Monthly Seminar - Session 1

Fall Semester, 2022-2023

- Be open minded.
- Ask anything.
- Enjoy.

Outline

A simple geometry problem

Digits of a number

3 Principles in Combinatorial Geometry

A simple geometry problem

What to discuss?

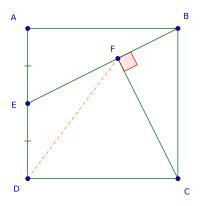
- Congruent triangles.
- Right triangles. Midpoint of the hypotenuse.
- Median segments in a triangle.
- Isosceles triangles.
- Angles, arcs, and chords in a circle.
- Triangle trigonometry. Law of cosines.
- Cyclic quadrilateral. Ptolemy theorem.

An elementary geometry problem

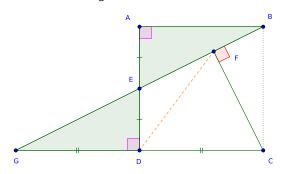
In how many ways can you solve it?

Example

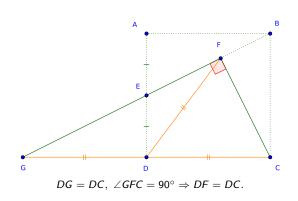
In the square ABCD, E is the midpoint of side AD, F is the foot of the altitude from C to BE. Prove that DF = DA.



Extending FE to intersect CD at G.



By angle-side-angle (ASA) $\triangle EAB \cong \triangle EDG \Rightarrow DG = AB = DC$.

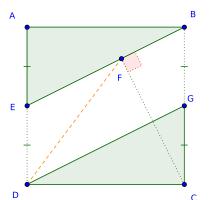


Theorem

The midpoint of the hypotenuse of a right triangle is at equidistance from all vertices.

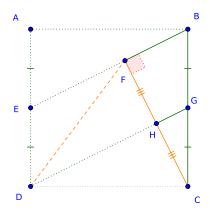
G is midpoint of BC.



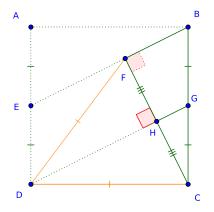


By side-side (SSS) $\triangle EAB \cong \triangle GCD$, so $\angle ABE = \angle CDG \Rightarrow EB \parallel DG$.

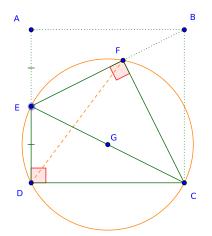
DG intersects FC at H.



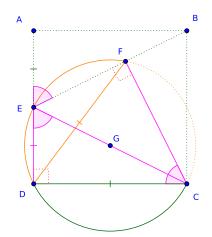
In $\triangle FBC$, $GH \parallel BF$, G is midpoint of BC, so H is midpoint of FC.



In $\triangle DFC$, $DH \perp FC$, H is midpoint of FC, thus by side-angle-side (SAS) $\triangle DHF \cong \triangle DHC$, hence DF = DC.

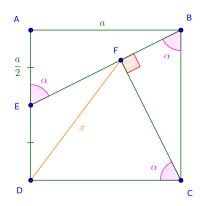


Both $\triangle EDC$ and $\triangle EFC$ are right at D and F. C, D, E, and F are on the circle centred at G.



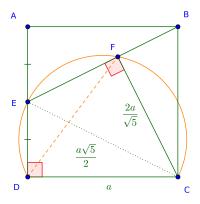
 $\angle DEC = \angle AEB = 180^{\circ} - \angle DEF = \angle DCF.$ $\angle DEC = \angle DFC$ (subtends arc DC). $\angle DCF = \angle DFC$, $\triangle DCF$ is isosceles, DC = DF.

Let
$$\alpha = \angle DCF = \angle FBC = \angle AEB$$
. $EB = \sqrt{AB^2 + AE^2} = \frac{a\sqrt{5}}{2}$. $\cos \alpha = \frac{AE}{EB} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{FC}{BC} = \sin \alpha = \frac{AB}{EB} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$, so $FC = BC \sin \alpha = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}}$.



$$DF = \sqrt{DC^2 + FC^2 - 2(DC)(FC)\cos\alpha} = \sqrt{a^2 + \left(\frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}}\right)^2 - 2a\frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}} = a.$$

Let
$$DC = a \Rightarrow EB = EC = \frac{a\sqrt{5}}{2}$$
. $\frac{FC}{BC} = \frac{AB}{EB} \Rightarrow FC = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}}$. $\frac{FB}{BC} = \frac{AE}{EB} \Rightarrow FB = \frac{a}{\sqrt{5}}$.



By Ptolemy theorem for the cyclic quadrilateral *CDEF*, $DF \cdot EC = ED \cdot FC + EF \cdot DC = \frac{a}{2} \cdot \frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}} + \left(\frac{a\sqrt{5}}{2} - \frac{a}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \cdot a = \frac{a^2\sqrt{5}}{2} \Rightarrow DF = a.$

Digits of a number

What to discuss?

- Divisibility rules.
- Sum of the digits.
- Divisibility rules for perfect squares, cubes, and powers
- Variables and Diophantine equations.
- Algebaric identities.
- Modular arithmetic.

Divisibility rules

Divisibility by 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, and 9

Example

What is the greatest multiple of 8 whose digits are all different?

The divisibility rule for 8 states that the last three digits of a multiple of 8 must be divisible by 8. To create the largest 8-digit number, the last three digits must be 0,1, and 2. Thus, the largest 3-digit multiple of 8 with those digits is 120. Thus the desired number is $\boxed{9876543120}$.

Example

What is the least multiple of 36 that contains only digits 4 and 5.

Divisibility rule for 9 state that the sum of digits of the number must be $9, 18, \ldots$ Because 45 or 54 are not divisible by 4, so 9 = 4 + 5 is not a possible sum. For 18, the 2-digit multiple of 4 can be made from two pairs of 4 and 5 is 44. Thus the number is $\boxed{5544}$.

Example

Find a 7-digit number containing only digits 2 or digits 3 such that there are more of digits 2 than of digits 3 and the number is divisible by both 3 and 4.

By divisibility rule for 4, its last two digits must be 32. The sum of 5 remaining digits must have a remainder 1. Since there must be at least 3 digits of 2, hence all 5 remaining digits must be 2. The number is 2222232.

Remainders of a perfect powers

Perfect squares, cubes, and powers

Example

Is there a 5-digit perfect square whose sum of digits is 29?

A perfect square is divisible by 3 or has a remainder of 1 when divided by 3 (why?). Since the remainder of a number when divided by 3 is the same as the remainder of its sum of digits when divided by 3, and 29 has a remainder of 2 when divided by 3 so there is no such number.

Example

Find the perfect cube n such that all digits of n are 9 except the unit digit, which is 5.

There is no such perfect cube since a perfect cube has a remainder 0,1, or 8 when divided by 9.

Example

Find n > 3 such that the (n+1)-digit binary number $\overline{10 \dots 01_2}$ is a perfect power of 3.

Let $\overline{10...01_2} = 2^n + 1 = 3^m$.

If m is odd, then $2^n = 3^m - 1 = (3-1)(3^{m-1} + \ldots + 1)$, where $3^{m-1} + \ldots + 1$ is a sum of odd number of odd terms. Contradiction.

If m is even, then let m=2k, thus since 3^k is odd, $3^k=2a+1$, so $3^{2k}=(2a+1)^2$, therefore $2^n=3^{2k}-1=4a(a+1)$. This means a or a+1 odd. So a=1, $2^n=8\Rightarrow n=3$. Contradiction.

Example

Digits **a**, **b**, and **c** are used to form 3-digit numbers abc, bca, and \overline{cab} . The sum of these numbers is 1332, find a+b+c.

 $\overline{abc} = 100a + 10b + c$, similarly with others. Their sum is 111(a+b+c) = 1332, a+b+c = 12.

Example

Find all 4-digit number **n** whose sum of digits is 2010 - n.

Let $n = \overline{abcd}$. Then 1001a + 101b + 11c + 2d = 2010. If a = 1, then b = 9, so 11c + 2d = 100, so c = 8, d = 2. If a = 2, then b = c = 0, d = 4. The solutions are $\boxed{1982, 2004}$.

Example

Find a potitive integer **a** such that $(1+2+\ldots+a)-1000a$ is a 3-digit number.

Let the $3-digit\ k=(1+2+\ldots+a)-1000a$. Then $k=\frac{a(a+1)}{2}-1000a=a\left(\frac{a+1}{2}-1000\right)$. If a<1999, then k<0. If $a\geq 2000$, then $k\geq 2000\cdot \frac{1}{2}=1000$. Thus $a=\boxed{1999}$.

Example

What is the last digit of $\left(...\left((7)^7\right)^7...\right)^7$? There are 1001 digits 7.

By testing $7 \equiv 7 \pmod{10}, 7^7 = (7)(7^2)^3 \equiv -7 \pmod{10}, (7^7)^7 \equiv (-7)^7 \equiv 7 \pmod{10}, \dots$ By Induction Principle, it can be proved that the last digit of the generic expression is 7 if it has an odd amount of 7, otherwise it is 3. The given one has an odd number of 7, so its last digit is $\boxed{7}$.

Example

In how many zeros can the number $1^n + 2^n + 3^n + 4^n$ end for **n** positive integer?

For n = 1, and 2, the sum ends in one and two zeros. Now, for all $n \ge 3$, 2^n , 4^n are divisible by 8, and $1^n + 3^n$ congruent to 2 or 4 modulo 8. Thus, the sum cannot end in three or more zeros.

Example

Find the last five digit of 5¹⁹⁸¹.

Let $n = 5^{1981} - 5^5 = 5^5(5^{1976} - 1)$, since $1976 = 8 \cdot 247$, so $5^8 - 1$ is a divisor of $5^{1976} - 1$. $5^8 - 1 = (5 - 1)(5 + 1)(5^2 + 1)(5^4 + 1)$ is divisible by 32, so n is divisible by $5^5 \cdot 2^5 = 100000$.

Note $5^5=3125$. Therefore $5^{1981}=100000\cdot a+3125$. The last five digits are 03125.

Principles in Combinatorial Geometry

What to discuss?

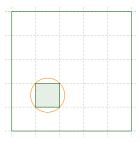
- The Piegeonhole Principle.
- The Extremal Principle.

Existential proof by contradiction

Example

There are 101 points in a unit square. Prove that five of them can be covered by a circle radius $\frac{1}{7}$.

Lets divide the unit square into $5\times 5=25$ squares as shown below.



According to the Piegonhole Principle, there exists a square where at least $\lceil \frac{101}{25} \rceil = 5$ points reside. The circle centered at the center of the square radius $\frac{1}{7}$ cover the whole square since,

half of the diagonal of the square, $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5} < \boxed{\frac{1}{7}}$.

Greedy algorithm

Example

For $n \ge 1$, on a $2n \times 2n$ board, 3n squares are marked. Prove that n rows and n columns can be selected so that they contain all marked squares.

In the example below, where n=4, in a 8×8 board we can choose rows 2,5,7 and 8; then columns d,f,g and h to cover all marked squares.

	а	b	С	d	e	f	~	h
	a	D D		_ u			g	- ''
8	×							
7		X						Х
6							Х	
6 5 4			Х		Х			
						х		
3				Х				
3 2 1			х	Х		Х		
1								×

Greedy algorithm

	а	b	С	d	е	f	g	h
8	Х							
7		Х						Х
6							Х	
5			х		Х			
4						Х		
3				Х				
2			х	Х		Х		
1								х

- Lets choose *n* rows such that **each of them cover as many squares as possible.** We prove that these rows cover at least 2*n* marked squares. *In the example we choose rows* 2, 5, 7, *and* 8. *They covered* 8 *marked squares*.
- Assume that the number of marked squares covered by these square is less than 2n, then there are more than 3n 2n = n squares not covered by them, therefore the non-selected n rows cover at least n + 1 squares.
- According to the Piegonhole Principle, there is one non-selected row that contains at least
 two marked squares. But by choice as above, each of the selected rows should have at
 least as many markered squares as a non-selected rows, thus the selected ones should cover
 at least 2n squares.
- Then the number of marked squares covered by all square is at least 2n + (n+1) = 3n + 1. This exceeds the number of marked squares, which is 3n, thus it is impossible.

Greedy algorithm

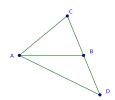
	а	b	С	d	е	f	g	h
8 7	Х							
7		Х						Х
6							Х	
5			х		Х			
4						Х		
3				Х				
6 4 3 2			Х	Х		Х		
1								Х

- Hence, at least 2n marked squares are covered by n selected rows. For at most n remaining uncovered squares, it is easy to choose n columns.
- A greedy algorithm is any algorithm that follows the problem-solving heuristic of making the
 locally optimal choice at each stage. A greedy strategy might not produce an optimal
 solution, but a greedy heuristic can yield locally optimal solutions that is close to a globally
 optimal solution in a reasonable amount of time.
- For example, the travelling salesman problem "Given a list of cities and the distances between each pair of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city exactly once and returns to the origin city?" is of high computational complexity.
- A solution uses the greedy algorithm with the following heuristic "At each step of the journey, visit the nearest unvisited city." This heuristic does not intend to find the best solution, but it terminates in a reasonable number of steps.

Example

 Ω is a set of points on the plane. Every point in Ω is a midpoint of two points in Ω . Show that Ω is infinite set.

- Suppose that Ω is a finite set. According to the Extremal Principle, there exists two points $A, B \in \Omega$, such that the distance AB is maximal.
- Now, since $B \in \Omega$, there exist two points $C, D \in \Omega$ so that B is the midpoint of CD.



• Since one of the angles $\angle ABC$, $\angle ABD$, says $\angle ABD$ is at least 90° , thus in $\triangle ABD$, AD > AB. This contradicts the assumption that A, B are the two points in Ω , such that the distance AB is maximal.

Thus, there are no such two points A, B, so Ω is infinite set.

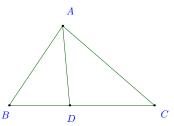
The Extremal Principle

All elements have same property

Example

There are n ($n \ge 4$) red and blue points on a plane with the following interesting property: every line segment that joins two points of the same colour contains a point of another colour. Prove that all the points lie on a single straight line.

If the points were not a single straight line, different triangles can be formed with the points as vertices. By the Extremal Principle, let $\triangle ABC$ be the triangle with smallest area.



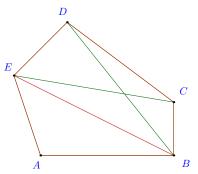
At least two of the vertices of this triangle have the same colour, let them be B,C. Between them there exists a point D of different colour, see above. Both $\triangle ABD$, $\triangle BCD$ have smaller area than $\triangle ABC$. This is contradiction!

Therefore, Hence, all the points must lie on a single straight line.

Example

For a convex pentagon, three diagonals can be chosen to form a triangle.

By the Extremal Principle, let BE be the longest diagonal of the pentagon, F be the intersection of BD and CE.



$$BD + CE = (BF + FD) + (CF + FE) = (BF + FE) + (CF + FD) > BE + CD > BE$$
.
Since BE is the largest among BD , CE , BE , these three diagonals form a triangle.

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There is no homework for this session. If you have enjoy the discussion, come next time.

There is no need for preparation of anything for the next session.