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## ELEMENTS

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## PLANE AND SOLID GEOMETRY.

BY
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## BOSTON:

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J. S. Cushing, Superintendent of Printing, ros Pearl St., Boston.
of the figures are full lines, the lines employed as aids in the demonstrations are short-dotted, and the resulting lines are longdotted.

In each proposition a concise statement of what is given is printed in one kind of type, of what is required in another, and the demonstration in still another. The reason for each step is indicated in small type between that step and the one following, thus preventing the necessity of interrupting the process of the argument by referring to a previous section. The number of the section, however, on which the reason depends is placed at the side of the page. The constituent parts of the propositions are carefully marked. Moreover, each distinct assertion in the demonstrations, and each particular direction in the constructions of the fiyures, begins a new line; and in no case is it necessary to turn the page in reading a demonstration.

This arrangement presents obvious advantages. The pupil perceives at once what is given and what is required, readily refers to the figure at every step, becomes perfectly familiar with the language of Geometry, acquires facility in simple and accurate expression, rapidly learns to reason, and lays a foundation for the complete establishing of the science.

A few propositions have been given that might properly be considered as corollaries. The reason for this is the great difficulty of convincing the average student that any importance should be attached to a corollary. Original exercises, however, have been given, not too numerous or too difficult to discourage the beginner, but well adapted to afford an effectual test of the degree in which he is mastering the subjects of his reading. Some of these exercises have been placed in the early part of the work in order that the student may discover, at the outset, that to commit to memory a number of theorems and to reproduce them in an examination is a useless and pernicious labor; but to learn their uses and applications, and to acquire a readiness in exemplifying their utility, is to derive the full benefit of that mathematical training which looks not so much to the
attainment of information as to the discipline of the mental faculties.

It only remains to express my sense of obligation to Dr. D. F. Wells for valuable assistance, and to the University Press for the elegance with which the book has been printed; and also to give assurance that any suggestions relating to the work will be thankfully received.

G. A. WENTWORTH.

## Phillips Exeter Academy, January, 1878.

## NOTE TO THIRD EDITION.

In this cdition I have endeavored to present a more rigorous, but not less simple, treatment of Parallels, Ratio, and Limits. The changes are not sufficient to prevent the simulta neous use of the old and new editions in the class ; still they are very important, and have been made after the most careful and prolonged consideration.

I have to express my thanks for valuable suggestions received from many correspondents; and a special acknowledgment is due from ne to Professor C. H. Judson, of Furman University, Greenville, South Carolina, to whom I am indebted for assistance in effecting many improvements in this edition.

## TO THE TEACHER.

When the pupil is reading each Book for the first time, it will be well to let him write his proofs on the blackboard in his own language ; care being taken that his language be the simplest possible, that the arrangement of work be vertical (without side work), and that the figures be accurately constructed.

This method will furnish a valuable exercise as a language lesson, will cultivate the habit of neat and orderly arrangement of work, and will allow a brief interval for deliberating on each step.

After a Book has been read in this way the pupil should review the Book, and should be required to draw the figures free-hand. He
should state and prove the propositions orally, using a pointer to indicate on the figure every line and angle named. He should be encouraged, in reviewing each Book, to do the original exercises ; to state the converse of propositions; to determine from the statement, if possible, whether the converse be true or false, and if the converse be true to demonstrate it ; and also to give well-considered answers to questions which may be asked him on many propositions.

The Teacher is strongly advised to illustrate, geometrically and arithmetically, the principles of limits. Thus a rectangle with a constant base $b$, and a variable altitude $x$, will afford an obvious illustration of the axiomatic truth contained in [4], page 88. If $x$ increase and approach the altitude $a$ as a limit, the area of the rectangle increases and approaches the area of the rectangle $a b$ as a limit ; if, however, $x$ decrease and approach zero as a limit, the area of the rectangle decreases and approaches zero for a limit. An arithmetical illustration of this truth would be given by multiplying a constant into the approximate values of any repetend. If, for example, we take the constant 60 and the repetend .3333 , etc., the approximate values of the repetend will be $\frac{3}{10}, \frac{33}{100}, \frac{338}{1000}, \frac{3838}{10000}$, etc., and these values multiplied by 60 give the series $18,19.8,19.98,19.998$, etc., which evidently approach 20 as a limit ; but the product of 60 into $\frac{1}{3}$ (the limit of the repetend .333 , etc.) is also 20 .

Again, if we multiply 60 into the different values of the decreasing series, $\frac{1}{30}, \frac{1}{300}, \frac{1}{3000}, \frac{10}{30000}$, etc., which approaches zero as a limit, we shall get the decreasing series, $2, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{\delta 0}, \frac{1}{\delta 0}$, etc. ; and this series evidently approaches zero as a limit.

In this way the pupil may easily be led to a consplete comprehension of the whole subject of limits.

The Teacher is likewise advised to give frequent written examinations. These should not be too difficult, and sufficient time should be allowed for accurately constructing the figures, for choosing the best language, and for determining the best arrangement.

The time necessary for the reading of examination-books will be diminished by more than one-half, if the use of the symbols employed in this book be pernitted.
G. A. W.

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## ELEMENTS OF GEOMETRY.

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## BOOK I.

## RECTILINEAR FIGURES.

## Introductory Remarks.

A rougn block of marble, under the stone-cutter's hammer, may be made to assume regularity of form.

If a block be cut in the shape represented in this diagram,

It will have six flat faces.
Each face of the block is called a Surface.


If these surfaces be made smooth by polishing, so that, when a straight-edge is applied to any one of them, the straight-edge in every part will touch the surface, the surfaces are called Plane Surfaces.

The sharp edge in which any two of these surfaces meet is called a Line.

The place at which any three of these lines meet is called a Point.

If now the block be removed, we may think of the place occupied by the block as being of precisely the same shape and size as the block itself; also, as having surfaces or boundaries which separate it from surrounding space. We may likewise think of these surfaces as having lines for their boundaries or limits ; and of these lines as having points for their extremities or limits.

A Solid, as the term is used in Geometry, is a limited portion of space.

After we acquire a clear notion of surfaces as boundaries of solids, we can easily conceive of surfaces apart from solids, and
suppose them of unlimited extent. Likewise we can conceive of lines apart from surfaces, and suppose them of unlimited length; of points apart from lines as having position, but no extent.

## Definitions.

1. Def. Space or Extension has three Dimensions, called Length, Breadth, and Thickness.
2. Def. A Point has position without extension.
3. Def. A Line has only one of the dimensions of extension, namely, length.

The lines which we draw are only imperfect representations of the true lines of Geometry.

A line may be conceived as traced or generated by a point in motion.
4. Def. A Surface has only two of the dimensions of extension, length and breadth.

A surface may be conceived as generated by a line in motion.
5. Def. A Solid has the three dimensions of extension, length, breadth, and thichness. Hence a solid extends in all directions.

A solid may be conceived as generated by a surface in motion.
Thus, in the diagram, let the upright surface $A B C D$ move to the right to the position $E F H K$. The points $A, B, C$, and $D$ will generate the lines $A E, B F, C K$, and $D H$ respectively.
 And the lines $A B, B D, D C$, and $A C$ will generate the surfaces $A F, B H, D K$, and $A K$ respectively. And the surface $A B C D$ will generate the solid $A H$.

The relative situation of the two points $A$ and $H$ involves three, and only three, independent elements. To pass from $A$ to $H$ it is necessary to move East (if we suppose the direction $A E$ to
be due East) a distance equal to $A E$, North a distance equal to $E F$, and down a distance equal to $F H$.

These three dimensions we designate for convenience length, breadth, and thickness.
6. The limits (extremities) of lines are points.

The limits (boundaries) of surfaces are lines. The limits (boundaries) of solids are surfaces.
7. Def. Extension is also called Magnitude.

When reference is had to extent, lines, surfaces, and solids are called magnitudes.
8. Def. A Straight line is a line which has the same direction throughout its whole extent.
9. Def. A Curved line is a line which changes its direction at every point.
10. Def. A Broken line is a series of con-
 nected straight lines.

When the word line is used a straight line is meant; and when the word curve is used a curved line is meant.
11. Def. A Plane Surface, or a Plane, is a surface in which, if any two points be taken, the straight line joining these points will lie wholly in the surface.
12. Def. A Curved Surface is a surface no part of which is plane.
13. Figure or form depends upon the relative position of points. Thus, the figure or form of a line (straight or curved) depends upon the relative position of points in that line; the figure or form of a surface depends upon the relative position of points in that surface.

When reference is had to form or shape, lines, surfaces, and solids are called figures.
14. Def. A Plane Figure is a figure, all points of which are in the same plane.
15. Def. Geometry is the science which treats of position, magnitude, and form.

Points, lines, surfaces, and solids, with their relations, are the geometrical conceptions, and constitute the subject-matter of Geometry.
16. Plane Geometry treats of plane figures.

Plane figures are either rectilinear, curvilinear, or mixtilinear.
Plane figures formed by straight lines are called rectilinear figures ; those formed by curved lines are called curvilinear figures ; and those formed by straight and curved lines are called mixtilinear figures.
17. Def. Figures which have the same form are called Similar Figures. Figures which have the same extent are called Equivalent Figures. Figures which have the same form and extent are called Equal Figures.

## On Straight Lines.

18. If the direction of a straight line and a point in the line be known, the position of the line is known; that is, a straight line is determined in position if its direction and one of its points be known.

Hence, all straight lines which pass through the same point in the same direction coincide.

Between two points one, and but one, straight line can be drawn ; that is, a straight line is determined in position if two of its points be known.

Of all lines between two points, the shortest is the straight iine ; and the straight line is called the distance between the two points.

The point from which a line is drawn is called its origin.
19. If a line, as $C B, \xrightarrow{C} \quad B$, be produced through $C$, the portions $C B$ and $C A$ may be regarded as different lines having opposite directions from the point $C$.

Hence, every straight line, as $A B, \xrightarrow{A}$, has two opposite directions, namely from $A$ toward $B$, which is expressed by saying line $A B$, and from $B$ toward $A$, which is expressed by saying line $B A$.
20. If a straight line change its magnitude, it must become longer or shorter. Thus by prolonging $A B$ to $C, ~ A \underbrace{A}_{-}$, $A C=A B+B C$; and conversely, $B C=A C-A B$.

If a line increase so that it is prolonged by its own magnitude several times in succession, the line is multiplied, and the resulting line is called a multiple of the given line. Thus, if $A B=$ $B C=C D$, etc., $A \quad B \quad C_{-}^{D} \quad{ }^{B}$, then $A C=2 A B, A D=$ $3 A B$, etc.

It must also be possible to divide a given straight line into an assigned number of equal parts. For, assumed that the $n$th part of a given line were not attainable, then the double, triple, quadruple, of the $n$th part would not be attainable. Among these multiples, however, we should reach the $n$th multiple of this $n$th part, that is, the line itself. Hence, the line itself would not be attainable ; which contradicts the hypothesis that we have the given line before us.

Therefore, it is always possible to add, subtract, multiply, and divide lines of given length.
21. Since every straight line has the property of direction, it must be true that two straight lines have either the same direction or different directions.

T'wo straight lines which have the same direction, without coinciding, can never meet; for if they could meet, then we should have two straight lines passing through the same point in the same direction. Such lines, however, coincide.
22. Two straight lines which lie in the same plane and have different directions must meet if sufficiently prolonged; and must have one, and but one, point in common.

Conversely : Two straight lines lying in the same plane which do not meet have the same direction; for if they had different directions they would meet, which is contrary to the hypothesis that they do not meet.

Two straight lines which meet have different directions; for if they had the same direction they would never meet (§ 21 ), which is contrary to the hypothesis that they do meet.

## On Plane Angles.

23. Def. An Angle is the difference in direction of two lines. The point in which the lines (prolonged if necessary) meet is called the Vertex, and the lines are called the Sides of the angle.

An angle is designated by placing a letter at its vertex, and one at each of its sides. In reading, we name the three letters, putting the letter at the vertex between the other two. When the point is the vertex of but one angle we usually name the letter at the vertex only; thus, in Fig. 1, we read the angle by


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.
calling it angle $A$. But in Fig. 2, $H$ is the common vertex of two angles, so that if we were to say the angle $H$, it would not be known whether we meant the angle marked 3 or that marked 4. We avoid all ambiguity by reading the former as the angle $E H D$, and the latter as the angle $E H F$.

The magnitude of an angle depends wholly upon the extent of opening of its sides, and not upon their length. Thus if the sides of the angle $B A C$, namely, $A B$ and $A C$, be prolonged, their extent of opening will not be altered, and the
 size of the angle, consequently, will not be changed.
24. Def. Adjacent Angles are angles having a common vertex and a common side between them. Thus the angles $C D E$ and $C D F$ are adjacent angles.

25. Def. A Right Angle is an angle included between two straight lines which meet each other so that the two adjacent angles formed by producing one of the lines through the vertex are equal. Thus if the straight line $A B$ meet the straight line $C D$ so that the adjacent angles $A B C$ and $A B D$ are equal to one another, each of these angles is called a right angle.
26. Def. Perpendicular Lines are lines which make a right angle with each other.
27. Def. An Acute Angle is an angle less than a right angle ; as the angle $B A C$.
28. Def. An Obtuse Angle is an angle greater than a right angle; as the angle $D E F$.
29. Def. Acute and obtuse angles, in

 distinction from right angles, are called oblique angles; and intersecting lines which are not perpendicular to each other are called oblique lines.
30. Der. The Complement of an angle is the difference between a right angle and the given angle. Thus $A B D$ is the complement of the angle $D B C$; also $D B C$ is the complement of the angle $A B D$.

31. Def. The Supplement of an angle is the difference between two right angles and the given angle. Thus $A C D$ is the supplement of the angle $D C B$; also $D C B$ is the supplement of the angle $A C D$.

32. Def. Vertical Angles are angles which have the same vertex, and their sides extending in opposite directions. Thus the angles $A O D$ and $C O B$ are vertical angles, as also the angles $A O C$
 and $D O B$.

On Angular Magnitude.
33. Let the lines $B B^{\prime}$ and $A A^{\prime}$ be in the same plane, and let $B B^{\prime}$ be perpendicular to $A A^{\prime}$ at the point $O$.

Suppose the straight line $O C$ to move in this plane from coincidence with $O A$, about the point $O$ as a pivot, to the position $O C$; then the line $O C$ describes or
 generates the angle $A O C$.

The amount of rotation of the line, from the position $O A$ to the position $O C$, is the Angular Magnitude $A O C$.

If the rotating line move from the position $O A$ to the position $O B$, perpendicular to $O A$, it generates a right angle ; to the position $O A^{\prime}$ it generates two right angles; to the position $O B^{\prime}$, as indicated by the dotted line, it generates three right angles ; and if it continue its rotation to the position $O A$, whence it started, it generates four right angles.

Hence the whole angular magnitude about a point in a plane is equal to four right angles, and the angular magnitude about a point on one side of a straight line drawn through that point is equal to two right angles.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.
34. Now since the angular magnitude about the point $O$ is neither increased nor diminished by the number of lines which radiate from that point, the sum of all the angles about a point in a plane, as $A O B+B O C+C O D$, etc., in Fig. 1, is equal to four right angles; and the sum of all the angles about a point on one side of a straight line drawn through that point, as $A O B+B O C+C O D$, etc., Fig. 2, is equal to two right angles.

Hence two adjacent angles, $O C A$ and $O C B$, formed by two straight lines, of which one is produced from the point of meeting in both directions, are supplements of each other, and may
 be called supplementary adjacent angles.

On the Method of Superposition.
35. The test of the equality of two geometrical magnitudes is that they coincide point for point.

Thus, two straight lines are equal, if they can be so placed that the points at their extremities coincide. Two angles are equal, if they can be so placed that their vertices coincide in position and their sides in direction.

In applying this test of equality, we assume that a line may be moved from one place to another without altering its length ; that an angle may be taken up, turned over, and put down, without altering the difference in direction of its sides.

This method enables us to compare unequal magnitudes of the same kind. Suppose we have two angles, $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$. Let the side $B C$ be placed on the side
 $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, so that the vertex $B$ shall fall on $B^{\prime}$, then if the side $B A$ fall on $B^{\prime} A^{\prime}$, the angle $A B C$ equals the angle $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$; if the side $B A$ fall between $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ in the direction $B^{\prime} D$, the angle $A B C$ is less than $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$; but if the side $B A$ fall in the direction $B^{\prime} E$, the angle $A B C$ is greater than $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

This method of superposition enables us to add magnitudes of the same kind. Thus, if we have two straight lines $A B$ and $C D$, by
 placing the point $C$ on $B$, and keeping $C D$ in the same direction with $A B$, we shall have one continuous straight line $A D$ equal to the sum of the lines $A B$ and $C D$.

Again : if we have the angles $A B C$ and $D E F$, by placing the vertex $B$ on $E$ and the side $B C$ in the direction of $E D$, the angle $A B C$ will take the position $A E D$, and the angles $D E F$ and $A B C$ will together equal the an-
 gle $A E F$.

## Mathematical Terms.

36. Def. A Demonstration is a course of reasoning by which the truth or falsity of a particular statement is logically established.
37. Def. A Theorem is a truth to be demonstrated.
38. Def. A Construction is a graphical representation of a geometrical conception.
39. Def. A Problem is a construction to be effected, or a question to be investigated.
40. Def. An Axiom is a truth which is admitted without demonstration.
41. Def. A Postulate is a problem which is admitted to be possible.
42. Def. A Proposition is either a theorem or a problem.
43. Def. A Corollary is a truth easily deduced from the proposition to which it is attached.
44. Def. A Scholium is a remark upon some particular feature of a proposition.
45. Def. An Hypothesis is a supposition made in the enunciation of a proposition, or in the course of a demonstration.

## 46. Axioms.

1. Things which are equal to the same thing are equal to each other.
2. When equals are added to equals the sums are equal.
3. When equals are taken from equals the remainders are equal.
4. When equals are added to unequals the sums are unequal.
5. When equals are taken from unequals the remainders are unequal.
6. Things which are double the same thing, or equal things, are equal to each other.
7. Things which are halves of the same thing, or of equal things, are equal to each other.
8. The whole is greater than any of its parts.
9. The whole is equal to all its parts taken together.

## 47. Postulates.

Let it be granted -

1. That a straight line can be drawn from any one point to any other point.
2. That a straight line can be produced to any distance, or can be terminated at any point.
3. That the circumference of a circle can be described about any centre, at any distance from that centre.

## 48. Symbols and Abbreviations.

$\therefore$ therefore.
$=$ is (or are) equal to.
$\angle$ angle.
Ls angles.
$\triangle$ triangle.
A triangles.
II parallel.
$\square$ parallelogram
[s parallelograms.
$\perp$ perpendicular.
Is perpendiculars.
rt. $\angle$ right angle.
rt. $\measuredangle$ right angles.
$>$ is (or are) greater than.
$<$ is (or are) less than.
rt. $\Delta$ right triangle.
rt. 这 right triangles.
$\odot$ circle.
(5) circles.

+ increased by.
- diminished by.
$\times$ multiplied by.
$\div$ divided by.

Post. postulate.
Def. definition.
Ax. axiom.
Hyp. hypothesis.
Cor. corollary.
Q. E. D. quod erat demonstrandum.
Q. E. F. quod erat faciendum.

Adj. adjacent.
Ext.-int. exterior-interior.
Alt.-int. alternate-interior.
Iden. identical.
Cons. construction.
Sup. supplementary.
Sup. adj. supplementary-adjacent.

Ex. exercise.
Ill. illustration.

## On Perpendicular and Oblique Lines.

## Proposition I. Theorem.

49. When one straight line crosses another straight line the vertical angles are equal.


Let line $O P$ cross $A B$ at $C$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { We are to prove } \angle O C B=\angle A C P . \\
\angle O C A+\angle O C B=2 \mathrm{rt.} \text { \&, } \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text { (being sup.-adj. \&). } \\
\angle O C A+\angle A C P=2 \mathrm{rt.} \text {. } \\
\text { (being sup.-adj. } 1 \text { ). }
\end{array} \\
\therefore \angle O C A+\angle O C B=\angle O C A+\angle A C P .
\end{gathered}
$$

Take away from each of these equals the common $\angle O C A$.
Then

$$
\angle O C B=\angle A C P
$$

In like manner we may prove

$$
\angle A C O=\angle P C B
$$

Q. E. D.
50. Corollary. If two straight lines cut one another, the four angles which they make at the point of intersection are together equal to four right angles.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

51. When the sum of two adjacent angles is equal to two right angles, their exterior sides form one and the same straight line.


Let the adjacent angles $\angle O C A+\angle O C B=2 \mathrm{rt} . \underline{\mathrm{s}}$.
We are to prove $A C$ and $C B$ in the same straight line.
Suppose $C F$ to be in the same straight line with $A C$.

Take away from each of these equals the common $\angle O C A$.
Then

$$
\angle O C F=\angle O C B
$$

$\therefore C B$ and $C F$ coincide, and cannot form two lines as represented in the figure.
$\therefore A C$ and $C B$ are in the same straight line.
Q. E. D.

Proposition III. Theorem.
52. A perpendicular measures the shortest distance from a point to a straight line.


Let $A B$ be the given straight line, $C$ the given point, and $C O$ the perpendicular.

We are to prove $C O<$ any other line drawn from $C$ to $A B$, as $C F$.

Produce $C O$ to $E$, making $O E=C O$.

$$
\text { Draw } E F \text {. }
$$

On $A B$ as an axis, fold over $O C F$ until it comes into the plane of $O E F$.

The line $O C$ will take the direction of $O E$, (since $\angle C O F=\angle E O F$, each being a rt. $\angle$ ). The point $C$ will fall upon the point $E$, (since $O C=O E$ by cons.).

$$
\therefore \text { line } C F=\text { line } F E \text {, }
$$

(having their extremitics in the same points).

$$
\therefore C F+F E=2 C F,
$$

and

$$
C O+O E=2 C O
$$

But

$$
C O+O E<C F+F E
$$

(a straight line is the shortest distance between two points).
substitute $2 C O$ for $C O+O E$,
and $\quad 2 C F$ for $C F+F E$; then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 C O<2 C F \\
& \therefore C O<C F .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proposition IV. Theorem.

53. Two ollique lines drawn from a point in a perpendicular, cutting off equal distances from the foot of the perpendicular, are equal.


Let $F C$ be the perpendicular, and $C A$ and $C O$ two oblique lines cutting off equal distances from $F$.

We are to prove $\quad C A=C O$.
Fold over $C F A$, on $C F$ as an axis, until it comes into the plane of $C F O$.
$F A$ will take the direction of $F O$, (since $\angle C F A=\angle C F O$, each being art. $\angle$ ).

Point $A$ will fall upon point $O$, ( $F A=F O$, by hyp.).
$\therefore$ line $C A=$ line $C O$,
(their extremities being the same points).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

54. The sum of two lines drawn from a point to the extremities of a straight line is greater than the sum of two other lines similarly drawn, but included by them.


Let $C A$ and $C B$ be two lines drawn from the point $C$ to the extremities of the straight line $A B$. Let $0 A$ and $O B$ be two lines similarly drawn, but included by $C A$ and $C B$.

We are to prove $C A+C B>O A+O B$.
Produce $A O$ to meet the line $C B$ at $E$.
Then

$$
A C+C E>A O+O E
$$

(a straight line is the shortest distance between twoo points),
and.

$$
B E+O E>B O \text {. }
$$

Add these inequalities, and we have

$$
C A+C E+B E+O E>O A+O E+O B .
$$

Substitute for $C E+B E$ its equal $C B$, and take away $O E$ from each side of the inequality.
We have

$$
C A+C B>O A+O B .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

55. Of two oblique lines diawn from the same point in a perpendicular, cutting off unequal distances from the foot of the perpendicular, the more remote is the greater.


Let $C F$ be perpendicular to $A B$, and $C K$ and $C H$ two oblique lines cutting off unequal distances from $F$.

We are to prove $\quad C H>C K$.
Produce $C F$ to $E$, making $F^{\prime} E C F$.
Draw $E K$ and $E H$.

$$
C H=H E, \text { and } C K=K E
$$

(two oblique lines drawn from the same point in a $\perp$, cutting off equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$, are equal).

But

$$
C H+H E>C K+K E
$$

(The sum of two oblique lines drawn from a point to the extremities of a straight line is greater than the sum of two other lines similarly drawn, but included by them);

$$
\begin{gathered}
\therefore 2 C H>2 C K \\
\therefore C H>C K
\end{gathered}
$$

> Q. E. D.
56. Corollary. Only two equal straight lines can be drawn from a point to a straight line ; and of two unequal lines, the greater cuts off the greater distance from the foot of the perpendicular.

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

57. Two equal oblique lines, drawn from the same point in a perpendicular, cut off equal distances from the foot of the perpendicular.


Let $C F$ be the perpendicular, and $C E$ and $C K$ be two equal oblique lines drawn from the point $C$.

We are to prove $\quad F E=F K$.
Fold over $C F A$ on $C F$ as an axis, until it comes into the plane of $C F B$.

The line $F E$ will take the direction $F K$, ( $\angle C F E=\angle C F K$, each being a rt. $\angle$ ).

Then the point $E$ must fall upon the point $K$;
otherwise one of these oblique lines must be more remote from the $\perp$,
and $\therefore$ greater than the other; which is contrary to the hypothesis.

$$
\therefore F E=F K .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition VIII. Theorem.

58. If at the midllle point of a straight line a perpendicular be erected,
I. Any point in the perpendicular is at equal distances from the extremities of the straight line.
II. Any point without the perpendicular is at unequal distances from the extremities of the straight line.


Let $P R$ be a perpendicular erected at the middle on the straight line $A B, 0$ any point in $P R$, and $C$ any point without l'R.
I. Draw $O A$ and $O B$.

We are to prove

$$
O A=O B .
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P A=P B, \\
& O A=O B,
\end{aligned}
$$

(two oblique lines drawn from the same print in a $\perp$, cutting off equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$, are equal).

IT. Draw $C A$ and $C B$.
We are to prove $C A$ and $C B$ unequal.
One of these lines, as $C A$, will intersect the $\perp$.
From $D$, the point of intersection, draw $D B$.

$$
D B=D A,
$$

(two oblique lines drawn from the same point in a $\perp$, cutting off equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$, are equal).

$$
C B<C D+D B,
$$

(a straight line is the shortest distance between two points).
Substitute for $D B$ its equal $D A$, then

$$
C B<C D+D A .
$$

But

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
C D+D A=C A, & \text { Ax. } 9 . \\
\therefore C B<C A . & \text { Q. Е. D. }
\end{array}
$$

59. The Locus of a point is a line, straight or curved, containing all the points which possess a common property.
Thus, the perpendicular erected at the middle of a straight line is the locus of all points equally distant from the extremities of that straight line.
60. Scholium. Since two points determine the position of a straight line, two points equally distant from the extremities of a straight line determine the perpendicular at the middle point of that line.

Ex. 1. If an angle be a right angle, what is its complement?
2. If an angle be a right angle, what is its supplement ?
3. If an angle be $\frac{3}{5}$ of a right angle, what is its complement?
4. If an angle be $\frac{3}{5}$ of a right angle, what is its supplement?
5. Show that the bisectors of two vertical angles form one and the same straight line.
6. Show that the two straight lines which bisect the two pairs of vertical angles are perpendicular to each other.

Proposition IX. Theorem.
61. At a point in a straight line only one perpenticular. to that line can be drawn; and from a point willout a straight line only one perpendicular to that line can be drawn.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Let $B A$ (fig. 1) be perpendicular to $C D$ at the point $B$.
We are to prove $B A$ the only perpendicular to $C D$ at the point $B$.

If it be possible, let $B E$ be another line $\perp$ to $C D$ at $B$.
Then

$$
\angle E B D \text { is a rt. } \angle
$$

But $\quad \angle A B D$ is a rt. $\angle$
That is, a part is equal to the whole ; which is impossible.
In like manner it may be shown that no other line but $B A$ is $\perp$ to $C D$ at $B$.

Let $A B$ (fig. 2) be perpendicular to $C D$ from the point $A$.
We are to prove $A B$ the only $\perp$ to $C D$ from the point $A$.
If it be possible, let $A E$ be another line drawn from $A \perp$ to $C D$.

Conceive $\angle A E B$ to be moved to the right until the vertex $E$ falls on $B$, the side $E B$ continuing in the line $C D$.

Then the line $E A$ will take the position $B F$.
Now if $A E$ be $\perp$ to $C D, B F$ is $\perp$ to $C D$, and there will be two 1 s to $C D$ at the point $B$; which is impossible.

In like manner, it may be shown that no other line but $A B$ is $\perp$ to $C D$ from $A$.
Q.E.D.
62. Corollary. Two lines in the same plane perpendicular to the same straight line have the same direction; otherwise they would meet (§ 22), and we should have two perpendicular lines drawn from their point of meeting to the same line; which is impossible.

## On Parallel Lines.

63. Parallel Lines are straight lines which lie in the same plane and have the same direction, or opposite directions.

Parallel lines lie in the same direction, when they are on the same side of the straight line joining their origins.

Parallel lines lie in opposite directions, when they are on opposite sides of the straight line joining their origins.
64. I'wo parallel lines cannot meet.

65: Two lines in the same plane perpendicular to a given line have the same direction (§62), and are therefore parallel.
66. Through a given point only one line can be drawn parallel to a given line.


If a straight line $E F$ cut two other straight lines $A B$ and $C D$, it makes with those lines eight angles, to which particular names are given.

The angles 1, 4, 6, 7 are called Interior angles.
The angles 2, 3, 5, 8 are called Exterior angles.
The pairs of angles 1 and 7, 4 and 6 are called Alternateinterior angles.

The pairs of angles 2 and 8, 3 and 5 are called Alternateexterior angles.

The pairs of angles 1 and 5, 2 and 6, 4 and 8, 3 and 7 are called Exterior-interior angles.

## Proposition X. Theorem.

67. If a straight line be perpendicular to one of two parallel lines, it is perpendicular to the other.


Let $A B$ and $E F$ be two parallel lines, and let $H K$ be perpendicular to $A B$.

> We are to prove $\quad H K \perp$ to $E F$.
> Through $C$ draw $M N \perp$ to $H K$.

Then $\quad M N$ is $\|$ to $A B$. § 65
(Two lines in the same plane $\perp$ to a given line are parallel).
But
$E F$ is \| to $A B$, Нур.
$\therefore E F^{\prime}$ coincides with $M N$. § 66
(Through the same point only one line can be drawn II to a given line).

$$
\therefore E F \text { is } \perp \text { to } H K \text {, }
$$

that is $\quad H K$ is $\perp$ to $E F$.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XI. Theorem.
68. If two parallel straight lines be cut by a third straight line the alternate-interior angles are equal.


Let $E F$ and $G I I$ be two parallel straight lines cut by the line $B C$.
We are to prove $\quad \angle B=\angle C$.
Through $O$, the middle point of $B C$, draw $A D \perp$ to $G H$.
Then $\quad A D$ is likewise $\perp$ to $E F$,
§ 67 (a straight line $\perp$ to one of two lls is $\perp$ to the other),
that is, $C D$ and $B A$ are both $\perp$ to $A D$.
Apply figure $C O D$ to figure $B O A$ so that $O D$ shall fall on 0 A.

Then
$O C$ will fall on $O B$, (since $\angle C O D=\angle B O A$, being vertical $\triangle$ );
and point $C$ will fall upon $B$, (since $O C=O B$ by construction).
Then $\perp C D$ will coincide with $\perp B A$, (from a point without a straight line only one $\perp$ to that line can be draun).
$\therefore \angle O C D$ coincides with $\angle O B A$, and is equal to it.
Q.E.D.

Scholium. By the converse of a proposition is meant a proposition which has the hypothesis of the first as conclusion and the conclusion of the first as hypothesis. The converse of a truth is not necessarily true. Thus, parallel lines never mpet; its converse, lines which never meet are parallel, is not true unless the lines lie in the same plane.

Note. - The converse of many propositions will be omitted, but their statement and demonstration should be required as an important exercise for the student.

## Proposition XII. Theorem.

69. Conversely: When two straight lines are cut by a third straight line, if the alternate-interior angles be equal, the two straight lines are parallel.


Let $E F$ cut the straight lines $A B$ and $C D$ in the points $H$ and $K$, and let the $\angle A H K=\angle H K D$.

$$
\text { We are to prove } A B \| \text { to } C D \text {. }
$$

Through the point $H$ draw $M N \|$ to $C D$;
then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\angle M H K=\angle H K D, \\
\text { (being alt.-int. } 1 \text { s) }
\end{gathered}
$$

But

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\angle A H K=\angle H K D, & \text { Hyp. } \\
\therefore \angle M H K=\angle A H K . & \text { Ax. }
\end{array}
$$

$\therefore$ the lines $M N$ and $A B$ coincide.
But

$$
M N \text { is } \| \text { to } C D \text {; }
$$

$\therefore A B$, which coincides with $M N$, is \| to $C D$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XIII. Theorem.

70. If two parallel lines be cut by a third straight line, the exterior-interior angles are equal.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be two parallel lines cut by the straight line $E F$, in the points $I$ and $K$.

We are to prove $\angle E H B=\angle H K D$.

$$
\angle E H B=\angle A H K,
$$ (being vertical ©).

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \angle A H K=\angle H K D, \\
& \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { (being alt.-int. } \mathbb{*}) .
\end{array} \\
& \therefore \angle E H B=\angle H K D .
\end{aligned}
$$

In like manner we may prove

$$
\angle E H A=\angle H K C .
$$

Q. E. D.
71. Corollary. The alternate-exterior angles, $E H B$ and $C K F$, and also $A H E$ and $D K F$, are equal.

## Proposition XIV. Theorem.

72. Conversely: When two straight lines are cut by a third straight line, if the exterior-interior angles be equal, these two straight lines are parallel.


Let $E F$ cut the straight lines $A B$ and $C D$ in the points $H$ and $K$, and let the $\angle E H B=\angle H K D$.

$$
\text { We are to prove } \quad A B \| \text { to } C D
$$

Through the point $H$ draw the straight line $M N \|$ to $C D$.
Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\angle E H N=\angle H K D, \\
\text { (being ext.-int. } \measuredangle \text { © ) }
\end{gather*}
$$

But

$$
\begin{gathered}
\angle E H B=\angle H K D \\
\therefore \angle E H B=\angle E H N
\end{gathered}
$$

Hyp.
$\therefore$ the lines $M N$ and $A B$ coincide.
But

$$
M N \text { is } \| \text { to } C D
$$

Cons.
$\therefore A B$, which coincides with $M N$, is $\|$ to $C D$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XV. Theorem.

73. If two parallel lines be cut by a third straight line, the sum of the two interior angles on the same side of the secant line is equal to two right angles.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be two parallel lines cut by the straight line $E F$ in the points $H$ and $K$.

We are to prove $\quad \angle B H K+\angle H K D=$ two rt. $\Delta$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\angle E H B+\angle B H K=2 \text { rt. } \Delta s, \quad \text { (being sup. } A \text { adj. } \measuredangle \text { ) } .
\end{gathered}
$$

But $\angle E H B=\angle H K D$, § 70 (being ext.-int. © ) .

Substitute $\angle H K D$ for $\angle E H B$ in the first equality;
then

$$
\angle B H K+\angle H K D=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s} .
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition XVI. Theorem.
74. Conversely: When two straight lines are cut by a third straight line, if the two interior angles on the same sidle of the secant line be together equal to two right angles, then the two straight lines are parallel.


Let $E F$ cut the straight lines $A B$ and $C D$ in the points $H$ and $K$, and let the $\angle B H K+\angle H K D$ equal two right angles.

We are to prove $A B \|$ to $C D$.
Through the point $H$ draw $M N \|$ to $C D$.
Then $\quad \angle N H K+\angle H K D=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}$,
(being two interior $\stackrel{1}{ }$ on the same side of the secant line).
But

$$
\angle B H K+\angle H K D=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}
$$

Hyp.
$\therefore \angle N H K+\angle H K D=\angle B H K+\angle H K D$. Ax. 1 .
Take away from each of these equals the common $\angle H K D$, then

$$
\angle N H K=\angle B H K
$$

$\therefore$ the lines $A B$ and $M N$ coincide.
But

$$
M N \text { is } \| \text { to } C D
$$

Cons.
$\therefore A B$, which coincides with $M N$, is $\|$ to $C D$.
Q. ED.

## Proposition XVII. Theorem.

75. Two straight lines which are parallel to a third straight line are parallel to each other.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be parallel to $E F$.
We are to prove $A B \|$ to $C D$.
Draw $H K \perp$ to $E F$.
Since $C D$ and $E F$ are II, $H K$ is $\perp$ to $C D, \quad \S 67$ (if a straight line be $\perp$ to one of tuonlls, it is $\perp$ to the other also).

Since $A B$ and $E F$ are II, $H K$ is also $\perp$ to $A B, \quad \S 67$
$\therefore \angle H O B=\angle H P D$,
(each being a rt. $\angle$ ).
$\therefore A B$ is $\|$ to $C D$, § 72
(when two straight lines are cut by a third straight line, if the ext.-int. A be equal, the tuo lines are II).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XVIII. Theorem.

76. Two parallel lines are everywhere equally distant from each other.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be two parallel lines, and from any $t$ wo points in $A B$, as $E$ and $H$, let $E F$ and $I I K$ be drawn perpendicular to $A B$.
We are to prove $\quad E F=I K$.
Now $E F$ and $H K$ are $\perp$ to $C D$, (a line $\perp$ to one of two $\| s$ is $\perp$ to the other also).

Let $M$ be the middle point of $E H$.

- Draw $M P \perp$ to $A B$.

On $M P$ as an axis, fold over the portion of the figure on the right of $M P$ until it comes into the plane of the figure on the left.
$M B$ will fall on $M A$,
(for $\angle P M H=\angle P M E$, each being a rt. $\angle$ );
the point $H$ will fall on $E$, (for $M H=M E$, by hyp.) ;
$H K$ will fall on $E F$,
(for $\angle M H K=\angle M E F$, each being a rt. $\angle$ );
and the point $K$ will fall on $E F$, or $E F$ produced.
Also, $P D$ will fall on $P C$,
( $\angle M P K=\angle M P F$, each being a rt. $\angle$ );
and the point $K$ will fall on $P C$.
Since the point $K$ falls in both the lines $E F$ and $P C$,
it must fall at their point of intersection $F$.

$$
\therefore H K=E F,
$$

(their extremities being the same points).
Q. E. D.

Proposition XIX. Theorem.
77. Two angles whose sides are parallel, two and two, and lie in the same direction, or opposite directions, from their rertices, are equal.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Let $\& B$ and $E$ (Fig. 1) have their sides $B A$ and $E D$, and $B C$ and $E \cdot F$ respectively, parallel and lying in the same direction from their vertices.
We are to prove the $\quad \angle B=\angle E$.
Produce (if necessary) two sides which are not II until they intersect, as at $H$;
then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \angle B=\angle D H C, \\
& (\text { being ext.-int. } \angle \text { ) }
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
\angle E=\angle D H C, & \S 70 \\
\therefore \angle B=\angle E . & \text { Ax. } 1
\end{array}
$$

Let $\& B^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime}$ (Fig. 2) have $B^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$ respectively, parallel and lying in opposite directions from their vertices.
We are to prove the $\quad \angle B^{\prime}=\angle E^{\prime}$.
Produce (if necessary) two sides which are not \| until they intersect, as at $H^{\prime}$.

Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\angle b^{\prime}=\angle E^{\prime} H^{\prime} C^{\prime}, \\
(\text { being ext.-int. © }) \text {, }
\end{gather*}
$$

and

$$
\angle E^{\prime}=\angle E^{\prime} H^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

(being alt.-int. © ) ;

$$
\therefore \angle B^{\prime}=\angle E^{\prime}
$$

Ax. 1.
Q.E.D.

## Proposition XX. Theorem.

78. If two angles have two sides parallel and lying in the same direction from their vertices, while the other two sides are parallel and lie in opposite directions, then the two angles are supplements of each other.


Let $A B C$ and $D E F$ be two angles having $B C$ and $E D$ parallel and lying in the same direction from their vertices, while $E F$ and $B A$ are parallel and lie in opposite directions.

We are to prove $\angle A B C$ and $\angle D E F$ supplements of each other.

Produce (if necessary) two sides which are not \| until they intersect as at $H$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \angle A B C=\angle B H D, \\
& (\text { being ext.-int. ©). } \\
& \angle D E F=\angle B H E, \\
& \text { (being alt.-int. \&). }
\end{align*}
$$

But $\angle B H D$ and $\angle B H E$ are supplements of each other, § 34 (being sup.-adj. \&s).
$\therefore \angle A B C$ and $\angle D E F$, the equals of $\angle B H D$ and $\angle B H E$, are supplements of each other.
Q. E. D.

## On Triangles.

79. Def. A Triangle is a plane figure bounded by three straight lines.

A triangle has six parts, three sides and three angles.
80. When the six parts of one triangle are equal to the six parts of another triangle, each to each, the triangles are said to be equal in all respects.
81. Def. In two equal triangles, the equal angles are called Homologous angles, and the equal sides are called Homologous sides.
82. In equal triangles the equal sides are opposite the equal angles.


SOALENE.

isOsceles.


EQUILATERAL.
83. Def. A Sealene triangle is one of which no two sides are equal.
84. Def. An Isosceles triangle is one of which two sides are equal.
85. Def. An Equilateral triangle is one of which the three sides are equal.
86. Def. The Base of a triangle is the side on which the triangle is supposed to stand.

In an isosceles triangle, the side which is not one of the equal sides is considered the base.


RIGHT.

obtuse.


ACUTE.
87. Def. A Right triangle is one which has one of the angles a right angle.
88. Def. The side opposite the right angle is called the Hypotenuse.
89. Def. An Obtuse triangle is one which has one of the angles an obtuse angle.
90. Def. An Acute triangle is one which has all the angles acute.


EqUIANGULAR.

91. Def. An Equiangular triangle is one which has all the angles equal.
92. Def. In any triangle, the angle opposite the base is called the Vertical angle, and its vertex is called the Vertex of the triangle.
93. Def. The Altitude of a triangle is the perpendicular distance from the vertex to the base, or the base produced.
94. Def. The Exterior angle of a triangle is the angle included between a side and an adjacent side produced, as $\angle C B D$.
95. Def. The two angles of a triangle which are opposite the exterior angle, are called the two opposite interior angles, as $\triangle A$ and $C$.

96. Any side of a triangle is less than the sum of the other two sides.

Since a straight line is the shortest distance between two points,

$$
A C<A B+B C
$$

97. Any side of a triangle is greater than the difference of the other two sides.

$$
\text { In the inequality } A C<A B+B C \text {, }
$$

take away $A B$ from each side of the inequality.
Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
A C-A B<B C ; \text { or } \\
B C>A C-A B .
\end{gathered}
$$

Ex. 1. Show that the sum of the distances of any point in a triangle from the vertices of three angles of the triangle is greater than half the sum of the sides of the triangle.
2. Show that the locus of all the points at a given distance from a given straight line $A B$ consists of two parallel lines, drawn on opposite sides of $A B$, and at the given distance from it.
3. Show that the two equal straight lines drawn from a point to a straight line make equal acute angles with that line.
4. Show that, if two angles have their sides perpendicular, each to each, they are either equal or supplementary.

## Proposition XXI. Theorem.

98. The sum of the three angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles.


Let $A B C$ be a triangle.
We are to prove $\angle B+\angle B C A+\angle A=$ two rt. Ls.
Draw $C E \|$ to $A B$, and prolong $A C$.
Then $\angle E C F+\angle E C B+\angle B C A=2$ rt. $\angle \mathrm{E}, \quad \S 34$ (the sum of all the $\mathbb{S}$ about a point on the same side of a straight line

$$
=2 r t . \measuredangle s) \text {. }
$$

But

$$
\angle A=\angle E C F
$$ (being ext.-int. $\boxed{\boxed{ }}$ ),

$$
\begin{gather*}
\text { and } \angle B=\angle B C E, \\
\text { (being alt.-int. } \boxed{\text { s. }} \text { ). }
\end{gather*}
$$

Substitute for $\angle E C F$ and $\angle B C E$ their equal $\angle s, A$ and $B$.
Then

$$
\angle A+\angle B+\angle B C A=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}
$$

Q. E. D.
99. Corollary 1. If the sum of two angles of a triangle be known, the third angle can be found by taking this sum from two right angles.
100. Cor. 2. If two triangles have two angles of the one equal to two angles of the other, the third angles will be equal.
101. Cor. 3. If two right triangles have an acute angle of the one equal to an acute angle of the other, the other acute angles will be equal.
102. Cor. 4. In a triangle there can be but one right angle, or one obtuse angle.
103. Cor. 5. In a right triangle the two acute angles are complements of each other.
104. Cor. 6. In an equiangular triangle, each angle is one third of two right angles, or two thirds of one right angle.

Proposition XXII. Theorem.
105. The exterior angle of a triangle is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior angles.


Let $B C H$ be an exterior angle of the triangle $A B C$.
We are to prove $\quad \angle B C H=\angle A+\angle B$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \angle B C H+\angle A C B=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle S, \\
& \text { (being sup.-adj. \&). } \\
& \angle A+\angle B+\angle A C B=2 \text { rt. } \angle \mathrm{s} \text {, } \\
& \text { (three } \& \text { of } a \Delta=\text { two rt. © ) . }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\therefore \angle B C H+\angle A C B=\angle A+\angle B+\angle A C B$. Ax. 1 .
Take away from each of these equals the common $\angle \Lambda C B$;
then

$$
\angle B C H=\angle A+\angle B .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXIII. Theorem.

106. Two triangles are equal in all respects when two sides and the included angle of the one are equal respectively to two sides and the included angle of the other.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, let $A B=A^{\prime} j^{\prime}$, $A \in=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, \angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Take up the $\triangle A B C$ and place it upon the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ so that $A B$ shall coincide with $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

Then $\quad A C$ will take the direction of $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, ( for $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$, by hyp.),
the point $C$ will fall upon the point $C^{\prime}$, (for $A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, by hyp.) ;

$$
\therefore C B=C^{\prime} B^{\prime},
$$

(their extremities being the same points).
$\therefore$ the two coincide, and are equal in all respects.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXIV. Theorem.

107. Two triangles are equal in all respects when a side and two adjacent angles of the one are equal respectively to a side and two adjacent angles of the other.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$, let $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}, \angle B=\angle B^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Take up $\triangle A B C$ and place it upon $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, so that $A B$ shall coincide with $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
$A C$ will take the direction of $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, (for $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$, by hyp.);
the point $C$, the extremity of $A C$, will fall upon $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ or $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ produced.
$B C$ will take the direction of $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$,

$$
\text { (for } \angle B=\angle B^{\prime} \text {, by hyp.) ; }
$$

the point $C$, the extremity of $B C$, will fall upon $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ or $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ produced.
$\therefore$ the point $C$, falling upon both the lines $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, must fall upon a point common to the two lines, namely, $C^{\prime}$.
$\therefore$ the two coincide, and are equal in all respects.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXV. Theorem.

108. Two triangles are equal when the three sides of the one are equal respectively to the three sides of the other.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, let $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, $A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, B C=B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Place $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ in the position $A B^{\prime} C$, having its greatest side $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ in coincidence with its equal $A C$, and its vertex at $B^{\prime}$, opposite $B$.

Draw $B B^{\prime}$ intersecting $A C$ at $H$.

$$
\text { Since } A B=A B^{\prime}
$$

Нур.
point $A$ is at equal distances from $B$ and $B^{\prime}$.
Since $B C=B^{\prime} C$,
Hyp.
point $C$ is at equal distances from $B$ and $B^{\prime}$.
$\therefore A C$ is $\perp$ to $B B^{\prime}$ at its middle point,
(two points at equal distances from the extremities of a straight line determine the $\perp$ at the middle of that line).
Now if $\triangle A B^{\prime} C$ be folded over on $A C$ as an axis until it comes into the plane of $\triangle A B C$,
$H B^{\prime}$ will fall on $H B$,
(for $\angle A H B=\angle A H B^{\prime}$, each being a rt. $\angle$ ),
and point $B^{\prime}$ will fall on $B$,
( for $H B^{\prime}=H B$ ).
$\therefore$ the two $\Delta$ coincide, and are equal in all respects.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXVI. Theorem.

109. Two right triangles are equal when a side and the hypotenuse of the one are equal respectively to a side and the hypotenuse of the other.


In the right triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, let $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, and $A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Take up the $\triangle A B C$ and place it upon $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, so that $A B$ will coincide with $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Then } \begin{array}{c}
B C \text { will fall upon } B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text {, } \\
\left(\text { for } \angle A B C=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text {, each being a rt. } \angle\right) \text {, } \\
\text { and point } C \text { will fall upon } C^{\prime} \text {; }
\end{array} .
\end{aligned}
$$

otherwise the equal oblique lines $A C$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ would cut off unequal distances from the foot of the $\perp$, which is impossible,
(two equal oblique lines from a point in a $\perp$ cut off equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ ).
$\therefore$ the two coincide, and are equal in all respects.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXVII. Theorem.

110. Two right triangles are equal when the hypotenuse and an acute angle of the one are equal respectively to the hypotenuse and an acute angle of the other.


In the right triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$, let $A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, and $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, & \text { Hyp. } \\
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}, & \text { Hyp. }
\end{array}
$$

then
$\angle C=\angle C^{\prime}$,
§ 101
(if two rt. \& have an acute $\angle$ of the one equal to an acute $\angle$ of the other, then the other acute \& are equal).

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime},
$$

(two \& are equal when $a$ side and two adj. \& of the one are equal respectively to a side and two adj. \& of the other).
Q. E. D.
111. Corollary. Two right triangles are equal when a side and an acute angle of the one are equal respectively to an homologous side and acute angle of the other.

## Proposition XXVIII. Theorem.

112. In an isosceles triangle the angles opposite the equal sides are equal.


Let $A B C$ be an isosceles triangle, having the sides $A C$ and $C B$ equal.

We are to prove $\quad \angle A=\angle B$.
From $C$ draw the straight line $C E$ so as to bisect the $\angle A C B$.

In the $\mathbb{A} A C E$ and $B \mathscr{D}$,

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
A C=B C, & \text { Hyp. } \\
C E=C E, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle A C E=\angle B C E ; & \text { Cons. } \\
\therefore \triangle A C E=\triangle B C E, & \S 106
\end{array}
$$

(two A are equal when two sides and the included $\angle$ of the one are equal respectively to two sides and the included $\angle$ of the other).

$$
\therefore \angle A=\angle B
$$

(being homologous \&s of equal © ).
Q. E. D.

Ex. If the equal sides of an isosceles triangle be produced, show that the angles formed with the base by the sides produced are equal.

## Proposition XXIX. Theorem.

113. A straight line which bisects the angle at the vertex af an isosceles triangle divides the triangle into two equal triangles, is perpendicular to the base, and bisects the base.


Let the line $C E$ bisect the $\angle A C B$ of the isosceles $\triangle A C B$.

We are to prove I. $\triangle A C E=\triangle B C E$;
II. line $C E \perp$ to $A B$;
III. $A E=B E$.
I. In the $\mathbb{\&} A C E$ and $B C E$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C=B C, & \text { Hyp. } \\
C E=C E, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle A C E=\angle B C E . & \text { Cons. } \\
\therefore \triangle A C E=\triangle B C E, & \S 106
\end{aligned}
$$

(having two sides and the included $\angle$ of the one equal respectively to two sides and the included $\angle$ of the other).
Also, II. $\quad \angle C E A=\angle C E B$, (being homologous $\mathbb{1}$ of equal $\mathbb{B}$ ).
$\therefore C E$ is $\perp$ to $A B$,
(a straight line meeting another, making the adjacent $\mathbb{\&}$ equal, is $\perp$ to that line).
Also, III.

$$
A E=E B,
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXX. Theorem.

114. If two angles of a triangle be equal, the sides opposite the equal angles are equal, and the triangle is isosceles.


In the triangle $A B C$, let the $\angle B=\angle C$.
We are to prove $\quad A B=A C$.
Draw $A D \perp$ to $B C$.
In the rt. $\& A D B$ and $A D C$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& A D=A D, \\
& \angle B=\angle C, \\
& \therefore \text { rt. } \triangle A D B=\mathrm{rt.} \triangle A D C,
\end{align*}
$$

(having a side and an acute $\angle$ of the one equal respectively to $a$ side and an acute $\angle$ of the other).
$\therefore A B=A C$,
(being homologous sides of equal ©).
Q. E. D.

Ex. Show that an equiangular triangle is also equilateral.

Proposition XXXI. Theorem.
115. If two triangles have two sides of the one equal respectively to two sides of the other, but the included angle of the first greater than the included angle of the second, then the third side of the first will be greater than the third side of the second.


In the $\mathbb{A} A B C$ and $A B E$, let $A B=A B, B C=B E$; but $\angle A B C>\angle A B E$.

We are to prove $\quad A C>A E$.
Place the $\mathbb{A}$ so that $A B$ of the one shall coincide with $A B$ of the other.

Draw $B-F$ so as to bisect $\angle E B C$.
Draw $E F$.
In the $\triangle E B F$ and $C B F$

| $E B=B C$, | Hyp. |
| :---: | ---: |
| $B F=B F$, | Iden. |
| $\angle E B F=\angle C B F$, | Cons. |
| $\therefore$ the $\& E B F$ and $C B F$ are equal, | § 106 |
| sides and the included $\angle$ of one equal respectively to two sides |  |
| and the included $\angle$ of the other). |  |

$$
\therefore E F=F C
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).
Now $\quad A F+F E>A E$,
(the sum of two sides of $a \Delta$ is greater than the third side).
Substitute for $F E$ its equal $F C$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
A F+F C>A E ; \text { or, } \\
A C>A E
\end{gathered}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXXII. Theorem.

116. Conversely: If two sides of a triangle be equal respectively to two sides of another, but the third side of the first triangle be greater than the third side of the second, then the angle opposite the third side of the first triangle is greater than the angle opposite the third side of the second.


In the $\mathbb{A} A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$, let $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$; but $B C>B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.

$$
\text { We are to prove } \quad \angle A>\angle A^{\prime} \text {. }
$$

If

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime},
$$

then would $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$,
(having two sides and the included $\angle$ of the one equal respectively to two sides and the included $\angle$ of the other),
and

$$
B C=B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous sides of equal © ).
And if

$$
A<A^{\prime}
$$

then would $\quad B C<B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$;
(if two sides of $a \Delta$ be equal respectively to two sides of another $\Delta$, but the included $\angle$ of the first be greater than the included $\angle$ of the second, the third side of the first will be greater than the third side of the sccond.)
But both these conclusions are contrary to the hypothesis ;
$\therefore \angle A$ does not equal $\angle A^{\prime}$, and is not less than $\angle A^{\prime}$.

$$
\therefore \angle A>\angle A^{\prime} \text {. }
$$

## Proposition XXXIII. Theorem.

117. Of two sides of a triangle, that is the greater which is opposite the greater angle.


In the triangle $A B C$ let angle $A C B$ be greater than angle $B$.

We are to prove $A B>A C$.
Draw $C E$ so as to make $\angle B C E=\angle B$.
Then

$$
E C=E B
$$

(being sides opposite equal © ) .
Now

$$
A E+E C>A C
$$

(the sum of two sides of $a \Delta$ is greater than the third side).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Substitute for } E C \text { its qual } E B \text {. Then } \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{c}
A E+E B>A C \text {, or } \\
A B>A C . \\
\text { Q.E.D. }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

Ex. $A B C$ and $A B D$ are two triangles on the same base $A B$, and on the same side of it, the vertex of each triangle being without the other. If $A C$ equal $A D$, show that $B C$ cannot equal $B D$.

## Proposition XXXIV. Theorem.

118. Of two angles of a triangle, that is the greater which is opposite the greater side.


In the triangle $A B C$ let $A B$ be greater than $A C$.
We are to prove $\quad \angle A C B>\angle B$.
Take $A E$ equal to $A C$;
Draw $E C$.

$$
\angle A E C=\angle A C E
$$

(being \& opposite equal sides).
But $\quad \angle A E C>\angle B$,
§ 105
(an exterior $\angle$ of $a \triangle$ is greater than either opposite interior $\angle$ ),
and

$$
\angle A C B>\angle A C E
$$

Substitute for $\angle A C E$ its equal $\angle A E C$, then

$$
\angle A C B>\angle A E C
$$

Much more is $\angle A C B>\angle B$.
Q. E. D.

Ex. If the angles $A B C$ and $A C B$, at the base of an isosceles triangle, be bisected by the straight lines $\bar{B} D, C D$, show that $D B C$ will be an isosceles triangle.

Proposition XXXV. Theorem.
119. The three bisectors of the three angles of a triangle meet in a point.


Let the two bisectors of the angles $A$ and $C$ meet at $O$, and $O B$ be drawn.

We are to prove $B O$ bisects the $\angle B$.
Draw the Is $O K, O P$, and $O H$.
In the rt. $\triangle O C K$ and $O C P$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
O C=O C \\
\angle O C K=\angle O C P
\end{gathered}
$$

Iden.
Cons.

$$
\therefore \triangle O C K=\triangle O C P
$$

(having the hypotenuse and an acute $\angle$ of the one equal respectively to the
hypotenuse and an acute $\angle$ of the other).

$$
\therefore O P=O K
$$

(homologous sides of equal ©).
In the rt. © $O A P$ and $O A H$,

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\qquad O A=O A, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle O A P=\angle O A H, & \text { Cons. } \\
\therefore \triangle O A P=\triangle O A H, & \S 110 \\
\text { shaving the hypotenuse and an acute } \angle \text { of the one equal respectively to the } \\
\text { hypotenuse and an acute } \angle \text { of the other). }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\therefore O P=O H
$$

(being homologous sides of equal © ).
But we have already shown $O P=O K$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\therefore O H=O K \tag{Ax. 1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now in rt. A $O H B$ and $O K B$

$$
\begin{gather*}
O H=O K, \text { and } O B=O B \\
\therefore \triangle O H B=\triangle O K B
\end{gather*}
$$

(having the hypotenuse and a side of the one equal respectively to the hypotenuse and a side of the other),
$\therefore \angle O B H=\angle O B K$, (being homologous $\mathbb{S}$ of equal © ).

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXXVI. Theorem.

120. The three perpendiculars erected at the middle points of the three sides of a triangle meet in a point.


Let $D D^{\prime}, E \cdot E^{\prime}, F^{\prime} F^{\prime}$, be three perpendiculars erected at $D, E, F$, the middle points of $A B, A C$, and $B C$.

We are to prove they meet in some point, as 0 .
The two $18 D D^{\prime}$ and $E E^{\prime}$ meet, otherwise they would be parallel, and $A B$ and $A C$, being 1 s to these lines from the same point $A$, would be in the same straight line;
but this is impossible, since they are sides of a $\Delta$.
Let $O$ be the point at which they meet.
Then, since $O$ is in $D D^{\prime}$, which is $\perp$ to $A B$ at its middle point, it is equally distant from $A$ and $B$. § 59
Also, since $O$ is in $E E^{\prime}, \perp$ to $A C$ at its middle point, it is equally distant from $A$ and $C$.
$\therefore O$ is equally distant from $B$ and $C$;
$\therefore O$ is in $F^{\prime} F^{\prime} \perp$ to $B C$ at its middle point,
(the locus of all points equally distant from the extremities of a straight line is the $\perp$ erected at the middle of that line).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXXVII. Theorem.

121. The three perpendiculars from the vertices of a triangle to the opposite sides meet in a point.


In the triangle $A B C$, let $B P, A H, C K$, be the perpendiculars from the vertices to the opposite sides.

We are to prove they meet in some point, as 0 .
Through the vertices $A, B, C$, draw

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A^{\prime} B^{\prime} \| \text { to } B C \\
& A^{\prime} C^{\prime} \| \text { to } A C \\
& B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \| \text { to } A B
\end{aligned}
$$

In the $\mathbb{S} A B A^{\prime}$ and $A B C$, we have

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
A B=A B, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle A B A^{\prime}=\angle B A C, & \S 68 \\
\text { (being alternate interior } \wp \text { ), } & \\
\angle B A A^{\prime}=\angle A B C, & \S 68 \\
\therefore \triangle A B A^{\prime}=\triangle A B C, & \S 107
\end{array}
$$

(having a side and two adj. \& of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. \&s of the other).

$$
\therefore A^{\prime} B=A C
$$

(being homologous sides of egual © ).

In the $\triangle C B C^{\prime}$ and $A B C$,

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
B C=B C, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle C B C^{\prime}=\angle B C A, & \S 68 \\
\text { (being alternate interior \&). } & \\
\angle B C C^{\prime}=\angle C B A . & \S 68
\end{array}
$$

$$
\therefore \triangle C B C^{\prime}=\triangle A B C
$$

$$
\S 107
$$

(having a side and two adj. $\&$ of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. $\$$ of the other).

$$
\therefore B C^{\prime}=A C \text {, }
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).
But we have already shown $A^{\prime} B=A C$,

$$
\therefore A^{\prime} B=B C^{\prime}
$$

$\therefore B$ is the middle point of $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

| Since $B P$ is $\perp$ to $A C$, | Hyp. |
| :---: | :---: |
| it is $\perp$ to $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, | $\S 67$ |

(a straight line which is $\perp$ to one of two lls is $\perp$ to the other also).
But $B$ is the middle point of $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$;
$\therefore B P$ is $\perp$ to $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ at its middle point.
In like manner we may prove that
$A H$ is $\perp$ to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ at its middle point, and $C K \perp$ to $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ at its middle point.
$\therefore B P, A H$, and $C K$ are $1 s$ erected at the middle points of the sides of the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.
$\therefore$ these $\downarrow \mathrm{s}$ meet in a point.
(the three $\perp^{\perp}$ erected at the middle points of the sides of a $\triangle$ meet in a point).
Q. E. D.

## On Quadrilaterals.

122. Def. A Quadrilateral is a plane figure bounded by four straight lines.
123. Def. A Trapezium is a quadrilateral which has no two sides parallel.
124. Def. A Trapezoid is a quadrilateral which has two sides, and only two sides, parallel.
125. Def. A Parallelogram is a quadrilateral which has its opposite sides parallel.

tRAPEZIUM.


TRAPEZOID.

parallelogram.
126. Def. A Rectangle is a parallelogram which has its angles right angles.
127. Def. A Square is a parallelogram which has its angles right angles, and its sides equal.
128. Def. A Rhombus is a parallelogram which has its sides equal, but its angles oblique angles.
129. Def. A Rhomboid is a parallelogram which has its angles oblique angles.

The figure marked parallelogram is also a rhomboid.

rectangle.

square.


RHombus.
130. Def. The side upon which a parallelogram stands, and the opposite side, are called its lower and upper bases; and the parallel sides of a trapezoid are called its bases.
131. Def. The Altitude of a parallelogram or trapezoid is the perpendicular distance between its bases.

132. Def. The Diagonal of a quadrilateral is a straight line joining any two opposite vertices.

## Proposition XXXVIII. Theorem.

133. The diagonal of a parallelogram divides the figure into two equal triangles.


Let $A B C E$ be a parallelogram, and $A C$ its diagonal.
We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C=\triangle A E C$.
In the $\triangle A B C$ and $A E C$

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
A C=A C, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle A C B=\angle C A E, & \S 68 \\
(\text { being alt.-int. } \S) . & \\
\angle C A B=\angle A C E, & \S 68 \\
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A E C, & \text { § } 107 \\
\text { (having } a \text { side and two adj. } \angle \text { of the one equal respectively to a side and two } \\
\text { adj. \& of the other). } & \text { Q. E. D. }
\end{array}
$$

## Proposition XXXIX. Theorem.

134. In a parallelogram the opposite sides are equal, and the opposite angles are equal.


Let the figure $A B C E$ be a parallelogram.
We are to prove $B C=A E$, and $A B=E C$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { also, } \angle B=\angle E, \text { and } \angle B A E=\angle B C E . \\
\text { Draw } A C .
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\triangle A B C=\triangle A E C,
$$ (the diagonal of $a \square$ divides the figure into two equal $\mathbb{A}$ ).

$$
\therefore B C=A E \text {, }
$$

and

$$
A B=C E,
$$

(being homologous sides of equal \& ).

$$
\angle B=\angle E \text {, }
$$

(being homologous ⓢ of equal \& ).

$$
\angle B A C=\angle A C E,
$$

and

$$
\angle E A C=\angle A C B,
$$

(being homologous \&s of equal 太).

Add these last two equalities, and we have

$$
\angle B A C+\angle E A C=\angle A C E+\angle A C B ;
$$

or,

$$
\angle B A E=\angle B C E .
$$

Q. E. D.
135. Corollary. Parallel lines comprehended between parallel lines are equal.

## Proposition XL. Theorem.

136. If a quadrilateral have two sides equal and parallel, then the other two sides are equal and parallel, and the figure is a parallelogram.


Let the figure $A B C E$ be a quadrilateral, having the side $A E$ equal and parallel to $B C$.

We are to prove $A B$ equal and $\|$ to $E C$.
Draw $A C$.
In the $A B C$ and $A E C$

$$
\begin{align*}
& B C=A E, \\
& A C=A C, \\
& \angle B C A=\angle C A E, \\
& \text { (being alt.-int. \& ) } .
\end{align*}
$$

$\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A C E$,
§ 106
(having two sides and the included $\angle$ of the one equal respectively to two sides and the included $\angle$ of the other).

$$
\therefore A B=E C \text {, }
$$

(being homologous sides of equal \& ).
Also,

$$
\angle B A C=\angle A C E,
$$ (being homologous $\angle 5$ of equal \&s);

$$
\therefore A B \text { is } \| \text { to } E C \text {, }
$$

(when two straight lines are cut by a third straight line, if the alt.-int. Ls be
equal the lines are parallel).
$\therefore$ the figure $A B C E$ is a $\square$,
(the opposite sides being parallel).

## Proposition XLI. Theorem.

137. If in a quadrilateral the opposite sides be equal, the figure is a parallelogram.


Let the figure $A B C E$ be a quadrilateral having. $B C=A E$ and $A B=E C$.

We are to prove figure $\quad A B C E a \square$.
Draw $A C$.
In the $\mathbb{B} A B C$ and $A E C$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
B C=A E, & \text { Hyp. } \\
A B=C E, & \text { Hyp. } \\
A C=A C, & \text { Iden. }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A E C,
$$

(having three sides of the one equal respectively to three sides of the other).

$$
\therefore \angle A C B=\angle C A E
$$

and

$$
\angle B A C=\angle A C E
$$

(being homologous $\leftarrow$ of equal ©).

$$
\therefore B C \text { is } \| \text { to } A E \text {, }
$$

and
$A B$ is $\|$ to $E C$,
(when two straight lines lying in the same plane are cut by a third straight line, if the alt.-int. \& be equal, the lines are parallel).

## Proposition XLII. Theorem.

138. The diagonals of a parallelogram bisect each other.


Let the figure $A B C E$ be a parallelogram, and let the diagonals $A C$ and $B E$ cut each other at $O$.

We are to prove $A O=O C$, and $B O=O E$.
In the $\triangle A O E$ and $B O C$

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
A E=B C, & \S 134 \\
\text { (being opposite sides of } a \square \text { ), } & \\
\angle O A E=\angle O C B, & \S 68 \\
\text { (being alt.-int. } \boxed{*} \text { ), } & \\
\angle O E A=\angle O B C ; & \S 68 \\
\therefore \triangle A O E=\triangle B O C, & \S 107
\end{array}
$$

(having a side and two adj. \& of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. \& of the other).

$$
\therefore A O=O C
$$

and

$$
B O=O E
$$

(being homologous sides of equal $\mathbb{A}$ ).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XLIII. Theorem.

139. The diagonals of a rhombus bisect each other at right angles.


Let the figure $A B C E$ be a rhombus, having the diagonals $A C$ and $B E$ bisecting each other at $O$.

We are to prove $\angle A O E$ and $\angle A O B r$. $\leftarrow$.
In the $\mathbb{B} A O E$ and $A O B$,

$$
A E=A B,
$$

(being sides of a rhombus) ;

$$
O E=O B,
$$

(the diagonals of $a \square$ bisect each other);

$$
\begin{align*}
A O=A O, & \text { Iden. } \\
\therefore \triangle A O E=\triangle A O B, & \text { § } 108
\end{align*}
$$

(having three sides of the one equal respectively to three sides of the other);
$\therefore \angle A O E=\angle A O B$,
(being homologous \&s of equal \&s);
$\therefore \angle A O E$ and $\angle A O B$ are rt. $\angle$.
(When one straight line meets another straight line so as to make the adj. \& equal, each $\angle$ is a rt. $\angle$ ).

> Q. E. D,

Proposition XLIV. Theorem.
140. Two parallelograms, having two sides and the included angle of the one equal respectively to two sides and the included angle of the other, are equal in all respects.


In the parallelograms $A B C D$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, le $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A D=A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$.
We are to prove that the $[5$ are equal.
Apply $\square A B C D$ to $\square A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, so that $A D$ will fall on and coincide with $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.

> Then $A B$ will fall on $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, $\left(\right.$ for $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}$, by hyp.),
and the point $B$ will fall on $B^{\prime}$, ( for $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, by hyp.).
Now, $B C$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are both $\|$ to $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ and are drawn through point $B^{\prime}$;

$$
\therefore \text { the lines } B C \text { and } B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text { coincide, }
$$

and $C$ falls on $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ or $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ produced.
In like manner $D C$ and $D^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are $\|$ to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and are drawn through the point $D^{\prime}$.

$$
\therefore D C \text { and } D^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text { coincide ; }
$$

$\therefore$ the point $C$ falls on $D^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, or $D^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ produced ;
$\therefore C$ falls on both $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime} C^{\prime}$;
$\therefore C$ must fall on a point common to both, namely, $C^{\prime}$.
$\therefore$ the two coincide, and are equal in all respects.
Q. E. D.
141. Corollary. Two rectangles having the same base and altitude are equal; for they may be applied to each other and will coincide.

Proposition XLV. Theorem.
142. The straight line which connects the middle points of the non-parallel sides of a trapezoid is parallel to the parallel sides, and is equal to half their sum.


Let $S O$ be the straight line joining the middle points of the non-parallel sides of the trapezoid $A B C E$.

We are to prove $S O \|$ to $A E$ and $B C$;

$$
\text { also } \quad S O=\frac{1}{2}(A E+B C)
$$

Through the point $O$ draw $F H \|$ to $A B$,
and produce $B C$ to meet $F O H$ at $H$.
In the $B O E$ and $C O H$

$$
\begin{align*}
& O E=O C, \\
& \angle O E F=\angle O C H, \\
& \text { (being alt.-int. } \boxed{\boxed{ }} \text { ), } \\
& \angle F O E=\angle C O H, \\
& \text { (being vertical } \$ \text { ). } \\
& \text { Cons. } \\
& \therefore \triangle F O E=\triangle C O H, \\
& \text { (having a side and two adj. } \& \text { of the one equal respectively to a side and two } \\
& \text { adj. Ls of the other). }
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\therefore F E=C H,
$$

and

$$
O F=O H
$$

(being homologous sides of equal A).
Now

$$
F H=A B
$$

(\| lines comprehended between \| lines are equal);

$$
\therefore F O=A S . \quad \text { Ax. } 7
$$

$\therefore$ the figure $A F O S$ is a $\square$,
(having two opposite sides cqual and parallel).

$$
\therefore S O \text { is } \| \text { to } A F
$$

(being opposite sides of $a \square$ ).

$$
S O \text { is also } \| \text { to } B C \text {, }
$$

(a straight line II to one of two II lines is II to the other also).
Now

$$
S O=A F
$$

(being opposite sides of $a \square$ ),
and

$$
S O=B H
$$

But

$$
A F=A E-F E
$$

and

$$
B H=B C+C H
$$

Substitute for $A F$ and $B H$ their equals, $A E-F E$ and $B C+C H$,

$$
\text { and add, observing that } C H=F E \text {; }
$$

then

$$
\begin{gathered}
2 S O=A E+B C . \\
\therefore S O=\frac{1}{2}(A E+B C) .
\end{gathered}
$$

> Q. E. D.

## On Polygons in General.

143. Def. A Polygon is a plane figure bounded by straight lines.
144. Def. The bounding lines are the sides of the polygon, and their sum, as $A B+B C+C D$, etc., is the Perimeter of the polygon.

The angles which the adjacent sides make with each other are the angles of the polygon.
145. Def. A Diagonal of a polygon is a line joining the vertices of two angles not adjacent.

146. Def. An Equilateral polygon is one which has all its sides equal.
147. Def. An Equiangular polygon is one which has all its angles equal.
148. Def. A Convex polygon is one of which no side, when produced, will enter the surface bounded by the perimeter.
149. Def. Each angle of such a polygon is called a Salient angle, and is less than two right angles.
150. Def. A Concave polygon is one of which two or more sides, when produced, will enter the surface bounded by the perimeter.
151. Def. The angle $F D E$ is called a Re-entrant angle.

When the term polygon is used, a convex polygon is meant.
The number of sides of a polygon is evidently equal to the number of its angles.

By drawing diagonals from any vertex of a polygon, the figure may be divided into as many triangles as it has sides less two.
152. Def. Two polygons are Equal, when they can be divided by diagonals into the same number of triangles, equal each to each, and similarly placed; for the polygons can be applied to each other, and the corresponding triangles will evidently coincide. Therefore the polygons will coincide, and be equal in all respects.
153. Def. Two polygons are Mutually Equiangular, if the angles of the one be equal to the angles of the other, each to each, when taken in the same order; as the polygons $A B C D E F$, and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$, in which $\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}, \angle B=\angle B^{\prime}$, $\angle C=\angle C^{\prime}$, etc.
154. Def. The equal angles in mutually equiangular polygons are called Homologous angles; and the sides which lie between equal angles are called Homologous sides.
155. Def. Two polygons are Mutually Equilateral, if the sides of the one be equal to the sides of the other, each to each, when taken in the same order.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.


Fig. 3.


Fig. 4.

Two polygons may be mutually equiangular without being mutually equilateral ; as Figs. 1 and 2.

And, except in the case of triangles, two polygons may be mutually equilateral without being mutually equiangular; as Figs. 3 and 4.

If two polygons be mutually equilateral and equiangular, they are equal, for they may be applied the one to the other so as to coincide.
156. Def. A polygon of three sides is a Trigon or Triangle; one of four sides is a Tetragon or Quadrilateral; one of five sides is a Pentagon; one of six sides is a Hexagon; one of seven sides is a Heptagon; one of eight sides is an Octagon; one of ten sides is a Decagon; one of twelve sides is a Dodecagon.

## Proposition XLVI. Theorem.

157. The sum of the interior angles of a polygon is equal to two right angles, taken as many times less two as the figure has sides.


Let the figure $A B C D E F$ be a polygon having $n$ sides.
We are to prove

$$
\angle A+\angle B+\angle C, \text { etc., }=2 \text { rt. } \triangle(n-2) .
$$

From the vertex $A$ draw the diagonals $A C, A D$, and $A E$.
The sum of the $\mathbb{\checkmark}$ of the $\mathbb{A}=$ the sum of the angles of the polygon.

$$
\text { Now there are }(n-2) \text { © }
$$

$$
\text { and the sum of the } \angle s \text { of each } \triangle=2 \text { rt. } \measuredangle . \quad \S 98
$$

$\therefore$ the sum of the $\mathbb{L}$ of the $\mathbb{\Delta}$, that is, the sum of the $\mathbb{Q}$ of the polygon $=2 \mathrm{rt}$. $\angle(n-2)$.
Q. E. D.
158. Corollary. The sum of the angles of a quadrilateral equals two right angles taken $(4-2)$ times, i. e. equals 4 right angles; and if the angles be all equal, each angle is a right angle. In general, each angle of an equiangular polygon of $n$ sides is equal to $\frac{2(n-2)}{n}$ right angles.

## Proposition XLVII. Theorem.

159. The exterior angles of a polygon, made by producing each of its sides in succession, are together equal to four right angles.


Let the figure $A B C D E$ be a polygon, having its sides produced in succession.
We are to prove the sum of the ext. $\mathcal{Q}=4 \mathrm{rt}$. $\llcorner$.
Denote the int. $\angle$ of the polygon by $A, B, C, D, E$;
and the ext. $₫ \leqslant$ by $a, b, c, d$, e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \angle A+\angle a=2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{B}, \\
& \text { § } 34 \\
& \text { (being sup.-adj. ©s ). } \\
& \angle B+\angle b=2 \text { rt. } \angle B .
\end{aligned}
$$

In like manner each pair of adj. $₫=2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle$;
$\therefore$ the sum of the interior and exterior $\measuredangle=2 \mathrm{rt}$. $\&$ taken as many times as the figure has sides,

$$
\text { or, } \quad 2 n \mathrm{rt.} \triangle \text {. }
$$

But the interior $\measuredangle=2 \mathrm{rt}$. $\triangle$ taken as many times as the figure has sides less two, $=2 \mathrm{rt}$. $\measuredangle(n-2)$,
or,

$$
2 n \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle-4 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle .
$$

$\therefore$ the exterior $\measuredangle=4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle$.
Q. E. D.

## Exercises.

1. Show that the sum of the interior angles of a hexagon is equal to eight right angles.
2. Show that each angle of an equiangular pentagon is $\frac{f}{8}$ of a right angle.
3. How many sides has an equiangular polygon, four of whose angles are together equal to seven right angles?
4. How many sides has the polygon the sum of whose interior angles is equal to the sum of its exterior angles?
5. How many sides has the polygon the sum of whose interior angles is double that of its exterior angles?
6. How many sides has the polygon the sum of whose exterior angles is double that of its interior angles?
7. Every point in the bisector of an angle is equally distant from the sides of the angle ; and every point not in the bisector, but within the angle, is unequally distant from the sides of the angle.
8. $B A C$ is a triangle having the angle $B$ double the angle $A$. If $B D$ bisect the angle $B$, and meet $A C$ in $D$, show that $B D$ is equal to $A D$.
9. If a straight line drawn parallel to the base of a triangle bisect one of the sides, show that it bisects the other also ; and that the portion of it intercepted between the two sides is equal to one half the base.
10. $A B C D$ is a parallelogram, $E$ and $F$ the middle points of $A D$ and $B C$ respectively; show that $B E$ and $D \vec{F}$ will trisect the diagonal $A C$.
11. If from any point in the base of an isosceles triangle parallels to the equal sides be drawn, show that a parallelogram is formed whose perimeter is equal to the sum of the equal sides of the triangle.
12. If from the diagonal $B D$ of a square $A B C D, B E$ be cut off equal to $B C$, and $E F$ be drawn perpendicular to $B D$, show that $D E$ is equal to $E F$, and also to $F C$.
13. Show that the three lines drawn from the vertices of a triangle to the middle points of the opposite sides meet in a point.

## BOOK II.

CIRCLES.

## Definitions.

160. Def. A Circle is a plane figure bounded by a curved line, all the points of which are equally distant from a point within called the Centre.
161. Def. The Circumference of a circle is the line which bounds the circle.
162. Def. A Radius of a circle is any straight line drawn from the centre to the circumference, as $O A$, Fig. 1 .
163. Def. A Diameter of a circle is any straight line passing through the centre and having its extremities in the circumference, as $A B$, Fig. 2.

By the definition of a circle, all its radii are equal. Hence, all its diameters are equal, since the diameter is equal to twice the radius.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.


Fig. 3.
164. Def. An Arc of a circle is any portion of the circumference, as $A M B$, Fig. 3.
165. Def. A Semi-circumference is an arc equal to one half the circumference, as $A M B$, Fig. 2.
166. Def. A Chord of a circle is any straight line having its extremities in the circumference, as $A B$, Fig. 3.

Every chord subtends two arcs whose sum is the circumference. Thus the chord $A B$, (Fig. 3), subtends the arc $A M B$ and the arc $A D B$. Whenever a chord and its arc are spoken of, the less arc is meant unless it be otherwise stated.
167. Def. A Segment of a circle is a portion of a circle enclosed by an arc and its chord, as $A M B$, Fig. 1.
168. DeF. A Semicircle is a segment equal to one half the circle, as $A D C$, Fig. 1.
169. Def. A Sector of a circle is a portion of the circle enclosed by two radii and the are which they intercept, as $A C \underline{R}$, Fig. 2.
170. Def. A Tangent is a straight line which touches the circumference but does not intersect it, however far produced. The point in which the tangent touches the circumference is called the Point of Contact, or Point of Tangency.
171. Def. Two Circumferences are tangent to each other when they are tangent to a straight line at the same point.
172. Def. A Secant is a straight line which intersects the circumference in two points, as $A D$, Fig. 3.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2
Fig. 3.


Fig. 4.
173. Def. A straight line is Inscribed in a circle when its extremities lie in the circumference of the circle, as $A B$, Fig. 1.

An angle is inscribed in a circle when its vertex is in the circumference and its sides are chords of that circumference, as $\angle A B C$. Frig. 1.

A polygon is inscribed in a circle when its sides are chords of the circle, as $\triangle A B C$, Fig. 1.

A circle is inscribed in a polygon when the circumference touches the sides of the polygon but does not intersect them, as in Fig. 4.
174. Def. A polygon is Circumscribed about a circle when all the sides of the polygon are tangents to the circle, as in Fig. 4.

A circle is circumscribed about a polygon when the circumference passes through all the vertices of the polygon, as in Fig. 1.
175. Def. Equal circles are circles which have equal radii. For if one circle be applied to the other so that their centres coincide their circumferences will coincide, since all the points of both are at the same distance from the centre.
176. Every diameter bisects the circle and its circumference. For if we fold over the segment $A M B$ on $A B$ as an axis until it comes into the plane of $A P B$, the arc $A M B$ will coincide with the arc $A P B$; because every point in each is equally dis-
 tant from the centre 0 .

## Proposition I. Theorem.

177. The diameter of a circle is greater than any other chord.

Let $A B$ be the diameter of the circle $A M B$, and $A E$ any other chord.

We are to prove $A B>A E$.
From $C$, the centre of the $\odot$, draw $C E$.

$$
C E=C B
$$


(being radii of the same circle).
But

$$
A C+C E>A E,
$$

(the sum of two sides of $a \Delta>$ the third side).
Substitute for $C E$, in the above inequality, its equal $C B$.
Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
A C+C B>A E, \text { or } \\
A B>A E .
\end{gathered}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

178. A straight line cannot intersect the circumference of a circle in more than two points.


Let $H K$ be any line cutting the circumference A MP.
We are to prove that $H K$ can intersect the circumference in only two points.

If it be possible, let $H K$ intersect the circumference in three points, $H, P$, and $K$.

From $O$, the centre of the $\odot$, draw the radii $O H, O P$, and $O K$.

Then

$$
O H, O P \text {, and } O K \text { are equal, }
$$ (being radii of the same circle).

$\therefore$ if $H K$ could intersect the circumference in three points, we should have three equal straight lines $O H, O P$, and $O K$ drawn from the same point to a given straight line, which is impossible, § 56 (only two equal straight lines can be drawn from a point to a straight line).
$\therefore$ a straight line can intersect the circumference in only two points.
Q. E. D.

Proposition III. Theorem.
179. In the same circle, or equal circles, equal angles at the centre intercept equal arcs on the circumference.


In the equal circles $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ let $\angle O=\angle O^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\quad \operatorname{arc} R S=\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$.
Apply $\odot A B P$ to $\odot A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$,
so that $\angle O$ shall coincide with $\angle O^{\prime}$.
The point $R$ will fall upon $R^{\prime}$, § 176 (for $0 R=O^{\prime} R^{\prime}$, being radiï of equal ©),
and the point $S$ will fall upon $S^{\prime \prime}$, § 176
(for $O S=O^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$, being radii of equal ( $)$ ).
Then the arc $R S$ must coincide with the arc $R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
For, otherwise, there would be some points in the circumference unequally distant from the centre, which is contrary to the definition of a circle.
§ 160
Q. E. D.

## Proposition IV. Theorem.

180. Conversely: In the same circle, or equal circles, equal arcs subtend equal angles at the centre.


In the equal circles $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ let arc $R S$ $=\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$.

We are to prove $\angle R O S=\angle R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
Apply $\odot A B P$ to $\odot A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$,
so that the radius $O R$ shall fall upon $O^{\prime} R^{\prime}$.
Then $S$, the extremity of arc $R S$,
will fall upon $S^{\prime}$, the extremity of $\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$, (for $R S=R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$, by hyp.).
$\therefore O S$ will coincide with $O^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$,
(their extremities being the same points).
$\therefore \angle R O S$ will coincide with, and be equal to, $\angle R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

181. In the same circle, or equal circles, equal arcs are subtended by equal chords.


In the equal circles $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ let arc $R S$ $=\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$.

We are to prove chord $R S=$ chord $R^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$.
Draw the radii $O R, O S, O^{\prime} R^{\prime}$, and $O^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
In the $\mathbb{A} O S$ and $R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$

$$
O R=O^{\prime} R^{\prime},
$$

(being radii of equal ©),

$$
\begin{align*}
& O S=O^{\prime} S^{\prime}, \\
& \angle O=\angle O^{\prime},
\end{align*}
$$

(equal arcs in equal (s) subtend equal $\& \frac{1}{}$ at the centre).

$$
\therefore \triangle R O S=\triangle R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime},
$$

(two sides and the included $\angle$ of the one being equal respectively to two sides and the included $\angle$ of the other).
$\therefore$ chord $R S=\operatorname{chord} R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$, (being homologous sides of equal \&).

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

182. Conversely : In the same circle, or equal circles, equal chords subtend equal arcs.


In the equal circles $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$, let chord $R S$ $=$ chord $R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \operatorname{arc} R S=\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
Draw the radii $O R, O S, O^{\prime} R^{\prime}$, and $O^{\prime} S^{\prime}$.
In the $\mathbb{S} R O S$ and $R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime}$

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
R S=R^{\prime} S^{\prime}, & \text { Hyp. } \\
0 R=O^{\prime} R^{\prime}, & \S 176 \\
\text { (being radii of equal ©), } & \\
O S=O^{\prime} S^{\prime} ; & \S 176 \\
\therefore \triangle R O S=\triangle R^{\prime} O^{\prime} S^{\prime}, & \S 108
\end{array}
$$

(three sides of the one being equal to three sides of the other).

$$
\therefore \angle O=\angle O^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $\$$ s of equal ©).

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} R S=\operatorname{arc} R^{\prime} S^{\prime}
$$

(in the same $\odot$, or equal $\odot$, equal $₫$ at the centre intercept equal arcs on the circumference).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

183. The radius perpendicular to a chord bisects the chord and the arc subtended by it.


Let $A B$ be the chord, and let the radius $C S$ be perpendicular to $A B$ at the point $M$.

$$
\text { We are to prove } \quad A M=B M \text {, and } \operatorname{arc} A S=\operatorname{arc} B S \text {. }
$$

Draw $C A$ and $C B$.

$$
C A=C B
$$

(being radii of the same $\odot$ ) ;
$\therefore \triangle A C B$ is isosceles,
(the opposite sides being equal) ;
$\therefore \perp C S$ bisects the base $A B$ and the $\angle C, \quad \S 113$
(the $\perp$ drawn from the vertex to the base of an isosceles $\Delta$ bisects the base and the $\angle$ at the vertex).

$$
\therefore A M=B M .
$$

Also,

$$
\text { since } \angle A C S=\angle B C S
$$

$$
\operatorname{arc} A S=\operatorname{arc} S B
$$

(equal $₫$ at the centre intercept equal arcs on the circumference).
Q.E.D.
184. Corollary. The perpendicular erected at the middle of a chord passes through the centre of the circle, and bisects the arc of the chord.
185. In the same circle, or equal circles, equal chords are equally distant from the centre; and of two unequal chords the less is at the greater distance from the centre.


In the circle $A B E C$ let the chord $A B$ equal the chord $C F$, and the chord $C E$ be less than the chord $C F$. Let $O P, O H$, and $O K$ be 1 s drawn to these chords from the centre 0 .

We are to prove $O P=O I$, and $O H<O K$. Join $O A$ and $O C$.
In the rt. $\& A O P$ and $C O H$

$$
O A=O C
$$

(being radii of the same $\odot$ ) ;
$A P=C H$,
§ 183
(being halves of equal chords) ;

$$
\begin{align*}
\therefore \triangle A O P & =\triangle C O H \\
\therefore O P & =O H
\end{align*}
$$

Again, since $C E<C F$,

$$
\text { the } \angle C O E<C O F \text {, }
$$

and the arc $C E<$ the $\operatorname{arc} C F$.
$\therefore \perp O K$ will intersect $C F$ in some point, as $m$.
Now
$O K>O m$.
Ax. 8
But
$O m>O H$, § 52 ( $a \perp$ is the shortest distance from a point to a straight line).
$\therefore$ much more is $O K>O H$.
Q.E.D.

## Proposition IX. Theorem.

186. A straight line perpendicular to a radius at its extremity is a tangent to the circle.


Let $B A$ be the radius, and $M O$ the straight line perpendicular to $B A$ at $A$.

We are to prove MO tangent to the circle.
From $B$ draw any other line to $M O$, as $B C H$.

$$
B H>B A,
$$ § 52 (a $\perp$ measures the shortest distance from a point to a straight line).

$\therefore$ point $H$ is without the circumference.
But $B H$ is any other line than $B A$,
$\therefore$ every point of the line $M O$ is without the circumference, except $A$.
$\therefore M O$ is a tangent to the circle at $A$.
Q. E. D.
187. Corollary. When a straight line is tangent to a circle, it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to the point of contact, and therefore a perpendicular to a tangent at the point of contact passes through the centre of the circle.

Proposition X. Theorem.
188. When two circumferences intersect each other, the line which joins their centres is perpendicular to their common chord at its middlle point.


Let $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ be the centres of two circumferences which intersect at $A$ and $B$. Let $A B$ be their common chord, and $C C^{\prime}$ join their centres.

We are to prove $C C^{\prime} \perp$ to $A B$ at its middle point.
$A \perp$ drawn through the middle of the chord $A B$ passes through the centres $C$ and $C^{\prime}$, § 184
( $a \perp$ erected at the middle of a chord passes through the centre of the $\odot$ ).
$\therefore$ the line $C C^{\prime}$, having two points in common with this $\perp$, must coincide with it.
$\therefore C C^{\prime}$ is $\perp$ to $A B$ at its middle point.
Q. E. D.

Ex. 1. Show that, of all straight lines drawn from a point without a circle to the circumference, the least is that which, when produced, passes through the centre.

Ex. 2. Show that, of all straight lines drawn from a point within or without a circle to the circumference, the greatest is that which meets the circumference after passing through the centre.

## Proposition XI. Theorem.

189. When two circumferences are tangent to each other their point of contact is in the straight line joining their centres.


Let the two circumferences, whose centres are $C$ and $C^{\prime}$, touch each other at 0 , in the straight line $A B$, and let $C C^{\prime \prime}$ be the straight line joining their centres.

We are to prove $O$ is in the straight line $C^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime}$.
A $\perp$ to $A B$, drawn through the point $O$, passes through the centres $C$ and $C^{\prime}$, ( $\alpha \perp$ to a tangent at the point of contact passes through the centre of the $\odot$ ).
$\therefore$ the line $C C^{\prime}$, having two points in common with this $\perp$, must coincide with it.
$\therefore O$ is in the straight line $C C^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.

Ex. $A B$, a chord of a circle, is the base of an isosceles triangle whose vertex $C$ is without the circle, and whose equal sides meet the circle in $D$ and $E$. Show that $C D$ is equal to $C E$.

## On Measurement.

190. Def. To measure a quantity of any kind is to find how many times it contains another known quantity of the same kind. Thus, to measure a line is to find how many times it contains another known line, called the linear unit.
191. Def. The number which expresses how many times a quantity contains the unit, prefixed to the name of the unit, is called the numerical measure of that quantity; as 5 yards, etc.
192. Def. Two quantities are commensurable if there be some third quantity of the same kind which is contained an exact number of times in each. This third quantity is called the common measure of these quantities, and each of the given quantities is called a multiple of this common measure.
193. Def. Two quantities are incommensurable if they have no common measure.
194. Def. The magnitude of a quantity is always relative to the magnitude of another quantity of the same kind. No quantity is great or small except by comparison. This relative magnitude is called their Ratio, and this ratio is always an $a b$ stract number.

When two quantities of the same kind are measured by the same unit, their ratio is the ratio of their numerical measures.
195. The ratio of $a$ to $b$ is written $\frac{a}{b}$, or $a: b$, and by this is meant:

How many times $b$ is contained in $a$; or, what part $a$ is of $b$.

I. If $b$ be contained an exact number of times in $a$ their ratio is a whole number.

If $b$ be not contained an exact number of times in $a$, but if there be a common measure which is contained $m$ times in $a$ and $n$ times in $b$, their ratio is the fraction $\frac{m}{n}$.
II. If $a$ and $b$ be incommensurable, their ratio cannot be exactly expressed in figures. But if $b$ be divided into $n$ equal parts, and one of these parts be contained $m$ times in $a$ with a remainder less than $\frac{1}{n}$ part of $b$, then $\frac{m}{n}$ is an approximate value of the ratio $\frac{a}{b}$, correct within $\frac{1}{n}$.

Again, if each of these equal parts of $b$ be divided into $n$ equal parts; that is, if $b$ be divided into $n^{2}$ equal parts, and if one of these parts be contained $m^{\prime}$ times in $a$ with a remainder less than $\frac{1}{n^{2}}$ part of $b$, then $\frac{m^{\prime}}{n^{2}}$ is a nearer approximate value of the ratio $\frac{a}{b}$, correct within $\frac{1}{n^{2}}$.

By continuing this process, a series of variable values, $\frac{m}{n}, \frac{m^{\prime}}{n^{2}}, \frac{m^{\prime \prime}}{n^{3}}$, etc., will be obtained, which will differ less and less from the exact value of $\frac{a}{b}$. We may thus find a fraction which shall differ from this exact value by as little as we please, that is, by less than any assigned quantity.

Hence, an incommensurable ratio is the limit toward which its successive approximate values are constantly tending.

## On the Theory of Limits.

196. Def. When a quantity is regarded as having a fixed value, it is called a Constant; but, when it is regarded, under the conditions imposed upon it, as having an indefinite number of different values, it is called a Variable.
197. Def. When it can be shown that the value of a variable, measured at a series of definite intervals, can by indefinite continuation of the series be made to differ from a given constant by less than any assigned quantity, however small, but cannot be made absolutely equal to the constant, that constant is called the Limit of the variable, and the variable is said to approach indefinitely to its limit.

If the variable be increasing, its limit is called a superior limit; if decreasing, an inferior limit.
198. Suppose a point $A \quad M \quad \begin{array}{llll}M^{\prime} & B \\ M\end{array}$ to move from $A$ toward $B$, under the conditions that the first second it shall move one-half the distance from $A$ to $B$, that is, to $M$; the next second, one-half the remaining distance, that is, to $M M^{\prime}$; the next second, one-half the remaining distance, that is, to $M^{\prime \prime}$, and so on indefinitely.

Then it is evident that the moving point may approach as near to $B$ as we please, but will never arrive at 3 . For, however
near it may be to $B$ at any instant, the next second it will pass over one-half the interval still remaining ; it must, therefore, approach nearer to $B$, since half the interval still remaining is some distance, but will not reach $B$, since half the interval still remaining is not the whole distance.

Hence, the distance from $A$ to the moving point is an increasing variable, which indefinitely approaches the constant $A B$ as its limit; and the distance from the moving point to $B$ is a decreasing variable, which indefinitely approaches the constant zero as its limit.

If the length of $A B$ be two inches, and the variable be denoted by $x$, and the difference between the variable and its limit, by $v$ :

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { after one second, } & x=1, & v=1 ; \\
\text { after two seconds, } & x=1+\frac{1}{2}, & v=\frac{1}{2} ; \\
\text { after three seconds, } & x=1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}, & v=\frac{1}{4} ; \\
\text { after four seconds, } & x=1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}, & v=\frac{1}{8} \\
\text { and so on indefinitely. }
\end{array}
$$

Now the sum of the series $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}$ etc., is evidently less than 2 ; but by taking a great number of terms, the sum can be made to differ from 2 by as little as we please. Hence 2 is the limit of the sum of the series, when the number of the terms is increased indefinitely ; and 0 is the limit of the variable difference between this variable sum and 2 .
lim. will be used as an abbreviation for limit.
199. [1] The difference between a variable and its limit is a variable whose limit is zero.
[2] If two or more variables, $v, v^{\prime}, v^{\prime \prime}$, etc., have zero for a limit, their sum, $v+v^{\prime}+v^{\prime \prime}$, etc., will have zero for a limit.
[3] If the limit of a variable, $v$, be zero, the limit of $a \pm v$ will be the constant $a$, and the limit of $a \times v$ will be zero.
[4] The product of a constant and a variable is also a variable, and the limit of the product of a constant and a variable is the product of the constant and the limit of the variable.
[5] The sum or product of two variables, both of which are either increasing or decreasing, is also a variable.

## Proposition I.

[6] If two variables be alvays equal, their limits are equal.
Let the two variables $A M$ and $A N$ be always equal, and let $A C$ and $A B$ be their respective limits.

We are to prove $\quad A C=A B$.
Suppose $A C>A B$. Then we may diminish $A C$ to some value $A C^{\prime \prime}$ such that $A C^{\prime}=A B$.

Since $A M$ approaches indefinitely to
 $A C$, we may suppose that it has reached a value $A P$ greater than $A C^{\prime}$.

Let $A Q$ be the corresponding value of $A N$.
Then
$A P=A Q$.
Now $A C^{\prime}=A B$.
But both of these equations cannot be true, for $A P>A C^{\prime}$, and $A Q<A B . \quad \therefore A C$ cannot be greater than $A B$.

Again, suppose $A C<A B$. Then we may diminish $A B$ to some value $A B^{\prime \prime}$ such that $A C=A B^{\prime}$.

Since $A N$ approaches indefinitely to $A B$ we may suppose that it has reached a value $A Q$ greater than $A B^{\prime}$.

Let $A P$ be the corresponding value of $A M$.
Then
$A P=A Q$.
Now $A C=A B^{\prime}$.
But both of these equations cannot be true, for $A P<A C$, and $A Q>A B^{\prime} . \quad \therefore A C$ cannot be less than $A B$.

Since $A C$ cannot be greater or less than $A B$, it must be equal to $A B$.
Q.E.D.
[7] Corollary 1. If two variables be in a constant ratio, their limits are in the same ratio. For, let $x$ and $y$ be two variables having the constant ratio $r$, then $\frac{x}{y}=r$, or, $x=r y$, therefore $\lim .(x)=\lim .(r y)=r \times \lim .(y)$, therefore $\frac{\lim .(x)}{\lim .(y)}=r$.
[8] Cor. 2. Since an incommensurable ratio is the limit of its successive approximate values, two incommensurable ratios $\frac{a}{b}$ and $\frac{a^{\prime}}{b^{\prime}}$ are equal if they always have the same approximate values when expressed within the same measure of precision.

## Proposition II.

[9] The limit of the algebraic sum of two or more variables is the algebraic sum of their linits.

Let $x, y, z$, be variables, $a, b$, and $c$, their respective limits, and $v, v^{\prime}$, and $v^{\prime \prime}$, the variable differences between $x, y, z$, and $a, b, c$, respectively.

We are to prove lim. $(x+y+z)=a+b+c$.


Now, $x=a-v, y=b-v^{\prime}, z=c-v^{\prime \prime}$.
Then, $x+y+z=a-v+b-v^{\prime}+c-v^{\prime \prime}$.
$\therefore \lim .(x+y+z)=$ lim. $\left(a-v+b-v^{\prime}+c-v^{\prime \prime}\right)$.
But, lim. $\left(a-v+b-v^{\prime}+c-v^{\prime \prime}\right)=a+b+c$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\therefore \lim .(x+y+z)=a+b+c . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition III.

[10] The limit of the product of two or more variables is the product of their limits.

Let $x, y, z$, be variables, $a, b, c$, their respective limits, and $v, v^{\prime}, v^{\prime \prime}$, the variable differences between $x, y, z$, and $a, b, c$, respectively.

$$
\text { We are to prove lim. }(x y z)=a b c
$$

Now,

$$
x=a-v, y=b-v^{\prime}, z=c-v^{\prime \prime} .
$$

Multiply these equations together.
Then, $x y z=a b c \mp$ terms which contain one or more of the factors $v, v^{\prime}, v^{\prime \prime}$, and hence have zero for a limit.
$\therefore \lim .(x y z)=\lim$. $(a b c \mp$ terms whose limits are zero). [6]
But lim. ( $a b c \mp$ terms whose limits are zero) $=a b c$.

$$
\therefore \lim .(x y z)=a b c .
$$

Q.E.D.

For decreasing variables the proofs are similar.

Note. - In the application of the principles of limits, reference to this section (§ 199) will always include the fundamental truth of limits contained in Proposition I. ; and it will be left as an exercise for the student to determine in each case what other truths of this section, if any, are included in the reference.

Proposition XII. Theorem.
200. In the same circle, or equal circles, two commensurable arcs have the same ratio as the angles which they subtend at the centre.


In the circle $A P C$ let the two arcs be $A B$ and $A C$, and $A O B$ and $A O C$ the $\&$ which they subtend.
We are to prove $\frac{\operatorname{arc} A B}{\operatorname{arc} A C^{\prime}}=\frac{\angle A O B}{\angle A O C}$.
Let $H K$ be a common measure of $A B$ and $A C$.
Suppose $H K$ to be contained in $A B$ three times, and in $A C$ five times.

Then

$$
\frac{\operatorname{arc} A B}{\operatorname{arc} A C}=\frac{3}{5} .
$$

At the several points of division on $A B$ and $A C$ draw radii. These radii will divide $\angle A O C$ into five equal parts, of which $\angle A O B$ will contain three,
(in the same $\odot$, or equal ©, equal arcs subtend equal \& at the centre).

$$
\therefore \frac{\angle A O B}{\angle A O C}=\frac{3}{5} .
$$

But

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\operatorname{arc} A B}{\operatorname{arc} A C} & =\frac{3}{5} \\
\therefore \frac{\operatorname{arc} A B}{\operatorname{arc} A C} & =\frac{\angle A O B}{\angle A O C} .
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition XIII. Theorem.
201. In the same circle, or in equal circles, incommensurable arcs liave the same ratio as the angles which they subtend at the centre.


In the two equal (3) $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ let $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ be two incommensurable arcs, and $C, C^{\prime \prime}$ the \& which they subtend at the centre.
We are to prove $\quad \frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{\operatorname{arc} A B}=\frac{\angle C^{\prime}}{\angle C}$.
Let $A B$ be divided into any number of equal parts, and let one of these parts be applied to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ as often as it will be contained in $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

Since $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are incommensurable, a certain number of these parts will extend from $A^{\prime}$ to some point, as $D$, leaving a remainder $D B^{\prime}$ less than one of these parts.

Draw $C^{\prime} D$.
Since $A B$ and $A^{\prime} D$ are commensurable,

$$
\frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} D}{\operatorname{arc} A B}=\frac{\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D}{\angle A C B}
$$

(two commensurable arcs have the same ratio as the $\&$ which they subtend at the centre).
Now suppose the number of parts into which $A B$ is divided to be continually increased ; then the length of each part will become less and less, and the point $D$ will approach nearer and nearer to $B^{\prime}$, that is, the arc $A^{\prime} D$ will approach the arc $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ as its limit, and the $\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D$ the $\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ as its limit.

Then the limit of $\frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} D}{\operatorname{arc} A B}$ will be $\frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{\operatorname{arc} A B^{\prime}}$,
and the limit of $\frac{\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D}{\angle A C^{\prime} B}$ will be $\frac{\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{\angle A C^{\prime} B}$.
Moreover, the corresponding values of the two variables, namely,

$$
\frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} D}{\operatorname{arc} A B} \text { and } \frac{\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D}{\angle A C B},
$$

are equal, however near these variables approach their limits.
$\therefore$ their limits $\frac{\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{\operatorname{arc} A B}$ and $\frac{\angle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} b^{\prime}}{\angle A C^{\prime} B}$ are equal. § 199
Q. E. D.
202. Scholium. An angle at the centre is said to be measured by its intercepted arc. This expression means that an angle at the centre is such part of the angular magnitude about that point (four right angles) as its intercepted are is of the whole circumference.

A circumference is divided into 360 equal arcs, and each are is called a degree, denoted by the symbol $\left({ }^{\circ}\right)$.

The angle at the centre which one of these equal arcs subtends is also called a degree.

A quadrant (one-fourth a circumference) contains therefore $90^{\circ}$; and a right angle, subtended by a quadrant, contains $90^{\circ}$.

Hence an angle of $30^{\circ}$ is $\frac{1}{3}$ of a right angle, an angle of $45^{\circ}$ is $\frac{1}{2}$ of a right angle, an angle of $135^{\circ}$ is $\frac{3}{2}$ of a right angle.

Thus we get a definite idea of an angle if we know the number of degrees it contains.

A degree is subdivided into sixty equal parts called minutes, denoted by the symbol (').

A minute is subdivided into sixty equal parts called seconds, denoted by the symbol (").

Proposition XIV. Theorem.
203. An inscribed angle is measured by one-half of the arc intercepted between its sides.


In the circle $P A B$ (Fig. 1), let the centre $C$ be in one of the sides of the inscribed angle $B$.

We are to prove $\quad \angle B_{0}$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $P A$.
Draw $C A$.

$$
C A=C B
$$

(being radii of the same $\odot$ ).

$$
\therefore \angle B=\angle A
$$

(being opposite equal sides).

$$
\angle P C A=\angle B+\angle A
$$

(the exterior $\angle$ of a $\triangle$ is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior $\mathbb{C}$ ).
Substitute in the above equality $\angle B$ for its equal $\angle A$.
Then we have $\quad \angle P C A=2 \angle B$.
But $\angle P C A$ is measured by $A P$,
(the $\angle$ at the centre is measured by the intercepted arc).
$\therefore 2 \angle B$ is measured by $A P$.
$\therefore \angle B$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} A P$.

Case II.
In the circle $B A E$ (Fig. 2), let the centre $C$ fall within the angle $E B A$.
We are to prove $\quad \angle E B A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \dot{a} \cdot c E A$.
Draw the diameter $B C P$.
$\angle P B A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} P A, \quad$ (Case I.) $\angle P B E$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $P E, \quad$ (Case I.)
$\therefore \angle P B A+\angle P B E$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}(\operatorname{arc} P A+\operatorname{arc} P E)$. $\therefore \angle E B A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $E A$.

## Case III.

In the circle $13 F P$ (Fig. 3), let the centre $C$ fall without the angle $A B F$.
We are to prove $\angle A B F$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A F$.
Draw the diameter $B C P$.
$\angle P B F$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $P F, \quad$ (Case I.)
$\angle P B A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $P A, \quad$ (Case I.)
$\therefore \angle P B F-\angle P B A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}(\operatorname{arc} P F-\operatorname{arc} P A)$.
$\therefore \angle A B F$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ are $A F$.
Q. E. D.
204. Corollary 1. An angle inscribed in a scmicircle is a right angle, for it is measured by one-half a semi-circumference, or by $90^{\circ}$.
205. Cor. 2. An angle inscribed in a segment greater than a semicircle is an acute angle; for it is measured by an arc less than one-half a semi-circumference ; i. e. by an are less than $90^{\circ}$.
206. Cor. 3. An angle inscribed in a segment less than a semicircle is an obtuse angle, for it is measured by an arc greater than one-half a semi-circumference; i. e. by an arc greater than $90^{\circ}$.
207. Cor. 4. All angles inscribed in the same segment are equal, for they are measured by one-half the same arc.

## Proposition XV. Theorem.

208. Ai angle formed by two chords, and whose vertex lies between the centre and the circumference, is measured by one-lialf the intercepted arc plus one-half the arc intercepted by its sides produced.


Let the $\angle A O C$ be formed by the chords $A B$ and $C D$.
We are to prove
$\angle A O C$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A C+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} B D$. Draw $A D$.

$$
\angle C O A=\angle D+\angle A
$$

(the exterior $\angle$ of a $\triangle$ is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior $\llcorner$ © ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { But } \quad \angle D \text { is measured by } \frac{1}{2} \text { arc } A C \text {, } \\
& \text { (an inscribed } \angle \text { is measured by } \frac{1}{2} \text { the intercepted arc) ; } \\
& \text { and } \quad \angle A \text { is measured by } \frac{1}{2} \text { are } B D \text {, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\therefore \angle C O A$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A C+\frac{1}{2}$ arc $B D$.
Q. E. D.

Ex. Show that the least chord that can be drawn through a given point in a circle is perpendicular to the diameter drawn through the point.

Proposition XVI. Theorem.
209. An angle formed by a tangent and a chord is measured by one-half the intercepted arc.


Let $H A M$ be the angle formed by the tangent $O M$ and chord $A H$.

We are to prove
$\angle H A M$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A E H$.
Draw the diameter $A C F$.

$$
\angle F A M \text { is a rt. } \angle,
$$

(the radius drawn to a tangent at the point of contact is $\perp$ to $i t$ ).
$\angle F A M$, being a rt. $\angle$, is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the semi-circumference $A E F$.
$\angle F A H$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $F H$, § 203 (an inscribed $\angle$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the intercepted arc) ;
$\therefore \angle F A M-\angle F A H$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}(\operatorname{arc} A E F-\operatorname{arc} H F)$.
$\therefore \angle H A M$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A E H$.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XVII. Theorem.
210. An angle formed by two secants, two tangents, or a tangent and a secant, and which has its vertex without the circumference, is measured by one-half the concave arc, minus one-half the convex arc.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Case I.
Let the angle 0 (Fig. 1) be formed by the two secants $O A$ and $O B$.

We are to prove
$\angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A B-\frac{1}{2}$ arc $E C$. Draw $C B$.

$$
\angle A C B=\angle O+\angle B,
$$ (the exterior $\angle$ of $a \triangle$ is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior $\&$ ).

By transposing,

$$
\angle O=\angle A C B-\angle B,
$$

But $\quad \angle A C B$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A B$, $\quad \S 203$ and $\quad \angle B$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} C E$.
$\therefore \angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A B-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} C E$,

## Case II.

Let the angle $O$ (Fig. 2) be formed by the two tangents $O A$ and $O B$.

We are to prove
$\angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A M B-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A S B$.
Draw $A B$.

$$
\angle A B C=\angle O+\angle O A B,
$$

(the exterior $\angle$ of $a \triangle$ is cqual to the sum of the two opposite interior \&).
By transposing,

$$
\angle O=\angle A B C-\angle O A B .
$$

But $\angle A B C$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A M B$, § 209 (an $\angle$ formed by a tangent and a chord is measured by $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}}$ the intercepted arc), and $\quad \angle O A B$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A S B$. § 209
$\therefore \angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A M B-\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A S B$.

## Case III.

Let the angle $O$ (Fig. 3) be formed by the tangent $O B$ and the secant $O A$.

We are to prove
$\angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A D S-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} C E S$.
Draw $C S$.

$$
\angle A C S=\angle O+\angle C S O
$$

§ 105
(the exterior $\angle$ of $a \triangle$ is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior © ©).
By transposing,

$$
\angle O=\angle A C S-\angle C S O
$$

But $\angle A C S$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A D S$, (being an inscribed $\triangle$ ).
and $\quad \angle C S O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $C E S, \quad \S 209$ (being an $\angle$ formed by a tangent and a chord).
$\therefore \angle O$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} A D S-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} C E S$.

Supplementary Propositions.
Proposition XVIII. Theorem.
211. Two parallel lines intercept upon the circum. ference equal arcs.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Let the two parallel lines $C A$ and $B F^{F}$ (Fig. 1), intercept the arcs $C B$ and $A F$.

We are to prove $\quad \operatorname{arc} C B=\operatorname{arc} A F$.
Draw $A B$.

$$
\angle A=\angle B
$$

(being alt.-int. © © )
But the arc $C B$ is double the measure of $\angle A$.
and the arc $A F$ is double the measure of $\angle B$.

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} C B=\operatorname{arc} A F . \quad \text { Ax. } 6 \text { Q. E. D. }
$$

212. Scholium. Since two parallel lines intercept on the circumference equal arcs, the two parallel tangents $M N$ and $O P$ (Fig. 2) divide the circumference in two semi-circumferences $A C B$ and $A Q B$, and the line $A B$ joining the points of contact of the two tangents is a diameter of the circle.

## Proposition XIX. Theorem.

213. If the sum of two arcs be less than a circumference the greater arc is subtended by the greater chord; and conversely, the greater chord subtends the greater arc.


In the circle $A C P$ let the two arcs $A B$ and $B C$ together be less than the circumference, and let $A B$ be the greater.
We are to prove chord $A B>$ chord $B C$.
Draw $A C$.
In the $\triangle A B C$
$\angle C$, measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the greater arc $A B$, § 203 is greater than $\angle A$, measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the less are $B C$.
$\therefore$ the side $A B>$ the side $B C$,
(in a $\triangle$ the greater $\angle$ has the greater side opposite to $i t$ ).
Conversely : If the chord $A B$ be greater than the chord $B C$.

We are to prove $\operatorname{arc} A B>\operatorname{arc} B C$.
In the $\triangle A B C$;

$$
\begin{align*}
& A B>B C \\
& \therefore \angle C>A
\end{align*}
$$

(in a $\Delta$ the greater side has the greater $\angle$ opposite to $i t$ ).
$\therefore \operatorname{arc} A B$, double the measure of the greater $\angle C$, is greater than the $\operatorname{arc} B C$, double the measure of the less $\angle A$. Q. E. D.

## Proposition XX. Theorem.

214. If the sum of two arcs be greater than a circumference, the greater arc is subtended by the less chord; and, conversely, the less chord subtends the greater arc.


In the circle $B C E$ let the arcs $A E C B$ and $B A E C$ together be greater than the circumference, and let arc $A E C B$ be greater than arc $B A E C$.
We are to prove chord $A B<$ chord $B C$.
From the given arcs take the common arc $A E C$; we have left two arcs, $C B$ and $A B$, less than a circumference, of which $C B$ is the greater.
$\therefore$ chord $C B>$ chord $A B$,
§ 213
(when the sum of two arcs is less than a circumference, the greater arc is subtended by the greater chord).
$\therefore$ the chord $A B$, which subtends the greater arc $A E C B$, is less than the chord $B C$, which subtends the less arc $B A E C$.

Conversely: If the chord $A B$ be less than chord $B C$.
We are to prove $\quad \operatorname{arc} A E C B>\operatorname{arc} B A E C$.
Arc $A B+\operatorname{arc} A E C B=$ the circumference.
Arc $B C+\operatorname{arc} B A E C=$ the circumference.
$\therefore \operatorname{arc} A B+\operatorname{arc} A E C B=\operatorname{arc} B C+\operatorname{arc} B A E C$.
But
$\operatorname{arc} A B<\operatorname{arc} B C$,
(being subtended by the less chord).

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} A E C B>\operatorname{arc} B A E C .
$$

Q. E. D.

## On Constructions.

## Proposition XXI. Problem.

215. To find a point in a plane, having given its distances from two known points.


Let $A$ and $B$ be the two known points; $n$ the distance of the required point from $A$, o its distance from $B$.

It is required to find a point at the given distances from $A$ and $B$.

From $A$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $n$, describe an arc.
From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc intersecting the former arc at $C$.
$C$ is the required point.
Q. E. F.
216. Corollary 1. By continuing these arcs, another point below the points $A$ and $B$ will be found, which will fulfil the conditions.
217. Cor. 2. When the sum of the given distances is equal to the distance between the two given points, then the two arcs described will be tangent to each other, and the point of tangency will be the point required.

Let the distance from $A$ to $B$ equal $n+o$.
From $A$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $n$, describe an arc ; $\boldsymbol{A}$.
and from $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc.

These arcs will touch each

 other at $C$, and will not intersect.
$\therefore C$ is the only point which can be found.
218. Scholium 1. The problem is impossible when the distance between the two known points is greater than the sum of the distances of the required point from the two given points.

Let the distance from $A$ to $B$ be greater than $n+o$.
Then from $A$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $n$, de- $A^{\text {. }}$ scribe an arc;
and from $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc.

These arcs will neither touch nor intersect each other ;
hence they can have no point in common.
219. Scho. 2. The problem is impossible when the distance between the two given points is less than the difference of the distances of the required point from the two given points.

Let the distance from $A$ to $B$ be less than $n-0$.
From $A$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $n$, describe a circle ;
and from $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe a circle.

The circle described from $B$ as a centre will fall wholly within the circle described from $A$ as a centre; hence they can have no point in
 common.

## Proposition XXII. Problem.

220. To bisect a given straight line.


Let $A B$ be the given straight line.
It is required to bisect the line $A B$.
From $A$ and $B$ as centres, with equal radii, describe arcs intersecting at $C$ and $E$.

Join $C E$.
Then the line $C E$ bisects $A B$.
For, $C$ and $E$, being two points at equal distances from the extremities $A$ and $B$, determine the position of a $\perp$ to the middee point of $A B$.
§ 60
Q. E. F.

Proposition XXIII. Problem.
221. At a given point in a straight line, to erect a perpendicular to that line.

R


Let $O$ be the given point in the straight line $A B$.
It is required to erect $a \perp$ to the line $A B$ at the point 0 . Take $O H=O B$.
From $B$ and $H$ as centres, with equal radii, describe two arcs intersecting at $R$.

Then the line joining $R O$ is the $\perp$ required.
For, $O$ and $R$ are two points at equal distances from $B$ and $H$, and $\therefore$ determine the position of a $\perp$ to the line $H B$ at its middle point 0 .
Q. E. F,

## Proposition XXIV. Problem.

222. From a point without a straight line, to let fall a perpendicular upon that line.


Let $A B$ be a given straight line, and $C$ a given point without the line.

It is required to let fall $a \perp$ to the line $A B$ from the point $C$.
From $C$ as a centre, with a radius sufficiently great, describe an arc cutting $A B$ at the points $H$ and $K$.

From $H$ and $K$ as centres, with equal radii,
describe two arcs intersecting at 0 .
Draw CO,
and produce it to meet $A B$ at $m$.

$$
C m \text { is the } \perp \text { required. }
$$

For, $C$ and $O$, being two points at equal distances from $H$ and $K$, determine the position of a $\perp$ to the line $H K$ at its middle point.

Proposition XXV. Problem.
223. To construct an arc equal to a given arc whose centre is a given point.


Let $C$ be the centre of the given arc $A B$.
It is required to construct an arc equal to $\operatorname{arc} A B$.
Draw $C B, C A$, and $A B$.
From $C^{\prime}$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $C B$,
describe an indefinite arc $B^{\prime} F$.
From $B^{\prime}$ as a centre, with a radius equal to chord $A B$, describe an arc intersecting the indefinite arc at $A^{\prime}$.

$$
\text { Then } \operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{arc} A B .
$$

For,
draw chord $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
The (S) are equal, (being described with equal radii),
and

$$
\operatorname{chord} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{chord} A B ;
$$

Cons.

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{arc} A B,
$$

§ 182
(in equal © equal chords subtend equal arcs).
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXVI. Problem.

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


Let $C^{\prime}$ be the given point in the given line $C^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, and $C$ the given angle.

It is required to construct an $\angle a t C^{\prime}$ equal to the $\angle C$.
From $C$ as a centre, with any radius as $C B$, describe the arc $A B$, terminating in the sides of the $\angle$.

Draw chord $A B$.
From $C^{\prime}$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $C B$, describe the indefinite arc $B^{\prime} F$.

From $B^{\prime}$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $A B$, describe an arc intersecting the indefinite arc at $A^{\prime}$.

Draw $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

$$
\text { Then } \angle C^{\prime}=\angle C
$$

For, join $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

The (5) to which belong arcs $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are equal, (being described with equal radii).

| and | chord $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=$ chord $A B ;$ | Cons. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\therefore \operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=\operatorname{arc} A B$, | $\S 182$ |
|  |  |  |
|  | (in equal © equal chords subtend equal arcs). |  |

$$
\therefore \angle C^{\prime}=\angle C,
$$

(in equal © equal arcs subtend equal $\frac{1}{s}$ at the centre).
Q. E.F.

## Proposition XXVII. Problem.

225. To bisect a given arc.


Let $A O B$ be the given arc.
It is required to bisect the arc $A O B$.
Draw the chord $A B$.
From $A$ and $B$ as centres, with equal radii, describe arcs intersecting at $E$ and $C$.

## Draw $E C$.

$E C$ bisects the arc $A O B$.
For, $E$ and $C$, being two points at equal distances from $A$ and $B$, determine the position of the $\perp$ erected at the middle of chord $A B$;
and $a \perp$ erected at the middle of a chord passes through the centre of the $\odot$, and bisects the arc of the chord. § 184

## Proposition XXVIII. Problem.

226. To bisect a given angle.


Let $A E B$ be the given angle.
It is required to bisect $\angle A E B$.
From $E$ as a centre, with any radius, as $E A$,
describe the arc $A O B$, terminating in the sides of the $\angle$.
Draw the chord $A B$.
From $A$ and $B$ as centres, with equal radii, describe two arcs intersecting at $C$.

Join $E C$.
$E C$ bisects the $\angle E$.
For, $E$ and $C$, being two points at equal distances from $A$ and $B$, determine the position of the $\perp$ erected at the middle of $A B$. § 60

And the $\perp$ erected at the middle of a chord passes through the centre of the $\odot$, and bisects the arc of the chord.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\therefore \operatorname{arc} A O=\operatorname{arc} O B, \\
\therefore \angle A E C=\angle B E C, \\
\text { (in the same circle equal arcs subtend equal } ₫ \text { at the centre). }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Proposition XXIX. Problem.

227. Through a given point to draw a straight line parallel to a given straight line.


Let $A B$ be the given line, and $H$ the given point.
It is required to draw through the point $H$ a line \|t the line $A B$.

Draw $H A$, making the $\angle H A B$.
At the point $H$ construct $\angle A H E=\angle H A B$.
Then the line $H E$ is II to $A B$.

For,

$$
\angle E H A=\angle H A B
$$

$\therefore H E$ is $\|$ to $A B$,
(when two straight lines, lying in the same plane, are cut by a third straight line, if the alt.-int. © be equal, the lines are parallel).
Q. E. F.

Ex. 1. Find the locus of the centre of a circumference which passes through two given points.
2. Find the locus of the centre of the circumference of a given radius, tangent externally or internally to a given circumference.
3. A straight line is drawn through a given point $A$, intersecting a given circumference at $B$ and $C$. Find the locus of the middle point $P$ of the intercepted chord $B C$.

## Proposition XXX. Problem.

228. Two angles of a triangle being given to find the third.



Let $A$ and $B$ be two given angles of a triangle.
It is required to find the third $\angle$ of the $\Delta$.
Take any straight line, as $E F$, and at any point, as $H$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { construct } \angle R H F \text { equal to } \angle B \text {, } \\
\text { and } \angle S H E \text { equal to } \angle A \text {. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Then $\angle R H S$ is the $\angle$ required.

For, the sum of the three $\angle S$ of a $\Delta=2 \mathrm{rt} . ~ \angle s, \quad \S 98$
and the sum of the three $\angle \leqslant$ about the point $H$, on the same side of $E F=2 \mathrm{rt}$. $\angle \mathrm{s}$. § 34

Two $\Delta$ of the $\triangle$ being equal to two $\angle s$ about the point $H$, . Cons.
the third $\angle$ of the $\Delta$ must be equal to the third $\angle$ about the point $H$.

Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXXI. Problem.

229. Two sides and the included angle of a triangle being given, to construct the triangle.


Let the two sides of the triangle be $E$ and $F$, and the included angle $A$.

It is required to construct a $\Delta$ having two sides equal to $E$ and $F$ respectively, and their included $\angle=\angle A$.

Take $H K$ equal to the side $F$.
At the point $H$ draw the line $H M$, making the $\angle K I M=\angle A$.

On $H M$ take $H C$ equal to $E$.
Draw $C K$.
Then
$\triangle C H K$ is the $\triangle$ required.
Q. E. F

## Proposition XXXII. Problem.

230. A side and two adjacent angles of a triangle being given, to construct the triangle.


Let $C E$ be the given side, $A$ and $B$ the given angles.
It is required to construct a $\triangle$ having a side equal to $C E$, and two $\angle$ adjacent to that side equal to $\triangle A$ and $B$ respectively.

At point $C$ construct an $\angle$ equal to $\angle A$.
At point $E$ construct an $\angle$ equal to $\angle B$.
Produce the sides until they meet at 0 .
Then $\triangle C O E$ is the $\triangle$ required.
Q. E. F.
231. Scholium. The problem is impossible when the two given angles are together equal to, or greater than, two right angles.

## Proposition XXXIII. Problem.

232. The three sides of a triangle being given, to construct the triangle.


Let the three sides be $m, n$, and $o$.
It is required to construct a $\Delta$ having three sides respectively, equal to $m$, $n$, and $o$.

Draw $A B$ equal to $n$.
From $A$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc ;
and from $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $m$,
describe an arc intersecting the former arc at $C$.
Draw $C A$ and $C B$.
Then $\triangle C A B$ is the $\triangle$ required.
Q. E. F.
233. Scholum. The problem is impossible when one side is equal to or greater than the sum of the other two.

Proposition XXXIV. Problem.
234. The hypotenuse and one side of a right triangle being given, to construct the triangle.


Let $m$ be the given side, and o the hypotenuse.
It is required to construct a rt. $\Delta$ having the hypotenuse equal $o$ and one side equal $m$.

Take $A B$ equal to $m$.
At $A$ erect a $\perp, A X$.
From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc cutting $A X$ at $C$.

Draw $C B$.
Then $\triangle C A B$ is the $\triangle$ required.
Q. E. $F$

## Proposition XXXV. Probley.

235. The base, the altitude, and an angle at the base, of a triangle being given, to construct the triangle.


Let o equal the base, $m$ the altitude, and $C$ the angle at the base.

It is required to construct a $\Delta$ having the base equal to o, the altitude equal to $m$, and an $\angle$ at the base equal to $C$.

Take $A B$ equal to $o$.
At the point $A$, draw the indefinite line $A R$,
making the $\angle B A R=\angle C$.
At the point $A$, erect a $\perp A X$ equal to $m$.
From $X$ draw $X S \|$ to $A B$, and meeting the line $A R$ at $S$.

Draw $S B$.
Then $\triangle A S B$ is the $\triangle$ required.
Q. E. E.

## Proposition XXXVI. Problem.

236. Two sides of a triangle and the angle opposite one of them being given, to construct the triangle.

## Case I.

When the given angle is acute, and the side opposite to it is less than the other given side.


c
Let $c$ be the longer and a the shorter given side, and $\angle A$ the given angle.
It is required to construct a $\triangle$ having two sides equal to a and c respectively, and the $\angle$ opposite a equal to giveri $\angle A$.

Construct $\angle D A E$ equal to the given $\angle A$.
On $A D$ take $A B=c$.
From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $\alpha$, describe an arc intersecting the side $A E$ at $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$.

Draw $B C^{\prime}$ and $B C^{\prime \prime}$.
Then both the $\triangle A B C^{\prime}$ and $A B C^{\prime \prime}$ fulfil the conditions, and hence we have two constructions.

When the given side $a$ is exactly equal to the $\perp B C$, there will be but one construction, namely, the right triangle $A B C$.

When the given side $a$ is less than $B C$, the arc described from $B$ will not intersect $A E$, and herse the problem is impossible.

## Case II.

When the given angle is acute, right, or obtuse, and the side opposite to it is greater than the other given side.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

$\qquad$
$a$


When the given angle is obtuse.
Construct the $\angle D A E$ (Fig. 1) equal to the given $\angle S$.
Take $A B$ equal to $a$.
From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $c$, describe an arc cutting $E A$ at $C$, and $E A$ produced at $C^{\prime}$. Join $B C$ and $B C^{\prime}$.

Then the $\triangle A B C$ is the $\triangle$ required, and there is only one construction ; for the $\triangle A B C^{\prime}$ will not contain the given $\angle S$.

When the given angle is acute, as angle $B A C^{\prime \prime}$.
There is only one construction, namely, the $\triangle B A C^{\prime \prime}$ (Fig. 1).
When the given $\angle$ is a right angle.
There are two constructions, the equal $\triangle B A C$ and $B A C^{\prime}$ (Fig. 2).
Q. E. F.

The problem is impossible when the given angle is right or obtuse, if the given side opposite the angle be less than the other given side.

## Proposition XXXVII. Problem.

237. Two sides and an included angle of a parallelogram being given, to construct the parallelogram.

R


Let $m$ and o be the two sides, and $C$ the included angle.
It is required to construct a $\square$ having two adjacent sides equal to $m$ and o respectively, and their included $\angle$ equal to $\angle C$.

Draw $A B$ equal to $o$.
From $A$ draw the indefinite line $A R$,
making the $\angle A$ equal to $\angle C$. On $A R$ take $A H$ equal to $m$.
From $H$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $o$, describe an arc.

From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $m$, describe an arc, intersecting the former arc at $E$.

Draw $E H$ and $E B$.
The quadrilateral $A B E H$ is the $\square$ required.
For,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A B=H E \\
& A H=B E
\end{aligned}
$$

$\therefore$ the figure $A B E H$ is a $\square$,

Cons.
Cons.
§ 136
(a quadrilateral, which has its opposite sides equal, is a $\square$ ).

## Proposition XXXVIII. Problem.

238. To describe a circumference through three points not in the same straight line.


Let the three points be $A, B$, and $C$.
It is required to describe a circumference through the three points $A, B$, and $C$.

Draw $A B$ and $B C$.
Bisect $A B$ and $B C$.
At the points of bisection, $E$ and $F$, erect is intersecting at 0 .

From $O$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $O A$, describe a circle.

$$
\odot A B C \text { is the } \odot \text { required. }
$$

For, the point $O$, being in the $\perp E O$ erected at the middle of the line $A B$, is at equal distances from $A$ and $B$;
and also, being in the $\perp \mathcal{F O}$ erected at the middle of the line $C B$, is at equal distances from $B$ and $C$, (every point in the $\perp$ erected at the middle of a straight line is at equal distunces from the cxtrenities of that line).
$\therefore$ the point $O$ is at equal distances from $A, B$, and $C$,
and a $\odot$ described from $O$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $O A$, will pass through the points $A, B$, and $C$.
Q. E. F.
239. Scholium. The same construction serves to describe a circumference which shall pass through the three vertices of a triangle, that is, to circumscribe a circle about a given triangle.

Proposition XXXIX. Problem.
240. Through a given point to draw a tangent to a given circle.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

CASE 1. - When the given point is on the circumference.
Let $A B C$ (Fig. 1) be a given circle, and $C$ the given point on the circumference.
It is required to draw a tangent to the circle at $C$. From the centre $O$, draw the radius $O C$.
At the extremity of the radius, $C$, draw $C M \perp$ to $O C$.
Then $C M$ is the tangent required, § 186
(a straight line $\perp$ to a radius at its extremity is tangent to the $\odot$ ).
CaSE 2. - When the given point is without the circumference.
Let $A B C$ (Fig. 2) be the given circle, $O$ its centre,
$E$ the given point without the circumference.
It is required to draw a tangent to the circle $A B C$ from the point $E$.

Join OE.
On $O E$ as a diameter, describe a circumference intersecting the given circumference at the points $M$ and $H$.

Draw $O M$ and $O H, E M$ and $E H$.
Now
$\angle O M E$ is a rt. $\angle$,
§ 204
(being inscribed in a semicircle).
$\therefore E M$ is $\perp$ to $O M$ at the point $M$;
$\therefore E M$ is tangent to the $\odot$,
§ 186
(a straight line $\perp$ to a radius at its extremity is tangent to the $\odot$ ).
In like manner we may prove $H E$ tangent to the given $\odot$. Q.E. F.
241. Corollary. Two tangents drawn from the same point to a circle aro equal.

## Proposition XL. Problem.

242. To inscribe a circle in a given triangle.


Let $A B C$ be the given triangle.
It is required to inscribe $a \odot$ in the $\triangle A B C$.
Draw the line $A E$, bisecting $\angle A$, and draw the line $C E$, bisecting $\angle C$.

Draw $E H \perp$ to the line $A C$.
From $E$, with radius $E H$, describe the $\odot K M H$.
The $\odot K H M$ is the $\odot$ required.
For, draw $E K \perp$ to $A B$, and $E M \perp$ to $B C$.
In the rt. © $A K E$ and $A H E$

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
A E=A E, & \text { Iden. } \\
\angle E A K=\angle E A H, & \text { Cons. } \\
\therefore \triangle A K E=\triangle A H E, & \S 110 \\
\text { (Two rt. © are equal if the hypotenuse and an acute } \angle \text { of the one be equal } \\
\text { respectively to the hypotenuse and an acute } \angle \text { of the other). }
\end{array}
$$

$$
\therefore E K=E H \text {, }
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).

In like manner it may be shown $E M=E H$.
$\therefore E K, E H$, and $E M$ are all equal.
$\therefore$ a $\odot$ described from $E$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $E H$, will touch the sides of the $\Delta$ at points $H, K$, and $M$, and be inscribed in the $\Delta$.

## Proposition XLI. Problem.

243. Upon a given straight line, to describe a segment which shall contain a given angle.


Let $A B$ be the given line, and $M$ the given angle.
It is required to describe a segment upon the line $A B$, which shall contain $\angle M$.

At the point $B$ construct $\angle A B E$ equal to $\angle M$.
Bisect the line $A B$ by the $\perp F H$.

$$
\text { From the point } B \text {, draw } B O \perp \text { to } E B
$$

From $O$, the point of intersection of $F H$ and $B O$, as a centre, with a radius equal to $O B$, describe a circumference.

Now the point $O$, being in a $\perp$ erected at the middle of $A B$, is at equal distances from $A$ and $B$, $\oint 58$ (every point in a $\perp$ crected at the middle of a straight line is at equal distances from the extremities of that line);
$\therefore$ the circumference will pass through $A$.
Now

$$
B E \text { is } \perp \text { to } O B
$$

Cons.
$\therefore B E$ is tangent to the $\odot$, § 186
(a straight line $\perp$ to a radius at its extremity is tangent to the $\odot$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore \angle A B E \text { is measured by } \frac{1}{2} \text { arc } A B \text {, } \\
& \text { (being an } \angle \text { formed by a tangent and a chord). }
\end{aligned}
$$

Also any $\angle$ inscribed in the segment $A H B$, as for instance $\angle A K B$, is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A B$,
$\therefore \angle A K B=\angle A B E$,
(being both measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the same arc) ;

$$
\therefore \angle A K B=\angle M .
$$

$\therefore$ segment $A H B$ is the segment required.

> Q. E. F.

## Proposition XLII. Problem.

244. To find the ratio of two commensurable straight lines.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be two straight lines.
It is required to find the greatest common measure of $A B$. and $C D$, so as to express their ratio in figures.

Apply $C D$ to $A B$ as many times as possible.
Suppose twice with a remainder $E B$.
Then apply $E B$ to $C D$ as many times as possible.
Suppose three times with a remainder $F D$.
Then apply $F D$ to $E B$ as many times as possible. Suppose once with a remainder $H B$.
Then apply $H B$ to $F D$ as many times as possible.
Suppose once with a remainder $K D$.
Then apply $K D$ to $H B$ as many times as possible.
Suppose $K D$ is contained just twice in $H B$.
The measure of each line, referred to $K D$ as a unit, will then be as follows :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
H B & =2 K D \\
F D & =H B+K D=3 K D \\
E B & =F D+H B=5 K D \\
C D & =3 E B+F D=18 K D \\
A B & =2 C D+E B=41 K D \\
& \therefore \frac{A B}{C D}=\frac{41 K D}{18 K D} \\
& \therefore \text { the ratio of } \frac{A B}{C D}=\frac{41}{18} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exercises.

1. If the sides of a pentagon, no two sides of which are parallel, be produced till they meet; show that the sum of all the angles at their points of intersection will be equal to two right angles.
2. Show that two chords which are equally distant from the centre of a circle are equal to each other ; and of two chords, that which is nearer the centre is greater than the one more remote.
3. If through the vertices of an isosceles triangle which has each of the angles at the base double of the third angle, and is inscribed in a circle, straight lines be drawn touching the circle; show that an isosceles triangle will be formed which has each of the angles at the base one-third of the angle at the vertex.
4. $A D B$ is a semicircle of which the centre is $C$; and $A E C$ is another semicircle on the diameter $A C ; A T$ is a common tangent to the two semicircles at the point $A$. Show that if from any point $F$, in the circumference of the first, a straight line $F C$ be drawn to $C$, the part $F K$, cut off by the second semicircle, is equal to the perpendicular $F H$ to the tangent $A T$.
5. Show that the bisectors of the angles contained by the opposite sides (produced) of an inscribed quadrilateral intersect at right angles.
6. If a triangle $A B C$ be formed by the intersection of three tangents to a circumference whose centre is $O$, two of which, $A M$ and $A N$, are fixed, while the third, $B C$, touches the circumference at a variable point $P$; show that the perimeter of the triangle $A B C$ is constant, and equal to $A M+A N$, or $2 A M$. Also show that the angle $B O C$ is constant.
7. $A B$ is any chord and $A C$ is tangent to a circle at $A$, $C D E$ a line cutting the circumference in $D$ and $E$ and parallel to $A B$; show that the triangle $A C D$ is equiangular to the triangle $E A B$.

## Constructions.

1. Draw two concentric circles, such that the chords of the outer circle which touch the inner may be equal to the diameter of the inner circle.
2. Given the base of a triangle, the vertical angle, and the length of the line drawn from the vertex to the middle point of the base : construct the triangle.
3. Given a side of a triangle, its vertical angle, and the radius of the circumscribing circle : construct the triangle.
4. Given the base, vertical angle, and the perpendicular from the extremity of the base to the opposite side : construct the triangle.
5. Describe a circle cutting the sides of a given square, so that its circumference may be divided at the points of intersection into eight equal arcs.
6. Construct an angle of $60^{\circ}$, one of $30^{\circ}$, one of $120^{\circ}$, one of $150^{\circ}$, one of $45^{\circ}$, and one of $135^{\circ}$.
7. In a given triangle $A B C$, draw $Q D E$ parallel to the base $B C$ and meeting the sides of the triangle at $D$ and $E$, so that $D E$ shall be equal to $D B+E C$.
8. Given two perpendiculars, $A B$ and $C D$, intersecting in $O$, and a straight line intersecting these perpendiculars in $E$ and $F$; to construct a square, one of whose angles shall coincide with one of the right angles at $O$, and the vertex of the opposite angle of the square shall lie in $E F$. (Two solutions.)
9. In a given rhombus to inscribe a square.
10. If the base and vertical angle of a triangle be given ; find the locus of the vertex.
11. If a ladder, whose foot rests on a horizontal plane and top against a vertical wall, slip down; find the locus of its middle point.

## BOOK III.

## PROPORTIONAL LINES AND SIMILAR POLYGONS.

On the Theory of Proportion.
245. Def. The Terms of a ratio are the quantities compared.
246. Def. The Antecedent of a ratio is its first term.
247. Def. The Consequent of a ratio is its second term.
248. Def. A Proportion is an expression of equality between two equal ratios.

A proportion may be expressed in any one of the following forms:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } a: b:: c: d \\
& \text { 2. } a: b=c: d \\
& \text { 3. } \frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Form 1 is read, $a$ is to $b$ as $c$ is to $d$.
Form 2 is read, the ratio of $a$ to $b$ equals the ratio of $c$ to $d$.
Form 3 is read, $a$ divided by $b$ equals $c$ divided by $d$.
The Terms of a proportion are the four quantities compared.

The first and third terms in a proportion are the antecedents, the second and fourth terms are the consequents.
249. The Extremes in a proportion are the first and fourth terms.
250. The Means in a proportion are the second and third terms.
251. Def. In the proportion $a: b:: c: d ; d$ is a Fourth Proportional to $a, b$, and $c$.
252. Def. In the proportion $a: b:: b: c ; c$ is a Third Proportional to $a$ and $b$.
253. Def. In the proportion $a: b:: b: c ; b$ is a Mean Proportional between $a$ and $c$.
254. Def. Four quantities are Reciprocally Proportional when the first is to the second as the reciprocal of the third is to the reciprocal of the fourth.

Thus

$$
a: b:: \frac{1}{c}: \frac{1}{d}
$$

If we have two quantities $a$ and $b$, and the reciprocals of these quantities $\frac{1}{a}$ and $\frac{1}{b}$; these four quantities form a reciprocal proportion, the first being to the second as the reciprocal of the second is to the reciprocal of the first.

As $\quad a: b:: \frac{1}{b}: \frac{1}{a}$.
255. Def. A proportion is taken by Alternation, when the means, or the extremes, are made to exchange places.

Thus in the proportion

$$
a: b:: c: d
$$

we have either

$$
a: c:: b: d, \quad \text { or, } d: b:: c: a
$$

256. Def. A proportion is taken by Inversion, when the means and extremes are made to exchange places.

Thus in the proportion

$$
a: b:: c: d
$$

by inversion we have

$$
b: a:: d: c
$$

257. Def. A proportion is taken by Composition, when the sum of the first and second is to the second as the sum of
the third and fourth is to the fourth; or when the sum of the first and second is to the first as the sum of the third and fourth is to the third.

Thus if $\quad a: b:: c: d$,
we have by composition,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a+b: b:: c+d: d \\
& a+b: a:: c+d: c
\end{aligned}
$$

258. Def. A proportion is taken by Division, when the difference of the first and second is to the second as the difference of the third and fourth is to the fourth; or when the difference of the first and second is to the first as the difference of the third and fourth is to the third.

$$
\text { Thus if } \quad a: b:: c: d
$$

we have by division

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a-b: b:: c-d: d, \\
& \text { or, } \quad a-b: a:: c-d: c
\end{aligned}
$$

## Propositiun I.

259. In every proportion the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the neans.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d
$$

We are to prove $\quad a d=b c$.
Now

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}
$$

whence, by multiplying by $b d$,

$$
a d=b c
$$

> Q. E.D

In the treatment of proportion, it is assumed that fractions may be found which will represent the ratios. It is evident that a ratio may be represented by a fraction when the two quantities compared can be expressed in integers in terms of any common unit. Thus the ratio of a line $2 \frac{1}{3}$ inches long to a line $3 \frac{1}{4}$ inches long may be represented by the fraction $\frac{28}{38}$ when both lines are expressed in terms of a unit $\frac{1}{12}$ of an inch long.

But it often happens that no unit exists in terms of which both the quantities can be expressed in integers. In such cases, however, it is possible to find a fraction that will represent the ratio to any required degree of accuracy.

Thus, if $a$ and $b$ denote two incommensurable lines, and $b$ be divided into any integral number ( $n$ ) of equal parts, if one of these parts be contained in $a$ more than $m$ times, but less than $m+1$ times, then $\frac{a}{b}>\frac{m}{n}$ but $<\frac{m+1}{n}$; so that the error in taking either of these values for $\frac{a}{b}$ is $<\frac{1}{n}$. Since $n$ can be increased at pleasure, $\frac{1}{n}$ can be made less than any assigned value whatever. Propositions, therefore, that are true for $\frac{m}{n}$ and $\frac{m+1}{n}$, however little these fractions differ from each other, are true for $\frac{a}{b}$; and $\frac{m}{n}$ may be taken to represent the value of $\frac{a}{b}$.

## Proposition II.

260. A mean proportional between two quantities is equal to the square root of their product.

In the proportion $a: b:: b: c$,

$$
b^{2}=a c
$$

(the product of the extremes is cqual to the product of the means).
Whence, extracting the square root,

$$
b=\sqrt{a c}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition III.

261. If the product of two quantities be equal to the product of two others, either two may be made the extremes of a proportion in which the other two are made the means.

$$
\text { Let } a d=b c
$$

We are to prove $a: b:: c: d$.
Divide both members of the given equation by $b d$.

Then

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}
$$

$$
\text { or, } \quad a: b:: c: d .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition IV.

262. If four quantities of the same kind be in proportion, they will be in proportion by alternation.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d .
$$

We are to prove $\quad a: c:: b: d$.

Now,

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}
$$

Multiply each member of the equation by $\frac{b}{c}$.
Then

$$
\frac{a}{c}=\frac{b}{d}
$$

or, $\quad a: c:: b: d$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition V.

263. If four quantities be in proportion, they will be in mroportion by inversion.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d .
$$

We are to prove $b: a:: d: c$.
Now,

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d} .
$$

Divide 1 by each member of the equation.

Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{b}{a}=\frac{d}{c} \\
b: a:: d: c .
\end{gathered}
$$

or,

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition VI.

264. If four quantities be in proportion, they will be in proportion by composition.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d
$$

We are to prove

$$
a+b: b:: c+d: d
$$

Now

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d} .
$$

Add 1 to each member of the equation.
Then

$$
\frac{a}{b}+1=\frac{c}{d}+1
$$

that is,

$$
\frac{a+b}{b}=\frac{c+d}{d}
$$

or,

$$
a+b: b:: c+d: d
$$

Q.E D

## Proposition VII.

265. If four quantities be in proportion, they will be in proportion by division.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d
$$

We are to prove

$$
a-b: b:: c-d: d
$$

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d} .
$$

Subtract 1 from each member of the equation.
Then

$$
\frac{a}{b}-1=\frac{c}{d}-1
$$

that is,

$$
\frac{a-b}{b}=\frac{c-d}{d}
$$

or, $\quad a-b: b:: c-d: d$.

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition VIII.

266. In a series of equal ratios, the sum of the antecedents is to the sum of the consequents as any antecedent is to its consequent.

$$
\text { Let } a: b=c: d=e: f=g: h
$$

We are to prove $\quad a+c+e+g: b+d+f+h:: a: b$.
Denote each ratio by $r$.
Then

$$
r=\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}=\frac{e}{f}=\frac{g}{h}
$$

Whence, $\quad a=b r, \quad c=d r, \quad e=f r, \quad g=h r$.
Add these equations.
Then $\quad a+c+e+g=(b+d+f+h) r$.
Divide by

$$
(b+d+f+h)
$$

Then

$$
\frac{a+c+e+g}{b+d+f+h}=r=\frac{a}{b}
$$

or, $a+c+e+g: b+d+f+h:: a: b$.

## Proposition IX.

267. The products of the corresponding terms of two or more proportions are in proportion.

$$
\text { Let } \begin{aligned}
a & : b:: c: d, \\
e & : f:: g: h, \\
& k: l:: m: n
\end{aligned}
$$

We are to prove $a e k: b f l:: c g m: d h n$.
Now

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}, \quad \bar{f}=\frac{g}{h}, \quad \bar{l}=\frac{m}{n}
$$

Whence by multiplication,

$$
\frac{a e k}{b f l}=\frac{c g m}{d h n},
$$

or, $a e k: b f l:: c g m: d h n$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition X.

268. Like powers, or like roots, of the terms of a proportion are in proportion.

$$
\text { Let } a: b:: c: d
$$

We are to prove $a^{n}: b^{n}:: c^{n}: d^{n}$,
and

$$
a^{\frac{1}{n}}: b^{\frac{1}{n}}:: c^{\frac{1}{n}}: d^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

Now

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}
$$

By raising to the $n^{\text {th }}$ power,

$$
\frac{a^{n}}{b^{n}}=\frac{c^{n}}{d^{n}} ; \text { or } a^{n}: b^{n}:: c^{n}: d^{n}
$$

By extracting the $n^{\text {th }}$ root,

$$
\frac{a^{\frac{1}{n}}}{b^{\frac{1}{n}}}=\frac{c^{\frac{1}{n}}}{d^{\frac{1}{n}}} ; \text { or, } a^{\frac{1}{n}}: b^{\frac{1}{n}}:: c^{\frac{1}{n}}: d^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

Q. E. D.
269. Def. Equimultiples of two quantities are the products obtained by multiplying each of them by the same number. Thus $m a$ and $m b$ are equimultiples of $a$ and $b$.

## Proposition XI.

270. Equimultiples of two quantities are in the same ratio as the quantities themselves.

Let $a$ and $b$ be any two quantities.
We are to prove $m a: m b:: a: b$.
Now

$$
\frac{a}{b}=\frac{a}{b}
$$

Multiply both terms of first fraction by $m$.
Then

$$
\frac{m a}{m b}=\frac{a}{b}
$$

or, $\quad m a: m b:: a: b$.

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition XII.

271. If two quantities be increased or diminished by like parts of each, the results will be in the same ratio as the quantities themselves.

Let $a$ and $b$ be any two quantities.
We are to prove $a \pm \frac{p}{q} a: b \pm \frac{p}{q} b:: a: b$.
In the proportion,

$$
m a: m b:: a: b
$$

substitute for $m, 1 \pm \frac{p}{q}$.
Then

$$
\left(1 \pm \frac{p}{q}\right) a:\left(1 \pm \frac{p}{q}\right) b:: a: b
$$

or

$$
a \pm \frac{p}{q} a: b \pm \frac{p}{q} b:: a: b
$$

Q. E. D.
272. Def. Euclid's test of a proportion is as follows :-
"The first of four magnitudes is said to have the same ratio to the second which the third has to the fourth, when any equimultiples whatsoever of the first and third being taken, and any equimultiples whatsoever of the second and fourth;
"If the multiple of the first be less than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also less than that of the fourth; or,
"If the multiple of the first be equal to that of the second, the multiple of the third is also equal to that of the fourth ; or,
"If the multiple of the first be greater than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also greater than that of the fourth."

## Proposition XIII.

273. If four quantities be proportional according to tho algebraical definition, they will also be proportional according to Euclid's definition.

Let $a, b, c, d$ be proportional according to the algebraical definition; that is $\frac{a}{b}=\frac{c}{d}$.

We are to prove $a, b, c, d$, proportional according to Euclid's definition.

Multiply each member of the equality by $\frac{m}{n}$.

Then

$$
\frac{m a}{n b}=\frac{m c}{n d}
$$

Now from the nature of fractions,
if $m a$ be less than $n b, m c$ will also be less than $n d$;
if $m a$ be equal to $n b, m c$ will also be equal to $n d$;
if $m a$ be greater than $n b, m c$ will also be greater than $n d$.
$\therefore a, b, c, d$ are proportionals according to Euclid's definition.
Q. E. D.

## Exercises.

1. Show, that the straight line which bisects the external vertical angle of an isosceles triangle is parallel to the base.
2. A straight line is drawn terminated by two parallel straight lines; through its middle point any straight line is drawn and terminated by the parallel straight lines. Show that the second straight line is bisected at the middle point of the first.
3. Show that the angle between the bisector of the angle $A$ of the triangle $A B C$ and the perpendicular let fall from $A$ on $B C$ is equal to one-half the difference between the angles $B$ and $C$.
4. In any right triangle show that the straight line drawn from the vertex of the right angle to the middle of the hypotenuse is equal to one-half the hypotenuse.
5. Two tangents are drawn to a circle at opposite extremities of a diameter, and cut off from a third tangent a portion $A B$. If $C$ be the centre of the circle, show that $A C B$ is a right angle.
6. Show that the sum of the three perpendiculars from any point within an equilateral triangle to the sides is equal to the altitude of the triangle.
7. Show that the least chord which can be drawn through a given point within a circle is perpendicular to the diameter drawn through the point.
8. Show that the angle contained by two tangents at the extremities of a chord is twrice the angle contained by the chord and the diameter drawn from either extremity of the chord.
9. If a circle can be inscribed in a quadrilateral; show that the sum of two opposite sides of the quadrilateral is equal to the sum of the other two sides.
10. If the sum of two opposite sides of a quadrilateral be equal to the sum of the other two sides; show that a circle can be inscribed in the quadrilateral.

## On Proportional Lines. <br> Proposition I. Theorem.

274. If a series of parallels intersecting any two straight lines intercept equal parts on one of these lines, they will intercept equal parts on the other also.


Let the series of parallels $A A^{\prime}, B B^{\prime}, C C^{\prime}, D D^{\prime}, E E^{\prime}$, intercept on $H^{\prime} K^{\prime}$ equal parts $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, etc.
We are to prove
they intercept on $H K$ equal parts $A B, B C, C D$, etc.
At points $A$ and $B$ draw $A m$ and $B n \|$ to $H^{\prime} K^{\prime}$.

$$
A m=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}
$$

(parallels comprehended between parallels are equal).

$$
B n=B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

$$
\therefore A m=B n .
$$

In the $\triangle B A m$ and $C B n$,

$$
\angle A=\angle B
$$

(having their sides respectively $\|$ and lying in the same direction from the vertices).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \angle m=\angle n \\
& A m=B n,
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\therefore \triangle B A m=\triangle C B n,
$$§ 107

(having a side and two adj. \& of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. ©\& of the other).

$$
\therefore A B=B C \text {, }
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).

In like manner we may prove $B C=C D$, etc.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

275. If a line be drawn through two sides of a triangle parallel to the third side, it divides those sides proportionally.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

In the triangle $A B C$ let $E F$ be drawn parallel to $B C$.
We are to prove $\quad \frac{E B}{A E}=\frac{F C}{A F}$.
Case I. - When $A E$ and $E B$ (Fig. 1) are commensurable.
Find a common measure of $A E$ and $E B$, namely $B m$.
Suppose $B m$ to be contained in $B E$ three times, and in $A E$ five times.

Then

$$
\frac{E B}{A E}=\frac{3}{5}
$$

At the several points of division on $B E$ and $A E$ draw straight lines \| to $B C$.

These lines will divide $A C$ into eight equal parts, of which $F C$ will contain three, and $A F$ will contain five, $\S 274$ (if parallels intersecting any two straight lines intercept equal parts on one of these lines, they will intercept equal parts on the other also).

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \frac{F C}{A F^{\prime}} & =\frac{3}{5} \\
\frac{E B}{A E} & =\frac{3}{5} \\
\therefore \frac{E B}{A E} & =\frac{F C}{A F}
\end{aligned}
$$

Case. II. - When $A$ E and E B (Fig. 2) are incommensurable.
Divide $A E$ into any number of equal parts,
and apply one of these parts to $E B$ as often as it will be contained in $E B$.

Since $A E$ and $E B$ are incommensurable, a certain number of these parts will extend from $E$ to a point $K$, leaving a remainder $K B$, less than one of the parts.

$$
\text { Draw } K H \| \text { to } B C \text {. }
$$

Since $A E$ and $E K$ are commensurable,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{E K}{A E}=\frac{F H}{A F} \tag{CaseI.}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose the number of parts into which $A E$ is divided to be continually increased, the length of each part will become less and less, and the point $K$ will approach nearer and nearer to $B$. The limit of $E K$ will be $E B$, and the limit of $F I$ will be $F C$.
$\therefore$ the limit of $\frac{E K}{A E^{\prime}}$ will be $\frac{E B}{A E}$,
and

$$
\text { the limit of } \frac{F H}{A F} \text { will be } \frac{F C}{A F} \text {. }
$$

Now the variables $\frac{E K}{A E}$ and $\frac{F H}{A F}$ are always equal, however near they approach their limits;

$$
\therefore \text { their limits } \frac{E B}{A E} \text { and } \frac{F C}{A H} \text { are equal, } \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { Q. E. D. }
\end{aligned}
$$

276. Corollary. One side of a triangle is to either part cut off by a straight line parallel to the base, as the other side is to the corresponding part.

Now $\quad E B: A E:: F C: A F$.
By composition,

$$
E B+A E: A E:: F C+A F: A F
$$

or, $A B: A E:: A C: A F$.

Proposition III. Theorem.
277. If a straight line divide two sides of a triangle proportionally, it is parallel to the third side.


In the triangle $A B C$ let $E F$ be drawn so that $\frac{A B}{A E}=\frac{A C}{A F}$;
We are to prove $\quad E F \| \iota$ เo $B C$.
From $E$ draw $E H \|$ to $B C$.
Then

$$
\frac{A B}{A E}=\frac{A C}{A H},
$$

(one side of $a \Delta$ is to either part cut off by a line $\|$ to the base, as the other side is to the corresponding part).

But

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{A B}{A E} & =\frac{A C}{A F},  \tag{Нур.}\\
\therefore \frac{A C}{A F} & =\frac{A C}{A H},  \tag{Ax. 1}\\
\therefore A F & =A H .
\end{align*}
$$

$\therefore E F$ and $E H$ coincide, (their extremities being the same points).

But

$$
E H \text { is } \| \text { to } B C \text {; }
$$

Cons.
$\therefore E F$, which coincides with $E H$, is \| to $B C$.
Q. E. D.
278. Def. Similar Polygons are polygons which have their homologous angles equal and their homologous sides proportional.

Homologous points, lines, and angles, in similar polygons, are points, lines, and angles similarly situated.

## On Similar Polygons.

Proposition IV. Theorem.
279. I'wo triangles which are mutually equiangular are similar.


In the $\triangle A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ let $\triangle A, B, C$ be equal to Ls $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}$ respectively.
We are to prove $A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=A C: A^{\prime} C^{\prime}=B C: B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$. Apply the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ to the $\triangle A B C$, so that $\angle A^{\prime}$ shall coincide with $\angle A$.

Then the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ will take the position of $\triangle A E H$.
Now $\quad \angle A E H$ (same as $\left.\angle B^{\prime}\right)=\angle B$.

$$
\therefore E H \text { is } \| \text { to } B C \text {, }
$$

(when two straight lincs, lying in the same plane, are cut by a third straight line, if the ext. int. \&s be equal the lines are parallel).

$$
\therefore A B: A E=A C: A H,
$$

(one side of $a \Delta$ is to either part cut off by a iine II to the base, as the other side is to the corresponding part).
Substitute for $A E$ and $A H$ their equals $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Then $\quad A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=A C: A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
In like manner we may prove

$$
A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=B C: B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

$\therefore$ the two $\mathbb{A}$ are similar.
280. Cor. 1. Two triangles are similar when two angles of the one are equal respectively to two angles of the other.
281. Cor. 2. Two right triangles are similar when an acute angle of the one is equal to an acute angle of the other.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

282. Two triangles which have their sides respectively proportional are similar.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ let

$$
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{B C}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}
$$

We are to prove
$\measuredangle A, B$, and $C$ equal respectively to $\measuredangle A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime}$.
Take on $A B, A E$ equal to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$,
and on $A C, A H$ equal to $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$. Draw $E H$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime}} \tag{Нур.}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitute in this equality, for $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ their equals $A E$ and $A H$.

Then

$$
\frac{A B}{A E}=\frac{A C}{A H}
$$

$\therefore E H$ is $\|$ to $B C$,
if a line divide two sides of a $\triangle$ proportionally, it is $\|$ to the third side).
Now in the $\mathbb{\Delta} A B C$ and $A E H$

$$
\underset{\text { (being ext. int. angles). }}{\angle A B C}=
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\angle A C B=\angle A H E, & \S 70 \\
\angle A=\angle A . & \text { Iden. } \\
\therefore \text { \& } A B C \text { and } A E H \text { are similar, } & \S 279 \\
\text { (two mutually equiangular \& are similar). } &
\end{array}
$$

$$
\therefore \frac{A B}{B C}=\frac{A E}{E H} \text {, }
$$

(homologous sides of simi'ar © are pronortional).

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{A B}{B C} & =\frac{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}} \\
\therefore \frac{A E}{E H} & =\frac{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}} \\
A E & =A^{\prime} B^{\prime} \\
E H & =B^{\prime} C^{\prime} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Нур.

$$
\text { Ax. } 1
$$

Cons.
Now in the \& $A E H$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
E H= & B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, A E=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, \text { and } A H=A^{\prime} C^{\prime} \\
& \therefore \triangle A E H=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
\end{align*}
$$

(having three sides of the one equal respectively to three sides of the other).
But $\quad \triangle A E H$ is similar to $\triangle A B C$.
$\therefore \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ is similar to $\triangle A B C$.
283. Scholium. The primary idea of similarity is likeness of form ; and the two conditions necessary to similarity are:
I. For every angle in one of the figures there must be an equal angle in the other, and
II. the homologous sides must be in proportion.

In the case of triangles either condition involves the other, but in the case of other polygons, it does not follow that if one condition exist the other does also.


Thus in the quadrilaterals $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$, the homologous sides are proportional, but the homologous angles are not equal and the figures are not similar.

In the quadrilaterals $R$ and $R^{\prime}$, the homologous angles are equal, but the sides are not proportional, and the figures are not similar.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

284. Two triangles having an angle of the one equal to an angle of the other, and the including sides proportional, are similar.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ let

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}, \text { and } \frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}
$$

We are to prove \& $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ similar.
Apply the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ to the $\triangle A B C$ so that $\angle A^{\prime}$ shall coincide with $\angle A$.

Then the point $B^{\prime}$ will fall somewhere upon $A B$, as at $E$,
the point $C^{\prime}$ will fall somewhere upon $A C$, as at $H$, and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ upon $E H$.

Now

$$
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}
$$

Hyp.
Substitute for $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ their equals $A E$ and $A H$.
Then

$$
\frac{A B}{A E}=\frac{A C}{A H}
$$

$\therefore$ the line $E H$ divides the sides $A B$ and $A C$ proportionally ;

$$
\therefore E H \text { is } \| \text { to } B C \text {, }
$$

(if a line divide two sides of a $\Delta$ proportionally, it is il to the third side).
$\therefore$ the $\mathbb{\&} A B$ and $A E H$ are mutually equiangular and similar. $\therefore \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ is similar to $\triangle A B C$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

285. Two triangles which have their sides respectively sarallel are similar.


In the triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ let $A B, A C$, and $B C$ be parallel respectively to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.

We are to prove $\triangle A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ similar.
The corresponding $\angle s$ are either equal, § 77
(two $\&$ whose sides are II, two and two, and lie in the same direction, or opposite directions, from their vertices are equal).
or supplements of each other,
§ 78
(if two $₫$ have two sides II and lying in the same direction from their vertices, while the other two sides are II and lie in opposite directions, the $\mathbb{\&}$ are supplements of each other).

Hence we may make three suppositions:
1st. $A+A^{\prime}=2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle \mathrm{s}, \quad B+B^{\prime}=2 \mathrm{rt} .\left\lfloor\mathrm{s}, \quad C+C^{\prime}=2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle \mathrm{s}\right.$.
2d. $\quad A=A^{\prime}, \quad B+B^{\prime}=2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle s, \quad C+C^{\prime}=2 \mathrm{rt} .\lfloor\boxed{ }$.
3 d .
$A=A^{\prime}$,
$B=B^{\prime}$
$\therefore C=C^{\prime}$.
Since the sum of the $\angle S$ of the two $\Delta$ cannot exceed four right angles, the 3 d supposition only is admissible.

Proposition VIII. Theorem.
286. Two triangles which have their sides respectively perpendicular to each other are similar.


In the triangles $E F D$ and $B A C$, let $E F, F D$ and $E D$, be perpendicular respectively to $A C, B C$ and $A B$.

We are to prove \& $E F D$ and $B A C$ similar.
Place the $\triangle E F D$ so that its vertex $E$ will fall on $A B$, and the side $E F, \perp$ to $A C$, will cut $A C$ at $F^{\prime}$.

Draw $F^{\prime} D^{\prime} \|$ to $F D$, and prolong it to meet $B C$ at $H$. In the quadrilateral $B E D^{\prime} H, \angle s, E$ and $H$ are rt. $\mathcal{E}$.

$$
\therefore \angle B+\angle E D^{\prime} I=2 \text { rt. } 1 \mathrm{~s} .
$$

But $\quad \angle E D^{\prime} F^{\prime}+\angle E D^{\prime} H=2 \mathrm{rt}$. 灾. §34

$$
\therefore \angle E D^{\prime} F^{\prime}=\angle B . \quad \text { Ax. } 3
$$

Now $\quad \angle C+\angle H F^{\prime} C=$ rt. $\angle$, § 103
(in a rt. $\triangle$ the sum of the two acute $\triangle=$ art. $\angle$ );
and

$$
\begin{gathered}
\angle E F^{\prime} D^{\prime}+\angle H F^{\prime} C=\mathrm{rt.} \angle . \\
\therefore \angle E F^{\prime} D^{\prime}=\angle C
\end{gathered}
$$

$\therefore \triangle E F^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$ and $B A C$ are similar.
Ax. 9.
Ax. 3.

But $\quad \triangle E F D$ is similar to $\triangle E F^{\prime} D^{\prime}$. § 279
$\therefore B E D$ and $B A C$ are similar.
Q. E. D.
287. Scholium. When two triangles have their sides respectively parallel or perpendicular, the parallel. sides, or the perpendicular sides, are homologons.

## Proposition IX. Theorem.

288. Lines drawn through the vertex of a triangle divide proportionally the base and its parallel.


In the triangle $A B C$ let $H L$ be parallel to $A C$, and let $B S$ and $B T$ be lines drawn through its vertex to the base.

We are to prove

$$
\frac{A S}{H O}=\frac{S T}{O R}=\frac{T C}{R L}
$$

A $B H O$ and $B A S$ are similar,
(two $\&$ which are mutually equiangular are similar).
$\triangle B O R$ and $B S T$ are similar,
© $B R L$ and $B T C$ are similar, § 279
$\therefore \frac{A S}{H O}=\left(\frac{S B}{O B}\right)=\frac{S T}{O R}=\left(\frac{B T}{B R}\right)=\frac{T C}{R I}, \quad \S 278$
(homologous sides of similar \& are proportional).
Q. E. D.

Ex. Show that, if three or more non-parallel straight lines divide two parallels proportionally, they pass through a common point.

## Proposition X. Theorem.

289. If in a right triangle a perpendicular be drawn from the vertex of the right angle to the hypotenuse:
I. It divides the triangle into two right triangles which are similar to the whole triangle, and also to each other:
II. The perpendicular is a mean proportional between the segments of the hypotenuse.
III. Each side of the right triangie is a mean proportional between the hypotenuse and its adjacent segment.
IV. The squares on the two silles of the right triangle have the same ratio as the adjacent segments of the hypotenuse.
V. The square on the hypotenuse has the same ratio to the square on either side as the hypotenuse has to the segment arljacent to that side.


In the right triangle $A B C$, let $B F$ be drawn from the vertex of the right angle $B$, perpendicular to the hypotenuse $A C$.
I. We are to prove
the $\mathbb{S} A B F, A B C$, and $F B C$ similar.
In the rt. $\triangle B A F$ and $B A C$,
the acute $\angle A$ is common.
$\therefore$ the $\triangle$ are similar,
§ 281
(two rt. A are similar when an acute $\angle$ of the one is equal to an acute $\angle$ of the other).
In the rt. $\triangle B C F$ and $B C A$, the acute $\angle C$ is common.
$\therefore$ the $\Delta$ are similar.
Now as the rt. $\triangle A B F$ and $C B F$ are both similar to $A B C$, by reason of the equality of their $\angle s$,
they are similar to each other.
11. We are to prove $A F: B F:: B F: F C$.

In the similar \& $A B F^{\prime}$ and $C B F$,
$A F$, the shortest side of the one,
: $B F$, the shortest side of the other,
: : $B F$, the medium side of the one,
: $F^{\prime} C$, the medium side of the other.
III. We are to prove $A C: A B:: A B: A F$.

In the similar $\triangle A B C$ and $A B F$,
$A C$, the longest side of the one,
: $A B$, the longest side of the other,
$:: A B$, the shortest side of the one,
: A $F$, the shortest side of the other.
Also in the similar $\& A B C$ and $F B C$,
$A C$, the longest side of the one,
: $B C$, the longest side of the other,
$:: B C$, the medium side of the one,
: $F C$, the medium side of the other.
IV. We are to prove $\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{\overline{B C}^{2}}=\frac{A F}{F^{\prime} C}$.

In the proportion $A C: A B:: A B: A F$,

$$
\overline{A B}^{2}=A C \times A F
$$

(the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the means).
and in the proportion $A C: B C:: B C: F C$,

$$
\overline{B C}^{2}=A C \times F C
$$

Dividing the one by the other,

$$
\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{\overline{B C}^{2}}=\frac{A C \times A F}{A C \times F C}
$$

Cancel the common factor $A C$, and we have

$$
\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{\overline{B C^{2}}}=\frac{A F}{\overline{F C}}
$$

V. We are to prove $\frac{\overline{A C}^{2}}{\overline{A B}^{2}}=\frac{A C}{A F}$.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \overline{A C}^{2}=A C \times A C \\
& \overline{A B}^{2}=A C \times A F^{\prime} \tag{CaseIII.}
\end{align*}
$$

Divide one equation by the other ;
then

$$
\frac{\overline{A C}^{2}}{{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}}=\frac{A C \times A C}{A C \times A F}=\frac{A C}{A i^{\prime}}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XI. Theorem.

290. If two chords intersect each other in a circle, their segments are reciprocally proportional.


Let the two chords $A B$ and $E F$ intersect at the point 0.
We are to prove $A O: E O:: O F: O B$.

$$
\text { Draw } A F \text { and } E B \text {. }
$$

In the $\& A O F$ and $E O B$,

$$
\angle F=\angle B
$$

(each being measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $A E$ ).

$$
\angle A=\angle E
$$

(each being measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $F B$ ).

$$
\therefore \text { the } \mathbb{O} \text { are similar. }
$$

(two $\triangle$ are similar when two $₫$ of the one are equal to two $₫$ of the other).
Whence $A O$, the medium side of the one,
: $E O$, the medium side of the other,
: : $O F$, the shortest side of the one,
: $O B$, the shortest side of the other.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XII. Theorem.

291. If from a point without a circle two secants be drawn, the whole secants and the parts without the circle are reciprocally proportional.


Let $O B$ and $O C$ be two secants drawn from point $O$. We are to prove $O B: O C:: O M: O H$.

Draw $H C$ and $M B$.
In the $\mathcal{S} O H C$ and $O M B$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \angle O \text { is common } \\
& \angle B=\angle C
\end{align*}
$$

(each being measured by $\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc} H M$ ).

$$
\therefore \text { the two } \mathbb{B} \text { are similar, }
$$

(two $\mathbb{\&}$ are similar when two $\mathbb{E}$ of the one are equal to two $\mathbb{\&}$ of the other).

$$
\text { Whence } \quad O B \text {, the longest side of the one, } \quad 278
$$

: $O C$, the longest side of the other,
: : $O M$, the shortest side of the one,
: $O H$, the shortest side of the other.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XIII. Theorem.

292. If from a point without a circle a secant and a tangent be drawn, the tangent is a mean proportional between the whole secant and the part without the circle.


Let $O B$ be a tangent and $O C$ a secant drawn from the point $O$ to the circle $M B C$.

We are to prove $O C: O B:: O B: O M$.
Draw $B M$ and $B C$.
In the $\triangle O B M$ and $O B C$
$\angle O$ is common.
$\angle O B M$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $M B, \quad \S 209$ (being an $\angle$ formed by a tangent and a chord).
$\angle C$ is measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ arc $B M$,
(being an inscribed $\angle$ ).
$\therefore \angle O B M=\angle C$.
$\therefore \triangle O B C$ and $O B M$ are similar,
(having two $₫$ of the one equal to two $₫$ of the other).
Whence $\quad O C$, the longest side of the one,
: $O B$, the longest side of the other,
: : $O B$, the shortest side of the one,
: $O M$, the shortest side of the other.

> Q. E. D.

Proposition XIV. Theorem.
293. If two polygons be composed of the same number of triangles which are similar, each to each, and similarly placed, then the polygons are similar.


In the two polygons $A B C D E$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, let the triangles $B A E, B E C$, and $C E D$ be similar respectively to the triangles $B^{\prime} A^{\prime} E^{\prime}, B^{\prime} E^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.

We are to prove
the polygon $A B C D E$ similar to the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$.

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $\mathbb{S}$ of similar $\mathbb{\&}$ ).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \angle A B E=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}, \\
& \angle E B C=\angle E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime},
\end{align*}
$$

Add the last two equalities.
Then $\angle A B E+\angle E B C=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}+\angle E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$;
or,
$\angle A B C=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
In like manner we may prove $\angle B C D=\angle B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, etc.
$\therefore$ the two polygons are mutually equiangular.
Now $\frac{A E}{A^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\left(\frac{E B}{E^{\prime} B^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{B C}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}=\left(\frac{E C}{E^{\prime} C^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{C D}{C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime}}$,
(the homologous sides of similar \& are proportional).
$\therefore$ the homologous sides of the two polygons are proportional.
$\therefore$ the two polygons are similar,

## Proposition XV. Theorem.

294. If two polygons be similar, they are composed of the same number of triangles, which are similar and similarly placed.


Let the polygons $A B C D E$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ be similar.
From two homologous vertices, as $E$ and $E^{\prime}$,
draw diagonals $E B, E C$, and $E^{\prime} B^{\prime}, E^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\triangle A E B, E B C, E C D$ similar respectively to 且 $A^{\prime} E^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime}, E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}, E^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$.
In the $\mathbb{B} A E B$ and $A^{\prime} E^{\prime} B^{\prime}$,

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $\mathbb{E}$ of similar polygons).

$$
\frac{A E}{A^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

(being homologous sides of similar polygons).

$$
\therefore \triangle A E B \text { and } A^{\prime} E^{\prime} B^{\prime} \text { are similar, }
$$ (having an $\angle$ of the one equal to an $\angle$ of the other, and the including sides proportional).

Also,

$$
\angle A B C=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $₫$ of similar polygons).

$$
\angle A B E=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $\mathbb{\Sigma}$ of similar \& ).
$\therefore \angle A B C-\angle A B E=\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}-\angle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$.
That is $\quad \angle E B C=\angle E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

Now

$$
\frac{E B}{E^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

(being homologous sides of similar A);
also

$$
\frac{B C}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}},
$$

(being homologous sides of similar polygons).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\therefore \frac{E B}{E^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{B C}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}, \tag{Ax. 1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\therefore$ \& $E B C$ and $E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are similar, § 284 (having an $\angle$ of the one equal to an $\angle$ of the other, and the including sides proportional).
In like manner we may prove $\triangle E C D$ similar to $\triangle E^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$. Q. E. D.

## Proposition XVI. Theorem.

295. The perimeters of two similar polygons have the same ratio as any two homologous sides.


Let the two similar polygons be $A B C D E$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, and let $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ represent their perimeters.

We are to prove $P: P^{\prime}:: A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
$A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}:: B C: B^{\prime} C^{\prime}:: C D: C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ etc. $\S 278$ (the homologous sides of similar polygons are proportional).
$\therefore A B+B C$, etc. : $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}+B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, etc. : : $A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, \S 266$ (in a series of cqual ratios the sum of the antecedents is to the sum of the consequents as any antecedent is to its consequent).

That is $P: P^{\prime}:: A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XVII. Theorem.
296. The homologous altitudes of two similar triangles have the same ratio as any two homologous sides.


In the two similar triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, let the altitudes be $B O$ and $B^{\prime} O^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}$.
In the rt. © $B O A$ and $B^{\prime} O^{\prime} A^{\prime}$,

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous $\left\llcorner\right.$ of the similar $\mathbb{\&} A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ ).

$$
\therefore \triangle B O A \text { and } \triangle B^{\prime} O^{\prime} A^{\prime} \text { are similar, }
$$

(two rt. A having an acute $\angle$ of the one equal to an acute $\angle$ of the other are similar).
$\therefore$ their homologous sides give the proportion

$$
\frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

Q. E. D.
297. Cor. 1. The homologous altitudes of similar triangles have the same ratio as their homologous bases.

In the similar \& $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$,

$$
\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

(the homologous sides of similar $\mathbb{A}$ are proportional).
And in the similar \& $B O A$ and $B^{\prime} O^{\prime} A^{\prime}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}} & =\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}} \\
\therefore \frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}} & =\frac{A C}{A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}
\end{align*}
$$

Ax. 1
298. Cor. 2. The homologous altitudes of similar triangles have the same ratio as their perimeters.

Denote the perimeter of the first by $P$, and that of the second by $P^{\prime}$.

Then

$$
\frac{P}{P^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

(the perimeters of two similar polygons have the same ratio as any two homologous sides).

But

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}} \\
&=\frac{A B}{A^{i} B^{\prime}} \\
& \therefore \frac{B O}{B^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{P}{P^{\prime}}
\end{align*}
$$

Ax. 1

Ex. 1. If any two straight lines be cut by parallel lines, show that the corresponding segments are proportional.
2. If the four sides of any quadrilateral be bisected, show that the lines joining the points of bisection will form a parallelogram.
3. Two circles intersect; the line $A H K B$ joining their centres $A, B$, meets them in $H, K$. On $A B$ is described an equilateral triangle $A B C$, whose sides $B C, A C$, intersect the circles in $F, E$. $F^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ produced meets $B A$ produced in $P$. Show that as $P A$ is to $P K$ so is $C F$ to $C E$, and so also is $P I$ to $P B$.

Proposition XVIII. Theorem.
299. In any triangle the product of two sides is equal to the product of the segments of the third side formed by the bisector of the opposite angle together with the square of the bisector.


Let $\angle B A C$ of the $\triangle A B C$ be bisectea $b_{\bar{y}}$ une straight line $A D$.
We are to prove $\quad B A \times A C=B D \times D C+\overline{A D}^{2}$.
Describe the $\odot A B C$ about the $\triangle A B C$; produce $A D$ to ineet the circumference in $E$, and draw $E C$.

Then in the © $A B D$ and $A E C$,

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\angle B A D=\angle C A E, & \text { Hyp. } \\
\angle B=\angle E, & \text { § } 203 \\
\text { (each being measurcd by } \frac{1}{2} \text { the arc } A C \text { ). } &
\end{array}
$$

$\therefore$ © $A B D$ antl $A E C$ are similar,
§ 280
(two \& are similar when two \&of the one are equal respectively to two $\subseteq$ of the other).
Whence $\quad B A$, the longest side of the one,
$: E A$, the longest side of the other,
$:: A D$, the shortest side of the one,
: $A C$, the shortest side of the other ;
or, $\quad \frac{B A}{E A}=\frac{A D}{A C}$,
(homologous sides of similar $\mathbb{A}$ are proportional).

$$
\therefore B A \times A C=E A \times A D
$$

But

$$
E A \times A D=(E D+A D) A D
$$

$$
\therefore B A \times A C=E D \times A D+A^{2}
$$

But $E D \times A D=B D \times D C$,
§ 290
(the segments of two chords in a $\odot$ which intersect each other ars reciprocally proportional).
Substitute in the above equality $B D \times D C$ for $E D \times A D$,
then $\quad B A \times A C=B D \times D C+\overline{A D}^{2}$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XIX. Theorem.

300. In any triangle the product of two sides is equal to the product of the diameter of the circumscribed circle by the perpendicular let fall upon the third side from the vertex of the opposite angle.


Let $A B C$ be a triangle, and $A D$ the perpendiculal from $A$ to $B C$.

Describe the circumference $A B C$ about the $\triangle A B C$.
Draw the diameter $A E$, and draw $E C$.
We are to prove $\quad B A \times A C=E A \times A D$.
In the $\triangle A B D$ and $A E C$.
$\angle B D A$ is a rt. $\angle$,
Cons.
$\angle E C A$ is a rt. $\angle$,
§ 204 (being inscribed in a scmicircle).

$$
\begin{gathered}
\therefore \angle B D A=\angle E C A \\
\angle B=\angle E
\end{gathered}
$$

(cach boing measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the arc $A C$ ).
$\therefore \triangle A B D$ and $A E C$ are similar,
§ 281
(two rt. © having an acute $\angle$ of the one equal to an acute $\angle$ of the other are similar).
Whence $\quad B A$, the longest side of the one, : $E A$, the longest side of the other,
: : $A D$, the shortest side of the one, : $A C$, the shortest side of the other ;

$$
\text { or, } \quad \frac{B A}{E A}=\frac{A D}{A C}
$$

$\therefore B A \times A C=E A \times A D$.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XX. Theorem.
301. The product of the two diagonals of a quadrilaterai inscribed in a circle is equal to the sum of the products of its opposite sides.


Let $A B C D$ be any quadrilareral inscribed in a circle, $A C$ and $B D$ its diagonals.

We are to prove $\quad B D \times A C=A B \times C D+A D \times B C$.
Construct $\quad \angle A B E=\angle D B C$,
and add to each $\quad \angle E B D$.
Then in the $\triangle A B D$ and $B C E$,
and $\quad \angle B D A=\angle B C E$, Ax. 2 (each being measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ the arc $A B$ ).

$$
\therefore \triangle A B D \text { and } B C E \text {, are similar, } \quad \S 280
$$

(two $\mathbb{\&}$ are similar when two $₫$ of the one are equal respectively to two $\mathbb{\&}$ of the other).

Whence $A D$, the medium side of the one,
: $C E$, the medium side of the other,
:: $B D$, the longest side of the one,
: $B C$, the longest side of the other,
or,

$$
\frac{A D}{C E^{\prime}}=\frac{B D}{B C}
$$

(the homologous sides of similar $\mathbb{A}$ are proportional).

$$
\therefore B D \times C E=A D \times B C .
$$

Again, in the $\triangle A B E$ and $B C D$,

|  | $\angle A B E=\angle D B C$, | Cons. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| and | $\angle B A E=\angle B D C$ <br> (each being measured by $\frac{1}{2}$ of the arc $B C$ ). | § 203 |
|  | $\therefore \triangle B E$ and $B C D$ are similar, | § 280 |

Whence $\quad A B$, the longest side of the one, : $B D$, the longest side of the other,
: : A $E$, the shortest side of the one,
: $C D$, the shortest side of the other.
or,

$$
\frac{A B}{B D}=\frac{A E}{C D}
$$

(the homologous sides of similar \& are proportional).

$$
\therefore B D \times A E=A B \times C D
$$

But $B D \times C E=A D \times B C$.

Adding these two equalities,

$$
\begin{gathered}
B D(A E+C E)=A B \times C D+A D \times B C \\
\text { or } \quad B D \times A C=A B \times C D+A D \times B C
\end{gathered}
$$

Q. E. D.

Ex. If two circles are tangent internally, show that chords of the greater, drawn from the point of tangency, are divided proportionally by the circumference of the less.

## On Constructions.

## Propostition XXI. Problem.

302. To divide a given straight line into equal parts.


Let $A B$ be the given straight line.
It is required to divide $A B$ into equal parts.
From $A$ draw the indefinite line $A 0$.
Take any convenient length, and apply it to $A O$ as many times as the line $A B$ is to be divided into parts.

From the last point thus found on $A O$, as $C$, draw $C B$.
Through the several points of division on $A O$ draw lines $\|$ to $C B$.

These lines divide $A B$ into equal parts,
(if a series of $\| s$ intersecting any two straight lines, intercept equal parts on one of these lines, they intercept equal parts on the other also).
Q. E. F.

Ex. To draw a common tangent to two given circles.
I. When the common tangent is exterior.
II. When the common tangent is interior.

## Proposition XXII. Problem.

303. To divide a given straight line into parts proportional to any number of given lines.

$\qquad$
$\qquad$


Let $A B, m, n$, and o be given straight lines.
It is required to divide $A B$ into parts proportional to the given lines $m, n$, and $o$.

Draw the indefinite line $A X$.
On $A X$ take

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A C=m, \\
& C E=n, \\
& E F=o .
\end{aligned}
$$

and
Draw $F B$. From $E$ and $C$ draw $E K$ and $C H \|$ to $F B$.
$K$ and $H$ are the division points required.
For $\quad\left(\frac{A K}{A E}\right)=\frac{A H}{A C}=\frac{H K}{C E}=\frac{K B}{E \cdot F}$,
I' line draun through two sides of a $\Delta \|$ to the third side divides those sides proportionally).

$$
\therefore A H: H K: K B:: A C: C E: E F
$$

Substitute $m, n$, and $o$ for their equals $A C, C E$, and $E F$.
Then $A H: H K: K B:: m: n: o$.
Q. E. F

## Proposition XXIII. Problem.

304. To find a fourth proportional to three given straight lines.


Let the three given lines be $m, n$, and $o$.
It is required to find a fourth proportional to $m, n$, and $o$. Take $A B$ equal to $n$.

Draw the indefinite line $A R$, making any convenient $\angle$ with $A B$.

On $A R$ take $A C=m$, and $C S=0$.
Draw $C B$.
From $S$ draw $S F \|$ to $C B$, to meet $A B$ produced at $F$.
$B F$ is the fourth proportional required.
For,

$$
A C: A B:: C S: B F
$$

(a line drawn through two sides of a $\triangle \|$ to the third side divides those sides proportionally).

Substitute $m, n$, and $o$ for their equals $A C, A B$, and $C S$.
Then

$$
m: n:: o: B F
$$

[^1]
## Proposition XXIV. Problem.

305. To find a third proportional to two given straight lines.


Let $A B$ and $A C$ be the two given straight lines.
It is required to find a third proportional to $A B$ and $A C$.
Place $A B$ and $A C$ so as to contain any convenient $\angle$.
Produce $A B$ to $D$, making $B D=A C$.
Join $B C$.
Through $D$ draw $D E \|$ to $B C$ to meet $A C$ produced at $E$. $C E$ is a third proportional to $A B$ and $A C$.

For,

$$
\frac{A B}{B D}=\frac{A C}{C E},
$$

(a line drawn through two sides of $a \Delta \|$ to the third side divides those sides proportionally).

Substitute, in the above equality, $A C$ for its equal $B D$;
Then

$$
\frac{A B}{A C}=\frac{A C}{C E}
$$

or, $\quad A B: A C:: A C: C E$.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXV. Problem.

306. To find a mean proportional between two given lines.


Let the two given lines be $m$ and $n$.
It is required to find a mean proportional between $m$ and $n$.
On the straight line $A E$

$$
\text { take } A C=m, \text { and } C B=n
$$

On $A B$ as a diameter describe a semi-circumference.
At $C$ erect the $\perp C H$.
$C H$ is a mean proportional between $m$ and $n$.
Draw $H B$ and $H A$.
The $\angle A H B$ is a rt. $\angle$,
(being inscribed in a semicircle),
and $H C$ is a $\perp$ let fall from the vertex of a rt. $\angle$ to the hypotenuse.

$$
\therefore A C: C H:: C H: C B,
$$

(the $\perp$ let fall from the vertex of the rt. $\angle$ to the hypotenuse is a mean proportional between the segments of the hypotenuse).
Substitute for $A C$ and $C B$ their equals $m$ and $n$.
Then

$$
m: C H:: C H: n .
$$

Q. E. F.
307. Corollary. If from a point in the circumference a perpendicular be drawn to the diameter, and chords from the point to the extremities of the diameter, the perpendicular is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter, and each chord is a mean proportional between its adjacent segment and the diameter.

## Proposition XXVI. Problem.

308. To divide one side of a triangle into two parts proportional to the other two sides.


Let $A B C$ be the triangle.
It is required to divide the side $B C$ into two such parts that the ratio of these two parts shall equal the ratio of the other two sides, $A C$ and $A B$.

Produce $C A$ to $F$, making $A F=A B$. Draw $F B$.
From $A$ draw $A E \|$ to $F B$.
$E$ is the division point required.
For

$$
\frac{C A}{A F}=\frac{C E}{E B}
$$

(a line draun through two sides of a $\Delta \|$ to the third side divides those sides proportionally).
Substitute for $A F$ its equal $A B$.
Then

$$
\frac{C A}{A B}=\frac{C E}{E B}
$$

> Q. E. F.
309. Corollary. The line $A E$ bisects the angle $C A B$.

For

$$
\angle F=\angle A B F
$$

$\angle F=\angle C A E$,
(being ext.-int. \& ).

$$
\angle A B F=\angle B A E
$$

(being alt.-int. © ©).

$$
\begin{equation*}
\therefore \angle \dot{C} A E=\angle B A E \tag{Ax. 1}
\end{equation*}
$$

310. Def. A straight line is said to be divided in extreme and mean ratio, when the whole line is to the greater segment as the greater segment is to the less.

## Proposition XXVII. Problem.

311. To divide a given line in extreme and mean ratio.


Let $A B$ be the given line.
It is required to divide $A B$ in extreme and mean ratio.
At $B$ erect a $\perp B C$, equal to one-half of $A B$.
From $C$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $C B$, describe a $\odot$.
Since $A B$ is $\perp$ to the radius $C B$ at its extremity, it is tangent to the circle.

Through $C$ draw $A D$, meeting the circumference in $E$ and $D$.

$$
\text { On } A B \text { take } A H=A E
$$

$H$ is the division point of $A B$ required.
For

$$
A D: A B:: A B: A E
$$

(if from a point without the circumference a secant and a tangent be drawn, the tangent is a mean proportional between the whole secant and the part without the circumference).

Then $A D-A B: A B:: A B-A E: A E$.

Since

$$
A B=2 C B,
$$

Cons.
and

$$
E D=2 C B,
$$

(the diameter of $a \odot$ being twice the radius),

$$
A B=E D .
$$

Ax. 1
$\therefore A D-A B=A D-E D=A E$.
But

$$
A E=A H,
$$

Cons.
$\therefore A D-A B=A H$.
Ax. 1
Also $\quad A B-A E=A B-A H=H B$.
Substitute these equivalents in the last proportion.
Then $\quad A H: A B:: H B: A H$.
Whence, by inversion, $A B: A H:: A H: H B . \S 263$
$\therefore A B$ is divided at $H$ in extreme and mean ratio.
Q. E. F.

Remark. $A B$ is said to be divided at $H$, internally, in extreme and mean ratio. If $B A$ be produced to $H^{\prime}$, making $A H^{\prime}$ equal to $A D, A B$ is said to be divided at $H^{\prime}$, externally, in extreme and mean ratio.

Prove $\quad A B: A H^{\prime}:: A H^{\prime}: H^{\prime} B$.
When a line is divided internally and externally in th 3 same ratio, it is said to be divided harmonically.

Thus $A B \xrightarrow[C]{C}{ }_{C}^{B} \quad{ }^{B}$ is divided harmonically at $C$ and $D$, if $C A: C B:: D A: D B$; that is, if the ratio of the distances of $C$ from $A$ and $B$ is equal to the ratio of the distances of $D$ from $A$ and $B$.

This proportion taken by alternation gives:
$A C: A D:: B C: B D$; that is, $C D$ is divided harmonically at the points $B$ and $A$. The four points $A, B, C, D$, are called harmonic points; and the two pairs $A, B$, and $C, D$, are called conjugate points.

Ex. 1. To divide a given line harmonically in a given ratio.
2. To find the locus of all the points whose distances from two given points are in a given ratio.

## Proposition XXVIII. Problem.

312. Upon a given line homologous to a given side of a given polygon, to construct a polygon similar to the given polygon.


Let $A^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ be the given line, homologous to $A E$ of the given polygon $A B C D E$.
It is required to construct on $A^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ a polygon similar to the given polygon.

From $E$ draw the diagonals $E B$ and $E C$.
From $E^{\prime}$ draw $E^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, making $\angle A^{\prime} E^{\prime} B^{\prime}=\angle A E B$.
Also from $A^{\prime}$ draw $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, making $\angle B^{\prime} A^{\prime} E^{\prime}=\angle B A E$, and meeting $E^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ at $B^{\prime}$.
The two © $A B E$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ are similar, § 280 (two © are similar if they have two \& of the one equal respectively to two $\&$ of the other).
Also from $E^{\prime}$ draw $E^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, making $\angle B^{\prime} E^{\prime} C^{\prime}=\angle B E C$.
From $B^{\prime}$ draw $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, making $\angle E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}=\angle E B C$, and meeting $E^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ at $C^{\prime}$.
Then the two \& $E B C$ and $E^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are similar, § 280 (two $\mathbb{A}$ are similar if they have two $\mathbb{L}$ of the one equal respectively to two $\subseteq$ of the other).
In like manner construct $\triangle E^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ similar to $\triangle E C D$.

> Then the two polygons are similar,
§ 293
(two polygons composed of the same number of A similar to each other and similarly placed, are similar).
$\therefore A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ is the required polygon.
Q. E. F.

## Exercises.

1. $A B C$ is a triangle inscribed in a circle, and $B D$ is drawn to meet the tangent to the circle at $A$ in $D$, at an angle $A B D$ equal to the angle $A B C$; show that $A C$ is a fourth proportional to the lines $B D, A D, A B$.
2. Show that either of the sides of an isosceles triangle is a mean proportional between the base and the half of the segment of the base, produced if necessary, which is cut off by a straight line drawn from the vertex at right angles to the equal side.
3. $A B$ is the diameter of a circle, $D$ any point in the circumference, and $C$ the middle point of the arc $A D$. If $A C, A D$, $B C$ be joined and $A D$ cut $B C$ in $E$, show that the circle circumscribed about the triangle $A E B$ will touch $A C$ and its diameter will be a third proportional to $B C$ and $A B$.
4. From the obtuse angle of a triangle draw a line to the base, which shall be a mean proportional between the segments into which it divides the base.
5. Find the point in the base produced of a right triangle, from which the line drawn to the angle opposite to the base shall have the same ratio to the base produced which the perpendicular has to the base itself.
6. A line touching two circles cuts another line joining their centres; show that the segments of the latter will be to each other as the diameters of the circles.
7. Required the locus of the middle points of all the chords of a circle which pass through a fixed point.
8. $O$ is a fixed point from which any straight line is drawn meeting a fixed straight line at $P$; in $O P$ a point $Q$ is taken such that $O Q$ is to $O P$ in a fixed ratio. Determine the locus of $Q$.
9. $O$ is a fixed point from which any straight line is drawn meeting the circumference of a fixed circle at $P$; in $O P$ a point $Q$ is taken such that $O Q$ is to $O P$ in a fixed ratio. Determine the locus of $Q$.

## BOOK IV.

## COMPARISON AND MEASUREMENT OF THE SURFACES OF POLYGONS.

Proposition I. Theorem.

313. Two rectangles having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases.


Let the two rectangles be $A C$ and $A F$, having the the same altitude A D.
We are to prove $\frac{\text { rect. } A C}{\text { rect. } A F}=\frac{A B}{A E}$.

$$
\text { CASE I. - When } A B \text { and } A E \text { are commensurable. }
$$

Find a common divisor of the bases $A B$ and $A E$, as $A 0$.
Suppose $A O$ to be contained in $A B$ seven times and in $A E$ four times.

Then

$$
\frac{A B}{A E}=\frac{7}{4} .
$$

At the several points of division on $A B$ and $A E$ erect $\mathbb{\perp}$.
The rect. $A C$ will be divided into seven rectangles, and rect. $A F$ will be divided into four rectangles.
These rectangles are all equal, for they may be applied to each other and will coincide throughout.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \frac{\operatorname{rect} A C}{\operatorname{rect} A F} & =\frac{7}{4} . \\
\frac{A B}{A E} & =\frac{7}{4} . \\
\therefore \frac{\operatorname{rect} A C}{\operatorname{rect} A F} & =\frac{A B}{A E} .
\end{aligned}
$$

But

Case II. - When $A B$ and $A$ E are incommensurable.


Divide $A B$ into any number of equal parts, and apply one of these parts to $A E$ as often as it will be contained in $A E$.

Since $A B$ and $A E$ are incommensurable, a certain number of these parts will extend from $A$ to a point $K$, leaving a remainder $K E$ less than one of these parts.

Draw $K H \|$ to $E F$.
Since $A B$ and $A K$ are commensurable,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\text { rect. } A H}{\text { rect. } A C}=\frac{A K}{A B} \text {, } \tag{Case 1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose the number of parts into which $A B$ is divided to be continually increased, the length of each part will become less and less, and the point $K$ will approach nearer and nearer to $E$.

The limit of $A \bar{K}$ will be $A E$, and the limit of rect. $A H$ will be rect. $A F$.

$$
\therefore \text { the limit of } \frac{A K}{A B} \text { will be } \frac{A E}{A B} \text {, }
$$

and the limit of $\frac{\text { rect. } A H}{\text { rect. } A C}$ will. be rect. $A F$ rect. $A C$.
Now the variables $\frac{A K}{A B}$ and $\frac{\text { rect. } A H}{\text { rect. } A C}$ are always equal however near they approach their limits;
$\therefore$ their limits are equal, namely, $\frac{\text { rect. } A F}{\text { rect. } A C}=\frac{A E}{A B}$,

> Q. E. D.
314. Corollary. Two rectangles having equal bases are to each other as their altitudes. By considering the bases of these two rectangles $A D$ and $A D$, the altitudes will be $A B$ and $A E$. But we have just shown that these two rectangles are to each other as $A B$ is to $A E$. Hence two rectangles, with the same base, or equal bases, are to each other as their altitudes.

Another Demonstration.
Let $A C$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ be two rectangles of equal altitudes.


We are to prove $\frac{\text { rect. } A C}{\text { rect. } A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{A D}{A^{\prime} D^{\prime}}$.
Let $b$ and $b^{\prime}, S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ stand for the bases and areas of these rectangles respectively.

Prolong $A D$ and $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.
Take $A D, D E, E F \ldots m$ in number and all equal, and $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}, D^{\prime} E^{\prime}, E^{\prime} F^{\prime}, F^{v} G^{\prime} \ldots n$ in number and all equal.

Complete the rectangles as in the figure.

| Then | base $A F=m b$, |
| :--- | :--- |
| and | base $A^{\prime} G^{\prime}=n b^{\prime} ;$ |
|  | rect. $A P=m S$, |
| and | rect. $A^{\prime} P^{\prime}=n S^{\prime}$. |

Now we can prove by superposition, that if $A F$ be $>A^{\prime} G^{\prime}$, rect. $A P$ will be $>$ rect. $A^{\prime} P^{\prime}$; and if equal, equal ; and if less, less.

That is, if $m b$ be $>n b^{\prime}, m S$ is $>n S^{\prime}$; and if equal, equal ; and if less, less.

Hence, $\quad b: b^{\prime}:: S: S^{\prime \prime}, \quad$ Euclid's Def., § 272
Q. E. D.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

315. Two rectangles are to each other as the products of their bases by their altitudes.


Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be two rectangles, having for their bases $b$ and $b^{\prime}$, and for their altitudes $a$ and $a^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\frac{R}{R^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}$.
Construct the rectangle $S$, with its base the same as that of $R$ and its altitude the same as that of $R^{\prime}$.

Then

$$
\frac{R}{\bar{S}}=\frac{a}{a^{\prime}}
$$

(rectangles having the same base are to each other as their altitudes);
and

$$
\frac{S}{R^{\prime}}=\frac{b}{b^{\prime}}
$$

(rectangles having the same altitude are to each other as their bases).
By multiplying these two equalities together

$$
\frac{R}{R^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}
$$

Q. E. D.
316. Def. The Area of a surface is the ratio of that surface to another surface assumed as the unit of measure.
317. Def. The Unit of measure (except the acre) is a square a side of which is some linear unit; as a square inch, etc.
318. Def. Equivalent figures are figures which have equal areas.

Rem. In comparing the areas of equivalent figures the symbol $(=)$ is to be read "equal in area."

## Proposition III. Theorem.

319. The area of a rectangle is equal to the product of its base and altitude.


Let $R$ be the rectangle, $b$ the base, and a the altitude; and let $U$ be a square whose side is the linear unit.

We are to prove the area of $R=a \times b$.

$$
\frac{R}{\bar{U}}=\frac{a \times b}{1 \times 1}
$$

(itwo rectangles are to each other as the product of their bases and altitudes).
But

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{R}{U} \text { is the area of } R, \\
\therefore \text { the area of } R=a \times b . & \text { Q. Е. D. }
\end{aligned}
$$

320. Scholium. When the base and altitude are exactly divisible by the linear unit, this proposition is rendered evident by dividing the figure into squares, each equal to the unit of

measure. Thus, if the base contain seven linear units, and the altitude four, the figure may be divided into twenty-eight squares, each equal to the unit of measure; and the area of the figure equals $7 \times 4$.

## Proposition IV. Theorem.

321. The area of a parallelogram is equal to the product of its base and altitude.


Let $A E F D$ be a parallelogram, $A D$ its base, and $C D$
its altitude.
We are to prove the area of the $\square A E F D=A D \times C D$.
From $A$ draw $A B \|$ to $D C$ to meet $F E$ produced.
Then the figure $A B C D$ will be a rectangle, with the same base and altitude as the $\square A E F D$.

In the rt. \& $A B E$ and $C D F$,

$$
A B=C D
$$

(being opposite sides of a rectangle).
and

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { and } & \begin{array}{c}
A E=D F, \\
\text { (being opposite sides of } a \square) ;
\end{array} \\
\therefore \triangle A B E=\triangle C D F \text {, } \\
\therefore 134 \\
\text { (two rt. © are equal, when the hypotenuse and a side of the one are equal } \\
\text { respectively to the hypotenuse and a side of the other). }
\end{array}
$$

Take away the $\triangle C D F$ and we have left the rect. $A B C D$.
Take away the $\triangle A B E$ and we have left the $\square A E F D$.

$$
\therefore \text { rect. } A B C D=\square A E F D
$$

But the area of the rect. $A B C D=A D \times C D, \S 319$ (the area of a rectangle equals the product of its base and altitude).
$\therefore$ the area of the $\square A E F D=A D \times C D$. Ax. 1 Q.E.D.
322. Corollary 1. Parallelograms having equal bases and equal altitudes are equivalent.
323. Cor. 2. Parallelograms having equal bases are to each other as their altitudes; parallelograms having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases; and any two parallelograms are to each other as the products of their bases by their altitudes.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

324. The area of a triangle is equal to one-half of the product of its base by its altitude.


Let $A B C$ be a triangle, $A B$ its base, and $C D$ its alititude.
We are to prove the area of the $\triangle A B C=\frac{1}{2} A B \times C D$.
From $C$ draw $C H \|$ to $A B$.
From $A$ draw $A H \|$ to $B C$.
The figure $A B C H$ is a parallelogram,
(having its opposite sides parallel), and $A C$ is its diagonal.

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A H C,
$$

(the diagonal of $a \square$ divides it into two equal © ).
The area of the $\square A B C H$ is equal to the product of its base by its altitude.
$\therefore$ the area of one-half the $\square$, or the $\triangle A B C$, is equal to one-half the product of its base by its altitude,
or, $\quad \frac{1}{2} A B \times C D$.

> Q. E. D.
325. Corollary 1. Triangles having equal bases and equal altitudes are equivalent.
326. Cor. 2. Triangles having equal bases are to each other as their altitudes; triangles having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases; any two triangles are to each other as the product of their bases by their altitudes.

Proposition VI. Theorem.
327. The area of a trapezoid is equal to one-half the sum of the parallel sides multiplied by the altitude.


Let $A B C H$ be a trapezoid, and $E F$ the altitude.
We are to prove area of $A B C H=\frac{1}{2}(H C+A B) E F$. Draw the diagonal $A C$.
Then the area of the $\triangle A H C=\frac{1}{2} H C \times E F, \quad \S 324$ (the area of a $\Delta$ is equal to one-half of the product of its base by its altitude), and the area of the $\triangle A B C=\frac{1}{2} A B \times E F, \quad \S 324$

$$
\therefore \triangle A H C+\triangle A B C,
$$

or,

$$
\text { area of } A B C H=\frac{1}{2}(H C+A B) E F \text {. }
$$

Q. E. D.
328. Corollary. The area of a trapezoid is equal to the product of the line joining the middle points of the non-parallel sides multiplied by the altitude; for the line $O P$, joining the middle points of the non-parallel sides, is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ ( $H C$ $+A B)$.
$\therefore$ by substituting $O P$ for $\frac{1}{2}(H C+A B)$, we have, the area of $A B C H=O P \times E F$.
329. Scholium. The area of an irregular polygon may be found by dividing the polygon into triangles, and by finding the area of each of these triangles separately. But the method generally employed in
 practice is to draw the longest diagonal, and to let fall perpendiculars upon this diagonal from the other angular points of the polygon.

The polygon is thus divided into figures which are right triangles, rectangles, or trapezoids ; and the areas of each of these figures may be readily found.

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

330. The area of a circumscribed polygon is equal to onehalf the product of the perimeter by the radius of the $i n$ scribed circle.


Let $A B S Q$, etc., be a circumscribed polygon, and $C$ the centre of the inscribed circle.

Denote the perimeter of the polygon by $P$, and the radius of the inscribed circle by $R$.

We are to prove
the area of the circumscribed polygon $=\frac{1}{2} P \times R$.
Draw $C A, C B, C S$, etc. ;
also draw $C O, C D$, etc., $\perp$ to $A B, B S$, etc.
The area of the $\triangle C A B=\frac{1}{2} A B \times C O, \quad \S 324$ (the area of $a \Delta$ is equal to one-half the product of its base and altitude).

$$
\text { The area of the } \triangle C B S=\frac{1}{2} B S \times C D \text {, }
$$

$\therefore$ the area of the sum of all the $\mathbb{S} C A B, C B S$, etc., $=\frac{1}{2}(A B+B S$, etc. $) C O$, § 187 ( for CO, CD, etc., are equal, being radii of the same $\odot$ ).

Substitute for $A B+B S+S Q$, etc., $P$, and for $C O, R$;
then the area of the circumscribed polygon $=\frac{1}{2} P \times R$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition VIII. Theorem.

331. The sum of the squares described on the two sides of a right triangle is equivalent to the square described on the hypotenuse.


Let $A B C$ be a right triangle with its right angle at $C$.
We are to prove $\overline{A C}^{2}+\overline{C B}^{2}=\overline{A B}^{2}$
Draw $C O \perp$ to $A B$.
Then
$\overline{A C}^{2}=A O \times A B$,
§ 289
(the square on a side of a rt. $\triangle$ is equal to the product of the hypotenuse by the adjacent segment made by the $\perp$ let fall from the vertex of the rt. $\angle$ );
and $\quad \overline{B C}^{2}=B O \times A B$,
By adding, $\overline{A C}^{2}+\overline{B C}^{2}=(A O+B O) A B$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =A B \times A B \\
& =\overline{A B}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. E. $\dot{\mathrm{D}}$.
332. Corollary. The side and diagonal of a square are incommensurable.
Let $A B C D$ be a square, and $A C$ the diagonal.
Then $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}+\overline{B C}^{2}=\overline{A C}^{2}$.
or,

$$
2 \overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{A C}^{2}
$$



Divide both sides of the equation by $\overline{A B}^{2}$,

$$
\frac{\overline{A C}^{2}}{\overline{A B}^{2}}=2
$$

Extract the square root of both sides the equation,
then

$$
\frac{A C}{A B}=\sqrt{2}
$$

Since the square root of 2 is a number which cannot be exactly found, it follows that the diagonal and side of a square are two ineommensurable lines.

## Another Demonstration.

333. The square described on the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.


Let $A B C$ be a right $\triangle$, having the right angle $B A C$. We are to prove $\overline{B C}^{2}=\overline{B A}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}$.
On $B C, C A, A B$ construct the squares $B E, C H, A F$.
Through $A$ draw $A L \|$ to $C E$.
Draw $A D$ and $F C$.
$\angle B A C$ is a rt. $\angle$,
$\angle B A G$ is a rt. $\angle$,
Hyp.
Cons.
$\therefore C A G$ is a straight line.
Also $\angle C A H$ is a rt. $\angle$,
$\therefore B A H$ is a straight line.
Now $\angle D B C=\angle F B A$, (each being a rt. $\angle$ ).

$$
\text { Add to each the } \angle A B C \text {; }
$$

then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\angle A B D & =\angle F B C, \\
\therefore \triangle A B D & =\triangle F B C .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $\quad \square B L$ is double $\triangle A B D$,
(being on the same base $B D$, and between the same $l l s, A L$ and $B D$ ), and square $A F$ is double $\triangle F B C$,
(being on the same base $F B$, and between the same $\| s, F B$ and $G C$ );

$$
\therefore \square B L=\text { square } A F .
$$

In like manner, by joining $A E$ and $B K$, it may be proved that

$$
\square C L=\text { square } C H
$$

Now the square on $B C=\square B L+\square C L$,

$$
=\text { square } A F+\text { square } C H,
$$

$$
\therefore \overline{B C}^{2}=\overline{B A}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2} .
$$

Q. E. D.

## On Projection.

334. Def. The Projection of a Point upon a straight line of indefinite length is the foot of the perpendicular let fall from the point upon the line. Thus, the projection of the point $C$ upon the line $A B$ is the point $P$.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

The Projection of a Finite Straight Line, as $C D$ (Fig. 1), upon a straight line of indefinite length, as $A B$, is the part of the line $A B$ intercepted between the perpendiculars $C P$ and $D R$, let fall from the extremities of the line $C D$.

Thus the projection of the line $C D$ upon the line $A B$ is the line $P R$.

If one extremity of the line $C D$ (Fig. 2) be in the line $A B$, the projection of the line $C D$ upon the line $A B$ is the part of the line $A B$ between the point $D$ and the foot of the perpendicular $C P$; that is, $D P$.

## Proposition IX. Theorem.

335. In any triangle, the square on the side opposite an acute angle is equivalent to the sum of the squares of the other. two sides diminished by twice the product of one of those sides and the projection of the other upon that side.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Let $C$ be an acute angle of the triangle $A B C$, and $D C$ the projection of $A C$ upon $B C$.

We are to prove $\overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}-2 B C \times D C$.
If $D$ fall upon the base (Fig. 1),

$$
D B=B C-D C
$$

If $D$ fall upon the base produced (Fig. 2),

$$
D B=D C-B C
$$

In either case ${\overline{D B^{2}}}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}-2 B C \times D C$.
Add $\overline{A D}^{2}$ to both sides of the equality ; then, $\overline{A D}^{2}+{\overline{D B^{2}}}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\bar{D}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}-2 B C \times D C$.

But

$$
\overline{A D}^{2}+{\overline{D B^{2}}}^{2}=\overline{A B}^{2}
$$

(the sum of the squares on two sides of a rt. $\Delta$ is equivalent to the square on the hypotenuse) ;
and

$$
\overline{A D}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}=\overline{A C}^{2}
$$

Substitute $\overline{A B}^{2}$ and $\overline{A C}^{2}$ for their equivalents in the above equality ;
then, $\overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}-2 B C \times D C$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition X. Theorem.

336. In any obtuse triangle, the square on the side opposite the obtuse angle is equivalent to the sum of the squares of the other two sides increased by twice the product of one of those sides and the projection of the other on that side.


Let $C$ be the obtuse angle of the triangle $A B C$, and $C D$ be the projection of $A C$ upon $B C$ produced.
We are to prove $\overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{C C}^{2}+2 B C \times D C$.

$$
D B=B C+D C .
$$

Squaring, $\overline{D B^{2}}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}+2 B C \times D C$.
Add ${A D^{2}}^{2}$ to both sides of the equality;
then, $\overline{D D}^{2}+\overline{D B}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{D D}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}+2 B C \times D C$.
But
$\overline{A D}^{2}+\overline{D B}^{2}=\overline{A B}^{2}$,
(the sum of the squares on two sides of a rt. $\triangle$ is equivalent to the square on the hypotenuse);

$$
\text { and } \quad \overline{D D}^{2}+\overline{D C}^{2}=\overline{A C}^{2} \text {. }
$$

Substitute $\overline{A B}^{2}$ and $\overline{A C}^{2}$ for their equivalents in the above equality ;
then, $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}+2 B C \times D C$.
337. Definition. A Medial line of a triangle is a straight line drawn from any vertex of the triangle to the middle point of the opposite side.

## Proposition XI. Theorem.

338. In any triangle, if a medial line be drawn from the vertex to the base:
I. The sum of the squares on the two sides is equivalent to twice the square on half the base, increased by twice the square on the medial line;
II. The difference of the squares on the two sides is equivalent to twice the product of the base by the projection of the medial line upon the base.


In the triangle $A B C$ let $A M$ be the medial line and $M D$ the projection of $A M$ upon the base $B C$. Also let $A B$ be greater than $A C$.
We are to prove

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { I. } \overrightarrow{A B}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}=2 \overrightarrow{B M}^{2}+2 \overrightarrow{A M}^{2} . \\
& \text { II. } \overrightarrow{A B}^{2}-\overrightarrow{A C}^{2}=2 B C \times M D
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $A B>A C$, the $\angle A M B$ will be obtuse and the $\angle A M C$ will be acute.

Then $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}=\overline{B M}^{2}+\overline{A M}^{2}+2 B M \times M D, \quad \S 336$
(in any obtuse $\triangle$ the square on the side opposite the obtuse $\angle$ is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the other two sides increased by twice the product of one of those sides and the projection of the other on that side);
and $\quad \overline{A C}^{2}=\overline{M C}^{2}+\overline{A M}^{2}-2 M C \times M D$,
§ 335
in any $\triangle$ the square on the side opposite an acute $\angle$ is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the other two sides, diminished by twice the product of one of those sides and the projection of the other upon that side).
Add these two equalities, and observe that $B M=M C$.
Then $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}=2 \overline{B M}^{2}+2 \overline{A M}^{2}$.
Subtract the second equality from the first.
Then $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}-\overline{A C}^{2}=2 B C \times M D$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XII. Theorem.

339. The sum of the squares on the four sides of any quadrilateral is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the diagonals together with four times the square of the line joining the middle points of the diagonals.


In the quadrilateral $A B C D$, let the diagonals be $A C$ and $B D$, and $F^{\prime} E$ the line joining the middle points of the diagonals.
We are to prove

$$
\overline{A B}^{2}+{\overline{B C^{2}}}^{2}+\overline{C D}^{2}+\overline{D A}^{2}=\overline{A C}^{2}+\overline{B D}^{2}+4{\overline{E F^{2}}}^{2}
$$

Draw $B E$ and $D E$.
Now $\quad \overline{A B}^{2}+\overline{B C}^{2}=2\left(\frac{A C}{2}\right)^{2}+2 \overline{B E}^{2}$,
(the sum of the squares on the two sides of $a \Delta$ is equivalent to twice the square on half the base increased by twice the square on the medial line to the base),

$$
\text { and } \quad \overline{C D}^{2}+\overline{D A}^{2}=2\left(\frac{A C}{2}\right)^{2}+2 \overline{D E}^{2}
$$

Adding these two equalities,

$$
\begin{align*}
{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}+\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{C D}^{2}+\overline{D A}^{2}=4\left(\frac{A C}{2}\right)^{2}+2\left(\overline{B E}^{2}+\overline{D E}^{2}\right) . \\
\text { But } \quad \overline{B E}^{2}+\overline{D E}^{2}=2\left(\frac{B D}{2}\right)^{2}+2{\overline{E F^{2}}}^{2},
\end{align*} 338 .
$$

(the sum of the squares on the two sides of $a \Delta$ is equivalent to twice the square on half the base increased by twice the square on the medial line to the base).

Substitute in the above equality for $\left(\overline{B E}^{2}+\overline{D E}^{2}\right)$ its equivalent ;
then $\overrightarrow{A B}^{2}+\overline{B C}^{2}+\overline{C D}^{2}+\overline{D A}^{2}=4\left(\frac{A C}{2}\right)^{2}+4\left(\frac{B D}{2}\right)^{2}+4 \overline{E F}^{2}$

$$
=\overline{A C}^{2}+\overline{B D}^{2}+4 \overline{E F}^{2}
$$ Q. E. D.

340. Corollary. The sum of the squares on the four sides of a parallelogram is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the diagonals.

## Proposition XIII. Theorem.

341. Two triangles having an angle of the one equal to an angle of the other are to each other as the products of the sides including the equal angles.


Let the triangles $A B C$ and $A D E$ have the common angle $A$.

We are to prove $\frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A D E}=\frac{A B \times A C}{A D \times A E}$.
Draw $B E$.

Now

$$
\frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A B E}=\frac{A C}{A E}
$$

(\$ having the same altitude are to each other as their bases).

Also

$$
\frac{\triangle A B E}{\triangle A D E}=\frac{A B}{A D},
$$

( $\$$ having the same altitude are to each other as their bases).
Multiply these equalities;
then

$$
\frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A D E}=\frac{A B \times A C}{A D \times A E}
$$

## Proposition XIV. Theorem.

342. Similar triangles are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides.


Let the two triangles be $A C B$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\frac{\triangle A C B}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A B^{2}}}{A^{\prime} \bar{B}^{\prime 2}}$.
Draw the perpendiculars $C O$ and $C^{\prime} O^{\prime}$.
Then $\frac{\triangle A C B}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A B \times C O}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime} \times C^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime \prime}} \times \frac{C O}{C^{\prime} O^{\prime}}$,
(two \& are to each other as the products of their bases by their altitudes).
But

$$
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{C O}{C^{\prime} O^{\prime}}
$$

(the homologous altitudes of similar © have the same ratio as their homolo. gous bases).
Substitute, in the above equality, for $\frac{C O}{C^{\prime} O^{\prime}}$ its equal $\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}$;

$$
\text { then } \frac{\Delta A C B}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}} \times \frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}}
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition XV. Theorem.
343. Two similar polygons are to each other as the squares on any two homologous sides.


Let the two similar polygons be $A B C$, etc., and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$, etc.
We are to prove $\frac{A B C \text {, etc. }}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text {, etc. }}=\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{A^{\prime} B^{2}}$.
From the homologous vertices $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ draw diagonals.
Now

$$
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{B C}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{C D}{C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}, \text { etc., }
$$

(similar polygons have their homologous sides proportional);
$\therefore$ by squaring, $\frac{A B^{2}}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime 2}}=\frac{\overline{B C^{2}}}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime 2}}}=\frac{\overline{C D^{2}}}{\overline{C^{\prime} D^{\prime 2}}}$, etc.
The $\triangle A B C, A C D$, etc., are respectively similar to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, $A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$, etc., (two similar polygons are composed of the same number of $\mathbb{A}$ similar to each other and similarly placed).

$$
\therefore \frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}}{A^{\prime} B^{2}},
$$

(similar are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides),
and

$$
\frac{\triangle A C D}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{C D}^{2}}{\overline{C^{\prime} D^{\prime 2}}}
$$

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\overline{C D}^{2}}{\overline{C^{\prime} D^{\prime 2}}} & =\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}}^{2}} \\
\therefore \frac{\Delta A B C}{\Delta A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}} & =\frac{\Delta A C D}{\Delta A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

In like manner we may prove that the ratio of any two of the similar $\mathbb{A}$ is the same as that of any other two.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore \frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{\triangle A C D}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{\triangle A D E}{\triangle A^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{\triangle A E F}{\triangle A^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime}}, \\
& \therefore \frac{\Delta A B C+A C D+A D E+A E F}{\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}+A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}+A^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}+A^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}},
\end{aligned}
$$

(in a series of equal ratios the sum of the antecedents is to the sum of the consequents as any antecedent is to its consequent).

But

$$
\frac{\triangle A B C}{\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A B}^{2}}{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime 2}}}
$$

(similar As are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides);

$$
\therefore \frac{\text { the polygon } A B C \text {, etc. }}{\text { the polygon } A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, \text { etc. }}=\frac{\widehat{A B^{2}}}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime 2}} .
$$

> Q. E. D.
344. Corollary 1. Similar polygons are to each other as the squares on any two homologous lines.
345. Cor. 2. The homologous sides of two similar polygrons have the same ratio as the square roots of their areas.

Let $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ represent the areas of the two similar polygons $A B C$, etc., and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, etc., respectively.

Then

$$
S: S^{\prime}::{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}:{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}}^{2}
$$

(similar polygons are to each other as the squares of their homologous sides).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\therefore & \sqrt{S}: \sqrt{S^{\prime}}:: A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime} \\
\text { or, } & A B: A^{\prime} B^{\prime}:: \sqrt{S}: \sqrt{S^{\prime}}
\end{array}
$$

## On Constructions.

## Proposition XVI. Problem.

346. To construct a square equivalent to the sum of two given squares.


Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be two given squares.
It is required to construct a square $=R+R^{\prime}$.
Construct the rt. $\angle A$.
Take $A B$ equal to a side of $R$, and $A C$ equal to a side of $R^{\prime}$.

Draw $B C$.
Then $B C$ will be a side of the square required.
For

$$
\overline{B C}^{2}=\overline{A B}^{2}+\overline{A C}^{2}
$$

(the square on the hypotenuse of a rt. $\Delta$ is equivalent to the sum of the squares on the two sides).

Construct the square $S$, having each of its sides equal to $B C$.

Substitute for $\overline{B C}^{2}, \overline{A B}^{2}$ and $\overline{A C}^{2}, S, R$, and $R^{\prime}$ respectively ;
then

$$
S=R+R^{\prime}
$$

$\therefore S$ is the square required.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XVII Problem.

347. To construct a square equivalent to the difference of two given squares.


Let $R$ be the smaller square and $R^{\prime}$ the larger.
It is required to construct a square $=R^{\prime}-R$.
Construct the rt. $\angle A$.
Take $A B$ equal to a side of $R$.
From $B$ as a centre, with a radius equal to a side of $R^{\prime}$, describe an arc cutting the line $A X$ at $C$.

Then $A C$ will be a side of the square required.
For draw $B C$.

$$
\overrightarrow{A B}^{2}+\overrightarrow{\Lambda C}^{2}=\overrightarrow{B C}^{2}
$$

(the sum of the squares on the two sides of a rt. $\triangle$ is equivalent to the square on the hypotenuse).

$$
\text { By transposing, } \overline{A C}^{2}=\overline{B C}^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}
$$

Construct the square $S$, having each of its sides equal to $A C$.
Substitute for $\overline{A C}^{2}, \overline{B C}^{2}$, and $\overline{A B}^{2}, S, R^{\prime}$, and $R$ respectively;
then

$$
S=R^{\prime}-R
$$

$\therefore S$ is the square required.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XVIII. Problem.

348. To construct a square equivalent to the sum of any number of given squares.


Let $m, n, o, p, r$ be sides of the given squares.
It is required to construct a square $=m^{2}+n^{2}+o^{2}+p^{2}+r^{2}$.
Take $A B=m$.
Draw $A C=n$ and $\perp$ to $A B$ at $A$.
Draw $B C$.
Draw $C E=o$ and $\perp$ to $B C$ at $C$, and draw $B E$.
Draw $E F=p$ and $\perp$ to $B E$ at $E$, ard draw $B F$.
Draw $F H=r$ and $\perp$ to $B F$ at $F$, and draw $B H$.
The square constructed on $B H$ is the square required.
For $\quad \overline{B H}^{2}=\overline{F H^{2}}+\overline{B F^{2}}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\overline{F H}^{2}+{\overline{E F^{2}}}^{2}+\overline{E B}^{2}, \\
& ={\overline{F H^{2}}}^{2}+{\overline{E F^{2}}}^{2}+\overline{E C}^{2}+\overline{C B}^{2}, \\
& ={\overline{F H^{2}}}^{2}+{\overline{E C^{\prime}}}^{2}, \S 331
\end{aligned}
$$

(the sum of the squares on two sides of a rt. $\triangle$ is equivalent to the square on the hypotcnuse).
Substitute for $A B, C A, E C, E F$, and $F H, m, n, o, p$, and $r$ respectively;
then $\quad \overline{B H}^{2}=m^{2}+n^{2}+o^{2}+p^{2}+r^{2}$.

Proposition XIX. Problem.
349. To construct a polygon similar to two given similar polygons and equivalent to their sum.


Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be two similar polygons, and $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ two homologous sides.
It is required to construct a similar polygon equivalent to $R+R^{\prime}$.

Construct the rt. $\angle P$.
Take $P H=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, and $P O=A B$. Draw $O H$.
Take $A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}=O H$.
Upon $A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}$, homologous to $A B$, construct the polygon $R^{\prime \prime}$ similar to $R$.

Then $R^{\prime \prime}$ is the polygon required.
For

$$
R^{\prime}: R::{\overline{A^{\prime}}{\overline{B^{\prime}}}^{2}:{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}, ~}_{\text {and }}
$$

(similar poingons are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides).

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In the first proportion, by composition,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{\prime}+R: R^{\prime} & :: \bar{A}^{\prime} \bar{B}^{2}+{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}:{\overline{A B^{\prime}}}^{2}, \quad \S 264 \\
& :: \overline{P H}^{2}+\overline{P O}^{2}:{\overline{P H^{2}}}^{2} \\
& ::{\overline{M O^{2}}}^{2}:
\end{aligned}
$$

But

$$
\begin{gathered}
R^{\prime \prime}: R^{\prime}:: \overline{A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}:{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}}^{2} \\
\\
::{\overline{H O^{2}}: \overline{P H^{2}}}^{\therefore} \\
\therefore R^{\prime \prime}: R^{\prime}:: R^{\prime}+R: R^{\prime} \\
\therefore R^{\prime \prime}=R^{\prime}+R .
\end{gathered}
$$

Q. E. F.

## Proposition XX. Problem.

350. To construct a polygon similar to two given similar polygons and equivalent to their difference.


Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be two similar polygons, and $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ two homologous sides.
It is required to construct a similar polygon which shall be equivalent to $R^{\prime}-R$.

> Construct the rt. $\angle P$, and take $P O=A B$.

From $O$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, describe an arc cutting $P X$ at $H$.

Draw $O H$.

$$
\text { Take } A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}=P H
$$

On $A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}$, homologous to $A B$, construct the polygon $R^{\prime \prime}$ similar to $R$.

Then $R^{\prime \prime}$ is the polygon required.
For

$$
R^{\prime}: R:: A^{\prime B^{\prime}}: \overline{A B}^{2}
$$

(similar polygons are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides).
Also $\quad R^{\prime \prime}: R:: \overline{A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}{ }^{2}: \bar{A}^{2}$. § 343
In the first proportion, by division,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R^{\prime}-R: R & ::{\overline{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}}^{2}-{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}:{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2} \\
& ::{\overline{O H^{2}}}^{2}-{\overline{O P^{2}}}^{2}: \overline{O P}^{2} \\
& :{\overline{P H^{2}}}^{2}:{\overline{O P^{2}}}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

But

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R^{\prime \prime}: R::{\overline{A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}}}^{2}: \overline{A B}^{2} \\
&:{\overline{P H^{2}}}^{2}:{\overline{O P^{2}}}^{2} \\
& \therefore R^{\prime \prime}: R:: R^{\prime}-R: R ; \\
& \therefore R^{\prime \prime}=R^{\prime}-R .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proposition XXI. Problem.

351. To construct a triangle equivalent to a given polygon.


Let $A B C D H E$ be the given polygon.
It is required to construct a triangle equivalent to the given polygon.

From $D$ draw $D E$, and from $H$ draw $H F \|$ to $D E$. Produce $A E$ to meet $H F$ at $F$, and draw $D F$.

The polygon $A B C D F$ has one side less than the polygon $A B C D H E$, but the two are equivalent.

For the part $A B C D E$ is common,
and the $\triangle D E F=\triangle D E H$, for the base $D E$ is common, and their vertices $F$ and $H$ are in the line $F H \|$ to the base, § 325 ( $\$$ having the same base and equal altitudes are equivalent).
Again, draw $C F$, and draw $D K \|$ to $C F^{\prime}$ to meet $A F$ produced at $K$.

## Draw $C K$.

The polygon $A B C K$ has one side less than the polygon $A B C D \bar{F}$, but the two are equivalent.

For the part $A B C F$ is common,
and the $\triangle C F K=\triangle C F D$, for the base $C F$ is common, and their vertices $K$ and $D$ are in the line $K D \|$ to the base. § 325

In like manner we may continue to reduce the number of sides of the polygon until we obtain the $\triangle C I K$.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXII. Problem.

352. To construct a square which shall have a given ratio to a given square.


Let $R$ be the given square, and $\frac{n}{m}$ the given ratio.
It is required to construct a square which shall be to $R$ as $n$ is to $m$.

On a straight line take $A B=m$, and $B C=n$.
On $A C$ as a diameter, describe a semicircle.
At $B$ erect the $\perp B S$, and draw $S A$ and $S C$.
Then the $\triangle A S C$ is a rt. $\triangle$ with the rt. $\angle$ at $S, \S 204$ (being inscribed in a semicircle.)
On $S A$, or $S A$ produced, take $S E$ equal to a side of $R$.

$$
\text { Draw } E F \| \text { to } A C \text {. }
$$

Then $S F$ is a side of the square required.
For

$$
\frac{\overline{S A}^{2}}{\overline{S C}^{2}}=\frac{A B}{B C}
$$

(the squares on the sides of a rt. $\triangle$ have the same ratio as the segments of the hypotenuse made by the $\perp$ let fall from the vertex of the $r$ r. 4 ).
Also

$$
\frac{S A}{S C}=\frac{S E}{S F},
$$

(a straight line drawn through two sides of $a \Delta$, parallel to the third side, divides those sides proportionally).
Square the last equality ;
then

$$
\frac{S^{2}}{\overline{S C}^{2}}=\frac{\overline{S E}^{2}}{\overline{S F}^{2}}
$$

Substitute, in the first equality, for $\frac{S^{2}}{\overline{S C}^{2}}$ its equal $\frac{S E^{2}}{\overline{S E}^{2}}$;
then

$$
\frac{S^{2}}{\overline{S F}^{2}}=\frac{A B}{B C}=\frac{m}{n}
$$

that is, the square having a side equal to $S F$ will have the same ratio to the square $R$, as $n$ has to $m$.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXIII. Problem.

353. To construct a polygon similar to a given polygon and having a given ratio to it.


Let $R$ be the given polygon and $\frac{n}{m}$ the given ratio.
It is required to construct a polygon similar to $R$, which shall be to $R$ as $n$ is to $m$.

Find a line, $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, such that the square constructed upon it shall be to the square constructed upon $A B$ as $n$ is to $m$. § 352

Upon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ as a side homologous to $A B$, construct the polygon $S$ similar to $R$.

$$
\text { Then } S \text { is the polygon required. }
$$

For

$$
\frac{S}{R}=\frac{A^{T B^{2}}}{\overline{A B}^{2}},
$$

(similar polygons are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { But } \\
& \frac{A^{T} \bar{B}^{2}}{A B^{2}}=\frac{n}{m} ; \\
& \therefore \frac{S}{R}=\frac{n}{m} \text {, or, } S: R:: n: m \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Cons.
Q. E. F

## Proposition XXIV. Problem.

354. To construct a square equivalent to a given parallelogram.


Let $A B C D$ be a parallelogram, $b$ its base, and a its altitude.

It is required to construct a square $=\square A B C D$.
Upon the line $M X$ take $M N=a$, and $N O=b$.
Upon $M O$ as a diameter, describe a semicircle.

$$
\text { At } N \text { erect } N P \perp \text { to } M O
$$

Then the square $R$, constructed upon a line equal to $N P$, is equivalent to the $\square A B C D$.

For

$$
M N: N P:: N P: N 0
$$

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( $a \perp$ let fall from any point of a circumference to the diameter is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter).

$$
\therefore \overline{N P}^{2}=M N \times N O=a \times b
$$

(the product of the means is equal to the product of the extremes).

> Q. E. F.
355. Corollary 1. A square may be constructed equivalent to a triangle, by taking for its side a mean proportional between the base and one-half the altitude of the triangle.
356. Cor. 2. A square may be constructed equivalent to any polygon, by first reducing the polygon to an equivalent triangle, and then constructing a square equivalent to the triangle.

## Proposition XXV. Problem.

357. To construct a parallelogram equivalent to a given square, and having the sum of its base and altitude equal to a given line.


Let $R$ be the given square, and let the sum of the base and altitude of the required parallelogram be equal to the given line $M N$.
It is required to construct a $\square=R$, and having the sum of its base and altitude $=M N$.

Upon $M N$ as a diameter, describe a semicircle.
At $M$ erect a $\perp M P$, equal to a side of the given square $R$.
Draw $P Q \|$ to $M N$, cutting the circumference at $S$.

$$
\text { Draw } S C \perp \text { to } M N
$$

Any $\square$ having $C M$ for its altitude and $C N$ for its base, is equivalent to $R$.

| For | $S C$ is $\\|$ to $P M$, | $\S 65$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (two straight lines $\perp$ to the same straight line are II). |  |  |
| $\therefore S C=P M$, | $\S 135$ |  |
| (\\|s comprehended between \|s are equal). |  |  |

$$
\therefore \overline{S C}^{2}=\overline{P M}^{2}=R .
$$

But $\quad M C: S C:: S C: C N$,
( $a \perp$ let fall from any point in a circumference to the diameter is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter).

[^2]
## Proposition XXVI. Problem.

359. To construct a parallelogram equivalent to a given square, and having the difference of its base and altitude equal to a given line.


Let $R$ be the given square, and let the difference of the base and altitude of the required parallelogram be equal to the given line $M N$.

It is required to construct $a \square=h$, with the difference of the base and altitude $=M N$.

Upon the given line $M N$ as a diameter, describe a circle.
From $M$ draw $M S$, tangent to the $\odot$, and equal to a side of the given square $R$.

Through the centre of the $\odot$, draw $S B$ intersecting the circumference at $C$ and $B$.

Then any $\square$, as $R^{\prime}$, having $S B$ for its base and $S C$ for its altitude, is equivalent to $R$.

For

$$
S B: S M:: S M: S C
$$

(if from a point without a $\odot$, a secant and a tangent be drawn, the tangent is a mean proportional between the whole secant and the part without the $\odot$ ).

Then

$$
S M^{2}=S B \times S C ;
$$

and the difference between $S B$ and $S C$ is the diameter of the $\odot$, that is, $M N$.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XXVII. Problem.

360. Given $x=\sqrt{2}$, to construct $x$.

$m$
Let $m$ represent the unit of length.
It is required to find a line which shall represent the square root of 2 .

On the indefinite line $A B$, take $A C=m$, and $C D=2 m$.
On $A D$ as a diameter describe a semi-circumference.
At $C$ erect a $\perp$ to $A B$, intersecting the circumference at $E$.
Then $C E$ is the line required.

For

$$
A C: C E:: C E: C D,
$$

(the $\perp$ let fall from any point in the circumference to the diameter, is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter);

$$
\begin{align*}
& \therefore C E^{2}=A C \times C D, \\
& \therefore C E=\sqrt{A C \times C D}, \\
& =\sqrt{1 \times 2}=\sqrt{2} .
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. F.

Ex. 1. Given $x=\sqrt{5}, y=\sqrt{7}, z=2 \sqrt{3}$; to construct $x, y$, and $z$.
2. Given $2: x:: x: 3$; to construct $x$.
3. Construct a square equivalent to a given hexagon.

## Proposition XXVIII. Problem.

361. To construct a polygon similar to a given polygon $P$, and equivalent to a given polygon $Q$.


Let $P$ and $Q$ be two given polygons, and $A B$ a side of polygon $P$.

It is required to construct a polygon similar to $P$ and equivalent to $Q$.

Find a square equivalent to $P$,
and let $m$ be equal to one of its sides.
Find a square equivalent to $Q$,
and let $n$ be equal to one of its sides.
Find a fourth proportional to $m, n$, and $A B$.
Let this fourth proportional be $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
Upon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, homologous to $A B$, construct the polygon $P^{\prime}$ similar to the given polygon $P$.

Then $P^{\prime}$ is the polygon required.

| For | $\frac{m}{n}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}} .$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Squaring, | $\frac{m^{2}}{n^{2}}=\frac{\overrightarrow{A B^{2}}}{\overrightarrow{A^{\prime} B^{2}}} .$ |
| But | $P=m^{2}$, |
| and | $Q=n^{2} ;$ |
|  | $\therefore \frac{P}{Q}=\frac{m^{2}}{n^{2}}=\frac{\overline{A B^{2}}}{A^{\prime} B^{2}} .$ |
| But | $\frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{\overrightarrow{A B^{2}}}{A^{\prime} B^{2}},$ |

Cons.
Cons.
(similar polygons are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides);

$$
\begin{equation*}
\therefore \frac{P}{Q}=\frac{P}{P^{\prime}} \tag{Ax. 1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$\therefore P^{\prime}$ is equivalent to $Q$, and is similar to $P$ by construction.
Q. E. F.

Ex. 1. Construct a square equivalent to the sum of three given squares whose sides are respectively 2,3 , and 5 .
2. Construct a square equivalent to the difference of two given squares whose sides are respectively 7 and 3 .
3. Construct a square equivalent to the sum of a given triangle and a given parallelogram.
4. Construct a rectangle having the difference of its base and altitude equal to a given line, and its area equivalent to the sum of a given triangle and a given pentagon.
5. Given a hexagon ; to construct a similar hexagon whose area shall be to that of the given hexagon as 3 to 2 .
6. Construct a pentagon similar to a given pentagon and equivalent to a given trapezoid.

## Proposition XXIX. Problem.

362. To construct a polygon similar to a given polygon, and having two and a half times its area.


Let $P$ be the given polygon.
It is required to construct a polygon similar to $P$, and equivalent to $2 \frac{1}{2} P$.

Let $A B$ be a side of the given polygon $P$.
Then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sqrt{1}: \sqrt{2 \frac{1}{2}}:: A B: x \\
& \sqrt{2}: \sqrt{5}:: A B: x
\end{align*}
$$

(the homologous sides of similar polygons are to each other as the square roots of their areas).
Take any convenient unit of length, as $M C$, and apply it six times to the indefinite line $M N$.

On $M O(=3 M C)$ describe a semi-circumference ;
and on $M N(=6 M C)$ describe a semi-circumference.
At $C^{\prime}$ erect a $\perp$ to $M N$, intersecting the semi-circumferences at $D$ and $H$.

Then $C D$ is the $\sqrt{2}$, and $C H$ is the $\sqrt{5}$.
Draw $C Y$, making any convenient $\angle$ with $C H$.

$$
\text { On } C Y \text { take } C E=A B
$$

From $D$ draw $D E$, and from $H$ draw $H Y \|$ to $D E$.

Then $C Y$ will equal $x$, and be a side of the polygon required, homologous to $A B$.

For $\quad C D: C I I: C E: C Y$,
§ 275 (a line drawn through two sides of $a \Delta$, $\|$ to the third side, divides the two sides proportionally).

Substitute their equivalents for $C D, C I I$, and $C E$;
then

$$
\sqrt{2}: \sqrt{5}:: A B: C Y
$$

On $C Y$, homologous to $A B$, construct a polygon similar to the given polygon $P$;
and this is the polygon required.
Q. E. F.

Ex. 1. The perpendicular distance between two parallels is 30 , and a line is drawn across them at an angle of $45^{\circ}$; what is its length between the parallels?
2. Given an equilateral triangle each of whose sides is 20 ; find the altitude of the triangle, and its area.
3. Given the angle $A$ of a triangle equal to $\frac{2}{3}$ of a right angle, the angle $B$ equal to $\frac{1}{3}$ of a right angle, and the side $a$, opposite the angle $A$, equal to 10 ; construct the triangle.
4. The two segments of a chord intersected by another chord are 6 and 5 , and one segment of the other chord is 3 ; what is the other segment of the latter chord?
5. If a circle be inscribed in a right triangle: show that the difference between the sum of the two sides containing the right angle and the hypotenuse is equal to the diameter of the circle.
6. Construct a parallelogram the area and perimeter of which shall be respectively equal to the area and perimeter of a given triangle.
7. Given the difference between the diagonal and side of a square ; construct the square.

## BOOK V.

## REGULAR POLYGONS AND CIRCLES.

363. Def. A Regular Polygon is a polygon which is equilateral and equiangular.

## Proposition I. Theorem.

364. Every equilateral polygon inscribed in a circle is a regular polygon.


Let $A B C$, etc., be an equilateral polygon inscribed in a circle.

We are to prove the polygon $A B C$, etc., regular.
The $\operatorname{arcs} A B, B C, C D$, etc., are equal,
(in the same $\odot$, equal chords subtend equal arcs).
$\therefore$ arcs $A B C, B C D$, etc., are equal,
Ax. 6
$\therefore$ the $\angle s A, B, C$, etc., are equal, (being inscribed in equal segments).
$\therefore$ the polygon $A B C$, etc., is a regular polygon, being equilateral and equiangular.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

365. I. A circle may be circumscribed about a regular polygon.
II. A circle may be inscribed in a regular polygon.


## Let $A B C D$, etc., be a regular polygon.

We are to prove that $a \odot$ may be circumscribed about this regular polygon, and also $a \odot$ may be inscribed in this regular polygon.
Case I. - Describe a circumference passing through $A, B$, and $C$.
From the centre $O$, draw $O A, O D$, and draw $O s \perp$ to chord $B C$.
On $O s$ as an axis revolve the quadrilateral $O A B s$, until it comes into the plane of $O s C D$.

The line $s B$ will fall upon $s C$, (for $\angle O$ s $B=\angle O s C$, both being rt. $\angle \mathrm{E}$ ).

The point $B$ will fall upon $C$,
(since $s B=s C$ ).
The line $B A$ will fall upon $C D$,
(since $\angle B=\angle C$, being $\triangle$ of a regular polygon).
The point $A$ will fall upon $D$,
$\therefore$ the line $O A$ will coincide with line $O D$,
(their extremities being the same points).
$\therefore$ the circumference will pass through $D$.
In like manner we may prove that the circumference, passing through vertices $B, C$, and $D$ will also pass through the vertex $E$, and thus through all the vertices of the polygon in succession.
Case II. - The sides of the regular polygon, being equal chords of the circumscribed $\odot$, are equally distant from the centre, § 185
$\therefore$ a circle described with the centre $O$ and a radius $O s$ will touch all the sides, and be inscribed in the polygon. § 174
366. Def. The Centre of a regular polygon is the common centre $O$ of the circumscribed and inscribed circles.
367. Def. The Radius of a regular polygon is the radius $0 A$ of the circumscribed circle.
368. Def. The Apothem of a regular polygon is the radius $O s$ of the inscribed circle.
369. Def. The Angle at the centre is the angle included by the radii drawn to the extremities of any side.

## Proposition III. Theorem.

370. Each angle at the centre of a regular polygon is equal to four right angles divided by the number of sides of the polygon.


Let $-A B C$, etc., be a regular polygon of $n$ sides.
We are to prove $\angle A O B=\frac{4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}}{n}$.
Circumscribe a $\odot$ about the polygon.
The $\angle A O B, B O C$, etc., are equal, $\S 180$ (in the same $\odot$ equal arcs subtend equal $\stackrel{\&}{ }$ at the centre).
$\therefore$ the $\angle A O B=4 \mathrm{rt}$. $\angle s$ divided by the number of $\angle s$ about $O$.
But the number of $\measuredangle s$ about $O=n$, the number of sides of the polygon.

$$
\therefore \angle A O B=\frac{4 \mathrm{rt.} \triangle \mathrm{~s}}{n} \text {. }
$$

Q. E. D.
371. Corollary. The radius drawn to any vertex of a regular polygon bisects the angle at that vertex.

## Proposition IV. Theorem.

372. Two regular polygons of the same number of sides are similar.


Let $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ be two regular polygons, each having. $n$ sides.

We are to prove $\quad Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ similar polygons.
The sum of the interior $\angle s$ of each polygon is equal to 2 rt. $\angle S(n-2)$, § 157
(the sum of the interior $\subseteq$ of a polygon is cqual to 2 rt. © taken as many times less 2 as the polygon has sides).
Each $\angle$ of the polygon $Q=\frac{2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle(n-2)}{n}$,
(for the $₫$ of a regular polygon are all equal, and hence each $\angle$ is equal to the sum of the $₫$ divided by their number).

$$
\text { Also, each } \angle \text { of } Q^{\prime}=\frac{2 \mathrm{rt.} \text { 合 }(n-2)}{n} .
$$

$\therefore$ the two polygons $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ are mutually equiangular.
Moreover,

$$
\frac{A B}{B C}=1,
$$

(the sides of a regular polygon are all equal);
and

$$
\begin{gather*}
\frac{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=1, \\
\therefore \frac{A B}{B C}=\frac{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}
\end{gather*}
$$

Ax. 1
$\therefore$ the two polygons have their homologous sides proportional ; $\therefore$ the two polygons are similar.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

373. The homologous sides of similar regular polygons. have the same ratio as the radii of their circumscribed circles, and, also as the radii of their inscribed circles.


Let $O$ and $O^{\prime}$ be the centres of the two similar regular polygons $A B C$, etc., and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, etc.
From $O$ and $O^{\prime}$ draw $O E, O D, O^{\prime} E^{\prime}, O^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, also the s $O m$ and $O^{\prime} m^{\prime}$.
$O E$ and $O^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ are radii of the circumscribed ©(), §367 and $O m$ and $O^{\prime} m^{\prime}$ are radii of the inscribed ©. $-\S 368$
We are to prove $\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{O E}{O^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{O m}{O^{\prime} m^{\prime}}$.
In the $\subseteq O E D$ and $O^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$
the $\measuredangle O E D, O D E, O^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ and $O^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ are equal, $\S 371$ (being halves of the equal ® $F E D, E D C, F^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime} D^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ );
$\therefore$ the $\triangle O E D$ and $O^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ are similar, $§ 280$
(if two \& have two $₫$ of the one equal respectively to two $₫$ of the other, they are similar).

$$
\therefore \frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{O E}{O^{\prime} E^{\prime}},
$$

(the homologous sides of similar © are proportional).
Also,

$$
\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{O m}{O^{\prime} m^{\prime}}
$$

(the homologous altitudes of similar \& have the same ratio as their homologous bases).
Q. E. D.

Proposition VI. Theorem.
374. The perimeters of similar regular polygons have the same ratio as the radii of their circumscribed circles, and, also as the radii of their inscribed circles.


Let $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ represent the perimeters of the two similar regular polygons $A B C$, etc., and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, etc. From centres $O, O^{\prime}$ draw $O E, O^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, and $\perp \mathrm{s} O m$ and $O^{\prime} m^{\prime}$.

We are to prove

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{O E}{O^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{O m}{O^{\prime} m^{\prime}} \\
& \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}}
\end{align*}
$$

(the perimeters of similar polygons have the same ratio as any two homologous sides).

Moreover,

$$
\frac{O E}{O^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}},
$$

(the homologous sides of similar regular polygons have the same ratio as the radii of their circumscribed (©).

Also

$$
\frac{O m}{O^{\prime} m^{\prime}}=\frac{E D}{E^{\prime} D^{\prime}}
$$

(the homologous sides of similar regular polygons have the same ratio as the radii of their inscribed ©).

$$
\therefore \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{O E}{O^{\prime} E^{\prime}}=\frac{O m}{O^{\prime} m^{\prime}} .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

375. The circumferences of circles have the same ratio as their radii.


Let $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ be the circumferences, $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ the radii of the two circles $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $C: C^{\prime}:: R: R^{\prime}$.
Inscribe in the (5) two regular polygons of the same number of sides.

Conceive the number of the sides of these similar regular polygons to be indefinitely increased, the polygons continuing to be inscribed, and to have the same number of sides.

Then the perimeters will continue to have the same ratio as the radii of their circumscribed circles, of their circumscribed (®)),
and will approach indefinitely to the circumferences as their limits.
$\therefore$ the circumferences will have the same ratio as the radii of their circles, § 199

$$
\therefore C: C^{\prime}:: R: R^{\prime}
$$

Q. E. D
376. Corollary. By multiplying by 2, both terms of the ratio $R: R^{\prime}$, we have

$$
C: C^{\prime}:: 2 R: 2 R^{\prime}
$$

that is, the circumferences of circles are to each other as their diameters.

Since

$$
\begin{gathered}
C: C^{\prime}:: 2 R: 2 R^{\prime} \\
C: 2 R:: C^{\prime}: 2 R^{\prime} \\
\frac{C}{2 R}=\frac{C^{\prime \prime}}{2 R^{\prime}}
\end{gathered}
$$

That is, the ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter is a constant quantity.

This constant quantity is denoted by the Greek letter $\pi$.
377. Sciolium. The ratio $\pi$ is incommensurable, and therefore can be expressed only approximately in figures. The letter $\pi$, however, is used to represent its exact value.

Ex. 1. Show that two triangles which have an angle of the one equal to the supplement of the angle of the other are to each other as the products of the sides including the supplementary angles.
2. Show, geometrically, that the square described upon the sum of two straight lines is equivalent to the sum of the squares described upon the two lines plus twice their rectangle.
3. Show, geometrically, that the square described upon the difference of two straight lines is equivalent to the sum of the squares described upon the two lines minus twice their rectangle.
4. Show, geometrically, that the rectangle of the sum and difference of two straight lines is equivalent to the difference of the squares on those lines.

## Proposition VIII. Theorem.

378. If the number of sides of a regular inscribed polygon be increased indefinitely, the apothem will be an increasing variable whose limit is the radius of the circle.


In the right triangle $O C A$, let $O A$ be denoted by $R$, $O C$ by $r$, and $A C$ by $b$.

We are to prove $\quad \lim .(r)=R$.

$$
r<R
$$

( $\alpha \perp$ is the shortest distance from a point to a straight line).
And

$$
R-r<b
$$

(one side of $a \Delta$ is greater than the difference of the other two sides).
By increasing the number of sides of the polygon indefinitely, $A B$, that is, $2 b$, can be made less than any assigned quantity.
$\therefore b$, the half of $2 b$, can be made less than any assigned quantity.
$\therefore R-r$, which is less than $b$, can be made less than any assigned quantity.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \therefore \lim .(R-r)=0 . \\
& \therefore R-\lim .(r)=0 . \\
& \therefore \lim .(r)=R .
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition IX. Theorem.

379. The area of a regular polygon is equal to one-half the product of its apothem by its perimeter.


Let $P$ represent the perimeter and $R$ the apothem of the regular polygon $A B C$, etc.

We are to prove the area of $A B C$, etc., $=\frac{1}{2} R \times P$.
Draw $O A, O B, O C$, etc.
The polygon is divided into as many $\triangle$ as it has sides.
The apothem is the common altitude of these $\Delta$, and the area of each $\Delta$ is equal to $\frac{1}{2} R$ multiplied by the base. § 324
$\therefore$ the area of all the $\Delta$ is equal to $\frac{1}{2} R$ multiplied by the sum of all the bases.

But the sum of the areas of all the $\mathbb{S}$ is equal to the area of the polygon,
and the sum of all the bases of the $\triangle$ is equal to the perimeter of the polygon.
$\therefore$ the area of the polygon $=\frac{1}{2} R \times P$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition X. Theorem.

380. The area of a circle is equal to one-half the product of its radius by its circumference.


Let $R$ represent the radius, and $C$ the circumference of a circle.

We are to prove the area of the circle $=\frac{1}{2} R \times C$.
Inscribe any regular polygon, and denote its perimeter by $P$, and its apothem by $r$.

Then the area of this polygon $=\frac{1}{2} r \times P$,
§ 379
(the area of a regular polygon is equal to one-half the product of its apothem by the perimeter).
Conceive the number of sides of this polygon to be indefinitely increased, the polygon still continuing to be regular and inscribed.

Then the perimeter of the polygon approaches the circumference of the circle as its limit,
the apothem, the radius as its limit, § 378
and the area of the polygon approaches the $\odot$ as its limit.
But the area of the polygon continues to be equal to onehalf the product of the apothem by the perimeter, however great the number of sides of the polygon.

$$
\therefore \text { the area of the } \odot=\frac{1}{2} R \times C .
$$

Q. E. D.
381. Corollary 1. Since $\frac{C}{2 R}=\pi$,

$$
\therefore C=2 \pi R .
$$

In the equality, the area of the $\odot=\frac{1}{2} R \times C$, substitute $2 \pi R$ for $C$; then the area of the $\odot=\frac{1}{2} R \times 2 \pi R$, $=\pi R^{2}$.
That is, the area of $a \odot=\pi$ times the square on its radius.
382. Cor. 2. The area of a sector equals $\frac{1}{2}$ the product of its radius by its arc; for the sector is such part of the circle as its are is of the circumference.
383. Def. In different circles similar arcs, similar sectors, and similar segments, are such as correspond to equal angles at the centre.

## Proposition XI. Theorem.

384. Two circles are to each other as the squares on their radii.


Let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be the radii of the two circles $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\frac{Q}{Q^{\prime}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}$.
Now

$$
Q=\pi R^{2}
$$

(the area of $a \odot=\pi$ times the square on its radius),
and

$$
Q^{\prime}=\pi R^{\prime 2}
$$

Then

$$
\frac{Q}{Q^{\prime}}=\frac{\pi R^{2}}{\pi R^{\prime 2}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}
$$

Q. E. D.
385. Corollary. Similar arcs, being like parts of their respective circumferences, are to each other as their radii; similar sectors, being like parts of their respective circles, are to each other as the squares on their radii.

## Proposition XII. Theorem.

386. Similar segments are to each other as the squares on their radii.


Let $A C$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be the radii of the two similar segments $A B P$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\frac{A B P}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A C}^{2}}{{\overline{A^{\prime} C^{2}}}^{2}}$.
The sectors $A C B$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are similar, (having the $\mathbb{S}^{\circ}$ at the centre, $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$, equal).
In the $\triangle A C B$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}$

$$
\angle C=\angle C^{\prime}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
A C & =C B \\
A^{\prime} C^{\prime} & =C^{\prime} B^{\prime}
\end{align*}
$$

$\therefore$ the $\triangle A C B$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime}$ are similar,
§ 284 (having an $\angle$ of the one equal to an $\angle$ of the other, and the including sides proportional).

Now

$$
\frac{\text { sector } A C B}{\text { sector } A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A C^{2}}}{\overline{A^{\prime} C^{\prime 2}}}
$$

(similar sectors are to each other as the squares on their radii);

$$
\text { and } \quad \frac{\triangle A C B}{\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{{\overline{A C^{2}}}^{2}}{{\bar{A} C^{\prime}}^{\prime}}
$$

(similar are to each other as the squares on their homologous sides).

$$
\text { Hence } \frac{\text { sector } A C B-\triangle A C B}{\text { sector } A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}-\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{{\overline{A C^{2}}}^{2}}{\overline{A^{\prime} C^{\prime^{2}}}}
$$

$$
\text { or, } \quad \frac{\text { segment } A B P}{\text { segment } A^{\prime} B^{\prime} P^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{A C^{2}}}{{\overline{A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}}^{2}} \text {, }
$$

(if two quantities be increased or diminished by like parts of each, the results will be in the same ratio as the quantities themselves).
Q. E. D.

## Exercises.

1. Show that an equilateral polygon circumscribed about a circle is regular if the number of its sides be odd.
2. Show that an equiangular polygon inscribed in a circle is regular if the number of its sides be odd.
3. Show that any equiangular polygon circumscribed about a circle is regular.
4. Show that the side of a circumscribed equilateral triangle is double the side of an inscribed equilateral triangle.
5. Show that the area of a regular inscribed hexagon is three-fourths of that of the regular circumscribed hexagon.
6. Show that the area of a regular inscribed hexagon is a mean proportional between the areas of the inscribed and circumseribed equilateral triangles.
7. Show that the area of a regular inscribed octagon is equal to that of a rectangle whose adjacent sides are equal to the sides of the inscribed and circumscribed squares.
8. Show that the area of a regular inscribed dodecagon is equal to three times the square on the radius.
9. Given the diameter of a circle 50 ; find the area of the circle. Also, find the area of a sector of $80^{\circ}$ of this circle.
10. Three equal circles touch each other externally and thus inclose one acre of ground; find the radius in rods of each of these circles.
11. Show that in two circles of different radii, angles at the centres subtended by arcs of equal length are to each other inversely as the radii.
12. Show that the square on the side of a regular inscribed pentagon, minus the square on the side of a regular inscribed decagon, is equal to the square on the radius.

## On Constructions.

Proposition XIII. Problem.
387. To inscribe a regular polygon of any number of sides in a given circle.


Let $Q$ be the given circle, and $n$ the number of sides of the polygon.

It is required to inscribe in $Q$, a regular polygon having $n$ sides.

Divide the circumference of the $\odot$ iuto $n$ equal arcs.
Join the extremities of these arcs.
Then we have the polygon required.
For the polygon is equilateral,
(in the same $\odot$ equal arcs are subtended by equal chords); and the polygon is also regular, (an equilateral polygon inscribed in $a \odot$ is regular).
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XIV. Problem.

388. To inscribe in a given circle a regular polygon which has double the number of sides of a given inscribed regular polygon.


Let $A B C D$ be the given inscribed polygon.
It is required to inscribe a regular polygon having double the number of sides of $A B C D$.

Bisect the $\operatorname{arcs} A B, B C$, etc. Draw $A E, E B, B F$, etc.,

The polygon $A E B F C$, etc., is the polygon required.
For the chords $A B, B C$, etc., are equal, § 363 (being sides of a regular polygon).
$\therefore$ the arcs $A B, B C$, etc., are equal,
§ 182 (in the same $\odot$ equal chords subtend equal arcs).

Hence the halves of these arcs are equal,
or, $\quad A E, E B, B F, F C$, etc., are equal ;
$\therefore$ the polygon $A E B F$, etc., is equilateral.

> The polygon is also regular, (an equilateral polygon inscribed in a $\odot$ is regular);
and has double the number of sides of the given regular polyson.
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XV. Problem.

389. To inscribe a square in a given circle.


Let $O$ be the centre of the given circle.
It is required to inscribe a square in the circle.
Draw the two diameters $A C$ and $B D \perp$ to each other.
Join $A B, B C, C D$, and $D A$.
Then $A B C D$ is the square required.
For, the $\measuredangle s A B C, B C D$, etc., are rt. $\measuredangle s, \quad \S 204$
(being inscribed in a semicircle),
and the sides $A B, B C$, etc., are equal, § 181 (in the same $\odot$ equal arcs are subtended by equal chords);
$\therefore$ the figure $A B C D$ is a square, § 127 (having its sides equal and its $\mathbb{\&} \mathrm{rt}$. $\boxed{\boxed{*}}$ ).
Q. E. F.
390. Corollary. By bisecting the arcs $A B, B C$, etc., a regular polygon of 8 sides may be inscribed ; and, by continuing the process, regular polygons of $16,32,64$, etc., sides may be inscribed.

## Proposition XVI. Problem.

391. To inscribe in a given circle a regular hexagon.


Let $O$ be the centre of the given circle.
It is required to inscribe in the given $\odot$ a regular hexagon.
From $O$ draw any radius, as $O C$.
From $C$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $O C$, describe an arc intersecting the circumference at $F$. Draw $O F$ and $C F$.
Then $C F$ is a side of the regular hexagon required.
For the $\triangle O F C$ is equilateral, and equiangular, Cons. § 112
$\therefore$ the $\angle F O C$ is $\frac{1}{3}$ of $2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \Delta$, or, $\frac{1}{6}$ of 4 rt . $\angle \mathrm{s}$.
$\therefore$ the arc $F C$ is $\frac{1}{6}$ of the circumference $A B C F$,
$\therefore$ the chord $F C$, which subtends the arc $F C$, is a side of a regular hexagon ;
and the figure $C F D$, etc., formed by applying the radius six times as a chord, is the hexagon required.
Q. E. F.
392. Corollary 1. By joining the alternate vertices $A, C$, $D$, an equilateral $\Delta$ is inscribed in a circle.
393. Cor. 2. By bisecting the $\operatorname{arcs} A B, B C$, etc., a regular polygon of 12 sides may be inscribed in a circle; and, by continuing the process, regular polygons of 24,48 , etc., sides may be inscribed.

## Proposition XVII. Problem.

394. To inscribe in a given circle a regular decagon.


Let $O$ be the centre of the given circle.
It is required to inscribe in the given $\odot$ a regular decagon.
Draw the radius $O C$,
and divide it in extreme and mean ratio, so that $O C$ shall be to $O S$ as $O S$ is to $S C$.

From $C$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $O S$,
describe an arc intersecting the circumference at $B$.
Draw $B C, B S$, and $B O$.
Then $B C$ is a side of the regular decagon required.

For

$$
\begin{gathered}
O C: O S:: O S: S C \\
B C=O S \\
\text { Substitute for } O S \text { its equal } B C,
\end{gathered}
$$

Cons.
and $\quad B C=O S$.
. Cons.
then

$$
O C: B C:: B C: S C
$$

Moreover the $\angle O C B=\angle S C B$, Iden.
$\therefore$ the $\triangle O C B$ and $B C S$ are similar, § 284 (having an $\angle$ of the one equal to an $\angle$ of the other, and the including sides proportional).

But the $\triangle O C B$ is isosceles,
§ 160 (its sides $O C$ and $O B$ being radii of the same circle).
$\therefore$ the $\triangle B C S$, which is similar to the $\triangle O C B$, is isosceles,
and $B S=B C$. § 114

But

$$
O S=B C
$$

Cons.

$$
\therefore O S=B S
$$

Ax. 1
$\therefore$ the $\triangle S O B$ is isosceles,
and the $\angle O=\angle S B O$, (being opposite equal sides).

$$
\text { But thė } \angle C S B=\angle O+\angle S B O
$$

(the exterior $\angle$ of $a \triangle$ is equal to the sum of the two opposite interior $\$$ ).

$$
\begin{gather*}
\therefore \text { the } \angle C S B=2 \angle 0 \\
\angle S C B(=\angle C S B)=2 \angle 0, \\
\text { and } \quad \angle O B C(=\angle S C B)=2 \angle 0 \\
\therefore \text { the sum of the } \angle S \text { of the } \triangle O C B=5 \angle 0 . \\
\therefore 5 \angle O=2 \mathrm{rt.} \text {. }
\end{gather*}
$$

and $\quad \angle O=\frac{1}{5}$ of $2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle S$, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of $4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle S$.
$\therefore$ the arc $B C$ is $\frac{1}{10}$ of the circumference, and
$\therefore$ the chord $B C$ is a side of a regular inscribed decagon.
Hence, to inscribe a regular decagon, divide the radius in extreme and mean ratio, and apply the greater segment ten times as a chord.
Q.E. F.
395. Corollary 1. By joining the alternate vertices of a regular inscribed decagon, a regular pentagon may be inscribed.
396. Cor. 2. By bisecting the arcs $B C, C F$, etc., a regular polygon of 20 sides may be inscribed, and, by continuing the process, regular polygons of 40,80 , etc., sides may be inscribed.

## Proposition XVIII. Problem.

397. To inscribe in a given circle a regular pentedecagon, or polygon of fifteen sides.


Let $Q$ be the given circle.
It is required to inscribe in $Q$ a regular pentedecagon.
Draw $E H$ equal to a side of a regular inscribed hexagon, § 391 and $E F$ equal to a side of a regular inscribed decagon. §394 Join $F H$.

Then $F H$ will be a side of a regular inscribed pentedecagon.
For the arc $E H$ is $\frac{1}{6}$ of the circumference, and the arc $E F$ is $\frac{1}{10}$ of the circumference;
$\therefore$ the arc $F H$ is $\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{10}$, or $\frac{1}{15}$, of the circumference.
$\therefore$ the chord $F^{\prime} H$ is a side of a regular inscribed pentedecagon,
and by applying $F H$ fifteen times as a chord, we have the polygon required.
Q. E. F.
398. Corollary. By bisecting the arcs $F H, H A$, etc., a regular polygon of 30 sides may be inscribed; and by continuing the process, regular polygons of 60,120 , etc. sides may be inscribed.

## Proposition XIX. Problem.

399. To inscribe in a given circle a regular polygon similar to a given regular polygon.


Let $A B C D$, etc., be the given regular polygon, and $C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ the given circle.

It is required to inscribe in $C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ a regular polygon similar to $A B C D$, etc.

From $O$, the centre of the polygon $A B C D$, etc. draw $O D$ and $O C$.

From $O^{\prime}$ the centre of the $\odot C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E$,

$$
\text { draw } O^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text { and } O^{\prime} D^{\prime}
$$

$$
\text { making the } \angle O^{\prime}=\angle O
$$

$$
\text { Draw } C^{\prime} D^{\prime}
$$

Then $C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ will be a side of the regular polygon required.
For each polygon will have as many sides as the $\angle 0$ $\left(=\angle O^{\prime}\right)$ is contained times in 4 rt . $\llcorner$.
$\therefore$ the polygon $C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, etc. is similar to the polygon $C D E$, etc.,
(two regular polygons of the same number of sides are similar).
Q. E. F.

## Proposition XX. Problem.

400. To circumscribe about a circle a regular polygon similar to a given inscribed regular polygon.


Let $H M R S$, etc., be a given inscribed regular polygon.
It is required to circumscribe a regular polygon similar to $H M R S$, etc.

At the vertices $H, M, R$, etc., draw tangents to the $\odot$, intersecting each other at $A, B, C$, etc.

Then the polygon $A B C D$, etc. will be the regular polygon required.

Since the polygon $A B C D$, etc.
has the same number of sides as the polygon $H M R S$, etc.,
-it is only necessary to prove that $A B C D$, etc. is a regular polygon.

In the $\triangle B M$ and $C M R$,

$$
H M=M R
$$

(being sides of a regular polygon),

## the $\measuredangle B H M, B M H, C M R$, and $C R M$ are equal, §209

 (being measured by halves of equal arcs);$\therefore$ the $\& B H M$ and $C M R$ are equal, $\oint 107$ (having a side and two adjacent $₫$ of the one equal respectively to a side and two adjacent $\$$ of the other).

$$
\therefore \angle B=\angle C \text {, }
$$

(being homologous $₫$ of equal © ).
In like manner we may prove $\angle C=\angle D$, etc.
$\therefore$ the polygon $A B C D$, etc., is equiangular.
Since the $\triangle B H M, C M R$, etc. are isosceles, § 241 (two tangents drawn from the same point to $a \odot$ are equal),
the sides $B H, B M, C M, C R$, etc. are equal, (being homologous sides of equal isosceles \&).
$\therefore$ the sides $A B, B C, C D$, etc. are equal, Ax. 6 and the polygon $A B C D$, etc. is equilateral.

Therefore the circumscribed polygon is regular and similar to the given inscribed polygon.
Q.EF.

Ex. Let $R$ denote the radius of a regular inscribed polygon, $r$ the apothem, $a$ one side, $A$ one angle, and $C$ the angle at the centre ; show that

1. In a regular inscribed triangle $a=R \sqrt{3}, \quad r=\frac{1}{2} R$, $A=50^{\circ}, C=120^{\circ}$.
2. In an inscribed square $a=R \sqrt{2}, r=\frac{1}{2} R \sqrt{2}, A=90^{\circ}$, $C=90^{\circ}$.
3. In a regular inscribed hexagon $a=R, r=\frac{1}{2} R \sqrt{3}$, $A=120^{\circ}, C=60^{\circ}$.
4. In a regular inscribed decagon $a=\frac{R(\sqrt{5}-1)}{2}$, $r=\frac{1}{4} R \sqrt{10+2 \sqrt{5}}, A=144^{\circ}, C=36^{\circ}$.

## Proposition XXI. Problem.

401. To find the value of the chord of one-half an arc, in terms of the chord of the whole arc and the radius of the circle.


Let $A B$ be the chord of arc $A B$ and $A D$ the chord of one-half the arc $A B$.

It is required to find the value of $A D$ in terms of $A B$ and $R$ (radius).

From $D$ draw $D H$ through the centre $O$, and draw $O A$.
$H D$ is $\perp$ to the chord $A B$ at its middle point $C, \quad \S 60$ (two points, $O$ and $D$, equally distant from the extremities, $A$ and $B$, determine the position of a $\perp$ to the middle point of $A B$ ).

$$
\text { The } \angle H A D \text { is a rt. } \angle
$$

(being inscribed in a semicircle),

$$
\therefore A \bar{D}^{2}=D H \times D C,
$$

(the square on one side of $a$ rt. $\triangle$ is equal to the product of the hypotenuse by the adjacent segment made by the $\perp$ let fall from the vertex of the rt. $\angle$ ).

Now

$$
D H=2 R
$$

and

$$
\begin{gathered}
D C=D O-C O=R-C O \\
\therefore A D^{2}=2 R(R-C O)
\end{gathered}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{gathered}
A C O \text { is a rt. } \triangle, \\
\overrightarrow{A O^{2}}=\overrightarrow{A C}^{2}+\overline{C O}^{2} ; \\
\therefore \overline{C O}^{2}={\overline{A O^{2}}-\overrightarrow{A C}^{2} .}_{\therefore C O=\sqrt{\left(\overline{A O}^{2}-\overline{A C}^{2}\right),}}^{=\sqrt{R^{2}-\left(\frac{1}{2} A B\right)^{2}},} \\
=\sqrt{R^{2}-\frac{1}{4} A B^{2}}, \\
=\sqrt{\frac{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}{4}} \\
=\frac{\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}}{2} .
\end{gathered}
$$

In the equation $A D^{2}=2 R(R-C O)$,

$$
\text { substitute for } C O \text { its value } \frac{\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}}{2} \text {; }
$$

then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\overrightarrow{A D}^{2} & =2 R\left(R-\frac{\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}}{2}\right) \\
& =2 R^{2}-R\left(\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}\right) . \\
\therefore A D= & \sqrt{2 R^{2}-R\left(\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}\right) .} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. E. F.
402. Corollary. If we take the radius equal to unity, the equation $A D=\sqrt{2 R^{2}-R\left(\sqrt{4 R^{2}-\overline{A B}^{2}}\right) \text { becomes }}$

$$
A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-\overline{A B^{2}}}} .
$$

## Proposition XXII. Problem.

403. To compute the ratio of the circumference of $a$ circle to its diameter, approximately.


Let $C$ be the circumference and $R$ the radius of a circle.
Since

$$
\pi=\frac{C}{2 R}
$$

$$
\text { when } R=1, \pi=\frac{C}{2}
$$

It is required to find the numerical value of $\pi$.
We make the following computations by the use of the formula obtained in the last proposition,

$$
A \dot{D}=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-\overline{A B}^{2}}}
$$

when $A B$ is a side of a regular hexagon :
In a polygon of

| No. <br> Sides. | Form of Computation. | Length of Side. | Perimeter. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-1^{2}}}$ | .51763809 | 6.21165708 |
| 24 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.51763809)^{2}}}$ | .26105238 | 6.26525722 |
| 48 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.26105238)^{2}}}$ | .13080626 | 6.27870041 |
| 96 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.1080626)^{2}}}$ | .06543817 | 6.28206396 |
| 192 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.06543817)^{2}}}$ | .03272346 | 6.28290510 |
| 384 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.03272346)^{2}}}$ | .01636228 | 6.28311544 |
| 768 | $A D=\sqrt{2-\sqrt{4-(.01636228)^{2}}}$ | .00818121 | 6.28316941 |

Hence we may consider 6.28317 as approximately the circumference of a $\odot$ whose radius is unity.
$\therefore \pi$, which equals $\frac{C}{2},=\frac{6.28317}{2}$.

$$
\therefore \pi=3.14159 \text { nearly. }
$$

## On Isoperimetrical Polygons. - Supplementary.

404. Def. Isoperimetrical figures are figures which have equal perimeters.
405. Def. Among magnitudes of the same kind, that which is greatest is a Maximum, and that which is smallest is a Minimum.

Thus the diameter of a circle is the maximum among all inscribed straight lines; and a perpendicular is the minimum among all straight lines drawn from a point to a given straight line.

## Proposition XXIII. Theorem.

406. Of all triangles having two sides respectively equal, that in which these sides include a right angle is the maximum.


Let the triangles $A B C$ and $E B C$ have the sides $A B$ and $B C$ equal respectively to $E B$ and $B C$; and let the angle $A B C$ be a right angle.
We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C>\triangle E B C$.
From $E$, let fall the $\perp E D$.
The $\mathbb{\triangle} A C$ and $E B C$, having the same base $B C$, are to each other as their altitudes $A B$ and $E D$, § 326 ( $\$$ having the same base are to each other as their altitudes).
Now $E D$ is $<E B$, § 52
( $a \perp$ is the shortest distance from a point to a straight line).
But

$$
\begin{equation*}
E B=A B \tag{Hyp.}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\therefore E D \text { is }<A B .
$$

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C>\triangle E B C
$$

Proposition XXIV. Theorem.
407. Of all polygons formed of sides all given but one, the polygon inscribed in a semicircle, having the undetermined side for its diameter, is the maximum.


Let $A B, B C, \in D$, and $D E$ be the sides of a polygon inscribed in a semicircle having $A E$ for its diameter.

We are to prove the polygon $A B C D E$ the maximum of polygons having the sides $A B, B C, C D$, and $D E$.

From any vertex, as $C$, draw $C A$ and $C E$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Then the } \angle A C E \text { is a rt. } \angle, \\
& \text { (being inscribed in a semicircle). }
\end{aligned}
$$

Now the polygon is divided into three parts, $A B C, C D E$, and $A C E$.

The parts $A B C$ and $C D E$ will remain the same, if the $\angle A C E$ be increased or diminished;
but the part $A C E$ will be diminished, § 406 (of all \& having two sides respectively equal, that in which these sides include a rt. $\angle$ is the maximum).
$\therefore A B C D E$ is the maximum polygon.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XXV. Theorem.
408. The maximum of all polygons formed of given sides can be inscribed in a circle.


Let $A B C D E$ be a polygon inscribed in a circle, and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ be a polygon, equilateral with respect to $A B C D E$, but which cannot be inscribed in a circle.

We are to prove
the polygon $A B C D E>$ the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime \prime}$.
Draw the diameter $A H$. Join $C H$ and $D H$.
Upon $C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}(=C D)$ construct the $\triangle C^{\prime} H^{\prime} D^{\prime}=\triangle C H D$, and draw $A^{\prime} H^{\prime}$.
Now the polygon $A B C H>$ the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} H^{\prime}, \S 407$ (of all polygons formed of sides all given but one, the polygon inscribed in a semicircle having the andetermined side for its diameter, is the maximum).
And the polygon $A E D H>$ the polygon $A^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime} H^{\prime}$. §407
Add these two inequalities, then
the polygon $A B C H D E>$ the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} H^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$.
Take away from the two figures the equal $\triangle C H D$ and $C^{\prime} H^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.
Then the polygon $A B C D E>$ the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$. Q.E.D.

Proposition XXVI. Theorem.
409. Of all triangles having the same base and equal perimeters, the isosceles triangle is the maximum.


Let the $\triangle A C B$ and $A D B$ have equal perimeters, and let the $\triangle A C B$ be isosceles.

We are to prove $\quad \triangle A C B>\triangle A D B$.

Draw the s $C E$ and $D F$.

$$
\frac{\triangle A C B}{\triangle A B D}=\frac{C E}{D F},
$$

( $\$$ having the same base are to each other as their altitudes).
Produce $A C$ to $H$, making $C H=A C$.

Draw $H B$.

The $\angle A B H$ is a $\mathrm{rt} . \angle$, for it will be inscribed in the semicircle drawn from $C$ as a centre, with the radius $C B$,

## From $C$ let fall the $\perp C K$;

and from $D$ as a centre, with a radius equal to $D B$,
describe an arc cutting $H B$ produced, at $P$.
Draw $D P$ and $A P$,
and let fall the $上 D$.
Since

$$
A H=A C+C B=A D+D B
$$

and

$$
\begin{gathered}
A P<A D+D P ; \\
\therefore A P<A D+D B ; \\
\therefore A H>A P . \\
\therefore B H>B P .
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\S 56
$$

Now

$$
B K=\frac{1}{2} B H \text {, }
$$

( $a \perp$ drawn from the vertex of an isosceles $\Delta$ bisects the base),
and

$$
B M=\frac{1}{2} B P .
$$

§ 113
But

$$
C E=B K,
$$

(Ils comprehended between IIs are equal);
and

$$
\begin{gathered}
D F=B M, \\
\therefore C E>D F . \\
\therefore \triangle A C B>\triangle A D B .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Proposition XXVII. Theorem.

410. The maximum of isoperimetrical polygons of the same number of sides is equilateral.


Let $A B C D$, etc., be the maximum of isoperimetrical polygons of any given number of sides.
We are to prove $A B, B C, C D$, etc., equal.
Draw $A C$.
The $\triangle A B C$ must be the maximum of all the $\triangle$ which are formed upon $A C$ with a perimeter equal to that of $\triangle A B C$.

Otherwise, a greater $\triangle A K C$ could be substituted for $\triangle A B C$, without changing the perimeter of the polygon.

But this is inconsistent with the hypothesis that the polygon $A B C D$, etc., is the maximum polygon.
$\therefore$ the $\triangle A B C$, is isosceles,
§ 409
(of all © having the same base and equal perimeters, the isosceles $\triangle$ is the тахітит).
In like manner it may be proved that $B C=C D$, etc.

> Q. E. D.
411. Corollary. The maximum of isoperimetrical polygons of the same number of sides is a regular polygon.

For, it is equilateral,
§ 410
(the maximum of isoperimetrical polygons of the same number of sides is equilateral).
Also it can be inscribed in a $\odot$,
§ 408 (the maximum of all polygons formed of given sides can be inscribed in a $\odot$ ).

Hence it is regular,

Proposition XXVIII. Theorem.
412. Of isoperimetrical regular polygons, that is greatest which has the greatest number of sides.


Let $Q$ be a regular polygon of three sides, and $Q^{\prime}$ be a regular polygon of four sides, each having the same perimeter.

We are to prove $\quad Q^{\prime}>Q$.
In any side $A B$ of $Q$, take any point $D$.
The polygon $Q$ may be considered an irregular polygon of four sides, in which the sides $A D$ and $D B$ make with each other an $\angle$ equal to two rt. $\angle$.

Then the irregular polygon $Q$, of four sides is less than the regular isoperimetrical polygon $Q^{\prime}$ of four sides,
§ 411 (the maximum of isoperimetrical polygons of the same number of sides is a regular polygon).

In like manner it may be shown that $Q^{\prime}$ is less than a regular isoperimetrical polygon of five sides, and so on.

> Q. E. D.
413. Corollary. Of all isoperimetrical plane figures the circle is the maximum.

## Proposition XXIX. Theorem.

414. If a regular polygon be constructed with a given area, its perimeter will be the less the greater the number of its sides.


Let $Q$ and $Q^{\prime}$ be regular polygons having the same area, and let $Q^{\prime}$ have the greater number of sides.

We are to prove the perimeter of $Q>$ the perimeter of $Q^{\prime}$.
Let $Q^{\prime \prime}$ be a regular polygon having the same perimeter as $Q^{\prime}$, and the same number of sides as $Q$.

Then

$$
Q^{\prime} \text { is }>Q^{\prime \prime} \text {, }
$$

(of isoperimetrical regular polygons, that is the greatest which has the greatest number of sides).

But

$$
Q=Q^{\prime}
$$

$$
\therefore Q \text { is }>Q^{\prime \prime}
$$

$\therefore$ the perimeter of $Q$ is $>$ the perimeter of $Q^{\prime \prime}$.
But the perimeter of $Q^{\prime}=$ the perimeter of $Q^{\prime \prime}$, Cons.
$\therefore$ the perimeter of $Q$ is $>$ that of $Q^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.
415. Corollary. The circumference of a circle is less than the perimeter of any other plane figure of equal area.

## On Symmetry. - Supplementary.

416. Two points are Symmetrical when they are situated on opposite sides of, and at equal distances from, a fixed point, line, or plane, taken as an object of reference.
417. When a point is taken as an object of reference, it is called the Centre of Symmetry; when a line is taken, it is called the Axis of Symmetry; when a plane is taken, it is called the Plane of Symmetry.
418. Two points are symmetrical with respect to a centre, if the centre bisect the straight line terminated by these points. Thus, $P, P^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to $C$, if $C$ bisect the straight line $P P^{\prime}$.

419. The distance of either of the two symmetrical points from the centre of symmetry is called the Radius of Symmetry. Thus either $C P$ or $C P^{\prime}$ is the radius of symmetry.
420. Two points are symmetrical with respect to an axis, if the axis bisect at right angles the straight line terminated by these points. Thus, $P, P^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to the axis $X X^{\prime}$, if $X X^{\prime}$ bisect $P P^{\prime}$ at right angles.
421. Two points are symmetrical with respect to a plane, if the plane bisect at right angles the straight line terminated by these points. Thus $P, P^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to $M N$, if $M N$ bisect $P P^{\prime}$ at right angles.

422. Two plane figures are symmetrical with respect to a centre, an axis, or a plane, if every point of either figure have its corresponding symmetrical point in the other.


Thus, the lines $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to the centre $C$ (Fig. 1), to the axis $X X^{\prime}$ (Fig. 2), to the plane $M N$ (Fig. 3), if every point of either have its corresponding symmetrical point in the other.


Fig. 4.


Fig. 5.


Fig. 6.

Also, the triangles $A B D$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to the centre $C$ (Fig. 4), to the axis $X X^{\prime}$ (Fig. 5), to the plane $M N$ (Fig. 6), if every point in the perimeter of either have its corresponding symmetrical point in the perimeter of the other.
423. Def. In two symmetrical figures the corresponding symmetrical points and lines are called homologous.

Two symmetrical figures with respect to a centre can be brought into coincidence by revolving one of them in its own plane about the centre, every radius of symmetry revolving through two right angles at the same time.

Two symmetrical figures with respect to an axis can be brought into coincidence by the revolution of either about the axis until it comes into the plane of the other.
424. Def. A single figure is a symmetrical figure, either when it can be divided by an axis, or plane, into two figures symmetrical with respect to that axis or plane; or, when it has a centre such that every straight line drawn through it cuts the perimeter of the figure in two points which are symmetrical with respect to that centre.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Thus, Fig. 1 is a symmetrical figure with respect to the axis $X X^{\prime}$, if divided by $X X^{\prime}$ into figures $A B C D$ and $A B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D$ which are symmetrical with respect to $X X^{\prime}$.

And, Fig. 2 is a symmetrical figure with respect to the centre $O$, if the centre $O$ bisect every straight line drawn through it and terminated by the perimeter.

Every such straight line is called a diameter.
The circle is an illustration of a single figure symmetrical with respect to its centre as the centre of symmetry, or to any diameter as the axis of symmetry.

## Proposition XXX. Theorem.

425. Two equal and parallel lines are symmetrical with respect to a centre.


Let $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ be equal and parallel lines.
We are to prove $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ symmetrical.
Draw $A A^{\prime}$ and $B B^{\prime}$, and through the point of their intersection $C$, draw any other line $H C H^{\prime}$, terminated in $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

In the $\triangle C A B$ and $C A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$

$$
A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, \quad \text { Hyp. }
$$

also, $\angle A$ and $B=\angle A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ respectively, $\quad \oint 68$
$\therefore \triangle C A B=\triangle C A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$;
§ 107
$\therefore C A$ and $C B=C A^{\prime}$ and $C B^{\prime}$ respectively, (being homologous sides of equal ©).
Now in the $\triangle A C H$ and $A^{\prime} C H^{\prime}$

$$
A C=A^{\prime} C
$$

$\measuredangle A$ and $A C H=\longleftarrow A^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} C H^{\prime}$ respectively,
$\therefore \triangle A C H=\triangle A^{\prime} C H^{\prime}, \quad \S 107$
(having a side and two adj. Is of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. ©s of the other).

$$
\therefore C H=C H^{\prime}
$$

(being homologous sides of equal ©).
$\therefore H^{\prime}$ is the symmetrical point of $H$.
But $H$ is any point in $A B$;
$\therefore$ every point in $A B$ has its symmetrical point in $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
$\therefore A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to $C$ as a centre of symmetry.
Q. E. D.
426. Corollary. If the extremities of one line be respectively the symmetricals of another line with respect to the same centre, the two lines are symmetrical with respect to that centre.

## Proposition XXXI. Theorem.

427. If a figure be symmetrical with respect to two axes perpendicular to each other, it is symmetrical with respect to their intersection as a centre.


Let the figure $A B C D E F G H$ be symmetrical to the two axes $X X^{\prime}, Y Y^{\prime}$ which intersect at 0 .
We are to prove 0 the centre of symmetry of the figure.
Let $I$ be any point in the perimeter of the figure.
Draw $I K L \perp$ to $X X^{\prime}$, and $I M N \perp$ to $Y Y^{\prime}$.
Join $L O, O N$, and $K M$.
Now

$$
K I=K L
$$

(the figure being symmetrical with respect to $X X$ ).
But

$$
K I=O M
$$

§ 135 (lls comprehended between Ils are cguat).

$$
\therefore K L=O M . \quad \text { Ax. } 1
$$

$\therefore K L O M$ is a $\square$,
§ 136
(having two sides equal and parallel).
$\therefore L O$ is equal and parallel to $K M$,
§ 134
(being opposite sides of a $\square$ ).
In like manner we may prove $O N$ equal and parallel to $K M$.
Hence the points $L, O$, and $N$ are in the same straight line drawn through the point $O \|$ to $K M$.

Also

$$
L O=O N
$$ (since each is equal to $K M$ ).

$\therefore$ any straight line $L O N$, drawn through $O$, is bisected at 0 .
$\therefore O$ is the centre of symmetry of the figure.
§ 424
Q. E. D.

## Exercises.

1. The area of any triangle may be found as follows: From half the sum of the three sides subtract each side severally, multiply together the half sum and the three remainders, and extract the square root of the product.

Denote the sides of the triangle $A B C$ by $a, b, c$, the altitude by $p$, and $\frac{a+b+c}{2}$ by $s$.

Show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{2} & =b^{2}+c^{2}-2 c \times A D \\
A D & =\frac{b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}}{2 c}
\end{aligned}
$$


and show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
p^{2} & =b^{2}-\frac{\left(b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}\right)^{2}}{4 c^{2}} \\
p & =\frac{\sqrt{4 b^{2} c^{2}-\left(b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}\right)^{2}}}{2 c} \\
p & =\frac{\sqrt{(b+c+a)(b+c-a)(a+b-c)(a-b+c)}}{2 c}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, show that area of $\triangle A B C$, which is equal to $\frac{c \times p}{2}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{(b+c+a)(b+c-a)(a+b-c)(a-b+c)} \\
& =\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Show that the area of an equilateral triangle, each side of which is denoted by $a$, is equal to $\frac{a^{2} \sqrt{3}}{4}$.
3. How many acres are contained in a triangle whose sides are respectively 60,70 , and 80 chains?
4. How many feet are contained in a triangle each side of which is 75 feet?

## BOOK VI.

## PLANES AND SOLID ANGLES.

On Lines and Planes.
428. Def. A Plane has already been defined as a surface such that the straight line joining any two points in it lies wholly in the surface.

The plane is considered to be indefinite in extent, so that however far the straight line be produced, all its points lie in the plane. A plane is usually represented by a quadrilateral supposed to lie in the plane.
429. Def. The Foot of a line is the point in which it meets the plane.
430. Def. A straight line is perpendicular to a plane if it be perpendicular to every straight line of the plane drawn through its foot.

In this case the plane is perpendicular to the line.
431. Def. The Distance from a point to a plane is the perpendicular distance from the point to the plane.
432. Def. A line is parallel to a plane if all its points be equally distant from the plane.

In this case the plane is parallel to the line.
433. Def. A line is oblique to a plane if it be neither perpendicular nor parallel to the plane.
434. Def. Two planes are parallel if all the points of either be equally distant from the other.
435. Def. The Projection of a point on a plane is the foot of the perpendicular from the point to the plane.
436. Def. The projection of a line on a plane is the locus of the projections of all its points.
437. Def. The plane embracing the perpendiculars which project the points of a straight line upon a plane is called the projecting plane of the line.
438. Def. The angle which a line makes with a plane is the angle which it makes with its projection on the plane.

This angle is called the Inclination of the line to the plane.
439. Def. A plane is determined by lines or points, if no other plane can embrace these lines or points without being coincident with that plane.
440. Def. The intersection of two planes is the locus of all the points common to the two planes.
441. An infinite number of planes may embrace the same straight line.

Thus, if the plane $M N$ embrace the line $A B$ it may be made to revolve about $A B$ as an axis, and to occupy an infinite number of positions, each of which is the position of a plane embracing the line $A B$.

442. A plane is determined by a straight line and a point without that line.

Thus, let any plane embracing the straight line $A B$ revolve about the line as an axis until it embraces the point $C$.


Now if the plane revolve either way about the line $A B$ as an axis, it will cease to embrace the point $C$.

Hence any other plane embracing the line $A B$ and the point $C$ must be coincident with the first plaie.
443. Three points not in a straight line determine a plane.

For, by joining any two of the points, we have a straight line and a point which determine a plane.
§ 442
444. Two intersecting straight lines determine a plane.

For, a plane embracing one of these straight lines and any point of the other line (except the point of intersection) is determined.
445. Two parallel straight lines cletermine a plane.

For, a plane embracing either of these parallels and any point in the other is determined.

## Proposition I. Theorem.

446. If two planes cut one another their intersection is a straight line.


Let $M N$ and $P Q$ be two planes which cut one another.
We are to prove their intersection a straight line.
Let $A$ and $B$ be two points common to the two planes.
Draw the straight line $A B$.
Since the points $A$ and $B$ are common to the two planes, the straight line $A B$ lies in both planes. § 428
Now, no point out of this line can be in both planes;
for, if it be possible, let $C$ be such a point.
But there can be but one plane embracing the point $C$ and the line $A B$.
$\therefore C$ does not lie in both planes.
$\therefore$ every point in the intersection of the two planes lies in the straight line $A B$.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

447. From a point without a plane only one perpendicular can be drawn to the plane; and at a given point in a plane only one perpendicular can be erected to the plane.



Let $C D$ (Fig.1) be a perpendicular let fall from the point $C$ to the plane $M N$.

We are to prove that no other $\perp$ can be drawn from the point $C$ to the plane $M N$.

If it be possible, let $C B$ be another $\perp$ to the plane $M N$, and let a plane $P Q$ pass through the lines $C B$ and $C D$.
The intersection of $P Q$ with the plane $M N$ is a straight line $B D$.
§ 446
Now if $C D$ and $C B$ be both $\perp$ to the plane, the $\triangle C B D$ would have two rt. $\llcorner$ s, $C B D$ and $C D B$, which is impossible.

Let $D C$ (Fig. 2) be a perpendicular to the plane $M N$ at the point $D$.
If it be possible, let $D A$ be another $\perp$ to the plane from the point $D$,
and let a plane $P Q$ pass through the lines $D C$ and $D A$.
The intersection of $P Q$ with the plane $M N$ is a straight line.
Now if $D C$ and $D A$ could both be $\perp$ to the plane $M N$ at $D$, we should have in the plane $P Q$ two straight lines $\perp$ to the line $D Q$ at the point $D$, which is impossible.
Q. E. D.
448. Corollary. A perpendicular is the shortest distance from a point to a plane.

## Proposition III. Theorem.

449. If a straight line be perpendicular to each of two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane it is perpen.. dicular to the plane.


Let $D C$ be perpendicular to each of the two lines $A C A^{\prime}$ and $B C B^{\prime}$ drawn through its foot in the plane $M N$.

We are to prove $D C \perp$ to the plane $M N$.
Take $C A=C A^{\prime}$ and $C B=C B^{\prime}$.
Join $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
Then $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are symmetrical with respect to $C, \S 426$ (their extremities being symmetrical).
Through $C$ draw any line $H C H^{\prime}$ in the plane $M N$.
Then
$H$ and $H^{\prime}$ are symmetrical,
(being corresponding points in the symmetrical lines $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ ).
About $C$, the centre of symmetry, revolve $A B$, keeping $A C$ and $B C \perp$ to $C D$, until it comes into coincidence with $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

Then the point $H$ will coincide with its symmetrical point $H^{\prime}$,
and $\angle D C H$ will coincide with, and be equal to, $\angle D C H^{\prime}$.
$\therefore \& D C H$ and $D C H^{\prime}$ are rt. \&s.

$$
\therefore D C \text { is } \perp \text { to } H C H^{\prime} .
$$

Now since $D C$ is $\perp$ to any line, $H C H^{\prime}$, drawn through its foot in the plane $M N$, it is $\perp$ to every such line.

$$
\therefore D C \text { is } \perp \text { to the plane } M N \text {. }
$$

§ 430.
Q. E. D.

Proposition IV. Theorem.
450. Oblique lines drawn from a point to a plane at equal distances from the foot of the perpendicular are equal; and of two oblique lines unequally distant from the foot of the perpendicular the more remote is the greater.


Let the oblique lines $B C, B D$, and $B E$, be drawn at equal distances, $A C, A D$, and $A E$, from the foot of the perpendicular $B A$; and let $B C^{\prime}$ be drawn more remote from the foot of the perpendicular than $B C$.
We are to prove I. $B C=B D=B E$.

$$
\text { II. } B C^{\prime}>B C \text {. }
$$

I. In the rt. © $B A C$ and $B A D$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
B A=B A, & \text { Iden. } \\
A C=A D, & \text { Hyp. }
\end{array}
$$

and
$\mathrm{rt} . \angle B A C=\mathrm{rt} . \angle B A D$.

$$
\begin{gather*}
\therefore \triangle B A C=\triangle B A D, \\
\therefore B C=B D, \\
\text { (being homologous sides of equal } \mathbb{\otimes} \text { ). }
\end{gather*}
$$

II. Since $A C^{\prime}$ is $>A C$,

$$
B C^{\prime \prime} \text { is }>B C \text {, }
$$

## Proposition V. Theorem.

453. If three straight lines meet at one point, and a straight line be perpendicular to each of them at that point, the three straight lines lie in the same plane.


Let the straight line $A B$ be perpendicular to each of the straight lines $B C, B D$, and $B E$, at $B$.
We are to prove $B C, B D$, and $B E$ in the same plane $M N$.
If not, let $B D$ and $B E$ be in the plane $M N$, and $B C$ without it ; and let $P H$, passing through $A B$ and $B C$, cut the plane $M N$ in the straight line $B H$.

Now $A B, B C$, and $B H$ are all in the plane $P H$, and since $A B$ is $\perp$ to $B D$ and $B E$, it is $\perp$ to the plane $M N$,
§ 449
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to each of two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane, it is $\perp$ to the plane).
$\therefore A B$ is $\perp$ to $B I I$, a straight line in the plane $M N, \S 430$ (a $\perp$ to a plane is $\perp$ to every straight line in that plane drawn through its foot).
That is $\angle A B H$ is a rt. $\angle$.
$\angle A B C$ is a rt. $\angle$.
Hyp.
$\therefore \angle A B C=\angle A B H$.
$\therefore B C$ and $B H$ coincide.
$\therefore B C$ is not without the plane $M N$.

> Q. E. D
454. Corollary. The locus of all perpendiculars to a given straight line at a given point is a plane perpendicular to this given straight line at the given point.
455. Scholium. In the geometry of space the term locus has the same signification as in plane geometry, only it is not limited to lines, but is extended to include surfaces.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

456. If from the foot of a perpendicular to a plane a straight line be drawn at right angles to any line of the plane, the line drawn from its intersection with the line of the plane to any point of the perpendicular is perpendicular to the line of the plane.


Let $P F$ be a perpendicular to the plane $M N, F C$ a perpendicular from the foot of $P F$ to any line $A B$, in the plane $M N$, and $C P$ a line drawn from its intersection with $A B$ to any point $P$ in the perpendicular $P$ F.

We are to prove $C P \perp$ to $A B$.
Take $C A=C B$ and draw $F A, F B, P A, P B$.
Now

$$
F A=F B
$$

(two oblique lines drawn from a point in a $\perp$ cutting off equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ are equat),
and

$$
P A=P B
$$

(oblique lines drawn from a point to a plane at equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ are equal).

$$
\therefore P C \text { is } \perp \text { to } A B,
$$

(two points equally distant from the extremities of a straight line determine the $\perp$ at the middle point of the line).
Q. E. D

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

457. If a line be perpendicular to a plane, every line which is parallel to this perpendicular is likewise perpendicular to the plane.


Let $A B$ be perpendicular to the plane $M N$, and $C D$ any line parallel to $A B$.
We are to prove $C D$ perpendicular to the plane $M N$.
Draw $B D$ in the plane $M N$, and through $D$ draw $E F$ in the plane $M N \perp$ to $B D$, and join $D$ with any point in $A B$, as $A$.
$B D$ is $\perp$ to $A B$,
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to every line of the plane drawn through its foot);

$$
\text { it is also } \perp \text { to } C D
$$

(if a straight line be $\perp$ to one of two $\| s$, it is $\perp$ to the other).
Now $E F$ is $\perp$ to $A D, \quad$ § 456 (if from the foot of a $\perp$ to a plane a straight line be drawn at right angles to any line of the plane, the line drawn from its intersection with the line of the plane to any point in the $\perp$ is $\perp$ to the line of the plane),

$$
\text { and is also } \perp \text { to } B D \text {. }
$$

Cons.
$\therefore E F$ is $\perp$ to the plane $A B D C$,
§ 449
(a straight line $\perp$ to two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane is $\perp$ to the plane),
$\therefore E F$ is $\perp$ to $C D$,
§ 430
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to every line of the plane drawn through its foot).
$\therefore C D$ is $\perp$ to $B D$ and $E F$, and consequently to the plane $M N$.
Q. E. D.
458. Corollary 1. Two lines which are perpendicular to the same plane are parallel.
459. Cor. 2. Two lines parallel to a third straight line not in their own plane are parallel to each other.

Proposition VIII. Theorem.
460. If a straight line and a plane be perpendicular to the same straight line, they are parallel.


Let the straight line $B C$ and the plane $M N$ be perpendicular to the straight line $A B$.

We are to prove $\quad B C \|$ to $M N$.
From any point $C$ of the line $B C$ let $C D$ be drawn perpendicular to $M N$.

$$
\text { Join } A D
$$

$B A$ and $C D$ are parallel, § 458 (two straight lines $\perp$ to the same plane are II).

$$
A D \text { is } \perp \text { to } B A
$$

(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to every line of the plane drawn through its foot).

$$
\therefore A D \text { and } B C \text { are parallel, }
$$

(two straight lines $\perp$ to the same straight line are 11 ).

$$
\begin{gather*}
\therefore A B C D \text { is a } \square \\
\therefore C D=A B
\end{gather*}
$$

Now, since $C$ is any point in the line $B C$, all the points in $B C$ are equally distant from the plane. $M N$.

$$
\therefore B C \text { is II to } M N \text {, }
$$

(a line is II to a plane if all its points be cqually distant from the plane).
Q. E. D.

Proposition IX. Theorem.
461. If two planes be perpendicular to the same straight line they are parallel.


Let the two planes $M N$ and $P Q$ be perpendicular to the straight line $A B$.

We are to prove $\quad P Q \|$ to $M N$.
From any point $C$ in the plane $P Q$ draw $C D \perp$ to $M N$.
Join BC.
$B C$ is $\perp$ to $A B$,
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to every line of the plane drawn through its foot).
$\therefore B C$ is $\|$ to the plane $M N$,
(if a straight line and a plane be $\perp$ to the same straight line they are II).

$$
\therefore C D \text { is equal to } A B \text {, }
$$

(if a straight line be II to a plane, all its points are equally distant from the plane).

Since $C$ is any point in the plane $P Q$, all the points in the plane $P Q$ are at equal distances from $M N$.

$$
\therefore P Q \text { is } \| \text { to } M N \text {, }
$$

(two planes are II if all the points of either be equally distant from the other).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition X. Theorem.

462. If two angles not in the same plane have their sides respectively parallel and lying in the same direction, they are equal.


Let $₫ A$ and $A^{\prime}$ be respectively in the planes $M N$ and $P Q$ and have $A D$ parallel to $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ and $A C$ parallel to $A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and lying in the same direction.
We are to prove

$$
\angle A=\angle A^{\prime} .
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Take } A D=A^{\prime} D^{\prime} \text { and } A C=A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} \text {. } \\
& \text { Join } A A^{\prime}, D D^{\prime}, C C^{\prime}, C D, C^{\prime} D^{\prime} \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $A D$ is equal and $\|$ to $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, the figure $A D D^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ is a $\square$,

$$
\therefore A A^{\prime}=D D^{\prime} .
$$

Also, since $C C^{\prime}$ and $D D^{\prime}$ are respectively $\|$ to $A A^{\prime}$, they are II to each other, (two straight lines $\|$ to a third straight line not in their own plane are $\|$ to each other).

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\therefore C D D^{\prime} C^{\prime} \text { is a } \square . & \S 136 \\
\therefore \therefore C D=C^{\prime} D^{\prime}, & \$ 134 \\
\therefore \Delta D C=\triangle A^{\prime} D^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}, & \$ 108
\end{array}
$$

(having three sides of the one equal respectively to three sides of the other).

$$
\therefore \angle A=\angle A^{\prime},
$$

(being homologous © of equal A).
Q. E. D.
463. Corollary. If two angles lie in different planes and have their sides parallel and extending in the same direction, the planes are parallel. For the intersecting lines, $A C$ and $A D$, which determine the plane $M N$ are parallel respectively to the lines $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ which determine the plane $P Q$, therefore the planes are determined parallel.

Proposition XI. Theorem.
464. Two parallel lines comprehended between two parallel planes are equal.


Let the two parallel lines $A B$ and $C D$ be included between the parallel planes $M N$ and $P Q$.
We are to prove $\quad A B=C D$.
If $A B$ and $C D$ be $\perp$ to the two $\|$ planes they are equal, $\S 434$ (if two planes be ll, all the points of either are equally distant from the other).

If $A B$ and $C D$ be not $\perp$ to the two $\|$ planes, draw from the points $A$ and $C$ the lines $A E$ and $C F \perp$ to the plane $M N$. $A E$ is $\|$ to $C F$, § 458 (two lines $\perp$ to the same plane are II).

Join $B E$ and $D F$.
In $\mathcal{A} A B$ and $C F D$,

$$
\begin{align*}
A E & =C F \\
\angle A E B & =\angle C F D
\end{align*}
$$

(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to any line of the plane drawn through its foot);
and $\quad \angle B A E=\angle D C F$,
(if two $\triangle$ not in the same plane have their sides II and lying in the same direction they are equal).

$$
\therefore \triangle A E B=\triangle C F D
$$

(having a side and two adj. 1 of the one equal respectively to a side and two adj. $\&$ of the other).
Hence
$A B=C D$,
(being homologous sides of equal $\triangle$ ).
Q. E. D.

Proposition XII. Theorem.
465. The intersections of two parallel planes by a thivol plane are parallel lines.


Let the plane $O S$ intersect the parallel planes $P Q$ and $M N$ in the lines $A C$ and $B D$ respectively.

We are to prove $\quad A C \|$ to $B D$.
Through the points $A$ and $C$ draw the $\|$ lines $A B$ and $C D$ in the plane $O S$.

Now

$$
A B=C D
$$

(II lines comprehended between II planes are equal).

$$
\therefore A B C D \text { is a } \square
$$

(having two sides equal and II).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \therefore A C \text { is } \| \text { to } B D, \\
& \text { (being opposite sides of a } \square \text { ). }
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XIII. Theorem.

466. If a straight line be perpendicular to one of two parallel planes it is perpendicular to the other.


Let $M N$ and $P Q$ be parallel planes and $A B$ be perpendicular to $P Q$.

We are to prove $A B \perp$ to $M N$.

Let two planes embracing $A B$ intersect the planes $M N$ and $P Q$ in $A C, B E$ and $A D, B F$ respectively.

Then $\quad A C$ is $\|$ to $B E$ and $A D$ to $B F$, § 465 (the intersections of two II planes by a third plane are II lines).

But $\quad E B$ and $F B$ are $\perp$ to $A B$, § 430
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane it is $\perp$ to cvery straight line of the plane drawn through its foot).
$\therefore A C$ and $A D$ which are respectively $\|$ to $B E$ and $B F^{\prime}$ are $\perp$ to $A B$, $\quad \oint 67$
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to one of two II lines, it is $\perp$ to the other).
$\therefore A B$ is $\perp$ to $M N$,
§ 449
(if a line be $\perp$ to two straight lines in a plane drawn through its foot it is $\perp$ to the plane).
Q. E. D.
467. Corollary. If two planes be parallel to a third plane they are parallel to each other. For, every line perpendicular to this third plane is perpendicular to the other planes; and two planes perpendicular to a straight line are parallel.

## Proposition XIV. Theorem.

468. If a straight line be parallel to another straight line drawn in a plane, it is parallel to the plane.


Let $A C$ be parallel to the line $B D$ in the plane $M N$.
We are to prove $A C$ II to the plane $M N$.
From $A$ and $C$, any two points in $A C$, draw $A B$ and $C D$ $\perp$ to $B D$, and $A E$ and $C F \perp$ to the plane $M N$.

$$
\text { Join } B E \text { and } D F \text {. }
$$

Now

$$
A B \text { is } \| \text { to } C D
$$

(two straight lines $\perp$ to the same line are \|).
Also

$$
A B=C D
$$

(II lines comprehended between \|I lines are equat),
and

$$
A E \text { is } \| \text { to } C F \text {, }
$$

(two straight lines $\perp$ to the same plane are II).

$$
\therefore \angle B A E=\angle D C F,
$$

(if two $\triangle$ 备 not in the same plane have their sides $\|$ and lying in the same direction, they are cqual).

$$
\therefore \mathrm{rt} . \triangle A E B=\mathrm{rt} . \triangle C F D
$$

(two rt. \& are equal when an acute $\angle$ and the hypotenuse of the one are equal respectively to an acute $\angle$ and the hypotenuse of the other).

$$
\therefore A E=C F
$$

(being homologous sides of equal \&).
Now since the points $A$ and $C$, any two points in the line $A C$, are equally distant from the plane $M N$,
all the points in $A C$ are equally distant from the plane $M N$.
$\therefore A C$ is $\|$ to the plane $M N$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XV. Theorem.

469. If two straight lines be intersected by three parallel planes their corresponding segments are proportional.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be intersected by the parallel planes $M N, P Q, R S$, in the points $A, E, B$, and $C, F, D$.
We are to prove $\quad \frac{A E}{E B}=\frac{C F}{H D}$.
Draw $A D$ cutting the plane $P Q$ in $G$.

$$
\text { Join } E G \text { and } F G .
$$

Then

$$
E G \text { is } \| \text { to } B D
$$

(the intersections of two \| planes by a third plane are \| lines).

$$
\therefore \frac{A E}{E B}=\frac{A G}{G D},
$$

(a line drawn through two sides of a $\Delta \|$ to the third side divides those sides proportionally).

Also,

$$
G F \text { is } \| \text { to } A C \text {, }
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \therefore \frac{C F}{F D}=\frac{A G}{G D}, \\
& \therefore \frac{A E}{E B}=\frac{C F}{F D} . \tag{Ax. 1}
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.

## On Dihedral Angles.

470. Def. The amount of rotation which one of two intersecting planes must make about their intersection in order to coincide with the other plane is called the Dihedral angle of the planes.

The Faces of a dihedral angle are the intersecting planes.
The Edge of a dihedral angle is the intersection of its faces.
The Plane angle of a dihedral angle is the plane angle formed by two straight lines, one in each plane, perpendicular to the edge at the same point.

Thus, in the diagram, $C-A B-D$ is a dihedral angle, $C B$ and $D A$ are its faces, $A B$ is its edge, $O P H$ is its plane angle if $O P$ and $H P$ in the faces be
 perpendicular to the edge $A B$ at the same point $P$.
471. The plane angle of a dihedral angle has the same magnitude from whatever point in the edge we draw the perpendiculars. For every pair of such angles have their sides respectively parallel (§65), and hence are equal (§462).

Two equal dihedral angles, $D-A B-C^{\prime}$, and $D-A B-E^{\prime}$, have corresponding equal plane angles, $D A C$ and $D A E$. This may be shown by superposition.

Any two dihedral angles, $C-A B-E^{\prime}$ and $E-A B-H^{\prime}$, have the same ratio as their corresponding plane angles, $C A E$ and $E A H$. This may be shown by the method employed in § 200 and § 201.

Hence a dihedral angle is measured by its plane angle.


It must be observed that the sides of the plane angle which measures the dihedral angle must be perpendicular to the edge. Thus in the rectangular solid $A H$, Fig. 1, the
dihedral angle $F-B A-H$, is a right dihedral angle, and is measured by the angle $C E D$, if its sides $C E$ and $E D$, drawn in the planes $A F$ and $A G$ respectively, be perpendicular to $A B$. But angle $C^{\prime} E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, drawn as represented in the diagram, is acute, while angle $C^{\prime \prime} E^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime \prime}$, drawn as represented, is obtuse.


Fig. 2.
Many properties of dihedral angles can be established which are analogous to propositions relating to plane angles. Let the student prove the following :

1. If two planes intersect each other, their vertical dihedral angles are equal.
2. If a plane intersect two parallel planes, the exteriorinterior dihedral angles are equal ; the alternate-interior dihedral angles are equal ; the two interior dihedral angles on the same side of the secant plane are supplements of each other.
3. When two planes are cut by a third plane, if the exteriorinterior dihedral angles be equal, or the alternate dihedral angles be equal, or the two interior dihedral angles on the same side of the secant plane be supplements of each other, and the edges of the dihedrals thus formed be parallel, the two planes are parallel.
4. Two dihedral angles are equal if their faces be respectively parallel and lie in the same direction, or opposite directions, from the edges.
5. Two dihedral angles are supplements of each other if two of their faces be parallel and lie in the same direction, and the other faces be parallel and lie in the opposite direction, from the edges.

Proposition XVI. Theorem.
472. If a straight line be perpendicular to a plane every plane embracing the line is perpendicular to tiat plane.


Let $A B$ be perpendicular to the plane $M N$.
We are to prove any plane, $P Q$, embracing $A B$, perpendicular to $M N$.

At $B$ draw, in the plane $M N, B C \perp$ to the intersection $D Q$.
Since $A B$ is $\perp$ to $M N$, it is $\perp$ to $D Q$ and $B C$,
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane, it is $\perp$ to every straight line in that plane drawn through its foot).

Now $\angle A B C$ is the measure of the dihedral $\angle P-D Q-N$.
But $\angle A B C$ is a right angle,
$\therefore$ the $\angle P-D Q-N$ is a right dihedral,

$$
\therefore P Q \text { is } \perp \text { to } M N \text {. }
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XVII. Theorem.

473. If two planes be perpendicular to each other, a straight line drawn in one of them perpendicular to their intersection is perpendicular to the other plane.


Let the planes $M N$ and $P Q$ be perpendicular to each other, and at any point $B$ of their intersection $D Q$ let $B A$ be drawn in the plane $P Q$, perpendicular to $D Q$.

We are to prove $A B \perp$ to the plane $M N$.
Draw $\quad B C$ in the plane $M N \perp$ to $D Q$.
Then $\angle A B C$ is a right angle,
(being the plane $\angle$ of the $r$. dihedral $\angle$ formed by the two planes).
$\therefore A B$ is $\perp$ to the two straight lines $D Q$ and $B C$.

$$
\therefore A B \text { is } \perp \text { to the plane } M N,
$$

(if a straight line be $\perp$ to two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane, it is $\perp$ to the plane).
Q. E. D

Proposition XVIII. Theorem.
474. If two planes be perpendicular to each other, a straight line drawn through any point of interscction perpendicular to one of the planes will lie in the other plane.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.

Let $P Q$ (Fig. 1) be perpendicular to the plane $M N, C Q$ their intersection, and $B A$ be drawn through any point $B$ in $C Q$ perpendicular to the plane $M N$.

We are to prove that $B A$ lies in the plane $P Q$.
At the point $B$ draw $B A^{\prime}$ in the plane $P Q \perp$ to the intersection $C Q$.

$$
\text { The line } B A^{\prime} \text { will be } \perp \text { to the plane } M N \text {, }
$$

§ 472
(if two planes be $\perp$ to each other, a straight line drawn in one of them $\perp$ to their intersection is $\perp$ to the other).
Now $\quad B A$ is $\perp$ to the plane $M N$; Hyp.

$$
\therefore B A \text { and } B A^{\prime} \text { coincide, } \quad \S 447
$$

(at a given point in a plane only one $\perp$ can be erected to that plane).
But $\quad B A^{\prime}$ lies in the plane $P Q$;
$\therefore B A$, which coincides with $B A^{\prime}$, lies in the plane $P Q$. Q. E. D.

Scholium. Through a line parallel or oblique to a plane, as $A C$, Fig. 2, only one plane can be passed perpendicular to the given plane.

Proposition XIX. Theorem.
475. If two intersecting planes be each perpendicular to a thirch plane, their intersection is also perpendicular to that plane.


Let the planes $B D$ and $B C$ intersecting in the line $A B$ be perpendicular to the plane $P Q$.

We are to prove $A B \perp$ to the plane $P Q$.
A perpendicular erected at $B$, a point common to the three planes, will lie in the two planes $B C$ and $B D$, § 473 (if two planes be $\perp$ to cach other, a straight line drawn through any point of intersection $\perp$ to onc of the planes will lie in the other plane).

And, since this $\perp$ lies in both the planes, $B C$ and $B D$, it must coincide with their intersection.
$\therefore A B$ is $\perp$ to the plane $P Q$.
Q. E. D.
476. Corollary. If a plane be perpendicular to each of two intersecting planes, it is perpendicular to the intersection of those planes.

## Proposition XX. Theorem.

477. Every point in the plane which bisects a dihedral angle is equally distant from the faces of that angle.


Let plane $A M$ bisect the dihedral angle formed by the planes $A D$ and $A C$; and let $P E$ and $P F$ be perpendiculars drawn from any point $P$ in the plane $A M$ to the planes $A C$ and $A D$.

We are to prove

$$
P E=P F
$$

Through $P E$ and $P F$ pass a plane intersecting the planes $A C$ and $A D$ in $O E$ and $O F$.

> Join PO.

Now the plane $P E F$ is $\perp$ to each of the planes $A C$ and $A D$, § 471
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane, any plane embracing the line is $\perp$ to that plane) ;
$\therefore$ the plane $P E F$ is $\perp$ to their intersection $A O . \S 476$ (If a plane be $\perp$ to each of two intersecting planes, it is $\perp$ to the intersection of these planes).

$$
\therefore \angle P O E=\angle P O F
$$

(being measures respectively of the cqual dihedral 太 $₫$ M-OA-C and M-OA-D).

$$
\begin{gather*}
\therefore \mathrm{rt.} \triangle P O E=\mathrm{rt.} \triangle P O F \\
\therefore P E=P F, \\
\text { (being homologous sides of equal ©) }
\end{gather*}
$$

Supplementary Propositions.
Proposition XXI. Theorem.
478. The acute angle which a straight line makes with its own projection on a plane is the least angle which it makes with any line of that plane.


Let $B A$ meet the plane $M N$ at $B$, and let $B A^{\prime}$ be its projection upon the plane $M N$, and $B C$ any other line drawn through $B$ in the plane.

We are to prove $\angle A B A^{\prime}<\angle A B C$.
Take

$$
B C=B A^{\prime}
$$

Join $A C$.
In the $\triangle A B A^{\prime}$ and $A B C$,

$$
A B=A B, \quad \text { Iden }
$$

$$
B A^{\prime}=B C
$$ Cons.

but

$$
A A^{\prime}<A C
$$

( $a \perp$ is the shortest distance from a point to a plane).

$$
\therefore \angle A B A^{\prime}<\angle A B C,
$$

(if two sides of a $\triangle$ be equal respectively to two sides of another, but the third side of the first $\Delta$ be greater than the third side of the second, then the $\angle$ opposite the third side of the first $\triangle$ is greater than the $\angle$ opposite the third side of the second).
Q. E. D.

Exercise. - The angle included by two perpendiculars drawn from any point within a dihedral angle to its faces, is the supplement of the dihedral angle.

Proposition XXII. Theorem.
479. If two straight lines be not in the same plane, one and only one common perpendicular to the lines can be drawn.


Let $A B$ and $C D$ be two given straight lines not in the same plane.
We ars to prove one and only one common perpendicular to the two lines can be drawn.

Since $A B$ and $C D$ are not in the same plane they are not II, (two lls lie in the same plane).
Through the line $A B$ pass the plane $M N \|$ to $C D$.
Since $C D$ is \| to the plane $M N$, all its points are equally distant from the plane $M N$;
§ 432
hence $C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$, the projection of the line $C D$ on the plane $M N$, will be ll to $C D$,
and will intersect the line $A B$ at some point as $C^{\prime \prime}$.
Now since $C C^{\prime}$ is the line which projects the point $C$ upon the plane $M N$, it is $\perp$ to the plane $M N$;
hence $C C^{\prime}$ is $\perp$ to $C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$ and $A B, \quad \S 430$ (if a line be $\perp$ to a plane, it is $\perp$ to every line drawn through its foot in the plane).

$$
\text { Also, } C C^{\prime \prime} \text { is } \perp \text { to } C D
$$

§ 67
$\therefore C C^{\prime}$ is the common $\perp$ to the lines $C D$ and $A B$.
Moreover, line $C C^{\prime \prime}$ is the only common $\perp$.
For, if another line $E B$, drawn between $A B$ and $C D$, could be $\perp$ to $A B$ and $C D$, it would also be $\perp$ to a line $B G$ drawn $\|$ to $C D$ in the plane $M N$,
and hence $\perp$ to the plane $M N$.
§ 67
§ 449
But $E H$, drawn in the plane $C D^{\prime} \|$ to $C C^{\prime \prime}$, is $\perp$ to the plane $M N$.
§ 457
Hence we should have two $\mathbb{E}$ from the point $E$ to the plane $M N$, which is impossible,
$\therefore C C^{\prime}$ is the only common $\perp$ to the lines $C D$ and $A B$.
Q. E. D.

## On Polyhedral Angles.

480. Def. A Polyliedral angle is the extent of opening of three or more planes meeting in a common point.

Thus the figure $S-A B C D E$, formed by the planes $A S B$, $B S C, C S D, D S E, E S A$, meeting in the common point $S$, is a polyhedral angle.

The point $S$ is the vertex of the angle.

The intersections of the planes $S A, S B$, etc., are its edges.

The portions of the planes
 bounded by the edges are its faces.

The plane angles $A S B, B S C$, etc., formed by the edges are its face angles.
481. Def. Polyhedral angles are classified as trikedral, quadrahedral, etc., according to the number of the faces.
482. Def. Trihedral angles are rectangular, bi-rectangular, or tri-rectangular, according as they have one, two, or three right dihedral angles.
483. Def. Trihedral angles are scalene, isosceles, or equilateral, according as the face angles are all unequal, two equal, or three equal.
484. Def. A polyhedral angle is convex, if the polygon formed by the intersections of a plane with all its faces be a convex polygon.
485. Def. Two polyhedral angles are equal when they can be applied to each other so as to coincide in all their parts.

Since two equal polyhedral angles coincide however far their edges and faces be produced, the magnitude of a polyhedral angle does not depend upon the extent of its faces. But, in order to represent the angle in a diagram, it is usual to pass a plane, as
$A B C D E$, cutting all its faces in the straight lines, $A B, B C$, etc.; and by the face $A S B$ is meant the indefinite surface included between the lines $S A$ and $S B$ indefinitely produced.
486. Def. Two polyhedral angles are symmetrical if they have the same number of faces, and the successive dihedral and face angles respectively equal but arranged in reverse order.

Thus, if the edges $A S, B S$, etc., of the polyhedral angle, $S-A B C D$, be produced, there is formed another polyhedral angle, $S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$, which is symmetrical with the first, the vertex $S$ being the centre of symmetry.
If we take $S A^{\prime}=S A$, and through the points $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ the parallel planes $A B C D$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$ be passed, we shall have $S B^{\prime}=S B, S C^{\prime}=S C$, etc. For if we conceive a third parallel plane to pass through $S$, then $A A^{\prime}, B B^{\prime}$, etc., are divided proportionally, § 469. And if any one of them be bisected at $S$, the others are also bisected at $S$. Hence, the points $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, etc., are symmetrical with $A, B$, etc.

Moreover, the two symmetrical polyhedral angles are equal in all their parts. For their face angles $A S B$ and $A^{\prime} S B^{\prime}, B S C$ and $B^{\prime} S C^{\prime}$ are equal each to each, being vertical plane angles. And the dihedral angles formed at the edges $S A$ and $S A^{\prime}, S B$ and $S B^{\prime}$, are equal each to each, being vertical dihedral angles.

Now if the polyhedral angle $S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ be revolved about the vertex $S$ until the polygon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ is brought into the position $a b c d$, in the same plane with $A B C D$, it will be evident that while the parts $A S B, B S C$, etc., succeed each other in the order from left to right, the corresponding equal parts $a S b, b S c$, etc., succeed each other in the order from right to left. Hence the two figures cannot be made to coincide by superposition, but are said to be equal by symmetry.

Proposition XXIII. Theorem.
487. The sum of any two face angles of a trihedral


Let $S-A B C$ be a trihedral angle in which the face angle $A S C$ is greater than either angle $A S B$ or angle $B S C$.
We are to prove $\angle A S B+\angle B S C>\angle A S C$.
In the face $A S C$ draw $S D$, making $\angle A S D=\angle A S B$.
Through any point $D$ of $S D$ draw any straight line $A D C$ cutting $A S$ and $S C$.

$$
\text { Take } S B=S D
$$

Pass a plane through $A C$ and the point $B$.
In the $\& A S D$ and $A S B$

$$
\begin{gathered}
A S=A S \\
S D=S B \\
\angle A S D=\angle A S B \\
\therefore \triangle A S D=\triangle A S B \\
\therefore A D=A B
\end{gathered}
$$

(being homologous sides of equal © ).
In the $\triangle A B C, \quad A B+B C>A C$.
Subtract the equals $A B$ and $A D$.
Then

$$
B C>D C
$$

Now in the $\triangle B S C$ and $D S C$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S B=S D \\
& S C=S C
\end{aligned}
$$

Cons.
Iden.
but

$$
B C>D C,
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\therefore \angle B S C>\angle D S C . \\
\therefore \angle A S B+\angle B S C>\angle A S D+\angle D S C \\
\text { that is } \quad \angle A S B+\angle B S C>\angle A S C .
\end{gathered}
$$

Iden.
Cons.
Cons.
§ 106

$$
\S 116
$$

## Proposition XXIV. Theorem.

488. The sum of the face angles of any convex polyledral angle is less than four right angles.


Let the polyhedral angle $S$ be cut by a plane, making the section $A B C D E$ a convex polygon.

We are to prove $\angle A S B+\angle B S C$ etc. $<4$ rt. Ls.
From any point $O$ within the polygon draw $O A, O B, O C$, OD, OE.

The number of the $\triangle$ having their common vertex at $O$ will be the same as the number having their common vertex at $S$.
$\therefore$ the sum of all the $\angle S$ of the $\Delta$ having the common vertex at $S$ is equal to the sum of all the $\mathbb{S}$ of the $\mathbb{S}$ having the common vertex at $O$.

But in the trihedral $\&$ formed at $A, B, C$, etc.

$$
\angle S A E+\angle S A B>\angle O A E+\angle O A B, \quad \S 487
$$

(the sum of any two face $\measuredangle$ of a trihedral $\angle$ is greater than the third). and $\quad \angle S B A+\angle S B C>\angle O B A+\angle O B C$. § 487
$\therefore$ the sum of the $\measuredangle$ at the bases of the $\mathbb{S}$ whose common vertex is $S$ is greater than the sum of the $\angle s$ at the bases of the © whose common vertex is 0 .
$\therefore$ the sum of the $\angle s$ at $S$ is less than the sum of the $\angle s$ at $O$.
But the sum of the $\angle$ at $O=4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle$.
§ 34
$\therefore$ the sum of the $\angle s$ at $S$ is less than $4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}$.
Q. E. D,

Proposition XXV. Theorem.
489. An isosceles trikedral angle and its symmetrical triliedral angle are equal.


Let $S-A B C$ be an isosceles trihedral angle, having $\angle A S B=\angle B S C$. And let $S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be its sym. metrical trihedral angle.

We are to prove trihedral $\angle S-A B C=$ trihedral $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.
Revolve $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ about $S$ until $S B^{\prime}$ falls on $S B$ and the plane $S B^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ falls on the plane $S B C$.

Now the dihedral $\angle C-S B-A=$ dihedral $\angle A^{\prime}-S B^{\prime}-C^{\prime}$, (being vertical dihedral ©).
$\therefore$ the plane $S B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ will fall on the plane $S B A$.
Now

$$
\angle B S C=\angle B S A
$$

Нур.
and

$$
\angle B^{\prime} S A^{\prime}=\angle B S A
$$ (being vertical ©).

$\therefore \angle B S C=\angle B^{\prime} S A^{\prime}$;
Ax. 1
$\therefore S A^{\prime}$ will fall on $S C$.
In like manner $S C^{\prime}$ will fall on $S A$,
$\therefore$ the two trihedral $\Delta$ s will coincide and be equal.
Q.E.D.

## Proposition XXVI. Theorem.

490. Two symmetrical triherlral angles are equivalent.


Let the trihedral $\angle S-A B C$ and $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be symmetrical.

We are to prove trihedral $\angle S \cdot A B C \approx *$ trikedral $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Draw $D^{\prime} D$ making the $\measuredangle D S A, D S C$, and $D S B$ equal.
Then $\quad \angle D^{\prime} S A^{\prime}=\angle D^{\prime} S C^{\prime}=\angle D^{\prime} S B^{\prime}$, (being vertical $\S$ of the equal $₫ D S A, D S C$, and $D S B$ ).
Then the trihedral $\angle S-D C B=$ trihedral $\angle S-D^{\prime} C^{\prime} B^{\prime}, \S 489$ (two isosceles symmetrical trihedral $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{ }$ are equal).
And trihedral $\angle S-D C A=$ trihedral $\angle S-D^{\prime} C^{\prime} A^{\prime}$, and trihedral $\angle S-A D B=$ trihedral $\angle S-A^{\prime} D^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
Adding the first two equalities, the polyhedral $\angle S-A B C D$ $\approx$ polyhedral $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.

Take away from each of these equals the equal trihedral $\angle S-A D B$ and $S-A^{\prime} D^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

Then trihedral $\angle S-A B C \approx$ trihedral $\angle S-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.
491. Scholium. If $D D^{\prime}$ fall within the given trihedral angles these trihedral angles would be composed of three isosceles trihedral angles which would be respectively equal, and hence the given trihedral angles would be equivalent.

[^3]
## Exercises.

1. If a plane be passed through one of the diagonals of a parallelogram, the perpendiculars to the plane from the extremities of the other diagonal are equal.
2. If each of the projections of a line $A B$ upon two intersecting planes be a straight line, the line $A B$ is a straight line.
3. The height of a room is eight feet, how can a point in the floor directly under a certain point in the ceiling be determined with a ten-foot pole?
4. If a line be drawn at an inclination of $45^{\circ}$ to a plane, what is the greatest angle which any line of the plane, drawn through the point in which the inclined line pierces the plane, makes with the line.
5. Through a given point pass a plane parallel to a given plane.
6. Find the locus of points in space which are equally distant from two given points.
7. Show that the three planes embracing the edges of a trihedral angle and the bisectors of the opposite face angles respectively intersect in the same straight line.
8. Find the locus of the points which are equally distant from the three edges of a trihedral angle.
9. Cut a given quadrahedral angle by a plane so that the section shall be a parallelogram.
10. Determine a point in a given plane such that the sum of its distances from two given points on the same side of the plane shall be a minimum.
11. Determine a point in a given plane such that the difference of its distances from two given points on opposite sides of a plane shall be a maximum.

## Proposition XXVII. Theorem.

492. Tiwo triliedral angles are equal or symmetrical when the three face angles of the one are respectively equal to the three face angles of the other.


In the trihedral $\& S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$, let $\angle A S B=\angle A^{\prime} S^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, $\angle A S C=\angle A^{\prime} S^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$, and $\angle B S C=\angle B^{\prime} S^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
We are to prove that the homologous dihedral angles are equal, and hence the trihedral angles $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ are either equal or symmetrical.

On the edges of these angles take the six equal distances $S A, S B, S C, S^{\prime} A^{\prime}, S^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime}, S^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime}$.

Draw $\quad A B, B C, A C, A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
The homologous isosceles $\mathbb{\Delta} S A B, S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, S A C, S^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, $S B C, S^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are equal, respectively.
§ 106
$\therefore A B, A C, B C$ equal respectively $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$,
(being homologous sides of equal \& ).

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} .
$$

At any point $D$ in $S A$ draw $D E$ and $D F \perp$ to $S A$ in the faces $A S B$ and $A S C$ respectively.

These lines meet $A B$ and $A C$ respectively, (since the $\triangle S A B$ and SAC are acutc, cach being one of the equal $\mathbb{E}$ of an isoscectes $\triangle$ ).
Join $E F$.
On $S^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ take $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}=A D$.

Draw $D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime} F^{\prime}$ in the faces $A^{\prime} S^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} S^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ respectively $\perp$ to $S^{\prime} A^{\prime}$, and join $E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$.

In the rt. $\triangle A D E$ and $A^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
A D & =A^{\prime} D^{\prime} \\
\angle D A E & =\angle D^{\prime} A^{\prime} E^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

(being homologous $\triangle$ of the equal $\triangle S A B$ and $S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B{ }^{\prime}$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore \text { rt. } \triangle A D E=\text { rt. } \triangle A^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}, \\
& \therefore A E=A^{\prime} E^{\prime} \text { and } D E=D^{\prime} E^{\prime}, \\
& \text { (being homologous sides of cqual } \mathbb{A} \text { ). }
\end{aligned}
$$

Cons.

In like manner we may prove $A F=A^{\prime} F^{\prime}$ and $D F=D^{\prime} F^{\prime}$.
Hence in the $\Delta A E F$ and $A^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$ we have

$$
A E \text { and } A F^{\prime}=\text { respectively } A^{\prime} E^{\prime} \text { and } A^{\prime} F^{\prime}
$$

and $\quad \angle E A F=\angle E^{\prime} A^{\prime} F^{\prime}$,
(being homologous $\boxed{\leqslant}$ of lice cqual $\triangle A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
\therefore \triangle A E F^{\prime} & =\triangle A^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime} \\
\therefore E F^{\prime} & =E^{\prime} F^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
$$

(being homologores sides of the cqual © $A E F$ and $A^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$ ).
Hence, in the © $E D F$ and $E^{\prime} D^{\prime} F^{v}$ we have
$E D, D F$, and $E F=$ respectively $E^{\prime} D^{\prime}, L^{\prime} F^{\prime}$, and $E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore \triangle E D F=\triangle E^{\prime} I^{\prime} F^{\prime} \\
& \therefore \angle E D F=\angle E^{\prime} D^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime} \\
& \text { (being homologous \&s of equal ©) }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\therefore$ the dihedral $\angle B-A S-C=$ dihedral $\angle B^{\prime}-A^{\prime} S^{\prime}-C^{\prime}$, (since $\triangle E D F$ and $E^{\prime} D^{\prime} F^{\prime}$, the measures of these dihedral \&s, are equat).

In like manner it may be proved that the dihedral $\triangle S A-B S \cdot C$ and $A-C S \cdot B$ are equal respectively to the dihedral $\& A^{\prime}-B^{\prime} S^{\prime}-C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime}-C^{\prime} S^{\prime}-B^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.

This demonstration applies to either of the two figures denoted by $S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, which are symmetrical with respect to each other. If the first of these figures be given, $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ are equal, for they can be applied to each other so as to coincide in all their parts. If the second be given, $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$ are symmetrical. § 486

## BOOK VII.

## POLYHEDRONS, CYLINDERS, AND CONES.

## General Definitions.

493. Def. A Polyhedron is a solid bounded by four or more polygons.

A polyhedron bounded by four polygons is called a tetrahedron; by six, a hexahedron; by eight, an octahedron; by twelve, a dodecahedron; by twenty, an icosahedron.
494. Def. The Faces of a polyhedron are the bounding polygons.
495. Def. The Edges of a polyhedron are the intersections of its faces.
496. Def. The Vertices of a polyhedron are the intersections of its edges.
497. Def. A Diagonal of a polyhedron is a straight line joining any two vertices not in the same face.
498. Def. A Section of a polyhedron is a polygon formed by the intersection of a plane with three or more faces.
499. Def. A Convex polyhedron is a polyhedron every section of which is a convex polygon.
500. Def. The Volume of a polyhedron is the numerical measure of its magnitude referred to some other polyhedron as a unit of measure.
501. Def. The polyhedron adopted as the unit of measure is called the Unit of Volume.
502. Def. Similar polyhedrons are polyhedrons which have the same form.
503. Def. Equivalent polyhedrons are polyhedrons which have the same volume.
504. Def. Equal polyhedrons are polyhedrons which have the same form and volume.

## On Prisms.

505. Def. A Prism is a polyhedron two of whose faces are equal and parallel polygons, and the other faces are parallelograms.
506. Def. The Bases of a prism are the equal and parallel polygons.
507. Def. The Lateral faces of a prism are all the faces except the bases.
508. Def. The Lateral or Convex Surface of a prism is the sum of its lateral faces.
509. Def. The Lateral edges of a prism are the intersections of its lateral faces; the Basal edges of a

oblique paism. prism are the intersections of the bases with the lateral faces.
510. Def. Prisms are triangular, quadrangular, pentagonal, etc., according as their bases are triangles, quadrangles, pentagons, etc.
511. Def. A Right prism is a prism whose lateral edges are perpendicular to its bases.
512. Def. An Oblique prism is a prism whose lateral edges are oblique to its bases.
513. Def. A Regular prism is a right prism whose bases are regular polygons, and hence its lateral faces are equal rectangles.
514. Def. The Altitude of a prism is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases. The altitude of a right prism is equal to any one of its lateral edges.
515. Def. A Truncated prism is a portion of a prism included between either base and a section inelined to the base and cutting
 all the lateral edges.
516. Def. A Right section of a prism is a section perpendicular to its lateral edges.
517. Def. A Parallelopiped is a prism whose bases are parallelograms.
518. Def. A Right parallelopiped is a parallelopiped whose lateral edges are perpendicular to its bases; hence its lateral faces are rectangles.
519. Def. An Oblique parallelopiped is a parallelopiped whose lateral edges are oblique to its bases.
520. Def. A Rectangular parallelopiped is a right parallelopiped whose bases are rectangles.
521. Def. A Cube is a rectangular parallelopiped all of whose faces are squares.

Proposition I. Theorem.
522. The sections of a prism made by parallel planes are equal polygons.


Let the prism $A D$ be intersected by the parallel planes $G K, G^{\prime} K^{\prime}$ 。

We are to prove section $G H I K L=$ section $G^{\prime} H^{\prime} I^{\prime} K^{\prime} L^{\prime}$.
$G H, H I, I K$, etc., are parallel respectively to $G^{\prime} H^{\prime}, H^{\prime} I^{\prime}$, $I^{\prime} K^{\prime}$, etc., § 465
(the intersections of two II planes by a third plane are II lines).
$\therefore \measuredangle \leqslant H I, H I K$, etc., are equal respectively to $\measuredangle G^{\prime} H^{\prime} I^{\prime}$, $H^{\prime} I^{\prime} K^{\prime}$, etc.,
(two $₫$ not in the same plane, having their sides respectively parallel and lying in the same direction, are equal).

Also, sides $G H, H I, I K$, etc., are equal respectively to $G^{\prime} H^{\prime}, H^{\prime} I^{\prime}, I^{\prime} K^{\prime}$, etc.,
(II lines comprehended between II lines are equat).
$\therefore$ section $G H I K L=$ section $G^{\prime} H^{\prime} I^{\prime} K^{\prime} L^{\prime}$, § 155 (being mutually equiangular and equilateral).
Q.E. D.
523. Corollary. Any section of a prism parallel to the base is equal to the base ; and all right sections of a prism are equal.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

524. The lateral area of a prism is equal to the procluct of a lateral edge by the perimeter of the right section.


Let GHIKL be a right section of the prism $A D^{\prime}$.
We are to prove lateral area of prism $A D^{\prime}=A A^{\prime} \times$ perimeter GHIKL.

Consider the lateral edges $A A^{\prime}, B B^{\prime}$, etc., to be the bases of the $\$ A B^{\prime}, B C^{\prime}$, etc., which form the convex surface of the prism.

Then the altitudes of these will be the $1 s$ g $H, H I$, $I K$, etc.,
and the area of each $\square$ is the product of its base and altitude.

Now the bases of these 5 are all equal, § 464 (II lines comprehended between \|planes are equal);
and the sum of the altitudes $G H, H I, I K$, etc., is the perimeter of the right section.

Hence, the sum of the areas of these $s$ is the product of a lateral edge $A A^{\prime}$ by the perimeter of the right section.

That is, the lateral area of the prism is equal to the product of a lateral edge by the perimeter of a right section.
Q. E. D.
525. Corollary. The lateral area of a right prism is equal to the altitude multiplied by the perimeter of the base.

## Proposition III. Theorem.

526. Two prisms are equal if the three faces including a trikedral angle of the one be respectively equal to the three corresponding faces including a triluedral angle of the other, and similarly placed.


Let $A D, A G, A J$, be respectively equal to $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}, A^{\prime} G^{\prime}$, $A^{\prime} J^{\prime}$, and similarly placed.
We are to prove prism $A I=$ prism $A^{\prime} I^{\prime}$.
Now trihedral $\angle A=$ trihedral $\angle A^{\prime}$,
(two trihedrals are equal, when the three face $₫$ of the one are equal respectively to the three face $₫$ of the other and are similarly placed).

Apply trihedral $\angle A$ to trihedral $\angle A^{\prime}$.
Then the base $A D$ will coincide with the base $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, face $A G$ with $A^{\prime} G^{\prime}$, and face $A J$ with $A^{\prime} J^{\prime}$;
$\therefore F G$ will coincide with $F^{\prime} G^{\prime}$, and $F J$ with $F^{\prime} J^{\prime}$.
$\therefore$ the upper bases, $F I$ and $F^{\prime \prime} I^{\prime}$, will coincide, (being equal polygons, since they are equal to the equal lower basess).
$\therefore$ the remaining edges will coincide,
(their extremitites being the same points).
$\therefore$ the prisms will coincide and be equal.

> Q. E. D.
527. Corollary 1. Two truncated prisms are equal, if the three faces including a trihedral of the one be respectively equal to the three faces including a trihedral of the other, and be similarly placed.
528. Cor. 2. Two right prisms having equal bases and altitudes are equal. If the faces be not similarly placed, if one be inverted, the faces will be similarly placed and the prisms can be made to coincide.

## Proposition IV. Theorem.

529. An oblique prism is equivalent to a right prism whose bases are equal to right sections of the oblique prism, and whose altitude is equal to a lateral edge of the oblique prism.


Let $A D^{\prime}$ be an oblique prism, and $F I$ a right section.
Complete the right prism $F I^{\prime}$, making its edges equal to those of the oblique prism.

We are to prove oblique prism $A D^{\prime} \approx$ right prism $F I^{\prime}$.
In the solids $A I$ and $A^{\prime} I^{\prime}$

$$
\text { trihedral } \angle A=\text { trihedral } \angle A^{\prime}
$$

(two trihedrals are equal when thrce face $\&$ of the one are respectively equal to three face $₫$ of the other, and are similarly placed).

$$
\text { Now face } A D=\text { face } A^{\prime} D^{\prime}
$$ (being the two bases of the oblique prism A $D^{\prime}$ );

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { face } A J=\text { face } A^{\prime} J^{\prime}, & \text { Cons. } \\
\text { and face } A G=\text { face } A^{\prime} G^{\prime} . & \text { Cons. } \\
\therefore \text { solid } A I=\text { solid } A^{\prime} I^{\prime}, & \S 527
\end{array}
$$ of the one are respectively equal to the three faces including a trihedral of the other, and are similarly placed).

To each of these equal solids add the solid $F D^{\prime}$.
Then oblique prism $A D^{\prime} \approx$ right prism $F I^{\prime}$.
Q. E. D.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

530. Any two opposite faces of a parallelopiped are equal and parallel.


Let $A G$ be a parallelopiped.
We are to prove faces $A F$ and $D G$ equal and parallel.

$$
\text { Since } A C \text { is a } \square, \quad \oint 517
$$

$A B$ and $D C$ are equal and \| lines. $\quad 125$
Also, since $A H$ is a $\square, \quad § 505$
$A E$ and $D H$ are equal and $\|$ lines. § 125
$\therefore \angle E A B=\angle H D C, \quad \S 462$
(two \& not in the same plane having their sides \| and lying in the same direction are equal).
$\therefore$ face $A F=$ face $D G$.
Moreover, face $A F$ is $\|$ to $D G$,
(if two $\&$ not in the same plane have their sides $\|$ and lying in the same direction their planes are parallel).

In like manner we may prove $A H$ and $B G$ equal and parallee.
Q. E. D.
531. Scholium. Any two opposite faces of a parallelopiped may be taken for bases, since they are equal and parallel parallelograms.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

532. The plane passerd through two diagonally opposite edges of a parallelopiped divides the parallelopiped into two equivalent triangular prisms.


Let the plane A E GC pass through the opposite edges $A E$ and $C G$ of the parallelopiped $A G$.

We are to prove that the parallelopiped $A G$ is divided into two equivalent triangular prisms, $A B C-F$, and $A D C-H$.

Let $I J K L$ be a right section of the parallelopiped made by a plane $\perp$ to the edge $A E$.

The intersection $I K$ of this plane with the plane $A E G C$ is the diagonal of the $\square I J K L$.

$$
\therefore \triangle I K J=\triangle I K L
$$

But prism $A B C-F$ is equivalent to a right prism whose base is $I J K$ and whose altitude is $A E$, § 529 (any oblique prism is $\approx$ to a right prism whose bascs arc cqual to right sections of the oblique prism, and whose altitude is cqual to a lateral cdge of the oblique prism).
The prism $A D C-H$ is equivalent to a right prism whose base is $I L K$, and whose altitude is $A E$. $\$ 529$

$$
\text { Now the two right prisms are equal, } \quad 5528
$$ (two right prisms having cqual bases and altitudes are cqual).

$$
\therefore A B C-F \approx A D C-H .
$$

## Proposition VII. Theorem.

533. Two rectangular parallelopipeds having equal bases are to each other as their altitudes.


Let $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ be the altitudes of the two rectangular parallelopipeds, $P$, and $P^{\prime}$, having equal bases.

We are to prove

$$
\frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
$$

CaSe I. - When $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are commensurable.
Find a common measure $m$, of $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
Suppose $m$ to be contained in $A B 5$ times, and in $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ 3 times.

Then we have

$$
\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{5}{3} .
$$

At the several points of division on $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ pass planes $\perp$ to these lines.

The parallelopiped $P$ will be divided into 5 , and $P^{\prime}$ into 3, parallelopipeds equal, each to each, § 528 (two right prisms having equal bases and altitudes are equal).

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{5}{3} \\
& \therefore \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}= \frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$



Let $A B$ be divided into any number of equal parts, and let one of these parts be applied to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ as many times as $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ will contain it.

Since $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are incommensurable, a certain number of these parts will extend from $A^{\prime}$ to a point $D$, leaving a remainder $D B^{\prime}$ less than one of these parts.

Through $D$ pass a plane $\perp$ to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, and denote the parallelopiped whose base is the same as that of $P^{\prime}$, and whose altitude is $A^{\prime} D$ by $Q$.

Now, since $A B$ and $A^{\prime} D$ are commensurable,

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q: P=A^{\prime} D: A B \tag{CaseI.}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose the number of parts into which $A B$ is divided to be continually increased, the length of each part will become less and less, and the point $D$ will approach nearer and nearer to $B^{\prime}$.

The limit of $Q$ will be $P^{\prime}$,
and the limit of $A^{\prime} D$ will be $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$,
$\therefore$ the limit of $Q: P$ will be $P^{\prime}: P$, and the limit of $A^{\prime} D: A B$ will be $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}: A B$,
Moreover the corresponding values of the two variables $Q: P$ and $A^{\prime} D: A B$ are always equal, however near these variables approach their limits.
$\therefore$ their limits $P^{\prime}: P=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}: A B$.
Q. E. ${ }^{\text {D. }} 109$
534. Scholium. The three edges of a rectangular parallelopiped which meet at a common vertex are its dimensions. Hence two rectangular parallelopipeds which have two dimensions in common are to each other as their third dimensions.

## Proposition VIII. Theorem.

535. Two rectangular parallelopipeds having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases.


Let $a, b$, and $c$, and $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c$, be the three dimensions respectively of the two rectangular parallelopipeds $P$ and $P^{\prime}$.

We are to prove

$$
\frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}
$$

Let $Q$ be a third rectangular parallelopiped whose dimensions are $a^{\prime}, b$ and $c$.

Now $Q$ has the two dimensions $b$ and $c$ in common with $P$, and the two dimensions $a^{\prime}$ and $c$ in common with $P^{\prime}$.

Then

$$
\frac{P}{Q}=\frac{a}{a^{\prime}}
$$

(two rectangular parallelopipeds which have two dimensions in common are to each other as their third dimensions) ;
and

$$
\frac{Q}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{b}{b^{\prime}} .
$$

Multiply these two equalities together ;
then

$$
\frac{P}{p^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}
$$

Q. E. D.
536. Scholium. This proposition may be stated thus: two rectangular parallelopipeds which have one dimension in common are to each other as the products of the other two dimensions.

Proposition IX. Theorem.
537. Any two rectangular parallelopipeds are to each other as the products of their three dimensions.


Let $a, b, c$, and $a,{ }^{\prime} b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}$, be the three dimensions respectively of the two rectangular parallelopipeds $P$ and $P^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\quad \frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b \times c}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime} \times c^{\prime}}$.
Let $Q$ be a third rectangular parallelopiped whose dimensions are $a, b$, and $c^{\prime}$.

Then

$$
\frac{P}{Q}=\frac{c}{c^{\prime}},
$$

(two rectangular parallelopipeds which have two dimensions in common are to each other as their third dimensions) ;
and

$$
\frac{Q}{l^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{a \times b}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}},
$$

(two rectangular parallelopipeds which have one dimension in common are to each other as the products of their other two dimensions).

Multiply these equalities together;
then

$$
\frac{P}{P^{\prime}}=\frac{a \times b \times c}{a^{\prime} \times b^{\prime} \times c^{\prime}} .
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition X. Theorem.
538. The volume of a rectangular parallelopiped is equal to the procluct of its three dimensions, the unit of volume being a cube whose edge is the linear unit.


Let $a, b$, and $c$ be the three dimensions of the rectangular parallelopiped $P$, and let the cube $U$ be the unit of volume.

We are to prove volume of $P=a \times b \times c$.

$$
\frac{P}{U}=\frac{a \times b \times c}{1 \times 1 \times 1}
$$

But

$$
\frac{P}{U} \text { is the volume of } P ;
$$

§ 500
$\therefore$ the volume of $P=a \times b \times c$.
Q. E. D.
539. Corollary I. Since a cube is a rectangular parallelopiped having its three dimensions equal, the volume of a cube is equal to the third power of its edge.
540. Cor. II. The product $a \times b$ represents the base when $c$ is the altitude; hence: The volume of a rectangular parallelopiped is equal to the product of its base by its altitude.
541. Scholium. When the three dimensions of the rectangular parallelopiped are each exactly divisible by the linear unit, this proposition is rendered evident by dividing the solid into cubes, each equal to the unit of volume. Thus, if the three edges which meet at a common vertex contain the linear unit 3,4 and 5 times respectively, planes passed through the several points of division of the edges, and perpendicular to them, will divide the solid into cubes, each equal to the unit of volume; and there will evidently be $3 \times 4 \times 5$ of these cubes.

Proposition XI. Theorem.
542. The volume of any parallelopiped is equal to the product of its base by its altitude.


Let $A B C D$ - $F$ be a parallelopiped having all its faces oblique, and $H R$ its altitude.

We are to prove $A B C D-F=A B C D \times H R$.
By making the right section HIJN and completing the parallelopiped $H I J N-G L K M$ we have a right parallelopiped equivalent to, $A B C D-F$. (an oblique prism is cquivalent to a right prism whose base is a right section of the oblique prism and whose altitude is cqual to a lateral edgo of the oblique prism).
Through the edge $I L$ make the right section $I L P O$, and complete the right parallelopiped $I L P O-H G Q R$, and we have a rectangular parallelopiped equivalent to $H I J N-G L K M, \S 529$
and hence equivalent to $A B C D-F$.
Now

$$
\square I L G H \approx \square E F G H
$$

$$
\square O P Q R=(\square I L G H)=\square J K M N
$$

$$
\text { § } 530
$$

and

$$
\square A B C D=\square E F G H
$$

$$
\therefore \square O P Q R \approx \square A B C D .
$$

Moreover, the three parallelopipeds have the common altitude $H R$.

But

$$
\begin{gathered}
O P Q R-I L G H=O P Q R \times H R \\
\therefore A B C D-F=A B C D \times H R
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\text { § } 540
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition XII. Theorem.
543. The volume of any prism is equal to the product of its base by its altitude.


Case I. - When the base is a triangle.
Let $V$ denote the volume, $B$ the base, and $H$ the altitude of the triangular prism $A E C-E^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\quad V=B \times H$.
Upon the edges $A E, E C, E E^{\prime}$, construct parallelopiped $A E C D-E^{\prime}$.

Then $\quad A E C-E^{\prime} \approx \frac{1}{2} A E C D-E^{\prime}$, § 532 (the plane passed through two diagonally opposite edges of a parallelopiped divides it into two cquiralent triangular prisms),
and

$$
A E C=\frac{1}{2} A E C D
$$

But $A E C D-E^{\prime}=2 B \times H$, § 542 (the rolume of any parallelopiped is cqual to the product of its base by its altitude).

$$
\therefore V=\frac{1}{2}(2 B \times H)=B \times H
$$

Case II. - When the base is a polygon of more than three sides.
Planes passed through the lateral edge $A A^{\prime}$, and the several diagonals of the base will divide the given prism into triangular prisms,
which have for a common altitude the altitude of the prism.
Hence, the volume of the entire prism is the product of the sum of their bases by the common altitude,
that is the entire base by the altitude of the prism.

> Q. E. D.
544. Corollary. Prisms having equivalent bases are to each other as their altitudes; prisms having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases; and any two prisms are to each other as the product of their bases and altitudes. Any two prisms having equivalent bases and equal altitudes are equivalent.

Proposition XIII. Theorem.
545. The four diagonals of a parallelopiped bisect each other.


Let $A G, E C, B H$, and $F D$, be the four diagonals of the parallelopiped $A G$.
We are to prove these four diagonals bisect each other.
Through the opposite and $\|$ edges $A E$ and $C G$ pass a plane intersecting the $\|$ bases in the $\|$ lines $A C$ and $E G$.

The section $\quad A C G E$ is a $\square$, (having its oppositc sides I);
$\therefore$ its diagonals $A G$ and $E C$ bisect each other in the point 0 .

In like manner a plane passed through the opposite and \| edges $F G$ and $A D$ will form a $\square A F G D$,
whose diagonals $A G$ and $F D$ will bisect each other in the point 0 .

Also, a plane passed through the opposite and \| edges $E H$ and $B C$ will form a $\square E B C H$,
whose diagonals $E C$ and $B H$ will bisect each other in the point 0 .
$\therefore$ the four diagonals bisect each other at the point 0 .
Q. E. D.
546. Corollary. The diagonals of a rectangular parallelopiped are equal.
547. Scholum. The point $O$, in which the four diagonals intersect, is caller the centre of the parallelopiped; and it is evident that any straight line drawn through the point $O$ and terminated by two opposite faces of the parallelopiped is bisected at that point. Hence $O$ is the centre of symmetry.

## On Pyramids.

548. Def. A Pyramid is a polyhedron one of whose faces is a polygon, and whose other faces are triangles having a common vertex and the sides of the polygon for bases.
549. Def. The Base of a pyramid is the face whose sides are the bases of the triangles having a common vertex.
550. Def. The Lateral faces of a pyramid are all the faces except the base.
551. Def. The Lateral surface of a pyramid is the sum of its lateral faces.
552. Def. The Lateral edges of a pyramid are the intersections of its lateral faces.
553. Def. The Basal edges of a pyramid are the intersections of its base with its lateral faces.
554. Def. The Vertex of a pyramid is the common vertex of its lateral faces.
555. Def. The Altitude of a pyramid is the perpendicular distance from its vertex to the plane of its base.

Thus, $V-A B C D E$ is a pyramid; $A B C D E$ is its base ; $A V B, B V C$, etc. are its lateral faces, and their sum is its lateral surface; $V A, V B$, etc. are its lateral edges ; $A B, B C$, etc.
 its basal edges; $V$ is its vertex; $V O$ is its altitude.
556. Def. A Regular pyramid is a pyramid whose base is a regular polygon, and whose vertex is in the perpendicular to the base at its centre.
557. Def. The Axis of a regular pyramid is the straight line joining its vertex with the centre of the base.
558. Def. The Slant height of a regular pyramid is the altitude of any lateral face.
559. Def. A pyramid is triangular, quadrangular, pentagonal, etc., according as its base is a triangle, quadrilateral, pentagon, etc. A triangular pyramid formed by four faces (all of which are triangles) is a tetrahedron.
560. Def. A Truncated pyramid is the portion of a pyramid included between its base and a section cutting all its lateral edges.
561. Def. A Frustum of a pyramid is a truncated pyramid in which the cutting section is parallel to the base.

562. Def. The base of the pyramid is called the Lower base of the frustum, and the parallel section, its Upper base.
563. Def. The Altitude of a frustum is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases.
564. Def. The lateral faces of a frustum of a regular pyramid are the trapezoids included between its bases; the lateral surface is the sum of the lateral faces; the Slant keight of a frustum of a regular pyramid is the altitude of any lateral face.

## Proposition XIV. Theorem.

565. If a pyrramid be cut by a plane parallel to its base,
I. The edlges and altitude are divided proportionally;
II. The section is a polygon similar to the base.


Let the pyramid $V-A B C D E$, whose altitude is $V O$, be cut by a plane $a b c d e$ parallel to its base, intersecting the lateral edges in the points $a, b, c, d, e$, and the altitude in $o$.

We are to prove
I. $\quad \frac{V a}{V A}=\frac{V b}{V B} \cdots=\frac{V o}{V O}$;
II. The section $a b c d e$ similar to the base $A B C D E$.
I. Suppose a plane passed through the vertex $V \|$ to the base.

Then the edges and the altitude will be intersected by three Il planes.

$$
\therefore \frac{V a}{V A}=\frac{V b}{V B} \cdots=\frac{V o}{V O},
$$

(if straight lines be intersected by three II planes, their corresponding segments are proportional).
II. The sides $a b, b c$ etc. are parallel respectively to $A B, B C$, etc.,
(the intersections of II planes by a third plane are II lines) ;
$\therefore \measuredangle s a b c, b c d$ etc. are equal respectively to $\triangle S A B C$, $B C D$ etc.,
(if two $\mathbb{S}$ not in the same plane have their sides respectively $\|$ and lying in the same direction, they are cqual).
$\therefore$ the two polygons are mutually equiangular.

Also, since the sides of the section are II to the corresponding sides of the base,
© $V a b, V b c$ etc. are similar respectively to $\mathbb{\triangle} V A B$, $V B C$ etc.

$$
\therefore \frac{a b}{A B}=\left(\frac{V b}{V B}\right)=\frac{b c}{B C}=\left(\frac{V c}{V C}\right)=\frac{c d}{C D} \text { etc. }
$$

$\therefore$ the polygons have their homologous sides proportional ;
$\therefore$ section $a b c d e$ is similar to the base $A B C D E$. § 278 Q. E. D.
566. Corollary 1. Any section of a pyramid, parallel to its base is to the base as the square of its distance from the vertex is to the square of the altitude of the pyramid.

Since

$$
\frac{V o}{V O}=\left(\frac{V b}{V B}\right)=\frac{a b}{A B}
$$

Squaring

$$
\frac{\overline{V o}^{2}}{\overline{V o}^{2}}=\frac{\overline{a b}^{2}}{{\overline{A B^{2}}}^{2}}
$$

But

$$
\frac{a b c d e}{A B C D E}=\frac{\overline{a b}^{2}}{\overline{A B}^{2}}
$$

(similar polygons are to each other as the squares of their homologous sides).

$$
\therefore \frac{a b c d e}{A B C D E}=\frac{\overline{V o}^{2}}{\overline{V O}^{2}} .
$$

567. Cor. 2. If two pyramids having equal altitudes be cut by planes parallel to their bases, and at equal distances from their vertices, the sections will have the same ratio as their bases.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { For } & \frac{a b c d e}{A B C D E}=\frac{\overline{V o}^{2}}{{\overline{V O^{2}}}^{2}} \\
\text { and } & \frac{a^{\prime} b^{\prime} c^{\prime}}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{V^{\prime} o^{\prime}}}{{\overline{V^{\prime} 0^{\prime 2}}}^{2}}
\end{array}
$$

Now, since $V o=V^{\prime} o^{\prime}$, and $V O=V^{\prime} O^{\prime}$,

$$
a b c d e: A B C D E:: a^{\prime} b^{\prime} c^{\prime}: A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

Whence $a b c d e: a^{\prime} b^{\prime} c^{\prime}:: A B C D E: A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} . \S 262$
568. Cor. 3. If two pyramids have equal altitudes and equivalent bases, sections made by planes parallel to their bases and at equal distances from their vertices are equivalent.

## Proposition XV. Theorem.

569. The lateral area of a regular pyramid is equal to one-half the product of the perimeter of its base by its slant height.


Let $V-A B C D E$ be a regular pyramid, and $V H$ its slant height.
We are to prove the sum of the faces $V A B, V B C$, etc. $=\frac{1}{2}$ $(A B+B C$, etc. $) \times V H$.

Now

$$
A B=B C=C D, \text { etc. }
$$

$$
V A=V B=V C, \text { etc. }
$$

(oblique lines drawn from any point in a $\perp$ to a plane at equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ are equal).
$\therefore$ \& $V A B, V B C$, etc. are equal isosceles $\mathbb{S}, \S 108$
whose bases are the sides of the regular polygon and whose common altitude is the slant height $V H$.

Now the area of one of these $\mathbb{S}$, as $V A B,=\frac{1}{2}$ base $A B \times$ altitude $V H$,
$\therefore$ the sum of the areas of these $\mathbb{S}$, that is, the lateral area of the pyramid, is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ the sum of their bases

$$
(A B+B C+C D, \text { etc. }) \times V H
$$

Q. E. D.
570. Corollary 1. The lateral area of the frustum of a regular pyramid, being composed of trapezoids which have for their common altitude the slant height of the frustum, is equal to one-half the sum of the perimeters of the bases multiplied by the slant height of the frustum.
571. Cor. 2. The dihedral angles formed by the intersections of the lateral faces of a regular pyramid are all equal. § 492

Proposition XVI. Theorem.
572. Two triangular pyramids having equivalent bases and equal altitudes are equivalent.


Let $S-A B C$ and $S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be two triangular pyramids having equivalent bases $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ situated in the same plane, and a common altitude $A X$.
We are to prove $\quad S-A B C \approx S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
Divide the altitude $A X$ into a number of equal parts, and throngh the points of division pass planes \| to the planes of their bases, intersecting the two pyramids.

In the pyramids $S-A B C$ and $S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ inscribe prisms whose upper bases are the sections $D E F, G H I$, etc., $D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$, $G^{\prime} H^{\prime} I^{\prime}$, etc.

The corresponding sections are equivalent,
§ 568 (if two pyramids have equal altitudes and equivalent bases, sections made by planes II to their bases and at equal distances from their vertices are equivalent).
$\therefore$ the corresponding prisms are equivalent, §544 (prisms having equivalent bases and equal altitudes are equivalent).
Denote the sum of the prisms inscribed in the pyramid $S-A B C$, and the sum of the corresponding prisms inscribed in the pyramid $S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ by $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ respectively.

Then

$$
V=V^{\prime}
$$

Now let the number of equal parts into which the altitude $A X$ is divided be indefinitely increased ;

The volumes $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ are always equal, and approach to the pyramids $S-A B C$ and $S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ respectively as their limits.

Hence
$S-A B C \approx S^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
§ 199
Q. E. D.

Proposition XVII. Theorem.
573. The volume of a triangular pyramid is equal to onethird of the product of its base and altitude.


Let $S-A B C$ be a triangular pyramid, and $H$ its altitude.
We are to prove $S-A B C=\frac{1}{3} A B C \times H$.
On the base $A B C$ construct a prism $A B C-S E D$, having its lateral edges II to $S B$ and its altitude equal to that of the pyramid.

The prism will be composed of the triangular pyramid $S-A B C$ and the quadrangular pyramid $S-A C D E$.

Through $S A$ and $S D$ pass a plane $S A D$.
This plane divides the quadrangular pyramid into the two triangular pyramids, $S-A C D$ and $S-A E D$, which have the same altitude and equal bases.
$\therefore S-A C D \approx S-A E D, \quad \S 572$ (two triangular pyramids having equivalent bases and equal altitudes are equivalent).
Now the pyramid $S$ - $A E D$ may be regarded as having $E S D$ for its base and $A$ for its vertex.

$$
\therefore \text { pyramid } S-A E D \approx \text { pyramid } S-A B C
$$

(having equal buses $S E D$ and $A B C$ and the same altitude).
$\therefore$ the three pyramids into which the prism $A B C-S E D$ is divided are equivalent.
$\therefore$ pyramid $S-A B C$ is equivalent to $\frac{1}{3}$ of the prism.
But the volume of the prism is equal to the product of its base and altitude;

$$
\therefore S-A B C=\frac{1}{3} A B C \times H .
$$

Q. E. D.

Proposition XVIII. Theorem.
574. The volume of any pyramid is equal to one-third the product of its base and altitude.


Let $S-A B C D E$ be any pyramid.
We are to prove $S-A B C D E=\frac{1}{3} A B C D E \times S O$.
Through the edge $S D$, and the diagonals of the base $D A$, $D B$, pass planes.

These divide the pyramid into triangular pyramids, whose bases are the triangles which compose the base of the pyramid,
and whose common altitude is the altitude $S O$ of the pyramid.

The volume of the given pyramid is equal to the sum of the volumes of the triangular pyramids.

But the sum of the volumes of the triangular pyramids is equal to $\frac{1}{3}$ the sum of their bases multiplied by their common altitude, § 573 (the volume of a triangular pyramid is equal to one-third the product of its base and altitude),
that is, the volume of the pyramid $S-A B C D E=\frac{1}{3}$ $A B C D E \times S O$.
Q. E. D.
575. Corollary. Pyramids having equivalent bases are to each other as their altitudes; pyramids having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases. Any two pyramids are to each other as the products of their bases and altitudes.
576. Scholium. The volume of any polyhedron may be found by dividing it into pyramids, and computing the volumes of these pyramids separately.

Proposition XIX. Theorem.
577. Two tetrahedrons having a trihedral angle of the one equal to a trihedral angle of the other are to each other as the products of the three edges of these trihedral angles.


Let $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ denote the volumes of the two tetrahedrons $D-A B C, D^{\prime}-A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, having the trihedral $A$ of the one equal to the trihedral $A$ of the other,

$$
\text { We are to prove } \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{A B \times A C \times A D}{A B^{\prime} \times A C^{\prime} \times A D^{\prime}}
$$

Place the tetrahedrons so that their equal trihedral $\angle s$ shall be in coincidence.

Consider $A B C$ and $A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ the bases of the two tetrahedrons,
and from $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ draw $D O$ and $D^{\prime} O^{\prime} \perp$ to the base $A B C$.
Now $\frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{A B C \times D O}{A B^{\prime} C^{\prime} \times D^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{A B C}{A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}} \times \frac{D O}{D^{\prime} O^{\prime}}$,
(any two pyramids are to each other as the products of their bases and altitudes).

But

$$
\frac{A B C}{A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{A B \times A C}{A B^{\prime} \times A C^{\prime}}
$$

and

$$
\frac{D O}{D^{\prime} O^{\prime}}=\frac{A D}{A D^{\prime}}
$$

(being homologous sides of the similar \& $A D O$ and $A D^{\prime} O$ ).

$$
\therefore \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{A B \times A C \times A D}{A B^{\prime} \times A C^{\prime} \times A D^{\prime}} .
$$

Q. E. D.

## Exercises.

1. Given a cubical tank holding one ton of water ; find its length in feet, if a cubic foot of water weigh 1000 ounces.
2. At 17 cents a square foot, what is the cost of lining with zinc a rectangular cistern 5 ft .7 in . long, 3 ft .11 in . broad, 2 ft . $8 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. deep?
3. Find the side of a cubical block of cast iron weighing a ton, if iron weigh 7.2 as much as water, and a cubic foot of water weigh 1000 ounces.
4. How many cubic yards of gravel will be required for a walk surrounding a rectangular lawn 200 yards long, and 100 yards wide; the walk to be 3 feet wide and the gravel 3 inches deep?
5. The volume of a rectangular solid is the sum of two cubes whose edges are 10 inches and 2 inches respectively, and the area of its base is the difference between 2 squares whose sides are $1 \frac{1}{9}$ feet and $1 \frac{2}{8}$ feet respectively ; find its altitude in feet.
6. A rectangular cistern whose length is equal to its breadth is 22 decimetres deep, and contains 10 tonneaux of water; find its length.
7. Given a regular prism whose base is a regular hexagon inscribed in a circle 6 metres in diameter, and whose altitude is 8.7 metres; find the number of kilolitres it will contain, if the thickness of the walls be 1 decimetre.
8. A pond whose area is 11 hectares, 21 ares, 22.2 centares, is covered with ice 21 centimetres thick. What is the weight of this body of ice in kilogrammes, the weight of ice being $92 \%$ that of water.
9. Given two hollow oblique prisms, whose interior dimensions are as follows : the area of a right section of the first is 18 $\mathrm{sq} . \mathrm{ft}$., of the second 2.1 sq. metres ; a lateral edge of the first is 9 ft ., of the second 2.1 metres; find the volume of each in cubic yards, cubic metres, cubic decimetres, and cubic centimetres; find the capacity of each in gallons and litres, in bushels and hectolitres ; and find the weight of water in pounds and in kilogrammes, required to fill each prism.

Proposition XX. Theorem.
578. The frustum of a triangular pyramid is equivalent to the sum of three pyramids whose common altitude is the altitude of the frustum and whose bases are the lower base, the upper base, and a mean proportional between the two bases of the frustum.


Let $B$ and $b$ denote the lower and upper bases of the frustum $A B C-D E F$, and $H$ its altitude.
Through the vertices $A, E, C$ and $E, D, C$ pass planes dividing the frustum into three pyramids.

Now the pyramid $E-A B C$ has for its altitude $H$, the altitude of the frustum, and for its base $B$, the lower base of the frustum.

And the pyramid $C-E D F$ has for its altitude $H$, the altitude of the frustum, and for its base $b$, the upper base of the frustum. Hence, it only remains

To prove $E-A D C$ equivalent to a pyramid, having for its altitude $H$, and for its base $\sqrt{B \times b}$.
$E-A B C$ and $E-A D C$, regarded as having the common vertex $C$, and their bases in the same plane $B D$, have a common altitude.

$$
\therefore E-A B C: E-A D C:: \triangle A E B: \triangle A E D . \quad \S 575
$$

(pyramids having equal altitudes are to each other as their bases).
Now since the © $A E B$ and $A E D$ have a common altitude, (that is, the altitude of the trapezoid $A B E D$ ), we have $\triangle A E B: \triangle A E D:: A B: D E$,

$$
\therefore E-A B C: E-A D C:: A B: D E .
$$

In like manner $E-A D C$ and $E-D F C$, regarded as having the common vertex $E$ and their bases in the same plane $D C$, have a common altitude.

$$
\therefore E-A D C: E-D F C:: \triangle A D C: \triangle D F C
$$

But since the $\& A D C$ and $D F^{\prime} C$ have a common altitude, (the altitude of the trapezoid ACFD),
we have $\quad \triangle A D C: \triangle D F C:: A C: D F$.
Now $\triangle D E F$ is similar to $\triangle A B C, \quad \S 565$ (the section of a pyramid made by a plane II to the base is a polygon similar to the base) ;

$$
\therefore A B: \bar{D} E:: A C: D F .
$$

$$
\therefore E-A B C: E-A D C:: E-A D C: E-D F C .
$$

Now

$$
E-A B C=\frac{1}{3} H \times B \text {, }
$$

§ 573
and $\quad E-D F C=C-E D F=\frac{1}{3} H \times b$. § 573

$$
\therefore E-A D C=\sqrt{\frac{1}{3} H \times B \times \frac{1}{3} H \times b}=\frac{1}{3} H \sqrt{B \times b} . \text {. }
$$

579. Corollary 1. Since the volume of the frustum is denoted by $V$, the lower base by $B$, the upper base by $b$, and the altitude by $H$,

$$
\text { we have } \begin{aligned}
V & =\frac{1}{3} H \times B+\frac{1}{3} H \times b+\frac{1}{3} H \times \sqrt{B \times b} \\
& =\frac{1}{3} H \times(B+b+\sqrt{B \times b}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

580. Cor. 2. The frustum of any pyramid is equivalent to the sum of three pyramids whose common altitude is the altitude of the frustum, and whose bases are the lower base, the upper base, and a mean proportional between the bases of the frustum.

For the frustum of any pyramid is equivalent to the corresponding frustum of a triangular pyramid having the same altitude and an equivalent base ( $\$ 578$ ) ; and the bases of the frustum of a triangular pyramid being both equivalent to the corresponding bases of the given frustum, a mean proportional between the triangular bases is equivalent to a mean proportional between their equivalents.

## Proposition XXI. Theorem.

581. A truncated triangular prism is equivalent to the sum of three pyramids whose common base is the base of the prism, and whose vertices are the three vertices of the inclined section.


Let $A B C$-D $E F$ be a truncated triangular prism whose base is $A B C$, and inclined section $D E F$.

We are to prove $A B C-D E F \approx$ three pyramids, $E-A B C$, $D-A B C$ and $F-A B C$.

Pass the planes $A E C$ and $D E C$, dividing the truncated prism into the three pyramids $E-A B C, E-A C D$, and $E-C D F$.

Now the pyramid $E-A B C$ has the base $A B C$ and the vertex $E$.

$$
E-A C D \approx B-A C D
$$

(for they have the same base $A C D$ and the same altitude, since their vertices $E$ and $B$ are in the line $E B \|$ to the base $A C D)$.
But pyramid $B-A C D$, which is equivalent to pyramid $E-A C D$, may be regarded as having the base $A B C$ and the vertex $D$.

Again, $\quad E-C D F \approx B-A C F$,
for their bases $C D F$ and $A C F$, in the same plane, are equivalent, § 325
(for the $\triangle C D F$ and $A C F$ have the common base $C F$ and equal altitudes, their vertices lying in the line $A D \|$ to $C F$ ).

Moreover, $E-C D F$ and $B-A C F$ have the same altitude, (since their vertices $E$ and $B$ are in the line $E B \|$ to the plane of their bases $A C D F)$.

But the pyramid $B-A C F$ may be regarded as having the base $A B C$ and the vertex $F$.
$\therefore$ the truncated triangular prism $A B C-D E F$ is equivalent to the three pyramids $E-A B C, D-A B C$, and $F-A B C$.

582. Corollary 1. The volume of a truncated right triangular prism is equal to the product of its base by one-third the sum of its lateral edges. For the lateral edges $D A, E B$, $F C$, being perpendicular to the base, are the altitudes of the three pyramids whose sum is equivalent to the truncated prism. And, since the volume of a pyramid is one-third the product of its base by its altitude, the sum of the volumes of these pyramids $=A B C \times \frac{1}{3}(D A+E B+F C)$.
583. Cor. 2. The volume of any truncated triangular prism is equal to the product of its right section by one-third the sum of its lateral edges.

For let $A B C-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be any truncated triangular prism. Then the right section $D E F$ divides it into two truncated right prisms whose volumes are $D E F \times \frac{1}{3}\left(A D+B E+C F^{\prime}\right)$ and $D E F \times \frac{1}{3}\left(A^{\prime} D+B^{\prime} E^{\prime}+C^{\prime} F^{\prime}\right)$.

Whence their sum is $D E F \times \frac{1}{3}\left(A A^{\prime}+B B^{\prime}+C C^{\prime}\right)$.

## Exercises.

1. Given a pyramid whose base is a rectangle 80 feet by 60 feet, and whose lateral edges are each 130 feet; find its volume, and its entire surface.
2. Given the frustum of a pyramid whose bases are heptagons; each side of the lower base being 10 feet, and of the upper base 6 feet, and the slant height 42 feet; find the convex surface in square yards.
3. Given a stick of timber 30 feet long, the greater end being 18 inches square, and the smaller end 15 inches square; find its volume in cubic feet.
4. Given a stone obelisk in the form of a regular quadrangular pyramid, having a side of its base equal to 25 decimetres, and its slant height 12 metres. The stone weighs 2.5 as much as water. What is its weight in kilogrammes?
5. Given the frustum of a pyramid whose bases are squares ; each side of the lower base being 35 decimetres, each side of the upper base 25 decimetres, and the altitude 15 metres; find its volume in steres.
6. Given a right hexagonal pyramid whose base is inscribed in a circle 30 feet in diameter, and whose altitude is 20 feet; find its convex surface, and its volume.
7. Given a right pentagonal pyramid whose base is inscribed in a circle 20 feet in diameter, and whose slant height is 30 feet; find its convex surface, and its volume.
8. Find the difference between the volume of the frustum of a pyramid, and the volume of a prism of the same altitude whose base is a section of the frustum parallel to its bases and equidistant from them.
9. Given a stick of timber 32 feet long, 18 inches wide, 15 inches thick at one end, and 12 inches at the other; find the number of cubic feet, and the number of feet board measure it contains. Find equivalents for the results in the metric systera.

## On Similar Polyhedrons.

584. Def. Similar polyhedrons are polyhedrons which have the same form. They have, therefore, the same number of faces, respectively similar and similarly placed, and their corresponding polyhedral angles equal.
585. Def. Homologous faces, lines, and angles of similar polyhedrons are faces, lines, and angles similarly placed.

I. The homologous edges of similar polyhedrons are proportional.

Since the faces $S A B, S A C, S B C$ and $A B C$ are similar respectively to $S^{\prime \prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, S^{\prime \prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}, S^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, we have

$$
\frac{S A}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime}}=\frac{S B}{S^{\prime} B^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}, \text { etc. }
$$

II. Any two homologous faces of similar polyhedrons are proportional to the squares of any two homologous edges.

Thus, $\frac{S A B}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{S A^{2}}}{{\overline{S^{\prime} A^{\prime}}}^{2}}=\frac{S A C}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{\overline{S C^{2}}}{\overline{S^{\prime} C^{\prime}}}=\frac{S B C}{S^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}} . \S 342$
III. The entire surfaces of two similar polyhedrons are proportional to the squares of any two homologous edges.

Thus, since $\quad \frac{S A B}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{S A C}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime}}$, etc.,

$$
\frac{S A B+S A C, \text { etc. }}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}+S^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, \text { etc. }}=\frac{S A B}{S^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{S A^{2}}}{\overline{S^{\prime} A^{\prime}}}
$$

## Proposition XXII. Theorem.

586. Two similar polyhedrons may be decomposed into the same number of tetraliedrons similar, each to each, and


Let $A B C D E-O P Q R S$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}-O^{\prime} P^{\prime} Q^{\prime} R^{\prime} S^{\prime}$ be two similar polyhedrons of which $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ are homologous vertices.

We are to prove that $A B C D E-O P Q R S$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}-$ $O^{\prime} P^{\prime} Q^{\prime} R^{\prime} S^{\prime \prime}$ can be decomposed into the same number of tetrahedrons similar and similarly placed.

Place two homologous faces $A B C D$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ in the same plane, having two homologous edges $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} \|$ and lying in the same direction.

On any two corresponding faces not adjacent to $P$ and $P^{\prime}$, as $A B C D E$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, from two homologous vertices, as $E$ and $E^{\prime}$, draw diagonals dividing these faces into $\mathbb{A}$, similar and similarly placed.

From the homologous vertices $P, P^{\prime}$ of the polyhedrons draw straight lines to the vertices of these $\mathbb{A}$.

Repeat this construction for each of the faces not adjacent to $P, P^{\prime}$.

Then the polyhedrons will be divided into the same number of tetrahedrons;
that is, into as many tetrahedrons as there are $\mathbb{A}$ in these faces.

Now, any two corresponding tetrahedrons, as $P-A B E$ and $P^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, are similar ;
for the faces $E A B$ and $P A B$ are similar respectively to the faces $E^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$,
(being similarly situated \& of similar polygons).
In the $\mathcal{A} P B E$ and $P^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$

$$
P B \text { is } \| \text { to } P^{\prime} B^{\prime} \text {, and } B E \text { to } B^{\prime} E^{\prime},
$$

(since they make equal $\&$ respectively with the $\|$ lines $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ );

$$
\therefore \angle P B E=\angle P^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}
$$

(two $\triangle$ not in the same plane having their sides II and lying in the same direction are equal) ;
and

$$
\frac{P B}{P^{\prime} B^{\prime}}=\left(\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{B E}{B^{\prime} E^{\prime}}
$$

$\therefore$ face $P B E$ is similar to face $P^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$.
§ 284
Also, in the $\& P A E$ and $P^{\prime} A^{\prime} E^{\prime}$

$$
\frac{P E}{P^{\prime} E^{\prime \prime}}=\left(\frac{P B}{P^{\prime} B^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{P A}{P^{\prime} A^{\prime}}=\left(\frac{A B}{A^{\prime} B^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{A E}{A^{\prime} E^{\prime}}, \quad \S 278
$$

(being homologous sides of similar © ).
$\therefore$ face $P A E$ is similar to face $P^{\prime} A^{\prime} E^{\prime}$.
§ 282
Moreover, since any two corresponding trihedral $\angle \leqslant$ of these tetrahedrons are formed by three plane $\angle S$ which are equal, each to each, and similarly situated, they are equal.
$\therefore P-A B E$ and $P^{\prime}-A^{\prime} B^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ are similar.
§ 584
In like manner we may show that any other two tetrahedrons similarly situated are similar.

That is, the two similar polyhedrons have the same number of tetrahedrons similar each to each, and similarly situated.
Q. E. D.
587. Corollary. Any two homologous lines in two similar polyhedrons have the same ratio as any two homologous edges.

## Proposition XXIII. Theorem.

588. Similar tetrahedrons are to each other as the cubes of their homologous edges.


Let $S-B C D$ and $S^{\prime}-B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ be two similar tetrahedrons having for bases the similar faces $B C D$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and for altitudes $S O$ and $S^{\prime} O^{\prime}$.

We are to prove $\frac{S-B C D}{S^{\prime}-B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{B C^{3}}}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime 3}}}$.
Apply the tetrahedron $S^{\prime}-B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime}$ to the tetrahedron $S-B C D$, so that the polyhedral $S^{\prime \prime}$ shall coincide with $S$.

Then the base $B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ will be $\|$ to the face $B C D$,
(since their planes make equal $\mathbb{E}$ with the face $S B C$ ),
and the $\perp S O, \perp$ to $B C D$, will also be $\perp$ to $B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.
$S O^{\prime}$ will be the altitude of the tetrahedron $S-B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.
Now $\frac{S-B C D}{S-B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{B C D \times S O}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} \times S O^{\prime}}=\frac{B C D}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}} \times \frac{S O}{S 0^{\prime}}, \S 575$ (any two tetrahedrons are to each other as the products of their bases and altitudes).

Since the bases are similar,

$$
\frac{B C^{\prime} D}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}}=\frac{\overrightarrow{B C^{2}}}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime 2}}}
$$

$$
\text { Also, } \quad \frac{S O}{S O^{\prime}}=\frac{B C}{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}},
$$

(in two similar polyhedrons any two homologous lines are in the same ratio as any two homologous edges).

$$
\therefore \frac{S-B C D}{S-B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}}=\frac{{\overline{B C^{\prime}}}^{2}}{{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime}}}^{2}} \times \frac{B C}{\bar{B}^{\prime} C^{\prime}}=\frac{\overline{B C}^{3}}{\overline{B^{\prime} C^{\prime 3}}} .
$$

Q.E.D.
589. Corollary 1. Two similar polyhedrons are to each other as the cubes of any two homologous edges.

For, two similar polyhedrons may be decomposed into tetrahedrons similar, each to each, and similarly placed, of which any two homologous edges have the same ratio as any two homologous edges of the polyhedrons. And, since any pair of the similar tetrahedrons are to each other as the cubes of any two homologous edges, the entire polyhedrons are to each other as the cubes of any two homologous edges.
§ 266
590. Cor. 2. Similar prisms or pyramids are to each other as the cubes of their altitudes; and similar polyhedrons are to each other as the cubes of any two homologous lines.

Ex. 1. The portion of a tetrahedron cut off by a plane parallel to any face is a tetrahedron similar to the given tetrahedron.

Ex. 2. Two tetrahedrons, having a dihedral angle of one equal to a dihedral angle of the other, and the faces including these angles respectively similar, and similarly placed, are similar.

Ex. 3. Given two similar polyhedrons, whose volumes are 125 feet and 12.5 feet respectively ; find the ratio of two homologous edges.

## On Regular Polyhedrons.

591. Def. A Regular polyhedron is a polyhedron all of whose faces are equal regular polygons, and all of whose polyhedral angles are equal.

The regular polyhedrons are the tetrahedron, octahedron and icosahedron, all of whose faces are equal equilateral triangles; the hexahedron, or cube, whose faces are squares; the dodecahedron, whose faces are regular pentagons.

Only these five regular polyhedrons are possible, for a polyhedral angle must have at least three face angles, and must have the sum of its face angles less than four right angles, (§488). Hence :
I. If the faces be equilateral triangles, polyhedral angles may be formed of them in groups of 3,4 , or 5 only, as in the tetrahedron, octahedron and icosahedron. Since each angle of an equilateral triangle is two-thirds of a right angle, the sum of six such angles is four right angles, and therefore greater than a convex polyhedral angle.
II. If the faces be squares, polyhedral angles may be formed of them in groups of three only, as in the regular hexahedron, or cube; since four such angles would be four right angles.
III. If the faces be regular pentagons, polyhedral angles may be formed of them in groups of three only, as in the regular dodecahedron; since four such angles would be greater than four right angles.
IV. We can proceed no farther ; for a group of three angles of regular hexagons would equal four right angles, and of regular heptagons, etc., would be greater than four right angles.

Proposition XXIV. Problem.
592. Given an edge, to construct the five regular polyhadrons.

Let $A B$ be the given edge.
I. Upon $A B$ to construct a regular tetrahedron.

Upon $A B$ construct the equilateral $\triangle$ $A B C$.

Find the centre $O$ of this $\triangle$, § 232 and erect $O D \perp$ to the plane $A B C$.
Take the point $D$ so that $A D=A B$. Draw $D A, D B, D C$.

$A B C D$ is the regular tetrahedron required.
For, the edges are all equal,
§ 450
and hence the faces are equal equilateral A.
and its polyhedral $\angle s$ are all equal.
§ 492

II. To construct a regular hexahedron.

Upon the given edge $A B$ construct the square $A B C D$,
and upon the sides of this square con$C$ strict the squares $E B, F C, G D, H A \perp$ to the plane $A B C D$.

Then $A G$ is the regular hexahedron required.
III. To construct a regular octahedron.

Upon the given edge $A B$ construct the square $A B C D$.

Through its centre $O$ pass a $\perp$ to its plane $A B C D$.

In this $\perp$ take two points $E$ and $F$, one above and the other below the plane, so that $A E$ and $A F$ are each equal to $A B$.


Join $E$ and $F$ to each of the vertices of the square.
Then $E A B C D F$ is the regular octahedron required.
For, the edges are all equal,
and hence the faces are equal equilateral ©.
And, since the $\mathbb{S} D E F$ and $D A C$ are equal, § 108
$D E B F$ is a square and the pyramid $A-D E B F$ is equal in all its parts to the pyramid $E-A B C D$.

Hence, the polyhedral $L S$ and $E$ are equal.
In like manner all the polyhedral $\angle \circ$ of the figure are equal.



## IV. To construct a regular dodecahedron.

Upon A B construct the regular pentagon A BCDE. § 395
On each side of this pentagon construct an equal pentagon, so inclined that trihedral $\angle s$ shall be formed at $A, B, C, D, E$.

The convex surface thus formed is composed of six regular pentagons.

In like manner, upon an equal pentagon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ construct an equal convex surface.

Apply one of these surfaces to the other, with their convexities turned in opposite directions, so that $P^{\prime} O^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime} Q^{\prime}$ shall fall upon $P O$ and $P Q$.

Then every face $\angle$ of the one will, with two consecutive face $\angle s$ of the other, form a trihedral $\angle$.

The solid thus formed is the regular dodecahedron required. For, the faces are all regular pentagons,

Cons. and the polyhedral $\measuredangle s$ are all equal.
§ 492


## V. To construct a regular icosahedron.

Upon $A B$ construct the regular pentagon $A B C D E$. § 395 At its centre $O$ erect a $\perp$ to its plane. In this $\perp$ take $P$ so that $P A=A B$.

Join $P$ with each of the vertices of the pentagon;
thus forming a regular pentagonal pyramid whose vertex is $P$, and whose dihedral $\mathbb{E}$ formed on the edges $P A, P B, P C$, etc. are all equal.
§ 571
Taking $A$ and $B$ as vertices, construct two pyramids each equal to the first, and having for bases $B P E F^{\prime} G$ and $A G H C P$. respectively.

There will thus be formed a convex surface consisting of ten equal equilateral ©s.

In like manner upon an equal pentagon $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ construct an equal convex surface.

Apply one of these surfaces to the other with their convexities turned in opposite directions, so that every combination of two face $\angle s$ of the one, as $P^{\prime} D^{\prime} C^{\prime}, P^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$, shall with a combination of three face $\angle s$ of the other, as $B C H, B C P, P C D$, form a pentahedral $\angle$.

The solid thus formed is the regular icosahedron required.
For,
the faces are all equal;
Cons. and the polyhedral $\angle s$ are all equal, § 571 Q. E. D.


DODECAHEDRON.
593. Scholium. The regular polyhedrons can be formed thus :

Draw the above diagrams upon card-board. Cut through the exterior lines and half through the interior lines. The figures will then readily bend into the regular forms required.

## Supplementary Propositions.

Proposition XXV. Theorem. (Euler's.)
594. In any polyherlron the number of its edges increased by two is equal to the number of its vertices increased by the number of its faces.
Let $E$ denote the number of edges of any polyhedron;
$V$ the number of its vertices, $F$ the number of its faces.
We are to prove

$E+2=V+F$.
Beginning with one face $A B C D E$, we have $E=V$.

Annex a second face $S A B$ by applying one of its edges to an edge of the first face.

There is formed a surface having one edge $A B$, and two vertices $A$ and $B$ common to both faces.
$\therefore$ whatever the number of the sides of the new face, the whole number of edges is now one more than the whole number of vertices.

$$
\therefore \text { for } 2 \text { faces } E=V+1 \text {. }
$$

Annex a third face, $S B C$, adjacent to each of the former.
The new surface will have two edges $S B$ and $B C$,
and three vertices $S, B$ and $C$, in common with the preceding surface.
$\therefore$ the increase in the number of edges is again one more than the increase in the number of vertices.

According to the same law, for an incomplete surface of $F-1$ faces

$$
E=V+F-2
$$

When we add the last face $S E A$, necessary to complete the surface,
its edges $S E, S A$ and $A E$, and its vertices $S, E$ and $A$ will be in common with the preceding surface.
$\therefore$ in a polyhedron of $F$ faces $E=V+F-2$.

$$
\therefore E+2=V+F \text {. }
$$

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXVI. Theorem.

595. The sum of all the angles of the faces of any polyhedron is equal to four right angles taken as many times as the polyhedron has vertices less two.

Let $E$ denote the number of edges, $V$ the number of vertices, $F$ the number of faces, and $S$ the sum of all the angles of the faces of any polyhedron.

We are to prove $\quad S=4 \mathrm{rt}. \measuredangle \times(V-2)$.
Since $E$ denotes the number of the edges of the polyhedron,
$2 E$ will denote the whole number of sides of all its faces, considered as sides of independent polygons.

And since the sum of all the interior and exterior $\angle S$ of each poly-
 gon is equal to $2 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}$ taken as many times as it has sides,
the sum of the interior and exterior $\mathbb{L}$ of all the faces is equal to 2 rt . $\leqslant \times 2 \mathrm{E}$.

And since the sum of the exterior $\&$ of each face is $4 \mathrm{rt} . \boxed{\mathrm{s}}$,
the sum of the exterior $\&$ of all the faces is equal to $4 \mathrm{rt} . ~ \& \leqslant F$.

$$
\therefore S+4 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle \leqslant F=2 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle \times 2 E .
$$

That is,

$$
S=4 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle 今 \times(E-F)
$$

Since

$$
E+2=V+F
$$

$$
E-F=V-2
$$

$$
\therefore S=4 \mathrm{rt.} \measuredangle s \times(V-2) .
$$

Q. E. D.

## On the Cylinder.

596. Def. A Cylindrical surface is a curved surface generated by a moving straight line which continually touches a given curve and in all its positions is parallel to a given fixed straight line not in the plane of the curve.


Thus, the surface $A B C D$, generated by the moving line $A D$ continually touching the curve $A B C$ and always parallel to a given straight line $M$, is a cylindrical surface.
597. Def. The moving line is called the Generatrix; the curve which directs the motion of the generatrix is called the Directrix; the generatrix in any position is called an Element of the surface.

The generatrix may be indefinite in extent, and the directrix a closed or an open curve. In elementary geometry the directrix is considered a circle.
598. Def. A Cylinder is a solid bounded by a cylindrical surface and two parallel planes.
599. Def. The Bases of a cylinder are its plane surfaces.
600. Def. The Lateral surface of a cylinder is its cylindrical surface.
601. Def. The Axis of a cylinder is the straight line joining the centres of its bases.
602. Def. The Altitude of a cylinder is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases.
603. Def. A Section of a cylinder is a plane figure whose boundary is the intersection of its plane with the surface of the cylinder.
604. Def. A Right section of a cylinder is a section perpendicular to the elements.
605. Def. A Radius of a cylinder is the radius of the base.
606. Def. A Right cylinder is a cylinder whose elements are perpendicular to its bases. Any element of a right cylinder is equal to its altitude.
607. Def. An Oblique cylinder is a cylinder whose elements are oblique to its bases. Any element of an oblique cylinder is greater than its altitude.
608. Def. A Cylinder of Revolution is a cylinder generated by the revolution of a rectangle about one side as an axis.
609. Def. Similar cylinders of revolution are cylinders generated by similar rectangles revolving about homologous sides.
610. Def. A Tangent line to a cylinder is a straight line which touches the surface of the cylinder, but does not intersect it.
611. Def. A Tangent plane to a cylinder is a plane which embraces an element of the cylinder without cutting the surface. The element embraced by the tangent plane is called the Element of Contact.
612. Def. A prism is inscribed in a cylinder when its lateral edges are elements of the cylinder and its bases are inscribed in the bases of the cylinder.
613. Def. A prism is circumscribed about a cylinder when its lateral faces are tangent to the cylinder and its bases are circumscribed about the bases of the cylinder.

Proposition XXVII. Theorem.
614. Every section of a cylinder made by a plane passing through an element is a parallelogram.


Let A BCD be a section of the cylinder A C, made by a plane passing through $A D$.
We are to prove the section $A B C D$ a parallelogram.
The line $B C$, in which the cutting plane intersects the curved surface a second time, is an element;
for, if through the point $B$ a line be drawn $\|$ to $A D$,
it will be an element of the surface.
It will also lie in the plane $A C$.
This element, lying in both the cylindrical surface and plane surface, is their intersection.

Now $A D$ is $\|$ to $B C$, (being elements of the cylinder),
and $\quad A B$ is $\|$ to $D C$, § 465
(the intersections of two II planes by a third plane are II lines).
$\therefore$ the section $A B C D$ is a $\square$.
615. Corollary. Every section of a right cylinder embracing an element is a rectangle.

Proposition XXVIII. Theorem.
616. The bases of a cylinder are equal.


Let $A B E$ and $D C G$ be the bases of the cylinder $A C$.
We are to prove $\quad A B E=D C G$.
Any sections $A C$ and $A G$, embracing $A D$, an element of the cylinder, are s . § 614

$$
\therefore A B=D C \text { and } A E=D G
$$

Now
$B C$ is \| to $E G$, § 459 (each being \| to $A D$ ).
Also

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
B C=E G, & \S 464 \\
\therefore E C \text { is a } \square . & \S 136 \\
\therefore E B=G C, & \S 134 \\
\therefore \triangle E A B=\triangle G D C . & \S 108
\end{array}
$$

Apply the upper base to the lower base, so that $D C$ will coincide with $A B$.

Then $\triangle G D C$ will coincide with $\triangle E A B$, and point $G$ will fall upon point $E$.

That is, any point $G$ in the perimeter of the upper base will coincide with the point in the same element in the lower base.
$\therefore$ the bases coincide, and are equal.
Q. E. D.
617. Corollary 1. Any two parallel sections $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, cutting all the elements of a cylinder $E F$, are equal. For these sections are the bases of the cylinder $A C^{\prime}$.
618. Cor. 2. Any section of a cylinder parallel to the base is equal to the base.

Proposition XXIX. Theorem.
619. The lateral area of a cylinder is equal to the product of the perimeter of a right section of the cylinder by an element of the surface.


Let $A B C D E$ be the base, and $A A^{\prime}$ any element of the cylinder $A C^{\prime}$; and let the curve $a b c d e$ be any right section of its surface.

Denote the perimeter of the right section by $P$, and the lateral surface of the cylinder by $S$.
We are to prove $\quad S=P \times A A^{\prime}$.
Inscribe in the cylinder a prism whose right section $a b c d e$ will be a polygon inscribed in the right section $a b c d e$ of the cylinder.

Denote the lateral area of the prism by $s$, and the perimeter of its right section by $p$.
Then

$$
s=p \times A A^{\prime}
$$ (the lateral area of a prism is equal to the product of the perimeter of a right section by a lateral edge).

Now let the number of lateral faces of the inscribed prism be indefinitely increased,
the new edges continually bisecting the arcs in the right section.

Then $p$ approaches $P$ as its limit, and $s$ approaches $S$ as its limit.
But, however great the number of faces,

$$
\begin{gather*}
s=p \times A A^{\prime} \\
\therefore S=P \times A A^{\prime}
\end{gather*}
$$


620. Corollary 1. The lateral area of a right cylinder is equal to the product of the perimeter of its base by its altitude.
621. Cor. 2. Let a cylinder of revolution be generated by the rectangle whose sides are $R$ and $H$ revolving about the side $H$.

Then $R$ is the radius of the base of the cylinder, and $H$ the altitude of the cylinder.

The perimeter of the base is $2 \pi R$;
hence,

$$
S=2 \pi R \times H
$$

The area of each base is $\pi R^{2}$; § 381
hence, the total area $T$ of a cylinder of revolution is expressed by

$$
T=2 \pi R \times H+2 \pi R^{2}=2 \pi R(H+R)
$$

622. Cor. 3. Let $S, S^{\prime}$ denote the lateral areas of two similar cylinders of revolution;
$T, T^{\prime}$ their total areas ; $R, R^{\prime}$ the radii of their bases ; $H, H^{\prime}$ their altitudes.

Since the generating rectangles are similar, we have

$$
\frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{R}{R^{\prime}}=\frac{H+R}{H^{\prime}+R^{\prime}}
$$

$$
\therefore \frac{S}{S^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{2 \pi R I I}{2 \pi R^{\prime} H^{\prime}}=\frac{R}{R^{\prime}} \times \frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{H^{2}}{H^{\prime 2}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}
$$

and $\frac{T}{T^{\prime}}=\frac{2 \pi R(H+R)}{2 \pi R^{\prime}\left(H^{\prime}+R^{\prime}\right)}=\frac{R}{\overline{R^{\prime}}}\left(\frac{H+R}{H^{\prime}+R^{\prime}}\right)=\frac{H^{2}}{H^{\prime 2}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}$.
That is, the lateral areas, or the total areas, of similar cylinders of revolution are to each other as the squares of their altitudes, or as the squares of the radii of their bases.

## Proposition XXX. Theorem.

623. The volume of a cylinder is equal to the product of its base by its altitude.


Let $V$ denote the volume of the cylinder $A G, B$ its base, and $H$ its altitude.

We are to prove

$$
V=B \times H
$$

Let $V^{\prime}$ denote the volume of the inscribed prism $A G, B^{\prime}$ its base, and $H$ will be its altitude.

Then

$$
V^{\prime}=B^{\prime} \times H
$$

(the volume of a prism is equal to the product of its base by its altitude).
Now, let the number of lateral faces of the inscribed prism be indefinitely increased, the new edges continually bisecting the ares of the bases.

> Then $B^{\prime}$ approaches $B$ as its limit, and $V^{\prime}$ approaches $V$ as its limit.

But however great the number of the lateral faces,

$$
\begin{gather*}
V^{\prime}=B^{\prime} \times H \\
\therefore V=B \times H
\end{gather*}
$$

Q. E. D.
624. Corollary 1. Let $V$ be the volume of a cylinder of revolution, $R$ the radius of its base, and $H$ its altitude.

Then the area of its base is $\pi R^{2}$,
§ 381

$$
\therefore V=\pi R^{2} \times H .
$$

625. Cor. 2. Let $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ be the volumes of two similar cylinders of revolution, $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ the radii of their bases, $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ their altitudes.

Since the generating rectangles are similar, we have

$$
\frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{R}{R^{\prime}}
$$

and $\quad \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{\pi R^{2} H}{\pi R^{\prime 2} H^{\prime}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}} \times \frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{H^{8}}{H^{\prime 8}}=\frac{R^{8}}{R^{\prime 8}}$.
That is, the volumes of similar cylinders of revolution are to each other as the cubes of their altitudes, or as the cubes of the radii of their bases.

Ex. 1. Required, the entire surface and volume of a cylinder of revolution whose altitude is 30 inches, and whose base is a circle of which the diameter is 20 inches.
2. Required, the volume of a right truncated triangular prism the area of whose base is 40 inches, and whose lateral edges are 10,12 , and 15 inches, respectively.
3. Let $E$ denote an edge of a regular tetrahedron; show that the altitude of the tetrahedron is equal to $E \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$; that the surface is equal to $E^{2} \sqrt{3}$; and that the volume is equal to $\frac{E^{3}}{12} \sqrt{2}$.
4. Required, the number of quarts that a cylinder of revolution will contain whose height is 20 inches, and whose diameter is 12 inches.
5. Given $S$, the surface of a cube, find its edge, diagonal, and volume. What do these become when $S=54$ ?

## Proposition XXXI. Problem.

626. Through a given point to pass a plane tangent to a given cylinder.


CASE I. - When the given point is in the curved surface of the cylinder.
Let $A C^{\prime}$ be a given cylinder, and let the given point $b e^{\circ}$ a point in the element $A A^{\prime}$.

It is required to pass a plane tangent to the cylinder and embracing the element $A A^{\prime}$.

Draw the radius $O A$, and $A T$ tangent to the base; and pass a plane $R T^{\prime}$ through $A A^{\prime}$ and $A T$.

The plane $R T^{\prime \prime}$ is the plane required.
For, through any point $P$ in this plane, not in the alemont $A A^{\prime}$,
pass a plane $\| l$ to the base, intersecting the cylinder in the $\odot M N$,

$$
\text { and the plane } R T^{\prime} \text { in } M P \text {. }
$$

From the centre of the $\odot M N$ draw $Q M$.
$M P$ and $M Q$ are $\|$ respectively to $A T$ and $A O$,
(the intersections of two II planes by a third plane are II lines);

$$
\therefore \angle P M Q=\angle T A O
$$

(two $\mathbb{L}$ not in the same plane, having their sides \| and lying in the same direction, are equal).

## $\therefore P M$ is tangent to the $\odot M N$ at $M$. <br> § 186

$\therefore P$ lies without the $\odot M N$, and hence without the cylinder.
$\therefore$ the plane $R T^{\prime \prime}$ does not cut the cylinder, and is tangent to it.

CASE II. - When the given point is without the cylinder.

## Let $P$ be the given point.

It is required to pass a plane through $P$ tangent to tho cylinder.

Through $P$ draw the line $P T \|$ to the elements of the cylinder,
meeting the plane of the base at $T$.
From $T$ draw $T A$ and $T C$ tangents to the base. $\S 240$
Through $P T$ and the tangent $T A$ pass a plane $R T$.
Since

$$
A A^{\prime} \text { is } \| \text { to } P T \text {, }
$$

Cons.
the plane $R T^{\prime}$, passing through $P T$ and the point $A$ will contain the element $A A^{\prime}$, (tu:o II lines lic in the same plane).

And, since $R T^{\prime \prime}$ also contains the tangent $A T$,
it is a tangent plane to the cylinder.
In like manner, the plane $T S^{\prime}$, passed through $P T$ and the tangent line $T C$,
is a tangent plane to the cylinder.
Q. E. F.
627. Corollary 1. The intersection of two tangent planes to a cylinder is parallel to the elements of the cylinder.
628. Cor. 2. Any straight line drawn in a tangent plane, and cutting the element of contact, is tangent to the cylinder.

## On the Cone.

629. Def. A Conical surface is a surface generated by a moving straight line continually touching a given curve and passing through a fixed point not in the plane of the curve.

Thus the surface generated by the moving line $A A^{\prime}$ continually touching the curve $A B C D$, and passing through the fixed point $S$, is a conical surface.
630. Def. The moving line is cailed the Generatrix; the curve which directs the motion of the generatrix is called the $D i$ rectrix; the generatrix, in any position, is called an Element of the surface.
631. Def. A conical surface generated by an indefinite straight line consists of two portions, called Nappes, one the Louver, the other the Upper Nappe.

632. Def. A Cone is a solid bounded by a conical surface and a plane.
633. Def. The Lateral surface of a cone is its conical surface.
634. Def. The Base of a cone is its plane surface.
635. Def. The Vertex of a cone is the fixed point through which all the elements pass.
636. Def. The Altitude of a cone is the perpendicular distance between its vertex and the plane of its base.
637. Def. A Section of a cone is a plane figure whose boundary is the intersection of its plane with the surface of the cone.
638. Def. A Right section of a cone is a section perpendicular to the axis.
639. Def. A Circular cone is a cone whose base is a circle.
640. Def. The Axis of a cone is the straight line joining its vertex and the centre of its base.
641. Def. A Right cone is a cone whose axis is perpendicular to its base. The axis of a right cone is equal to its altitude.
642. Def. An Oblique cone is a cone whose axis is oblique to its base. The axis of an oblique cone is greater than its altitude.
643. Def. A Cone of Revolution is a cone generated by the revolution of a right triangle about one of its perpendicular sides as an axis.

The side about which the triangle revolves is the axis of the cone ; the other perpeudicular generates the base, the hypotenuse generates the conical surface. Any position of the hypotenuse is an element, and any element is called the slant height.
644. Def. Similar cones of revolution are cones generated by the revolution of similar right triangles about homologous perpendicular sides.

645. Def. A Truncated cone is the portion of a cone included between the base and a section cutting all the elements.
646. Def. A Frustum of a cone is a truncated cone in which the cutting section is parallel to the base.
647. Def. The base of the cone is called the Lower base of the frustum, and the parallel section the Upper base.
648. Def. The Altitude of a frustum is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases.
649. Def. The Lateral surface of a frustum is the portion of the lateral surface of the cone included between the bases of the frustum.
650. Def. The Slant height of a frustum of a cone of revolution is the portion of any element of the cone included between the bases.
651. Def. A Tangent line to a cone is a line having only one point in common with the surface.
652. Def. A Tangent plane to a cone is a plane embracing an clement of the cone without cutting the surface. The element embraced by the tangent plane is called the Element of Contact.
653. Def. A pyramid is inscribed in a cone when its lateral edges are elements of the cone and its base is inscribed in the base of the cone.
654. Def. A pyramid is circumscribed about a cone when its lateral faces are tangent to the cone and its base is circumscribed about the base of the cone.

## Proposition XXXII. Theorem.

655. Every section of a cone made by a plane passing through its vertex is a triangle.


Let $S B D$ be a section of the cone $S-A B C$ through the vertex $S$.

We are to prove the section $S B D$ a triangle.
The straight lines joining $S$ with $B$ and $D$ are elements of the surface.

They also lie in the cutting plane, (for their extremities lie in the plane).

Hence, they are the intersections of the conical surface with the plane of the section.
$B D$ is also a straight line,
§ 446
(the intersection of two planes is a straight line).
$\therefore$ the section $S B D$ is a $\triangle$.

## Proposition XXXIII. Theorem.

656. Every section of a circular cone made by a plane parallel to the base is a circle.


Let the section $a b c$ of the circular cone $S-A B C$ be parallel to the base.

We are to prove that $a b c$ is a circle.
Let $O$ be the centre of the base, and let $o$ be the point in which the axis $S O$ pierces the plane of the $\|$ section.

Through $S O$ and any number of elements, $S A, S B$, etc., pass planes cutting the base in the radii $O A, O B$, etc.,
and the section $a b c$ in the straight lines $o a$, ob, etc.
Now $o a$ and $o b$ are $\|$ respectively to $O A$ and $O B$, § 465
(the intersections of two II planes by a third plane are II lines).
$\therefore$ the $\triangle S o a$ and $S \circ b$ are similar respectively to the © SOA and SOB,
and their homologous sides give the proportion

$$
\frac{o a}{O A}=\left(\frac{S o}{S O}\right)=\frac{o b}{O B}
$$

But

$$
O A=O B ;
$$

$$
\therefore o a=o b .
$$

That is, all the straight lines drawn from $o$ to the perimeter of the section are equal.
$\therefore$ the section $a b c$ is a $\odot$.

> Q. E. D.
657. Corollary. The axis of a circular cone passes through the centres of all the sections which are parallel to the base,

## Proposition XXXIV. Theorem.

658. The lateral area of a cone of revolution is equal to one-half the product of the circumference of its base by the slant height.


Let $A-E F G H K$ be cone generated by the revolution of the right triangle $A O E$ about $A O$ as an axis, and let $S$ denote its lateral area, $C$ the circumference of its base and $L$ its slant height.

We are to prove $\quad S=\frac{1}{2} C \times L$.
Inscribe on the base any regular polygon $E F G H K$, and upon this polygon as a base construct the regular pyramid $A-E F G H K$ inscribed in the cone.

Denote the lateral area of this pyramid by $s$, the perimeter of its base by $p$, its slant height by $l$,

Then

$$
s=\frac{1}{2} p \times l,
$$

(the lateral area of a regular pyramid is equal to one-half the product of the perimeter of its base by the slant height).

Now, let the number of the lateral faces of the inscribed pyramid be indefinitely increased,
the new edges continually bisecting the arcs of the base.
Then $p, s$ and $l$ approach $C, S$ and $L$ respectively as their limits.

But however great the number of lateral faces of the pyramid,

$$
\begin{align*}
s & =\frac{1}{2} p \times l . \\
\therefore S & =\frac{1}{2} C \times L .
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.
659. Corollary 1. If $R$ be the radius of the base, we have $C=2 \pi R(\S 381)$. Therefore $S=\frac{1}{2}(2 \pi R \times L)=\pi R L$. Also, since the area of the base is $\pi R^{2}$, the total area $T$ of the cone is expressed by

$$
T=\pi R L+\pi R^{2}=\pi R(L+R)
$$

660. Cor. 2. Let $S$ and $S^{\prime}$ denote the lateral areas of two similar cones of revolution, $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ their total areas, $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ the radii of their bases, $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ their altitudes, $L$ and $L^{\prime}$ their slant heights. Since the generating triangles are similir, we have

$$
\frac{L}{L^{\prime}}=\frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{R}{L^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{R+L}{R^{\prime}+L^{\prime}} .
$$

$\therefore \frac{S}{S^{\prime}}=\frac{\pi R L}{\pi R^{\prime} L^{\prime}}=\frac{R}{R^{\prime}} \times \frac{L}{L^{\prime}}=\frac{L^{2}}{L^{\prime 2}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}=\frac{H^{2}}{H^{\prime 2}}$.
And $\frac{T}{T^{\prime \prime}}=\frac{\pi R \times(L+R)}{\pi R^{\prime} \times\left(L^{\prime}+R^{\prime}\right)}=\frac{R}{R^{\prime}} \times \frac{L+R}{L^{\prime}+R^{\prime}}=\frac{L^{2}}{L^{\prime 3}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}}=\frac{H^{2}}{H^{\prime 2}}$.
That is: the lateral areas, or total areas, of similar cones of revolution are to each other as the squares of their slant heights, the squares of their altitudes, or the squares of the radii of their bases.

Proposition XXXV. Theorem.
661. The lateral area of the frustum of a cone of revolution is equal to one-half the sum of the circumferences of its buses multiplied by the slant height.


Let $H B C-E F G$ be the frustum of a cone of revolution, and let $S$ denote its lateral area, $C$ and $c$ the circumferences of its lower and upper bases, $R$ and $r$ the radii of the bases, and $L$ the slant height.

We are to prove $\quad S=\frac{1}{2}(C+c) \times L$.
Inscribe in the frustum of the cone the frustum of the regular pyramid $H B C-E F G$,
and denote the lateral area of this frustum by $s$, the perimeters of its lower and upper bases by $P$ and $p$ respectively, and its slant height by $l$.

$$
\text { Then } s=\frac{1}{2}(P+p) l,
$$

(the lateral area of the frustum of a regular pyramid is equal to one-half the sum of the perimeters of its bases multiplied by the slant height).

Now, let the number of lateral faces be indefinitely increased, the new elements constantly bisecting the arcs of the bases.

Then $P, p$, and $l$, approach $C, c$, and $L$, respectively as their limits.

But, however great the number of lateral faces of the frustum of the pyramid,

$$
\begin{gather*}
s=\frac{1}{2}(P+p) \times l . \\
\therefore S=\frac{1}{2}(C+c) \times L .
\end{gather*}
$$

Q. E. D.

662. Corollary. The lateral area of a frustum of a cone of revolution is equal to the circumference of a section equidistant from its bases multiplied by its slant height.

For the section of the frustum equidistant from its bases cuts the frustum of the regular inscribed pyramid equidistant from its bases.

Therefore the perimeter $I L K=\frac{1}{2}$ the sum of the perimeters $H B C$ and $E F G$.

And this will always be true, however great the number of the lateral faces of the frustum of the pyramid.

Hence, circumference $I L K=\frac{1}{2}$ the sum of the circumferences $H B C$ and $E F G$.

## Proposition XXXVI. Theorem.

663. Any section of a cone parallel to the base is io the base as the square of the altitude of the part above the section is to the square of the altitude of the cone.


Let $B$ denote the base of the cone, $H$ its altitude, $b$ a section of the cone parallel to the base, and $h$ the altitude of the cone above the section.

We are to prove $B: b:: H^{2}: h^{2}$.
Let $B^{\prime}$ denote the base of an inscribed pyramid, $b^{\prime}$ the base of the pyramid formed in the section of the cone.

Then

$$
B^{\prime}: b^{\prime}:: I^{2}: \iota^{2}
$$ (any section of a pyramid II to its basc is to the brise as the square of the $\perp$ from the vertex to the plane of the section is to the square of the altitude of the pyramid).

Now let the number of lateral faces of the inscribed pyr. mid be indefinitely increased,
the new edges continually bisecting the arcs in the base of the cone.

Then $B^{\prime}$ and $b^{\prime}$ approach $B$ and $b$ respectively as their limits.

But however great the number of lateral faces of the pyramid,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B^{\prime}: b^{\prime}:: H^{2}: h^{2} . \\
& \therefore B: b:: H^{2}: h^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition XXXVII. Theorem.
664. The volume of any cone is equal to the product of one-third of its base by its altitude.


Let $V$ denote the volume, $B$ the base, and $H$ the altitude of the cone.
We are to prove $\quad V=\frac{1}{3} B \times I$.
Let the volume of an inscribed pyramid $A-C D E F G$ be denoted by $V^{\prime}$, and its base by $B^{\prime}$.
$H$ will also be the altitude of this pyramid.
Then

$$
V^{\prime}=\frac{1}{3} B^{\prime} \times H,
$$

Now, let the number of lateral faces of the inscribed pyramid be indefinitely increased, the new edges continually bisecting the ares in the base of the cone.

Then $V^{\prime}$ approaches to $V$ as its limit, and $B^{\prime}$ to $B$ as its limit.
But however great the number of lateral faces of the pyramid,

$$
\begin{align*}
& V^{\prime}=\frac{1}{3} B^{\prime} \times H \\
& \therefore V=\frac{1}{3} B \times H . \tag{199}
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.
665. Corollary 1. If the cone be a cone of revolution, and $R$ be the radius of the base, then $B=\pi l^{2}$ (§381); $\therefore V=\frac{1}{3} \pi R^{2} \times H$.
666. Cor. 2. Similar cones of revolution are to each other as the cubes of their altitucles, or as the cubes of the radii of their bases. For, let $R$ and $R^{\prime}$ be the radii of two similar cones of revolution, $H$ and $I^{\prime}$ their altitudes, $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ their volumes. Since the generating triangles are similar, we have

$$
H: H^{\prime}:: R: R^{\prime}
$$

$$
\therefore \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{\frac{1}{3} \pi R^{2} \times I I}{\frac{1}{3} \pi R^{\prime 2} \times H^{\prime}}=\frac{R^{2}}{R^{\prime 2}} \times \frac{H}{H^{\prime}}=\frac{H^{8}}{H^{\prime 3}}=\frac{R^{8}}{R^{\prime 8}}
$$

## Proposition XXXVIII. Theorem.

667. A frustum of any cone is equivalent to the sum of three cones whose common altitude is the altitude of the frustum and whose bases are the lower base, the upper base, and a mean proportional between the bases of the frustum.


Let $V$ denote the volume of the frustum, $B$ its lower base, $b$ its upper base, and $H$ its altitude.
We are to prove $\quad V=\frac{1}{3} H(B+b+\sqrt{B \times b})$.
Let $V^{\prime}$ denote the volume of an inscribed frustum of a pyramid, $B^{\prime}$ its lower base, $b^{\prime}$ its upper base.

Its altitude will also be $H$.
Then,

$$
V^{\prime}=\frac{1}{3} H\left(B^{\prime}+b^{\prime}+\sqrt{B^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}\right)
$$

§ 578 (a frustum of any pyramid is $\approx$ to the sum of three pyramids whose common altitude is the altitude of the frustum, and whose bases are the lower base, the upper base, and a mean proportional between the bases of the frustum).
Now, let the number of lateral faces of the inscribed frustum be indefinitely increased,
the new edges continually bisecting the arcs in the bases of the frustum of the cone.

But however great the number of lateral faces of the frustum of the pyramid,

$$
\begin{align*}
& V^{\prime}=\frac{1}{3} H\left(B^{\prime}+b^{\prime}+\sqrt{B^{\prime} \times b^{\prime}}\right. \\
& \therefore V=\frac{1}{3} H(B+b+\sqrt{B \times b}) .
\end{align*}
$$

Q. E. D.
668. Corollary. If the frustum be that of a cone of revolution, and $R$ and $r$ be the radii of its bases, we have $B=\pi R^{2}$, and $b=\pi r^{2}$,
and

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sqrt{B \times b}=\pi R r . \\
\therefore V=\frac{1}{3} \pi I I\left(R^{2}+r^{2}+R r\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Book Vili.

## THE SPHERE.

## On Sections and Tangents.

669. Def. A Sphere is a solid bounded by a surface all points of which are equally distant from a point within called the centre. A sphere may be generated by the revolution of a semicircle about its diameter as an axis.
670. Def. A Radius of a sphere is the distance from its centre to any point in the surface. All the radii of a sphere are equal.
671. Def. A Diameter of a sphere is any straight line passing through the centre and having its extremities in the surface of the sphere. All the diameters
 of a sphere are equal, since each is equal to twice the radius.
672. Def. A Section of a sphere is a plane figure whose boundary is the intersection of its plane with the surface of the sphere.
673. Def. A line or plane is Tangent to a sphere when it has one, and only one, point in common with the surface of the sphere.
674. Def. Two spheres are tangent to each other when their surfaces have one, and only one, point in common.
675. Def. A polykedron is circumscribed about a sphere when all of its faces are tangent to the sphere. In this case the sphere is inscribed in the polyhedron.
676. Def. A polyhedron is inscribed in a sphere when all of its vertices are in the surface of the sphere. In this case th: sphere is circumscribed about the polyhedron.
677. Def. A Cylinder or cone is circumscribed about a sphere when its bases and cylindrical surface, or its base and conical surface, are tangent to the sphere. In this case the sphere is inscribed in the cylinder or cone.

## Proposition I. Theorem.

678. Every section of a spliere made by a plane is a circle.


## Let the section A BC be a plane section of a sphere whose centre is 0 .

We are to prove section $A B C$ a circle.
From the centre $O$ draw $O D \perp$ to the section, and draw the radii $O A, O B, O C$, to different points in the boundary of the section.

In the rt. $\triangle O D A, O D B$ and $O D C$,
$O D$ is common, and $O A, O B$ and $O C$ are equal, (being radii of the sphere).
$\therefore$ the rt. $\triangle O D A, O D B$ and $O D C$ are equal, § 109 (turo ot. A are cqual when they hare a side and hypotenuse of the one equal respectively to a side and hyppotenuse of the other).

$$
\therefore D_{\text {(being honnolognus sides of cqual } A \text { ) }}
$$

$\therefore$ the section $A B C$ is a circle whose centre is $D$.
Q.E.D.
679. Corollary 1. The line joining the centres of a sphere and a circle of a sphere is perpendicular to the circle.
680. Cor. II. If $l, r$ and $p$, respectively, denote the radius of a sphere, the radius of a circle of a sphere, and the perpendicular from the centre of the sphere to the circle, then $r=\sqrt{R^{2}-p^{2}}$. Therefore all circles of a sphere equally distant from the centre are equal, and of two circles unequally distant from the centre of the sphere the more remote is the smaller.

Again, if $p=0$, then $r=R$, and the centre of the sphere and the centre of the circle coincide; such a section is the greatest possible circle of the sphere.
681. Def. A Great circle of a sphere is a section of the sphere made by a plane passing through the centre.
682. Def. A Small circle of a sphere is a section of the splrere made by a plane not passing through the centre.
683. Def. An Axis of a circle of a sphere is the diameter of the sphere perpendicular to the circle; and the extremities of the axis are the Poles of the circle.
684. Every great circle bisects the sphere. For, if the parts be separated and placed with their plane sections in coincilence and their convexities turned the same way, their convex surfaces will coincide; otherwise there would be points in the spherical surface unequally distant from the centre.
685. Any two great circles, $A B C D$ and $A E C F$, bisect each other. For the intersection $A C$ of their planes passes through the centre of the sphere, and is a diameter of each circle.
686. An are of a great circle may be drawn through any two given points $A$ and $E$ in the surface of a sphere. For the two points $A$ and $E$, and the centre
 $O$, determine the plane of a great circle whose circumference passes through $A$ and $E$.
§ 443
If, however, the two given points are the extremities $A$ and $C$ of the diameter of the sphere, the position of the circle is not determined. For, the points $A, O$ and $C$, being in the same straight line, an infinite number of planes can pass through them.
§ 441
687. One circle, and only one, may be drawn through any three given points on the surface of a sphere. For, the three points determine the plane which cuts the sphere in a circle.

## Proposition II. Theorem.

688. A plane perpendicular to a radius at its extremity is tangent to the sphere.


Let $O$ be the centre of a sphere, and $M N$ a plane perpendicular to the radius $O P$, at its extremity $P$.
We are to prove $M N$ tangent to the sphere.
From $O$ draw any other straight line $O A$ to the plane $M N$.

$$
O P<O A
$$

§ 448
( $a \perp$ is the shortest distance from a point to a plane).
$\therefore$ point $A$ is without the sphere.
But $O A$ is any other line than $O P$,
$\therefore$ every point in the plane $M N$ is without the sphere, except $P$.
$\therefore M N$ is tangent to the sphere at $P$.
Q. E. D.
689. Corollary 1. A plane tangent to a sphere is perpendicular to the radius drawn to the point of contact.
690. Cor. 2. A straight line tangent to a circle of a sphere lies in a plane tangent to the sphere at the point of contact.
691. Cor. 3. Any straight line in a tangent plane through the point of contact is tangent to the sphere at that point.
692. Cor. 4. The plane of any two straight lines tangent to the sphere at tle same point is tangent to the sphere at that point.

## Proposition III. Problem.

693. Given a material sphere to find its diameter.


## Let $P B P^{\prime} C$ represent a material sphere.

It is required to find its diameter.
From any point $P$ of the given surface, with any opening of the compasses, describe the circumference $A B C$ on the surface.

Then the straight line $P B$, being the opening of the compasses, is a known line.

Take any three points $A, B$ and $C$ in this circumference, and with the compasses measure the rectilinear distances $A B$, $B C$ and $C A$.

Construct the $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, with its sides equal respectively to $A B, B C$ and $C A$.

$$
\text { Circumscribe a circle about the } \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} . \quad § 239
$$

The radius $D^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ of this $\odot$ is equal to the radius of $\odot A B C$.
Construct the rt. $\triangle b d p$, having the hypotenuse $b p=B P$, and one side $b d=B^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.

Draw $b p^{\prime} \perp$ to $b p$, and meeting $p d$ produced in $p^{\prime}$.
Then $p p^{\prime}$ is equal to the diameter of the given sphere.
For, if we bisect the sphere through $P$ and $B$, and in the section draw the diameter $P P^{\prime}$ and chord $B P^{\prime}$, the $\Delta b p p^{\prime}$, when applied to $\triangle B P P^{\prime}$, will coincide with it.

> Q. E. F.

Proposition IV. Theorem.
694. Through any four points not in the same plane, one spherical surface can be made to pass, and but one.


Let $A, B, C, D$, be four points not in the same plane.
We are to prove that one, and only one, spherical surface can be made to pass through $A, B, C, D$.

Construct the tetrahedron $A B C D$, having for its vertices $A, B, C, D$.

Let $E$ be the centre of the circle circumscribed about the face $A B C$.

Draw $E M \perp$ to this face.
Every point in $E M$ is equally distant from the points $A$, $B$ and $C$, (oblique lines drawn from a point to a plane at equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ are equal).

Also, let $F$ be the centre of the circle circumscribed about the face $B C D$;
and draw $F K \perp$ to this face.
Let $H$ be the middle point of $B C$.
Draw $E H$ and $F H$.
Then $E H$ and $F H$ are $\perp$ to $B C$.
$\therefore$ the plane passed through $E H$ and $F H$ is $\perp$ to $B C, \S 449$ (if a straight line be $\perp$ to two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane, it is $\perp$ to the plane, and in this case the plane is $\perp$ to the line).

Hence, this plane is also $\perp$ to each of the faces $A B C$ and $B C D$,
§ 471
(if a straight line be $\perp$ to a plane, every plane passed through that line is $\perp$ to the plane).
$\therefore$ the $18 E M$ and $F K$ lie in the plane $E H F$.
Hence they must meet unless they be parallel.
But if they were $I I$, the planes $B C D$ and $A B C$ would be one and the same plane, which is contrary to the hypothesis.

Now $O$, the point of intersection of the $E M$ and $F K$, is equally distant from $A, B$ and $C$; and also equally distant from $B, C$ and $D$;
$\therefore$ it is equally distant from $A, B, C$ and $D$.
Hence, a spherical surface, whose centre is $O$, and radius $O A$, will pass through the four given points.

Only one spherical surface can be made to pass through the points $A, B, C$ and $D$.

For the centre of such a spherical surface must lie in both the $1 \mathrm{~s} E M$ and $F K$.

And, since $O$ is the only point common to these $18, O$ is the centre of the only spherical surface passing through $A, B, C$ and $D$.
Q. E. D.
695. Corollary 1. The four perpendiculars erected at the centres of the faces of a tetrahedron meet at the same point.
696. Cor. 2. The six planes perpendicular to the six edges of a tetrahedron at their middle point will intersect at the same point.

## Proposition V. Theorem.

697. A sphere may be inscribed in any given tetrahedron.


## Let $A B C D$ be the given tetrahedron.

We are to prove that a sphere may be inscribed in $A B C D$.
Bisect the dihedral $\angle$ at the edges $A B, B C$ and $A C$ by the planes $O A B, O B C$ and $O A C$ respectively.

Every point in the plane $O A B$ is equally distant from the faces $A B C$ and $A B D$,

For a like reason, every point in the plane $O B C$ is equally distant from the faces $A B C$ and $D B C$;
and every point in the plane $O A C$ is equally distant from the faces $A B C$ and $A D C$.
$\therefore O$, the common intersection of these three planes, is equally distant from the four faces of the tetrahedron.
$\therefore$ a sphere described with $O$ as a centre, and with the radius equal to the distance of $O$ to any face, will be tangent to each face, and will be inscribed in the tetrahedron.
§ 673
Q. E. D.
698. Corollary. The six planes which bisect the six dihedral angles of a tetrahedron intersect in the same point.

## On Distances Measured on the Surface of the Sphere.

699. Def. The distance between two points on the surface of a sphere is understood to be the are of a great circle joining the points, unless otherwise stated.
700. Def. The distance from the pole of a circle to any point in the circumference of the circle is the Polar distance of the circle.

## Proposition VI. Theorem.

701. The distances measured on the surface of a sphere from all points in the circumference of a circle to its pole are equal.


Let $P, P^{\prime \prime}$ be the poles of the circle $A B C$.
We are to prove arcs $P A, P B, P C$ equal.
The straight lines $P A, P B$ and $P C$ are equal, § 450 (oblique lines drawn from a point to a plane at equal distances from the foot of the $\perp$ are equal);
$\therefore$ the $\operatorname{arcs} P A, P B$ and $P C$ are equal, § 182 (in equal © equal chords subtend equal arcs).

In like manner arcs $P^{\prime} A, P^{\prime} B$ and $P^{\prime} C$ are equal.
Q. E. D.
702. Corollary 1. The polar distance of a great circle is a quadrant. Thus, ares $P A^{\prime}, P B^{\prime}, P^{\prime} A^{\prime}, P^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, polar distances of the great circle $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, are quadrants ; for they are the measares of the right angles $A^{\prime} O P, B^{\prime} O P, A^{\prime} O P^{\prime}, B^{\prime} O P^{\prime}$, whose vertices are at the centres of the great circles $P A^{\prime} P^{\prime} C^{\prime}, P B^{\prime} P^{\prime} D^{\prime}$.
703. Scholium. Every point in the circumference of a small circle is at unequal distances from the two poles of the circle.

## Proposition VII. Problem.

704. To pass a circumference of a great circle through any two points on the surface of a sphere.


Let $A$ and $B$ be any two points on the surface of a sphere.
It is required to pass a circumference of a great circle through $A$ and $B$.
From $A$ as a pole, with an arc equal to a quadrant, strike an arc $a b$,
and from $B$ as a pole, with the same radius, describe an arc $c d$, intersecting $a b$ at $P$.

Then a circumference described with a quadrant are, with $P$ as a pole, will pass through $A$ and $B$ and be the circumference of a great circle.

> Q. E. F.
705. Corollary. Through any two points on the surface of a sphere, not at the extremities of the same diameter, only one circumference of a great circle can be made to pass.
706. Scholium. By means of poles arcs of circles may be drawn on the surface of a sphere with the same facility as upon a plane surface, and, in general, the methods of construction in Spherical Geometry are similar to those of Plane Geometry. Thus we may draw an are perpendicular to a given spherical are, bisect a given spherical angle or are, make a spherical angle equal to a given spherical angle, etc., in the same way that we make analogous constructions in Plane Geometry.

## Proposition VIII. Theorem.

707. The shortest distance on the surface of a sphere between any two points on that surface is the arc, not greater than a semi-circumference, of the great circle which joins them.


Let $A B$ be the arc of a great circle which joins any two points $A$ and $B$ on the surface of a sphere; and let $A C P Q B$ be any other line on the surface between $A$ and $B$.

We are to prove $\quad \operatorname{arc} A B<A C P Q B$.

## Let $P$ be any point in $A C P Q B$.

Pass arcs of great circles through $A$ and $P$, and $P$ and $B$.

Join $A, P$ and $B$ with the centre of the sphere $O$.
The $\angle A O B, A O P$ and $P O B$ are the face $\angle s$ of the trihedral $\angle$ whose vertex is at $O$.

The arcs $A B, A P$ and $P B$ are measures of these $\angle$. $\S 202$

$$
\text { Now } \angle A O B<\angle A O P+\angle P O B
$$

(the sum of any two face $₫$ of a trihcdral is $>$ the third $\angle$ ).

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} A B<\operatorname{arc} A P+\operatorname{arc} P B .
$$

In like manner, joining any point in $A C P$ with $A$ and $P$ by ares of great (3), their sum would be greater than are $A P$;
and, joining any point in $P Q B$ with $P$ and $B$ by arcs of great (3), the sum of these arcs would be greater than are $P B$.

If this process be indefinitely repeated the distance from $A$ to $B$ on the arcs of the great (5) will continually increase and approach to the line $A C P Q B$.

$$
\therefore \operatorname{arc} A B<A C P Q B
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition IX. Theorem.

708. Every point in an arc of a great circle which bisects a given arc at right angles is equally distant from the extremities of the given arc.
Let arc $C D$ bisect arc $A B$ at right angles.

We are to prove any point $O$ in $C D$ is equally distant from $A$ and $B$.

Since great circle $C D E$ bisects $\operatorname{arc} A B$ at right angles, it also bisects chord $A B$ at right angles.

Hence, chord $A B$ is $\perp$ to the plane $C D E$ at $K$.

$\therefore O K$ is $\perp$ to chord $A B$ at its middle point. § 430
$\therefore$ straight lines $O A$ and $O B$ are equal. § 58
$\therefore \operatorname{arcs} O A$ and $O B$ are equal.
§ 182
Q. E. D.

Proposition X. Problem.
709. To pass the circumference of a small circle through any three points on the surface of a sphere.


Let $A, B$ and $C$ be any three points on the surface of a sphere.
It is required to pass the circumference of a small circle through the points $A, B$ and $C$.

Pass arcs of great circles through $A$ and $B, A$ and $C, B$ and $C$. $\$ 704$

Arcs of great circles $a 0$ and $b o$ $\perp$ to $A C$ and $B C$ at their middle points intersect at $o$.

Then $o$ is equally distant from $A, B$ and $C$.
§ 708
$\therefore$ the circumference of a small circle drawn from $o$ as a pole, with an arc o $A$ will pass through $A, B$ and $C$, and be the circumference required.
Q. E. D.

## On Spherical Angles.

710. Def. The angle of two curves which have a common point is the angle included by the two tangents to the two curves at that point.
711. Def. A spherical angle is the angle included between two arcs of great circles.

## Proposition XI. Theorem.

712. The angle of two curves which intersect on the surface of $a$ sphere is equal to the dihedral angle between the planes passed through the centre of the sphere, and the tangents of the two curves at their point of intersection.


Let the curves $A B$ and $A C$ intersect at $A$ on the surface of a sphere whose centre is $O$; and let $A T$ and $A S$ be the tangents to the two curves respectively.
We are to prove $\angle T A S$ equal to the dihedral angle formed by the planes $O A T$ and $O A S$.

Since $A T$ and $A S$ do not cut the curves at $A$, they do not cut the surface of the sphere,
and are therefore tangents to the sphere.
$\therefore A T$ and $A S$ are $\perp$ to the radius $O A$, drawn to the point of contact. § 186
$\therefore \angle T A S$ measures the dihedral $\angle$ of the planes $O A T$ and $O A S$, passed through the radius $O A$ and the tangents $A T$ and $A S$.

But $\angle T A S$ is the $\angle$ of the two curves $A B$ and $A C$. § 710
$\therefore$ the $\angle$ of the two curves $A B$ and $A C=$ the dihedral $\angle$ of the planes $O A T$ and $O A S$.
Q. E. D.

Proposition XII. Theorem.
713. A spherical angle is equal to the measure of the dihedral angle included by the great circles whose arcs form the sides of the angle.


Let $B P C$ be any spherical angle, and $B P D P^{\prime}$ and $C P E P^{\prime}$ the great circles whose arcs $B P$ and $C P$ include the angle.
We are to prove $\angle B P C$ equal to the measure of the dihedral $\angle C-P P^{\prime}-B$.

Since two great (s) intersect in a diameter, $P P^{\prime}$ is a diameter. § 685 Draw $P T$ tangent to the $\odot B P D P^{\prime}$.
Then $P T$ lies in the same plane as the $\odot B P D P^{\prime}$, and is $\perp$ to $P P^{\prime}$ at $P$.

In like manner draw $P T^{\prime}$ tangent to the $\odot C P E P^{\prime}$.
Then $P T^{\prime \prime}$ lies in the same plane as the $\odot C P E P^{\prime}$, and is $\perp$ to $P P^{\prime}$ at $P$.
$\therefore \angle T^{\prime} P T^{\prime \prime}$ is the measure of the dihedral $\angle C-P P^{\prime}-B . \S 470$
But spherical $\angle B P C$ is the same as plane $\angle T P T^{\prime} ; \S 710$
$\therefore$ spherical $\angle B P C$ is equal to the measure of dihedral $\angle C-P P^{\prime}-B$.
Q. E. D.
714. Corollary. A spherical angle is measured by the arc of a great circle described about its vertex as a pole and intercepted by its sides (produced if necessary). For, if $B C$ be the are of a great circle described about the vertex $P$ as a pole, $P B$ and $P C$ are quadrants. Hence, $B O$ and $C O$ are perpendicular to $P P^{\prime}$. Therefore $B O C$ measures the dihedral angle $B-P O-C$, and, hence, the spherical angle $B P C$. Therefore, arc $B C$, which measures the angle $B O C$, measures the spherical angle $B P C$.

## On Spherical Polygons and Pyramids.

715. Def. A spherical Polygon is a portion of a surface of a sphere bounded by three or more arcs of great circles.

The sides of a spherical polygon are the bounding arcs; the angles are the angles included by consecutive sides; the vertices are the intersections of the sides.
716. Def. The Diagonal of a spherical polygon is an are of a great circle dividing the polygon, and terminating in two vertices not adjacent.

The planes of the sides of a spherical polygon form by their intersections a polyhedral angle whose vertex is the centre of the sphere, and whose face angles are measured by the sides of the polygon.
717. Def. A spherical Pyramid is a portion of a sphere bounded by a spherical polygon and the planes of the sides of the polygon.

The spherical polygon is the base of the pyramid, and the centre of the sphere is its vertex.
718. Def. A spherical Triangle is a spherical polygon of three sides.

A spherical triangle, like a plane triangle, is right, or oblique; scalene, isosceles or equilateral.
719. Def. Two spherical triangles are equal if their successive sides and angles, taken in the same order, be equal each to each.
720. Def. Two spherical triangles are symmetrical if their successive sides and angles, taken in reverse order, be equal each to each.
721. Def. The Polar of a spherical triangle is a spherical triangle, the poles of whose sides are respectively the vertices of the given triangle.

Since the sides of a spherical triangle are arcs, they may be expressed in degrees and minutes.

## Proposition XIII. Theorem.

722. Any side of a spherical triangle is less than the sum of the other two sides.


Let $A B C$ be any spherical triangle.
We are to prove $B C<B A+A C$.
Join the vertices $A, B$ and $C$ with the centre $O$ of the sphere.
Then, in the trihedral $\angle O-A B C$ thus formed, the face $\triangle A O C, A O B$ and $B O C$ are measured, respectively, by the sides $A C, A B$ and $B C$. $\quad 202$
Now, $B O C<B O A+A O C, \quad \S 487$
(the sum of any two $\triangle$ of a trinedral is greater than the third $\angle$ ).

$$
\therefore B C<B A+A C .
$$

Q. E. D.
723. Corollary. Any side of a spherical polygon is less than the sum of the other sides.

Ex. 1. Given a cone of revolution whose side is 24 feet, and the diameter of its base 6 feet ; find its entire surface, and its volume.
2. Given the frustum of a cone whose altitude is 24 feet, the circumference of its lower base 20 feet, and that of its upper base 16 feet; find its volume.
3. The volume of the frustum of a cone of revolution is 8025 cubic inches; its altitude 14 inches; the circumference of the lower base twice that of the upper base. What are the circumferences of the bases?
4. The frustum of a cone of revolution whose altitude is 20 feet, and the diameters of its bases 12 feet and 8 feet respectively, is divided into two equal parts by a plane parallel to its bases. What is the altitude of each part?

## Proposition XIV. Theorem.

724. The sum of the sides of a spherical polygon is less than the circumference of a great circle.


Let $A B C D E$ be a spherical polygon.
We are to prove $A B+B C$ etc. less than the circumference of a great circle.

Join the vertices $A, B, C$ etc., with $O$ the centre of the sphere.

The sum of the faco $\& A O B, B O C$ etc., which form a polyhedral $\angle$ at $O$, is less than four rt. $\llcorner$.
$\therefore$ the sum of the arcs $A B, B C$ etc., which measure these face $\mathbb{\star}$, is less than the circumference of a great circle.
725. Corollary. If we denote the sides of a spherical triangle by $a, b$ and $c$, then $a+b+c<360^{\circ}$.

Ex. 1. The surface of a cone is 540 square inches; what is the surface of a similar cone whose volume is 8 times as great?
2. The lateral surface of a cone is $S$; what is the lateral surface of a similar cone whose volume is $n$ times as great ?

Proposition XV. Theorem.
726. A point upon the surface of a sphere, which is at the distance of a quadrant from each of two other points, is one of the poles of the great circle which passes through these points.


Let $P$ be a point at the distance of a quadrant from each of the two points $A$ and $B$.

We are to prove $P$ a pole of the great circle which passes through $A$ and $B$.

Since $P A$ and $P B$ are quadrants, $\angle P O A$ and $P O B$ are rt. Ls.
$\therefore P O$ is $\perp$ to the plane of the $\odot A B C, \quad § 449$
(a straight line $\perp$ to two straight lines drawn through its foot in a plane is $\perp$ to the plane).
$\therefore P$ is a pole of the $\odot A B C$.
Q.E.D.

Ex. 1. Show that two symmetrical polyhedrons may be decomposed into the same number of tetrahedrons symmetrical each to each.
2. Show that two symmetrical polyhedrons are equivalent.
3. Show that the intersection of two planes of symmetry of a solid is an axis of symmetry.
4. Show that the intersections of three planes of symmetry of a solid are three axes of symmetry; and that the common intersection of these axes is the centre of symmetry.

## Proposition XVI. Theorem.

727. If, from the vertices of a given spherical triangle as poles, arcs of great circles be described, another triangle is formed, the vertices of which are the poles of the sides of the given triangle.


Let $A B C$ be the given triangle; and, from its vertices $A, B$ and $C$ as poles, let the arcs $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ respectively be described.
We are to prove vertices $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ poles respectively of $\operatorname{arcs} B C, A C$ and $A B$.

Since $B$ is the pole of the arc $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, and $C$ the pole of the $\operatorname{arc} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$,
$A^{\prime}$ is at a quadrant's distance from each of the points $B$ and $C$.

$$
\therefore A^{\prime} \text { is a pole of the } \operatorname{arc} B C,
$$

(a point upon the surface of a sphere which is at a quadrant's distance from
each of two other points is one of the poles of the great circle which passes through those points).
In like manner, it may be shown that $B^{\prime}$ is a pole of the $\operatorname{arc} A C$, and $C^{\prime}$ a pole of the $\operatorname{arc} A B$.
Q. E. D.
728. Scholium 1. $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ is the polar of $\triangle A B C$, and, reciprocally, $\triangle A B C$ is the polar of $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
729. Sch. 2. The arcs of great circles described about $A$, $B$ and $C$ as poles will, if produced, form three triangles exterior to the polar. The polar triangles are distinguished by having their homologous vertices $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ on the same side of $B C$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, B$ and $B^{\prime}$ on the same side of $A C$ and $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, and $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ on the same side of $A B$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

## Proposition XVII. Theorem.

730. In two polar triangles each angle of either is the supplement of the side lying opposite to it in the other.


Let $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be two polar triangles.
We are to prove $\angle s A, B$ and $C$ respectively the supplements of the sides $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

Let the sides $A B$ and $A C$, produced if necessary, meet the side $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ in the points $b$ and $c$.

$$
\text { Since the vertex } A \text { is a pole of the arc } B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, \quad \S 721
$$

$$
\angle A \text { is measured by } b c
$$

(a spherical $\angle$ is measured by the arc of a great circle described about its vertex as a pole and intercepted by its sides).
Now, since $B^{\prime}$ is the pole of the arc $A c, B^{\prime} c=90^{\circ}$.
Since $C^{\prime}$ is the pole of the arc $A b, C^{\prime} b=90^{\circ}$.

$$
\therefore B^{\prime} c+C^{\prime} b=B^{\prime} C^{\prime}+b c=180^{\circ} .
$$

$\therefore \angle A(=b c)$ is the supplement of the side $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
In like manner it may be shown that each $\angle$ of either $\Delta$ is the supplement of the side lying opposite to it in the other.
Q. E. D.
731. Scholium. In two polar triangles each side of either is the supplement of the angle lying opposite to it in the other. If $A, B$ and $C$ denote the angles, and $a, b$ and $c$ the sides of a triangle, the angles of the polar triangle will be $180^{\circ}-a, 180^{\circ}$ $-b$ and $180^{\circ}-c$; and the sides of the polar triangle will be $180^{\circ}-A, 180^{\circ}-B$ and $180^{\circ}-C$.

By reason of these relations polar triangles are often called supplemental triangles.

Proposition XVIII. Theorem.
732. The sum of the angles of a spherical triangle is greater than two, and less than six, right angles.


Let $A B C$ be a spherical triangle.
We are to prove $\angle A+\angle B+\angle C$ greater than 2 , and less than 6, right angles.

Denote the sides of the polar $\triangle$ opposite the $\measuredangle S A, B, C$ respectively, by $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}$.

Then $\angle A=180^{\circ}-a^{\prime}, \angle B=180^{\circ}-b^{\prime}$ and $\angle C=$ $180^{\circ}-c^{\prime}$, $\quad 730$ (in two polar © each $\angle$ of either is the supplement of the side lying opposite to it in the other.)
By adding, $\angle A+\angle B+\angle \mathrm{C}=540^{\circ}-\left(a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}+c^{\prime}\right)$.
But $a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}+c^{\prime}$ is less than $360^{\circ}$, $\quad 724$ (the sum of the sides of a spherical polygon is less than the circumference of a great circle).

$$
\therefore \angle A+\angle B+\angle C>180^{\circ} .
$$

Also, $\quad$ since each $\angle$ is less than $2 \mathrm{rt} . ~\llcorner$, their sum is less than $6 \mathrm{rt} .\llcorner\boxed{L}$.

> Q. E. D.
733. Corollary. A spherical triangle may have two, or even three right angles ; or two, or even three obtuse angles.
734. Def. A spherical triangle having one right angle is called rectangular; having two right angles, bi-rectangular; having three right angles, tri-rectangular.

Each of the sides of a tri-rectangular triangle is a quadrant, and the triangle is called, when reference is had to its sides, triquadrantal.

## Proposition XIX. Theorem.

735. Each angle of a spherical triangle is greater than the difference between two right angles and the sum of the other two angles.


Let $L s A, B$ and $C$ be the angles of the spherical triangle $A B C$.

We are to prove $\angle A$ greater than the difference between $180^{\circ}$ and $(\angle B+\angle C)$.
I.

$$
\text { Suppose }(\angle B+\angle C)<180^{\circ} .
$$

$$
\text { Now } \angle A+\angle B+\angle C>180^{\circ}
$$

By transposing, $\angle A>180^{\circ}-(\angle B+\angle C)$.
II.

$$
\text { Suppose }(\angle B+\angle C)>180^{\circ}
$$

Now of the three sides $\left(180^{\circ}-\angle A\right),\left(180^{\circ}-\angle B\right),\left(180^{\circ}\right.$ $-\angle C)$, of the polar $\triangle$, each is less than the sum of the other two, § 722 (either side of a spherical $\triangle$ is less than the sum of the other two sides).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore\left(180^{\circ}-\angle B\right)+\left(180^{\circ}-\angle C\right)>180^{\circ}-\angle A ; \\
& \text { or, } \quad 360^{\circ}-(\angle B+\angle C)>180^{\circ}-\angle A .
\end{aligned}
$$

By transposing, $\angle A>(\angle B+\angle C)-180^{\circ}$.

> Q. E. D.

Ex. 1. The volume of a cone is 1728 cubic inches; what is the volume of a similar cone whose surface is 4 times as great?
2. The volume of a cone is $V$; what is the volume of a similar cone whose surface is $n$ times as great?
736. Def. Equal spherical triangles are triangles which have their corresponding sides and angles equal each to each and arranged in the same order, so that when applied to each other they will coincide. Thus in Fig. 1, $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are equal spherical triangles.


Fig. 1.


Fig. 2.
737. Def. Symmetrical spherical triangles are triangles which have their corresponding sides and angles equal each to each, but arranged in reverse order.

Thus, in Fig. 2, $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are symmetrical spherical triangles. For, since the face angles of the two trihedrals are equal respectively, but are arranged in reverse order, the sides of the spherical triangles, which measure these face angles, are equal, each to each, and are arranged in reverse order ; and since the dihedral angles of the two trihedrals are equal respectively, but are arranged in reverse order, the angles of the spherical triangles, which are equal to these trihedrals, are equal, each to each, and are arranged in reverse order.

In like manner we may have symmetrical spherical polygons of any number of sides, and corresponding symmetrical spherical pyramids.

Two symmetrical spherical triangles cannot be made to coincide. For, if their convexities lie in opposite directions, they evidently will not coincide ; and if their convexities lie in the same direction, and we apply $A B$ to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$, the vertices $C$ and $C^{\prime}$ will lie on opposite sides of $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.
738. There is, however, one exception. Two symmetrical isosceles spherical triangles can be made to coincide.


Thus, if $A B C$ be an isosceles spherical triangle, $A B=A C$ and in its symmetrical triangle $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}=A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$. Hence $A B=$ $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A C=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$. And, since $\angle \subseteq A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are equal, if $A B$ be placed on $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}, A C$ will fall on its equal $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.

In consequence of the relations established between polyhedral angles and spherical polygons, from any property of polyhedral angles, we may infer a corresponding property of spherical polygons. Reciprocally, from any property of spherical polygons, we may infer a corresponding property. of polyhedral angles.

Ex. 1. The altitude of a cone of revolution is 12 inches ; at what distances from the vertex must three planes be passed parallel to the base of the cone, in order to divide the lateral surface into four equal parts?
2. The altitude of a given solid is 2 inches, its surface 24 square inches, and its volume 8 cubic inches; find the altitude and surface of a similar solid whose volume is 512 cubic inches.
3. The volumes of two similar cones of revolution are 6 cubic inches and 48 cubic inches respectively, and the slant height of the first is 5 inches; find the slant height of the second.

Proposition XX. Theorem.
739. Two symmetrical spherical triangles are equivalent.


Let $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ be two symmetrical spherical triangles, having $A B, A C$ and $B C$ equal respectively to $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.
We are to prove $\triangle A B C \approx \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.
Let $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ be poles of small circles which pass through $A, B, C$ and $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime \prime}$.

Now, since the arcs $A B, A C$ and $B C=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ respectively, the chords of the ares $A B, A C$ and $B C=$ chords of the arcs $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and $B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ respectively.
$\therefore$ the plane $\mathbb{A}$ formed by the chords of these ares are equal.
§ 108
$\therefore$ (8) $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ which circumscribe these equal plane $\mathbb{A}$ are equal.
$\therefore$ the six spherical distances $P A, P B, P^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ etc. are equal, (being polar distances of equal © on the same sphere).
$\therefore \triangle P A B, P^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ are symmetrical and isosceles.
So likewise are $\triangle P B C, P^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $\triangle P A C, P^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.
$\therefore \triangle P A B$ may be applied to $\triangle P^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and will coincide with it.
§ 738
So likewise $\triangle P B C$ with $\triangle P^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and $\triangle P A C$ with $\triangle P^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.
$\therefore \triangle P A B+P B C-P A C \approx \triangle P^{\prime} A^{\prime} B^{\prime}+P^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}-$ $P^{\prime} A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C \approx \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} .
$$

Q. E. D.
740. Corollary. Two symmetrical spherical pyramids are equivalent.

## Proposition XXI. Theorem.

741. On the same sphere, or equal spheres, two triangles are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent, if two sides and the included angle of the one be respectively equal to two sides and the included angle of the other.


In the $\triangle A B C$ and $D E F$, let $\angle A=\angle D$, and the sides $A B$ and $A C$ equal respectively the sides $D E$ and $D F$.
We are to prove \& $A B C$ and $D E F$ equal, or symmetrical and equivalent.
I. When the parts of the two $\mathbb{A}$ are in the same order as in $\mathbb{A}$ $A B C$ and $D E F$,
$\triangle A B C$ can be applied to $\triangle D E F$, as in the corresponding case of plane © , and will coincide with it. § 106
II. When the parts are in reverse order, as in $\triangle A B C$ and $D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$,
construct the $\triangle D E F$ symmetrical with respect to $\triangle D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$.
Then $\triangle D E F$ will have its $\triangle s$ and sides equal respectively to those of the $\triangle D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$.
§ 737
Now in the $\triangle A B C$ and $D E F$,

$$
\angle A=\angle D, A B=D E \text { and } A C=D F,
$$

and these parts are arranged in the same order.

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=\triangle D E F .
$$

Case I.
But

$$
\triangle D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime} \approx \triangle D E F,
$$

Q.E.D.

Proposition XXII. Theorem.
742. Two triangles on the same sphere, or equal spheres, are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent, if a side and two adjacent angles of the one be equal respectively to a side and two adjacent angles of the other.


For one of the $\triangle$ may be applied to the other, or to its symmetrical $\Delta$, as in the corresponding case of plane $\Delta$.
§ 107
Q. E. D.

Proposition XXIII. Theorem.
743. Two mutually equilateral triangles on the same sphere, or equal spheres, are mutually equiangular, and are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent.


For the face $\mathscr{\Delta}$ of the corresponding trihedral angles at the centre of the sphere are equal respectively, § 202 (since they are measured by equal sides of the A). $\therefore$ the corresponding dihedral $\$$ are equal.
§ 492
$\therefore$ the $\mathbb{S}$ of the spherical $\mathbb{A}$ are respectively equal.
$\therefore$ the $\mathbb{A}$ are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent, according as their equal sides are arranged in the same, or reverse order.

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXIV. Theorem.

744. Two mutually equiangular triangles on the same sphere, or equal spheres, are mutually equilateral, and are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent.


## Let the spherical triangles $A B C$ and $D E F$ be mutually equiangular.

We are to prove \& $A B C$ and $D E F$ mutually equilateral, and equal, or symmetrical and equivalent.

Let $\mathbb{S} A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime}$ be the polar © of $\mathbb{S} A B C$ and $D E F$ respectively.

Then the © $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$ are mutually equilateral,
(in two polar \& each side of the one is the supplement of the $\angle$ lying opposite to it in the other).
$\therefore$ © $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime} E^{\prime} F^{\prime \prime}$ are mutually equiangular, $§ 743$ (two mutually equilateral \& on equal spheres are mutually equiangular).
$\therefore \triangle A B C$ and $D E F$ are mutually equilateral ;
§ 731
hence $\triangle A B C$ and $D E F$ are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent,
§ 743 (two mutually equilateral © on equal spheres are either equal, or symmetrical and equivalent).
Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXV. Theorem.

745. The angles opposite equal sides of an isosceles spherical triangle are equal.


In the spherical $\triangle A B C$, let $A B=A C$.
We are to prove

$$
\angle B=\angle C .
$$

Draw arc $A D$ of a great circle, from the vertex $A$ to the middle of the base $B C$.

Then $\mathbb{\triangle} A B D$ and $A C D$ are mutually equilateral.
$\therefore$ S $A B D$ and $A C D$ are mutually equiangular, $\S 743$ (two mutually equilateral © on the same sphere are mutually equiangular).

$$
\therefore \angle B=\angle C \text {, }
$$

(since they are homologous $₫$ of symmetrical ©).

> Q. E. D.
746. Corollary. The are of a great circle drawn from the vertex of an isosceles spherical triangle to the middle of the base bisects the vertical angle, is perpendicular to the base, and divides the triangle into two symmetrical triangles.

## Proposition XXVI. Theorem.

747. If two angles of a spherical triangle be equal, the sides opposite these angles are equal, and the triangle is isosceles.


In the spherical $\triangle A B C$, let $\angle B=\angle C$.

We are to prove

$$
A C=A B
$$

Let $\quad \triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be the polar $\triangle$ of $\triangle A B C$.

Since

$$
\begin{align*}
\angle B=\angle C, & \text { Hyp. } \\
\therefore A^{\prime} C^{\prime}=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, & \S 731
\end{align*}
$$

(in two polar © each side of one is the supplement of the $\angle$ lying opposite to it in the other).

$$
\therefore \angle B^{\prime}=\angle C^{\prime}
$$

(in an isasceles spherical $\triangle$, the $\mathbb{E}$ opposite the equal sides are equal).

$$
\therefore A C=A B
$$

Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXVII. Theorem.

748. In a spherical triangle the greater side is opposite the greater angle; and, conversely, the greater angle is opposite the greater side.

I. In the $\triangle A B C$, let $\angle A B C>\angle C$.

We are to prove $A C>A B$.

Draw the arc $B D$ of a great circle, making $\angle C B D=\angle C$.
Then

$$
D C=D B,
$$

(if two $\mathbb{\&}$ of a spherical $\triangle$ be equal the sides opposite these $\mathbb{L}$ are equal).
Add $D A$ to each of these equals;
then

$$
D C+D A=D B+D A
$$

But

$$
D B+D A>A B
$$

(the sum of two sides of a spherical $\triangle$ is greater than the third side).

$$
\therefore D C+D A>A B, \text { or } A C>A B .
$$

II.

$$
\text { Let } A C>A B
$$

We are to prove $\quad \angle A B C>\angle C$.
If

$$
\angle A B C=\angle C, A C=A B
$$

and if

$$
\angle A B C<\angle C, A C<A B
$$

Case I.
But both of these conclusions are contrary to the hypothesis.

$$
\therefore \angle A B C>\angle C .
$$

> Q. E. D.

## Proposition XXVIII. Theorem.

749. On unequal spheres mutually equiangular triangles are similar.


From 0 , the common centre of two unequal spheres, draw the radii $O A, O B$ and $O C$ cutting the surface of the smaller sphere in $a, b$ and $c$. Draw arcs of great circles, $A B, A C, B C, a b, a c, b c$.
We are to prove $\quad \triangle A B C$ similar to $\triangle a b c$.
$\triangle A, B, C$ are equal respectively to $\triangle s a, b, c$,
(since the corresponding dihedrals in each case are the same).
In the similar sectors $A O B$ and $a O b$,

$$
A B: a b:: A O: a O ;
$$

and in the similar sectors $A O C$ and $a O c$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A C: a c:: A O: a O . \\
& \therefore A B: a b:: A C: a c .
\end{aligned}
$$

In like manner, $A B: a b:: B C: b c$.
That is, the homologous sides of the two © are proportional, and their homologous $\triangle s$ are equal.
$\therefore \triangle A B C$ is similar to $\triangle a b c$.

> Q. E. D.
750. Scholium. The statement that mutually equiangular spherical © are mutually equilateral, and equal, or symmetrical and equivalent, is true only when limited to the same sphere, or equal spheres. But when the spheres are unequal, the spherical © are similar, but not equal. Hence, to compare two similar spherical $\mathbb{B}$, it is necessary to know the linear extent of two homologous sides ; or, what is equivalent, to know the radii of the spheres. And, as in the case of plane $\mathbb{\Delta}$, two similar spherical $\mathbb{\triangle}$ have the same ratio as the squares of the linear measures of any two homologous sides, and therefore as the squares of the radii of the spheres.

On Comparison and Measurement of Spherical Surfaces.
751. Def. A Lune is a part of the surface of a sphere included between two semi-circumferences of great circles.
752. Def. The Angle of a lune is the angle included by the semi-circumferences which forms its boundary. Thus $\angle C A B$ is the angle of the lune.
753. Def. A Spherical Ungula, or Wedge, is a part of a sphere bounded by a lune and two great semicircles.
754. Def. The Base of an ungula is the bounding lune.
755. Def. The Angle of an ungula is the dihedral of its bounding semicir-
 cles, and is equal to the angle of the bounding lune.
756. Def. The Edge of an ungula is the edge of its angle.
757. Def. The Spherical Excess of a spherical triangle is the excess of the sum of its angles over two right angles.

758. Def. Three planes which pass through the centre of the sphere, each perpendicular to the other two, divide the surface of the sphere into eight tri-rectangular triangles. Thus $B$ the three planes $C A D B, C E D F$ and $A E B F$ divide the surface of the sphere into the eight tri-rectangular triangles $C E B, D E B, C B F, D B F$, etc.

As in Plane Geometry the whole angular magnitude about any point in a plane is divided by two straight lines perpendicular to each other into four right angles, and each right angle is measured by a quadrant, or fourth part of a circumference described about that point as a centre with any given radius ; so, if, through a point in space, three planes be made to pass perpendicular to one another, they will divide the whole angular magnitude about that point into eight solid right angles, each of which is measured by an eighth part of the surface of a sphere described about that point with any given radius.

And, as in Plane Geometry, each quadrant which measures a right angle is divided into 90 equal parts called degrees, so each of the eight tri-rectangular spherical triangles is divided into 90 equal parts called degrees of surface. Hence, the whole surface of the sphere is divided into 720 degrees of surface.

## Proposition XXIX. Lemma.

759. The area of the surface generated by the revolution of a straight line about another line in the same plane with it as an axis, is equal to the product of the projection of the line on the axis by the circumference whose radius is perpendicular to the revolving line erected at its middle point and terminated by the axis.


Let the straight line $A B$ revolve about the axis $Y Y^{\prime}$ in the same plane; let $E F$ be its projection on the axis; and $C O$ the perpendicular to $A B$ at its middle point $C$, and terminated in the axis.
We are to prove area $A B=E F \times 2 \pi O C$.
The surface generated by $A B$ is the lateral surface of the frustum of a cone of revolution.

Draw $C H \perp$, and $A D \|$, to $Y Y^{\prime}$.
Then $\quad$ area $A B=A B \times 2 \pi C H$,
§ 662
(the lateral area of a frustum of a cone of revolution is equal to the slant height multiplied by the circumference of a section equidistant from its bases).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { The } ₫ A B D \text { and } C O H \text { are similar ; } \\
& \therefore A D: A B:: C H: C O
\end{aligned}
$$

But $C H: C O:: 2 \pi C H: 2 \pi C O$, § 375 (circumferences of (©) have the same ratio as their radii).
$\therefore A D: A B:: 2 \pi C H: 2 \pi C O$.
$\therefore A D \times 2 \pi C O=A B \times 2 \pi C H$.
$\therefore$ area of $A B=A D \times 2 \pi C O$.

$$
\text { Now } A D=E F^{\prime}
$$

$\therefore$ area $A B=E F \times 2 \pi C O$.
Q. E. D.
760. Scholium. If either extremity of $A B$ be in the axis $Y Y^{\prime}, A B$ generates the lateral surface of a cone of revolution; and if $A B$ be parallel to the axis $Y Y^{\prime}$, it generates the lateral area of a cylinder of revolution. In either case the formula holds good

## Exercises.

1. If, from the extremities of one side of a spherical triangle, two arcs of great circles be drawn to a point within the triangle, the sum of these ares is less than the sum of the other two sides of the triangle.
2. On the same sphere, or on equal spheres, if two spherical triangles have two sides of the one equal respectively to two sides of the other, but the included angle of the first greater than the included angle of the second, then the third side of the first will be greater than the third side of the second.
3. To draw an arc perpendicular to a given spherical are, from a given point without it.
4. At a given point in a given arc, to construct a spherical angle equal to a given spherical angle.
5. To inscribe a circle in a given spherical triangle.
6. Given a spherical triangle whose sides are $60^{\circ}, 80^{\circ}$, and $100^{\circ}$; find the angles of its polar triangle.
7. The volume of a pyramid is 200 cubic feet ; find the volume of a similar pyramid which is three times as high.
8. Find the centre of a sphere whose surface shall pass through three given points, and shall touch a given plane.
9. Find the centre of a sphere whose surface shall pass through three given points, and shall also touch the surface of a given sphere.
10. Find the centre of a sphere whose surface shall touch two given planes, and also pass through two given points which lie between the planes.

Proposition XXX. Theorem.
761. The area of the surface of a sphere is equal to the product of its diameter by the circumference of a great circle.


Leci $A B C D E$ be the circumference of a great circle, and $A D$ the diameter, and $O A$ the radius of a sphere.

We are to prove surface of sphere $=A D \times 2 \pi O A$.
Let the semicircle and any regular inscribed semi-polygon revolve together about the diameter $A D$.

The semi-circumference will generate the surface of the sphere,
and the semi-perimeter a surface equal to the sum of the surfaces generated by the sides $A B, B C, C D$, etc.

Draw from the centre $O$, 1 s $O H, O I$ and $O K$ to the chords $A B, B C, C D$, etc.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { These } \sqrt{ } \text { bisect the chords and are equal; } \\
& \begin{array}{c}
\therefore \text { area } A B=A P \times 2 \pi O H ;
\end{array} \\
& \text { area } B C=P R \times 2 \pi O I ; \\
& \text { and area } C D=R D \times 2 \pi O K .
\end{align*}
$$

Adding, and observing that $O H, O I$ and $O K$ are equal,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { area } A B C D=(A P+P R+R D) \times 2 \pi O H . \\
\therefore \text { area } A B C D=A D \times 2 \pi O H .
\end{gathered}
$$

Now, if the number of sides of the regular inscribed semipolygon be indefinitely increased, the surface generated by the semi-perimeter will approach the surface of the sphere as its limit, and $O H$ will approach $O A$ as its limit.
$\therefore$ at the limit we have

$$
\text { surface of the sphere }=A D \times 2 \pi O A \text {. }
$$

Q. E. D.
762. Corollary 1. If $R$ denote the radius of the sphere, then $A D$ will equal $2 R$, and $O A$ will equal $R$. Hence the surface of a sphere equals $2 R \times 2 \pi R=4 \pi R^{2}$.
763. Cor. 2. Since the area of a great circle of a sphere is equal to $\pi R^{2}(\$ 381)$, and the area of the surface of a sphere is equal to $4 \pi R^{2}$, the surface of a sphere is equal to four great circles.
764. Cor. 3. If we denote the surfaces of two spheres by $S$ and $S^{\prime \prime}$, and their radii by $R$ and $R^{\prime}$, we have $S: S^{\prime \prime}:: 4 \pi R^{2}$ : $4 \pi R^{\prime 2}$, or $S: S^{\prime \prime}:: R^{2}: R^{\prime 2}$; that is, the surfaces of two spheres have the same ratio as the squares on their radii.
765. Cor. 4. Since $S=4 \pi R^{2}=\pi(2 R)^{2}$, the surface of $a$ sphere is equivalent to a circle whose radius is equal to the diameter of the sphere.

## Proposition XXXI. Theorem.

766. A lune is to the surface of the sphere as the angle of the lune is to four right angles.


Let $L$ denote the lune $A B E C$ whose angle is $A ; S$, the surface of the sphere; and $B C D F$, a great circle whose pole is $A$.

We are to prove

$$
\frac{L}{S}=\frac{A}{4 \mathrm{rt} . \underline{\Delta}} .
$$

Now the are $B C$ measures the $\angle A$ of the lune; and the circumference $B C D F^{\prime}$ measures $4 \mathrm{rt} . \angle \mathrm{s}$.

Case I. - If $B C$ and $B C D F$ be commensurable.
Find a common measure of $B C$ and $B C D F$.
Suppose this common measure to be contained in $B C 3$ times, and in $B C D F 25$ times.

Then

$$
\frac{A}{4 \mathrm{rt} . \measuredangle \mathrm{s}}=\left(\frac{B C}{B C D F}\right)=\frac{3}{25} .
$$

Pass arcs of great (5) through $A$ and these points of division. The entire surface will be divided into 25 equal lunes, of which lune $L$ will contain 3 .

$$
\therefore \frac{L}{S}=\frac{3}{25} \text {. }
$$

But

$$
\frac{A}{4 \mathrm{rt.} \angle \mathrm{~S}}=\frac{3}{25}, \quad \therefore \frac{L}{S}=\frac{A}{4 \mathrm{rt} . \triangle \mathrm{S}}
$$

CASE II. - If $B C$ and $B C D F$ be incommensurable,
the proposition can be proved by the method of limits, as employed in § 201.
Q. E. D.
767. Corollary. If we denote the surface of the tri-rectangular triangle by $T$, the surface of the whole sphere will be 8 I (§758), and if we denote the surface of the lune by $L$, and its angle by $A$, the unit of the angle being a right angle, we shall have $\frac{L}{8 T}=\frac{A}{4}$. Therefore $L=T \times 2 A$.

And if we take the tri-rectangular triangle as the unit of surface in comparing surfaces on the same sphere, we shall have $L=2 A$. That is, if a right angle be the unit of angles and the tri-rectangular triangle be the unit of spherical surfaces, the area of a lune is expressed by twice its angle.
768. Scholium. We may also obtain the area of a lune whose angle is known, on a given sphere, by finding the area of the sphere, and multiplying this area by the ratio of the angle of the lune, expressed in degrees, to $360^{\circ}$. Thus, if the angle of the lune be $60^{\circ}$, the area of the lune will be $\frac{60}{360}$ of the area of the sphere.

Ex. 1. Given the radius of a sphere is 10 feet ; find the area of a lune whose angle is $30^{\circ}$.
2. Given the diameter of a sphere is 16 feet; find the area of a lune whose angle is $75^{\circ}$.
3. Given the diameter of a sphere is 20 inches; find the entire surface of its circumscribed cylinder ; and of its circumscribed cone, the vertical angle of the cone being $60^{\circ}$.

## Proposition XXXII. Theorem.

769. If two circumferences of great circles intersect on the surface of a hemisphere, the sum of the opposite triangles thus formed is equivalent to a lune whose angle is equal to that included by the semi-circumferences.


Let the semi-circumferences $B A D$ and $C A E$ intersect at $A$ on the surface of a hemisphere.

We are to prove $\triangle A B C+\triangle D A E$ equivalent to a lune whose angle is $B A C$.

The semi-circumferences produced intersect on the opposite hemisphere at $A^{\prime}$.

Then each of the $\operatorname{arcs} A D$ and $A^{\prime} B$ is the supplement of $A B$,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { (two great © bisect each other). } \\
\therefore A D=A^{\prime} B .
\end{gathered}
$$

In like manner, $A E=A^{\prime} C$ and $D E=B C$.
$\therefore$ © $A D E$ and $A^{\prime} B C$ are symmetrical and equivaient.
§ 743
$\therefore \triangle A B C+\triangle A D E=\triangle A B C+\triangle A^{\prime} B C=$ lune $A B A^{\prime} C A$.

That is, $\triangle A B C+\triangle A D E=$ lune whose $\angle$ is $B A C$.
Q. E. D.
770. Corollary. The sum of two spherical pyramids, the sum of whose bases is equivalent to a lune, is equivalent to a wedge whose base is the lune.

## Proposition XXXIII. Theorem.

771. The area of a spherical triangle is equal to the tri-rectangular triangle multiplied by the ratio of the spherical excess of the given triangle to one right angle.


Let $A B C$ be a spherical triangle, and $T$ the area of the tri-rectangular triangle.
We are to prove $\triangle A B C=T(\angle S A+B+C-2)$.
Complete the circumference $A B D E$.
Produce $A C$ and $B C$ to meet this circumference in $D$ and $E$.
Then \& $A B C+B C D(=$ lune $A)=T \times 2 \angle A$. § 767
\& $A B C+A C E(=$ lune $B)=T \times 2 \angle B, \quad \S 767$
$\triangle A B C+D C E(=$ lune $C)(\S 769)=T \times 2 \angle C . § 767$
By adding these equalities,
$2 \triangle A B C+\triangle A B C+B C D+A C E+D C E$

$$
=T \times 2(\measuredangle \subseteq A+B+C)
$$

But \& $A B C+B C D+A C E+D C E=4 T$, § 758 (the surface of a hemispherc is cqual to 4 tri-rectangular A).
$\therefore 2 \triangle A B C+4 T=T \times 2(\angle A+B+C)$;

$$
\therefore \triangle A B C=T \times(\triangle A+B+C-2) .
$$

772. Scholium 1. If $\angle A=140^{\circ}, \angle B=120^{\circ}$ and $\angle C=$ $100^{\circ}$, a right angle being the unit,
then, $\triangle A B C=T\left(\frac{140^{\circ}}{90^{\circ}}+\frac{120^{\circ}}{90^{\circ}}+\frac{100^{\circ}}{90^{\circ}}-2\right)=2 T$.
773. Sсно. 2. To find the area of a spherical triangle on a given sphere, the angles of the triangle being given, we may multiply the area of the hemisphere by the ratio of the spherical excess to $360^{\circ}$.

Thus if $\angle A=140^{\circ}, \angle B=120^{\circ}$ and $\angle C=100^{\circ}$, since the hemisphere is $2 \pi R^{2}$, we have $\triangle A B C=2 \pi R^{2} \times$ $\frac{\angle A+\angle B+\angle C-180^{\circ}}{360^{\circ}}=2 \pi R^{2} \times \frac{180^{\circ}}{360^{\circ}}=\pi R^{2}$.

Proposition XXXIV. Theorem.
774. The area of a spherical polygon is equal to the tri-rectangular triangle multiplied by the ratio of the spherical c.ccess to one right angle.


Let $P$ denote the area of the spherical polygon; $S$ the sum of its angles; $n$ the number of its sides; $t, t^{\prime}$, $t^{\prime \prime}$.. . the areas of the triangles formed by drawing. diagonals from any vertex $A ; s, s^{\prime}, s^{\prime \prime} \ldots$ respectively the sums of the angles of these triangles; and $T$ the tri-rectangular triangle.

We are to prove

$$
P=T[S-2(n-2)]
$$

Now

$$
t=T(s-2)
$$

(the area of a spherical $\triangle$ is equal to its suherical excess multiplied into the area of the tri-rectangular $\Delta$ ).

$$
t^{\prime}=T\left(s^{\prime}-2\right)
$$

and

$$
t^{\prime \prime}=T\left(s^{\prime \prime}-2\right), \ldots
$$

By adding these equalities,
$t+t^{\prime}+t^{\prime \prime}, \ldots=T^{\prime}\left[s+s^{\prime}+s^{\prime \prime}+\ldots-2(n-2)\right]$.
But

$$
t+t^{\prime}+t^{\prime \prime}+\ldots=P
$$

and

$$
s+s^{\prime}+s^{\prime \prime}+\ldots=S
$$

$$
\therefore P=T[S-2(n-2)] .
$$

Q. E. D.
775. Corollary. The volume of a spherical pyramid is to the volume of the tri-rectangular pyramid, as the base of the pyramid is to the tri-rectangular triangle. And, since the volume of the tri-rectangular pyramid is $\frac{1}{8}$ the volume of the sphere, and the area of the tri-rectangular triangle is $\frac{1}{8}$ of the surface of the sphere; the volume of a spherical pyramid is to the volume of the sphere as its base is to the surface of the sphere.

776. Def. A Zone is the part of the surface of a sphere insluded between two parallel circles of the sphere; as the surface included between the circles $A B C$ and $E F G$.
777. Def. The Bases of a zone are the circumferences of the intercepting circles; as circumferences $A B C$ and $E F G$. If the plane of one base become tangent to the sphere, that base becomes a point, and the zone will have but one base.
778. Def. The altitude of a zone is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases.
779. Def. A Spherical Segment is a part of the sphere included between two parallel planes.
780. Def. The Bases of a spherical segment are the bounding circles.

One of the planes may become a tangent plane to the sphere. In this case the segment has but one base.
781. Def. The Altitude of a spherical segment is the perpendicular distance between the planes of its bases.

782. Def. A Spherical Sector is a part of a sphere generated by a circular sector of the semicircle which generates the sphere ; as $A O C K$.
783. Def. The Base of a spherical sector is the zone generated by the are of the circular sector; as $A C K$.

The other bounding surfaces of a spherical sector may be one conical surface, or two conical surfaces ; or one conical and one plane surface.

Thus, let $A B$ be the diameter around which the semicircle $A C B$ revolves to generate the sphere. The solid generated by the circular sector $A O C$ will be a spherical sector having the zone $A C K$ for its base, and for its other bounding surface the conical surface generated by $C O$.

The spherical sector generated by $C O D$ has for its base the zone generated by $C D$, and fur its other surfaces the concave conical surface generated by $D O$, and the convex conical surface generated by $C O$.

The spherical sector generated by $E O F$ has for its base the zune generated by $E F$, and for one surface the plane surface generated by $E O$, and for the other surface the concave conical surface generated by $F O$.

Proposition XXXV. Theorem.
784. The area of a zone is equal to the product of its altitude by the circumference of a great circle.


Let $A B C D E$ be the circumference of a great circle, $B C$ any arc of this circumference, and $O A$ the radius of the sphere. And, let $P R$ be the altitude of the zone generated by arc $B C$.

We are to prove zone $B C=P R \times 2 \pi O A$.
If the semicircle $A B C D$ revolve about the diameter $A D$ as an axis, the semi-circumference $A B C D$ will generate the surface of a sphere; the arc $B C$, a zone,
and the chord $B C$, a surface whose area is $P R \times 2 \pi O I . \S 759$
Now if we bisect the arc $B C$, and continue this process indefinitely, the surface generated by the chords of these ares will approach the zone as its limit ;
the $\perp O I$ will approach the radius of the sphere as its limit; while $P R$ will remain constant.
$\therefore$ at the limit, zone $B C=P R \times 2 \pi O A$.
Q. E. D.
785. Corollary 1. Zones on the same sphere, or equai spheres, have the same ratio as their altitudes.
786. Cor. 2. A zone is to the surface of the sphere as the altitude of the zone is to the diameter of the sphere.
787. Cor. 3. Let are $A B$ generate a zone of a single base. Then, zone $A B=A P \times 2 \pi O A$. Hence, zone $A B=\pi A P$ $\times A D=\pi \overline{A B}^{2} . \quad$ (§307.) That is, a zone of one base is equivalent to a circle whose radius is the chord of the generating arc.

On the Volume of the Sphere.
Proposition XXXVI. Theorem.
788. The volume of a sphere is equal to the area of its surface multiplied by one-third of its radius.


Let $R$ be the radius of a sphere whose centre is $O, S$ its surface, and $V$ its volume.
We are to prove $\quad V=S \times \frac{1}{3} R$.
Conceive a cube to be circumscribed about the sphere.
From $O$, the centre of the sphere, conceive lines to be drawn to the vertices of each of the polyhedral $₫ A, B, C, D$, etc.

These lines are the edges of six quadrangular pyramids, whose bases are the faces of the cube, and whose common altitude is the radius of the sphere.

The volume of each pyramid is equal to the product of its base by $\frac{1}{3}$ its altitude.
§ 574
$\therefore$ the volume of the six pyramids, that is, the volume of the circumscribed cube, is equal to the surface of the cube multiplied by $\frac{1}{3} R$.

Now conceive planes drawn tangent to the sphere, cutting each of the polyhedral $\AA$ of the cube.

We shall then have a circumscribed solid whose volume will be nearer that of the sphere than is the volume of the circumscribed cube.

From $O$ conceive lines to be drawn to each of the polyhedral $\angle s$ of the solid thus formed, $a, b, c$, etc.

These lines will form the edges of a series of pyramids, whose bases are the surface of the solid, and whose common altitude is the radius of the sphere;
and the volume of each pyramid thus formed is equal to the product of its base by $\frac{1}{3}$ its altitude.
$\therefore$ the sum of the volumes of these pyramids, that is, the volume of this new solid, is equal to the surface of the solid multiplied by $\frac{1}{3} R$.

Now, this process of cutting the polyhedral $\angle s$ by tangent planes may be considered as continued indefinitely,
and, however far this process is carried, it will always be true that the volume of the solid is equal to its surface multiplied by $\frac{1}{3} R$.

But the sphere is the limit of this circumscribed solid.

$$
\therefore V=S \times \frac{1}{3} R .
$$

Q.E.D.
789. Corollary 1. Since $S=4 \pi R^{2}$ (§ $\pi(C 2), V=4 \pi l^{2} \times$ $\frac{1}{3} R=\frac{4}{3} \pi R^{3}$. If we denote the diametcr of the sphere by $D, \hbar^{8}=\left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^{8}=\frac{D^{3}}{8} \therefore V=\frac{1}{6} \pi D^{8}$.
790. Cor. 2. Denote the radius of another sphere by $R^{\prime}$ and its volume by $V^{\prime}$; we have $V^{\prime}=\frac{4}{3} \pi R^{\prime 3} . \quad \therefore \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{\frac{4}{3} \pi R^{8}}{\frac{4}{3} \pi R^{\prime 3}}=\frac{R^{8}}{R^{\prime 3}}$. That is, spheres are to each other as the cubes of their radii.
791. Cor. 3. The volume of a spherical sector is equal to the product of the area of the zone which forms its base by one-third the radius of the sphere.

Let $R$ denote the radius of a sphere, $C$ the circumference of a great circle, $H$ the altitude of the zone, $Z$ the surface of the zone, and $V$ the volume of the corresponding sector.

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C=2 \pi R ; \\
& Z=C \times H=2 \pi R \times H ; \\
& V=\frac{1}{3} Z \times R=\frac{2}{3} \pi R^{2} \times H .
\end{aligned}
$$

792. Cor. 4. The volumes of spherical sectors of the same sphere, or equal spheres, are to each other as the zones which form their bases, or as the altitudes of these zones.

For, let $V$ and $V^{\prime}$ denote the volumes of two spherical sectors, $Z$ and $Z^{\prime}$ the zones which form their bases, $H$ and $H^{\prime}$ the altitudes of these zones, and $R$ the radius of the sphere.

Then

$$
\frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{Z \times \frac{1}{3} R}{Z^{\prime} \times \frac{1}{3} R}=\frac{Z}{Z^{\prime}}
$$

And since

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{Z}{Z^{\prime}}=\frac{H}{H^{\prime}}, \\
& \frac{V}{V^{\prime}}=\frac{H}{H^{\prime}} .
\end{align*}
$$


793. Cor. 5. The volume of a spherical segment of one base, less than a hemisphere, generated by the revolution of a semi-segment $A B C$ about the diameter $A D$, may be found by subtracting the volume of the cone of revolution generated by $O B C$ from that of the spherical sector $A O B$.

In like manner, the volume of a spherical segment of one base, greater than a hemisphere, generated by the revolution of
$A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ may be found by adding the volume of the cone of revolution generated by $O B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ to that of the spherical sector generated by $A O B^{\prime}$.
794. Cor. 6. The volume of a spherical segment of two bases, generated by the revolution of $C B B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ about the diameter $A D$, may be found by subtracting the volume of the segment of one base generated by $A B C$ from that of the segment of one base generated by $A B^{\prime} C^{\prime \prime}$.

## Exercises.

1. Given a sphere whose diameter is 20 inches ; find the circumference of a small circle whose plane cuts the diameter 4 inches from the centre.
2. Construct, on the spherical blackboard, spherical angles of $30^{\circ}, 45^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}, 120^{\circ}, 150^{\circ}$ and $135^{\circ}$.
3. Construct, on the spherical blackboard, a spherical triangle, whose sides are $100^{\circ}, 80^{\circ}$ and $70^{\circ}$ respectively. What is true of its polar triangle?
4. Find the surface and volume of a sphere whose radius is 10 inches ; also find the area of a spherical triangle on this sphere, the angles of the triangle being $80^{\circ}, 85^{\circ}$ and $100^{\circ}$ respectively.
5. If 7 equidistant planes cut a sphere, each perpendicular to the same diameter, what are the relative areas of the zones?
6. Given, two mutually equiangular triangles on spheres whose radii are 10 inches and 40 inches respectively; what are their relative areas?
7. Let $V$ denote the volume of a spherical pyramid, $S$ its base, $E$ the spherical excess of its base, and $R$ the radius of the sphere ; show that $S=\frac{1}{2} \pi R^{2} E$, and $V=\frac{1}{6} \pi R^{8} E$.
8. Given, the volume of a sphere 1728 inches: find its radius
9. Find the ratio of the surfaces, and the ratio of the volumes, of a cube and of the inscribed sphere.
10. Find the ratio of the surfaces, and the ratio of the volumes, of a sphere and the circumscribed cylinder.
11. Let $V$ denote the volume and $I I$ the altitude of the spherical segment of one base, and $R$ the radius of the sphere ; show that $V=\pi H^{2}\left(R-\frac{1}{3} H\right)$. Also, find $V$ when $R=12$ and $H=3$.
12. Given, a sphere 2 feet in diameter; find the volume of a segment of the sphere included between two parallel planes, one at 3 and the other at 9 inches from the centre. (Two solutions.)
13. A sphere 4 inches in diameter is bored through the centre with a two-inch auger; find the volume remaining.

## THE END.

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expected or desired, and any claim to usefulness must be based upon the method of treatment and upon the number and character of the examples. About four thousand examples have been selected, arranged, and tested in the recitation-room, and any found too difficult have been excluded from the book. The idea has been to furnish a great number of examples for practice, but to exclude complicated problems that consume time and energy to little or no purpose.

In expressing the definitions, particular regard has been paid to brevity and perspicuity. The rules have been deduced from processes immediately preceding, and have been written, not to bo committed to memory, but to furnish aids to the student in framing for himself intelligent statements of his methods. Each principle has been fully illustrated, and a sufficient number of problems has been given to fix it firmly in the pupil's mind before he proceeds to another. Many examples have been worked out in order to exhibit the best methods of dealing with different classes of problems and the best arrangement of the work; and such aid has been given in the statement of problems as experience has shown to be necessary for the attainment of the best results. General demonstrations have been avoided whenever a particular illustration would serve the purpose, and the application of the principle to similar cases was obvious. The reason for this course is, that the pupil must become familiar with the separate steps from particular examples, before he is able to follow them in a general demonstration, and to understand their logical connection.

## Wentworth's Complete Algebra.

## Introduction, \$1.40; Allowance for old book in use, 40 cts.

This work is the continuation of the Elementary Algebra (described above), and contains about 150 pages more than that.

The additions are chapters on Chance, Interest Formulas, Continued Fractions, Theory of Limits, Indeterminate Coefficients, the Exponential Theorem, the Differential Method, the Theory of Numbers, Imaginary Numbers, Loci of Equations, Equations in General, and Higher Numerical Equations.

## Wentworth \& McLellan's University Algebra.

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Introduction, 75 cts.; Allowance for old book in use, $\mathbf{2 5}$ cts.

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This work is based upon the assumption that Geometry is a branch of practical logic, the object of which is to detect, and state precisely the successive steps from premise to conclusion.

In each proposition, a concise statement of what is given is printed in one kind of type, of what is required in another, and the demonstration in still another. The reason for each step is indicated in sinall type, between that step and the one following, thus preventing the necessity of interrupting the process of demonstration by referring to a previous proposition. The number of the section, however, on which the reason depends, is placed at the -side of the page; and the pupil should be prepared, when called upon, to give the proof of each reason.

A limited use has been made of symbols, wherein symbols stand for words, and not for operations.

Great pains have been taken to make the page attractive. The propositions have been so arranged that in no case is it necessary to turn the page in reading a demonstration.

A large experience in the class-room convinces the author that, if the teacher will rigidly insist upon the logical form adopted in this work, the pupil will avoid the discouraging difficulties which usually beset the beginner in geometry; that he will rapidly develop his reasoning faculty, acquire facility in simple and accurate expression, and lay a foundation of geometrical knowledge which will be the more solid and enduring from the fact that it will not rest upon an effort of the memory simply.

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Introduction, 75 cts.; Allowance for old book in use, 25 cts.
As this work is intended for beginners, an effort has been made to develop the subject in the most simple and natural way.

In the first chapter, the functions of an acute angle are defined as ratios, and the fundamental relations of the functions are established and illustrated by numerous examples. It is afterwards
shown how the numerical values of the ratios may be represented by lines, and the simpler line values are employed in studying the changes of the functions as the angle changes.

In the second chapter the right triangle is solved, and many problems are given in order that the student may at the outset perceive the practical utility of Trigonometry, and acquire skill in the use of logarithms.

In the third chapter the definitions of the functions are extended to all angles, and the necessary propositions are established by simple proofs.

In the fourth and last chapter the oblique triangle is solved, and a collection of miscellaneous examples is added.

The answers to the problems are printed at the end of the book.

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Table VI. contains the values of the circumference and area of a circle for different values of the radius, and of the radius and area for different values of the circumference.

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[^0]:    Phillips Exeter Academy, January, 1879.

[^1]:    Q. E. F.

[^2]:    Then
    $\overline{S C}^{2}=M C \times C N$, § 259
    (the product of the means is equal to the product of the extremes).

[^3]:    * The symbol ( $\approx$ ) is to be read "equivalent to."

