chords **AB**, **BC** intersect in the centre of the circle (IV., 1, Cor.); \therefore **O** is the centre.

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CHORDS AND RADIUS-VECTORS.

Exercises.

I. Two circles cannot meet in three points without coinciding entirely.

2. Through three points, which are not in the same straight line, only one circle can be drawn.

3. Two circles cannot have a common are without coinciding entirely.

4. If equal chords of two circles subtend equal angles at the centres, the two circles must be equal.

5. Two triangles are inscribed in a circle, and two sides of one are equal to two sides of the other, centre being in both cases in or without $\angle s$ between these sides. Prove third sides equal.

6. Show how to bisect any given are of a circle.

7. Divide the circumference of a circle into twelve equal ares.

8. The middle points of all chords of a circle, which are of the same length, lie on a concentric circlo.

9. Given two chords of a circle, in ungnitude and position, describe the circle.

10. Given a chord of a circle, in magnitude and position, and a line in which the centre lics, describe the circle.

11. Givon the centres and positions, bat not the magnitudes, of two chords of a circle, also a point through which the circle passes, describe the circle.

12. If a parallelogram be inscribed in a circle, show that each diagonal is a diameter of the circle.

13. The centre of a chord of a circle being given, and the radius of the circle, determine the area within which the centre may lie.

14. In a given circle draw a chord of given length, not greater than the diameter, so that its centre may be on a given chord.

PROPOSITION HI. THEOREM.

If a chord of a circle move parallel to itself from the centre to the extremity of the diameter to which it is always at right angles, it continually decreases and ultimately vanishes.



Let the chord AB, of the circle ABC, move parallel to itself from the centre O to the extremity of the diameter EF, to which it is always at right angles. Then AB continually decreases and ultimately vanishes.

Join OA.

Then since $\angle ONA$ is a rt. \angle

 $\therefore \mathbf{ON}^2 + \mathbf{NA}^2 = \mathbf{OA}^2.$

But OA² is always of the same magnitude, since OA is radius of the circle.

Hence $ON^2 + NA^2$ is always of the same magnitude.

But ON² continually increases since ON does;

: NA² continually decreases;

and .: NA continually decreases.

Hence the whole chord AB continually decreases.

Again, since $ON^2 + NA^2 = OA^2$,

when **ON** becomes **OF**, = **OA**, then $ON^2 = OA^2$;

and NA² must vanish;

and : also NA, and AB, must vanish.

BOOK IV. CHORDS AND RADIUS-VECTORS.

COROLLARY 1. Since the chord decreases as it moves from the centre in any direction, it is greatest when it passes through the centre, or the diameter is the greatest chord in a circle.

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COROLLARY 2. If GH be a chord nearer to the centre than LM, i.e., the perpendicular OK less than OR; then let GH with OK rotate until GK talls on CF, and GKH takes the position G'K'H'. CKH and LRM are parallel, and \therefore by the Proposition C'H is genuer than LM, since it is nearer to the centre - Neuclass hord which is nearer to the centre is genuer than one more remote.

COROLLARY 3. Conversely, if CH be given greater than LM, on rotating it into the position G'K'H', it must be nearer to the centre than LRM, since, by the Proposition, the chord decreases as it recedes parallel to itself from the centre. Hence the greater chord is nearer to the centre than the less.

Exercises.

I. Through a given point within a circle draw the shortest chord.

2. In a given circle draw a chord of given length, not greater than the diameter, so that one third may be cut off by a given chord.

3. What is the locus of the middle points of equal chords of a circle?

4. If the shortest chords which can be drawn through the points A, B within a eircle, are equal, show that A, B are equally distant from the centre.

5. Through a given point, within or without a given circle, draw a chord of length equal to that of a given chord.

(If A be given point, and C centre, take B in chord so that CB=CA; draw CN perpendicular to chord, and construct triangle on CA equal to triangle CBN.)

6. Through a point A within a circle, two chords are drawn equally inclined to the diameter through A. Show that these chords are equal.

7. Two equal chords, AB, CD, of a circle intersect in O. Show that AO is equal to CO or OD.

8. Through two points on a diameter of a circle equally distant from the centre, two parallel chords are drawn; show that the chords are equal, and that they are divided by the diameter into equal segments.

9. If, in the figure of the preceding question, through the points on the diameter, another pair of parallel chords be drawn, a line joining the ends of the chords through one point is parallel to a line joining the ends of the cherds through the other point.

10. In a given circle draw a cherd equal to one given chord and parallel to another.

11. Through the bisection of the lino joining the centres of two equal circles, a straight line is drawn cutting the circles; show that the circles intersect equal chords in it.

12. PQ is a fixed chord in a circle, and AB is any diameter; show that the sum or difference of the perpendiculars let fall from A and B on PQ, for all positions of AB, is equal to twice the distance of the chord from the centre, and therefore constant.

13. Are we over certain of the magnitude or position of a circle from knowing the magnitudes of any number of its chords?

14. A chord of a circle is given in magnitude, and a point through which the circle passes. Find the locus of the centre of the least circle that can be described with these data.

15. The centre of a circle is given, and the length of the shortest chord that can be drawn through a given point. Describe the circle.

16. If two points be given and the lengths of the shortest chords that can be drawn through these points, the chords being coterminous, show that the centre of the circle occupies one of two positions.

When does the construction become impossible?

BOOK IV. CHORDS AND RADIUS-VECTORS.

PROPOSITION IV. THEOREM.

If one end of a straight line be fixed and the other end move on the circumference of a circle, the line is greatest when it contains the centre, and least when, on being produced, it passes through the centre; and as the moving end of the line advances from the latter to the former position, the line continually increases.



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Let A be the fixed end of the line, and CFB the circle on the eircumference of which the other eud moves.

Then the line is greatest in the position AB when it contains the centre, O, and least in the position AC when, on being produced, it passes through the centre; and as the moving end of the line advances along the circumference from the position C to the position B, the line continually increases,—thus G being a point on the circumference farther from C than F is, AG is greater than AF.

Let AD, AE be any two positions of the line. Join OD, OE, OF, OG.

Then AB = AO + OB = AO + OD > AD.

Hence the moving line is greatest in the position AB, which contains the centre.

Again,—	Fig. 2.
Fig. 1. $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E}$	AO < AE + EO.
Take away the common	Take away the equal
part OA, and	parts CO, EO, and
AC <ae.< td=""><td>AC<ae.< td=""></ae.<></td></ae.<>	AC <ae.< td=""></ae.<>
in the line is	a loost in the position AC

Hence the moving line is least in the position AC which, on being produced, passes through the centre.

Again, because in \triangle s AOG, AOF, AO, OG are = AO, OF, respectively; but $\angle AOG > \angle AOF$; \therefore AG>AF.

And therefore as the moving end of the line advances along the circumference from C to B, the line continually increases.

NOTE. The proposition holds good if A be on the circumference. AC then becomes zero, and AB becomes the diameter; and the continual increase of the line becomes the continual increase of the chord of a circle as it gets nearer and nearer to the centre.

ANGLES IN A CIRCLE.

Angles in a Circle.

PROPOSITION V. THEOREM.

The angle at the centre of a circle is double of any angle at the circumference, standing on the same arc.



Let ABC be a circle with centre 0, and let ADB be an arc, and C any point on the rest of the circumference.

Then the $\angle AOB$ at the centre is double the $\angle ACB$ at the circumference.

Join CO, and produce it to E.

Then : OA = OC, the $\angle OAC = \angle OCA$.

But $\angle AOE = \angle OAC + \angle OCA$;

 $\therefore \angle AOE = twice \angle OCA.$

Similarly $\angle BOE = twice \angle OCB$. Hence, adding in Figs. 1 and 3, and subtracting in Fig. 2, $\angle AOB = twice \angle ACB$.

NOTE. In Fig. 3 the $\angle AOB$ referred to, is the reflex angle at 0, which in the figure is marked.


PROPOSITION VI, THEOREM.

Angles in the same segment of a circle are equal.



Let **ABC** be a circle; and let **ACB**, **AFB** be \angle s in the same segment.

Then the $\angle s$ ACB, AFB are equal. Let **0** be the centre of the circle.

Join OA, OB.

Then the $\angle AOB$ at the centre is double of each of the $\angle s$ ACB, AFB at the circumference; (IV., 5.) \therefore the $\angle s$ ACB, AFB are equal.

The converse of this proposition is true,-

The vertices of all equal angles, standing on the same base and on the same side of it, lie on a segment of a circle passing through the extremities of the base.

For, let ACB, AFB be two of the equal $\angle s$ on the same base AB, and on the same side of it.

Let a circle be described to pass through the three points **A**, **C**, **B** (Loci, Ex. 4); and if this does not pass through **F**, let it cut **BF** in **G**.

Join AG.



Then $\angle ACB = \angle AFB$. (Hyp.) Also $\angle ACB = \angle AGB$; (IV., 6.) $\therefore \angle AFB = \angle AGB$,

which is impossible.

Hence circle through A, C, B, must also pass through F.

In the same circle (or in equal circles), equal angles at the circumference stand on equal arcs. For these arcs subtend equal angles at the centre, since the angles at the circumference are equal; and therefore (§ 14) the arcs are equal.

Also equal arcs subtend equal angles at the circumference. For, the ares being equal, the angles at the centre are equal (§ 14), and therefore the angles at the circumference are equal.

Exercises.

I. What special case of Prop. V. occurs when OA and OB are in the same straight line?

2. Show how to divide a given circle into two segments, so that the angle in one shall be double the angle in the other.

3. C is any point on the arc of a segment whose chord is AB. Show that the sum of the angles CAB, CBA is constant.

4. A circle is divided into two segments by a chord equal to the radius. What is the angle in each segment? What relation do you note between these two angles?

5. ABCD is a quadrilateral in a circle, and the sides AB, CD are equal. Show that BC is parallel to AD, and that the diagonals are equal.

6. Given the base and vertical angle of a trianglo, find the locus of the vertex.

7. Two circles intersect at A and B, and a chord XAY, is drawn terminated both ways by the circumferences. Show that the angle XBY is constant.

8. AB, Cl) are two chords of a circle which intersect at E. Show that the triangles AED, CEB are equiangular, and also the triangles AEC, DEB.

9. Two circles intersect in A and B. Through A two chords, CAD, EAF, are drawn, terminated both ways by the circumferences. Show that the triangles BCD, BEF are equiangular.

10. Two circles intersect in A and B. Through A two chords, CAD, EAF, are drawn, terminated both ways by the circumforences. Show that CE, DF subtend equal angles at B.

11. The base and vertical angle of a triangle are given; find the locus of the intersection of perpendiculars from the ends of the base on the opposite sides.

12. The base and vertical angle of a triangle are givon; find the locus of the intersection of the bisectors of the internal angles at the base of the trianglo.

13. ABC is a circle, BC a fixed chord in it, and A any point in the segment BAC. BA is produced to D, so that AD = AC, and DC is joined. Show that D lies on the circumforence of a fixed circle through B and C.

14. Hence show in the figure of the preceding exercise that the sum of the sides BA, AC of the varying triangle BAC, is a maximum when the point A lies on a line bisecting BC at right angles.

15. If the sum of the squares on two liner be given, their sum is a maximum when the lines are equal.

16. If two straight lines AEB, CED, in a circle, intersect at E, show that the angles subtended by AC and BD at the centre are together double of the angle AEC.

ANGLES IN A CIRCLE.

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PROPOSITION VII. THEOREM.

The opposite angles of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle are together equal to two right angles.



Let ABCD be a quadrilateral inscribed in the circle ABC.

Then its opposite \angle s are together equal to two rt. \angle s. Join **B** and **D** to the centre of the circle; and represent the angles so formed at the centre by **P** and **Q**.

Then $\angle A$ is one-half of $\angle P$, and $\angle C$ is one-half of $\angle Q$; $\therefore \angle A + \angle C = \frac{1}{2}(\angle P + \angle Q)$, $= \frac{1}{2}$ of four rt. $\angle s$, = two rt. $\angle s$. Similarly it may be shown that $\angle B + \angle D = 2$ rt. $\angle s$.

The converse of this proposition is true,-

If two opposite angles of a quadrilateral be together equal to two right angles, the circle which passes through three of its angular points also passes through the fourth.



Let ABCD be a quadrilateral, and let the $\angle s A$ and C be together equal to two rt. $\angle s$.

Then the circle through A, B, and D, also passes through C.

Take any point E on the arc of this circle cut off by BD, and on the same side of BD that C is

Join DE, EB.

Then $\angle \mathbf{A} + \angle \mathbf{C} = 2$ rt. $\angle s.$ (Hyp.) Also $\angle \mathbf{A} + \angle \mathbf{E} = 2$ rt. $\angle s.$ (IV., 7.)

Hence $\angle C = \angle E$, and \therefore , by converse of Prop. VI., C lies on the circle through D, E and B, which is the circle through A, B and D.

Excreises.

1. If a triangle be inscribed in a circle, show that the sum of the angles in the three segments exterior to the triangle is equal to four right angles.

2. If one side of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle be produced, show that the exterior angle so formed is equal to the interior opposite angle of the quadrilateral.

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ed, ior 3. Show that no parallelogram except a rectangle can be inscribed in a circle.

4. A quadrilateral is inscribed in a circle; show that the sum of the angles in the four segments of the circle exterior to the quadrilateral is equal to six right angles.

5. ABC is an isosceles triangle, and DE is drawn parallel to the base BC, meeting the sides in D and E; show that the points D, B, C, E lie on a circle.

6. The straight lines which hisoct any anglo of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle and the opposite exterior anglo, meet on the circumference of the circle.

7. AleCD is a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, und the sides DA, CB produced meet in E; show that the triangles EAB, ECD are equiangular.

8. Hence show that EB.EC = EA.ED.

9. ABC is a triangle, and in AB, AC points D, E are taken, such that

$$\frac{\mathbf{AB}}{\mathbf{AE}} = \frac{\mathbf{AC}}{\mathbf{AD}};$$

show that the points B, C, E, D lie on a circle.

10. Through a given point draw a straight line which shall cut off a cyclic quadrilateral from a given triangle.

11. ABC is a triangle, and a circle is described to pass through B and C, and to cut AB, AC in D and E. Prove that as the circle through B and C varies, the line DE remains parallel to itself.

12. An equilateral triangle is inscribed in a circle; show that the angle subtended at any point on the circumference by one of the sides, is twice the angle subtended at that point by either of the two other sides.

13. If the exterior angles of any quadrilateral be bisected by four straight lines, the quadrilateral formed by these straight lines is cyclic, *i.e.*, a circle may be described about it.

14. From any point P on the circumference of a circle, perpendiculars PA, PB are drawn to two fixed diameters. Show that AB is constant in length.

PROPOSITION VIII. THEOREM.

The angle in a semicircle is a right angle; the angle in a segment greater than a semicircle is less than a right angle; and the angle in a segment less than a semicircle is greater than a right angle.



Let **ABC** be a circle, and **ACB** an \angle in the segment **ADB**.

Then the \angle ACB is equal to, less than, or greater than a rt. \angle , according as the segment ADB is a semicircle, or greater than, or less than a semicircle.

Let 0 be the centre of the eircle.

Join AO, OB.

Then the $\angle AOB$ at the centre is $\stackrel{=}{\leq} 2$ rt. $\angle s$,

according as the segment ADB is > a semicircle;

: the $\angle ACB$ at the circumference is ≤ 1 rt. \angle ,

according as the segment ADB is > a semicircle.

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ANGLES IN A CHRCLE.

Exercises.

1. Right-angled triangles are described on the same hypatenuse; show that the angular paints opposite the hypotenuse all lie on a circle described on the hypotenuse as diameter.

2. The circles described on the sides of any triangle as diameters, intersect on the base.

3. AOB, COD are two diameters of a circle, perpendicular to each other. If P be any paint on the circumference, prove that PC, PD are the internal and external bisectors of the angle APB.

4. A straight rol of fixed length slides between two straight rulers ut right angles to one another. What is the locus of the middle point of the rol?

5. Two circles intersect at A and B, and through A diameters AC, AD are drawn. Shew that C, B, D are in the same straight line.

6. Find the locus of the middle points of chords of a circle drawn through a fixed point.

7. Through one of the points of intersection of two circles draw a chord of one circle which shall be bisected by the ether circle.

8. Three circles are described, each passing through two of the angular points of a triangle and the intersection of the hisectors of the angles. Show that the centres of the circles all fall without the triangle.

9. Three equal circles pass through O, and intersect again, two and two, in A, B and C. P, Q and R are the centres of the circles through B and C, C and A, A and B respectively. Show that ROQA is a rhombus, and hence that PQ is equal and parallel to AB.

Also show that O is the orthocentre of the triangle ABC.

10. A quadrilateral ABCO has the vertex O at the centre of a circle, and the vertices A, B, C on the circumference. Show that $\angle B = \angle A + \angle C$.

11. ABCD is a cyclic quadrilateral. BA, CD, produced, meet in P; and AD, BC, produced, meet in Q. Abant the triangles ADP, CDQ circles are described; show that they intersect on PQ.

12. The bisectors of the angles formed by producing opposite pairs of sides of a cyclic quadrilateral are at right angles.



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PROPOSITION IX. THEOREM.

In equal circles angles, whether at the centres or at the circumferences, have the same ratio as the arcs on which they stand: so also have the sectors.



Let ABE, CDF be equal circles, and let AGB, CHD be $\angle s$ at the centres, and AEB, CFD $\angle s$ at the circumferences.

Then $\angle AGB : \angle CHD = arc AB : arc CD;$

 $\angle AEB : \angle CFD = arc AB : arc CD;$

sector AGB: sector CHD = arc AB: arc CD.

Let PQ be an arc which is contained m times in AB, and n times in CD.

Join GP, GQ.

Suppose the arc **AB** divided into m arcs, each equal to **PQ**, and let the points of division be joined to **G**.

Then each of the \angle s so formed at **G** will be equal 'to the \angle **PGQ**; and each of the sectors will be equal to the sector **PGQ**.

Hence the $\angle AGB$ contains the $\angle PGQ$ *m* times; and the sector AGB contains the sector PGQ *m* times.

Similarly the \angle CAD contains the \angle PGQ *n* times; and the sector CHD contains the sector PGQ *n* times.

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 $\therefore \ \angle AGB: \ \angle CHD = m: n = \text{are } AB: \text{are } CD;$ and sector AGB: sector CHD = m: n = are AB: are CD.

But \angle AEB at circumference is half of \angle AGB at centre; and \angle CFD is likewise half of \angle CHD;

 $\therefore \angle AEB: \angle CFD = are AB: are CD.$

NOTE. The Proposition is demonstrated of equal circles and not of the same circle, rather from the convenient figure which is thus obtained. It is manifestly true of the same circle, and indeed it is with the same circle that the Proposition is usually associated.

That the arc is proportional to the angle it subtends at the centre, is our justification for taking arcs to measure angles.

SIMILAR SEGMENTS. Suppose the segments ACB, DFE contain equal $\angle s$; and let AB: DE = m: n.



Construct the equal $\angle s$ BAC, EDF. Join BC, EF. Then since the $\angle s$ at C and F are equal, the Δs CAB, FDE are equiangular, and

 $AC \cdot DF = AB : DE = m : n$.

Similarly, if AG, DH make equal $\angle s$ with AB, DE respectively, then

AG: DH = m : n.

And in general any chords drawn from A and D,

making equal angles with AB and DE respectively, are in this constant ratio m:n.

Such segments are called **similar segments**. It is usual to define similar segments of circles as those which contain equal angles, but it is rather from the property we have just demonstrated that such segments are thought of as *similar*; namely, from the constancy of the ratio of corresponding radius-vectors.

The points A and D may be called corresponding points.

An infinite number of such corresponding points exists.

For take any point **P**. Join **AP**. Make the $_$ **ED** $Q = _$ **BAP**, and take **D**Q of such length that **AP** : **D**Q = m : n. Then it is easy to show that,—

PB: QE = m : n, PC: QF = m : n,PG: OH = m : n,

and what was true of **A** and **D** is also true of **P** and **Q**; namely, that corresponding radius-vectors from **P** and **Q** are in this constant ratio m:n; i.e., **P** and **Q** are also corresponding points.

Exercises.

1. Show that similar segments of circles whose chords are equal, are congruent.

2. If in two circles equal chords subtend equal angles at the eircumferences, the eircles are equal.

Show also that if the angles at the circumferences be supplementary, the circles are equal.

8. AB, AC are the equal sides of an isosccles triangle ABC, and D is any point in BC. Circles are described about the triangles ABD, ACD. Show that these circles are equal.

4. By drawing iines from A and D, making equai angles with AB, DE respectively, in the similar segments AGB, DHE, show how to describe in these segments two simiiar rectifineal figures. (Page 121.)

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TANGENTS.

Tangents.

DEFINITION OF TANGENT. If one of the two points in which a secant cuts the circumference of a circle move up to the other, the ultimate position of the secant, when the points coincide, is the tangent to the circle at the point of coincidence.

Thus, if the point Q of the secant PQ move along the circumference until it becomes indefinitely near to P, the altimate position of PQ is the tangent at P, as PT. P is called the point of conta of the tangent.



In this motion of Q, it is not supposed actually to become the same point as P, but to stop when it is the next point; *i.e.*, a tangent is a straight line passing through two "consecutive points" on a circle.

A tangent and a seeant, then, both meet the circle in two points, but in the case of the tangent the two points arc indefinitely elose to one another. Hence a tangent could not meet the circle at any point other than the point of contact, for it has met it there in two points.

In like manner two circles are said to touch one another, or to be tangential, when their points of section move up to, and become indefinitely close to one another.



Thus if one, or both, of the circles move so that \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} become consecutive points, the circles are said to touch one another, at \mathbf{P} .

Evidently the secant PQ ultimately passes through two consecutive points on each circle, and therefore is a tangent to each circle. So that if two circles touch they have a common tangent at the point of contact.

Also, since two circles can meet one another at only two points, two circles which touch cannot meet one another at any point other than the point of contact, for they meet there in two points, though these points are indefinitely elose to one another.

TANGENTS.

PROPOSITION X. THEOREM.

A tangent to a circle is at right angles to the radius drawn to the point of contact.



Let \mathbf{P} , \mathbf{Q} be two points on the circumference of a circle whose centre is $\mathbf{0}$.

Join PQ, and produce it both ways to S and T.

Join OP, OQ. Since OP = OQ;

 $\therefore \ \angle \mathbf{OPT} = \angle \mathbf{OQS}.$

Let now P and Q move up indefinitely close to one another. Then OP, OQ coincide in. say, OP', and ST becomes the tangent at P'.

Also the $\angle s$ OPT, OQS become the $\angle s$ OP'T', OP'S'; and these are adjacent $\angle s$;

 \therefore they are rt. \angle s.

Hence the tangent S'P'T' is at rt. $\angle s$ to OP', the radius to the point of contact.

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COROLLALY 1. Since only one straight line can be drawn at right angles to a given straight line at a given point, only one tangent to a circle can be drawn at a given point.

COROLLARY 2. For the same reason the perpendicular to a tangent at its point of contact, passes through the centre.

COROLLARY 3. Since only one straight line can be drawn perpendicular to a given straight line from a point without it, the line drawn from the centre perpendicular to a tangent passes through the point of contact.

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TANGENTS.

PROPOSITION XI. THEOREM.

If two circles touch, the straight line joining their centres, produced if necessary, passes through the point of contact.



Let **PAB**, **PCD** be two circles touching at **P**; and let **E**, **F** be their centres.

Then EF, produced if necessary, passes through P.

Since the eircles touch at **P**, they have at **P** a common taugent. (Page 182.)

Also the radii **PE**, **PF** are both $\perp r$ to this common tangent at **P**; (IV., 10.)

 \therefore E, P, F are in the same st. line,

PROPOSITION XII. PROBLEM.

To draw a tangent to a given circle from a given point.



(i) If the given point be within the given circle, since a line through a point within a circle cuts the circumference in two points necessarily at a finite distance from one another, no tangent to the circle from the given point can be drawn.

(ii) If the given point be on the circumference, the straight line drawn from the point at right angles to the radius to the point, is the required tangent. (IV., 10.)

(iii) Let A be the given point without the given eircle BCD.

It is required to draw from A a tangent to BCD.

Find E, the eentre of BCD.

Join AE.

On AE as diameter, describe a circle cutting BCD at B and C.

Join AB, AC.

Then AB, AC are tangents to the circle BCD.

Becanse ABE, ACE are semicircles;

 \therefore the \angle s ABE, ACE are rt. \angle s; (IV., 8.)

and AB, AC are tangents to the circle BCD. (IV., 10.)

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TANGENTS.

CUROLLARY. Since (IV., In., § 11) AE, through the centres of the circles, is an axis of symmetry for both, and B, C. $\pi^{-\alpha}$ images" of each other, therefore if the figure be followed about AE, the lines AB and AC coincide and are equal. That is, two tangents drawn from an external point to a circle are equal.

Exercises.

1. Show that all equal chords in a given circle touch a fixed concentric circle.

2. Through a given point outside a given circle, draw a straight line, such that the part of it intercepted by the circle shall have a given length, not greater than the diameter of the circle.

3. Through a given point outside a given circle, draw a straight line, such that the part of it intercepted by the circle may subtend at the contro an angle of 60°.

4. In two concentric circles any chord of the outer circle which touches the inner, is bisected at the point of contact.

5. Draw a tangent to a given circle parallel to a given straight line.

6. Draw a tangent to a given birclo, making a given angle with a given straight line.

7. If two circles are concentrie, all tangents drawn from points on the circumference of the outer to the inner are equal.

8. Find the locus of the centres of all circles which touch each of two parallel lines.

9. In any quadrilateral described about a circle, the sum of one pair of opposite sides is equal to the sum of the other pair.

10. Describe a circle of given radius to touch each of two given straight lines.

11. If a parallologram can be described about a circle, it must be equilateral.

12. If a quadrilateral be described about a circle, the sum of the angles subtended at the centra by each pair of opposite sides is equal to two right angles.

18. Find the locus of the extremities of tangents of fixed length drawn to a given circle.

14. In the diameter of a circle produced, determine a point such that the two tangents drawn from it may contain a given angle.

PROPOSITION XIII. THEOREM.

If a straight line tonch a circle, and from the point of contact a chord be drawn, the angles between the chord and the tangent are equal to the angles in the alternate segments of the circle.



Let ACB be a tangent to the eircle CDE at the pt. C, and let the chord CD be drawn, dividing the circle into segments in which are the \angle s DFC, DEC.

Then $\angle DCB = \angle DEC$, and $\angle DCA = \angle DFC$.

Produce CF to G.

Then $\angle s$ DEC, DFC together = 2 rt. $\angle s$.

Also $\angle s$ DFG, DFC together = 2 rt. $\angle s$; $\therefore \angle DFG = \angle DEC$.

Let now F move down to C; then CG coincides with CB, and \angle DFG coincides with \angle DCB and is equal to it; $\therefore \angle$ DCB= \angle DEC.

In like manner we may prove $\angle DCA = \angle DFC$.

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TANGENTS.

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Exercises.

1. If from a point A without a circle, a tangent AB and a secant **AOD** be drawn, show that the triangles ACB, ABD are equiangular.

Honeo show that $AB^2 = AC. AD$.

2. Uso the preceding exercise to show that tangents drawn to a circle from an external point, are equal.

8. State and prove the converse of Prop. xiii.

4. If two circles touch at P, and chords APB, CPD be drawn through the point of contact, then AC, BD are parallel.

5. If a triangle be inscribed in a circle, and tangents to the circle be drawn at the angular points, the angles of the triangle so formed are the supplements of twice the angles of the former triangle.

6. If two eircles touch one another, and through the point of contact a straight line by frawn, the taugents at its ends are parallel to one another.

7. Two circles touch internally, and n chord of the greater touches the less. Show that this chord is divided at its point of contact into segments which subtend equal angles at t^{1} , point where the two circles touch.

8. Of all triangles inscribed in a given circle, the equilateral triangle has the maximum perimeter.

9. Of all triangles having the same base and vertical angle, the sum of the sides is a maximum when the triangle is isosceles.

10. X, Y are any two points on the circumferences of two segments on the same straight line AB, and on the same side of it; the angles XAY, YBX are bisected by two straight lines meeting in Z. Show that the angle AZB is constant, and equal to $\frac{1}{2}(X+Y)$.

11. ACB is a fixed cherd passing through C, the point of intersection of two circles APC, QBC, and PCQ any other chord of the circles passing through C.' Show that AP, BQ when produced meet at a constant angle.

12. Describe a circle which shall pass through a given point, and touch a given straight line at a given point.

13. Describe, when possible, a circle of given radius, and touching a given straight line and a given circle.

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PROPOSITION XIV. PROBLEM.

On a given straight line to construct a segment of a circle, containing an angle equal to a given angle.



Let AB be the given st. line, and C the given angle. It is required to describe on AB a segment of a circle containing an \angle equal to C.

At A make $\angle BAD = \angle C$.

Draw AE \perp r to AD.

Bisect AB at F.

From F draw FG \perp r to AB, to meet AE in G. Join BG.

Then GA = GB. (Loei, Ex. 2.)

Hence we can describe with centre G and radius GA, an arc of a circle passing through B.

Let it be described on side of AB remote from D.

Then because AD is at rt. $\angle s$ to AG,

AD is a tangent to the circle.

Hence \angle in segment **AHB** $= \angle$ **BAD** $= \angle$ **C**; and segment required has been described.

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TANGENTS.

Exercises.

1. Find a point O within a triangle ABC, such that the angles AOB, BOC, COA are equal to one another.

2. Construct the locus of the vertices of all triangles on a given base and having a given vertical angle.

3. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the vertical angle, and one other side.

4. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the vertical angle, and the point at which the perpendicular from the vertex meets the base.

5. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the vertical angle, and the point at which the base is cut by the bisector of the vertical angle

6. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the vertical angle, and the distance from the vertex to the middle point of the base.

7. Construct a triangle, having given the base, the vertical angle, and the sum of the remaining sides.

8. Four circular coins of different sizes are lying on a table, each touching two, and only two, of the others. Show that the four points of centact lie on a circle.

9. A tangent to n circle is drawn parallel to a chord; show that the point of contact bisects the arc cut off by the chord.

10. If two circles touch, and a straight line be drawn through the point of coatact, it divides the circles into segments that are similar in pairs.

11. There are two concentric circles, and a straight line ABC cuts one of them in A nucl the other in B and C. Show that the tangents at B and C intersect the tangent at A, at points equally distant from the common centre.

12. A circle passes through a fixed point P, and cuts n fixed straight line at a point Q, so that the tangent at Q makes a constant angle with PQ. Show that the circle meets the fixed straight line in a fixed point.

13. Given the vertical angle, the perimeter, and the altitude of a triangle, construct it. (On a st. line equal to perimeter construct a segment of a circle with angle equal to vert. angle $+\frac{1}{2}$ sum of other angles; and draw a st. line parallel to base at distance from it equal to given altitude.)

PROPOSITION XV. PROBLEM.

From a given circle to cut off a segment containing an angle equal to a given angle.



Let ABC be the given circle, and D the given \angle . It is required to cut off from the circle ABC a segment containing an \angle equal to D.

Draw EAF, the tangent at A. Draw the chord AB, making the \angle FAB = \angle D. Then ACB is segment required.

For $\angle D = \angle FAB$ (const.)

= \angle in alternate segment ACB. (IV., 13)

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TANGENTS.

Exercises.

1. Make the construction required in the Proposition without drawing a tangent.

2. The chord of a segment of a given circle is produced. On the whole line so produced describe, with the simplest possible construction, a segment of a circle containing an angle equal to the angle in the segment of the given circle.

3. Through a given point without a circle draw a straight line that will cut off a segment containing an angle equal to a given angle.

4. If a point be within a circle, what is the greatest and what the least angle in a segment cut off hy a chord through it?

5. Draw a line parallel to a given line and cutting off from a given circle a segment containing an angle equal to a given angle.

6. By using an angle double the given angle, make the construction required in Prop. xv.

7. In a given circle describe an isosceles triangle equiangular to a given isosceles triangle.

8. From two given circles cut off similar segments.

In these segments describe two similar quadrilaterals (Ex. 4, p. 180); and show that the ratio hetween corresponding sides of the quadrilaterals is equal to the ratio between the radii of the circles.

9. The circumference of a circle P passes through the centre of a circle Q. Show that the tangents to Q, at the points of intersection, meet on the circumference of P.

10. A straight line AB of given length, moves with its ends resting on two fixed lines which intersect in O. Show that the locus of the centre of the circle through the points O, A and B is a circle.

11. Tangents to a circle, TP, TQ, intercept between them the arc QOP; and from O, perpendiculars OL, OM, ON are drawn to TQ, TP, PQ. Show that ON is a mean proportional between OL and OM.

12. A is a fixed point, and from it lines ABC, ADE, are drawn to meet two fixed lines in B and C, D and E. If circles be described about the triangles ABD, ACE, show that they intersect at a constant angle.

13. Two circles BPQ, CPQ are tangential to two fixed lines AB, AC at the fixed points B and C. Show that, as the eireles vary, if P be on the circumference of a circle through B and C, then Q is also on the circumference of a circle through B and C.

PROPOSITION XVI. PROBLEM.

In a given circle to inscribe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.



Let ABC be the given circle, and DEF the given Δ . It is required to inscribe in the circle ABC $a \triangle$ equiangul. to DEF.

Draw a tangent to the circle at any point A.

Draw a chord AB, making $\angle GAB = \angle F$, and a chord AC, making $\angle HAC = \angle E$. Join BC.

Then the $\triangle ABC$ is equiangular to $\triangle DEF$. For $\angle F = \angle GAB = \angle \cup$ in alt. segment; and $\angle E = \angle HAC = \angle B$ in alt. segment, \therefore remaining $\angle EDF =$ remaining $\angle BAC$, and $\triangle ABC$ is equiangular to $\triangle DEF$. 0

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TANGENTS.

Exercises.

1. How would you make the construction in the Proposition, that the sides of the triangle ABC may be parallel to those of DEF?

2. How, that the sides of ABC may be perpendicular to the sides of DEF ?

8. If a circle be described about the triangle DEF, show that the ratio of corresponding sides in the two triangles is equal to the ratio of the radii of the circles.

4. If another triangle equiangalar to DEF be inscribed in the circle ABC, show that it is equal in all respects (congraent) to the triangle ABC.

5. Inscribe an equilateral trianglo in a given circle, and show that if tangents to the circle be drawn at the angular points, the triangle so formed is equilateral.

6. In a given circle inscribe a trianglo whose sides are parallel to three given straight lines.

7. If an equilateral triangle be inscribed in a circle, show that its area is $\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{4}r^2$, where r is the radius of the circle.

8. In a given circle inscribe a triangle ABC, such that the angle A is of given magnitude, and that the sides AB, AC pass through given points D and E respectively. Is problem always possible?

9. Two circles intersect in A and B, and CAD is a straight line terminated both ways by the circamference. Fin:1 the position of CAD, that the area of the triangle BCD may be the greatest possi¹.

10. O is the orthocentro of the triangle ABC, and the paral. gram OBPC is completed. Show that AP is the diameter of the circle aboat the triangle ABC.

11. In a given segment, BAC, of a circle, place two lines AB, AC sach that their ratio may be equal to a given ratio. (Divide BC in the given ratio in D, and on BD or DC describe a segment containing an angle equal to half of angle in BAC.)

12. Two circles whose centres are A and B toach externally at P, and CPD is drawn meeting the circles in C and D. Show that the triangles APD, CPB are equal in area.

PROPOSITION XVII. PROBLEM.

To find the loci of the centres of circles touching two given straight lines.



Let AB, CD be the two given st. lines, intersecting at E.

It is required to find the loci of the centres of circles touching AB and CD.

Bisect the \angle s AEC, BED by the st. line FEG; and from any pt. P on FEG, draw PM, PN at rt. \angle s to AB, CD respectively.

Then $\mathbf{PM} = \mathbf{PN}$; (Loci, Ex. 1.)

and circle described with centre **P** and radius **PM** will pass through **N**, and touch **AB**, **CD** at **M** and **N**, because the \angle s at **M** and **N** are rt. \angle s.

Hence FEG, bisecting one of the \angle s between AB and CD, is a locus of centres of circles touching AB and CD.

Similarly HEK, bisecting the other \angle between AB and CD, is a locus of centres of circles touching AB and CD.

NOTE. A circle is said to be inscribed in a rectilineal figure when the circumference touches all the sides of the figure.

TANGENTS.

BOOK IV.

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eal of PROPOSITION XVIII. PROBLEM.

To inscribe a circle in a given triangle.



Let ABC be the given triangle.

It is required to inscribe a circle in ABC.

Bisect the \angle s ABC, ACB by the st. lines BD, CD, intersecting at D.

Then BD is a locus of centres of circles touching the sides BA, BC. (IV., 17.)

And CD is a locus of centres of circles touching the sides CA, CB.

Hence **D** is the centre of a circle which can be described to touch **AB**, **BC**, **CA**.

From D draw DE \perp r to BC, and with centre D, and radius DE, describe a circle. It will touch AB, BC, CA; and be inscribed in \triangle ABC.

If the sides AB, AC be produced, and the exterior angles at B and C he bisected by straight lines BL, CL

meeting in L, then L is the centre of a eircle which may be described to touch the productions of AB, AC and the side of BC remote from A. Such a eircle is called an escribed circle. Evidently circles may also be escribed to the sides AB, AC. We thus have four eircles touching the sides of the triangle. Indeed, the problem of the Proposition stated in its general form



is,—To describe a circle touching three intersecting straight lines, and we have four different circles as solutions of the problem.

NOTE. A eircle is said to be described about a rectilineal figure when the circumference passes through all the angular points of the figure. To describe a circle about a triangle, see Loei, Ex. 4.

Exercises.

1. In the figure of the Proposition, show that A^D bisects the angle BAC.

2. If A be joined to the centre of the escribed circle touching BC, show that the joining lino passes through D.

8. Show that the line joining the centres of any two escribed circles passes through an angle of the triangle.

4. If four circles be described touching three intersecting lines, prove that two centres of circles and a point of intersection of the lines, are always collinear.

5. If r be the radius of the inscribed circle of a triangle whose sides are a, b, and c, prove that

area of triangle = $\frac{1}{2}r(a+b+c)$.

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TANGENTS.

6. Show that all the sides of the triangle subtend obtase angles at the centre of the inscribed circle, their values being $90^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2}$ A, $90^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2}$ B, $90^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2}$ C.

7. Show that if the base and vertical angle of a triangle be given, the locus of the contre of the inscribed circle is a circular arc.

8. Shew how to describe a circle which shall cut off equal chords from the sides of a given triangle.

9. If perpendiculars be drawn from the centre of an escribed circle of a triangle to the sides of the triangle, two of the angles between these perpendiculars are equal to angles of the triangle, and the third is equal to the supplement of the third angle of the triangle.

10. Construct a triangle equiangular to a given triangle, and having a given circle for one of its escribed circles.

11. With the vortices A, B, C, of a triangle as centres, describe three circles, each of which tonches the other two.

12. If, in the figure of the Proposition, a trianglo be ent off at each angle by a tangent to the circle, the sum of the perimeters of the three triangles so cut off is equal to the perimeter of the original triangle.

13. Without producing two straight lines to meet, find the straight line which would bisect the angle between them.

14. If two sides of a triangle whose perimeter is constant aro given in position, provo that the third side rolls on a certain circle.

15. If a triangle be formed by joining the points of contact of the inscribed circle, the angles of the triangle so formed are $\frac{1}{2}$ (A + B), $\frac{1}{2}$ (B+C), $\frac{1}{2}$ (C+A).

Show that this triangle is equiangular to the triangle formed by jeining the centres of the escribed eircles.

16. If in the Proposition the circle touch the sides AB, AC in H and G, show that the middle point of the arc HG is the centre of the circle inscribed in the triangle AHG.

17. If a, b, c be the sides of a triangle, prove that the segments of the sides made by the points of contact of the inscribed circle are

 $\frac{1}{2}(b+c-a), \frac{1}{2}(c+a-b), \frac{1}{2}(a+b-c).$

18. Given the base of a triangle, the vertical angle, and the radius of the inscribed circle; construct the triangle.

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PROPOSITION XIX. PROBLEM.

About a given circle to describe a triangle equiangular to a given triangle.



Let ABC be the given circle, and DEF the given Δ . It is required to describe about ABC a Δ equiangular to DFF

Produce EF both ways to G and H.

Take O, the centre of the circle ABC, and draw any radius OA.

At 0 in A0 make the $\angle AOB = \angle DFH$, and $\angle AOC = \angle DEG$, B and C being on the circumference.

At A, B and C draw tangents LM, MK and KL to the circle, forming the Δ KLM.

Then ΔKLM is equiangular to ΔDEF .

Because $\angle s$ at **A** and **B** are rt. $\angle s$;

but $\angle s$ DFH, DFE together = 2 rt. $\angle s$;

and $\angle DFH = \angle AOB$;

 $\therefore \ \angle AMB = \angle DFE.$

Similarly $\angle ALC = \angle DEF$;

and \therefore the remaining $\angle \mathbf{K} = \text{remaining } \angle \mathbf{D}$;

and \triangle KLM, described about the circle ABC,

is equiangular to ΔDEF .

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TANGENTS.

Exercises.

1. In the Proposition show that if a circle be also inscribed in the triangle DEF, the ratio of the radii is equal to the ratio of corresponding sides of the trian es.

2. If circles be described about two equiaugular triangles, show that the ratio of the radii is equal to the ratio of corresponding sides of the triangles.

3. If another triangle equiangular to DEF be described about the circle ABC, show that the two triangles about the circle are equal in all respects.

4. In the figure of the Proposition, AO is produced to meet the circle again in P, and through P a tangent is drawn meeting KL, KM in Q and R respectively. Show that the triangle KQR is equiangular to DEF.

5. In the Proposition show that the tangents at A, B and C intersect so as to form a triangle about the circle.

6. Given a circle, draw tangents to it so as to form a triangle to which the circle shall be escribed, the triangle so formed being equiangular to a given scalene Δ , and with sum of sides least.

7. About a given circle describe a quadrilateral equiangular to a given quadrilateral.

8. If an equilateral triangle be described about a circle, and the points of contact be joined, the triangle so formed is also equilateral.

9. If the triangle fermed by joining the points of contact A, B, C in the Proposition, be equiangular to the triangle KLM, then both triangles must be equilateral.

10. If the centres of three of the circles which touch the sides of a triangle be given, construct the triangle.

11. In the figure of the Proposition, inscribe within the circle a triangle equiangular to KLM, and having its sides purallel to these of KLM.

12. Find the radius of the circle ABC, such that when KLM, equiangular to DEF, is described about it, KLM shall be in area double of DEF.

Segments of Intersecting Chords.

A straight line may be divided into segments externally as well as internally. Thus the line AB is inter-

nally divided at C, giving the segments AC, CB; and externally divided at D, giving the segments AD, DB.

PROPOSITION XX. THEOREM.

If two chords of a circle intersect, either within or without the circle, the rectangle contained by the segments of one is equal to the rectangle contained by the segments of the other; and if the point of intersection be without the circle, the rectangle contained by the segments of a chord is equal to the square on the tangent from that point.



Let the chords AB, CD of the circle ABC intersect in E. Then the rectangle contained by AE, EB is equal to the rectangle contained by CE, ED.

In the Δs EAD, ECB, $\angle D = \angle B$, since they stand on same arc AC; and $\angle s$ AED, CEB are equal,

being either vertically opposite or coincident;

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$\therefore \Delta s \text{ EAD, ECB nre equiangular;}$ $\text{nnd } \frac{AE}{CE} = \frac{ED}{EB};$

that is, AE.EB - CE.ED.

Again, in the second figure, let the scennt ECD turn about E, and become the tangent ET, the two points C and D coinciding in T, the segments CE, ED both becoming ET, and the rectangle CE.ED, therefore, becoming ET^2 .

Then AE.EB = CE.ED, always,

$= \mathbf{E}\mathbf{T}^{2}$.

The Proposition may be otherwise expressed as follows,—If a chord of a circle pass through a fixed point, the rectangle contained by the segments of the chord is constant, and is equal to the square on half the chord bisected by the point, if the point be within the circle, and to the square on the tangent from the point, if the point be without the circle.

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PROPOSITION XXI. THEOREM.

If OAB and OC be two straight lines, and $OA \cdot OB = OC^2$, then OC is a tangent to the circle through the points A, B and C.



Let a circle be described passing through A, B and C, and suppose **3C** to cut this circle again in **D**.

Then $OC^2 = OA \cdot OB$, (Hyp.) = $OC \cdot OD$; (IV., 20.)

 $\therefore \mathbf{0}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{0}\mathbf{D};$

that is, the two points C and D are coincident. OC therefore can meet the circle only in coincident points, and is a tangent.

BOOK IV. INTERSECTING CHORDS.

This Proposition is the converse of the latter part of Prop. XX.

The point D could not fall on the other side of O, for then O would be within the circle; but it must be external since it does not lie between A and B.

If 0 lie between A and B, and $OA \cdot OB = OC^2$, theu OC is half of the chord through C and O, of the eirele through A, B and C.

Exercises.

1. If two straight lines AB, CD intersect at E, and AE.EB = CE.ED, show that the four points A, C, B, D are concyclic.

2. ABC is a triangle right angled at C : and CD is drawn at right angles to AB. Show that $CD^2 = AD.DB$.

3. ABC is a triangle, and BE, CF are drawn perpendicular to AC, AB, and intersecting in O. Show that BO.OE = CO.OF.

4. Two circles intersect in P and Q, and through any point in PQ a chord is drawn in each circle; show that the ends of these chords are concyclic.

5. As an immediate deduction from Prop. xx., show that tangents to a circle from the same point are equal.

6. If the common chord of two intersecting circles is produced to any point, the tangents to the two circles from this point are equal.

7. If the tangents from any point to two intersecting circles be equal, that point must be on the common chord produced.

Hence find the iocus of the point from which equal tangents can be drawn to two given intersecting circles.

This locus is called the Radical Axis. The locus is also a straight line when the circles do not intersect.

8. If the common chord of two intersecting circles be produced to cut a common tangent, it will bisect it.

9. If three circles intersect, the three common chords pass through the same point,

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10. A number of circles all pass through two given points A and B, and from a point in AB produced, tangonts are drawn to the circles; find the locus of the points of contact.

11. If two straight lines AB, CD, produced, meet in O, and OA.OB = OC.OD; show that A, B, C, D are concyclic.

12. If two circles intersect, and through a point on their common chord produced, two secants are drawn, one to each circle; show that the four points of section of the secants with the circles are concyclic.

18. If a straight line be divided into two parts, show that the nearer the point of division is to the middlo of the line, the greater will be the rectangle contained by the parts. (Describe circle on line as diameter.)

14. Through a given point without a circle draw, when possible, a straight line cutting the circle so that the part within the circle may equal the part without.

15. If BE, CF are drawn at right angles to the sides AC, AB of the triangle ABC, then AF.AB = AE. AC.

16. From a given point as centre, describe a circle cutting a given straight line in two points, so that the rectangle contained by their distances from a fixed point in the straight line may be equal to a given square.

17. Produce a given straight line AB to C, so that the rectangle AC.CB may be equal to a given square.

18. The tangents from a fixed point to a series of intersecting circles are equal to one another. Show that the common chord of each pair of circles passes through this point.

19. Each of three given circles touches the other two; show that the common tangents at the three points of contact will meet in a point.

20. There is a series of circles A, B, C, D, \cdots , such that B touches A and C, C touches B and D, \cdots . From a point P a secant PQR is drawn, and PQ.PR is constant for all the circles; show that the tangents at the points of contact of the circles all pass through P.

21. Two circles touch one another at P and are cut by a third in the points A, B and C, D respectively. Show that AB and CD intersect on the common tangent at P.

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SIMILAR POLYGONS.



SIMILAR POLYGONS.

PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.

To construct a rectilineal figure similar to a given rectilineal figure, and having its sides to those of the given figure in a given ratio.



Let **ABCDE** be the given rectilineal figure, and m:n the given ratio.

It is required to construct a figure similar to ABCDE, and having its sides to the corresponding sides of ABCDE in the ratio m : n.

Take any point 0; and join OA, OB, OC, OD, OE.

Tako a line OK'K; and let OK' contain m units of length, and OK n units of length.

Divide OA at A' as OK is divided at K' (III., 9); so that OA': OA = m: n.

Draw $A'B' \parallel$ to AB; $B'C' \parallel$ to BC; $C'D' \parallel$ to CD; $D'E' \parallel$ to DE.

Join A'E'.

Then A'B'C'D'E' is similar to ABCDE, and has its sides to those of ABCDE in the ratio m:n.

Since	A'B'	i.	parallel	to	AB,	0A '	: OA = OB' : OB :	
44	B'C'		66		BC.	0B '	$OB = OC' \cdot OC \cdot$	
44	C'D'		46		CD.	0C'	OC = OD' OD	
44	D'E '		66		DE,	OD'	OD = OE' : OE,	

Hence OA': OA = OE': OE, and $\therefore A'E'$ is || to AE. Accordingly the sides of A'B'C'D'E' are || to those of ABCDE, and the two figures and equiangular.

Again, since the $\Delta s \ OA'B'$, OAB are similar, $\therefore A'B' : AB = OA' : OA = m : n.$

Also OB' : OB = OA : OA' = m : n.

Then from similar Δs OB'C', OBC,

 $\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{C}':\mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{O}\mathbf{B}':\mathbf{O}\mathbf{B}=m:n.$

In like manuer we may show that

 $\mathbf{C}'\mathbf{D}'$; $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{D} = m$; $n = \mathbf{D}'\mathbf{E}'$; $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}'\mathbf{A}'$; $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{A}$.

Hence the figures A'B'C'D'E', ABCDE are equiangular, and corresponding sides are in the same ratio, m : n.

They are therefore similar, and corresponding sides are in the ratio m : n.

The point O is called a centre of similitude, and in this case is said to be external.

If in the construction AO had been produced to A', so that A'O:OA=m:n, and the construction proceeded



with from the point A', the point O would be an internal centre of similitude. In this latter diagram, if A'B'C'D'E' be turned through 180°, it is placed with respect to ABCDE as in the former diagram.

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If any line OM'M (M'OM) be drawn through O, the points M', M, in which it cuts corresponding sides, may be called corresponding points.

COR. 1. Evidently, from similar $\triangle s$, OB'M', OBM, OM': OM = OB': OB = m : n.

If any other line ON'N be drawn, ON': ON = m: n.

Hence Δs OM'N', OMN are similar, and M'N': MN = m : n;

that is, lines joining pairs of corresponding points are in the ratio m:n.

COR. 2. We may readily describe on a line of given length a polygon similar to another. For between OAand OB place a line A'B'

parallel to AB and of the given length, as suggested by the annexed diagram. OG is drawn of the given length parallel to AB, and



GA' is drawn parallel to **OB**. Starting, then, from **B'**, we proceed as in the Proposition.

NOTE. It is important to observe that not only are such points as A and A', B and B', ..., M and M', N and N', corresponding points, but also that to every point within the perimeter of ABCDE there exists a corresponding point within the perimeter of A'B'C'D'E'. For within the perimeter of ABCDE take any point X. Join OX; and divide OX at X' so that OX': OX = m : n. Then X, X' are corresponding points. If Y, Y' be also corresponding points, obtained in the same way, evidently X'Y': XY =m:n, the constant ratio between corresponding distances in the two figures.

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PROPOSITION II. THEOREM.

Two similar polygons may be so placed that the lines joining corresponding angular points are concurrent.



Let ABCDE, A'B'C'D'E' be two similar polygons, and let A'B'C'D'E' be so placed that A'B' is \parallel to AB, and B'C' \parallel to BC.

Then the lines joining A and A', B and B', ..., are concurrent.

Since the polygons are equiangular, C'D', D'E' and E'A' are || to CD, DE, EA respectively.

Join AA', BB' and let them meet, if necessary when produced, in O.

Let m:n be the ratio between corresponding sides.

Then since A'B' is || to AB,

OB': OB = A'B': AB = m: n.

Also $\mathbf{B'C'}$: $\mathbf{BC} = m : n;$

and $\angle s$ OB'C', OBC are equal, since B'C' is \parallel to BC; $\therefore \bigtriangleup s$ OB'C', OBC are similar. (III., 7.)

Hence the ∠s B'OC', BOC are equal,

and OC', OC arc in the same st. line;

that is, CC' passes through 0.

Similarly DD' and EE' pass through 0.

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COR. If points \mathbf{M} , \mathbf{M}' be taken in any corresponding sides \mathbf{AB} , $\mathbf{A'B'}$, such that $\mathbf{A'M'} : \mathbf{AM} = m : n$, evidently the $\Delta \mathbf{s} \ \mathbf{OA'M'}$, \mathbf{OAM} are similar, and $\mathbf{MM'}$ passes through \mathbf{O} . Thus \mathbf{M} , $\mathbf{M'}$ are corresponding points, as defined at the close of the preceding proposition.

It is to be observed that we cannot always make the corresponding sides of two similar figures parallel by turning one of them through an angle in the planc in which they both are. Thus the two triangles ABC,



A'B'C', supposed similar, can only be made to have corresponding sides parallel by lifting one from the plane of the paper, turning it over, and then adjusting it.

If two similar figures are such that without taking either from the plane of the paper they can be "similarly placed," they are said to be **directly similar**; if they are such that they can be similarly placed only after one is lifted from the plane of the paper, turned over, and then adjusted, they are said to be **inversely similar**.

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Exercises.

1. Having constructed two similar polygons, find pairs of corresponding points not on the perimetors of the polygons. (See p. 180.)

2. Show that the lines joining such corresponding points pass through the centre of similitude.

(Observe that a centre of similitudo is where corresponding points coincide.)

8. **ABCDE** being a polygon, and A'B' a line in the same straight line with AB, construct on A'B' a polygon similar to ABCDE, first finding a point which shall be a centre of similitude for the two figures.

4. Construct an irregular pentagon ABCDE, and on AB construct an equal and inversely similar pentagon BAC'D'E'. (The construction will be facilitated by drawing a perpendicular to AB through its middle point, and parallels to AB through C, D and E. The intersections of BC, etc., with the perpendicular, determine the directions of AC', etc.; and the parallels fix their lengths.)

5. Construct a pentagon inversely similar to, and with linear dimensions half those of, the irregular pentagon ABCDE.

6. On AB, A'B', two lines which are not parallel, construct two directly similar triangles OAB, OA'B'. (Let AB, B'A' meet in X; and about AA'X, BB'X describe circles intersecting again in O. Then OAB, OA'B' are equiangular and similar; and OA : OA' = OB : OB' = , AB : A'B' = m : n.)



7. ABCDE, A'B'C'D'E' are two directly similar polygons whose corresponding sides are not parallel. Find a point O such that

 $OA: OA' = OB: OB' = OC: OC' = \ldots = m: n,$

the ratio between corresponding sides of the polygons.

(O is said in this case to be the centre of similitude of the two polygons which are not "similarly placed.")

8. In the preceding exercise, how many centres of similitude are there for the pentagons ?

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(Observe that when corresponding sides become parallel, the centres of similitude move into coincidence.)

9. Describe two regular pentagons, place them similarly, and find the centre of similitude. Make the same construction for two regular hexagons.

⁹0. When the number of sides of two regular polygons, similarly placed, is the same and even, how many centres of similitude are there?

11. In two concentrio circles, describe two similar and similarly placed polygons.

What point is the centre of similitude ?

The ratio between what two lines represents the ratio between corresponding sides ?

12. A circle being regarded as a polygon with an infinite number of sides, show that circles are similar figures.

The ratio between what lines represents the constant ratio between corresponding lines in two circles ?

13. The ratio of the perimeters of two similar polygous is equal to the ratio of corresponding sides.

14. The ratio of the circumferences of two circles is equal to the ratio of their radii.

15. If AB, CD be two lines in the same straight line, and on AB a segment of a circle be constructed, use the principle of centre of similitude to construct for points on a segment on CD similar to that on AB. PROPOSITION III. THEOREM.

The areas of similar polygons are as the squares on corresponding sides.



Let ABCDE, A'B'C'D'E' be two similar polygons.

Then their areas are as the s_{1} areas on corresponding sides.

Join AC, AD, A'C', A'D'; and let the ratio of corresponding sides = m : n.

Then since (V., 1, Cor. 1) the ratio of lines joining corresponding points = m : n, the \triangle s into which **ABCDE** has been divided are similar to the corresponding triangles into which **A'B'C'D'E'** has been divided. (III., 6.) Hence \triangle **ABC** : \triangle **A'B'C'** = **AB**² : **A'B'**² = m^2 : n^2 ; (III., 11.) \triangle **ACD** : \triangle **A'C'D'** = **CD**² : **C'D'**² = m^2 : n^2 ; \triangle **ADE** : \triangle **A'D'E'** = **DE**² : **D'E'**² = m^2 : n^2 ; and \therefore **ABDCE** : **A'B'C'D'E'** = m^2 : n^2 ,

 $= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}^2 : \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B}'^2 \cdot$

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COR. 1. If similar polygons be described on the sides of a right-angled triangle, the area of that on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the areas of those on the two other sides.



For $\frac{\mathbf{Q}}{\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{AB}^2}{\mathbf{BC}^2}$, $\frac{\mathbf{R}}{\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{AC}^2}{\mathbf{BC}^2}$; $\therefore \frac{\mathbf{Q} + \mathbf{R}}{\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{AB}^2 + \mathbf{AC}^2}{\mathbf{BC}^2} = 1$.

COR. 2. If three straight lines, a, b, c, be proportionals, and similar polygons, P, Q, be described on the first and second, then



 $\frac{\mathbf{P}}{\mathbf{Q}} = \frac{a^2}{b^2} = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{a}{b} = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{b}{c} = \frac{a}{c}.$

That is,—If three straight lines be proportionals, as the first is to the third, so is any rectilineal figure described on the first to a similar and similarly described rectilineal figure on the second.

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Exercises.

1. Two similar polygons being given, construct a similar polygon equal to their sum.

Also one equal to their difference.

2. The areas of circles are to one another as the squares of their radii.

3. The areas of segments of two different circles containing equal angles, are as the squares of the radii of the circles.

4. The areas of two sectors of circles having equal central angles, are as the squares of the radii.

5. If on the perimeter of any polygon three points be taken, and on the perimeter of a similar polygon the three corresponding points be taken, and a triangle be formed in each polygon by joining these points, the areas of the triangles are as the areas of the polygons.

6. A trapezium whose parallel sides are a and c, is divided into two similar trapeziums by a line b parallel to a and c. Show that a, b, caro in continued proportion. Hence show that the two smaller trapeziums are equal in area respectively to the two triangles into which the wholo trapezium is divided by either diagonal.

7. If four straight lines, a, b, c, d, be proportionals, the similar and similarly described rectilineal figures on a and b aro to one another as the similar and similarly described figures on c and d.

8. The triangle ABC has AB divided into four equal parts, and through the three points of division lines are drawn parallel to BC. Compare the areas contained between successive parallels.

9. Two similar polygons which are equal in area are equal in all respects.

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SIMILAR POLYGONS.

PROPUSITION IV. PROBLEM.

To first the mean proportional between two given straight lines.



Let AB, BC be the two given st. lines. It is required to find the mean proportional between them. Place AB, BC in a straight line, and on AC describe the semieirclo ADC.

Through B draw BD at right angles to AC.

Then BD is the mean proportional between AB and BC. Join AD, DC.

The \angle ADC, being in a semieirele, is a rt. \angle (IV., 8), and DB is the \perp r from the rt. \angle to the base;

: DB is the mean proportional between AB and BC. (III., 12, Cor. 2.)

This problem is dealt with in Cor. 2, Prop. 12, Bk. III.; it is repeated here because it had not then been formally shown that the angle in a semicircle is a right angle.

As stated in Cor. 3, Prop. 12, Bk. III., the problem affords the means of describing a square equal to a given reetilineal figure. The general problem, however, of describing a reetilineal figure of *any* given shape and size will presently be dealt with.

In the Proposition, note that AD is the mean proportional between AB and AC; and that CD is tho mean proportional between CB and CA.

PROPOSITION V. PROBLEM.

To construct a rectilineal figure similar to a given rectilineal figure, and such that the areas of the figures shall be in a given ratio.



Let **ABCDE** be the given rectilineal figure, and m : n the given ratio.

It is required to construct a rectilineal figure similar to ABCDE, and such that ABCDE shall be to it in the ratio m : n.

In AB produced, take **BK**, such that AB : BK = m : n, as in Prop. 1, Bk. V.

On AK describe a semicircle ALK, and draw BL $\perp r$ to AK; so that AB : BL = BL : BK. (V., 4.)

Take Ba = BL, and draw *ue*, *ed*, *dc* parallel to AE, ED, DC respectively.

Then aBcde is the rectilineal figure required.

For ABCDE and aBcde are similar by construction, B being the centre of similitude (V., 1), and

 $\therefore \textbf{ABCDE} : a\textbf{B}cde = \textbf{AB}^2 : a\textbf{B}^2,$

= AB^2 : BL^2 , = AB : BK, (shown in V., 3, Cor. 2.) = m : n.

SIMILAR POLYGONS.

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PROPOSITION VI. PROBLEM.

To describe a rectilineal figure which shall be similar to one and equal to another given rectilineal figure.



Let **ABCDE** and **X** be the two given rectilineal figures. It is required to describe a figure similar to **ABCDE**, and equal to X.

On AB describe the rectangle AM = ABCDE (II., 12); and to BM apply the rectangle BMNK = X (II., 13).

On AK describe a semicircle ALK, cutting BM in L; so that AB : BL = BL : BK.

Take Ba = BL, and draw *ae*, *ed*, *dc* || to AE, ED, DC respectively.

Then aBcde is similar to ABCDE and equal to X. For since ABCDE, aBcde are similar by construction, B being the centre of similitude (V., 1.),

 $\therefore \textbf{ABCDE} : aBcde = \textbf{AB}^2 : aB^2,$

 $= \mathbf{AB}^2$: \mathbf{BL}^2 ,

= AB : BK = AM : BN = AM : X.

But ABCDE is = AM by construction;

 \therefore aBcde is = X, and it is similar to ABCDE.

If instead of the area **X** being given in the form of a rectilineal figure, it be given as, say, 3 square inches, the rectangle **BMNK** is constructed of area 3 square inches, and the construction proceeds as before.

In familiar language the Proposition may be enuneiated: To describe a rectilineal figure of given size and shape. It is evidently the general proposition of which "To describe a square equal to a given rectilineal figure" is a particular case.

Exercises.

1. Construct a square whose area shall be half that of a given square.

2. An angle of a parallelogram is 60° , and the sides containing it are 2 and 3 inches. Construct a similar parallelogram whose area shall be one-third that of the former.

3. Construct a pentagon and also a similar pentagon whose area shall be to that of the former as 2:3.

4. Constract a rectangle equal in area to a given square, and having its adjacent sides in the ratio 2:3.

5. Construct a triangle similar to a given triangle and equal in area to another triangle.

6. The triangle ABC has $A = 75^{\circ}$, AB = 2, AC = 3 inches. Constrate a triangle A'B'C' equal in area to ABC and having B' = 70^{\circ}, $C' = 55^{\circ}$.

7. Constract a triangle ABC having AB=1, BC=12, CA=2 inches, and make an equilateral triangle equal to it in area.

8. Construct a triangle similar to ABC in Exercise 6, and equal to ABC in Exercise 7.

9. Constract a square equal to a given equilateral triangle.

10. Construct an equilateral triangle equal in area to a given square.

11. Construct an isosceles triangle equal in area to a given scalene triangle, and having a common vertical angle.

(Let ABC he scalene triangle. Construct isosceles triangle ABD with same vertical angle A. Let AE be mean proportional between AC, AD. Draw EF parallel to DB.)

12. Find two straight lines which have the same ratio to one another as two given rectilineal figures.

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ADDITIONAL PROPOSITIONS.

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Additional Propositions.

Additional Propositions.

In the theory of parallels the three following propositions, with the accompanying definition and axiom, may be substituted for §§ 28-30 of the Introduction, Note 1, p. 80, being omitted.

DEF. Parallel straight lines are straight lines in the same plane, which do not meet however far they are produced in either direction.

PROP. 1. If a straight line falling on two other straight lines, make the exterior angle eqnal to the interior and opposite angle on the same side of the line, the two straight lines are parallel to one another.



Let the straight line EH, falling on the two straight lines AB, CD, make the exterior \angle EFB equal to the interior and opposite \angle FGD.

Then AB is || to CD.

For if $\angle EFB = \angle FGD$, then also (In., § 13) $\angle AFG = \angle FGD$.

Let now the figure rotate, through two right angles, about the middle point of FG.

Then F takes the place of G, and G of F.

Also because $\angle AFG = \angle FGD$, therefore FA coincides with the former position of GD, and GD with that of FA.

Hence the lines AB, CD ecineide with the former positions of DC, BA.

Therefore if AB, CD meet, when produced, on one side of EH, they meet also, when produced, on the other side of EH.

But this is impossible. (In., § 8.)

Hence AB, CD, when produced, meet on neither side of EH; and they are therefore parallel.

NOTE. Evidently the first part of Prop. 3, Bk. II., has here been demonstrated, and therefore may subsequently be omitted.

PLAYFAIR'S AXIOM. Two straight lines which intersect cannot both be parallel to the same straight line.

PROP. 2. If a straight line fall on two parallel straight lines, it makes the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite angle on the same side of the line.

Let the straight line EH fall on the two parallel straight lines AB, CD.

Then the exterior $\angle EFB$ is equal to the interior and opposite $\angle FGD$.

Additional Propositions.

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For if $\angle EFB$ be not equal to $\angle FGD$, let $\angle EFL$ be equal to $\angle FGD$.

Then (Prop. 1) KFL is parallel to CD.



That is, the straight lines AB, KL which intersect, are both parallel to the same straight line CD; which is impossible. (Playfair's Axiom.)

Hence $\angle \mathbf{EFB} = \angle \mathbf{FGD}$.

PROP. 3. Straight lines which are parallel to the same straight line, are parallel to one another.

For if they be not parallel they intersect; and therefore two intersecting straight lines are parallel to the same straight line, which is impossible. (Playfair's Axiom.)

Hence the straight lines are parallel.

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The following five propositions afford geometrical illustrations of certain algebraic identities.

PROP. 4. If there be two straight lines (AB, BC), one of which (BC) is divided into any number of parts (BD, DE, EC), the rectangle contained by the two straight lines is equal to the sum of the rectangles contained by the undivided line and the several parts of the divided line.



Evidently, **AB**. **BC** = **AB**. **BD** + **AB**. **DE** + **AB**. **EC**; which is the algebraic identity, k(a+b+c) = ka+kb+kc.

PROP. 5. If a straight line (AB) be divided into any two parts (AC, CB), the square on the whole line is equal to the sum of the squares on the two parts, together with twice the rectangle contained by the parts.



Evidently, $AB^2 = AC^2 + CB^2 + 2AC \cdot CB$; which is the algebraic identity, $(a+b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab$.

Additional Propositions.

PROP. 6. If a straight line (AB) be divided into two equal parts (AC, CB), and also into two unequal parts (AD, DB), the rectangle contained by the nnequal parts, together with the square on the line (CD) between the points of section, is equal to the square on half the line.



The rectangle AE is equal to the rectangle DF, and \therefore the rectangle AL is equal to the figure CGK.

Hence $AD \cdot DB + CD^2 = CB^2$; which is the algebraic identity, $(a+b) (a-b) + b^2 = a^2$.

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The same identity will also be found to be the equivalent of the proposition,—If a straight line be bisected and produced to any point, the rectangle contained by the whole line thus produced, and the part of it produced, together with the square on half the line bisected, is equal to the square on the line made np of the half and the part produced.

PROP. 7. If a straight line (AB) be divided into any two parts (AC, CB), the sum of the squares on the whole line and on one of the parts is equal to twice the rectangle contained by the whole line and that part, together with the square on the other part.



Evidently each of the rectangles AD, CE is the rectangle AB.BC; so that the figure ADF with CD is twice the rectangle AB.BC.

Hence $AB^2 + BC^2 = 2AB \cdot BC + AC^2$;

which is the algebraic identity,

 $a^{2} + b^{2} = 2ab + (a - b)^{2},$ or $(a - b)^{2} = a^{2} - 2ab + b^{2},$ **AB** being *a*.

Additional Propositions,

PROP. 8. If a straight line (AB) be divided into two equal parts (AC, CB), and also into two unequal parts (AD, DB), the sum of the squares on the two unequal parts is double the sum of the squares on half the line and on the line (CD) between the points of section.



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 $\mathbf{EF} = \mathbf{AG} = \mathbf{AC}^2.$ Hence $2\mathbf{AC}^2 + 2\mathbf{CD}^2 = \mathbf{AD}^2 + \mathbf{DB}^2$; which is the algebraic identity, $2a^2 + 2b^2 = (a+b)^2 + (a-b)^2.$

The same identity will also be found to be the equivalent of the proposition,—If a straight line be bisected and produced to any point, the square on the whole line thus produced, and the square on the part of it produced, are together double of the square on half the line bisected and of the square on the line made up of the half and the part produced.

PROP. 9. Triangles of the same altitude are to one another as their bases.



Let the Δs ABC, ACD have the same altitude, namely the $\perp r$ from A on BD.

Then the $\triangle ABC$ is to the $\triangle ACD$ as BC to CD.

Let **BE** be a common measure of **BC** and **CD**; and let it be contained m times in **BC**, and n times in **CD**.

Divide BC into m equal parts, each = BE, and CD into n equal parts, each = BE.

Form Δs by joining A to the points of division of **BD**. These Δs are all equal, since they are on equal bases and between the same $||^s$; and there are *m* of these Δs in ΔABC , and *n* in ΔACD .

 $\therefore \triangle ABC : \triangle ACD = m : n = BC : CD.$

Prop. 1, Bk. III., is also a demonstration of this theorem. The preceding proof may be substituted for that given on page 111.

Additional Propositions.

PROP. 10. If a straight line be drawn parallel to one side of a triangle, it cuts the other sides proportionally.

And conversely, if a straight line cut two sides of a triangle proportionally, it is parallel to the third side.



Let DE be || to BC, a side of the $\triangle ABC$.

Then AD is to DB as AE is to EC.

Let AF be a common measure of AD and DB; and let it be contained *m* times in AD, and *n* times in DB.

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Divide AD into m equal parts, each = AF, and DB into n equal parts, each = AF.

Through the points of division of AD and DB draw liues || to BC. These lines intersect AC in points which divide it into equal parts, AE containing m of such, and EC containing n; (II., 5, Cor. 1.)

 \therefore AD : DB = m : n = AE : EC.

Evidently also,

AD: AB = m: m + n = AE: AC.

Conversely,--Let AD be to DB as AE to EC. Then DE is || to BC.



For lat DG be || to BC. Also let AD: DB = m: n = AE: EC;then AD: AB = m: m + n = AE: AC.Also since DG is || to BC, AD: AB = AG: AC;

 $\therefore AE = AG.$

Hence E and G coincide, and DE is || to BC.

Prop. 2, Bk. III., is also a demonstration of this theorem. The preceding proof may be substituted for that given on pages 112-3.

Additional Propositions.

The following is the usual figure and demonstration of Prop. 13, Bk. III. The proof here given may, of course, be substituted for that on page 140.

PROP. 11. In a right-angled triangle, the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the sides containing the right angle.



Let ABC be a right-angled \triangle , having the rt. \angle ACB. Then the square described on AB is equal to the sum of the squares described on AC, CB.

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On AB, BC, CA describe the squares AE, BG, CK. Through C draw CM || to AD or BE.

Join CD, BK. Because the \angle s ACH, ACB are right \angle s, \therefore HC, CB are in the same st. line. Similarly AC, CG are in the same st. line. Now rt. \angle KAC = rt. \angle DAB; to each add \angle CAB; $\therefore \angle$ KAB = \angle CAD.

Then in $\triangle s$ KAB, CAD, KA = CA, AB == AD, \angle KAB == \angle CAD; $\therefore \triangle$ KAB = \triangle CAD.

But sq. CK is double $\triangle KAB$, since they are on same base and between same parallels.

For a similar reason $\parallel^m AM$ is double $\triangle CAD$.

Hence sq. CK=||^m AM.

In the same way by joining CE, AF, it may be proved that sq. $BG = ||^m BM$.

But ||" AM, BM make up the whole sq. AE.

Hence sq. CK + sq. BG = sq. AE;

i.e., the square on AB is equal to the sum of the squares on AC, CB:

Additional Propositions.

PROP. 12. In any triangle, the square on the side opposite any angle, according as the angle is obtuse or acute, is greater or less than the sum of the squares on the sides containing the angle, by twice the rectangle contained by either of these sides and the projection upon it of the other.



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Let ABC be the Δ ; and from C let CN be drawn $\perp r$ to BA, so that AN is the projection of AC on AB. Represent BC by a, CA by 5, AB by c, and AN by x. Then $a^2 = (c \pm x)^2 + CN^2$, (III., 13.) $= (c \pm x)^2 + b^2 - x^2$, $= c^2 \pm 2cx + x^2 + b^2 - x^2$, (5 & 7, Add. Props.) $= b^2 + c^2 \pm 2cx$.

Prop. 14, Bk. III., is also a demonstration of this theorem. The preceding proof may be substituted for that given on pages 144-5.

The following is an immediate deduction from the preceding proposition,-



ABC is any triangle having the segments of its base, **BD** : $DC = m : n_n$ or n BD = m DC.

Then

 $AB^2 = AD^2 + BD^2 - 2 BD \cdot DN$; (1) $\mathbf{AC}^2 = \mathbf{AD}^2 + \mathbf{CD}^2 + 2 \mathbf{CD}$. DN. (2)

Multiplying (1) by n and (2) by m, and adding, we have, since n BD = m DC,

 $n \mathbf{AB}^2 + m \mathbf{AC}^2 = (m+n) \mathbf{AD}^2 + n \mathbf{BD}^2 + m \mathbf{CD}^2.$

If m = n, *i.e.*, if **BD** = **DC**, then adding (1) and (2),

 $\mathbf{AB}^2 + \mathbf{AC}^2 = 2 \ \mathbf{AD}^2 + 2 \ \mathbf{BD}^2,$

a result which occurs as an exercise on page 146.

Exercises.

I. ABCD is any rectanglo, and E any point. Prove that EA*+ $EC^{2} = EB^{2} + ED^{2}$.

2. If the squares on the sides of a quadrilateral aro together equal to the sum of the squares on its diagonals, it must be a parallelogram. (It is easy to show that middle points of diagonals must coincido.)

3. The squares on the equal sides of an isosceles triangle are together less than the squares on the two sides of any other triangle on the same base and having the same altitude.

4. On the side BC of any triangle ABC a square BDEC is described. Show that

$\mathbf{DA^2} + \mathbf{AC^2} = \mathbf{EA^3} + \mathbf{AB^2}.$

For what quadrilateral BDEC, other than a square, will this equation hold ?

ADDITIONAL PROPOSITIONS.

PROP. 13. To divide a straight line so that the rectangle contained by the whole line and one segment may be equal to the square on the other segment.



Let AB be the straight line to be divided. Draw AC \perp r to AB and equal to one-half AB. With centre C describe circle EAD. Join BC, meeting the circle in D and E; and from BA cut off BF = BD. Then BA . AF = BF².

On ED, DB describe squares EL, DG; and produce GH to K.

Evidently ED = AB, and HL = AF. Also, since AB is a tangent to the circle,

 $EB \cdot BD = AB^2$:

 \therefore rect. EG = sq. EL;

 \therefore sq. **DG** = rect. **KL**;

i.e., $BF^2 = BA \cdot AF$, and AB is divided at F, as required.

We have BA : BF = BF : AF, so that the whole line is to the greater segment as the greater segment to the less. Such a line is said to be divided in **medial section**.

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A straight line may also be divided *externally* in medial section.



'For let AP(=AB) be divided in medial section in Q, so that $PQ^2 = PA \cdot AQ$. Join BQ, and let PF', parallel to QB, meet AB produced in F'.

Then
$$1 = \frac{\mathbf{PA} \cdot \mathbf{AQ}}{\mathbf{PQ}^3} = \frac{\mathbf{PA}}{\mathbf{PQ}} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{AQ}}{\mathbf{PQ}},$$

 $= \frac{\mathbf{AF}'}{\mathbf{BF}'} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{BA}}{\mathbf{BF}'};$ (III., 2.)

or $\mathbf{BF}^{\prime 2} = \mathbf{BA} \cdot \mathbf{AF}^{\prime}$.

Thus AB is divided externally at F' into the segments AF' and BF', so that the rectangle contained by the whole line AB and the segment AF' is equal to the square on the other segment BF'.

ALGEBRAIC EQUIVALENT :---Let AB = a, BF = x, and therefore AF = a - x. Then, since $BA \cdot AF = BF^2$, we have $a(a-x) = x^2$, or $x^2 + ax - a^2 = o$. The roots of this quadratic are $-\frac{a}{2} \pm \frac{a}{2} \sqrt{5}$, the positive root corresponding to BF, and the negative root to BF'.

Exercises.

1. If, in the figure of the Proposition, a circle be described with centre B, and radius BE, cutting AB produced in F', then AB is divided externally in medial section at F'. [For BE. $BD=BA^*$; $\therefore BE (BE-BA)=BA^*$; $\therefore BE^*=BA^*+BE$. BA=BA (BA+BE); etc.]

In the figure of the Proposition prove the following :

2. BE is divided in medial section at D.

3. If CL be joined, cutting KG in N, then CL is divided in medial section in N.

4. If BG, ML produced meet in P, then E, H, I' are in a straight line, and EP is divided in medial section in H.

5. If in FB, FQ be taken equal to FA, then FB is divided in medial section in Q. $[BF^2 = BA \cdot AF = (AF + FB) AF; \therefore BF (BF - AF) = AF^2; \text{ ctc.}]$

6. If EH produced meet BL at R, then ER is perpendicular to BL. [The Δ s BDL, HDE are equal in all respects.]

7. Show that the lines DK and GL are both parallel to BM [D and K are corresponding points in the lines EB, EM. Similarly with L and G.]

8. Show that the rectangles BEKG, HKML are similar figures. $[ED . DB = EH := EL - KL = ED^2 - DB^2 = (ED + DB) (ED - DB) = EB . KM;$ etc.]

9. Show that BK and HM are parallel.

10. Show that if CL, EH intersect in S, then S lies on the circumference of the circle. $[\angle CES = 90^\circ - CBL (Ex. 6) = 90^\circ - CLB (CL = CB) = LSH = CSE$; etc.]

11. Show that DS (Ex. 10) is perpendicular to EH.

12. If BK cut DH in T, then HT = HI. [KT is parallel to HM.]

13. If BM cut HD, HK. in U and V respectively, then BU = MV. [BM is parallel to GL.]

14. The rectangles BL, GM, DK are all equal.

15. If AB be produced to W, so that BW = BF, then AW. $WB = AB^*$.

16. Show that $BF^{*} - AF^{*} = AF$. FB.

17. Show that $AB^3 + AF^3 = 3BF^3$.

18. Divide in medial section a line of length 60 millimetres, and verify the accuracy of your construction by calculation from the algebraic solution, and measurement.

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PROP. 14. To describe an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base double of the third angle.



Take any line AB, and divide it by C, so that $AB \cdot BC = AC^2$. (Add. Props., 13.)

With centre A, and radius AB, describe circle PBQ. In it place chord BD = AC. Join AD.

Then \triangle ABD has each of $\angle s$ ABD, ADB double of \angle BAD.

Join CD, and about $\triangle ACD$ describe circle ACD.

Then $AB \cdot BC = AC^2 = BD^2$;

: BD touches circle ACD. (IV., 21.)

 $\therefore \angle BDC = \angle CAD$, in alt. segment.

To each add $\angle CDA$;

 $\therefore \angle ADB = \angle CAD + \angle CDA,$

 $= \angle BCD;$

and : also $\angle ABD = \angle BCD$;

 \therefore CD = BD = CA;

 $\therefore \angle CAD = \angle CDA;$

 $\therefore \angle BCD$ is double of BAD;

and \therefore each of \angle s ABD, ADB is double of \angle BAD.

Evidently $\angle BAD = \frac{1}{2}$ of $180^\circ = 36^\circ$; and $\angle 8$ ABD, ADB are each 72° .

We thus have the means of constructing, without the aid of a protractor, angles of 36°, 72°, 144°, 18°, 9°, etc.; or, as we may better express it, of taking $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{10}$, $\frac{1}{20}$, ... of a right angle.

We can also, by bisecting the angle of an equilateral triangle, take $\frac{1}{2}$, and therefore $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{12}$, ... of a right angle.

Since $\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{5} = \frac{2}{1^2 5}$, we can construct an angle which is $\frac{1^2 5}{1^2 5}$ of a right angle; and therefore angles which are $\frac{1}{1^2 5}, \frac{1}{5^2 5}, \frac{1}{5^2 5}, \dots$ of a right angle.

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We can also, without the use of a protractor, construct angles which are $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, ... of a right angle.

It has also been proved that a right angle can, by geometrical construction, be divided into any number of eqnal parts, provided such number is prime and of the form $2^{n} + 1$. This gives fractional parts, $-\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{17}$, $\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{57}$, ...

For the purposes of geometrical drawing, with its important bearing on the construction of machinery, the right angle can *approximately* be divided into any number of equal parts; and we must remember that even the straight line and circle can only approximately be constructed.

PROP. 15. To construct a regular pentagon in a circle.



Describe the $\triangle ABC$, having each of the $\angle s$ at the base double of the third angle.

In the given circle place the $\triangle DEF$, equiangular to ABC.

Bisect $\angle s$ DEF, DFE by EG, FH, meeting the circle in G and H.

Join FG, GD, DH, HE.

Then DHEFG is a regular pentagon.

For the \angle s EDF, DEG, FEG, DFH, EFH, which are marked, are all equal to one another;

: the arcs and chords EF, DG, GF, DH, HE are equal to one another, and the pentagon is equilateral.

Also are HF = arc EG; and $\therefore \angle HEF = \angle EFG$.

Similarly the other angles of the pentagon may be proved equal, and it is equiangular.

NOTE. A regular figure is one which has all its sides equal, and also all its angles equal.

Exercises.

1. What triangle in the figure of Prop. 14 has the vertical angle three times each nugle at the base?

2. Divide a olrele into two segments such that the angle in one is four times the angle in the other. What is the ratio of the lengths of the arcs of these segments?

3. In the figure of Prop. 14, show that $\angle ADR = \angle ARD = 2 \angle DAR$.

4. In the same, show that DR = BD.

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5. In the same, show that the circle ACR is equal to the circle about the triangle ABD.

6. In the same, show that CR is parallel to BD, and bisects the angle ARD.

7. If the tangent to the small olrcle at A meet DB produced in T, then BT = BA.

8. In the figure of Prop. 14, show that CR = AB.

9. In the same, show that AC, CD, DR are the sides of a regular pentagon inscribed in the small oircle.

10. Prove that the same three lines are equal to the sides of a regular decagon inscribed in the large circle.

11. In the figure of Prop. 14, prove that BR is the side of a regular pentagon inscribed in the large circle.

12. Construct an isosceles triangle, each of whose base angles is three-fourths of the vertical angle.

13. In the figure of Prop. 14, show that the centre of the arc CD is the centre of the circle about the triangle CBD.

14. How many degrees in the angle of a regular pentagon ?

15. If the alternate angles of a regular pentagon be joined, show that they form another regular pentagon.

16. In the figure of Prop. 15, if EG, FH intersect in K, prove that GKF is an isosceles triangle with angles at base double of third.

17. In the same, show that EG is divided in medial section at K.

18. In the samo, show that HINGK is a rhombus.

19. In the same, show that EF is a tangent to the circle about the triangle GKF.

20. In the same, HE, GF are tangents to the circle about the triangle HKG.

PROP. 16. To draw a common tangent to two given circles.



Let A be the centre of the smaller circle, and B the centre of the larger.

With centre **B**, and radius equal to the difference of the radii, describe a circle CC'.

From A draw the tangent AC. Join BC and produce it to D. Draw AE \parallel to BD. Join ED.

Then ED is a common tangent.

For AE, CD are = and \parallel ;

 \therefore ACDE is a $||^m$.

Also $\angle C$ is a rt. \angle ;

: other $\angle s$ of the \parallel^m are rt. $\angle s$;

: ED is tangent at both E and D.

Evidently another common taugent E'D' exists on the other side of AB.

These tangents intersect **BA** in the same point **T**, for by similar \triangle s **TA** : **TB** = **AE** : **BD** = **AE**' : **BD**', and **T**, **E**', **D**' are in the same st. line.

When the circles do not intersect, another pair of common tangents may be drawn, as shown in the following figure:



In this case, describe the eircle CC' with centre B and radins equal to the sum of the radii of the given circles. The construction and proof proceed as before, except t¹at AE, BD are on opposite sides of AB, and T falls between the circles.

In both cases T is a centre of similitude for the circles. For draw the line TKLMN (LKTMN in second figure) cutting both circles. Then, as has already been pointed out, TA is to TB as the radii.

Hence in Δs TAK, TBM,

TA:TB = AK:BM,

and the $\angle BTM$ is common;

: the \angle s TKA, TMB are either equal or supplemental (III., 8). Evidently the angles TKA, TMB arc equal; and the angles TKA, TNB are supplemental. For the angles TKA, TMB are both greater than right angles, since they fall within the triangles TEA, TDB, and therefore cannot be supplemental. Hence the angles TLA, TNB, being supplemental to the former, are less than right angles.

Hence the Δs TAK, TBM are similar; and also the Δs TAL, TBN;

$$\frac{\mathbf{TK}}{\mathbf{TM}} = \frac{\mathbf{AK}}{\mathbf{BM}},$$

a constant ratio, and T is a centre of similitude.

Also TE : TD = TL : TN; $\therefore \Delta s$ TEL, TDN are similar. And $TD^2 = TM \cdot TN$; $\therefore \frac{TM}{TD} = \frac{TD}{TN} = \frac{TE}{TL}$; and $TM \cdot TL = TD \cdot TE$, and is constant.

In Exs. 6 and 7, page 205, attention was called to the fact that if two circles intersect, the tangents to the circles from any point on the chord are equal; also, conversely, that the locus of the point from which tangents are equal is the common chord. This locus was named the Radical Axis, and it was stated that when the circles did not intersect, the locus was still a straight line. We proceed to establish this:

PROP. 17. To find the locus of the point from which tangents to two given circles are equal (Radical Axis).



Draw ED, the common tangent to the two circles. Bisect it in P. Then P is a point on the locus. Draw PN \perp r to AB, and from any point Q in the fixed line PN, draw tangents QG, QH to the circles. These tangents are equal. For

Additional Propositions.

$$QG^{2} = QA^{2} - AG^{2},$$

= AN² + QN² - AE²,
= AP² - PN² + QN² - AE²,
= AE² + EP² - PN² + QN² - AE²,
= EP² - PN² + QN².
Similarly QH² = DP² - PN² + QN²;
and EP = DP;
 \therefore QG = QH.

It may readily be shown that tangents from any point not on **PN** are not equal. For the equality of **QG**, **QH** depended on the equality of **EP**, **DP**, and for a point not on **PN**, the perpendicular to **AB** would divide **ED** into unequal segments.

If the circles do not intersect, the easiest construction for the radical axis is to describe a third circle intersecting both those given. If **KL**, **MN** be the common chords, and **O** their intersection, **O** is a point on the radical axis, and the required line is the perpendicular from **O** on the line joining the centres of the given circles.

Exercises.

1. The radical axes of three circles, takon in pairs, meet in a point.

This point is called the radical centre of the three circles.

2. The difference between the squares on the tangents drawn from any given point to two given circles, is equal to twice the rectangle contained by the distance between the centres of the circles and the perpendicular from the given point on the radical axis.

3. The point of intersection of the perpendiculars from the angles of the triangle ABC on the opposite sides (called the orthocentre) is the radical centre of the circles described on the sides of ABC as diameters.

4. If, of three circles, each touches the other two, the common tangents at the points of contact are concurrent.

PROP. 18. If the vertical angle of a triangle be bisected by a straight line which also cuts the base, the rectangle contained by the sides of the triangle is equal to the rectangle contained by the segments of the base, together with the square on the straight line which bisects the angle.



Let ABC be a \triangle , having $\angle BAC$ bisected by AD. Then BA . AC = BD . DC + AD².

Let a circle be described about $\triangle ABC$, and let AD produced meet the circumference in E.

Join CE. Then in \triangle s BAD, EAC, \angle BAD = \angle EAC; \angle ABD = \angle AEC; (IV., 6.) $\therefore \triangle$ s BAD, EAC are equiangular; and $\frac{BA}{AD} = \frac{EA}{AC}$; \therefore BA. AC = EA. AD, = (ED + DA) AD, $= ED. DA + AD^2$, $= BD. DC + AD^3$.

Additional Propositions.

PROP. 19. If from the vertical angle of a triangle a straight line be drawn perpendicular to the base, the rectangle contained by the sides of the triangle is equal to the rectangle contained by the perpendicular and the diameter of the circum-circle.



In the $\triangle ABC$, let AD be the perpendicular from A on BC, and let AE be the diameter of the circumcircle.

Then BA . AC = EA . AD. Join EC. Then in \triangle s BAD, EAC, rt. \angle ADB = rt. \angle ACE in semicircle; \angle ABD = \angle AEC; (IV., 6.) $\therefore \triangle$ s BAD, EAC are equiangular; and $\frac{BA}{AD} = \frac{EA}{AC}$; \therefore BA . AC = EA . AD.

PROP. 20. The rectangle contained by the diagonals of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle is equal to the sum of the two rectangles contained by its opposite sides.



Let ABCD be a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, and let AC, BD be its diagonals.

Then AC . $BD = AB \cdot CD + BC \cdot AD$. Make $\angle BAE = CAD$. To each of these add $\angle EAC$, and $\angle BAC = \angle EAD$. Then in As BAC, EAD, $\angle BAC = \angle EAD;$ $\angle ACB = \angle ADE$; (IV., 6.) $\therefore \triangle s BAC = EAD$ are equiangular; and $\frac{AC}{BC} = \frac{AD}{DE}$; \therefore AC . DE = BC . AD. Again in As BAE, CAD, $\angle BAE = \angle CAD$; (IV., 6.) $\angle ABE = \angle ACD;$ $\therefore \bigtriangleup s$ BAE, CAD are equiangular; and $\frac{AC}{CD} = \frac{AB}{BE}$;

$\therefore AC \cdot BE = AB \cdot CD.$ But AC \cdot DE = BC \cdot AD; $\therefore AC (BE + DE) = AB \cdot CD + BC \cdot AD;$ or AC \cdot BD = AB \cdot CD + BC \cdot AD.

Exercises.

1. If AD bisect the angle BAC of a triangle ABC, and meet BC in D, then $(BA + BD) (CA - CD) = AD^2 = (BA - BD) (CA + CD)$.

2. Construct a triangle having given the base, the vertical angle and the rectangle contained by the sides.

3. The exterior angle at A, of a triangle ABC, is bisected by AD', meeting the base in D'. Show that BA . AC = BD'. D'C - AD'². [Let D'A meet the circum-circle in E. Then Δs BAD', EAC are similar.]

4. If the diagonals of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle be at right angles, the sum of the rectangles contained by opposite sides is equal to twice the area of the quadrilateral.

5. A circle is described about an equilateral triangle, and from any point on the circumference straight lines are drawn to the angular pointe of the triangle; show that one of these lines is equal to the sum of the other two.

6. If a quadrilateral be inscribed in a circle, and perpendiculars be dropped from any point on the circumference to opposite sides, and also to diagonals, the product of the perpendiculars to the opposite sides is equal to the product of the perpendiculars to the diagonals.

7. ABC is an isosceles triangle, and on the base BC, or base produced, a point D is taken; show that the circles about the triangles ABD, ACD are equal.

If the triangle ABC be not isosceles, show that the diameters of the circles about the triangles ABD, ACD are as the sides AB, AC.

8. The rectangle contained by the diagonals of a quadrilateral is less than the sum of the rectangles contained by its opposite sides, unless a circle can be circumscribed about the quadrilateral. [ABCD the quadl. At A and B make \angle s BAE, ABE equal to \angle s CAD, ACD. Then \triangle s ABE, ACD are equiangular; and also \triangle s ABC, AED. Whence AB, CD+BC. AD=AC (BE+ED). In a cyclic quadrilateral E will fall on BD, since \angle s ABD, ACD are equal.]

9. AD, DC are equal arcs of a circle, and B is a movable point on the circumference. Show that if B does not lie on the arc ADC, the sum of the lines BA, BC bears to BD a fixed ratio; and if B lies on the arc ADC, the difference of the lines BA, BC bears to BD a fixed ratio.

10. If a, b, c be the sides of the triangle ABC and R the radius of the circum-circle, show that

$$R = \frac{abc}{4 \text{ area of } \Delta}.$$

 $[R = \frac{bc}{2 \text{ perp. on BC}} = \frac{abc}{2ap} = \text{etc.}]$

11. The quadrilateral ABCD is bisected by the diagonal BD, and AB. AD=CB. CD. Show that the angles at A and C are either equal or supplemental.

12. ABCD is a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, and is bisected by BD; show that AD. 'AB=CB. CD.

Note on Inscribed and Escribed Circles-Metrical Relations.

Let ABC be a triangle, and D, E, F the points where the inscribed circle touches the sides BC, CA, AB. Let the circle escribed to the side BC touch these sides in G, H and K, respectively. Represent the sides by a, b, c. Then AE = AF, etc.; also CG = CH, etc.; and

 $AE = AF = \frac{1}{2} (AE + AF) = \frac{1}{2} (a + b + c - 2BD - 2CD) = \frac{1}{2} (a + b + c - 2BD - 2CD) = \frac{1}{2} (a + b + c - 2a) = \frac{1}{2} (b + c - a).$ Similarly, $BD = BF = \frac{1}{2} (a - b + c)$; $CD = CE = \frac{1}{2} (a + b + c)$; b - c.

Again, $AH = AK = \frac{1}{4}(AH + AK) = \frac{1}{2}(AC + CG + AB + BG) = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + c)$. The symmetry of this result shows that the distance from each angle of the triangle to the points of contact (on the sides containing that angle) of the circle escribed to the opposite side is the same.

Also, $CG = CH = AH - AC = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + c) - b = \frac{1}{2}(a - b + c)$. Similarly, BG = BK = $\frac{1}{2}(a + b - c)$.

Hence, $CD = \frac{1}{2}(a+b-c) = BG$; and CG = BD.

 $DG = CD - CG = \frac{1}{2}(a + b - c) - \frac{1}{2}(a - b + c) = b - c.$

If L be the point where the circle escribed to AC touches BC, $CL = \frac{1}{2}(a+b+c) - a = \frac{1}{2}(b+c-a)$. \therefore $GL = CG + CL = \frac{1}{2}(a-b+c) + \frac{1}{2}(b+c-a) = c$.

PROP. 21. If three concurrent straight lines be drawn from the angular points of a triangle to meet the opposite sides, then the product of three alternate segments, taken in order, is equal to the product of the other three segments (THEOREM OF CEVA).



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Let AD, BE, CF be drawn from the angular points of a Δ through the point O, and cut the opposite sides in D, E, F.

> Then BD. CE. AF = DC. EA. FB. For $\frac{BD}{DC} = \frac{\triangle ABD}{\triangle ACD}$; also $\frac{BD}{DC} = \frac{\triangle OBD}{\triangle OCD}$; $\frac{BD}{DC} = \frac{\triangle AOB}{\triangle COA}$. Similarly $\frac{CE}{EA} = \frac{\triangle BOC}{\triangle AOB}$; and $\frac{AF}{FB} = \frac{\triangle COA}{\triangle BOC}$. Multiplying these ratios. BD. CE. AF = DC. EA. FB.

The converse of this theorem may be stated thus,— If three straight lines, drawn from the angular points of a triangle, cut the opposite sides so that the product of three alternate segments,

taken in order, is equal to the product of the other three, then the three straight lines pass through the same point.

It may readily be proved indirectly.

DEFINITION. A straight line which cuts a given system of lines is called a transversal.

PROP. 22. If a transversal be drawn to cut the sides, or the sides produced, of a triangle, the product of three alternate segments, taken in order, is equal to the product of the other three segments. (THEOREM OF MENELAUS.)



Let the straight line DEF cut the sides BC, CA, AB, of the \triangle ABC in D, E, F, respectively. Then BD.CE.AF = DC.EA.FB. Through A draw AN || to DEF, cutting BC in N. Then by similar \triangle s, BD ND BF \overrightarrow{AF} ; also $\overrightarrow{DC} = \overrightarrow{DC} = \overrightarrow{AF}$; \therefore multiplying $\overrightarrow{BF} \cdot \overrightarrow{DC} = \overrightarrow{AF}$; or BD.CE.AF = DC.EA.FB

The converse of this theorem may be stated thus,— If three points be taken in two sides of a triangle and the third side produced, or in all three sides produced, and if the product of three alternate segments, taken in order, be equal to the product of the other three segments, the three points are in the same straight line.

It may readily be proved indirectly.

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Exercises.

1. If O be the orthocentre of the triangle ABC, it is also the radical centre of the circles described on OA, OB, OC as diameters.

2. The locus of a point which moves so that the difference of the squares on the tangents from it to two circles is constant, is a straight liae parallel to the radical axis of the two circles.

3. If D, E, F be the middle points of the sides BC, CA, AB of the triangle ABC, show that AD, BE, CF are concurrent. (Theorem of Ceva.)

4. Show that the bisectors of the three angles of a triangle meet ia a point.

5. Prove that the bisectors of two of the exterior angles of a triangle and of the remaining interior angle meet in a point.

6. The circle inscribed in the triangle ABC touches the sides BC, CA, AB in the points D, E and F, respectively. Show that AD, BE, CF are concurrent.

7. The three escribed circles of the triangle ABC touch the sides BC, CA, AB in the points D, F, F, respectively. Show that AD, BE, CF pass through a point.

8. In the triangle ABC, the lines AO, BO, CO meet the sides BC, CA, AB respectively in D, E, F; and the circle above DEF ents the sides BC, CA, AB again in K, L, M, respectively. Show that AK, BL, CM are concurrent.

9. The circle inscribed in the triangle ABC touches the sides BC, CA, AB in D, E, F, respectively; and EF, FD, DE cut BC, CA, AB in K, L, M, respectively. Show that K, L, M are in the same straight line. (Theorem of Menclaus.) $\left(\frac{AF \cdot BK \cdot CE}{FB \cdot KC \cdot EA} = 1, \text{etc.}\right)$

Harmonic Ranges and Pencils.

When a number of points are collinear, i.e., lie on the same straight line, they are said to form a range.

When a number of lines are concurrent, i.e., pass through the same point. they are said to form a pencil of rays, or a pencil.

If the straight line AB be divided internally in P and externally in Q, in the same ratio, so that



 $\frac{\mathbf{AP}}{\mathbf{PB}} = \frac{\mathbf{AQ}}{\mathbf{QB}},$

then A, P, B, Q form a harmonic range.

If O be an external point, the pencil OA, OP, OB, OQ, being concurrent lines through the points of a harmonic range, form a harmonic pencil.

Evidently,

AP. BQ = AQ. PB, and
$$\frac{AP}{AQ} \cdot \frac{BQ}{PB} = 1$$
,

forms in which the relation between the segments is often stated.

Since
$$\frac{PB}{AP} = \frac{QB}{AQ}$$
;



Hence $\frac{1}{AP}$, $\frac{1}{AE}$, $\frac{1}{AQ}$ are in Arithmetic Progression, and therefore AP, AF AQ are m, around Progression.

AB is said to be divided harmonically at P and Q; and P, Q are said to be the harmonic conjugates of A, B.

Since the relation $\frac{AP}{PB} = \frac{AQ}{QB}$ gives at once $\frac{PA}{AQ} = \frac{PB}{BQ}$, therefore PQ is divided harmonically at A and B; and A, B are the harmonic conjugates of P, Q.

PROP. 23. To divide a given struight line internally and externally so that the segments may be in a given ratio, i.e., to divide a given straight line harmonically.

Let **AB** be the given straight line, and a': b the given ratio.

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Through A and B draw two parallel lines AX, BY having the ratio a : b; and produce YB to Y' making BY' = BY.

Join XY, XY', cutting AB in P and Q.



Hence $\frac{AP}{PB} = \frac{AQ}{QB}$, and AB is divided harmonically.

If three collinear points, A, P, B, be given, then taking AX = AP and BY = BY' = PB, and constructing as in the proposition, a fourth point Q is found such that A, P, B, Q form, a harmonic range.

It is important to observe that the solution is singular, *i.e.*, given three points A, P, B, in a straight line, only one point Q exists such that A, P, B, Qform a harmonic range.

Observe also that if $\frac{a}{b}$, the ratio of the segments, be infinite, **P** and **Q** coincide at **B**. As $\frac{a}{b}$ decreases, **P** and **Q** move in contrary directions from **B**, until, when $\frac{a}{b} = 1$, **P** becomes the middle point of **AB**, and **Q** is at infinity. When $\frac{a}{b}$ becomes less than 1, **Q** ap-

pears again on the left of A; and as $\frac{a}{b}$ decreases, P and Q move towards A, nutil when $\frac{a}{b} = 0$, they coincide with A. Thus as the ratio changes, P and Q always move in contrary directions; and as P moves from B to A, Q moves from B to the right to infinity, reappears from infinity at the left of A, and then moves up to A.

PROP. 24. If A, B, C, D be a harmonic range, and therefore OA, OB, OC, OD a harmonic pencil; and if a line through C, parallel to OA, meet OB, OD in X and Y, respectively; then CX = CY.



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For $\frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{AD}{DC}$; but $\frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{AO}{CX}$, from similar $\triangle s$ BAO, BCX; also $\frac{AD}{DC} = \frac{AO}{CY}$, from similar $\triangle s$ DAO, DCY; $\therefore CX = CY$.

The construction for the harmonic division of a line (Prop. 23) would have suggested the truth of the preceding, since XA, XP, XB, XQ form a harmonic pencil.

PROP. 25. If A, B, C, D be a harmonic range, and therefore OA, OB, OC, OD a harmonic pencil; and if another transversal cut the pencil in A', B', C', D', then A', B', C', D' form a harmonic range.



Through C and C' draw XCY, X'C'Y', parallel to OA. Then since CX = CY (Prop. 24), therefore C'X' = C'Y'.

Also
$$\frac{A'B'}{B'C'} = \frac{A'O}{C'X'}$$
; (sim. $\triangle s \ B'A'O, \ B'C'X'.$)
and $\frac{A'D'}{D'C'} = \frac{A'O}{C'Y'}$, (sim. $\triangle s \ OA'D', \ Y'C'D'.$)
 $= \frac{A'O}{C'X'}$;
 $\therefore \frac{A'B'}{B'C'} = \frac{A'D'}{D'C'}$, and A', B', C', D' form a har-

monic range.

Hence if we start with the harmonic range A, B, C, D, then OA, OB, OC, OD form a harmonic pencil; and therefore A', B', C', D' form a harmonic range; and therefore



O'A', O'B', O'C', O'D' form a harmonic pencil; and therefore A'', B'', C'', D'' form a harmonic range; and so on. Thus we may proceed from a harmonic range to a harmonic pencil, thence to a harmonic range, and so on indefinitely, by constructing pencils and drawing transversals, alternately.

The Complete Quadrilateral.

In Modern Geometry it is usual to think of the straight line as indefinitely extended both ways.

If we introduce this notion in connection with the triangle, it becomes a system of three infinite straight lines with their three points of intersection. Usually, in this generalized conception of the triangle, the lengths of the intercepted segments (the so-called sides of the triangle) and the area contained by them become of minor importance, or are not taken account of.

In like manner a quadrilateral becomes a system of four infinite straight lines, with their six points of intersection, since the four lines, taken two and two, meet in six points. Hence we have the following:

DEFINITION. A system of four infinite straight lines, with their six points of intersection, is called a COMPLETE QUADRILATERAL.

The four lines are called the **sides** of the quadrilateral. The six points of intersection are called the **vertices**.



Thus AB, BC, CD, DA are the sides; and A, B, C, D, E, F are the vertices.

Two vertices which do not lie on the same side are called opposite vertices.

Thus **B** and **F** lie on the same side with **A**; so also do **D** and **E**; **C**, however, does not; hence **C** is the vertex opposite to **A**. In like manner **B** and **D** are opposite vertices; so also are **E** and **F**.

We may also consider the opposite vertices as the intersections of the pairs of sides in which, in three different ways, the sides may be arranged. Thus if **AB**, **BC** be a pair, **CD**, **DA** form the other pair, and **B**, **D** are opposite vertices. In like manner **AB**, **CD** and **BC**, **DA** give **F** and **E**; and **AB**, **DA** and **BC**, **CD** give **A** and **C**.

Again, if we take the sides in a particular order, in each case returning to the point from which we start, the opposite vertices are seen to be alternate points of intersection. Thus if the order be AE, EC, CF, FA, then E and F are alternate points of intersection, and also C and A; if the order be DE, EB, BF, FD, then E and F are alternate points of intersection, and also B and D; and if the order be AD, DC, CB, BA, then D and B are alternate points of intersection, and also C and A. The "opposite vertices" of the complete quadrilateral are thus seen to be a generalization of the "opposite angles" of the ordinary quadrilateral.

The three straight lines joining opposite vertices are called **diagonal lines**, or **diagonals**. The triangle formed by these diagonal lines is called the **diagonal triangle** of the complete quadrilateral.

Thus AC, BD, EF are the diagonals; and PQR is the diagonal triangle.

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PROP. 26. Opposite vertices of a complete quadrilateral, with the points in which the diagonal through them is cut by the two other diagonals, form a harmonic range.



Consider the triangle EAF. Then since EB, AQ, FD pass through the point C, therefore

 $\frac{ED \cdot AB \cdot FQ}{DA \cdot BF \cdot QE} = 1.$ (Thm. of Ceva.)

Also since DBR cuts the sides of the triangle EAF, therefore

 $\frac{ED.AB.FR}{DA.BF.RE} = 1.$ (Thm. of Menclaus.)

Hence $\frac{FQ}{QE} = \frac{FR}{RE}$, and R, F, Q, E form a harmonic range.

Therefore AR, AF, AQ, AE form a harmonic pencil, and (Prop. 25) R, B, P, D form a harmonic range.

Therefore ER, EB, EP, ED form a harmonic pencil, and (Prop. 25) Q, C, P, A form a harmonic range.

The Proposition is sometimes stated thus: Each of the three diagonals of a complete quadrilateral is divided harmonically by the two other diagonals.

The student may verify the following rule for the demonstration of the property in the case of a given diagonal:

Take the given diagonal and any two sides of the quadrilateral which do not intersect on this diagonal, to form the triangle required by the theorems of Ceva and Menelaus. Then the point in which the other two sides intersect is the point (Thun. of Ceva), and the other diagonal not through the intersection of the two sides first taken is the cutting line (Thm. of Menelans).

The Proposition cnables us, having given three points in a straight line, to find a fourth point, such that the four form a harmonic range, a straight ruler only being used in the construction, and no measurements being made.



Thus let A, B, C be the three given points. Through A draw any two lines AE, AF; and through B draw any line cutting the former in E and F. Let CE cut AF in H, and CF cut AE in G. Then HG in-

tersects AC in a point D, such that A, B, C, D form a harmonic range. For the quadrilateral EGFH has the diagonal AC intersected by the other diagonals in B and D.

With a view of familiarizing himself with this pro- ρ ty, the student is advised to make several constructions for the point **D**, corresponding to three given points, **A**, **B**, and **C**, the lines **AE**, **AF**, **BEF** being taken in different positions. Great care will be found necessary in locating the points of intersection, **E**, **F**, **G**, **H**, that the same point **D**^t may always be reached.

Given also the points C, D, A, construct for B.

Also vary the position of **B** between **A** and **C**, and note the changes in the position of **D**.

PROP. 27. If A, B, C, D be a harmonic range, and P be a point outside the line AD such that PA: PC=AB: BC=AD: DC, then the locus of P is a circle on BD as diameter.



Since $PA : PC = AB : BC, \therefore PB$ bisects $\angle APC$.

Since PA : PC = AD : DC, \therefore PD bisects $\angle EPC$.

Hence $\angle BPD$ is a rt. \angle , and the locus of **p** is a circle on **BD** as diameter.

Exercises,

1. If A, P, B, Q be a harmonic range, and O be the middlo point of AB, then $OA^* = OP$. OQ. [AP. BQ = AQ. PB; \therefore (AO + OP) (OQ - OA) = (AO + OQ) (OA - OP); etc.]

2. Similarly, if O' be the middlo point of PQ, then $O'P^{a} = O'A \cdot O'B$.

3. Conversely, if $OA^2 = OP$, OQ, O not heing between P and Q, then A, P, B, Q form a harmenic range. $[OA^2 = OP \cdot OQ;$ $\therefore \frac{1}{4}(AP + PB)^3 = \frac{1}{2}(AP - PB) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(AQ + BQ); \therefore (AP + PB)(AQ - BQ) = (AP - PB)(AQ + BQ);$ etc.]

4. In the figure of Prop. 27, show that the line joining the points of contact of tangents from A to the circle, passes through C.

5. Three points A, B, C being in the same straight line, find two points equidistant from C which divide the segment AB harmonically.

6. Find twe points P and Q that are harmonic conjugates with respect to A and B, and also with respect to another pair of points, C and D. [Through A and B describe a circle, and doscribe another circle through C and D. If O be the point where their radical axis cuts AD, then OA. OB=OC. OD; etc. Note that C and D must not separate A and B; *i.e.*, the order of letters on the line must be A, B, C, D or A, C, D, B, not A, C, B, D. Note also that in the order A, C, D, B, the letters B and A are not separated, circular order being ebserved.]

7. If in a harmonic pencil the second ray bisect the angle between the first and third, then the fourth ray is at right angles to the second. Prove also the converse,—that if one pair of rays form a right angle, then they bisect internally and externally the angle between the ethers.

8. If straight lines be drawn through the intersection of the diagonals of a parallelogram parallel to the sides, they form with the diagonals a harmonic pencil. [Prop. 24.]

9. O, A, B, C and O, a, b, c are harmonic ranges on intersecting lines with the point O common. Show that the lines Aa, Bb, Cc, joining corresponding points are concurrent. Shew also that Ca, Ac. Bb pass through a point. [Let Ca, Ac intersect in X; then XO, XA, XB, XC form a harmonic pencil; hence when BX is produced to cut Oc we get on Oc a harmonic range.]

10. If two harmonic ranges are such that the straight lines joining three pairs of corresponding points pass through the same point, the line joining the fourth pair passes through the same point.

11. If two harmonic pencils are such that the intersections of three pairs of corresponding rays are on a straight line, the intersection of the fourth pair is on the same straight line.

12. P, Q, R are collinear points on the sides BC, CA, AB of the triangle ABC, and P', Q', R' are their harmonic conjugntes with respect to these sides. Show that AI^{ν} , BQ', CR' are concurrent. [In quadrilateral QRBC diag. CR is divided harmonically hy diagonals BQ, AP in, say, X and Y. Then AP' passes through X, and BQ' through Y. Also CB, CR, CA, CR' form a harmonic pencil; and therefore P', X, A, T form a harmonic range, if AP', CR' intersect in T. Again BI^{ν}, BX, BR, BY form a harmonic pencil; and therefore P', X, A, T' form a harmonic range if AP', BQ' intersect in T'; etc.]

13. ABC is a triangle, and the lines AX, BY, CZ, to the opposite sides, pass through a point. Show that if YZ meet BC in X', then X', B, X, C form a harmonio range. [Note diagonals of quadrilateral YZBC.]

14. If a circle touch the sides BC, CA, AB of a triangle in P, Q, R respectively, and QR meet BC produced in P', then P, P' are harmonic conjugates with respect to B, C.

15. If OA, OB, OC, OD form a harmonic pencil, and OA be produced backwards to A', show that OB, OC, OD, OA' form a harmonic pencil. Hence if the lines OB, OC, OD be likewise produced backwards, any transversal in the plane is cut harmonically by these lines.

16. When four points A, B, C, D, on a circle determine a harmonio pencil at any fifth point P on the circle, then if the point P move along the circumference, the lines PA, PB, PC, PD continue to form a harmonic pencil.

When P coincides with one of the four fixed points, what line forms the fourth rny of the pencil?

17. In the preceding exercise, if tangents be drawn at A, B, C, D, their intersections with the tangent at P form a harmonic range.

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[Lines from centre to points of intersection make same angles with one another that PA, PB, PC, PD do.]

18. When four fixed tangents to o circle form by their intersections with o fifth o harmonic range, these four tangents determine a harmooio range on any tangent to the circle.

When the fifth tangent becomes one of the four, what four points form the range?

19. If two circles cut orthogonally, and AB, PQ he their diameters which are in the same straight line, then A, P, B, Q form a harmonic range. [Ex. 3.]

Poles and Polars.

The **Polar** of any point **P** with respect to a circle is the locus of the intersection of tangents drawn at the ends of any chord which passes through **P**.

The point **P** is called the **Pole** of the locus. It may be either within or without the circle; if it be on the circumference, the locus is evidently the tangent at **P**.

PROP. 28. To find the polar of any given point P.



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Let O be the centre of the circle. Through P draw any straight line cutting the circle in A and B. Let the tangents at A and B intersect in T. From T draw a perpendicular TN on OP, or OP produced.



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Join OT entting AB in M. Then BM is perpendicular to OT. Hence, OBT being a right-angled triangle, and BM being the perpendicular on the hypotenuse, CM. $OT = OB^2$. (Bk. III., 12, Cor. 1.)

Again, the angles at **M** and **N** being right angles, a eircle may be described to pass through the points **P**, **M**, **T**, **N**. Therefore

$OP \cdot ON = OM \cdot OT = OB^2 = (radius)^2$.

But the radius is constant, and **OP** is constant; therefore **ON** is constant.

Hence as AB, the chord through P, takes different positions, and in consequence the position of T varies, N, the foot of the perpendicular from T on OP, remains fixed. Therefore the locus of T, *i.e.*, the polar of P, is a straight line TN perpendicular to OP and passing through the fixed point N, which is determined by the relation OP.ON = (radius)².

Hence having given the pole **P**, to construct the polar,—(1) if **P** be within the circle, draw a chord through **P**, perpendicular to **OP**, and at its end draw a tangent meeting **OP** in **N**: the line through **N**, perpendicular to **OP** is the polar; (2) if **P** be without the circle, draw a tangent from **P**: the line through the point of contact, perpendicular to **OP**, is the polar. These constructions suggest the method of constructing for the pole, when the polar is given.

It will be noted that when the pole is within the eircle, the polar does not eut the circle; and when the pole is without the eircle, the polar cuts the circle.

The polar of **P** may conveniently be denoted by enclosing **P** in brackets,—(**P**).

Since the polar is at right angles to the line joining the centre to the pole, therefore the angle sub-

Additional Propositions. 273

tended at the centre by any two points \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} is equal to one of the angles which the polars of \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{Q} make with one another.

PROP. 29. If Q lie on the polar of P, then P must lie on the polar of Q.



Let (P) be polar of P, and let Q be any point on (P). Then the polar of Q passes through P.

Join OQ, and draw PM perpendicular to OQ. Then the angles at M and N being right angles, a circle may be described to pass through the points P, M, Q, N.

Therefore $OQ \cdot OM = OP \cdot ON = (radius)^2$.

Hence **PM** is the polar of **Q**, and **P** lies on the polar of **Q**.

PROP. 30. A chord of a circle is divided harmonically by any point on it and the polar of that point.

Let AB be any chord of the circle through P; and let (P) be the polar of P, cutting AB in Q.

Then AB is divided harmonically in P and O.

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Let the tangents at A and B intersect on (P) at T; and let N be the intersection of OP with (P).

Since the angles OAT, OBT, ONT are right angles, the circle described on OT as diameter passes through A, B, O, T, N.



Also because TA = TB, therefore the angles TNB, TNA are supplemental in Fig. 1, and equal in Fig. 2.

Hence in Fig. 1, NT bisects the exterior angle of the triangle ANB, and the interior angle in Fig. 2; and therefore NP, which is perpendicular to NT, bisects the interior angle in the former case, and the exterior in the latter, and AB is divided harmonically in P and Q.

Exercises.

1. The straight line which joins two points P and Q is the polar of the intersection of the polars of P and Q. [For any line through P has its pole on (P), and any line through Q has its pole on (Q); therefore the pole of a line through both P and Q must be the intersection of (P) and (Q).]

2. The point of intersection of any two straight lines is the pole of the straight line joining their poles.

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ADDITIONAL PROPOSITIONS.

3. What is the locus of the poles of all straight lines which pass through a given point?

4. If four points form a harmonic range, their polars with respect to any circle form a harmonic pencil. [For the polars all pass through the pole of the line on which the range lies; and the straight lines joining the four points to the centre are inclined at the same aagles as the polars of the points.] Prove converse.

5. If AB bo nuy chord of a circle, and P, Q be harmonic conjugates with respect to A, B, then the polar of P passes through Q, and the polar of Q passes through P. [Follows at once from Prop. 30.]

The triangle PQR, each of whose sides is the polar of the opposite vertex, is said to be self-conjugate with respect to the circle.

7. Employ the preceding to draw tangents to a circle from a given point, using a ruler only, the centre of the circle not being known.

f

;

S

r

P

is

or

Q

is

8. P, Q are any two points in the plane of a circle whose centre is C. PX is the perpendicular on the polar of Q, and QY the perpendicular on the polar of P. Show that PC. $QY = QC \cdot PX$. [If PX, QY meet in R, then PCQR is a parallelogram. Draw perpendiculars CA, RB on PX, PC. Then PA · PR = PB · PC. Also CQ · CN = CP · CM, if CQ intersect (Q) in N, and CP intersect (P) in M; etc.]

9. If two circles cut orthogonally, and AB be any diameter of one of them, the polar of A with respect to the other circle passes through B.

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GEOMETRY.

PROP. 31. To find a point on a given straight line, the sum of whose distances from two given points is the least possible.

1. If the points be on opposite sides of the given line, the point required is evidently the intersection of the given line with the straight line joining the points.

2. Let the points be on the same side of the given line.



Let A, B be the two given points, and CD the given line. From either of the points, say A, draw AE \perp r to CD. Produce AE to F, making EF=AE.

Join BF, eutting CD in P. Join AP.

Then AP + PB is less than the sum of any other lines drawn from A and B to a point on CD.

Let Q be any other point on CD.

Then points on CD are equidistant from A and F;

 $\therefore AQ + BQ = FQ + BQ;$ >FB, >FP + PB, >AP + PB;

i.e., AP + PB is a minimum.

It will be noted that when AP + PB is a minimum, AP and BP make equal angles with CD.

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Additional Propositions.

Exercises,

1. Of all triangles on a given base at 1 of given area, the isosceles triangle has the least perimeter.

2. Of all triangles on a given base and of given perimeter, the isosceles triangle has the greatest area.

3. If the perimeter of a triangle be given, the area is greatest when the triangle is equilateral.

4. Two points A and B are on opposite sides of a line CD. Find a point P in CD, such that the difference between PA and PB may be a maximum. (CD bisects the angle APB.)

5. ABCD is an irregular quadrilateral. Show that, with the same perimeter and same diagonal BD, it is increased in area by converting it into a quadrilateral A'B'C'D, with A'B = A'D and C'B = C'D.

6. Show that the quadrilateral of the preceding exercise, A'B C'D, with the same perimeter and the same diagonal A'C', is increased in area by converting it into a rhombus A'B'C'D'.

7. Of all quadrilaterals with given perimeter, the square has the greatest area.

8. In exercise 4, if the points A and B are on the same side of CD, find P in CD, such that the difference between PA and PB may be a maximum.

9. Given the base and vertical angle of a triangle, show that its area is a maximum when the tangent to the circum-circle at the vertex is parallel to the base.

3

P

10. Of all triangles inscribed in the same circle, the equilateral has the greatest area.

11. From the angles A, B, C, of a triangle ABC, perpendiculars AD, BE, CF are drawn to the opposite sides; show that the triangle DEF has the least perimeter of all triangles with angular points resting on the sides of ABC.

12. Of all quadrilaterals inscribed in a given circle, the square has the greatest area.

13. Of all quadrilaterals inscribed in a given circle, the square has the greatest perimeter. (Use Exercise 14, page 172.)

14. AB, AC are two intersecting lines, and D is a point between them. EDF is drawn terminated by AB and AC. Show that the area of the triangle AEF is a maximum when EF is bisected at D.















