

## CCSU Regional Math Competition, 2017

### SOLUTIONS I

**Problem 1.** Suppose the graph of a quadratic function is concave down and passes through the points  $(-1, 1)$  and  $(1, 1)$ . Find the smallest possible area of the region bounded by the graph and the  $x$ -axis.

**Solution.** Since the graph has a vertical axis of symmetry and  $(-1, 1)$  and  $(1, 1)$  are symmetric about the  $y$ -axis, it follows that the vertex of the parabola is of the form  $(0, c)$  with  $c > 1$ . Hence, the quadratic function is of the form  $f(x) = c - ax^2$  where  $f(1) = c - a = 1$  or  $a = c - 1$ . Hence, the  $x$ -intercepts are the solutions of the equation  $c - (c - 1)x^2 = 0$  given by

$$x_1 = -\sqrt{\frac{c}{c-1}}, \quad x_2 = \sqrt{\frac{c}{c-1}}.$$

The area under the graph is given by the integral

$$\begin{aligned} A(c) &= \int_{x_1}^{x_2} [c - (c-1)x^2] dx = 2cx_2 - \frac{2}{3} \cdot (c-1)x_2^3 \\ &= \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{c^{3/2}}{\sqrt{c-1}}. \end{aligned}$$

It is enough to minimize the following function

$$f(c) = \frac{9}{16} \cdot A(c)^2 = \frac{c^3}{c-1}$$

for  $c > 1$ . Differentiating using the quotient rule, we have

$$f'(c) = \frac{c^2(2c-3)}{(c-1)^2}$$

and thus, the critical point is  $c = 3/2$ . Since the limits towards the ends are

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} f(c) = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^+} f(c) = \infty$$

we deduce that  $A(3/2) = 2\sqrt{3}$  is the minimal area.

**Problem 2.** Solve for the angles  $A, B, C$  of a triangle if

$$\cos A + \cos B + \cos C = \frac{3}{2}.$$

**Solution I.** Observe that  $C = \pi - (A + B)$  and thus,

$$\cos C = -\cos(A + B).$$

Hence, changing the sum into a product and using the half-angle formula, we can rewrite the equation as

$$2 \cos \frac{A+B}{2} \cos \frac{A-B}{2} - 2 \cos^2 \frac{A+B}{2} + 1 = \frac{3}{2}.$$

The equation can be further manipulated into a quadratic

$$x^2 - x \cos \frac{A-B}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad x = \cos \frac{A+B}{2}.$$

The discriminant with respect to  $x$  is given by

$$\Delta = \cos^2 \frac{A-B}{2} - 1 = -\sin^2 \frac{A-B}{2}.$$

To get real roots we must have  $A = B$  and by symmetry the initial equation leads to  $A = B = C = \pi/3$ .

**Solution II.** One solution is easy to find. Suppose  $A = B = C$ , so all angles are  $\pi/3$ . Then the cosines sum to  $3/2$ , as desired. We claim that this is the only solution. To that end, consider the line tangent to  $y = \cos x$  at  $x = \pi/3$  given by the graph of the function

$$L(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{3} \right).$$

We now show that  $\cos x \leq L(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[0, 2\pi/3]$ , with equality holding only at  $x = \pi/3$ . This is immediate over  $[0, \pi/2]$ , since  $\cos x$  is concave down on that interval. Further, we note that

$$\frac{d}{dx}[L(x) - \cos x] = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \sin x,$$

which is positive for  $x$  in the open interval  $(\pi/3, 2\pi/3)$ , hence  $L(x) - \cos x$  is increasing on that interval. Since  $L(x) - \cos x = 0$  at  $x = \pi/3$ , we have  $L(x) - \cos x > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(\pi/3, 2\pi/3]$ .

We can now rule out all other triangles. Suppose angles  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are no greater than  $2\pi/3$ , and at least one of them is not  $\pi/3$ . Then, noting that  $A + B + C = \pi$ , we have

$$\cos A + \cos B + \cos C < L(A) + L(B) + L(C) = \frac{3}{2}.$$

So there is no solution of this type. On the other hand, suppose one angle, say  $C$ , is greater than  $2\pi/3$ . Then  $\cos C < -1/2$ . Since  $\cos x$  is never greater than 1, we have

$$\cos A + \cos B + \cos C < 1 + 1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}.$$

So there is no solution of this type, either. This proves the claim.

**Problem 3.** For each positive integer  $n$  consider the integral

$$I_n = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1 + x^{1/n}}.$$

Prove the following three statements:

a) For each  $n$  there exists a unique constant  $0 < c_n < 1$  such that

$$1 + c_n^{1/n} = 1/I_n.$$

b) The sequence  $I_n$  converges to  $1/2$ .

c) The sequence  $c_n$  converges to  $1/e$  where  $e$  is the Euler number.

**Solution.** a) Let  $f$  be the function defined for  $t \geq 0$  by

$$f(t) = \int_0^t \frac{dx}{1 + x^{1/n}}.$$

According to the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,  $f$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[0, 1]$ , differentiable on the open interval  $(0, 1)$ , and

$$f'(t) = \frac{1}{1 + t^{1/n}}.$$

By the Mean Value Theorem, there is  $c_n$  in the open interval  $(0, 1)$  such that

$$f(1) - f(0) = f'(c_n) \quad \text{or} \quad 1 + c_n^{1/n} = \frac{1}{I_n}.$$

Since  $f'$  is strictly decreasing, such a number  $c_n$  is unique, proving the claim.

b) For every  $n > 0$  and  $x \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{1 + x^{1/(n+1)}} \leq \frac{1}{1 + x^{1/n}}.$$

By integrating these inequalities we get  $1/2 \leq I_{n+1} \leq I_n$ . Hence, the sequence  $I_n$  is decreasing and bounded below by  $1/2$  and thus, convergent. To calculate its limit, let us fix  $\epsilon$  such that  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  and observe that

$$\frac{1}{1 + x^{1/n}} \leq 1 \text{ for } x \in [0, \epsilon] \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{1 + x^{1/n}} \leq \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon^{1/n}} \text{ for } x \in [\epsilon, 1].$$

By integrating these inequalities, we get

$$\int_0^\epsilon \frac{dx}{1 + x^{1/n}} \leq \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \int_\epsilon^1 \frac{dx}{1 + x^{1/n}} \leq \frac{1 - \epsilon}{1 + \epsilon^{1/n}}.$$

By adding the two inequalities term by term and using the lower bound,

$$\frac{1}{2} \leq I_n \leq \epsilon + \frac{1 - \epsilon}{1 + \epsilon^{1/n}} \quad \text{so that} \quad \frac{1}{2} \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_n \leq \epsilon + \frac{1 - \epsilon}{2}.$$

By taking  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  we conclude that  $I_n$  converges to  $1/2$ .

c) From a) and b) we know that for every  $n > 0$

$$c_n = \left( \frac{1 - I_n}{I_n} \right)^n \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - I_n}{I_n} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{1}{2}} = 1.$$

Therefore we need to use L'Hôpital's rule to find the limit:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln c_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \ln \left( \frac{1 - I_n}{I_n} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln \left( \frac{1 - I_n}{I_n} \right)}{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{I_n}{1 - I_n} \cdot \left( -\frac{1}{I_n^2} \cdot \frac{\partial I_n}{\partial n} \right)}{-\frac{1}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 \cdot \frac{1}{I_n(1 - I_n)} \cdot \frac{\partial I_n}{\partial n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{I_n(1 - I_n)} \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 \frac{\partial I_n}{\partial n} = 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 \frac{\partial I_n}{\partial n}. \end{aligned}$$

By differentiating and taking limit under the integral sign, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 \frac{\partial I_n}{\partial n} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^2 \int_0^1 -\frac{x^{1/n} \ln x}{(1+x^{1/n})^2} \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{n^2}\right) dx \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{x^{1/n} \ln x}{(1+x^{1/n})^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \int_0^1 \ln x dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} (x \ln x - x)|_{\epsilon}^1 = -\frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that the sequence  $c_n$  converges to  $1/e$  since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln c_n = -1$ .

**Note.** To justify the claim that we can take limit under the integral sign we can use a direct argument. Consider the difference:

$$D_n = \frac{1}{4} \int_0^1 \ln x dx - \int_0^1 \frac{x^{1/n} \ln x}{(1+x^{1/n})^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1-x^{1/n}}{1+x^{1/n}}\right)^2 \ln x dx$$

and let us fix  $\epsilon$  again such that  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . The function  $f$  below is decreasing for  $t \geq 0$  having negative derivative:

$$f(t) = \frac{1-t}{1+t}, \quad f'(t) = \frac{-2}{(1+t)^2}.$$

Since  $\ln x \leq 0$  for  $0 < x \leq 1$ , we have the following inequalities

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon \ln \epsilon - \epsilon &= \int_0^{\epsilon} \ln x dx \leq A_n = \int_0^{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1-x^{1/n}}{1+x^{1/n}}\right)^2 \ln x dx \leq 0 \\ \left(\frac{1-\epsilon^{1/n}}{1+\epsilon^{1/n}}\right)^2 \int_{\epsilon}^1 \ln x dx &\leq B_n = \int_{\epsilon}^1 \left(\frac{1-x^{1/n}}{1+x^{1/n}}\right)^2 \ln x dx \leq 0 \end{aligned}$$

for all  $n > 0$  where  $A_n, B_n$  are labels. By taking  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we deduce that

$$\epsilon \ln \epsilon - \epsilon \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n \leq 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n = 0.$$

Since  $4D_n = A_n + B_n$  we conclude that for every  $0 < \epsilon < 1$  we have

$$\epsilon \ln \epsilon - \epsilon \leq 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n \leq 0,$$

and by taking  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  we conclude that  $D_n$  converges to 0 proving the claim.

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SOLUTIONS II

**Problem 4.** Suppose  $r$  is a positive real number. Consider the family of circles  $C_i$  in the plane, where  $C_0$  has radius 1 and center  $(1, 1)$  and for each integer  $i \geq 1$ , the circle  $C_i$  has radius  $r^i$ , lies in the first quadrant on the right side of  $C_{i-1}$ , is externally tangent to  $C_{i-1}$ , and is tangent to the  $x$ -axis. Let  $x_i$  be the  $x$ -coordinate of the center of  $C_i$ . Find  $r$  such that the sequence  $x_i$  converges to  $7/3$ .

**Solution I.** To begin, we note that  $r < 1$ . Otherwise, the circles' centers would form an unbounded set rather than settling down around  $7/3$ . Let us examine the segment joining the centers of two adjacent circles, say  $C_i$  and  $C_{i+1}$ . Its length is  $r^i + r^{i+1}$ , the sum of the radii. To compute its slope we consider the usual right triangle, where the rise is  $r^{i+1} - r^i$  and the run, by the Pythagorean relation, is  $2\sqrt{r^{2i+1}}$ . Hence the slope is

$$\frac{r^{i+1} - r^i}{2\sqrt{r^{2i+1}}} = \frac{r^i(r - 1)}{2r^i\sqrt{r}} = \frac{r - 1}{2\sqrt{r}}.$$

Since this value is independent of  $i$ , it follows that all the centers lie on one straight line, say  $L$ . Since  $r < 1$ , the slope of  $L$  is negative. Since  $r^i \rightarrow 0$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ , it is clear that  $L$  crosses the  $x$ -axis at  $7/3$ , as the shrinking circles are converging to that point.

Consider now the segment joining  $(1, 1)$  and  $(7/3, 0)$ . It lies on  $L$ , so its slope can be calculated in two ways:

$$\frac{-1}{4/3} = \frac{r - 1}{2\sqrt{r}}.$$

Solving for  $r$ , we find the unique positive solution  $r = 1/4$ .

**Solution II.** The circles  $C_i$  and  $C_{i-1}$  are externally tangent if and only if the distance between their centers  $(x_i, r^i)$  and  $(x_{i-1}, r^{i-1})$  is  $r^i + r^{i-1}$  or

$$(x_i - x_{i-1})^2 + (r^i - r^{i-1})^2 = (r^i + r^{i-1})^2.$$

Solving for  $x_i - x_{i-1} > 0$  we get

$$(x_i - x_{i-1})^2 = 4r^i r^{i-1}, \quad x_i - x_{i-1} = 2r^{(2i-1)/2}.$$

Hence,  $x_0 = 1$ ,  $x_1 = 1 + 2r^{1/2}$ , and by summation, for each  $i \geq 1$  we have

$$x_i = 1 + 2r^{1/2}(1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^{i-1}).$$

If  $r \geq 1$  the inequality  $x_i \geq 1 + 2ir^{1/2}$  proves that the sequence  $(x_i)$  is divergent. Hence, we must have  $0 < r < 1$ . In this case, by using the fact that the sum of a geometric series with initial term  $a$  and ratio  $|r| < 1$  is  $a/(1 - r)$ , the limit of the sequence is

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i = 1 + 2r^{1/2} \frac{1}{1 - r} = \frac{7}{3}, \quad \frac{r^{1/2}}{1 - r} = \frac{2}{3}, \quad 2r + 3r^{1/2} - 2 = 0.$$

The last equation is quadratic in  $r^{1/2}$  and solving for the positive root, we get  $r^{1/2} = 1/2$  or  $r = 1/4$ .

**Problem 5.** Find all triples  $(x, y, z)$  of positive real numbers such that

$$x + \frac{2}{y} = 3y \qquad y + \frac{2}{z} = 3z, \qquad z + \frac{2}{x} = 3x.$$

**Solution I.** Notice that  $x = y = z = 1$  is a solution. Assume  $x > 1$ . Then  $z = 3x - 2/x > 1$  and thus,  $y = 3z - 2/z > 1$ . If we add all three equations together we get

$$x + y + z = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{z}$$

where the left hand side is  $> 3$  and the right hand side is  $< 3$ . Hence, there is no solution with  $x > 1$ . By symmetry, there is no solution with  $0 < x < 1$  either. This concludes that  $x = y = z = 1$  is the only solution.

**Solution II.** Let  $f(t) = 3t - 2/t$  be a function defined for  $t > 0$ . Since the derivative  $f'(t) = 3 + 2/t^2$  is positive, we deduce that  $f$  is strictly increasing. The system can be reduced to a fixed point problem:  $f^3(x) = x$  where  $f^3$  denotes the composition of  $f$  with itself 3 times. This problem can be further reduced to the fixed point problem:  $f(x) = x$ . Indeed, if  $f(x) > x$ , then by repeated application of  $f$  we get  $f^3(x) > x$ . A similar argument works for  $f(x) < x$ . The equation  $f(x) = x$  is equivalent to  $2x = 2/x$  or  $x^2 = 1$ . Since  $x > 0$ , the only solution is  $x = 1$ . Hence,  $x = y = z = 1$ .

**Problem 6.** For each positive integer  $n$ , let  $K_n$  be the graph on  $n$  vertices such that every two vertices are connected by an edge which is colored either red or blue. Show that  $K_n$  must contain

- a) at least two monochromatic triangles if  $n = 6$ ;
- b) at least four monochromatic triangles if  $n = 7$ .

You may assume part a) in part b).

**Solution.** (a) We first show that  $K_6$  contains one monochromatic triangle. Consider one vertex, say  $V$ , of  $K_6$ . There are five edges meeting at  $V$ ; at least three of them must be of the same color, say **red**, by the Pigeonhole Principle. (If not, there could be at most two **red** and at most two **blue** edges, but this would only account for four edges.) Let  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  denote the vertices connected to  $V$  by these **red** edges. If triangle  $ABC$  is monochromatic of **blue** color, then we are done. If not, it must have an edge of **red** color, which forms a monochromatic triangle with two of the **red** edges leading to  $V$ .

Next we show that  $K_6$  contains a second monochromatic triangle. Suppose  $ABC$  is monochromatic of **blue** color, and let  $D$ ,  $E$ , and  $F$  be the other three vertices of  $K_6$ . The vertex  $D$  has three edges leading to  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ ; if two of these edges have **blue** color, they produce a second monochromatic triangle with one edge of  $ABC$ . The same is true of vertices  $E$  and  $F$ . If no second triangle arises in this way, then each of  $D$ ,  $E$ , and  $F$  has at least two edges of **red** color leading to  $A$ ,  $B$ , or  $C$ . Now we consider triangle  $DEF$ . If it is monochromatic of **blue** color, then we are done. If not, it must have an edge of **red** color. Since the vertices of this edge both have two **red** edges leading to vertices  $A$ ,  $B$ , or  $C$ , two of these edges must share a common vertex by the Pigeonhole Principle. This gives a second monochromatic triangle.

(b) Consider one vertex, say  $V$ , of  $K_7$ . Ignoring  $V$  and the six edges leading to it leaves us with a two-colored  $K_6$ , which by part (a) contains two monochromatic triangles, say  $T$  and  $U$ .

**Case 1.** The two monochromatic triangles share a vertex, say  $Z$ . By ignoring  $Z$  and invoking part (a) for the  $K_6$  graph not containing  $Z$ , we get two additional monochromatic triangles, for a total of four.

**Case 2.** The two monochromatic triangles do not share a vertex. Then they must use all six vertices of  $K_7$  other than  $V$ . We pick one of these six, say a vertex  $W$  of triangle  $T$ , and again invoke part (a) for the  $K_6$  graph not containing  $W$  but containing triangle  $U$ . This gives us at least one monochromatic triangle other than  $T$  and  $U$ , for a total of three.

Since only seven vertices are available in  $K_7$  and we have at least three monochromatic triangles, two of these triangles must share a vertex by the Pigeonhole Principle. By Case 1, we conclude that  $K_7$  has at least four monochromatic triangles.