# The Apollonius Circle as a Tucker Circle 

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#### Abstract

We give a simple construction of the circular hull of the excircles of a triangle as a Tucker circle.


## 1. Introduction

The Apollonius circle of a triangle is the circular hull of the excircles, the circle internally tangent to each of the excircles. This circle can be constructed by making use of the famous Feuerbach theorem that the nine-point circle is tangent externally to each of the excircles, and that the radical center of the excircles is the Spieker point $X_{10}$, the incenter of the medial triangle. If we perform an inversion with respect to the radical circle of the excircles, which is the circle orthogonal to each of them, the excircles remain invariant, while the nine-point circle is inverted into the Apollonius circle. The points of tangency of the Apollonius circle, being the inversive images of the points of tangency of the nine-point circle, can be constructed by joining to these latter points to Spieker point to intersect the respective excircles again. ${ }^{1}$ See Figure 1. In this paper, we give another simple construction of the Apollonius circle by identifying it as a Tucker circle.


Theorem 1. Let $B_{a}$ and $C_{a}$ be points respectively on the extensions of $C A$ and $B A$ beyond $A$ such that $B_{a} C_{a}$ is antiparallel to $B C$ and has length $s$, the semiperimeter of triangle $A B C$. Likewise, let $C_{b}, A_{b}$ be on the extensions of $A B$ and $C B$ beyond

[^0]$B$, with $C_{b} A_{b}$ antiparallel to $C A$ and of length $s, A_{c}, B_{c}$ on the extensions of $B C$ and $A C$ beyond $C$, with $A_{c} B_{c}$ is antiparallel to $A B$ and of length $s$. Then the six points $A_{b}, B_{a}, C_{a}, A_{c}, B_{c}, C_{b}$ are concyclic, and the circle containing them is the Apollonius circle of triangle $A B C$.

The vertices of the Tucker hexagon can be constructed as follows. Let $X_{b}$ and $X_{c}$ be the points of tangency of $B C$ with excircles $\left(I_{b}\right)$ and $\left(I_{c}\right)$ respectively. Since $B X_{b}$ and $C X_{c}$ each has length $s$, the parallel of $A B$ through $X_{b}$ intersects $A C$ at $C^{\prime}$, and that of $A C$ through $X_{c}$ intersects $A B$ at $B^{\prime}$ such that the segment $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ is parallel to $B C$ and has length $s$. The reflections of $B^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$ in the line $I_{b} I_{c}$ are the points $B_{a}$ and $C_{a}$ such that triangle $A B_{a} C_{a}$ is similar to $A B C$, with $B_{a} C_{a}=s$. See Figure 3. The other vertices can be similarly constructed. In fact, the Tucker circle can be constructed by locating $A_{c}$ as the intersection of $B C$ and the parallel through $C_{a}$ to $A C$.


Figure 3

## 2. Some basic results

We shall denote the side lengths of triangle $A B C$ by $a, b, c$.

| $R$ | circumradius |
| :--- | :--- |
| $r$ | inradius |
| $s$ | semiperimeter |
| $\triangle$ | area |
| $\omega$ | Brocard angle |

The Brocard angle is given by

$$
\cot \omega=\frac{a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}}{4 \triangle} .
$$

Lemma 2. (1) $a b c=4 R r s$;
(2) $a b+b c+c a=r^{2}+s^{2}+4 R r$;
(3) $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=2\left(s^{2}-r^{2}-4 R r\right)$;
(4) $(a+b)(b+c)(c+a)=2 s\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right)$.

Proof. (1) follows from the formulae $\triangle=r s$ and $R=\frac{a b c}{4 \triangle}$.
(2) follows from the Heron formula $\triangle^{2}=s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)$ and

$$
s^{3}-(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)=(a b+b c+c a) s+a b c .
$$

(3) follows from (2) and $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=(a+b+c)^{2}-2(a b+b c+c a)$.
(4) follows from $(a+b)(b+c)(c+a)=(a+b+c)(a b+b c+c a)-a b c$.

Unless explicitly stated, all coordinates we use in this paper are homogeneous barycentric coordinates. Here are the coordinates of some basic triangle centers.

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circumcenter \(\quad O \quad\left(a^{2}\left(b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}\right): b^{2}\left(c^{2}+a^{2}-b^{2}\right): c^{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}-c^{2}\right)\right)\)
incenter \(\quad I \quad(a: b: c)\)
Spieker point \(\quad S \quad(b+c: c+a: a+b)\)
symmedian point \(K\left(a^{2}: b^{2}: c^{2}\right)\)
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Note that the sum of the coordinates of $O$ is $16 \triangle^{2}=16 r^{2} s^{2} .{ }^{2}$ We shall also make use of the following basic result on circles, whose proof we omit.

Proposition 3. Let $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}$ be the powers of $A, B, C$ with respect to a circle $\mathcal{C}$. The power of a point with homogeneous barycentric coordinates $(x: y: z)$ with respect to the same circle is

$$
\frac{(x+y+z)\left(p_{1} x+p_{2} y+p_{3} z\right)-\left(a^{2} y z+b^{2} z x+c^{2} x y\right)}{(x+y+z)^{2}} .
$$

Hence, the equation of the circle is

$$
a^{2} y z+b^{2} z x+c^{2} x y=(x+y+z)\left(p_{1} x+p_{2} y+p_{3} z\right) .
$$

## 3. The Spieker radical circle

The fact that the radical center of the excircles is the Spieker point $S$ is well known. See, for example, [3]. We verify this fact by computing the power of $S$ with respect to the excircles. This computation also gives the radius of the radical circle.

Theorem 4. The radical circle of the excircles has center at the Spieker point $S=(b+c: c+a: a+b)$, and radius $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r^{2}+s^{2}}$.

[^1]Proof. We compute the power of $(b+c: c+a: a+b)$ with respect to the $A$ excircle. The powers of $A, B, C$ with respect to the $A$-excircle are clearly

$$
p_{1}=s^{2}, \quad p_{2}=(s-c)^{2}, \quad p_{3}=(s-b)^{2} .
$$

With $x=b+c, y=c+a, z=a+b$, we have $x+y+z=4 s$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (x+y+z)\left(p_{1} x+p_{2} y+p_{3} z\right)-\left(a^{2} y z+b^{2} z x+c^{2} x y\right) \\
= & 4 s\left(s^{2}(b+c)+(s-c)^{2}(c+a)+(s-b)^{2}(a+b)\right) \\
& -\left(a^{2}(c+a)(a+b)+b^{2}(a+b)(b+c)+c^{2}(b+c)(c+a)\right) \\
= & 2 s\left(2 a b c+(a+b+c)\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)\right)-2 s\left(a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}+a b c\right) \\
= & 2 s\left(a b c+a^{2}(b+c)+b^{2}(c+a)+c^{2}(a+b)\right) \\
= & 4 s^{2}\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

and the power of the Spieker point with respect to the $A$-excircle is $\frac{1}{4}\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right)$. This being symmetric in $a, b, c$, it is also the power of the same point with respect to the other two excircles. The Spieker point is therefore the radical center of the excircles, and the radius of the radical circle is $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r^{2}+s^{2}}$.

We call this circle the Spieker radical circle, and remark that the Spieker point is the inferior of the incenter, namely, the image of the incenter under the homothety $\mathrm{h}\left(G,-\frac{1}{2}\right)$ at the centroid $G$.

## 4. The Apollonius circle

To find the Apollonius circle it is more convenient to consider its superior, i.e., its homothetic image $\mathrm{h}(G,-2)$ in the centroid $G$ with ratio -2 . This homothety transforms the nine-point circle and the Spieker radical circle into the circumcircle $O(R)$ and the circle $I\left(\sqrt{r^{2}+s^{2}}\right)$ respectively.

Let $d$ be the distance between $O$ and $I$. By Euler's theorem, $d^{2}=R^{2}-2 R r$. On the line $O I$ we treat $I$ as the origin, and $O$ with coordinate $R$. The circumcircle intersects the line $I O$ at the points $d \pm R$. The inversive images of these points have coordinates $\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{d \pm R}$. The inversive image is therefore a circle with radius

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left|\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{d-R}-\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{d+R}\right|=\left|\frac{R\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right)}{d^{2}-R^{2}}\right|=\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{2 r} .
$$

The center is the point $Q^{\prime}$ with coordinate

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{d-R}+\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{d+R}\right)=\frac{d\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right)}{d^{2}-R^{2}}=-\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{2 R r} \cdot d .
$$

In other words,

$$
I Q^{\prime}: I O=-\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right): 2 R r
$$

Explicitly,

$$
Q^{\prime}=I-\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{2 R r}(O-I)=\frac{\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I-\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right) O}{2 R r} .
$$

From this calculation we make the following conclusions.
(1) The radius of the Apollonius circle is $\rho=\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{4 r}$.
(2) The Apollonius center, being the homothetic image of $Q^{\prime}$ under $\mathrm{h}\left(G,-\frac{1}{2}\right)$, is the point ${ }^{3}$

$$
Q=\frac{1}{2}\left(3 G-Q^{\prime}\right)=\frac{6 R r \cdot G+\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right) O-\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I}{4 R r}
$$

Various authors have noted that $Q$ lies on the Brocard axis $O K$, where the centers of Tucker circles lie. See, for example, [1, 9, 2, 7]. In [1], Aeppli states that if $d_{A}, d_{B}, d_{C}$ are the distances of the vertices $A, B, C$ to the line joining the center of the Apollonius circle with the circumcenter of $A B C$, then

$$
d_{A}: d_{B}: d_{C}=\frac{b^{2}-c^{2}}{a^{2}}: \frac{c^{2}-a^{2}}{b^{2}}: \frac{a^{2}-b^{2}}{c^{2}}
$$

It follows that the barycentric equation of the line is

$$
\frac{b^{2}-c^{2}}{a^{2}} x+\frac{c^{2}-a^{2}}{b^{2}} y+\frac{a^{2}-b^{2}}{c^{2}} z=0
$$

This is the well known barycentric equation of the Brocard axis. Thus, the Apollonius center lies on the Brocard axis. Here, we write $Q$ explicitly in terms of $O$ and $K$.

Proposition 5. $Q=\frac{1}{4 R r}\left(\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right) O-\frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right) K\right)$.
Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q & =\frac{1}{4 R r}\left(\left(r^{2}+s^{2}\right) O+6 R r \cdot G-\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{4 R r}\left(\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right) O+2 r^{2} \cdot O+6 R r \cdot G-\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{16 R r s^{2}}\left(4 s^{2}\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right) O+8 r^{2} s^{2} \cdot O+24 R r s^{2} \cdot G-4 s^{2}\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Consider the sum of the last three terms. By Lemma 2, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 8 r^{2} s^{2} \cdot O+24 R r s^{2} \cdot G-4 s^{2}\left(r^{2}+s^{2}+2 R r\right) I \\
= & 8 r^{2} s^{2} \cdot O+a b c \cdot 2 s \cdot 3 G-2 s(a+b)(b+c)(c+a) I \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}\left(b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}\right), b^{2}\left(c^{2}+a^{2}-b^{2}\right), c^{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}-c^{2}\right)\right) \\
& +(a+b+c) a b c(1,1,1)-(a+b)(b+c)(c+a)(a, b, c)
\end{aligned}
$$

[^2]Consider the first component.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}\left(b^{2}+c^{2}-a^{2}\right)+2 a b c(a+b+c)-2(a+b)(b+c)(c+a) a\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}\left(b^{2}+2 b c+c^{2}-a^{2}\right)+2 a b c(a+b+c)-2 a((a+b)(b+c)(c+a)+a b c)\right) \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}(a+b+c)(b+c-a)+2 a b c(a+b+c)-2 a(a+b+c)(a b+b c+c a)\right) \\
= & s\left(a^{2}(b+c-a)+2 a b c-2 a(a b+b c+c a)\right) \\
= & s\left(a^{2}(b+c-a)-2 a(a b+c a)\right) \\
= & a^{2} s(b+c-a-2(b+c)) \\
= & -a^{2} \cdot 2 s^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, the other two components are $-b^{2} \cdot 2 s^{2}$ and $-c^{2} \cdot 2 s^{2}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{align*}
Q & =\frac{1}{16 R r s^{2}}\left(4 s^{2}\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right) O-2 s^{2}\left(a^{2}, b^{2}, c^{2}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{4 R r}\left(\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right) O-\frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right) K\right) . \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

## 5. The Apollonius circle as a Tucker circle

It is well known that the centers of Tucker circles also lie on the Brocard axis. According to [8], a Tucker hexagon/circle has three principal parameters:

- the chordal angle $\phi \in\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$,
- the radius of the Tucker circle

$$
r_{\phi}=\left|\frac{R}{\cos \phi+\cot \omega \sin \phi}\right|,
$$

- the length of the equal antiparallels

$$
d_{\phi}=2 r_{\phi} \cdot \sin \phi .
$$

This length $d_{\phi}$ is negative for $\phi<0$. In this way, for a given $d_{\phi}$, there is one and only one Tucker hexagon with $d_{\phi}$ as the length of the antiparallel segments. In other words, a Tucker circle can be uniquely identified by $d_{\phi}$. The center of the Tucker circle is the isogonal conjugate of the Kiepert perspector $K\left(\frac{\pi}{2}-\phi\right)$. Explicitly, this is the point

$$
\frac{4 \triangle \cot \phi \cdot O+\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right) K}{4 \triangle \cot \phi+\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)} .
$$

Comparison with (1) shows that $4 \triangle \cot \phi=-2\left(s^{2}-r^{2}\right)$. Equivalently,

$$
\tan \phi=-\frac{2 r s}{s^{2}-r^{2}} .
$$

This means that $\phi=-2 \arctan \frac{r}{s}$. Clearly, since $s>r$,

$$
\cos \phi=\frac{s^{2}-r^{2}}{r^{2}+s^{2}}, \quad \sin \phi=-\frac{2 r s}{r^{2}+s^{2}}
$$

Now, the radius of the Tucker circle with chordal angle $\phi=-2 \arctan \frac{r}{s}$ is given by

$$
r_{\phi}=\left|\frac{R}{\cos \phi+\cot \omega \sin \phi}\right|=\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{4 r}
$$

This is exactly the radius of the Apollonius circle. We therefore conclude that the Apollonius circle is the Tucker circle with chordal angle $-2 \arctan \frac{r}{s}$. The common length of the antiparallels is

$$
d_{\phi}=2 r_{\phi} \cdot \sin \phi=2 \cdot \frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{4 r} \cdot \frac{-2 r s}{r^{2}+s^{2}}=-s
$$

This proves Theorem 1 and justifies the construction in Figure 3.

## 6. Concluding remarks

We record the coordinates of the vertices of the Tucker hexagon. ${ }^{4}$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
B_{c}=(-a s: 0: a s+b c), & C_{b}=(-a s: a s+b c: 0), \\
A_{b}=(0: c s+a b:-c s), & B_{a}=(c s+a b: 0:-c s), \\
C_{a}=(b s+c a:-b s: 0), & A_{c}=(0:-b s: b s+c a)
\end{array}
$$

From these, the power of $A$ with respect to the Apollonian circle is

$$
-\frac{c s}{a}\left(b+\frac{a s}{c}\right)=\frac{-s(b c+a s)}{a}
$$

Similarly, by computing the powers of $B$ and $C$, we obtain the equation of the Apollonius circle as

$$
a^{2} y z+b^{2} z x+c^{2} x y+s(x+y+z) \sum_{\text {cyclic }} \frac{b c+a s}{a} x=0
$$

Finally, with reference to Figure 1, Iwata and Fukagawa [5] have shown that triangles $F_{a}^{\prime} F_{b}^{\prime} F_{c}^{\prime}$ and $A B C$ are perspective at a point $P$ on the line $I Q$ with $I P$ : $P Q=-r: \rho .{ }^{5}$ They also remarked without proof that according to a Japanese wooden tablet dating from 1797,

$$
\rho=\frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{s^{4}}{r_{a} r_{b} r_{c}}+\frac{r_{a} r_{b} r_{c}}{s^{2}}\right)
$$

which is equivalent to $\rho=\frac{r^{2}+s^{2}}{4 r}$ established above.

[^3]
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    ${ }^{1}$ The tangency of this circle with each of the excircles is internal because the Spieker point, the center of inversion, is contained in nine-point circle.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ This is equivalent to the following version of Heron's formula:

    $$
    16 \triangle^{2}=2 a^{2} b^{2}+2 b^{2} c^{2}+2 c^{2} a^{2}-a^{4}-b^{4}-c^{4}
    $$

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ This point is $X_{970}$ of [7].

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ These coordinates are also given by Jean-Pierre Ehrmann [2].
    ${ }^{5}$ This perspector is the Apollonius point $X_{181}=\left(\frac{a^{2}(b+c)^{2}}{s-a}: \frac{b^{2}(c+a)^{2}}{s-b}: \frac{c^{2}(a+b)^{2}}{s-c}\right)$ in [7]. In fact, the coordinates of $F_{a}^{\prime}$ are $\left(-a^{2}\left(a(b+c)+\left(b^{2}+c^{2}\right)\right)^{2}: 4 b^{2}(c+a)^{2} s(s-c): 4 c^{2}(a+b)^{2} s(s-b)\right)$; similarly for $F_{b}^{\prime}$ and $F_{c}^{\prime}$.

