# Development of Morley's Theorem on Right Triangles for Inner, Outer or Supplementary Angle Trisectors 

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#### Abstract

Basically, Morley's Theorem gives the trisector of the angles in all three angles at any $\triangle A B C$ so that from the points of intersection, three points have obtained that form an equilateral triangle. But, if the angle trisector is given only at two angles, then an equilateral triangle cannot be formed, either using an inner angle trisector, an outer angle trisector, or a supplementary angle trisector. Based on these problems, it will be shown that by providing an inner angle trisector or an outer angle trisector at both non-right angles of any right triangle $A B C$ an equilateral triangle can be formed. But by providing the supplementary angle trisector at a nonright angle, it will form a rhombus.


Keywords:- Inner Angle Trisector, Outer Angle Trisector, Supplementary Angle Trisector, Morley's Theorem.

## I. INTRODUCTION

An angle trisector is two lines that divide an angle into three equal parts. One theorem that immediately comes to mind when discussing angle trisectors is Morley's Theorem [1]. Basically, Morley's Theorem gives the trisector of the interior angle of any triangle. From the points of intersection, three points are obtained that form an equilateral triangle. This equilateral triangle became known as the Morley Triangle.


Fig 1 Equilateral Triangle with Inner Angle Trisector
Since its preface, Morley's Theorem has attracted the attention of researchers so many articles have been produced that discuss it, both for proof and development. Based on the type of angle trisector, there are three fairly easy ways to form an equilateral triangle. The first is an equilateral triangle
formed using an inner angle trisector at all three angles at any $\Delta A B C$. This is the basis of Morley's Theorem. See Figure 1.

The second is an equilateral triangle formed by giving the outer angle trisector all three angles at any $\triangle A B C$ [2]. From the extension of the outer corner trisector lines, three points of intersection are obtained which will form an equilateral triangle. See Figure 2.


Fig 2 Equilateral Triangle with Outer Angle Trisector
The last one is an equilateral triangle which is formed by giving the supplementary angle trisector at all three angles of any triangle [3]. By giving the supplementary angle trisector at each angle, three intersection points have been obtained that form an equilateral triangle. See Figure 3.


Fig 3 Equilateral Triangle with Supplementary Angle Trisector

By three formations of equilateral triangles above, they have one thing in common, that is, the three types of angle trisectors are given at the three angles of any triangle. However, if the angle trisector is given only at two angles then an equilateral triangle cannot be formed. Based on this, this article discusses the inner angle trisector, the outer angle trisector, and the supplementary angle trisector in a right triangle with each angle trisector given only two non-right angles.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before entering the discussion, it is important to understand about the inner angle trisector, outer angle trisector, supplementary angle trisector, and several other basics first.

## A. Inner Angle Trisector

Given any $\triangle A B C$ with $B C=a, A C=b, \angle B A C=3 \alpha, \angle A B C$ $=3 \beta$, and $\angle B C A=3 \gamma$. In $\triangle A B C$ there are $\angle B A C$ facing to $a$, $\angle A B C$ facing to $b$, and $\angle B C A$ facing to $c$. These three angles are called the interior angles of a triangle [4]. If the angle trisector is given to $\angle B A C$, it will divide $\angle B A C$ into three equal parts, that is $\alpha$. This angle trisector is then called the inner angle trisector. The inner angle trisector on $\angle B A C$ is denoted by $T i_{1} \angle A$ and $T i_{2} \angle A$ in clockwise notation order. See Figure 4 below.


Fig 4 Inner Angle Trisector on $\angle B A C$

## B. Outer Angle Trisector

In addition to the interior angle, there is also an explementary angle [2]. An explementary angle is an angle that completes the inside angle to make one complete rotation. For example, on $\triangle A B C$ with one of the interior angles, that is $\angle B A C=3 \alpha$, then there is an explementary angle with an angle of $360^{\circ}-3 \alpha$. If the explementary angle is given an angle trisector then this angle trisector will divide the explementary angle $B A C$ into three equal sizes, that is $120^{\circ}-\alpha$. This angle trisector became known as the outer angle trisector. In this article, the outer angle trisector on $\angle B A C$ will be denoted by $T o_{1} \angle A$ and $T o_{2} \angle A$. See Figure 5.


Fig 5 Outer Angle Trisector at $\angle B A C$
Furthermore, if the outer angle trisector at $\angle B A C$ is extended through point A then it will form an angle of $60^{\circ}-$ $2 \alpha$ concerning the nearest side $\triangle A B C$, as shown in Figure 6.


Fig 6 Extension of the Outer Angle Trisector at $\angle B A C$

## C. Supplementary Angle Trisector

In addition to the interior and explementary angles, there are also exterior angles or supplementary angles [3]. A supplementary angle is an angle that completes an angle to form a half-turn angle or $180^{\circ}$. At $\triangle A B C$ with $\angle B A C=3 \alpha$, side $B A$ is extended through point $A$ and stops at a point (namely point $P$ ). Then the $C A$ side is also extended through point $A$ and stops at a point (namely point $Q$ ). Because $B P$ and $C Q$ intersect at $A, \angle C A P$ and $\angle B A Q$ have the same angles (vertical angles). These two angles are called supplementary angles. Because $\angle C A P$ and $\angle B A Q$ are supplementary angles, they have an angle measure of $180^{\circ}-3 \alpha$. If an angle trisector is given to these two angles, then this angle trisector will divide the angles into three equal parts, that is $60^{\circ}-\alpha$. This angle trisector is known as the supplementary angle trisector. In this article, the supplementary angle trisector at $\angle \mathrm{BAC}$ will be denoted by $T s_{1} \angle A$ and $T s_{2} \angle A$. This can be seen in the following figure.


Fig 7 Supplementary Angle Trisector at $\angle B A C$

## D. Sine Rule

In any $\triangle A B C$ with $B C=a, A C=b, A B=c, \angle B A C=\alpha$, $\angle A B C=\beta$, and $\angle B C A=\gamma$ we can form the circumcircle. Each side and angle leading to it has the same ratio, which is twice the radius of the circumcircle $\triangle A B C(2 R)$. This has been stated in the following theorem [5-7].
$>$ Ttheorem 2.1. (Sine Rule) Suppose $a, b$, and $c$ are side lengths on $\triangle A B C$, then

$$
\frac{a}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{b}{\sin \beta}=\frac{c}{\sin \gamma}=2 R
$$



Fig 8 Sine Rule
Proof. See [5-7]

## E. Morley's Theorem

In the previous discussion, it can be seen that the inner angle trisector is given to $\angle B A C$. Furthermore, by giving the inner angle trisector on $\angle B A C, \angle A B C$, and $\angle B C A$ three intersection points are obtained which produce an equilateral triangle. This condition is mentioned in a theorem, namely Morley's Theorem [3]. Here's the theorem.
> Theorem 2.1. (Morley's Theorem) In any triangle the trisectors of its angles, proximal to the three sides respectively, meet at the vertices of an equilateral.


Fig 9 Morley's Theorem

- Proof. Various proof methods can be seen in [18-31], so that the side length $\triangle \mathrm{DEF}=8 \mathrm{R} \sin (\alpha) \sin (\beta) \sin (\gamma)$ is obtained.


## III. EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE WITH THE INNER AND OUTER TRISECTORS IN A RIGHT TRIANGLE

Suppose a $\triangle A B C$ with $B C=a, A C=b, A B=c, \angle B A C$ $=3 \alpha, \angle A B C=90^{\circ}$, and $\angle B C A=3 \gamma$. Because $\angle B A C+\angle A B C$ $+\angle B C A=180^{\circ}$ we get $\angle B C A=3\left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$ or $\gamma=30^{\circ}-\alpha$. By giving the inner angle trisector and outer angle trisector on $\angle B C A$, the inner angle trisector is $30^{\circ}-\alpha$, the outer angle trisector is $90^{\circ}+\alpha$, and the angle formed by the extension of the outer angle trisector with side $A C$ or $B C$ that is $2 \alpha$. This can be seen in the Figure 10.


Fig 10 Inner Angle Trisector at $\angle B C A$


Fig 11 Outer Angle Trisector at $\angle B C A$
Furthermore, by applying the inner angle trisector to $\angle B A C$ and $\angle B C A$, the first equilateral triangle is obtained. Here's the theorem.
> Theorem 3.1. On $\triangle A B C$ with right angles at B, given the inner angle trisectors at $A\left(T i_{1} \angle A\right.$ and $\left.T i_{2} \angle A\right)$ and $C$ ( $T i_{1} \angle C$ and $T i_{2} \angle C$ ). $T i_{1} \angle A$ and $T i_{2} \angle C$ intersect at $D$, $T i_{2} \angle A$ and $B C$ intersect at $E, T i_{1} \angle C$ and $B A$ intersect at $F$. Points $D, E$, and $F$ form an equilateral.


Fig 12 Equilateral Triangle with Inner Angle Trisectors at $A$ and $C$

- Proof. The proof is done by showing two things, there are $E D=E F$ and $F D=F E$. Based on the inner angle trisector discussed earlier, we have $\angle D A C=\alpha$ and $\angle D C A=30^{\circ}-$ $\alpha$, so we get $\angle A D C=150^{\circ}$. By using the sine rule on $\triangle A D C$ is obtained
$A D=2 b \sin \left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$
Furthermore, by paying attention to $\triangle A F C$, because $\angle F A C=3 \alpha$ and $\angle F C A=2\left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$ it is easy to obtain $\angle A F C$ $=120^{\circ}-\alpha$. By using the sine rule is obtained
$A F=2 b \sin \left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$

From equations (1) and (2) it can be seen that $A D=A F$ Next, by paying attention to $\triangle A D E$ and $\triangle A F E$ we have $A D=$ $A F, \angle D A E=\angle D A F, A E=A E$ so that based on the congruence of the side-angle-side, we get that $\triangle A D E \cong$ $\triangle A F E$. Since the two triangles are congruent, $E D=E F$

By doing the same for $\triangle A D C$ and $\triangle A E C$ we get
$C D=2 b \sin \alpha$
$C E=2 b \sin \alpha$

From equations (3) and (4) it can be seen that $C D=C E$. Next, by paying attention to $\triangle C E F$ and $\triangle C D F$, we have $C E=$ $C D, \angle E C F=\angle D C F, C F=C F$ so that based on the congruence of the side-angle-side, it is obtained that $\triangle C E F \cong$ $\triangle C D F$. Since the two triangles are congruent, then $F D=F E$. With two conditions fulfilled ( $E D=E F$ and $F D=F E$ ), then $\triangle D E F$ is an equilateral triangle. Thus, Theorem 3.1 is proven.

Furthermore, the second equilateral triangle is obtained by giving the outer angle trisectors to $\angle B A C$ and $\angle B C A$. This can be seen in the following theorem.
$>$ Theorem 3.2. On $\triangle A B C$ with the right angle at B, given the outer angle trisectors at $A\left(\mathrm{To}_{1} \angle A\right.$ and $\left.\mathrm{To}_{2} \angle A\right)$ and $C$ ( $T o s_{1} \angle C$ and $T o_{2} \angle C$ ). $T o_{2} \angle A$ and $T o_{1} \angle C$ intersect at $D$, $T o_{1} \angle A$ and $B C$ side extensions intersect at $E, T o_{2} \angle C$ and $B A$ side extensions intersect at $F$. Points D, E, and F form an equilateral.

- Proof. The proof is done by showing two things, there are $E D=E F$ and $F D=F E$. Based on the outer angle trisector discussed earlier, we have $\angle D A C=60^{\circ}+\alpha$ and $\angle D C A=$ $90^{\circ}-\alpha$, so we can easily obtain $\angle A D C=30^{\circ}$. By using the sine rule on $\triangle A D C$ is obtained
$A D=2 b \cos \alpha$


Fig 13 Equilateral Triangle with Outer Angle Trisectors at $A$ and $C$

Furthermore, by paying attention to $\triangle A F C$, because $\angle F A C=180^{\circ}-3 \alpha$ and $\angle F C A=2 \alpha$, it is easy to obtain $\angle A F C$ $=\alpha$. By using the sine rule is obtained
$A F=2 b \cos \alpha$
From equations (5) and (6) it can be seen that $A D=A F$. Next, by paying attention to $\triangle A D E$ and $\triangle A F E$ we get $A D=$ $A F, \angle D A E=\angle F A E, A E=A E$ so that based on the congruence of the side-angle-side, we get that $\triangle A D E \cong$ $\triangle A F E$. Since the two triangles are congruent, so $E D=E F$.

By doing the same for $\triangle A D C$ and $\triangle A E C$ we get
$C D=2 b \cos \left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$
$C E=2 b \cos \left(30^{\circ}-\alpha\right)$
From equations (7) and (8) it can be seen that $C D=C E$. Next, by paying attention to $\triangle C E F$ and $\triangle C D F, C E=C D$, $\angle E C F=\angle D C F, C F=C F$ so that based on the congruence of the side-angle-side, it is obtained that $\triangle C E F \cong \triangle C D F$. Since the two triangles are congruent, then $F D=F E$. With two conditions fulfilled ( $E D=E F$ and $F D=F E)$, then $\triangle D E F$ is an equilateral triangle. Thus, Theorem 3.2 is proven.

## IV. ROMBUS WITH THE SUPPLEMENTARY TRISECTOR IN A RIGHT TRIANGLE

In the previous discussion, we discussed the angle trisector at $\angle B A C$ in any triangle. Furthermore, on $\triangle A B C$ with a right angle at $B$, a supplementary angle trisector is formed on $\angle B C A$ which divides the supplementary angle into three equal parts, that is $30^{\circ}+\alpha$. This supplementary angle trisector is denoted by $T s_{1} \angle C$ and $T s_{2} \angle C$. By giving the supplementary angle trisector at $A$ and $C$, an equilateral triangle cannot be formed. However, from this supplementary angle trisector produces points that form a rhombus. This can be seen in the following theorem.
$>$ Theorem 4.1. On $\triangle A B C$ with right angles at $B$, given trisectors with right angles at $A\left(T s_{1} \angle A\right.$ dan $\left.T s_{2} \angle A\right)$ and at $C$ ( $T s_{1} \angle C$ dan $T s_{2} \angle C$ ). $T s_{1} \angle A$ and $T s_{1} \angle C$ intersect at $D, T s_{2} \angle A$ and $T s_{2} \angle C$ intersect at $E$. Points $A, C, E$, and $D$ form a rhombus.


Fig 14 Rhombus with Angle Trisector at $A$ and $C$

Proof. The proof is done by showing two things, there are $A C=C E=E D=D A$ and the opposite angles are equal. At $\triangle A C F$, based on the supplementary angle trisector discussed earlier, we have obtained $\angle C A F=60^{\circ}-\alpha$ and $\angle A C F=30^{\circ}+\alpha$ then obtained $\angle A F C=90^{\circ}$. Because $A E$ is a straight line, $\angle E F C=\angle A F C=90^{\circ}$. By paying attention to $\triangle A F C$ and $\triangle E F C$ we get $\angle A F C=\angle E F C, C F=C F$, and $\angle A C F=\angle E C F$ so that based on the congruence of the angle-side-angle we get $\triangle A F C \cong \triangle E F C$. Since the two triangles are congruent then $A C=C E$ and $A F=E F$. In the same way on $\triangle C F A$ and $\triangle D F A$ also obtained $A C=D A$ and $C F=D F$.

Furthermore, by considering $\triangle A F C$ and $\triangle E F D, \angle A F C$ and $\angle E F D$ are vertical angles so that $\angle A F C=\angle E F D$. Because $A F=E F, \angle A F C=\angle E F D$, and $C F=D F$, based on the congruence of the side-angle-side, we get $\triangle A F C \cong$ $\triangle E F D$. Since the two triangles are congruent then $E D=A C$. Since $A C=C E=E D=D A$, the first condition is satisfied.

Previously we obtained $\triangle A F C \cong \triangle E F C$ so that $\angle C A F=$ $\angle C E F$. For the same reasons, $\angle D A F=\angle D E F$, so $\angle C A F=$ $\angle D A F=\angle C E F+\angle D E F$, or in other words $\angle C A D=\angle C E D$. In the same way, $\angle A C E=\angle A D E$ is also obtained, so that the second condition is fulfilled. With both conditions fulfilled, the quadrilateral $A C E D$ is a rhombus, and Theorem 4.1 is proven.

## V. CONCLUTION

On Morley's Theorem, an equilateral triangle can be formed by giving each angle trisector at all three angles of any triangle. If an equilateral triangle cannot be formed by giving each angle trisector at only two angles of any triangle, then by giving an inner angle trisector and an outer angle trisector to any right triangle, an equilateral triangle still can be formed. Slightly different for the supplementary angle trisector, from the points of intersection a rhombus can be formed.

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