Elemente der Mathematik				
geber: Schweizerische Mathematische Gesellschaft				
22 (1967)				
6				
Axially symmetric polygons inscribed in and circumscribed about convex sets				
Valcourt, B. Abel de				
https://doi.org/10.5169/seals-25363				

### Nutzungsbedingungen

Die ETH-Bibliothek ist die Anbieterin der digitalisierten Zeitschriften. Sie besitzt keine Urheberrechte an den Zeitschriften und ist nicht verantwortlich für deren Inhalte. Die Rechte liegen in der Regel bei den Herausgebern beziehungsweise den externen Rechteinhabern. <u>Siehe Rechtliche Hinweise.</u>

## **Conditions d'utilisation**

L'ETH Library est le fournisseur des revues numérisées. Elle ne détient aucun droit d'auteur sur les revues et n'est pas responsable de leur contenu. En règle générale, les droits sont détenus par les éditeurs ou les détenteurs de droits externes. <u>Voir Informations légales.</u>

#### Terms of use

The ETH Library is the provider of the digitised journals. It does not own any copyrights to the journals and is not responsible for their content. The rights usually lie with the publishers or the external rights holders. <u>See Legal notice.</u>

**Download PDF: 28.04.2025** 

ETH-Bibliothek Zürich, E-Periodica, https://www.e-periodica.ch

# ELEMENTE DER MATHEMATIK

Revue de mathématiques élémentaires - Rivista di matematica elementare

Zeitschrift zur Pflege der Mathematik und zur Förderung des mathematisch-physikalischen Unterrichts

Publiziert mit Unterstützung des Schweizerischen Nationalfonds zur Förderung der wissenschaftlichen Forschung

El. Math.Band XXIIHeft 6Seiten 120–14410. November 19	El. Math.	Band XXII	Heft 6	Seiten 120–144	10. November 196
-------------------------------------------------------	-----------	-----------	--------	----------------	------------------

# Axially Symmetric Polygons Inscribed in and Circumscribed about Convex sets<sup>1</sup>)

In determining lower bounds for certain measures of central symmetry (centrality) for *ovals* – planar convex sets with non-void interior – it is useful to establish the existence of central polygons inscribed in (and circumscribed about) these sets [8]. Thus, e.g., BESICOVITCH [1] has shown the existence of an affine-regular hexagon inscribed in every oval with the added property that the ratio of their areas is never less than 2/3. In this paper we consider analogous questions with regard to axial symmetry (axiality). Some of these results are new, and others are collected together in this context for the first time. Many unsolved problems and conjectures still exist. For the application of these results to measures of axiality, see [3].

Since axiality is similarity-invariant, it is sufficient to consider ovals whose diameter is 1. In what follows, K shall denote an arbitrary oval,  $K_c$  a central oval, and  $K_1$  an oval of constant breadth 1.

The interesting elementary axial polygons which can be inscribed in (circumscribed about) an oval are the isosceles triangle, kite (a quadrilateral symmetric about a diagonal), rhombus, rectangle, square, hexagon, and octagon. A polygon is *properly* inscribed in (circumscribed about) an oval K when each of its vertices (sides) is (contains) a point of  $\beta K$ , the boundary of K. We shall consider only properly inscribed (circumscribed) polygons, and shall discuss, in particular, the ratios of the areas and perimeters of these polygons of those of the given oval.

**I. Area Ratios.** The area of a set S is denoted by [S].

A. The Isosceles Triangle.

Theorem 1. In every oval K there is an isosceles triangle I'(K) such that

$$\frac{[I'(K)]}{[K]} \ge \frac{3}{8}.$$

*Proof.* It is sufficient to prove the theorem for strictly convex ovals, since an arbitrary oval can be realized as the limit of an appropriate sequence of strictly

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>) This paper represents part of the author's PH. D. thesis presented to the University of Minnesota, advisor Professor H. W. GUGGENHEIMER. Its preparation was partially supported by grant AF-AFOSR-661-64, Air Force Office of Scientific Research.

convex ovals, and since the limit of a sequence of isosceles triangles is again an isosceles triangle. For every direction  $\varphi$  in the plane, there is, among all the triangles inscribed in an oval K with a side in this direction, at least one, denoted  $T_{\omega}$ , which has maximal area. There is also a (not necessarily unique) triangle  $T = A_1 A_2 A_3$  of maximal area among all the triangles  $T_{\omega}$ . If T is isosceles, for a particular K, then the theorem follows from a result of BLASCHKE [2, p. 50], which states that in every oval K there is a triangle T(K) (though not necessarily isosceles in general) such that  $[T(K)]/[K] \ge$  $3\sqrt{3}/4 \pi \sim 0.413$ , with equality if and only if K is an ellipse. We may assume, then, that T is not isosceles. Let  $a_i$ , i = 1, 2, 3, denote the side of T opposite  $A_i$ ,  $H_i$  the foot of the altitude to  $a_i$  (extended if necessary), and  $a'_i$ ,  $a''_a$  the segments  $A_{i+1}H_i$ ,  $H_i A_{i+2}$ , respectively, where the addition in the indices is modulo 3. Clearly,  $a'_i |a''_a| =$  $\cot A_{i+1}/\cot A_{i+2}$ , and since T is not isosceles, none of the ratios  $a'_i/a''_i$  has the value 1. We may assume, with no loss in generality, that  $a'_1/a''_1 > 1$ ; then at least one of the other ratios, say  $a'_2/a''_2$ , is less than 1 (for the product of the three ratios is 1). Let  $\varphi_i$ be the direction of  $a_i$ . Since T is a triangle of maximal area in K,  $T_{\varphi_i} = T$ , i = 1, 2, 3. Under the hypothesis of strict convexity, the ratios  $a'_i/a''_i$  are continuous functions of  $\varphi$ . Let A be the vertex of  $T_{\varphi}$  opposite the side a lying in the direction  $\varphi$ , and define  $f(\varphi) = a'/a''$  as above. As  $\varphi$  varies from  $\varphi_1$  to  $\varphi_2$ ,  $f(\varphi)$  varies from  $a'_1/a''_1 > 1$  to  $a'_2/a''_2 < 1$ , so that for some direction  $\varphi_0 \in (\varphi_1, \varphi_2)$ ,  $f(\varphi_0) = 1$ , i.e.  $T_{\varphi_0}$ . is isosceles. HODGES [10] has shown that  $\inf\{[T_{\varphi}]/[K]\} \ge 3/8$ , so that this inequality must also be true for the isosceles triangle  $T_{\varphi_0}$ . This proves the theorem.

It is doubtful that the bound 3/8 is the best possible. We conjecture, rather, that the result of BLASCHKE, mentioned above, remains true under the restriction that the inscribed triangle T(K) is isosceles, and thus provides the greatest lower bound in this case. Since the circle is both central and an oval of constant breadth, the result of BLASCHKE proves that no greater bound can be conjectured for this area ratio when the oval K is central or an oval of constant breadth. However, EGGLESTON and TAYLOR [7] have shown that in every oval  $K_1$  of constant breadth 1 there is an inscribed equilateral triangle  $\Delta'(K_1)$  of side length at least  $\lambda \sim 0.8534$ , with equality for the 'REULEAUX pentagon'  $P_1$ , and since the circle  $C_1$  is the curve of constant breadth 1 enclosing the greatest area, we have the improved inequality

$$\frac{[I'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[\Delta'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[\Delta'(K_1)]}{[C_1]} \ge \frac{[\Delta'(P_1)]}{[C_1]} \sim 0.4015 , \qquad (1)$$

for ovals of constant breadth.

Theorem 2. About every oval K, there is a circumscribed isosceles triangle I''(K) such that  $[K]/[I''(K)] \ge 1/2$ , with equality for parallelograms.

**Proof.** EGGLESTON [5] has established the 'dual' of the result of HODGES mentioned above, viz. that if  $T_{\varphi}$  is a triangle of minimal area circumscribed about an oval Kwith one side in the direction  $\varphi$ , then  $\inf_{\varphi} \{ [K]/[T_{\varphi}] \} \ge 1/2$ , and that  $[K]/[T_{\varphi}] = 1/2$ for every direction  $\varphi$  only when K is a parallelogram. Therefore, it is sufficient to show that for at least one direction  $\varphi_0$ , the triangle  $T_{\varphi}$  is isosceles. The proof of this fact is exactly like that of Theorem 1, and will be omitted.

Since parallelograms are central, no greater bound for this ratio is possible when K is restricted to the class of central ovals. It is well known (HADWIGER, DEBRUNNER,

KLEE [9, p. 14]), that every oval of diameter 1 is contained in an equilateral triangle  $\Delta''$  of side length  $\mu = \sqrt{3}$ , with equality for  $C_1$ . Since the REULEAUX triangle  $T_1$  has least area among all ovals of constant breadth 1, it follows from these facts that

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[I''(K_1)]} \ge \frac{[K_1]}{[\underline{J}'']} \ge \frac{[T_1]}{[\underline{J}'']} = \frac{2}{9} \left(\pi \sqrt{3} - 3\right) \sim 0.5426$$
(2)

is a better inequality for this ratio on the class of curves of constant breadth. We conjecture that [K] = [C] = [C]

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[I''(K_1)]} \ge \frac{[C_1]}{[I''(C_1)]} = \frac{[C_1]}{[\Delta'']} = \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}} \sim 0.6046$$
(3)

is the best possible inequality on this class, with equality only for  $C_1$ .

B. The Kite. A diameter of K is a chord of maximal length and a width is a chord of minimal length.

Lemma 1. A diameter and a width of an oval K cannot both be subsets of  $\beta K$ . The proof of this lemma is straightforward, and will be omitted.

Theorem 3. In every oval K, there is an inscribed kite Q'(K) such that  $[Q'(K)]/[K] \ge 1/2$ .

**Proof.** Assume, without loss of generality, that a diameter AB of K does not lie in  $\beta K$ , and draw (parallel) support lines to K through the points A and B. Let CDbe the chord of K on the perpendicular bisector of AB, and draw support lines to Kthrough C and D. These four support lines determine a trapezoid circumscribed about K. The quadrilateral ACBD (which is not degenerate by the above assumption) is symmetric with respect to its diagonal CD, and clearly has area half that of the circumscribed trapezoid, so that the desired inequality follows. That this bound cannot be improved may be seen by choosing for K a 'thin' rectangle. It is not known whether the bound is realized for any oval.

Since a rectangle is central, this same bound is also the best possible on the subclass of central ovals. However, for ovals of constant breadth, we have a better result.

Let S = ABCD be a unit square circumscribed about an oval  $K_1$  of constant breadth 1, E and F the midpoints of AB and CD, respectively, and  $\zeta$  the closed (shaded) region in Fig. 1, constructed by drawing circular arcs of radius 1 about E and F, and about the intersections of these arcs with the other two sides of S. We may rotate  $K_1$  inside S so that E and F belong to  $\beta K_1$ . For this position of  $K_1$ , which we shall call a *standard position* of  $K_1$  with respect to S, we have the following

Lemma 2.  $\beta K_1 \subseteq \zeta$ .

This lemma is a direct consequence of simple properties of ovals of constant breadth.

Theorem 4.  $[Q'(K_1)]/[K_1] \ge 2/\pi \sim 0.6366$ , with equality only for  $C_1$ .

*Proof.* This theorem is an immediate consequence of the preceding lemma and of the isoperimetric inequality.

Concerning circumscribed kites of minimal area, nothing is known except for ovals of constant breadth, where, if we consider the circumscribed unit square S as a kite, we find that

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[Q''(K_1)]} \ge \frac{[K_1]}{[S]} \ge \frac{[T_1]}{[S]} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \pi - \sqrt{3} \right) \sim 0.7048 .$$
(4)

We conjecture that the best possible result for ovals of constant breadth is

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[Q''(K_1)]} \ge \frac{[C_1]}{[Q''(C_1)]} = \frac{[C_1]}{[S]} = \frac{\pi}{4} \sim 0.7854 ,$$
 (5)

with equality only for  $C_1$ .

C. The Rhombus. Nothing is known here regarding arbitrary ovals. For central ovals, the inscribed kite of Theorem 3 is always a rhombus, so that the same bound holds in this case.

Theorem 5. In every oval  $K_1$  of constant breadth 1, there is an inscribed rhombus  $R'(K_1)$  with a diagonal of length 1 such that  $[R'(K_1)]/[K_1] \ge \alpha_0 \sim 0.5483$ .

**Proof.** If S = ABCD is a unit square circumscribed to  $K_1$ , we can rotate  $K_1$ through an angle  $\varphi$  inside S such that the points of contact  $E' = E(\varphi)$  and  $F' = F(\varphi)$ of  $\beta K_1$  with AD and BC, respectively, make the distance DE' = CF' a minimum. If  $Y' = Y(\varphi)$  and  $Z' = Z(\varphi)$  are the points of contact of the perpendicular bisector of E'F' with  $\beta K_1$ , we may select these such that  $Y'X' \ge Z'X'$ , where X' = $E'F' \cap Y'Z'$ . If Y'X' = Z'X', then E'Z'F'Y' is the desired rhombus, and we are done. Assume, then, that Y'X' > Z'X'. Rotating  $K_1$  in S through an angle  $\pi$  from  $\varphi$  to  $\varphi + \pi$ , we obtain  $E'' = E(\varphi + \pi) = AD \cap \beta K_1$ ,  $F'' = F(\varphi + \pi) = BC \cap \beta K_1$ and AE'' = DE' = BF'' = CF'.  $Y'' = Y(\varphi + \pi)$  and  $Z'' = Z(\varphi + \pi)$  are defined analogously to Y' and Z', so that Y''X'' = Z'X' and Z''X'' = Y'X', where X'' = $E''F'' \cap Y''Z''$ . Since  $\beta K_1$  is a continuous curve, the length  $Y'X' - Z'X' = f(\varphi)$ is a continuous function of  $\varphi$ . The above remarks show that Y'X' - Z'X' = $f(\varphi) > 0 > f(\varphi + \pi) = Y''X'' - Z''X''$ , so that there is a  $\varphi_0$  in the interval  $(\varphi, \varphi + \pi)$ such that  $f(\varphi_0) = 0$ , which implies that the quadrilateral EZFY for this position  $\varphi_0$ is a rhombus, since its diagonals are mutual perpendicular bisectors. Since EF = 1, the existence of the desired rhombus is established.

Referring to Lemma 2 and Fig. 1, an easy computation shows that the shorter diagonal of the inscribed rhombus has minimum length  $d = 2\sqrt[]{\{1 - (\sqrt[]{3} - 1)^2/4\}} - 1}$  for the REULEAUX triangle  $T_1$ . Therefore,

$$\frac{[R'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[R'(T_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[R'(T_1)]}{[C_1]} = \frac{2 d}{\pi} = \alpha_0 \sim 0.5483.$$



Figur 1

We conjecture that the best possible inequality in this case is

$$\frac{[R'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[R'(T_1)]}{[T_1]} = \frac{d}{\pi - \sqrt{3}} \sim 0.611 ,$$
 (6)

with equality only for  $T_1$ .

D. The Rectangle. RADZISZEWSKI [12] has shown the existence, in every oval K, of an inscribed rectangle of area at least half that of K. That this bound cannot be improved for central ovals may be seen by taking for K a rhombus with an angle  $\alpha < \pi/4$ . We conjecture that, in ovals of constant breadth, inscribed rectangles of maximal area are squares.

It is easy to see that, about every oval K, a rectangle may be circumscribed with area no greater than twice that of K. For this purpose, it is sufficient to take a side of the rectangle in the direction of a diameter of K. By considering a 'thin' rhombus with an angle nearly zero, we see that this bound cannot be improved on central ovals. For ovals of constant breadth, every circumscribed rectangle is a square.

E. The Square. Inscribed and circumscribed squares are of interest only for ovals of constant breadth, for with arbitrary and central ovals the area ratio may be near zero. EGGLESTON [6] established the existence, in every  $K_1$ , of an inscribed square  $S'(K_1)$  of edge length at least  $\sigma \sim 0.6474$ , with equality only for  $T_1$ . Hence,

$$\frac{[S'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[S'(T_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[S'(T_1)]}{[C_1]} = \frac{4\sigma^2}{\pi} \sim 0.5336.$$
 (7)

We conjecture that

$$\frac{[S'(K_1)]}{[K_1]} \ge \frac{[S'(T_1)]}{[T_1]} = \frac{2\sigma^2}{\pi - \sqrt{3}} \sim 0.5945 .$$
(8)

Since the unit square S is the only one which may be circumscribed about any  $K_1$ , we clearly have

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[S]} \ge \frac{[T_1]}{[S]} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \pi - \sqrt{3} \right) \sim 0.7048 .$$
(9)

F. The Hexagon. The set of midpoints of all chords of an oval K in a fixed direction  $\varphi$  is called the *load curve* ('Schwerlinie') of K in the direction  $\varphi$ , and denoted  $\lambda_{\varphi}(K)$ . The basic facts about load curves are contained in a paper of ZINDLER [14]. Here we make use of the simple observations that every load curve of an oval is connected, and that in the direction  $\varphi_d$  normal to a diameter d of K, the endpoints of  $\lambda_{\varphi_d}(K)$  are also endpoints of this diameter. This last remark follows from the well known fact that the support lines to an oval K in the direction  $\varphi_d$  meet  $\beta$  K in only one point, viz. an endpoint of the diameter d.

Theorem 6. In every oval there is an inscribed axial hexagon.

*Proof.* Let A and B be endpoints of a diameter of K, and  $\varphi_d$  the direction normal to AB. Since A and B are also endpoints of the load curve  $\lambda_{\varphi_d}(K)$ , which is a connected set, there is at least one line k in the direction parallel to AB which intersects  $\lambda_{\varphi_d}$  in two separate points distinct from A and B. (This line could contain the segment AB, if  $\lambda_{\varphi_d} = AB$ .) These two points in  $\lambda_{\varphi_d} \cap k$  determine two chords of K in the

direction  $\varphi_d$  which are bisected by k; their four endpoints, together with the two points  $k \cap \beta K$ , form the vertices of a hexagon inscribed in K and symmetric with respect to k. (Clearly, such a hexagon need not be unique.)

No non-trivial area ratios are known for inscribed and circumscribed hexagons.

Theorem 7. About every oval there is a circumscribed axial hexagon. (It is sufficient to prove the theorem for regular ovals, since the general case can then be obtained by approximation. We prefer, however, to give a constructive proof for the general case since a too hasty application of the approximation principle sometimes leads to errors. For example, the proof in YAGLOM-BOLTYANSKIJ [13, p. 144] that an equiangular hexagon having an axis of symmetry can be properly circumscribed about every oval is correct only for regular ovals, since, in particular, the statement is not true for a triangle with an angle  $> 2 \pi/3$ .)

**Proof.** In case K is regular, the hexagon may be obtained from a circumscribed rhombus (which always exists, by an easy application of Bolzano's theorem) by snipping off opposite corners with support lines to K parallel to the diagonal through the other two vertices. Difficulties arise if K is not regular, for then support lines may pass through the vertices of the circumscribed rhombus. We distinguish several cases.

Case I. All four vertices of the circumscribed rhombus R are points of  $\beta K$ . In this case R coincides with K. At a pair of opposite vertices of K draw segments whose midpoints are these vertices, and which are parallel to and of smaller length than the diagonal joining the other pair of vertices. The endpoints of these two segments and of this diagonal are vertices of the desired hexagon.

Case II. A pair of adjacent vertices of R belong to  $\beta K$ . Let A and B be these two vertices, and AC, BD the diagonals of R. We may assume that neither C nor D is a point of  $\beta K$ , for if both are, then this case reduces to the preceding case, and if one is, to the following. Let  $P \in BD \cap \beta K$ ,  $P \neq B$ , and E any point of the open segment  $PD^{0}$  (Fig. 2). Draw support lines  $m_{1}$  and  $m_{2}$  to K parallel to BD. Since  $A \in \beta K$ , one of these lines, say  $m_{1}$ , passes through A;  $m_{2}$  does not pass through C, by hypothesis. Through E draw two support lines to K; these are unique, once E is fixed. Through Bdraw two support lines to K making, with  $m_{1}$  and  $m_{2}$ , respectively, angles equal to those made with these two lines by the support lines through E. These six support lines determine the desired hexagon.



Figur 2

Case III. A pair of opposite vertices of R belong to  $\beta K$ . Let A and C be these vertices and assume that K lies entirely to one side of the diagonal AC (Fig. 3). By convexity,  $AC \subseteq \beta K$ . Draw support lines  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  through A and C, respectively,



and parallel to BD. Let k be the support line to K parallel to, and distinct from AC, and let  $F = k \cap m_1$ ,  $G = k \cap m_2$ . Choose any two points  $H \in AF$  and  $I \in CG$  such that AH = CI, and draw the support lines to K through H and I meeting in J; finally, construct  $JL \parallel BD$  and select the point  $M \in JL$  such that  $\triangle JHI \cong \triangle MAC$ , and M is on the same side of AC as D. Then AMCIJH is the desired hexagon.

If K does not lie to one side of AC, or if only one vertex of R belongs to  $\beta$  K, then an axial hexagon is easily constructed as in the case when K is regular. Since this exhausts all possibilities, the theorem is proved in general.

About every oval of constant breadth 1, there is circumscribed a regular hexagon H of edge length  $\sqrt{3}/3$  (EGGLESTON [4, p. 127]), so that if  $H''(K_1)$  denotes the circumscribed axial hexagon of minimal area, we have

$$\frac{[K_1]}{[H''(K_1)]} \ge \frac{[K_1]}{[H]} \ge \frac{[T_1]}{[H]} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \pi \sqrt{3} - 3 \right) \sim 0.8137 .$$
 (10)

G. The Octagon. Properly inscribed and circumscribed octagons do not exist for every oval (e.g. the triangle). However, for a central oval  $K_c$ , a result of NOHL [11] shows the existence of an inscribed axial (and central) octagon  $O'(K_c)$  such that

$$\frac{[O'(K_c)]}{[K_c]} \ge 2\left(\sqrt{2}-1\right) \sim 0.828\,,\tag{11}$$

with equality for a certain class of parallelograms. A 'dual' result is the following *Theorem 8.* About every central oval  $K_c$ , there is a circumscribed axial (and

central) octagon  $O''(K_c)$  such that  $[K_c]/[O''(K_c)] \ge \sqrt{2}/2 \sim 0.707$ .

**Proof.** No difficulty arises in this case in proving the theorem for regular central ovals, and then using an approximation argument to obtain full generality. For every direction  $\varphi$  in the plane, let  $R_{\varphi}$  be a rectangle circumscribed about  $K_c$  with a pair of sides in this direction. Since  $K_c$  is central, its center O coincides with that of  $R_{\varphi}$ . Let AB and CD be the sides of  $R_{\varphi}$  in the direction  $\varphi$ . Since  $K_c$  is regular, by hypothesis,

the vertices of  $R_{\varphi}$  do not belong to  $\beta K_c$ , so we may draw support lines EF and GH to  $K_c$  making equal angles with AB, as in Fig. 4. Let P, Q be the midpoints of AB,



*BC*, respectively. If FP = PG, then the octagon O'' = EFGHIJKL (where *I*, *J*, *K*, *L* are images, respectively, of the points *E*, *F*, *G*, *H* reflected in *O*) is axial, and the theorem is proved. Suppose that this is not the case, but that, in particular, FP < PG; then AF > GB, AE > BH, and ER = QI < QH. Define  $a(\varphi) = FP$  and  $b(\varphi) = PG$ ; then  $a(\varphi + \pi/2) = HQ$  and  $b(\varphi + \pi/2) = QI$ . The above inequalities imply that  $a(\varphi) - b(\varphi) < 0$  and  $a(\varphi + \pi/2) - b(\varphi + \pi/2) > 0$ , and since it is geometrically obvious that the function  $f(\varphi) = a(\varphi) - b(\varphi)$  is continuous, it follows that for some intermediate direction  $\varphi_0$  the circumscribed octagon  $O_{\varphi_0}$  has an axis of symmetry.

A unique (up to congruence) parallelogram P may be properly inscribed in an axial and central octagon O'' by joining its alternate vertices. If O'' is circumscribed about a central oval  $K_c$ , we now show that  $[K_c]/[O''] \ge [P]/[O'']$ . For this purpose, let A', B', C', D', E', F', G', H' be the points of contact of  $\beta K_c$  with O'', selected so that  $B' \in AB, C' \in BC, \ldots, A' \in HA$  (two of these may coincide at a vertex of O'', but this does not affect the proof), and let O' denote the octagon determined by them. Since  $O' \subseteq K_c$ ,  $[O'] \le [K_c]$ . The vertices of O' and of O'' are symmetric with respect to the center O of  $K_c$ . We now show that  $[O'] \ge [P]$ .

Either  $BB' \ge CD'$  or  $BB' \le CD'$ ; assume the latter (with no loss in generality); then  $[B'C'D'] \ge [B'BD']$  and (by symmetry)  $[F'G'H'] \ge [F'FH']$ , so that  $[O'] \ge [A'B'BD'E'F'FH'] \ge [A'BD'E'FH']$ . Now  $BD'E'F = BD'E' \cup E'FB$  and either  $[BD'E'] \ge [BCE']$  or  $[BD'E'] \ge [BDE']$ . Suppose the former; then  $[BD'E'F] = [BD'E'] + [E'FB] \ge [BCE'] + [E'FB] = [BCE'F] \ge [BDF]$ ; on the other hand, if the latter inequality is true, then  $[BD'E'F] = [BD'E'] + [E'FB] \ge [BDE'] + [E'FB] \ge [BDE'] + [E'FB] = [BDE'F] \ge [BDF]$ . By symmetry, we also have  $[FH'A'B] \ge [FHB]$ , so that  $[A'BD'E'FH'] = [BD'E'F] + [FH'A'B] \ge [BDF] + [FHB] = [BDFH] = [P]$ , which implies, by a previous inequality, that  $[O'] \ge [P]$ .

We now determine the minimum value of the ratio [P]/[O'']. We may assume, without loss of generality, that the lengths of two sides of O'' which lie along the edges of the circumscribed rectangle R are 1 and k, where  $0 \le k \le \infty$ . Then, referring

to Fig. 5, [P] = k + ky + x + 2xy, [O''] = k + 2ky + 2x + 2xy, and the function f(k, x, y) = [P]/[O''] has the unique minimum value of  $\sqrt{2}/2$  when  $x = y = \sqrt{2}/2$  and k = 1, as can be shown by elementary calculus. In this case, O'' is a regular octagon, and P is a square. Therefore,  $[K_c]/[O''] \ge [O']/[O''] \ge [P]/[O''] \ge \sqrt{2}/2$ .



**II. Perimeter Ratios.** The perimeter of a set S is denoted |S|. The known results here are rather meager, and most of these concern ovals of constant breadth.

A. The Isosceles Triangle. Using the result of EGGLESTON and TAYLOR mentioned on p. 3, and the notation of the preceding section, we can conclude immediately, as regards ovals of constant breadth, that

$$\frac{|I'(K_1)|}{|K_1|} \ge \frac{|\Delta'(K_1)|}{|K_1|} \ge \frac{|\Delta'(P_1)|}{|K_1|} = \frac{3\lambda}{\pi} \sim 0.8149,$$
(12)

since it is well known that every oval of constant breadth 1 has perimeter  $\pi$ .

As far as circumscribed isosceles triangles are concerned, the best possible result is known and follows from a theorem of EGGLESTON [5]: About every oval K there is a circumscribed equilateral triangle  $\Delta''(K)$  such that

$$\frac{|K|}{|\Delta''(K)|} \ge \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}} \sim 0.6046 ,$$
 (13)

with equality only for the circle.

B. The Kite.

Theorem 9. In every oval K, there is an inscribed kite Q'(K) such that  $|Q'(K)|/|K| \ge \beta_0 - \varepsilon \sim 0.649 - \varepsilon$ , where  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrarily small.

Proof. With AB = 1 a diameter of K, K can be covered by a lens-shaped region (Fig. 6) bounded by circular arcs of radius 1. The points A, B and the points of intersection C and D of  $\beta K$  with the perpendicular bisector OP of AB are vertices of a kite inscribed in K. (The case where  $AB \subseteq \beta K$  and the kite degenerates to an isosceles triangle does not affect the first part of the proof, and will be dealt with later.) Draw support lines EH and FG to K parallel to AB. Then, if Q' = ACBD and K' = EFGH,  $Q' \subseteq K \subseteq K'$  implies  $|Q'|/|K| \ge |Q'|/|K'|$ . For a fixed Q', the minimum value of the ratio |Q'|/|K'| occurs for a maximum value of the arc length  $\widehat{EF}$ , which in turn occurs when a support line to K through C (respectively D) coincides with either AC

or BC (respectively AD or BD), as, for example, is the case when K is a circular sector of radius 1 (see Fig. 7).



With B the origin of a rectangular coordinate system, referring to Fig. 7, we set OD = x and define  $a = AD + BD = \sqrt{\{4 \ x^2 + 1\}}; b = \widehat{AF} + FG + \widehat{BG} = 2 \arctan(2x) + 2/\sqrt{\{4 \ x^2 + 1\}} - 2; c = AC + CB; d = \widehat{AE} + \widehat{EH} + HB$ . By symmetry, it is sufficient to determine the minimum value of only one of the ratios a/b and c/d. For this purpose we define f(x) = a/b; this function has a unique minimum value  $\beta_0 \sim 0.649$  on the interval  $[0, \sqrt{3}/2]$  achieved for  $x = x_0 \sim 0.28$ . From this it follows that

$$\frac{|Q'(K)|}{|K|} \ge \frac{|Q'(K)|}{|K'|} \ge \frac{|ACBD|}{|EFGH|} = \frac{a+c}{b+d} \ge \min\{a/b, c/d\} = \min f(x) = \beta_0,$$

which proves the theorem, provided Q' is not degenerate.

If Q' degenerates to an isosceles triangle for some oval K, it is easy to construct a proper kite Q'' inscribed in K such that  $|Q''| \ge |Q'| - \epsilon$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , by constructing one diagonal of Q'' parallel to, and arbitrarily close to, the diameter AB, but lying (except for its endpoints) entirely in the interior of K. The theorem is thus proved in general.

For a result concerning central ovals, we defer to the next section.

Theorem 10. For ovals of constant breadth,  $|Q'(K_1)|/|K_1| \ge 2\sqrt{2}/\pi \sim 0.9002$ , with equality only for those ovals having two diameters which are mutual perpendicular bisectors.

**Proof.** With  $K_1$  in standard position with respect to the circumscribed square S, the points of contact of  $\beta K_1$  with S are vertices of an inscribed kite. It is well known that, among all triangles with fixed base and area, the isosceles triangle on this base has least perimeter. Therefore, this inscribed kite has minimum perimeter when it is a square, and the theorem follows easily. An example of an oval of constant breadth which is not a circle and which admits an inscribed square of diagonal 1 is given in Fig. 8, and is constructed by drawing circular arcs  $\widehat{AB}$  and  $\widehat{CD}$  of radius 1/2 about the

center O of the circumscribed square S, and circular arcs AE, ED, and BC of radius 1 about the points C, B and E, where A, B, C, and D are midpoints of the sides of S.



C. The Rhombus. Nothing is known in this case for arbitrary ovals.

Theorem 11. In every central oval  $K_c$ , there is an inscribed rhombus  $R'(K_c)$  such that  $|R'(K_c)|/|K_c| \ge \gamma_0 \sim 0.8045$ .

*Proof.* Every central oval  $K_c$  of diameter 1 is contained in a circle of diameter 1 with the same center O. Let AB be a diameter of  $K_c$ , CD the chord through O which is perpendicular to AB, and EG, FH support lines to  $K_c$  through C and D, respectively



Figur 9

(Fig. 9). Since  $K_c$  is central,  $EG \parallel FH$ , and the quadrilateral ADBC is a rhombus. The perimeter of this rhombus is smallest, for a fixed circumscribing figure K' = EFHG, when its diagonal CD is a minimum, which occurs when  $EG \perp CD$ . Let R = R(K') denote this minimum rhombus.

If O is the origin of a rectangular coordinate system, then (see Fig. 10) we have  $a = AD + DB = \sqrt{\{4 \ x^2 + 1\}}$  and  $b = \widehat{AF} + FH + \widehat{HB} = \arcsin(2 \ x) + \sqrt{\{1 - 4 \ x^2\}}$ . Defining g(x) = a/b, we find that g has a unique minimum value  $\gamma_0 \sim 0.8045$  on the interval [0, 1/2] attained for  $x = x_0 \sim 0.2565$ . Therefore

$$\frac{|R'(K_c)|}{|K_c|} \ge \frac{|R'(K_c)|}{|K'|} \ge \frac{|R|}{|K'|} = \frac{a}{b} \ge \min g(x) = \gamma_0.$$

As an analogue of Theorem 5 we have the following



Theorem 12. In every oval of constant breadth 1 there is an inscribed rhombus  $R'(K_1)$  with a diagonal of length 1 such that  $|R'(K_1)|/|K_1| \ge \delta_0 \sim 0.8402$ , with equality for the REULEAUX triangle  $T_1$ .

**Proof.** The existence of  $R'(K_1)$  has been established in Theorem 5, from which it also follows that  $|R'(K_1)|$  has the minimum value  $p = 4 \left\{ \frac{1}{4} + \left(\sqrt{[\sqrt{3}/2]} - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \right\}$ , as an easy computation shows, when  $K_1$  is the REULEAUX triangle. Therefore,

$$\frac{|R'(K_1)|}{|K_1|} \ge \frac{|R'(T_1)|}{|K_1|} = \frac{p}{\pi} = \delta_0 \sim 0.8402 \; .$$

D. The Rectangle. No results are known in this connection for rectangles other than squares.

E. The Square. As was pointed out in the previous section, the only interesting case is that of ovals of constant breadth. Using the result of EGGLESTON [6] mentioned on p. 7, and the notation of that paragraph, we can conclude immediately that

$$\frac{|S'(K_1)|}{|K_1|} \ge \frac{|S'(T_1)|}{|K_1|} = \frac{4\sigma}{\pi} \sim 0.8243 , \qquad (14)$$

with equality for  $T_1$ .

The analogous result for circumscribed squares is obvious.

F. The Hexagon. Since there is a regular hexagon H of side length  $\sqrt{3}/3$  circumscribed about every oval of constant breadth 1, if  $H''(K_1)$  denotes the circumscribed axial hexagon of minimal perimeter, we have

$$\frac{|K_1|}{|H''(K_1)|} \ge \frac{|K_1|}{|H|} = \frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{3}} \sim 0.9069 \,. \tag{15}$$

G. The Octagon. No perimeter ratios are known for inscribed or circumscribed axial octagons. B. ABEL DE VALCOURT, College of Santa Fe

#### REFERENCES

[1] A. S. BESICOVITCH, Measure of Asymmetry of Convex Curves, J. London Math. Soc. 23, 237-240 (1948).

- [2] W. BLASCHKE, Über affine Geometrie III: Eine Minimumeigenschaft der Ellipse, Leipziger Berichte 69, 3-12 (1917).
- [3] B. A. DE VALCOURT, Measures of Axial Symmetry for Ovals, Israel Journal of Math. 4, 65-82 (1966).
- [4] H. G. EGGLESTON, Convexity, Cambridge 1963.
- [5] H. G. EGGLESTON, On Triangles Circumscribing Plane Convex Sets, J. London Math. Soc. 28, 36-46 (1953).
- [6] H. G. EGGLESTON, Squares Contained in Plane Convex Sets, Quart. Jour. Math., Oxford Series (2), 10, 261-269 (1959).
- [7] H. G. EGGLESTON and S. J. TAYLOR, On the Size of Equilateral Triangles which may be inscribed in Curves of Constant Width, J. London Math. Soc. 27, 438-448 (1952).
- [8] B. GRÜNBAUM, Measures of Symmetry for Convex Sets, Proc. of Symposia in Pure Mathematics, Vol. VII, Convexity; Am. Math. Soc., Providence, R.I. 1963.
- [9] H. HADWIGER, H. DEBRUNNER and V. KLEE, Combinatorial Geometry in the Plane, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York 1964.
- [10] J. L. HODGES, An Extremal Problem of Geometry, J. Lond. Math. Soc. 26, 311–312 (1951).
- [11] W. NOHL, Die innere axiale Symmetrie zentrischer Eibereiche der euklidischen Ebene, El. Math. 17, 59–63 (1962).
- [12] K. RADZISZEWSKI, Sur un problème extrémal relatif aux figures inscrites et circonscrites aux figures convexes, C. r. Acad. Sci. Paris 235, 771–773 (1952).
- [13] I. M. YAGLOM and V. G. BOLTYANSKIJ, Convex Figures (translated by PAUL J. KELLY and LEWIS F. WALTON), Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York 1961.
- [14] K. ZINDLER, Über konvexe Gebilde, I, II, III, Mh. Math. Phys. 30, 87-102 (1920); 31, 25-56 (1921); 32, 107-138 (1922).

# Kleine Mitteilungen

### Bestimmung einer oberen Schranke für den Inhalt des Parallelrisses eines regelmässigen Körpers

1. Im dreidimensionalen euklidischen Raum  $E_3$  gibt es bekanntlich fünf regelmässige, konvexe oder PLATONISCHE Körper. Ist *s* eine beliebige Sehstrahlrichtung und  $\pi$  eine zu *s* normale Bildebene, so ist der scheinbare Umriss eines solchen PLATONISCHEN Körpers  $\Pi$ ein ebenes konvexes Polygon  $\Pi^n$ , das im folgenden kurz als der Normalriss von  $\Pi$  bezeichnet werden soll; *F* sei sein Flächeninhalt. Das PLATONISCHE Polyeder  $\Pi$  habe p (untereinander kongruente und regelmässige) Polygone zu Seitenflächen  $s_i$  (i = 1, 2, ..., p), die alle denselben Flächeninhalt *f* besitzen. Ist  $\varepsilon_i$  die Trägerebene von  $s_i$  und  $\alpha_i$  der Neigungswinkel von  $\varepsilon_i$  gegen die Bildebene  $\pi$ , so hat der Normalriss  $s_i^n$  von  $s_i$  einen durch

$$f_i = f \cos \alpha_i \tag{1}$$

gegebenen Flächeninhalt. Da jeder Sehstrahl *s*, der mit dem konvexen Polyeder  $\Pi$  innere Punkte gemeinsam hat, den Rand  $\Re(\Pi)$  von  $\Pi$  in genau zwei Punkten trifft, ist jeder innere Punkt des Normalrisses  $\Pi^n$  von  $\Pi$  Normalriss von genau zwei Punkten des Randes  $\Re(\Pi)$  von  $\Pi$  und es gilt mithin für den Flächeninhalt F von  $\Pi^n$ :

$$2 F = \sum_{i=1}^{p} f_i .$$
 (2)

Ist O der Mittelpunkt des PLATONischen Körpers und  $O_i$  der Mittelpunkt seiner Seitenfläche  $s_i$ , so ordnen wir jeder Seitenfläche  $s_i$  einen zum Vektor  $\overrightarrow{OO_i}$  proportionalen Vektor  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  zu, dessen Betrag mit dem Inhalt f von  $s_i$  übereinstimmt. Jeder Vektor  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  steht somit auf der Trägerebene  $\varepsilon_i$  von  $s_i$  normal; die Spitzen der Vektoren  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  bestimmen in ihrer Gesamtheit als von O ausgehende Ortsvektoren ein zu dem gegebenen PLATONischen Polyeder  $\Pi$  «duales» regelmässiges Polyeder.