A SURVEY OF EUCLID'S ELEMENTS

FALL 2000

1. Definitions, Axioms and Postulates

Definition 1.1. 1. A point is that which has no part.

- **2.** A line is breadth-less length.
- **3.** The **extremities** of a line are points.
- **4.** A straight line is a line which lies evenly with the points on itself.
- 8. A plane angle is the inclination to one another of two lines in a plane which meet one another and do not lie in a straight line.
- 10. When a straight line set up on a straight line makes the adjacent angles equal to one another, each of the equal angles is **right**, and the straight line standing on the other is called a **perpendicular** to that on which it stands.
- 15. A circle is a plane figure contained by one line such that all the straight lines falling upon it from one point among those lying within the figure are equal to one another.
- 21. Rectilineal figures are those which are contained by straight lines, trilateral figures being those contained by three, ...
- 23. Parallel straight lines are straight lines which being in the same plane and being produced indefinitely in both directions, do not meet one another in either direction.

The definitions describe some objects of geometry. When we discuss a modern axiom system for Euclidean geometry, we will see that certain fundamental concepts must remain undefined. The first of these is the point. We assume that the Euclidean plane is an abstract set E whose elements are called "points", whatever they may be. We go along with Euclid to the extend of illustrating points as chalk marks on the blackboard. Notice that Euclid calls any bent or straight curve a "line" and that lines and straight lines all have end points. We will use the term line to denote a second kind of undefined objects which are certain subsets of E and correspond to Euclid's "straight lines produced indefinitely in either direction". So line and straight line is the same for us, and lines have no endpoints. What is a straight line for Euclid is a line segment AB for us. We must settle for the moment for our intuitive pictorial idea of a line segment. If we pretend that we know the concept of a half ray emanating from an initial point, then we can define "angle" rigorously (see below). If A, B are distinct points, then they determine a unique half ray, denoted AB, which has A as initial point and contains B. In Definition 10, Euclid talks without explanation about "equal" angles and similarly he takes for granted a concept of "equal" line segments and triangles. As a matter of fact, we must accept an undefined relation between line segments AB and A'B', called **congruence** and we write $AB \equiv A'B'$ if the relation holds. Similarly, we assume an undefined relation between angles $\angle A, \angle A'$ called **angle congruence** or simply

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congruence and write $\angle A \equiv \angle A'$ if the angles are in fact congruent. We now list some modern definitions in order to clarify subsequent discussions.

- **Definition 1.2.** (1) A set of points is **collinear** if the set is contained in some straight line.
 - (2) A triangle \triangle ABC is any set $\{A, B, C\}$ of non-collinear points. The points A, B, C are the vertices of the triangle. The line segments AB, BC, CA are called the sides of the triangle.
 - (3) An **angle** is a set of two half-rays h, k with common initial point not both contained in the same line. We write $\angle(h, k) = \{h, k\}$.
 - (4) Let \triangle ABC be a triangle. The angles $\angle A = \angle(AB, AC)$, $\angle B = \angle(BC, BA)$, and $\angle C = \angle(\overrightarrow{CA}, \overrightarrow{CB})$ are the angles of the triangle.
 - (5) Two triangles are **congruent** if their vertices can be matched in such a way that that all the corresponding sides are congruent and all the corresponding angles are congruent. If the vertices of the one triangles are labeled A, B, C and the corresponding vertices of the other are labeled A', B', C', then we write $\Delta ABC \equiv \Delta A'B'C'$ and we have $AB \equiv A'B'$, $BC \equiv B'C'$, $CA \equiv C'A'$, $AB \equiv A'B'$, $AB \equiv A'B'$, and $AB \equiv A'B'$.
 - (6) Let C be a point, and AB a line segment. The circle with center C and radius AB is the set of all points P such that $PC \equiv AB$.
 - (7) Two (different) lines are **parallel** if they do not intersect (in the sense of set theory). We also agree, for technical reasons, that a line is parallel to itself.

1.3. Euclid's Postulates Let the following be postulated:

- (1) To draw a straight line from any point to any point.
- (2) To produce a finite straight line continuously in a straight line.
- (3) To describe a circle with any center and distance.
- (4) That all right angles are equal to one another.
- (5) That, if a straight line falling on two straight lines make the interior angles on the same side less than two right angles, the two straight lines, if produced indefinitely, meet on that side on which are the angles less than the two right angles.

1.4. Euclid's Common Notions or Axioms

- (1) Things which are equal to the same thing are also equal to one another.
- (2) If equals be added to equals, the wholes are equal.
- (3) If equals be subtracted from equals, the remainders are equal.
- (4) Things which coincide with one another are equal to one another.
- (5) The whole is greater than the part.

2. Book I. Propositions

After the definitions, postulates, and axioms, the **propositions** follow with proofs.

In the following some propositions are stated in the translation given in *Euclid*, *The Thirteen Books of THE ELEMENTS*, Translated with introduction and commentary by Sir Thomas L. Hearth, Dover Publications 1956. Most propositions are translated into modern mathematical language and labeled by a decimal number

indicating section number and item number. These results may be used and should be referred to in exercises.

Propositions 1 to 3 state that certain constructions are possible.

2.1. Proposition 4 If two triangles have two sides equal to two sides respectively, and have the enclosed angles contained by the equal straight lines equal, they will also have the base equal to the base, the triangle will be equal to the triangle, and the remaining angles will be equal to the remaining angles respectively, namely those which the equal sides sub-tend.

Proof. Superposition.

- **2.2.** Proposition 4 bis Let \triangle ABC and \triangle A'B'C' be triangles such that AB \equiv A'B', AC \equiv A'C' and \angle A \equiv \angle A'. Then \triangle ABC \equiv \triangle A'B'C'. (sas)
- **2.3.** Proposition 5 In $\triangle ABC$, if $AB \equiv AC$ then $\angle B \equiv \angle C$.
- **2.4.** Proposition 6 In $\triangle ABC$, if $\angle B \equiv \angle C$ then $AB \equiv AC$.

Proposition 7 is preparatory to Proposition 8.

2.5. Proposition 8 Let \triangle ABC and \triangle A'B'C' be triangles such that $AB \equiv A'B'$, $BC \equiv B'C'$ and $CA \equiv C'A'$. Then \triangle ABC $\equiv \triangle$ A'B'C'. (sss)

Proposition 9 describes a method for bisecting an angle. Similarly, Proposition 10 tell how to bisect a line segment. Proposition 11 contains a construction of the perpendicular to a line at a point on the line.

- Exercise 2.6. (1) Describe a compass and straight-edge construction for the perpendicular bisector of a given angle. Prove that the construction works.
 - (2) Describe a compass and straight-edge construction for the bisector of a given line segment. Prove that the construction works.
 - (3) Describe a compass and straight-edge construction for the perpendicular to a given line at a given point on the line. Prove that the construction works.
- **2.7.** Proposition 12 To a given infinite straight line, from a given point which is not on it, to draw a perpendicular straight line.
- **2.8.** Proposition 12 There is a compass and straight-edge construction for the perpendicular of a given line passing through a point not on the line.

Construction. Choose a point D in the half plane of the given line l not containing the given point C. Draw the circle with center C and radius CD. It cuts l in points G, E. Let H be the midpoint of GE. Then HC is the desired perpendicular.

2.9. Proposition 13 Vertical angles are congruent.

What follows now are "geometric inequalities". They are proved without the use of Postulate 5.

- **2.10. Proposition 16** In \triangle ABC, the exterior angle at C is larger than either \angle A or \angle B.
- **2.11. Proposition 17** In $\triangle ABC$, $\angle A + \angle B < 2R$.
- **2.12. Proposition 18** In \triangle ABC, if BC > AC, then \angle A > \angle B.

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2.13. Proposition 19 In $\triangle ABC$, if $\angle A > \angle B$ then BC > AC.

It is interesting that the Proposition 18 implies its converse, Proposition 19.

- **2.14.** Proposition 20 (Triangle Inequality) In any $\triangle ABC$, AC + BC > AB.
- Exercise 2.15. (1) A farmer's house and his barn are on the same side of a straight river. The farmer has to walk from his house to the river and to fetch water and then to the barn to feed and water his horses. At which point on the river should he fetch water so that his path from the house via the river to the barn is as short as possible?
 - (2) Prove Euclid's Proposition 21.
- **2.16. Proposition 21** Let \triangle ABC be given, and let C' be a point in the interior of \triangle ABC. Then AC + BC > AC' + BC' and $\angle C' > \angle C$.
- **2.17. Proposition 22** If a, b, and c are line segments such that a + b > c then there is a triangle \triangle ABC such that $AB \equiv c$, $BC \equiv a$, and $CA \equiv b$.
- **2.18.** Proposition **25** If two triangles have two sides equal to two sides respectively, but have the base greater than the base, they will also have the one of the angles contained by the equal straight lines greater than the other.
- **2.19. Proposition 25** Let \triangle ABC and \triangle A'B'C' be triangles such that $AB \equiv A'B'$ and $AC \equiv A'C'$ but BC > B'C' then $\angle A > \angle A'$.
- **2.20. Proposition 26** Let $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle A'B'C'$ be triangles such that $AB \equiv A'B'$, $\angle A \equiv \angle A'$ and $\angle B \equiv \angle B'$ then $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle A'B'C'$. (asa)

The following congruence theorem does not appear in the Elements.

- **2.21. Proposition** Let $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle A'B'C'$ be triangles such that $\angle A \equiv \angle A'$, $AB \equiv A'B'$, $BC \equiv B'C'$ and BC > AB then $\triangle ABC \equiv \triangle A'B'C'$. (asS)
- **2.22.** Proposition 27 If a line cuts a pair of lines such that the alternating angles are congruent then the lines of the pair are parallel.
- **2.23.** Proposition 28 If a line cuts a pair of lines such that corresponding angles are congruent, then the lines of the pair are parallel.
- **Exercise 2.24.** Note that Proposition 2.8 says in particular that given a line l and a point P not on l, there exists a perpendicular from P to l. By Proposition 2.23 the perpendicular is unique.
 - 1. Let P be a point not on the line l and let $Q \in l$ be the foot of the perpendicular from P to l. Let X be any point of l, $X \neq Q$. Prove that PX > PQ. Hint: 2.10 and 2.13.

The line segment PQ in (1) is called the (segment) distance of P from l. The (segment) distance of the point A from the point B is the line segment AB.

- 2. Let a, b be distinct lines intersecting in the point A. Prove: A point X has congruent segment distances from line a and line b if and only if X lies on the angle bisector of one of the four angles formed by the line a and b.
- 3. Let A, B be two distinct points. Prove that a point X has congruent segment distances from point A and point B if and only if X lies on the perpendicular bisector of AB.

Exercise 2.25. Prove the following facts.

- (1) The bisectors of the three angles of a triangle meet in a point.
- (2) The perpendicular bisectors of the three sides of a triangle meet in a single point.

Exercise 2.26. Let C be the circle with center A and radius AB. The **interior** of C is the set of all points X such that AX < AB; the **exterior** of C is the set of all points X such that AX > AB. Take for granted the fact that a line which contains an interior point of C intersects C in more than one point.

- (1) Let $P \in \mathcal{C}$ and let t be the unique line containing P such that t is perpendicular to \overrightarrow{AP} . Prove that every point of t except P belongs to the exterior of \mathcal{C}
- (2) Let t be a line which intersects C in exactly one point T. Prove that \overrightarrow{AT} is perpendicular to t.
- (3) Prove that a line intersects a circle in at most two points.

Now, for the first time, Postulate 5 will be used.

- **2.27.** Proposition 29 If a, b are a pair of parallel lines then the corresponding angles at a transversal are congruent.
- **2.28.** Proposition 30 If a is parallel to b, and b is parallel to c, then a is parallel to c.

The famous next theorem contains the important fact that the angle sum of a triangle is 180° .

2.29. Proposition 32 In any triangle, if one of the sides be produced, the exterior angle is equal to the two interior and opposite angles, and the three interior angles of the triangle are equal to two right angles.

Exercise 2.30. Prove that the three heights (or altitudes) of a triangle meet in a single point using that the perpendicular bisectors of the three sides of a triangle meet in a single point (Exercise 2.25).

Propositions 33 to 36 deal with parallelograms.

Exercise 2.31. Recall that a parallelogram is a quadrilateral with opposite sides parallel.

- (1) (Proposition 33) Let □ABCD be a quadrilateral with sides AB, BC, CD, DA such that AB is opposite CD, and BC is opposite DA. Suppose that AD ≡ BC and AD is parallel to BC. Prove that AB ≡ CD and AB is parallel to DC.
- (2) (**Proposition 34**) Let $\Box ABCD$ be the parallelogram with sides AB, BC, CD, DA such that AB is opposite CD, and BC is opposite DA. Prove that $AB \equiv CD$, $BC \equiv AD$ and that the diagonals BD and AC bisect one another.

The following proposition deals with area for the first time. When two plane figures are called "equal" in Euclid, it means in modern terms that they have equal areas. The concept of area is treated as a known, unquestioned concept, which is not satisfactory nowadays. It is interesting, however, to observe which properties of area are used in the proofs.

2.32. Proposition 35 Parallelograms which are on the same base and in the same parallels are equal to one another.

Proof. Let ABCD, EBCF be parallelograms on the same base BC and in the same parallels AF, BC;

I say that ABCD is equal to the parallelogram EBCF.

For, since ABCD is a parallelogram, AD is equal to BC. For the same reason EF is equal to BC, so that AD is also equal to EF [C.N. 1]; and DE is common; therefore the whole AE is equal to the whole DF [C.N. 2]. But AB is also equal to DC [I. 34]; therefore the two sides EA, AB are equal to the two sides FD, DC respectively, and therefore the angle FDC is equal to the angle EAB, the exterior to the interior [I. 29]; therefore the base EB is equal to the base FC, and the triangle EAB will be equal to the triangle FDC [I, 4]. Let DGE be subtracted from each; therefore the trapezium ABGD which remains is equal to the trapezium EGCF which remains [C.N. 3]. Let the triangle EBC be added to each; therefore the whole parallelogram EBCF [C.N. 2].

- **2.33.** Proposition 38 Triangles which are on equal bases and in the same parallels are equal to one another.
- **2.34.** Proposition 47 (Theorem of Pythagoras) In right-angled triangles the square on the side sub-tending the right angle is equal to the squares on the sides containing the right angle.

The following is the converse of the Pythagorean Theorem.

2.35. Proposition 48 If in a triangle the square on one of the sides be equal to the squares on the remaining two sides of the triangle, the angle contained by the remaining two sides of the triangle is right.

Exercise 2.36. Let $\triangle ABC$ be a right triangle with $\angle C \equiv R$. Let $D \in AB$ be such that \overrightarrow{CD} is perpendicular to \overrightarrow{AB} , in other words, CD is the height from C. Let a = BC, b = AC, c = AB, p = AD, q = DB, and h = CD. Think of these quantities as lengths, so that the usual algebra can be performed on them. Use the Theorem of Pythagoras to prove

- (1) $h^2 = p \cdot q$.
- (2) $a^2 = q \cdot c$.
- $(3) b^2 = p \cdot c.$

3. Воок II

Book II contains a number of propositions on area which is the way to deal with products in Euclidean mathematics. Some propositions amount to algebraic identities which are very simple in today's algebraic language; some propositions use the Pythagorean Theorem to solve quadratic equations. An example is Proposition 14

3.1. Proposition 14 To construct a square equal to a given rectilineal figure.

Exercise 3.2. (Theorem of Thales) Let AB be a diameter of a circle and C any point on the circle. Prove that $\angle ACB$ is a right angle.

Exercise 3.3. (Proposition 14) Let a rectangle with sides a and b be given. By compass and ruler alone, construct a square which has the same area as the given rectangle. In other words, given line segments a,b construct a line segment x such that $x^2 = a \cdot b$.

3.4. Corollary For any positive real number a, construct \sqrt{a} .

The following proposition is much more tricky.

3.5. Proposition 11 Let AB be a given line segment. Find a point $C \in AB$ such that the square over AC has the same area as the rectangle with sides AB and CB.

Proof. Let r = |AB| (the length of AB), and let a = |AC|. The problem amounts to constructing

 $a = \frac{r}{2}(-1 + \sqrt{5}). \quad \Box$

4. Book III

This part of the Elements deals with circles and their properties. Here is a sampling of definitions from Book III.

Definition 4.1. 2. A straight line is said to touch a circle which, meeting the circle and being produced, does not cut the circle.

- 6. A segment of a circle is the figure contained by a straight line and a circumference of a circle.
- 8. An angle in a segment is the angle which, when a point is taken on the circumference of the segment and straight lines are joined from it to the extremities of the straight line which is the base of the segment, is contained by the straight lines so joined.

Recall that a straight line cuts a circle in at most two points.

Exercise 4.2. (Proposition 10) Show that two circles intersect in at most two points.

Definition 4.3. Let C be a circle with center Z, and let A, B be points on the circle, i.e., A, $B \in C$.

- (1) The line segment AB is a **chord** of C.
- (2) A straight line which intersects the circle in two points is called a secant of the circle.
- (3) A straight line which intersects the circle in exactly one point is said to touch the circle, and to be tangent to the circle.
- (4) An arc of a circle is the intersection of the circle with a half-plane of a secant.
- (5) The central angle over the chord AB is the angle $\angle AZB$.
- (6) An inscribed angle is an angle ∠ACB where C is some point on the circle.
- (7) Two circles which intersect in exactly one point are said to touch one another.

Exercise 4.4. (Proposition 1) Given three (distinct) points of a circle, construct the center by compass and ruler alone.

4.5. Proposition 10 A circle does not cut a circle at more than two points.

- **4.6.** Proposition 16 The straight line drawn at right angles to the diameter of a circle from its extremities will fall outside the circle, and into the space between the straight line and the circumference another straight line cannot be interposed; further the angle of the semi-circle is greater, and the remaining angle less, than any acute rectilineal angle.
- **4.7.** Proposition 18 The tangent at a point A of a circle is perpendicular to the radius vector through A.
- **4.8. Proposition 20** Let AB be a chord of a circle C with center Z. Then the central angle over the chord AB is twice the size of any inscribed angle $\angle ACB$ when C and Z are on the same side of \overrightarrow{AB} .

Exercise 4.9. Find and prove the relationship between the central angle $\angle AZB$ and an inscribed angle $\angle ACB$ when C and Z are on different sides of \overrightarrow{AB} .

- **4.10. Proposition 21** In a circle the inscribed angles over the same chord AB and on the same side of \overrightarrow{AB} are congruent.
- **Exercise 4.11.** (1) Describe and verify a compass and ruler construction of the tangents to a circle passing through a given exterior point of the circle.
 - (2) Describe and verify a compass and ruler construction of the common tangents of two circles.
- **4.12.** Proposition 36 Let C be a circle and let P be a point of the exterior of C. Let $T \in C$ such that PT is tangent to C and let some other line through P intersect C in the points A and B. Then

$$PA \cdot PB = PT^2$$
.

Exercise 4.13. Let C be a circle with center Z and let P be a point of the exterior of C. Let $T \in C$ such that \overrightarrow{PT} is tangent to C and let \overrightarrow{PZ} intersect C in the points A and B. Prove that

$$PA \cdot PB = PT^2$$
.

This book deals with connections between circles and triangles essentially. Here are some sample theorems.

5.1. Proposition 4 In a given triangle to inscribe a circle.

This proposition essentially uses the following fact which was shown in Exercise 2.24.2.

Proposition 5.2. The angle bisector is the locus of all points equidistant from the legs of the angle.

5.3. Proposition 5 About a given triangle to circumscribe a circle.

This proposition can be done easily using that the perpendicular bisector of a line segment is the locus of all points equidistant from the endpoints of the line segment (Exercise 2.25).

- **5.4.** Proposition 10 To construct an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base double of the remaining one.
- **5.5.** Proposition 11 In a given circle, inscribe a regular pentagon.

6. Воок V

This book contains the theory of proportions and the algebra of line segments. Already the definitions are hard to understand and the propositions are complicated, especially when compared with the elegant algebraic language which is available to us today. However, this Book throws considerable light on the Greek substitute for real number.

Here are some sample definitions.

Definition 6.1. (1) A magnitude is a part of a magnitude, the less of the greater, when it measures the greater.

- (2) The greater is a multitude of the less when it is measured by the less.
- (3) A ratio is a sort of relation in respect of size between two magnitudes of the same kind.
- (4) Magnitudes are said to have a ratio to one another which are capable when multiplied, of exceeding one another.
- (5) Magnitudes are said to be in the same ratio, the first to the second and the third to the fourth, when, if any equimultiples whatever be taken of the first and third, and any equimultiples whatever of the second and the fourth, the former equimultiples alike exceed, are alike equal to, or alike fall short of, the latter equimultiples respectively taken in corresponding order.
- (6) Let magnitudes which have the same ratio be called **proportional**.

There are 11 more definitions at the start of the book. Note that 6.1.1 defines divisor, and 6.1.2 multiple. Definition 6.1.3 says that a certain relationship between the sizes of magnitudes may or may not exist; if it exists it is called "ratio". If a and b are magnitudes "of the same kind", then a:b=a/b is their ratio, so some real number by our comprehension. The next Definition (4) says when such a relationship exists: For any integral multiple ma there is an integral multiple nb such that nb>ma and conversely. This definition says that the ratio a:b can be approximated to any degree of precision by rational numbers. Definition (5), due to Eudoxos of Knidos (408?–355?), then says when two ratios a:a' and b:b' are equal in terms of rationals: a/a'=b/b' if and only if for every rational m/n, we have

$$a/a' \left\{ \begin{array}{c} > \\ = \\ < \end{array} \right\} m/n \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad b/b' \left\{ \begin{array}{c} > \\ = \\ < \end{array} \right\} m/n.$$

This is a valid criterion for the equality of the real numbers a/a' and b/b'.

Here are some sample theorems which are translated into modern algebraic formulas. They should be interpreted geometrically in order to reflect the Greek original. Also note that ma where m is a positive integer and a a magnitude (line segment, area, volume), means "m copies of a added together", and does not mean a product. This is analogous to the definition of powers. In the following m, n, p, \ldots stand for positive integers while a, b, c, \ldots stand for magnitudes.

- **6.2. Proposition 1** $ma + mb + mc + \cdots = m(a + b + c + \ldots).$
- **6.3. Proposition 2** $ma + na + pa + \cdots = (m + n + p + \dots)a$.
- **6.4.** Proposition 3 n(ma) = (nm)a.
- **6.5. Proposition 4** If a:b=c:d then ma:nb=mc:nd.

6.6. Proposition 5 (ma) - (nb) = (m-n)b.

There are 25 propositions of this nature altogether.

7. Book VI

The results of this book which deals with **similarity** contains very useful and important results.

Definition 7.1. Similar rectilineal figures are such as have their angles severally equal and the sides about the equal angles proportional.

We specialize and rephrase this definition to triangles. Note the analogy to "congruent".

Definition 7.2. Two triangles are **similar** if they can be labelled $\triangle ABC$ and $\triangle A'B'C'$ in such a way that $\angle A \equiv \angle A'$, $\angle B \equiv \angle B'$, $\angle C \equiv \angle C'$, AB : A'B' = BC : B'C' = CA : C'A'.

Interesting is the following definition.

Definition 7.3. A straight line is said to have been **cut** in the extreme and **mean ratio** when, as the whole line is to the greater segment, so is the greater to the less.

The first proposition says, in modern terms, that the area of parallelograms and triangles is proportional to the product of base and height. The proof requires the definition of "equal ratios".

7.4. Proposition 1 Triangles and parallelograms which are under the same height are to one another as their bases.

The following result is basic.

- **7.5.** Proposition 2 If a straight line be drawn parallel to one of the sides of a triangle, it will cut the sides of the triangle proportionally; and if the sides of the triangle be cut proportionally, the line joining the points of section will be parallel to the remaining side of the triangle.
- **7.6. Proposition 2** Let $\angle CAB$ be cut by a transversal parallel to BC in the points B', C' where the notation is chosen so that $B' \in \overrightarrow{AB}$ and $C' \in \overrightarrow{AC}$. Then

$$AB:BB'=AC:CC'$$
 if and only if $BC \parallel B'C'$.

- **Proof.** (Euclid) For let B'C' be drawn parallel to BC, one of the sides of the triangle ABC; I say that, as BB' is to B'A, so is CC' to C'A. For let BC', CB' be joined. Therefore the triangle BB'C' is equal to the triangle CB'C', for they are on the same base B'C' and in the same parallels B'C', BC [I. 38]. And the triangle AB'C' is another area. But equals have the same ratio to the same; therefore as the triangle BB'C' is to the triangle AB'C', so is the triangle CB'C' to the triangle AB'C'.
- **7.7. Remark** In the situation of Proposition 2, AB : AB' = AC : AC' is equivalent to AB : BB' = AC : CC'.
- **7.8.** Proposition 3 In $\triangle ABC$ if the bisector of $\angle A$ meets BC in the point D, then $\frac{CD}{DB} = \frac{AC}{AB}$.

The next four proposition are "similarity theorems" in analogy to the "congruence theorems". Recall our definition of similar triangles.

- **7.9. Proposition 4** (\sim aa) Let \triangle ABC and \triangle A'B'C' be triangles such that \angle A \equiv \angle A' and \angle B \equiv \angle B'. Then \triangle ABC \sim \triangle A'B'C'.
- **7.10. Proposition 5** (\sim sss) Let ΔABC and $\Delta A'B'C'$ be triangles. If AB:A'B'=BC:B'C'=CA:C'A' then $\Delta ABC\sim \Delta A'B'C'$.
- **7.11. Proposition 6** (\sim sas) Let Δ ABC and Δ A'B'C' be such that \angle A \equiv \angle A' and AB : A'B' = AC : A'C' then Δ ABC \sim Δ A'B'C'.

The following proposition is not quite Euclid's Proposition 7, but a little stronger.

Proposition 7.12. (\sim asS) Let \triangle ABC and \triangle A'B'C' be triangles. If \angle A \equiv \angle A', AB: A'B' = CB: C'B' and CB > AB, then \triangle ABC \sim \triangle A'B'C'.

We are now in a position to prove a number of propositions whose proofs we have delayed.

- **Exercise 7.13.** (a) Let $\triangle ABC$ be a triangle such that $\angle B \equiv \angle C \equiv 2\angle A$. Let the angle bisector of $\angle C$ intersect the side AB in the point D. Prove that $AD^2 = AB \cdot DB$.
- (b) Use (a) and the construction 3.4 (II, 11) in order to solve 5.5 (IV, 11): In a given circle, inscribe a regular pentagon.
- **7.14. Proposition 8** Let ΔABC be a right triangle with $\angle C \equiv R$. Let the foot of the perpendicular from C to AB be H. Then $\Delta ABC \sim \Delta ACH \sim \Delta CBH$.
- **Exercise 7.15.** Let $\triangle ABC$ be a triangle as in Proposition 8. Set a = BC, b = CA, c = AB, p = AH, q = HB. Use Proposition 8 to give a new proof of the formulas $h^2 = pq$, $a^2 = qc$, $b^2 = pc$ and of the Pythagorean Theorem.
- **7.16.** Proposition 9 By compass and ruler alone, a given line segment can be divided into a prescribed number of congruent line segments.
- **Exercise 7.17.** By compass and ruler alone, cut a given line segment AB into 3,7,11 congruent subsegments.
- **Exercise 7.18.** (Proposition 10) Let AB be a given line segment, and let A'B' be another line segment. Let D' be a point between A' and B' on A'B'. By compass and ruler alone, construct a point $D \in AB$ such that AD : DB = A'D' : D'B'.
- **Exercise 7.19.** (Proposition 11) Given line segments a, b, by compass and ruler alone, construct a line segment x such that a:b=x:a.

An important result for Greek mathematics is the construction of the so-called forth proportional.

Exercise 7.20. (Proposition 12) Let a, b, c be given line segments. By compass and ruler alone, find a line segment x such that a:b=c:x.

7.21. Proposition 19 If $\Delta ABC \sim \Delta A'B'C'$ then

area
$$\triangle ABC$$
: area $\triangle A'B'C' = (AB : A'B')^2$.

Exercise 7.22. Use the area formula for triangles: area $\Delta ABC = \frac{1}{2}$ base-height to prove Proposition 19.

Proposition 7.23. Let C be a circle, and P a point in the **exterior** of the circle. Suppose that a line through P intersects the circle in the points A and B, and that another line through P intersects the circle in the points A' and B'. Then

$$PA \cdot PB = PA' \cdot PB'$$
.

Exercise 7.24. Use 7.23 and 4.13 to prove 4.12 (Proposition III, 36).

Proposition 7.25. Let C be a circle, and P a point in the **interior** of the circle. Suppose that a line through P intersects the circle in the points A and B, and that another line through P intersects the circle in the points A' and B'. Then

$$PA \cdot PB = PA' \cdot PB'$$
.

8. Book VII. VIII. IX

These books deal with **natural numbers** which are defined as a "multitude composed of units". Ratios of numbers are what are rational numbers for us. A good deal of important and standard number theory is contained in these books.

9. Воок Х

"Book X does not make easy reading" (B. van der Waerden, Science Awakening, p. 172.) It deals via geometry and geometric algebra with what we call today rational and irrational numbers. In fact, 13 different kinds of irrationalities are distinguished.

- **Definition 9.1.** (1) Those magnitudes are said to be **commensurable** which are measured by the same measure, and those **incommensurable** which cannot have any common measure.
 - (2) Straight lines are commensurable in square when the squares on them are measured by the same area, otherwise they are incommensurable in square.
 - (3) Line segments are **rational** if they are commensurate with a fixed line segment (or unit), otherwise **irrational**.

The book contains 115 propositions none of which is recognizable at first sight. There is general agreement that the difficulty and the limitations of geometric algebra contributed to the decay of Greek mathematics (Van der Waerden, Science Awakening, p.265.) Author like Archimedes and Apollonius were too difficult to read. However, Van der Waerden disputes that it was a lack of understanding of irrationality which drove the Greek mathematicians into the dead-end street of geometric algebra. Rather it was the discovery of irrationality, e.g. the diagonal of a square is incommensurable with the side of the square, and a strict, logical concept of number which was the root cause.

10. Books XI, XII, and XIII

Book XI deals with solid geometry and theorems on volumes, in geometric language, of course. Book XII uses the **method of exhaustion** to discuss the area of curved figures, e.g. the circle. Finally, Book XIII contains a discussion of the five Platonic solids (regular polyhedra).