

Supplement B: Consequences of the Euclidean Parallel Postulate

This supplement is meant to be read in place of Sections 6.6–6.10 in Venema. (We will come back and read those sections later.) You should read these pages after reading Venema’s Section 6.5.

Consequences of the Euclidean Parallel Postulate

From this point on in our study of Euclidean geometry, we officially add the Euclidean Parallel Postulate to our list of axioms. Thus, in addition to the six axioms of neutral geometry, we assume the following:

Axiom B.1 (Euclidean Parallel Postulate). *For every line ℓ and for every point P that does not lie on ℓ , there is exactly one line m such that P lies on m and $m \parallel \ell$.*

As you learned in Venema’s Corollary 6.5.6, the axioms of neutral geometry are already sufficient to prove that given a line ℓ and a point $P \notin \ell$, there exists at least one line through P and parallel to ℓ . Thus the real content of the Euclidean Parallel Postulate is the statement that there is only one such line. We will see that many familiar properties of Euclidean geometry follow from this postulate.

The first of these properties is a converse to the Alternate Interior Angles Theorem. It is Euclid’s Proposition 29, the first of Euclid’s propositions in which he makes use of his fifth postulate.

Theorem B.2 (Converse to the Alternate Interior Angles Theorem). *If two parallel lines are cut by a transversal, then both pairs of alternate interior angles are congruent.*

Proof. Suppose ℓ and m are parallel lines cut by a transversal t , and let A and B denote the points where t intersects ℓ and m , respectively. Choose either pair of alternate interior angles and label them $\angle CAB$ and $\angle ABD$. (Fig. 1).

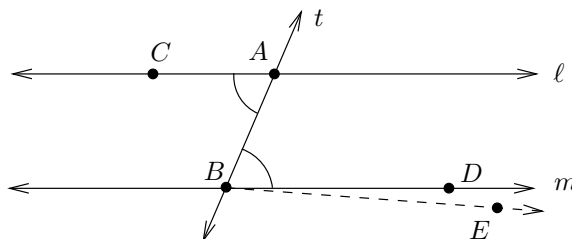


Figure 1: Proof of the converse to the Alternate Interior Angles Theorem.

By the Angle Construction Theorem, there is a ray \overrightarrow{BE} on the same side of t as \overrightarrow{BD} that makes an angle with \overrightarrow{BA} that is congruent to $\angle CAB$. It follows from the Alternate Interior Angles Theorem that \overrightarrow{BE} is parallel to ℓ . By the Euclidean Parallel Postulate, therefore, \overrightarrow{BE} is in fact equal to m . Since D and E are on the same side of t , this means that the rays \overrightarrow{BE} and \overrightarrow{BD} are equal, and therefore $\angle ABD = \angle ABE$. Since $\angle ABE$ is congruent to $\angle CAB$ by construction, we conclude that $\angle ABD \cong \angle CAB$. \square

Corollary B.3 (Converse to the Corresponding Angles Theorem). *If two parallel lines are cut by a transversal, then all four pairs of corresponding angles are congruent.*

Proof. Exercise B.1. \square

Corollary B.4 (Converse to the Supplementary Angles Theorem). *If two parallel lines are cut by a transversal, then each pair of interior angles lying on the same side of the transversal is supplementary.*

Proof. Exercise B.2. \square

These theorems lead to a number of additional properties of parallel lines, most of which will probably all seem familiar from your everyday experience. The proofs will be left as exercises.

The first result is a simple corollary of the Euclidean Parallel Postulate. Venema calls this **Proclus's Axiom**, because a late Greek mathematician named Proclus used it as one step in a “proof” of Euclid's fifth postulate (which turned out, like so many others, to be incorrect).

Theorem B.5 (Proclus's Lemma). *If ℓ and ℓ' are parallel lines and $t \neq \ell$ is a line such that t intersects ℓ , then t also intersects ℓ' .*

Proof. Exercise B.3. □

Theorem B.6 (Parallels and Perpendiculars). *Suppose ℓ and ℓ' are parallel lines.*

- (a) *If t is a transversal such that $t \perp \ell$, then $t \perp \ell'$.*
- (b) *If m and n are distinct lines such that $m \perp \ell$ and $n \perp \ell'$, then $m \parallel n$.*

Proof. Exercise B.4. □

Finally, we have the following result, which seems so “obvious” that you might be tempted to think that it should follow immediately from the definition of parallel lines together with the axioms of neutral geometry. But, as we will see later in the course, it cannot be proved without the Euclidean Parallel Postulate (or something equivalent to it).

Theorem B.7 (Transitivity of Parallelism). *If ℓ , m , and n are distinct lines such that $\ell \parallel m$ and $m \parallel n$, then $\ell \parallel n$.*

Proof. Exercise B.5. □

The Angle-Sum Theorem

The next theorem is one of the most important facts in Euclidean geometry. To state it concisely, we introduce the following terminology. If A , B , and C are noncollinear points, the **angle sum** for $\triangle ABC$ is the sum of the measures of its interior angles. It is denoted by $\sigma(\triangle ABC)$. More specifically, the angle sum is defined by the equation

$$\sigma(\triangle ABC) = \mu\angle CAB + \mu\angle ABC + \mu\angle BCA.$$

Theorem B.8 (Angle-Sum Theorem). *If $\triangle ABC$ is a triangle, then $\sigma(\triangle ABC) = 180^\circ$.*

Proof. By Corollary 6.5.6, there is a line m through A and parallel to \overleftrightarrow{BC} (Fig. 2).

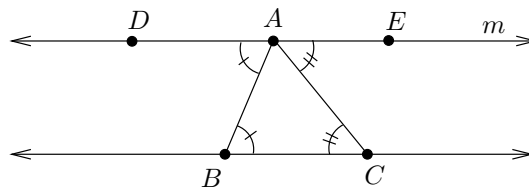


Figure 2: Proof of the Angle Sum Theorem.

We can choose points D , E on m such that D is on the opposite side of \overleftrightarrow{AB} from C , and E is on the opposite side of \overleftrightarrow{AC} from B . Then $\angle ABC$ and $\angle DAB$ form a pair of alternate interior angles for the transversal \overleftrightarrow{AB} , and $\angle BCA$ and $\angle CAE$ form a pair of alternate interior angles for the transversal \overleftrightarrow{AC} . It follows from the converse to the Alternate Interior Angles Theorem that $\angle ABC \cong \angle DAB$ and $\angle BCA \cong \angle CAE$.

It follows from the way we chose D and E that \overleftrightarrow{AB} is between \overleftrightarrow{AD} and \overleftrightarrow{AC} (can you see why?). Therefore, by the Betweenness Theorem for Rays, we have $\mu\angle DAC = \mu\angle CAB + \mu\angle DAB$. On the other hand, because

$\angle DAC$ and $\angle CAE$ form a linear pair, the Linear Pair Theorem implies that they are supplementary. Thus, combining all these results, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\mu\angle CAB + \mu\angle ABC + \mu\angle BCA &= \mu\angle CAB + \mu\angle DAB + \mu\angle CAE \\ &= \mu\angle DAC + \mu\angle CAE \\ &= 180^\circ.\end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof. □

Corollary B.9. *In any triangle, the sum of the measures of any two interior angles is less than 180° .*

Proof. Since the measures of all three angles sum to 180° , and the measure of each angle is positive, the sum of any two of them must be strictly less than 180° . □

Corollary B.10. *In any triangle, at least two of the angles are acute.*

Proof. Suppose at most one angle in a triangle is acute. Then the measures of two of the angles are at least 90° , so the sum of their measures is at least 180° , which contradicts the previous corollary. □

Corollary B.11. *In any triangle, the measure of each exterior angle is equal to the sum of the measures of the two remote interior angles.*

Proof. This follows immediately from the Angle-Sum Theorem and the Linear Pair Theorem. □

One important application of the angle-sum theorem is to elucidate the relationship between Euclid's fifth postulate and the Euclidean Parallel Postulate. Note that the fifth postulate actually stated by Euclid did not refer explicitly to parallel lines; for that reason the postulate we call the Euclidean Parallel Postulate is sometimes referred to as **Playfair's Postulate**, after an eighteenth-century Scottish mathematician named John Playfair, who proposed it as a more intuitive replacement for Euclid's fifth.

The next theorem shows that Euclid's fifth postulate follows from the Euclidean Parallel Postulate.

Theorem B.12 (The Euclidean Parallel Postulate Implies Euclid's Postulate V). *If ℓ and ℓ' are two lines cut by a transversal t in such a way that the sum of the measures of the two interior angles on one side of t is less than 180° , then ℓ and ℓ' intersect on that side of t .*

Proof. First note that ℓ and ℓ' are not parallel, because if they were, Corollary B.4 would imply that two interior angles on the same side of t would have measures adding up to exactly 180° . Thus there is a point C where ℓ and ℓ' intersect. It remains only to show that C is on the same side of t as the two angles whose measures add up to less than 180° .

For definiteness, let us label the point where ℓ and t intersect as A , and the point where ℓ' and t intersect as B . Denote the two interior angles at A as $\angle 1$ and $\angle 2$, and those at B as $\angle 3$ and $\angle 4$, with the labels chosen so that $\angle 2$ and $\angle 4$ are on the same side of t as C , and $\angle 1$ and $\angle 3$ are on the other side (Fig. 3).

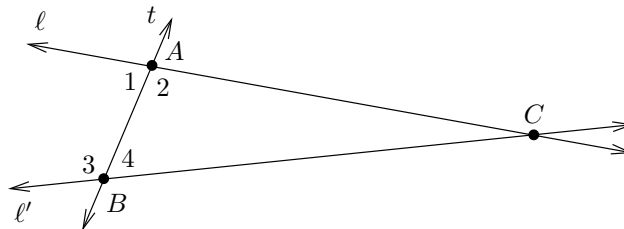


Figure 3: Euclid's fifth postulate.

Then Corollary B.9 applied to $\triangle ABC$ implies that $\mu\angle 2 + \mu\angle 4 < 180^\circ$. On the other hand, because $\angle 1$ and $\angle 2$ form a linear pair, as do $\angle 3$ and $\angle 4$, a little algebra shows that

$$\begin{aligned}\mu\angle 1 + \mu\angle 3 &= (180^\circ - \mu\angle 2) + (180^\circ - \mu\angle 4) \\ &= 360^\circ - (\mu\angle 2 + \mu\angle 4) \\ &> 180^\circ.\end{aligned}$$

Thus the two interior angles whose measures add up to less than 180° can only be $\angle 2$ and $\angle 4$, and C is on the same side of t as these angles. \square

In fact, the converse is also true.

Theorem B.13 (Euclid's Postulate V Implies the Euclidean Parallel Postulate). *The six axioms of Neutral Geometry together with Euclid's Postulate V imply the Euclidean Parallel Postulate.*

Proof. Exercise B.6. \square

Thus, in the presence of the axioms of neutral geometry, the Euclidean Parallel Postulate and Euclid's Postulate V are **equivalent**, meaning that each one implies the other. When we go back to Venema's Section 6.8, we will see that there are many more results that are also equivalent to the Euclidean Parallel Postulate.

Quadrilaterals

So far in our study of geometry, we have concentrated most of our attention on triangles. Almost as important as triangles are four-sided figures (quadrilaterals). In this section we describe some of the most important properties of such figures in the Euclidean setting.

Suppose A , B , C , and D are four distinct points with the following properties:

- No three of the points are collinear;
- If two of the segments \overline{AB} , \overline{BC} , \overline{CD} , and \overline{DA} intersect, they do so only at a common endpoint.

Then the union of the four segments \overline{AB} , \overline{BC} , \overline{CD} , and \overline{DA} is called a **quadrilateral**, and is denoted by $\square ABCD$. Note that the order in which the points are listed is significant: If $\square ABCD$ is a quadrilateral, then some reorderings of the vertices, such as $\square BCDA$ and $\square DCBA$, represent the same quadrilateral (i.e., the union of the same four line segments), but other orderings, such as $\square ACBD$, do not. In fact, $\square ACBD$ might not represent a quadrilateral at all, because two of the segments might intersect at an interior point (Fig. 5).

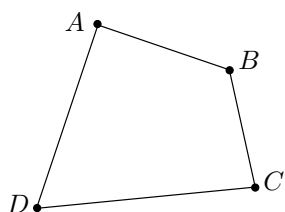


Figure 4: A quadrilateral.

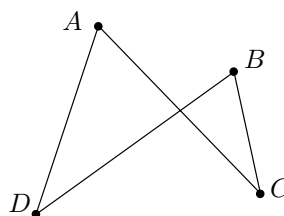


Figure 5: Not a quadrilateral.

Here is some standard terminology regarding quadrilaterals. Suppose $\square ABCD$ is a quadrilateral.

- The four points A , B , C , and D are called the **vertices** of $\square ABCD$.
- The four segments \overline{AB} , \overline{BC} , \overline{CD} , and \overline{DA} are called the **sides** of $\square ABCD$.
- The two segments \overline{AC} and \overline{BD} are called the **diagonals** of $\square ABCD$.

- Any pair of sides of $\square ABCD$ that do not intersect are called *opposite sides*.
- Any pair of sides of $\square ABCD$ that intersect at a common endpoint are called *adjacent sides*.
- The four angles formed by pairs of adjacent sides are called the *angles of the quadrilateral*.
- $\square ABCD$ is a *trapezoid* if at least one pair of opposite sides are parallel.
- $\square ABCD$ is a *parallelogram* if both pairs of opposite sides are parallel.
- $\square ABCD$ is a *rectangle* if all four of its angles are right angles.
- $\square ABCD$ is a *rhombus* if all four of its sides are congruent.
- $\square ABCD$ is a *square* if it is both a rhombus and a rectangle.

The definition of congruence of quadrilaterals is a straightforward generalization of the definition for triangles. Two quadrilaterals are said to be *congruent* if there is a correspondence between their vertices such that all four pairs of corresponding sides and all four pairs of corresponding angles are congruent. The notation $\square ABCD \cong \square A'B'C'D'$ means that $\square ABCD$ is congruent to $\square A'B'C'D'$ under the correspondence $A \leftrightarrow A'$, $B \leftrightarrow B'$, $C \leftrightarrow C'$, and $D \leftrightarrow D'$.

We wish to prove an analogue of the angle-sum theorem for quadrilaterals. It will say that the sum of the “interior angles” of a quadrilateral is equal to 360° . But there is a complication in defining interior angles for quadrilaterals that did not arise in the case of triangles. To see why, consider the quadrilateral pictured in Fig. 6. The two edges that meet at B form an angle, which is by definition one of the angles of $\square ABCD$.

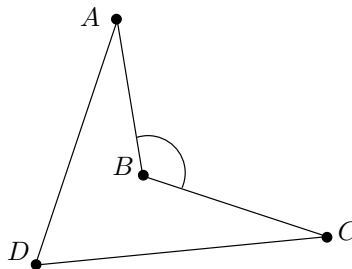


Figure 6: A nonconvex quadrilateral.

However, this angle is not what we would want to consider as an “interior angle” of the quadrilateral. In fact, any reasonable interpretation of the term “interior angle” at B would require us to consider angle measures greater than 180° .

It is possible to extend our notion of angle measures and to define what we mean by “interior angles” of a quadrilateral, in such a way that in a quadrilateral like that in Fig. 6, the “interior angle” at B has a measure greater than 180° ; with these conventions, the angle-sum theorem we are about to state would apply to such quadrilaterals as well. However, the definitions involve some intricate subtleties, and for the purposes we have in mind it is simpler just to rule out quadrilaterals of this type.

For that reason, we make the following definition. A *convex quadrilateral* is one with the property that every vertex is contained in the interior of the angle formed by the two segments that do not contain that vertex. For example, the quadrilateral in Fig. 4 is convex; however, the one in Fig. 6 is not, because the vertex D is not in the interior of $\angle ABC$.

Note that a convex quadrilateral is not the same thing as a *convex set*, as defined in Definition 5.5.1. (The definitions are related, though – if we had taken the trouble to define the “interior” of a quadrilateral, then we could show that $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral if and only if its interior is a convex set; but we will not do so.)

Checking that $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral entails checking that each of its four vertices is contained in the interior of its opposite angle; and each such containment reduces in turn to two statements – for

example, to say that D is in the interior of $\angle ABC$ means that A and D are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{BC} and C and D are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{BA} . There are eight such statements in all. However, when you expand out all the definitions, you will see that four of them are redundant, so in fact $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral if and only if it satisfies the following four conditions:

- A and B are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{CD} ,
- B and C are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{AD} ,
- C and D are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{AB} , and
- D and A are on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{BC} .

In other words, each pair of adjacent vertices lies on the same side of the line formed by the remaining two vertices.

Here is the main result in this section. If $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral, we define its **angle sum**, denoted by $\sigma(\square ABCD)$, to be the sum of the measures of its four angles:

$$\sigma(\square ABCD) = \mu\angle ABC + \mu\angle BCD + \mu\angle CDA + \mu\angle DAB.$$

Theorem B.14 (Angle-Sum Theorem for Convex Quadrilaterals). *If $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral, then $\sigma(\square ABCD) = 360^\circ$.*

Proof. Exercise B.7. □

Because of the importance of the preceding theorem, it is useful to have some simple criteria for recognizing when a quadrilateral is convex. The next few theorems give several such criteria.

Theorem B.15 (Truncated Triangle Theorem). *Suppose $\triangle ABC$ is a triangle, and D and E are points such that $A * D * B$ and $A * E * C$. Then $\square BCED$ is a convex quadrilateral (Fig. 7).*

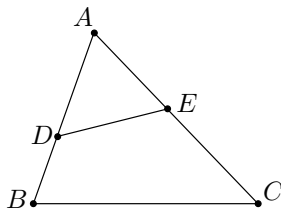


Figure 7: A truncated triangle is a convex quadrilateral.

Proof. Because E is between A and C , it follows from the Betweenness vs. Betweenness Theorem that \overrightarrow{BE} is between \overrightarrow{BA} and \overrightarrow{BC} , or in other words that E is in the interior of $\angle DBC$. The same argument shows that D is in the interior of $\angle ECB$.

To show that C is in the interior of $\angle BDE$, we note that the Y-Theorem applied to the ray \overrightarrow{AC} shows that C is on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{DB} as E . On the other hand, since A and B are on opposite sides of \overleftrightarrow{DE} , as are A and C , it follows that C is on the same side of \overleftrightarrow{DE} as B . By definition, this means that C is in the interior of $\angle BDE$. Exactly the same argument shows that B is in the interior of $\angle CED$, and therefore $\square BCED$ is a convex quadrilateral. □

Theorem B.16. *Every trapezoid is a convex quadrilateral.*

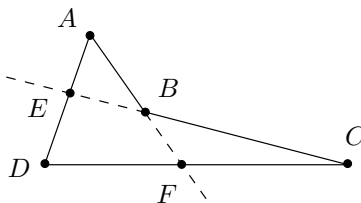


Figure 8: A nonconvex quadrilateral cannot be a trapezoid.

Proof. We will prove the contrapositive: Assuming that $\square ABCD$ is a nonconvex quadrilateral, we will prove that it does not have a pair of parallel opposite sides. The assumption that $\square ABCD$ is nonconvex implies that two adjacent vertices lie on opposite sides of the line formed by the other two vertices; without loss of generality, say that A and D are on opposite sides of \overleftrightarrow{BC} (Fig. 8). (Note that the definition of a quadrilateral prohibits A or D from lying on \overleftrightarrow{BC} , because no three vertices are collinear.) Let E be the interior point of \overleftrightarrow{AD} that lies on \overleftrightarrow{BC} (Fig. 8). This shows that \overleftrightarrow{AD} and \overleftrightarrow{BC} are not parallel.

Note that C , D and E are noncollinear (because if they were all on one line, then A would also lie on that line, contradicting the definition of a quadrilateral). Thus $\triangle CDE$ is a triangle, and \overleftrightarrow{AB} intersects side \overline{CE} of this triangle at B . Now \overleftrightarrow{AB} cannot contain C or D (for then three vertices of $\square ABCD$ would be collinear), and it cannot contain E (for then A , B , and D would be collinear). Thus Pasch's Theorem shows that \overleftrightarrow{AB} must intersect another side of $\triangle CDE$, either \overline{CD} or \overline{DE} . We already know that \overleftrightarrow{AB} intersects \overline{DE} at A , which is not in $\triangle CDE$, so the only remaining possibility is that \overleftrightarrow{AB} intersects \overline{CD} . Therefore \overleftrightarrow{AB} and \overleftrightarrow{CD} are not parallel either, so $\square ABCD$ is not a trapezoid. \square

Corollary B.17. *Every parallelogram is a convex quadrilateral.*

Proof. Every parallelogram is a trapezoid by definition. \square

The next criterion is actually a necessary *and* sufficient condition for convexity.

Theorem B.18. *A quadrilateral is convex if and only if its diagonals intersect (Fig. 9). If they do intersect, then the intersection point is an interior point of both diagonals.*

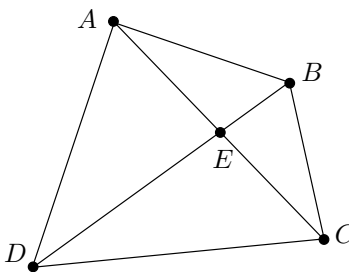


Figure 9: The diagonals of a convex quadrilateral intersect.

Proof. Assume that $\square ABCD$ is a quadrilateral. First we will prove the last statement of the theorem: If the diagonals intersect, then their intersection point is interior to both diagonals. Suppose \overline{AC} and \overline{BD} intersect at a point E . If E were equal to A , then B , A , and D would be collinear, which contradicts the definition of a quadrilateral. The same argument shows that E cannot be equal to B , C , or D , so E is an interior point of both diagonals.

Now we will show that $\square ABCD$ is convex if and only if its diagonals intersect. Assume first that \overline{AC} and \overline{BD} intersect, and call the intersection point E . By the argument in the preceding paragraph, E is between A and C , so it follows from the Betweenness vs. Betweenness Theorem that \overline{BE} is between \overline{BA} and \overline{BC} . Since D is a point on \overline{BE} , it is also in the interior of $\angle ABC$ by the Y-Theorem. The same argument shows that each of the other three vertices is in the interior of its opposite angle, and thus $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral.

Conversely, assume that $\square ABCD$ is a convex quadrilateral. Because D is in the interior of $\angle ABC$, it follows from the Crossbar Theorem (applied to $\triangle ABC$) that \overline{BD} intersects \overline{AC} . Call the intersection point E . Similarly, because C is in the interior of $\angle BAD$, \overline{AC} intersects \overline{BD} in a point E' . Because the lines \overleftrightarrow{AC} and \overleftrightarrow{BD} can have at most one point of intersection, it follows that $E = E'$, and therefore E is the required intersection point of the diagonals \overline{AC} and \overline{BD} . \square

The last few theorems in this section express some properties of special quadrilaterals, many of which should already be familiar from your experience.

Theorem B.19. *Every parallelogram has the following properties.*

- (a) *Both pairs of opposite sides are congruent.*
- (b) *Both pairs of opposite angles are congruent.*
- (c) *Its diagonals bisect each other.*

Proof. Exercise B.8. \square

Theorem B.20. *Every rectangle has the following properties.*

- (a) *It is a parallelogram.*
- (b) *Its diagonals are congruent.*

Proof. Exercise B.9. \square

Theorem B.21. *Every rhombus has the following properties.*

- (a) *It is a parallelogram.*
- (b) *Its diagonals intersect perpendicularly.*

Proof. Exercise B.10. \square

Exercises

- B.1. Prove Corollary B.3 (the converse to the Corresponding Angles Theorem).
- B.2. Prove Corollary B.4 (the converse to the Supplementary Angles Theorem).
- B.3. Prove Theorem B.5 (Proclus's Lemma).
- B.4. Prove Theorem B.6 (Parallels and Perpendiculars).
- B.5. Prove Theorem B.7 (Transitivity of Parallelism).
- B.6. Prove Theorem B.13 (Euclid's Postulate V implies the Euclidean Parallel Postulate).
- B.7. Prove Theorem B.14 (the Angle-Sum Theorem for Convex Quadrilaterals). Where do you use the hypothesis that the quadrilateral is convex?
- B.8. Prove Theorem B.19 (properties of parallelograms). [Hint: For parts (a) and (b), draw a diagonal and prove that the two resulting triangles are congruent. For (c), use Theorem B.18 to show that the two diagonals intersect, and then prove that they form two pairs of congruent triangles.]
- B.9. Prove Theorem B.20 (properties of rectangles).
- B.10. Prove Theorem B.21 (properties of rhombi). [Hint: Use the pointwise characterization of angle bisectors, Theorem 6.4.6. You might need to prove first that a rhombus is a convex quadrilateral.]
- B.11. Suppose $\square ABCD$ is a quadrilateral.
 - (a) If its diagonals bisect each other, prove that $\square ABCD$ is a parallelogram.
 - (b) If its diagonals are congruent and bisect each other, prove that $\square ABCD$ is a rectangle.
 - (c) If its diagonals are perpendicular and bisect each other, prove that $\square ABCD$ is a rhombus.