Engineering and Mechanics
Mathematics behind Metal Fabrication
Booklet VE3: Division, Angle, Shape, Formulae, and Optimisation

YuMi Deadly Maths
Past Project Resource
Acknowledgement

We acknowledge the traditional owners and custodians of the lands in which the mathematics ideas for this resource were developed, refined and presented in professional development sessions.

YuMi Deadly Centre

The YuMi Deadly Centre is a Research Centre within the Faculty of Education at Queensland University of Technology which aims to improve the mathematics learning, employment and life chances of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander and low socio-economic status students at early childhood, primary and secondary levels, in vocational education and training courses, and through a focus on community within schools and neighbourhoods. It grew out of a group that, at the time of this booklet, was called “Deadly Maths”.

“YuMi” is a Torres Strait Islander word meaning “you and me” but is used here with permission from the Torres Strait Islanders’ Regional Education Council to mean working together as a community for the betterment of education for all. “Deadly” is an Aboriginal word used widely across Australia to mean smart in terms of being the best one can be in learning and life.

YuMi Deadly Centre’s motif was developed by Blacklines to depict learning, empowerment, and growth within country/community. The three key elements are the individual (represented by the inner seed), the community (represented by the leaf), and the journey/pathway of learning (represented by the curved line which winds around and up through the leaf). As such, the motif illustrates the YuMi Deadly Centre’s vision: Growing community through education.

More information about the YuMi Deadly Centre can be found at http://ydc.qut.edu.au and staff can be contacted at ydc@qut.edu.au.

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Queensland University of Technology

DEADLY MATHS VET

Engineering and Mechanics

MATHEMATICS BEHIND METAL FABRICATION

BOOKLET VE3
DIVISION, ANGLE, SHAPE, FORMULAE, AND OPTIMISATION
08/05/09

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THIS BOOKLET

This booklet (Booklet VE3) was the third booklet produced as material to support Indigenous students completing certificates associated with engineering and work readiness at the TAFE campuses on Thursday Island (run by Tropical North Queensland TAFE) and Palm Island (Barrier Reef Institute of TAFE). It has been developed for teachers and students as part of the ASISTM Project, Enhancing Mathematics for Indigenous Vocational Education-Training Students. The project has been studying better ways to teach mathematics to Indigenous VET students at Tagai College (Thursday Island campus), Tropical North Queensland Institute of TAFE (Thursday Island Campus), Northern Peninsula Area College (Bamaga campus), Barrier Reef Institute of TAFE/Kirwan SHS (Palm Island campus), Shalom Christian College (Townsville), and Wadja Wadja High School (Woorabinda).

At the date of this publication, the Deadly Maths VET books produced are:

VB1: Mathematics behind whole-number place value and operations
   Booklet 1: Using bundling sticks, MAB and money

VB2: Mathematics behind whole-number numeration and operations
   Booklet 2: Using 99 boards, number lines, arrays, and multiplicative structure

VC1: Mathematics behind dome constructions using Earthbags
   Booklet 1: Circles, area, volume and domes

VC2: Mathematics behind dome constructions using Earthbags
   Booklet 2: Rate, ratio, speed and mixes

VC3: Mathematics behind construction in Horticulture
   Booklet 3: Angle, area, shape and optimisation

VE1: Mathematics behind small engine repair and maintenance
   Booklet 1: Number systems, metric and Imperial units, and formulae

VE2: Mathematics behind small engine repair and maintenance
   Booklet 2: Rate, ratio, time, fuel, gearing and compression

VE3: Mathematics behind metal fabrication
   Booklet 3: Division, angle, shape, formulae and optimisation

VM1: Mathematics behind handling small boats/ships
   Booklet 1: Angle, distance, direction and navigation

VM2: Mathematics behind handling small boats/ships
   Booklet 2: Rate, ratio, speed, fuel and tides

VM3: Mathematics behind modelling marine environments
   Booklet 3: Percentage, coverage and box models

VR1: Mathematics behind handling money
   Booklet 1: Whole-number and decimal numeration, operations and computation
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1. UPRIGHTS, CROSSPIECES AND DIVISION

Many constructions in steel have posts and rails, particularly for high storage. For example:

![Diagram of uprights and crosspieces]

The mathematics underlying this situation is, in the first instance, measurement, ensuring uprights and crosspieces are the same length and are placed in the correct positions. However, students had difficulty with a second problem of even placing; that is, placing the crosspieces and uprights equally spaced. This leads to two problems: (1) working out what the even spacing is; and (2) working out how many uprights or crosspieces are needed.

1.1 Mathematics for uprights, crosspieces and division

The mathematics for even placing is division +1. This is because the division is not done by the posts or rails but by the distance between them. And the number of distances = the number of posts/rails − 1. Let us look at two examples.

- Suppose the length is 10m and the distance between posts is 2m. Then the number of distances is 10m ÷ 2m = 5. Five distances means 6 posts as in the diagram below.

```
  10m
  2m 2m 2m 2m 2m
```

- Suppose the front rail is 16m and we have 5 posts, how far apart do we place them? Now 5 posts means 4 distances as in the diagram below.

```
  16m
  4m 4m 4m 4m
```

Thus, the length of each distance is 16m ÷ 4 = 4m.

1.2 Teaching uprights, crosspieces and division

We can teach the mathematics in Section 1.1 by acting out the building of posts and rails in a similar manner to the two examples above. However, we would advocate using a more guided discovery approach as in the following steps.

(1) Place posts evenly, when given posts

Use models or virtual materials to place posts evenly and work out the distance between posts. This can be done by trial and error, that is, by giving a distance and some posts and letting the students place by trial and error. For example:
Students will place the posts by trial and error and see that every 3m is what is possible for even placing.

(2) Place posts evenly, when given distance

Use models or virtual materials to place posts so they are an even distance apart and work out how many posts. For example:

Students will place the posts by placing them 5m apart and then getting the number of posts at the end.

(3) Develop the idea that the number of posts is 1 more than the number of distances

Do a few of the examples from Step (1) and (2). Record the posts and distances – use a table as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM</th>
<th>Number of posts</th>
<th>Number of distances/gaps</th>
<th>Length of gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) 12m rail, posts 3m apart. How many posts? How many distances/gaps?</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) 12m rail, posts 4m apart. How many posts? How many distances/gaps?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) 6m rail, 3 posts. How many distances/gaps between posts? How far apart?</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) 6m rail, 4 posts. How many distances/gaps between posts? How far apart?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Look at the pattern. Discuss the results and encourage the students to see that the number of gaps is 1 less than the number of posts. Draw an example. Discuss how you need posts on either end.

(4) Discover that number of gaps × length of gap = length of rail

Widen the recording of examples. For each example, make a drawing and record results on a table where the number of columns has been increased to include the length of the rail.
PROBLEM | Number of posts | Number of gaps | Length of gap | Length of rail |
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
1) 8m rail, 2m gap. and so on... | 5 | 4 | 2m | 8m |

Discuss the results and encourage students to see that the number of gaps × length of gap = length of rail – from both table and drawing.

(5) Show that number of posts = length of rail ÷ length of gap + 1 and that length of gap = length of rail ÷ (number of posts – 1)

This can be argued from combining steps (3) and (4) and also from an example. For example, length of rail = 14m, 8 posts, how far apart (length of gap)?

Take 1 from posts = 7. Then 14m ÷ 7 = 2m gap.

(6) Extend idea to other situations

(a) Close by: a rack is 10m wide. How far apart if there are 6 rails?

(b) A little problem solving: a rail is 10m, the posts start 1m in from each side, they are 2m apart (2m gap). How many posts?

(c) New vocations: the problem (how many posts/how far apart) is the same in fencing, sides of walls, roof trusses, etc.
2. CONSTRUCTION AND ANGLES

Many constructions in steel are not always vertical and horizontal. For example, a saw-horse as below:

In making this neatly, steel is used which is rectangular. To end in a flat surface for the floor or as a support for a top, the steel rectangular length has to be cut so that it is horizontal (and sometimes vertical). What angle is the cut?

2.1 Mathematics for construction and angles

If we have a rectangular length at an angle, there is a relationship with how it cuts the horizontal and the vertical (as follows):

This is a right-angle triangle (i.e., \( c = 90^\circ \))
and \( a + b + c = 180^\circ \)

Therefore \( a + b = 90^\circ \) and \( b = 90^\circ - a \)

When a rectangle cuts the horizontal and the vertical, there are more relationships (as follows):

All the angles \( a \) and \( b \) are the same in the diagram. This is due to angles being on lines.

The three angles add to \( 180^\circ \),
so \( b + 90 + \alpha = 180 \), so \( b + \alpha = 90 \),
so \( \alpha = a \)

Similarly for this diagram:

\( \beta + b + 90 = 180 \), so \( \beta + b = 90 \),
so \( \beta = a \)
Thus, when we have a rectangular length at angle $a$ to the vertical as below, the angle of the cut is $90 - a$ (or $b$) or angle to right angle is $a$.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(a)} & \quad \text{b} = 90 - a \\
\end{align*}
\]

### 2.2 Teaching construction and angles

Relationships like the above can be shown logically but are best learnt through experience – by guided discovery. So act out the cuts with models (could be cardboard or even light steel but smaller in size).

1. **Trial and error**
   
   Try to find the angle that appears to work. Construct something like this:

   ![Diagram](image)

   Cut the longer one until it looks flat:
(2) **Build up understandings**

(a) Introduce angle as amount of turn using hands and body:

(b) Use paper folding to introduce right angle

(c) Show angles of a triangle add to 180° (or straight line):
(d) Show two other angles of a right-angled triangle add to 90° or a right angle:

(e) Use triangles and lines to work out unknowns:

(f) Use this ability to explore angles:

(3) Validation
Get students to make things with rectangular lengths and check the angles work:
(4) **Extensions**

Expand to other things or ways of doing angles

(a) Two angles

(b) Vertical angle

(c) Angle as a ratio
3. CONSTRUCTION STRENGTH AND BALANCE

Many things are made out of metal because of its strength. But what makes shapes strong? And strength is not enough on its own, the result must balance so as not to fall over. One example of this is to make a support for fixing outboard motors.

3.1 Mathematics for construction strength and balance

(1) **Strength**

A construction is strong if its edges will not bend and the construction does not lose its shape. For example:

![Triangle Construction Diagram]

The method that brings strength is to build with triangles, for example:

![Triangular Construction Diagram]

A construction made of triangles can be stronger than all the pieces side by side:

![Strong Beam Diagram]

A “triangle” construction of thin weak wood can make a long strong beam, for example:

![Weak Beam Diagram]

Thus, the following makes constructions strong:

![Shape Diagrams]

(2) **Balance**

A construction is balanced if its weight is over its supports.

![Weight Diagrams]

The weight operates from a centre of gravity – the centre of the shape in terms of weight.
Interestingly, if the centre of gravity can be below the base of support then it stays in balance. For example:

![Diagram showing balance and unbalance]

### 3.2 Teaching construction strength and balance

1. **Trial and error**
   
   Construct simple constructions of steel joined at ends, for example:

   ![Shapes A, B, C]

   Manipulate the shapes, which is rigid? Experience how to make them rigid by the addition of extra pieces.

2. **Validation**

   Make shapes based on triangle(s), for example:

   ![Shapes A, B, C with point X]

   Notice how they are strong and rigid.

3. **Balance**

   Push down at point x. Do any of the constructions A, B or C unbalance? Which unbalances the easiest? What happens if a heavy outboard is attached at x? What would be the danger? Why? Which is the safest construction: A, B or C? Why?

4. **Experimentation**

   In point (2), all the triangles are the same size. Look at the three constructions below.

   ![Shapes P, Q, R]

   Which is the strongest? Why?

   Which is easier to tip over? Why?
Which is the safest in terms of tipping over? S or T? Why?

(5) Making it safe

In point (2), shape A and B could both over balance, with Shape B the most likely. Look at Shape A. Put an outboard on it.

What would have to happen for the construction to tip over?

What change could be made to the shape to make sure it would never tip over?
4. FABRICATION, NETS AND SOLID SHAPES

One of the common constructions in fabrication is to make containers, for example, tanks. The simplest way to make a strong tank is to cut out a shape that folds into the tank, thus reducing the welding. For example:

4.1 Mathematics for nets and solid shapes

(1) Definition

A net is a plane shape that can be folded to make a solid shape. For example:

(a) A simple way to make a net is to have sections that form the base of the solid and then other sections that go around filling in all the sides.

(b) In point (1) (c) above, the net could be more efficient as follows:
(3) **Mental rotation**

Place patterns on faces of a cube. Where would they be put on a net so when folded it is the same as the cube? To work this out, fold the shape in the mind and rotate in the mind beside the solid shape.

(4) **Euler’s formula**

Look at solid shapes. They have surfaces, edges and corners (vertices) as follows:

When you count all these three, it is always true that: \( \text{edges} + 2 = \text{surfaces} + \text{corners} \)

Thus, it is possible to make a solid shape for 4 surfaces, 5 corners and 7 edges but not for 4 surfaces, 5 corners and 6 edges.

### 4.2 Teaching nets and solid shapes

(1) **Deconstructing**

Take boxes and break them down into the plane shape they were folded from. Look at the relations between the plane shape and the solid shape. For example:

(2) **Constructions**

Find nets, cut them out and see what shapes they make when folded. The following are examples of nets:
(3) **Experimentation**

Get a set of “Polydrons” (a set of plane shapes that click together) or make the following shapes out of cardboard as a substitute for polydrons.

![Shapes](image)

Investigate possible shapes that can be made from these faces. For example, what shape can you make from 4 triangles; 8 triangles; 6 squares; 2 squares and 4 rectangles; and so on.

(4) **Euler’s formula**

When you construct a shape, put its dimensions in a table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shape</th>
<th>No. of Surfaces</th>
<th>No. of Edges</th>
<th>No. of Corners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Shape" /></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image" alt="Shape" /></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Look down the table. There is a formula that relates surfaces, edges and corners. It is called Euler’s formula. What is it?

How could we use the formula to help us work out what solid shapes can be made from surfaces?

(5) **Complex shapes**

Move onto identifying nets for more complex shapes. For example, what plane shape folds to give these solid shapes?

![Shapes](image)
(6) **Building shapes**

Identify a net for a shape, e.g.

Place patterns on all sides of the solid. Then determine where patterns have to go on the net so it folds into the same thing.

Note: Where would you put numbers 1 to 6 on a net for a cube to make a dice?
5. FORMULAE

Once the net for a container (e.g. a tank) has been determined, then the dimensions of the container are determined by using formulae, e.g.

What width ($W$) will make the volume $1.5 \, \text{m}^3$?

5.1 Mathematics for formulae

(1) **Area**

- Area of a rectangle is $L \times H$  
- Area of a triangle is $\frac{L \times H}{2}$  
- Area of a trapezium is $\frac{L_1 + L_2}{2} \times H$  
- Area of a circle is $\pi r^2$

(2) **Volume**

- Volume of a prism/cylinder is Area of base $\times H$  
- Volume of a pyramid/cone is $\frac{1}{3}$ Area of base $\times H$  
- Volume of a sphere is $\frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$

(3) **Litres and length**

One litre is $100 \, \text{mm} \times 100 \, \text{mm} \times 100 \, \text{m}$ or $0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.1 = 0.001 \, \text{m}^3$

(4) **Balance**

Formulae are equations; equations balance, that is LHS balances RHS

If something is done to one side to unbalance it, it can be rebalanced by doing the same to the other side. For example:
This can be represented with formulae, e.g.,

\[ A = L \times W \rightarrow A + K \neq L \times W \rightarrow A + K = L \times W + K \]

(5) **Changing the subject**

In \( A = L \times W \), \( A \) is the subject. What if we wanted to know, say, \( L \)? We have to make \( L \) the subject, that is, to be on its own on one side of the equation. How can we make \( L \) on its own?

\[ L \times W \rightarrow L \times W \div W \rightarrow L \]

However, \( \div W \) unbalances so it needs to be done on the other side as well.

\[ L \times W = A \rightarrow L \times W \div W = A \div W \rightarrow L = \frac{A}{W} \]

In other words, moving an operation means the opposite operation on the other side.

(6) **Complex volumes**

If a construction is made up of more than one shape then break it into parts and add, for example:

\[ \text{Volume} = L \times L \times H1 + \frac{1}{3} \times L \times L \times H2 \]

\[ = L^2 (H1 + \frac{1}{3} H2) \]

(7) **Changing subject in complex volume**

Consider a tank with this shape:

\[ V \ (\text{tank}) = L \times W \times H1 + \frac{L + \frac{1}{2}L}{2} \times W \times H2 \]

\[ = L \times W \times H1 + \frac{3}{4} L \times W \times H2 \]
What if $V$ has to equal 200 Litres, that is, $0.2 \ m^3$, and $L = 0.5 \ m$, $H1 = 0.575 \ m$, and $H2 = 0.30 \ m$. Then:

$$0.2 = 0.5 \times W \times \left(0.575 + \frac{3}{4} \times 0.3\right)$$

$$= 0.5 \times W \times (0.575 + 0.225) \text{ (using a calculator)}$$

$$= 0.5 \times W \times 0.8 \text{ (using a calculator)}$$

$$= 0.4 \times W$$

$$W = \frac{0.2}{0.4} = 0.5 \ m \text{ or } 500 \ mm \text{ (using a calculator)}$$

### 5.2 Teaching formulae

See Appendix for how to teach formulae.

### 5.3 Teaching changing subject in formula

(1) **Balance**

Introduce equations as balance, e.g.,

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{2+3} \\
\hline
\text{6−1} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
2 + 3 = 6 - 1
\]

Show order can be reversed, e.g.,

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{6−1} \\
\hline
\text{2+3} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
6 - 1 = 2 + 3
\]

Start with and relate equations to real world, e.g. $2 + 3 = 6 − 1$ is, for example, *2 boys joined another 3 to play soccer giving them the same number as their opponents where there were 6 boys but 1 had to leave.*

(2) **Balance rule**

Show that acting on one side unbalances the formula and that balance can be restored by doing the same to the other side, e.g.

Balance

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{3×4} \\
\hline
\text{24÷2} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
3 \times 4 = 24 \div 2
\]

Unbalance

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{3×4} \\
\hline
\text{(24÷2)+8} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
3 \times 4 \neq (24 \div 2) + 8
\]

Rebalance

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{(3×4)+8} \\
\hline
\text{(24÷2)+8} \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
(3 \times 4) + 8 = (24 \div 2) + 8
\]
Note: the brackets are unnecessary under BODMAS convention but have been put in to help understanding.

(3) Unknowns

Show that equations can still be represented by balance if they have an unknown.

There were 2 boxes of tiles and 3 loose tiles in one ute and a box of tiles and 13 loose tiles in the other ute. If both the utes had the same number of tiles, how many tiles in a box?

\[ 2x + 3 \quad x + 13 \]
\[ 2x + 3 = x + 13 \]

(4) Getting \( x \) alone

Use the balance rule to get \( x \) alone on one side.

Balance

\[ 2x + 3 \quad x + 13 \]
\[ 2x + 3 = x + 13 \]

Unbalance & rebalance

\[ 2x + 3 - 3 \quad x + 13 - 3 \]
\[ 2x = x + 10 \]

Unbalance & rebalance

\[ 2x - x \quad x + 10 - x \]
\[ x = 10 \]

So there are 10 tiles in a box.

(5) Applying to formula

Area of rectangle is \( A = L \times W \). What is \( L \)?

Balance

\[ A \quad L \times W \]
\[ A = L \times W \]

Unbalance & re balance to get \( L \)

\[ L \quad \frac{A}{W} \]
\[ \frac{A}{W} \]

so, \[ L = \frac{A}{W} \]
Volume of cylinder is $V = \pi r^2 H$, what is $H$?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>LHS</th>
<th>RHS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>$V$</td>
<td>$\pi R^2 H$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbalance and rebalance to get $H$</td>
<td>$V + \pi$</td>
<td>$\pi R^2 H + \pi$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$V/\pi$</td>
<td>$R^2 H$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbalance and rebalance to get $H$</td>
<td>$V/\pi R^2$</td>
<td>$R^2 H \div R^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final position</td>
<td>$H$</td>
<td>$V/\pi R^2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX:
PERIMETER, AREA, AND VOLUME FORMULAE

Small engines are described in terms of cubic centimetres of their cylinders, although length measurement is in terms of millimetres. We use the relationship 1000 mm³ = 1 cm³ which comes from the volume formula: \( V = l \times w \times h \) where \( l \) is the length, \( w \) is the width, and \( h \) is the height.

Consider the cube at right with side lengths of 1 cm, which is equivalent to 10 mm. Then, in both units, the volume is:

\[
\begin{align*}
V &= l \times w \times h \\
V &= 1 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm} \\
V &= 1 \text{ cm}^3
\end{align*}
\]

Hence, 1000 mm³ = 1 cm³.

Of course, cylinders are not rectangular prisms. The formula for the volume of a cylinder is \( \pi r^2 h \) where \( r \) is the radius of the circular base and \( h \) is the height of the cylinder. However, in order to understand this formula, a prior knowledge of formula in perimeter (circumference), area, and volume of rectangles and circles is required.

A.1 Perimeter

The perimeter of a shape is the total distance around it. In other words, the perimeter is the distance over which a fence or wall would need to be erected to fully enclose the shape. For most shapes, calculating the perimeter is easy, because the only operation involved is addition.

For example, have a look at the rectangle at right.

The total distance around the rectangle is simply the result of adding all of the sides together:

\[
9 \text{ m} + 4 \text{ m} + 9 \text{ m} + 4 \text{ m} = 26 \text{ m}.
\]

Remember that a rectangle will always have opposite sides that are of the same length. So, if given a rectangle with the lengths of only two sides marked, we automatically know the lengths of the opposite sides.

For example, have a look at the rectangle at right. We know what the lengths of the opposite sides are: the side length opposite the 450 cm must be 450 cm, and the side length opposite the 100 cm must be 100 cm.

So, we can add these lengths to the drawing so that we do not forget what they are.
Now, the total distance of this rectangle is simply:

\[450 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} + 450 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} = 1100 \text{ cm}.\]

Note that, because you can add numbers in whatever order you like, you can start adding from any side of the rectangle that you choose.

**Activity A.1a**

Find the perimeter of each of the following rectangles. Make sure that all of your answers include the correct units of length (e.g., m for metres, cm for centimetres).

1. \(370 \text{ cm} \quad 155 \text{ cm} \quad 370 \text{ cm} \quad 155 \text{ cm}\)

2. \(4.2 \text{ m} \quad 9.1 \text{ m}\)

3. \(2205 \text{ mm} \quad 30 \text{ mm}\)

4. \(1.2 \text{ km} \quad 475 \text{ m}\)

Remember that, in order to be able to add quantities together, they **must** be in the same units.
Because the lengths of opposite sides of a rectangle are always the same, we can find a quicker way to calculate the perimeter of rectangles.

Have another look at the rectangle at right.

Recall that the solution to finding the perimeter of this rectangle was:

\[450 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} + 450 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} = 1100 \text{ cm}.\]

If we rearrange the order in which we add the side lengths of the rectangle, we get:

\[450 \text{ cm} + 450 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm} = 1100 \text{ cm}.\]

Remember that we can add numbers in whatever order we like and we get the same answer.

Now, if we group our addition like this,

\[(450 \text{ cm} + 450 \text{ cm}) + (100 \text{ cm} + 100 \text{ cm}) = 900 \text{ cm} + 200 \text{ cm},\]

\[= 1100 \text{ cm}\]

then we can see that the result of adding each group is the same as doubling each length and then adding them together.

So, we have now found another way to calculate the perimeter, \(P\), of rectangles:

\[P = 2 \times a + 2 \times b\]

where \(a\) and \(b\) are the lengths of the rectangle.

Back to this rectangle again. If we use the formula, then we see that \(a = 450 \text{ cm}\) and \(b = 100 \text{ cm}\) (or \(a = 100 \text{ cm}\) and \(b = 450 \text{ cm}\), because the order of addition does not matter). So,

\[P = 2 \times a + 2 \times b\]

\[P = 2 \times 450 + 2 \times 100\]

\[P = 900 + 200\]

\[P = 1100 \text{ cm}.\]
Activity A.1b

Use the new perimeter formula to find the perimeter of each of the following rectangles. Remember to show all of your working, as in the example on the previous page.

(1)  
\[
\text{55 cm} \\
\text{33 cm}
\]

(2)  
\[
\text{2125 mm} \\
\text{175 mm}
\]

(3)  
\[
\text{41 m} \\
\text{72 m}
\]

(4)  
\[
\text{440 m}
\]
The perimeter of a circle has a special name, the **circumference**. The circumference of a circle is still the distance around the circle or the distance over which a fence would need to be erected to fully enclose the circle. The reason why a special name is used for a circle is because calculating the circumference of a circle requires a special formula. Let’s find this formula.

**Activity A.1c**

To find the formula for calculating the circumference of a circle, follow the procedure below:

1. Find a sheet of paper, three different-sized lids, a ruler, and a pen. Use a ruler to draw a straight line across a sheet of paper.

2. Label each lid **small**, **medium**, and **large**, according to their relative sizes.

3. Select one lid, and mark a line on it in one place on its side (as shown in the figure at right). Turn the lid on its side, and position the lid at one end of the line you drew on the paper so that the line you drew on the lid touches the paper. Roll the lid one time along the paper. Mark the position where it stopped on the paper.

4. Measure this distance, and call it $C$ (see figure below). Make sure you label the lid for which $C$ is calculated.

5. Repeat Steps 3–8 for each of the remaining lids.

6. Select one lid, and place it on its top or bottom.

7. Measure the distance directly across the centre of the lid from edge to edge (as shown in the figure at right), and call it $d$. Make sure you label the lid for which $d$ is calculated.

8. Repeat Steps (6)–(7) for each of the remaining lids.

9. Write the data you collected in Steps (4) and (7) the table below (remember to include the units of length that you are using) and then divide $C$ by $d$ for the third column:
What did you get in the third column for each of the lids?

You should have observed that the value for \( \frac{C}{d} \) is equal to 3-and-a-bit. This value represents the ratio of the circumference \( (C) \) of a circle to the diameter \( (d) \) of the circle. A better approximation of this ratio is known to be 3.14 and is more formally referred to as \( \pi \) and is symbolised using the Greek letter \( \pi \).

So, we have developed the formula \( \frac{C}{d} = \pi \). Rearranging the formula, we obtain \( C = \pi \times d \). Hence, the formula for calculating the circumference of a circle is \( C = \pi \times d \). That is, to find the circumference of a circle, we multiply the diameter of the circle by \( \pi \).

By the way, your calculator may have a \( \pi \) button. If so, then you can use this button to calculate the circumference of a circle. If not, then you can just use 3.14 in place of \( \pi \).

Have a look at the circle at right.

The diameter \( (d) \) is 22 cm. To find the circumference of the circle, we use the formula:

\[
C = \pi \times d
\]

\[
C = \pi \times 22 \text{ cm}
\]

\[
C = 69.1 \text{ cm}
\]

So, the circumference of the circle is 69.1 cm.

**Activity A.1d**

Find the circumference of each of the following circles:

1. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{6.3 m} \\
\text{centre}
\end{array}
\]

2. \[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{740 mm} \\
\text{centre}
\end{array}
\]
The radius ($r$) of a circle is the distance from the centre of the circle to any point on the edge of the circle. Because the diameter is the distance across the circle, the radius is equal to half the diameter. That is, $r = d \div 2$ which implies that $d = 2 \times r$. If we substitute $2 \times r$ for $d$ in the formula for finding the circumference of a circle, we obtain $C = \pi \times (2 \times r)$. Because we can multiply numbers in any order we like, let us write the formula this way $C = 2 \times \pi \times r$.

Have a look at the circle at right.

The radius is 8 m. To find the circumference of the circle, we use the formula

$C = 2 \times \pi \times r$

$C = 2 \times \pi \times 8$ m

$C = 50.3$ m

So, the circumference of the circle is 50.3 m.

Activity A.1e

Find the circumference of each of the following circles:

(1) 

(2) 

A.2 Area

The area of a two-dimensional shape is a measure of the size of the surface contained inside the shape. For the shape at right, the area is the blue shaded part.

Finding the area of a shape depends on the shape itself. Different shapes have different formulae for finding the area.

Have a look at the rectangle on the grid at right.

The area is the shaded purple region. The shaded purple region contains a total of 36 squares. Therefore, the area of the shaded purple region is equal to 36 squares.
Note that the rectangle is 4 squares wide and 9 squares long. Is there an operation that can be used to get 36 from 4 and 9?

**Activity A.2a**

1. Find the area of each of the following rectangles by counting the number of squares inside it.

![Rectangle Diagram]

2. Complete the table below with the length \(a\), width \(b\), and area \(A\) of each of the rectangles in Question 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rectangle</th>
<th>Length ((a))</th>
<th>Width ((b))</th>
<th>Area ((A))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. What is the relationship among length \((a)\), width \((b)\), and Area \((A)\) for each rectangle?

From the previous activity, you should have realised that, instead of counting the squares inside a rectangle, we can find the rectangle’s area \((A)\) by multiplying its length \((a)\) by its width \((b)\). Hence,

\[
A = a \times b.
\]

Have a look at the rectangle at right. We can see that \(a = 100\) cm and \(b = 450\) cm (or \(a = 450\) cm and \(b = 100\) cm, because the order of multiplication does not matter). So,

\[
A = a \times b
\]

\[
A = 100\ \text{cm} \times 450\ \text{cm}
\]

\[
A = 45 000\ \text{cm}^2.
\]
That means that the area of the rectangle is 45 000 cm². But, what does the $^2$ mean in cm²? It means “squared.” That is, cm² stands for “centimetres squared” or “square centimetres”. Because area is a measure of the dimensions of two sides, its units must be squared. So, when finding the area of a shape, remember to put in the squared symbol $^2$ (e.g. mm², cm², m², km²).

**Activity A.2b**

Find the area of each of the following rectangles by using the formula $A = a \times b$. Remember that your answer will be in square units (e.g. mm², cm², m², km²).

(1) 

(2) 

(3) 

(4) 

(5) 

(6) 

Now, we will investigate how to find the area of a circle.
Activity A.2c

(1) Find a piece of paper, a large lid (at least 12 cm in diameter), a ruler, and scissors.

(2) Measure the diameter of the lid, and calculate the radius.

(3) Place the lid firmly on the piece of the paper, and draw a circle around it.

(4) Draw lines across the circle to form 16 sectors that are approximately equal in area, as shown in the figure at right.

(5) Cut out the 16 sectors, as shown at right.

(6) Arrange the sectors in the configuration shown below.

(7) Note that this configuration looks very much like a rectangle.

(8) Measure the height and width of the rectangle. Calculate the area of the rectangle.

(9) You should have recognised that the height of the rectangle is the same as the radius of the lid.

(10) Divide the width of the rectangle by the radius. Did you get an answer that is close to \( \pi \)? Remember that \( \pi \) is approximately equal to 3.14.

Since the height \( (h) \) of the rectangle is equal to the radius \( (r) \) of the circle and the width \( (w) \) of the rectangle is (approximately) equal to the radius \( (r) \) of the circle times \( \pi \) (see figures below), we can develop the formula for finding the area of a circle.

\[
h = r \\
w = r \times \pi
\]
To calculate the area of the rectangle, you would have used $A = h \times w$. Since $h = r$ and $w = r \times \pi$, we can substitute

$$A = h \times w$$
$$A = r \times r \times \pi$$
$$A = r^2 \times \pi.$$

Remember that $r^2 = r \times r$.

So, we have developed the formula for finding the area of circle, $A = r^2 \times \pi$ where $r$ is the radius of the circle. Given the circle's radius, all we have to do is multiply the radius by itself and then multiply the result by $\pi$.

Have a look at the circle at right. We can see that $r = 24$ cm. So, to calculate the area of the circle, we have

$$A = r^2 \times \pi$$
$$A = (24 \text{ cm})^2 \times \pi = 24 \text{ cm} \times 24 \text{ cm} \times \pi$$
$$A = 1809.6 \text{ cm}^2$$

That is, the area of the circle is approximately equal to 1809.6 cm$^2$.

Remember that, if given the diameter of a circle instead, you must divide it by 2 to find the radius before using the formula for calculating the area of a circle.

Activity A.2d

Find the area of each of the following circles.

1. (1)
   - $400$ m

2. (2)
   - $6.4$ cm

3. (3)
   - $0.8$ km

4. (4)
   - $37$ mm
Activity A.2e

Find the area of the shaded region in each of the following figures.

(1) 

![Figure 1](image1.png)

(2) 

![Figure 2](image2.png)

A.3 Volume

A rectangular prism is the formal name for a rectangular box. A rectangular prism looks like the figure at right when shown in two dimensions. The volume of the rectangular prism is the amount of space enclosed inside it.

Have a look at the block at right. Note that the face of the block is 6 units wide and 4 units long. Therefore, the area of the face of the block is 6 units \( \times \) 4 units = 24 square units. Note that the block is 1 unit height. Therefore, the volume of the block is 24 cubic units. That is, a measure of the amount of space inside the block is 24 cubic units.

If we put another block of the same dimensions against the first one, as shown at right, then you will see that the prism now has a height of 2 units. The volume, therefore, is twice that of the first block. So, the volume of this prism is 48 cubic units.

If we add a third block to the prism from before, then the prism will now be 3 units high (see the figure below right). Therefore, the volume of the prism will be 24 \( \times \) 3 = 72 cubic units.

Hence, the volume \((V)\) of a rectangular prism is equal to the area \((A)\) of the face of the prism times the height \((c)\) of the prism. Since the area \((A)\) of the face is simply length \((a)\) times width \((b)\), we have the formula for calculating the volume of a rectangular prism: \(V = a \times b \times c\). Because we are multiplying three quantities together, it makes
sense that units of volume must be cubic (e.g. mm³, cm³, m³, km³).

Have a look at the rectangular prism at right.

We see that the \( a = 186 \text{ mm} \), \( b = 188 \text{ mm} \), and \( c = 36 \text{ mm} \). (Remember that, because we can multiply numbers in any order and get the same result, we can assign \( a \), \( b \), and \( c \) to any of the quantities and obtain the same result.) The volume of the rectangular prism is

\[
V = a \times b \times c
\]

\[
V = 186 \text{ mm} \times 188 \text{ mm} \times 36 \text{ mm}
\]

\[
V = 1\,258\,848 \text{ mm}^3.
\]

So, the volume of the rectangular prism is 1 258 848 mm³, which is the measure of how much space is enclosed inside the rectangular prism.

**Activity A.3a**

Find the volume of each of the following rectangular prisms.

1. \( a = 17 \text{ mm} \), \( b = 135 \text{ mm} \), \( c = 205 \text{ mm} \)
2. \( a = 18 \text{ cm} \), \( b = 23 \text{ cm} \), \( c = 26 \text{ cm} \)
3. \( a = 0.4 \text{ m} \), \( b = 0.6 \text{ m} \), \( c = 1.1 \text{ m} \)
4. \( a = 17 \text{ mm} \), \( b = 20 \text{ cm} \), \( c = 90 \text{ cm} \)
A cylinder is just like a prism, except that the shape on the base is a circle, as shown in the figure at right.

You should have recognised that finding the volume of a cylinder is the same as finding the volume of a prism. First, you find the area of the face. Then, you multiply the area by the length of the cylinder.

Since we have already learned that the area of a circle is \( A = r^2 \times \pi \) where \( r \) is the radius of the circle, we can derive the formula for finding the volume of a cylinder:

\[
V = A \times c = r^2 \times \pi \times c.
\]

Have a look at the cylinder at right. We can see that the radius \( r \) is 1.5 m and the length \( c \) is 6.2 m. The volume of the cylinder is

\[
V = (1.5 \text{ m})^2 \times \pi \times 6.2 \text{ m} = 1.5 \text{ m} \times 1.5 \text{ m} \times \pi \times 6.2 \text{ m} = 43.8 \text{ m}^3.
\]

So, the volume of the cylinder is 43.8 m\(^3\).

Activity A.3b

Find the volume of each of the following cylinders.

1. \( r = 50 \text{ mm}, c = 40 \text{ mm} \)
2. \( r = 1905 \text{ mm}, c = 2330 \text{ mm} \)
3. \( r = 260 \text{ cm}, c = 80 \text{ cm} \)
4. \( r = 2.5 \text{ m}, c = 4.2 \text{ m} \)
As we learned before, volume is the amount of space inside a prism or cylinder. Volume can also be viewed as the maximum amount of solid material that can be used to fill up the prism or cylinder. On the other hand, when we are interested in finding the amount of liquid that can fill up a prism or cylinder, we need to find the capacity of the prism or cylinder. **Capacity** is the volume of liquid.

Finding the capacity of a prism or cylinder is just like finding the volume. However, once we have the volume, we must convert it to capacity, which is usually measured in litres (L). The conversion is 1 m³ = 1000 L.

Have another look at the cylinder at right from before.

We already know that the volume of this cylinder is 43.8 m³. If we need to calculate the capacity \( C \) of this cylinder, then all we have to do is multiply the volume \( V \) by 1000 L:

\[
C = V \times 1000
\]

\[
C = 43.8 \text{ m}^3 \times 1000
\]

\[
C = 43 800 \text{ L}.
\]

So, the capacity of the cylinder is 43 800 L. That is, a maximum of 43 800 L of liquid can fill up the cylinder.

The conversion factor of 1000 works only when you have the volume in m³. If you have the volume in units other than m³, then the conversion factor to capacity is different. The table below shows the conversion factors for different units of volume:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Conversion Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 km³</td>
<td>1 000 000 000 000 L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 m³</td>
<td>1000 L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cm³</td>
<td>0.001 L = 1 mL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 mm³</td>
<td>0.000 001 L = 0.001 mL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We always want to make sure that we use the correct conversion factor given the units of volume that we have.

Have another look at the rectangular prism at right from before.

We already know that its volume is 1 258 848 mm³. If we need to calculate the capacity \( C \) of the rectangular prism, then all we need to do is multiply the volume \( V \) by 0.000 001:

\[
C = V \times 0.000 001
\]
\[ C = 1\,258\,848\,\text{mm}^3 \times 0.000\,001 \]

\[ C = 1.26\,\text{L}. \]

Alternatively, we could have multiplied the volume \((V)\) by 0.001 in order to obtain the capacity in mL. In this case,

\[ C = V \times 0.001 \]

\[ C = 1\,258\,848\,\text{mm}^3 \times 0.001 \]

\[ C = 1258.8\,\text{mL}. \]

So, the capacity of the rectangular prism is 1.26 L or 1258.8 mL.

**Activity A.3c**

Find the capacity of each of the prisms and cylinders (in either mL or L) from Activities A.3a and A.3b.