Euclidean Geometry

The methods and structures of modern mathematics were established first by the ancient Greeks in their studies of geometry and arithmetic. It was they who realised that mathematics must proceed by rigorous proof and argument, that all definitions must be stated with absolute precision, and that any hidden assumptions, called axioms, must be brought out into the open and examined. Their work is extraordinary for their determination to prove details that may seem common sense to the layman, and for their ability to ask the most important questions about the subjects they investigated. Many Greeks, like the mathematician Pythagoras and the philosopher Plato, spoke of mathematics in mystical terms as the highest form of knowledge, and they called their results theorems — the Greek word theorem means 'a thing to be gazed upon' or 'a thing contemplated by the mind', from $\theta \varepsilon \omega \rho \varepsilon \omega$ 'behold' (our word theatre comes from the same root).

Of all the Greek books, Euclid's *Elements* has been the most influential, and was still used as a textbook in nineteenth-century schools. Euclid constructs a large body of theory in geometry and arithmetic beginning from almost nothing — he writes down a handful of initial assumptions and definitions that mostly seem trivial, such as 'Things that are each equal to the same thing are equal to one another'. As is common in Greek mathematics, Euclid introduces geometry first, and then develops arithmetic ideas from it. For example, the product of two numbers is usually understood as the area of a rectangle. Such intertwining of arithmetic and geometry is still characteristic of the most modern mathematics, and has been evident in our treatment of the calculus, which has drawn its intuitions equally from algebraic formulae and from the geometry of curves, tangents and areas.

Geometry done using the methods established in Euclid's book is called Euclidean geometry. We have assumed throughout this text that students were familiar from earlier years with the basic methods and results of Euclidean geometry, and we have used these geometric results freely in arguments. This chapter and the next will now review Euclidean geometry from its beginnings and develop it a little further. Our foundations can unfortunately be nothing like as rigorous as Euclid's. For example, we shall assume the four standard congruence tests rather than proving them, and our second theorem is his thirty-second. Nevertheless, the arguments used here are close to those of Euclid, and are strikingly different from those we have used in calculus and algebra. The whole topic is intended to provide a quite different insight into the nature of mathematics.

Constructions with straight edge and compasses are central to Euclid's arguments, and we have therefore included a number of construction problems in an unsystematic fashion. They need to be proven, and they need to be drawn. Their importance lies not in any practical use, but in their logic. For example, three

famous constructions unsolved by the Greeks — the trisection of a given angle, the squaring of a given circle (essentially the construction of π) and the doubling in volume of a given cube (essentially the construction of $\sqrt[3]{2}$) — were an inspiration to mathematicians of the nineteenth century grappling with the problem of defining the real numbers by non-geometric methods. All three constructions were eventually proven to be impossible.

STUDY NOTES: Most of this material will have been covered in Years 9 and 10, but perhaps not in the systematic fashion developed here. Attention should therefore be on careful exposition of the logic of the proofs, on the logical sequence established by the chain of theorems, and on the harder problems. The only entirely new work is in the final Section 8I on intercepts.

Many of the theorems are only stated in the notes, with their proofs left to structured questions in the following exercise. All such questions have been placed at the start of the Development section, even through they may be more difficult than succeeding problems, and are marked 'Course theorem' — working through these proofs is an essential part of the course.

There are many possible orders in which the theorems of this course could have been developed, but the order given here is that established by the Syllabus. All theorems marked as course theorems may be used in later questions, except where the intention of the question is to provide a proof of the theorem. Students should note carefully that the large number of further theorems proven in the exercises cannot be used in subsequent questions.

8 A Points, Lines, Parallels and Angles

The elementary objects of geometry are points, lines and planes. Rigorous definitions of these things are possible, but very difficult. Our approach, therefore, will be the same as our approach to the real numbers — we shall describe some of their properties and list some of the assumptions we shall need to make about them.

Points, Lines and Planes: These simple descriptions should be sufficient.

POINTS: A *point* can be described as having a position but no size. The mark opposite has a definite width, and so is not a point, but it represents a point in our imagination.

LINES: A *line* has no breadth, but extends infinitely in both directions. The drawing opposite has width and has ends, but it represents a line in our imagination.

PLANES: A plane has no thickness, and it extends infinitely in all directions. Almost all our work is two-dimensional, and takes place entirely in a fixed plane.

Points and Lines in a Plane: Here are some of the assumptions that we shall be making about the relationships between points and lines in a plane.

 $P = \ell$

POINT AND LINE: Given a point P and a line ℓ , the point P may or may not lie on the line ℓ .

A B

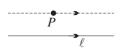
TWO POINTS: Two distinct points A and B lie on one and only one line, which can be named AB or BA.



Two lines: Given two distinct lines ℓ and min a plane, either the lines intersect in a single point, or the lines have no point in common and are called parallel lines, written as $\ell \parallel m$.

THREE PARALLEL LINES: If two lines are each parallel to a third line, then they are parallel to each other.

THE PARALLEL LINE THROUGH A GIVEN POINT: Given a line ℓ and a point P not on ℓ , there is one and only one line through P parallel to ℓ .



Collinear Points and Concurrent Lines: A third point may or may not lie on the line determined by two other points. Similarly, a third line may or may not pass through the point of intersection of two other lines.



Collinear points: Three or more distinct points are called collinear if they all lie on a single line.



Concurrent lines: Three or more distinct lines are called concurrent if they all pass through a single point.

Intervals and Rays: These definitions rely on the idea that a point on a line divides the rest of the line into two parts. Let A and B be two distinct points on a line ℓ .



The ray AB consists of

the endpoint A together

with B and all the other

points of ℓ on the same

side of A as B is.

RAYS:

Opposite ray:

The ray that starts at this same endpoint A, but goes in the opposite direction, is called the opposite ray.



INTERVALS:

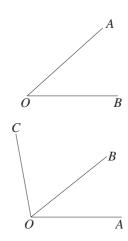
The interval AB consists of all the points lying on ℓ between A and B, including these two endpoints.

LENGTHS OF INTERVALS: We shall assume that intervals can be measured, and their lengths compared and added and subtracted with compasses.

Angles: We need to distinguish between an angle and the size of an angle.

Angles: An angle consists of two rays with a common endpoint. The two rays OA and OB in the diagram form an angle named either $\angle AOB$ or $\angle BOA$. The common endpoint O is called the vertex of the angle, and the rays OAand OB are called the arms of the angle.

Adjacent angles: Two angles are called adjacent angles if they have a common vertex and a common arm. In the diagram opposite, $\angle AOB$ and $\angle BOC$ are adjacent angles with common vertex O and common arm OB. Also, the overlapping angles $\angle AOC$ and $\angle AOB$ are adjacent angles, having common vertex O and common arm OA.

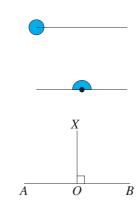


MEASURING ANGLES: The size of an angle is the amount of turning as one arm is rotated about the vertex onto the other arm. The units of degrees are based on the ancient Babylonian system of dividing the revolution into 360 equal parts — there are about 360 days in a year, and so the sun moves about 1° against the fixed stars every day. The measurement of angles is based on the obvious assumption that the sizes of adjacent angles can be added and subtracted.

REVOLUTIONS: A revolution is the angle formed by rotating a ray about its endpoint once until it comes back onto itself. A revolution is defined to measure 360° .

STRAIGHT ANGLES: A straight angle is the angle formed by a ray and its opposite ray. A straight angle is half a revolution, and so measures 180° .

RIGHT ANGLES: Suppose that AOB is a line, and OX is a ray such that $\angle XOA$ is equal to $\angle XOB$. Then $\angle XOA$ is called a *right angle*. A right angle is half a straight angle, and so measures 90° .





ACUTE ANGLES:

An acute angle is an angle greater than 0° and less than a right angle.



OBTUSE ANGLES:

An obtuse angle is an angle greater than a right angle and less than a straight angle.



Reflex angles:

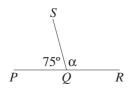
A reflex angle is an angle greater than a straight angle and less than a revolution.

Angles at a Point: Two angles are called *complementary* if they add to 90°. For example, 15° is the *complement* of 75°. Two angles are called *supplementary* if they add to 180°. For example, 105° is the *supplement* of 75°. Our first theorem relies on the assumption that adjacent angles can be added.

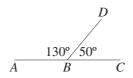
COURSE THEOREM — ANGLES IN A STRAIGHT LINE AND IN A REVOLUTION:

1

- Two adjacent angles in a straight angle are supplementary.
- Conversely, if adjacent angles are supplementary, they form a straight line.
- Adjacent angles in a revolution add to 360°.



Given that PQR is a line, $\alpha = 105^{\circ}$ (angles in a straight angle).

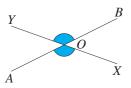


A, B and C are collinear (adjacent angles are supplementary).



 $\theta + 110^{\circ} + 90^{\circ} + 30^{\circ} = 360^{\circ}$ (angles in a revolution), $\theta = 130^{\circ}$.

Vertically Opposite Angles: Each pair of opposite angles formed when two lines intersect are called *vertically opposite angles*. In the diagram to the right, AB and XY intersect at O. The marked angles $\angle AOX$ and $\angle BOY$ are vertically opposite. The unmarked angles $\angle AOY$ and $\angle BOX$ are also vertically opposite.

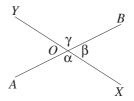


2 Course theorem: Vertically opposite angles are equal.

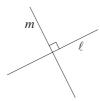
GIVEN: Let the lines AB and XY intersect at O. Let $\alpha = \angle AOX$, let $\beta = \angle BOX$, and let $\gamma = \angle BOY$.

AIM: To prove that $\alpha = \gamma$.

PROOF: $\alpha + \beta = 180^{\circ}$ (straight angle $\angle AOB$), and $\gamma + \beta = 180^{\circ}$ (straight angle $\angle XOY$), so $\alpha = \gamma$.



Perpendicular Lines: Two lines ℓ and m are called *perpendicular*, written as $\ell \perp m$, if they intersect so that one of the angles between them is a right angle. Because adjacent angles on a straight line are supplementary, all four angles must be right angles.



Using Reasons in Arguments: Geometrical arguments require reasons to be given for each statement — the whole topic is traditionally regarded as providing training in the writing of mathematical proofs. These reasons can be expressed in ordinary prose, or each reason can be given in brackets after the statement it justifies. All reasons should, wherever possible, give the names of the angles or lines or triangles referred to, otherwise there can be ambiguities about exactly what argument has been used. The authors of this book have boxed the theorems and assumptions that can be quoted as reasons.

WORKED EXERCISE: Find α or θ in each diagram below.



SOLUTION:

(a)
$$2\alpha + 90^{\circ} + 3\alpha = 180^{\circ}$$
 (b) $3\theta = 120^{\circ}$ (vertically opposite angles), $5\alpha = 90^{\circ}$ $\theta = 40^{\circ}$. $\alpha = 18^{\circ}$.

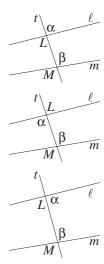
Angles and Parallel Lines: The standard results about alternate, corresponding and co-interior angles are taken as assumptions.

TRANSVERSALS: A transversal is a line that crosses two other lines (the two other lines may or may not be parallel). In each of the three diagrams below, t is a transversal to the lines ℓ and m, meeting them at L and M respectively.

CORRESPONDING ANGLES: In the first diagram opposite, the two angles marked α and β are called corresponding angles, because they are in corresponding positions around the two vertices L and M.

ALTERNATE ANGLES: In the second diagram opposite, the two angles marked α and β are called alternate angles, because they are on alternate sides of the transversal t (they must also be inside the region between the lines ℓ and m).

CO-INTERIOR ANGLES: In the third diagram opposite, the two angles marked α and β are called co-interior angles, because they are inside the two lines ℓ and m, and on the same side of the transversal t.



Our assumptions about corresponding, alternate and co-interior angles fall into two groups. The first group are consequences arising when the lines are parallel.

ASSUMPTION: Suppose that a transversal crosses two lines.

- If the lines are parallel, then any two corresponding angles are equal.
- If the lines are parallel, then any two alternate angles are equal.
- If the lines are parallel, then any two co-interior angles are supplementary.

The second group are often neglected. They are the converses of the first group, and give conditions for the two lines to be parallel.

ASSUMPTION: Suppose that a transversal crosses two lines.

4

3

- If any pair of corresponding angles are equal, then the lines are parallel.
- If any pair of alternate angles are equal, then the lines are parallel.
- If any two co-interior angles are supplementary, then the lines are parallel.

WORKED EXERCISE: [A problem requiring a construction] Find θ in the diagram opposite.

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SOLUTION:
              Construct FG \parallel AB.
                   \angle MFG = 110^{\circ} (alternate angles, FG \parallel AB),
Then
                   \angle NFG = 120^{\circ} (alternate angles, FG \parallel CD),
and
       \theta + 110^{\circ} + 120^{\circ} = 360^{\circ} (angles in a revolution at F),
                           \theta = 130^{\circ}.
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WORKED EXERCISE: Given that $AC \parallel BD$, prove that $AB \parallel CD$.

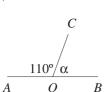
SOLUTION:
$$\angle CAB = 65^{\circ}$$
 (vertically opposite at A), so $\angle ABD = 115^{\circ}$ (co-interior angles, $AC \parallel BD$), so $AB \parallel CD$ (co-interior angles are supplementary).

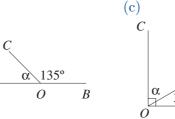
Note: A phrase like '(co-interior angles)' alone is never sufficient as a reason. If the two angles are being proven supplementary, the fact that the lines are parallel must also be stated. If the two lines are being proven parallel, the fact that the co-interior angles are supplementary must be stated.

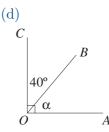
Exercise 8A

In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

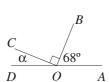
1. Find the angles α and β in the diagrams below, giving reasons.



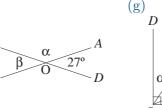




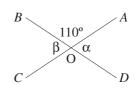
(e)



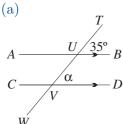
(f)

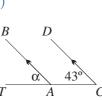


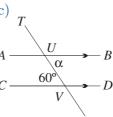
(h)



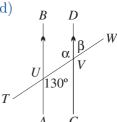
2. Find the angles α and β in each figure below, giving reasons.

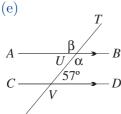




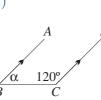


(d)

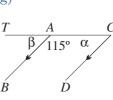




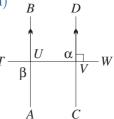
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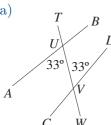
(g)

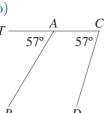


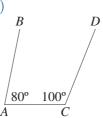
(h)

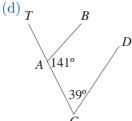


3. Show that $AB \parallel CD$ in the diagrams below, giving all reasons.





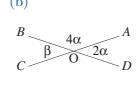


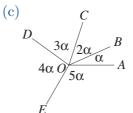


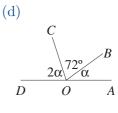
- 4. (a) Sketch a transversal crossing two non-parallel lines so that a pair of alternate angles formed by the transversal are about 45° and 65° .
 - (b) Repeat part (a) so that a pair of corresponding angles are about 90° and 120°.
 - (c) Repeat part (a) so that a pair of co-interior angles are both about 80°.

5. Find the angles α , β , γ and δ in the diagrams below, giving reasons.

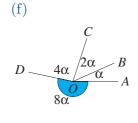
(a) C B α 38° A

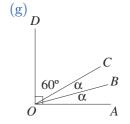


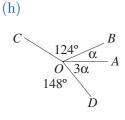




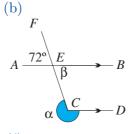
(e) C B $D = \frac{\beta_0 / 60^{\circ}}{\gamma / \delta} A$

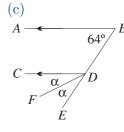


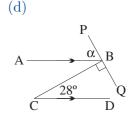


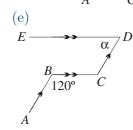


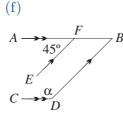
6. Find the angles α and β in each diagram below. Give all steps in your arguments.

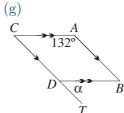


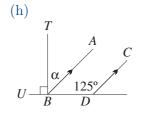










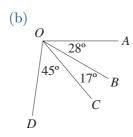


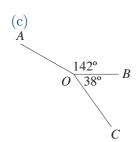
7. (a)

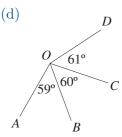
C

27°

63°







Show that $OC \perp OA$.

Show that $OD \perp OA$.

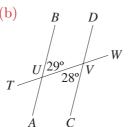
Show that A, O and C are collinear.

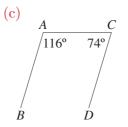
Show that A, O and D are collinear.

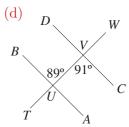
_ DEVELOPMENT

8. Show that AB is not parallel to CD in the diagrams below, giving all reasons.

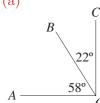
(a) $A \xrightarrow{V} B$ $C \xrightarrow{55^{\circ}/U} D$



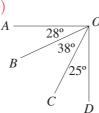


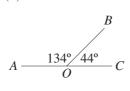




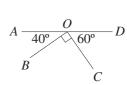


(b)





(d)



Show that OC is not perpendicular to OA.

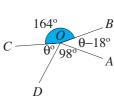
Show that OD is not perpendicular to OA.

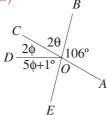
Show that A, Oand C are not collinear.

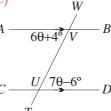
Show that A, Oand D are not collinear.

10. Find θ and ϕ in the diagrams below, giving reasons.

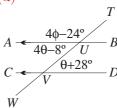




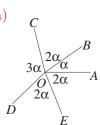




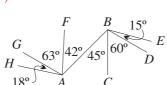
(d)



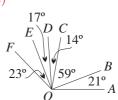
11. (a)



(b)



(c)



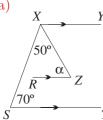
Name all straight angles and vertically opposite angles in the diagram.

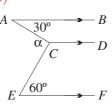
Which two lines in the diagram above are parallel?

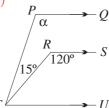
Which two lines in the diagram above form a right angle?

12. Find the angle α in each diagram below.

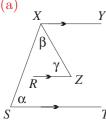




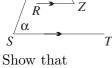




13. (a)

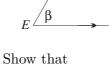


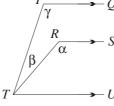
 $\gamma = 180^{\circ} - (\alpha + \beta).$



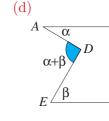
 $\gamma = \alpha + \beta$.

(b)

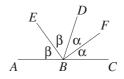




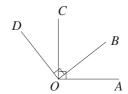
Show that $\gamma = \alpha - \beta$.



Show that $EF \parallel AB$. 14. Theorem: The bisectors of adjacent supplementary angles form a right angle. In the diagram to the right, $\angle ABD$ and $\angle DBC$ are adjacent supplementary angles. Given that the line FB bisects $\angle DBC$ and the line EB bisects $\angle ABD$, prove that $\angle FBE = 90^{\circ}$.

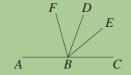


15. In the diagram to the right, the line CO is perpendicular to the line AO, and the line DO is perpendicular to the line BO. Show that the angles $\angle AOD$ and $\angle BOC$ are supplementary.



EXTENSION _

16. THEOREM: A generalisation of the result in question 14. In the diagram opposite, $\angle ABD$ and $\angle DBC$ are adjacent supplementary angles. Suppose that EB divides $\angle DBC$ in the ratio of $k:\ell$, and that FB also divides $\angle DBA$ in the ratio $k:\ell$. Find $\angle FBE$ in terms of k and ℓ .

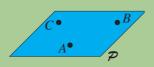


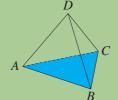
- 17. Give concrete examples of the following:
 - (a) three distinct planes meeting at a point,
 - (b) three distinct planes meeting at a line,
 - (c) three distinct parallel planes,
 - (d) three distinct planes intersecting in three distinct lines,
 - (e) two distinct parallel planes intersecting with a third plane,
 - (f) a line parallel to a plane,
 - (g) a line intersecting a plane.
- 18. There are two possible configurations of a point and a plane. Either the point is in the plane or it is not, as shown in the diagram.



- (a) What are the possible configurations of a line and a plane? Draw a diagram of each situation.
- (b) What are the possible configurations of two lines? Draw a diagram of each situation.
- (c) What are the possible configurations of two planes? Draw a diagram of each situation.

19. (a)



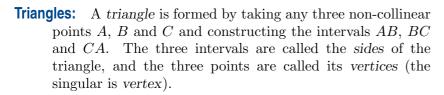


There is only one plane that passes through any three given non-collinear points. What are three other ways of determining a plane? Draw a diagram of each situation. Two lines in space are called *skew* if they neither intersect nor are parallel. Given the tetrahedron *ABCD* above, name all pairs of skew lines such that each passes through two of its vertices.

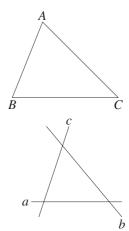
8 B Angles in Triangles and Polygons

Having introduced angles and intervals, we can now begin to develop the relationships between the sizes of angles and the lengths of intervals. When three intervals are joined into a closed figure, they form a triangle, four such intervals form a quadrilateral, and more generally, an arbitrary number of such intervals

form a polygon. Accordingly, this section is a study of angles in polygons. Sections 8C–8E then study the relationships between angles and lengths in triangles and quadrilaterals.



Alternatively, a triangle can be formed by taking three non-concurrent lines a, b and c. Provided no two are parallel, the intersections of these lines form the vertices of the triangle.



Interior Angles of a Triangle: A triangle is a *closed* figure, meaning that it divides the plane into an inside and an outside. The three angles inside the triangle at the vertices are called the *interior angles*, and our first task is to prove that their sum is always 180° .

5 COURSE THEOREM: The sum of the interior angles of a triangle is a straight angle.

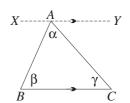
GIVEN: Let ABC be a triangle. Let $\angle A = \alpha$, $\angle B = \beta$ and $\angle C = \gamma$.

AIM: To prove that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 180^{\circ}$.

Construct XAY through the vertex A parallel to BC.

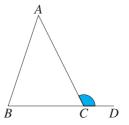
PROOF: $\angle XAB = \beta$ (alternate angles, $XAY \parallel BC$), and $\angle YAC = \gamma$ (alternate angles, $XAY \parallel BC$).

Hence $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 180^{\circ}$ (straight angle).



Exterior Angles of a Triangle: Suppose that ABC is a triangle, and suppose that the side BC is produced to D (the word 'produced' simply means 'extended in the direction BC'). Then the angle $\angle ACD$ between the side AC and the extended side CD is called an exterior angle of the triangle.

There are two exterior angles at each vertex, and because they are vertically opposite, they must be equal in size. Also, an exterior angle and the interior angle adjacent to it are adjacent angles on a straight line, so they must be supplementary. The exterior angles and interior angles are related as follows.



Course theorem: An exterior angle of a triangle equals the sum of the interior opposite angles.

GIVEN: Let ABC be a triangle with BC produced to D. Let $\angle A = \alpha$ and $\angle B = \beta$.

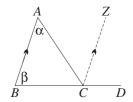
AIM: To prove that $\angle ACD = \alpha + \beta$.

Construct the ray CZ through the vertex C parallel to BA.

PROOF: $\angle ZCD = \beta$ (corresponding angles, $BA \parallel CZ$),

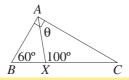
and $\angle ACZ = \alpha$ (alternate angles, $BA \parallel CZ$).

Hence $\angle ACD = \alpha + \beta$ (adjacent angles).

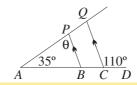


WORKED EXERCISE: Find θ in each diagram below.

(a)



(b)



SOLUTION:

(a)
$$\angle C = 30^{\circ}$$

(angle sum of $\triangle ABC$),
so $\theta = 50^{\circ}$
(angle sum of $\triangle ACX$).

(b)
$$\angle PBC = 110^{\circ}$$

(corresponding angles, $BP \parallel CQ$),

so $\theta = 75^{\circ}$

(exterior angle of $\triangle ABP$).

Quadrilaterals: A quadrilateral is a closed plane figure bounded by four intervals. As with triangles, the intervals are called sides, and their four endpoints are called vertices. (The sides can't cross each other, and no vertex angle can be 180°.)

A quadrilateral may be convex, meaning that all its interior angles are less than 180° , or non-convex, meaning that one interior angle is greater than 180° . The intervals joining pairs of opposite vertices are called diagonals — notice that both diagonals of a convex quadrilateral lie inside the figure, but only one diagonal of a non-convex quadrilateral lies inside it. In both cases, we can prove that the sum of the interior angles is 360° .





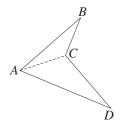
7 COURSE THEOREM: The sum of the interior angles of a quadrilateral is two straight angles.

GIVEN: Let ABCD be a quadrilateral, labelled so that the diagonal AC lies inside the figure.

AIM: To prove that $\angle ABC + \angle BCD + \angle CDA + \angle DAB = 360^{\circ}$.

Construction: Join the diagonal AC.

PROOF: The interior angles of $\triangle ABC$ have sum 180° , and the interior angles of $\triangle ADC$ have sum 180° . But the interior angles of quadrilateral ABCD are the sums of the interior angles of $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle ADC$. Hence the sum of the interior angles of ABCD is 360° .

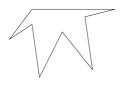


Polygons: A polygon is a closed figure bounded by any number of straight sides (polygon is a Greek word meaning 'many-angled'). A polygon is named according to the number of sides it has, and there must be at least three sides or else there would be no enclosed region. Here are some of the names:

3 sides: triangle 4 sides: quadrilateral 5 sides: pentagon 6 sides: hexagon 7 sides: heptagon 8 sides: octagon 9 sides: nonagon 10 sides: decagon 12 sides: dodecagon



A pentagon



An octagon



A dodecagon

Like quadrilaterals, polygons can be convex, meaning that every interior angle is less than 180° , or non-convex, meaning that at least one interior angle is greater than 180° . A polygon is convex if and only if every one of its diagonals lies inside the figure. Notice that even a non-convex polygon must have at least one diagonal completely inside the figure.

The following theorem generalises the theorems about the interior angles of triangles and quadrilaterals to polygons with any number of sides.

8 Course theorem: The interior angles of an *n*-sided polygon have sum $180(n-2)^{\circ}$.

When the polygon is non-convex, the proof requires mathematical induction because we need to keep chopping off a triangle whose angle sum is 180° — this is carried through in question 23 of the following exercise. The situation is far easier when the polygon is convex, and the following proof is restricted to that case.

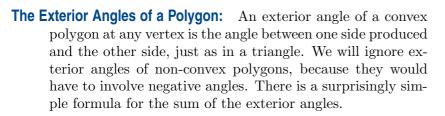
GIVEN: Let $A_1 A_2 \dots A_n$ be a convex polygon.

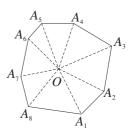
AIM: To prove that $\angle A_1 + \angle A_2 + \ldots + \angle A_n = 180(n-2)^\circ$.

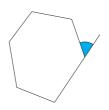
CONSTRUCTION: Choose any point O inside the polygon, and construct the intervals OA_1, OA_2, \ldots, OA_n , giving n triangles $A_1OA_2, A_2OA_3, \ldots, A_nOA_1$.

PROOF: The angle sum of the n triangles is $180n^{\circ}$. But the angles at O form a revolution, with size 360° . Hence for the interior angles of the polygon,

$$sum = 180n^{\circ} - 360^{\circ}$$
$$= 180(n-2)^{\circ}.$$







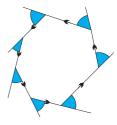
9 Course theorem: The sum of the exterior angles of a convex polygon is 360°.

PROOF: At each vertex, the interior and exterior angles add to 180° , so the sum of all interior and exterior angles is $180n^{\circ}$.

But the interior angles add to $180(n-2)^{\circ}$.

Hence the exterior angles must add to $2 \times 180^{\circ} = 360^{\circ}$.

Exterior Angles as the Amount of Turning: If one walks around a polygon, the exterior angle at each vertex is the angle one turns at that vertex. Thus the sum of all the exterior angles is the amount of turning when one walks right around the polygon. Clearly walking around a polygon involves a total turning of 360°, and the previous theorem can be interpreted as saying just that. In this way, the theorem can be generalised to say that when one walks around any closed curve, the amount of turning is always 360° (provided that the curve doesn't cross itself).



Regular Polygons: A regular polygon is a polygon in which all sides are equal and all interior angles are equal. Simple division gives:

Course theorem: In an *n*-sided regular polygon:

10

- each exterior angle is $\frac{360^{\circ}}{n}$,
- each interior angle is $\frac{180(n-2)^{\circ}}{n}$.

Substitution of n=3 and n=4 gives the familiar results that each angle of an equilateral triangle is 60° , and each angle of a square is 90° .

WORKED EXERCISE: Find the sizes of each exterior angle and each interior angle in a regular 12-sided polygon.

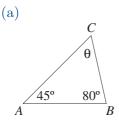
SOLUTION: The exterior angles have sum 360° , so each exterior angle is $360^{\circ} \div 12 = 30^{\circ}$. Hence each interior angle is 150° (angles in a straight angle).

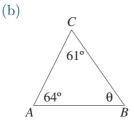
Alternatively, using the formula, each interior angle is $\frac{180 \times 10}{12} = 150^{\circ}$.

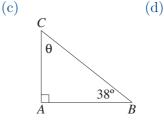
Exercise 8B

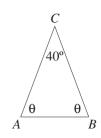
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. Use the angle sum of a triangle to find θ in the diagrams below, giving reasons.

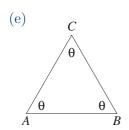


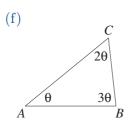


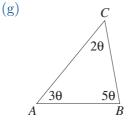


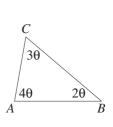


(h)

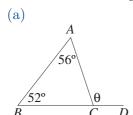


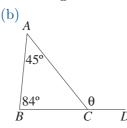


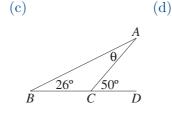


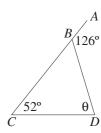


2. Use the exterior angle of a triangle theorem to find θ , giving reasons.

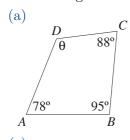


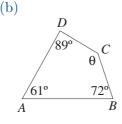


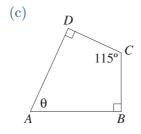


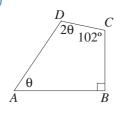


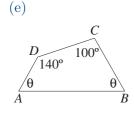
3. Use the angle sum of a quadrilateral to find θ in the diagrams below, giving reasons.

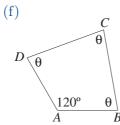


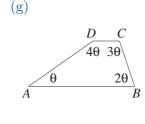


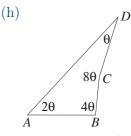






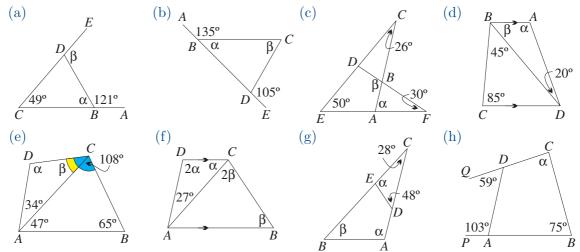




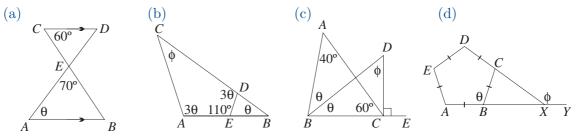


- **4.** Demonstrate the formula $180(n-2)^{\circ}$ for the angle sum of a polygon by drawing examples of the following non-convex polygons and dissecting them into n-2 triangles:
 - (a) a pentagon,
- (b) a hexagon,
- (c) an octogon,
- (d) a dodecagon.
- 5. Find the size of each (i) interior angle, (ii) exterior angle, of a regular polygon with:
 - (a) 5 sides,
- (b) 6 sides,
- (c) 8 sides,
- (d) 9 sides,
- (e) 10 sides,
- (f) 12 sides.
- 6. (a) Find the number of sides of a regular polygon if each interior angle is:
 - (i) 135°
- (ii) 144°
- (iii) 172°
- (iv) 178°
- (b) Find the number of sides of a regular polygon if its exterior angle is:
 - (i) 72°
- (ii) 40°
- (iii) 18°
- (iv) $\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$
- (c) Why is it not possible for a regular polygon to have an interior angle equal to 123°?
- (d) Why is it not possible for a regular polygon to have an exterior angle equal to 71°?
- 7. By drawing a diagram, find the number of diagonals of each polygon, and verify that the number of diagonals of a polygon with n sides is $\frac{1}{2}n(n-3)$:
 - (a) a convex pentagon,
- (b) a convex hexagon,
- (c) a convex octagon.
- (This will be proven by mathematical induction in question 23.)

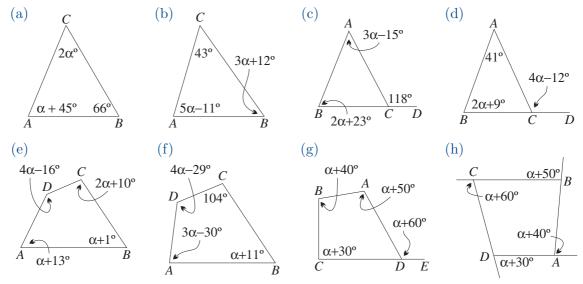
8. Find the angles α and β in the diagrams below. Give all steps in your argument.



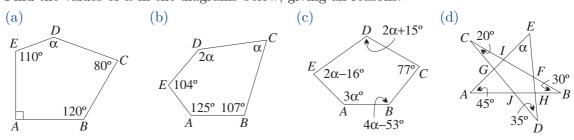
9. Find the angles θ and ϕ in the diagrams below, giving all reasons.



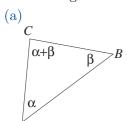
10. Find the value of α in the diagrams below, giving all reasons.

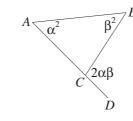


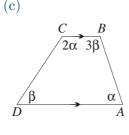
11. Find the values of α in the diagrams below, giving all reasons.

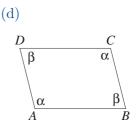


12. Prove the given relationships in the diagrams below.









Show that $\alpha + \beta = 90^{\circ}$.

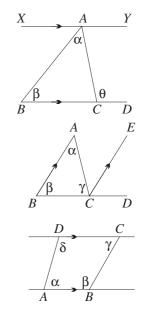
Show that $\alpha = \beta$.

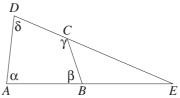
Show that $\alpha = 72^{\circ}$ and $\beta = 36^{\circ}$.

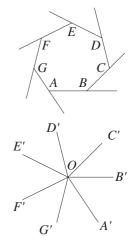
Show that AB||CD|and AD||BC.

DEVELOPMENT _

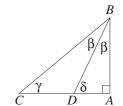
- **13.** Course theorem: An alternative proof of the exterior angle theorem. Given a triangle ABC with BC produced to D, construct the line XY through the vertex A parallel to BD. Let $\angle CAB = \alpha$ and $\angle ABC = \beta$. Use alternate angles twice to prove that $\angle ACD = \alpha + \beta$.
- 14. Course theorem: An alternative proof that the angle sum of a triangle is 180° . Let ABC be a triangle with BC produced to D. Construct the line CE through C parallel to BA. Let $\angle CAB = \alpha$, $\angle ABC = \beta$ and $\angle BCA = \gamma$. Prove that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 180^{\circ}$.
- 15. Course theorem: An alternative approach to proving that the angle sum of a quadrilateral is 360° .
 - (a) Suppose that a quadrilateral has a pair of parallel sides, and name them AB and CD as shown. Use the assumptions about parallel lines and transversals to prove that the interior angle sum of quadrilateral ABCD is 360° .
 - (b) Suppose that in quadrilateral ABCD there is no pair of parallel sides. Extend sides AB and DC to meet at E as shown. Use the theorems about angles in triangles to prove that the interior angle sum of quadrilateral ABCD is 360° .
- 16. (a) Determine the ratio of the sum of the interior angles to the sum of the exterior angles in a polygon with n sides.
 - (b) Hence determine if it is possible to have these angles in the ratio: (i) $\frac{8}{3}$ (ii) $\frac{7}{2}$
- 17. Convince yourself that the sum of the exterior angles of a polygon is 360° by carrying out the following constructions. Draw a polygon ABCD... and pick a point O outside the polygon. From O draw OB' in the same direction as AB. Next draw OC' in the same direction as BC. Then do the same for CD and so on around the polygon. The diagrams show the result for the heptagon ABCDEFG.
 - (a) What is the sum of the angles at O?
 - (b) How are the exterior angles of the polygon related to the angles at O?



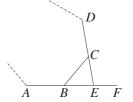




18. In the right-angled triangle ABC opposite, $\angle CAB = 90^{\circ}$, and the bisector of $\angle ABC$ meets AC at D. Let $\angle ABD = \beta$, $\angle ACB = \gamma$ and $\angle ADB = \delta$. Show that $\delta = 45^{\circ} + \frac{1}{2}\gamma$.



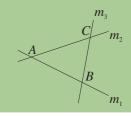
- 19. Three of the angles in a convex quadrilateral are equal. What is:
 - (a) the smallest possible size, (b) the largest possible size, of these three equal angles?
- **20.** Let AB, BC and CD be three consecutive sides of a regular polygon with n sides. Produce AB to F, and produce DC to meet AF at E.



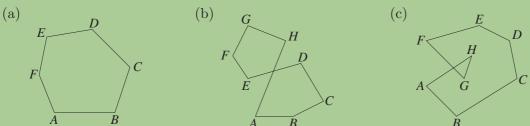
- (a) Find the size of $\angle CEF$ as a function of n.
- (b) Now suppose that $\angle CEF$ is the interior angle of another regular polygon with m sides. Find m in terms of n.
- (c) Hence find all pairs of regular polygons that are related in this way.
- (d) In each case, if the first polygon has sides of length 1, what is the length of the sides of the second polygon?
- 21. SEQUENCES AND GEOMETRY:
 - (a) The three angles of a triangle ABC form an arithmetic sequence. Show that the middle-sized angle is 60° .
 - (b) The three angles of a triangle PQR form a geometric sequence. Show that the smallest angle and the common ratio cannot both be integers.
- **22.** (a) A quadrilateral in which all angles are equal need not have all sides equal (it is in fact a rectangle). Prove, nevertheless, that opposite sides are parallel.
 - (b) Prove that if all angles of a hexagon are equal, then opposite sides are parallel.
 - (c) Prove more generally that this holds for polygons with 2n sides.
- 23. Mathematical induction in Geometry:
 - (a) Use mathematical induction to prove that for $n \geq 3$, a polygon with n sides has $\frac{1}{2}n(n-3)$ diagonals. Begin with a triangle, which has no diagonals.
 - (b) Use mathematical induction to prove that the sum of the interior angles of any polygon with $n \geq 3$ sides, convex or non-convex, is $180(n-2)^{\circ}$. Begin the induction step by choosing three adjacent vertices P_k , P_{k+1} and P_1 of the (k+1)-gon so that $\angle P_k P_{k+1} P_1$ is acute, and joining the diagonal $P_1 P_k$ to form a triangle and a polygon with k sides.

____EXTENSION ____

- **24.** Trigonometry in geometry: Suppose that a regular polygon has n sides of length 1.
 - (a) What will be the length of the side of the regular polygon with 2n sides that is formed by cutting off the vertices of the given polygon?
 - (b) Confirm your answer in the case of:
 - (i) cutting the corners off an equilateral triangle to form a regular hexagon,
 - (ii) cutting the corners off a square to form a regular octagon.
- **25.** TRIGONOMETRY IN GEOMETRY: Three lines with nonzero gradients m_1 , m_2 and m_3 intersect at the points A, B and C. The acute angles α , β and γ , between each pair of lines, are found using the usual formula $\tan \alpha = \left| \frac{m_1 m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right|$.



- (a) If one of the angles of $\triangle ABC$ is obtuse, explain why one of the acute angles found must be the sum of the other two.
- (b) If the signs of m_1 , m_2 and m_3 are all the same, what can be deduced about $\triangle ABC$?
- (c) If all angles of $\triangle ABC$ are acute, what can be deduced about the sign of $m_1m_2m_3$?
- **26.** In a polygon with n sides, none of which are vertical and none horizontal, and all interior angles equal, determine the sign of the product of the gradients of all the sides.
- 27. Counting clockwise turns as negative and anticlockwise turns as positive, through how many revolutions would you turn if you followed the alphabet around the following figures?



8 C Congruence and Special Triangles

As in all branches of mathematics, symmetry is a vital part of geometry. In Euclidean geometry, symmetry is handled by means of congruence, and later through the more general idea of similarity. It is only by these methods that relationships between lengths and angles can be established.

Congruence: Two figures are called *congruent* if one figure can be picked up and placed so that it fits exactly on top of the other figure. More precisely, using the language of transformations:

CONGRUENCE: Two figures S and T are called *congruent*, written as $S \equiv T$, if one figure can be moved to coincide with the other figure by means of a sequence of rotations, reflections and translations.





The congruence sets up a correspondence between the elements of the two figures. In this correspondence, angles, lengths and areas are preserved.

PROPERTIES OF CONGRUENT FIGURES: If two figures are congruent.

12

11

- matching angles have the same size,
- matching intervals have the same length,
- matching regions have the same area.

13

Congruent Triangles: In practice, almost all of our congruence arguments concern congruent triangles. Euclid's geometry book proves four tests for the congruence of two triangles, but we shall take them as assumptions.

STANDARD CONGRUENCE TESTS FOR TRIANGLES: Two triangles are congruent if:

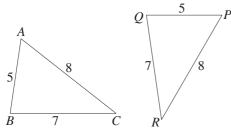
SSS the three sides of one triangle are respectively equal to the three sides of another triangle, or

SAS two sides and the included angle of one triangle are respectively equal to two sides and the included angle of another triangle, or

AAS two angles and one side of one triangle are respectively equal to two angles and the matching side of another triangle, or

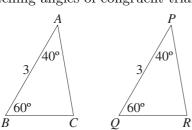
RHS the hypotenuse and one side of one right triangle are respectively equal to the hypotenuse and one side of another right triangle.

These standard tests are known from earlier years, and have already been discussed in Sections 4H–4J of the Year 11 volume, where they were related to the sine and cosine rules. As mentioned in those sections, there is no ASS test — two sides and a non-included angle — and we constructed two non-congruent triangles with the same ASS specifications. Here are examples of the four tests.

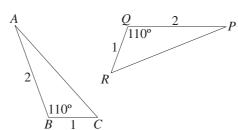


 $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle PQR$ (SSS). Hence $\angle P = \angle A$, $\angle Q = \angle B$ and $\angle R = \angle C$

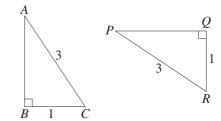
(matching angles of congruent triangles).



 $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle PQR$ (AAS). Hence QR = BC and RP = CA (matching sides of congruent triangles), and $\angle R = \angle C$ (angle sums of triangles).



 $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle PQR \quad (SAS).$ Hence $\angle P = \angle A, \angle R = \angle C$ and $PR = AC \quad (matching sides$ and angles of congruent triangles).



 $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle PQR \quad \text{(RHS)}.$ Hence $\angle P = \angle A, \ \angle R = \angle C$ and $PQ = AB \quad \text{(matching sides}$ and angles of congruent triangles).

Using the Congruence Tests: A fully set-out congruence proof has five lines — the first line introduces the triangles, the next three set out the three pairs of equal sides or angles, and the final line is the conclusion. Subsequent deductions from the congruence follow these five lines. Throughout the congruence proof, all vertices should be named in corresponding order. Each of the four standard congruence tests is used in one of the next four proofs.

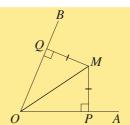
WORKED EXERCISE: The point M lies inside the arms of the acute angle $\angle AOB$. The perpendiculars MP and MQ to OA and OB respectively have equal lengths. Prove that $\triangle POM \equiv \triangle QOM$, and that OM bisects $\angle AOB$.

In the triangles POM and QOM:

- 1. OM = OM (common),
- PM = QM (given), 2.
- 3. $\angle OPM = \angle OQM = 90^{\circ}$ (given),

 $\triangle POM \equiv \triangle QOM$ (RHS).

Hence $\angle POM = \angle QOM$ (matching angles).



WORKED EXERCISE: Prove that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle CDA$, and hence that $AD \parallel BC$.

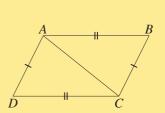
In the triangles ABC and CDA: PROOF:

- 1. AC = CA (common),
- AB = CD (given), 2.
- BC = DA (given),

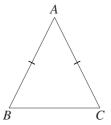
 $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle CDA$ (SSS).

Hence $\angle BCA = \angle DAC$ (matching angles),

 $AD \parallel BC$ (alternate angles are equal). and so



Isosceles Triangles: An isosceles triangle is a triangle in which two sides are equal. The two equal sides are called the legs of the triangle (the Greek word 'isosceles' literally means 'equal legs'), their intersection is called the apex, and the side opposite the apex is called the base. It is well known that the base angles of an isosceles triangle are equal.



Course theorem: If two sides of a triangle are equal, then the angles opposite 14 those sides are equal.

GIVEN: Let ABC be an isosceles triangle with AB = AC.

AIM: To prove that $\angle B = \angle C$.

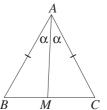
Construction: Let the bisector of $\angle A$ meet BC at M.

PROOF: In the triangles ABM and ACM:

- 1. AM = AM (common),
- 2. AB = AC (given),
- 3. $\angle BAM = \angle CAM$ (construction),

 $\triangle ABM \equiv \triangle ACM$ (SAS).

Hence $\angle ABM = \angle ACM$ (matching angles of congruent triangles).



A Test for a Triangle to be Isosceles: The converse of this result is also true, giving a test for a triangle to be isosceles.

COURSE THEOREM: Conversely, if two angles of a triangle are equal, then the sides 15 opposite those angles are equal.

GIVEN: Let ABC be a triangle in which $\angle B = \angle C = \beta$.

To prove that AB = AC.

Construction: Let the bisector of $\angle A$ meet BC at M.

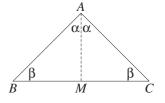
In the triangles ABM and ACM:

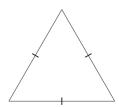
- AM = AM (common), 1.
- 2. $\angle B = \angle C$ (given),
- 3. $\angle BAM = \angle CAM$ (construction),

so
$$\triangle ABM \equiv \triangle ACM$$
 (AAS).

Hence AB = AC (matching sides of congruent triangles).

Equilateral Triangles: An equilateral triangle is a triangle in which all three sides are equal. It is therefore an isosceles triangle in three different ways, and the following property of and test for an equilateral triangle follow easily from the previous theorem and its converse.





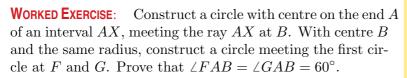
Course theorem: All angles of an equilateral triangle are equal to 60°. 16 Conversely, if all angles of a triangle are equal, then it is equilateral.

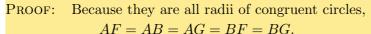
Suppose that the triangle is equilateral, that is, all three sides are equal. Then all three angles are equal, and since their sum is 180°, they must each be 60°.

Conversely, suppose that all three angles are equal. Then all three sides are equal, meaning that the triangle is equilateral.

Circles and Isosceles Triangles: A circle is the set of all points that are a fixed distance (called the radius) from a fixed point (called the *centre*). Compasses are used for drawing circles, because the pencil is held at a fixed distance from the centre, where the compass-point is fixed in the paper.

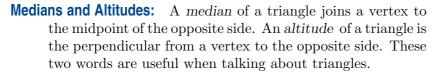
If two points on the circumference are joined to the centre and to each other, then the equal radii mean that the triangle is isosceles. The following worked exercise shows how to construct an angle of 60° using straight edge and compasses.



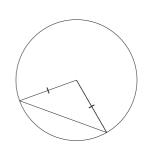


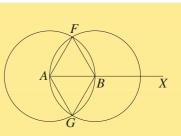
$$\triangle AFB$$
 and $\triangle AGB$ are both equilateral triangles

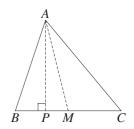
Hence $\triangle AFB$ and $\triangle AGB$ are both equilateral triangles, and so $\angle FAB = \angle GAB = 60^{\circ}$.



In the diagram to the right, AP is one of the three altitudes in $\triangle ABC$. The point M is the midpoint of BC, and AM is one of the three medians in $\triangle ABC$.



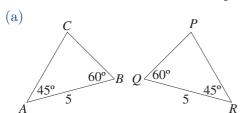


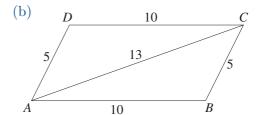


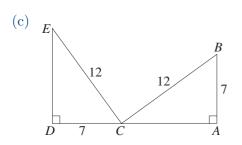
Exercise 8C

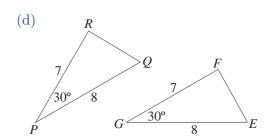
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. The two triangles in each pair below are congruent. Name the congruent triangles in the correct order and state which test justifies the congruence.

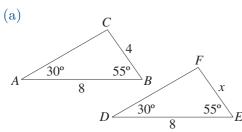


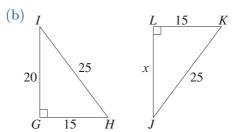


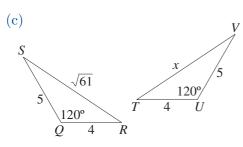


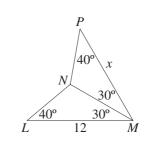


2. In each part, identify the congruent triangles, naming the vertices in matching order and giving a reason. Hence deduce the length of the side x.



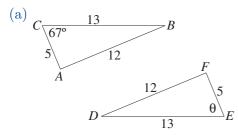


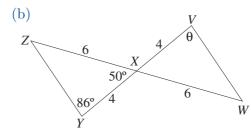


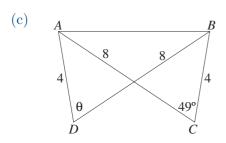


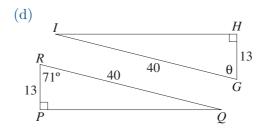
3. In each part, identify the congruent triangles, naming the vertices in matching order and giving a reason. Hence deduce the size of the angle θ .

(d)



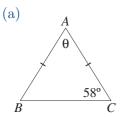


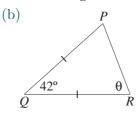


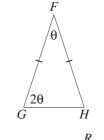


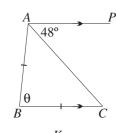
(d)

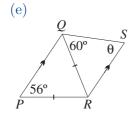
4. Find the size of angle θ in each diagram below, giving reasons.

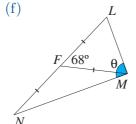


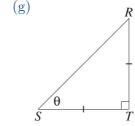




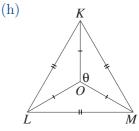




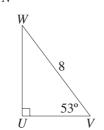


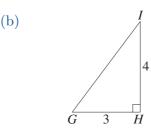


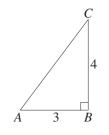
(c)









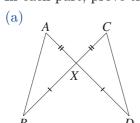


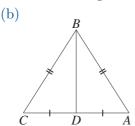
When asked to show that the two triangles above were congruent, a student wrote $\triangle RST \equiv \triangle UVW$ (RHS). Although both triangles are indeed right-angled, explain why the reason given is incorrect.

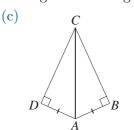
What is the correct reason?

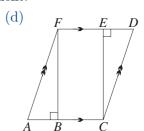
When asked to show that the two triangles above were congruent, another student wrote $\triangle GHI \equiv \triangle ABC$ (RHS). Again, although both triangles are right-angled, explain why the reason given is wrong. What is the correct reason?

6. In each part, prove that the two triangles in the diagram are congruent.





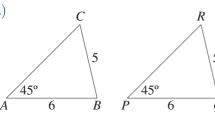




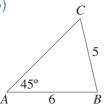
7. Let M be any point on the base BC of an isosceles triangle ABC. Using the facts that the legs AB and AC are equal, the base angles $\angle B$ and $\angle C$ are equal, and the side AM is common, is it possible to prove that the triangles ABM and ACM are congruent?

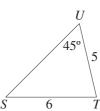
8. Explain why the given pairs of triangles cannot be proven to be congruent.

(a)

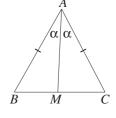


(b

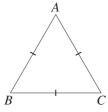




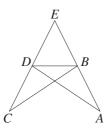
- 9. (a) What rotational and reflection symmetries does an isosceles triangle have?
 - (b) What rotational and reflection symmetries does an equilateral triangle have?
- **10.** Interpreting the properties of isosceles and equilateral triangles using transformations:
 - (a) Sketched on the right is an isosceles triangle $\triangle BAC$ with AB = AC. The interval AM bisects $\angle BAC$.
 - (i) Use the properties of reflections to explain why reflection in AM exchanges B and C, and hence explain why $\angle B = \angle C$, why M bisects BC, and why $AM \perp BC$.



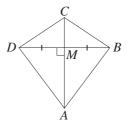
- (ii) Name all the axes of symmetry of $\triangle ABC$.
- (b) The triangle $\triangle ABC$ on the right is equilateral.
 - (i) Using part (a), name all the axes of symmetry of the triangle, and hence explain why each interior angle is 60° .
 - (ii) Describe all rotation symmetries of the triangle.



11. (a)



(b)

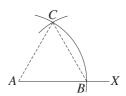


Given that $\triangle ABD \equiv \triangle CDB$ in the diagram above, prove that $\triangle BDE$ is isosceles.

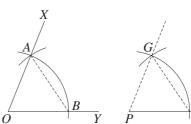
If DM = MB and $AC \perp DB$, prove that $\triangle ABD$ and $\triangle CBD$ are isosceles.

DEVELOPMENT

12. Construction: Constructing an angle of 60° . Let AX be an interval. Construct an arc with centre A, meeting the line AX at B. With the same radius but with centre B, construct a second arc meeting the first one at C. Explain why $\triangle ABC$ is equilateral, and hence why $\angle BAC = 60^{\circ}$.

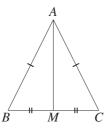


13. Construction: Copying an angle. Let $\angle XOY$ be an angle and PZ be an interval. Construct an arc with centre O meeting OX at A and OY at B. With the same radius, construct an arc with centre P, meeting PZ at F. With radius AB and centre F, construct an arc meeting the second arc at G.

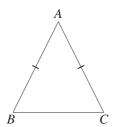


- (a) Prove that $\triangle AOB \equiv \triangle FPG$.
- (b) Hence prove that $\angle AOB = \angle FPG$.

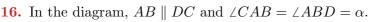
14. Course theorem: Three alternative proofs that the base angles of an isosceles triangle are equal. Let ABC be an isosceles triangle with AB = AC.



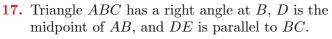
- (a) In the diagram above, the median AM has been constructed. Prove that the triangles AMB and AMC are congruent, and hence that $\angle B = \angle C$.
- (b) Draw your own triangle ABC, and on it construct the altitude AM. Prove that $\triangle AMB$ is congruent to $\triangle AMC$, and hence that $\angle B = \angle C$.



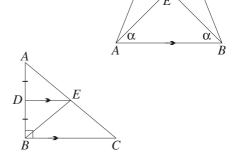
- (c) This is the most elegant proof, because it uses no construction at all. The two congruent triangles are the same triangle, but with the vertices in a different order.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle ACB$.
 - (ii) Hence prove that $\angle B = \angle C$.
- **15.** Theorem: Properties of isosceles triangles. In each part you will prove a property of an isosceles triangle. For each proof, use the same diagram, where $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles with AB = AC, and begin by proving that $\triangle AMB \equiv \triangle AMC$.
 - (a) If AM is the angle bisector of $\angle A$, show that it is also the perpendicular bisector of BC.
 - (b) If AM is the altitude from A perpendicular to BC, show that AM bisects $\angle CAB$ and that BM = MC.
 - (c) If AM is the median joining A to the midpoint M of BC, show that it is also the perpendicular bisector.



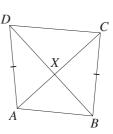
- (a) Show that CE = DE.
- (b) Prove that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle BAD$.
- (c) Hence show that $\angle DAC = \angle CBD$.



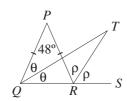
- (a) Prove that $\angle ADE$ is a right angle.
- (b) Prove that $\triangle AED \equiv \triangle BED$.
- (c) Prove that BE = EC.



- **18.** The diagonals AC and DB of quadrilateral ABCD are equal and intersect at X. Also, AD = BC.
 - (a) Show that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle BAD$.
 - (b) Hence show that $\triangle ABX$ is isosceles.
 - (c) Thus show that $\triangle CDX$ is also isosceles.
 - (d) Show that $AB \parallel DC$.



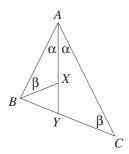
19. (a)



In the diagram, $\triangle PQR$ is isosceles with PQ = PR, and $\angle QPR = 48^{\circ}$. The interval QR is produced to S. The bisectors of $\angle PQR$ and $\angle PRS$ meet at the point T.

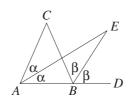
- (i) Find $\angle PQR$.
- (ii) Find $\angle QTR$.

20. (a)



The bisector of $\angle BAC$ meets BC at Y. The point X is constructed on AY so that $\angle ABX = \angle ACB$. Prove that $\triangle BXY$ is isosceles.

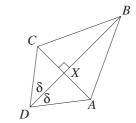
(b)



In $\triangle ABC$, AB is produced to D. AE bisects $\angle CAB$ and BE bisects $\angle CBD$.

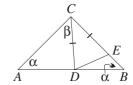
- (i) If $\triangle ABE$ is isosceles with $\angle A = \angle E$, show that $\triangle ABC$ is also isosceles.
- (ii) If $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles with $\angle A = \angle B$, under what circumstances will $\triangle ABE$ be isosceles?

(b)

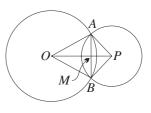


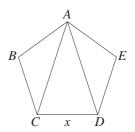
The diagonals AC and BD of quadrilateral ABCD meet at right angles at X. Also, $\angle ADX = \angle CDX$.

- (i) Prove that AD = CD.
- (ii) Hence prove that AB = CB.
- **21.** In $\triangle ABC$, $\angle CAB = \angle CBA = \alpha$. Construct D on AB and E on CB so that CD = CE. Let $\angle ACD = \beta$.
 - (a) Explain why $\angle CDB = \alpha + \beta$.
 - (b) Find $\angle DCB$ in terms of α and β .
 - (c) Hence find $\angle EDB$ in terms of β .

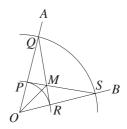


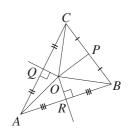
- **22.** Theorem: The line of centres of two intersecting circles is the perpendicular bisector of the common chord. The diagram to the right shows two circles intersecting at A and B. The line of centres OP intersects AB at M.
 - (a) Explain why $\triangle ABO$ and $\triangle ABP$ are isosceles.
 - (b) Show that $\triangle AOP \equiv \triangle BOP$.
 - (c) Show that $\triangle AMO \equiv \triangle BMO$.
 - (d) Hence show that AM = BM and $AB \perp OP$.
- **23.** Pentagons and trigonometry: ABCDE is a regular pentagon with side length x. Each interior angle is 108° .
 - (a) State why $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles and find $\angle CAB$.
 - (b) Show that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle DEA$.
 - (c) Find $\angle CAD$.
 - (d) Find an expression for the area of the pentagon in terms of x and trigonometric ratios.

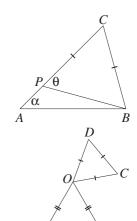


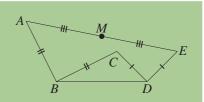


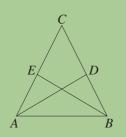
- **24.** Construction: Another construction to bisect an angle. Given $\angle AOB$, draw two concentric circles with centre O, cutting OA at P and Q respectively, and OB at R and S respectively. Let PS and QR meet at M.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle POS \equiv \triangle ROQ$.
 - (b) Hence prove that $\triangle PMQ \equiv \triangle RMS$.
 - (c) Hence prove that OM bisects $\angle AOB$.
- 25. THE CIRCUMCENTRE THEOREM: The perpendicular bisectors of the sides of a triangle are concurrent, and the resulting circumcentre is the centre of the circumcircle through all three vertices. Let P, Q and R be the midpoints of the sides BC, CA and AB of $\triangle ABC$. Let the perpendiculars from Q and R meet at O, and join OA, OB, OC and OP.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle ORA \equiv \triangle ORB$.
 - (b) Prove that $\triangle OQA \equiv \triangle OQC$.
 - (c) Hence prove that OA = OB = OC, and $OP \perp BC$.
- **26.** A GEOMETRIC INEQUALITY: The angle opposite a longer side of a triangle is larger than the angle opposite a shorter side. Let $\triangle ABC$ be a triangle in which CA > CB. Construct the point P between C and A so that CP = CB, and let $\alpha = \angle A$ and $\theta = \angle CPB$.
 - (a) Explain why $\alpha < \theta$. (b) Explain why $\angle CBP = \theta$.
 - (c) Hence prove that $\alpha < \angle CBA$.
- **27.** A ROTATION THEOREM: The triangles OAB and OCD in the figure drawn to the right are both equilateral triangles, and they have a common vertex O. Prove that AC = BD.
 - EXTENSION.
- 28. In the diagram, B and D are fixed points on a horizontal line. A point C is chosen anywhere in the plane, and A is the image of C after a rotation of 90° (anticlockwise) about B. E is the image of C after a rotation of -90° (clockwise) about D. Find the location of M, the midpoint of AE, and show that this location is independent of the choice of C. [HINT: Let F be the foot of the altitude from C to BD. Add the points G and H, the two images of F under the two rotations, to the diagram.]
- **29.** THREE TESTS FOR ISOSCELES TRIANGLES: Consider the triangle ABC, with D on the side BC and E on the side AC.
 - (a) [Straightforward] Suppose that AD and BE are altitudes, and AD = BE. Show that $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles.
 - (b) [More difficult] Suppose that AD and BE are medians, and AD=BE. Show that $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles.
 - (c) [Extremely difficult] Suppose that AD and BE are angle bisectors, and AD=BE. Show that $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles.











CAMBRIDGE MATHEMATICS 3 UNIT YEAR 12

8 D Trapezia and Parallelograms

There are a series of important theorems concerning the sides and angles of quadrilaterals. If careful definitions are first given of five special quadrilaterals, these theorems can then be stated very elegantly as properties of these special quadrilaterals and tests for them. This section deals with trapezia and parallelograms, and the following section deals with rhombuses, rectangles and squares.

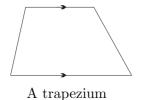
These theorems have been treated in earlier years, and most proofs have been left to structured questions in the following exercise. The proofs, however, are an essential part of the course, and should be carefully studied.

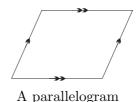
Definitions of Trapezia and Parallelograms: These figures are defined in terms of parallel sides. Notice that a parallelogram is a special sort of trapezium.

DEFINITIONS:

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- A trapezium is a quadrilateral with at least one pair of opposite sides parallel.
- A parallelogram is a quadrilateral with both pairs of opposite sides parallel.





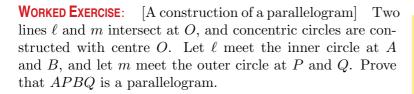
Properties of and Tests for Parallelograms: The standard properties and tests concern the angles, the sides and the diagonals.

Course theorem: If a quadrilateral is a parallelogram, then:

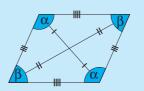
- adjacent angles are supplementary, and
- opposite angles are equal, and
- opposite sides are equal, and
- the diagonals bisect each other.

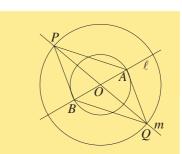
Conversely, a quadrilateral is a parallelogram if:

- the opposite angles are equal, or
- the opposite sides are equal, or
- one pair of opposite sides are equal and parallel, or
- the diagonals bisect each other.



PROOF: Since the point O is the midpoint of AB and of PQ, the diagonals of APBQ bisect each other. Hence APBQ is a parallelogram.



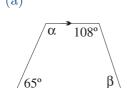


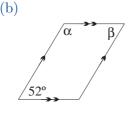
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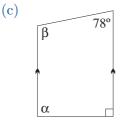
Exercise 8D

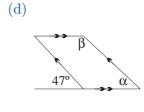
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. Find the angles α and β in the diagrams below, giving reasons.

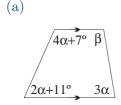


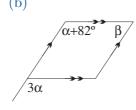


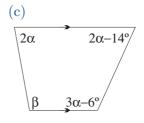


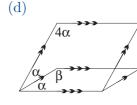


2. Write down an equation for α in each diagram below, giving reasons. Solve this equation to find the angles α and β , giving reasons.

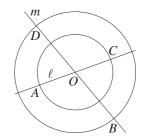








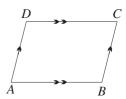
- 3. Construction: Constructing a parallelogram from two equal parallel intervals. Place a ruler with two parallel edges flat on the page, and draw $4 \,\mathrm{cm}$ intervals AB and PQ on each side of the ruler. What theorem tells us that ABQP is a parallelogram?
- **4.** Construction: Constructing a parallelogram from its diagonals. Construct two lines ℓ and m meeting at O. Construct two circles $\mathcal C$ and $\mathcal D$ with the common centre O. Let ℓ meet $\mathcal C$ at A and C, and let m meet $\mathcal D$ at B and D. Use the tests for a parallelogram to explain why the quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram.



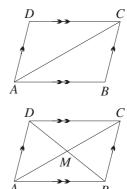
- **5.** Is it true that if one pair of opposite sides of a quadrilateral are parallel, and the other pair are equal, then the quadrilateral must be a parallelogram?
- 6. (a) What rotation and reflection symmetries does every parallelogram have?
 - (b) Can a trapezium that is not a parallelogram have any symmetries?
- **7.** Trigonometry:
 - (a) If ABCD is a parallelogram, show that $\sin A = \sin B = \sin C = \sin D$.
 - (b) Quadrilateral ABCD is a trapezium with $AB \parallel DC$ and with $\angle A = \angle B$. Show that $\sin A = \sin B = \sin C = \sin D$.

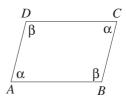
DEVELOPMENT _

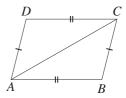
- 8. Properties of a parallelogram: In this question, you must use the definition of a parallelogram as a quadrilateral in which the opposite sides are parallel.
 - (a) Course theorem: Adjacent angles of a parallelogram are supplementary, and opposite angles are equal. The diagram shows a parallelogram ABCD. Explain why $\angle A + \angle B = 180^{\circ}$ and $\angle A = \angle C$.

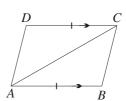


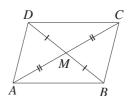
- (b) Course theorem: Opposite sides of a parallelogram are equal. The diagram shows a parallelogram ABCDwith diagonal AC.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ACB \equiv \triangle CAD$.
 - (ii) Hence show that AB = DC and BC = AD.
- (c) Course theorem: The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other. The diagram shows a parallelogram ABCD with diagonals meeting at M.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ABM \equiv \triangle CDM$ (use part (b)).
 - (ii) Hence show that AM = MC.
- 9. Tests for a parallelogram: These four theorems give the standard tests for a quadrilateral to be a parallelogram.
 - (a) Course theorem: If the opposite angles of a quadrilateral are equal, then it is a parallelogram. The diagram opposite shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which $\angle A = \angle C = \alpha$ and $\angle B = \angle D = \beta$.
 - (i) Prove that $\alpha + \beta = 180^{\circ}$.
 - (ii) Hence show that $AB \parallel DC$ and $AD \parallel BC$.
 - (b) Course theorem: If the opposite sides of a quadrilateral are equal, then it is a parallelogram. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which AB = DC and AD = BC, with diagonal AC.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ACB \equiv \triangle CAD$.
 - (ii) Thus prove that $\angle CAB = \angle ACD$, and also that $\angle ACB = \angle CAD$.
 - (iii) Hence show that $AB \parallel DC$ and $AD \parallel BC$.
 - (c) Course theorem: If one pair of opposite sides of a quadrilateral are equal and parallel, then it is a parallelogram. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which AB = DC and $AB \parallel DC$, with diagonal AC.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ACB \equiv \triangle CAD$.
 - (ii) Hence show that $AD \parallel BC$.
 - (d) Course theorem: If the diagonals of a quadrilateral bisect each other, then it is a parallelogram. In the diagram, ABCD is a quadrilateral in which the diagonals meet at M, with AM = MC and BM = MD.
 - (i) Prove that $\triangle ABM \equiv \triangle CDM$.
 - (ii) Hence use the previous theorem to prove that the quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram.
- **10.** In quadrilateral ABCD, $\angle BAD = \angle ABC$ and AD = BC.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle BAD \equiv \triangle ABC$.
 - (b) Why does $\angle ABD = \angle CAB$?
 - (c) Show that $\angle DAC = \angle DBC$.
 - (d) Prove that ABCD is a trapezium.

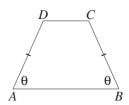




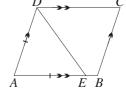








- 11. In the diagram, ABCD is a parallelogram. The points X and Y lie on BC and AD respectively such that BX = DY.
 - (a) Explain why $\angle ABX = \angle CDY$.
 - (b) Explain why AB = CD.
 - (c) Show that $\triangle ABX \equiv \triangle CDY$.
 - (d) Hence prove that AYCX is a parallelogram.
- 12. The diagram shows the parallelogram ABCD with diagonal AC. The points P and Q lie on this diagonal in such a way that AP = CQ.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle ABP \equiv \triangle CDQ$.
 - (b) Prove that $\triangle ADP \equiv \triangle CBQ$.
 - (c) Hence prove that BQDP is a parallelogram.
- 13. The diagram shows the parallelogram ABCD and points Xand Y on AB and CD respectively, with AX = CY. The diagonal AC intersects XY at Z.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle AXZ \equiv \triangle CYZ$.
 - (b) Hence prove that XY is concurrent with the diagonals.
- 14. The previous two questions could have been solved more easily using the standard properties of and tests for a parallelogram. Explain these alternative proofs.
- 15. The diagram to the right shows a parallelogram ABCD. The point E is constructed on the side AB in such a way that AD = AE. Prove that the interval DE bisects the angle $\angle ADC$. [HINT: Begin by letting $\angle ADE = \theta$.]



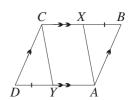
- **16.** Theorem: The base angles of a trapezium are equal if and only if the non-parallel sides are equal. Let ABCD be a trapezium with $AB \parallel DC$, but AD not parallel to BC. Construct $BF \parallel AD$ with F on DC, produced if necessary. Let $\angle DAB = \alpha$.
 - (a) Suppose first that AD = BC.
 - (i) Prove that BF = AD.
 - (ii) Hence prove that $\angle ABC = \alpha$.
 - (b) Conversely, suppose that $\angle ABC = \alpha$.
 - (i) Prove that $\angle BFC = \alpha$.
 - (ii) Hence prove that BC = AD.

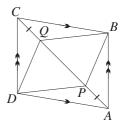


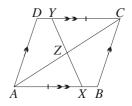
- (a) Draw a diagram showing this information.
- (b) Prove that ABCD is a trapezium with equal base angles.



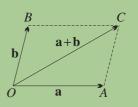
- 18. Quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram. A point X is chosen on AB and Y is constructed on DC so that DX = BY. Note that DX is not perpendicular to AB.
 - (a) Given that DXBY is not a parallelogram, draw a picture of the situation.
 - (b) What type of quadrilateral is DXBY?
 - (c) What condition needs to be placed on DX in order to guarantee that DXBY is a parallelogram?



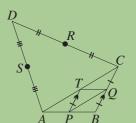




19. PARALLELOGRAMS AND VECTORS: The diagram shows two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} starting from O. The parallelogram OACBhas been completed so that the diagonal OC represents the vector $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}$. Draw three more parallelograms, each using O as one vertex, so that the diagonals from O represent the vectors: (a) $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$ (b) $-\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$ (c) $\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}$



- 20. THEOREM: The quadrilateral formed by joining the midpoints of the sides of a quadrilateral is a parallelogram. In quadrilateral ABCD, the points Q, R and S are the midpoints of BC, CD and DA respectively. The two points P and T lie on AB and AC respectively such that PT = BQ and $PT \parallel BQ$.
 - (a) Explain why PBQT is a parallelogram.
 - (b) Show that the four triangles $\triangle APT$, $\triangle QPT$, $\triangle PBQ$ and $\triangle TQC$ are all congruent, and that P is the midpoint of AB.
 - (c) Hence show that the line joining the midpoints of two adjacent sides of a quadrilateral is parallel to the diagonal joining those two sides.
 - (d) Hence show that PQRS is a parallelogram.

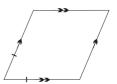


8 E Rhombuses, Rectangles and Squares

Rhombuses, rectangles and squares are particular types of parallelograms, and their definitions in this course reflect that understanding. Again, most of the proofs have been encountered in earlier years, and are left to the exercises.

Rhombuses and their Properties and Tests: Intuitively, a rhombus is a 'pushed-over square', but its formal definition is:

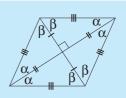
DEFINITION: A rhombus is a parallelogram with a 19 pair of adjacent sides equal.



As with the parallelogram, the standard properties and tests concern the sides, the vertex angles and the diagonals.

Course theorem: If a quadrilateral is a rhombus, then:

- all four sides are equal, and
- the diagonals bisect each other at right angles, and
- the diagonals bisect each vertex angle.



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Conversely, a quadrilateral is a rhombus if:

- all sides are equal, or
- the diagonals bisect each other at right angles, or
- the diagonals bisect each vertex angle.

Since a rhombus is a parallelogram, its opposite sides are equal. Since also two adjacent sides are equal, all four sides must be equal.

Conversely, suppose that all four sides of a quadrilateral are equal. Since opposite sides are equal, it must be a parallelogram, and since two adjacent sides are equal, it is therefore a rhombus.

This proves the first and fourth points. The remaining proofs are a little more complicated, and are left to the exercises.

Rectangles and their Properties and Tests: A rectangle is also defined as a special type of parallelogram.

DEFINITION: A rectangle is a parallelogram in which 21 one angle is a right angle.

The standard properties and tests for a rectangle are:

Course theorem: If a quadrilateral is a rectangle, then:

- all four angles are right angles, and
- the diagonals are equal and bisect each other.

22 Conversely, a quadrilateral is a rectangle if:

- all angles are equal, or
- the diagonals are equal and bisect each other.

PROOF: Since a rectangle is a parallelogram, its opposite angles are equal and add to 360°. Since one angle is 90°, it follows that all angles are 90°.

Conversely, suppose that all angles of a quadrilateral are equal. Then since they add to 360°, they must each be 90°. Hence the opposite angles are equal, so the quadrilateral must be a parallelogram, and hence is a rectangle.

This proves the first and third points. The remaining proofs are left to structured exercises.

The Distance Between Parallel Lines: Suppose that AB and PQare two transversals perpendicular to two parallel lines ℓ and m. Then ABQP forms a rectangle, because all its vertex angles are right angles. Hence the opposite sides AB and PQare equal. This allows a formal definition of the distance between two parallel lines.

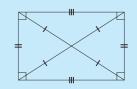
> **DEFINITION:** The distance between two parallel lines is the length of a perpendicular transversal.

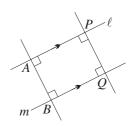
Rhombuses and rectangles are different special sorts of parallelograms. A square is simply a quadrilateral that is both a rhombus and a rectangle.

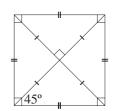
DEFINITION: A square is a quadrilateral that is 24 both a rhombus and a rectangle.

It follows then from the previous theorems that all sides of a square are equal, all angles are right angles, and the diagonals bisect each other at right angles and meet each side at 45°.



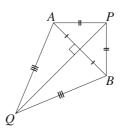






23

A NOTE ON KITES: Kites are not part of the course, but they occur frequently in problems. A kite is usually defined as a quadrilateral in which two pairs of adjacent sides are equal, as in the diagram to the right, where AP = BP and AQ = BQ. A question below develops the straightforward proof that the diagonal PQ is the perpendicular bisector of the diagonal AB, and bisects the vertex angles at P and Q. Another question deals with tests for kites.

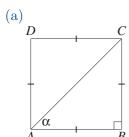


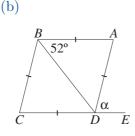
Theorems about kites, however, are not part of the course, and should not be quoted as reasons unless they have been developed earlier in the same question.

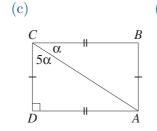
Exercise 8E

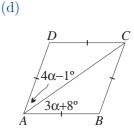
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. Find α in each of the figures below, giving reasons.

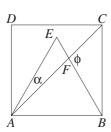




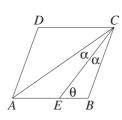








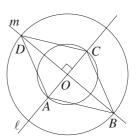




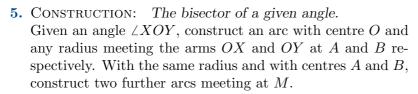
Inside the square ABCD is an equilateral $\triangle ABE$. The diagonal AC intersects BE at F. Find the sizes of angles α and ϕ .

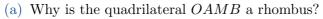
ABCD is a rhombus with the diagonal AC shown. The line CE bisects $\angle ACB$. Show that $\theta = 3\alpha$.

- **3.** (a) What rotation and reflection symmetries does:
 - (i) every rectangle have,
- (ii) every rhombus have,
- (iii) every square have?
- (b) What rotation and reflection symmetries does a circle have?
- **4.** Constructions: Constructing a rectangle, rhombus and square from their diagonals.
 - (a) Rhombus: Construct any two perpendicular lines ℓ and m, and let them meet at O. Construct two circles \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{D} with the common centre O. Let ℓ meet \mathcal{C} at A and C, and let m meet \mathcal{D} at B and D. Use the standard tests for a rhombus to explain why the quadrilateral ABCD is a rhombus.

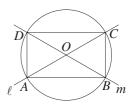


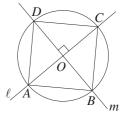
- (b) RECTANGLE: Construct any two non-parallel lines ℓ and m, and let them meet at O. Construct a circle $\mathcal C$ with centre O and any radius. Let ℓ meet $\mathcal C$ at A and C, and let m meet $\mathcal C$ at B and D. Use the standard tests for a rectangle to explain why the quadrilateral ABCD is a rectangle.
- (c) Square: Construct any two perpendicular lines ℓ and m, and let them meet at O. Construct a circle $\mathcal C$ with centre O and any radius. Let ℓ meet $\mathcal C$ at A and C, and let m meet $\mathcal C$ at B and D. Use the standard tests for a square to explain why the quadrilateral ABCD is a square.

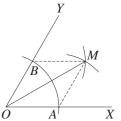






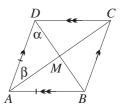






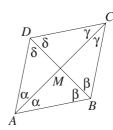
DEVELOPMENT

- **6.** Course theorem: The diagonals of a rhombus bisect each other at right angles, and bisect the vertex angles. In the diagram, the diagonals of the rhombus ABCD meet at M. Since a rhombus is a parallelogram, we already know that the diagonals bisect each other.
 - (a) Let $\alpha = \angle ADB$. Explain why $\angle ABD = \alpha$.
 - (b) Hence prove that $\angle CDB = \alpha$.
 - (c) Let $\beta = \angle DAC$. Prove that $\angle BAC = \beta$.
 - (d) Hence prove that $AC \perp BD$. (There is no need for congruence in this situation.)

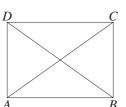


- 7. Tests for a rhombus: The following three parts are structured proofs of the standard tests for a rhombus listed in the notes above.
 - (a) Course theorem: If all sides of a quadrilateral are equal, then it is a rhombus. Explain, using the previous theorems and the definition of a rhombus, why a quadrilateral with all sides equal must be a rhombus.
 - (b) Course theorem: If the diagonals of a quadrilateral bisect each other at right angles, then it is a rhombus. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which the diagonals bisect each other at right angles at M.
 - (i) What previous theorem proves that the quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram?
 - (ii) Prove that $\triangle AMD \equiv \triangle AMB$, and hence that AD = AB. The quadrilateral ABCD is then a rhombus by definition.
 - (c) Course theorem: If the diagonals of a quadrilateral bisect each vertex angle, then it is a rhombus. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which the diagonals bisect each vertex angle. Let α , β , γ and δ be as shown.

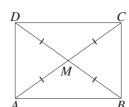
- (i) Prove that $\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta = 180^{\circ}$.
- (ii) By taking the sum of the angles in $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle ADC$, prove that $\beta = \delta$.
- (iii) Similarly, prove that $\alpha = \gamma$, and state why ABCDis a parallelogram.
- (iv) Finally, prove that AB = AD.



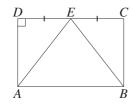
- 8. Properties of rectangles: The following two parts are structured proofs of the standard properties of a rectangle listed in the notes above.
 - (a) Course theorem: All the angles in a rectangle are right angles. Use the definition of a rectangle — as a parallelogram with one angle a right angle — and the properties of a parallelogram to prove that all four angles of a rectangle are right angles.
 - (b) Course theorem: The diagonals of a rectangle are equal and bisect each other. The diagram shows a rectangle ABCD, with diagonals drawn.
 - (i) Use the properties of a parallelogram to show that the diagonals bisect each other.
 - (ii) Prove that $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle BAD$.
 - (iii) Hence prove that AC = BD.



- 9. Tests for a rectangle: The following two parts are structured proofs of the standard tests for a rectangle listed in the notes above.
 - (a) Course theorem: If all angles of a quadrilateral are equal, then it is a rectangle. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which all angles are equal.
 - (i) Prove that all angles are right angles.
 - (ii) Hence prove that ABCD is a rectangle.
 - (b) Course theorem: If the diagonals of a quadrilateral are equal and bisect each other, then it is a rectangle. The diagram shows a quadrilateral ABCD in which the diagonals, meeting at M, are equal and bisect each other.

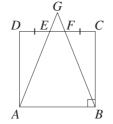


- (i) Explain why ABCD is a parallelogram.
- (ii) Let $\alpha = \angle BAM$, and explain why $\angle ABM = \alpha$.
- (iii) Let $\beta = \angle MBC$, and explain why $\angle MCB = \beta$.
- (iv) Using the angle sum of the triangle ABC, prove that $\angle ABC = 90^{\circ}$.
- **10.** (a)



The point E is the midpoint of the side CDof the rectangle ABCD.

- (i) Prove that $\triangle BCE \equiv \triangle ADE$.
- (ii) Hence show that $\triangle ABE$ is isosceles.



The points E and F are on the side CDin the square ABCD, with CF = DE. Produce AE and BF to meet at G.

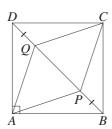
- (i) Prove that $\triangle BCF \equiv \triangle ADE$.
- (ii) Hence show that $\triangle ABG$ is isosceles.

- 11. Construction: A right angle at a point on a line. Given a point P on a line ℓ , construct an arc with centre P meeting ℓ at A and B. With increased radius, construct arcs with centres at A and B meeting at M and N.
 - (a) Why is the quadrilateral AMBN a rhombus?
 - (b) Hence prove that P lies on MN and $MN \perp AB$.
- 12. Construction: The perpendicular bisector of an interval. Given an interval AB, construct arcs of the same radius, greater than $\frac{1}{2}AB$, with centres at A and B. Let the arcs meet at P and Q.
 - (a) Why is the quadrilateral APBQ a rhombus?
 - (b) Hence prove that PQ bisects AB and $PQ \perp AB$.
- 13. CONSTRUCTION: The line parallel to a given line through a given point. Given a line ℓ and a point P not on ℓ , choose a point A on ℓ . With centre A and radius AP, construct an arc meeting ℓ at B. With the same radius, draw arcs with centres at B and P meeting at Q.
 - (a) Why is the quadrilateral APQB a rhombus?
 - (b) Hence prove that $PQ \parallel \ell$.
- **14.** Construction: The line perpendicular to a given line through a given point.

Given a line ℓ and a point P not on ℓ , construct an arc with centre P meeting ℓ at A and B. With the same radius, draw arcs with centres at A and B, intersecting at Q.

- (a) Why is the quadrilateral *APBQ* a rhombus?
- (b) Hence prove that $PQ \perp \ell$.

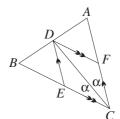




P and Q lie on the diagonal BD of square ABCD, and BP = DQ. (i) Prove that $\triangle ABP \equiv \triangle CBP \equiv \triangle ADQ \equiv \triangle CDQ$.

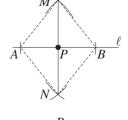
(ii) Hence show that APCQ is a rhombus.

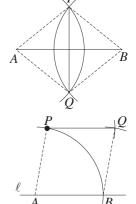
(b)

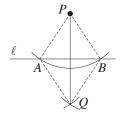


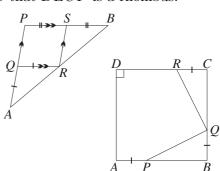
In the triangle ABC, DC bisects $\angle BCA$, $DE \parallel AC$ and $DF \parallel BC$.

- (i) Explain why is DECF a parallelogram.
- (ii) Show that DECF is a rhombus.
- **16.** The parallelogram PQRS is inscribed in $\triangle PBA$ with R on AB. It is found that QA = QR and PS = SB.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle BSR \equiv \triangle RQA$.
 - (b) Hence prove that *PQRS* is a rhombus.
- 17. In the square ABCD, P is on AB, Q is on BC and R is on CD, with AP = BQ = CR.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle PBQ \equiv \triangle QCR$.
 - (b) Prove that $\angle PQR$ is a right angle.







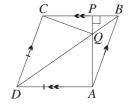


18. In the rhombus ABCD, AP is constructed perpendicular to BC and intersects the diagonal BD at Q.

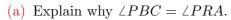




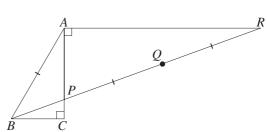
- (c) Show that $\angle DAQ$ is a right angle.
- (d) Hence find $\angle QCD$.



19. The triangles ABC and APR are both rightangled at the vertices marked in the diagram. The midpoint of PR is Q, and it is found that PQ = QR = AB.



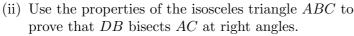
- (b) Construct the point S that completes the rectangle APSR. Explain why Q is also the midpoint of AS and why PQ = AQ.
- (c) Hence prove that $\angle PBA = 2 \times \angle PBC$.

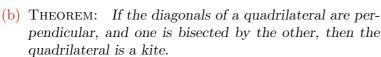


- 20. TWO THEOREMS ABOUT KITES: A kite is defined to be a quadrilateral in which two pairs of adjacent sides are equal. [Note: This definition is not part of the course.]
 - (a) Theorem: The diagonals of a kite are perpendicular and one bisects the other.

The diagram shows a kite ABCD with AB = BC and AD = DC. The diagonals AC and BD intersect at M.

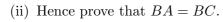




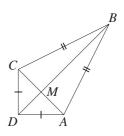


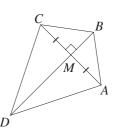
The diagram shows a quadrilateral with perpendicular diagonals meeting at M, and AM = MC.





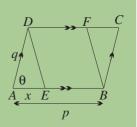
(iii) Similarly, prove that DA = DC.





- **EXTENSION**
- 21. Trigonometry: The quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram with AB = p, AD = q, p > q, and $\angle BAD = \theta$. The points E on AB and F on CD are chosen so that EBFD is a rhombus. Let AE = x. Show that

$$x = \frac{p^2 - q^2}{2(p - q\cos\theta)}.$$



8 F Areas of Plane Figures

The standard area formulae are well known. Some of them were used in the development of the definite integral, which extended the idea of area to regions with curved boundaries. The formulae below apply to figures with straight edges, and their proofs by dissection are reviewed below.

Course Theorem — Area Formulae for Quadrilaterals and Triangles: The various area formulae are based on the definition of the area of a rectangle as length times breadth, and on the assumption that area remains constant when regions are dissected and rearranged. The first two formulae below are therefore definitions. The other four formulae can be proven using the diagrams below, which need to be studied until the logic of each dissection becomes clear.

STANDARD AREA FORMULAE:

 $area = (side length)^2$ SQUARE:

 $area = (length) \times (breadth)$ Rectangle:

• Parallelogram: $area = (base) \times (perpendicular height)$

area = $\frac{1}{2}$ × (base) × (perpendicular height) TRIANGLE:

area = $\frac{1}{2}$ × (product of the diagonals) RHOMBUS:

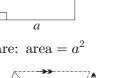
TRAPEZIUM: $area = (average of parallel sides) \times (perpendicular height)$

PROOF:

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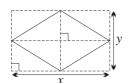
Square: area = a^2



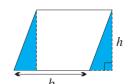
Triangle: area = $\frac{1}{2}bh$



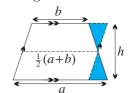
Rectangle: area = bh



Rhombus: area = $\frac{1}{2}xy$



Parallelogram: area = bh



Trapezium: area = $\frac{1}{2}h(a+b)$

Because rhombuses are parallelograms, their areas can also be calculated using the formula area = (base) \times (perpendicular height) associated with parallelograms. The formula area = $\frac{1}{2} \times (\text{product of the diagonals})$ gives another, and quite different, approach that is often forgotten in problems.

Because squares are rhombuses, their area can also be calculated using their diagonals. But the diagonals of a square are equal, so the formula becomes

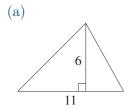
area of square $=\frac{1}{2}\times$ (square of the diagonal).

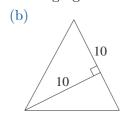
The Area of the Circle: The area of a circle is πr^2 , where r is the radius. The proof of this result was discussed in Section 11B of the Year 11 volume as a preliminary to integration — because the boundary is curved, some sort of infinite dissection is necessary, and the proof therefore belongs to the theory of the definite integral.

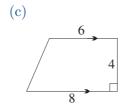
Exercise 8F

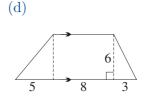
The calculation of areas is so linked with Pythagoras' theorem that it is inconvenient to separate them in exercises. Pythagoras' theorem has therefore been used freely in the questions of this exercise, although its formal review is in the next section.

1. Find the areas of the following figures:

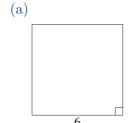


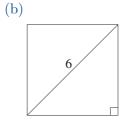


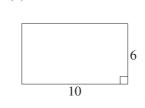


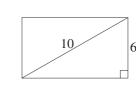


2. Find the area A and the perimeter P of the squares in parts (a) and (b) and the rectangles in parts (c) and (d). Use Pythagoras' theorem to find missing lengths where necessary.

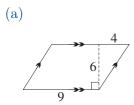


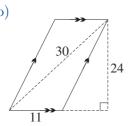


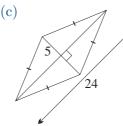


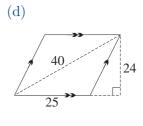


3. Find the area A and the perimeter P of the following figures, using Pythagoras' theorem where necessary. Then find the lengths of any missing diagonals.









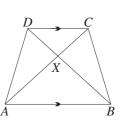
- **4.** (a) Explain why the area of a square is half the square of the diagonal.
 - (b) Show that the area of a rectangle with sides a and b is the same as the area of the square whose side length s is the geometric mean \sqrt{ab} of the sides of the rectangle.
 - (c) The two area formulae for triangles: Let $\triangle ABC$ be right-angled at C. Explain why the formula $A = \frac{1}{2} \times (\text{base}) \times (\text{height})$ for the area of the triangle is identical to the trigonometric area formulae $A = \frac{1}{2}ab\sin C$.

_DEVELOPMENT _

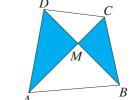
- **5.** Theorem: A median of a triangle divides the triangle into two triangles of equal area. Sketch a triangle ABC. Let M be the midpoint of BC, and join the median AM.
 - (a) Explain why $\triangle ABM$ and $\triangle ACM$ have the same perpendicular height.
 - (b) Hence explain why $\triangle ABM$ and $\triangle ACM$ have the same area.
- **6.** Theorem: The two triangles formed by the diagonals and the non-parallel sides of a trapezium have the same area. In the trapezium ABCD, $AB \parallel DC$ and AC intersects BDat X.



(b) Hence explain why area $\triangle BCX = \text{area } \triangle ADX$.



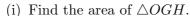
7. Theorem: Conversely, a quadrilateral in which the diagonals form a pair of opposite triangles of equal area is a trapezium. The diagonals of the quadrilateral ABCD meet at M, and $\triangle AMD$ and $\triangle BMC$ have equal areas.



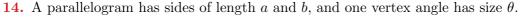
- (a) Prove that $\triangle ABD$ and $\triangle ABC$ have equal areas.
- (b) Hence prove that $AB \parallel DC$.
- **8.** Prove that the four small triangles formed by the two diagonals of a parallelogram all have the same area. Under what circumstances are they all congruent?
- 9. The diagonals of a parallelogram form the diameters of two circles.
 - (a) Why are they concentric?
 - (b) If the diagonals are in the ratio a:b, what is the ratio of the areas of the circles?
 - (c) Under what circumstances do the circles coincide?
- 10. In the diagram to the right, ABCD and PQRS are squares, and AB = 1 metre. Let AP = x.
 - (a) Find an expression for the area of PQRS in terms of x.
 - (b) What is the minimum area of PQRS, and what value of x gives this minimum?
 - (c) Explain why the result is the same if the total area of the four triangles is maximised.



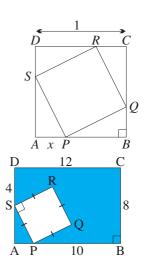
- (a) Find the area of the square.
- (b) Hence find the shaded area outside the square.
- 12. (a) The diagram shows a regular hexagon inscribed in a circle of radius 1 and centre O.
 - (i) Find the area of $\triangle AOB$.
 - (ii) Hence find the area of the hexagon.
 - (b) The second diagram on the right shows another regular hexagon escribed around a circle of radius 1, that is, each side is tangent to the circle.

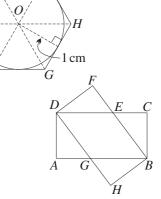


- (ii) Find the area of the hexagon.
- (c) Hence explain why $\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{3} < \pi < 2\sqrt{3}$.
- 13. In the diagram opposite, ABCD and BFDH are congruent rectangles with AB = 8 and BC = 6.
 - (a) Explain why $\triangle ADG \equiv \triangle HBG$.
 - (b) Show that $AG = \frac{AB^2 AD^2}{2AB}$ by using Pythagoras' theorem, and hence find AG.
 - (c) Hence find the area of *BEDG*.

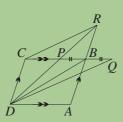


- (a) Show that the area of the parallelogram is $A = ab \sin \theta$.
- (b) Use the cosine rule to find the squares on the diagonals in terms of a, b and θ .
- (c) Circles are drawn with the two diagonals as diameters. What is the area of the annulus between the two circles?

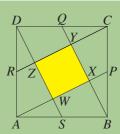




15. (a)



(b)

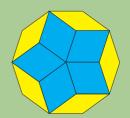


The diagram above shows a parallelogram ABCD. The point P lies on the side BC, and the side CB is produced to Q so that BQ = BP. The intervals AB and DP are produced so that they intersect at R. Show that the areas of $\triangle DQB$ and $\triangle CPR$ are equal.

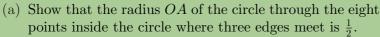
The diagram above shows a square ABCDwith the midpoints of each side being P, Q, R and S as shown. The intervals AP, BQ, CR and DS intersect at W, X, Yand Z as shown. Find the ratio of the areas of the small square WXYZ and the large square ABCD.

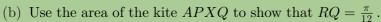
- 16. The diagram shows the tesselation of a decagon by two types of rhombus, one fat and the other thin. The lengths of the sides of each rhombus and the decagon are all 1 cm.
 - (a) Find both angles in each rhombus, and confirm that the interior angle at each vertex of the decagon is correct.
 - (b) Hence show that the area of the decagon is

$$A = 5\sin 36^{\circ}(2\cos 36^{\circ} + 1) \text{ cm}^2.$$

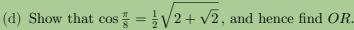


17. A DIFFICULT EQUAL-AREA PROBLEM: The diagram shows the design of the clock-face on the stone towers at Martin Place and Central Railway Station in Sydney. The design within the inner circle seems to be based on dividing it into 24 regions of equal area. Let the inner circle have radius 1.





(c) Use the kite OAQB to find the radius OQ of the circle through the eight points where four edges meet.



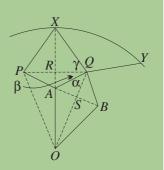
(e) Find the lengths AR and RX, and hence show that

$$\tan \beta = \frac{\pi(\sqrt{2}+1)-6}{\pi}$$
 and $\tan \gamma = \frac{12-\pi(\sqrt{2}+1)}{\pi}$.



$$\tan \alpha = \frac{6 - 3\sqrt{2}}{2\pi - 3\sqrt{2}}.$$

(g) Hence find the angle between opposite edges at the eight points where four edges meet, correct to the nearest minute.



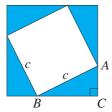
8 G Pythagoras' Theorem and its Converse

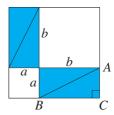
Pythagoras' theorem hardly needs introduction, having been the basis of so much of the course. But its proof needs attention, and the converse theorem and its interesting proof by congruence will be new for many students.

Pythagoras' Theorem: The following proof by dissection of Pythagoras' theorem is very quick, and is one of hundreds of known proofs.

26

PYTHAGORAS' THEOREM: In a right triangle, the square on the hypotenuse equals the sum of the squares on the other two sides.





GIVEN: Let $\triangle ABC$ be a right triangle with $\angle C = 90^{\circ}$.

AIM: To prove that $AC^2 + BC^2 = AB^2$.

CONSTRUCTION: As shown.

PROOF: Behold! (To quote an Indian text — is anything further required?)

Pythagorean Triads: A Pythagorean triad consists of three positive integers a, b and c such that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$. For example,

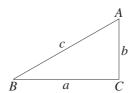
$$3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$$
 and $5^2 + 12^2 = 13^2$,

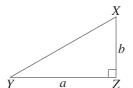
so 3, 4, 5 and 5, 12, 13 are Pythagorean triads. Such triads are very convenient, because they can be the side lengths of a right triangle. An extension question below gives a complete list of Pythagorean triads.

Converse of Pythagoras' Theorem: The converse of Pythagoras' theorem is also true, and its proof is an application of congruence. The proof of the converse uses the forward theorem, and is consequently rather subtle.

27

CONVERSE OF PYTHAGORAS' THEOREM: If the sum of the squares on two sides of a triangle equals the square on the third side, then the angle included by the two sides is a right angle.





GIVEN: Let ABC be a triangle whose sides satisfy the relation $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

AIM: To prove that $\angle C = 90^{\circ}$.

Construction: Construct $\triangle XYZ$ in which $\angle Z = 90^{\circ}$, YZ = a and XZ = b.

PROOF: Using Pythagoras' theorem in $\triangle XYZ$,

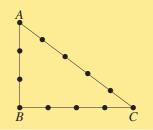
$$XY^2 = a^2 + b^2$$
 (because XY is the hypotenuse)
= c^2 (given),

Hence the triangles ABC and XYZ are congruent by the SSS test, and so $\angle C = \angle Z = 90^{\circ}$ (matching angles of congruent triangles).

WORKED EXERCISE: A long rope is divided into twelve equal sections by knots along its length. Explain how it can be used to construct a right angle.



SOLUTION: Let A be one end of the rope. Let B be the point 3 units along, and let C be the point a further 4 units along. Join the two ends of the rope, and stretch the rope into a triangle with vertices A, B and C. Then since 3, 4, 5 is a Pythagorean triad, the triangle will be right-angled at B.



Exercise 8G

1. Which of the following triplets are the sides of a right-angled triangle?

(a) 30, 24, 18

- (b) 28, 24, 15
- (c) 26, 24, 10
- (d) 25, 24, 7
- (e) 24, 20, 13
- 2. Find the unknown side of each of the following right-angled triangles with base b, altitude a and hypotenuse c. Leave your answer in surd form where necessary.

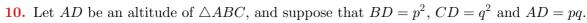
(a) a = 12, b = 5

- (b) a = 4, b = 5
- (c) b = 15, c = 20 (d) a = 3, c = 7
- 3. Pythagoras' theorem and the cosine rule: Let ABC be a triangle right-angled at C. Write down, with c^2 as subject, the cosine rule and Pythagoras' theorem, and explain why they are identical.
- 4. A paddock on level ground is 2 km long and 1 km wide. Answer these questions, correct to the nearest second.
 - (a) If a farmer walks from one corner to the opposite corner along the fences in 40 minutes, how long will it take him if he walks across the diagonal?
 - (b) If his assistant jogs along the diagonal in 15 minutes, how long will it take him if he jogs along the fences?
- 5. (a) Use Pythagoras' theorem to find an equation for the altitude a of an isosceles triangle with base 2b and equal legs s. Hence find the area of an isosceles triangle with:
 - (i) equal legs 15 cm and base 24 cm,
- (ii) equal legs 18 cm and base 20 cm.
- (b) Write down the altitude in the special case where s=2b. What type of triangle is this and what is its area?
- 6. (a) The diagonals of a rhombus are 16 cm and 30 cm. (i) What are the lengths of the sides? (ii) Use trigonometry to find the vertex angles, correct to the nearest minute.
 - (b) A rhombus with 20 cm sides has a 12 cm diagonal. How long is the other diagonal?
 - (c) One diagonal of a rhombus is 20 cm, and its area is 100 cm².
 - (i) How long is the other diagonal?
- (ii) How long are its sides?
- 7. The sides of a rhombus are $5 \,\mathrm{cm}$, and its area is $24 \,\mathrm{cm}^2$.
 - (a) Let the diagonals have lengths 2x and 2y, and show that xy = 12 and $x^2 + y^2 = 25$.
 - (b) Solve for x and hence find the lengths of the diagonals.

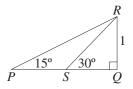
- 8. (a) The t-formulae: Two sides of a right-angled triangle are 2t and t² 1.
 (i) Show that the hypotenuse is t² + 1. (ii) What are the two possible lengths of the hypotenuse if another side of the triangle is 8 cm?
 - (b) Show that if a and b are integers with b < a, then $a^2 b^2$, 2ab, $a^2 + b^2$ is a Pythagorean triad. Then generate and check the Pythagorean triads given by:
 - (i) a = 2, b = 1
- (ii) a = 3, b = 2
- (iii) a = 4, b = 3
- (iv) a = 7, b = 4

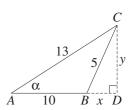
DEVELOPMENT

- **9.** Course theorem: An alternative proof of Pythagoras' theorem. The triangle ABC is right-angled at C. Let the sides be AB = c, BC = a and CA = b, with b > a. The triangles BDE, DFG and FAH are congruent to $\triangle ABC$.
 - (a) Explain why HC = b a.
 - (b) Find, in terms of the sides a, b and c, the areas of:
 (i) the square ABDF, (ii) the square CEGH,
 (iii) the four triangles.
 - (c) Hence show that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.

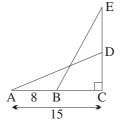


- (a) Find AB^2 and AC^2 . (b) Hence show that $\angle A = 90^{\circ}$.
- **11.** In the diagram, $\triangle PQR$ and $\triangle QRS$ are both right-angled at Q, with $\angle RPQ = 15^{\circ}$ and $\angle RSQ = 30^{\circ}$.
 - (a) Find $\angle PRS$ and hence show that PS = RS.
 - (b) Given that QR = 1 unit, write down the lengths of QS and RS and deduce that $\tan 15^{\circ} = 2 \sqrt{3}$.
- 12. (a) In triangle ABC, AB=10, BC=5 and AC=13. The altitude is CD=y. Let BD=x and $\angle A=\alpha$.
 - (b) Use Pythagoras' theorem to write down a pair of equations for x and y.
 - (c) Solve for x, and hence find $\cos \alpha$ without finding α .

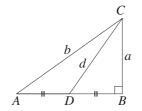




13. (a)



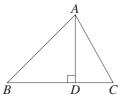
(b)



In the diagram, AD = BE = 25. AB = 8 and AC = 15. Find the length of DE.

In the right-angled $\triangle ABC$, the point D bisects the base. Show that $4d^2 = b^2 + 3a^2$.

- **14.** The altitude through A in $\triangle ABC$ meets the opposite side BC at D. Use Pythagoras' theorem in $\triangle ADB$ and $\triangle ADC$ to show that $AB^2 + DC^2 = AC^2 + BD^2$.
- 15. Triangle ABC is right-angled at A. Show that:
 - (a) $(b+c)^2 a^2 = a^2 (b-c)^2$
 - (b) (a+b+c)(-a+b+c) = (a-b+c)(a+b-c)



16. The quadrilateral ABCD is a parallelogram with diagonal AC perpendicular to CD. The two diagonals intersect at E. Use Pythagoras' theorem to show that

$$DE^2 + 3EA^2 = AD^2.$$

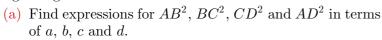
[HINT: Begin by letting CA = 2d, CD = a and DA = c.]

17. The triangle ABC has a right angle at B and the sides opposite the respective vertices are a, b and c. The side BC is produced a distance q to Q while BA is produced a distance r to R. Show that

$$QA^2 + RC^2 = QR^2 + AC^2.$$

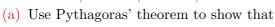


- (a) Use Pythagoras' theorem to prove that the semicircle on the hypotenuse of a rightangled triangle equals the sum of the semicircles on the other two sides.
- (b) Prove that the equilateral triangle on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle equals the sum of the equilateral triangles on the other two sides.
- 19. Theorem: If the diagonals of a quadrilateral are perpendicular, then the sums of squares on opposite sides are equal. Let ABCD be a quadrilateral, with diagonals meeting at right angles at M.



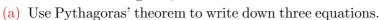
(b) Hence show that
$$AB^2 + CD^2 = BC^2 + AD^2$$
.

20. Theorem: Conversely, if the sums of squares of opposite sides of a quadrilateral are equal, then the diagonals are perpendicular. Let ABCD be a quadrilateral in which $AB^2 + CD^2 = AD^2 + BC^2$. Let X and Y be the feet of the perpendiculars from B and D respectively to AC. Let AX = a, BY = b, CY = c, DX = d and XY = x.

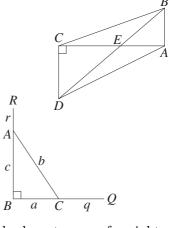


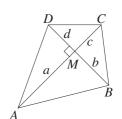
$$a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2} + d^{2} = (a+x)^{2} + b^{2} + (c+x)^{2} + d^{2}.$$

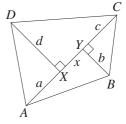
- (b) Hence show that x = 0 and $AC \perp BD$.
- 21. APOLLONIUS' THEOREM: The sum of the squares on two sides of a triangle is equal to twice the sum of the square on half the third side and the square on the median to the third side. The diagram shows $\triangle ABC$ with AC = a, BC = band AB = 2c. The median CD has length d. Let the altitude CE have length h, and let DE = x.

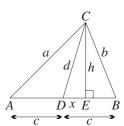


(b) Eliminate h and x from these equations, and hence show that $a^{2} + b^{2} = 2(c^{2} + d^{2})$, as required.



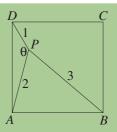






- **22.** (a) Show that $(a^2 + b^2)(c^2 + d^2) = (ac + bd)^2 + (ad bc)^2$.
 - (b) Hence show that the set of integers that are the sum of two squares is closed under multiplication. (That is, prove that if two integers are each the sum of two squares, then their product is also the sum of two squares.)

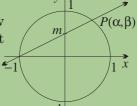
- **23.** The diagram shows a square ABCD with a point P inside it which is 1 unit from D, 2 units from A and 3 units from B. Let $\angle APD = \theta$.
 - (a) Show that $\theta = \frac{3\pi}{4}$.
 - (b) Show that if P is outside the square, then $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$.
 - (c) Is the situation possible if P is 3 units from C instead of from B?



- 24. A QUESTION MORE EASILY DONE BY COORDINATE GEOMETRY:
 - (a) The points P and Q divide a given interval AB internally and externally respectively in the ratio 1:2. The point X lies on the circle with diameter PQ. Prove that AX:XB=1:2.

[HINT: Drop the perpendicular from X to AB, and use Pythagoras' theorem.]

- (b) Now suppose that P and Q divide the given interval AB internally and externally respectively in the ratio $1:\lambda$. Prove that $AX:XB=1:\lambda$.
- (c) Repeat part (b) using coordinate geometry with the origin at A.
- **25.** PYTHAGOREAN TRIADS: Suppose that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$, where a, b and c are integers.
 - (a) Prove that one of a and b is even, and the other odd. [HINT: Find all possible remainders when the square of each number is divided by 4.]
 - (b) Prove that one of the three integers is divisible by 5. [HINT: Find all the possible remainders when the square of a number is divided by 5.]
- **26.** A LIST OF ALL PYTHAGOREAN TRIADS: A Pythagorean triad a, b, c is called *primitive* if there is no common factor of a, b and c.
 - (a) Show that every Pythagorean triad is a multiple of a primitive Pythagorean triad.
 - (b) Show that if a, b, c is a Pythagorean triad, then the point $P(\alpha, \beta)$, where $\alpha = a/c$ and $\beta = b/c$, lies on the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.
 - (c) Let m = p/q be any rational gradient between 0 and 1. Show that the line with gradient m through M(-1,0) meets the unit circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ again at $P(\alpha, \beta)$, where



$$\alpha = \frac{1 - m^2}{1 + m^2}$$
 and $\beta = \frac{2m}{1 + m^2}$ are both rational,

and hence show that $q^2 - p^2$, 2pq, $q^2 + p^2$ is a Pythagorean triad.

- (d) Show that if the integers p and q in part (c) are relatively prime and not both odd, then $q^2 p^2$, 2pq, $q^2 + p^2$ is a primitive Pythagorean triad.
- (e) Show that part (d) is a complete list of primitive Pythagorean triads.

8 H Similarity

Similarity generalises the study of congruence to figures that have the same shape but not necessarily the same size. Its formal definition requires the idea of an *enlargement*, which is a stretching in all directions by the same factor.

SIMILARITY: Two figures \mathcal{S} and \mathcal{T} are called *similar*, written as $\mathcal{S} \parallel \mid \mathcal{T}$, if one figure can be moved to coincide with the other figure by means of a sequence of rotations, reflections, translations, and enlargements.

The enlargement ratio involved in these transformations is called the *similarity* ratio of the two figures.

28





Like congruence, similarity sets up a correspondence between the elements of the two figures. In this correspondence, angles are preserved, and the ratio of two matching lengths equals the similarity ratio. Since an area is the product of two lengths, the ratio of the areas of matching regions is the square of the similarity ratio. Likewise, if the idea is extended into three-dimensional space, then the ratio of the volumes of matching solids is the cube of the similarity ratio.

SIMILARITY RATIO: If two similar figures have similarity ratio 1:k, then

- matching angles have the same size,
- matching intervals have lengths in the ratio 1:k,
- matching regions have areas in the ratio $1:k^2$,
- matching solids have volumes in the ratio $1:k^3$

Similar Triangles: As with congruence, most of our arguments concern triangles, and the four standard tests for similarity of triangles will be assumptions. These four tests correspond exactly with the four standard congruence tests, except that equal sides are replaced by proportional sides (the AAS congruence test thus corresponds to the AA similarity test). An example of each test is given below.

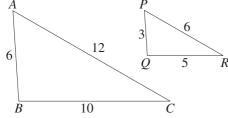
STANDARD SIMILARITY TESTS FOR TRIANGLES: Two triangles are similar if:

SSS the three sides of one triangle are respectively proportional to the three sides of another triangle, or

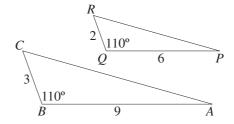
SAS two sides of one triangle are respectively proportional to two sides of another triangle, and the included angles are equal, or

AA two angles of one triangle are respectively equal to two angles of another triangle, or

RHS the hypotenuse and one side of a right triangle are respectively proportional to the hypotenuse and one side of another right triangle.



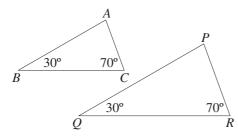
 $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQR$ (SSS), with similarity ratio 2:1. Hence $\angle P = \angle A$, $\angle Q = \angle B$ and $\angle R = \angle C$ (matching angles of similar triangles).



 $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQR$ (SAS), with similarity ratio 3:2. Hence $\angle P = \angle A$, $\angle R = \angle C$ and $PR = \frac{2}{3}AC$ (matching sides and angles of similar triangles).

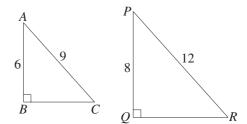
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$$\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQR \quad (AA)$$
 Hence
$$\frac{PQ}{AB} = \frac{QR}{BC} = \frac{RP}{CA}$$

(matching sides of similar triangles), and $\angle P = \angle A$ (angle sums of triangles).



 $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQR \pmod{3}$, with similarity ratio 3:4. Hence $\angle P = \angle A$, $\angle R = \angle C$ and $QR = \frac{4}{3}BC \pmod{3}$ (matching sides and angles of similar triangles).

Using the Similarity Tests: Similarity tests should be set out in exactly the same way as congruence tests — the AA similarity test, however, will need only four lines. The similarity ratio should be mentioned if it is known. Keeping vertices in corresponding order is even more important with similarity, because the corresponding order is needed when writing down the proportionality of sides.

WORKED EXERCISE: A tower TC casts a 300-metre shadow CN, and a man RA 2 metres tall casts a 2·4-metre shadow AY. Show that $\triangle TCN \parallel \triangle RAY$, and find the height of the tower and the similarity ratio.

SOLUTION: In the triangles TCN and RAY:

1.
$$\angle TCN = \angle RAY = 90^{\circ}$$
 (given),

2.
$$\angle CNT = \angle AYR =$$
 angle of elevation of the sun,

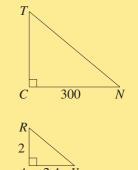
so
$$\triangle TCN \parallel \triangle RAY$$
 (AA).

Hence $\frac{TC}{CN} = \frac{RA}{AY}$ (matching sides of similar triangles)

$$\frac{TC}{300} = \frac{2}{2 \cdot 4}$$

$$TC = 250$$
 metres.

The similarity ratio is 300: 2.4 = 125:1.



WORKED EXERCISE: Prove that the interval PQ joining the midpoints of two adjacent sides AB and BC of a parallelogram ABCD is parallel to the diagonal AC, and cuts off a triangle of area one eighth the area of the parallelogram.

PROOF: In the triangles BPQ and BAC:

1.
$$\angle PBQ = \angle ABC$$
 (common),

2.
$$PB = \frac{1}{2}AB$$
 (given),

3.
$$QB = \frac{1}{2}CB$$
 (given),

so $\triangle BPQ \parallel \triangle BAC$ (SAS), with similarity ratio 1 : 2.

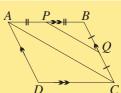
Hence $\angle BPQ = \angle BAC$ (matching angles of similar triangles),

so
$$PQ \parallel AC$$
 (corresponding angles are equal).

Also, area
$$\triangle BPQ = \frac{1}{4} \times \text{area } \triangle BAC$$
 (matching areas),

and area
$$\triangle ABC$$
 = area $\triangle CDA$ (congruent triangles),

so area
$$\triangle BPQ = \frac{1}{8} \times \text{area of parallelogram } ABCD$$
.



Midpoints of Sides of Triangles: Similarity can be applied to configurations involving the midpoints of sides of triangles. The following theorem and its converse are standard results, and will be generalised in Section 8I.

COURSE THEOREM: The interval joining the midpoints of two sides of a triangle is 31 parallel to the third side and half its length.

GIVEN: Let P and Q be the midpoints of the sides AB and AC of $\triangle ABC$.

To prove that $PQ \parallel BC$ and $PQ = \frac{1}{2}BC$.

PROOF: In the triangles APQ and ABC:

1.
$$AP = \frac{1}{2}AB$$
 (given),

2.
$$AQ = \frac{1}{2}AC$$
 (given),

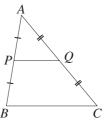
3.
$$\angle A = \angle A$$
 (common),

 $\triangle APQ \parallel \triangle ABC$ (SAS), with similarity ratio 1:2.

Hence $\angle APQ = \angle ABC$ (matching angles of similar triangles),

so
$$PQ \parallel BC$$
 (corresponding angles are equal).

 $PQ = \frac{1}{2}BC$ (matching sides of similar triangles). Also,



The Converse Theorem: Since there are two conclusions, there are several different theorems that could be regarded as the converse. The following theorem, however, is standard, and very useful.

Course theorem: Conversely, the interval through the midpoint of one side of a **32** triangle and parallel to another side bisects the third side.

GIVEN: Let P be the midpoint of the side AB of $\triangle ABC$. Let the line parallel to BC though P meet AC at Q.

AIM: To prove that $AQ = \frac{1}{2}AC$.

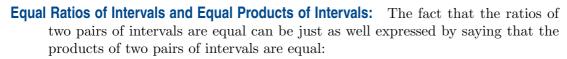
PROOF: In the triangles APQ and ABC:

1.
$$\angle PAQ = \angle BAC$$
 (common),

2.
$$\angle APQ = \angle ABC$$
 (corresponding angles, $PQ \parallel BC$),

so
$$\triangle APQ \parallel \triangle ABC$$
 (AA), and the similarity ratio is $AP:AB=1:2.$

 $AQ = \frac{1}{2}AC$ (matching sides of similar triangles). Hence



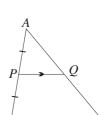
$$\frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{XY}{YZ}$$
 is the same as $AB \times YZ = BC \times XY$.

The following worked exercise is one of the best known examples of this.

WORKED EXERCISE: Prove that the square on the altitude to the hypotenuse of a right triangle equals the product of the intercepts on the hypotenuse cut off by the altitude.

GIVEN: Let ABC be a triangle with $\angle A = 90^{\circ}$.

Let AP be the altitude to the hypotenuse.

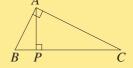


To prove that $AP^2 = BP \times CP$.

Let $\angle B = \beta$. Proof:

 $\angle BAP = 90^{\circ} - \beta$ (angle sum of $\triangle BAP$), Then

 $\angle CAP = \beta$ (adjacent angles in the right angle $\angle BAC$)



In the triangles PAB and PCA: $\angle APB = \angle CPA = 90^{\circ}$ (given), 1.

2.
$$\angle ABP = \angle CAP$$
 (proven above),

o
$$\triangle PAB \parallel \triangle PCA$$
 (AA).

(matching sides of similar triangles), Hence

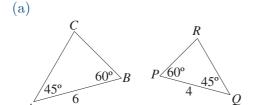
so
$$BP \times CP = AP^2$$

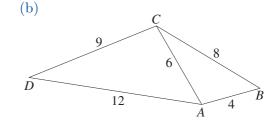
A NOTE ON THE GEOMETRIC MEAN: Recall from Chapter Six of the Year 11 volume that g is a geometric mean of a and b if $g^2 = ab$, because then the sequence a, g, b forms a GP with ratio $\frac{g}{a} = \frac{b}{g}$. Thus the previous result could be restated in the form of a theorem: The altitude to the hypotenuse of a rightangled triangle is the geometric mean of the intercepts on the hypotenuse.

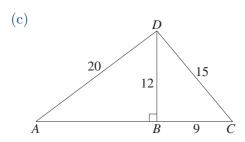
Exercise 8H

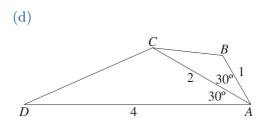
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. Both triangles in each pair are similar. Name the similar triangles in the correct order and state which test is used.

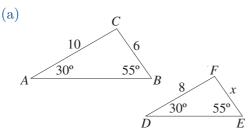


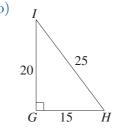


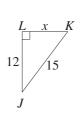


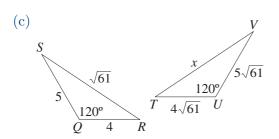


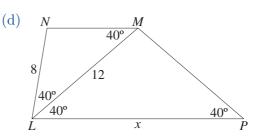
2. Identify the similar triangles, giving a reason, and hence deduce the length of the side x.







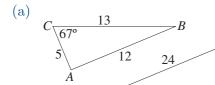


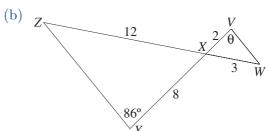


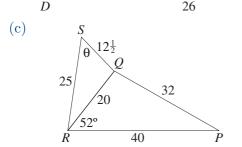
3. Identify the similar triangles, giving a reason, and hence deduce the size of the angle θ . In part (b), prove that $VW \parallel ZY$.

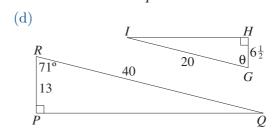
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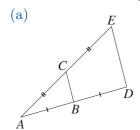


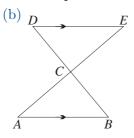


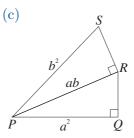


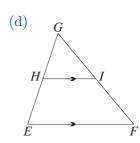


4. Prove that the triangles in each pair are similar.



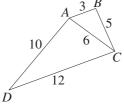






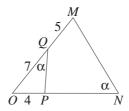
- **5.** (a) A building casts a shadow 24 metres long, while a man 1·6 metres tall casts a 0·6-metre shadow. Draw a diagram, and use similarity to find the height of the building.
 - (b) An architect builds a model of a house to a scale of 1:200. The house will have a swimming pool $10\,\mathrm{metres}$ long, with surface area $60\,\mathrm{m}^2$ and volume $120\,\mathrm{m}^3$. What will the length and area of the model pool be, and how much water is needed to fill it?
 - (c) Two coins of the same shape and material but different in size weigh 5 grams and 20 grams. If the larger coin has diameter 2 cm, what is the diameter of the smaller coin?





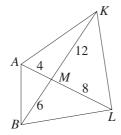
Show that $\triangle ADC \parallel \mid \triangle BCA$, and hence that $AB \parallel DC$.

(b)



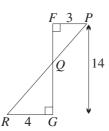
Show that $\triangle OPQ \parallel \mid \triangle OMN$, and hence find ON and PN.





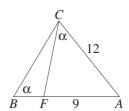
Show that $\triangle AMB \parallel \triangle LMK$. What type of quadrilateral is ABLK?





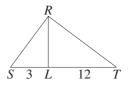
Show that $\triangle FPQ \parallel \triangle GRQ$, and hence find FQ, GQ, PQ and RQ.

(d)



Show that $\triangle ABC \parallel \mid \triangle ACF$, and hence find AB and FB.

(f)

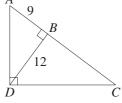


Given that $RL \perp ST$ and $SR \perp TR$, show that $\triangle LSR \parallel \triangle LRT$, and hence find RL.

__DEVELOPMENT _

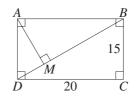
- 7. Course theorem: If two triangles are similar in the ratio 1:k, then their areas are in the ratio $1:k^2$. Suppose that $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQR$ (with vertices named in corresponding order) and let the ratio of corresponding sides be 1:k.
 - (a) Write down the area of $\triangle ABC$ in terms of a, b and $\angle C$.
 - (b) Do the same for $\triangle PQR$, and hence show that the areas are in the ratio $1:k^2$.
- 8. Theorem: The interval parallel to one side of a triangle and half its length bisects the other two sides. In triangle ABC, suppose that PQ is parallel to AB and half its length.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle PQC$.
 - (b) Hence show that $CP = \frac{1}{2}CA$ and $CQ = \frac{1}{2}CB$.
- **9.** Theorem: The quadrilateral formed by the midpoints of the sides of a quadrilateral is a parallelogram. Let ABCD be a quadrilateral, and let P, Q, R and S be the midpoints of the sides AB, BC, CD and DA respectively.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle PBQ \parallel \triangle ABC$, and hence that $PQ \parallel AC$.
 - (b) Similarly, prove that $PQ \parallel SR$ and $PS \parallel QR$.





Show that $\triangle ABD \parallel \triangle ADC$, and hence find AD, DC and BC.

(b)



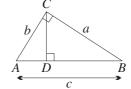
Use Pythagoras' theorem and similarity to find AM, BM and DM.

2c

11. Theorem: Prove that the intervals joining the midpoints of the sides of any triangle dissect the triangle into four congruent triangles, each similar to the original triangle.

NOTE: Many of the hundreds of proofs of Pythagoras' theorem are based on similarity. The next three questions lead you through three of these proofs.

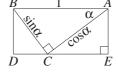
12. ALTERNATIVE PROOF OF PYTHAGORAS' THEOREM: In the triangle ABC, there is a right angle at C, and the sides opposite the respective vertices are a, b and c. Let CD be the altitude from C to AB.



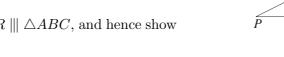
- (a) Prove that $\triangle CBD \parallel \triangle ABC$, and hence find BD in terms of the given sides.
- (b) Similarly, prove that $\triangle ACD \parallel \triangle ABC$, and find AD.
- (c) Hence prove that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.
- 13. ALTERNATIVE PROOF OF PYTHAGORAS' THEOREM: In the rectangle ABDE, $\triangle ABC$ is right-angled at C, and AB=1. Let $\angle BAC=\alpha$, then $BC=\sin\alpha$ and $AC=\cos\alpha$.

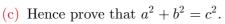


- (b) Similarly, prove that $\triangle ABC \parallel | \triangle CAE$, and find EC.
- (c) Hence prove that $\sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \alpha = 1$.

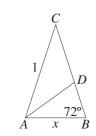


- **14.** ALTERNATIVE PROOF OF PYTHAGORAS' THEOREM: In the diagram, $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle PQR$. The side PR is on the same line as BC, and the vertex Q is on AB. In $\triangle ABC$, there is a right angle at C. Let AB = c, BC = a and AB = c.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle PBQ \parallel \triangle ABC$. and hence find PB in terms of the given sides.
 - (b) Similarly, prove that $\triangle QBR \parallel \triangle ABC$, and hence show that $PB = b + \frac{a^2}{b}$.

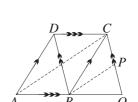




- 15. Explain why the following pairs of figures are, or are not, similar:
 - (a) two squares, (b) two rectangles, (c) two rhombuses, (d) two equilateral triangles,
 - (e) two isosceles triangles, (f) two circles, (g) two parabolas, (h) two regular hexagons.
- **16.** In the diagram, $\triangle ABC$ is isosceles, with $\angle ABC = 72^{\circ}$, CB = CA = 1, and AB = x. The bisector of $\angle CAB$ meets BC at D.

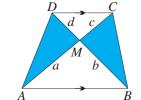


- (a) Show that $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle BDA$.
- (b) Use part (a) to find the exact value of x.
- (c) Explain why $\cos 72^{\circ} = \frac{x}{2}$, and hence write down the exact value of $\cos 72^{\circ}$.

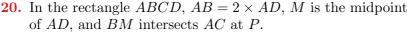


- 17. In the figure, ABCD is a parallelogram. The line PC, parallel to BD, meets AB produced at Q.
 - (a) Prove that AB = BQ.
 - (b) The midpoint of CQ is P. Prove that $\triangle PBQ \parallel \triangle CAQ$.
 - (c) Hence prove that $\angle PBQ = \angle CAB$.

- **18.** Theorem: The triangles formed by the diagonals and the parallel sides of a trapezium are similar, and the other two triangles have equal areas.
 - (a) In the trapezium ABCD, the diagonals intersect at M. Let AM = a, BM = b, CM = c and DM = d, and let $\angle AMB = \theta$.

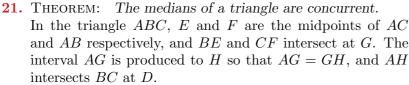


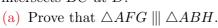
- (i) Prove that the unshaded triangles are similar.
- (ii) Hence prove that ad = bc.
- (iii) Prove that the shaded triangles have the same area.
- (b) Now suppose that a = 6, b = 4, c = 3 and d = 2, with AB = 8 and DC = 4.
 - (i) Show that $\cos \theta = -\frac{1}{4}$ and $\sin \theta = \frac{\sqrt{15}}{4}$.
 - (ii) Hence find the area of the trapezium in exact form.
- **19.** In the diagram, $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle ADE$ and $\angle B$ is a right angle. The interval CE intersects BD at F. Let AB = a and let the ratio of similarity be $AB : AD = k : \ell$.
 - (a) Prove that $\triangle FBC \parallel \triangle FDE$.
 - (b) What is the ratio of the lengths BF : FD?
 - (c) Show that $FD = \frac{a\ell(\ell-k)}{k(\ell+k)}$.
 - (d) Now suppose that AB : AD = 2 : 3 and FD is an integer. What are the possible values of a?



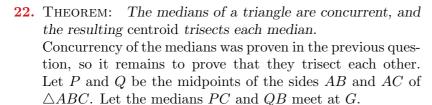


- (b) Show that $3 \times CP = 2 \times CA$.
- (c) Show that $9 \times CP^2 = 5 \times AB^2$.



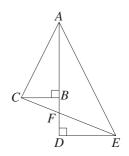


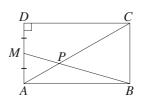
- (b) Hence show that $GC \parallel BH$.
- (c) Similarly, prove that $GB \parallel CH$, and hence that GBHC is a parallelogram.
- (d) Hence prove that BD = DC.

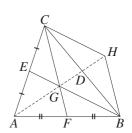


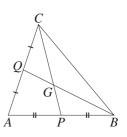


- (b) Hence prove that $PQ = \frac{1}{2}BC$ and $PQ \parallel BC$.
- (c) Prove that $\triangle PQG \parallel \triangle \overline{CBG}$, with similarity ratio 1 : 2.
- (d) Hence deduce the given theorem.







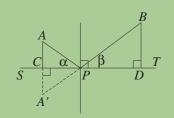


- 23. SEQUENCES AND GEOMETRY: Find the ratio of the sides in a right-angled triangle if:
 - (a) the sides are in AP,

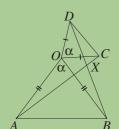
(b) the sides are in GP.



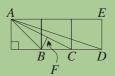
24. For reflected light, the angle of incidence equals THE ANGLE OF REFLECTION: Suppose that a light source is at A above a reflective surface ST, and the reflected light is observed at B. Further suppose that at the point of reflection P, the angle of incidence is $(90^{\circ} - \alpha)$ and the angle of reflection is $(90^{\circ} - \beta)$. This means that $\angle APS = \alpha$ and $\angle BPT = \beta$. Let the image of A in the reflecting surface be at A' and let A'A intersect ST at C. We will assume that light travels in a straight line and therefore that A'PB is a straight line.



- (a) Explain why AC = A'C and AP = A'P.
- (b) Prove that $\triangle APC \equiv \triangle A'PC$.
- (c) Thus prove that $\triangle APC \parallel \triangle BPD$.
- (d) Hence prove that the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection.
- 25. Triangles ABO and CDO are similar isosceles triangles with a common vertex O. In both triangles, $\angle O = \alpha$ and $\triangle ABO$ is the larger of the two triangles. AC and DB are joined and meet (produced if necessary) at X.



- (a) Prove that $\triangle ODB \equiv \triangle OCA$.
- (b) Show that $\angle BXA = \alpha$.
- (c) Now suppose that $\triangle CDO$ is fixed and $\triangle ABO$ rotates about O. What is the locus of X?
- (d) The kite OAPB is completed so that P is on the circumcircle of $\triangle ABO$. Show that $\angle PXB = \frac{1}{2}\alpha$.
- 26. Three equal squares are placed side by side as shown in the diagram, and AB, AC and AD are drawn. Prove that $\angle BAC = \angle DAE$. [HINT: Construct $BF \perp AC$ as shown.]



8 I Intercepts on Tranversals

The previous theorem concerning the midpoints of the sides of a triangle can be generalised in two ways. First, the midpoint can be replaced by a point dividing the side in any given ratio. Secondly, the theorem can be applied to the intercepts cut off a transversal by three parallel lines. The word *intercept* needs clarification.

INTERCEPTS: A point P on an interval AB divides 33 the interval into two intercepts AP and PB.



This section, unlike previous sections, will be entirely new for most students.

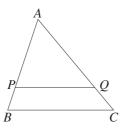
Points on the Sides of Triangles: The proofs of the following theorems are similar to the proofs of the previous two theorems, and are left to the exercise.

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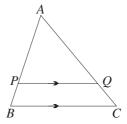
Course Theorem: If two points P and Q divide two sides AB and AC respectively of a triangle in the same ratio $k:\ell$, then the interval PQ is parallel to the third side BC, and $PQ : BC = k : k + \ell$.

Conversely, a line parallel to one side of a triangle divides the other two sides in the same ratio.



Given that $AP : PB = AQ : QC = k : \ell$, it follows that $PQ \parallel BC$

and $PQ:BC=k:k+\ell$ (intercepts).



Given that $PQ \parallel BC$, it follows that AP: PB = AQ: QC (intercepts).

Transversals to Three Parallel Lines: The previous theorems about points on the sides of a triangle can be applied to the intercepts cut off by three parallel lines.

> Course theorem: If two transversals cross three parallel lines, then the ratio of the intercepts on one transversal is the same as the ratio of the intercepts on the other transversal.

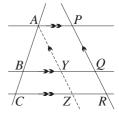
> In particular, if three parallel lines cut off equal intercepts on one transversal, then they cut off equal intercepts on all transversals.

The second part follows from the first part with $k: \ell = 1:1$, so it will be sufficient to prove only the first part.

GIVEN: Let two transversals ABC and PQR cross three parallel lines, and let $AB : BC = k : \ell$.

To prove that $PQ: QR = k: \ell$.

Construction: Construct the line through A parallel to the line PQR, and let it meet the other two parallel lines at Y and Z respectively.



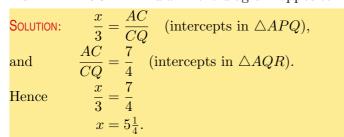
PROOF: The configuration in $\triangle ACZ$ is the converse part of the previous theorem, and so $AY : YZ = k : \ell$ (intercepts).

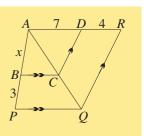
But the opposite sides of the parallelograms APQY and YQRZ are equal,

so
$$AY = PQ$$
 and $YZ = QR$.

Hence $PQ: QR = k: \ell$.

WORKED EXERCISE: Find x in the diagram opposite.

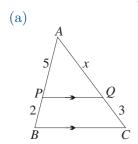


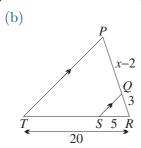


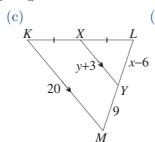
Exercise 81

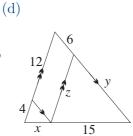
NOTE: In each question, all reasons must always be given. Unless otherwise indicated, lines that are drawn straight are intended to be straight.

1. Find the values of x, y and z in the following diagrams.

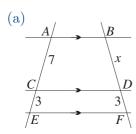


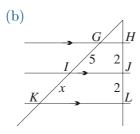


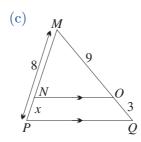


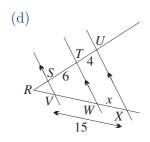


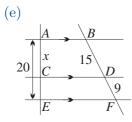
2. Find the value of x in each diagram below.

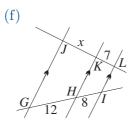


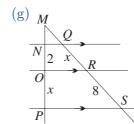


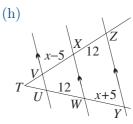




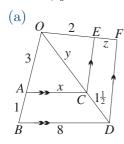


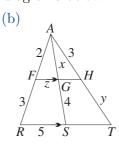


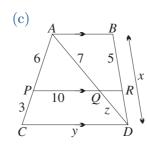


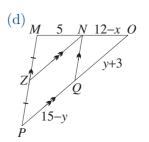


3. Find x, y and z in the diagrams below.

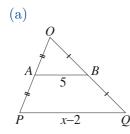


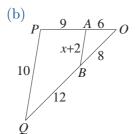


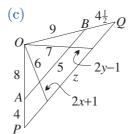


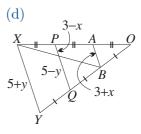


4. Give a reason why $AB \parallel PQ \parallel XY$ as appropriate, then find x and y.



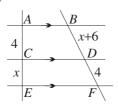


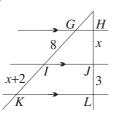


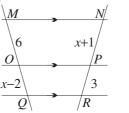


5. Write down a quadratic equation for x and hence find the value of x in each case.

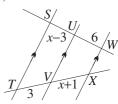
(a)



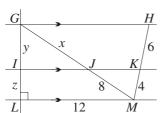




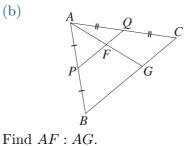
(d)



6. (a)

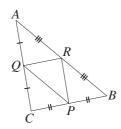


(b)

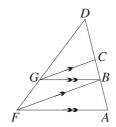


Use Pythagoras' theorem to find x, y and z.

(c)



(d)



What sort of quadrilateral is ARPQ? Find the ratio of areas of ARPQ and $\triangle ABC$.

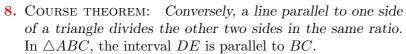
Show that FG: GD = BC: CDand that AF : BG = BF : CG.

DEVELOPMENT

7. Course theorem: If two points P and Q divide two sides AB and AC respectively of a triangle in the same ratio $k:\ell$, then the interval PQ is parallel to the third side BC and $PQ:BC=k:k+\ell$. In $\triangle ABC$, the points P and Q divide the sides AB and AC respectively in the ratio $k : \ell$.



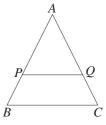
(b) Hence prove that $PQ \parallel BC$ and $PQ : BC = k : k + \ell$.

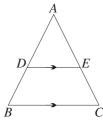


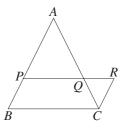
- (a) Prove that $\triangle ABC \parallel \triangle ADE$.
- (b) Let $DE:BC=k:(k+\ell)$. Show that

$$AD:DB=AE:EC=k:\ell.$$

9. Alternative proof of course theorem: If two points P and Q divide two sides AB and AC respectively of a triangle in the same ratio $k : \ell$, then the interval PQ is parallel to the third side BC and $PQ:BC=k:(k+\ell)$. In $\triangle ABC$, the points P and Q divide the sides AB and AC respectively in the ratio $k : \ell$. PQ is produced to R so that $PQ:QR=k:\ell$ and CR is joined.

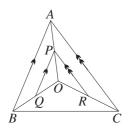






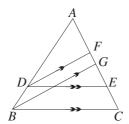
- (a) Show that $\triangle APQ \parallel \triangle CRQ$.
- (b) Hence show that PBCR is a parallelogram.
- (c) Hence show that $PQ \parallel BC$ and $PQ : BC = k : (k + \ell)$.

10. (a)



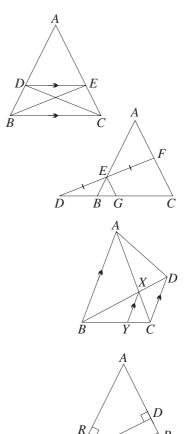
Choose any point O inside $\triangle ABC$ and join O to each vertex. Choose any point P on OA and then construct $PQ \parallel AB$ and $PR \parallel AC$. Prove that $QR \parallel BC$.

(b)



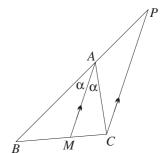
In $\triangle ABC$, the line DE is parallel to the base BC. A point G is chosen on AC and then DF is constructed parallel to BG. Prove that AF : AG = DE : BC.

- 11. The triangle ABC is isosceles, with AB = AC, and DE is parallel to BC.
 - (a) Use the intercepts theorem to prove that DB = EC.
 - (b) Show that $\triangle BCD \equiv \triangle CBE$.
- 12. The triangle ABC is isosceles, with AB = AC. The base CB is produced to D. The points E on AB and F on AC are chosen so that E is the midpoint of the straight line DEF. G is the point on the base such that CG = GD.
 - (a) Prove that $EG \parallel AC$.
 - (b) Hence show that $FC = 2 \times EB$.
- **13.** The diagram shows a trapezium ABCD with $AB \parallel DC$. The diagonals AC and BD intersect at X, and XY is constructed parallel to AB, intersecting BC at Y.
 - (a) Prove that AB : CD = BY : YC.
 - (b) In a certain trapezium, the length of AB is 18 cm. Given that BY : BC = 3 : 4, what is the length of the shorter side?
- **14.** The triangle ABC is isosceles with AB = AC, and D is a point on AC such that $BD \perp AC$. Choose any point Q on the base, and construct the perpendiculars to the equal sides, with $QP \perp AC$ and $QR \perp AB$.
 - (a) Reflect the triangle RBQ in the line BQ, and hence show that RQ + PQ = BD.
 - (b) Construct CE perpendicular to AB at E and use the ratios of intercepts to prove the same result.



- 15. (a) Two vertical poles of height 10 metres and 15 metres are 8 metres apart. Wire stretches from the top of each pole to the foot of the other. Find how high above the ground the wires cross. How would this height change if the poles were 11 metres apart?
 - (b) In a narrow laneway 2.4 metres wide between two buildings, a 4-metre ladder rests on one wall with its foot against the other wall, and a 3-metre ladder rests on the opposite wall. The ladders touch at their crossover point. How high is that crossover point? [HINT: You will need the height each ladder reaches up the wall, then use similarity.]

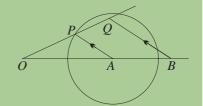
16. THEOREM: The bisector of the angle at a vertex of a triangle divides the opposite side in the ratio of the including sides. Let the bisector of $\angle BAC$ in $\triangle ABC$ meet BC at M, and let $\angle BAM = \angle CAM = \alpha$. Construct the line through C parallel to MA, meeting BA produced at P.



- (a) Prove that $\triangle APC$ is isosceles with AP = AC.
- (b) Hence show that BM : MC = BA : AC.
- 17. Theorem: Conversely, if the interval joining a vertex of a triangle to a point on the opposite side divides that side in the ratio of the including sides, then the interval bisects the vertex angle. Prove this using a similar construction.

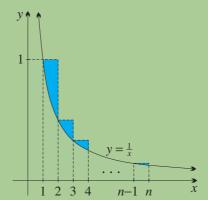
EXTENSION

18. In the diagram, A is the centre of a circle with radius R. O is a fixed point outside the circle and B is another fixed point on OA. For a given point P on the circle, the point Q on the line OP is chosen so that $AP \parallel BQ$. Describe the locus of Q as P moves around the circle. [HINT: Let A divide OB in the ratio $k:\ell$.]



19. [The harmonic series and Euler's constant]





The right-hand diagram above shows the curve y=1/x (not to scale). Upper rectangles have been constructed on the intervals $1 \le x \le 2$, $2 \le x \le 3$, ... and $n-1 \le x \le n$. Let E_n be the total area of the shaded regions inside the rectangles and above the curve.

- (a) By considering the difference between the area of the rectangles and the area under the curve, show that $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \log n = E_n + \frac{1}{n}$.
- (b) The left-hand diagram above shows the shaded regions stacked on top of each other inside a unit square (be careful, the diagrams are not drawn to scale). By drawing appropriate diagonals, show that as $n \to \infty$, E_n converges to a limit γ between $\frac{1}{2}$ and 1.
- (c) Hence show that $\lim_{n\to\infty}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{n}-\log n\right)=\gamma.$ Then use your calculator, or a computer, to get some idea of the value of γ by substituting some values of n. [Note: The series $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\cdots$ is called the harmonic series the word comes from music, because if pipes are built of lengths $1,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{3},\frac{1}{4},\ldots$ then the notes they sound will be the series of harmonics of the first pipe. The strange number $\gamma \doteq 0.577$ is called Euler's constant. It remains unknown even whether γ is rational or irrational.]

 $\mu\eta\delta\varepsilon i\varsigma$ $\dot{\alpha}\gamma\varepsilon\omega\mu\acute{\epsilon}\tau\rho\eta\tau o\varsigma$ $\varepsilon i\sigma i\tau\omega$ 'Let no-one enter who does not know geometry.' (Inscribed over the doorway to Plato's Academy in Athens.)

