## Romanian Master in Mathematics First Edition, 2008, Bucharest - SOLUTIONS

**Problem 1.** Let ABC be an equilateral triangle. P is a variable point internal to the triangle and its perpendicular distances to the sides are denoted by  $a^2$ ,  $b^2$  and  $c^2$  for positive real numbers a, b and c. Find the locus of points P so that a, b and c can be the sides of a non-degenerate triangle.

[U.K.]

**Solution.** The required locus is the interior of the inscribed circle of triangle ABC.

To prove this, embed the equilateral triangle in the Cartezian space Oxyz, as the set in the plane x + y + z = 1 described by  $x, y, z \ge 1$ . Let the feet of the perpendiculars from P to BC and CA be D and E respectively, and let the feet of the perpendiculars from P to the planes OBC and OCAbe Q and R respectively. Then triangles PQD and PRE are similar, so PQ: PR = PD: PE; i.e.  $x: y = a^2: b^2$ , where (x, y, z) are coordinates of P. In the same way we get  $y: z = b^2: c^2$ , so we have  $(a^2: b^2: c^2) = (x: y: z)$ .

Now if a, b and c are the sides of a triangle, the Heron's formula states that the square of the area of that triangle is

$$\frac{1}{16}(a+b+c)(-a+b+c)(a-b+c)(a+b-c).$$

So this quantity is positive. The reverse is also true.

Multiplying the expression out, this means that a, b and c are the sides of a triangle if and only if

$$2\sum b^2 c^2 - \sum a^4 > 0.$$

Since  $a^2, b^2, c^2$  are proportional to x, y, z, it follows that a, b and c are the sides of a triangle if and only if

$$2(x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2}) < (x + y + z)^{2} = 1.$$

So the required locus of points is the intersection of the solid sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 < 1/2$  with the plane x + y + z = 1; that is the interior of the inscribed circle of the equilateral triangle.

**Remark.** Using  $a^2, b^2, c^2$  as baricentric coordinates for P, in an equilateral triangle of circumradius 1, one can calculate the distance from P to the incenter I, reducing thus the problem to an algebraic one. In fact one can see the similarity to the above solution.

**Problem 2.** Prove that any bijective function  $f : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  can be written as f = u + v where  $u, v : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$  are bijective functions.

## [Romania]

**Solution.** To find u, v such that f = u + v it is enough to consider the case f = identity on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . For that it suffices to write the above relation as  $id_{\mathbb{Z}} = u \circ f^{-1} + v \circ f^{-1}$ . Consider the following well-ordering of the nonzero integers:  $\mathbb{Z}^* = \{1, -1, 2, -2, \dots, n, -n, \dots\}$ .

Build the following table

$\operatorname{Step}$	A	#	B
1	1	+1	2
2	-1	-2	-3
3	-2	-3	-5
4	3	+4	7
:	÷	:	:
k	$a_k$	$\operatorname{sign}(a_k) \cdot k$	$b_k = a_k + \#(k)$
÷	÷	:	÷

The inductive rule in completing the table is as follows: at step 1 write 1, the first in the ordering of  $\mathbb{Z}^*$ , in column A, in column # put the number of the step, that is 1, with the sign from A, and in column B the sum from A and #. Suppose now that row of step i has been completed. Write on row i+1 in column A the first integer in the ordering of  $\mathbb{Z}^*$  that has not yet been used in A nor B, in column # the number i+1 with the sign given by that of the number just written in A, and in B the sum of A and #.

It is easy to see that in this manner we get an infinite array where  $A \cup B = \mathbb{Z}^*$  and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , while elements in A and B do not repeat.

Define now u(0) = v(0) = 0 and for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

• for  $x = a_i \in A$  (meaning that x is in column A and row i), take  $u(x) = -\#(i), v(x) = b_i$ ;

• for  $x = b_j \in B$ , take  $u(x) = \#(j), v(x) = a_j$ .

Obviously u and v are both bijections from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $id_{\mathbb{Z}} = u + v$ .

**Problem 3.** Given positive integer a > 1, prove that any positive integer N has a multiple in the sequence

$$(a_n)_{n\geq 1}, \quad a_n = \left\lfloor \frac{a^n}{n} \right\rfloor.$$

## [Romania]

**Solution.** In what follows, all literals will represent non-negative integers. The solution makes use of specific values for n, carefully chosen to facilitate the computation of the *floor* function.

Clearly, there exist  $e \ge 0, q \ge 1$  and

$$M = a^{a^e - e}q, \quad \gcd(q, a) = 1,$$

such that M is a multiple of N.

Let us consider values  $n = a^e p$ , with p prime, p > M. Then, by Fermat's little Theorem  $(p > M \ge a, \text{ so gcd}(a, p) = 1)$ 

$$a^{a^e(p-1)} - 1 = (a^{p-1})^{a^e} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$
, so  $a^n = a^{a^e} kp + a^{a^e}$ ,

therefore, as  $n = a^e p > a^e M \ge a^{a^e}$ 

$$a_n = \left\lfloor \frac{a^n}{n} \right\rfloor = a^{a^e - e} k.$$

On the other hand,  $kp = a^{a^e(p-1)} - 1$ . Assuming  $p - 1 = m\varphi(q)$  we have  $a^{\varphi(q)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}^1$  therefore  $kp \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$ , so q divides kp. But p > M > q, so  $\gcd(q, p) = 1$ , hence q divides k, so M (and a fortiori N) divides  $a_n$ .

We are left to prove that we can find such  $p-1 = m\varphi(q)$ , that is, p > M must belong to the arithmetic sequence of first-term 1 and ratio  $\varphi(q)$ . The existence of such p is guaranteed by Dirichlet's Theorem<sup>2</sup> and that should suffice in an international math competition.

**Remarks.** We will however, for self-containment, present a proof for this particular case of Dirichlet's Theorem  $^3$ 

An arithmetical sequence of first-term 1 and ratio r contains infinitely many primes (assume r > 2, as r = 1 or r = 2 makes it trivially true).

We will denote by  $d, 1 \leq d < r$ , any (proper) divisor of r. Let us consider the polynomial  $X^r - 1 \in \mathbb{Z}(X)$ , factored in irreducible polynomials. Its roots (the *r*-roots of unity) are

$$\cos\frac{2k\pi}{r} + i\sin\frac{2k\pi}{r}$$
, with  $1 \le k \le r$ ,

 $<sup>{}^{1}\</sup>varphi$  is the Euler *totient* function, and gcd(q, a) = 1.

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ Dirichlet's Theorem asserts the existence of infinitely many primes in an arithmetic sequence of co-prime first-term and ratio.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This effort is a personal improvement on a proof by A. Rotkiewicz.

and, for k = 1, the main *primitive* r-root of unity  $\zeta$  cannot be the root of any polynomial  $X^d - 1$ . Therefore  $\zeta$  must be root of an irreducible factor f(X) for  $X^r - 1$ , which cannot be a factor for any  $X^d - 1$ .<sup>4</sup> Now

$$f(X)$$
 divides  $\frac{X^r - 1}{X^d - 1}$  for all  $d$ , and  $f(X) = \prod_{i=1}^{\deg f} (X - z_i)$ ,

with  $z_i$  among the r-roots of unity, so  $|z_i| = 1$ . Therefore, for any n > 2

$$|f(n)| = \prod_{i=1}^{\deg f} |n - z_i| \ge \prod_{i=1}^{\deg f} |n - |z_i|| = (n-1)^{\deg f} > 1.$$

Assume now there are only finitely many such primes q, and take  $n = r \prod q.^5$ As |f(n)| > 1, there exists p prime, dividing f(n), and therefore dividing  $\frac{n^r-1}{n^d-1}$ for all d. We then cannot have p dividing  $n^d - 1$  for any d, because

$$X^{\frac{r}{d}} - 1 = (X - 1)P(X), \ P(X) = (X - 1)Q(X) + R, \ R = P(1) = \frac{r}{d},$$

so  $\frac{n^r-1}{n^d-1} = P(n^d) = (n^d-1)Q(n^d) + \frac{r}{d}$ , while clearly  $n^d-1$  and  $\frac{r}{d}$  are co-prime (as r divides n), therefore p cannot divide  $\frac{r}{d}$ . This shows that  $n^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $n^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for any d, so  $r = \frac{1}{d} \left( \frac{r}{d} + \frac{r}{$ 

This shows that  $n^r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $n^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for any d, so  $r = \operatorname{ord}_p(n)$ . But  $n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (by Fermat's little Theorem), so we must have r dividing p-1, that is, p belongs to the stated arithmetical sequence. However,  $p \neq q$  for any q considered in the above, as  $\operatorname{gcd}(p, n) = 1$ , and thus we have found yet another such prime, contradiction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>In fact (not needed here), all primitive roots, for gcd(k, r) = 1, are the roots of a **same** irreducible factor  $\Phi_r(X)$ , of degree  $\varphi(r)$ , which is the *cyclotomic polynomial* of order r. Then  $X^r - 1 = \prod \Phi_d(X)$ , the product of the (irreducible) cyclotomic polynomials.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>By definition  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} q := 1$  if no such primes were to be selected.

**Problem 4.** Prove that from among any  $(n + 1)^2$  points inside a square of sidelength positive integer n, one can pick three, such that the triangle determined by them has area no more than  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

## [Romania]

**Solution.** Although the topic of the problem may somehow appear familiar, the solution involves a novel and ingenious mix of ideas, centered around estimating areas of triangles using simple convexity inequalities.

Denote by  $A = n^2$  the area of the square, by P = 4n the perimeter of the square, and by  $N = (n + 1)^2$  the number of points. The convex hull of the set of N points will be a convex k-gon (contained in the given square),  $3 \le k \le N$ , with N - k points in its interior (if any three points are collinear, they will determine a triangle of area 0, thus rendering the result trivially).

We will make use of the following folklore result

Any triangulation of a (convex) k-gon, using m = N - k interior points, is made of t = (k - 2) + 2m = 2(N - 1) - k triangles.<sup>6</sup>

As the area of the convex hull k-gon is at most A, it follows, using an *averaging* argument, that there will exist a triangle  $\Delta_f$  of area at most

$$\frac{A}{t} = \frac{A}{2(N-1)-k} = f(k).$$

On the other hand, as the perimeter of the convex hull k-gon is at most P, one can find a pair of consecutive sides, be them **a**, **b**, of lengths a, b, such that  $\frac{a+b}{2} \leq \frac{P}{k}$  (this also is an *averaging* argument). Now, the area of the triangle  $\Delta_q$  determined by **a**, **b**, is

$$\frac{1}{2}ab\sin\angle(\mathbf{a},\mathbf{b}) \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2 \leq \frac{P^2}{2k^2} = g(k).$$

Clearly, the bounds for the areas of triangles  $\Delta_f$ ,  $\Delta_g$  depend on k, but f(k) is increasing, while g(k) is decreasing, therefore the worst case occurs for the value calculated in  $k_0$  where the graphs of f and g meet

$$\frac{A}{2(N-1)-k_0} = \frac{P^2}{2k_0^2}, \text{ so } k_0^2 = 16(n+1)^2 - 16 - 8k_0, \text{ hence } k_0 = 4n.$$

Both formulae f and g, calculated in  $k_0$ , yield the value  $\frac{1}{2}$ , as required.

**Remarks.** One can improve on the bound given by g(k); in fact it may be proven that a triangle  $\Delta_g$  of area at most  $\frac{P^2}{2k^2}\sin\frac{2\pi}{k}$  can be found. However, the minimum value offered by f(k) is greater than  $\frac{1}{2}(\frac{n}{n+1})^2$ , which converges

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The total sum of angles for the t triangles is  $t\pi$ ; but the vertices contribute  $(k-2)\pi$ , while the interior points contribute  $2m\pi$ , therefore t = (k-2) + 2m.

to  $\frac{1}{2}$  when *n* grows large, thus thwarting any attempt to improve on the  $\frac{1}{2}$  bound. The issue is to improve on the bound given by f(k), but it is difficult to find efficient ways to bound from above the size of a least-area triangle for small k.

The author is far from claiming the result is tight (for large n), although better estimates appear elusive; however the naïve attempt to use the pigeonhole principle in its simplest form (partition the side-n square into  $n^2$ unit squares; then for any  $2n^2 + 1$  points inside the square there will exist three within a unit square, thus determining a triangle of area at most  $\frac{1}{2}$ ), necessitates almost twice as many points as those afforded in the problem (except for n = 2, when  $2 \cdot 2^2 + 1 = (2 + 1)^2$ ). On the other hand, for n = 1, the result is best possible!

Moreover, using the  $\frac{P^2}{2k^2}\sin\frac{2\pi}{k}$  bound for  $\Delta_g$ , one can prove for n = 2 that there exists a triangle of area at most  $\frac{4}{9}$  (the critical point  $k_0$  is moving from value 8 to 7, when the correct answer is given by  $f(7) = \frac{4}{9}$ ), a better bound than anything found in the literature!