ELEMENTARY COLLEGE GEOMETRY

Henry Africk CUNY New York City College of Technology



Elementary College Geometry

Henry Africk

CUNY New York City College of Technology

This text is disseminated via the Open Education Resource (OER) LibreTexts Project (https://LibreTexts.org) and like the hundreds of other texts available within this powerful platform, it is freely available for reading, printing and "consuming." Most, but not all, pages in the library have licenses that may allow individuals to make changes, save, and print this book. Carefully consult the applicable license(s) before pursuing such effects.

Instructors can adopt existing LibreTexts texts or Remix them to quickly build course-specific resources to meet the needs of their students. Unlike traditional textbooks, LibreTexts' web based origins allow powerful integration of advanced features and new technologies to support learning.



The LibreTexts mission is to unite students, faculty and scholars in a cooperative effort to develop an easy-to-use online platform for the construction, customization, and dissemination of OER content to reduce the burdens of unreasonable textbook costs to our students and society. The LibreTexts project is a multi-institutional collaborative venture to develop the next generation of openaccess texts to improve postsecondary education at all levels of higher learning by developing an Open Access Resource environment. The project currently consists of 14 independently operating and interconnected libraries that are constantly being optimized by students, faculty, and outside experts to supplant conventional paper-based books. These free textbook alternatives are organized within a central environment that is both vertically (from advance to basic level) and horizontally (across different fields) integrated.

The LibreTexts libraries are Powered by NICE CXOne and are supported by the Department of Education Open Textbook Pilot Project, the UC Davis Office of the Provost, the UC Davis Library, the California State University Affordable Learning Solutions Program, and Merlot. This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation under Grant No. 1246120, 1525057, and 1413739.

Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation nor the US Department of Education.

Have questions or comments? For information about adoptions or adaptions contact info@LibreTexts.org. More information on our activities can be found via Facebook (https://facebook.com/Libretexts), Twitter (https://twitter.com/libretexts), or our blog (http://Blog.Libretexts.org).

This text was compiled on 02/01/2024



TABLE OF CONTENTS

About this Book

Licensing

Preface

1: Lines, Angles, and Triangles

- 1.1: Lines
- o 1.2: Angles
- 1.3: Angle Classifications
- 1.4: Parallel Lines
- 1.5: Triangles
- 1.6: Triangle Classifications

2: Congruent Triangles

- 2.1: The Congruence Statement
- 2.2: The SAS Theorem
- 2.3: The ASA and AAS Theorems
- 2.4: Proving Lines and Angles Equal
- 2.5: Isosceles Triangles
- 2.6: The SSS Theorem
- 2.7: The Hyp-Leg Theorem and Other Cases

3: Quadrilaterals

- 3.1: Parallelograms
- 3.2: Other Quadrilaterals

4: Similar Triangles

- 4.1: Proportions
- 4.2: Similar Triangles
- 4.3: Transversals to Three Parallel Lines
- 4.4: Pythagorean Theorem
- 4.5: Special Right Triangles
- 4.6: Distance from a Point to a Line

5: Trigonometry and Right Triangles

- 5.1: The Trigonometric Functions
- 5.2: Solution of Right Triangles
- 5.3: Applications of Trigonometry

6: Area and Perimeter

- 6.1: The Area of a Rectangle and Square
- 6.2: The Area of a Parallelogram
- 6.3: The Area of a Triangle
- 6.4: The Area of a Rhombus



• 6.5: The Area of a Trapezoid

7: Regular Polygons and Circles

- 7.1: Regular Polygons
- o 7.2: Circles
- 7.3: Tangents to the Circle
- 7.4: Degrees in an Arc
- 7.5: Circumference of a Circle
- 7.6: Area of a Circle

Index

APPENDIX - Proof of the Z Theorem

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Values of the Trigonometric Functions

Answers to Odd Numbered Problems

LIST OF SYMBOLS

Detailed Licensing



About this Book

This text is intended for a brief introductory course in plane geometry. It covers the topics from elementary geometry that are most likely to be required for more advanced mathematics courses. The only prerequisite is a semester of algebra.

The emphasis is on applying basic geometric principles to the numerical solution of problems. For this purpose the number of theorems and definitions is kept small. Proofs are short and intuitive, mostly in the style of those found in a typical trigonometry or precalculus text. There is little attempt to teach theorem-proving or formal methods of reasoning. However the topics are ordered so that they may be taught deductively.

The problems are arranged in pairs so that just the odd-numbered or just the even-numbered can be assigned. For assistance, the student may refer to a large number of completely worked-out examples. Most problems are presented in diagram form so that the difficulty of translating words into pictures is avoided. Many problems require the solution of algebraic equations in a geometric context. These are included to reinforce the student's algebraic and numerical skills, A few of the exercises involve the application of geometry to simple practical problems. These serve primarily to convince the student that what he or she is studying is useful. Historical notes are added where appropriate to give the student a greater appreciation of the subject.

This book is suitable for a course of about 45 semester hours. A shorter course may be devised by skipping proofs, avoiding the more complicated problems and omitting less crucial topics.



Licensing

A detailed breakdown of this resource's licensing can be found in **Back Matter/Detailed Licensing**.



Preface

This text is intended for a brief introductory course in plane geometry, It covers the topics from elementary geometry that are most likely to be required for more advanced mathematics courses, The only prerequisite is a semester of algebra.

The emphasis is on applying basic geometric principles to the numerical solution of problems. For this purpose the number of theorems and definitions is kept small, Proofs are short and intuitive, mostly in the style of those found in a typical trigonometry or precalculus text. There is little attempt to teach theorem-proving or formal methods of reasoning, However the topics are ordered so that they may be taught deductively.

The problems are arranged in pairs so that just the odd-numbered or just the even-numbered can be assigned. For assistance, the student may refer to a large number of completely worked-out examples, Most problems are presented in diagram form so that the difficulty of translating words into pictures is avoided, Many problems require the solution of algebraic equations in a geometric context, These are included to reinforce the student's algebraic and numerical skills, A few of the exercises involve the application of geometry to simple practical problems, These serve primarily to convince the student that what he or she is studying is useful, Historical notes are added where appropriate to give the student a greater appreciation of the subject, This book is suitable for a course of about 45 semester hours, A shorter course may be devised by skipping proofs, avoiding the more complicated problems and omitting less crucial topics.

I would like to thank my colleagues at New York City Technical College who have contributed, directly or indirectly, to the development o: this work. In particular, I would like to acknowledge the influence of L. Chosid, M. Graber, S, Katoni, F. Parisi and E. Stern.

Henry Africk

New York City Technical College

City University of New York





CHAPTER OVERVIEW

1: Lines, Angles, and Triangles

- 1.1: Lines
- 1.2: Angles
- 1.3: Angle Classifications
- 1.4: Parallel Lines
- 1.5: Triangles
- 1.6: Triangle Classifications

Thumbnail: Angles A and B are adjacent. (Public Domain; Limaner via Wikipedia)

This page titled 1: Lines, Angles, and Triangles is shared under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by Henry Africk (New York City College of Technology at CUNY Academic Works) via source content that was edited to the style and standards of the LibreTexts platform; a detailed edit history is available upon request.



1.1: Lines

Geometry (from Greek words meaning earth-measure) originally developed as a means of surveying land areas, In its simplest form, it is a study of figures that can be drawn on a perfectly smooth flat surface, or **plane**. It is this **plane geometry** which we will study in this bock and which serves as a foundation for trigonometry, solid and analytic geometry, and calculus.

The simplest figures that can be drawn on a plane are the point and the line. By a line we will always mean a **straight line**. Through two distinct points one and only one (straight) line can be drawn. The line through points *A* and *B* will be denoted by \overrightarrow{AB} (Figure 1.1.1). The arrows indicate that the line extends indefinitely in each direction, The **line segment** from *A* to *B* consists of *A*, *B* and that part of \overrightarrow{AB} between *A* and *B*, It is denoted by *AB* (some textbooks use the notation \overrightarrow{AB} for line segment). The ray \overrightarrow{AB} is the part of \overrightarrow{AB} which begins at *A* and extends indefinitely in the direction of *B*.



Figure 1.1.1: Line \overleftrightarrow{AB} , line segment \overrightarrow{AB} , and ray \overrightarrow{AB} . (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts)

We assume everyone is familiar with the notion of length of a line segment and how it can be measured in inches, or feet, or meters, etc, The distance between two points A and B is the same as the length of AB.

Two line segments are equal if they have the same length, e.g., in Figure 1.1.2, AB = CD,



Figure 1.1.2: AB = CD. (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts)

We often indicate two line segments are equal by marking them in the same way, e.g., in Figure 1.1.3, AB = CD and EF = GH.

Figure 1.1.3: AB = CD and EF = GH. (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts)

Find x if
$$AB = CD$$
:

$$\frac{3x-6}{A} \xrightarrow{x} \xrightarrow{x} \xrightarrow{D}$$
Figure 1.1.*E*1: (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts)
Solution
$$AB = CD$$

$$3x-6 = x$$

$$3x-x = 6$$

$$2x = 6$$

$$x = 3$$
Check:





AB	=	CD
3x - 6		х
3(3) - 6		3
9 - 6		
3		

Answer: x = 3.

Notice that in Example 1.1.1 we have not indicated the unit of measurement. Strictly speaking, we should specify that AB = 3x - 6 inches (or feet or meters) and that BC = x inches. However since the answer would still be x = 3 we will usually omit this information to save space.

We say that *B* is the midpoint of *AC* if *B* is *A* point on *AC* and AB = BC (Figure 1.1.4).





✓ Example 1.1.2

Find *x* and *AC* if *B* is the midpoint of *AC* and AB = 5(x - 3) and BC = 9 - x,

Solution

We first draw a picture to help visualize the given information:

$$\begin{array}{c} 5(x-3) & 9-x \\ A & B & C \end{array}$$

Since B is a midpoint,

$$egin{array}{rcl} AB &=& BC \ 5(x-3) &=& 9-x \ 5x-15 &=& 9-x \ 5x+x &=& 9+15 \ 6x &=& 24 \ x &=& 4 \end{array}$$

5

Check:

AB	=	BC
5(x - 3)		9 - x
5(4 - 3)		9 - 4
5(1) 5		5

We obtain AC = AB + BC = 5 + 5 = 10 . Answer: x = 4, AC = 10.

✓ Example 1.1.3

Find AB if B is the midpoint of AC:





Solution

$$AB = BC$$

 $x^2 - 6 = 5x$
 $x^2 - 5x - 6 = 0$
 $(x - 6)(x + 1) = 0$
 $x - 6 = 0$ $x + 1 = 0$
 $x = 6$ $x = -1$

If x = 6 then $AB = x^2 - 6 = 6^2 - 6 = 36 - 6 = 30$.

If
$$x = -1$$
 then $AB = (-1)^2 - 6 = 1 - 6 = -5$.

We reject the answer x = -1 and AB = -5 because the length of a line segment is always positive. Therefore x = 6 and AB = 30.

Check:

AB	=	BC
$x^2 - 6$		5x
6 ² - 6		5(6)
36 - 6		30
30		

Answer: AB = 30.

Three points are collinear if they lie on the same line.



Figure 1.1.5: *A*, *B*, and *C* are collinear AB = 5, BC = 3, and AC = 8 (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts)



Figure 1.1.6: *A*, *B*, and *C* are not collinear. AB = 5, BC = 3, AC = 6. (CC BY-NC 4.0; Ümit Kaya via LibreTexts) *A*, *B*, and *C* are collinear if and only if AB + BC = AC.

✓ Example 1.1.4

If A, B, and C are collinear and AC = 7, find x:

Solution





Check:

Answer: x = 2

🖡 Historical Note

Geometry originated in the solution of practical problems, The architectural remains of Babylon, Egypt, and other ancient civilizations show a knowledge of simple geometric relationships, The digging of canals, erection of buildings, and the laying out of cities required computations of lengths, areas, and volumes, Surveying is said to have developed in Egypt so that tracts of land could be relocated after the annual overflow of the Nile, Geometry was also utilized by ancient civilizations in their astronomical observations and the construction of their calendars.

The Greeks transformed the practical geometry of the Babylonians and Egyptians into an organized body of knowledge. Thales (c, 636 - c. 546 B,C.), one of the "seven wise men" of antiquity, is credited with being the first to obtain geometrical results by logical reasoning, instead of just by intuition and experiment. Pythagoras (c. 582 - c. 507 B,C.) continued the work of Thales, He founded the Pythagorean school, a mystical society devoted to the unified study of philosophy, mathematics, and science, About 300 B,C., Euclid, a Greek teacher of mathematics at the university at Alexandria, wrote a systematic exposition of elementary geometry called the **Elements**, In his **Elements**, Euclid used a few simple principles, called *axioms* or *postulates*, to derive most of the mathematics known at the time, For over 2000 years, Euclid's Elements has been accepted as the standard textbook of geometry and is the basis for most other elementary texts, including this one.

Problems

1. Find *x* if AB = CD:



3. Find x and AC if B is the midpoint of AC and AB = 3(x - 5) and BC = x + 3.

4. Find *x* and *AC* if *B* is the midpoint of *AC* and AB = 2x + 9 and BC = 5(x - 9),

5. Find *AB* if *B* is the midpoint of *AC*:



6, Find *AB* if *B* is the midpoint of *AC*:







7. If *A*, *B*, and *C* are collinear and AC = 13 find *x*:

8. If *A*, *B*, and *C* are collinear and AC = 26 find *x*:



This page titled 1.1: Lines is shared under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by Henry Africk (New York City College of Technology at CUNY Academic Works) via source content that was edited to the style and standards of the LibreTexts platform; a detailed edit history is available upon request.





1.2: Angles

An *angle* is the figure formed by two rays with a common end point, The two rays are called the sides of the angle and the common end point is called the *vertex* of the angle, The symbol for angle is \angle



Figure 1.2.1: Angle *BAC* has vertex *A* and sides \overrightarrow{AB} and \overrightarrow{AC}

The angle in Figure 1.2.1 has vertex *A* and sides *AB* and *AC*, It is denoted by $\angle BAC$ or $\angle CAB$ or simply $\angle A$. When three letters are used, the middle letter is always the vertex, In Figure 1.2.2 we would not use the notation $\angle A$ as an abbreviation for $\angle BAC$ because it could also mean $\angle CAD$ or $\angle BAD$, We could however use the simpler name $\angle x$ for $\angle BAC$ if "*x*" is marked in as shown,



Figure 1.2.2: $\angle BAC$ may also be denoted by $\angle x$.

Angles can be measured with an instrument called a *protractor*. The unit of measurement is called a *degree* and the symbol for degree is $^{\circ}$.

To measure an angle, place the center of the protractor (often marked with a cross or a small circle) on the vertex of the angle, Position the protractor so that one side of the angle cuts across 0, at the beginning of the scale, and so that the other side cuts across a point further up on the scale, We use either the upper scale or the lower scale, whichever is more convenient, For example, in Figure 1.2.3, one side of $\angle BAC$ crosses 0 on the lower scale and the other side crosses 50 on the lower scale. The measure of $\angle BAC$ is therefore 50° and we write $\angle BAC = 50^\circ$.



Figure 1.2.3: The protractor shows $\angle BAC = 50^{\circ}$





In Figure 1.2.4, side \overrightarrow{A} D of $\angle DAC$ crosses 0 on the upper scale. Therefore we look on the upper scale for the point at which \overrightarrow{AC} crosses and conclude that $\angle DAC = 130^{\circ}$.



Figure 1.2.4: $\angle DAC = 130^{\circ}$.

✓ Example 1.2.1

Draw an angle of 40° and label it $\angle BAC$.

Solution

Draw ray \overrightarrow{AB} using a straight edge:



Place the protractor so that its center coincides with *A* and \overrightarrow{AB} crosses the scale at 0:



Mark the place on the protractor corresponding to 40° . Label this point *C*:





Two angles are said to be equal if they have the same measure in degrees. We often indicate two angles are equal by marking them in the same way. In Figure 1.2.5, $\angle A = \angle B$.



Figure 1.2.5: Equal angles.

An angle bisector is a ray which divides an angle into two equal angles. In Figure 1.2.6, AC is an angle bisector of $\angle BAD$. We also say \overrightarrow{AC} bisects $\angle BAD$.



Figure 1.2.6: \overrightarrow{AC} bisects $\angle BAD$.





✓ Example 1.2.2

Find *x* if \overrightarrow{AC} bisects $\angle BAD$ and $\angle BAD = 80^{\circ}$:



Solution

$$x^{\circ} = \frac{1}{2} \angle BAD = \frac{1}{2} (80^{\circ}) = 40^{\circ}$$

Answer: $x = 40$

✓ Example 1.2.3

Find *x* if \overrightarrow{AC} bisects $\angle BAD$:



Solution

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \angle BAC &=& \angle CAD \\ & \frac{7}{2}x &=& 3x+5 \\ (2)\frac{7}{2}x &=& (2)(3x+5) \\ & 7x &=& 6x+10 \\ 7x-6x &=& 10 \\ & x &=& 10 \end{array}$$
(1.2.1)

Check:



	∠ BAC =	• ∠ CAD	
	$\frac{7}{2} x^{\circ}$	$3x + 5^{\circ}$	
	$\frac{7}{2}$ (10)°	3(10) + 5 [°]	
	35°	30 + 5°	
		35°	
Answer: $x = 10$.			

Problems

1 - 6. For each figure, give another name for $\angle x$:













7 - 16, Measure each of the indicated angles:













17 - 24. Draw and label each angle:





- 17. $\angle BAC = 30^{\circ}$
- 18. $\angle BAC = 40^{\circ}$
- 19. $\angle ABC = 45^{\circ}$
- 20. $\angle EFG = 60^{\circ}$
- 21. $\angle RST = 72^{\circ}$
- 22. $\angle XYZ = 90^{\circ}$
- 23. $\angle PQR = 135^{\circ}$
- 24. $\angle JKL = 164^{\circ}$
- 25 28. Find *x* if \overrightarrow{AC} bisects $\angle BAD$:









This page titled 1.2: Angles is shared under a CC BY-NC-SA 4.0 license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by Henry Africk (New York City College of Technology at CUNY Academic Works) via source content that was edited to the style and standards of the LibreTexts platform; a detailed edit history is available upon request.

