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# Geometric Problems on Maxima and Minima 

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## Preface

Problems on maxima and minima arise naturally not only in science and engineering and their applications but also in daily life. A great variety of these have geometric nature: finding the shortest path between two objects satisfying certain conditions or a figure of minimal perimeter, area, or volume is a type of problem frequently met. Not surprisingly, people have been dealing with such problems for a very long time. Some of them, now regarded as famous, were dealt with by the ancient Greeks, whose intuition allowed them to discover the solutions of these problems even though for many of them they did not have the mathematical tools to provide rigorous proofs.

For example, one might mention here Heron's (first century CE) discovery that the light ray in space incoming from a point $A$ and outgoing through a point $B$ after reflection at a mirror $\alpha$ travels the shortest possible path from $A$ to $B$ having a common point with $\alpha$.

Another famous problem, the so-called isoperimetric problem, was considered for example by Descartes (1596-1650): Of all plane figures with a given perimeter, find the one with greatest area. That the "perfect figure" solving the problem is the circle was known to Descartes (and possibly much earlier); however, a rigorous proof that this is indeed the solution was first given by Jacob Steiner in the nineteenth century.

A slightly different isoperimetric problem is attributed to Dido, the legendary queen of Carthage. She was allowed by the natives to purchase a piece of land on the coast of Africa "not larger than what an oxhide can surround." Cutting the oxhide into narrow strips, she made a long string with which she was supposed to surround as large as possible area on the seashore. How to do this in an optimal way is a problem closely related to the previous one, and in fact a solution is easily found once one knows the maximizing property of the circle.

Another problem that is both interesting and easy to state was posed in 1775 by I. F. Fagnano: Inscribe a triangle of minimal perimeter in a given acute-angled triangle. An elegant solution to this relatively simple "network problem" was given by Hermann Schwarz (1843-1921).

Most of these classical problems are discussed in Chapter 1, which presents several different methods for solving geometric problems on maxima and minima. One of these concerns applications of geometric transformations, e.g., reflection through a line or plane, rotation. The second is about appropriate use of inequalities. Another analytic method is the application of tools from the differential calculus. The last two methods considered in Chapter 1 are more geometric in nature; these are the method of partial variation and the tangency principle. Their names speak for themselves.

Chapter 2 is devoted to several types of geometric problems on maxima and minima that are frequently met. Here for example we discuss a variety of isoperimetric problems similar in nature to the ones mentioned above. Various distinguished points in the triangle and the tetrahedron can be described as the solutions of some specific problems on maxima or minima. Section 2.2 considers examples of this kind. An interesting type of problem, called Malfatti's problems, are contained in Section 2.3; these concern the positioning of several disks in a given figure in the plane so that the sum of the areas of the disks is maximal. Section 2.4 deals with some problems on maxima and minima arising in combinatorial geometry.

Chapter 3 collects some geometric problems on maxima and minima that could not be put into any of the first two chapters. Finally, Chapter 4 provides solutions and hints to all problems considered in the first three chapters.

Each section in the book is augmented by exercises and more solid problems for individual work. To make it easier to follow the arguments in the book a large number of figures is provided.

The present book is partly based on its Bulgarian version Extremal Problems in Geometry, written by O. Mushkarov and L. Stoyanov and published in 1989 (see [16]). This new version retains about half of the contents of the old one.

Altogether the book contains hundreds of geometric problems on maxima or minima. Despite the great variety of problems considered-from very old and classical ones like the ones mentioned above to problems discussed very recently in journal articles or used in various mathematics competitions around the worldthe whole exposition of the book is kept at a sufficiently elementary level so that it can be understood by high-school students.

Apart from trying to be comprehensive in terms of types of problems and techniques for their solutions, we have also tried to offer various different levels of difficulty, thus making the book possible to use by people with different interests in mathematics, different abilities, and of different age groups. We hope we have achieved this to a reasonable extent.

The book reflects the experience of the authors as university teachers and as people who have been deeply involved in various mathematics competitions in different parts of the world for more than 25 years. The authors hope that the book
will appeal to a wide audience of high-school students and mathematics teachers, graduate students, professional mathematicians, and puzzle enthusiasts. The book will be particularly useful to students involved in mathematics competitions around the world.

We are grateful to Svetoslav Savchev and Nevena Sabeva for helping us during the preparation of this book, and to David Kramer for the corrections and improvements he made when editing the text for publication.

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## Geometric Problems on Maxima and Minima

## Chapter 1

## Methods for Finding Geometric Extrema

### 1.1 Employing Geometric Transformations

It is a rather common feature in solving geometric problems that the object of study undergoes some geometric transformation in order for it to be brought to a situation that is easier to deal with. In the present section this method is used to solve certain geometric problems on maxima and minima. The transformations involved are the well-known symmetry with respect to a line or a point, rotation, and dilation. Apart from this, in some space geometry problems we are going to use symmetry through a plane, rotation about a line, and space dilation. We refer the reader to [17] or [22] for general information about geometric transformations.

We begin with the well known Heron's problem.
Problem 1.1.1 A line $\ell$ is given in the plane and two points $A$ and $B$ lying on the same side of $\ell$. Find a point $X$ on $\ell$ such that the broken line $A X B$ has minimal length.

Solution. Let $B^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $B$ in $\ell$ (Fig. 1). By the properties of symmetry, we have $X B=X B^{\prime}$ for any point $X$ on $\ell$, so

$$
A X+X B=A X+X B^{\prime} \geq A B^{\prime}
$$

The equality occurs precisely when $X$ is the intersection point $X_{0}$ of $\ell$ and the line segment $A B^{\prime}$. Thus, for any point $X$ on $\ell$ different from $X_{0}$,

$$
A X+X B \geq A B^{\prime}=A X_{0}+X_{0} B
$$

which shows that $X_{0}$ is the unique solution of the problem.


Figure 1.
The above problem shows that the shortest path from $A$ to $B$ having a common point with $\ell$ is the broken line $A X_{0} B$. It is worth mentioning that the path $A X_{0} B$ satisfies the law of geometrical optics at its common point $X_{0}$ with $\ell$ : the angle of incidence equals the angle of reflection. It is well known from physics that this property characterizes the path of a light beam.

Problem 1.1.2 A line $\ell$ is given in space and two points $A$ and $B$ that are not in one plane with $\ell$. Find a point $X$ on $\ell$ such that the broken line $A X B$ has minimal length.

Solution. This problem is clearly similar to Problem 1.1.1. In the solution of the latter we used symmetry with respect to a line. Notice that if $\alpha$ is a plane containing $\ell$, the symmetry with respect to $\ell$ in $\alpha$ can be accomplished using a rotation in space through $180^{\circ}$ about $\ell$. Using a similar idea it is now easy to solve the present problem. Let $\alpha$ be the plane containing $\ell$ and the point $A$. Consider a rotation $\varphi$ about $\ell$ that sends $B$ to a point $B^{\prime}$ in $\alpha$ such that $A$ and $B^{\prime}$ are in different half-planes of $\alpha$ with respect to $\ell$ (Fig. 2).


Figure 2.

If $X_{0}$ is the intersection point of $\ell$ and the line segment $A B^{\prime}$, for any point $X$ on $\ell$ we have

$$
A X+X B=A X+X B^{\prime} \geq A B^{\prime}=A X_{0}+X_{0} B^{\prime}
$$

with equality precisely when $X=X_{0}$. So the point $X_{0}$ is the unique solution of the problem.

Notice that since $A X_{0}$ and $B^{\prime} X_{0}$ make equal angles with $\ell$, the pair of line segments $A X_{0}$ and $B X_{0}$ has the same property.

The main feature used in the solutions of the above two problems was that among the broken lines connecting two given points $A$ and $B$ the straight line segment $A B$ has minimal length. The same elementary observation will be used in the solutions of several other problems below, while the preparation for using it will be done by means of a certain geometric transformation: symmetry, rotation, etc.

The next problem is a classic one, known as the Schwarz triangle problem (it is also called Fagnano's problem).

Problem 1.1.3 Inscribe a triangle of minimal perimeter in a given acute-angled triangle.

Solution. The next solution was given in 1900 by the Hungarian mathematician L. Fejér.

Let $A B C$ be the given triangle. We want to find points $M, N$, and $P$ on the sides $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively, such that the perimeter of $\triangle M N P$ is minimal.

First, we consider a simpler version of this problem. Fix an arbitrary point $P$ on $A B$. We are now going to find points $M$ and $N$ on $B C$ and $C A$, respectively, such that $\triangle M N P$ has minimal perimeter. (This minimum of course will depend on the choice of $P$.) Let $P^{\prime}$ be the reflection of the point $P$ in the line $B C$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ the reflection of $P$ in the line $A C$ (Fig. 3 (a)). Then $C P^{\prime}=C P=C P^{\prime \prime}, \angle P^{\prime} C B=$ $\angle P C B$, and $\angle P^{\prime \prime} C A=\angle P C A$. Setting $\gamma=\angle B C A$, we then have $\angle P^{\prime} C P^{\prime \prime}=$ $2 \gamma$. Moreover, $2 \gamma<180^{\circ}$, since $\gamma<90^{\circ}$ by assumption. Consequently, the line segment $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$ intersects the sides $B C$ and $A C$ of $\triangle A B C$ at some points $M$ and $N$, respectively, and the perimeter of $\triangle M N P$ is equal to $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$. In a similar way, if $X$ is any point on $B C$ and $Y$ is any point on $A C$, the perimeter of $\triangle X P Y$ equals the length of the broken line $P^{\prime} X Y P^{\prime \prime}$, which is greater than or equal to $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$. So, the perimeter of $\triangle P X Y$ is greater than or equal to the perimeter of $\triangle P M N$, and equality holds precisely when $X=M$ and $Y=N$.

Thus, we have to find a point $P$ on $A B$ such that the line segment $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$ has minimal length. Notice that this line segment is the base of an isosceles triangle $P^{\prime \prime} P^{\prime} C$ with constant angle $2 \gamma$ at $C$ and sides $C P^{\prime}=C P^{\prime \prime}=C P$. So, we have to


Figure 3. (a)


Figure 3. (b)
choose $P$ on $A B$ such that $C P^{\prime}=C P$ is minimal. Obviously, for this to happen $P$ must be the foot of the altitude through $C$ in $\triangle A B C$.

Note now that if $P$ is the foot of the altitude of $\triangle A B C$ through $C$, then $M$ and $N$ are the feet of the other two altitudes. To prove this, denote by $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ the feet of the altitudes of $\triangle A B C$ through $A$ and $B$, respectively (Fig. 3 (b)). Then $\angle B M_{1} P^{\prime}=\angle B M_{1} P=\angle B A C=\angle C M_{1} N_{1}$, which shows that the point $P^{\prime}$ lies on the line $M_{1} N_{1}$. Similarly, $P^{\prime \prime}$ lies on the line $M_{1} N_{1}$ and therefore $M=M_{1}$, $N=N_{1}$. Hence of all triangles inscribed in $\triangle A B C$, the one with vertices at the feet of the altitudes of $\triangle A B C$ has minimal perimeter.

Schwarz's problem can also be solved in the case that the given triangle is not acute-angled. Assume, for example, that $\gamma \geq 90^{\circ}$. It is not difficult to see that in this case the triangle $M N P$ with minimal perimeter is such that $M=N=C$ and $P$ is the foot of the altitude of $\triangle A B C$ through $C$; that is, in this case $\triangle M N P$ is degenerate.

Problem 1.1.4 The quadrilateral in Fig. 4 is given by the coordinates of its vertices. Find the shortest path beginning at the point $A=(0,1)$ and terminating at $C=(2,1)$ that has common points with the sides $a, d, b, d, c$ of the quadrilateral in this succession.


Figure 4.

Solution. Apply three successive symmetries with respect to lines as shown in Fig. 5. The image of the point $C$ after the successive application of the three symmetries is $C^{\prime}=(6,1)$. We now want to find the shortest path from $A$ to $C^{\prime}$ that lies entirely in the union of the quadrilaterals shown in Fig. 5. Clearly this is the broken line

$$
A=(0,1) \longrightarrow(2,2) \longrightarrow(4,2) \longrightarrow(6,2) \longrightarrow C^{\prime}=(6,1) .
$$



Figure 5.

Therefore the shortest path in the given quadrilateral having the desired properties is

$$
A=(0,1) \longrightarrow(2,2) \longrightarrow(2,0) \longrightarrow(2,2) \longrightarrow C=(2,1)
$$

We are now going to use Heron's problem to solve a problem from the 25th International Mathematical Olympiad.

Problem 1.1.5 A soldier has to check for mines a region having the form of an equilateral triangle. The radius of activity of the mine detector is half the altitude of the triangle. Assuming that the soldier starts at one of the vertices of the triangle, find the shortest path he could use to carry out his task.

Solution. Let $h$ be the length of the altitude of the given equilateral $\triangle A B C$. Assume that the soldier's path starts at the point $A$. Consider the circles $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ with centers $B$ and $C$, respectively, both with radius $h / 2$ (Fig. 6). In order to check the points $B$ and $C$, the soldier's path must have common points with both $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$. Assume that the total length of the path is $t$ and it has a common point $M$ with $k_{2}$ first and then a common point $N$ with $k_{1}$. Denote by $D$ the common point of $k_{2}$ and the altitude through $C$ in $\triangle A B C$ and by $\ell$ the line through $D$ parallel to $A B$. Adding the constant $h / 2$ to $t$ and using the triangle inequality, one gets

$$
t+\frac{h}{2} \geq A M+M N+N B=A M+M P+P N+N B \geq A P+P B
$$

where $P$ is the intersection point of $M N$ and $\ell$. On the other hand, Heron's problem (Problem 1.1.1 above) shows that $A P+P B \geq A D+D B$, where equality occurs


Figure 6.
precisely when $P=D$. This implies $t+\frac{h}{2} \geq A D+D B$, i.e., $t \geq A D+D E$, where $E$ is the point of intersection of $D B$ and $k_{1}$.

The above argument shows that the shortest path of the soldier that starts at $A$ and has common points first with $k_{2}$ and then with $k_{1}$ is the broken line $A D E$. It remains to show that moving along this path, the soldier will be able to check the whole region bounded by $\triangle A B C$.

Let $F, Q$, and $L$ be the midpoints of $A B, A C$, and $B C$, respectively. Since $D L<h / 2$, it follows that the disk with center $D$ and radius $h / 2$ contains the whole $\triangle Q L C$. In other words, from position $D$ the soldier will be able to check the whole region bounded by $\triangle Q L C$. When the soldier moves along the line segment $A D$ he will check all points in the region bounded by the quadrilateral AFDQ; while moving along $D E$, he will check all points in the region bounded by $F B L D$.

Thus, moving along the path $A D E$, the soldier will be able to check the whole region bounded by $\triangle A B C$. So, $A D E$ is one solution of the problem. Another solution is given by the path symmetric to $A D E$ with respect to the line $C D$. The above arguments also show that there are no other solutions starting at $A$.

So far, we have only used symmetry with respect to a line. In the following several problems we are going to apply some other geometric transformations.

We pass on to a problem known as Pompeiu's theorem.
Problem 1.1.6 Let $A B C$ be an equilateral triangle and $P$ a point in its plane. Prove that there exists a triangle with sides equal to the line segments $A P, B P$, and $C P$. This triangle is degenerate if and only if $P$ lies on the circumcircle of $A B C$.

More exactly: For each point $P$ in the plane the inequality

$$
A P+B P \geq C P
$$

holds true. The equality occurs if and only if $P$ is on the arc $\widehat{A B}$ of the circumcircle of $A B C$.

Solution. Let, for instance, $C P \geq A P$ and $C P \geq B P$. Consider the $60^{\circ}$ counterclockwise rotation $\varphi$ about $A$, and let $\varphi$ carry $P$ to $P^{\prime}$.

Then $A P=A P^{\prime}$ and $\angle P A P^{\prime}=60^{\circ}$, so $\triangle A P P^{\prime}$ is equilateral. Thus $P P^{\prime}=$ $P A$. Note also that $\varphi$ carries $B$ to $C$. Hence the line segment $P^{\prime} C$ is the image of $P B$ under $\varphi$; therefore $C P^{\prime}=B P$. Thus $\triangle P C P^{\prime}$ has sides equal to the line segments $A P, B P$, and $C P$. Because of the assumption $C P \geq A P, C P \geq B P$ and since $\angle A P P^{\prime}=60^{\circ}$, this triangle is degenerate if and only if $\angle A P C=60^{\circ}=$


Figure 7.
$\angle A B C$, in which case $A P B C$ is a cyclic quadrilateral. The latter means that the point $P$ lies on the $\operatorname{arc} \widehat{A B}$ of the circumcircle of $A B C$.

The next problem is known as Steiner's triangle problem.
Problem 1.1.7 Find a point $X$ in the plane of a given triangle $A B C$ such that the sum

$$
t(X)=A X+B X+C X
$$

is minimal.
Solution. It is easy to see that if $X$ is outside $\triangle A B C$, then there exists a point $X^{\prime}$ such that $t\left(X^{\prime}\right)<t(X)$. Indeed, suppose that $X$ is exterior to the triangle. Then one of the lines $A B, B C, C A$, say $A B$, has the property that $\triangle A B C$ and the point $X$ lie in different half-planes determined by this line (Fig. 8).


Figure 8.

Consider the reflection $X^{\prime}$ of $X$ in $A B$. We have $A X^{\prime}=A X, B X^{\prime}=B X$. Also, the line segment $C X$ intersects the line $A B$ at some point $Y$, and $X Y=X^{\prime} Y$. Now the triangle inequality gives

$$
C X^{\prime}<C Y+X^{\prime} Y=C Y+X Y=C X
$$

implying $t\left(X^{\prime}\right)<t(X)$.
So we may restrict attention to points $X$ in the interior or on the boundary of $\triangle A B C$. Let $\alpha, \beta$, and $\gamma$ be the angles of $\triangle A B C$. Without loss of generality we will assume that $\gamma \geq \alpha \geq \beta$. Then $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are both acute angles.

Denote by $\varphi$ the rotation through $60^{\circ}$ counterclockwise about $A$. For any point $M$ in the plane let $M^{\prime}=\varphi(M)$. Then $A M M^{\prime}$ is an equilateral triangle. In particular, $\triangle A C C^{\prime}$ is equilateral.

Consider an arbitrary point $X$ in $\triangle A B C$. Then $A X=X X^{\prime}$, while $\varphi(X)=X^{\prime}$ and $\varphi(C)=C^{\prime}$ imply $C X=C^{\prime} X^{\prime}$. Consequently, $t(X)=B X+X X^{\prime}+X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, i.e., $t(X)$ equals the length of the broken line $B X X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$.

We now consider three cases.
Case 1. $\gamma<120^{\circ}$. Then $\angle B C C^{\prime}=\gamma+60^{\circ}<180^{\circ}$. Since $\alpha<90^{\circ}$, we also have $\angle B A C^{\prime}<180^{\circ}$, so the line segment $B C^{\prime}$ intersects the side $A C$ at some point $D$ (Fig. 9 (a)). Denote by $X_{0}$ the intersection point of $B C^{\prime}$ with the circumcircle of $\triangle A C C^{\prime}$. Then $X_{0}$ lies in the interior of the line segment $B D$ and $X_{0}^{\prime}$ lies on $C^{\prime} X_{0}$ since $\angle A X_{0} C^{\prime}=\angle A C C^{\prime}=60^{\circ}$.


Figure 9. (a)
Moreover, we have

$$
t\left(X_{0}\right)=B X_{0}+X_{0} X_{0}^{\prime}+X_{0}^{\prime} C^{\prime}=B C^{\prime}
$$

so $t\left(X_{0}\right) \leq t(X)$ for any point $X$ in $\triangle A B C$. Equality occurs only of both $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ lie on $B C^{\prime}$, which is possible only when $X=X_{0}$.

Notice that the point $X_{0}$ constructed above satisfies

$$
\angle A X_{0} C=\angle A X_{0} B=\angle B X_{0} C=120^{\circ} .
$$

It is called Torricelli's point for $\triangle A B C$.
Case 2. $\gamma=120^{\circ}$. In this case the line segment $B C^{\prime}$ contains $C$ and

$$
t(X)=B X+X X^{\prime}+X^{\prime} C^{\prime}=B C^{\prime}
$$

precisely when $X=C$.
Remark. The Cases 1 and 2 also follow by the Pompeiu theorem (Problem 1.1.6). Indeed, triangle $A C C^{\prime}$ is equilateral and we have $t(X)=$ $A X+B X+C X \geq C^{\prime} X+B X \geq C^{\prime} B$.

Case 3. $\gamma>120^{\circ}$. Then $B C^{\prime}$ has no common points with the side $A C$ (Fig. 9 (b)). If $A X \geq A C$ then the triangle inequality gives

$$
t(X)=A X+B X+C X \geq A C+B C
$$

If $A X<A C$ then $X^{\prime}$ lies in $\triangle A C C^{\prime}$ and

$$
t(X)=B X+X X^{\prime}+X^{\prime} C^{\prime} \geq A C+B C
$$

since $C$ lies in the rectangle $B C^{\prime} X^{\prime} X$ (Fig. 9 (b)). In both cases equality occurs precisely when $X=C$.


Figure 9. (b)
In conclusion, if all angles of $\triangle A B C$ are less than $120^{\circ}$, then $t(X)$ is minimal when $X$ coincides with Torricelli's point of $\triangle A B C$. If one of the angles of $\triangle A B C$ is not less than $120^{\circ}$, then $t(X)$ is minimal when $X$ coincides with the vertex of that angle.

The following problem is a generalization of Steiner's problem.

Problem 1.1.8 Suppose that $A B C$ is a nonobtuse triangle, and let $m, n$, and $p$ be given positive numbers. Find a point $X$ in the plane of the triangle such that the sum

$$
s(X)=m A X+n B X+p C X
$$

is minimal.

Solution. Without loss of generality we will assume that $m \geq n \geq p$.
Case 1. $m \geq n+p$. Then for any point $X$ in the plane we have $A X+X B \geq A B$ and $A X+X C \geq A C$. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
s(X) & \geq(n+p) A X+n B X+p C X \\
& =n(A X+X B)+p(A X+X C) \\
& \geq n A B+p A C=s(A) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, it is clear that equality occurs only if $X=A$. So, the (unique) solution in this case is $X=A$.

Case 2. $m<n+p$. Then there exists a triangle $A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$ with $B_{0} C_{0}=m, C_{0} A_{0}=$ $n$, and $A_{0} B_{0}=p$. Let $\alpha_{0}, \beta_{0}$, and $\gamma_{0}$ be the angles of $\triangle A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$; then $\alpha_{0} \geq$ $\beta_{0} \geq \gamma_{0}$. Let $\varphi$ be the superposition of the following two transformations: (i) the dilation with center $A$ and ratio $k=\frac{p}{n}$; (ii) the rotation through angle $\alpha_{0}$ counterclockwise about $A$. For any point $X$ in the plane set $X^{\prime}=\varphi(X)$ and notice that $\angle X A X^{\prime}=\alpha_{0}=\angle B_{0} A_{0} C_{0}$ (Fig. 10) and

$$
\frac{A X^{\prime}}{A X}=k=\frac{p}{n}=\frac{A_{0} B_{0}}{A_{0} C_{0}} .
$$



Figure 10.

Thus, $\triangle A X^{\prime} X \sim \triangle A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$, which in turn implies $\frac{X X^{\prime}}{A X}=\frac{m}{n}$, i.e., $m A X=$ $n X X^{\prime}$. Also, $C^{\prime} X^{\prime}=k C X$, which is equivalent to $p C X=n C^{\prime} X^{\prime}$. Therefore, $s(X)=n X X^{\prime}+n B X+n X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, i.e.,

$$
\frac{s(X)}{n}=X X^{\prime}+B X+X^{\prime} C^{\prime}
$$

So, the problem is to determine $X$ in such a way that the broken line $B X X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ has minimal length.

We will now consider three subcases.
(a) The line segment $B C^{\prime}$ intersects the side $A C$ (Fig. 10). Let $D$ be the intersection point, and let $K$ be the locus of the points $Y$ in the plane such that $\angle A Y D=\gamma_{0}$ (see Section 1.5, Example 1). Denote by $X_{0}$ the intersection point of $K$ and the line $B C$. Since $\beta_{0} \leq \alpha_{0}$, we have $\beta_{0}<90^{\circ}$. This and $\beta \leq 90^{\circ}$ (by assumption) gives $\beta_{0}+\beta<$ $180^{\circ}$, so $B$ lies outside the disk determined by $K$. On the other hand, $\angle C^{\prime} D A>\angle C^{\prime} C A=\gamma_{0}$, so the point $X_{0}$ lies in the interior of the line segment $B D$. It is now clear that $X_{0}^{\prime}$ lies on $B C^{\prime}$, and for any point $X$ in the plane we have

$$
\frac{s(X)}{n} \geq B C^{\prime}=\frac{s\left(X_{0}\right)}{n}
$$

where equality occurs only when $X=X_{0}$. Thus, in this subcase $X_{0}$ is the unique solution of the problem.
(b) The line segment $B C^{\prime}$ contains the point $A$. Since $A^{\prime}=A$, we have $\frac{s(A)}{n}=B C^{\prime}$, so $s(X)$ is minimal precisely when $X=A$.
Notice that $\gamma_{0}<90^{\circ}$ and $\gamma \leq 90^{\circ}$ imply $\gamma+\gamma_{0}<180^{\circ}$, so $B C^{\prime}$ cannot contain the point $C$. So the only remaining case to consider is the following.
(c) The line segment $B C^{\prime}$ has no common points with the side $A C$, i.e., $\alpha+\alpha_{0}>180^{\circ}$.
We will show that in this subcase $s(X)$ is minimal when $X=A$. Denote by $D$ the intersection point of the line segment $B C^{\prime}$ and the line $A C$ (Fig. 11), and let $X$ be an arbitrary point in the plane. If $X$ lies inside $\angle C^{\prime} A D$, then $C X>A C$ and $A X+B X>A B$ imply

$$
s(X) \geq n A X+n B X+p C X>n A B+p A C=s(A)
$$



Figure 11.

If $X$ is not in $\angle C^{\prime} A D$, then the broken line $B X X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ has a common point with the ray issuing from $A$ and passing through $C$. Therefore

$$
\frac{s(X)}{n}=B X+X X^{\prime}+X^{\prime} C^{\prime} \geq B A+A C^{\prime}=\frac{s(A)}{n}
$$

where equality occurs only when $X=A$.
In conclusion, the problem always has exactly one solution. If $\alpha+\alpha_{0} \geq 180^{\circ}$, then $s(X)$ is minimal when $X=A$, while in the case $\alpha+\alpha_{0}<180^{\circ}, s(X)$ is minimal when $X=X_{0}$.

The analogues of Problems 1.1.7 and 1.1.8 for more than 3 points are no doubt very interesting. However, in general they are much more difficult. The difficulties increase substantially when one considers similar problems in space. Here we restrict ourselves to the consideration of a special case of the corresponding problem for 4 points in space.

Problem 1.1.9 Let $A B C D$ be a regular tetrahedron in space. Find the points $X$ in space such that the sum

$$
s(X)=A X+B X+C X+D X
$$

is a minimum.
Solution. We will use the simple fact that for any point $X^{\prime}$ in a regular tetrahedron $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ the sum of the distances from $X^{\prime}$ to the four faces of the tetrahedron is constant (see below). In order to use this we construct a regular tetrahedron $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ having faces parallel to the corresponding faces of $A B C D$ and such that the point $A$ lies in $\triangle B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}, B$ in $\triangle A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}, C$ in $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and $D$ in $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$. The construction of such a tetrahedron is easy; just use the dilation $\varphi$ with center


Figure 12.
$O$, the center of $A B C D$, and ratio $k=-3$. For any point $X$ set $X^{\prime}=\varphi(X)$. Then $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ is the desired tetrahedron (Fig. 12).

Given a point $X$ in the tetrahedron $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, let $x, y, z$, and $t$ be the distances from $X$ to the faces of $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and let $h^{\prime}$ be the length of its altitude. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{h^{\prime} \cdot\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]}{3}= & \operatorname{Vol}\left(A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right) \\
= & \operatorname{Vol}\left(X B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(X A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right) \\
& +\operatorname{Vol}\left(X A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(X A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right) \\
= & \frac{x}{3}\left[B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right]+\frac{y}{3}\left[A^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right]+\frac{z}{3}\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime}\right]+\frac{t}{3}\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

which gives $x+y+z+t=h^{\prime}$.
If $X$ lies outside the tetrahedron $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, then the tetrahedra $X B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}, X A^{\prime}$ $C^{\prime} D^{\prime}, X A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and $X A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ cover $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, so the sum of their volumes is greater than the volume of $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$. So, in this case, $x+y+z+t>h^{\prime}$.

To find the minimum of $s(X)$, notice that we always have $x \leq X A$, where equality holds only when $X A$ is perpendicular to the plane of triangle $B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$. Similarly, $y \leq X B, z \leq X C$, and $t \leq X D$. Thus, $s(X) \geq x+y+z+t \geq h^{\prime}$. Moreover, the equality $s(X)=h^{\prime}$ holds if and only if $X$ lies on the perpendiculars through $A, B, C$, and $D$ to the corresponding faces of $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$. Clearly the only point $X$ with this property is $X=O$. This is the (unique) solution of the problem.

The last problem in this section is quite different from the problems considered above.

Problem 1.1.10 Given an angle $O p q$ and a point $M$ in its interior, draw a line through $M$ that cuts off a triangle of minimal area from the given angle.

Solution. It turns out that the required line $\ell$ is such that $M$ is the midpoint of the line segment $A B$, where $A$ and $B$ are the intersection points of $\ell$ with the rays $p$ and $q$, respectively. First, we construct such a line.

Let $\varphi$ be the symmetry with respect to the point $M$. The ray $p^{\prime}=\varphi(p)$ is parallel to $p$ and intersects $q$ at some point $B_{0}$. Let $A_{0}$ be the intersection point of $p$ with the line $M B_{0}$. It then follows that $\varphi\left(A_{0}\right)=B_{0}$, so $M$ is the midpoint of the line segment $A_{0} B_{0}$.

Next, consider an arbitrary line $\ell$ different from the line $\ell_{0}=A_{0} B_{0}$ that intersects the rays $p$ and $q$ at some points $A$ and $B$, respectively. We will assume that $A_{0}$ is between the points $O$ and $A$; the other case is similar.


Figure 13.
Notice that $\varphi(A)=A^{\prime}$, where $A^{\prime}$ is the intersection point of the ray $p^{\prime}$ and the line $\ell$ (Fig. 13). Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[O A B] } & =\left[A_{0} M A\right]+\left[O A_{0} M B\right]=\left[B_{0} M A^{\prime}\right]+\left[O A_{0} M B\right] \\
& >\left[B_{0} B M\right]+\left[O A_{0} M B\right]=\left[O A_{0} B_{0}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the line $\ell_{0}=A_{0} B_{0}$ cuts off a triangle of minimal area from the given angle.

## EXERCISES

1.1.11 Let $M$ be the midpoint of the line segment $A B$. Show that

$$
C M \leq \frac{1}{2}(C A+C B)
$$

for each point $C$. Equality occurs if and only if $C$ lies on the line $A B$ but outside the open line segment $A B$.
1.1.12 Let $M$ and $N$ be the midpoints of the line segments $A D$ and $B C$, respectively. Show that

$$
M N \leq \frac{1}{2}(A B+C D)
$$

1.1.13 Find the points $X$ lying on the boundary of a square such that the sum of distances from $X$ to the vertices of the square is a minimum.
1.1.14 Show that of all triangles with a given base and a given area, the isosceles triangle has a minimal perimeter.
1.1.15 Let $A$ and $B$ be points lying on different sides of a given line $\ell$. Find the points $X$ on $\ell$ such that the difference $A X-B X$ has maximal absolute value.
1.1.16 Given an angle $X O Y$ and a point $P$ interior to it, find points $A$ and $B$ on $O X$ and $O Y$, respectively, such that the perimeter of triangle $P A B$ is a minimum.
1.1.17 Given an angle $X O Y$ and two points $A$ and $B$ interior to it, find points $C$ and $D$ on $O X$ and $O Y$, respectively, such that the length of the broken line $A C D B$ is a minimum.
1.1.18 Given an angle $X O Y$ and a point $A$ on $O X$, find points $M$ and $N$ on $O Y$ and $O X$, respectively, such that the sum $A M+M N$ is a minimum.
1.1.19 There are given an angle with vertex $A$ and a point $P$ interior to it. Show how to construct a line segment $B C$ through $P$ with endpoints on the sides of the angle and such that

$$
\frac{1}{B P}+\frac{1}{C P}
$$

is a maximum.
1.1.20 Given a convex quadrilateral $A B C D$, draw a line through $C$, intersecting the extensions of the sides $A B$ and $A D$ at points $M$ and $K$, such that

$$
\frac{1}{[B C M]}+\frac{1}{[D C K]}
$$

is a minimum.
1.1.21 An angle $O X Y$ is given and a point $M$ in its interior. Find points $A$ on $O X$ and $B$ on $O Y$ such that $O A=O B$ and the sum $M A+M B$ is a minimum.
1.1.22 Let $M$ and $N$ be given points in the interior of a triangle $A B C$. Find the shortest path starting at $M$ and terminating at $N$ that has common points with the sides $A B, B C$, and $A C$ in this succession.
1.1.23 Let $A, B$, and $C$ be three different points in the plane. Draw a line $\ell$ through $C$ such that the sum of the distances from $A$ and $B$ to $\ell$ is:
(a) a minimum;
(b) a maximum.
1.1.24 Three distinct points $A, B$, and $C$ are given in the plane. An arbitrary line $\ell$ is drawn through $C$, and a point $M_{\ell}$ on $\ell$ is chosen such that the distance sum $A M_{\ell}+B M_{\ell}$ is a minimum. What is the maximum value of the sum $A M_{\ell}+B M_{\ell}$, and for what lines $\ell$ is it attained?
1.1.25 Let $A B C$ be a triangle and $D, E$ points on the sides $B C$ and $C A$ such that $D E$ passes through the incenter of $A B C$. Let $S$ denote the area of the triangle $C D E$ and $r$ the inradius of triangle $A B C$. Prove that $S \geq 2 r^{2}$.
1.1.26 In the plane of an isosceles triangle $A B C$ with $A C=B C \geq A B$ find the points $X$ such that the expression $r(X)=A X+B X-C X$ is a minimum.
1.1.27 Two vertices of an equilateral triangle are at distance 1 away from a point $O$. What is the maximum of the distance between $O$ and the third vertex of the triangle?
1.1.28 Let $A B C$ be a triangle with centroid $G$. Determine the position of the point $P$ in the plane of $A B C$ such that

$$
A P \cdot A G+B P \cdot B G+C P \cdot C G
$$

is a minimum, and express this minimum in terms of the side lengths of $A B C$.
1.1.29 Inscribe a quadrilateral of minimal perimeter in a given rectangle.
1.1.30 Among all quadrilaterals $A B C D$ with $A B=3, \quad C D=2$, and $\angle A M B=120^{\circ}$, where $M$ is the midpoint of $C D$, find the one of minimal perimeter.
1.1.31 Let $A B C D E F$ be a convex hexagon with $A B=B C=C D, D E=E F=$ $F A$, and $\angle B C D=\angle E F A=60^{\circ}$. Let $G$ and $H$ be points interior to the hexagon such that the angles $A G B$ and $D H E$ are both $120^{\circ}$. Prove that

$$
A G+G B+G H+D H+H E \geq C F
$$

1.1.32 Find the points $X$ in the plane such that the sum of the distances from $X$ to the vertices of:
(a) a given convex quadrilateral;
(b) a given centrally symmetric polygon,
is a minimum.
1.1.33 Among all quadrilaterals with diagonals of given lengths and given angle between them determine the ones of minimum perimeter.
1.1.34 Let $A B C D$ be a parallelogram of area $S$ and $M$ a point interior to it. Prove that

$$
A M \cdot C M+B M \cdot D M \geq S
$$

Determine all cases of equality if $A B C D$ is (a) a square; (b) a rectangle.
1.1.35 Let $a, b, c, d$ be the lengths of the consecutive sides of a quadrilateral of area $S$. Prove that

$$
S \leq \frac{1}{2}(a c+b d)
$$

Equality occurs if and only if the quadrilateral is cyclic and its diagonals are perpendicular.
1.1.36 Let $A B C D$ be a tetrahedron such that $A D=B C$ and $A C=B D$. Find the points $X$ in space such that the sum

$$
t(X)=A X+B X+C X+D X
$$

is a minimum.
1.1.37 Let $\alpha$ be a plane in space, $O$ a given point on $\alpha$, and let $O A$ and $O B$ be two rays on the same side of $\alpha$ (i.e., in the same half-space with respect to $\alpha$ ). Find a line through $O$ in $\alpha$ such that sum of the angles it makes with $O A$ and $O B$ is a minimum.
1.1.38 All faces of a tetrahedron $A B C D$ are acute-angled triangles. Let $X, Y$, $Z$, and $T$ be points in the interiors of the edges $A B, B C, C D$, and $D A$, respectively. Show that:
(a) if $\angle D A B+\angle B C D \neq \angle A B C+\angle C D A$, then among the broken lines $X Y Z T X$ there is none of minimum length.
(b) if $\angle D A B+\angle B C D=\angle A B C+\angle C D A$, then there are infinitely many broken lines $X Y Z T X$ with a minimum length equal to $2 A C \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$, where $\alpha=\angle B A C+\angle C A D+\angle D A B$.
1.1.39 Two cities $A$ and $B$ are separated by a river that has parallel banks. Design a road from $A$ to $B$ that goes over a bridge across the river perpendicular to its banks such that the length of the road is minimal.
1.1.40 Let $A B C$ be an equilateral triangle with side length 1 . John and James play the following game. John chooses a point $X$ on the side $A C$, then James chooses a point $Y$ on $B C$, and finally John chooses a point $Z$ on $A B$.
(a) Suppose that John's aim is to obtain a triangle $X Y Z$ of largest possible perimeter, while James's aim is to get a triangle $X Y Z$ of smallest possible perimeter. What is the largest possible perimeter of triangle $X Y Z$ that John can achieve and with what strategy?
(b) Suppose that John's aim is to obtain a triangle $X Y Z$ of largest possible area, while James's aim is to get a triangle $X Y Z$ of smallest possible area. What is the largest area of triangle $X Y Z$ that John can achieve and with what strategy?
1.1.41 Let $A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$ and $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ be two acute-angled triangles. Consider all triangles $A B C$ that are similar to triangle $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ (so that vertices $A_{1}, B_{1}$, $C_{1}$ correspond to vertices $A, B, C$, respectively) and circumscribed about triangle $A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$ (where $A_{0}$ lies on $B C, B_{0}$ on $C A$, and $C_{0}$ on $A B$ ). Of all such possible triangles, determine the one with maximum area, and construct it.

### 1.2 Employing Algebraic Inequalities

A large variety of geometric problems on maxima and minima can be solved by using appropriate algebraic inequalities. Conversely, many algebraic inequalities can be interpreted geometrically as such problems. A typical example is the wellknown arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality,

$$
\frac{x+y}{2} \geq \sqrt{x y} \quad(x, y \geq 0)
$$

which is equivalent to the following:
Of all rectangles with a given perimeter the square has maximal area.
In this section we solve several geometric problems on maxima and minima using classical algebraic inequalities. As one would expect, in using this approach the solution is normally given by the cases in which equality occurs. That is why it is quite important to analyze these cases carefully.

We list below some classical algebraic inequalities that are frequently used in solving geometric extremum problems.

## Arithmetic Mean-Geometric Mean Inequality

For any nonnegative numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$,

$$
\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}}{n} \geq \sqrt[n]{x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n}$.

## Root Mean Square-Arithmetic Mean Inequality

For any real numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$,

$$
\sqrt{\frac{x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}}{n}} \geq \frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}}{n}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n}$.

## Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

For any real numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and $y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}$,

$$
\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right)\left(y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}+\cdots+y_{n}^{2}\right) \geq\left(x_{1} y_{1}+x_{2} y_{2}+\cdots+x_{n} y_{n}\right)^{2},
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{i}$ and $y_{i}$ are proportional, $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.

## Minkowski's Inequality

For any real numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}, \ldots, z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}+\cdots+z_{1}^{2}}+\sqrt{x_{2}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}+\cdots+z_{2}^{2}}+\cdots+\sqrt{x_{n}^{2}+y_{n}^{2}+\cdots+z_{n}^{2}} \\
& \geq \sqrt{\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{1}+y_{2}+\cdots+y_{n}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(z_{1}+z_{2}+\cdots+z_{n}\right)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{i}, y_{i}, \ldots, z_{i}$ are proportional, $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.
For more information on algebraic inequalities we refer the reader to the books [9], [14], [19].

We begin with the well known isoperimetric problem for triangle.

Problem 1.2.1 Of all triangles with a given perimeter find the one with maximum area.

Solution. Consider an arbitrary triangle with side lengths $a, b, c$ and perimeter $2 s=a+b+c$. By Heron's formula, its area $F$ is given by

$$
F=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}
$$

Now the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\sqrt[3]{(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)} \leq \frac{(s-a)+(s-b)+(s-c)}{3}=\frac{s}{3} .
$$

Therefore

$$
F \leq \sqrt{s\left(\frac{s}{3}\right)^{3}}=s^{2} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{9}
$$

where equality holds if and only if $s-a=s-b=s-c$, i.e., when $a=b=c$.
Thus, the area of any triangle with perimeter $2 s$ does not exceed $\frac{s^{2} \sqrt{3}}{9}$ and is equal to $\frac{s^{2} \sqrt{3}}{9}$ only for an equilateral triangle.

Problem 1.2.2 Of all rectangular boxes without a lid and having a given surface area find the one with maximum volume.

Solution. Let $x, y$, and $z$ be the edge lengths of the box (Fig. 14), and let $S$ be its surface area.


Figure 14.
Then $S=x y+2 x z+2 z y$, and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\left(\frac{S}{3}\right)^{3}=\left(\frac{x y+2 x z+2 z y}{3}\right)^{3} \geq 4 x^{2} y^{2} z^{2}
$$

So, for the volume $V=x y z$ of the box we get $V \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{S}{3}\right)^{3 / 2}$. The maximum volume is obtained when equality holds, i.e., when $x y=2 x z=2 z y$. The latter easily implies that the edges of the box with maximum volume are $x=y=\sqrt{\frac{S}{3}}$ and $z=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{S}{3}}$.

The next problem is a generalization of Problem 1.1.10.

Problem 1.2.3 Two positive integers $p$ and $q$ are given, and $a$ point $M$ in the interior of an angle with vertex $O$. A line through $M$ intersects the sides of the angle at points $A$ and $B$. Find the position of the line for which the product $O A^{p}$. $O B^{q}$ is a minimum.

Solution. Consider the points $K$ on $O A$ and $L$ on $O B$ such that $M K$ is parallel to $O B$ and $M L$ is parallel to $O A$ (Fig. 15). Then $\triangle K M A \sim \triangle O B A$ gives $O B=$ $\frac{A B}{A M} \cdot M K$. Similarly, $O A=\frac{A B}{B M} \cdot M L$. Therefore

$$
O A^{p} \cdot O B^{q}=\frac{M L^{p} \cdot M K^{q}}{\left(\frac{B M}{A B}\right)^{p} \cdot\left(\frac{A M}{A B}\right)^{q}}
$$

Since $M K$ and $M L$ do not depend on the choice of the line through $M$, it follows that $O A^{p} \cdot O B^{q}$ is minimal whenever $\left(\frac{B M}{A B}\right)^{p} \cdot\left(\frac{A M}{A B}\right)^{q}$ is maximal.


Figure 15.
Set $x=\frac{B M}{A B}$ and $y=\frac{A M}{A B}$. Then $x+y=1$ and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality for $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{p}=\frac{x}{p}$ and $x_{p+1}=\cdots=x_{p+q}=\frac{y}{q}$ gives

$$
\frac{1}{p+q}=\frac{x+y}{p+q} \geq \sqrt[p+q]{\left(\frac{x}{p}\right)^{p}\left(\frac{y}{q}\right)^{q}}
$$

Thus $x^{p} \cdot y^{q} \leq \frac{p^{p} q^{q}}{(p+q)^{p+q}}$ and $x^{p} y^{q}$ is maximal when $\frac{x}{p}=\frac{y}{q}$, i.e., when $\frac{B M}{A M}=\frac{p}{q}$. Therefore the line through $M$ must be drawn in such a way that $A M: M B=q: p$. Note that there exists a unique line with this property.

It should be mentioned that the above problem is closely related to Problem 1.1.10 and its space analogue (see Problem 1.4.4 below). The former is obtained from Problem 1.2.3 when $p=q=1$, while the latter uses the case $p=1, q=2$.

Problem 1.2.4 Let $X, Y$, and $Z$ be points on the lines determined by three pairwise skew (i.e., not lying in a plane) edges of a given cube. Find the position of these three points such that the perimeter of triangle $X Y Z$ is a minimum.

Solution. Assume that the given cube $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ has edge of length 1. Without loss of generality we will assume that $X$ lies on the line determined by $C_{1} D_{1}, Y$ on the line $A D$ and $Z$ on the line $B B_{1}$ (Fig. 16).


Figure 16.
Consider the coordinate system in space with origin $A$ and coordinates axes $A B, A D$, and $A A_{1}$. Then the points $X, Y, Z$ have coordinates $X=(x, 1,1)$, $Y=(0, y, 0), Z=(1,0, z)$, and the perimeter $P$ of $\triangle X Y Z$ is given by

$$
P=\sqrt{1+y^{2}+z^{2}}+\sqrt{(1-x)^{2}+1+(1-z)^{2}}+\sqrt{x^{2}+(1-y)^{2}+1} .
$$

Now the problem is to minimize the expression in the right-hand side when $x, y, z$ range independently over the interval $(-\infty,+\infty)$. From its nature, one would expect this to be done by means of Minkowski's inequality. Using this inequality directly gives

$$
P \geq \sqrt{[1+(1-x)+x]^{2}+[y+(1-y)+1]^{2}+[z+(1-z)+1]^{2}}
$$

that is, $P \geq \sqrt{12}$. This may lead to the wrong conclusion that the minimum of $P$ is $\sqrt{12}$. In fact, the above inequality is strict, i.e., equality never occurs. This can be easily derived from the condition for equality in Minkowski's inequality (see the Glossary).

Let us now show how to use Minkowski's inequality in a different way that leads to a correct result. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
P & \geq \sqrt{(1+1+1)^{2}+(y+1-z+x)^{2}+(z+2-x-y)^{2}} \\
& =\sqrt{9+(1+x+y-z)^{2}+[2-(x+y-z)]^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, using the root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality, one gets

$$
(1+x+y-z)^{2}+[2-(x+y-z)]^{2} \geq \frac{9}{2}
$$

and therefore $P \geq \sqrt{9+\frac{9}{2}}=\sqrt{\frac{27}{2}}$. One checks easily that $P=\sqrt{\frac{27}{2}}$ if and only if $x=y=z=\frac{1}{2}$, showing that the perimeter of $\triangle X Y Z$ is minimal precisely when $X, Y$, and $Z$ are the midpoints of the corresponding edges of the cube.

As we mentioned earlier in this section, when solving geometric problems on maxima and minima by means of algebraic inequalities it is rather important to investigate exactly when equality occurs. Sometimes, however, it is not an easy task to transform the obtained algebraic information into a geometric answer. Here is an example in which something similar happens.

Problem 1.2.5 For any point $X$ inside a given triangle $A B C$ denote by $x, y$, and $z$ the distances from $X$ to the lines $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively. Find the position of $X$ for which the sum $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$ is a minimum.

Solution. Set $B C=a, C A=b, A B=c$. Then $2[A B C]=a x+b y+c z$ and the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality gives

$$
4[A B C]^{2}=(a x+b y+c z)^{2} \leq\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}\right) .
$$

Hence

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \geq \frac{4[A B C]^{2}}{a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}}
$$

Therefore the sum $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$ should be minimal for all points $X$ (if any) such that

$$
\frac{x}{a}=\frac{y}{b}=\frac{z}{c}
$$

What are the points $X$ in a triangle having this property? We leave it as an exercise to the reader to find out the answer to this question. Let us just mention that for any triangle there exists only one point $X$ satisfying the above condition. This is called Lemoine's point, which is defined as the intersection point of the lines symmetric to the medians of the triangle with respect to the corresponding angle bisectors.

As for the maximal value of the expression $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$, it is not difficult to see that it is achieved when $X$ coincides with the vertex of the smallest angle of the triangle. Indeed, let $a=B C$ be the smallest side (or one of them) of $\triangle A B C$. Then $a(x+y+z) \leq a x+b y+c z=2[A B C]$, so $x+y+z \leq h_{a}$, where $h_{a}$ is the length of the altitude through $A$. On the other hand, $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \leq(x+y+z)^{2}$, and therefore $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \leq h_{a}^{2}$, with equality only if $X=A$.

## EXERCISES

1.2.6 Show that of all rectangles inscribed in a given circle the square has a maximum area.
1.2.7 A square is cut into several rectangles. Show that the sum of the areas of the disks determined by the circumscribed circles of these rectangles is not less than the area of the disk determined by the circumcircle of the given square.
1.2.8 Prove that of all rectangular parallelepipeds of a given volume the cube has a minimum surface area.
1.2.9 A rectangle with side lengths 1 and $d$ is cut by two perpendicular lines into four smaller rectangles. Three of them have areas not less than 1, while the area of the fourth one is not less than 2. Find the smallest positive number $d$ for which this is possible.
1.2.10 A square and a triangle have equal areas. Which of them has larger perimeter?
1.2.11 Find the length of the shortest line segment dividing a given triangle into two parts with equal:
(a) areas;
(b) perimeters.
1.2.12 Let $O$ be a point in the plane of a quadrilateral $A B C D$ such that

$$
A O^{2}+B O^{2}+C O^{2}+D O^{2}=2[A B C D]
$$

Prove that $A B C D$ is a square with center $O$.
1.2.13 A convex quadrilateral has area 1 . Find the maximum of:
(a) its perimeter;
(b) the sum of its diagonals.
1.2.14 In a convex quadrilateral of area 32 , the sum of the lengths of two opposite sides and one diagonal is 16 . Determine all possible lengths of the other diagonal.
1.2.15 Of all tetrahedra with a right-angled trihedral angle at one of the vertices and a given sum of the six edges, find the one of maximal volume.
1.2.16 The volume and the surface area of a parallelepiped are numerically equal to 216 . Prove that the parallelepiped is a cube.
1.2.17 Let $\alpha$ be a given plane in space and $A$ and $B$ two points on different sides of $\alpha$. Describe the sphere through $A$ and $B$ that cuts off a disk of minimal area from $\alpha$.
1.2.18 Let $l$ be the length of a broken line in space, and $a, b, c$ the lengths of its orthogonal projections onto the coordinate planes.
(a) Prove that $a+b+c \leq l \sqrt{6}$.
(b) Does there exist a closed broken line such that $a+b+c=l \sqrt{6}$ ?
1.2.19 For any point $X$ in a given triangle $A B C$ denote by $x, y$, and $z$ the distances from $X$ to the lines $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively. Find the position of $X$ for which:
(a) $\frac{a}{x}+\frac{b}{y}+\frac{c}{z}$;
(b) $\frac{1}{a x}+\frac{1}{b y}+\frac{1}{c z}$,
is a minimum. (Here $a=B C, b=C A, c=A B$.)
1.2.20 Let $X$ be an arbitrary point in the interior of a tetrahedron $A B C D$ and let $d_{1}, d_{2}, d_{3}$, and $d_{4}$ be the distances from $X$ to its faces. What is the position of $X$ for which the product $d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d_{4}$ is a maximum?
1.2.21 Given a point $X$ in the interior of a given triangle, one draws the lines through $X$ parallel to the sides of the triangle. These lines divide the triangle into six parts, three of which are triangles with areas $S_{1}, S_{2}$, and $S_{3}$. Find the position of $X$ such that the sum $S_{1}+S_{2}+S_{3}$ is a minimum.
1.2.22 Three lines are drawn through an interior point $M$ of a given triangle $A B C$ such that the first line intersects the sides $A B$ and $B C$ at points $C_{1}$ and $A_{2}$, the second line intersects the sides $B C$ and $C A$ at points $A_{1}$ and $B_{2}$, and the third line intersects the sides $C A$ and $A B$ at points $B_{1}$ and $C_{2}$. Find the least possible value of the sum

$$
\frac{1}{\left[A_{1} A_{2} M\right]}+\frac{1}{\left[B_{1} B_{2} M\right]}+\frac{1}{\left[C_{1} C_{2} M\right]}
$$

1.2.23 Let $X$ be a point in the interior of a triangle $A B C$ and let the lines $A X$, $B X$, and $C X$ intersect the sides $B C, C A$, and $A B$ at points $A_{1}, B_{1}$, and $C_{1}$, respectively. Find the position of $X$ for which the area of triangle $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ is a maximum.
1.2.24 Let $A B C$ be an equilateral triangle and $P$ a point interior to it. Prove that the area of the triangle with sides the line segments $P A, P B$, and $P C$ is not greater than $\frac{1}{3}[A B C]$.
1.2.25 Points $C_{1}, A_{1}, B_{1}$ are chosen on the sides $A B, B C, C A$ of an equilateral triangle $A B C$. Determine the maximum value of the sum of the inradii of triangles $A B_{1} C_{1}, B C_{1} A_{1}$, and $C A_{1} B_{1}$.
1.2.26 The points $D$ and $E$ are chosen on the sides $A B$ and $B C$ of a triangle $A B C$. The points $K$ and $M$ divide the line segment $D E$ into three equal parts. The lines $B K$ and $B M$ intersect the side $A C$ at $T$ and $P$, respectively. Prove that $T P \leq \frac{A C}{3}$.
1.2.27 Find the triangles $A B C$ for which the expression

$$
\Delta=\frac{a A+b B+c C}{a+b+c}
$$

has a minimum. Does this expression have a maximum?
1.2.28 In a given sphere, inscribe a cone of maximal volume.
1.2.29 Let $P$ be a point on a given sphere. Three mutually perpendicular rays from $P$ meet the sphere at $A, B, C$. Find the maximum area of triangle $A B C$.
1.2.30 A trihedral angle with vertex $O$ and a positive number $a$ are given. Find points $A, B$, and $C$, one on its edges, such that $O A+O B+O C=a$ and the volume of the tetrahedron $O A B C$ is a maximum.
1.2.31 Let $M$ be a point lying on the base $A B C$ of a tetrahedron $A B C D$ and let $A_{1}, B_{1}$, and $C_{1}$ be the feet of the perpendiculars drawn from $M$ to the faces $B C D, A C D$, and $A B D$, respectively. Find the position of $M$ for which the volume of the tetrahedron $M A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ is a maximum.
1.2.32 Let $p, q$, and $r$ be given positive integers. A plane $\alpha$ passing through a given point $M$ in the interior of a given trihedral angle with vertex $O$ intersects its edges at points $A, B$, and $C$. Find the position of $\alpha$ for which the product $O A^{p} \cdot O B^{q} \cdot O C^{r}$ is a minimum.
1.2.33 A container having the shape of a hemisphere with radius $R$ is full of water. A rectangualar parallelepiped with sides $a$ and $b$ and height $h>R$ is immersed in the container. Find the values of $a$ and $b$ for which such an immersion will expel a maximum volume of water from the container.

### 1.3 Employing Calculus

Many geometry problems on maxima and minima can be stated as problems for finding the maxima or the minima of certain functions depending on several variables. For example, the problem of inscribing a triangle of maximal area in a circle


Figure 17.
is easily reduced to finding the maximum of the function $f(\alpha, \beta)=\sin \alpha \sin \beta$ $\sin (\alpha+\beta)$, where $\alpha>0, \beta>0, \alpha+\beta<180^{\circ}$ (Fig. 17).

In general the function obtained in modeling the problem is complicated and difficult to investigate. Sometimes, however, one manages to reduce the problem to finding the maxima or minima of a function depending on one variable.

In this section we consider several geometric problems on maxima and minima whose solutions can be reduced to the investigation of relatively simple functions of one variable.

Before proceeding with the problems we state several facts about functions of one variable that are used in this section. Existence of extrema of functions of one variable are frequently derived by means of the well-known extreme value theorem:

Extreme Value Theorem. If $f(t)$ is a continuous function on a finite closed interval $I=[a, b]$, then $f$ has an (absolute) maximum and an (absolute) minimum in I.

It is worth mentioning that $f$ can achieve its maximal (minimal) value at more than one point. To find these points one normally uses one of the following two theorems.

Monotonicity Theorem. Let $f(t)$ be a continuous function on an interval I and let $f$ be differentiable in the interior of $I$.
(a) If $f(t)$ is increasing in $I$, then $f^{\prime}(t) \geq 0$ for all $t$ in the interior of $I$.
(b) If $f^{\prime}(t) \geq 0$ for all $t$ in the interior of $I$, then $f$ is increasing in $I$. Moreover, if $f^{\prime}(t)>0$ for all but finitely many $t$ in the interior of $I$, then $f$ is strictly increasing in $I$.

The assumption that $I$ is an interval is essential for the validity of (b). Similarly, the inequality $f^{\prime}(t) \leq 0$ characterizes decreasing functions on intervals.

As a consequence of the above theorem one gets the following.

Fermat's Theorem. Let $f(t)$ be a differentiable function on an interval I. If $f$ has a local maximum or minimum at some point $t_{0}$ in the interior of $I$, then $f^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$.

In particular, if $f$ is continuous on an interval $[a, b]$, differentiable in $(a, b)$, and the equation $f(t)=0$ has no solution in $(a, b)$, then $f$ achieves its (absolute) maximal and minimal values at the ends of the interval and nowhere else.

Intermediate Value Theorem. If $f(t)$ is continuous in the finite closed interval $[a, b]$ and $f(a) \cdot f(b)<0$, then there exists at least one $t \in(a, b)$ such that $f(t)=0$.

We start with an example in which a quadratic function is used.
Problem 1.3.1 Two ships travel along given directions with constant speeds. At 9 a.m. the distance between them is 20 miles, at 9:35 the distance is 15 miles, while at 9:55 the distances is 13 miles. Find the time when the distance between the ships is a minimum.

Solution. Assume that one of the ships travels along a line $g$, while the second travels along a line $h$. First, assume that $g$ and $h$ intersect at some point $O$ (Fig. 18). Denote by $\alpha$ the angle between the two directions of motion and by $A$ and $B$ the positions of the ships at $9 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. Set $u_{1}=O A$, and $u_{2}=O B$ if $\angle B O A=\alpha$, and $u_{1}=-O A$ if $\angle B O A=180^{\circ}-\alpha$. Let $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ be the speeds of the two ships.


Figure 18.
Then using the law of cosines we get that the distance $\ell$ between the ships at time $t$ is given by

$$
\ell^{2}=\left(u_{1}+v_{1} t\right)^{2}+\left(u_{2}+v_{2} t\right)^{2}-2\left(u_{1}+v_{1} t\right)\left(u_{2}+v_{2} t\right) \cos \alpha
$$

Thus, $\ell^{2}$ is a quadratic function of $t$, i.e., it can be written as $\ell^{2}=a t^{2}+2 b t+c$ for some real constants $a, b$, and $c$ (which can be explicitly determined by means of $u_{1}, u_{2}, v_{1}$, and $v_{2}$ ).

In the case that $g$ and $h$ are parallel lines, it is also easy to see that $\ell^{2}$ is a quadratic function of $t$; we leave this as an exercise to the reader.

Thus, $\ell^{2}=a t^{2}+2 b t+c$ for some constants $a, b$, and $c$. Assume that our unit of time is 5 minutes. Then the assumptions in the problem give the following system of equations for $a, b$, and $c$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 400=c \\
& 225=49 a+14 b+c \\
& 169=121 a+22 b+c .
\end{aligned}
$$

The unique solution of this system is $a=1, b=-16, c=400$, and we have that

$$
\ell^{2}=t^{2}-32 t+400=(t-16)^{2}+144 .
$$

Hence $\ell \geq 12$ and $\ell=12$ when $t=16$. Thus the distance between the two ships is a minimum at 10:20 a.m.

The following problem gives a mathematical explanation of the law of SnellFermat, well known in physics, concerning the motion of light in an inhomogeneous medium.

Problem 1.3.2 $A$ line $\ell$ is given in the plane and two points $A$ and $B$ on different sides of the line. A particle moves with constant speed $v_{1}$ in the half-plane containing $A$ and with constant speed $v_{2}$ in the half-plane containing $B$. Find the path from $A$ to $B$ that is traversed in minimal time by the particle.

Solution. Consider a coordinate system $O x y$ in the plane such that the axis $O x$ coincides with $\ell$ and $O A$ is perpendicular to $\ell$.

Then in coordinates, $A=(0, a)$ and $B=(d,-b)$. Without loss of generality we will assume that $a>0, b>0$, and $d>0$ (Fig. 19). Given a point $X$ on $\ell$ with coordinates $(x, 0)$, we have $A X=\sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}$ and $B X=\sqrt{b^{2}+(d-x)^{2}}$. The time $t$ that the particle requires to traverse the broken line $A X B$ is

$$
t(x)=\frac{A X}{v_{1}}+\frac{B X}{v_{2}}=\frac{1}{v_{1}} \sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}+\frac{1}{v_{2}} \sqrt{b^{2}+(d-x)^{2}} .
$$

Using a simple geometric argument, it is enough to investigate the function $t(x)$ for $0 \leq x \leq d$ (for $x$ outside this interval $t(x)$ cannot have a minimum). We have

$$
t^{\prime}(x)=\frac{x}{v_{1} \sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}}-\frac{d-x}{v_{2} \sqrt{b^{2}+(d-x)^{2}}} .
$$



Figure 19.

It follows from

$$
\frac{x}{\sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{a^{2}}{x^{2}}+1}}
$$

that the function $\frac{x}{\sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}}$ is strictly increasing in the interval $[0, d]$. Similarly, $-\frac{d-x}{\sqrt{b^{2}+(d-x)^{2}}}$ is strictly increasing in the same interval, so $t^{\prime}(x)$ is also strictly increasing in $[0, d]$. Since $t^{\prime}(0)<0$ and $t^{\prime}(d)>0$, the intermediate value theorem shows that there is a (unique) $x_{0} \in(0, d)$ with $t^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=0$. It is now clear that $t^{\prime}(x)<0$ for $x \in\left[0, x_{0}\right)$ and $t^{\prime}(x)>0$ for $x \in\left(x_{0}, d\right]$, so by the monotonicity theorem, $t(x)$ is strictly decreasing in $\left[0, x_{0}\right]$ and strictly increasing in $\left[x_{0}, d\right]$. Thus, $t(x)$ has a minimum at $x_{0}$. Notice that for the point $X_{0}=\left(x_{0}, 0\right)$ the condition $t^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=0$ can be written as

$$
\frac{\sin \alpha}{v_{1}}=\frac{x_{0}}{v_{1} \sqrt{a^{2}+x_{0}^{2}}}=\frac{d-x_{0}}{v_{2} \sqrt{b^{2}+\left(d-x_{0}\right)^{2}}}=\frac{\sin \beta}{v_{2}}
$$

where $\alpha$ is the angle between $A X$ and $O y$, while $\beta$ is the angle between $B X$ and Ox.

Hence there exists a unique point $X_{0}$ on $\ell$ such that the path $A X_{0} B$ is traversed for a minimal time by the particle, and this point is characterized by the equation $\frac{\sin \alpha}{v_{1}}=\frac{\sin \beta}{v_{2}}$.

The latter equality is called the law of Snell-Fermat for the diffraction of a light beam when it leaves a homogeneous medium and enters another one. This law has its fundamentals in the principle that a light beam always travels along a path that takes a minimal amount of time to traverse.

Problem 1.3.3 Two externally tangent circles are inscribed in a given angle Opq. Find points $A$ and $D$ on the ray $p$ and $B$ and $C$ on the ray $q$ such that $A B$ and
$C D$ are parallel, the quadrilateral $A B C D$ contains the two circles, and the line segment $A D$ has minimal length.

Solution. Let $r$ and $R, r<R$, be the radii of the circles and $O_{2}$ and $O_{1}$ their centers (Fig. 20). We may assume that $A B$ is tangent to the circle with radius $R$ and $D C$ tangent to the circle with radius $r$. Let $P$ and $Q$ be the tangent points of the two circles with $A D$, where $P$ is between $A$ and $Q$. Set $x=D Q$. We will now find $A D$ as a function of $x$. Since $O_{1} O_{2}=R+r$, from the right-angled trapezoid $P O_{1} O_{2} Q$ one gets $P Q=2 \sqrt{R r}$. On the other hand,

$$
\angle P A O_{1}=\frac{1}{2} \angle P A B=\frac{1}{2}\left(180^{\circ}-\angle Q D C\right)=90^{\circ}-\angle Q D O_{2}=\angle Q O_{2} D
$$



Figure 20.
so $\triangle A O_{1} P \sim \triangle O_{2} D Q$. Consequently, $\frac{R}{P A}=\frac{x}{r}$, i.e., $P A=\frac{R r}{x}$. This implies $A D=f(x)+2 \sqrt{R r}$ with $f(x)=x+\frac{R r}{x}$.

Now we have to find the minimum of $f(x)$ over the interval $0<x<x_{0}=Q O$. Notice that $\triangle P O_{1} O \sim \triangle Q O_{2} O$ implies $x_{0}=\frac{2 r}{R-r} \sqrt{R r}$.

We have $f^{\prime}(x)=1-\frac{R r}{x^{2}}$, and therefore $f(x)$ is strictly decreasing for $x \in$ $(0, \sqrt{R r})$ and strictly increasing for $x \in(\sqrt{R r}, \infty)$. Also notice that $x_{0} \leq \sqrt{R r}$ is equivalent to $3 r \leq R$, which in turn is equivalent to $\alpha=\angle A O B \geq 60^{\circ}$.

Case 1. $3 r \leq R$ (i.e., $\alpha \geq 60^{\circ}$ ). Then $x_{0} \leq \sqrt{R r}$, so $f(x)$ is strictly decreasing in $\left(0, x_{0}\right)$, i.e., $f(x)$ has no minimum in the interval $\left(0, x_{0}\right)$. In other words, when $3 r \leq R$ the problem has no solution.

Case 2. $3 r>R$ (i.e., $\alpha<60^{\circ}$ ). Then $\sqrt{R r}<x_{0}$ and clearly on the interval $\left(0, x_{0}\right), f(x)$ has a minimum at $x=\sqrt{R r}$. Hence the minimum length of $A D$ is $4 \sqrt{R r}$. The construction of the trapezoid $A B C D$ can be done by first finding the point $D$ on $Q O$ such that $Q D=\sqrt{R r}$. After that the construction of the points $A, B$, and $C$ is straightforward.

Problem 1.3.4 A corridor having the shape of a letter $\Gamma$ is a units wide in one of its wings and $b$ units wide in the other. Find the length of the longest stick that can move from one of the wings to the other. (It is assumed that the thickness of the stick is negligible and during the motion the stick stays horizontal.)

Solution. Consider an arbitrary angle $\alpha$ between $0^{\circ}$ and $90^{\circ}$, and let $A B$ be a line segment in the corner of the corridor that is tangent to the vertex $O$ of the inside right angle of the corridor and makes angle $\alpha$ with one of its walls (see Fig. 21). Then

$$
f(\alpha)=A B=A O+O B=\frac{a}{\cos \alpha}+\frac{b}{\sin \alpha}
$$



Figure 21.
A stick of length $\ell$ could be moved from one wing of the corridor to the other if $\ell \leq f(\alpha)$ for all $\alpha \in\left(0,90^{\circ}\right)$.

This is a necessary and sufficient condition, so the maximal length $\ell$ of the stick will be the minimum of the function $f(\alpha)$ over $\left(0,90^{\circ}\right)$ if it exists.

We have

$$
f^{\prime}(\alpha)=\frac{a \sin \alpha}{\cos ^{2} \alpha}-\frac{b \cos \alpha}{\sin ^{2} \alpha}=\frac{a \cos \alpha}{\sin ^{2} \alpha}\left(\tan ^{3} \alpha-\frac{b}{a}\right) .
$$

Since $\tan ^{3} \alpha$ increases strictly from 0 to $\infty$ when $\alpha$ runs from $0^{\circ}$ to $90^{\circ}$, there exists a unique $\alpha_{0} \in\left(0,90^{\circ}\right)$ such that $\tan ^{3} \alpha_{0}=\frac{b}{a}$. Then $f^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=0$, and moreover, $f^{\prime}(\alpha)<0$ for $\alpha \in\left(0, \alpha_{0}\right)$ and $f^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$ for $\alpha \in\left(\alpha_{0}, 90^{\circ}\right)$. Thus, $f(x)$ has a
minimum at $\alpha_{0}$. It follows from $\tan \alpha_{0}=\sqrt[3]{\frac{b}{a}}$ that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \cos ^{2} \alpha_{0}=\frac{1}{1+\tan ^{2} \alpha_{0}}=\frac{1}{1+\sqrt[3]{\frac{b^{2}}{a^{2}}}}=\frac{a^{2 / 3}}{a^{2 / 3}+b^{2 / 3}} \\
& \sin ^{2} \alpha_{0}=1-\cos ^{2} \alpha_{0}=\frac{b^{2 / 3}}{a^{2 / 3}+b^{2 / 3}}
\end{aligned}
$$

So

$$
f\left(\alpha_{0}\right)=\frac{a}{\cos \alpha_{0}}+\frac{b}{\sin \alpha_{0}}=\left(a^{2 / 3}+b^{2 / 3}\right)^{3 / 2} .
$$

Hence the maximal length of a stick that can be moved from one wing of the corridor to the other is $\ell=\left(a^{2 / 3}+b^{2 / 3}\right)^{3 / 2}$.

Problem 1.3.5 The length of the edge of a cube $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ is 1 . A point $M$ is chosen on the extension of the edge $A D$ such that $D$ is between $A$ and $M$ and $A M=2 \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$. Let $E$ be the midpoint of $A_{1} B_{1}$ and $F$ the midpoint of $D D_{1}$. What is the maximum possible value of the ratio $\frac{M P}{P Q}$, where $P$ is a point on $A E$, while $Q$ is a point on CF ?

Solution. If $L$ is the midpoint of $A A_{1}$, then clearly $B L F C$ is a rectangle (Fig. 22).


Figure 22.
For the intersection point $N$ of $A E$ and $B L$ we have $\triangle A N L \sim \triangle A A_{1} E$, which gives $A N=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$. Consider arbitrary points $P$ and $Q$ on the line segments $A E$ and $C F$, respectively. Let $Q_{1}$ be the point on $B L$ such that $Q Q_{1} \| B C$, and
let $x=A P-A N$ and $y=N Q_{1}$. We then have $P Q_{1}^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}, P Q^{2}=$ $P Q_{1}^{2}+Q Q_{1}^{2}=1+x^{2}+y^{2}$, and $M P^{2}=A M^{2}+A P^{2}=\frac{8}{5}+\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}+x\right)^{2}$. Therefore

$$
\frac{M P^{2}}{P Q^{2}}=\frac{\frac{9}{5}+\frac{2 x}{\sqrt{5}}+x^{2}}{1+x^{2}+y^{2}} \leq \frac{\frac{9}{5}+\frac{2 x}{\sqrt{5}}+x^{2}}{1+x^{2}}
$$

where equality holds if and only if $y=0$, that is, when $Q N \| B C$. Clearly the latter determines the position of $Q$.

Since $A N=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ and $A E=\frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}$, for $x=A P-A N$ we have $x \in \Delta=$ $\left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{3}{2 \sqrt{5}}\right]$. It remains to find the maximum of

$$
f(x)=\frac{\frac{9}{5}+\frac{2 x}{\sqrt{5}}+x^{2}}{1+x^{2}}=1+\frac{2}{5} \cdot \frac{2+\sqrt{5} x}{1+x^{2}}
$$

when $x \in \Delta$. For the function $g(x)=\frac{2+\sqrt{5} x}{1+x^{2}}$ we have

$$
g^{\prime}(x)=\frac{\sqrt{5}-4 x-\sqrt{5} x^{2}}{\left(1+x^{2}\right)^{2}}
$$

So $g^{\prime}(1 / \sqrt{5})=0, g(x)$ is strictly increasing on the interval $\left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\right]$, and strictly decreasing on $\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{3}{2 \sqrt{5}}\right]$. Thus $g(x)$ has a maximum $g(1 / \sqrt{5})=5 / 2$ at $x=$ $1 / \sqrt{5}$. Therefore the maximum value of $\frac{M P}{P Q}$ is $\sqrt{2}$. It is attained when $N Q \| B C$ and $A P=2 A N=2 / \sqrt{5}$.

We have already had the opportunity to remark that not every extreme value geometric problem has a solution (see, e.g., Case 1 in Problem 1.3.4). Here we consider another problem of this kind.

Problem 1.3.6 The length of the edge of the cube $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ is 1 . Two points $M$ and $N$ move along the line segments $A B$ and $A_{1} D_{1}$, respectively, in such a way that at any time $t(0 \leq t<\infty)$ we have $B M=|\sin t|$ and $D_{1} N=$ $|\sin (\sqrt{2} t)|$. Show that MN has no minimum.

Solution. Clearly $M N \geq M A_{1} \geq A A_{1}=1$. If $M N=1$ for some $t$, then $M=A$ and $N=A_{1}$, which is equivalent to $|\sin t|=1$ and $|\sin (\sqrt{2} t)|=1$. Consequently $t=\frac{\pi}{2}+k \pi$ and $\sqrt{2} t=\frac{\pi}{2}+n \pi$ for some integers $k$ and $n$, which implies $\sqrt{2}=\frac{2 n+1}{2 k+1}$, a contradiction since $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. That is why $M N>1$ for any $t$.

We will now show that $M N$ can be made arbitrarily close to 1 . For any integer $k$ set $t_{k}=\frac{\pi}{2}+k \pi$. Then $\left|\sin t_{k}\right|=1$, so at any time $t_{k}$ the point $M$ is at $A$. To show that $N$ can be arbitrarily close to $A_{1}$ at times $t_{k}$, it is enough to show that $\left|\sin \left(\sqrt{2} t_{k}\right)\right|$ can be arbitrarily close to 1 for appropriate choices of $k$.

We are now going to use Kronecker's theorem: If $\alpha$ is an irrational number, then the set of numbers of the form $m \alpha+n$, where $m$ is a positive integer, while $n$ is an arbitrary integer, is dense in the set of all real numbers. The latter means that every nonempty open interval (regardless of how small it is) contains a number of the form $m \alpha+n$.

Since $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational, we can use Kronecker's theorem with $\alpha=\sqrt{2}$. Then for $x=\frac{1-\sqrt{2}}{2}$, and any $\delta>0$ there exist integers $k \geq 1$ and $n_{k}$ such that $k \sqrt{2}-n_{k} \in$ $(x-\delta, x+\delta)$. That is, for $\epsilon_{k}=\sqrt{2} k+\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}-\frac{1}{2}-n_{k}$ we have $\left|\epsilon_{k}\right|<\delta$. Since $\sqrt{2}\left(k+\frac{1}{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}+n_{k}+\epsilon_{k}$, we have

$$
\left|\sin \left(\sqrt{2} t_{k}\right)\right|=\left|\sin \pi \sqrt{2}\left(k+\frac{1}{2}\right)\right|=\left|\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2}+n_{k} \pi+\epsilon_{k} \pi\right)\right|=\left|\cos \left(\pi \epsilon_{k}\right)\right|
$$

It remains to note that $|\cos (\delta \pi)|$ tends to 1 as $\delta$ tends to 0 .
Hence $M N$ can be made arbitrarily close to 1 .

## EXERCISES

1.3.7 A convex quadrilateral of area $S$ is given. Consider a parallelogram with sides parallel to the diagonals of the quadrilateral and vertices lying on its sides. Determine the maximum value of the area of such a parallelogram.
1.3.8 A point $A$ lies between two parallel lines at distances $a$ and $b$ from them. Find points $B$ and $C$, one on each of the lines, such that $\angle B A C=\alpha$, where $0<\alpha<90^{\circ}$ is a given angle and the area of triangle $A B C$ is a maximum.
1.3.9 Of all triangles inside a regular hexagon one side of which is parallel to a side of the hexagon, find those with maximal area.
1.3.10 For any triangle $T$ denote by $S(T)$ its area and by $d(T)$ the minimal length of the diagonal of a rectangle inscribed in $T$. For which triangles $T$ is the ratio $\frac{d^{2}(T)}{S(T)}$ a maximum?
1.3.11 A long sheet of paper having the shape of a rectangle $A B C D$ is folded along the line $E F$, where $E$ is a point on the side $A D$ and $F$ a point on the side $C D$, in such a way that $D$ is mapped to a point $D^{\prime}$ on $A B$ (Fig. 23). What is the minimum possible area of triangle $E F D$ ?


Figure 23.
1.3.12 Of all quadrilaterals inscribed in a given half-disk find the one of maximum area.
1.3.13 A convex quadrilateral of area greater than $\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{4}$ lies in a unit disk. Show that the center of the disk lies inside the quadrilateral.
1.3.14 Find a point $M$ on the circumcircle of a right-angled triangle $A B C(\angle C=$ $90^{\circ}$ ) for which the sum $M A+M B+M C$ is a maximum.
1.3.15 For any $n$-gon $M$ inscribed in a unit circle $k$, denote by $s(M)$ the sum of the squares of its sides.
(a) Show that if $n=3$, then the maximum value of $s(M)$ is 9 and it is attained precisely when $M$ is an equilateral triangle.
(b) Show that if $n>3$, then $s(M)<9$, and for any $\epsilon>0$ there exists an $n$-gon $M$ inscribed in $k$ with $9-\epsilon<s(M)<9$.
1.3.16 A regular $n$-gon with side $a$ is given. One constructs a circle with center at one of the vertices of the polygon and radius less than $a$. Then one constructs a second circle with center at one of the neighboring vertices externally tangent to the first circle. One continues this process until circles are constructed with centers at all vertices of the polygon. Find the radius of the first circle for which the part of the polygon outside the $n$ circles has a maximum area.
1.3.17 The vertices of an $(n+1)$-gon lie on the sides of a regular $n$-gon and divide its perimeter into parts of equal length. How should one construct the $(n+$ 1)-gon so that its area is:
(a) a maximum;
(b) a minimum?
1.3.18 Two points $A$ and $B$ lie on a given circle. Find a point $C$ on the circle such that the sum:
(a) $A C+B C$;
(b) $A C^{2}+B C^{2}$;
(c) $A C^{3}+B C^{3}$
is a maximum.
1.3.19 A line $\ell$ is given in the plane and two points $A$ and $B$ on the same side of the line. Find the points $X$ in the plane for which the sum

$$
t(X)=A X+B X+d(X, \ell)
$$

is a minimum. Here $d(X, \ell)$ denotes the distance from $X$ to $\ell$.
1.3.20 Four towns are the vertices of a square. Find a system of highways joining these towns such that its total length is a minimum.
1.3.21 Of all intersections of a right circular cone with planes through its vertex, find the ones of maximum area.
1.3.22 Point $P$ lies in a given plane $\alpha$, while point $Q$ is outside $\alpha$. Find a point $X$ in $\alpha$ for which the ratio $d(X)=\frac{P Q+P X}{Q X}$ is a maximum.
1.3.23 Given a cube $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$, find the points $M$ on the edge $A B$ such that:
(a) the angle $B_{1} M C_{1}$ is a maximum;
(b) the angle $A_{1} M C_{1}$ is a minimum.
1.3.24 A right circular cone of volume $V_{1}$ and surface area $S_{1}$ and a circular cylinder of volume $V_{2}$ and surface area $S_{2}$ are circumscribed about the same sphere. Prove that:
(a) $3 V_{1} \geq 4 V_{2}$;
(b) $4 S_{1} \geq(3+2 \sqrt{2}) S_{2}$.
1.3.25 Two balls are given in space with no common points. Find the position of a light source on the line connecting the centers of the balls such that the lighted part of the boundary spheres has a maximal total area.

### 1.4 The Method of Partial Variation

The method of partial variation uses the simple observation that if a function of several variables has a maximum (or a minimum) with respect to all variables, then it also has a maximum (or a minimum) with respect to any subset of variables. More precisely, assume that the function $f\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ has a maximum (or a minimum) when $x_{1}=a_{1}, x_{2}=a_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}=a_{n}$. Then for any $k, 1 \leq k<n$, the function

$$
g\left(x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=f\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}, x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)
$$

has a maximum (resp. a minimum) at $x_{k+1}=a_{k+1}, x_{k+2}=a_{k+2}, \ldots, x_{n}=a_{n}$. This explanation may look a bit abstract, so let us try to explain the method of partial variation by using several examples. For more detailed discussion concerning this method and various possible applications, we refer the reader to the beautiful book of G. Polya [18].

In fact, we have already used (though implicitly) the method of partial variation in the solutions of some of the problems in the previous sections. For example, when solving Schwarz's triangle problem (see Problem 1.1.3 and Fig. 3) to inscribe a triangle $M N P$ of minimum perimeter in a given acute triangle $A B C$, we did the following. We fixed a point $P$ on $A B$ and then found points $M_{P}$ on $B C$ and $N_{P}$ on $A C$ such that $\triangle M_{P} N_{P} P$ has a minimal perimeter. Then we found the point $P$ on $A B$ for which the perimeter of triangle $M_{P} N_{P} P$ is the smallest possible.

The method of partial variation can be successfully used when one knows in advance that the problem on maximum or minimum being considered has a solution. In fact, even when one does not know the existence of a solution, it is sometimes possible, using partial variation, to get some hints and even to describe precisely what the extremal object might be. For example, consider the problem to find the $n$-gons of maximal area among all $n$-gons inscribed in a given circle (this and other similar problems are considered in more detail in Section 2.1 below). Assume that there exists such an $n$-gon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$. Fix for a moment the points $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n-1}$. Then the point $A_{n}$ must coincide with the midpoint $A_{n}^{\prime}$ of the $\operatorname{arc} A_{n-1} A_{1}$ (Fig. 24). Indeed, if $A_{n} \neq A_{n}^{\prime}$, then $\left[A_{1} A_{n-1} A_{n}\right]<\left[A_{1} A_{n-1} A_{n}^{\prime}\right]$ and therefore the area of the polygon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n-1} A_{n}$ is less than the area of the polygon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n-1} A_{n}^{\prime}$, a contradiction to our assumption.


Figure 24.

Thus, using one particular partial variation we showed that $A_{1} A_{n}=A_{n-1} A_{n}$. In the same way one shows that any two successive sides of the polygon must have equal lengths, so the polygon must be regular. At this point we should warn the
reader that the above argument does not provide a complete solution of the problem, since we have not established the existence of an inscribed $n$-gon of maximal area. In many cases the existence of a solution of an extreme value geometric problem is easily derived from the extreme value theorem. However, the use of tools of this kind goes beyond the scope of this book.

In the solutions of the problems considered below we will use partial variations without assuming in advance that the respective extremal objects exist. The construction of the latter will be done in the course of the solution.

Problem 1.4.1 A line $\ell$ is given in the plane and two circles $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ on the same side of the line. Find the shortest path from $k_{1}$ to $k_{2}$ that has a common point with $\ell$.

Solution. The problem is to find points $M$ on $k_{1}, N$ on $k_{2}$, and $P$ on $\ell$ such that $t=M P+P N$ is a minimum. Fix for a moment a point $M$ on $k_{1}$ and a point $N$ on $k_{2}$ (Fig. 25). Then, according to Problem 1.1.1, $t$ is a minimum when $P$ coincides with the intersection point of $\ell$ and the line segment $M N^{\prime}$, where $N^{\prime}$ is the point symmetric to $N$ through $\ell$. In this case $t=M N^{\prime}$. Now the problem reduces to finding the shortest line segment $M N^{\prime}$, where $M$ is on $k_{1}$, while $N^{\prime}$ is on the symmetric image $k_{2}^{\prime}$ of $k_{2}$ through $\ell$. If $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}^{\prime}$ are the centers of $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}^{\prime}$, then clearly the shortest such line segment is $M_{0} N_{0}^{\prime}$, where $M_{0}$ and $N_{0}^{\prime}$ are the intersection points of the line segment $O_{1} O_{2}^{\prime}$ with the circles $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}^{\prime}$, respectively.


Figure 25.

Let $P_{0}$ be the intersection point of $\ell$ with $M_{0} N_{0}^{\prime}$ and let $N_{0}$ be the reflection of $N_{0}^{\prime}$ in $\ell$. Then the path $M_{0} P_{0} N_{0}$ is the solution of the problem.

Problem 1.4.2 Let $M$ be a given polygon in the plane. Show that of all triangles inscribed in $M$ there exists one of:
(a) maximum area,
(b) maximum perimeter,
with vertices among the vertices of $M$.

## Solution.

(a) Consider an arbitrary $\triangle A B C$ inscribed in $M$, i.e., the points $A, B$, and $C$ lie on the sides of $M$.

We have to show that there exist vertices $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime}$ of $M$ such that $[A B C] \leq\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]$. Fix the points $A$ and $B$ for a moment and let $C$ lie on the side $C_{1} C_{2}$ of $M$ (Fig. 26). Then at least one of the distances from $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ to the line $A B$ is not less than the distance from $C$ to $A B$. Denoting the respective vertex by $C^{\prime}$ we have $\left[A B C^{\prime}\right] \geq[A B C]$. In a similar way, fixing the points $A$ and $C^{\prime}$, one finds a vertex $B^{\prime}$ of $M$ such that $\left[A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right] \geq\left[A B C^{\prime}\right]$. Finally, fixing $B^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$, one finds a vertex $A^{\prime}$ of $M$ with $\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right] \geq\left[A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right]$. It then follows that $\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}\right] \geq[A B C]$.


Figure 26.
Since there are only finitely many triangles with vertices among the vertices of $M$, there is such a triangle $T$ of maximal area. It now follows from the above argument that any triangle inscribed in $M$ has area not larger than the area of $T$.
(b) We will proceed as in (a). To do this we need the following fact.

Lemma. Let $A, B, C$, and $D$ be four different points in the plane such that $C$ and $D$ lie on the same side of the line $A B$. Then there exists a point $X$ on $C D$ for which the sum $A X+X B$ is a maximum and any such point coincides either with $C$ or with $D$.

Proof of the Lemma. Let $\ell$ be the line through $C$ and $D$.
Case 1. $\ell$ intersects the line segment $A B$. Let for example $D$ be closer to $A B$ than $C$. Now we seek a point $X$ on the line segment $C D$ such that the broken line $A X B$ has maximal length. Clearly the unique solution to this problem is $X=C$ (Fig. 27).


Figure 27.
Case 2. $\ell$ has no common points with the line segment $A B$. Let $B^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $B$ in the line $C D$. Then $A X+X B=A X+X B^{\prime}$ for any point $X$ on $C D$, so we can apply Case 1 to the points $A, B^{\prime}, C, D$.

This proves the lemma.
Now using the lemma one solves part (b) of the problem by applying the same arguments as those in part (a).

As we have just seen, in the solution of the above problem the task of finding a triangle inscribed in $M$ and having maximal area (or perimeter) was reduced to the investigation of finitely many cases. We will now consider the particular case that $M$ is a regular $n$-gon.

Problem 1.4.3 Let $M$ be a regular n-gon of area $S$. Find the maximum area of a triangle inscribed in $M$.

Solution. According to Problem 1.4.2 above, it is enough to consider only triangles $A B C$ with vertices among the vertices of $M$.

Assume that the open arcs (i.e., without their endpoints) $\widehat{A B}, \overparen{B C}$, and $\widehat{C A}$ contain $p, q$, and $r$ vertices of $M$, respectively. Then $p+q+r=n-3$. Assume


Figure 28.
that the area of triangle $A B C$ is a maximum. We will now show that $|p-q| \leq 1$, $|p-r| \leq 1$, and $|q-r| \leq 1$. Suppose this is not the case, e.g., $q+1<r$. Then (see Fig. 28) if $C_{1}$ is the vertex of $M$ next to $C$ that is closer to $A$, we get $\left[A B C_{1}\right]>[A B C]$, a contradiction.

Therefore, setting $k=\left[\frac{n-3}{3}\right]$, we have $p=k+\epsilon_{1}, q=k+\epsilon_{2}$, and $r=k+\epsilon_{3}$, where each of the numbers $\epsilon_{1}, \epsilon_{2}$, and $\epsilon_{3}$ is 0 or 1 , and $\epsilon_{1}+\epsilon_{2}+\epsilon_{3}$ is the remainder of the division of $n$ by 3. It is also clear that for such $p, q$, and $r$ the area of triangle $A B C$ is maximal. We leave it as an exercise to the reader to check that the maximum possible area of $\triangle A B C$ is

$$
[A B C]=\frac{S}{n \sin (2 \pi / n)}\left(\sin \frac{2(p+1) \pi}{n}+\sin \frac{2(q+1) \pi}{n}+\sin \frac{2(r+1) \pi}{n}\right) .
$$

This formula takes a simpler form in each of the three possible cases: $n=3 k$, $n=3 k+1, n=3 k+2$.

The next problem is a space analogue of Problem 1.1.10 as well as a special case of Problem 1.2.32. The solution considered here makes use of Problem 1.2.3 (that is, the planar version of Problem 1.2.32).

Problem 1.4.4 Given a trihedral angle and a point $M$ in its interior, find a plane passing through $M$ that cuts off a tetrahedron of minimum volume from the trihedral angle.

Solution. Let $O p q r$ be the given trihedral angle. Looking at Problem 1.1.10 for analogy, one would assume that the required plane intersects the trihedral angle along a triangle with centroid at $M$. We will first show that a plane $\alpha_{0}$ with this property exists. First construct a point $P$ such that $\overrightarrow{O P}=3 \overrightarrow{O M}$. Denote by $C_{0}$ the intersection point of the ray $r$ with the plane through $P$ parallel to the plane $O p q$. Let $C_{0}^{\prime}$ be the intersection point of the line $C_{0} M$ and the plane $O p q$. Clearly, $C_{0} M: M C_{0}^{\prime}=2: 1$. Finally, construct points $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ on $p$ and $q$, respectively, such that $C_{0}^{\prime}$ is the midpoint of $A B$ (cf. the solution of Problem 1.1.10). It follows
from the construction that $M$ is the centroid of $\triangle A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$, so the plane $\alpha_{0}$ of this triangle has the required property.

We will now show that $\alpha_{0}$ cuts off a tetrahedron of minimum volume from the given trihedral angle. To do this we will use Problem 1.2.3.

Let $C$ be an arbitrary point on $r$ different from $O$. Denote by $C^{\prime}$ the intersection point of the line $C M$ with the plane $O p q$. Fix $C$ and consider an arbitrary plane $\alpha$ through $M$ and $C$ that intersects the rays $p$ and $q$. Let $g$ be the line of intersection of the planes $\alpha$ and $O p q$, and let $A$ and $B$ be the intersection points of $g$ with $p$ and $q$, respectively. Then $C^{\prime}$ lies on $g$, and (having fixed $C$ ) the volume of $O A B C$ will be minimal when the area of triangle $O A B$ is a minimum. According to Problem 1.1.10, the latter occurs when the line $g$ is such that $C^{\prime}$ is the midpoint of $A B$.

The above argument shows that it is enough to consider only planes $\alpha$ through $M$ such that if $C$ is the intersection point of $\alpha$ and $r$, and $C^{\prime}$ the intersection point of the line $C M$ and the plane $O p q$, then $C C^{\prime}$ is a median in the triangle cut out by $\alpha$ from the trihedral angle.

Let $r^{\prime}$ be the ray along which the plane through $r$ and $M$ intersects the angle $O p q$ (Fig. 29). Denote by $\varphi$ the angle between $p$ and $q$, and by $\psi$ the angle between $p$ and $r^{\prime}$. If $C^{\prime}$ denotes the midpoint of $A B$, we have

$$
O A \cdot O B=2 \frac{[O A B]}{\sin \psi}=4 \frac{\left[O A C^{\prime}\right]}{\sin \varphi}=\frac{2 \sin \psi}{\sin \varphi} O A \cdot O C^{\prime}
$$

Thus, $O B=\frac{2 \sin \psi}{\sin \varphi} O C^{\prime}$. Similarly, $O A=\frac{2 \sin (\varphi-\psi)}{\sin \varphi} O C^{\prime}$, so

$$
O A \cdot O B=\frac{4 \sin \psi \sin (\varphi-\psi)}{\sin ^{2} \varphi} O C^{\prime 2}
$$

The volume of $O A B C$ is proportional to the product $O A \cdot O B \cdot O C$, and the identity above shows that it is proportional to $O C \cdot O C^{\prime 2}$. The problem now is to find the lines $C C^{\prime}$ through $M$ such that $C$ is on $r, C^{\prime}$ is on $r^{\prime}$, and $O C \cdot O C^{\prime 2}$ is a minimum. It follows from Problem 1.2.3 that there exists exactly one line with this property and it is such that $C M: C^{\prime} M=2: 1$.

Combining this with the previous arguments shows that there exists a unique plane $\alpha$ that cuts off a tetrahedron of minimum volume from the given trihedral angle and this plane intersects the trihedral angle along a triangle with centroid at $M$.

We are now going to solve a classical problem using partial variation several times.


Figure 29.

Problem 1.4.5 Show that of all tetrahedra with a given volume $V$ the regular one has a minimum surface area.

Solution. Fix for a moment an arbitrary $\triangle A B C$. Consider the set of points $D$ in space such that $\operatorname{Vol}(A B C D)=V$, i.e., the distance $h$ from $D$ to the plane of $A B C$ is $h=\frac{3 V}{[A B C]}$. Let $D$ be such a point, $D^{\prime}$ its orthogonal projection on the plane of $\triangle A B C$, and $x, y$, and $z$ the distances from $D^{\prime}$ to the lines $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively (Fig. 30).


Figure 30.

For the surface area $S$ of $A B C D$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & =[A B C]+\frac{1}{2}\left(a \sqrt{h^{2}+x^{2}}+b \sqrt{h^{2}+y^{2}}+c \sqrt{h^{2}+z^{2}}\right) \\
& =[A B C]+\frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{(a h)^{2}+(a x)^{2}}+\sqrt{(b h)^{2}+(b y)^{2}}+\sqrt{(c h)^{2}+(c z)^{2}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the fact that $a x+b y+c z \geq 2[A B C]$ (equality holds only if $D^{\prime}$ is inside $\triangle A B C$ ) and Minkowski's inequality (see the Glossary), one gets

$$
S \geq[A B C]+\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(a h+b h+c h)^{2}+4[A B C]^{2}}
$$

where equality holds when $D^{\prime}$ is inside $\triangle A B C$ and $x=y=z$, i.e., if and only if $D^{\prime}$ is the incenter of $\triangle A B C$.

Using the above, in what follows we will consider only tetrahedra $A B C D$ for which the point $D^{\prime}$ coincides with the incenter of $\triangle A B C$. Fix a number $S_{0}>$ 0 and assume that $[A B C]=S_{0}$. Then $S=S_{0}+\sqrt{h^{2} s^{2}+S_{0}^{2}}$, where $s$ is the semiperimeter of $\triangle A B C$ and $h=\frac{3 V}{S_{0}}$. It follows from Problem 1.2.1 that $s^{2} \geq$ $3 \sqrt{3} S_{0}$, where equality holds only for an equilateral triangle $A B C$. Thus

$$
S \geq S_{0}+\sqrt{h^{2} 3 \sqrt{3} S_{0}+S_{0}^{2}}=S_{0}+\sqrt{27 \sqrt{3} \frac{V^{2}}{S_{0}}+S_{0}^{2}}
$$

where equality holds if and only if $\triangle A B C$ is equilateral.
The above arguments show that it is enough to consider only right triangle pyramids $A B C D$ with volume $V$. Given such a pyramid, denote by $\alpha$ the angle between a side face and the base of the pyramid. We are now going to find the value of $\alpha$ for which the surface area $S$ is a minimum. Since $S=\frac{3 V}{r}$, where $r$ is the inradius of the pyramid, it is enough to find when $r$ is a maximum. Setting $a=A B$, we have $r=\frac{a \sqrt{3}}{6} \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}$. On the other hand, $3 V=h S_{0}=\frac{h a^{2} \sqrt{3}}{4}$, and

$$
h=\frac{a \sqrt{3}}{6} \tan \alpha=\frac{a \sqrt{3}}{6} \frac{2 \tan (\alpha / 2)}{1-\tan ^{2}(\alpha / 2)}
$$

implies $3 V=\frac{a^{2} \tan (\alpha / 2)}{4\left(1-\tan ^{2}(\alpha / 2)\right)}$. Therefore $a^{2}=\frac{12 V\left(1-\tan ^{2}(\alpha / 2)\right)}{\tan (\alpha / 2)}$. Consequently,

$$
r^{3}=\frac{a^{3}}{24 \sqrt{3}} \tan ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2}=\frac{V}{2 \sqrt{3}} \tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}\left(1-\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \leq \frac{V}{8 \sqrt{3}},
$$

where equality holds if and only if $\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}=\frac{1}{2}$. The latter is equivalent to $\cos \alpha=$ $\frac{1-\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1+\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}}=\frac{1}{3}$, which in turn holds precisely when the altitude to the base in any side face of the tetrahedron has length $\frac{a \sqrt{3}}{2}$. The latter means that all side edges of the tetrahedron have length $a$, i.e., that $A B C D$ is a regular tetrahedron.

Hence, for every tetrahedron with volume $V$ and surface area $S$ we have

$$
S=\frac{3 V}{r} \geq \frac{3 V}{\sqrt[3]{\frac{V}{8 \sqrt{3}}}}=6 \sqrt[6]{3} V^{2 / 3}
$$

and equality holds if and only if it is a regular tetrahedron.

## EXERCISES

1.4.6 A circle $k$ lies in the interior of a given acute angle $O p q$. Of all triangles $M P Q$, where $M$ lies on $k, P$ on the ray $p$, and $Q$ on the ray $q$, find the one with minimal perimeter.
1.4.7 In a given circle $k$ inscribe:
(a) a triangle;
(b) a quadrilateral;
(c) a pentagon;
(d) a hexagon of maximal area.
1.4.8 Let $A B C D E F$ be a centrally symmetric hexagon. Find points $P, Q, R$ on its sides such that the area of triangle $P Q R$ is a maximum.
1.4.9 Let $A B C$ be an equilateral triangle of side length 4 . The points $D, E, F$ lie on the sides $B C, C A, A B$, respectively, and

$$
A E=B F=C D=1
$$

The triangle $Q R S$ is formed by drawing the line segments $A D, B E$, and $C F$. For a variable point $P$ in or on this triangle, consider the product of its distances to the three sides of $A B C$.
(a) Prove that this product is a minimum when $P$ coincides with $Q, R$, or $S$.
(b) Determine the minimum value of this product.
1.4.10 Given three points in the plane, construct a line such that the sum of their distances to the line is a minimum.
1.4.11 Of all pentagons $A B C D E$ inscribed in a circle with radius 1 and such that $A C \perp B D$ describe the ones of minimum area.
1.4.12 Let $n$ and $p$ be integers such that $3 \leq p<n$. Find the maximum possible area of a $p$-gon inscribed in a regular $n$-gon of area $S$.
1.4.13 Show that of all nondegenerate triangles $A B C$ inscribed in a given circle there is none for which the sum $A B^{3}+B C^{3}+C A^{3}$ is a maximum. More precisely, the sum considered is a maximum if and only if two of the points $A, B, C$ coincide and the third is their diametrically opposite point.
1.4.14 Let $M$ be a convex polyhedron. Show that of all triangles contained in $M$ there is one of:
(a) maximum area;
(b) maximum perimeter
with vertices among the vertices of $M$.
1.4.15 Let $M$ be a convex polyhedron. Show that of all tetrahedra contained in $M$ and having maximal possible volume there is one whose vertices are among the vertices of $M$.
1.4.16 Inscribe a triangle of:
(a) maximum area;
(b) maximum perimeter
in a given cube.
1.4.17 Inscribe a tetrahedron of maximum volume in a given cube.
1.4.18 A double quadrilateral prism is by definition the union of two quadrilateral prisms $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ and $A_{2} B_{2} C_{2} D_{2} A B C D$ that have a common face $A B C D$ (the base of one of the prisms and the top of the other) and no other common points. Show that of all double quadrilateral prisms of a given volume the cube has a minimum surface area.
1.4.19 Show that of all tetrahedra inscribed in a given sphere the regular one has maximum volume.
1.4.20 Let $A B C D$ be a regular tetrahedron. Of all triangles $L M N$, where $L$ lies on the edge $A C, M$ in triangle $A B D$, and $N$ in triangle $B C D$, find the one with minimal perimeter.

### 1.5 The Tangency Principle

This section is devoted to a method for solving geometric extremum problems using level curves (surfaces) of functions defined in the plane (space). The solution of the following problem gives an explanation of what this method is all about.

Problem 1.5.1 Let $\ell$ be a given line in the plane and $A$ and $B$ two points on the same side of the line. Find a point $M$ on $\ell$ such that the angle $A M B$ is a maximum.

Solution. It is well known that if $\varphi$ is a given angle, the locus of the points $M$ in the plane such that $\angle A M B=\varphi$ is the union of two arcs with endpoints $A$ and $B$ that are symmetric with respect to the line $A B$ (Fig. 31).

Drawing these arcs for different values of $\varphi$, one gets a family of arcs covering the whole plane except the points on the line $A B$. Every point on the given line $\ell$ belongs to an arc from this family (Fig. 32), and the problem now is to find the arc having a common point with $\ell$ that corresponds to the largest possible value of $\varphi$.


Figure 31.


Figure 32.


Figure 33.

First, consider the case that $\ell$ intersects the line $A B$. Let $C$ be the point of intersection, and let $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ be the two rays on $\ell$ determined by $C$. Consider the arc $\gamma_{1}$ from the family described above that is tangent to $\ell_{1}$, and let $M_{1}$ be the tangent point of $\gamma_{1}$ to $\ell_{1}$.

Clearly $\gamma_{1}$ is an arc on the smallest circle through $A$ and $B$ that has a common point with $\ell_{1}$. Thus, for any point $M$ on $\ell_{1}$ different from $M_{1}$ we have $\angle A M B<$ $\angle A M_{1} B$. Similarly, the ray $\ell_{2}$ is tangent to some arc $\gamma_{2}$ at some point $M_{2}$ and $\angle A M B<\angle A M_{2} B$ for any point $M$ on $\ell_{2}$ different from $M_{2}$. Now the solution of the problem is given by either $M_{1}$ or $M_{2}$ (or by both) depending on which of the angles $\angle A C M_{1}$ and $\angle A C M_{2}$ is acute. Notice that the points $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are determined by the equalities $C M_{1}=C M_{2}=\sqrt{C A \cdot C B}$.

If $\ell \| A B$ then there is only one arc from the family described above that is tangent to $\ell$. Hence in that case the solution is given by the intersection point $M$ of $\ell$ and the perpendicular bisector of the line segment $A B$ (Fig. 33).

What were the most important points in the above solution? First, we investigated the behavior of angle $A M B$ not just for points $M$ on $\ell$ but also for points outside $\ell$. More precisely, we regarded angle $A M B$ as a function $f(M)=\angle A M B$ of the variable point $M$ in the plane. The second important point was the way we looked at the behavior of the function $f(M)$. This was done by means of the arcs on which the values of $f(M)$ were the same. These curves can be defined for any function $f(M)$ depending on a point $M$ in the plane (or part of it), and they are called level curves of $f(M)$. More precisely, if $\lambda$ is any real number, the level curve of $f(M)$ corresponding to $\lambda$ is the set $L_{\lambda}$ of all points $M$ in the domain of $f(M)$ such that $f(M)=\lambda$, i.e., $L_{\lambda}=\{M: f(M)=\lambda\}$.

Various extreme geometric problems in the plane can be stated in the following way: Find the maximum (minimum) value of a function $f(M)$ in the plane on a given plane curve $L$. For example, in the solution of Problem 1.5.1 we showed that the maximum value of the function $f(M)=\angle A M B$ on the line $\ell$ is attained at the points where $\ell$ is tangent to a level curve of $f(M)$. More generally we have the following:

Tangency Principle. The maximum (minimum) value of a given function $f(M)$ in the plane on a given curve $L$ is attained at points where $L$ is tangent to a level curve of $f(M)$.

The reasons for the validity of this principle are as follows. Assume that $f(M)$ achieves its maximum value on $L$ at some point $P \in L$, and let $f(P)=c$. Then the curve $L$ has no common points with the set $\{M: f(M)>c\}$, so it is entirely contained in the set $\{M: f(M) \leq c\}$. Thus, $L$ cannot intersect the level curve $L_{c}=\{M: f(M)=c\}$ at $P$, i.e., $L$ must be tangent to $L_{c}$ at $P$.

As we saw in the solution of the Problem 1.5.1, knowing the level curves of the function $f(M)=\angle A M B$ allowed us to easily find its extrema on the line $\ell$. Below we give various examples of functions depending on a point in the plane and describe their level curves. For the latter in any particular problem one essentially has to find the locus of points having a given property.

Example 1 Given two points $A$ and $B$ in the plane, let $f(M)=\angle A M B$. For any $\varphi, 0<\varphi<180^{\circ}$, the level curve $L_{\varphi}$ of $f(M)$ is the union of two symmetric (with respect to the line $A B$ ) arcs of circles through $A$ and $B$ (Fig. 34).

Example 2 Let $O$ be a fixed point in the plane and let $f(M)=O M$. Then for any $r>0$ the level curve $L_{r}$ is a circle with center $O$ and radius $r$ (Fig. 35). If we consider points in space, then $L_{r}$ is a sphere with center $O$ and radius $r$.


Figure 34.


Figure 35.

Example 3 Let $A$ and $B$ be two fixed points in the plane and let $f(M)=M A^{2}+$ $M B^{2}$. Then for $r>\frac{1}{2} A B^{2}$, the level curve $L_{r}$ is a circle with center at the midpoint $O$ of the line segment $A B$ (Fig. 36).


Figure 36.

Example 4 Let $A$ and $B$ be two fixed points in the plane and let $f(M)=M A^{2}-$ $M B^{2}$. Then the level curves of $f(M)$ are lines perpendicular to the line $A B$ (Fig. 37).


Figure 37.
The last two examples are special cases of the following more general result. Let $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$ be real numbers, and let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be given points in the plane. Consider the function

$$
f(M)=\lambda_{1} M A_{1}^{2}+\lambda_{2} M A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} M A_{n}^{2}
$$

and denote by $L_{\mu}$ the level curve of $f(M)$ corresponding to the real number $\mu$.

## Theorem.

(a) If $\lambda_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} \neq 0$, then $L_{\mu}$ is a circle, a point, or the empty set.
(b) If $\lambda_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}=0$, then $L_{\mu}$ is a line, the whole plane, or the empty set.

Proof. Consider an arbitrary rectangular coordinate system $O x y$ in the plane, and let $M=(x, y)$ and $A_{i}=\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ for each $i=1, \ldots, n$. Then $M \in L_{\mu}$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{1}\left[\left(x-x_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(y-y_{1}\right)^{2}\right]+\cdots+\lambda_{n}\left[\left(x-x_{n}\right)^{2}+\left(y-y_{n}\right)^{2}\right]=\mu . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lambda=\lambda_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}, \quad a=\lambda_{1} x_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} x_{n}, \quad b=\lambda_{1} y_{1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n} y_{n} \\
& c=\lambda_{1}\left(x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}\right)+\cdots+\lambda_{n}\left(x_{n}^{2}+y_{n}^{2}\right)-\mu
\end{aligned}
$$

Transforming the left-hand side of (1), one gets

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda x^{2}+\lambda y^{2}-2 a x-2 b y+c=0 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\lambda \neq 0$, then (2) is equivalent to

$$
\left(x-\frac{a}{\lambda}\right)^{2}+\left(y-\frac{b}{\lambda}\right)^{2}=\frac{a^{2}+b^{2}-\lambda c}{\lambda^{2}}
$$

This equation defines:
(i) a circle with center $O=\left(\frac{a}{\lambda}, \frac{b}{\lambda}\right)$ if $a^{2}+b^{2}-\lambda c>0$;
(ii) the point $O=\left(\frac{a}{\lambda}, \frac{b}{\lambda}\right)$ if $a^{2}+b^{2}-\lambda c=0$;
(iii) the empty set if $a^{2}+b^{2}-\lambda c<0$.

If $\lambda=0$, then clearly (2) defines a line if $a^{2}+b^{2}>0$, the whole plane if $a=b=c=0$, and the empty set if $a=b=0$ and $c \neq 0$.

One can prove in the same way a space analogue of the above theorem. Note that in the case (a) the level surface $L_{\mu}$ is a sphere, a point, or the empty set, whereas in the case (b) it is a plane, the whole space, or the empty set.

When $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}=\cdots=\lambda_{n}=1$, the above theorem gives the following:
Leibniz's Formula. Let $G$ be the centroid of a set of points $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ in the plane (space). Then for any point $M$ in the plane (space) we have

$$
M A_{1}^{2}+M A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+M A_{n}^{2}=n \cdots M G^{2}+G A_{1}^{2}+G A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+G A_{n}^{2}
$$

Recall that the centroid of a set of points $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ is the unique point $G$ for which $\overrightarrow{G A_{1}}+\overrightarrow{G A_{2}}+\cdots+\overrightarrow{G A_{n}}=\overrightarrow{0}$.

Example 5 Let $G$ be the centroid of a set of points $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ in the plane (space) and let $\mu$ be a given number. The level curve (surface) $L_{\mu}$ of the function

$$
f(M)=M A_{1}^{2}+M A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+M A_{n}^{2}
$$

is a circle (sphere) with center $G$, the point $G$, or the empty set.
Example 6 Let $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ be two intersecting lines in the plane, and let $d\left(M, \ell_{i}\right)$ denote the distance from the point $M$ to the line $\ell_{i}(i=1,2)$. Consider the function $f(M)=d\left(M, \ell_{1}\right)+d\left(M, \ell_{2}\right)$. The level curve $L_{c}$ of $f(M)$ for $c>0$ is the boundary of a rectangle whose diagonals lie on $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ (Fig. 38).


Figure 38.

The level curve $L_{c}$ is easily determined using the fact that the sum of distances from an arbitrary point on the base of an isosceles triangle to the other two sides of the triangle is constant.

Example 7 Now we consider two important curves in the plane: the ellipse and the hyperbola. Let $A$ and $B$ be given points in the plane.

Consider the functions $f(M)=M A+M B$ and $g(M)=|M A-M B|$.
The level curves of $f(M)$ are called ellipses, while these of $g(M)$ are called hyperbolas. The points $A$ and $B$ are called the foci of these curves (Fig. 39 and Fig. 40).


Figure 39.


Figure 40.
Given an ellipse and a hyperbola, the line $A B$ and its perpendicular bisector are their lines of symmetry. If one chooses these two lines for coordinates axes, then the ellipse and the hyperbola have the following Cartesian equations:

$$
\frac{x^{2}}{a^{2}}+\frac{y^{2}}{b^{2}}=1
$$

and

$$
\frac{x^{2}}{a^{2}}-\frac{y^{2}}{b^{2}}=1
$$

Many interesting problems concerning ellipses or hyperbolas are related to the following main property of the tangent lines to these curves.

Focal Property. Let $M$ be an arbitrary point on an ellipse (hyperbola) with foci $A$ and $B$. Then the segments MA and MB make equal angles with the tangent line to the ellipse (hyperbola) at the point $M$.

Consider the hyperbola $h$ given by the equation above. The lines $\ell_{1}: y=\frac{b}{a} x$ and $\ell_{2}: y=-\frac{b}{a} x$ are called asymptotes of $h$ (Fig. 41).


Figure 41.
It can be shown that the tangent lines to $h$ cut off triangles of constant area from the corresponding angle between $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$. This implies that the set of lines that cut off triangles of a given area from a given angle coincides with the set of tangent lines to one branch of a hyperbola with asymptotes the lines determined by the arms of the angle. Let us also mention that the tangent point of a tangent line to $h$ coincides with the midpoint of the segment that the tangent line cuts from the angle between the asymptotes.

In what follows we consider several extreme value geometric problems and solve them using the tangency principle. The first of these problems is simple but rather instructive.

Problem 1.5.2 Find a point $M$ on a given line $\ell$ such that the distance from $M$ to a given point $O$ is minimal.

Solution. We have to find the minimum value of the function $f(M)=O M$ for points $M$ on $\ell$. The level curves of $f(M)$ are circles with center $O$ (Fig. 42).


Figure 42.

Consider the level curve that is tangent to $\ell$. Clearly the point of tangency $M_{0}$ gives the solution of the problem. This is actually the foot of the perpendicular from $O$ to $\ell$.

Remark. One can deal in the same way with the more general problem of finding a point $M$ on a given curve $L$ that is closest to a given point $O$. In this case the solution is among the points $M_{0} \in L$ such that $O M_{0}$ is perpendicular to the tangent line to $L$ at $M_{0}$ (we then say that $O M_{0}$ is perpendicular to the curve $L$ ), if it exists (Fig. 43).


Figure 43.

More generally, if $L$ has "corner points," one has to require that the corresponding level curve be just "touching" $L$ at $M_{0}$. In general, the point $M_{0}$ is not unique; the reader should be able to construct examples when this happens. Another good exercise to the reader is to consider the cases in which $L$ is a triangle, a circle, or an ellipse.

Problem 1.5.3 Find the points $M$ on the circumcircle of a triangle $A B C$ such that the sum $f(M)=M A^{2}+M B^{2}+M C^{2}$ is:
(a) a minimum; (b) a maximum.

Solution. It was shown in Example 5 that for any $\lambda>0$ the level curve $L_{\lambda}$ of $f(M)$ is a circle with center at the centroid $G$ of $\triangle A B C$. Let $O$ be the circumcenter of $\triangle A B C$. If $\triangle A B C$ is not equilateral, then $O \neq G$, so the line $O G$ is welldefined (this is the so-called Euler's line for $\triangle A B C$ ) and it has two intersection points $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ with the circumcircle of $\triangle A B C$. Thus $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are the points where a level curve of $f(M)$ is tangent to the circumcircle of $\triangle A B C$. Assume that $G$ lies between $O$ and $M_{1}$ (Fig. 44).

The tangency principle stated above now shows that $f(M)$ has a minimum at $M=M_{1}$ and a maximum at $M=M_{2}$.

If $A B C$ is an equilateral triangle, then $G=O$ and the circumcircle itself is a level curve of $f(M)$, i.e., $f(M)$ is constant on it.


Figure 44.

In general the maximum and the minimum of $f(M)$ are easily calculated using the Leibniz formula. We leave as an exercise to the reader to show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(M_{1}\right)=\frac{1}{3}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)+3\left[R-\sqrt{R^{2}-\frac{a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}}{9}}\right]^{2} \\
& f\left(M_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{3}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)+3\left[R+\sqrt{R^{2}-\frac{a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}}{9}}\right]^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a, b, c$ are the side lengths of $\triangle A B C$ and $R$ is its circumradius. Note that the presence of a square root in these expressions yields the inequality $a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq$ $9 R^{2}$.

Problem 1.5.4 Find the points $M$ in the interior or on the boundary of a trapezoid $A B C D(A B \| C D)$ such that the sum of the distances from $M$ to the sides of the trapezoid is:
(a) a minimum, (b) a maximum.

Solution. Denote by $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ the lines $A D$ and $B C$, respectively, and by $O$ their intersection point (Fig. 45).

Since the sum of the distances from $M$ to $A B$ and $C D$ is constant, we have to find the minimum and the maximum of the function $f(M)=d\left(M, \ell_{1}\right)+d\left(M, \ell_{2}\right)$ for $M$ running over the interior and the boundary of the trapezoid. Example 6 shows that the level curves of $f(M)$ are line segments perpendicular to the angle bisector $b$ of angle $A O B$. Thus, $f(M)$ is a minimum (maximum) at the point $M_{1}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.M_{2}\right)$ in the trapezoid for which the distance from $M_{1}$ (resp. $M_{2}$ ) to the bisector $b$ is a minimum (resp. maximum). Assume for example that $A D \leq B C$. Then clearly $M_{1}=D$ and $M_{2}=B$.


Figure 45.

In the next problem we will be seeking the extreme values of a function that depends on a variable line (instead of a point) in the plane.

Problem 1.5.5 Let Opq be a given angle and $L$ a given curve in its interior. Construct a line tangent to $L$ (i.e., just touching $L$ ) that cuts off a triangle of minimal (maximal) area from the given angle.

Solution. For any line $\ell$ that intersects both sides of the angle let $f(\ell)$ be the area of the triangle that $\ell$ cuts off from it. We have to find the minimum (maximum) of $f(\ell)$ over the set of all tangent lines $\ell$ to $L$. Following the tangency principle, we need to find the "level curves" of $f(\ell)$, i.e., the set of those lines $\ell$ for which $f(\ell)$ is a given constant. It is known (cf. Example 7) that the lines that cut off a triangle of a given area $h$ from the angle $O p q$ are tangent to one of the branches of a hyperbola with asymptotes the lines determined by $p$ and $q$ (Fig. 46).


Figure 46.

Using the tangency principle, we conclude that the tangent $\ell_{0}$ to $L$ that cuts off a triangle of minimum (maximum) area from $O p q$ must be tangent to $L$ at a point $M_{0}$ at which $L$ is tangent to a hyperbola with asymptotes the lines determined by $p$ and $q$ (Fig. 47). It follows from the properties of a hyperbola that $M_{0}$ is the
midpoint of the line segment that the tangent line to the hyperbola at $M_{0}$ cuts from $O p q$. Thus the line $\ell_{0}$ must have the same property.


Figure 47.
Let us mention that the above argument does not guarantee the existence of a line cutting off a triangle of maximal (or minimal) area. It shows only that if such a line exists, then it must be tangent to $L$ at a point that is the midpoint of the line segment along which the line intersects the angle. To shed a bit more light on this, let us consider two special cases.

1. Assume that $L$ is a single point, i.e., $L=\{M\}$. Then clearly the problem about a maximum has no solution, since there are lines through $M$ that cut off triangles of arbitrarily large area from the angle (Fig. 48).


Figure 48.

Thus, in this case only the problem about the minimum makes sense. There is one line $\ell_{0}$ through $M$ that intersects the angle along a line segment with midpoint $M$, so according to the general conclusion in Problem 1.5.5, $\ell_{0}$ cuts off a triangle of a minimum area from $O p q$ (see Problem 1.1.10 for another proof of this fact).
2. Let $k$ be a circle tangent to the arms $p$ and $q$ of the given angle at some points $A$ and $B$ (Fig. 49). Denote by $L$ the smaller of the two arcs of $k$ with endpoints $A$ and $B$. Then the problem about a minimum has no solution,
since the tangents to $L$ drawn from points close to $O$ will cut off triangles of arbitrarily small areas. (One could also say that the minimal area achievable is 0 , which one gets from the lines $p$ and $q$ tangent to $L$ at $A$ and $B$; then the "triangles" obtained are degenerate.) The problem for maximal area has a solution, and the solution is the tangent line $\ell_{0}$ to $L$ that is perpendicular to the bisector of the angle $O p q$.


Figure 49.
Similarly, if $L$ is the larger arc of $k$ with endpoints $A$ and $B$, then only the problem about a minimal area has a solution, and this is again the line $l_{0}$ tangent to $L$ and perpendicular to the bisector of $O p q$ (Fig. 50).


Figure 50.
Finally, let us mention that the above arguments work also in the case that $k$ is replaced by an arbitrary closed convex curve (without corner points) inscribed in angle $O p q$.

## EXERCISES

1.5.6 Let $A$ and $B$ be fixed points in the plane. Describe the level curves of the functions:
(a) $f(M)=\min \{M A, M B\}$;
(b) $f(M)=\frac{M A}{M B}$.
1.5.7 Among all triangles with given length $\ell$ of one side and given area $S$, determine the ones for which the product of the three altitudes is a maximum.
1.5.8 Of all triangles $A B C$ with given lengths of the altitude through $A$ and the median through $B$ find the ones for which angle $C A B$ is maximal.
1.5.9 The points $A$ and $B$ lie on the same side of a given line $\ell$. Find a point $C$ on $\ell$ such that the distance between the feet of the altitudes through $A$ and $B$ in triangle $A B C$ is minimal.
1.5.10 The points $A$ and $B$ lie outside a given circle $k$. Find the points $M$ on $k$ such that angle $A M B$ is:
(a) minimal;
(b) maximal.
1.5.11 Let $A$ be a point inside a circle with center $O$. Find the points $M$ on the circle such that angle $O M A$ is maximal.
1.5.12 Find the points $M$ on the surface of a given cube such that the angle with vertex $M$ subtended by one of the diagonals of the cube is minimal.
1.5.13 A line $l$ and two points $A$ and $B$ are given in the plane. Find the points $M$ on $l$ such that $A M^{2}+B M^{2}$ is a minimum.
1.5.14 The points $A$ and $B$ lie on a given circle $k$. Find the points $M$ on $k$ such that:
(a) the area of triangle $A B M$ is maximal;
(b) the sum of squares of the sides of triangle $A B M$ is maximal;
(c) the perimeter of triangle $A B M$ is maximal.
1.5.15 Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be given points in the plane and $M$ a set of points in the plane. Find the points $X$ in $M$ for which the sum $X A_{1}^{2}+X A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+X A_{n}^{2}$ is a minimum. Consider the cases in which $M$ is a line segment, a line, or a circle.
1.5.16 State and solve the space version of the above problem. Consider the cases in which $M$ is a line, a plane, or a sphere.
1.5.17 Find the points $M$ on the incircle of a triangle $A B C$ such that the sum $M A^{2}+M B^{2}+M C^{2}$ is:
(a) a minimum;
(b) a maximum.
1.5.18 Find the points $M$ on the circumcircle of a triangle $A B C$ such that the sum $M A^{2}+M B^{2}-3 M C^{2}$ is:
(a) a minimum;
(b) a maximum.

Consider the cases in which triangle $A B C$ is an isosceles right triangle with $\angle A C B=90^{\circ}$ and in which triangle $A B C$ is equilateral.
1.5.19 Let $A B$ be a line segment parallel to a given line $\ell$. Find the maximum and the minimum of the ratio $A M: B M$ as $M$ runs over the line $\ell$.
1.5.20 Let $M$ be a set of points in the interior of an angle $O p q$. Find the points $X$ in $M$ such that the sum of distances from $X$ to the sides of the angle is a minimum. Consider the cases in which $M$ is a point, a line segment, a polygon, or a circle.
1.5.21 Let $L$ be a given curve in the interior of an angle $O p q$. A tangent line $\ell$ to $L$ intersects the ray $p$ at a point $C$ and the ray $q$ at a point $D$. How should the line $\ell$ be chosen such that:
(a) $O C+O D-C D$ is a maximum;
(b) $O C+O D+C D$ is a minimum?

Consider the cases in which $L$ is a point, a line segment, a polygon, or a circle.
1.5.22 Of all triangles with given length of a side and a given perimeter, find the one of maximum area.
1.5.23 Let $G$ be the centroid of a triangle $A B C$. Determine the maximum value of the sum $\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G$.

## Chapter 2

## Selected Types of Geometric Extremum Problems

### 2.1 Isoperimetric Problems

This section is devoted to an important class of extreme value geometric problems that have attracted mathematicians' attention for a very long time. These are the so-called isoperimetric problems, which, as the name suggests, deal with finding the figure of maximal area among all figures of a given kind and a given perimeter. The best-known example of such a problem is the classical isoperimetric problem, where of all plane regions (bounded by a simple closed curve) with a given perimeter one wants to find the one of maximal area. Its solution is given by the so-called isoperimetric theorem, which we state in three equivalent ways.

## Isoperimetric Theorem.

(i) Of all plane regions with a given perimeter the disk has a maximal area.
(ii) Of all plane regions of a given area the disk has a minimal perimeter.
(iii) Let $S$ be the area and $P$ the perimeter of a plane region. Then $4 \pi S \leq P^{2}$, where equality holds only when the region is a disk.

Here is the space analogue of this theorem:

## Isoperimetric Theorem in space.

(i) Of all solids with a given surface area the ball has a maximum volume.
(ii) Of all solids with a given volume the ball has a minimum surface area.
(iii) Let $V$ be the volume and $S$ the surface area of a solid. Then $36 \pi V^{2} \leq S^{3}$, where equality holds only when the solid is a ball.

We are not going to discuss here the long story related to the discovery and the proof of the isoperimetric theorem. The reader can find great deal of information on this topic for example in the books [4], [6], [10], [18], and [19]. Let us just mention that even though the isoperimetric theorem has been known for a very long time, its first rigorous proof was given much later by H. A. Schwarz.

It is of course natural to ask why the isoperimetric theorem had to wait thousands of years to become a rigorous mathematical fact. Most likely one of the main reasons is that for sufficiently rigorous and clear definitions of notions like "perimeter" and "area" one needs essential use of differential and integral calculus, which was developed by Newton and Leibniz in the seventeenth century.

Our goal in this section is to prove the isoperimetric theorem for polygons in the plane.

## Isoperimetric Theorem for polygons.

(i) Of all n-gons with a given perimeter the regular n-gon has a maximum area.
(ii) Of all n-gons with a given area the regular n-gon has a minimum perimeter.
(iii) The area $S$ and the perimeter $P$ of any n-gon satisfy the inequality

$$
4 n S \tan \frac{\pi}{n} \leq P^{2}
$$

where equality holds only when the $n$-gon is regular.
We will derive the proof of this theorem from a sequence of problems that are interesting in their own right. The first of these problems is the isoperimetric problem for circumscribed polygons.

Problem 2.1.1 Let $n \geq 3$ be a given integer. Show that of all $n$-gons circumscribed about a given circle the regular n-gon has minimum area.

Solution. The solution presented here is taken from the book [20] of L. Fejes Tóth.
Consider an arbitrary $n$-gon $M$ circumscribed about a given circle $k$, and let $\bar{M}$ be a regular $n$-gon circumscribed about $k$ (Fig. 51).

Denote by $K$ the disk determined by the circumcircle of $\bar{M}$ and let $s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}$ be the (equal) areas of the sectors cut off from $K$ by the sides of $\bar{M}$. Let $s_{i j}$ be the area of the common parts of the segments of $K$ cut off by the $i$ th and $j$ th sides of


Figure 51.
$M$. Denote by $[M],[\bar{M}]$, and $[K]$ the areas of $M, \bar{M}$, and $K$, respectively. Then for the area $[M \cap K$ ] of the common part $M \cap K$ of $M$ and $K$ we have

$$
[M \cap K]=[K]-\left(s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)+\left(s_{12}+s_{23}+\cdots+s_{n-1 n}+s_{n 1}\right)
$$

since the total area of all parts of $K$ lying outside $M$ is $\left(s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)-\left(s_{12}+\right.$ $\left.s_{23}+\cdots+s_{n-1 n}+s_{n 1}\right)$. Therefore

$$
[M] \geq[M \cap K] \geq[K]-\left(s_{1}+s_{2}+\cdots+s_{n}\right)=[\bar{M}],
$$

where equality holds when no vertex of $M$ lies in the interior of $K$. The latter is possible only when $M$ is a regular $n$-gon, which solves the problem.

Before continuing, let us introduce some notation. Let $M$ be an arbitrary convex $n$-gon in the plane. Given a unit circle $k_{0}$ (i.e., a circle with radius 1 ) there exists a unique $n$-gon $m$ circumscribed about $k_{0}$ such that the sides of $m$ are parallel to the sides of $M$. This is easily seen by applying a parallel translation to each side of $M$ until it touches the circle $k_{0}$ (Fig. 52).


Figure 52.
Denote by $S$ and $P$ the area and perimeter of $M$, and by $r$ the radius of the largest disk contained in $M$. The area of $m$ will be denoted by $s$. Our next task is to prove an inequality discovered by the Swiss mathematician S. Lhuilier (17501840).

Lhuilier's Inequality. For every convex polygon $M$ we have $P^{2} \geq 4 S s$, where equality holds if and only if $M$ is circumscribed about a circle.

This will be derived from the following stronger inequality.
Tóth's Inequality. For every convex polygon $M$ we have

$$
P r-S-s r^{2} \geq 0,
$$

where equality holds if and only if $M$ is circumscribed about a circle.
To prove the latter we will investigate the polygons $M_{\alpha}$ obtained from $M$ by shifting its sides $\alpha$ units ( $0 \leq \alpha \leq r$ ) inside the polygon keeping them parallel to their initial positions. For small $\alpha$ 's the vertices of the polygon $M_{\alpha}$ lie on the bisectors of the corresponding angles of $M$ (Fig. 53). Moreover, the lengths of the sides of $M_{\alpha}$ decrease when $\alpha$ increases, and for certain values of $\alpha$ some of these lengths become 0 , i.e., the number of sides of the polygon $M_{\alpha}$ for such $\alpha$ decreases. Such values of $\alpha$ will be called critical.


Figure 53.

The polygons $M_{\alpha}$ corresponding to critical values of $\alpha$ (these are given by bold lines in Fig. 53) divide the family of all polygons $M_{\alpha}$ into a (finite) set of subfamilies, so that the polygons in each subfamily have the same number of sides.

Moreover, we have the following lemma.
Lemma 1 The expression $\operatorname{Pr}-S-s r^{2}$ is constant for the polygons $M_{\alpha}$ in each subfamily.

Proof. Suppose that $M_{\alpha_{1}}$ and $M_{\alpha_{2}}$ are polygons from the same subfamily, and let $\delta=\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}>0$ (Fig. 54).

Then the interval $\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ contains no critical values of $\alpha$. In what follows we denote by $S_{i}, P_{i}$, etc., the area, perimeter, etc., of the polygon $M_{\alpha_{i}}$. The polygon $M_{\alpha_{2}}$ comprises the following: the polygon $M_{\alpha_{1}}$; rectangles whose bases coincide with the sides of $M_{\alpha_{1}}$ and height $\delta$; several (as many as the number of sides of $M_{\alpha_{2}}$ )


Figure 54.
additional parts, which taken together form a polygon circumscribed about a circle with radius $\delta$ and similar to $m_{\alpha_{2}}$. Hence

$$
S_{2}=S_{1}+P_{1} \delta+s_{1} \delta^{2}, \quad P_{2}=P_{1}+2 s_{1} \delta, \quad r_{2}=r_{1}+\delta, \quad s_{2}=s_{1} .
$$

Now a direct calculation shows that $P_{2} r_{2}-S_{2}-s_{2} r_{2}^{2}=P_{1} r_{1}-S_{1}-s_{1} r_{1}^{2}$. This proves the lemma.

The next lemma shows that when $\alpha$ moves across a critical value, then the expression $\mathrm{Pr}-S-s r^{2}$ decreases. We continue to use the notation from the proof of Lemma 1.

Lemma 2 Let $\alpha_{0}$ be a critical value of $\alpha$ and let $\alpha_{2}<\alpha_{0}<\alpha_{1}$. Then

$$
P_{2} r_{2}-S_{2}-s_{2} r_{2}^{2}>P_{1} r_{1}-S_{1}-s_{1} r_{1}^{2} .
$$

Proof. Without loss of generality we may assume that $\alpha_{0}$ is the only critical value of $\alpha$ in the interval ( $\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}$ ) (explain why!). Then by Lemma 1 it is enough to prove the required inequality when $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{0}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ is arbitrarily close to $\alpha_{1}$. Let $\epsilon$ be an arbitrary positive number. Choosing $\alpha_{2}$ sufficiently close to $\alpha_{1}$ we have $0<P_{2}-P_{1}<\epsilon, 0<S_{2}-S_{1}<\epsilon$, and $0<r_{2}-r_{1}<\epsilon$. On the other hand, the fact that the number of sides of $M_{\alpha_{1}}$ is less than that of $M_{\alpha_{2}}$ (Fig. 55) implies that $s^{\prime}=s_{1}-s_{2}>0$. Moreover, $s^{\prime}$ does not depend on the particular choice of $\alpha_{2}$ provided $\left(\alpha_{2}, \alpha_{1}\right)$ does not contain critical values of $\alpha$.

Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(P_{1} r_{1}-S_{1}-s_{1} r_{1}^{2}\right)-\left(P_{2} r_{2}-S_{2}-s_{2} r_{2}^{2}\right) \\
& \quad=\left(P_{1}-P_{2}\right) r_{1}+P_{2}\left(r_{1}-r_{2}\right)-\left(S_{1}-S_{2}\right)-\left(s_{1}-s_{2}\right) r_{1}^{2}+s_{2}\left(r_{2}^{2}-r_{1}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now the above inequalities yield

$$
\left(P_{1} r_{1}-S_{1}-s_{1} r_{1}^{2}\right)-\left(P_{2} r_{2}-S_{2}-s_{2} r_{2}^{2}\right)<\epsilon-s^{\prime} r_{1}^{2}+\epsilon\left(s_{1}-s^{\prime}\right)\left(2 r_{1}+\epsilon\right)
$$



Figure 55.
for any $\epsilon>0$. The right-hand side of the above inequality is a quadratic function of $\epsilon$ that has both a negative and a positive root. Thus we can choose $\epsilon>0$ such that the value of this function is negative and we get $\left(P_{1} r_{1}-S_{1}-s_{1} r_{1}^{2}\right)-\left(P_{2} r_{2}-\right.$ $\left.S_{2}-s_{2} r_{2}^{2}\right)<0$, which proves the lemma.

Using Lemmas 1 and 2, it is now easy to prove Tóth's inequality. Indeed, assume that $\operatorname{Pr}-S-s r^{2}<0$. According to Lemma 1, the corresponding expression is the same for all $\alpha \in\left[0, \alpha^{\prime}\right)$, where $\alpha^{\prime}$ is the first critical value of $\alpha$. Then by Lemma 2, this expression gets smaller when $\alpha$ jumps across the critical value $\alpha^{\prime}$, so it continues to be negative, etc. Thus, $\operatorname{Pr}-S-s r^{2}<0$ holds for all polygons $M_{\alpha}$ for any $\alpha \in[0, r]$. However, this expression is zero when $\alpha=r$, a contradiction. Hence we always have $\operatorname{Pr}-S-s r^{2} \geq 0$.

Tóth's inequality can be written in the form $P^{2}-4 s S \geq(P-2 s r)^{2}$, from which Lhuilier's inequality follows immediately.

It should be stressed that Lhuilier's and Tóth's inequalities are true for convex polygons only. That is why in general their application is combined with the following fact.

Problem 2.1.2 Show that for every polygon $M$ there exists a convex polygon $M^{\prime}$ with the same perimeter whose area is not less than the area of $M$.

Solution. Let $M_{0}$ be the convex hull of $M$, i.e., $M_{0}$ is the smallest convex polygon containing $M$. Then the perimeter of $M_{0}$ is not larger than the perimeter of $M$. Applying a suitable dilation to $M_{0}$, one gets a polygon $M^{\prime}$ similar to $M_{0}$ and having the same perimeter as $M$. The area of $M^{\prime}$ is not less than the area of $M$ since $M_{0}$ contains $M$.

Remark. The statement in Problem 2.1.2 is true for any (bounded) region $M$ in the plane. In many cases in dealing with isoperimetric problems this fact shows that the solution should be sought among the convex regions of the kind considered.

Proof of the Isoperimetric Theorem for $\boldsymbol{n}$-gons. We will prove part (iii). Let $M$ be an arbitrary $n$-gon. According to Problem 2.1.2, it is enough to consider the
case of $M$ convex. Then Lhuilier's inequality gives $P^{2} \geq 4 S s$. Since the area of a regular $n$-gon circumscribed about a unit circle is equal to $n \tan \frac{\pi}{n}$, Problem 2.1.1 shows that $s \geq n \tan \frac{\pi}{n}$. Combining this with Lhuilier's inequality gives

$$
P^{2} \geq 4 S s \geq 4 S n \tan \frac{\pi}{n}
$$

which proves the theorem.
Next, we consider two interesting applications of the isoperimetric theorem and Lhuilier's inequality.

Problem 2.1.3 Show that among all convex n-gons with given lengths of the sides the cyclic one has maximal area.

Solution. Here we present an elegant solution of the problem given by Jacob Steiner.

We shall use without proof the fact that given an $n$-gon there is a unique (up to congruence) cyclic $n$-gon with the same sides.


Figure 56.
Let $M$ be an arbitrary convex polygon whose sides have the given lengths, and let $M^{\prime}$ be a cyclic polygon with the same side lengths. Let $K$ be the disk determined by its circumcircle. On each side of $M$ we construct externally the sector cut off from $K$ by the respective side of $M^{\prime}$ (Fig. 56). Together with $M$ these sectors form a region $M^{\prime \prime}$ whose perimeter equals the perimeter of $K$. Now the isoperimetric theorem implies that the area of $K$ is not less than the area of $M^{\prime \prime}$. Subtracting from these two regions the sectors from $K$ described above, we get that the area of $M^{\prime}$ is not less than that of $M$.

Problem 2.1.4 The area of a disk is larger than the area of any polygon with the same perimeter.

Solution. According to Problem 2.1.2, it is enough to deal with convex polygons only. Let $K$ and $S$ be the areas of a disk and a (convex) polygon with the same perimeter $P$. Then

$$
\frac{P^{2}}{4 K}=\pi
$$

On the other hand, Lhuilier's inequality gives

$$
\frac{P^{2}}{4 S} \geq s
$$

where $s$ is the area of a polygon circumscribed about a unit circle whose sides are parallel to the sides of $M$. Since the area of a unit disk is $\pi$, we have $s>\pi$, and now the above two inequalities imply $\frac{P^{2}}{4 S}>\frac{P^{2}}{4 K}$. Hence $K>S$, which solves the problem.

## EXERCISES

2.1.5 Show that if two triangles have the same base and equal perimeters, the one with a smaller (in absolute value) difference between the lengths of the other two sides has a larger area.
2.1.6 Show that of all triangles with the same base and perimeter, the isosceles triangle has maximal area.
2.1.7 Show that of all parallelograms with a given perimeter, the square has maximal area.
2.1.8 Show that of all parallelograms with a given perimeter and a given length of one of diagonals, the rhombus has maximal area.
2.1.9 Of all quadrilaterals of area 1 , find the ones for which the sum of the three shortest sides is minimal.
2.1.10 Let $n \geq 3$ be an integer and $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n-1}$ positive numbers. Of all $n$-gons $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$ with $A_{i} A_{i+1}=a_{i}$ for all $i=1, \ldots, n-1$, find the ones of maximal area.
2.1.11 Let $s$ be the length of the side of a regular $n$-gon inscribed in a given circle $k$. Show that for any nonregular $n$-gon $M$ inscribed in $k$ there exists another $n$-gon inscribed in $k$ whose area is larger than that of $M$ and that has more sides of length $s$ than $M$.
2.1.12 Show that of all $n$-gons inscribed in a given circle the regular $n$-gon has a maximum area and perimeter.
2.1.13 Four congruent nonintersecting circles are centered at the vertices of a square. Construct a quadrilateral of maximum perimeter whose vertices lie on these circles.
2.1.14 Let $M$ be a point in the interior of a convex $n$-gon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$. Show that at least one of the angles

$$
\angle M A_{1} A_{2}, \angle M A_{2} A_{3}, \ldots, \angle M A_{n-1} A_{n}, \angle M A_{n} A_{1}
$$

does not exceed $\pi(n-2) /(2 n)$.
2.1.15 In a unit circle, three triangles of area 1 are drawn. Show that at least two of them have an interior point in common.
2.1.16 Show that for any nonregular $n$-gon there exists another $n$-gon with the same perimeter and of larger area whose sides have equal lengths.
2.1.17 The two ends of a rope are tied to the end of a stick. What shape should the rope take so that the device obtained in this way surrounds a region of maximal area on the ground?
2.1.18 Given a positive integer $n$, find a curve of a given length that cuts off a region of maximal area from an angle of measure $\frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$.
2.1.19 Of all regular pyramids with $n$-sided bases and of a given surface area, find the ones with maximum volume.
2.1.20 Of all parallelepipeds with a given sum of the edges, find the ones with maximum volume.
2.1.21 Let $a, b, c$ be positive numbers. Of all tetrahedra $A B C D$ with $A B=a$, $C D=b$, and $M K=c$, where $M$ and $K$ are the midpoints of the edges $A B$ and $C D$, find the ones of maximum:
(a) surface area;
(b) volume.
2.1.22 Of all skew (i.e., nonplanar) quadrilaterals $A B C D$ in space with a given perimeter and a given side $A B$, find the ones for which the tetrahedron $A B C D$ has a maximum volume.
2.1.23 Of all skew quadrilaterals $A B C D$ in space with a given perimeter, find the ones for which the volume of the tetrahedron $A B C D$ is a maximum.

### 2.2 Extremal Points in Triangle and Tetrahedron

In every triangle (tetrahedron) there are various points defined by means of some special geometric properties. This is the way one defines the centroid, the incenter, the circumcenter, Lemoine's point, etc. It turns out that many of these points may also be characterized as the points where certain naturally defined functions in the plane or in space achieve their maxima or minima. This section is devoted to problems establishing extremal properties of the remarkable points in triangle and tetrahedron.

Note that we have already considered problems of this kind.
For example, assume that all angles of triangle $A B C$ are less than $120^{\circ}$. Recall that Torricelli's point of $A B C$ is the (unique) point $T$ with $\angle A T B=\angle B T C=$ $\angle C T A=120^{\circ}$. According to Problem 1.1.7, the minimum of the sum $A X+B X+$ $C X$ for points $X$ in the plane is attained at the point $T$.

Here is another example. For any triangle $A B C$, the minimum of the sum $A X^{2}+B X^{2}+C X^{2}$ for points $X$ in the plane (space) is attained at the centroid $G$ of $A B C$. This follows from Leibniz's equality

$$
A X^{2}+B X^{2}+C X^{2}=3 X G^{2}+A G^{2}+B G^{2}+C G^{2}
$$

Another extreme property of the centroid is given in Problem 1.2.23. For any point $X$ in a triangle $A B C$, denote by $A_{1}, B_{1}$, and $C_{1}$ the intersection points of the lines $A X, B X$, and $C X$ with $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively. Then triangle $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ has maximum area when $X$ coincides with the centroid $G$ of $A B C$.

The last two properties of the centroid have analogues for a tetrahedron.
Finally, let us mention that if $x, y$, and $z$ are the distances from an arbitrary point $X$ in a given triangle $A B C$ to its sides, then the sum $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}$ is a minimum when $X$ coincides with Lemoine's point of $A B C$ (cf. Problem 1.2.5).

The next problem gives another extreme property of Lemoine's point.

Problem 2.2.1 In a given triangle ABC inscribe a triangle such that the sum of the squares of its sides is minimal.

Solution. Denote by $L$ Lemoine's point of triangle $A B C$, and let $M, N$, and $P$ be the orthogonal projections of $L$ on the sides $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively (Fig. 57).

We are going to show that $M N P$ (and only it) is the desired triangle.
Let us first show that $L$ is the centroid of $\triangle M N P$. Denote by $G$ the centroid of $\triangle M N P$ and by $x_{1}, y_{1}$, and $z_{1}$ the distances from $G$ to the sides $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively. Then, according to Problem 1.2.5, for $x=L M, y=L N$, and


Figure 57.
$z=L P$ we have $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \leq x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}+z_{1}^{2}$ with equality only when $G=L$. On the other hand, Leibniz's formula for $\triangle M N P$ gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} & =3 L G^{2}+G M^{2}+G N^{2}+G P^{2} \\
& \geq 3 L G^{2}+x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}+z_{1}^{2} \geq x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

This gives $L=G$, i.e., $L$ is the centroid of $\triangle M N P$.
Next, consider an arbitrary triangle $M_{1} N_{1} P_{1}$ inscribed in triangle $A B C$, and let $G$ be its centroid. Denote by $M_{2}, N_{2}$, and $P_{2}$ the orthogonal projections of $G$ on the sides $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively. Then the median formula gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{1} N_{1}^{2}+N_{1} P_{1}^{2}+P_{1} M_{1}^{2} & =3\left(G M_{1}^{2}+G N_{1}^{2}+G P_{1}^{2}\right) \\
& \geq 3\left(G M_{2}^{2}+G N_{2}^{2}+G P_{2}^{2}\right) \\
& \geq 3\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}\right)=M N^{2}+N P^{2}+P M^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where equality holds only when $M_{1}=M_{2}, N_{1}=N_{2}, P_{1}=P_{2}$, and $G=L$, i.e., when $M_{1}=M, N_{1}=N$, and $P_{1}=P$.

A similar property of Lemoine's point for a tetrahedron is stated in Problem 2.2.13.

Problem 2.2.2 Find the points $X$ inside an acute triangle $A B C$ such that the triangle with vertices the orthogonal projections of $X$ on the sides of triangle $A B C$ has maximal area.

Solution. Let $X$ be an arbitrary point in $\triangle A B C$, and let $M, N$, and $P$ be the orthogonal projections of $X$ on $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively (Fig. 58). Set $S=$ [ABC], $\sigma=[M N P]$, and let $R$ and $O$ be the circumradius and the circumcenter of $\triangle A B C$.


Figure 58.

We will show that $\sigma$ is maximal when $X=O$. To do this we will first prove the following Euler's formula (cf. [8]):

$$
\sigma=\left(1-\frac{d^{2}}{R^{2}}\right) \frac{S}{4}
$$

where $d=O X$.
To start the proof of this formula, write $\sigma=\frac{1}{2} M N \cdot N P \sin \angle M N P$. Denote by $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ the angles of $\triangle A B C$. The quadrilateral $A P X N$ is inscribed in a circle with diameter $A X$, so the law of sines gives $P N=A X \sin \alpha$. Similarly, from the cyclic quadrilateral $C N X M$ one finds that $M N=C X \sin \gamma$. Thus,

$$
\sigma=\frac{1}{2} A X \cdot C X \sin \alpha \sin \gamma \sin \angle M N P
$$

Let $Y$ be the intersection point of the ray $A X$ with the circumcircle $k$ of $\triangle A B C$. We claim that $\angle M N P=\angle X C Y$. Indeed, from the quadrilateral $A P X N$ one gets $\angle X N P=\angle X A P$. On the other hand, $\angle X A P=\angle Y A B=\angle Y C B$. It now follows from the quadrilateral $C N X M$ that $\angle X N M=\angle X C M$, so

$$
\angle M N P=\angle M N X+\angle X N P=\angle X C M+\angle Y C B=\angle X C Y .
$$

Next, notice that $\angle X Y C=\angle A Y C=\angle A B C=\beta$. Combining this with the above and with the law of sines for $\triangle X Y C$, we get

$$
\frac{C X}{X Y}=\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin \angle X C Y}=\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin \angle M N P}
$$

Thus $C X \sin \angle M N P=X Y \sin \beta$ and one obtains

$$
\sigma=\frac{1}{2} A X \cdot X Y \sin \alpha \sin \beta \sin \gamma
$$

Let $X_{1} X_{2}$ be the diameter in $k$ containing the point $X$. Assume that $O$ is between $X_{1}$ and $X$. Then $X_{1} X_{2}=R+d$ and $X_{2} X=R-d$. Since the chords $A Y$ and $X_{1} X_{2}$ intersect at $X$, we have

$$
A X \cdot X Y=X_{1} X \cdot X X_{2}=(R+d)(R-d)=R^{2}-d^{2}
$$

and the identity above gives

$$
\sigma=\frac{R^{2}-d^{2}}{2} \sin \alpha \sin \beta \sin \gamma
$$

On the other hand,

$$
S=\frac{a b}{2} \sin \gamma=\frac{1}{2}(2 R \sin \alpha)(2 R \sin \beta) \sin \gamma=2 R^{2} \sin \alpha \sin \beta \sin \gamma .
$$

Hence

$$
\sigma=\frac{R^{2}-d^{2}}{2} \cdot \frac{S}{2 R^{2}}=\left(1-\frac{d^{2}}{R^{2}}\right) \frac{S}{4},
$$

and Euler's formula is proved.
It is clear that $\sigma$ is maximal when $d=0$, i.e., when $X=O$.
Let us note that using an argument similar to the one in the solution of Problem 2.2.2, one can show that for any point $X$ in the plane we have

$$
\sigma= \pm\left(1-\frac{d^{2}}{R^{2}}\right) \frac{S}{4},
$$

where the sign + corresponds to the case that $X$ is inside the circumcircle of $\triangle A B C$ and the sign - to the case that $X$ is outside the circumcircle. When $X$ is on the circumcircle we have $\sigma=0$, i.e., the points $M, N$, and $P$ lie on a line. The latter fact is known as Simson's theorem. Further, Euler's formula shows that for any $\sigma_{0}>0$ the locus of the points $X$ in the plane for which $\sigma=\sigma_{0}$ is
(i) a circle with center $O$ and radius $R \sqrt{1+\frac{4 \sigma_{0}}{S}}$ if $4 \sigma_{0}>S$;
(ii) the union of two concentric circles with center $O$ and radii $R \sqrt{1+\frac{4 \sigma_{0}}{S}}$ and $R \sqrt{1-\frac{4 \sigma_{0}}{S}}$ if $4 \sigma_{0} \leq S$.

The next two problems are taken from the article [11] of G. Lawden.

Problem 2.2.3 Let $A B C$ be a given triangle, and let $A^{\prime}$ be a point in the plane different from $A, B$, and $C$. Let $L$ and $M$ be the feet of the perpendiculars drawn from $A$ to the lines $A^{\prime} B$ and $A^{\prime} C$, respectively. Find the position of $A^{\prime}$ such that the length of $L M$ is maximal.

Solution. We will show that the length of $L M$ is maximal when $A^{\prime}$ coincides with the center of the excircle (external circle) for $\triangle A B C$ inscribed in $\angle B A C$.


Figure 59.
First, notice that for any choice of $A^{\prime}$ the point $M$ lies on the circle $k_{1}$ with diameter $A C$, while $L$ lies on the circle $k_{2}$ with diameter $A B$ (Fig. 59). Then obviously $L M$ is maximal when the segment $L M$ contains the centers $E$ and $F$ of $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$. In this case we have

$$
L M=A F+F E+E A=\frac{a+b+c}{2}=s
$$

Moreover, it follows from $\angle M E C=\angle A E F=\gamma$ that $\angle M C E=\angle C M E=$ $90^{\circ}-\frac{\gamma}{2}$, which in turn implies that $M C$ is the bisector of the complementary angle to $\angle A C B$. The line $L B$ has a similar property. Therefore $A^{\prime}$ is the center of the excircle for $\triangle A B C$ inscribed in $\angle B A C$.

Problem 2.2.4 For any point $P$ in the plane different from the vertices $A, B$, and $C$ of a given triangle $A B C$, set $x=A P, y=B P, z=C P, \alpha_{1}=\angle B P C$, $\beta_{1}=\angle A P C$, and $\gamma_{1}=\angle A P B$. Find the position of $P$ such that the sum

$$
q(P)=x \sin \alpha_{1}+y \sin \beta_{1}+z \sin \gamma_{1}
$$

is maximal.

Solution. Denote by $k$ the circumcircle of $\triangle B P C$ and by $A^{\prime}$ the intersection point of $k$ and the line $A P$ such that $A^{\prime}$ and $P$ are on different sides of the line $B C$ (Fig. 60). Let $L$ and $M$ be the feet of the perpendiculars drawn from $A$ to the lines $A^{\prime} B$ and $A^{\prime} C$. We will show that $q(P)=L M$.


Figure 60.

Notice that $\angle P C B=\angle P A^{\prime} B=\angle A M L$ and $\angle P B C=\angle P A^{\prime} C=\angle A L M$. Hence $\triangle P B C \sim \triangle A L M$, and therefore $\frac{a}{z}=\frac{L M}{A M}$. On the other hand, $\angle B C A^{\prime}=$ $\angle B P A^{\prime}=180^{\circ}-\angle A P B=180^{\circ}-\gamma_{1}$. Thus, $\angle A C M=180^{\circ}-\gamma-\left(180^{\circ}-\gamma_{1}\right)=$ $\gamma_{1}-\gamma$, and so $A M=b \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)$. This implies

$$
z=\frac{a A M}{L M}=\frac{a b \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)}{L M}
$$

Similarly, $x=\frac{b c \sin \left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha\right)}{L M}$ and $y=\frac{a c \sin \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)}{L M}$.
Next, Ptolemy's theorem for $A L A^{\prime} M$ gives

$$
A A^{\prime} \cdot L M=A M \cdot A^{\prime} L+A^{\prime} M \cdot A L
$$

while the law of sines for $A^{\prime} B C$ yields $A^{\prime} B=\frac{a \sin \gamma_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}$ and $A^{\prime} C=\frac{a \sin \beta_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}$. Since $A A^{\prime}$ is a diameter of the circumcircle of $A L A^{\prime} M$, we have

$$
\frac{L M}{\sin \alpha_{1}}=\frac{L M}{\sin \angle M A L}=A A^{\prime}
$$

Also notice that

$$
A^{\prime} L=A^{\prime} B+B L=\frac{a \sin \gamma_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}+c \cos \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)
$$

and

$$
A^{\prime} M=A^{\prime} C+C M=\frac{a \sin \beta_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}+b \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)
$$

Now the identity above implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{L M^{2}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}= & A A^{\prime} \cdot L M=b \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)\left[c \cos \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)+\frac{a \sin \gamma_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}\right] \\
& +c \sin \beta_{1}\left[b \cos \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)+\frac{a \sin \beta_{1}}{\sin \alpha_{1}}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
L M^{2}= & b c\left[\sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right) \cos \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)+\sin \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right) \cos \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)\right] \\
& +a c \sin \beta_{1} \sin \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)+a b \sin \gamma_{1} \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right) \\
= & b c \sin \alpha_{1} \sin \left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha\right)+a c \sin \beta_{1} \sin \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right) \\
& +a b \sin \gamma_{1} \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, $b c \sin \left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha\right)=x L M, a c \sin \left(\beta_{1}-\beta\right)=y L M$, and $a b \sin \left(\gamma_{1}-\gamma\right)=z L M$. Using these in the above equality for $L M^{2}$, one gets

$$
L M=x \sin \alpha_{1}+y \sin \beta_{1}+z \sin \gamma_{1}=q(P) .
$$

It now follows from Problem 2.2.3 that the sum $q(P)$ is maximal when $A^{\prime}$ is the center of the corresponding excircle. In this case we have $\gamma_{1}=90^{\circ}+\frac{\gamma}{2}$, $\angle B A P=\frac{\alpha}{2}$, and therefore $\angle A B P=\frac{\beta}{2}$. Thus $P$ is the incenter of $\triangle A B C$.

## EXERCISES

2.2.5 Given a point $X$ in the interior of an acute triangle $A B C$, denote by $A_{1}$, $B_{1}$, and $C_{1}$ the intersection points of the lines $A X, B X$, and $C X$ with the corresponding sides of the triangle. Show that the perimeter of triangle $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ is minimal when $X$ is the orthocenter of triangle $A B C$.
2.2.6 Given a point $X$ in the interior of an acute triangle $A B C$, one draws the lines through $X$ parallel to the sides of the triangle. These lines intersect the sides of the triangle at the points $M \in A C, N \in B C(M N \| A B), P \in A B, Q \in$ $A C(P Q \| B C)$, and $R \in B C, S \in A B(R S \| A C)$. Find the position of $X$ such that the sum

$$
M X \cdot N X+P X \cdot Q X+R X \cdot S X
$$

is a maximum.
2.2.7 Find the position of a point $M$ inside an acute triangle $A B C$ such that the sum:
(a) $A M \cdot B C+B M \cdot A C+C M \cdot A B$;
(b) $A M \cdot B M \cdot A B+B M \cdot C M \cdot B C+C M \cdot A M \cdot C A$
is a minimum.
2.2.8 Given a triangle $A B C$, find the points $M$ in the plane such that the sum

$$
A B \cdot M C^{2}+B C \cdot M A^{2}+C A \cdot M B^{2}
$$

is a minimum.
2.2.9 Let $M$ be a point in the interior of a triangle $A B C$ and let $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime}$ be the feet of the perpendiculars drawn from $M$ to the lines $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively. Find the position of $M$ such that

$$
\frac{M A^{\prime} \cdot M B^{\prime} \cdot M C^{\prime}}{M A \cdot M B \cdot M C}
$$

is maximal.
2.2.10 For any point $X$ in the interior of a triangle $A B C$ set $m(X)=\min \{A X, B X$, $C X\}$. Find the position of $X$ such that $m(X)$ is a maximum.
2.2.11 Triangle $M N P$ is circumscribed about a given triangle $A B C$ in such a way that the points $A, B$, and $C$ lie on $N P, P M$, and $M N$, respectively, and $\angle P A B=\angle M B C=\angle N C A=\varphi$. Find the values of $\varphi$ such that the area of triangle $M N P$ is a maximum.
2.2.12 Find a point $X$ in the interior of a regular tetrahedron such that the tetrahedron with vertices the orthogonal projections of $X$ on its faces has maximum volume.
2.2.13 For any point $X$ in the interior of a given tetrahedron $A B C D$ denote by $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$, and $X_{4}$ the orthogonal projections of $X$ on the planes $B C D$, $A C D, A B D$, and $A B C$, respectively, and by $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$, and $x_{4}$ the distances from $X$ to these planes. Set $S_{1}=[B C D], S_{2}=[A C D], S_{3}=[A B D]$, $S_{4}=[A B C]$.
(a) Prove that there exists a unique point $X$ such that

$$
\frac{x_{1}}{S_{1}}=\frac{x_{2}}{S_{2}}=\frac{x_{3}}{S_{3}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}} .
$$

Denote this point by $L$ and call it Lemoine's point for the tetrahedron $A B C D$.
(b) Show that the sum $x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2}$ is minimal precisely when $X$ coincides with $L$.
(c) Show that $L$ is the centroid of the tetrahedron $L_{1} L_{2} L_{3} L_{4}$.
2.2.14 Inscribe a tetrahedron in a given tetrahedron such that the sum of squares of its edges is a minimum.
2.2.15 Find the position of a point inside a regular tetrahedron such that the sum of distances from it to the six edges of the tetrahedron is a minimum.

### 2.3 Malfatti's Problems

In 1803 the Italian mathematician Gianfrancesco Malfatti posed the following problem [13]: Given a right triangular prism of any sort of material, such as marble, how shall three circular cylinders of the same height as the prism and of the greatest possible volume be related to one another in the prism and leave over the least possible amount of material? This is equivalent to the plane problem of cutting three circles from a given triangle so that the sum of their areas is maximized.

As noted in [7], Malfatti, and many others who considered the problem, assumed that the solution would be the three circles that are tangent to each other, while each circle is tangent to two sides of the triangle (Fig. 61).


Figure 61.
These circles have become known as the Malfatti circles, and we refer the reader to [12] and [21] for some historical remarks on the derivation of their radii. In 1929, Lob and Richmond [12] noted that the Malfatti circles are not always the solution of the Malfatti problem. For example, in an equilateral triangle the in circle together with two little circles squeezed into the angles, contain a greater area than Malfatti's three circles. Moreover, Goldberg [7] proved in 1967 that the Malfatti circles never give a solution of the Malfatti problem. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the Malfatti problem was first solved by V. Zalgaller and G. Loss [23] in 1991.

They proved that for a triangle $A B C$ with $\angle A \leq \angle B \leq \angle C$ the solution of the Malfatti problem is given by the circles $k_{1}, k_{2}$, $k_{3}$, where $k_{1}$ is the incircle, $k_{2}$ is inscribed in $\angle A$ and externally tangent to $k_{1}$, while $k_{3}$ is either the circle inscribed


Figure 62.
in $\angle B$ and externally tangent to $k_{1}$ or the circle inscribed in $\angle A$ and externally tangent to $k_{2}$, depending on whether $\sin \frac{A}{2} \geq \tan \frac{B}{2}$ or $\sin \frac{A}{2} \leq \tan \frac{B}{2}$ (Fig. 62).

The proof of Zalgaller and Loss is very long (more than 25 pages) and we are not going to present it here. Instead, we shall consider the Malfatti problem for two circles in a square or a triangle, and we shall give a simple solution of the original Malfatti problem for an equilateral triangle.

We start with the Malfatti problem for two circles in a square.
Problem 2.3.1 Cut two nonintersecting circles from a given square so that the sum of their areas is maximal.

Solution. Assume that the side length of the square is 1 , and consider two arbitrary nonintersecting circles inside of it (Fig. 63(a)). It is not difficult to see (the reader is advised to do this rigorously) that by moving the circles inside the square without intersecting them, they can be inscribed in opposite corners of the square (Fig. 63(b)).


Figure 63. (a)


Figure 63. (b)


Figure 63. (c)

Then one can increase the radius of one of them (which increases their total area) until they touch (Fig. 63(c)). Thus, it is enough to consider the case in which the two circles are situated as in Fig. 64.

If their radii are $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$, then $\sqrt{2} r_{1}+r_{1}+r_{2}+\sqrt{2} r_{2}=\sqrt{2}$, so

$$
r_{1}+r_{2}=2-\sqrt{2} .
$$

Moreover, the fact that both circles lie entirely in the square implies

$$
0 \leq r_{1}, r_{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}
$$



Figure 64.
Now the problem is to find the maximum value of the expression $r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}$ under the conditions above. Assume for convenience that $r_{1} \leq r_{2}$. Then there exists $x$ with $r_{1}=\frac{2-\sqrt{2}}{2}-x$ and $r_{2}=\frac{2-\sqrt{2}}{2}+x$, where $0 \leq x \leq \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}$. Therefore $r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}=\frac{(2-\sqrt{2})^{2}}{2}+2 x^{2}$ is a maximum when $x=\frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{2}$. In this case $r_{1}=\frac{3}{2}-\sqrt{2}$ and $r_{2}=\frac{1}{2}$. Thus, the solution of the problem is given by the incircle of the square and one of the circles inscribed in a corner of the square that is tangent to the incircle (Fig. 65).


Figure 65.
We are now going to solve the more difficult Malfatti problem for two circles in a triangle.

Problem 2.3.2 Cut two nonintersecting circles from a triangle such that the sum of their areas is maximal.

Solution. Let $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ be two nonintersecting circles of radii $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ and centers $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}$ in triangle $A B C$. We may assume that each of them is tangent to at least two sides of the triangle. More specifically, assume that $k_{1}$ is tangent to $A B$ and $A C$, while $k_{2}$ is tangent to $A B$ and $B C$. Then $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}$ lie on the bisectors of angles $A$ and $B$, respectively (Fig. 66). We may also assume that the two circles are tangent to each other; otherwise, enlarging one of them would clearly enlarge their total area.

Suppose now that neither $k_{1}$ nor $k_{2}$ coincides with the incircle $k$ of $\triangle A B C$. We shall show that then there exists a circle $k^{\prime}$ of radius $r^{\prime}$ without common interior


Figure 66.
points with $k$ such that the sum of the areas of $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ is greater than the sum of the areas of $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$.

Assume for convenience that $\angle A \leq \angle B$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $r_{1} \leq r_{2}$. Indeed, if $r_{1}>r_{2}$, denote by $k_{1}^{\prime}$ the circle of radius $r_{1}^{\prime}=r_{2}$ that is tangent to $A B$ and $B C$, and by $k_{2}^{\prime}$ the circle of radius $r_{2}^{\prime}=r_{1}$ that is tangent to $A C$ and $A B$. Then $r_{1}^{\prime} \leq r_{2}^{\prime}$ and the total area of $k_{1}^{\prime}$ and $k_{2}^{\prime}$ is the same as that of $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$. Moreover, $\angle A \leq \angle B$ implies $O_{2}^{\prime} M \geq O_{2} N$ (Fig. 67). Hence $O_{1}^{\prime} O_{2}^{\prime} \geq O_{1} O_{2} \geq r_{1}+r_{2}=r_{1}^{\prime}+r_{2}^{\prime}$, i.e., $k_{1}^{\prime}$ and $k_{2}^{\prime}$ have no common interior points.


Figure 67.
So, we shall assume from now on that $\angle A \leq \angle B$ and $r_{1} \leq r_{2}$. Set $\epsilon=r-r_{2}>$ 0 , where $r$ is the inradius of $\triangle A B C$. If $r_{1} \leq \epsilon$, then $r_{1}+r_{2} \leq r$. Hence $r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}<r^{2}$, which means that the total area of $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ is less than the area of $k$. Now consider the case $r_{1}>\epsilon$. Set $r^{\prime}=r_{1}-\epsilon$ and let $k^{\prime}$ be the circle of radius $r^{\prime}$ inscribed in $\angle A$ (Fig. 68). Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r^{2}+\left(r^{\prime}\right)^{2} & =\left(r_{2}+\epsilon\right)^{2}+\left(r_{1}-\epsilon\right)^{2} \\
& =r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}+2 \epsilon\left(r_{2}-r_{1}\right)+2 \epsilon^{2}>r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and it remains to show that $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ have no common interior points. To do this we first note that

$$
O O_{2}=\frac{\epsilon}{\sin \frac{B}{2}} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sin \frac{A}{2}}=O_{1} O^{\prime}
$$

Hence the triangle inequality implies that

$$
O O^{\prime}=O O_{1}+O_{1} O^{\prime} \geq O O_{1}+O_{2} O \geq O_{1} O_{2}
$$



Figure 68.

Thus, $O O^{\prime} \geq O_{1} O_{2} \geq r_{1}+r_{2}=r+r^{\prime}$ and therefore $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ have no common interior points.

The above arguments show that two nonintersecting circles in $\triangle A B C$ have maximal combined area precisely when one of them is the incircle of $\triangle A B C$, while the other one is inscribed in the smallest angle of the triangle and is tangent to the incircle.

Next, we consider two problems that in a sense are inverse to Problems 2.3.1 and 2.3.2.

Problem 2.3.3 Find the side length of the smallest square containing two nonintersecting circles of given radii $a$ and $b$.

Solution. Assume that $a \geq b$. Consider two nonintersecting circles $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ of radii $a$ and $b$, respectively, lying in a square $S$ of side length $x$. Then the center $O_{1}$ (resp. $O_{2}$ ) of $k_{1}$ (resp. $k_{2}$ ) lies in the square whose sides are at distances $a$ (resp. b) from the corresponding sides of $S$ (Fig. 69). Then $O_{1} O_{2} \leq A B=\sqrt{2}(x-a-b)$. On the other hand, $O_{1} O_{2} \geq a+b$, since $k_{1}$ and $k_{2}$ do not intersect, and we get $\sqrt{2}(x-a-b) \geq a+b$. Hence

$$
x \geq(a+b)\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)
$$

It is clear also that $x \geq 2 a$, since the circle $k_{1}$ lies inside the square $S$.
If $(a+b)\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \geq 2 a$, then the required smallest square has side of length $d=(a+b)\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$. This follows from the inequalities above and the fact that in this case the two circles of radii $a$ and $b$ centered at $A$ and $B$ (see Fig. 69) are nonintersecting and lie in $S$.

Similarly, if $(a+b)\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)<2 a$, then the required smallest square has side of length $d=2 a$.


Figure 69.

Hence the solution of the problem is given by the square of side length

$$
d=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
(a+b)\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) & \text { if } b(\sqrt{2}+1)^{2} \geq a \geq b \\
2 a & \text { if } \quad a \geq b(\sqrt{2}+1)^{2}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Using the same reasoning as above one can solve the analogous problem for an equilateral triangle.

Problem 2.3.4 Show that the side length of the smallest equilateral triangle contaning two nonintersecting circles of given radii $a$ and $b, a \geq b$, is given by

$$
d=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\sqrt{3}(a+b)+2 \sqrt{a b} & \text { if } b \leq a \leq 3 b \\
2 \sqrt{3} a & \text { if } a \geq 3 b
\end{array}\right.
$$

Now we shall use Problem 2.3.4 to solve the original Malfatti problem for an equilateral triangle.

Problem 2.3.5 Prove that the solution of the Malfatti problem for an equilateral triangle is given by the incircle and two circles inscribed in its angles and tangent to the incircle.

Solution. We may assume that the side length of the triangle is 1 . Suppose that it contains three nonintersecting circles of radii $a \geq b \geq c$. Since the three circles from the statement of the problem have radii $\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}}$, and $\frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}}$, we have to prove the following inequality:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq \frac{11}{108} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

To do this we shall consider two cases.

Case 1 Let $a \geq 3 b$. Since $a \leq \frac{1}{2 \sqrt{3}}$, it follows that

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq a^{2}+2 b^{2} \leq a^{2}+\frac{2 a^{2}}{9} \leq \frac{11}{108}
$$

The equality occurs if and only if

$$
a=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{3}}, \quad b=c=\frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}} .
$$

Case 2 Let $b \leq a \leq 3 b$. Then it follows from Problem 2.3.4 that

$$
\sqrt{3}(a+b)+2 \sqrt{a b} \leq 1
$$

Set $a=3 x^{2} b$, where $x>0$. Then the above inequalities are equivalent to

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \leq x \leq 1, \quad b \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}\left(3 x^{2}+2 x+1\right)}
$$

Hence

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq a^{2}+2 b^{2}=\left(9 x^{4}+2\right) b^{2} \leq \frac{9 x^{4}+2}{3\left(3 x^{2}+2 x+1\right)^{2}}
$$

and it is enough to prove that

$$
\frac{9 x^{4}+2}{\left(3 x^{2}+2 x+1\right)^{2}} \leq \frac{11}{36}
$$

if $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \leq x \leq 1$. The above inequality is equivalent to

$$
\left(225 x^{3}+93 x^{2}-17 x-61\right)(x-1) \leq 0
$$

which is satisfied since $x-1 \leq 0$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
225 x^{3}+93 x^{2}-17 x-61 & =51 x\left(x^{2}-1 / 3\right)+174 x^{3}+93 x^{2}-61 \\
& \geq \frac{174}{3 \sqrt{3}}+\frac{93}{3}-61=\frac{174-90 \sqrt{3}}{3 \sqrt{3}}>0
\end{aligned}
$$

In this case the equality in (1) is attained if and only if $x=1, b=c=$ $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}\left(3 x^{2}+2 x+1\right)}$, giving again that $a=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{3}}$ and $b=c=\frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}}$.

## EXERCISES

2.3.6 Find the radii of the Malfatti circles for an equilateral triangle and show that they do not provide a solution to the Malfatti problem. Do the same for other types of triangles.
2.3.7 Cut two nonintersecting circles of radii $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ from a given square so that:
(a) $r_{1} r_{2}$ is a maximum;
(b) $r_{1}^{3}+r_{2}^{3}$ is a maximum.
2.3.8 Cut two nonintersecting circles from a given triangle such that the product of their areas is a maximum.
2.3.9 Cut two nonintersecting circles from a given rectangle such that:
(a) the sum of their areas;
(b) the product of their areas, is a maximum.
2.3.10 Find the side length of the smallest square containing two nonintersecting circles of radii $\sqrt{2}$ and 2 .
2.3.11 Find the side length of the smallest square containing three nonintersecting circles of radii $1, \sqrt{2}$, and 2 .
2.3.12 Find the side length of the smallest equilateral triangle containing three nonintersecting circles of radii 2,3 , and 4 .
2.3.13 Solve the Malfatti problem for three circles in a square.
2.3.14 Find the side length of the smallest square containing 5 nonintersecting unit circles.
2.3.15 Cut two nonintersecting balls from a given cube such that:
(a) the sum of their volumes;
(b) the sum of their surface areas is a maximum.
2.3.16 Find the edge length of the smallest cube containing two nonintersecting balls of given radii $a$ and $b$.
2.3.17 Find the edge length of the smallest cube containing 9 nonintersecting unit balls.

### 2.4 Extremal Combinatorial Geometry Problems

The problems in the previous sections dealt with maxima and minima of geometric quantities like perimeter, area, volume, length of a segment, and measure of an angle. In this section we consider problems of a rather different nature. Namely, in most of them we will be concerned with the maximal or minimal number of points or figures in the plane (solids in space) having certain geometric properties.

Problem 2.4.1 In a regular $2 n$-gon the midpoints of all its sides and diagonals are marked. What is the maximum number of marked points that lie on a circle?

Solution. Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{2 n}$ be the successive vertices of a regular $2 n$-gon $M$, and let $O$ be its center. For each $i=1,2, \ldots, n$ the midpoints of the diagonals (or sides) of $M$ with length $A_{1} A_{i+1}$ lie on a circle $k_{i}$ with center $O$. Clearly $k_{i}$ contains at most $2 n$ points. Moreover, $k_{1}$ contains exactly $2 n$ points, while $k_{n}=$ $\{O\}$ (Fig. 70).


Figure 70.
Let us now show that every circle with center different from $O$ contains fewer than $2 n$ marked points. Indeed, if $k$ is such a circle, then for any $i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$ it has at most 2 common marked points with $k_{i}$. Thus $k$ contains at most $1+2(n-$ 1) $=2 n-1$ marked points.

Hence the maximum number of marked points on a circle is $2 n$.
Problem 2.4.2 Given a coordinate system in the plane and an integer $n \geq 4$, find the maximum number of integer points (i.e., points with integer coordinates) that can be covered by a square of side length $n$.

Solution. Consider an arbitrary square $K$ with side length $n$ and let $M$ be the smallest convex polygon containing the integer points in $K$. Then the area $[M]$ of $M$ does not exceed $n^{2}$, and its perimeter does not exceed $4 n$. Using Pick's formula (see the Glossary), we have $[M]=\frac{m}{2}+k-1$, where $k$ is the number of integer
points in the interior of $M$, while $m$ is the number of integer points on the boundary of $M$. Hence $\frac{m}{2}+k-1 \leq n^{2}$. Since the distance between any two distinct integer points is at least 1 , the perimeter of $M$ is at least $m$. Hence $m \leq 4 n$ and we get

$$
m+k=\left(\frac{m}{2}+k-1\right)+\frac{m}{2}+1 \leq n^{2}+2 n+1=(n+1)^{2} .
$$

Thus, the number $m+k$ of the integer points in $K$ does not exceed $(n+1)^{2}$.
On the other hand, it is clear that there exists a square with side $n$ covering $(n+1)^{2}$ integer points.

Problem 2.4.3 A city has the form of a square with side of length 5 km . Its streets divide it into suburbs all of which are squares with sides of length 200 m . What is the maximum area of a region in the city bounded by a closed curve of length 10 km that consists entirely of streets or parts of streets of the city?

Solution. Let $C$ be an arbitrary closed curve consisting of streets or parts of streets, and let $\Pi$ be the smallest rectangle containing $C$. Clearly the sides of $\Pi$ are streets or parts of streets of the city and the perimeter of $\Pi$ is not larger than the length of $C$.

Moreover, the area bounded by $C$ is not larger than the area of $\Pi$. Thus, it is enough to consider only closed curves $C$ of rectangular shape (Fig. 71).


Figure 71.
Now consider a rectangle $\Pi$ with perimeter 10 km whose boundary consists of streets or parts of streets. Denote by $x$ the length of the smaller side of $\Pi$ (in km). Then the length of the other side is $5-x$, and $0 \leq x \leq \frac{5}{2}$. Moreover, $k=5 x$ is an integer with $0 \leq k \leq 12$. Thus, $[\Pi]=x(5-x)$ is maximal when $x=\frac{5}{2}$. Moreover, the function $x(5-x)$ is increasing for $x \in[0,5 / 2]$, so for $x=\frac{k}{5}$ (with $k=1,2, \ldots, 12)$ the maximum value of $[\Pi]$ is achieved when $x=\frac{12}{5}$. Hence the required closed curve must have the shape of a rectangle with sides $\frac{12}{5} \mathrm{~km}$ and $\frac{13}{5} \mathrm{~km}$.

Given a convex polygon $M$ consider all homothetic images of $M$ smaller than $M$. Denote by $n(M)$ the minimum number of such polygons that can cover $M$. As we will see in the next problem, the number $n(M)$ is the same for all polygons $M$ that are not parallelograms. This remarkable fact is known as the Gohberg-Markus theorem. More details concerning this type of "covering problems" can be found in the book [3] of Boltyanskii and Gohberg.

Problem 2.4.4 Let $M$ be a convex nondegenerate (i.e., not lying on a line) polygon in the plane.
(a) If $M$ is a parallelogram, then $n(M)=4$.
(b) If $M$ is not a parallelogram, then $n(M)=3$.

## Solution.

(a) Let $M$ be a parallelogram $A B C D$. It is easy to see that $M$ can be covered by 4 smaller parallelograms homothetic to $M$ (Fig. 72(a)).


Figure 72. (a)


Figure 72. (b)

On the other hand, for any parallelogram $M_{1}$ homothetic to $M$ and smaller than $M$, if $M_{1}$ contains the point $A$, then $M_{1}$ cannot contain any other vertex of $M$ (Fig. 72(b)). This shows that $M$ cannot be covered by fewer than 4 parallelograms homothetic to $M$ and smaller than $M$. Hence $n(M)=4$.
(b) Let $M$ be an arbitrary nondegenerate convex polygon in the plane that is not a paralellogram. It is clear that $n(M) \geq 3$. Next, we need the following lemma.

Lemma. There exists a triangle $N$ containing $M$ such that the line of every side of $N$ contains a side of $M$.

Proof of the Lemma. If $M$ is a triangle, take $N=M$. Assume that $M$ is not a triangle; then there exist two sides of $M$ that are not parallel and have no common points. Extending these two sides until they intersect (Fig. 73(a)), one gets another convex polygon $M_{1}$ whose number of sides is less than that of $M$.

Continuing this process, after several steps one gets a parallelogram or a triangle $M^{\prime}$ containing $M$ whose sides contain sides of $M$. If $M^{\prime}$ is triangle, set $N=M^{\prime}$.


Figure 73. (a)


Figure 73. (b)

Assume that $M^{\prime}$ is a parallelogram $A B C D$. Since $M$ is not a parallelogram, at least one of the vertices of $M^{\prime}$ is not a vertex of $M$. Suppose for example that $A$ is not a vertex of $M$. Denote by $P$ the point from $M$ on the side $A D$ that is closest to $A$ and by $Q$ the point from $M$ on the side $A B$ that is closest to $A$ (Fig. 73(b)). Then the pentagon $Q B C D P$ contains $M$. Moreover, the triangle $N$ formed by the lines $P Q, B C$, and $C D$ also contains $M$ and has the required property. This proves the lemma.

Using the lemma, consider a triangle $A B C$ containing $M$ and such that the sides $A_{1} A_{2}, B_{1} B_{2}$, and $C_{1} C_{2}$ of $M$ lie on $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively (Fig. 74).


Figure 74.
Choose an arbitrary point $O$ in the interior of $M$ and arbitrary points $X, Y$, and $Z$ in the interiors of the segments $A_{1} A_{2}, B_{1} B_{2}$, and $C_{1} C_{2}$, respectively (Fig. 74). Then the segments $O X, O Y$, and $O Z$ cut $M$ into three polygons $M_{1}, M_{2}$, and $M_{3}$. Assume for example that $M_{1}$ is the polygon contained in the quadrilateral $A Z O Y$.

The choice of $O, Y$, and $Z$ now shows that if $0<k<1$ and $k$ is sufficiently close to 1 , then the homothety $\varphi_{1}$ with center $A$ and ratio $k$ is such that $\varphi_{1}(M)$ contains $A Z O Y$ and therefore $M_{1}$. In the same way one derives that there exist homotheties $\varphi_{2}$ and $\varphi_{3}$ with coefficients less than 1 such that $\varphi_{2}(M)$ contains $M_{2}$, while $\varphi_{3}(M)$ contains $M_{3}$. Thus, $M$ is contained in the union of $\varphi_{1}(M), \varphi_{2}(M)$, and $\varphi_{3}(M)$, so $n(M) \leq 3$. This proves that $n(M)=3$.

To conclude this section we consider a space problem.

Problem 2.4.5 A cube is cut into several parts all of them tetrahedra. What is the minimum possible number of tetrahedra obtained in this way?

Solution. Let $A B C D A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ be a cube (Fig. 75). It is easy to see that it can be cut into 5 tetrahedra: $A B C B^{\prime}, A C D D^{\prime}, A^{\prime} B^{\prime} D^{\prime} A, B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} C$, and $A C D^{\prime} B^{\prime}$.


Figure 75.
We are now going to show that 5 is the desired number. Let $a=A B$. Assume that the cube is cut into several tetrahedra. Clearly the base $A B C D$ must contain faces of at least two different tetrahedra $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$. If the areas of these two faces are $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$, then $S_{1}+S_{2} \leq a^{2}$ and the altitudes to these faces in $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ are not longer than $a$. Hence

$$
\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{2}\right) \leq \frac{a^{2} \cdot a}{3}=\frac{a^{3}}{3}
$$

In a similar way one shows that the upper base $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ contains the faces of two different tetrahedra $T_{3}$ and $T_{4}$ with $\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{3}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{4}\right) \leq \frac{a^{3}}{3}$. Moreover, it is clear that $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ cannot coincide with $T_{3}$ or $T_{4}$, since any two faces of a tetrahedron have a common edge. The tetrahedra $T_{1}, T_{2}, T_{3}$, and $T_{4}$ cannot cover the whole cube since

$$
\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{2}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{3}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(T_{4}\right) \leq 2 \frac{a^{3}}{3}<a^{3}
$$

So, there must be at least one more tetrahedron obtained by the cutting of the cube.
Hence if a cube is cut into tetrahedra, their number is at least 5 .

## EXERCISES

## Cuttings

2.4.6 What is the maximum number of triangles into which a given triangle $A B C$ can be cut so that the number of segments meeting at any vertex of the net obtained in this way is the same and all vertices except $A, B$, and $C$ lie in the interior of $A B C$.
2.4.7 Find the minimum number of planes required to cut a given cube into at least 300 pieces.
2.4.8 What is the minimum width of an infinite horizontal strip of the plane from which an arbitrary triangle of area 1 can be cut off.

## MaxMin and MinMax

2.4.9 Let $n \geq 3$ be a given integer. For any points $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ in the plane no three of which lie on a line, denote by $\alpha$ the smallest of the angles $A_{i} A_{j} A_{k}$ for different $i, j$, and $k$. Find the largest possible value of $\alpha$.
2.4.10 Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, A_{4}$ be arbitrary points on the boundary or in the interior of a given rectangle with sides of lengths 3 and 4 . Prove that

$$
\max \left(\min _{1 \leq i \neq j \leq 4} A_{i} A_{j}\right)=\frac{25}{8} .
$$

2.4.11 Consider $n$ arbitrary segments of length 1 in the plane, intersecting at one point. Show that the length of at least one side of the $2 n$-gon with vertices the ends of the segments is not less than the side length of a regular $2 n$-gon inscribed in a circle with diameter 1.

## Angles

2.4.12 What is the maximal possible number of acute angles of a convex polygon?
2.4.13 Find the largest possible number of rays in space issuing from a point such that the angle between any two of them is:
(a) greater than $90^{\circ}$;
(b) greater than or equal to $90^{\circ}$.
2.4.14 Find the largest possible number of points
(a) in the plane;
(b) in space,
such that no triangle with vertices at these points has an obtuse angle.

## Distribution of points

2.4.15 What is the largest number of points that can be distributed in a unit disk such that the distance between any two of them is greater than 1 ?
2.4.16 What is the least number of points that can be distributed in a convex $n$-gon such that every triangle with vertices at the vertices of the $n$-gon contains at least one of these points?
2.4.17 Find a rectangle $T$ of minimum possible area such that for any position of $T$ in the plane it contains a point with integer coordinates in its interior or on its boundary.

## Chapter 3

## Miscellaneous

### 3.1 Triangle Inequality

Problem 3.1.1 Let $X$ and $Y$ be points on the sides $A C$ and $B C$ of an equilateral triangle $A B C$. Find the minimum and the maximum of the sum of orthogonal projections of the segment $X Y$ on the sides of $A B C$.

Problem 3.1.2 Find the least possible real number $k$ for which the following statement is true: in every triangle one can find two sides of lengths $a$ and $b$ such that $1 \leq \frac{a}{b}<k$.

Problem 3.1.3 Find the greatest real number $k$ such that for any triple of positive numbers $a, b, c$ such that $k a b c>a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}$, there exists a triangle with side lengths $a, b, c$.

Problem 3.1.4 Let $a, b$, $c$ be positive numbers such that

$$
a b c \leq \frac{1}{4} \text { and } \frac{1}{a^{2}}+\frac{1}{b^{2}}+\frac{1}{c^{2}}<9 .
$$

Prove that there exists a triangle with side lengths $a, b$, and $c$.
Problem 3.1.5 Consider the inequality

$$
a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}<k(a+b+c)(a b+b c+c a)
$$

where $a, b, c$ are the side lengths of a triangle and $k$ is a real number.
(a) Prove the inequality when $k=1$.
(b) Find the least value of $k$ such that the inequality holds true for any triangle.

Problem 3.1.6 Let $a, b$, $c$ be positive real numbers. Prove that they are side lengths of a triangle if and only if

$$
a^{2} p q+b^{2} q r+c^{2} r p<0
$$

for any real numbers $p, q, r$ such that $p+q+r=0, p q r \neq 0$.
Problem 3.1.7 Let $x, y, z$ be real numbers. Prove that the following conditions are equivalent:
(i) $x, y, z>0$ and $\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z} \leq 1$.
(ii) $a^{2} x+b^{2} y+c^{2} z>d^{2}$ for every quadrilateral with side lengths $a, b, c, d$.

### 3.2 Selected Geometric Inequalities

Problem 3.2.1 Let $s, R$, and $r$ be the semiperimeter, the circumradius, and the inradius of a triangle with side lengths $a, b$, and $c$. Prove that:
(i) $(a+b-c)(b+c-a)(c+a-b) \leq a b c$;
(ii) $R \geq 2 r$ (Euler's inequality);
(iii) $\left|s^{2}-2 R^{2}-10 R r+r^{2}\right| \leq 2(R-2 r) \sqrt{R(R-2 r)}$ (fundamental inequality);
(iv) $24 R r-12 r^{2} \leq a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq 8 R^{2}+4 r^{2}$;
(v) $6 \sqrt{3} r \leq a+b+c \leq 4 R+(6 \sqrt{3}-8) r$.

Problem 3.2.2 Let $M$ and $N$ be points on the sides $A C$ and $B C$ of a triangle $A B C$ and let $L$ be a point on the segment $M N$. Prove that

$$
\sqrt[3]{S} \geq \sqrt[3]{S_{1}}+\sqrt[3]{S_{2}}
$$

where $S=[A B C], S_{1}=[A M L]$, and $S_{2}=[B N L]$.
Problem 3.2.3 Let $M$ be an interior point of a triangle $A B C$ and $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}$ its orthogonal projections on the lines $B C, C A, A B$, respectively. Prove that
(i) $M A+M B+M C \geq 2\left(M A^{\prime}+M B^{\prime}+M C^{\prime}\right)($ Erdös $-M o r d e l l$ inequality $)$.
(ii) $\frac{1}{M A}+\frac{1}{M B}+\frac{1}{M C} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{M A^{\prime}}+\frac{1}{M B^{\prime}}+\frac{1}{M C^{\prime}}\right)$.

Problem 3.2.4 Let ABC be a triangle inscribed in a circle of radius $R$, and let $M$ be a point in the interior of $A B C$. Prove that

$$
\frac{M A}{B C^{2}}+\frac{M B}{C A^{2}}+\frac{M C}{A B^{2}} \geq \frac{1}{R}
$$

Problem 3.2.5 Let $A B C D E F$ be a convex hexagon such that $A B$ is parallel to $D E, B C$ is parallel to $E F$, and $C D$ is parallel to $A F$. Let $R_{A}, R_{C}, R_{E}$ denote the circumradii of triangles $F A B, B C D, D E F$ respectively, and let $P$ denote the perimeter of the hexagon. Prove that

$$
R_{A}+R_{C}+R_{E} \geq \frac{P}{2}
$$

Problem 3.2.6 Let $A, B, C$, and $D$ be arbitrary points in the plane. Prove that

$$
A B \cdot C D+A D \cdot B C \geq A C \cdot B D
$$

(Ptolemy's inequality).
Problem 3.2.7 Let $A B C D E F$ be a convex hexagon such that $A B=B C$, $C D=D E, E F=F A$. Prove that

$$
\frac{B C}{B E}+\frac{D E}{D A}+\frac{F A}{F C} \geq \frac{3}{2} .
$$

When does equality occur?
Problem 3.2.8 Let $O$ be a point inside a convex quadrilateral $A B C D$ of area $S$ and $K, L, M, N$ interior points of the sides $A B, B C, C D, D A$, respectively, such that $O K B L$ and $O M D N$ are parallelograms. Prove that

$$
\sqrt{S} \geq \sqrt{S_{1}}+\sqrt{S_{2}},
$$

where $S_{1}$ and $S_{2}$ are the areas of $O N A K$ and $O L C M$, respectively.
Problem 3.2.9 A point $O$ and a polygon $F$ (not necessarily convex) are given in the plane. Let $P$ denote the perimeter of $F, D$ the sum of the distances from $O$ to the vertices of $F$, and $H$ the sum of the distances from $O$ to the lines containing the sides of $F$. Prove that $D^{2}-H^{2} \geq \frac{P^{2}}{4}$.

Problem 3.2.10 Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{2 n}, n \geq 2$, be arbitrary points in the plane. Denote by $B_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq 2 n$, the midpoint of the segment $A_{k} A_{k+1}\left(A_{2 n+1}=A_{1}\right)$. Prove that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(A_{k} A_{k+1}+A_{n+k} A_{n+k+1}\right)^{2} \geq 4 \tan ^{2} \frac{\pi}{2 n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{k} B_{k+n}^{2}
$$

Problem 3.2.11 Let $C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3}, \ldots, C_{n}, n \geq 3$, be unit circles in the plane, with centers $O_{1}, O_{2}, O_{3}, \ldots, O_{n}$, respectively. If no line meets more than two of the circles, prove that

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \frac{1}{O_{i} O_{j}} \leq \frac{(n-1) \pi}{4}
$$

### 3.3 MaxMin and MinMax

Problem 3.3.1 Given a trapezoid of area 1, find the least possible length of its longest diagonal.

Problem 3.3.2 In triangle $A B C, \angle C=90^{\circ}, \angle A=30^{\circ}$, and $B C=1$. Find the minimum of the length of the longest side of a triangle inscribed in $A B C$ (that is, one such that each side of ABC contains a different vertex of the triangle).

Problem 3.3.3 For which acute-angled triangle is the ratio of the shortest side to the inradius maximal?

Problem 3.3.4 For any five points in the plane, denote by $\lambda$ the ratio of the greatest distance to the smallest distance between two of them.
(a) Prove that $\lambda \geq 2 \sin 54^{\circ}$.
(b) Determine when equality holds.

Problem 3.3.5 Let $C$ be a unit circle and $n$ a fixed positive integer. For any set $A$ of $n$ points $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}$ on $C$ define

$$
D(A)=\max _{d}\left(\min _{i} \delta\left(P_{i}, d\right)\right)
$$

where $\delta(P, l))$ denotes the distance from point $P$ to line $l$ and the maximum is taken over all diameters $d$ of circle $C$. Let $\mathcal{F}_{n}$ be the family of all n-element subsets $A \subset C$ and let

$$
D_{n}=\min _{A \in \mathcal{F}_{n}} D(A)
$$

Calculate $D_{n}$ and describe all sets $A \in \mathcal{F}_{n}$ with $D(A)=D_{n}$.

### 3.4 Area and Perimeter

Problem 3.4.1 Let the points $P$ and $Q$ on $A B$, and $R$ on $A C$, divide the perimeter of triangle $A B C$ into three equal parts. Prove that the area of triangle $P Q R$ is greater than $\frac{2}{9}$ the area of triangle $A B C$.

Problem 3.4.2 In triangle $A B C$, angle $A$ is twice angle $B$, angle $C$ is obtuse, and the three sides have integer lengths. Determine the minimum possible perimeter of the triangle.

Problem 3.4.3 Prove that the area of a triangle with vertices on the sides of a parallelogram is not greater than one-half the area of the parallelogram.

Problem 3.4.4 A parallelogram of area $S$ lies inside a triangle of area T. Prove that $T \geq 2 S$.

Problem 3.4.5 Let P QRS be a convex quadrilateral inside a triangle ABC. Prove that the area of one of triangles $P Q R, P Q S, P R S$, and $Q R S$ is not greater than $\frac{1}{4}$ the area of triangle $A B C$.

Problem 3.4.6 Find a centrally symmetric polygon of maximal area contained in a given triangle.

Problem 3.4.7 Two equilateral triangles are inscribed in a circle with radius $r$. Let $K$ be the area of the set consisting of all points interior to both triangles. Find the minimum of $K$.

Problem 3.4.8 Find the maximum possible value of the inradius of a triangle with vertices on the boundary or in the interior of a unit square.

Problem 3.4.9 Given a positive integer $n$ cut $n$ rectangles from an acute triangle $A B C$ such that all of them have a side parallel to $A B$ and their total area is a maximum.

Problem 3.4.10 The octagon $P_{1} P_{2} P_{3} P_{4} P_{5} P_{6} P_{7} P_{8}$ is inscribed in a circle, with the vertices around the circumference in the given order. Given that the polygon $P_{1} P_{3} P_{5} P_{7}$ is a square of area 5, and the polygon $P_{2} P_{4} P_{6} P_{8}$ is a rectangle of area 4 , find the maximum possible area of the octagon.

Problem 3.4.11 Given a trapezoid $A B C D(A B \| C D)$ and a point $K$ on $A B$, find the point $M$ on $C D$ such that the area of the common part of triangles $A B M$ and $C D K$ is maximized.

Problem 3.4.12 Let $A B C$ be a triangle. Prove that there is a line $l$ (in the plane of triangle $A B C$ ) such that the intersection of the interior of triangle $A B C$ and the interior of its reflection $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ in l has area more than $2 / 3$ the area of triangle $A B C$.

Problem 3.4.13 To clip a convex n-gon means to choose a pair of consecutive sides $A B, B C$ and to replace them by the segments $A M, M N$, and $N C$, where $M$ is the midpoint of $A B$ and $N$ is the midpoint of $B C$. In other words, one cuts the triangle MBN to obtain a convex $(n+1)$-gon. A regular hexagon $P_{6}$ of area 1 is clipped to obtain a heptagon $P_{7}$. Then $P_{7}$ is clipped (in one of the seven possible ways) to obtain an octagon $P_{8}$, and so on. Prove that no matter how the clippings are done, the area of $P_{n}$ is greater than $1 / 3$, for all $n>6$.

Problem 3.4.14 Prove that any convex pentagon whose vertices have integer coordinates must have area greater than or equal to $\frac{5}{2}$.

Problem 3.4.15 Each side of a convex polygon has integral length and the perimeter is odd. Prove that the area of the polygon is at least $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$.

Problem 3.4.16 Let the area and the perimeter of a cyclic quadrilateral $C$ be $A_{C}$ and $P_{C}$, respectively. If the area and the perimeter of the quadrilateral that is tangent to the circumcircle of $C$ at the vertices of $C$ are $A_{T}$ and $P_{T}$, respectively, prove that

$$
\frac{A_{C}}{A_{T}} \geq\left(\frac{P_{C}}{P_{T}}\right)^{2}
$$

Problem 3.4.17 Two concentric circles have radii $r$ and $R$ respectively, where $R>r$. A convex quadrilateral $A B C D$ is inscribed in the smaller circle and the extensions of $A B, B C, C D$, and $D A$ intersect the larger circle at $C_{1}, D_{1}, A_{1}$, and $B_{1}$, respectively. Prove that:
(a) The perimeter of $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ is not less than $\frac{R}{r}$, the perimeter of $A B C D$.
(b) The area of $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ is not less than $\left(\frac{R}{r}\right)^{2}$, the area of $A B C D$.

Problem 3.4.18 An infinite square grid is colored in the chessboard pattern. For any pair of positive integers $m, n$ consider a right-angled triangle whose vertices are grid points and whose legs, of length $m$ and $n$, go along the lines of the grid. Let $S_{b}$ be the total area of the black part of the triangle and $S_{w}$ the total area of its white part. Define the function $f(m, n)=\left|S_{b}-S_{w}\right|$.
(a) Calculate $f(m, n)$ for all numbers $m, n$ that have the same parity.
(b) Prove that $f(m, n) \leq \frac{1}{2} \max (m, n)$.
(c) Show that $f(m, n)$ is not bounded from above.

### 3.5 Polygons in a Square

Problem 3.5.1 A triangle of area $\frac{1}{2}$ lies in a unit square. Prove that at least two of its vertices are vertices of the square.

Problem 3.5.2 A quadrilateral is inscribed in a unit square. Prove that at least one of its sides has length not less than $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$.

Problem 3.5.3 Find the minimum and the maximum of the area of an equilateral triangle inscribed in a unit square.

Problem 3.5.4 A convex polygon of area greater than $\frac{1}{2}$ lies in a unit square. Prove that the polygon contains a line segment of length $\frac{1}{2}$ that is parallel to a side of the square.

Problem 3.5.5 A convex n-gon lies in a unit square. Show that three of its vertices form a triangle of area less than:
(a) $\frac{8}{n^{2}}$;
(b) $\frac{8}{n^{2}} \sin \frac{2 \pi}{n}$.

Problem 3.5.6 In a unit square a finite number of line segments parallel to its sides are drawn. The line segments may intersect one another and their total length is 18. Prove that at least one of the regions into which the square is divided by the line segments has area not less than 0.01.

### 3.6 Broken Lines

Problem 3.6.1 A broken line of length $l$ is drawn in a unit square so that any line parallel to a side of the square intersects it at most once. Prove that:
(a) $l<2$;
(b) for any $l \in(0,2)$, there is a broken line of length $l$ with the given property.

Problem 3.6.2 Two broken lines are given such that the distance between any two vertices of one broken line is at most 1 , but the distance between any two vertices of different broken lines is more than $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$. Prove that the broken lines have no common point.

Problem 3.6.3 An ant crosses a circular disk of radius $r$ and it advances in a straight line, but sometimes it stops. Whenever it stops, it turns $60^{\circ}$, each time in the opposite direction. (If the last time it turned $60^{\circ}$ clockwise, this time it turns $60^{\circ}$ counterclockwise.) Find the maximum length of the ant's path.

Problem 3.6.4 A non-self-intersecting broken line of length 1000 is drawn in a unit square. Prove that there exists a line parallel to a side of the square and intersecting the broken line at least 500 times.

Problem 3.6.5 Consider $n^{2}$ arbitrary points in a unit square. Show that there exists a broken line with vertices at these points whose length is not greater than $2 n$.

Problem 3.6.6 A country with the shape of a square of side length 1000 km has 51 towns. Its government has an amount of money to construct highways of total length 11000 km . Is that amount of money enough to construct a system of highways connecting all towns of the country?

Problem 3.6.7 A broken line of length $l$ is drawn in a unit square so that any point of the square is at distance less than $d$ from a point of the broken line. Prove that $l \geq \frac{1}{2 d}-\frac{\pi d}{2}$.

### 3.7 Distribution of Points

Problem 3.7.1 Let $S$ be a set of finitely many points on the sides of a unit square. Prove that there is a vertex of the square such that the arithmetic mean of the squares of the distances from it to all points of $S$ is not less than $\frac{3}{4}$.

Problem 3.7.2 Prove that among any 101 points in a unit square there are at least five lying in a circle of radius $\frac{1}{7}$.

Problem 3.7.3 Prove that among any 112 points in a unit square there are two at distance less than $\frac{1}{8}$.

Problem 3.7.4 Eight points are given in the interior or on the boundary of a unit cube such that any two of them are at least distance 1 apart. Prove that these points coincide with the vertices of the cube.

Problem 3.7.5 In a square of side length 100 there are given $n$ nonintersecting unit disks such that any line segment of length 10 has a common point with at least one of them. Prove that $n \geq 400$.

Problem 3.7.6 Given $n$ points inside a unit square, prove that:
(a) the area of at least one triangle with vertices at the given points or the vertices of the square is not greater than $\frac{1}{2(n+1)}$;
(b) the area of at least one triangle with vertices at the given $n$ points $(n \geq 3)$ is less than $\frac{1}{n-2}$.

Problem 3.7.7 Let $P_{i}\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right), 1 \leq i \leq 6$, be points in the plane such that $x_{i}=$ $0, \pm 1$, or $\pm 2$ and $y_{i}=0, \pm 1$, or $\pm 2$. Moreover, no three of these six points are collinear. Prove that there exists a triangle $P_{i} P_{j} P_{k}, 1 \leq i<j<k \leq 6$, that has area not greater than 2 .

Problem 3.7.8 Let $S$ be a set of 1980 points in the plane. Every two points of $S$ are at least distance 1 apart. Prove that $S$ contains a subset $T$ of 248 points, every two at least distance $\sqrt{3}$ apart.

Problem 3.7.9 In an annulus determined by two concentric circles of radii 1 and $\sqrt{2}$, respectively, there are given $n$ points such that the distance between any two of them is not less than 1 . Find the largest $n$ for which this is possible.

Problem 3.7.10 Ten gangsters are standing on a flat surface, and the distances between them are all distinct. At twelve o'clock, when the church bells start chiming, each of them shoots at the one among the other nine gangsters who is the nearest and kills him or her. At least how many gangsters will be killed?

Problem 3.7.11 In a plane a set of $n$ points $(n \geq 3)$ is given. Each pair of points is connected by a segment. Let d be the length of the longest of these segments. We define a diameter of the set to be any connecting segment of length $d$. Prove that the number of diameters of the given set is at most $n$.

Problem 3.7.12 Given $n>4$ points in the plane such that no three are collinear, prove that there are at least $\binom{n-3}{2}$ convex quadrilaterals whose vertices are four of the given points.

### 3.8 Coverings

Problem 3.8.1 The lengths of all sides and both diagonals of a quadrilateral are less than 1. Prove that it may be covered by a circle of radius $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Problem 3.8.2 Let $A B C D$ be a parallelogram with side lengths $A B=a, A D=$ 1 and with $\angle B A D=\alpha$. If triangle $A B D$ is acute, prove that the four circles of radius 1 with centers $A, B, C, D$ cover the parallelogram if and only if $a \leq$ $\cos \alpha+\sqrt{3} \sin \alpha$.

Problem 3.8.3 An equilateral triangle of side length 1 is covered by six congruent circles of radius $r$. Prove that $r \geq \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{3}-1)$.

Problem 3.8.4 Find the side length of the largest equilateral triangle that can be covered by three equilateral triangles of side lengths 1 .

Problem 3.8.5 Find the radius of the largest disk that can be covered by:
(a) three unit disks;
(b) three disks with radii $R_{1}, R_{2}$, and $R_{3}$.

Problem 3.8.6 Find the minimum number of unit disks that can cover a disk of radius 2.

Problem 3.8.7 Is it possible to cover a square of side length $\frac{5}{4}$ by means of three unit squares?

Problem 3.8.8 Show that one can cover a unit square by means of any finite collection of squares of total area 4.

## Chapter 4

## Hints and Solutions to the Exercises

### 4.1 Employing Geometric Transformations

1.1.11 Let $C^{\prime}$ be the symmetric point of $C$ with respect to $M$ (Fig. 76).


Figure 76.

Then $C^{\prime} A=C B$, and the triangle inequality gives

$$
C M=\frac{1}{2} C C^{\prime} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(C A+C^{\prime} A\right)=\frac{1}{2}(C A+C B)
$$

1.1.12 Let $C^{\prime}$ be the point such that $A D C C^{\prime}$ is a parallelogram and $C^{\prime \prime}$ the midpoint of $C^{\prime} B$ (Fig. 77). Then $C^{\prime \prime} N=\frac{1}{2} C^{\prime} C=\frac{1}{2} A D$ and $C^{\prime \prime} N\left\|C C^{\prime}\right\| A D$. Hence $A C^{\prime \prime} N M$ is a parallelogram, implying $M N=A C^{\prime \prime}$. Now it follows from Problem 1.1.11 that

$$
M N=A C^{\prime \prime} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(A B+A C^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}(A B+C D)
$$



Figure 77.
1.1.13 Let $a$ be the side length of the given square $A B C D$, and let $X$ be an arbitrary point on its boundary, say on the side $C D$ (Fig. 78). Then $s(X)=X A+X B+$ $X C+X D=X A+X B+C D$. Heron's problem (Problem 1.1.1) implies that $A X+B X$ is minimal when $\angle A X D=\angle B X C$, i.e., when $X$ is the midpoint of $C D$.


Figure 78.

In this case $s(X)=(\sqrt{5}+1) a$. The minimum value of $s(X)$ is obtained also when $X$ is the midpoint of $A B, B C$, or $A D$.
1.1.14 Hint. One may assume that two of the vertices of the triangles considered are fixed, while the third vertex lies on a fixed line parallel to the line determined by the first two vertices. Then one can use the argument from the solution of Problem 1.1.1.
1.1.15 Let $B^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $B$ in $\ell$. If $B^{\prime}=A$, then $A X-B X=0$ for any point $X$ on $\ell$. Assume that $B^{\prime} \neq A$ and that the line $A B^{\prime}$ intersects $\ell$ at some point $X_{0}$ (Fig. 79). Then the triangle inequality implies $|A X-B X|=\left|A X-X B^{\prime}\right| \leq$ $A B^{\prime}$ for every point $X$ on $\ell$, where equality holds only when $X=X_{0}$. Hence in this case the solution is given by the point $X_{0}$.

We leave as in exersice to the reader to show that if $B^{\prime} \neq A$ and $A B^{\prime} \| \ell$, then $|A X-B X|$ has no maximum.


Figure 79.
1.1.16 Let $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$ be the reflections of $P$ in the lines $O X$ and $O Y$, respectively. If $\angle X O Y<90^{\circ}$, then $\angle P^{\prime} O P^{\prime \prime}=2 \angle X O Y<180^{\circ}$ and therefore the line segment $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$ intersects $O X$ at point $A_{0}$ and $O Y$ at point $B_{0}$ (Fig. 80).


Figure 80.


Figure 81.

Given points $A$ on $O X$ and $B$ on $O Y$, the perimeter of triangle $P A B$ is equal to the length of the broken line $P^{\prime} A B P^{\prime \prime}$. Hence $A_{0}$ and $B_{0}$ are the desired points since in this case the perimeter of triangle $P A_{0} B_{0}$ is equal to the length of the line segment $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$.

If $\angle X O Y \geq 90^{\circ}$, then $P^{\prime} P^{\prime \prime}$ does not intersect the sides $O X$ and $O Y$ of the angle, and the required points $A$ and $B$ coinside with $O$ (Fig. 81).
1.1.17 Let $A^{\prime}$ be the reflection of the point $A$ in the line $O X$ and $B^{\prime}$ the reflection of $B$ in $O Y$ (Fig. 82).

For any points $C$ on $O X$ and $D$ on $O Y$ the length of the broken line $A C D B$ coincides with the length of the broken line $A^{\prime} C D B^{\prime}$. It is clear now that if $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ has no common points with the rays $O X$ and $O Y$, the required broken line is shortest when $C=D=O$. If $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ intersects $O X$ at some point $C_{0}$, and $O Y$ at some point $D_{0}$, then the required broken line is $A C_{0} D_{0} B$.


Figure 82.
1.1.18 Let $\angle X O Y<45^{\circ}$. Reflect the ray $O X$ in $O Y$, and let $N^{\prime}$ be the image of $N$ under this reflection. Then $A M+M N=A M+M N^{\prime} \geq A N^{\prime}$ by the triangle inequality. Denote by $A_{1}$ the foot of the perpendicular from $A$ to $O X^{\prime}$. Then $A N^{\prime} \geq A A_{1}$, which implies

$$
A M+M N \geq A A_{1}
$$

Hence the minimum of $A M+M N$ is attained only if $M$ is the intersection point of $O Y$ and $A A_{1}$, and $N$ is the reflection of $A_{1}$ in $O Y$.

If $\angle X O Y \geq 45^{\circ}$ then the minimum of $A M+M N$ is attained only if $M$ and $N$ coincide with $O$.
1.1.19 Draw $P C^{\prime}$ parallel to $A B$ and $C^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ parallel to $B C$ as in Fig. 83 .


Figure 83.
Since $\triangle A C^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ is similar to $\triangle A C P$ and $\triangle P C^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ is similar to $\triangle A B P$, we have

$$
\frac{C^{\prime} P^{\prime}}{C P}=\frac{A P^{\prime}}{A P} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{C^{\prime} P^{\prime}}{B P}=\frac{P^{\prime} P}{A P}
$$

Adding up these equalities yields

$$
\frac{C^{\prime} P^{\prime}}{B P}+\frac{C^{\prime} P^{\prime}}{C P}=\frac{P^{\prime} P+A P^{\prime}}{A P}=1 .
$$

Therefore

$$
\frac{1}{B P}+\frac{1}{C P}=\frac{1}{C^{\prime} P^{\prime}}
$$

Maximizing the expression on the left is then equivalent to minimizing $C^{\prime} P^{\prime}$. But $C^{\prime}$ does not depend on the choice of $B C$, so the latter reduces to finding a point $P^{\prime}$ on $A P$ at minimum distance from $C^{\prime}$. Clearly, this point is the foot of the perpendicular from $C^{\prime}$ to $A P$. Since $C^{\prime} P^{\prime}$ is parallel to $B C$ by construction, the maximum of $1 / B P+1 / C P$ is assumed only if $B C$ is perpendicular to $A P$.
1.1.20 We shall prove that the desired line is parallel to $B D$. Indeed, denote by $M_{0}$ and $K_{0}$ the intersection points of this line with the lines $A B$ and $A D$ (Fig. 84). Then we have to prove that

$$
\frac{1}{[B M C]}+\frac{1}{[D C K]}>\frac{1}{\left[B M_{0} C\right]}+\frac{1}{\left[D C K_{0}\right]},
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{[B M C]}-\frac{1}{\left[B M_{0} C\right]}>\frac{1}{\left[D C K_{0}\right]}-\frac{1}{[D C K]} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may assume that $M \in B M_{0}$. Then $K_{0} \in D K$ and (1) is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left[M C M_{0}\right]}{[B M C]\left[B M_{0} C\right]}>\frac{\left[K C K_{0}\right]}{\left[D C K_{0}\right][D C K]} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 84.

Taking into account that $\angle M C M_{0}=\angle K C K_{0}$, we see that (2) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{M C}{[B M C]} \cdot \frac{C M_{0}}{\left[B M_{0} C\right]}>\frac{K C}{[D C K]} \cdot \frac{C K_{0}}{\left[D C K_{0}\right]} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\frac{C M_{0}}{\left[B M_{0} C\right]}=\frac{C K_{0}}{\left[D C K_{0}\right]}
$$

since $M_{0} K_{0} \| B D$ and (3) is equivalent to

$$
\frac{M C}{[B M C]}>\frac{K C}{[D C K]}
$$

The latter inequality holds true since obviously the distance from $B$ to $M K$ is shorter than the distance from $D$ to $M K$.
1.1.21 Let $\alpha$ be the measure of the given angle, and let $M^{\prime}$ be the image of $M$ under rotation through $\alpha$ counterclockwise about $O$ (Fig. 85). If $A$ and $B$ are points on $O X$ and $O Y$, respectively, and $O A=O B$, then $\triangle O A M \cong \triangle O B M^{\prime}$, so $A M=B M^{\prime}$. Hence $M A+M B=M B+B M^{\prime} \geq M M^{\prime}$. Thus $M A+M B$ is a minimum when $B$ coincides with the intersection point of $M M^{\prime}$ and $O Y$.


Figure 85.
1.1.22 Let $M^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $M$ in the line $A B$, let $M^{\prime \prime}$ and $A^{\prime}$ be the reflections of $M^{\prime}$ and $A$, respectively, in the line $B C$, and let $N^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $N$ in the line $A C$. We want to find points $X, Y$, and $Z$ on $A B, B C$, and $C A$, respectively, such that the sum $t=M X+X Y+Y Z+Z N$ is a minimum. Let $X^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $X$ in the line $B C$. Then $t$ coincides with the length of the broken line $M^{\prime \prime} X^{\prime} Y Z N^{\prime}$ connecting $M^{\prime \prime}$ with $N^{\prime}$. Next, one has to consider several possible cases concerning which of the segments $B A^{\prime}, B C$, and $A C$ intersect $M^{\prime \prime} N^{\prime}$. For example, if $M^{\prime \prime} N^{\prime}$ intersects $B A^{\prime}$ at some point $X_{0}^{\prime}, B C$ at $Y_{0}$, and $A C$


Figure 86.
at $Z_{0}$ (Fig. 86), then the required minimal path will be $M X_{0} Y_{0} Z_{0} N$, where $X_{0}$ is the reflection of $X_{0}^{\prime}$ in $B C$.

If $M^{\prime \prime} N^{\prime}$ intersects $B A^{\prime}$ at $X_{0}^{\prime}$ and has no common point with $B C$ and $A C$, we set $Y_{0}=Z_{0}=C$ and choose $X_{0}$ as above, etc.

### 1.1.23 Hints.

(a) Show that the minimum of the sum considered is attained when $\ell$ coincides with one of the lines $A C$ and $B C$.
(b) Show that the required maximum is equal to $\max \left\{A B, A B^{\prime}\right\}$ and it is attained when $\ell$ is perpendicular to $A B$ or $A B^{\prime}$, where $B^{\prime}$ is the reflection of $B$ in $C$.
1.1.24 $B y$ the minimum choice of $M_{\ell}$, the inequality $A M_{\ell}+B M_{\ell} \leq$ $A C+B C$ holds true. Therefore the maximum value of $A M_{\ell}+B M_{\ell}$ does not exceed $A C+B C$. We prove that this maximum value is in fact equal to $A C+B C$. It suffices to construct a line $\ell$ through $C$ such that $M_{\ell}=C$. We distinguish several cases.

If $C$ is on the line segment $A B$, then $C=M_{\ell}$ for each line $\ell$ through $C$. If $C$ lies on the line $A B$ but not on the line segment $A B$, then it follows from Heron's problem that $C=M_{\ell}$ only for the line $\ell$ through $C$ that is perpendicular to $A B$. (This is because if $M$ is a point on $\ell$ different from $C$, then $C A<M A$ and $C B<M B$.)

Finally, suppose $C$ is not on the line $A B$. Then the exterior bisector of angle $A B C$ is the only line $\ell$ such that $C=M_{\ell}$. This follows easily from Heron's problem.
1.1.25 Draw the line through the incenter $I$ of $\triangle A B C$ and perpendicular to $C I$. Let this line meet $B C$ and $C A$ at $D^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime}$, respectively (Fig. 87).

Then $I$ is the midpoint of the segment $E^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, and it follows from Problem 1.1.10 that $[C D E] \geq\left[C D^{\prime} E^{\prime}\right]$. So, it suffices to show that the area $S^{\prime}$ of $\triangle C D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ is at


Figure 87.
least $2 r^{2}$. We have $S^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2} C I \cdot D^{\prime} E^{\prime}=C I \cdot D^{\prime} I$. From the right triangle $D^{\prime} I C$, we get $C I=r / \sin (C / 2)$ and $D^{\prime} I=r / \cos (C / 2)$. Hence

$$
S^{\prime}=\frac{r^{2}}{\sin \frac{C}{2} \cos \frac{C}{2}}=\frac{2 r^{2}}{\sin C} \geq 2 r^{2}
$$

The equality occurs only if $\angle C=90^{\circ}$ and $D E \perp C I$.
1.1.26 It is enough to consider only the points $X$ lying in the half-plane $\delta$ determined by the line $A B$ that does not contain the point $C$. Indeed, if $Y$ is a point in the other half-plane, let $X$ be the reflection of $Y$ in the line $A B$ (Fig. 88). Denote by $X_{0}$ the intersection point of the lines $C X$ and $A B$.


Figure 88.

Then $C X=C X_{0}+X_{0} X=C X_{0}+X_{0} Y \geq C Y$. Since $A Y=A X$ and $B Y=B X$ it follows that $r(X)<r(Y)$. Apart from this, the required point $X$ must lie in the angle $A C B$. Indeed, if $X$ is situated as in Fig. 88, then $\angle X A B \geq$ $180^{\circ}-\angle B A C \geq 90^{\circ}$, implying $X B>A B$. On the other hand, $X C-X A<A C$,
and we get that

$$
r(A)=A B-A C<X B-(X C-X A)=r(X) .
$$

Thus, it is enough to consider points $X$ lying in the common part of $\delta$ and the angle $A C B$.


Figure 89.

Let $\varphi$ be the rotation through $60^{\circ}$ clockwise about $A$. Set $C^{\prime}=\varphi(C)$ and $X^{\prime}=\varphi(X)$ (Fig. 89). Then $\triangle A X X^{\prime}$ is equilateral and $A X=X X^{\prime}$. Moreover, $X C=X^{\prime} C^{\prime}$. Hence $r(X)=X^{\prime} X+B X-C^{\prime} X^{\prime}$.

On the other hand, $C^{\prime} B+B X+X X^{\prime} \geq C^{\prime} X^{\prime}$, which gives $r(X) \geq-C^{\prime} B$; equality holds precisely when the points $X^{\prime}, X, B$, and $C^{\prime}$ lie on a line in this succession. Since $\alpha=\angle B A C \geq 60^{\circ}$, there are two possible cases.

Case 1. $\alpha=60^{\circ}$. Then $C^{\prime}=B$ and it follows immediately that every point $X$ on the arc $A B$ of the circumcircle of $\triangle A B C$ gives a solution.

Case 2. $\alpha>60^{\circ}$ (Fig. 89). Then $C^{\prime} \neq B$ and if the points $X$ and $X^{\prime}$ lie on the line $B C^{\prime}$, then $\angle A X B=120^{\circ}$.

On the other hand, since $\triangle B C C^{\prime}$ is isosceles and $\angle B C C^{\prime}=60^{\circ}-\left(180^{\circ}-\right.$ $2 \alpha)=2 \alpha-120^{\circ}$, we have $\angle C B C^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2}\left(180^{\circ}-\angle B C C^{\prime}\right)=150^{\circ}-\alpha$. Hence $\angle A B X=180^{\circ}-\angle A B C-\angle C B C^{\prime}=30^{\circ}$ and $\angle B A X=30^{\circ}$. This shows that in this case the point $X$ is determined uniquely.
1.1.27 It follows from Pompeiu's theorem (Problem 1.1.6) that the maximum of the distance from $O$ to the third vertex of the equilateral triangle is equal to 2 .
1.1.28 Let $a, b, c$ denote the sides of the triangle facing the vertices $A, B, C$, respectively. We will show that the desired minimum value of the expression
$A P \cdot A G+B P \cdot B G+C P \cdot C G$ is attained when $P$ is the centroid $G$, and that the minimum value is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A G^{2}+B G^{2}+C G^{2} \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{9}\left[\left(2 b^{2}+2 c^{2}-a^{2}\right)+\left(2 c^{2}+2 a^{2}-b^{2}\right)+\left(2 a^{2}+2 b^{2}-c^{2}\right)\right] \\
& \quad=\frac{1}{3}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The problem can be solved using the same arguments as in Case 2 of the solution of Problem 1.1.8. Here $A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$ is the triangle with sides $A G, B G, C G$, and we leave the details to the reader. Instead, we shall present an elegant solution using the dot product, suggested by M. Klamkin. For any point $X$ in the plane set $\overrightarrow{G X}=\mathbf{X}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
A P & \cdot A G+B P \cdot B G+C P \cdot C G \\
& =|\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{P}||\mathbf{A}|+|\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{P}||\mathbf{B}|+|\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{P}||\mathbf{C}| \\
& \geq|(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{A}|+|(\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{B}|+|(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{C}| \\
& \geq|(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{A}+(\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{B}+(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{C}| \\
& =|\mathbf{A}|^{2}+|\mathbf{B}|^{2}+|\mathbf{C}|^{2} \quad(\text { since } \mathbf{A}+\mathbf{B}+\mathbf{C}=\mathbf{0}) \\
& =\frac{1}{3}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the last step uses the identity above. Suppose that equality holds. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{P} \| \mathbf{A}| & =|(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{A}|, \\
|\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{P}||\mathbf{B}| & =|(\mathbf{B}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{B}|, \\
|\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{P} \| \mathbf{C}| & =|(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{P}) \cdot \mathbf{C}| .
\end{aligned}
$$

These conditions mean that $P$ lies on each of the lines $G A, G B, G C$, i.e., $P=G$.
1.1.29 Apply three symmetries with respect to lines to rectangle $A B C D$, as shown in Fig. 90.

Fix an arbitrary point $M$ on the side $A B$, and consider the point $M^{\prime}$ on $A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime \prime}$ such that $A^{\prime \prime} M^{\prime}=A M$. Then $M M^{\prime}=2 A C$. Then show that if $N, P$, and $Q$ are arbitrary points on the sides $B C, C D$, and $D A$, respectively, the perimeter of $M N P Q$ coincides with the length of a broken line connecting $M$ and $M^{\prime}$. The latter is minimal when $M N\|A C\| P Q$ and $N P\|B D\| Q M$. Every parallelogram with these properties inscribed in $A B C D$ (there are infinitely many of them) has a minimal perimeter.


Figure 90.
1.1.30 Let $C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime}$ be the reflections of $C$ and $D$ in the lines $B M$ and $A M$, respectively (Fig. 91).


Figure 91.
Then $\triangle C^{\prime} M D^{\prime}$ is equilateral, because $C^{\prime} M=D^{\prime} M=\frac{1}{2} C D$ and $\angle C^{\prime} M D^{\prime}=180^{\circ}-2 \angle C M B-2 \angle D M A=60^{\circ}$. Hence

$$
A D+\frac{1}{2} C D+C B=A D^{\prime}+D^{\prime} C^{\prime}+C^{\prime} B \geq A B
$$

It follows that $A D+C B \geq A B-\frac{1}{2} C D=2$. Thus $A B+B C+C D+D A \geq 7$, with equality if and only if $C^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime}$ lie on $A B$. In the latter case, $\angle A D M=$ $\angle A D^{\prime} M=120^{\circ}, \angle B C M=\angle B C^{\prime} M=120^{\circ}$, and $\angle A M D=60^{\circ}-\angle C M B=$ $\angle C B M$. Hence triangles $A M D$ and $M B C$ are similar, implying that $A D \cdot B C=(C D / 2)^{2}=1$. On the other hand $A D+B C=2$, and we conclude that $A D=B C=1$. Therefore the quadrilateral $A B C D$ of minimum perimeter is an isosceles trapezoid with sides $A B=3, B C=A D=1$, and $C D=2$ (Fig. 92).


Figure 92.
1.1.31 The hypothesis implies that $B C D$ and $E F A$ are equilateral triangles. Hence $B E$ is an axis of symmetry of $A B D E$ (Fig. 93).


Figure 93.
Let the reflections of $B C D$ and $E F A$ in the line $B E$ be $B C^{\prime} A$ and $E F^{\prime} D$, respectively. Since $\angle B G A=180^{\circ}-\angle A C^{\prime} B$, the point $G$ lies on the circumcircle of equilateral triangle $A B C^{\prime}$. By Pompeiu's theorem (Problem 1.1.6), $A G+G B=$ $C^{\prime} G$. Likewise, $D H+H E=H F^{\prime}$. It follows that

$$
C F=C^{\prime} F^{\prime} \leq C^{\prime} G+G H+H F^{\prime}=A G+G B+G H+D H+H E,
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ and $H$ both lie on $C^{\prime} F^{\prime}$.

### 1.1.32

(a) Let $A B C D$ be a convex quadrilateral. It follows from the triangle inequality that $X A+X B+X C+X D \geq A C+B D$, with equality only when $X$ coincides with the intersection point of the diagonals $A C$ and $B D$.
(b) Let $O$ be the center of symmetry of the given polygon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$. For any point $X$ in the plane, let $X^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $X$ in $O$. Then for any $i=$ $1,2, \ldots, n$ we have $A_{i} X+A_{i} X^{\prime} \geq 2 A_{i} O$ (Problem 1.1.11). Hence for $t(X)=$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i} X$, it follows that $t(X)=t\left(X^{\prime}\right)$ and $t(X)=\frac{1}{2}\left(t(X)+t\left(X^{\prime}\right)\right) \geq t(O)$, where equality holds only for $X=O$.
1.1.33 Consider any quadrilateral $A B C D$ whose diagonals $A C$ and $B D$ have given lengths $a$ and $b$, respectively, and form an angle $\alpha$. Construct the parallelograms $A B D M$ and $B C K D$ (Fig. 94).


Figure 94.
Then the quadrilateral $A C K M$ is a parallelogram. Indeed, $A M \| B D$ and $B D \| C K$ imply $A M \| C K$; in addition, $A M=B D=C K$. This parallelogram is completely determined by its sides $A C=M K=a, A M=C K=b$, and $\angle C A M=\alpha$.

Note now that since $D M=A B$ and $D K=B C$, the perimeter of $A B C D$ is equal to the sum $D A+D C+D K+D M$, that is, to the sum of distances from the point $D$ to the vertices of the parallelogram $A C K M$.

It follows from Problem 1.1.32 (a) that the perimeter of $A B C D$ is minimal when $D$ is the intersection point of the diagonals $A K$ and $C M$ of $A C K M$. Tracing backward the construction from above, we conclude that in the latter case the original quadrilateral $A B C D$ is a parallelogram with diagonals of lengths $a$ and $b$ forming the given angle $\alpha$.
1.1.34 Note first that $[A B M]+[C D M]=\frac{1}{2}[A B C D]=\frac{1}{2} S$. Construct the point $Q$ outside $A B C D$ such that $A Q=C M$ and $B Q=D M$ (Fig. 95).


Figure 95.
Then $\triangle A B Q \cong \triangle C D M$, so $[A Q B M]=[A B M]+[C D M]=\frac{1}{2} S$. On the other hand, $[A Q B M]=[A M Q]+[B M Q]$. Since $A M \cdot A Q \geq 2[A M Q]$ and $B M \cdot B Q \geq 2[B M Q]$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
A M \cdot C M+B M \cdot D M & =A M \cdot A Q+B M \cdot B Q \\
& \geq 2([A M Q]+[B M Q])=2[A Q B M]=S
\end{aligned}
$$

To deal with the equality case, suppose that $A B C D$ is a rectangle with $A B=a$, $B C=b$. Set a coordinate system $A x y$ with origin $A, A x$ axis the ray $A B$, and $A y$ axis the ray $A D$ (Fig. 96). Let $M=M(x, y)$ be a point for which the equality $A M \cdot C M+B M \cdot D M=S=a b$ occurs. Then $\angle M A Q=\angle M B Q=90^{\circ}$ and since $\angle B A Q=\angle M C Q$, we get $\angle M A B=\angle M C B$. On the other hand, $\tan \angle M A B=\frac{y}{x}, \tan \angle M C B=\frac{a-x}{b-y}$ and therefore $y(b-y)=x(a-x)$.

If $a \neq b$ then the point $M$ ranges through two pieces of a hyperbola (see Fig. 96 for the case $a>b$ ).


Figure 96.

If $a=b$, i.e., $A B C D$ is a square, then $y(a-y)=x(a-x)$, which gives $x=y$ or $x+y=a$. Hence in this case $M$ ranges over the diagonals $A C$ and $B D$ of this square (Fig. 97).


Figure 97.
1.1.35 If $A B C D$ is the given quadrilateral, consider the quadrilateral $A B_{1} C D$, where $B_{1}$ is the reflection of $B$ in the perpendicular bisector of diagonal $A C$. Clearly, $A B C D$ and $A B_{1} C D$ have the same areas, and the sides of $A B_{1} C D$ are $b, a, c, d$, in this order. Hence $S=\left[B_{1} C D\right]+\left[D A B_{1}\right] \leq \frac{1}{2}(a c+b d)$. Equality occurs if and only if $\angle D A B_{1}=\angle B_{1} C D=90^{\circ}$. This condition means that $A B_{1} C D$ is a cyclic quadrilateral with two opposite right angles. Equivalently, $A B C D$ is also cyclic (having the same circumcircle), and its diagonals are perpendicular.
1.1.36 Let $M$ and $N$ be the midpoints of $A B$ and $C D$. Since $\triangle A B D \cong \triangle B A C$ we get $M D=M C$, which implies $M N \perp C D$ (Fig. 98). In a similar way one gets $M N \perp A B$.


Figure 98.

Let $\varphi$ be the rotation in space through $180^{\circ}$ about the line $M N$. Then $\varphi(A)=B$, $\varphi(B)=A, \varphi(C)=D$, and $\varphi(D)=C$.

Let $X$ be an arbitrary point in space that is not on $M N$. Set $X^{\prime}=\varphi(X)$ and let $Y$ be the midpoint of the segment $X X^{\prime}$. Then $Y$ lies on the line $M N$ and $t\left(X^{\prime}\right)=$ $t(X)$. Since $P X+P X^{\prime}>2 P Y$ for any point $P$ (Problem 1.1.11), we have $2 t(X)=$ $t(X)+t\left(X^{\prime}\right)>2 t(Y)$. This shows that it is enough to consider only points $X$ on the line $M N$.

Let $\psi$ be the rotation about the line $M N$ that maps $A$ and $B$ to points $A^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ on the plane $C D M$ such that the quadrilateral $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C D$ is convex. Then for any $X$ on the line $M N$ we have $t(X)=A^{\prime} X+B^{\prime} X+C X+D X$, and Problem 1.1.32 (a) implies that $t(X)$ is a minimum when $X$ coincides with the intersection point $O$ of the diagonals $A^{\prime} C$ and $B^{\prime} D$. The point $O$ is characterized by the condition $\angle A O B=\angle C O D$.
1.1.37 Hint. Let $B^{\prime}$ be the reflection of $B$ in the plane $\alpha$. Show that the required line is the intersection line of $\alpha$ and the plane $O A B^{\prime}$.

### 1.1.38

(a) The statement follows easily from Problem 1.1.2 (Fig. 99).
(b) Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$, and $\delta$ be the sums of the face angles of the tetrahedron $A B C D$ at the vertices $A, B, C$, and $D$, respectively. Then the given condition implies $\alpha+\gamma=360^{\circ}=\beta+\delta$. We may assume that $\alpha \leq 180^{\circ}$ and $\beta \leq 180^{\circ}$. In


Figure 99.
the plane of $\triangle A B C$ construct $\triangle B C D^{\prime} \cong \triangle B C D, \triangle A B D^{\prime \prime} \cong \triangle A B D$, and $\triangle A D^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime} \cong \triangle A D C$ (Fig. 100).


Figure 100.

It is now easy to see that the quadrilateral $C^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} C$ is a parallelogram lying entirely in the hexagon $A C^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime} B D^{\prime} C$. Moreover, it follows from $\triangle C^{\prime} C A$ that $C C^{\prime}=2 A C \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$. For any point $X$ on $A B$ lying in the parallelogram $C^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} C$, the line through $X$ that is parallel to $C C^{\prime}$ intersects the lines $B C, C D^{\prime}, A D^{\prime \prime}$, and $C^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime}$ at points $Y, Z^{\prime}, T^{\prime}$, and $Z^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Now construct points $Z$ on $C D$ and $T$ on $A D$ such that $C Z=C Z^{\prime}$ and $A T=A T^{\prime}$. Then the length of the broken line $X Y Z T X$ is $Z^{\prime} Z^{\prime \prime}=C C^{\prime}$. We leave it to the reader to show that the length of any such broken line is not less than $C C^{\prime}$ and is equal to $C C^{\prime}$ when $X$ lies in the parallelogram $C^{\prime} D^{\prime \prime} D^{\prime} C$ and the points $Y, Z$, and $T$ are obtained from $X$ in the way described above.
1.1.39 Let $A$ and $B$ be the two cities and let $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ be the (parallel) banks of the river, where $\ell_{1}$ is between $A$ and $\ell_{2}$ (Fig. 101).


Figure 101.
Construct the line $\ell \| \ell_{1}$ such that $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ are symmetric with respect to $\ell$, the reflection $A^{\prime}$ of $A$ in $\ell$, and the reflection $A^{\prime \prime}$ of $A^{\prime}$ in $\ell_{2}$. Next, let $N_{0}$ be the intersection point of $\ell_{2}$ and $B A^{\prime \prime}$, and let $M_{0}$ be the point on $\ell_{1}$ such that $M_{0} N_{0} \perp \ell_{1}$. Let $M \in \ell_{1}$ and $N \in \ell_{2}$ be arbitrary points such that $M N \perp \ell_{1}$. Then $A M=A^{\prime} N=A^{\prime \prime} N$ and therefore

$$
A M+M N+N B=A^{\prime \prime} N+N B+M_{0} N_{0} \geq A^{\prime \prime} B+M_{0} N_{0}
$$

where equality holds when $N=N_{0}$. Clearly the latter implies $M=M_{0}$. Thus, the road $A M_{0} N_{0} B$ has the shortest possible length.

### 1.1.40

(a) First, we will show that the best strategy for James is to choose $Y=B$ or $Y=C$. For any point $X$ on $A C$ consider its reflection $X^{\prime}$ in $A B$ and the reflection $X^{\prime \prime}$ of $X^{\prime}$ in $B C$ (Fig. 102).
Clearly (see Problem 1.1.1), if $X$ and $Y$ are already chosen, John has to choose $Z$ as the intersection point of $A B$ and $X^{\prime} Y$. For such a choice of $Z$ we have

$$
X Y+Y Z+Z X=X Y+Y X^{\prime}=X Y+Y X^{\prime \prime}
$$

Since $Y$ lies on $B C$, the latter sum will be a maximum when $Y=B$ or $Y=C$, depending on the position of the segment $X X^{\prime \prime}$.
Next, if James chooses $Y=B$, then John will choose $Z=B$, and the perimeter of $\triangle X Y Z$ will be $2 X B$. In case James takes $Y=C$, John will put $Z$ at the intersection point of $X^{\prime} C$ and $A B$ (Fig. 103), and then the perimeter of $\triangle X Y Z$


Figure 102.


Figure 103.
will be $X C+X^{\prime} C=X C+X C^{\prime}$. Let $D$ be the midpoint of $A C$. Clearly John has to choose $X$ on the segment $D C$. We leave to the reader to show that there exists a point $E$ on $D C$ such that $2 B E=C E+C^{\prime} E$ and that John has to choose $X=E$.
(b) For any choice of $X$ on $A C$, James has to choose $Y$ on $B C$ such that $X Y \| A B$ (Fig. 104).


Figure 104.
Then for any $Z$ on $A B$ we have $[X Y Z]=\frac{1}{2} X Y(h-x)=\frac{x(h-x)}{2}$, where $h=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ is the length of the altitude in $\triangle A B C$ and $x$ is the distance from $C$ to $X Y$. The quadratic function $x(h-x)$ of $x$ has a maximum at $x=\frac{h}{2}$, i.e., when $X$ is the midpoint of $A C$. Then $[X Y Z]=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{16}$. This is the maximum area that John can achieve, and his strategy is to put $X$ at the midpoint of $A C$.
1.1.41 Through $A_{0}, B_{0}, C_{0}$, draw lines parallel to $B_{1} C_{1}, C_{1} A_{1}, A_{1} B_{1}$, respectively. These form the sides $B C, C A, A B$ of a $\triangle A B C$ similar to $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$. Now suppose
each of the lines drawn is rotated about $A_{0}, B_{0}, C_{0}$, respectively, by the same amount. Then they meet at the same angles as before, always forming triangles similar to $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$. The triangle of maximum area among them is the one whose sides have maximal length.

To find it, recall that the locus of points $B$ such that $\angle A_{0} B C_{0}$ has a given measure $\beta$ is an arc of a circle with chord $A_{0} C_{0}$. This suggests that we construct the circumcircles of $\triangle A_{0} C_{0} B, \triangle B_{0} A_{0} C$, and $\triangle B_{0} C_{0} A$ (Fig. 105).


Figure 105.

Denote their centers by $O_{b}, O_{c}$, and $O_{a}$, respectively. It is easy to prove that these circumcircles have a point $O$ in common.

We show next that $\triangle O_{a} O_{b} O_{c} \sim \triangle A B C$. Indeed,

$$
\angle C=\frac{1}{2} A_{0} \overparen{O} B_{0} \quad \text { and } \quad \angle O_{a} O_{c} O_{b}=\frac{1}{2} \overparen{A_{0}} O+\frac{1}{2} \overparen{O} \widehat{B}_{0},
$$

because $O_{c} O_{a}$ and $O_{c} O_{b}$ bisect arcs $\widehat{B_{0} O}$ and $\widehat{A_{0} O}$, respectively. So $\angle C=\angle O_{a} O_{c} O_{b}$. Similarly, $\angle A=\angle O_{c} O_{a} O_{b}, \angle B=\angle O_{a} O_{b} O_{c}$. Therefore $\triangle O_{a} O_{b} O_{c} \sim \triangle A B C \sim \triangle A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$.

Finally, we show that the largest triangle $A B C$ through the points $A_{0}, B_{0}, C_{0}$ is the one whose sides are parallel to those of triangle $O_{a} O_{b} O_{c}$.

To prove this, note that the perpendiculars from $O_{b}$ and $O_{c}$ bisect the chords $B A_{0}$ and $C A_{0}$ at $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$, and so $M_{1} M_{2}=\frac{1}{2} B C$. The line segment $M_{1} M_{2}$ is the orthogonal projection of $O_{b} O_{c}$ on $B C$ and is largest when $B C \| O_{b} O_{c}$. Since $\triangle O_{a} O_{b} O_{c} \sim \triangle A B C$, all three sides of the maximal triangle are parallel to those of $\triangle O_{a} O_{b} O_{c}$.

Thus, to construct the maximal triangle, first construct any triangle through $A_{0}, B_{0}, C_{0}$ similar to $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$. Then construct the centers $O_{a}, O_{b}, O_{c}$ of the
circumcircles of $\triangle A_{0} C_{0} B, \triangle B_{0} A_{0} C$, and $\triangle B_{0} C_{0} A$. Finally, construct lines through $A_{0}, B_{0}, C_{0}$ parallel to $O_{b} O_{c}, O_{c} O_{a}, O_{a} O_{b}$, respectively. They form the sides $B C, C A, A B$ of the desired maximal triangle.

### 4.2 Employing Algebraic Inequalities

1.2.6 Let $R$ be the radius of the circle, and let $a$ and $b$ be the lengths of the sides of a rectangle inscribed in it. Then $a^{2}+b^{2}=4 R^{2}$ and the statement follows from the inequality $a b \leq \frac{a^{2}+b^{2}}{2}$.
1.2.7 It follows from the previous problem that for every rectangle $\Pi$ inscribed in a circle $K$ we have $\frac{\pi}{2}[\Pi] \leq[K]$, where $[\Pi]$ is the area of $\Pi$ and $[K]$ that of the disk determined by $K$. Assume that the square $P$ is cut into rectangles $\Pi_{1}, \Pi_{2}, \ldots, \Pi_{n}$. Then for the area of the disk $K$ determined by the circumcircle of $P$ we have

$$
[K]=\frac{\pi}{2}[P]=\frac{\pi}{2}\left(\left[\Pi_{1}\right]+\left[\Pi_{2}\right]+\cdots+\left[\Pi_{n}\right]\right) \leq\left[K_{1}\right]+\left[K_{2}\right]+\cdots+\left[K_{n}\right]
$$

where $K_{i}$ is the circumcircle of $\Pi_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$.
1.2.8 Let $a, b$, and $c$ be the lengths of the edges of a rectangular parallelepiped with a given volume $V$. Then $a b c=V$, and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\frac{S}{6}=\frac{a b+b c+c a}{3} \geq \sqrt[3]{(a b c)^{2}}=V^{2 / 3}
$$

where $S$ is the surface area of the parallelepiped. This shows that the minimum of $S$ is attained when $a=b=c$.
1.2.9 Let $S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3}$, and $S_{4}$ be the areas of the rectangles, where $S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3} \geq 1$ and $S_{4} \geq 2$ (Fig. 106). Then $S_{1} S_{4}=S_{2} S_{3}$ and $S_{2}+S_{3} \geq 2 \sqrt{S_{2} S_{3}}=2 \sqrt{S_{1} S_{4}} \geq 2 \sqrt{2}$.


Figure 106.

Hence $S_{1}+S_{2}+S_{3}+S_{4} \geq 3+2 \sqrt{2}$, i.e., $d \geq 3+2 \sqrt{2}$. It is shown in Fig. 106 how to cut a rectangle with side lengths 1 and $3+2 \sqrt{2}$ in the required way.
1.2.10 Let $a$ and $h_{a}$ be the lengths of a side and the corresponding altitude in the given triangle. Then its perimeter is larger than $a+2 h_{a}$. Let $c$ be the length of the side of the square. Then $\frac{a h_{a}}{2}=c^{2}$ and $a+2 h_{a} \geq 2 \sqrt{2 a h_{a}}=4 c$. So, the perimeter of the triangle is larger than the perimeter of the square.

### 1.2.11

(a) First we will find the shortest segment that cuts off a triangle of area $S$ from an angle of measure $\alpha$. Consider an arbitrary line that cuts off a triangle of area $S$ from the given angle.


Figure 107.
Let $x$ and $y$ be the lengths of the segments cut off from the sides of the angle and let $m$ be the length of the third side of the triangle obtained (Fig. 107). The law of cosines gives $m^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}-2 x y \cos \alpha$. Using the inequality $x^{2}+y^{2} \geq 2 x y$, it follows that $m^{2} \geq 2 x y(1-\cos \alpha)$. Since $2 S=x y \sin \alpha$, one gets $m^{2} \geq 4 S \frac{(1-\cos \alpha)}{\sin \alpha}=4 S \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}$. Hence the shortest segment with the required property has length $m=\sqrt{4 S \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}}$.

One concludes that the solution of the problem is given by a segment of length $2 \sqrt{S \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}}$, where $S$ is the area of the triangle and $\alpha$ is the measure of its smallest angle.
(b) Let $s$ be the semiperimeter of the given triangle. Using the same notation as in (a) we have $x+y=s$ and $m^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}-2 x y \cos \alpha$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
m^{2} & =(x+y)^{2}-2 x y(1+\cos \alpha) \geq(x+y)^{2}-\frac{(x+y)^{2}}{2}(1+\cos \alpha) \\
& =\frac{(x+y)^{2}(1-\cos \alpha)}{2}=\left((x+y) \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^{2}=\left(s \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

i.e., $m \geq s \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$. Hence in this case the solution of the problem is given by a segment of length $s \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$, where $s$ is the semiperimeter of the triangle and $\alpha$ is the smallest angle.
1.2.12 We have

$$
2[A O B] \leq A O \cdot B O \leq \frac{A O^{2}+B O^{2}}{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $\angle A O B=90^{\circ}$ and $A O=B O$. Likewise,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2[B O C] \leq \frac{B O^{2}+C O^{2}}{2} \\
& 2[C O D] \leq \frac{C O^{2}+D O^{2}}{2} \\
& 2[D O A] \leq \frac{D O^{2}+A O^{2}}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Adding up these inequalities yields

$$
2([A O B]+[B O C]+[C O D]+[D O A]) \leq A O^{2}+B O^{2}+C O^{2}+D O^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $\angle A O B=\angle B O C=\angle C O D=\angle D O A=90^{\circ}$ and $A O=B O=C O=D O$. On the other hand, for any quadrilateral $A B C D$ (convex or not) and any point $O$ we have

$$
2[A B C D] \leq 2([A O B]+[B O C]+[C O D]+[D O A])
$$

It readily follows that $A B C D$ is a square with center $O$.

### 1.2.13

(a) Let $A B C D$ be a convex quadrilateral of area 1 . Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1=[A B D]+[B C D] \leq \frac{1}{2}(A B \cdot A D+B C \cdot C D) \\
& 1=[A B C]+[A C D] \leq \frac{1}{2}(A B \cdot B C+A D \cdot C D)
\end{aligned}
$$

Adding up gives

$$
(A B+C D)(A D+B C) \geq 4
$$

and now the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality implies

$$
A B+C D+A D+B C \geq 2 \sqrt{(A B+C D)(A D+B C)} \geq 4
$$

Hence the minimum of the perimeter of $A B C D$ is 4 , and it is attained only if $A B C D$ is a square.
(b) The area of $A B C D$ is given by

$$
1=[A B C D]=\frac{1}{2} A C \cdot B D \sin \varphi
$$

where $\varphi$ is the angle between the diagonals $A C$ and $B D$. Hence $A C \cdot B D \geq 2$, and it follows from the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality that

$$
A C+B D \geq 2 \sqrt{A C \cdot B D} \geq 2 \sqrt{2}
$$

with equality only if $A C \perp B D$ and $A C=B D$.
1.2.14 Let $A B C D$ be a quadrilateral with area 32 and $A B+B D+D C=16$. Its area can be expressed as

$$
[A B C D]=\frac{1}{2} A B \cdot B D \sin \angle A B D+\frac{1}{2} D C \cdot B D \sin \angle C D B
$$

Using the fact that the sine of an angle does not exceed 1, and also the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
32 & =[A B C D] \leq \frac{1}{2} A B \cdot B D+\frac{1}{2} D C \cdot B D=\frac{1}{2} B D(A B+C D) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{B D+A B+C D}{2}\right)^{2}=32
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore the conditions of the problem statement are met only if all inequalities above are equalities, that is,

$$
\angle A B D=\angle C D B=90^{\circ} \quad \text { and } \quad B D=A B+C D=8
$$

It is straightforward (Fig. 108) that in the latter case there is only one possible value for the diagonal $A C$, namely

$$
A C=\sqrt{B D^{2}+(A B+C D)^{2}}=8 \sqrt{2}
$$



Figure 108.
1.2.15 Let $a, b$, and $c$ be the lengths of the edges of the right trihedral angle of a terahedron. The sum of its six edges is

$$
s=a+b+c+\sqrt{a^{2}+b^{2}}+\sqrt{b^{2}+c^{2}}+\sqrt{c^{2}+a^{2}} .
$$

It follows from the inequality $\sqrt{\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}}{2}} \geq \frac{x+y}{2}$ that $s \geq(1+\sqrt{2})(a+b+c)$. Now the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
s \geq 3(1+\sqrt{2}) \sqrt[3]{a b c}=3(1+\sqrt{2}) \sqrt[3]{6 V}
$$

where $V$ is the volume of the tetrahedron. Thus, the required tetrahedron is the one with $a=b=c=\frac{s}{3(1+\sqrt{2})}$.
1.2.16 Suppose first that the parallelepiped is rectangular with edge lengths $x, y$, $z$. Then, by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality,

$$
2(x y+y z+z x) \geq 6(216)^{2 / 3}=216
$$

So the surface area is at least 216 , with equality if and only if $x=y=z$, i.e., the parallelepiped is a cube. Now consider a nonrectangular parallelepiped whose "top" face is not directly above its "bottom" face. Then moving the top face above the bottom one leaves the volume fixed and decreases the surface area. Repeating this for each pair of opposite faces yields a rectangular parallelepiped with strictly smaller surface area and the same volume 216. By the previous part, this rectangular parallelepiped has surface area at least 216 , so the original parallelepiped has surface area greater than 216. Thus if a parallelepiped has volume 216 and surface area 216 , it must be a cube.
1.2.17 Let $M$ be the intersection point of the segment $A B$ with the plane $\alpha$ and let $a=A M, b=B M$. Consider a sphere through $A$ and $B$ and denote by $x$ and $y$ the lengths of the parts into which $M$ divides the diameter of the disk that the sphere cuts off from $\alpha$. Then $x y=a b$ and $x+y \geq 2 \sqrt{x y}=2 \sqrt{a b}$. Thus the disk is of minimum area only if $x=y=\sqrt{a b}$.
1.2.18 Let the $i$ th side of the broken line have projections of lengths $x_{i}, y_{i}, z_{i}$ onto the axes $O x, O y, O z$, respectively. Similarly, let the respective projections of this side onto the planes $O y z, O z x, O x y$ have lengths $a_{i}, b_{i}, c_{i}$. Denote by $l_{i}$ the length of the $i$ th side itself. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
a_{i}^{2}=y_{i}^{2}+z_{i}^{2}, \quad b_{i}^{2}=z_{i}^{2}+x_{i}^{2}, \quad c_{i}^{2}=x_{i}^{2}+y_{i}^{2} \\
l_{i}^{2}=x_{i}^{2}+y_{i}^{2}+z_{i}^{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(a_{i}^{2}+b_{i}^{2}+c_{i}^{2}\right) .
\end{gathered}
$$

Then, by the arithmetic mean-quadratic mean inequality,

$$
a_{i}+b_{i}+c_{i} \leq 3 \sqrt{\frac{a_{i}^{2}+b_{i}^{2}+c_{i}^{2}}{3}}=3 \sqrt{\frac{2 l_{i}^{2}}{3}}=l_{i} \sqrt{6}
$$

Adding up all such inequalities gives $a+b+c \leq l \sqrt{6}$. This inequality becomes equality for, say, the line segment (which is an open broken line) with endpoints $(0,0,0)$ and $(1,1,1)$.
(b) There exists a closed broken line with the given property. An example is the line joining the points

$$
(0,0,0),(1,1,1),(2,2,0),(3,1,-1),(2,0,-2),(1,-1,-1),(0,0,0)
$$

in this order.
1.2.19 We have $a x+b y+c z=2[A B C]$. Then the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality implies that

$$
(a x+b y+c z)\left(\frac{a}{x}+\frac{b}{y}+\frac{c}{z}\right) \geq(a+b+c)^{2} .
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{a}{x}+\frac{b}{y}+\frac{c}{z} \geq \frac{(a+b+c)^{2}}{2[A B C]}
$$

with equality only if $x=y=z$. Thus the desired point $X$ is the incenter of $\triangle A B C$.
(b) The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality gives

$$
(a x+b y+c z)\left(\frac{1}{a x}+\frac{1}{b y}+\frac{1}{c z}\right) \geq 9 .
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{1}{a x}+\frac{1}{b y}+\frac{1}{c z} \geq \frac{9}{2[A B C]}
$$

with equality only if $a x=b y=c z$. Show that the only point $X$ with this property is the centroid of $\triangle A B C$.
1.2.20 Denote by $h_{1}, h_{2}, h_{3}, h_{4}$ the lengths of the altitudes of the tetrahedron $A B C D$. Then

$$
\frac{d_{1}}{h_{1}}+\frac{d_{2}}{h_{2}}+\frac{d_{3}}{h_{3}}+\frac{d_{4}}{h_{4}}=\frac{\operatorname{Vol}(A B C X)}{\operatorname{Vol}(A B C D)}+\cdots+\frac{\operatorname{Vol}(D A B X)}{\operatorname{Vol}(A B C D}=1
$$

and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
1=\frac{d_{1}}{h_{1}}+\frac{d_{2}}{h_{2}}+\frac{d_{3}}{h_{3}}+\frac{d_{4}}{h_{4}} \geq 4 \sqrt[4]{\frac{d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d_{4}}{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3} h_{4}}}
$$

Hence $d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d_{4} \leq \frac{h_{1} h_{2} h_{3} h_{4}}{256}$, where equality occurs only if $d_{i}=\frac{h_{i}}{4}, 1 \leq i \leq 4$. This shows that the product $d_{1} d_{2} d_{3} d_{4}$ is a maximum only if $X$ is the centroid of $A B C D$.
1.2.21 Using the fact that the triangles under consideration are similar to triangle $A B C$, one easily obtains that

$$
[A B C]=\left(\sqrt{S_{1}}+\sqrt{S_{2}}+\sqrt{S_{3}}\right)^{2}
$$

Now the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
S_{1}+S_{2}+S_{3} \geq \frac{1}{3}\left(\sqrt{S_{1}}+\sqrt{S_{2}}+\sqrt{S_{3}}\right)^{2}=\frac{[A B C]}{3}
$$

where equality is attained only if $S_{1}=S_{2}=S_{3}=\frac{[A B C]}{9}$. This implies easily that the sum $S_{1}+S_{2}+S_{3}$ is a minimum only if $X$ is the centroid of $A B C$.
1.2.22 $\operatorname{Set}\left[A_{1} A_{2} M\right]=S_{1},\left[B_{1} B_{2} M\right]=S_{2},\left[C_{1} C_{2} M\right]=S_{3},\left[A_{1} C_{2} M\right]=T_{1},\left[B_{1} A_{2} M\right]=T_{2}$, $\left[C_{1} B_{2} M\right]=T_{3}$ (Fig. 109).


Figure 109.
Then $S_{1} S_{2} S_{3}=T_{1} T_{2} T_{3}$. The arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality, used twice, gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{S_{1}}+\frac{1}{S_{2}}+\frac{1}{S_{3}} & \geq \frac{3}{\sqrt[3]{S_{1} S_{2} S_{3}}}=\frac{3}{\sqrt[6]{S_{1} S_{2} S_{3} T_{1} T_{2} T_{3}}} \\
& \geq \frac{18}{S_{1}+S_{2}+S_{3}+T_{1}+T_{2}+T_{3}} \geq \frac{18}{[A B C]}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence the least value of the given sum is equal to $18 /[A B C]$. This minimum value is attained only if $S_{1}=S_{2}=S_{3}=T_{1}=T_{2}=T_{3}=[A B C] / 6$, i.e., if $M$ is the centroid of $\triangle A B C$ and the three lines contain the medians of the triangle (Fig. 110).


Figure 110.
1.2.23 Set $\lambda=\frac{A C_{1}}{C_{1} B}, \mu=\frac{B A_{1}}{A_{1} C}$, and $\nu=\frac{C B_{1}}{B_{1} A}$. According to Ceva's theorem (cf. Glossary), $\lambda \mu \nu=1$. On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\left[A B_{1} C_{1}\right]}{[A B C]}=\frac{A C_{1}}{A B} \cdot \frac{A B_{1}}{A C}=\frac{\lambda}{(\lambda+1)(v+1)} \\
& \frac{\left[B A_{1} C_{1}\right]}{[A B C]}=\frac{B A_{1}}{B C} \cdot \frac{B C_{1}}{B A}=\frac{\mu}{(\mu+1)(\lambda+1)}, \\
& \frac{\left[C B_{1} A_{1}\right]}{[A B C]}=\frac{C B_{1}}{C A} \cdot \frac{C A_{1}}{C B}=\frac{v}{(v+1)(\mu+1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\left[A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}\right]}{[A B C]} & =1-\frac{\lambda}{(\lambda+1)(\mu+1)}-\frac{\mu}{(\mu+1)(\lambda+1)}-\frac{v}{(v+1)(\mu+1)} \\
& =\frac{1+\lambda \mu v}{(\lambda+1)(\mu+1)(\nu+1)}=\frac{2}{(\lambda+1)(\mu+1)(v+1)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Multiplying the inequalities $1+\lambda \geq 2 \sqrt{\lambda}, 1+\mu \geq 2 \sqrt{\mu}$, and $1+\nu \geq 2 \sqrt{\nu}$ gives $(1+\lambda)(1+\mu)(1+\nu) \geq 8$. Thus $\left[A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}\right] \leq \frac{1}{4}[A B C]$, where equality holds when $\lambda=\mu=v=1$, i.e., when $X$ is the centroid of the triangle.

Hence the area of $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ is a maximum if $X$ is the centroid of $\triangle A B C$.
1.2.24 Draw the lines through $P$ and parallel to the sides of $\triangle A B C$ as shown in Fig. 111.


Figure 111.
Then $P A=B_{2} C_{2}, P B=C_{2} A_{2}$, and $P C=A_{2} B_{2}$. Hence we have to prove that $\left[A_{2} B_{2} C_{2}\right] \leq \frac{1}{3}[A B C]$. To do this note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[A_{2} B_{2} C_{2}\right] } & =\left[A_{2} B_{2} P\right]+\left[B_{2} C_{2} P\right]+\left[C_{2} A_{2} P\right] \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left(\left[A_{2} C B_{1} P\right]+\left[B_{2} A C_{1} P\right]+\left[C_{2} B A_{1} P\right]\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left([A B C]-\left[A_{1} A_{2} P\right]-\left[B_{1} B_{2} P\right]-\left[C_{1} C_{2} P\right]\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence Problem 1.2.21 implies that $\left[A_{2} B_{2} C_{2}\right] \leq \frac{1}{3}[A B C]$.
1.2.25 Denote the inradii in question by $r_{a}, r_{b}, r_{c}$. Then

$$
r_{a}=\frac{2\left[A B_{1} C_{1}\right]}{A B_{1}+A C_{1}+B_{1} C_{1}}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot \frac{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}}{A B_{1}+A C_{1}+B_{1} C_{1}}
$$

The law of cosines for $\triangle A B_{1} C_{1}$ gives

$$
B_{1} C_{1}=\sqrt{A B_{1}^{2}+A C_{1}^{2}-A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}} \geq \sqrt{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{a} & \leq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \cdot \frac{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}}{2 \sqrt{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}}+\sqrt{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}}} \\
& =\frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} \sqrt{A B_{1} \cdot A C_{1}} \leq \frac{1}{4 \sqrt{3}} \cdot\left(A B_{1}+A C_{1}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By symmetry, analogous inequalities hold true for $r_{b}$ and $r_{c}$. Now adding up leads to

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{a}+r_{b}+r_{c} & \leq \frac{1}{4 \sqrt{3}}\left(A B_{1}+A C_{1}+B C_{1}+B A_{1}+C A_{1}+C B_{1}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{4 \sqrt{3}}(A B+B C+C A)
\end{aligned}
$$

Clearly, equality occurs only if $A_{1}, B_{1}, C_{1}$ are the midpoints of the respective sides.
1.2.26 For brevity, let $[D B K]=[K B M]=[M B E]=S$ (Fig. 112). Then

$$
\frac{[A B T]}{S}=\frac{A B \cdot B T}{D B \cdot B K}, \quad \frac{[T B P]}{S}=\frac{T B \cdot B P}{K B \cdot B M}, \quad \frac{[P B C]}{S}=\frac{P B \cdot B C}{M B \cdot B E} .
$$

It follows by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{[A B C]}{S} & =\frac{[A B T]+[T B P]+[P B C]}{S} \\
& \geq 3 \sqrt[3]{\frac{A B \cdot B T}{D B \cdot B K} \cdot \frac{T B \cdot B P}{K B \cdot B M} \cdot \frac{P B \cdot B C}{M B \cdot B E}} \\
& =3\left(\frac{T B \cdot B P}{K B \cdot B M}\right)^{2 / 3}\left(\frac{A B \cdot B C}{D B \cdot B E}\right)^{1 / 3} \\
& =3\left(\frac{[T B P]}{S}\right)^{2 / 3}\left(\frac{[A B C]}{[D B E]}\right)^{1 / 3} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $[D B E]=3 S$, the inequality obtained above can be rewritten as $[A B C] \geq$ $3[T B P]$, implying the desired $A C \geq 3 T P$.


Figure 112.
1.2.27 Assume without loss of generality that $A \geq B \geq C$. Then $a \geq b \geq c$ and the Chebyshev inequality (cf. Glossary) gives

$$
\Delta=\frac{a A+b B+c C}{a+b+c} \geq \frac{(a+b+c)(A+B+C)}{3(a+b+c)}=\frac{1}{3}(A+B+C)=\frac{\pi}{3}
$$

Hence the minimum of $\Delta$ is $\pi / 3$, and it is attained only if the triangle is equilateral.
We shall show that $\Delta$ does not have a maximum if only nondegenerate triangles are considered. To make sure, note first that the triangle inequality gives

$$
a+b+c>2 a, a+b+c>2 b, a+b+c>2 c .
$$

This implies

$$
\Delta=\frac{a A+b B+c C}{a+b+c}<\frac{A+B+C}{2}=\frac{\pi}{2} .
$$

We now show that $\pi / 2$ is a sharp upper bound for $\Delta$. Consider an isosceles triangle $A B C$ such that $A C=B C=1$ and $\angle B A C=\angle A B C=x$, where $0<x<\pi / 2$. Then $A B=2 \cos x$ and we get

$$
\Delta(x)=\frac{x+(\pi-2 x) \cos x}{1+\cos x}
$$

Hence $\Delta(x)$ can be made arbitrarily close to $\pi / 2$, since $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \Delta(x)=\pi / 2$.
1.2.28 Let $R$ be the radius of the sphere and $h$ the length of the altitude of the cone. Then the volume $V$ of the cone is given by $V=\frac{\pi h^{2}(2 R-h)}{3}$. By the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality,

$$
V=\frac{4 \pi}{3} \cdot \frac{h}{2} \cdot \frac{h}{2}(2 R-h) \leq \frac{4 \pi}{3}\left(\frac{2 R}{3}\right)^{3}
$$

with equality only if $h / 2=2 R-h$, i.e., $h=\frac{4 R}{3}$.
1.2.29 Let $O$ be the center of the given sphere and $R$ its radius. Set $P A=a$, $P B=b$, and $P C=c$. Since the orthogonal projections of $O$ on the plane $(P A B)$ and on the line $P C$ coincide with the midpoints of the segments $A B$ and $P C$ respectively, we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=4 R^{2} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $P H$ be the altitude of the right triangle $A P B$. Then $C H$ is the altitude of triangle $A C B$. Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
[A B C]=\frac{A B \cdot C H}{2}=\frac{A B \sqrt{P C^{2}+P H^{2}}}{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a^{2} b^{2}+b^{2} c^{2}+c^{2} a^{2}} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now the inequality $3\left(a^{2} b^{2}+b^{2} c^{2}+c^{2} a^{2}\right) \leq\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)^{2}$ together with (1) and (2) implies that $[A B C] \leq \frac{2 R^{2}}{\sqrt{3}}$, i.e., the maximum area of triangle $A B C$ is equal to $\frac{2 R^{2}}{\sqrt{3}}$. It is attained if and only if $P A=P B=P C=\frac{2 R}{\sqrt{3}}$.
1.2.30 It is easy to prove that the ratio of the volumes of two tetrahedra with a common trihedral angle is equal to the ratio of the products of the lengths of their edges forming this trihedral angle. Hence the tetrahedron $O A B C$ has a maximum volume when the product $O A \cdot O B \cdot O C$ is a maximum. Since $O A+O B+$ $O C=a$, it follows from the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality that $O A \cdot O B \cdot O C \leq\left(\frac{a}{3}\right)^{3}$, where equality holds when $O A=O B=O C=\frac{a}{3}$. This is the case when the volume of the tetrahedron is a maximum.
1.2.31 Fix a point $M_{0}$ on the face $A B C$ and let $A_{0}, B_{0}$, and $C_{0}$ be the feet of the perpendiculars from $M_{0}$ to the planes $B C D, A C D$, and $A B D$, respectively. Let $V_{0}$ and $V$ be the volumes of the tetrahedra $M_{0} A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}$ and $M A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$, and let $x=M A_{1}, y=M B_{1}$, and $z=M C_{1}$. Since the trihedral angles at the vertices $M_{0}$ and $M$ of these tetrahedra are congruent, it follows that

$$
\frac{V}{V_{0}}=\frac{x y z}{M_{0} A_{0} \cdot M_{0} B_{0} \cdot M_{0} C_{0}} .
$$

Thus, $M$ must be chosen such that $x y z$ is a maximum. Let $S_{A}, S_{B}$, and $S_{C}$ be the areas of triangles $B C D, A C D$, and $A B D$, respectively, and let $h_{A}, h_{B}$, and $h_{C}$ be the lengths of the corresponding altitudes in the tetrahedron $A B C D$. Then $x S_{A}+y S_{B}+z S_{C}=3 \mathrm{~V}$, and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
x y z & =\frac{1}{S_{A} S_{B} S_{C}}\left(x S_{A}\right)\left(y S_{B}\right)\left(z S_{C}\right) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{S_{A} S_{B} S_{C}}\left(\frac{x S_{A}+y S_{B}+z S_{C}}{3}\right)^{3}=\frac{V^{3}}{S_{A} S_{B} S_{C}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Equality holds when $x S_{A}=y S_{B}=z S_{C}=V$. Since $h_{A} S_{A}=h_{B} S_{B}=h_{C} S_{C}=$ $3 V$, the latter is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{x}{h_{A}}=\frac{y}{h_{B}}=\frac{z}{h_{C}}=\frac{1}{3} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It remains to describe the points $M$ in $\triangle A B C$ for which (1) holds. Let $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime}$ be the points where the lines $A M, B M$, and $C M$ intersect the sides $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively. Then

$$
\frac{x}{h_{A}}=\frac{M A^{\prime}}{A A^{\prime}}, \quad \frac{y}{h_{B}}=\frac{M B^{\prime}}{B B^{\prime}}, \quad \frac{z}{h_{C}}=\frac{M C^{\prime}}{C C^{\prime}},
$$

and (1) is equivalent to $\frac{M A^{\prime}}{A A^{\prime}}=\frac{M B^{\prime}}{B B^{\prime}}=\frac{M C^{\prime}}{C C^{\prime}}=\frac{1}{3}$. The latter holds only when $M$ is the centroid of $\triangle A B C$.
1.2.32 Draw a plane through $M$ parallel to the plane $O A B$ and let $C_{1}$ be the intersection point of this plane and $O C$. Denote by $z$ the ratio of the distance from $M$ to the plane $O A B$ and the distance from $C$ to $O A B$. Then $\frac{O C_{1}}{O C}=z$, i.e., $O C=\frac{O C_{1}}{z}$. Using similar notation, one gets $O A=\frac{O A_{1}}{x}$ and $O B=\frac{O B_{1}}{y}$. Therefore

$$
O A^{p} \cdot O B^{q} \cdot O C^{r}=\frac{O A_{1}^{p} \cdot O B_{1}^{q} \cdot O C_{1}^{r}}{x^{p} y^{q} z^{r}}
$$

Since the segments $O A_{1}, O B_{1}$, and $O C_{1}$ do not depend on the plane through $M$, the right-hand side of the above equality is a minimum when the product $x^{p} y^{q} z^{r}$ is a maximum. Notice that $x+y+z=1$, so the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\left(\frac{x}{p}\right)^{p}\left(\frac{y}{q}\right)^{q}\left(\frac{z}{r}\right)^{r} \leq\left(\frac{p\left(\frac{x}{p}\right)+q\left(\frac{y}{q}\right)+r\left(\frac{z}{r}\right)}{p+q+r}\right)^{p+q+r}=\frac{1}{(p+q+r)^{p+q+r}}
$$

Equality holds when $x=\frac{p}{p+q+r}, y=\frac{q}{p+q+r}$, and $z=\frac{r}{p+q+r}$. This means that the plane $\alpha$ should be drawn in such a way that the barycentric coordinates of $M$ in $\triangle A B C$ are $\left(\frac{p}{p+q+r}, \frac{q}{p+q+r}, \frac{r}{p+q+r}\right)$. The latter means that $M$ is the intersection point of the lines $A A_{2}, B B_{2}$, and $C C_{2}$, where $A_{2}, B_{2}$, and $C_{2}$ divide the sides $B C$, $C A$, and $A B$ into ratios $r: q, p: r$, and $q: p$, respectively.
1.2.33 Let $x$ be the altitude of the part of the parallelepiped that is in the water. Then the volume of the water expelled is $V=a b x$. The plane of the base of the parallelepiped cuts the container along a disk with radius $r=\sqrt{R^{2}-x^{2}}$, circumscribed about a rectangle with sides $a$ and $b$. Thus, $a^{2}+b^{2}=4 r^{2}=4\left(R^{2}-x^{2}\right)$, so $x=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{4 R^{2}-a^{2}-b^{2}}$. Hence $V=\frac{a b}{2} \sqrt{4 R^{2}-a^{2}-b^{2}}$. It then follows by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality that

$$
4 V^{2}=a^{2} b^{2}\left(4 R^{2}-a^{2}-b^{2}\right) \leq\left(\frac{a^{2}+b^{2}+4 R^{2}-a^{2}-b^{2}}{3}\right)^{3}=\left(\frac{4}{3} R^{2}\right)^{3}
$$

where equality holds when $a=b=\frac{2 R \sqrt{3}}{3}$. This is the case when a maximum amount of water will be expelled from the container.

### 4.3 Employing Calculus

1.3.7 Let $A B C D$ be the given quadrilateral, whose diagonals meet at $O$. For an arbitrary parallelogram $E F G H$ satisfying the conditions of the problem statement,
set $A E=x A B$, where $0<x<1$. Then $E H=x B D$ and $E F=(1-x) A C$. It is also clear that $\sin \angle F E H=\sin \alpha$, where $\alpha$ is the angle between the diagonals $A C$ and $B D$. Hence

$$
[E F G H]=E H \cdot E F \sin \alpha=x(1-x) A C . B D \sin \alpha,
$$

and because $[A B C D]=\frac{1}{2} A C \cdot B D \sin \alpha$, we obtain $[E F G H]=2 x(1-x) S$.
The maximum value of the quadratic function $x(1-x)$ in the interval $(0,1)$ is $1 / 4$, and it is attained at $x=1 / 2$. Therefore the maximum value of the area of the parallelogram $E F G H$ is $S / 2$, and it is attained when its vertices are the midpoints of the sides of the given quadrilateral.
1.3.8 Let $g$ and $h$ be the given lines, and let $\ell$ be the line through $A$ perpendicular to $g$ (Fig. 113).


Figure 113.
Let $\angle B A C=\alpha$, where $B$ is a point on $g$ and $C$ a point on $h$. Then $B$ and $C$ lie on the same side of $\ell$. Denote by $\varphi$ the angle between $B A$ and $\ell$. Then the angle between $C A$ and $\ell$ is $180^{\circ}-\alpha-\varphi$, which implies $A B=\frac{a}{\cos \varphi}, C A=-\frac{b}{\cos (\alpha+\varphi)}$, and therefore

$$
[A B C]=-\frac{a b \sin \alpha}{2 \cos \varphi \cdot \cos (\alpha+\varphi)}=-\frac{a b \sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha+\cos (\alpha+2 \varphi)}
$$

It is now clear that $[A B C]$ is a maximum when $\alpha+2 \varphi=180^{\circ}$, i.e., when $\varphi=$ $90^{\circ}-\frac{\alpha}{2}$. In this case $[A B C]=a b \cdot \cot \frac{\alpha}{2}$.
1.3.9 One observes immediately that the vertices of the required triangle must lie on the sides of the hexagon. Let $A B$ be parallel to a side $P Q$ of the hexagon. We may assume that $P Q$ is the side of the hexagon closest to $A B$ with this property. Then clearly $C$ must lie on the opposite side $M N$ of the hexagon (Fig. 114).

Set $a=P Q$, and let $2 h$ be the distance from $P Q$ to $M N$. Then $h=\frac{a \sqrt{3}}{2}$. Denote by $x$ the distance between $A B$ and $P Q$. Then $0 \leq x \leq h$ and the distance $y$ from $C$ to $A B$ is $y=2 h-x$. On the other hand, using similar triangles, it


Figure 114.
follows that $A B=\frac{a(x+h)}{h}$. Hence $[A B C]=\frac{a(x+h)(2 h-x)}{2 h}$. The quadratic function $f(x)=(x+h)(2 h-x)$ has a maximum when $x=\frac{h}{2}$. Thus $[A B C] \leq \frac{9 a h}{8}$, where equality holds when $x=\frac{h}{2}$. The position of $C$ on $M N$ can be arbitrary.
1.3.10 Let $T$ be a triangle $A B C$ with side lengths $a, b$, and $c$ and $E F G H$ a rectangle inscribed in $T$, where $E$ and $F$ lie on $A B, G$ on $B C$, and $H$ on $A C$ (Fig. 115). Set $x=C H, u=H G, v=H E, d_{c}=E G$. Using appropriate pairs of similar triangles, one gets $\frac{u}{c}=\frac{x}{b}$ and $\frac{v}{h_{c}}=\frac{b-x}{b}$, where $h_{c}$ is the length of the altitude of $\triangle A B C$ through $C$. Then

$$
d_{c}^{2}=u^{2}+v^{2}=\left(\frac{c x}{b}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{h_{c}(b-x)}{b}\right)^{2}
$$



Figure 115.

The right-hand side of the above identity is a quadratic function of $x$ that has a minimum value $d_{c}^{2}=\frac{c^{2} h_{c}^{2}}{c^{2}+h_{c}^{2}}=\frac{4 S^{2}(T)}{c^{2}+h_{c}^{2}}$. Similarly, if two vertices of the rectangle lie on $B C$ or $C A$, we get that the respective minimum value for $d_{a}^{2}$ equals $\frac{4 S^{2}(T)}{a^{2}+h_{a}^{2}}$ and for $d_{b}^{2}$ equals $\frac{4 S^{2}(T)}{b^{2}+h_{b}^{2}}$. If $a \leq b$, it follows from $a^{2}+h_{a}^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2} \sin ^{2} \gamma$ and $b^{2}+h_{b}^{2}=b^{2}+a^{2} \sin ^{2} \gamma$ that $a^{2}+h_{a}^{2} \geq b^{2}+h_{b}^{2}$.

Suppose now that $a \leq b \leq c$. Then $d^{2}(T)=d_{c}^{2}=\frac{4 S^{2}(T)}{c^{2}+h_{c}^{2}}$ and we get that

$$
\frac{d^{2}(T)}{S(T)}=\frac{2 c h_{c}}{c^{2}+h_{c}^{2}}=\frac{2}{x+\frac{1}{x}}
$$

where $x=\frac{h_{c}}{c}$. Since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{h_{c}}{c}=\frac{b \sin A}{c} \leq \frac{c \sin 60^{\circ}}{c}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}<1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the function $f(x)=x+\frac{1}{x}$ is decreasing for $x \in(0,1)$, we conclude that

$$
\frac{d^{2}(T)}{S(T)} \leq \frac{2}{f(\sqrt{3} / 2)}=\frac{4 \sqrt{3}}{7}
$$

Equality holds precisely when $\frac{h_{c}}{c}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$. Now (1) implies that $c=b$ and $A=60^{\circ}$, i.e., $A B C$ is an equilateral triangle.
1.3.11 Let $a=A D, \alpha=\angle D F E$, and $S=$ [EFD] (Fig. 23). Then $S=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left[D E D^{\prime} F\right]=\frac{1}{4} E F \cdot D D^{\prime}$. Since $\angle A E D^{\prime}=2 \alpha$, setting $x=D E$, we have $E D^{\prime}=x$, and so $E A=x \cos 2 \alpha$. This implies $a=x+x \cos 2 \alpha$ and $x=\frac{a}{1+\cos 2 \alpha}$. Then $E F=\frac{x}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{a}{\sin \alpha(1+\cos 2 \alpha)}, D D^{\prime}=\frac{a}{\cos \alpha}$, and therefore

$$
S=\frac{a^{2}}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sin 2 \alpha(1+\cos 2 \alpha)}=\frac{a^{2}}{8 \sin \alpha \cos ^{3} \alpha}
$$

Hence we have to find the maximum of the function $f(\alpha)=\sin \alpha \cos ^{3} \alpha$ for $\alpha \in$ $\left(0^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}\right)$. Since

$$
f^{\prime}(\alpha)=\cos ^{4} \alpha-3 \sin ^{2} \alpha \cos ^{2} \alpha=\cos ^{2} \alpha\left(1-4 \sin ^{2} \alpha\right),
$$

it is easy to see that the maximum of $f(\alpha)$ is attained for $\alpha=30^{\circ}$ and is equal to $f\left(30^{\circ}\right)=\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{16}$. Thus the minimum of $S$ is equal to $\frac{2 \sqrt{3} a^{2}}{9}$.
1.3.12 Let $M N$ be the diameter of the half-disk and let $A B C D$ be an arbitrary quadrilateral inscribed in the half-disk. We leave it to the reader to observe that it is enough to consider the case $A=M$ and $B=N$ (Fig. 116).

For a fixed point $C$ it is clear that $[A C D$ ] is a maximum when $D$ is the midpoint of the $\operatorname{arc} \overparen{A C}$. So we may assume that $\angle A O D=\angle C O D=\alpha, 0^{\circ}<\alpha<90^{\circ}$. Then $[A B C D]=\frac{R^{2}}{2}(2 \sin \alpha+\sin 2 \alpha)$, and it is easy to see that the maximum of $[A B C D]$ is $\frac{3 R^{2} \sqrt{3}}{4}$. It is attained only when $\alpha=60^{\circ}$, i.e., when $C$ and $D$ divide the semicircle into three equal parts.


Figure 116.
1.3.13 Suppose that the center $O$ of the disk lies outside the quadrilateral. Then there is a diameter of the disk such that the quadrilateral lies inside one of the halfdisks determined by that diameter. Hence it follows from Problem 1.3.12 that the area of the quadrilateral is less than or equal to $\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{4}$, a contradiction.
1.3.14 Let $M$ be a point on the circumcircle $k$ of $\triangle A B C$ and set $t(M)=A M+$ $B M+C M$. If $M$ lies on one of the arcs $\widehat{A C}$ and $\widehat{B C}$, then for the reflection $M^{\prime}$ of $M$ in the line $A B$ we get $t\left(M^{\prime}\right)>t(M)$ since $A M=A M^{\prime}, B M=B M^{\prime}$, and $C M \leq C M^{\prime}$. That is why it is enough to consider only points $M$ on $k$ such that $M C$ intersects $A B$ (Fig. 117).


Figure 117.

Set $\varphi=\angle M C B$. It follows from the law of sines that $B M=c \sin \varphi, A M=$ $c \sin \left(90^{\circ}-\varphi\right)=c \cos \varphi$, and $C M=c \sin (\alpha+\varphi)=c \sin \alpha \cos \varphi+c \cos \alpha \sin \varphi=$ $a \cos \varphi+b \sin \varphi$. Hence $t(M)=(a+c) \cos \varphi+(b+c) \sin \varphi$. We leave it to the reader to check that the function of $\varphi \in\left[0,90^{\circ}\right]$ obtained in this way achieves a maximum when $\tan \varphi=\frac{b+c}{a+c}$ and in that case $t(M)=\sqrt{(a+c)^{2}+(b+c)^{2}}$.

Remark. The problem can also be solved using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

### 1.3.15

(a) Let $A B$ be an arbitrary chord in $k$. We are going to find all points $C$ on $k$ such that $A C^{2}+B C^{2}$ is a maximum. We may assume that $C$ lies on the larger of the $\operatorname{arcs} A B$; then $\angle A C B=\alpha$ is constant and $0 \leq \alpha \leq 90^{\circ}$. Setting $\varphi=\angle B A C$, we have $\angle A B C=180^{\circ}-\alpha-\varphi$ and by the law of sines we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C^{2}+B C^{2} & =4\left[\sin ^{2} \varphi+\sin ^{2}(\alpha+\varphi)\right]=2[2-\cos 2 \varphi-\cos 2(\alpha+\varphi)] \\
& =2[2-2 \cos (\alpha+2 \varphi) \cdot \cos \alpha] \leq 4(1+\cos \alpha)
\end{aligned}
$$

where equality holds if and only if $\alpha+2 \varphi=180^{\circ}$, i.e., when $C$ is the midpoint of the $\operatorname{arc} \widehat{A B}$.

It remains to find the maximum of $s(M)$ when $M$ is an isosceles triangle with an acute angle $\alpha$ at its top vertex. In this case

$$
s(M)=4\left(2 \cos ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}+\sin ^{2} \alpha\right)=4\left(1+\cos \alpha+\sin ^{2} \alpha\right)=4\left(2+\cos \alpha-\cos ^{2} \alpha\right) .
$$

The quadratic function $2+t-t^{2}$ achieves its maximum $\frac{9}{4}$ when $t=\frac{1}{2}$. Hence $s(M) \leq 9$, where equality holds when $\cos \alpha=\frac{1}{2}$, i.e., when $\alpha=60^{\circ}$ and $M$ is an equilateral triangle.
(b) Let $n>3$ and let $M$ be an $n$-gon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$ inscribed in $k$. There is an angle of $M$ that is at least $90^{\circ}$, e.g., assume that $\angle A_{n-1} A_{n} A_{1} \geq 90^{\circ}$. Then $A_{1} A_{n}^{2}+A_{n-1} A_{n}^{2} \leq A_{1} A_{n-1}^{2}$, so for the $(n-1)$-gon $M^{\prime}=A_{1} \ldots A_{n-1}$ we get $s(M) \leq s\left(M^{\prime}\right)$. Similarly (if $n-1>3$ ), one constructs an ( $n-2$ )-gon $M^{\prime \prime}$ inscribed in $k$ with $s\left(M^{\prime}\right) \leq s\left(M^{\prime \prime}\right)$, etc. One ends up with a triangle $N$ inscribed in $k$ such that $s(M) \leq s(N)$. From part (a), $s(N) \leq 9$ with equality only when $N$ is equilateral. In the latter case we have $s(M)<s(N)$, so $s(M)<9$.

Next, assume that $n \geq 4$. We will show that for any $\epsilon>0$ there exists an $n$-gon $M$ inscribed in $k$ such that $s(M)>9-\epsilon$. Let $A_{1} A_{2} A_{3}$ be an equilateral triangle inscribed in $k$. Choose arbitrary points $A_{4}, A_{5}, \ldots, A_{n}$ on the arc $A_{3} A_{1}$ such that $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$ is a convex $n$-gon (inscribed in $k$ ) and $A_{1} A_{n}^{2}>A_{1} A_{3}^{2}-\epsilon$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
s(M) & =A_{1} A_{2}^{2}+A_{2} A_{3}^{2}+\sum_{i=3}^{n-1} A_{i} A_{i+1}^{2}+A_{n} A_{1}^{2} \\
& >9-\left(A_{1} A_{3}^{2}-A_{1} A_{n}^{2}\right)>9-\epsilon,
\end{aligned}
$$

and statement (b) is proved.
1.3.16 One has to consider two cases.

Case 1. Let $n=2 m$. Then the last circle is tangent to the first. Moreover, if $x$ is the radius of the first circle, then we will have $m$ circles of radius $x$ and $m$ of radius $a-x$. It is now easy to see that if $S$ is the area of the $n$-gon and $S_{1}$ the area of the part of the $n$-gon outside the circles, then

$$
S_{1}=S-2(m-1) \pi\left[x^{2}+(a-x)^{2}\right] .
$$

The maximum of this function when $x \in(0, a)$ is attained at $x=\frac{a}{2}$.
Case 2. Let $n=2 m+1$. If $x>\frac{a}{2}$, then the first and the last circles intersect. Thus, if we replace every circle with radius $x$ (resp. $a-x$ ) by a concentric circle with radius $a-x$ (resp. $x$ ), then for the new set of circles the area $S_{1}$ will be larger. Hence we may assume that $0 \leq x \leq \frac{a}{2}$. Then

$$
S_{1}=S-\frac{(2 m-1) \pi}{2(2 m+1)}\left[(m+1) x^{2}+m(a-x)^{2}\right]
$$

and the maximum of this function is attained at $x=\frac{m a}{2 m+1}$.
1.3.17 Hint. There exists a side $B_{1} B_{2}$ of the $(n+1)$-gon that lies entirely on a side $A_{1} A_{2}$ of the $n$-gon. Let $b=B_{1} B_{2}$ and $a=A_{1} A_{2}$. Show that $b=\frac{n}{n+1} a$. Then for $x=A_{1} B_{1}$ we have $0 \leq x \leq \frac{a}{n+1}$ and the area $S$ of the $(n+1)$-gon is given by

$$
S(x)=\frac{\sin \varphi}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\frac{i-1}{n+1} a+x\right)\left(\frac{n-i+1}{n+1} a-x\right)
$$

where $\varphi=\angle A_{1} A_{2} A_{3}$. Thus $S(x)$ is a quadratic function of $x$. Show that $S(x)$ is minimal when $x=0$ or $x=\frac{a}{n+1}$, and $S(x)$ is maximal when $x=\frac{a}{2(n+1)}$.
1.3.18 We may assume that the given circle $k$ has radius 1 and $C$ belongs to the larger arc $\widehat{A B}$ of $k$. Then $\angle A C B=\alpha$ is a constant and $0 \leq \alpha \leq 90^{\circ}$. Set $\varphi=\angle B A C$. Then the law of sines gives $A C=2 \sin \varphi, B C=2 \sin (\alpha+\varphi)$.
(a) We have

$$
A C+B C=2(\sin \varphi+\sin (\alpha+\varphi))=4 \sin \frac{\alpha+2 \varphi}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \leq 4 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} .
$$

Hence the maximum of $A C+B C$ is attained when $\alpha+2 \varphi=180^{\circ}$, i.e., when $C$ is the midpoint of the arc $\overparen{A B}$.
(b) It follows from the solution of Problem 1.3 .15 (a) that the maximum of $A C^{2}+$ $B C^{2}$ is attained when $C$ is the midpoint of the $\operatorname{arc} \widehat{A B}$.
(c) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C^{3}+B C^{3}= & 8\left[\sin ^{3} \varphi+\sin ^{3}(\alpha+\varphi)\right] \\
= & 8[\sin \varphi+\sin (\alpha+\varphi)] \\
& \times\left[\sin ^{2} \varphi-\sin \varphi \cdot \sin (\alpha+\varphi)+\sin ^{2}(\alpha+\varphi)\right] \\
= & 8 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \sin \left(\varphi+\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \\
& \times[2-\cos \alpha+\cos (2 \varphi+\alpha)-2 \cos (2 \varphi+\alpha) \cos \alpha] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Set $t=\sin \left(\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi\right)$. Then $0 \leq t \leq 1$ and

$$
\cos (\alpha+2 \varphi)=1-2 \sin ^{2}\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi\right)=1-2 t^{2}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C^{3}+B C^{3} & =8 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} t\left[2-\cos \alpha+(1-2 \cos \alpha)\left(1-2 t^{2}\right)\right] \\
& =8 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}\left[3(1-\cos \alpha) t-2(1-2 \cos \alpha) t^{3}\right] \\
& =8 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot g(t)
\end{aligned}
$$

For the function $g(t)$ we have $g^{\prime}(t)=3(1-\cos \alpha)-6(1-2 \cos \alpha) t^{2}$.
Case 1. $0 \leq \alpha \leq 60^{\circ}$. Then $1 \geq \cos \alpha \geq \frac{1}{2}$ and $g^{\prime}(t)>0$ for all $t$, which means that $g(t)$ is an increasing function of $t$. Since $t \leq 1$, it follows that $A C^{3}+B C^{3}$ is a maximum when $t=1$, i.e., when $\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi=90^{\circ}$. In this case $C$ is the midpoint of the arc $\overparen{A B}$ and $A C^{3}+B C^{3}=$ $8 \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}(1+\cos \alpha)$.
Case 2. $60^{\circ}<\alpha \leq 90^{\circ}$. Then $0 \leq \cos \alpha<\frac{1}{2}$ and $1-2 \cos \alpha>0$. In this case $g^{\prime}(t)=0$ when $t^{2}=\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)}$.
(a) $\frac{1}{3} \leq \cos \alpha<\frac{1}{2}$. Then $\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)} \geq 1$, which means that $g^{\prime}(t)>0$ for $t \in[0,1)$. Thus $g(t)$ is again a strictly increasing function in $[0,1]$ and achieves its maximum at $t=1$, i.e., when $C$ is the midpoint of the arc $\widehat{A B}$.
(b) $0 \leq \cos \alpha<\frac{1}{3}$. Now we have $0<\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)}<1$, so

$$
t_{0}=\sqrt{\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)}} \in(0,1)
$$

Clearly $g^{\prime}\left(t_{0}\right)=0$ and $g\left(t_{0}\right)$ is the maximal value of $g(t)$ for $t \in[0,1]$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
g\left(t_{0}\right) & =\sqrt{\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)}}[3(1-\cos \alpha)-(1-\cos \alpha)] \\
& =\frac{\sqrt{2}(1-\cos \alpha)^{3 / 2}}{\sqrt{1-2 \cos \alpha}}=\frac{4 \sin ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\sqrt{1-2 \cos \alpha}}
\end{aligned}
$$

so in this case the maximum of $A C^{3}+B C^{3}$ is equal to

$$
\frac{32 \sin ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\sqrt{1-2 \cos \alpha}}=\frac{8 \sin \alpha(1-\cos \alpha)}{\sqrt{1-2 \cos \alpha}}
$$

and it is attained when

$$
\sin \left(\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi\right)=t_{0}=\sqrt{\frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2(1-2 \cos \alpha)}} \in(0,1)
$$

Notice that $t_{0}=\frac{\sin \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\sqrt{1-2 \cos \alpha}}>\sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$, so $t_{0}=\sin \beta$ for some $\beta$ with $\frac{\alpha}{2}<\beta<90^{\circ}$. The value of $\varphi$ for which $A C^{3}+B C^{3}$ achieves a maximum is now given by $\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi=\beta$ or $\frac{\alpha}{2}+\varphi=180^{\circ}-\beta$, i.e., when $\varphi=\beta-\frac{\alpha}{2}$ or $\varphi=180^{\circ}-\beta-\frac{\alpha}{2}$.
1.3.19 It is easy to see that it is enough to consider only points $X$ lying in the halfplane determined by $\ell$ that contains $A$ and $B$. Let the distance from $A$ to $\ell$ be $a$ and let that from $B$ to $\ell$ be $b$. We may assume that $a \leq b$. Consider the coordinate system $O x y$ in the plane such that the $x$-axis coincides with $\ell$ and the positive $y$ axis contains $A$. Then $A$ has coordinates $(0, a)$ and $B$ has coordinates $(d, b)$. We may assume that $d \geq 0$. Notice that if $X$ is a point in the upper half-plane such that the line $\ell^{\prime}$ passing through $X$ and parallel to $\ell$ intersects the ray issuing from $A$ and passing through $B$, then $t(A)<t(X)$. That is why it is enough to consider the case that the distance from $\ell^{\prime}$ to $\ell$ does not exceed $a$, i.e., the case that $X$ has coordinates $(x, y)$ with $0 \leq y \leq a$.

Fix $y \in[0, a]$ and denote by $\ell^{\prime}$ the horizontal line in the upper half-plane whose distance to $\ell$ is $y$. If $B_{y}^{\prime}$ is the reflection of $B$ in $\ell^{\prime}$, it follows from Problem 1.1.1 that


Figure 118.
for $X \in \ell^{\prime}$ the sum $A X+X B$ is minimal when $X$ coincides with the intersection point $X_{y}$ of $\ell^{\prime}$ and $A B_{y}^{\prime}$ (Fig. 118).

Thus, for $X \in \ell^{\prime}$ the sum $t(X)$ is minimal when $X=X_{y}$ and $t\left(X_{y}\right)=y+$ $A B_{y}^{\prime}$. Since the coordinates of $B_{y}^{\prime}$ are $(d, 2 y-b)$, it follows that $t\left(X_{y}\right)=y+$ $\sqrt{d^{2}+(a+b-2 y)^{2}}$. It remains to find the minimum of the function $f(y)=$ $y+\sqrt{d^{2}+(a+b-2 y)^{2}}$ on $[0, a]$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(y) & =1-\frac{2(a+b-2 y)}{\sqrt{d^{2}+(a+b-2 y)^{2}}} \\
& =\frac{d^{2}-3(a+b-2 y)^{2}}{\sqrt{d^{2}+(a+b-2 y)^{2}} \cdot\left[\sqrt{d^{2}+(a+b-2 y)^{2}}+2(a+b-2 y)\right]},
\end{aligned}
$$

and $f^{\prime}(y)=0$ only if $y=y_{0}=\frac{1}{2}\left(a+b-\frac{d}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$. Depending on the position of $y_{0}$, there are three possible cases.

Case 1. $a+b \leq \frac{d}{\sqrt{3}}$. Then $y_{0} \leq 0$, so $f^{\prime}(y)>0$ for all $y \in(0, a]$ and $f(y)$ is strictly increasing on this interval. Thus $f(y)$ is minimal for $y=0$. In this case $t(X)$ is minimal when $X$ coincides with the point $X_{0} \in \ell$ for which the segments $A X_{0}$ and $B X_{0}$ make equal angles with $\ell$.

Case 2. $\frac{d}{\sqrt{3}} \leq b-a$. Then $y_{0} \geq a$, so $f^{\prime}(y)<0$ for $y \in[0, a)$ and $f(y)$ is strictly decreasing on this interval. Thus its minimal value is $f(a)$. In other words, $t(X)$ is minimal when $X=A$.

Case 3. $b-a<\frac{d}{\sqrt{3}}<a+b$. Then $y_{0} \in(0, a)$, so $f(y)$ has a minimum at $y=y_{0}$. Thus, $t(X)$ is minimal when $X=\left(\frac{d}{2}-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(b-a), \frac{a+b}{2}-\frac{d}{2 \sqrt{3}}\right)$. It is not difficult to check that in this case $\angle A X B=120^{\circ}$.

It should be mentioned that the condition $\frac{d}{\sqrt{3}} \leq b-a$ means that the angle between $A B$ and $\ell$ is not less than $30^{\circ}$.
1.3.20 Let the four towns be $A, B, C, D$. Consider an arbitrary system of highways joining them. Then there are paths from $A$ to $C$ and from $B$ to $D$. We may assume that these paths lie inside the square $A B C D$, since otherwise one could clearly shorten the total length of the system, keeping the towns joined.

Following the path from $A$ to $C$, denote by $M$ and $N$ the first and the last intersection points of this path with the path from $B$ to $D$ (Fig. 119).


Figure 119.


Figure 120.

We can shorten the total length of the given system of highways by replacing it with the system consisting of the five line segments

$$
A M, \quad D M, \quad M N, \quad B N, \quad C N .
$$

Draw the parallels through $M$ and $N$ to $A D$ and $B C$. Then choose on these parallels points $M^{\prime}$ and $N^{\prime}$, respectively, that are equidistant from the sides $A B$ and $C D$ (Fig. 120). It follows from Heron's problem (Problem 1.1.1) that

$$
A M+D M \geq A M^{\prime}+D M^{\prime} \quad \text { and } \quad B N+C N \geq B N^{\prime}+C N^{\prime}
$$

It is also clear that $M N \geq M^{\prime} N^{\prime}$, because $M^{\prime} N^{\prime}$ is the distance between the parallels considered above. Adding these inequalities gives

$$
A M+D M+M N+B N+C N \geq A M^{\prime}+D M^{\prime}+M^{\prime} N^{\prime}+B N^{\prime}+C N^{\prime}
$$

Thus we have reduced our problem to the following:
Let $E$ and $F$ be the midpoints of the sides $A D$ and $B C$ of the square $A B C D$. Find points $M$ and $N$ on the line segment $E F$ such that $A M+D M+$ $M N+B N+C N$ is a minimum.


Figure 121.

Denote the side length of $A B C D$ by $a$, and let $E M=x, F N=y$, where $0 \leq x \leq$ $a, 0 \leq y \leq a-x$ (Fig. 121).

Then

$$
A M=M D=\sqrt{x^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}}, \quad M N=a-x-y, \quad B N=C N=\sqrt{y^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}} .
$$

Hence we have to determine the minimum of the function

$$
F(x, y)=2 \sqrt{x^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}}+a-x-y+2 \sqrt{y^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}}
$$

for $0 \leq x \leq a, 0 \leq y \leq a-x$. Consider the function $f(x)=2 \sqrt{x^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}}-x$. Its derivative

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{2 x}{\sqrt{x^{2}+\frac{a^{2}}{4}}-1}=\frac{2}{\sqrt{1+\frac{a^{2}}{4 x^{2}}}}-1
$$

is strictly increasing in $(0,+\infty)$, and $f^{\prime}(x)=0$ for $x=a /(2 \sqrt{3})$. It follows that the minimum value of $f(x)$ in the interval $[0, a]$ is attained at $x=a /(2 \sqrt{3})$ and is equal to $a \sqrt{3} / 2$.

Since $F(x, y)=f(x)+f(y)+a$, one easily infers from here that the minimum of the function $F(x, y)$ is attained at $x=a /(2 \sqrt{3}), y=a /(2 \sqrt{3})$. This minimum is equal to $a(1+\sqrt{3})$. Hence the solution of our problem is given (up to symmetry) by the system of highways shown in Figure 122.

Remark. After reducing the problem to finding the minimum of $A M+D M+$ $M N+N B+N C$ (Fig. 120) we may proceed in a shorter way. Let $P$ and $Q$ be the points outside $A B C D$ such that $A D P$ and $B C Q$ are equilateral triangles. Then by Pompeiu's theorem (Problem 1.1.6) it follows that $A M+D M \geq P M$ and $B N+C N \geq Q N$. Hence

$$
A M+D M+M N+N B+N C \geq P M+M N+N Q \geq P Q
$$



Figure 122.

Thus the desired minimum is equal to $P Q$ and it is attained for the system of highways shown in Fig. 122.
1.3.21 Let a plane through the vertex $C$ of the cone intersect the circle of its base at points $A$ and $B$. Let $R$ be the radius of the base, $A C=B C=\ell$, and set $A B=2 x$, $0<x \leq R$. Then $[A B C]=x \sqrt{\ell^{2}-x^{2}}=\sqrt{x^{2}\left(\ell^{2}-x^{2}\right)}$, and we have to find the maximum of the quadratic function $f(t)=t\left(\ell^{2}-t\right)$ on the interval $\left(0, R^{2}\right]$. If $\ell^{2} \leq 2 R^{2}$ then the maximum of $f(t)$ is attained at $t=\frac{\ell^{2}}{2}$ and is equal to $\frac{\ell^{4}}{4}$. In this case $A B=\ell \sqrt{2},[A B C]=\frac{\ell^{2}}{2}$, and we note that $\angle A C B=90^{\circ}$. If $\ell^{2} \geq 2 R^{2}$ then the maximum of $f(t)$ is attained at $t=R^{2}$ and is equal to $R^{2}\left(\ell^{2}-R^{2}\right)$. In this case $A B=2 R$ (i.e., $A B$ is a diameter of the base) and $[A B C]=R \sqrt{\ell^{2}-R^{2}}$.
1.3.22 For any point $X$ in $\alpha$ set $x=P X$ and $\varphi=\angle X P Q$. Then

$$
d(X)=\frac{x+P Q}{\sqrt{x^{2}+P Q^{2}-2 x P Q \cos \varphi}}
$$

and for a fixed $x$ this is a maximum when $\cos \varphi$ is a maximum. This happens when $P Q \perp \alpha$ (then $\varphi=90^{\circ}$ for any $X \in \alpha$ ), or when $X$ lies on the orthogonal projection of the ray $r$ issuing from $P$ and passing through $Q$ onto $\alpha$ (Fig. 123).


Figure 123.
In what follows we consider only such points $X$. Let $\varphi_{0}$ be the angle between the ray $r$ and $\alpha$ and let $a=P Q$. It is not difficult to check that the function
$f(x)=\frac{(x+a)^{2}}{x^{2}+a^{2}-2 a x \cos \varphi_{0}}$ achieves its maximum precisely when $x=a$. Thus, $d(X)$ is a maximum when $P X=P Q$.

### 1.3.23

(a) Let the edge of the cube be of length $1, B M=x, 0 \leq x \leq 1$, and $\angle B_{1} M C_{1}=$ $\varphi$ (Fig. 124). Then

$$
B_{1} M=\sqrt{1+x^{2}}, \quad C_{1} M=\sqrt{B_{1} M^{2}+B_{1} C_{1}^{2}}=\sqrt{2+x^{2}}
$$

(since $\angle C_{1} B_{1} M=90^{\circ}$ ) and we obtain

$$
\cos \varphi=\frac{B_{1} M}{C_{1} M}=\sqrt{\frac{1+x^{2}}{2+x^{2}}}
$$

Hence $\cos \varphi \geq 1 / \sqrt{2}$, because $\left(1+x^{2}\right) /\left(2+x^{2}\right) \geq 1 / 2$, with equality only if $x=0$. Thus the angle $\angle B_{1} M C_{1}$ is a maximum if $M$ coincides with $B$, and in this case $\angle B_{1} M C_{1}=45^{\circ}$.
(b) Let $A M=x, 0 \leq x \leq 1$, and $\angle A_{1} M C_{1}=\varphi$. Then $A_{1} M=\sqrt{1+x^{2}}, C_{1} M=$ $\sqrt{2+(1-x)^{2}}, A_{1} C_{1}=\sqrt{2}$ (Fig. 124).


Figure 124.
The law of cosines for $\triangle A_{1} M C_{1}$ gives

$$
\cos \varphi=\frac{A_{1} M^{2}+C_{1} M^{2}-A_{1} C_{1}^{2}}{2 A_{1} M \cdot C_{1} M}=\frac{x^{2}-x+1}{\sqrt{x^{2}+1} \sqrt{x^{2}-2 x+3}} .
$$

Since $x^{2}-x+1>0$ for all $x$, it suffices to find the minimum of the function

$$
f(x)=\frac{\left(x^{2}-x+1\right)^{2}}{\left(x^{2}+1\right)\left(x^{2}-2 x+3\right)}
$$

on the interval $[0,1]$. We have

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{2\left(x^{2}-x+1\right)\left(x^{3}+3 x-2\right)}{\left(x^{2}+1\right)^{2}\left(x^{2}-2 x+3\right)^{2}}
$$

and therefore the sign of $f^{\prime}(x)$ is determined by the sign of the function $g(x)=x^{3}+3 x-2$ on $[0,1]$. Since $g(x)$ is strictly increasing $\left(g^{\prime}(x)=3 x^{2}+\right.$ $3>0)$ and also $g(0)=-2, g(1)=2$, it follows from the intermediate value theorem that the equation $x^{3}+3 x-2=0$ has a unique solution $x_{0} \in(0,1)$. Hence the function $f(x)$ is decreasing on the interval $\left(0, x_{0}\right)$ and increasing on the interval $\left(x_{0}, 1\right)$. On the other hand, $f(0)=1 / 3>1 / 4=f(1)$. So the maximum of $f(x)$ on $[0,1]$ is attained at $x=0$ and is equal to $1 / 3$. Thus $\angle A_{1} M C_{1}$ is a minimum when $M$ coincides with $A$ and in this case $\cos \varphi=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Remark. The arguments above show that the minimum of the function $f(x)$ on [ 0,1 ] is attained at $x_{0}$. Hence $\angle A_{1} M C_{1}$ is a maximum for the point $M_{0}$ on $A B$ such that $A M_{0}=x_{0}$. Note that $x_{0}=\sqrt[3]{\sqrt{2}+1}-\sqrt[3]{\sqrt{2}-1}$.
1.3.24 Denote by $r, x$, and $a$ the radius of the sphere, the altitude of the cone, and the radius of its base, respectively. Then $x a=r\left(a+\sqrt{a^{2}+x^{2}}\right)$ and we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}=\frac{r^{2} x}{x-2 r}, \quad x>2 r \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that the base of the cylinder has radius $r$ and its altitude is $2 r$.
(a) It follows from (1) that

$$
V_{1}=\frac{\pi a^{2} x}{3}=\frac{\pi r^{2} x^{2}}{3(x-2 r)}
$$

Since $V_{2}=2 \pi r^{3}$, we obtain

$$
\frac{V_{1}}{V_{2}}=\frac{x^{2}}{6 r(x-2 r)}=\frac{t^{2}}{6(t-2)}
$$

where $t=x / r>2$. Set $f(t)=t^{2} /(t-2)$. Then $f^{\prime}(t)=\frac{t(t-4)}{(t-2)^{2}}$, which shows that the function $f(t)$ is decreasing on the interval $(2,4)$ and increasing on the interval $(4,+\infty)$. Hence $f(t)$ has a minimum at $t=4$ and this minimum is equal to 8 . Thus $V_{1} / V_{2} \geq 4 / 3$.
(b) We have

$$
S_{1}=\frac{\pi r x(x-r)}{x-2 r} \quad \text { and } \quad S_{2}=4 \pi r^{2}
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{4 S_{1}}{S_{2}}=\frac{t(t-1)}{t-2}=f(t)
$$

where $t=x / r>2$. Since

$$
f^{\prime}(t)=\frac{t^{2}-4 t+2}{(t-2)^{2}}
$$

the function $f(t)$ decreases on the interval $(2,2+\sqrt{2})$ and increases on the interval $(2+\sqrt{2},+\infty)$. Hence $f(t)$ has a minimum at $t=2+\sqrt{2}$, and this minimum equals $3+2 \sqrt{2}$. Thus $4 \frac{S_{1}}{S_{2}} \geq 3+2 \sqrt{2}$.
1.3.25 Answer. If $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}$ are the centers of the spheres and $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ their radii, then the distance between the light source and $O_{1}$ must be $x=\frac{R_{1} \sqrt{R_{1}}}{R_{1} \sqrt{R_{1}}+R_{2} \sqrt{R_{2}}} O_{1} O_{2}$.

### 4.4 The Method of Partial Variation

1.4.6 Fix an arbitrary point $M$ on $k$. Let $M^{\prime}$ and $M^{\prime \prime}$ be the reflections of $M$ in $p$ and $q$, respectively (Fig. 125).


Figure 125.
We want to find points $P$ on $p$ and $Q$ on $q$ such that $\triangle M P Q$ has a minimal perimeter. It follows from Problem 1.1.16 that the solution is given by the intersection points $P$ and $Q$ of $M^{\prime} M^{\prime \prime}$ with $p$ and $q$, respectively. In this case the perimeter of $\triangle M P Q$ is $M^{\prime} M^{\prime \prime}$, and moreover $M^{\prime} M^{\prime \prime}$ is the base of an isosceles triangle $M^{\prime} M^{\prime \prime} O$ with a constant angle at the vertex $O$. Thus, $M^{\prime} M^{\prime \prime}$ is minimal when the side $O M^{\prime}=O M^{\prime \prime}=O M$ is minimal, i.e., when $M$ is the intersection point of $k$ and the segment $O O_{1}$, where $O_{1}$ is the center of $k$.

### 1.4.7

(a) Let $A B C$ be a triangle inscribed in $k$, and $C^{\prime}$ the midpoint of the larger arc $A B$. Since the distance from $C^{\prime}$ to the line $A B$ is not less than the distance
from $C$ to $A B$, it follows that $[A B C] \leq\left[A B C^{\prime}\right]$. Set $2 \gamma=\angle A C^{\prime} B, 0<$ $\gamma \leq 45^{\circ}$. Then the law of sines gives $A B=2 R \sin 2 \gamma$, where $R$ is the radius of $k$. The altitude through $C^{\prime}$ of $\triangle A B C^{\prime}$ is equal to $\frac{A B \cot \gamma}{2}$ and therefore [ $\left.A B C^{\prime}\right]=4 R^{2} \sin \gamma \cos ^{3} \gamma$. Consider the function $f(\gamma)=\sin \gamma \cos ^{3} \gamma$. Then $f^{\prime}(\gamma)=\cos ^{2} \gamma\left(1-4 \sin ^{2} \gamma\right)$, and it follows that the maximum of $f(\gamma)$ on the interval $\left(0,45^{\circ}\right.$ ] is attained at $\gamma=30^{\circ}$, i.e., when triangle $A B C^{\prime}$ is equilateral. Thus, of all triangles inscribed in $k$ the equilateral triangles have maximum area.
(b) Let $A B C D$ be a quadrilateral inscribed in $k$. Denote by $\alpha$ the angle between $A C$ and $B D$. Then

$$
[A B C D]=\frac{A C \cdot B D \cdot \sin \alpha}{2} \leq \frac{A C \cdot B D}{2} \leq 2 R^{2}
$$

Hence the maximum of $[A B C D]$ is $2 R^{2}$ and it is attained if and only if $A B C D$ is a square.
(c) It is enough to consider only pentagons $A B C D E$ inscribed in the given circle and containing its center $O$. Set $\angle A O B=\alpha_{1}, \angle B O C=\alpha_{2}, \ldots, \angle E O A=$ $\alpha_{5}$. Fix the points $A, B, C$, and $D$. Then $[A D E]$ is a maximum when $E$ is the midpoint of the arc $\widehat{A D}$ (Fig. 126).


Figure 126.
Hence it is enough to consider only pentagons for which $\alpha_{4}=\alpha_{5}=\beta$. Similarly, we may assume that $\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}=\alpha$.
We then have $[A B C D E]=\left[A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}\right]$, where (Fig. 127) $\angle A^{\prime} O B^{\prime}=$ $\angle A^{\prime} O E^{\prime}=\alpha$ and $\angle B^{\prime} O C^{\prime}=\angle D^{\prime} O E^{\prime}=\beta$, which implies that $E^{\prime}$ and $D^{\prime}$ are symmetric to the points $B^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$, respectively, with respect to the line $O A^{\prime}$. Fix for a moment $A^{\prime}, C^{\prime}$, and $D^{\prime}$. The areas of triangles $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $A^{\prime} D^{\prime} E^{\prime}$ are maximal when $B^{\prime}$ is the midpoint of $A^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime}$ is the midpoint of $A^{\prime} D^{\prime}$, i.e., when $\alpha=\beta$.


Figure 127.

Thus, it is enough to consider pentagons $A B C D E$ such that four of the central angles determined by their sides have the same measure $\alpha$ (then $180^{\circ} \leq 4 \alpha \leq$ $360^{\circ}$, i.e., $45^{\circ} \leq \alpha \leq 90^{\circ}$ ). Then for the area $S(\alpha)$ of such a pentagon we have

$$
S(\alpha)=\frac{R^{2}}{2}\left[4 \sin \alpha+\sin \left(360^{\circ}-4 \alpha\right)\right]=\frac{R^{2}}{2}[4 \sin \alpha-\sin 4 \alpha] .
$$

Hence

$$
S^{\prime}(\alpha)=2 R^{2}[\cos \alpha-\cos 4 \alpha]=4 R^{2} \sin \frac{5 \alpha}{2} \sin \frac{3 \alpha}{2}
$$

Since $\sin \frac{3 \alpha}{2}>0$ for all $\alpha \in\left[45^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}\right]$, it follows that $S^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$ for $45^{\circ} \leq$ $\alpha<72^{\circ}$ and $S^{\prime}(\alpha)<0$ for $72^{\circ}<\alpha \leq 90^{\circ}$. Thus, $S(\alpha)$ is a maximum when $\alpha=72^{\circ}$, in which case the pentagon is regular.
(d) Hint. As in (c), show that it is enough to consider only hexagons whose sides determine central angles $\alpha, \alpha, \alpha, \alpha, \beta, \beta$. The maximum area is achieved when the hexagon is regular.
1.4.8 It follows from Problem 1.4.2 that the area of $\triangle P Q R$ is a maximum when $P, Q$, and $R$ are vertices of the hexagon. Suppose that at least two of them are consecutive vertices. Then $\triangle P Q R$ is contained in a quadrilateral formed by four consecutive vertices of the hexagon, and has area less than half the area of the hexagon. On the other hand, by symmetry, it is easy to see that

$$
[A C E]=[B D F]=\frac{1}{2}[A B C D E F] .
$$

Hence the traingle $P Q R$ of maximum area is either $A C E$ or $B D F$.

### 1.4.9

(a) For any point $P$ inside $\triangle A B C$, denote its distances from $B C, C A, A B$ by $p_{1}$, $p_{2}, p_{3}$, respectively. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
4 \sqrt{3}=[A B C] & =[P B C]+[P C A]+[P A B] \\
& =\frac{p_{1}}{2} B C+\frac{p_{2}}{2} C A+\frac{p_{3}}{2} A B \\
& =2\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $p_{1}+p_{2}+p_{3}=2 \sqrt{3}$. Let $Q, R, S$ be labeled as in Fig. 128.


Figure 128.
Construct the hexagon $R R^{\prime} Q Q^{\prime} S S^{\prime}$ with $Q Q^{\prime}$ and $R S^{\prime}$ parallel to $B A, R R^{\prime}$ and $S Q^{\prime}$ parallel to $A C$, and $S S^{\prime}$ and $Q R^{\prime}$ parallel to $B C$. It is easy to see that this hexagon is situated symmetrically within $\triangle A B C$. It follows that

$$
q_{1} q_{2} q_{3}=q_{1}^{\prime} q_{2}^{\prime} q_{3}^{\prime}=r_{1} r_{2} r_{3}=r_{1}^{\prime} r_{2}^{\prime} r_{3}^{\prime}=s_{1} s_{2} s_{3}=s_{1}^{\prime} s_{2}^{\prime} s_{3}^{\prime} .
$$

For any point $P$ inside $Q Q^{\prime} R R^{\prime} S S^{\prime}$, draw the line through it parallel to $B C$, cutting the perimeter of the hexagon at $P^{\prime}$ and $P^{\prime \prime}$, one of which may be $P$ itself.
Then $p_{1}^{\prime}=p_{1}$ and $p_{2}^{\prime}+p_{3}^{\prime}=p_{2}+p_{3}$. Moreover,

$$
\left|p_{2}^{\prime}-p_{3}^{\prime}\right| \geq\left|p_{2}-p_{3}\right|
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & \leq\left(p_{2}^{\prime}-p_{3}^{\prime}\right)^{2}-\left(p_{2}-p_{3}\right)^{2} \\
& =\left(p_{2}^{\prime}+p_{3}^{\prime}\right)^{2}-4 p_{2}^{\prime} p_{3}^{\prime}-\left(p_{2}+p_{3}\right)^{2}+4 p_{2} p_{3} \\
& =4\left(p_{2} p_{3}-p_{2}^{\prime} p_{3}^{\prime}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the product of the three distances does not increase if we replace $P$ by $P^{\prime}$. Now $P^{\prime}$ may already be a vertex of the hexagon. If not, it lies between two vertices, and the same argument shows that the product decreases if we replace $P^{\prime}$
by a vertex. Restricting ourselves now to $\triangle Q R S$, we see that the product is a minimum if $P$ coincides with one of $Q, R$, and $S$.
(b) Note that triangles $A S E, A C D$, and $C Q D$ are similar. Hence $A S \cdot A D=$ $A E \cdot A C=4$ and $D Q \cdot A D=C D \cdot A E=1$. By the law of cosines for $\triangle A C D$ we get that $A D=\sqrt{13}$ and therefore $A S: S Q: Q D=4: 8: 1$. Now the altitude of $\triangle A B C$ is $2 \sqrt{3}$. Hence

$$
s_{1}=\frac{18 \sqrt{3}}{13}, \quad s_{2}=r_{3}=\frac{2 \sqrt{3}}{13}, \quad s_{3}=2 \sqrt{3}-s_{1}-s_{2}=\frac{6 \sqrt{3}}{13} .
$$

Thus

$$
s_{1} s_{2} s_{3}=\frac{648 \sqrt{3}}{2197}
$$

By (a), this is the minimum value of the desired product.
1.4.10 Answer. If $A, B$, and $C$ are the given points, then the required line is the one passing along the largest side of $\triangle A B C$.
1.4.11 Fix the points $A$ and $D$ and let $\alpha=\overparen{A D}<180^{\circ}$. Since $A C \perp B D$, the center $O$ of the circle lies in the quadrilateral $A B C D$ (Fig. 129).


Figure 129.
Moreover, $\widehat{A D}+\overparen{B C}=180^{\circ}$, so $[A O D]=[B O C]=\frac{\sin \alpha}{2}$, which is constant (when $\alpha$ is fixed). Clearly $[A O B] \leq \frac{1}{2}$, with equality when $\angle A O B=90^{\circ}$. The same applies to $[C O D]$. Hence we may assume that $\angle A O B=\angle C O D=90^{\circ}$. Moreover, $[A D E]$ is a maximum when $E$ is the midpoint of $A D$.

Thus, it is enough to consider only pentagons $A B C D E$ for which $\angle A O B=$ $\angle C O D=90^{\circ}$ and $E$ is the midpoint of $\widehat{A D}$. Then

$$
[A B C D E]=1+\frac{\sin \alpha}{2}+\sin \frac{\alpha}{2}
$$

It is easy to see that the maximum of this function of $\alpha$ is attained when $\alpha=120^{\circ}$. Hence $[A B C D E]$ is a maximum when $\angle A O B=\angle C O D=90^{\circ}$ and $\angle B O C=$ $\angle D O E=\angle E O A=60^{\circ}$.
1.4.12 Hint. Follow the solutions of Problems 1.4.2 and 1.4.3.

Answer.

$$
\frac{S}{n \sin \frac{360^{\circ}}{n}}\left[(p-r) \sin \frac{k 360^{\circ}}{n}+r \sin \frac{(k+1) 360^{\circ}}{n}\right],
$$

where $n=p k+r, 0 \leq r<p$.
1.4.13 Let $A B C$ be an arbitrary triangle inscribed in the given circle $k$ with center $O$. We may assume that $B C$ is the smallest side of the triangle. Then $2 \alpha=$ $\angle B O C \leq 120^{\circ}$, i.e., $0 \leq \alpha \leq 60^{\circ}$. It now follows from Case 1 in the solution of Problem 1.3.18 that when $B$ and $C$ are fixed, the sum $A B^{3}+A C^{3}$ is a maximum when $A$ is the midpoint of the larger arc $\widehat{B C}$.

In what follows we consider only isosceles triangles $A B C(A B=A C)$ for which $\alpha=\angle B A C \leq 60^{\circ}$. Then

$$
A B^{3}+B C^{3}+A C^{3}=8 R^{3}\left(\sin ^{3} \alpha+2 \cos ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)
$$

We need to investigate the function $f(\alpha)=\sin ^{3} \alpha+2 \cos ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2}$ for $0 \leq \alpha \leq 60^{\circ}$. We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(\alpha) & =3 \sin ^{2} \alpha \cdot \cos \alpha-6 \cos ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \\
& =3\left(\sin ^{2} \alpha \cdot \cos \alpha-\frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \sin \alpha\right) \\
& =3 \sin \alpha\left(2 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \cos \alpha-\frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha \cdot \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}\left(4 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \cos \alpha-1\right) \\
& =\frac{3}{2} \sin \alpha \cdot \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}\left[4 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}-8 \sin ^{3} \frac{\alpha}{2}-1\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

When $\alpha$ runs over the interval $\left[0,60^{\circ}\right], \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$ runs over $\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$. So, in order to investigate the sign of $f^{\prime}(\alpha)$, it is enough to determine the sign of $g(t)=4 t-$ $8 t^{3}-1$ for $t \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$. One way to do this is to factorize $g(t)$ (this is not difficult since $g(1 / 2)=0)$. Here instead we deal with $g^{\prime}(t)$. We have

$$
g^{\prime}(t)=4-24 t^{2}=4\left(1-6 t^{2}\right)
$$

so $g(t)$ is strcitly increasing on $\left[0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\right]$ and strictly decreasing in $\left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$. Since $g(0)=-1<0$ and $g(1 / 2)=0$ (Fig. 130), there exists a unique $t_{0} \in\left(0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\right)$ with $g\left(t_{0}\right)=0$.


Figure 130.

Thus there exists a unique $\alpha_{0} \in\left(0,60^{\circ}\right)$ such that $\sin \frac{\alpha_{0}}{2}=t_{0}$. Then $f^{\prime}(\alpha)<0$ for $\alpha \in\left[0, \alpha_{0}\right)$ and $f^{\prime}(\alpha)>0$ for $\alpha \in\left(\alpha_{0}, 60^{\circ}\right]$ (Fig. 131).


Figure 131.

It is now clear that $f\left(\alpha_{0}\right)$ is the minimum value of $f(\alpha)$, while its maximum is achieved either for $\alpha=0$ or for $\alpha=60^{\circ}$. Since $f(0)=2$ and $f\left(60^{\circ}\right)=\frac{9 \sqrt{3}}{8}$, we have $f(0)>f\left(60^{\circ}\right)$. That is, the maximum of $f(\alpha)$ is achieved when $\alpha=0$. This is equivalent to $B=C$. In this case (assuming $A$ is diametrically opposite to $B=C$ ) we have $A B^{3}+B C^{3}+A C^{3}=16 R^{3}$. For every nondegenerate triangle $A B C$ this sum is strictly less than $16 R^{3}$. However, the continuity of $f(\alpha)$ shows that it can be made arbitrarily close to $16 R^{3}$.
1.4.14 Hint. Use the same argument as in the solution of Problem 1.4.2.
1.4.15 Hint. Use the argument from the solution of Problem 1.4.2.

### 1.4.16

(a) Let $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ be the given cube and let $a=A B$. We conclude from Problem 1.4.14 that it suffices to consider only the triangles with vertices among the vertices of the cube. Let $M N P$ be such a triangle. The possible distances between vertices of the cube are $a, a \sqrt{2}$, and $a \sqrt{3}$. It is easy to see that the possible triples (up to ordering) of lengths of the sides of $\triangle M N P$ are $\{a, a, a \sqrt{2}\},\{a, a \sqrt{2}, a \sqrt{3}\}$, and $\{a \sqrt{2}, a \sqrt{2}, a \sqrt{2}\}$. It is now easy to check that $[M N P]$ is a maximum in the third case.
(b) Use Problem 1.4.14. The answer is the same as that in part (a).
1.4.17 Use Problem 1.4.15. Answer. A tetrahedron in the cube has a maximum volume precisely when two of its edges are skew diagonals of parallel faces of the cube.
1.4.18 Let $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ be an arbitrary prism of volume $V$. Construct points $A_{1}^{\prime}$ and $B_{1}^{\prime}$ on the line $A_{1} B_{1}$ such that $A_{1}^{\prime} A \perp A B$ and $B_{1}^{\prime} B \perp A B$. Similarly, construct points $C_{1}^{\prime}$ and $D_{1}^{\prime}$ on the line $C_{1} D_{1}$ such that $C_{1}^{\prime} C \perp C D$ and $D_{1}^{\prime} D \perp C D$ (Fig. 132).


Figure 132.

The volume of the new prism $A B C D A_{1}^{\prime} B_{1}^{\prime} C_{1}^{\prime} D_{1}^{\prime}$ is again $V$. As one can immediately see, the surface area of the new prism is not larger than the surface area of the initial prism. Using one more construction of this type, we get a right prism with base $A B C D$ having the same volume $V$ and surface area not larger than the surface area of the initial prism.

Next, consider an arbitrary double quadrilateral prism consisting of an "upper" prism $A B C D A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ and a "lower" prism $A_{2} B_{2} C_{2} D_{2} A B C D$. Using the above argument, we may assume that both prisms are right, i.e., that the double prism is simply an ordinary right quadrilateral prism of volume $V$. Using again an argument similar to the above, one observes that it is enough to consider the case of a
rectangular parallelepiped of volume $V$. Let $a, b$, and $c$ be the lengths of the sides of the parallelepiped. Then $V=a b c$, while for the surface area $S$ we have

$$
S=2(a b+b c+c a) \geq 6 \sqrt[3]{(a b)(b c)(c a)}=6 V^{2 / 3}
$$

where equality holds if and only if $a=b=c$, i.e., when the parallelepiped is a cube.
1.4.19 Fix three points $A, B$, and $C$ on the sphere. Clearly the volume of $A B C D$ is a maximum when the distance from $D$ to the plane $A B C$ is a maximum, i.e., when the orthogonal projection $H$ of $D$ on this plane coincides with the circumcenter of $\triangle A B C$. Moreover, the segment $D H$ must contain the center $O$ of the sphere. In what follows we consider only tetrahedra $A B C D$ with these properties.

Let $R$ be the radius of the sphere. Fix $D$ and the plane $\alpha$ of the base $A B C$ of the tetrahedron. Then the intersection of $\alpha$ with the sphere is a circle in which $\triangle A B C$ is inscribed. Since the volume of $A B C D$ is a maximum when the area of $A B C$ is a maximum, it follows from Problem 1.4.7 that we may assume that $\triangle A B C$ is equilateral.

The above arguments show that it is enough to consider only regular triangular pyramids inscribed in the sphere. In this case (Fig. 133) let $d=O H$ and let $r$ be the circumradius of $\triangle A B C$.


Figure 133.

Then $r=\sqrt{R^{2}-d^{2}}$ and $[A B C]=\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{4} r^{2}$. For the volume $V$ of $A B C D$ we have

$$
V=\frac{1}{3}(R+d)[A B C]=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}(R+d)(R+d)(R-d)
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{\sqrt{3}}{8}(R+d)(R+d)(2 R-2 d) \\
& \leq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{8}\left[\frac{(R+d)+(R+d)+(2 R-2 d)}{3}\right]^{3}=\frac{8 \sqrt{3}}{27} R^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

where equality holds only when $R+d=2 R-2 d$, i.e., when $R=3 d$. This is equivalent to $A B C D$ being a regular tetrahedron, i.e., all its edges have the same length.
1.4.20 Let $L$ be a fixed point on $A C$. We are going to show that there exist unique points $M_{L}$ in $\triangle A B D$ and $N_{L}$ in $\triangle B C D$ such that the perimeter of $\triangle L M_{L} N_{L}$ is minimal among the triangles $L M N$ with $M$ in triangle $A B D$ and $N$ in triangle $B C D$.

Let $L^{\prime}$ and $L^{\prime \prime}$ be the reflections of $L$ in the planes $A B D$ and $B C D$, respectively. Denote by $M_{0}$ and $N_{0}$ the centers of the equilateral triangles $A B D$ and $B C D$ (Fig. 134).


Figure 134.

For any points $M$ in $\triangle A B D$ and $N$ in $\triangle B C D$ we have $L M=L^{\prime} M$ and $L N=$ $L^{\prime \prime} N$, which gives that the perimeter of $\triangle L M N$ equals the length of the broken line $L^{\prime} M N L^{\prime \prime}$. We claim that the segment $L^{\prime} L^{\prime \prime}$ intersects $\triangle A B D$ and $\triangle B C D$. Since the orthogonal projection of $C$ in the plane $A B D$ coincides with $M_{0}$, the orthogonal projection $L_{1}$ of $L$ in this plane lies on the segment $A M_{0}$. Similarly, the orthogonal projection $L_{2}$ of $L$ in $B C D$ lies on the segment $C N_{0}$. Let $Q$ be the midpoint of $B D$. The points $L, L_{1}, L^{\prime}, L_{2}$, and $L^{\prime \prime}$ lie in the plane $A Q C$, and $\angle A Q C<90^{\circ}$. In this plane $L^{\prime}$ is the reflection of $L$ in the line $A Q$, while $L^{\prime \prime}$ is the reflection of $L$ in the line $C Q$, so $\angle L^{\prime} Q L^{\prime \prime}=2 \angle A Q C<180^{\circ}$. This shows that the segment $L^{\prime} L^{\prime \prime}$ intersects $A Q$ and $C Q$ at some points $M_{L}$ and $N_{L}$, respectively (Fig. 135). It is now clear that $\triangle L M_{L} N_{L}$ has a minimum perimeter among the triangles $L M N$, and this perimeter is equal to $L^{\prime} L^{\prime \prime}$. The latter is the length of the base of the isosceles triangle $L^{\prime} L^{\prime \prime} Q$ with $L^{\prime} Q=L^{\prime \prime} Q=L Q$ and


Figure 135.
$\angle L^{\prime} Q L^{\prime \prime}=2 \angle A Q C$. Thus $L^{\prime} L^{\prime \prime}$ is minimal when $L Q$ is shortest, i.e., when $L$ is the midpoint of $A C$. In this case $M_{L}=M_{0}$ and $N_{L}=N_{0}$.

### 4.5 The Tangency Principle

### 1.5.6

(a) Let $A B=2 d$. Consider the half-planes determined by the perpendicular bisector of the line segment $A B$. We have $f(M)=M A$ for $M$ in the half-plane containing $A$, and $f(M)=M B$ in the other half-plane. Hence the level curve of $f(M)$ corresponding to a number $r>0$ is the union of two circles when $r \leq d$, and the union of two arcs of circles when $r>d$ (Fig. 136).


Figure 136.
(b) We may assume without loss of generality that $A B=1$. Introduce an orthogonal coordinate system in the plane with origin at $B$ and such that the point $A$ has coordinates $(1,0)$. For a given positive number $c$ denote by $L_{c}$ the level curve of the function $f(M)=\frac{M A}{M B}$. Let $M=(x, y)$ be a point on $L_{c}$. Then $M A^{2}=c^{2} M B^{2}$ and we get $(x-1)^{2}+y^{2}=c^{2}\left(x^{2}+y^{2}\right)$. If $c=1$, then $L_{c}$ is the line $x=\frac{1}{2}$, i.e., the perpendicular bisector of the segment $A B$ (Fig. 137). If $c \neq 1$, then the identity above can be written as

$$
\left(x-\frac{1}{1-c^{2}}\right)^{2}+y^{2}=\frac{c^{2}}{\left(1-c^{2}\right)^{2}}
$$

Hence for $c \neq 1$ the level curve $L_{c}$ is the circle with center the point $\left(\frac{1}{1-c^{2}}, 0\right)$ and radius $\frac{c}{\left|1-c^{2}\right|}$ (Fig. 137).


Figure 137.
The circle $L_{c}, c \neq 1$, is known as the circle of Apollonius for the points $A$ and $B$, corresponding to the ratio $c$.
1.5.7 Let $A, B$ be two fixed points such that $A B=\ell$, and let $C$ vary along the line $m$ parallel to $A B$ at distance $2 S / \ell$ from $A B$. The product of the altitudes of $\triangle A B C$ is $8 S^{3}$ divided by the product of the three side lengths. Hence it suffices to minimize $A C \cdot B C$, which is equivalent to maximizing $\sin C$, because $A C \cdot B C=$ $(2 S) / \sin C$. Let $D$ be the intersection of the line $m$ and the perpendicular bisector of $A B$. If $\angle A D B$ is not acute, then clearly the optimal triangles are the ones with vertices $C$ on $m$ and with right angles at $C$.

Suppose that $\angle A D B$ is acute. Then it follows from Problem 1.5.1 that the optimal triangle is $\triangle A B D$.
1.5.8 Construct two parallel lines such that the distance between them is the length of the given altitude through the vertex $A$. Let $B$ and $B_{1}$ be points on these lines such that $B B_{1}$ equals twice the length of the median through $B$. Let $D$ be the midpoint of $B B_{1}$ (Fig. 138).


Figure 138.

Now the problem is to find a point $A$ on $\ell_{2}$ such that $\angle B A D$ is a maximum, which reduces to Problem 1.5.1.
1.5.9 Let $C$ be a point on $\ell$ and let $P$ and $Q$ be the feet of the altitudes in $\triangle A B C$ through $A$ and $B$. Then the points $A, B, P, Q$ lie on a circle $k$ with diameter $A B$. There are two cases to consider.

Case 1. Let $k$ have a common point with $\ell$. Then each common point of $k$ and $\ell$ is a solution of the problem, since in this case $P Q=0$.

Case 2. Let $k$ and $\ell$ have no common points. Clearly either $P$ or $Q$ lies on a side of $\triangle A B C$. Let $P$ lie on $B C$ (Fig. 139). Then $\angle Q B P=90^{\circ}-\angle A C B$, and the length of the chord $P Q$ is a minimum when $\angle A C B$ is maximal, since $P Q=A B \sin \angle Q B P=A B \cos \angle A C B$. Now it remains to use Problem 1.5.1.


Figure 139.
1.5.10 Hint. Use the same argument as in the solution of Problem 1.5.1.
1.5.11 According to Problem 1.5 .1 one has to construct a circle through $O$ and $A$ that is tangent to the given circle. There are two such circles, and their tangent points give the solutions of the problem (Fig. 140).


Figure 140.
1.5.12 Answer. The required points are the vertices of the cube that do not belong to the given diagonal.
1.5.13 The level curves of the function $f(M)=A M^{2}+B M^{2}$ are concentric circles centered at the midpoint $O$ of the segment $A B$ (cf. Example 3 in Section 1.5). Hence the tangency principle implies that the minimum of $f(M)$ on $l$ is attained at the orthogonal projection $M_{0}$ of $O$ on $l$ (Fig. 141).


Figure 141.

### 1.5.14

(a) Consider the function $f(M)=[A B M]$ (Fig. 142).


Figure 142.
The level curves of $f(M)$ are lines parallel to $A B$. It follows from the tangency principle that the required point is the midpoint $M_{0}$ of the larger arc $\widehat{A B}$.
(b) Use the fact that the level curves of the function $f(M)=M A^{2}+M B^{2}$ are concentric circles whose common center coincides with the midpoint of the segment $A B$ (cf. Example 3 in Section 1.5).
(c) Use the fact that the level curves of the function $f(M)=M A+M B$ are ellipses with foci $A$ and $B$ (cf. Example 7, Section 1.5).
1.5.15 The level curves of the function $f(X)=X A_{1}^{2}+\cdots+X A_{n}^{2}$ are circles centered at the centroid $G$ of the set of points $\left\{A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ (cf. Example 5, Section 1.5). It follows from the tangency principle that $X \in M$ has to be chosen in
such a way that $G X$ is minimal. One is now left to deal with the problem described in the remark after Problem 1.5.2.
1.5.16 The solution is similar to the solution of the previous problem.
1.5.17 See the solution of Problem 1.5.3.
1.5.18 Let $\triangle A B C$ be isosceles and right-angled with $\angle C=90^{\circ}$. Introduce a coordinate system with origin $C$ and coordinate axes $C A$ and $C B$ (Fig. 143).


Figure 143.
Let $A=(a, 0), B=(0, a)$. The level curve $L_{r}$ of the function $f(M)=$ $M A^{2}+2 M B^{2}-3 M C^{2}$ is the line $x+2 y=\frac{3 a^{2}-r}{2 a}$ (see the Theorem, after Example 4 in Section 1.5). Let $A_{1}$ be the midpoint of $B C$. Then the line $A A_{1}$ is the level curve of $f(M)$ corresponding to $r=a^{2}$. It follows from the tangency principle that the points $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ where $f(M)$ achieves its minimum and maximum, respectively, are tangent points of the circumcircle of $\triangle A B C$ with lines parallel to $A A_{1}$. Clearly $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are the intersection points of the circumcircle with the line through its center $O$ and perpendicular to $A A_{1}$ (Fig. 143).

In the case of an equilateral triangle $A B C$ use the same argument as above.
1.5.19 According to the tangency principle the maximum (minimum) of the function $f(M)=\frac{A M}{B M}$ is attained at points where a level curve $L_{c}$ of $f(M)$ is tangent to the line $l$. So, we may assume that $c \neq 1$. Set $A B=m$ and let $d$ be the distance between the parallel lines $A B$ and $l$. From the solution of Problem 1.5.6 (b) we know that for any $c>0, c \neq 1$, the level curve $L_{c}$ of $f(M)$ is a circle with center on the line $A B$ and radius $\frac{m c}{\left|1-c^{2}\right|}$. Such a circle is tangent to the line $l$ if its radius is equal to $d$, i.e., when $\left|1-c^{2}\right|=\frac{m}{d} c$. Solving this equation for $c$, we conclude that the maximum and the minimum of $f(M)$ on $l$ are given respectively by

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{m}{d}+\sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{d}\right)^{2}+4}\right) \text { and } \frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{m}{d}+\sqrt{\left(\frac{m}{d}\right)^{2}+4}\right)
$$

1.5.20 The level curves of the function

$$
f(X)=d\left(X, \ell_{1}\right)+d\left(X, \ell_{2}\right)
$$

where $X$ is a point in the interior of the angle, are line segments perpendicular to the bisector of the angle (see Example 6, Section 1.5). Thus the required points $X$ can be found in the following way: Move a line through the vertex $O$ keeping it perpendicular to the angle bisector until it meets a point (points) of $M$. The point(s) obtained in this way give the solution (Fig. 144).


Figure 144.
Notice that if $M$ is a polygon, then there is always a solution of the problem that is a vertex of $M$ (Figs. 145, 146).


Figure 145.


Figure 146.

In the case of a circle, the solution is given by the tangent point of a tangent line to the circle perpendicular to the angle bisector (Fig. 147).


Figure 147.
1.5.21 Hint. Show that the level curves of the functions

$$
f(\ell)=O C+O D-C D, \quad g(\ell)=O C+O D+C D,
$$

depending on a variable line $\ell$, consist of the tangent lines to the larger and the smaller arcs, respectively, of the circles inscribed in the angle (Figs. 148, 149). Then use the tangency principle.


Figure 148.


Figure 149.
1.5.22 Let $A B M$ be one of the given triangles, where $A B$ is the given side. Then $M A+M B=2 p-A B$, and as we know from Example 7, Section 1.5, the locus of the points $M$ with this property is an ellipse with foci $A$ and $B$ (Fig. 150).


Figure 150.

The level curves of the function $f(M)=[A B M]$ are lines parallel to the axis $A B$ of the ellipse. Now the tangency principle implies that the solution of the problem is given by the isosceles triangle having the required properties.
1.5.23 The required maximum is equal to $2 / \sqrt{3}$. We first prove that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

if the circumcircle of triangle $A C G$ is tangent to the line $A B$, and then handle the case of an arbitrary triangle $A B C$. So, let the circumcircle of $\triangle A C G$ be tangent to $A B$. We use the standard notation for the elements of $\triangle A B C$. By the power-of-apoint theorem and the well-known median formula (see Glossary) we have

$$
\frac{c^{2}}{4}=M A^{2}=M G \cdot M C=\frac{1}{3} m_{c}^{2}=\frac{1}{12}\left(2 a^{2}+2 b^{2}-c^{2}\right)
$$

yielding $a^{2}+b^{2}=2 c^{2}$. Using the median formula again gives $m_{a}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} b, m_{b}=$ $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} a$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G & =\frac{2[A C G]}{A C \cdot A G}+\frac{2[B C G]}{B C \cdot B G} \\
& =\frac{[A B C]}{b m_{a}}+\frac{[A B C]}{a m_{b}}=\frac{\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right) \sin \gamma}{\sqrt{3} a b} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The law of cosines, combined with $a^{2}+b^{2}=2 c^{2}$, implies $a^{2}+b^{2}=4 a b \cos \gamma$. Therefore $\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G=\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \sin 2 \gamma \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$, and (1) follows.

Now suppose that $\triangle A B C$ is arbitrary, and let $M$ be the midpoint of $A B$. There are two circles passing through $C$ and $G$ that are tangent to the line $A B$. Let the corresponding points of tangency be $A_{1}$ and $B_{1}$, lying on the rays $M A \rightarrow$ and $M B^{\rightarrow}$, respectively (Fig. 151).


Figure 151.
Since $M A_{1}^{2}=M G \cdot M C=M B_{1}^{2}$ by the power-of-a-point theorem and $C G$ : $G M=2: 1, G$ is the centroid of $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C$ as well. Moreover, $A$ and $B$ are exterior to the two circles unless $A=A_{1}$ and $B=B_{1}$. It is straightforward now that $\angle C A G \leq \angle C A_{1} G, \angle C B G \leq \angle C B_{1} G$. Thus, assuming $\angle C A_{1} G$ and $\angle C B_{1} G$ acute we conclude by the special case already settled that

$$
\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G \leq \sin \angle C A_{1} G+\sin \angle C B_{1} G \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} .
$$

Thus we are left with the proof of (1) in the case that one of $\angle C A_{1} G$ and $\angle C B_{1} G$ is right or obtuse.

Let, for instance, $\angle C A_{1} G \geq 90^{\circ}$; then $\angle C B_{1} G$ is acute. Denote by $a_{1}, b_{1}, c_{1}$ the side lengths of $\triangle A_{1} B_{1} C$ and let $\gamma_{1}=\angle A_{1} C B_{1}$. We obtain from $\triangle C A_{1} G$ that $C G^{2}>C A_{1}^{2}+A_{1} G^{2}$, that is,

$$
\frac{1}{9}\left(2 a_{1}^{2}+2 b_{1}^{2}-c_{1}^{2}\right)>b_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{9}\left(2 b_{1}^{2}+2 c_{1}^{2}-a_{1}^{2}\right)
$$

We have $a_{1}^{2}+b_{1}^{2}=2 c_{1}^{2}$, and the above inequality takes the form $a_{1}^{2}>7 b_{1}^{2}$. Now set $x=b_{1}^{2} / a_{1}^{2}$. The argument in the proof of the special case also gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin \angle C B_{1} G & =\frac{2\left[B_{1} C G\right]}{B_{1} C \cdot B_{1} G}=\frac{b_{1} \sin \gamma_{1}}{a_{1} \sqrt{3}} \\
& =\frac{b_{1}}{a_{1} \sqrt{3}} \sqrt{1-\left(\frac{a_{1}^{2}+b_{1}^{2}}{4 a_{1} b_{1}}\right)^{2}}=\frac{1}{4 \sqrt{3}} \sqrt{14 x-x^{2}-1}=f(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $x<1 / 7$, it follows that $f(x)<f(1 / 7)=1 / 7$. Therefore

$$
\sin \angle C A G+\sin \angle C B G<1+\sin \angle C B_{1} G<1+\frac{1}{7}<\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} .
$$

### 4.6 Isoperimetric Problems

2.1.5 The solution follows from Heron's formula for the area $F$ of a triangle with sides $a, b, c$, which can be written as

$$
F^{2}=s(s-c)\left[c^{2}-(a-b)^{2}\right]
$$

where $s$ is the semiperimeter of the triangle.
2.1.6 This follows immediately from the previous problem.
2.1.7 The area of a parallelogram with sides $a$ and $b$ and angle $\alpha$ between them is given by $S=a b \sin \alpha$. Hence $S \leq a b \leq\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2}$, where equality holds if $a=b$ and $\alpha=90^{\circ}$, i.e., when the parallelogram is a square.

### 2.1.8 Hint. Use Problem 2.1.6.

2.1.9 It is easily seen that we may consider only convex quadrilaterals of area 1 . Let $A B C D$ be such a quadrilateral and $A B$ its longest side. Denote by $D^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$ the reflections of $D$ and $C$ in the line $A B$ (Fig. 152).


Figure 152.

Then the area of the hexagon $A D^{\prime} C^{\prime} B C D$ is equal to 2 , and by the isoperimetric theorem for hexagons it follows that

$$
B C+C D+D A=\frac{1}{2}\left(A D^{\prime}+D^{\prime} C^{\prime}+C^{\prime} B+B C+C D+D A\right) \geq 2 \sqrt[4]{3}
$$

Hence the minimum of the sum $B C+C D+D A$ is attained only for trapezoids $A B C D$ such that $B C=C D=D A=\frac{2}{3} \sqrt[4]{3}$ and $A B=\frac{4}{3} \sqrt[4]{3}$.
2.1.10 Hint. Use the idea of the solution of the previous problem and Problem 2.1.3.
2.1.11 Denote by $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ the successive sides of $M$, so that $a_{1}$ is the shortest and $a_{p}$ (for some $p>1$ ) the longest. We now construct a new $n$-gon $M^{\prime}$ as follows. We leave the sides $a_{p}, a_{p+1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ unchanged. Then starting at the "free" end of $a_{p}$ we construct consecutively chords of lengths $a_{1}, a_{p-1}, \ldots, a_{2}$ (Figs. 153, 154).


Figure 153.


Figure 154.

The resulting $n$-gon $M^{\prime}$ has the same sides and the same area as $M$, and its shortest and longest sides are next to each other. Moreover, we have $a_{1} \leq s \leq a_{p}$, where each equality holds only when $M$ is a regular $n$-gon. Thus, we may assume that $a_{1}<s<a_{n}$. Consider the arc $L$ determined by the chords $a_{1}$ and $a_{p}$. Using the notation from Fig. 155, where $C^{\prime}$ and $D$ are points on $L$ such that $A C^{\prime}=B C$ and $B D=s$, we have that $D$ is on the $\operatorname{arc} C^{\prime} C$.


Figure 155.
Therefore the distance from $D$ to $A B$ is greater than the distance from $C$ to $A B$, i.e., $[A B C]<[A B D]$.

Let $M^{\prime \prime}$ be the $n$-gon obtained from $M^{\prime}$ by replacing the vertex $C$ by $D$. Then $M^{\prime \prime}$ has the desired property.
2.1.12 To solve the problem one has to repeat the construction used in the solution of the previous problem at most $n-1$ times.
2.1.13 Let $A B C D$ be a quadrilateral with vertices on the given four circles and let $O$ be the center of the square. Suppose that the quadrilateral $A B C D$ is not convex, say $\angle A B C>180^{\circ}$. Then the point $B$ and the center $O_{b}$ of the circle containing $B$ lie on different sides of the line $A C$. Denote by $B^{\prime}$ the intersection point of the perpendicular to $A C$ through $B$ with the circle with center $O_{b}$. Then $A B^{\prime}>A B$, $C B^{\prime}>C B$, and therefore the perimeter of $A B^{\prime} C D$ is not less than the perimeter of $A B C D$. Hence we may assume that $A B C D$ is a convex quadrilateral.

Let $k$ be the circle with center $O$ such that the given four circles are internally tangent to it. Denote by $A_{1}, B_{1}, C_{1}$, and $D_{1}$ the intersection points of $k$ with the rays $O A, O B, O C$, and $O D$, respectively. Since quadrilateral $A B C D$ is convex and lies in $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$, it follows that its perimeter is not larger than that of $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$. On the other hand, it follows from Problem 2.1.12 that the perimeter of $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$ is not larger than the perimeter of a square inscribed in $k$. Hence the desired quadrilateral has vertices at the tangent points of $k$ with the given four circles (Fig. 156).


Figure 156.
2.1.14 Set $M A_{k}=x_{k}, A_{k} A_{k+1}=a_{k}$ and $\angle M A_{k} A_{k+1}=\alpha_{k}$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, n$ $\left(A_{n+1}=A_{1}\right)$. Let $S$ be the area of $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$. Then

$$
2 S=\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \sin \alpha_{k}
$$

By the law of cosines for $\triangle M A_{k} A_{k+1}$ we get

$$
x_{k+1}^{2}=x_{k}^{2}+a_{k}^{2}-2 x_{k} a_{k} \cos \alpha_{k}
$$

Summing up these equalities for $k=1,2, \ldots, n$ gives

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k}^{2}=2 \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \cos \alpha_{k} .
$$

On the other hand, the root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality together with the isoperimetric theorem for $n$-gons gives

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k}^{2} \geq \frac{1}{n}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k}\right)^{2} \geq 4 S \tan \frac{\pi}{n}
$$

Hence

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \cos \alpha_{k} \geq \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \tan \frac{\pi}{n} \sin \alpha_{k}
$$

which can be written as

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \frac{\cos \left(\alpha_{k}+\frac{\pi}{n}\right)}{\cos \frac{\pi}{n}} \geq 0
$$

Suppose that $\alpha_{k}>\frac{\pi(n-2)}{2 n}$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, n$. Then $\frac{3 \pi}{2}>\alpha_{k}+\frac{\pi}{n}>\frac{\pi}{2}$ and therefore $\cos \left(\alpha_{k}+\frac{\pi}{n}\right)<0$ for $k=1,2, \ldots, n$. Thus

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} x_{k} \frac{\cos \left(\alpha_{k}+\frac{\pi}{n}\right)}{\cos \frac{\pi}{n}}<0,
$$

a contradiction. Hence for at least one $k$ we have that $\alpha_{k} \leq \frac{\pi(n-2)}{2 n}$.
2.1.15 Assume the contrary. Then the total area of the given three triangles is equal to 3. Consider the ends of the radii through the vertices of these triangles (Fig. 157).


Figure 157.
They form a polygon with at most 9 vertices. By Problem 2.1.12 it follows that its area is not larger than the area of a regular 9-gon inscribed in the unit circle. Hence the total area of the three triangles is less than the area of a regular 12-gon inscribed in the unit circle, which is just 3 , a contradiction.

Note that the solution also follows by the fact that if a triangle of area 1 lies in a unit circle with center $O$, then $O$ lies in its interior or on its boundary. We leave this as an exercise to the reader.
2.1.16 Hint. First show that it is enough to consider convex $n$-gons. Then, using appropriate symmetries, show that the shortest and longest sides of the $n$-gon can be assumed next to each other. One can then use the method from the solution of Problem 2.1.11.
2.1.17 Consider the position of the rope for which it forms an arc of a circle, while the stick is the corresponding chord in the circle (Fig. 158).


Figure 158.


Figure 159.

Add to the sector of the disk bounded by the rope and the stick the remaining sector of the disk (the one marked in Fig. 159). It now follows from the isoperimetric theorem that in this position the rope and the stick bound a region of maximum possible area (Fig. 158).
2.1.18 Consider an arbitrary figure cut off from the given angle. Using $2 n-1$ consecutive symmetries with respect to lines, one gets a region in the plane bounded by a closed curve of length $2 n \ell$ (Fig. 160).


Figure 160.
The isoperimetric theorem now yields that the initial curve must be an arc of a circle with center at the vertex of the angle.
2.1.19 Let $\alpha$ be the angle between the planes of the base and a lateral face. It is easy to see that $V=\frac{S^{3 / 2}}{\sqrt[3]{n \tan \left(\frac{1800^{\circ}}{n}\right)}} f(\alpha)$, where $f(\alpha)=\frac{\sqrt{\cos \alpha(1-\cos \alpha)}}{1+\cos \alpha}$. Set $t=\cos \alpha$. We have to find the maximum of the function $g(t)=\frac{\sqrt{t(1-t)}}{1+t}$ for $t \in(0,1)$. Since
$g^{\prime}(t)=\frac{1-3 t}{2\left(1+t^{2}\right) \sqrt{t(1-t)}}$, it is easy to observe that $g(t)$ achieves its maximum on the interval $(0,1)$ at $t=\frac{1}{3}$, i.e., the maximum value of $f(\alpha)$ is achieved when $\cos \alpha=\frac{1}{3}$. The maximal volume is equal to $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{12} \cdot \frac{S^{3 / 2}}{\sqrt{n \tan \left(\frac{180^{\circ}}{n}\right)}}$.
2.1.20 Of all parallelograms with sides of given lengths, the rectangle has largest area. It is also clear that of all parallelepipeds with edges of given lengths the right rectangular parallelepiped has maximal volume. Then the arithmetic meangeometric mean inequality implies $V^{3}=(a b c)^{3} \leq\left(\frac{a+b+c}{3}\right)^{3}$, where equality holds when $a=b=c$. Hence the cube has maximum volume among the parallelepipeds with a given sum of the edges.

### 2.1.21

(a) Clearly $[A B C] \leq \frac{1}{2} A B \cdot C M,[A B D] \leq \frac{1}{2} A B \cdot D M,[C D A] \leq \frac{1}{2} C D \cdot A K$, $[C D B] \leq \frac{1}{2} C D \cdot B K$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & =[A B C]+[A B D]+[C D A]+[C D B] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} A B(C M+D M)+\frac{1}{2} C D(A K+B K) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $M K$ is a median in $\triangle A K B$ and $\triangle C M D$, one gets

$$
4 M K^{2}=2\left(A K^{2}+B K^{2}\right)-A B^{2}=2\left(C M^{2}+D M^{2}\right)-C D^{2}
$$

This implies

$$
A K^{2}+B K^{2}=\frac{4 c^{2}+a^{2}}{2}, \quad C M^{2}+D M^{2}=\frac{4 c^{2}+b^{2}}{2}
$$

Now the root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{C M+D M}{2} \leq \sqrt{\frac{C M^{2}+D M^{2}}{2}}=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{4 c^{2}+b^{2}} \\
& \frac{A K+B K}{2} \leq \sqrt{\frac{A K^{2}+B K^{2}}{2}}=\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{4 c^{2}+a^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using these yields $S \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(a \sqrt{4 c^{2}+b^{2}}+b \sqrt{4 c^{2}+a^{2}}\right)$. Equality holds if $A B \perp$ $M K, C D \perp M K$, and $A B \perp C D$, in which case $S$ is a maximum.
(b) For the volume $V$ of $A B C D$ we have $V \leq \frac{1}{3}[A B K] \cdot C D$. On the other hand, $[A B K] \leq \frac{1}{2} A B \cdot M K$. These inequalities imply $V \leq \frac{a b c}{6}$, where equality holds when $A B \perp C D, A B \perp M K$, and $C D \perp M K$. In this case the volume $V$ of $A B C D$ is a maximum.
2.1.22 Let $\alpha$ be the plane through $B$ that is perpendicular to $A B$. The projection of $\triangle A C D$ onto $\alpha$ is $\triangle B E F$ (Fig. 161).


Figure 161.
Then the volume $V$ of the tetrahedron $A B C D$ is equal to $\frac{1}{3} A B \cdot[B E F]$. This follows from the fact that the volumes of tetrahedra $A B C D$ and $A B E F$ are equal to the volume of the tetrahedron $A B C F$. Hence $V$ is a maximum when the area of $\triangle B E F$ is a maximum. Since of all triangles with a given perimeter the equilateral triangle has a maximum area (Problem 1.2.1), it is enough to find out when the perimeter of $\triangle B E F$ is a maximum. To do so, "unfold" the planes FDCE and $C E B$ onto the plane $A B F D$ (Fig. 162).


Figure 162.
Then the perimeter of $\triangle B E F$ equals $B B_{1}$. The latter is a maximum when the segments $A D, C D$, and $C B_{1}$ form the same angle $\gamma$ with the side $A B$ such that

$$
\cos \gamma=\frac{A B}{A D+D C+C B}
$$

In this case the perimeter of $\triangle B E F$ is a constant and therefore it has a maximum area when $B E=B F=E F$. Hence the tetrahedron $A B C D$ has a maximum volume when $A D=C D=C B$, and these three edges make equal angles with $A B$.
2.1.23 It follows from the previous problem that when $A B=h$ is fixed, the maximum volume of the tetrahedron $A B C D$ is equal to

$$
V=\frac{p}{9 \sqrt{3}} h(p-h)
$$

where $p$ is the perimeter of the quadrilateral $A B C D$. Since $h(p-h) \leq\left(\frac{h+p-h}{2}\right)^{2}=$ $\frac{p^{2}}{4}$, it follows that $V \leq \frac{p^{3}}{36 \sqrt{3}}$, where equality holds when $h=\frac{p}{2}$. In this case the skew quadrilateral $A B C D$ has sides of equal lengths and equal angles between any two adjoining sides. Denoting these angles by $\gamma$, we have by Problem 2.1.22 that $\cos \gamma=\frac{1}{3}$.

### 4.7 Extremal Points in Triangle and Tetrahedron

2.2.5 The statement follows immediately from Problem 1.1.3.
2.2.6 Let $A_{0}, B_{0}$, and $C_{0}$ be the feet of the perpendiculars from $X$ to $B C, C A$, and $A B$, respectively. Then

$$
M X \cdot N X=\frac{X B_{0}}{\sin A} \cdot \frac{X A_{0}}{\sin B}=\frac{2\left[X A_{0} B_{0}\right]}{\sin A \sin B \sin C}
$$

Similarly

$$
P X \cdot Q X=\frac{2\left[X B_{0} C_{0}\right]}{\sin A \sin B \sin C}
$$

and

$$
R X \cdot S X=\frac{2\left[X C_{0} A_{0}\right]}{\sin A \sin B \sin C}
$$

Hence

$$
M X \cdot N X+P X \cdot Q X+R X \cdot S X=\frac{2\left[A_{0} B_{0} C_{0}\right]}{\sin A \sin B \sin C}
$$

Now using Problem 2.2.2 we conclude that the given sum is a maximum when $X$ is the circumcenter of $\triangle A B C$.

### 2.2.7

(a) Let $A A_{1}$ and $M M_{1}$ be the altitudes of triangles $A B C$ and $M B C$, respectively. Then

$$
[A M B]+[A M C]=[A B C]-[B M C]=\frac{\left(A A_{1}-M M_{1}\right) B C}{2} \leq \frac{A M \cdot B C}{2}
$$

with equality only if $A M \perp B C$. Similarly,

$$
[A M B]+[B M C] \leq \frac{B M \cdot A C}{2}
$$

and

$$
[B M C]+[A M C] \leq \frac{C M \cdot A B}{2}
$$

Adding the above inequalities gives

$$
A M \cdot B C+B M \cdot A C+C M \cdot A B \geq 4[A B C] .
$$

Thus, the minimum of the given sum is $4[A B C]$, and it is attained only if $M$ is the orthocenter of $\triangle A B C$.
(b) Let $E$ and $F$ be points such that $B C M E$ and $B C A F$ are both parallelograms (Fig. 163). Then $E M A F$ is also a parallelogram.


Figure 163.
Hence

$$
A F=E M=B C, E F=A M, E B=C M, B F=A C .
$$

Applying Ptolemy's inequality (Problem 3.2.6) to quadrilaterals $A B E F$ and $A E B M$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
A B \cdot A M+B C \cdot C M & =A B \cdot E F+A F \cdot B E \geq A E \cdot B F=A E \cdot A C \\
B M \cdot A E+A M \cdot C M & =B M \cdot A E+A M \cdot B E \geq A B \cdot E M=A B \cdot B C .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M A \cdot M B \cdot A B+M B \cdot M C \cdot B C+M C \cdot M A \cdot C A \\
& \quad=M B(M A \cdot A B+M C \cdot B C)+M C \cdot M A \cdot C A \\
& \quad \geq M B \cdot A E \cdot A C+M C \cdot M A \cdot C A \\
& \quad=A C(M B \cdot A E+M C \cdot M A) \geq A C \cdot A B \cdot B C .
\end{aligned}
$$

Equality holds if and only if both $A B E F$ and $A E B M$ are cyclic, which implies that $A F E M$ is cyclic. Since $A F E M$ is a parallelogram it follows that $A M \perp E M$, i.e., $A M \perp B C$. Since $A E B M$ is cyclic, $\angle A B E=\angle A M E$, which implies $B E \perp A B$, i.e., $C M \perp A B$. Thus $M$ is the orthocenter of $\triangle A B C$.

Remark. The inequality

$$
M A \cdot M B \cdot A B+M B \cdot M C \cdot B C+M C \cdot M A \cdot C A \geq A B \cdot B C \cdot C A
$$

can be proved also by using complex numbers. Indeed, let $M$ be the origin of the complex plane and let the complex coordinates of $A, B, C$ be $u, v, w$, respectively. Then the given inequality can be written as

$$
|u v(u-v)|+|v w(v-w)|+|w u(w-u)| \geq|(u-v)(v-w)(w-u)| .
$$

But it is easily checked that

$$
u v(u-v)+v w(v-w)+w u(w-u)=-(u-v)(v-w)(w-u)
$$

and the inequality above follows by the triangle inequality.
2.2.8 Set $A B=c, B C=a, C A=b$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 \leq & (a \overrightarrow{M A}+b \overrightarrow{M B}+c \overrightarrow{M C})^{2}=a^{2} M A^{2}+b^{2} M B^{2}+c^{2} M C^{2}+ \\
& +2 a b(\overrightarrow{M A}, \overrightarrow{M B})+2 b c(\overrightarrow{M B}, \overrightarrow{M C})+2 c a(\overrightarrow{M C}, \overrightarrow{M A}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

From the law of cosines it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2(\overrightarrow{M A}, \overrightarrow{M B})=M A^{2}+M B^{2}-c^{2}, \\
& 2(\overrightarrow{M B}, \overrightarrow{M C})=M B^{2}+M C^{2}-a^{2}, \\
& 2(\overrightarrow{M C}, \overrightarrow{M A})=M C^{2}+M A^{2}-b^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Plugging these in the above inequality gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(a^{2}+a b+a c\right) M A^{2}+\left(b^{2}+b a+b c\right) & M B^{2}+\left(c^{2}+c a+c b\right) M C^{2} \\
& -a b c^{2}-b c a^{2}-c a b^{2} \geq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
a M A^{2}+b M B^{2}+c M C^{2} \geq a b c
$$

Equality occurs if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
a \overrightarrow{M A}+b \overrightarrow{M B}+c \overrightarrow{M C}=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, we have to find the points $M$ satisfying (1). Note that the lines $A M$ and $B C$ are not parallel, since otherwise the vectors $\overrightarrow{M A}$ and $b \overrightarrow{M B}+c \overrightarrow{M C}$ are not collinear. Denote by $A_{1}$ the intersection point of $A M$ and $B C$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =a \overrightarrow{M A}+b\left(\overrightarrow{M A_{1}}+\overrightarrow{A_{1} B}\right)+c\left(\overrightarrow{M A_{1}}+\overrightarrow{A_{1} C}\right) \\
& =\left(a \overrightarrow{M A}+(b+c) \overrightarrow{M A_{1}}\right)+\left(b \overrightarrow{A_{1} B}+c \overrightarrow{A_{1} C}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The first vector on the right-hand side is collinear to $\overrightarrow{A M}$, whereas the second one is collinear to $\overrightarrow{B C}$. Hence each of them is 0 . This implies

$$
\frac{A_{1} B}{A_{1} C}=\frac{c}{b}=\frac{A B}{A C}
$$

i.e., $A A_{1}$ is the angle bisector of $\angle B A C$.

Applying the same reasoning to $B M$ and $C M$, we conclude that the only point $M$ satisfying (1) is the incenter of triangle $A B C$.

Remark. Using the same reasoning as above one can solve the following more general problem: Given a triangle ABC and real numbers $p, q, r$ such that $p+$ $q+r>0$, find the points $M$ in the plane such that

$$
p M A^{2}+q M B^{2}+r M C^{2}
$$

is a minimum.
Note that the desired minimum is equal to $\frac{q r a^{2}+p r b^{2}+p q c^{2}}{p+q+r}$ and it is attained at the point $M$ such that

$$
\overrightarrow{A M}=\frac{q}{p+q+r} \overrightarrow{A B}+\frac{r}{p+q+r} \overrightarrow{A C}
$$

2.2.9 Let $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ be the angles $A, B, C$, respectively. Set $\alpha_{1}=\angle M A B$ and $\alpha_{2}=$ $\angle M A C$. We have

$$
\frac{M B^{\prime} \cdot M C^{\prime}}{M A^{2}}=\sin \alpha_{1} \sin \alpha_{2} .
$$

Observe that

$$
\sin \alpha_{1} \sin \alpha_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\cos \left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{2}\right)-\cos \left(\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}\right)\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}(1-\cos \alpha)=\sin ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2} .
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{M B^{\prime} \cdot M C^{\prime}}{M A^{2}} \leq \sin ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}
$$

Likewise,

$$
\frac{M A^{\prime} \cdot M C^{\prime}}{M B^{2}} \leq \sin ^{2} \frac{\beta}{2} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{M B^{\prime} \cdot M A^{\prime}}{M C^{2}} \leq \sin ^{2} \frac{\gamma}{2}
$$

Therefore

$$
\frac{M A^{\prime} \cdot M B^{\prime} \cdot M C^{\prime}}{M A \cdot M B \cdot M C} \leq \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \sin \frac{\beta}{2} \sin \frac{\gamma}{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $M$ is the incenter of triangle $A B C$.
2.2.10 One has to consider two cases.

Case 1. All angles of $\triangle A B C$ are less than or equal to $90^{\circ}$. We will show that $m(X)$ is maximal when $X$ coincides with the circumcenter $O$ of $\triangle A B C$.
Let $O_{1}, O_{2}$, and $O_{3}$ be the midpoints of the sides $B C, A C$, and $A B$, respectively. For any point $X \neq O$ in the quadrilateral $\mathrm{AO}_{3} \mathrm{OO}_{2}$ we have $m(X)=A X<A O=R=m(O)$ (Fig. 164).


Figure 164.
In the same way we see that $m(X)<m(O)$ when $X \neq O$ lies in the quadrilateral $\mathrm{BO}_{1} \mathrm{OO}_{3}$ or $\mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{OO}_{1}$.

Case 2. Triangle $A B C$ has an obtuse angle. Assume, for example, that $\gamma>90^{\circ}$. We may also assume that $\alpha \leq \beta$. Denote by $D$ and $E$ the midpoints of the sides $B C$ and $C A$, and by $F$ and $G$ the intersection points of the perpendicular bisectors of the sides $B C$ and $C A$ with $A B$ (Fig. 165).
Then $A G=G C=x$ and $B F=C F=y$. Since $x=\frac{b}{2 \cos \alpha}, y=\frac{a}{2 \cos \beta}$, the law of sines for $\triangle A B C$ gives

$$
\frac{x}{y}=\frac{b \cos \beta}{a \cos \alpha}=\frac{\sin \beta}{\sin \alpha} \cdot \frac{\cos \beta}{\cos \alpha}=\frac{\sin 2 \beta}{\sin 2 \alpha} \geq 1
$$



Figure 165.
where equality holds only when $\alpha=\beta$. Next, $\alpha+\beta<90^{\circ}<\gamma$ implies $\angle A C F=\gamma-\beta>\alpha$, so in $\triangle A F C$ we have $A F>F C=y$.
Let $H$ be the foot of the altitude through $C$. If $X$ is in $\triangle A H C$, then it lies either inside the circle with diameter $C G$ (the circumcircle of the quadrilateral $C E G H$ ) or inside the circle with diameter $A G$. In both cases $m(X) \leq x=A G=C G$, where equality holds when $X=G$. Similarly, if $X$ lies in $\triangle B C H$ we have $m(X) \leq y$ with equality only when $X=F$.
Hence, if $\alpha<\beta$, then $x>y$, and $m(X)$ is a maximum precisely when $X=G$. If $\alpha=\beta, m(X)$ attains its maximum when $X=G$ or $X=F$.


Figure 166.
2.2.11 We use the notation in Fig. 166. We have $\angle B C M=180^{\circ}-\varphi-\gamma$, so $\angle B M C=\gamma$. Similarly, $\angle C N A=\alpha$ and $\angle A P B=\beta$. This means that the point $M$ lies on an arc of a circle $k_{1}$ (the locus of the points $X$ such that $\angle B X C=\gamma$ ), $N$ on an arc of a circle $k_{2}$, and $P$ on an arc of a circle $k_{3}$. It is easy to see that $k_{1}, k_{2}$, and $k_{3}$ intersect at point $J$; this is the so-called Brokard's point for $\triangle A B C$. Since all triangles $M N P$ satisfying the assumptions of the problem are similar to
$\triangle C A B$, the one for which $M P$ is a maximum will have maximal area. It is clear that $M P$ is a maximum when $M P \perp J B$.

Construct $M P \perp B J$ such that $M \in k_{1}$ and $P \in k_{3}$. Let $N$ be the intersection point of the line $M C$ with $k_{2}$; then $A$ lies on the segment $N P$ and $\triangle M N P$ has the desired properties. The value of the angle $\varphi$ in this case will be denoted by $\varphi_{0}$, and $\omega=90^{\circ}-\varphi_{0}$ is called Brokard's angle for $\triangle A B C$.

We will now show that $\tan \varphi_{0}=\cot \alpha+\cot \beta+\cot \gamma$. First, notice that $\angle J A B=$ $\angle J B C=\angle J C A=\omega$. Denote by $Q$ the intersection point of the line $C J$ and $k_{3}$ (Fig. 166). Then

$$
\angle Q B A=\angle Q J A=\angle A C J+\angle J A C=\omega+(\alpha-\omega)=\alpha .
$$

In particular, $B Q \| A C$.
In a similar way one obtains $\angle Q A B=\beta$. Let $Q^{\prime}$ and $B^{\prime}$ be the projections of $Q$ and $B$, respectively, on the line $A C$. Then $Q Q^{\prime}=B B^{\prime}$ and

$$
\tan \varphi_{0}=\cot \omega=\frac{C Q^{\prime}}{Q Q^{\prime}}=\frac{C B^{\prime}}{B B^{\prime}}+\frac{A B^{\prime}}{B B^{\prime}}+\frac{A Q^{\prime}}{Q Q^{\prime}}=\cot \gamma+\cot \alpha+\cot \beta
$$

This equality determines the angle $\varphi_{0}$ uniquely.
Remark. There is another Brokard's point $J^{\prime}$, which is determined by $\angle J^{\prime} A C=$ $\angle J^{\prime} C B=\angle J^{\prime} B A$.
2.2.12 We will use the notation from Problem 2.2.13. In the present case $S_{1}=$ $S_{2}=S_{3}=S_{4}=S$. Notice that

$$
x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}+x_{4}=h
$$

where $h$ is the length of the altitude in $A B C D$.
Let $O$ be the center of $A B C D$ and $O_{1}, O_{2}, O_{3}$, and $O_{4}$ the centers of the corresponding faces of the tetrahedron. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Vol}\left(O O_{1} O_{2} O_{3}\right) & =\operatorname{Vol}\left(O O_{2} O_{3} O_{4}\right) \\
& =\operatorname{Vol}\left(O O_{1} O_{3} O_{4}\right)=\operatorname{Vol}\left(O O_{1} O_{2} O_{4}\right)=\frac{1}{4} V
\end{aligned}
$$

where $V=\operatorname{Vol}\left(O_{1} O_{2} O_{3} O_{4}\right)$. For any point $X$ in $A B C D$ we have

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}\right)}{\frac{1}{4} V}=\frac{\operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}\right)}{\operatorname{Vol}\left(O O_{1} O_{2} O_{3}\right)}=\frac{x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}}{r \cdot r \cdot r},
$$

where $r=\frac{h}{4}=O O_{1}=O O_{2}=O O_{3}=O O_{4}$. Hence

$$
\operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}\right)=\frac{16 V}{h^{3}} x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}
$$

One obtains similar expressions for $\operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{2} X_{3} X_{4}\right), \operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{1} X_{3} X_{4}\right)$, and $\operatorname{Vol}\left(X X_{1} X_{2} X_{4}\right)$. Summing these, it follows that

$$
\operatorname{Vol}\left(X_{1} X_{2} X_{3} X_{4}\right)=\frac{16 V}{h^{3}}\left[x_{1} x_{2} x_{3}+x_{2} x_{3} x_{4}+x_{1} x_{3} x_{4}+x_{1} x_{2} x_{4}\right]
$$

Set $a=x_{1}+x_{2}$ and $b=x_{3}+x_{4}$. Then $a+b=h$, and therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Vol}\left(X_{1} X_{2} X_{3} X_{4}\right) \\
& \quad=\frac{16 V}{h^{3}}\left[x_{1} x_{2} b+a x_{3} x_{4}\right] \leq \frac{16 V}{h^{3}}\left[\left(\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}}{2}\right)^{2} b+a\left(\frac{x_{3}+x_{4}}{2}\right)^{2}\right] \\
& \quad=\frac{16 V}{h^{3}} \cdot \frac{a^{2} b+a b^{2}}{4}=\frac{4 V}{h^{2}} a b \leq \frac{4 V}{h^{2}}\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2}=V
\end{aligned}
$$

Equality holds when $x_{1}=x_{2}, x_{3}=x_{4}$, and $a=b$, i.e., when $X=O$. Thus the required point $X$ is the center of $A B C D$.

### 2.2.13

(a) Let $X$ lie on $C D$ and $\frac{x_{3}}{S_{3}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}}$. Then

$$
\frac{\operatorname{Vol}(A B D X)}{\operatorname{Vol}(A B C X)}=\frac{x_{3} S_{3}}{x_{4} S_{4}}=\frac{S_{3}^{2}}{S_{4}^{2}} .
$$

Let $u$ and $v$ be the distances from $D$ and $C$, respectively, to the plane $A B X$. Then $\frac{D X}{X C}=\frac{u}{v}$ (Fig. 167).


Figure 167.
On the other hand,

$$
\frac{S_{3}^{2}}{S_{4}^{2}}=\frac{V_{A B D X}}{V_{A B C X}}=\frac{u \cdot[A B X]}{v \cdot[A B X]}=\frac{u}{v},
$$

so $\frac{D X}{X C}=\frac{S_{3}^{2}}{S_{4}^{2}}$. Clearly there exists a unique point $M$ on $C D$ with $\frac{D M}{M C}=\frac{S_{3}^{2}}{S_{4}^{2}}$. It follows from the above arguments that if $X$ lies in the plane $A B M$, then $\frac{x_{3}}{S_{3}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}}$, and conversely, if the latter is true, then $X$ lies in the plane $A B M$. In the same way one constructs points $N \in A D$ and $P \in B D$ such that the set of points $X$ with $\frac{x_{1}}{S_{1}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}}$ coincides with the plane $B C N$, while the set of points $X$ with $\frac{x_{2}}{S_{2}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}}$ coincides with the plane $A C P$. It is now easy to see that the planes $A B M, B C N$, and $A C P$ have a common point $X$, and it satisfies

$$
\frac{x_{1}}{S_{1}}=\frac{x_{2}}{S_{2}}=\frac{x_{3}}{S_{3}}=\frac{x_{4}}{S_{4}} .
$$

Conversely, if the latter equalities hold, then $X$ coincides with the intersection point of the planes $A B M, B C N$, and $A C P$.
(b) Hint. Use the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality as in the solution of Problem 1.2.5.
(c) Let $L_{1}, L_{2}, L_{3}$, and $L_{4}$ be the orthogonal projections of $L$ onto the corresponding faces of the tetrahedron and let $X$ be the centroid of $L_{1} L_{2} L_{3} L_{4}$. Then Leibniz's formula gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L L_{1}^{2}+L L_{2}^{2}+L L_{3}^{2}+L L_{4}^{2} \\
& \quad=4 L X^{2}+X L_{1}^{2}+X L_{2}^{2}+X L_{3}^{2}+X L_{4}^{2} \\
& \quad \geq x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2} \geq L L_{1}^{2}+L L_{2}^{2}+L L_{3}^{2}+L L_{4}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

which shows that $X=L$.
2.2.14 Let $X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}$, and $X_{4}$ be arbitrary points on the faces $B C D, A C D, A B D$, and $A B C$, respectively, of the given tetrahedron $A B C D$. Denote by $t$ the sum of squares of the edges of tetrahedron $X_{1} X_{2} X_{3} X_{4}$, and by $X$ the centroid of this tetrahedron. It follows from Leibniz's formula for $\triangle X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}$ that

$$
X X_{1}^{2}+X X_{2}^{2}+X X_{3}^{2}=3 X_{4}^{\prime} X^{2}+X_{4}^{\prime} X_{1}^{2}+X_{4}^{\prime} X_{2}^{2}+X_{4}^{\prime} X_{3}^{2}
$$

where $X_{4}^{\prime}$ is the centroid of $\triangle X_{1} X_{2} X_{3}$. Since $X X_{4}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{3} X X_{4}$ and

$$
X_{4}^{\prime} X_{1}^{2}+X_{4}^{\prime} X_{2}^{2}+X_{4}^{\prime} X_{3}^{2}=\frac{1}{3}\left(X_{1} X_{2}^{2}+X_{2} X_{3}^{2}+X_{3} X_{1}^{2}\right)
$$

the first equality gives

$$
3\left(X X_{1}^{2}+X X_{2}^{2}+X X_{3}^{2}\right)=X X_{4}^{2}+X_{1} X_{2}^{2}+X_{2} X_{3}^{2}+X_{3} X_{1}^{2} .
$$

One gets similar equalities for each of the triangles $X_{2} X_{3} X_{4}, X_{1} X_{3} X_{4}$, and $X_{1} X_{2} X_{4}$. Summing these yields

$$
t=4\left(X X_{1}^{2}+X X_{2}^{2}+X X_{3}^{2}+X X_{4}^{2}\right)
$$

Since $X X_{i} \geq x_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 4$, the above together with Problem 2.2.13 implies

$$
t \geq 4\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+x_{3}^{2}+x_{4}^{2}\right) \geq 4\left(L L_{1}^{2}+L L_{2}^{2}+L L_{3}^{2}+L L_{4}^{2}\right)
$$

where $L$ is Lemoine's point of $A B C D$. Equality holds only when $X=L$.
2.2.15 We may assume that the edge length of the regular tetrahedron $A B C D$ is 1 . Then its vertices are four of the vertices of a cube of edge length $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2}$; the edges of the tetrahedron are the diagonals of six faces of the cube (Fig. 168).


Figure 168.
The distance from a point $X$ inside $A B C D$ to the diagonal of a face is not less than the distance from $X$ to the face. Hence the desired minimum is equal to $\frac{3 \sqrt{2}}{2}$. It is easy to see that it is attained only if $X$ is the center of $A B C D$.

### 4.8 Malfatti's Problems

2.3.6 It is easy to observe that the Malfatti circles of an equilateral triangle of side length 1 have equal radii $r_{1}=r_{2}=r_{3}=\frac{\sqrt{3}-1}{4}$.

The sum of their areas is $\frac{3 \pi}{8}(2-\sqrt{3})$. The incircle and the two small circles tangent to it and to two sides of the triangle (Fig. 169) have radii $\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}}$, and $\frac{1}{6 \sqrt{3}}$, respectively. So, the sum of their areas is equal to $\frac{11 \pi}{108}$, and one checks that $\frac{11 \pi}{108}>\frac{3 \pi}{8}(2-\sqrt{3})$.
2.3.7 As in Problem 2.3.1, one derives that it is enough to consider the case that the radii $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ of the two circles satisfy the conditions $r_{1}+r_{2}=2-\sqrt{2}$ and $0 \leq r_{1}, r_{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}$.


Figure 169.
(a) The arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality implies

$$
r_{1} r_{2} \leq\left(\frac{r_{1}+r_{2}}{2}\right)^{2} \leq\left(1-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2}
$$

i.e., $r_{1} r_{2}$ is a maximum when $r_{1}=r_{2}=\frac{2-\sqrt{2}}{2}$.
(b) We have

$$
r_{1}^{3}+r_{2}^{3}=\frac{r_{1}+r_{2}}{2}\left[3\left(r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}\right)-\left(r_{1}+r_{2}\right)^{2}\right]
$$

Since $r_{1}+r_{2}=2-\sqrt{2}$, it follows that $r_{1}^{3}+r_{2}^{3}$ is a maximum when $r_{1}^{2}+r_{2}^{2}$ is a maximum, and the solution follows from Problem 2.3.1.
2.3.8 Hint. Reduce the problem to the case that the two circles are tangent and are inscribed in two angles of the triangle (Fig. 170).


Figure 170.
Then use the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality.
2.3.9 Denote by $a$ and $b, a \leq b$, the side lengths of the given rectangle. If $b \geq 2 a$, then one can put two circles of radius $\frac{a}{2}$ in the rectangle and the sum of their areas is a maximum (Fig. 171).

The interesting case is $a \leq b<2 a$. As in Problem 2.3.1, one derives that it is enough to consider a pair of circles tangent to each other and inscribed in two opposite corners of the rectangle (Fig. 172).


Figure 171.


Figure 172.

Let $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ be their radii. Then it is easy to show that $r_{1}+r_{2}=a+b-\sqrt{2 a b}$, and as in Problem 2.3.1 one finds that the sum of the areas of the two circles is a maximum when $r_{1}=\frac{a}{2}$ and $r_{2}=\frac{a}{2}+b-\sqrt{2 a b}$ (Fig. 173).


Figure 173.
2.3.10 It follows from Problem 2.3.3 that the required square has side length $3+$ $2 \sqrt{2}$.
2.3.11 Hint. Show that a square of side length $3+2 \sqrt{2}$ contains three nonintersecting circles of radii $1, \sqrt{2}$, and 2 . Then the previous problem implies that such a square gives the solution to the problem.
2.3.12 Answer. $11 \sqrt{3}$. Hint. Use Problem 2.3.4.
2.3.13 Hint. The solution is given by the incircle of the square and two circles inscribed in its angles and tangent to the incircle (Fig. 174).

To prove this proceed as in the solution of Problem 2.3.5 using Problem 2.3.3.
2.3.14 Assume that 5 nonintersecting unit circles are contained in a square of side $a$. Then $a \geq 2$ and the centers of the circles are contained in a square of side $a-2$ (Fig. 175). Divide the latter square into 4 smaller squares of side $\frac{a-2}{2}$ using


Figure 174.
two perpendicular lines through its center. Then at least two of the 5 centers lie in the same small square. If $O_{1}$ and $O_{2}$ are these centers, then $O_{1} O_{2} \leq \frac{a-2}{2} \sqrt{2}$. On the other hand, $O_{1} O_{2} \geq 2$, since the unit circles have no common interior points. Hence $\frac{a-2}{2} \sqrt{2} \geq O_{1} O_{2} \geq 2$, which gives $a \geq 2+2 \sqrt{2}$.


Figure 175.


Figure 176.

On the other hand, it is easy to see (Fig. 176) that a square of side length $2+2 \sqrt{2}$ contains 5 nonintersecting unit circles.

The answer is $2+2 \sqrt{2}$.
2.3.15 Hint. It is enough to consider the case that the two balls are inscribed in two opposite trihedral angles of the cube and are tangent to each other.
2.3.16. Hint. Use the argument from the solution of Problem 2.3.3.
2.3.17 Hint. Use the argument from the solution of Problem 2.3.14.

### 4.9 Extremal Combinatorial Geometry Problems

2.4.6 Assume that $\triangle A B C$ is cut into $n$ triangles satisfying the conditions of the problem (Fig. 177). Denote by $v$ the number of all vertices in the net obtained in this way (including $A, B$, and $C$ ), and by $k$ the number of segments issuing from one vertex. The sum of all angles in triangles from the net with vertices at a given
point $X$ is $360^{\circ}$ (if $X=A, B$, or $C$, we also include the exterior angles in the sum; the sum of the three exterior angles is $3 \cdot 360^{\circ}-180^{\circ}=900^{\circ}$ ). Thus, the sum of all angles in triangles of the net is $v \cdot 360-900^{\circ}$. On the other hand, the same sum is equal to $n \cdot 180^{\circ}$, so $n \cdot 180^{\circ}=v \cdot 360-900^{\circ}$, which implies $2 v=n+5$.


Figure 177.
The total number of segments in the net is $\frac{k v}{2}$, while the number of regions into which these segments divide the plane (counting the exterior of $\triangle A B C$ as well) is $n+1$. Thus, $3(n+1)=k v$, i.e., $n=\frac{k v}{3}-1$. This and $2 v=n+5$ imply

$$
n=\frac{k}{6}(n+5)-1=\frac{n k}{6}+\frac{5 k}{6}-1,
$$

i.e., $n=\frac{5 k-6}{6-k}$. It is now easy to see that the only possible values for $k$ are $2,3,4$, and 5 , and the corresponding values for $n$ are $1,3,7$, and 19 . Thus $n \leq 19$. The case $n=19$ is possible, as shown in Fig. 178.


Figure 178.
2.4.7 Using induction on $n$, it is not difficult to show that $n$ lines divide the plane into not more than $p(n)=\frac{n(n+1)}{2}+1$ parts, where exactly $p(n)$ parts are obtained when any two lines intersect and no three lines intersect at one point. Next, using induction again, one shows that $n$ planes divide the space into not more than $q(n)=$ $\frac{n^{3}+5 n+6}{6}$ parts, and one gets exactly $q(n)$ parts when any two of the planes intersect, no three of them have a common line, and no four of the planes have a common point. Since $q(12)=299<300<378=q(13)$, in order to cut the space into at
least 300 parts, one needs 13 planes. It is now easy to see that the same number of planes are necessary to cut a cube into at least 300 parts.
2.4.8 Let $A B C$ be an equilateral triangle of area 1. For the lengths $a$ and $h$ of its side and altitude we have $a=\frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{3}}$ and $h=\sqrt[4]{3}$. Assume that triangle $A B C$ is contained in a horizontal strip with width $d$. Let $\ell_{1}$ and $\ell_{2}$ be the boundary lines of the strip. We may assume that $B \in \ell_{1}$ and $C \in \ell_{2}$ (Fig. 179).


Figure 179.
Let $\varphi$ and $\psi$ be the angles between $B C$ and $\ell_{1}$ and $A C$ and $\ell_{2}$, respectively. Then $\varphi=60^{\circ}+\psi \geq 60^{\circ}$, so $d=C C^{\prime}=a \sin \varphi \geq a \sin 60^{\circ}=h$, where equality holds precisely when $d=h$ and $A \in \ell_{2}$. In other words, the minimal width of a strip containing triangle $A B C$ is $\sqrt[4]{3}$.

Next, assume that $T$ is an arbitrary triangle of area 1 . We will show that $T$ is contained in a horizontal strip of width $\sqrt[4]{3}$. Assume the contrary. Then the length of each altitude of $T$ is greater than $\sqrt[4]{3}$, so the length of each side of $T$ is less than $\frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{3}}$. Let $\alpha$ be the smallest angle of $T$. Then $\alpha \leq 60^{\circ}$ and

$$
[T]=\frac{b c}{2} \sin \alpha<\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt[4]{3}}\right)^{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}<1
$$

a contradiction.
2.4.9 Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be $n$ arbitrary points in the plane no three of which lie on a line. We will show that $\alpha \leq \frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$. There exist two points, say $A_{1} \neq A_{2}$, such that all the other points lie in one of the half-planes determined by the line $A_{1} A_{2}$. Choose a point $A_{3}$ of the given ones such that $\angle A_{1} A_{2} A_{3}$ is a maximum; then all the other points are contained in this angle. Moreover, $\angle A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} \geq \alpha(n-2)$, since the angle between any two successive rays $A_{2} A_{i}$ is not less than $\alpha$ (Fig. 180).

Then we choose a point $A_{4}$ such that $\angle A_{2} A_{3} A_{4}$ is a maximum, etc. Clearly we have $\angle A_{2} A_{3} A_{4} \geq \alpha(n-2), \angle A_{3} A_{4} A_{5} \geq \alpha(n-2)$, etc. Since the number of the given points is $n$, there exists a minimal number $m \leq n$ such that


Figure 180.
$A_{m+1} \in\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{m-1}\right\}$ (clearly $A_{m+1} \neq A_{m}$ ), that is, $\angle A_{m-1} A_{m} A$ is a maximum for $A=A_{i}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq m-1$. If $i \neq 1$, then $A_{1}$ lies in the angle $A_{m-1} A_{m} A_{i}$, a contradiction.

Thus, $i=1$ and any of the angles of the convex polygon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{m}$ is not less than $\alpha(n-2)$. Hence $180^{\circ}(m-2) \geq m \alpha(n-2)$. This implies

$$
\alpha \leq \frac{180^{\circ}(m-2)}{m(n-2)}=\frac{180^{\circ}}{n-2}\left(1-\frac{2}{m}\right) \leq \frac{180^{\circ}}{n-2}\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right)=\frac{180^{\circ}}{n} .
$$

It is easy to see that if $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are the vertices of a regular $n$-gon, then $\alpha=\frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$ (Fig. 181). Hence the largest possible value of $\alpha$ is $\frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$.


Figure 181.
2.4.10 Hint. Let $A B C D$ be the given rectangle, where $A B=4$ and $B C=3$. First show that it is enough to consider the case $A_{1}=A, A_{2} \in A B, A_{3}=C$, $A_{4} \in C D$ (Fig. 182). Then show that the desired maximum is achieved precisely when $A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} A_{4}$ is a rhombus. In this case $A_{1} A_{2}=\frac{25}{8}$.
2.4.11 Let $O$ be the intersection point of the segments. There exists a side $A B$ of the $2 n$-gon such that $\angle A O B \geq \frac{180^{\circ}}{n}$ and $A O+O B \geq 1$ (Fig. 183). Set $x=A O$ and $y=O B$. Then $x+y \geq 1$ and the law of cosines for $\triangle A O B$ gives

$$
A B^{2}=x^{2}+y^{2}-2 x y \cos \alpha=(x+y)^{2}-2 x y(1+\cos \alpha)
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \geq(x+y)^{2}-\frac{(x+y)^{2}}{2}(1+\cos \alpha)=(x+y)^{2} \cdot \frac{1-\cos \alpha}{2} \\
& \geq \frac{1-\cos \frac{180^{\circ}}{n}}{2}=\sin ^{2} \frac{90^{\circ}}{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $A B \geq \sin \frac{90^{\circ}}{n}$, and the latter is exactly the side length of a regular $2 n$-gon inscribed in a circle with diameter 1.


Figure 182.


Figure 183.
2.4.12 If a convex $n$-gon (with $n \geq 4$ ) has at least 4 acute angles, then their exterior angles will be obtuse, so their sum will be greater than $360^{\circ}$. However, the sum of all exterior angles $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$ (Fig. 184) of the $n$-gon is $n \cdot 180^{\circ}-(n-2) 180^{\circ}=$ $360^{\circ}$, a contradiction.


Figure 184.

### 2.4.13

(a) Let $p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n}$ be rays in space issuing from a point $O$, and assume that the angle between any two rays $p_{i}$ and $p_{j}$ is obtuse. For each $i$ let $A_{i}$ be the point on $p_{i}$ with $O A_{i}=1$. Then $\overrightarrow{O A_{i}} \cdot \overrightarrow{O A_{j}}<0$ for all $i \neq j$. Consider a coordinate system $O x y z$ in space such that $A_{1}=(1,0,0), A_{2}=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}, 0\right)$, and $A_{k}=\left(x_{k}, y_{k}, z_{k}\right), 3 \leq k \leq n$, where $y_{2}>0$ and $z_{3}>0$. Then $x_{i}=$ $\overrightarrow{O A_{i}} \cdot \overrightarrow{O A_{1}}<0$ for $i>1$. Moreover, $x_{i} x_{2}+y_{i} y_{2}=\overrightarrow{O A_{i}} \cdot \overrightarrow{O A_{2}}<0$ for $i>2$, which, combined with $x_{i}<0, x_{2}<0$, and $y_{2}>0$, gives $y_{i}<0$ for all $i>2$. Finally, $x_{i} x_{3}+y_{i} y_{3}+z_{i} z_{3}=\overrightarrow{O A_{i}} \cdot \overrightarrow{O A_{3}}<0$ implies $z_{i}<0$ for $i>3$.
Now if $n>4$, then for $A_{4}$ and $A_{5}$ we have $x_{4} x_{5}>0, y_{4} y_{5}>0$, and $z_{4} z_{5}>0$, which is a contradiction to $\overrightarrow{O A_{4}} \cdot \overrightarrow{O A_{5}}<0$. Thus we must have $n \leq 4$.
That $n=4$ is possible is seen by considering the rays issuing from the center $O$ of a regular tetrahedron and passing through its vertices (Fig. 185).


Figure 185.
(b) Answer. 6.

### 2.4.14

(a) Answer. 4 points.
(b) Let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be points in space such that any of the angles $A_{i} A_{j} A_{k}$ does not exceed $90^{\circ}$. We will show that $n \leq 8$. Given two points $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$, denote by $\Pi_{i j}$ the strip between the planes passing through $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ and perpendicular to the line $A_{i} A_{j}$ (Fig. 186). Clearly $\Pi_{i j}$ coincides with the set of points $M$ in space such that $\angle M A_{i} A_{j} \leq 90^{\circ}$ and $\angle M A_{j} A_{i} \leq 90^{\circ}$. Let $N$ be the convex hull of the set $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$. Then $N$ is a convex polyhedron and each $A_{i}$ lies inside or on the boundary of $N$. Moreover, $N$ is contained in the intersection of all strips $\Pi_{i j}$.


Figure 186.
Given $i=1, \ldots, n$, denote by $N_{i}$ the polyhedron obtained from $N$ by the translation along the vector $\overrightarrow{A_{1} A_{i}}$. Let $N^{\prime}$ be the image of $N$ under the dilation $\varphi$ with center $A_{1}$ and ratio 2 . Since $N \subset \Pi_{i j}$, the polyhedron obtained by a translation along $\overrightarrow{A_{i} A_{j}}$ has no common interior points with $N$. Since $N_{j}$ is the image of $N_{i}$ under the translation of $N_{i}$ along $\overrightarrow{A_{i} A_{j}}$, the previous remark shows that $N_{i}$ and $N_{j}$ have no common interior points when $i \neq j$. Also notice that $N_{i} \subset N^{\prime}$ for all $i$. Indeed, if $M_{i}$ is any point in $N_{i}$, then $\overrightarrow{A_{1} M_{i}}=\overrightarrow{A_{1} M}+\overrightarrow{A_{1} A_{i}}$ for some point $M$ of $N$ (Fig. 187).


Figure 187.
If $M^{\prime}$ is the midpoint of $M A_{i}\left(\right.$ and of $\left.A_{1} M_{i}\right)$, then $M^{\prime} \in N$ and $\varphi\left(M^{\prime}\right)=M_{i}$. So $M_{i} \in N^{\prime}=\varphi(N)$, and therefore $N_{i} \subset N^{\prime}$ for any $i$. Consequently, $n \cdot \operatorname{Vol}(N)=\operatorname{Vol}\left(N_{1}\right)+\operatorname{Vol}\left(N_{2}\right)+\cdots+\operatorname{Vol}\left(N_{n}\right) \leq \operatorname{Vol}\left(N^{\prime}\right)=8 \operatorname{Vol}(N)$, so $n \leq 8$. Clearly the vertices $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{8}$ of any cube satisfy the requirements of the problem.
2.4.15 Let $O$ be the center of the disk and let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ be points in the disk such that $A_{i} A_{j}>1$ for $i \neq j$ (Fig. 188).

We may assume that these points are ordered clockwise since no two of them lie on the same radius. Set $\alpha_{i}=\angle A_{i} O A_{i+1}, 1 \leq i \leq n\left(A_{n+1}=A_{1}\right)$. Then $\alpha_{i}>60^{\circ}$ since $A_{i} A_{i+1}$ is the largest side of $\triangle A_{i} O A_{i+1}$. Hence

$$
360^{\circ}=\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{n}>n \cdot 60^{\circ}
$$

and therefore $n \leq 5$. To prove that the desired number is 5 , take five points $A_{1}, A_{2}, A_{3}, A_{4}, A_{5}$ that are sufficiently close to the vertices of a regular pentagon inscribed in a unit circle (Fig. 189).


Figure 188.


Figure 189.
2.4.16 Let $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{n}$ be an arbitrary convex $n$-gon. The diagonals through $A_{1}$ cut it into $n-2$ triangles. That is why the desired number of points is not less than $n-2$. A distribution of $n-2$ points in a convex $n$-gon satisfying the requirements of the problem is shown in Fig. 190.


Figure 190.
2.4.17 Let $\Pi$ be a rectangle with side lengths $a$ and $b, a \leq b$, that has the required property (henceforth we denote this property by $(*)$ ). Then clearly $a \geq 1$. In what follows we consider only rectangles $\Pi$ with $a \geq 1$.

Assume that $\Pi$ does not have property $(*)$. Then there is a position of $\Pi$ in the plane for which $\Pi$ does not contain an integer point (i.e., a point with integer coordinates). Consider a position of $\Pi$ with this property, and extend its sides of length $a$ (Fig. 191).


Figure 191.

There exists a line with equation $y=k$ or $x=k$ for some integer $k$ that intersects the strip obtained. The part of the line contained in the strip has length at least $b$. Since $b \geq a \geq 1$, this part contains an integer point $P$. We may assume that $P$ is the closest integer point to $\Pi$ in the strip. Now shift $\Pi$ in the strip keeping its sides parallel to their initial positions until one of the sides of $\Pi$ with length $b$ passes through $P$ (Fig. 192).


Figure 192.

Notice that the side $A B$ may contain some other integer points. However, the rest of $\Pi$ does not contain an integer point. Consider the integer points $S$ and $R$ on the coordinate lines through $P$ such that $P S=P R=1$. Since $A D=a \geq 1$, $R$ and $S$ lie inside the strip determined by the lines $A B$ and $C D$. If $R$ lies on the line $A B$, then $S$ will be in $\Pi$, a contradiction. In the same way one observes that $S$ does not lie on $A B$. Hence both $S$ and $R$ lie outside $\Pi$, which gives $b=A B<$ $R S=\sqrt{2}$.

Conversely, let $1 \leq a \leq b<\sqrt{2}$. Then it is easy to see that there is a position of $\Pi$ for which $\Pi$ does not contain an integer point (Fig. 193).

Thus $\Pi$ has property $(*)$ if and only if $a \geq 1, b \geq a$, and $b \geq \sqrt{2}$. It is clear now that the minimum area of $\Pi$ is equal to $\sqrt{2}$.


Figure 193.

### 4.10 Triangle Inequality

3.1.1 Assume that the triangle $A B C$ has sides of lengths 1 . Set $A X=x$ and $B Y=y$, where $0 \leq x, y \leq 1$. Let $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ be the orthogonal projections of $X$ on $A B$ and $B C$, and let $Y_{1}$ and $Y_{2}$ be the orthogonal projections of $Y$ on $A B$ and $A C$ (Fig. 194). Then $A X_{1}=\frac{x}{2}$ since $\angle A X X_{1}=30^{\circ}$. Analogously, $B Y_{1}=\frac{y}{2}$, $C X_{2}=\frac{1-x}{2}, C Y_{2}=\frac{1-y}{2}$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(X, Y) & =X_{1} Y_{1}+X Y_{2}+Y X_{2} \\
& =1-\frac{x+y}{2}+\left|1-x-\frac{1-y}{2}\right|+\left|1-y-\frac{1-x}{2}\right| \\
& =1-\frac{x+y}{2}+\left|\frac{1}{2}+\frac{x}{2}-y\right|+\left|\frac{1}{2}+\frac{y}{2}-x\right| .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is clear that the minimum of $S(X, Y)$ is equal to 0 , and it is attained if and only if $X=Y=C$.


Figure 194.

On the other hand, the triangle inequality gives

$$
\left|\frac{1}{2}+\frac{x}{2}-y\right|=\left|\frac{1-y}{2}+\frac{x-y}{2}\right| \leq \frac{1-y}{2}+\frac{|x-y|}{2} .
$$

Analogously

$$
\left|\frac{1}{2}+\frac{y}{2}-x\right| \leq \frac{1-x}{2}+\frac{|x-y|}{2}
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
S(X, Y) & \leq 1-\frac{x+y}{2}+\frac{1-x}{2}+\frac{1-y}{2}+|x-y| \\
& =2+|x-y|-(x+y) \leq 2
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus the maximum of $S(X, Y)$ is equal to 2 and it is attained if and only if $X=$ $A, Y=C$ or $X=C, Y=B$.
3.1.2 We first prove that $k \geq \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. Indeed, let $m$ be an arbitrary real number such that $1 \leq m<\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. Then $1+m>m^{2}$, which shows that there exists a triangle with side lengths $1, m, m^{2}$. Hence $k>\min \left(\frac{m}{1}, \frac{m^{2}}{m}, \frac{m^{2}}{1}\right)=m$, implying $k \geq \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$. Conversely, let $k \geq \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and suppose that the assertion is not true. Then there exists a triangle with side lengths $a \geq b \geq c$ such that $\frac{a}{b} \geq k$ and $\frac{b}{c} \geq k$. We derive that $b \leq \frac{a}{k}$ and $c \leq \frac{b}{k} \leq \frac{a}{k^{2}}$. Hence $b+c \leq a\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{1}{k^{2}}\right) \leq a$, a contradiction.

Thus the least possible value of $k$ is equal to $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$.
3.1.3 We have to find the greatest real number $k$ such that for any $a, b, c>0$ with $a+b \leq c$, we have $k a b c \leq a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}$. First take $b=a$ and $c=2 a$. Then $2 k a^{3} \leq 10 a^{3}$, i.e., $k \leq 5$. Conversely, let $k=5$. Set $c=a+b+x$, where $x \geq 0$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}-5 a b c \\
& \quad=2(a+b)(a-b)^{2}+\left(a b+3 a^{2}+3 b^{2}\right) x+3(a+b) x^{2}+x^{3} \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

3.1.4 We may assume that $a \leq b \leq c$. Then we have to prove that $c<a+b$. Suppose the contrary, i.e., $c \geq a+b$ and set $d=\frac{1}{4 a b}$. It follows that $d^{2} \geq c^{2} \geq$ $(a+b)^{2} \geq 4 a b=\frac{1}{d}$, which shows that $d \geq 1$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{a^{2}}+\frac{1}{b^{2}}+\frac{1}{c^{2}} & \geq \frac{1}{a^{2}}+\frac{1}{b^{2}}+\frac{1}{d^{2}}=(4(a+b) d)^{2}-8 d+\frac{1}{d^{2}} \\
& \geq 8 d+\frac{1}{d^{2}}=9+\frac{(d-1)\left(8 d^{2}-d-1\right)}{d^{2}} \geq 9
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction.

### 3.1.5

(a) The given inequality follows from the identity

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}-(a+b+c)(a b+b c+c a) \\
& \quad=a^{2}(a-b-c)+b^{2}(b-c-a)+c^{2}(c-a-b)-3 a b c
\end{aligned}
$$

and the triangle inequality.
(b) If $a=b=1$, then

$$
k>\frac{2+c^{3}}{(2+c)(1+2 c)}=1-\frac{5 t^{2}+2 t-1}{2 t^{3}+5 t^{2}+2 t}=1-f(t)
$$

where $t=\frac{1}{c}$. Since $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t)=0$, it follows that $k \geq 1$. Using (a) we deduce that the least value of $k$ is equal to 1 .
3.1.6 Let $A B C$ be a triangle with $A B=c, B C=a, C A=b$. Since $p+q+r=$ $0, p q r \neq 0$, it follows that two of these numbers, say $p$ and $r$, have the same sign. Then $p r>0$, and the law of cosines implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{2} p q+b^{2} q r+c^{2} r p & =a^{2} p q+b^{2} q r+r p\left(a^{2}+b^{2}-2 a b \cos C\right) \\
& =-a^{2} p^{2}-b^{2} r^{2}-2 a b r p \cos C \\
& =-(a p-b r)^{2}-2 a b r p(1+\cos C)<0
\end{aligned}
$$

Conversely, setting $p=b, q=c, r=-(b+c)$ we get $b c\left(a^{2}-(b+c)^{2}\right)<0$, i.e., $a<b+c$. Analogously $b<c+a, c<a+b$, and therefore $a, b, c$ are the side lengths of a triangle.
3.1.7 To show (i) implies (ii), note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{2} x+b^{2} y+c^{2} z & \geq\left(a^{2} x+b^{2} y+c^{2} z\right)\left(\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z}\right) \\
& \geq(a+b+c)^{2}>d^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have used the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the triangle inequality.
To show (ii) implies (i), first note that if $x \leq 0$, we may take a quadrilateral with side lengths $a=n, b=1, c=1, d=n$ and get $y+z>n^{2}(1-x)$, a contradiction for large $n$. Thus, $x>0$ and similarly $y>0, z>0$. Now use a quadrilateral with side lengths $\frac{1}{x}, \frac{1}{y}, \frac{1}{z}$ and $\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z}-\frac{1}{n}$, where $n$ is large. We then have

$$
\frac{x}{x^{2}}+\frac{y}{y^{2}}+\frac{z}{z^{2}}>\left(\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z}-\frac{1}{n}\right)^{2}
$$

and taking the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$ we get

$$
\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z} \geq\left(\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z}\right)^{2}
$$

Hence $\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}+\frac{1}{z} \leq 1$.

### 4.11 Selected Geometric Inequalities

### 3.2.1

(i) Set $x=a+b-c>0, y=b+c-a>0, z=c+a-b>0$. Then $a=\frac{y+z}{2}, b=\frac{x+z}{2}, c=\frac{x+y}{2}$ and we have to prove that $(x+y)(y+z)(z+x) \geq$ $8 x y z$. This follows by multiplying the inequalities $x+y \geq 2 \sqrt{x y}, y+z \geq$ $2 \sqrt{y z}, z+x \geq 2 \sqrt{z x}$.
(ii) Let $F$ be the area of the triangle. Then $a b c=4 R F, F=s r$, and $F^{2}=$ $s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)$. Hence the inequality (i) can be written as $\frac{8 F^{2}}{s} \leq 4 R F$, which is equivalent to $R \geq 2 r$.
There is a nice geometric proof of Euler's inequality based on the "obvious" observation that the incircle is the smallest circle having common points with the three sides of a triangle. Indeed, let $A_{1}, B_{1}$, and $C_{1}$ be the midpoints of the sides of a triangle $A B C$. Then the circumradius of triangle $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1}$ is equal to $\frac{R}{2}$ and therefore $\frac{R}{2} \geq r$.
(iii) We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
r^{2} & =\frac{(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)}{s} \\
& =\frac{s^{3}-s^{2}(a+b+c)+s(a b+b c+c a)-a b c}{s} \\
& =-s^{2}+a b+b c+c a-4 R r .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\sigma_{2}=a b+b c+c a=s^{2}+r^{2}+4 R r$. Set $\sigma_{1}=a+b+c=2 s$ and $\sigma_{3}=a b c=4 s r R$. Then a direct computation shows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
(a-b)^{2}(b-c)^{2}(c-a)^{2} & =\sigma_{1}^{2} \sigma_{2}^{2}-4 \sigma_{2}^{3}-4 \sigma_{1}^{3} \sigma_{3}+18 \sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \sigma_{3}-27 \sigma_{3}^{2} \\
& =-4 r^{2}\left[\left(s^{2}-2 R^{2}-10 R r+r^{2}\right)^{2}-4 R(R-2 r)^{3}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\left(s^{2}-2 R^{2}-10 R r+r^{2}\right)^{2}-4 R(R-2 r)^{3} \leq 0$, which is equivalent to $\left|s^{2}-2 R^{2}-10 R r+r^{2}\right| \leq 2(R-2 r) \sqrt{R(R-2 r)}$.

Remark. The inequalities (ii) and (iii) are also sufficient for the existence of a triangle with semiperimeter $s$, circumradius $R$, and inradius $r$. Moreover, Blundon [5] has proved that (iii) is the strongest possible inequality of the form $f(R, r) \leq s^{2} \leq F(R, r)$, where $f(R, r)$ and $F(R, r)$ are homogeneous real functions, with simultaneous equality only for equilateral triangles. For the history of the fundamental inequality we refer the reader to [15].
(iv) The inequality $R \geq 2 r$ together with (iii) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
16 R r-5 r^{2} \leq s^{2} \leq 4 R^{2}+4 R r+3 r^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now using the indentity

$$
a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}=4 s^{2}-2(a b+b c+c a)=2 s^{2}-2 r^{2}-8 R r
$$

one gets

$$
24 R r-12 r^{2} \leq a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2} \leq 8 R^{2}+4 r^{2}
$$

(v) The given inequalities follow from (1) since $R \geq 2 r$ implies that $16 R r-$ $5 r^{2} \geq 27 r^{2}$ and $(2 R+(3 \sqrt{3}-4) r)^{2} \geq 4 R^{2}+4 R r+3 r^{2}$.
3.2.2 Set $\frac{A M}{M C}=x, \frac{C N}{N B}=y$, and $\frac{M L}{L N}=z$ (Fig. 195).


Figure 195.
Then $[M L C]=\frac{1}{x} S_{1},[N L C]=y S_{2}$ and therefore $S_{1}=x y z S_{2}$ since $[M L C]=$ $z[N L C]$. Hence

$$
[M N C]=[M L C]+[N L C]=z(y+1) S_{2}
$$

and we get

$$
S=\frac{A C}{M C} \cdot \frac{B C}{N C}[M N C]=(1+x)(1+y)(1+z) S_{2}
$$

Thus we have to prove the inequality

$$
(1+x)(1+y)(1+z) \geq(1+\sqrt[3]{x y z})^{3}
$$

It follows by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality since

$$
\begin{aligned}
(1+x)(1+y)(1+z) & =1+x+y+z+x y+y z+z x+x y z \\
& \geq 1+3 \sqrt[3]{x y z}+3 \sqrt[3]{(x y z)^{2}}+x y z \\
& =(1+\sqrt[3]{x y z})^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.2.3

(i) Since $M, B^{\prime}, A, C^{\prime}$ are cyclic points (Fig. 196) we have $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}=M A \sin A$. The length of the orthogonal projection of the segment $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ on the line $B C$ is equal to $M B^{\prime} \cos \left(90^{\circ}-C\right)+M C^{\prime} \cos \left(90^{\circ}-B\right)=M B^{\prime} \sin C+M C^{\prime} \sin B$. Hence

$$
M A \geq M B^{\prime} \frac{\sin C}{\sin A}+M C^{\prime} \frac{\sin B}{\sin A}
$$



Figure 196.
Analogously,

$$
M B \geq M A^{\prime} \frac{\sin C}{\sin B}+M C^{\prime} \frac{\sin A}{\sin B}, \quad M C \geq M A^{\prime} \frac{\sin B}{\sin C}+M B^{\prime} \frac{\sin A}{\sin C} .
$$

Summing up the above inequalities gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
M A+M B+M C \geq & M A^{\prime}\left(\frac{\sin B}{\sin C}+\frac{\sin C}{\sin B}\right) \\
& +M B^{\prime}\left(\frac{\sin A}{\sin C}+\frac{\sin C}{\sin A}\right)+M C^{\prime}\left(\frac{\sin A}{\sin B}+\frac{\sin B}{\sin A}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies the desired inequality since

$$
\frac{\sin B}{\sin C}+\frac{\sin C}{\sin B} \geq 2, \quad \frac{\sin A}{\sin C}+\frac{\sin C}{\sin A} \geq 2, \quad \frac{\sin A}{\sin B}+\frac{\sin B}{\sin A} \geq 2
$$

(ii) Denote by $A^{\prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime}, C^{\prime \prime}$ and $A^{\prime \prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime \prime}, C^{\prime \prime \prime}$ the points on the rays $M A^{\prime}, M B^{\prime}$, $M C^{\prime}$ and $M A, M B, M C$ such that $M A^{\prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M A^{\prime}}, M B^{\prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M B^{\prime}}, M C^{\prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M C^{\prime}}$, and $M A^{\prime \prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M A}, M B^{\prime \prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M B}, M C^{\prime \prime \prime}=\frac{1}{M C}$ (Fig. 197).


Figure 197.
Then triangles $M B^{\prime} A$ and $M B^{\prime \prime} A^{\prime \prime \prime}$ are similar since

$$
\frac{M B^{\prime}}{M A}=\frac{M A^{\prime \prime \prime}}{M B^{\prime \prime}}
$$

Hence $\angle M A^{\prime \prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}=\angle M B^{\prime} A=90^{\circ}$. Analogously $\angle M A^{\prime \prime \prime} C^{\prime \prime}=\angle M C^{\prime} A$ $=90^{\circ}$ and therefore the points $B^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime \prime \prime}$, and $C^{\prime \prime}$ are collinear. Thus $A^{\prime \prime \prime}, B^{\prime \prime \prime}$, $C^{\prime \prime \prime}$ are the orthogonal projections of $M$ on the lines $B^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime \prime}, A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime}$, respectively. Now applying (i) to triangle $A^{\prime \prime} B^{\prime \prime} C^{\prime \prime}$ and the point $M$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{M A^{\prime}}+\frac{1}{M B^{\prime}}+\frac{1}{M C^{\prime}} & =M A^{\prime \prime}+M B^{\prime \prime}+M C^{\prime \prime} \\
& \geq 2\left(M A^{\prime \prime \prime}+M B^{\prime \prime \prime}+M C^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) \\
& =2\left(\frac{1}{M A}+\frac{1}{M B}+\frac{1}{M C}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

3.2.4 Let $B C=a, A C=b, A B=c$. Using the same notation as in the solution of Problem 3.2.3, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
M A \sin A \geq M B^{\prime} \sin C+M C^{\prime} \sin B \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying by $2 R$ and using the law of sines, (1) becomes

$$
a M A \geq c M B^{\prime}+b M C^{\prime} .
$$

Likewise, we have $b M B \geq a M C^{\prime}+c M A^{\prime}$ and $c M C \geq b M A^{\prime}+a M B^{\prime}$. Using these inequalities, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{M A}{a^{2}}+\frac{M B}{b^{2}}+\frac{M C}{c^{2}} \\
& \quad \geq M A^{\prime}\left(\frac{b}{c^{3}}+\frac{c}{b^{3}}\right)+M B^{\prime}\left(\frac{c}{a^{3}}+\frac{a}{c^{3}}\right)+M C^{\prime}\left(\frac{a}{b^{3}}+\frac{b}{a^{3}}\right) \\
& \quad \geq \frac{2 M A^{\prime}}{b c}+\frac{2 M B^{\prime}}{c a}+\frac{2 M C^{\prime}}{a b}=\frac{4[A B C]}{a b c}=\frac{1}{R} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Equality in the first step requires that $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ be parallel to $B C$ and so on. This occurs if and only if $M$ is the circumcenter of $A B C$. Equality in the second step requires that $a=b=c$. Thus, equality holds if and only if triangle $A B C$ is equilateral and $M$ is its center.
3.2.5 Let $a, b, c, d, e$, and $f$ denote the lengths of the sides $A B, B C, C D, D E$, $E F$, and $F A$, respectively. Note that the opposite angles of the hexagon are equal ( $\angle A=\angle D, \angle B=\angle E, \angle C=\angle F)$.


Figure 198.
Draw perpendiculars as follows: $A P \perp B C, A S \perp E F, D Q \perp B C, D R \perp$ $E F$ (Fig. 198). Then $P Q R S$ is a rectangle and $B F \geq P S=Q R$. Therefore $2 B F \geq P S+Q R$, and so

$$
2 B F \geq(a \sin B+f \sin C)+(c \sin C+d \sin B)
$$

Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 D B \geq(c \sin A+d \sin B)+(e \sin B+f \sin A) \\
& 2 F D \geq(e \sin C+d \sin A)+(a \sin A+b \sin C) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Next, the circumradii of triangles $F A B, B C D$, and $D E F$ are related to $B F, D B$, and $F D$ as follows:

$$
R_{A}=\frac{B F}{2 \sin A}, \quad R_{C}=\frac{D B}{2 \sin C}, \quad R_{E}=\frac{F D}{2 \sin B} .
$$

We obtain, therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
4\left(R_{A}+R_{C}+R_{E}\right) & \geq a\left(\frac{\sin B}{\sin A}+\frac{\sin A}{\sin B}\right)+b\left(\frac{\sin B}{\sin C}+\frac{\sin C}{\sin B}\right)+\cdots \\
& \geq 2(a+b+\cdots)=2 P
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $R_{A}+R_{C}+R_{E} \geq P / 2$, as required. Equality holds iff $\angle A=\angle B=\angle C$ and $B F \perp B C, \ldots$, that is, iff the hexagon is regular.
3.2.6 First solution. We may assume that all four points are different; otherwise, the given inequality is obvious. Let $B^{\prime}, C^{\prime}, D^{\prime}$ be the points on the rays $A B, A C$, and $A D$ respectively, such that $A B^{\prime} \cdot A B=A C^{\prime} \cdot A C=A D^{\prime} \cdot A D=1$. Then $\frac{A B}{A C}=\frac{A C^{\prime}}{A B^{\prime}}$, which shows that triangles $A B C$ and $A B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ are similar. Hence

$$
B^{\prime} C^{\prime}=\frac{B C}{A B \cdot A C}
$$

Analogously,

$$
C^{\prime} D^{\prime}=\frac{C D}{A C \cdot A D} \quad \text { and } \quad B^{\prime} D^{\prime}=\frac{B D}{A B \cdot A D}
$$

Now the triangle inequality $B^{\prime} C^{\prime}+C^{\prime} D^{\prime} \geq B^{\prime} D^{\prime}$ implies that $A B \cdot C D+A D \cdot B C \geq$ $A C \cdot B D$.

Equality is obtained if and only if the quadrilateral $A B C D$ is cyclic.
Second solution. Let $a, b, c, d$ be the complex numbers representing the points $A, B, C, D$, respectively. Then the triangle inequality implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C \cdot B D & =|a-c| \cdot|b-d|=|(a-c)(b-d)| \\
& =|(a-b)(c-d)+(a-d)(b-c)| \\
& \leq|a-b| \cdot|c-d|+|a-d| \cdot|b-c|=A B \cdot C D+A D \cdot B C .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.2.7 Let us set $A C=a, C E=b, A E=c$. Applying Ptolemy's inequality for the quadrilateral $A C E F$, we get

$$
A C \cdot E F+C E \cdot A F \geq A E \cdot C F
$$

Since $E F=A F$, we have $\frac{F A}{F C} \geq \frac{c}{a+b}$. Similarly, $\frac{D E}{D A} \geq \frac{b}{c+a}$ and $\frac{B C}{B E} \geq \frac{a}{b+c}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{B C}{B E}+\frac{D E}{D A}+\frac{F A}{F C} \geq \frac{a}{b+c}+\frac{b}{c+a}+\frac{c}{a+b} \geq \frac{3}{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the last inequality is left as an exercise to the reader.

For equality to occur we need (1) to be an equality and also we need an equality each time Ptolemy's inequality was used. The latter happens when the quadrilaterals $A C E F, A B C E, A C D E$ are cyclic, that is, when $A B C D E F$ is a cyclic hexagon. Also, for the equality in (1) we need $a=b=c$.

Hence equality occurs if and only if the hexagon is regular.
3.2.8 If $O$ lies on $A C$, then $A B C D, A K O N$, and $O L C M$ are similar, and $A C=$ $A O+O C$ (Fig. 199). Hence $\sqrt{S}=\sqrt{S_{1}}+\sqrt{S_{2}}$.


Figure 199.
If $O$ does not lie on $A C$, we may assume that $O$ and $D$ are on the same side of $A C$. Denote the points of intersection of a line through $O$ with $B A, A D, C D$, and $B C$ by $W, X, Y$, and $Z$, respectively (Fig. 200).


Figure 200.
Initially, let $W=X=A$. Then $\frac{O W}{O X}=1$, while $\frac{O Z}{O Y}>1$. Rotate the line about $O$ without passing through $B$, until $Y=Z=C$. Then $\frac{O W}{O X}>1$, while $\frac{O Z}{O Y}=1$. Hence in some position during the rotation, we have $\frac{O W}{O X}=\frac{O Z}{O Y}$. Fix the line there. Let $T_{1}, T_{2}, P_{1}, P_{2}, Q_{1}$, and $Q_{2}$ denote the areas of $K B L O, N O M D$, $W K O, O L Z, O N X$, and $Y M O$, respectively. The desired result is equivalent to $T_{1}+T_{2} \geq 2 \sqrt{S_{1} S_{2}}$. Since triangles $W B Z, W K O$, and $O L Z$ are similar, we have

$$
\sqrt{P_{1}}+\sqrt{P_{2}}=\sqrt{P_{1}+T_{1}+P_{2}}\left(\frac{W O}{W Z}+\frac{O Z}{W Z}\right)=\sqrt{P_{1}+T_{1}+P_{2}}
$$

which is equivalent to $T_{1}=2 \sqrt{P_{1} P_{2}}$. Similarly, $T_{2}=2 \sqrt{Q_{1} Q_{2}}$. Since $\frac{O W}{O Z}=\frac{O X}{O Y}$, we have

$$
\frac{P_{1}}{P_{2}}=\frac{O W^{2}}{O Z^{2}}=\frac{O X^{2}}{O Y^{2}}=\frac{Q_{1}}{Q_{2}}
$$

Denote the common value of $\frac{Q_{1}}{P_{1}}=\frac{Q_{2}}{P_{2}}$ by $k$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{1}+T_{2} & =2 \sqrt{P_{1} P_{2}}+2 \sqrt{Q_{1} Q_{2}}=2 \sqrt{P_{1} P_{2}}(1+k) \\
& =2 \sqrt{(1+k) P_{1}(1+k) P_{2}}=2 \sqrt{\left(P_{1}+Q_{1}\right)\left(P_{2}+Q_{2}\right)} \geq 2 \sqrt{S_{1} S_{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

3.2.9 We first show that the result holds when F is a "digon," i.e., a polygon with only 2 sides. Let $O$ be a point and $A B$ a line segment. Set $O A=a, O B=$ $b, A B=c$ and let the distance of $O$ from the line $A B$ be $h$. Treating the figure $A B A$ as a two-sided polygon, we find that $D=a+b, P=2 c$ (this being the perimeter of the digon), and $H=2 h$. The inequality $D^{2} \geq H^{2}+P^{2} / 4$ now takes the form $(a+b)^{2} \geq 4 h^{2}+c^{2}$.

To prove this, we draw a line $l$ through $O$ parallel to $A B$, and let $B_{1}$ be the image of $B$ under reflection in $l$ (Fig. 201). Then $O A+O B=O A+O B_{1} \geq A B_{1}$, i.e., $a+b \geq \sqrt{4 h^{2}+c^{2}}$, which is precisely the stated inequality. Note that equality holds iff $\angle O A B=\angle O B A$, i.e., iff $a=b$.


Figure 201.
Now let the polygon F be $P_{1} P_{2} \ldots P_{n}$, and let

$$
d_{i}=O P_{i}, \quad p_{i}=P_{i} P_{i+1}, \quad h_{i}=\text { distance from } O \text { to } P_{i} P_{i+1}
$$

(Here $P_{n+1}$ is the same as $P_{1}$.) For each $i$, using the result proved above,

$$
d_{i}+d_{i+1} \geq \sqrt{4 h_{i}^{2}+p_{i}^{2}}
$$

Summing these inequalities over $i=1,2, \ldots, n$, we obtain

$$
2 D \geq \sum_{i} \sqrt{4 h_{i}^{2}+p_{i}^{2}}
$$

or after squaring,

$$
4 D^{2} \geq\left(\sum_{i} \sqrt{4 h_{i}^{2}+p_{i}^{2}},\right)^{2}
$$

Now $4 H^{2}+P^{2}=4\left(\sum h_{i}\right)^{2}+\left(\sum p_{i}\right)^{2}$, so it suffices to prove that

$$
\sum_{i} \sqrt{4 h_{i}^{2}+p_{i}^{2}} \geq \sqrt{4\left(\sum_{i} h_{i}\right)^{2}+\left(\sum_{i} p_{i}\right)^{2}}
$$

Let $v_{i}$ denote the vector with coordinates $\left(2 h_{i}, p_{i}\right)$. Then the quantity on the left side is $\sum\left|v_{i}\right|$ and the quantity on the right side is $\left|\sum v_{i}\right|$, and the inequality follows by the triangle inequality.

Equality holds if and only if (a) the $d_{i}$ 's are all equal, say $d_{i}=r$ for all $i$, which means that the $P_{i}$ 's lie on the circle $C(O, r)$, and (b) the ratio $h_{i} / p_{i}$ is the same for all $i$. Since each side of F is a chord of $C$, we have $h_{i}^{2}+p_{i}^{2} / 4=r^{2}$ for all $i$, so the constancy of $h_{i} / p_{i}$ implies that the $h_{i}$ 's are all equal, and likewise the $p_{i}$ 's. Thus equality holds if and only if F is a regular polygon and $O$ is its circumcenter.
3.2.10 Denote by $z_{k}$ the complex number representing the point $A_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq 2 n$, and set $w_{k}=z_{n+k}-z_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq n$. Then the triangle inequality gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(A_{k} A_{k+1}+A_{n+k} A_{n+k+1}\right)^{2}=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(\left|z_{k}-z_{k+1}\right|+\left|z_{n+k}-z_{n+k+1}\right|\right)^{2} \\
& \quad \geq \sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|z_{k}-z_{k+1}-z_{n+k}+z_{n+k+1}\right|^{2}=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\left|w_{k+1}-w_{k}\right|^{2}+\left|w_{n}+w_{1}\right|^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{k} B_{k+n}^{2} & =\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left|\frac{z_{k}+z_{k+1}}{2}-\frac{z_{n+k}+z_{n+k+1}}{2}\right|^{2} \\
& =\frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\left|w_{k}+w_{k+1}\right|^{2}+\frac{1}{4}\left|w_{n}-w_{1}\right|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence it is enough to prove the inequality

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\left|w_{k+1}-w_{k}\right|^{2}+\left|w_{n}+w_{1}\right|^{2} \\
& \quad \geq \tan ^{2} \frac{\pi}{2 n}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\left|w_{k}+w_{k+1}\right|^{2}+\frac{1}{4}\left|w_{n}-w_{1}\right|^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that this inequality becomes an identity for $n=2$ and we next assume that $n \geq 3$. Set $w_{k}=x_{k}+i y_{k}, x_{k}, y_{k} \in \mathbb{R}, 1 \leq k \leq n$. Then a simple calculation shows that the above inequality can be written as

$$
\cos \frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(x_{k}^{2}+y_{k}^{2}\right) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{n-1}\left(x_{k} x_{k+1}+y_{k} y_{k+1}\right)-x_{n} x_{1}-y_{n} y_{1}
$$

which is a consequence of the following inequality:

$$
\cos \frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k}^{2} \geq \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_{k} x_{k+1}-x_{n} x_{1},
$$

where $n \geq 3$ and $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ are arbitrary real numbers. This inequality in turn is a consequence of the identity
(1) $\cos \frac{\pi}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k}^{2}-\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} x_{k} x_{k+1}+x_{n} x_{1}$

$$
=\sum_{k=1}^{n-2} \frac{1}{2 \sin \frac{k \pi}{n} \sin \frac{(k+1) \pi}{n}}\left(\sin \frac{(k+1) \pi}{n} x_{k}-\sin \frac{k \pi}{n} x_{k+1}+\sin \frac{\pi}{n} x_{n}\right)^{2},
$$

which can be proved by comparing the coefficients of $x_{k}^{2}$ and $x_{k} x_{k+1}$ in both sides of (1). For example, the coefficients of $x_{n}^{2}$ in both sides of (1) coincide because

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=1}^{n-2} \frac{\sin ^{2} \frac{\pi}{n}}{2 \sin \frac{k \pi}{n} \sin \frac{(k+1) \pi}{n}} & =\sum_{k=1}^{n-2} \frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}}{2}\left(\cot \frac{k \pi}{n}-\cot \frac{(k+1) \pi}{n}\right) \\
& =\frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}}{2}\left(\cot \frac{\pi}{n}-\cot \frac{(n-1) \pi}{n}\right)=\cos \frac{\pi}{n} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark. Let us discuss the equality case in the given inequality. The above proof shows that for $n=2$ it is attained only for parallelograms. If $n \geq 3$ the equality is
attained if and only if the "opposite" sides of the $2 n$-gon $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{2 n}$ are parallel and its main diagonals are subject to the following relations for $2 \leq k \leq n-1$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\overrightarrow{A_{k} A_{n+k}}=\frac{\sin \frac{k \pi}{n}}{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}} \overrightarrow{A_{1} A_{n+1}}+\frac{\sin \frac{(k-1) \pi}{n}}{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}} \overrightarrow{A_{n} A_{2 n}} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, we obtain the following generalization of Problem 3 from International Mathematical Olympiad 2003:

Any convex hexagon $A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} A_{4} A_{5} A_{6}$ for which $\left(A_{1} A_{2}+A_{4} A_{5}\right)^{2}+\left(A_{2} A_{3}+\right.$ $\left.A_{5} A_{6}\right)^{2}+\left(A_{3} A_{4}+A_{6} A_{1}\right)^{2}=\frac{4}{3}\left(B_{1} B_{4}^{2}+B_{2} B_{5}^{2}+B_{3} B_{6}^{2}\right)$ is obtained from a triangle by cutting congruent triangles from its "corners" by means of lines parallel to their opposite sides (Fig. 202).


Figure 202.
3.2.11 We use the following lemma.

Lemma. Let $\omega$ be a circle of radius $\rho$ and $P R, Q S$ two chords intersecting at $X$, so that $\angle P X Q=\angle R X S=2 \alpha$. Then $P Q+R S=4 \alpha \rho$ (see Fig. 203).


Figure 203.

Proof. Let $O$ be the center of $\omega$ and $\angle P O Q=2 \beta, \angle R O S=2 \gamma$. Then $\angle Q S P=\beta$ and $\angle R P S=\gamma$, since the angle at the center is twice the angle at the circumference. Hence $\angle R X S=2 \alpha=\beta+\gamma$ and $P Q+R S=2 \beta \rho+2 \gamma \rho=4 \alpha \rho$. Surround all the given circles with a large circle $\omega$ of radius $\rho$. Consider two circles $C_{i}, C_{j}$ with centers $O_{i}, O_{j}$ respectively. From the given condition, $C_{i}$ and $C_{j}$ do not intersect. Let $2 \alpha$ be the angle between their two internal common tangents $P R$, $Q S$ (Fig. 204).


Figure 204.
We have $O_{i} O_{j}=2 \csc \alpha$, so $\alpha \geq \sin \alpha=\frac{2}{O_{i} O_{j}}$.
Now, from the lemma, $P Q+R S=4 \alpha \rho \geq \frac{8 \rho}{O_{i} O_{j}}$, so that

$$
\frac{1}{O_{i} O_{j}} \leq \frac{P Q+R S}{8 \rho}
$$

We now wish to consider the sum of all these arc lengths as $i, j$ range over all pairs, and we claim that any point of $\omega$ is covered by such arcs at most $(n-1)$ times. To see this, let $T$ be any point of $\omega$ and $T U$ a half-line tangent to $\omega$, as in Fig. 205.


Figure 205.
Consider this half-line as it is rotated about $T$ as shown. At some stage it will intersect a pair of circles for the first time. Relabel these circles $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$. The half-line can never intersect three circles, so at some further stage intersection with
one of these circles, say $C_{1}$, is lost and the half-line will never meet $C_{1}$ again during its transit. Continuing in this way and relabeling the circles conveniently, the maximum number of times the half-line can intersect pairs of circles is $(n-1)$, namely when it intersects $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}, C_{2}$ and $C_{3}, \ldots, C_{n-1}$ and $C_{n}$. Since $T$ was arbitrary, it follows that the sum of all the arc lengths is less than or equal to 2( $n-$ 1) $\pi \rho$, and hence

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \frac{1}{O_{i} O_{j}} \leq \frac{(n-1) \pi}{4}
$$

### 4.12 MaxMin and MinMax

3.3.1 Consider a trapezoid $A B C D$ of area 1 and let $C_{1}$ and $D_{1}$ be the orthogonal projections of $C$ and $D$ on the line $A B$. Denote by $h$ the height of $A B C D$. Suppose that $A C_{1} \geq B D_{1}$, i.e., $A C \geq B D$. Since $A C_{1}+B D_{1} \geq A B+C D$ it follows that $A C_{1} \geq \frac{A B+C D}{2}$. Hence $A C_{1} \geq \frac{[A B C D]}{h}=\frac{1}{h}$ and we get that

$$
A C^{2}=A C_{1}^{2}+h^{2} \geq \frac{1}{h^{2}}+h^{2} \geq 2
$$

This shows that the least possible length of $A C$ is $\sqrt{2}$.
3.3.2 We first find the minimum side length of an equilateral triangle inscribed in $A B C$. Let $D$ be a point on $B C$ and put $x=B D$ (Fig. 206 (a)).


Figure 206. (a)
Then take points $E, F$ on $C A, A B$ respectively, such that $C E=\sqrt{3} x / 2$ and $B F=1-x / 2$. A calculation using the law of cosines shows that

$$
D F^{2}=D E^{2}=E F^{2}=\frac{7}{4} x^{2}-2 x+1=\frac{7}{4}\left(x-\frac{4}{7}\right)^{2}+\frac{3}{7} .
$$

Hence the triangle $D E F$ is equilateral, and its minimum possible side length is $\sqrt{3 / 7}$.

We now argue that the minimum possible longest side must occur for some equilateral triangle. Starting with an arbitrary triangle, first suppose it is not isosceles. Then we can slide one of the endpoints of the longest side so as to decrease its length; we do so until there are two longest sides, say $D E$ and $E F$ (Fig. 206 (b)).


Figure 206. (b)
We now fix $D$, move $E$ so as to decrease $D E$, and move $F$ at the same time so as to decrease $E F$; we do so until all three sides become equal in length. (It is fine if the vertices move onto the extensions of the sides, since the bound above applies in that case as well.)

Hence the minimum is indeed $\sqrt{3 / 7}$, as desired.
3.3.3 Let the sides of the triangle have lengths $a \leq b \leq c$; let the angles opposite them be $A, B, C$; let the semiperimeter be $s=\frac{1}{2}(a+b+c)$; and let the inradius be $r$. Without loss of generality, assume that the triangle has circumradius $R=\frac{1}{2}$. Then the law of sines gives $a=\sin A, b=\sin B, c=\sin C$.

The area of the triangle equals both $r s=\frac{1}{2} r(\sin A+\sin B+\sin C)$ and $a b c / 4 R=\frac{1}{2} \sin A \sin B \sin C$. Thus

$$
r=\frac{\sin A \sin B \sin C}{\sin A+\sin B+\sin C} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{a}{r}=\frac{\sin A+\sin B+\sin C}{\sin B \sin C}
$$

Because $A=180^{\circ}-B-C, \sin A=\sin (B+C)=\sin B \cos C+\sin C \cos B$ and we also have

$$
\frac{a}{r}=\cot B+\csc B+\cot C+\csc C
$$

Note that the function $f(x)=\cot x+\csc x$ is decreasing along the interval $\left(0^{\circ}, 90^{\circ}\right)$ since $f^{\prime}(x)=-\frac{1+\cos x}{\sin ^{2} x}$.

If $B>60^{\circ}$, then $C>B>60^{\circ}$ and the triangle with $A^{\prime}=B^{\prime}=C^{\prime}=60^{\circ}$ has a larger ratio $a^{\prime} / r^{\prime}$. Therefore we may assume that $B \leq 60^{\circ}$.

We may further assume that $A=B$; otherwise, the triangle with angles $A^{\prime}=$ $B^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2}(A+B) \leq B$ and $C^{\prime}=C$ has a larger ratio $a^{\prime} / r^{\prime}$. Because $C<90^{\circ}$ we have $45^{\circ}<A \leq 60^{\circ}$. Now

$$
\frac{a}{r}=\frac{\sin A+\sin B+\sin C}{\sin B \sin C}=\frac{2 \sin A+\sin (2 A)}{\sin A \sin (2 A)}=2 \csc (2 A)+\csc A
$$

Note that $\csc x$ has second derivative $\csc x\left(\csc ^{2} x+\cot ^{2} x\right)$, which is strictly positive when $0^{\circ}<x<180^{\circ}$. Thus, both $\csc x$ and $\csc (2 x)$ are strictly convex along the interval $0^{\circ}<x<90^{\circ}$. Therefore, $g(A)=2 \csc (2 A)+\csc A$, a convex function in $A$, is maximized in the interval $45^{\circ}<A \leq 60^{\circ}$ at one of the endpoints. Because $g\left(45^{\circ}\right)=2+\sqrt{2}<2 \sqrt{3}=g\left(60^{\circ}\right)$, it is maximized when $A=60^{\circ}$.

Therefore the maximum ratio is $2 \sqrt{3}$, attained with an equilateral triangle.

### 3.3.4

(a) We first prove a preliminary result for three points $A, B$, and $C$, under the assumption that $108^{\circ} \leq \angle A \leq 180^{\circ}$. Then $\angle B+\angle C \leq 72^{\circ}$. We may assume that $\angle B \geq \angle C$. Hence $\angle C \leq 36^{\circ}$ and by the law of sines,

$$
\lambda=\frac{B C}{A B}=\frac{\sin (B+C)}{\sin C} \geq \frac{\sin 2 C}{\sin C}=2 \cos C \geq 2 \cos 36^{\circ}=2 \sin 54^{\circ} .
$$

Equality holds if and only if $\angle A=108^{\circ}$ and $\angle B=\angle C=36^{\circ}$.
Consider now any five points in the plane. It follows from our earlier result that $\lambda>2 \sin 54^{\circ}$ if any three of them are collinear. Henceforth, we assume that this is not the case. Consider the convex hull of the five points. If it is a triangle or a quadrilateral, then one of the five points $P$ is inside the triangle determined by three of the other points. If we join $P$ to these three, the triangle is divided into three smaller triangles. Since the three angles at $P$ sum to $360^{\circ}$, one of them is at least $120^{\circ}$. By our earlier result, $\lambda>2 \sin 54^{\circ}$. If the convex hull is a pentagon, then one of its interior angles is at least $108^{\circ}$ since the five of them sum to $540^{\circ}$. Applying our earlier result to the triangle determined by the vertex of this angle and two vertices of the pentagon adjacent to it, we have $\lambda \geq 2 \sin 54^{\circ}$.
(b) From (a), equality can hold only if the convex hull of the five points is a pentagon in which the triangle determined by three adjacent vertices is a $\left(108^{\circ}, 36^{\circ}\right.$, $36^{\circ}$ ) triangle. This implies that the pentagon is equilateral, as well as equiangular, so that it is regular. It is easy to verify that for the regular pentagon, we do have $\lambda=2 \sin 54^{\circ}$.
3.3.5 For a point $P \in C$ denote by $P^{\prime}$ its antipodal point; for a set $A \subset C$ denote by $A^{\prime}$ the antipodal image of $A$ (i.e., $A^{\prime}=\left\{P^{\prime}: P \in A\right\}$ ).

Take a set $A=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\} \subset \mathcal{F}_{n}$. The set $A \cup A^{\prime}$ consists of $2 m$ points, $m \leq n$, that cut the circle into $2 m$ arcs, antipodal in pairs. Denote the set of all these arcs by $\mathcal{A}$.

Let $d=R R^{\prime}$ be any diameter of $C$. If $R \in A \cup A^{\prime}$, then of course $\min _{i}$ $\delta\left(P_{i}, d\right)=0$; this trivial situation will be ignored in the sequel. So let us assume that $R \notin A \cup A^{\prime}$; then $R$ belongs to exactly one $\operatorname{arc} \alpha \in \mathcal{A}$. The minimum $\min _{i} \delta\left(P_{i}, d\right)$ occurs when $P_{i}$ is an endpoint of $\alpha$ (or $\alpha^{\prime}$ ) and we get the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{i} \delta\left(P_{i}, d\right) \leq \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

there should be no ambiguity in denoting the arc and its angular size (length, in other words) by the same symbol $\alpha$. Equality holds in (1) if and only if $R$ is the midpoint of $\alpha$.

We seek a diameter $d$ for which the left side of (1) is maximized. This is the case if and only if $R$ is the midpoint of the longest arc in $\mathcal{A}$ (there may be more than one pair of such arcs). Denoting by $\beta$ (the size of) the longest arc in $\mathcal{A}$, we infer that $D(A)=\sin \frac{\beta}{2}$.

Now we wish to minimize this quantity by a suitable choice of $A$. From among all the $2 m \operatorname{arcs}$ in $\mathcal{A}$, the longest one has size at least $\frac{\pi}{m}$. Hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
D(A) \geq \sin \frac{\pi}{2 m} \geq \sin \frac{\pi}{2 n} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The first inequality in (2) becomes an equality if and only if all arcs in $\mathcal{A}$ are equal, i.e., when $A \cup A^{\prime}$ is the set of vertices of a regular $2 m$-gon. The second inequality in (2) is an equality for $m=n$, i.e., when $A$ and $A^{\prime}$ are disjoint. Hence

$$
D_{n}=\min _{A \in \mathcal{F}_{n}} D(A)=\sin \frac{\pi}{2 n}
$$

The minimum is attained for every set $A$ of $n$ nonantipodal vertices of a regular $2 n$-gon inscribed in $C$.

### 4.13 Area and Perimeter

3.4.1 Let $P$ be closer to $A$ than to $B$. Drop the perpendiculars $R K$ and $C H$ onto $A B$ (Fig. 207). Let $A B+B C+C A=6$.

Then $P Q=A R+A P=2$ and $A C<A B<3$. We have

$$
A P \leq A P+B Q=A B-P Q<1
$$

Now

$$
\frac{[P Q R]}{[A B C]}=\frac{P Q \cdot R K}{A B \cdot C H}=\frac{P Q}{A B} \cdot \frac{A R}{A C} .
$$



Figure 207.

We have

$$
\frac{P Q}{A B}>\frac{2}{3}
$$

and

$$
\frac{A R}{A C}>\frac{2-A P}{3}>\frac{1}{3} .
$$

It follows that $\frac{[P Q R]}{[A B C]}>\frac{2}{9}$.
3.4.2 Let $a, b, c$ be the lengths of the sides opposite angles $A, B, C$, respectively. By the law of sines,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{a}{b} & =\frac{\sin 2 B}{\sin B}=2 \cos B \\
\frac{c}{b} & =\frac{\sin (\pi-3 B)}{\sin B}=\frac{\sin 3 B}{\sin B} \\
& =\frac{(2 \sin B \cos B) \cos B+\left(2 \cos ^{2} B-1\right) \sin B}{\sin B}=4 \cos ^{2} B-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $\frac{c}{b}=\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{2}-1$, from which

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{2}=b(b+c) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we are looking for a triangle of smallest perimeter, we may assume that $a, b$, and $c$ have no common prime factor; otherwise, a smaller example would exist. In fact, $b$ and $c$ must be relatively prime, for (1) shows that any common prime factor of $b$ and $c$ would be a factor of $a$ as well. Since (1) expresses a perfect square $a^{2}$ as the product of two relatively prime integers $b$ and $b+c$, it must be the case that $b$ and $b+c$ are perfect squares. Thus, for some relatively prime integers $m$ and $n$, we have $b=m^{2}, b+c=n^{2}, a=m n$, and $\frac{n}{m}=\frac{a}{b}=2 \cos B$. The angle $C=\pi-3 B$ is obtuse, so $0<B<\frac{\pi}{6}$, which implies $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}<\cos B<1$ and thus

$$
\sqrt{3}<\frac{n}{m}<2 .
$$

It is easy to see that this inequality has no integer solution with $m=1,2$, or 3 . Hence $m \geq 4, n \geq 7$, and

$$
a+b+c=m n+n^{2} \geq 4 \cdot 7+7^{2}=77
$$

In fact, the pair $(m, n)=(4,7)$ generates a triangle with $(a, b, c)=(28,16,33)$, and this triangle meets all the necessary geometric conditions, so 77 is the minimum possible perimeter.
3.4.3 Suppose first that two vertices $A$ and $B$ of a triangle $A B C$ lie on the same side $P Q$ of the parallelogram (Fig. 208). Then $A B \leq P Q$, and since the height of $\triangle A B C$ through $C$ is not greater than the height of the parallelogram to $P Q$, we conclude that the area of $\triangle A B C$ is not greater than one-half the area of the parallelogram.


Figure 208.
Assume now that the vertices of the triangle lie on different sides of the parallelogram. Then two of them lie on opposite sides. Draw a line through the third vertex of the triangle that is parallel to these sides. It divides the parallelogram into two parallelograms and the triangle into two triangles (Fig. 209), and we can apply the same reasoning as in the first case.


Figure 209.
3.4.4 Suppose first that the parallelogram $E F G H$ is inscribed in triangle $A B C$ so that $E, F \in A B, G \in B C$, and $H \in C A$ (Fig. 210).

Set $C H: C A=x$, where $0<x<1$. Then it is easy to show that $S=$ $2 x(1-x) T$ and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives $2 S \leq T$.


Figure 210.

In the general case draw parallel lines containing two opposite sides of the parallelogram. If these two lines intersect only two sides of the triangle, then the problem can be reduced to the case considered above (Fig. 211).


Figure 211.


Figure 212.

Otherwise it can be reduced to a configuration like that shown in Fig. 212 and one applies again the case considered above.
3.4.5 Let the angles at $P, Q, R$, and $S$ be $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$, and $\delta$, respectively. Since $(\alpha+$ $\beta)+(\gamma+\delta)=360^{\circ}$, we may assume that $\alpha+\beta \geq 180^{\circ}$.

Similarly, we may assume that $\alpha+\delta \geq 180^{\circ}$. Complete the parallelogram $P Q T S$ (Fig. 213). Then $T$ must lie inside $P Q R S$, and hence inside $A B C$. Now $[P Q S]=\frac{1}{2}[P Q T S] \leq \frac{1}{4}[A B C]$ by Problem 3.4.4.


Figure 213.
3.4.6 Let $M$ be a polygon with center of symmetry $O$ contained in a triangle $A B C$. For any point $X$ in the plane denote by $X^{\prime}$ the symmetric point of $X$ with respect to
$O$. Then $M$ is contained in the common part $T$ of triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$. Note that $O$ is the center of symmetry of the polygon $T$. Since $A B\left\|A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, B C\right\| B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$, $C A \| C^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ and $A B=A^{\prime} B^{\prime}, B C=B^{\prime} C^{\prime}, C A=C^{\prime} A^{\prime}$ it follows that at least two vertices of $\triangle A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ lie outside $\triangle A B C$. Suppose first that $A^{\prime}$ lies in the interior of $\triangle A B C$. Then $T$ is a parallelogram, and it follows from Problem 3.4.4 that $[M] \leq[T] \leq \frac{1}{2}[A B C]$. Let now the points $A^{\prime}, B^{\prime}$, and $C^{\prime}$ lie outside $\triangle A B C$. Then $T$ is a hexagon $A_{1} A_{2} B_{1} B_{2} C_{1} C_{2}$ as shown in Fig. 214.


Figure 214.
Set $\frac{A C_{1}}{A B}=\frac{A B_{2}}{A C}=x, \frac{B C_{2}}{A B}=\frac{B A_{1}}{B C}=y, \frac{C A_{2}}{C B}=\frac{C B_{1}}{C A}=z$. Note that $C_{1}^{\prime}$ lies on the lines $A^{\prime} B^{\prime}$ and $B C$, i.e., $C_{1}^{\prime}=A_{2}$. Similarly, $C_{2}^{\prime}=B_{1}$ and therefore $C_{1} C_{2}=B_{1} A_{2}$. Hence $\frac{C_{1} C_{2}}{A B}=\frac{B_{1} A_{2}}{A B}=z$ and we get

$$
x+y+z=\frac{A C_{1}}{A B}+\frac{B C_{2}}{A B}+\frac{C_{1} C_{2}}{A B}=1
$$

On the other hand,

$$
[T]=[A B C]-\left[A C_{1} B_{2}\right]-\left[B A_{1} C_{2}\right]-\left[C B_{1} A_{2}\right]=[A B C]\left(1-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}\right)
$$

Now the root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality gives

$$
x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2} \geq \frac{1}{3}(x+y+z)^{2}=\frac{1}{3}
$$

and we get $[T] \leq \frac{2}{3}[A B C]$. Equality holds if and only if $x=y=z=\frac{1}{3}$, i.e., when the points $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}, B_{1}$ and $B_{2}, C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ divide the sides $B C, C A$, and $A B$ into three equal parts. Thus the solution of the problem is given by the hexagon $A_{1} A_{2} B_{1} B_{2} C_{1} C_{2}$.
3.4.7 Denote the triangles by $A B C$ and $P Q R$, and let $D$ and $E$ be the points of intersection of $A B$ with $P R$ and $A B$ with $P Q$, respectively (Fig. 215). Then by rotational symmetry, the entire figure is symmetric about the line $O D$, and also the line $O E$, where $O$ is the center of the circle. Moreover,

$$
K=[A B C]-3[P D E]
$$



Figure 215.

So $K$ will be a minimum when $\triangle P D E$ has maximum area. Note that $P D=$ $A D, P E=B E$, so that $\triangle P D E$ has the constant perimeter $A B=r \sqrt{3}$. It follows from Problem 1.2.1 that $\triangle P D E$ has maximum area when $P$ is the midpoint of $\operatorname{arc} A B$. In this case the sides of $\triangle P D E$ are $\frac{1}{3}$ as long as the sides of $\triangle A B C$, so $[P D E]=\frac{1}{9}[A B C]$. Hence

$$
K \geq[A B C]\left(1-\frac{3}{9}\right)=\frac{2}{3}(r \sqrt{3})^{2} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}=\frac{\sqrt{3} r^{2}}{2}
$$

Remark. In a similar fashion, one can obtain the analogous area inequality for two regular $n$-gons inscribed in a circle. $K$ will be minimum when one of the $n$-gons can be obtained from the other one by rotation of $\frac{\pi}{n}$ about the center.
3.4.8 It is clear that if a triangle contains another triangle then the inradius of the first one is not less than the inradius of the second one. This remark easily leads to the conclusion that it is enough to consider only triangles $A B C$ like the one shown in Fig. 216.

Denote by $r$ the inradius of $\triangle A B C$. Set $P C=a, B M=b$ and let $N$ be the point on the ray $P C$ such that $P N=a+b$. Set $x=A C=\sqrt{1+a^{2}}, y=$ $B C=\sqrt{(1-a)^{2}+(1-b)^{2}}, z=A B=\sqrt{1+b^{2}}, u=A N=\sqrt{1+(a+b)^{2}}$, $v=N M=\sqrt{1+(1-a-b)^{2}}$. Then $u \geq z \geq 1$ and $x \geq 1, v \geq 1$ and we get


Figure 216.

$$
\begin{aligned}
(u & +v+1)-(x+y+z)=\frac{u^{2}-x^{2}}{u+x}+\frac{v^{2}-y^{2}}{v+y}+\frac{1^{2}-z^{2}}{1+z} \\
& =\frac{2 a b+b^{2}}{u+x}+\frac{2 a b}{v+y}-\frac{b^{2}}{1+z} \leq \frac{2 a b+b^{2}}{1+z}+\frac{2 a b}{v+y}-\frac{b^{2}}{1+z} \\
& =2 a b\left(\frac{1}{v+y}+\frac{1}{1+z}\right) \leq 2 a b\left(\frac{1}{2}+1\right)=3 a b \leq(u+v+1) a b .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{1-a b}{x+y+z} \leq \frac{1}{u+v+1}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
[A B C]=1-\frac{a}{2}-\frac{b}{2}-\frac{(1-a)(1-b)}{2}=\frac{1-a b}{2}
$$

and therefore

$$
r=\frac{2[A B C]}{x+y+z}=\frac{1-a b}{x+y+z} \leq \frac{1}{u+v+1}
$$

Now using Heron's problem (Problem 1.1.1) we see that $u+v=A N+M N$ is a minimum if $N$ is the midpoint of $P Q$, i.e.,

$$
r \leq \frac{1}{u+v+1} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}+1}=\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{4}
$$

Thus the maximum value of $r$ is equal to $\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{4}$ and it is attained only if $B=M$ and $C$ is the midpoint of $P Q$.
3.4.9 We show first that the rectangles must be placed one over another as shown in Fig. 217. Indeed, let $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}$ be arbitrary nonintersecting rectangles in $\triangle A B C$ with a side parallel to $A B$. Consider the lines determined by their upper sides and let the one closest to $A B$ intersect $A C$ and $B C$ at points $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$,
respectively. Then the parts of $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}$ lying below $M_{1} N_{1}$ are contained in the rectangle $A_{1} B_{1} N_{1} M_{1}$, where $A_{1}$ and $B_{1}$ are the orthogonal projections of $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ on $A B$. Hence their total area is at most that of $A_{1} B_{1} M_{1} N_{1}$. Note that the parts $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}$ lying above $M_{1} N_{1}$ are at most $n-1$, since $A_{1} B_{1} M_{1} N_{1}$ contains at least one of them. Proceeding in the same way for triangle $M_{1} N_{1} C$, etc., we conclude that there are $n$ rectangles like that shown in Fig. 217 whose total area is not less than that of $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}$. (If we repeat the construction above $k$ times where $k<n$, then we add $n-k$ arbitrary new rectangles constructed in the same way in triangle $M_{k} N_{k} C$.)


Figure 217.

Denote by $x_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq n$, the distance between the parallel lines $M_{k} N_{k}$ and $M_{k-1} N_{k-1}\left(M_{0}=A, N_{0}=B\right)$ and by $x_{n+1}$ the distance from $C$ to $M_{n} N_{n}$ (Fig. 217). Let $C C_{0}$ be the altitude of $\triangle A B C$ through $C$ and $h=C C_{0}$. Then $\triangle M_{k-1} A_{k} M_{k} \sim \triangle A C_{0} C$ and we get $\left[M_{k-1} A_{k} M_{k}\right]=\frac{x_{k}^{2}}{h^{2}}\left[A C_{0} C\right]$. Likewise $\left[N_{k-1} B_{k} N_{k}\right]=\frac{x_{k}^{2}}{h^{2}}\left[B C_{0} C\right],\left[M_{n} N_{n} C\right]=\frac{x_{n+1}^{2}}{h^{2}}[A B C]$. Denote by $S_{n}$ the combined area of rectangles $A_{k} B_{k} N_{k} M_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq n$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{n} & =[A B C]-\left[M_{n} N_{n} C\right]-\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(\left[M_{k-1} A_{k} M_{k}\right]+\left[N_{k-1} B_{k} N_{k}\right]\right) \\
& =[A B C]\left(1-\frac{1}{h^{2}} \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} x_{k}^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Taking into account that $\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} x_{k}=h$ we get from root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} x_{k}^{2} \geq \frac{1}{n+1}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} x_{k}\right)^{2}=\frac{h^{2}}{n+1}
$$

Hence $S_{n} \leq \frac{n}{n+1}[A B C]$, with equality only if $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n+1}=\frac{h}{n+1}$. Thus, the desired rectangles must be cut as in Fig. 217, where the points $M_{1}, M_{2}, \ldots, M_{n}$ $\left(N_{1}, N_{2}, \ldots, N_{n}\right)$ divide $A C(B C)$ into $n+1$ equal parts.
3.4.10 We deduce from the area of $P_{1} P_{3} P_{5} P_{7}$ that the radius of the circle is $\sqrt{5 / 2}$. An easy calculation using the Pythagorean theorem then shows that the rectangle $P_{2} P_{4} P_{6} P_{8}$ has sides $\sqrt{2}$ and $2 \sqrt{2}$.

By symmetry, the area of the octagon can be expressed as (Fig. 218)

$$
\left[P_{2} P_{4} P_{6} P_{8}\right]+2\left[P_{2} P_{3} P_{4}\right]+2\left[P_{4} P_{5} P_{6}\right]
$$



Figure 218.
Note that $\left[P_{2} P_{3} P_{4}\right]$ is $\sqrt{2}$ times the distance from $P_{3}$ to $P_{2} P_{4}$, which is maximized when $P_{3}$ lies on the midpoint of arc $P_{2} P_{4}$; similarly, $\left[P_{4} P_{5} P_{6}\right]$ is $2 \sqrt{2}$ times the distance from $P_{5}$ to $P_{4} P_{6}$, which is maximized when $P_{5}$ lies on the midpoint of arc $P_{4} P_{6}$.

Thus, the area of the octagon is maximized when $P_{3}$ is the midpoint of arc $P_{2} P_{4}$ and $P_{5}$ is the midpoint of arc $P_{4} P_{6}$. In this case, it is easy to calculate that [ $P_{2} P_{3} P_{4}$ ] $=\sqrt{5}-1$ and $\left[P_{4} P_{5} P_{6}\right]=\sqrt{5} / 2-1$ and so the area of the octagon is $3 \sqrt{5}$.
3.4.11 We shall show that the desired point $M$ is such that $\frac{D M}{M C}=\frac{A K}{K B}$.

Let $P$ and $Q$ be the intersection points of $A M$ and $D K$, and $B M$ and $C K$, respectively (Fig. 219). Then

$$
\frac{K Q}{Q C}=\frac{K B}{M C}=\frac{A K}{D M}=\frac{K P}{P D},
$$

which shows that $P Q\|C D\| A B$.


Figure 219.

Now consider an arbitrary point $M_{1} \neq M$ on $D C$. We may assume that $M_{1}$ lies between $D$ and $M$. Set $P_{1}=A M_{1} \cap K D, Q_{1}=B M_{1} \cap K C, P_{2}=A M_{1} \cap$ $P Q, Q_{2}=B M_{1} \cap P Q$, and $O=A M \cap B M_{1}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[M P K Q]-\left[M_{1} P_{1} K Q_{1}\right] } & =\left[M O Q_{1} Q\right]-\left[M_{1} P_{1} P O\right] \\
& >\left[M O Q_{2} Q\right]-\left[M_{1} P_{2} P O\right]=0
\end{aligned}
$$

To prove the latter equality we first note that $P P_{2}=Q Q_{2}$ since

$$
\frac{P P_{2}}{M M_{1}}=\frac{A P}{A M}=\frac{B Q}{B M}=\frac{Q Q_{2}}{M M_{1}} .
$$

Hence

$$
\left[M O Q_{2} Q\right]=[M P Q]-\left[O P Q_{2}\right]=\left[M_{1} P_{2} Q_{2}\right]-\left[O P Q_{2}\right]=\left[M_{1} P_{2} P O\right]
$$

3.4.12 First solution. Let $a, b, c$ denote the lengths of the sides $B C, C A, A B$, respectively. We assume without loss of generality that $a \leq b \leq c$.

Choose $l$ to be the angle bisector of $\angle A$. Let $P$ be the intersection point of $l$ with $B C$ (Fig. 220). Since $A C \leq A B$, the intersection of triangles $A B C$ and $A^{\prime} B^{\prime} C^{\prime}$ is the disjoint union of two congruent triangles, $A P C$ and $A P C^{\prime}$.


Figure 220.

Considering $B C$ as a base, triangles $A P C$ and $A B C$ have equal altitudes, so their areas are in the same ratio as their bases:

$$
\frac{[A P C]}{[A B C]}=\frac{P C}{B C}
$$

Since $A P$ is the angle bisector of $\angle A$, we have $B P / P C=c / b$, so

$$
\frac{P C}{B C}=\frac{P C}{B P+P C}=\frac{b}{b+c}
$$

But $2 b \geq a+b>c$ by the triangle inequality and we get

$$
\frac{\left[A C^{\prime} P C\right]}{[A B C]}=\frac{2[A P C]}{[A B C]}=\frac{2 b}{b+c}>\frac{2}{3} .
$$

Second solution. Let the foot of the altitude from $C$ meet $A B$ at $D$.
First suppose $[B D C]>\frac{1}{3}[A B C]$. In this case we reflect through $C D$. If $B^{\prime}$ is the image of $B$, then $B B^{\prime} C$ lies in $A B C$ and the area of the overlap is at least $\frac{2}{3}[A B C]$.

Now suppose $[B D C] \leq \frac{1}{3}[A B C]$. In this case we reflect through the bisector of $\angle A$. If $C^{\prime}$ is the image of $C$, then triangle $A C C^{\prime}$ is contained in the overlap, and $\left[A C C^{\prime}\right]>[A D C] \geq \frac{2}{3}[A B C]$.

Remark. Let $F$ denote the figure given by the intersection of the interior of triangle $A B C$ and the interior of its reflection in $l$. Yet another approach to the problem involves finding the maximum attained for $[F] /[A B C]$ by taking $l$ from the family of lines perpendicular to $A B$. By choosing the best alternative between the angle bisector at $C$ and the optimal line perpendicular to $A B$, one can ensure

$$
\frac{[F]}{[A B C]}>\frac{2}{1+\sqrt{2}}=2(\sqrt{2}-1)=0.828427 \ldots,
$$

and this constant is in fact the best possible.
3.4.13 The key observation is that for any side $S$ of $P_{6}$, there is some subsegment of $S$ that is a side of $P_{n}$. (This is easily proved by induction on $n$.) Thus $P_{n}$ has a vertex on each side of $P_{6}$. Since $P_{n}$ is convex, it contains a hexagon $Q$ with (at least) one vertex on each side of $P_{6}$. (The hexagon may be degenerate, since some of its vertices may coincide.)

Let $P_{6}=A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} A_{4} A_{5} A_{6}$ and let $Q=B_{1} B_{2} B_{3} B_{4} B_{5} B_{6}$, with $B_{i}$ on $A_{i} A_{i+1}$ (indices are considered modulo 6).

The side $B_{i} B_{i+1}$ of $Q$ is entirely contained in triangle $A_{i} A_{i+1} A_{i+2}$, so $Q$ encloses the smaller regular hexagon $R$ (shaded in Fig. 221) whose sides are the central thirds of the segments $A_{i} A_{i+2}, 1 \leq i \leq 6$. The area of $R$ is $1 / 3$, as can be


Figure 221.
seen from the fact that its side length is $1 / \sqrt{3}$ times the side length of $P_{6}$. Thus $\left[P_{n}\right] \geq[Q] \geq[R]=1 / 3$. We obtain strict inequality by observing that $P_{n}$ is strictly larger than $Q$ : if $n=6$, this is obvious; if $n>6$, then $P_{n}$ cannot equal $Q$ because $P_{n}$ has more sides.

Remark. With a little more work, one could improve $1 / 3$ to $1 / 2$. The minimum area of a hexagon $Q$ with one vertex on each side of $P_{6}$ is in fact $1 / 2$, attained when the vertices of $Q$ coincide in pairs at every other vertex of $P_{6}$. So, the hexagon $Q$ degenerates into an equilateral triangle. This can be done using the same arguments as those in the solution of Problem 1.4.2. If the conditions of the problem were changed so that the cut-points could be anywhere within adjacent segments instead of just at the midpoints, then the best possible bound would be $1 / 2$.
3.4.14 Note first that the area of any triangle whose vertices have integer coordinates is a number of the form $\frac{n}{2}$, where $n$ is a positive integer. To prove this consider the smallest rectangle containing the triangle and whose vertices have integer coordinates (Fig. 222). Hence the area of any such triangle is at least $\frac{1}{2}$. Thus


Figure 222.
it is enough to prove that the given pentagon $A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} A_{4} A_{5}$ contains a point with integer coordinates in its interior.

Assume the contrary. It is easy to see that there exist two vertices of the pentagon, say $A_{i}\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ and $A_{j}\left(x_{j}, y_{j}\right)$, such that $x_{i} \equiv x_{j}(\bmod 2)$ and $y_{i} \equiv y_{j}(\bmod 2)$. Then the midpoint $M\left(\frac{x_{i}+x_{j}}{2}, \frac{y_{i}+y_{j}}{2}\right)$ of the segment $A_{i} A_{j}$ has integer coordinates and therefore it lies on the boundary of the pentagon. Hence $A_{i}$ and $A_{j}$ are consecutive vertices and let $A_{i}=A_{1}, A_{j}=A_{5}$. Applying the same arguments to the pentagon $A_{1} A_{2} A_{3} A_{4} M$ and so on, we obtain infinitely many points with integer coordinates on the boundary of the pentagon, a contradiction.

### 3.4.15

Lemma 1 If $0 \leq x, y \leq 1$, then

$$
\sqrt{1-x^{2}}+\sqrt{1-y^{2}} \geq \sqrt{1-(x+y-1)^{2}}
$$

Proof. Squaring and subtracting $2-x^{2}-y^{2}$ from both sides gives the equivalent inequality $2 \sqrt{\left(1-x^{2}\right)\left(1-y^{2}\right)} \geq-2(1-x)(1-y)$. It is true because the left side is nonnegative and the right is nonpositive.

Lemma 2 If $x_{1}+\cdots x_{n} \leq n-\frac{1}{2}$ and $0 \leq x_{i} \leq 1$ for each $i$, then

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{1-x_{i}^{2}} \geq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}
$$

Proof. We use induction on $n$. In the case $n=1$, the statement is clear. If $n>1$, then either $\min \left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}$ or $x_{1}+x_{2}>1$. In the first case we immediately have $\max \left(\sqrt{1-x_{1}^{2}}, \sqrt{1-x_{2}^{2}}\right) \geq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$. In the second case, we can replace $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ by the single number $x_{1}+x_{2}-1$ and use the induction hypothesis together with the previous lemma.

Let $P$ and $Q$ be vertices of our polygon such that $l=P Q$ is a maximum. The polygon consists of two paths from $P$ to $Q$, each of intgral length greater than or equal to $l$; these lengths are distinct because the perimeter is odd. Then the greater of the two lengths, $m$, is at least $l+1$. Position the polygon in the coordinate plane with $P=(0,0), Q=(l, 0)$ and the longer path in the upper half-plane. Because each side of the polygon has integer length, we can divide this path into segments of length 1 . Let the endpoints of these segments, in order, be $P_{0}=P, P_{1}=\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right), P_{2}=\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right), \ldots, P_{m}=Q$. There exists some $r$ such that $y_{r}$ is a maximum. Then either $r \geq x_{r}+\frac{1}{2}$ or $(m-r) \geq\left(l-x_{r}\right)+\frac{1}{2}$. Assume the former (otherwise, just reverse the choices of $P$ and $Q$ ). We already know that
$y_{1} \geq 0$, and by the maximal definition of $l$ we must have $x_{1} \geq 0$ as well. Because the polygon is convex, we must have $y_{1} \leq y_{2} \leq \cdots \leq y_{r}$ and $x_{1} \leq x_{2} \leq \cdots \leq x_{r}$. Now $y_{i+1}-y_{i}=\sqrt{1-\left(x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right)^{2}}$, so

$$
y_{r}=\sum_{i=0}^{r-1}\left(y_{i+1}-y_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \sqrt{1-\left(x_{i+1}-x_{i}\right)^{2}} \geq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}
$$

by the second lemma. Hence triangle $P P_{r} Q$ has base $P Q$ with length at least 1 and height $y_{r} \geq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$, implying that its area is at least $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$. Because our polygon is convex, it contains this triangle, and hence the area of the whole polygon is also at least $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$.


Figure 223.
3.4.16 Let the outer quadrilateral be $E F G H$ with angles $\angle E=2 \alpha_{1}, \angle F=2 \alpha_{2}$, $\angle G=2 \alpha_{3}, \angle H=2 \alpha_{4}$. Let the circumcircle of $C$ have radius $r$ and center $O$, and let the sides $E F, F G, G H, H E$ be tangent to $C$ at $I, J, K, L$ (Fig. 223). In the right triangle $E I O$, we have $I O=r$ and $\angle O E I=\alpha_{1}$, so that $E I=$ $r \cot \alpha_{1}$. After finding similar expressions for $I F, F J, \ldots, L E$, we have that $P_{T}=$ $2 r \sum_{i=1}^{4} \cot \alpha_{i}$. Also, $[E F O]=\frac{1}{2} E F \cdot I O=\frac{1}{2} E F \cdot r$. Finding $[F G O],[G H O]$, [ $H E O$ ] similarly shows that $A_{T}=\frac{1}{2} P_{T} \cdot r$. Note that

$$
I J=2 r \sin \angle I O F=2 r \sin \left(90^{\circ}-\alpha_{2}\right)=2 r \cos \alpha_{2}
$$

Similar expressions hold for $J K, K L, L I$ leading to $P_{C}=2 r \sum_{i=1}^{4} \cos \alpha_{i}$. Also note that $\angle I O J=180^{\circ}-\angle J F I=180^{\circ}-2 \alpha_{2}$ and hence

$$
[I O J]=\frac{1}{2} O I \cdot O J \sin \angle I O J=\frac{1}{2} r^{2} \sin 2 \alpha_{2}=r^{2} \sin \alpha_{2} \cos \alpha_{2}
$$

Adding this to the analogous expressions for $[J O K],[K O L],[L O I]$, we find that

$$
A_{C}=r^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{4} \sin \alpha_{i} \cos \alpha_{i}
$$

Therefore the inequality we wish to prove is equivalent to

$$
\left(\sum_{i=1}^{4} \cot \alpha_{i}\right)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{4} \sin \alpha_{i} \cos \alpha_{i}\right) \geq\left(\sum_{i=1}^{4} \cos \alpha_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

which is true by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

### 3.4.17

(a) Let $O$ be the common center of the two circles (Fig. 224). Applying Ptolemy's inequality (Problem 3.2.6) to the quadrilaterals $O A B_{1} C_{1}, O B C_{1} D_{1}, O C D_{1} A_{1}$, and $O D A_{1} B_{1}$, we have


Figure 224.
Addition yields

$$
R \cdot(A B+B C+C D+D A) \leq r \cdot\left(A_{1} B_{1}+B_{1} C_{1}+C_{1} D_{1}+D_{1} A_{1}\right)
$$

For equality to hold, all four quadrilaterals must be cyclic. Hence

$$
\angle O A C_{1}=\angle O B_{1} C_{1}=\angle O C_{1} B_{1}=\angle O A D
$$

by Thales' theorem, so that $O A$ bisects $\angle B A D$. Similarly, $O B, O C$, and $O D$ bisect $\angle A B C, \angle B C D$, and $\angle C D A$, respectively. Hence $O$ is also the incenter of $A B C D$. This is possible only if $A B C D$ is a square. Conversely, if $A B C D$ is a square, so is $A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}$, and the perimeter of the latter is clearly $\frac{R}{r}$ times that of the former.
(b) Let $a=A B, b=B C, c=C D, d=D A, w=A_{1} D, x=B_{1} A, y=C_{1} B$, and $z=D_{1} C$. By the power-of-a-point theorem (Fig. 224),

$$
x(x+d)=y(y+a)=z(z+b)=w(w+c)=R^{2}-r^{2} .
$$

Since we have

$$
\angle B_{1} A C_{1}=180^{\circ}-\angle D A B=\angle B C D=180^{\circ}-\angle A_{1} C D_{1},
$$

we also have

$$
\frac{\left[A B_{1} C_{1}\right]}{[A B C D]}=\frac{x(a+y)}{a d+b c} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\left[A_{1} C D_{1}\right]}{[A B C D]}=\frac{z(c+w)}{a d+b c}
$$

Similarly,

$$
\frac{\left[B C_{1} D_{1}\right]}{[A B C D]}=\frac{y(b+z)}{a b+c d} \quad \text { and } \quad \frac{\left[A_{1} B_{1} D\right]}{[A B C D]}=\frac{w(d+x)}{a b+c d} .
$$

Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\left[A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}\right]}{[A B C D]}= 1+\frac{x(a+y)+z(c+w)}{a d+b c}+\frac{y(b+z)+w(d+x)}{a b+c d} \\
&= 1+\left(R^{2}-r^{2}\right)\left(\frac{x}{y(a d+b c)}+\frac{z}{w(a d+b c)}\right. \\
&\left.\quad+\frac{y}{z(a b+c d)}+\frac{w}{x(a b+c d)}\right) \\
& \geq 1+\frac{4\left(R^{2}-r^{2}\right)}{\sqrt{(a d+b c)(a b+c d)}}
\end{aligned}
$$

by the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality. Also,

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 \sqrt{(a d+b c)(a b+c d)} & \leq(a d+b c)+(a b+c d) \\
& =(a+c)(b+d) \leq \frac{1}{4}(a+b+c+d)^{2} \leq 8 r^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The last step uses the fact that among all quadrilaterals inscribed in a circle, the square has the greatest perimeter (Problem 2.1.12). We now have

$$
\frac{\left[A_{1} B_{1} C_{1} D_{1}\right]}{[A B C D]} \geq 1+\frac{4\left(R^{2}-r^{2}\right)}{4 r^{2}}=\frac{R^{2}}{r^{2}}
$$

### 3.4.18

(a) Let $A B C$ be a right-angled triangle whose vertices are grid points and whose legs go along the lines of the grid with $\angle A=90^{\circ}, A B=m$, and $A C=n$. Let us consider the $m \times n$ rectangle $A B C D$ as shown in Fig. 225 .


Figure 225.
For an arbitrary polygon $P$ let us denote by $S_{b}(P)$ the total area of the black part of $P$ and by $S_{w}(P)$ the total area of its white part.
When $m$ and $n$ are of the same parity the coloring of the rectangle $A B C D$ is centrally symmetric about the midpoint of the hypotenuse $B C$. Hence $S_{b}(A B C)=S_{b}(B C D)$ and $S_{w}(A B C)=S_{w}(B C D)$. Therefore

$$
f(m, n)=\left|S_{b}(A B C)-S_{w}(A B C)\right|=\frac{1}{2}\left|S_{b}(A B C D)-S_{w}(A B C D)\right|
$$

Hence $f(m, n)=0$ for $m, n$ both even and $f(m, n)=\frac{1}{2}$ for $m, n$ both odd.
(b) If $m, n$ are both even or both odd the result follows from (a). Suppose now that $m$ is odd and $n$ is even. Consider a point $L$ on $A B$ such that $A L=m-1$ as shown in Fig. 226.


Figure 226.

Since $m-1$ is even we have $f(m-1, n)=0$, i.e., $S_{b}(A L C)=S_{w}(A L C)$.
Therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(m, n) & =\left|S_{b}(A B C)-S_{w}(A B C)\right|=\left|S_{b}(L B C)-S_{w}(L B C)\right| \\
& \leq[L B C]=\frac{n}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \max (m, n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Let us compute $f(2 k+1,2 k)$. As in (b) we will consider a point $L$ on $A B$ such that $A L=2 k$. Since $f(2 k, 2 k)=0$ and $S_{b}(A L C)=S_{w}(A L C)$, we have

$$
f(2 k+1,1 k)=\left|S_{b}(L B C)-S_{w}(L B C)\right|
$$



Figure 227.
The area of the triangle $L B C$ is $k$. Suppose without loss of generality that the diagonal $L C$ is all black (see Fig. 227). Then the white part of $L B C$ consists of several triangles $B L N_{2 k}, M_{2 k-1} L_{2 k-1} N_{2 k-1}, M_{1} L_{1} N_{1}$ each of them similar to $B A C$. Their total area is

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{w}(L B C) & =\frac{1}{2} \frac{2 k}{2 k+1}\left(\left(\frac{2 k}{2 k}\right)^{2}+\left(\frac{2 k-1}{2 k}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(\frac{1}{2 k}\right)^{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{4 k(2 k+1)}\left(1^{2}+2^{2}+\cdots+(2 k)^{2}\right)=\frac{4 k+1}{12} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore

$$
S_{b}(L B C)=k-\frac{1}{12}(4 k+1)=\frac{1}{12}(8 k-1)
$$

and thus

$$
f(2 k+1,2 k)=\frac{2 k-1}{6} .
$$

This function takes arbitrarily large values.

### 4.14 Polygons in a Square

3.5.1 Hint. Use the same arguments as in the solution of Problem 3.4.3.
3.5.2 Let $A B C D$ be a unit square and $M N P Q$ a quadrilateral inscribed in it (Fig. 228).


Figure 228.
Suppose that all its sides have lengths less than $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$. Then the root mean squarearithmetic mean inequality implies that

$$
A M+A Q \leq \sqrt{2\left(A M^{2}+A Q^{2}\right)}=\sqrt{2 M Q^{2}}<1 .
$$

Analogously, $M B+M N<1, C N+C P<1$, and $P D+D Q<1$. Adding these inequalities gives $4=A B+B C+C D+D A<4$, a contradiction.
3.5.3 The side length of any equilateral triangle inscribed in a unit square is at least 1 , since two of its vertices lie on opposite sides of the square. Hence the minimum of its area is equal to $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$, and it is attained when one of its sides is parallel to a side of the square (Fig. 229).


Figure 229.
Let now $P Q R S$ be a unit square and $A B C$ an equilateral triangle such that $A \in P S, B \in Q R$, and $C \in S R$ (Fig. 230). We may assume that $A P \geq B Q$.


Figure 230.

Translate $\triangle A B C$ vertically such that $B$ coincides with $Q$ and let $A^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime}$ be the images of $A$ and $C$ under this translation (Fig. 230). Set $\alpha=\angle A^{\prime} Q P, \beta=$ $\angle C^{\prime} Q R$ and let $C^{\prime \prime}$ be the intersection point of the line $Q C^{\prime}$ with $S R$. Suppose that $\alpha>15^{\circ}$. Then $\beta=30^{\circ}-\alpha<15^{\circ}$ and we get

$$
C^{\prime} Q=A^{\prime} Q=\frac{1}{\cos \alpha}>\frac{1}{\cos \beta}=C^{\prime \prime} Q
$$

a contradiction. Hence $\alpha \leq 15^{\circ}$ and we have $A B=A^{\prime} Q=\frac{1}{\cos \alpha} \leq \frac{1}{\cos 15^{\circ}}$. This inequality shows that the area of $A B C$ is a maximum when $B=Q$ and $\angle A Q P=\angle C Q R=15^{\circ}$ (Fig. 231). Note that in this case

$$
[A B C]=\frac{A B^{2} \sqrt{3}}{4}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4 \cos ^{2} 15^{\circ}}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2\left(1+\cos 30^{\circ}\right)}=2 \sqrt{3}-3 .
$$



Figure 231.
3.5.4 Draw lines parallel to a side of the square through all vertices of the given polygon. They divide it into triangles and trapezoids (Fig. 232). Consider the line segments joining the midpoints of their sides that are not parallel to the drawn
lines. Suppose that all of them have lengths less than $\frac{1}{2}$. Since the total length of the heights of all triangles and trapezoids is less than 1, it follows that the area of the polygon is less than $\frac{1}{2}$, a contradiction.


Figure 232.
3.5.5 We shall show that there exist three consecutive vertices of the $n$-gon having the desired property. Denote by $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}$ the side lengths of the $n$-gon. Let $\alpha_{i}$ be the angle between its $i$ th and $(i+1)$ th sides and let $S_{i}$ be the area of the triangle formed by these sides. Then $S_{i}=\frac{1}{2} a_{i} a_{i+1} \sin \alpha_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$.
(a) Denote by $S$ the least of the numbers $S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(2 S)^{n} & \leq\left(2 S_{1}\right)\left(2 S_{2}\right) \cdots\left(2 S_{n}\right) \\
& =\left(a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}\right)^{2} \sin \alpha_{1} \sin \alpha_{2} \cdots \sin \alpha_{n} \leq\left(a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 S \leq\left(a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}\right)^{\frac{2}{n}} \leq\left(\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}}{n}\right)^{2} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Denote by $p_{i}$ and $q_{i}$ the lengths of the orthogonal projections of the $i$ th side of the $n$-gon on two perpendicular sides of the square. Then $a_{i} \leq p_{i}+q_{i}, 1 \leq$ $i \leq n$, and we get

$$
a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n} \leq\left(p_{1}+p_{2}+\cdots+p_{n}\right)+\left(q_{1}+q_{2}+\cdots+q_{n}\right) \leq 4
$$

Thus (1) implies $S \leq \frac{8}{n^{2}}$.
(b) The function $\sin x$ is concave along the interval $[0, \pi]$ since $(\sin x)^{\prime \prime}=$ $-\sin x<0$. Hence Jensen's inequality gives
(2)

$$
\frac{\sin \alpha_{1}+\cdots+\sin \alpha_{n}}{n} \leq \sin \frac{\alpha_{1}+\cdots+\alpha_{n}}{n}=\sin \frac{2 \pi}{n}
$$

On the other hand, using the same arguments as in (a) we get

$$
2 S \leq\left(a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}\right)^{\frac{2}{n}}\left(\sin \alpha_{1} \cdots \sin \alpha_{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \frac{16}{n^{2}}\left(\sin \alpha_{1} \cdots \sin \alpha_{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

Now the arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality together with (2) gives

$$
S \leq \frac{8}{n^{2}}\left(\sin \alpha_{1} \cdots \sin \alpha_{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \frac{8}{n^{2}}\left(\frac{\sin \alpha_{1}+\cdots+\sin \alpha_{n}}{n}\right) \leq \frac{8}{n^{2}} \sin \frac{2 \pi}{n} .
$$

3.5.6 Let $D_{1}, D_{2}, \ldots, D_{n}$ be the regions into which the square is divided by the line segments and let $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ and $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}$ be their respective areas and perimeters. Then

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=4+2 \cdot 18=40
$$

Consider an arbitrary region $D_{i}$. Let $Q_{i}$ be the smallest rectangle circumscribed around $D_{i}$ (Fig. 233).


Figure 233.

Clearly $P_{i} \geq 2\left(s_{i}+t_{i}\right)$ and $A_{i} \leq s_{i} t_{i}$. Hence

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i} \geq 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(s_{i}+t_{i}\right)
$$

and

$$
\sqrt{A_{i}} \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(s_{i}+t_{i}\right)
$$

Consequently

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{A_{i}} \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(s_{i}+t_{i}\right) \leq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=10 .
$$

Now suppose that $A_{i}<0.01$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. Then using the above inequality we get

$$
1=\sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{A_{i}} \sqrt{A_{i}}<\sum_{i=1}^{n} 0.1 \sqrt{A_{i}} \leq 1
$$

a contradiction. Thus $A_{i} \geq 0.01$ for some $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$.

### 4.15 Broken Lines

### 3.6.1

(a) It follows from the condition of the problem that the horizontal (vertical) projections of the line segments forming the given broken line do not overlap. Now the solution of the problem follows by the obvious fact that the length of a line segment does not exceed the sum of the lengths of its projections on two perpendicular lines.
(b) Let $A B C D$ be a unit square and $O$ its center. Consider the broken line $A E C$, where $E$ is a point on the segment $O B$ (Fig. 234).


Figure 234.
Its length $l$ takes all values from the interval $[\sqrt{2}, 2)$ as $E$ runs over $O B$. On the other hand, if $E$ runs over the diagonal $A C$ then the length of the line segment $A E$ takes all values from the interval $(0, \sqrt{2})$.
3.6.2 Assume the contrary. Then some edge $A_{1} A_{2}$ of the broken line $P_{1}$ intersects an edge $B_{1} B_{2}$ of the other broken line $P_{2}$. The points $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are not on $B_{1} B_{2}$, because otherwise the distance between two vertices of different broken lines would be less than $\frac{1}{2}$. A similar statement holds for $B_{1}$ and $B_{2}$, so the quadrilateral $A_{1} B_{1} A_{2} B_{2}$ is convex. Applying the law of cosines to triangle $A_{1} B_{1} A_{2}$ and using the constraints of the problem, we get $\cos \angle A_{1} B_{1} A_{2} \geq 0$, i.e.,
$\angle A_{1} B_{1} A_{2} \leq 90^{\circ}$. The same is true for the other three angles of $A_{1} B_{1} A_{2} B_{2}$, and therefore all of them must be $90^{\circ}$. It follows now from the Pythagorean theorem that $\left(A_{1} A_{2}\right)^{2}=\left(A_{1} B_{1}\right)^{2}+\left(B_{1} A_{2}\right)^{2}>1$, a contradiction.
3.6.3 Suppose the ant begins its path at $P_{0}$, stops at $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n-1}$, and ends at $P_{n}$ (Fig. 235).


Figure 235.

Note that all segments $P_{2 i} P_{2 i+1}$ are parallel to each other and that all segments $P_{2 i+1} P_{2 i+2}$ are parallel to each other. We may then translate all segments so as to form two segments $P_{0} Q$ and $Q P_{n}$ where $\angle P_{0} Q P_{n}=120^{\circ}$. Then $P_{0} P_{n} \leq 2 r$, and the length of the initial path is equal to $P_{0} Q+Q P_{n}$. Set $P_{0} P_{n}=c, P_{0} Q=a$, and $Q P_{n}=b$. Then the law of cosines gives

$$
(2 r)^{2} \geq c^{2}=a^{2}+b^{2}+a b=(a+b)^{2}-a b \geq(a+b)^{2}-\frac{1}{4}(a+b)^{2}
$$

so $\frac{4 r}{\sqrt{3}} \geq a+b$ with equality if and only if $a=b$. The maximum is therefore $\frac{4 r}{\sqrt{3}}$. This maximum can be attained, for example, with the path such that $P_{0} P_{2}$ is a diameter of the circle, and $P_{0} P_{1}=P_{1} P_{2}=\frac{2 r}{\sqrt{3}}$ (Fig. 236).


Figure 236.
3.6.4 Let the broken line be formed by $n$ line segments of lengths $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{n}$, respectively. Denote by $a_{i}$ and $b_{i}$ the lengths of the orthogonal projections of the $i$ th line segment onto two perpendicular sides of the square. Then $l_{i} \leq a_{i}+b_{i}$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, and therefore

$$
1000=l_{1}+\cdots+l_{n} \leq\left(a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n}\right)+\left(b_{1}+\cdots+b_{n}\right)
$$

We may assume that $a_{1}+\cdots+a_{n} \geq 500$. Then there is a point on the respective side of the square that is covered by the projections of at least 500 line segments of the broken line. Hence the line through that point and perpendicular to the respective side of the square intersects the broken line at least 500 times.
3.6.5 Divide the square into $n$ vertical strips such that each of them contains precisely $n$ of the given $n^{2}$ points (the boundary points can be assigned to the left or to the right strip). Then we connect the $n$ points in each strip from up to down and obtain in this way $n$ broken lines. Consider the two broken lines connecting all $n^{2}$ points as shown in Fig. 237.


Figure 237.
The union of the line segments connecting the points in consequtive strips is a pair of broken lines whose horizontal projections have lengths less than or equal to 1. Therefore the length of the horizontal projection of one of these broken lines is not greater than

$$
1+(n-1)\left(u_{1}+u_{2}+\cdots+u_{n}\right)=n
$$

where $u_{i}$ is the width of the $i$ th strip. The length of the vertical projection of this broken line is obviously not greater than $n$ and therefore its length is not greater than $2 n$.
3.6.6 We shall show that the government has enough money to construct a system of highways connecting all 51 towns. Indeed, we first construct a highway through one of the towns in the vertical direction from the north to the sought boundary of the country. Its length is 1000 km . Then we construct 5 horizontal highways from the west to the east boundary of the country at distances $100 \mathrm{~km}, 300 \mathrm{~km}, 500 \mathrm{~km}$, 700 km , and 900 km from its south boundary (Fig. 238).


Figure 238.

Then from each of the remaining 50 towns we construct the shortest highway to a horizontal one. The length of any such a highway is not greater than 100 km . The system of highways constructed in this way connects all towns of the country and its total length is not greater than $6 \cdot 1000+50 \cdot 100=11000 \mathrm{~km}$.
3.6.7 Consider the set of points at distance less than $d$ from the points of a given line segment of length $h$ (Fig. 239). Its area is equal to $\pi d^{2}+2 h d$. Now construct such figures for all $n$ line segments of the given broken line. Since the intersection of any two consecutive figures is contained in a disk of radius $d$, it follows that the area of the union $F$ of all figures is not greater than $2 d l+\pi d^{2}$. The condition of the problem implies that the set $F$ contains the given unit square and therefore $1 \leq 2 d l+\pi d^{2}$, which is equivalent to the inequality $l \geq \frac{1}{2 d}-\frac{\pi d}{2}$.


Figure 239.

### 4.16 Distribution of Points

3.7.1 Let the four vertices of the square be $V_{1}, V_{2}, V_{3}, V_{4}$, and let $S=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.P_{n}\right\}$. For a given $P_{k}$, we may assume without loss of generality that $P_{k}$ lies on the side $V_{1} V_{2}$ (Fig. 240).


Figure 240.

Writing $x=P_{k} V_{1}$, we have

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{4} P_{k} V_{i}^{2}=x^{2}+(1-x)^{2}+\left(1+x^{2}\right)+\left(1+(1-x)^{2}\right)=4\left(x-\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}+3 \geq 3
$$

Hence

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{4} \sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j} V_{i}^{2} \geq 3 n, \text { or } \sum_{i=1}^{4}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j} V_{i}^{2}\right) \geq 3
$$

Thus, if we select the $V_{i}$ for which $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j} V_{i}^{2}$ is maximized, we are guaranteed it will be at least $\frac{3}{4}$.
3.7.2 Divide the given square into 25 squares of side length $\frac{1}{5}$. Then one of them contains at least 5 of the given 101 points. These 5 points lie in its circumcircle which has radius $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{10}<\frac{1}{7}$.
3.7.3 Suppose that the distance between any two of the given 112 points is at least $\frac{1}{8}$. Consider the disks centered at these points and with radius $\frac{1}{16}$.

Any two of these disks do not intersect and all of them lie in the set $A$ of points shown in Fig. 241. The area of $A$ is equal to $1+4 \cdot \frac{1}{16}+\frac{\pi}{16^{2}}$. Hence

$$
1+\frac{4}{16}+\frac{\pi}{16^{2}}>\frac{112 \pi}{16^{2}}
$$

which is equivalent to $320>111 \pi$. But this is a contradiction since $111 \pi>333$.
3.7.4 Divide the given unit cube into 8 cubes with edges $\frac{1}{2}$. It is clear that each of them contains exactly one of the given 8 points; otherwise, two of these points are contained in a cube of edge $\frac{1}{2}$, and the distance between them would be less than or equal to $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}<1$, a contradiction.


Figure 241.

Now suppose that one of the given points, denote it by $M$, is not a vertex of the cube. Denote by $B$ the common vertex of the given cube and the cube of edge $\frac{1}{2}$ containing $M$. Then at least one of the orthogonal projections of $M$ on the three edges through $B$ does not coincide with $B$; let this edge be $A B$. Denote by $N$ the point contained in the cube of edge $\frac{1}{2}$ and vertex $A$ and by $M_{1}$ and $N_{1}$ the orthogonal projections of $M$ and $N$ on $A B$. Let $N_{2}$ be the orthogonal projection of $N$ on the line $M M_{1}$. Set $M_{1} B=d \leq \frac{1}{2}$. Then $M_{1} N_{1}^{2}+M N_{2}^{2}=M N^{2} \geq 1$ and $M N_{2} \leq d \sqrt{2}$. Hence $M_{1} N_{1} \geq \sqrt{1-2 d^{2}}$ and we get $d=M_{1} B \leq A B-$ $M_{1} N_{1} \leq 1-\sqrt{1-2 d^{2}}$. Therefore $d \leq 1-\sqrt{1-2 d^{2}}$, which implies that $d \geq \frac{2}{3}$, a contradiction.
3.7.5 Divide the square into 50 horizontal rectangles of height 2 . Suppose that one of these rectangles contains at most 7 centers of the given disks. Then the length of the line segment connecting the midpoints of its vertical sides is less than $8 \cdot 10+7 \cdot 2=94$, a contradiction. Hence each rectangle contains at least 8 centers, and the total number of disks is at least $8 \cdot 50=400$.

### 3.7.6

(a) It is enough to show that the square can be divided into $2(n+1)$ triangles with vertices among the given points $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}$ and the vertices of the square. To do this we first divide the square into 4 triangles by connecting $P_{1}$ with its vertices. If $P_{2}$ lies in the interior of one of these triangles we connect $P_{2}$ with its vertices. If $P_{2}$ lies on a common side of two triangles we connect $P_{2}$ with their opposite vertices. Proceeding in the same way for $P_{3}, \ldots, P_{n}$ we finally divide the square into $2(n+1)$ triangles (Fig. 242).
(b) We may assume that no three of the given $n$ points are collinear. Then their convex hull $M$ is a $k$-gon, $3 \leq k \leq n$. If $k=n$ we divide $M$ into $n-2$ triangles by means of the diagonals through a fixed vertex. If $k<n$ we use the same


Figure 242.
procedure as in (a) to divide $M$ into $k+2(n-k-1)=2 n-k-2>n-2$ triangles. Since the area of $M$ is less than 1 it is clear that in both cases at least one of the obtained triangles has area less than $\frac{1}{n-2}$.
3.7.7 First solution. Suppose no such triangle exists. Divide the 25 lattice points $(x, y), x=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, y=0, \pm 1, \pm 2$, into three rectangular arrays as shown in Fig. 243 (left). If three of the points in $P=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{6}\right\}$ are in the same array, they will determine a triangle with area not greater than 2 . Hence each array contains exactly two points in $P$. By symmetry, each of the arrays in Fig. 243 (right) must contain exactly two points in $P$. This is a contradiction since $P$ contains only 6 points.


Figure 243.

Second solution. Suppose no such triangle exists. By the pigeonhole principle, at least one row contains two points in $P$. Then its adjacent rows cannot contain any points in $P$. Thus the distribution of the points in $P$ among the rows must be ( $2,0,2,0,2$ ). By symmetry, this is also their distribution among the columns. Thus we may restrict our attention to the points $\left(x_{i}, y_{i}\right)$ with $x_{i}=0$ or $\pm 2$ and $y_{i}=0$ or $\pm 2$. At least one of $(0,-2)$ and $(0,2)$ must be in $P$, and we may assume that $(0,2)$ is. If $(0,0)$ is also in $P$, then these two points determine a triangle of area 2 along with any of the other four points in $P$. Hence $(0,0)$ is not in $P$, and that puts $(0,-2),(-2,0)$, and $(2,0)$ in $P$. However, the inclusion in $P$ of any of the remaining four points will create a triangle of area 2. This is a contradiction.
3.7.8 Take a line $l$ passing through a point $P \in S$ and such that the whole set $S$ lies on one side of $l$. Let $D$ be the closed half-disk centered at $P$, of radius $\sqrt{3}$, and diameter on line $l$. Divide $D$ into seven congruent sectors of angular size $\frac{\pi}{7}$ (Fig. 244).


Figure 244.
We are going to show that each sector contains at most one point of $S$, other than $P$. To prove this, take a coordinate system such that $P$ is the origin and $l$ the $x$-axis. Remove from the middle sector of $D$ all points that are within distance 1 from $P$. What remains, is a "curvilinear quadrilateral," whose most distant points are

$$
A\left(-\cos \frac{3}{7} \pi, \sin \frac{3}{7} \pi\right), B\left(\sqrt{3} \cos \frac{3}{7} \pi, \sqrt{3} \sin \frac{3}{7} \pi\right),
$$

with

$$
\begin{aligned}
A B^{2} & =(\sqrt{3}+1)^{2} \cos ^{2} \frac{3}{7} \pi+(\sqrt{3}-1)^{2} \sin ^{2} \frac{3}{7} \pi \\
& =4-2 \sqrt{3} \cos \frac{1}{7} \pi<4-2 \sqrt{3} \cos \frac{1}{6} \pi=1
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that there are no more than 8 points of $S$ in $D$, including the center $P$. Delete all these points from $S$; what remains is a set $S^{\prime}$ of at least 1972 points. The same procedure can now be performed with respect to $S^{\prime}$ and we continue this procedure until there are no points left. At each step we kill 8 points of $S$ (having covered them by a half-disk of radius $\sqrt{3}$ ). Thus the number of steps is not less than $\frac{1980}{8}$, hence not less than 248 . The centers of the half-disks constructed in the successive steps constitute a set of at least 248 points, the mutual distance between any two of them exceeding $\sqrt{3}$.
3.7.9 Since no two of the given $n$ points lie on a radial direction (otherwise the distance between them would be less than $\sqrt{2}-1<1$ ), we may order them clockwise. Consider two consecutive points $A$ and $B$. Set $A O=x, B O=y, A B=z$, and $\angle A O B=\varphi$, where $O$ is the center of the annulus. Then $1 \leq x, y \leq \sqrt{2}$, and $z \geq 1$. By the law of cosines we get

$$
\cos \varphi=\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}-z^{2}}{2 x y} \leq \frac{x^{2}+y^{2}-1}{2 x y} .
$$

For a fixed $x$ consider the right-hand side of the above inequality as a function of $y$. This function is increasing for $1 \leq y \leq \sqrt{2}$ since its first derivative is equal to

$$
\frac{y^{2}-x^{2}+1}{2 x y^{2}} \geq \frac{2-x^{2}}{2 x y^{2}} \geq 0
$$

Hence

$$
\frac{x^{2}+y^{2}-1}{2 x y} \leq \frac{x^{2}+1}{2 x \sqrt{2}}
$$

On the other hand it is easy to check that

$$
\frac{x^{2}+1}{2 x \sqrt{2}} \leq \frac{3}{4}
$$

for $1 \leq x \leq \sqrt{2}$ and we get that $\cos \varphi \leq \frac{3}{4}$. Now the well-known inequality $\cos x \geq 1-\frac{x^{2}}{2}$ implies that $\cos \frac{2 \pi}{9} \geq 1-\frac{2 \pi^{2}}{81}>\frac{3}{4} \geq \cos \varphi$, and we conclude that $\varphi>\frac{2 \pi}{9}$. This shows that $n<9$. Thus, the desired largest $n$ is equal to 8 , since the 8 vertices of a regular octagon inscribed in the circle of radius $\sqrt{2}$ satisfy the condition of the problem.
3.7.10 The problem can be restated using mathematical terminology as follows:

A set $S$ of ten points in the plane is given, with all the mutual distances distinct. For each point $P \in S$ we mark red the point $Q \in S(Q \neq P)$ nearest to $P$. Find the least possible number of red points

Note that every red point can be assigned (as the closest neighbor) to at most five points from $S$. Otherwise, if a point $Q$ were assigned to $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{6}$, then one of the angles $P_{i} Q P_{j}$ would be not greater than $60^{\circ}$, in contradiction to $P_{i} P_{j}$ being the longest side in the (nonisosceles) triangle $P_{i} Q P_{j}$.

Let $A B$ be the shortest segment with endpoints $A, B \in S$. Clearly, $A$ and $B$ are both red. We are going to show that there exists at least one more red point. Assume the contrary, so that for each one of the remaining eight points, its closest neighbor is either $A$ or $B$. In view of the previous observation, $A$ must be assigned to four points, $M_{1}, M_{2}, M_{3}, M_{4}$, and $B$ must be assigned to the remaining four points, $N_{1}, N_{2}, N_{3}, N_{4}$. Choose labeling such that the angles $M_{i} A M_{i+1}(i=1,2,3)$ are successively adjacent, angles $N_{i} A N_{i+1}$ are so too, the points $M_{1}, N_{1}$ lie on one side of line $A B$, and $M_{4}, N_{4}$ lie on the opposite side. As before, each angle $M_{i} A M_{i+1}$ and $N_{i} A N_{i+1}$ is greater than $60^{\circ}$. Therefore each one of $\angle M_{1} A M_{4}$ and $\angle N_{1} B N_{4}$ is less than $180^{\circ}$, and hence $\left(\angle M_{1} A B+\angle N_{1} B A\right)+\left(\angle M_{4} A B+\angle N_{4} B A\right)<360^{\circ}$.

At least one of the two sums in the parentheses, say the first one, is less than $180^{\circ}: \angle M A B+\angle N B A<180^{\circ}$. Here and in the sequel we write $M, N$ instead of $M_{1}, N_{1}$ for brevity.

Since $M A<M B$ and $N B<N A$, the points $A, M$ lie on one side of the perpendicular bisector of $A B$, and the points $B, N$ lie on the other side. Hence, and because $M, N$ lie on the same side of $A B$, the points $A, B, N, M$ are consecutive vertices of a quadrilateral. Since $A B$ is the shortest side of the triangle $B N A$, and since $M A(<M N)$ is not the longest side in the triangle $A M N$, the angles $B N A$ and $A N M$ are acute. Therefore the internal angle $B N M$ of the quadrilateral $A B N M$ is less than $180^{\circ}$. Similarly, its internal angle $N M A$ is less than $180^{\circ}$. Thus $A B N M$ is a convex quadrilateral (Fig. 245).


Figure 245.
Choose points $U, V, X, Y$ arbitrarily on the rays $M A, N B, A M, B N$ produced beyond the quadrilateral. The previous condition $\angle M A B+\angle N B A<180^{\circ}$ implies the inequalities $\angle U A B+\angle A B V>180^{\circ}$ and $\angle X M N+\angle M N Y<180^{\circ}$.

Define the angles $\alpha=\angle N A B, \beta=\angle A B M, \gamma=\angle B M N, \delta=\angle M N A$. In triangle $N A B$ we have $A B<N B$, so that $\angle A N B<\angle N A B=\alpha$, and thus $\angle A B V=\angle N A B+\angle A N B<2 \alpha$.

In triangle $B M N$ we have $M N>B N$, so that $\angle M B N>\angle B M N=\gamma$, and consequently $\angle M N Y=\angle B M N+\angle M B N>2 \gamma$. Analogously, $\angle U A B<2 \beta$ and $\angle X M N>2 \delta$. Hence

$$
2 \alpha+2 \beta>\angle A B V+\angle U A B>180^{\circ}>\angle M N Y+\angle X M N>2 \gamma+2 \delta
$$

This yields the desired contradiction because $\alpha+\beta=\gamma+\delta(=\angle A Z M$, where $Z$ is the point of intersection of $A N$ and $B M$ ).

Thus, indeed, there exists a third red point. The following example shows that a fourth red point need not exist, so that three is the minimum sought.


Figure 246.

Example. The two tangent circles in Fig. 246 differ slightly in size.
The acute central angles are greater than $60^{\circ}$. Six points are just a bit outside the circles. The length of the vertical segment is equal to the radius of the bigger circle. Each point has a unique (hence well-defined) closest neighbor, which has to be marked red.

The only three that will be marked red are the two centers and the point of tangency. If some of the (irrelevant) distances happen to be equal, one can slightly perturb the positions of any points without destroying the mentioned properties.
3.7.11 We shall prove the result by induction on $n$, by means of the following lemma.

Lemma. If more than two diameters issue from one of the given points, then there is another point from which only one diameter issues.

Proof. Let $A$ be an endpoint of three (or more) diameters. The other endpoints of these diameters lie on a circle $O_{A}$ with center $A$ and radius $d$. Moreover, they all lie on an arc of radian measure $\leq \frac{\pi}{3}$, since otherwise the pair farthest apart will be at a distance $>d$ from each other. Denote the other endpoints of three diameters from $A$ by $B_{1}, B_{2}, B_{3}$, where $B_{2}$ lies between $B_{1}$ and $B_{3}$ on this arc. With $B_{2}$ as a center, draw a circle $O_{B_{2}}$ with radius $d$ and denote the intersections of $O_{B_{2}}$ and $O_{A}$ by $P$ and $Q$ (Fig. 247). We claim that no point of the given set, except $A$, lies on the circle $O_{B_{2}}$. For all points of the major arc $P Q$ (except $P$ and $Q$ ) are farther than $d$ away from $A$, all points on $\operatorname{arc} P A$ (including $P$ but not $A$ ) are farther than $d$ away from $B_{1}$, and all points on arc $Q A$ (including $Q$ but not $A$ ) are farther than $d$ away from $B_{2}$. It follows that $B_{2} A$ is the only diameter issuing from $B_{2}$. Thus, if $k>2$ diameters issue from $A$, there is at least one point from which only one diameter issues.

We now proceed by induction on $n$. For a set of three points, there are obviously at most three diameters. So the assertion of the problem holds for $n=3$. Suppose it holds for sets of $n$ points with $n=1,2, \ldots, m$. We shall show that it then holds for sets of $m+1$ points.


Figure 247.

Consider a set $S$ of $m+1$ points. We distinguish two cases:
(a) At most two diameters issue from each of the $m+1$ points. Since each diameter has two endpoints, there are at most $\frac{2(m+1)}{2}=m+1$ diameters, so the assertion of the problem holds for $S$.
(b) There is a point $A$ of $S$ from which more than two diameters issue. Then, by the lemma proved above, there is another point $B$ of $S$ from which only one diameter issues. Now consider the set $S-B$ of $m$ points remaining when $B$ is deleted from $S$. By the induction hypothesis, $S-B$ has at most $m$ diameters. When $B$ is added to $S-B$, the resulting set $S$ gains exactly one diameter. Hence $S$ has at most $m+1$ diameters. This completes the proof.
Note that for any $n \geq 3$, there exist sets $S$ of $n$ points in the plane with exactly $n$ diameters. If $n$ is odd, the set $S$ of vertices of a regular $n$-gon has this property. (See Fig. 248, where $n=5$.)


Figure 248.


Figure 249.

To get an example that works for all $n \geq 3$, consider Fig. 249. In this figure $A, B, C$ are vertices of an equilateral triangle. The remaining $n-3$ points are chosen on the circular arc $B C$ with center $A$.

We note incidentally that Fig. 248 and Fig. 249 illustrate the two cases (a) and (b) occurring in our induction proof.
3.7.12 First solution. Consider first the case $n=5$. We must show that there is at least $\binom{5-3}{2}=1$ convex quadrilateral. If the convex hull of the five points has four of them on its boundary, they form a convex quadrilateral. If the boundary of the convex hull contains only three of the points, say $A, B, C$, then the other two, $D$ and $E$, are inside $\triangle A B C$. Two of the points $A, B, C$ must lie on the same side of the line $D E$. Suppose for definiteness that $A$ and $B$ lie on the same side of $D E$, as in Fig. 250. Then $A B D E$ is a convex quadrilateral.


Figure 250.
Consider now the general case $n \geq 5$. With each of the $\binom{n}{5}$ subsets of five of the $n$ points, associate one of the convex quadrilaterals whose existence was demonstrated above. Each quadrilateral is associated with at most $n-4$ quintuples of points, since there are $n-4$ possibilities for the fifth point. Therefore there are at least $\frac{\binom{n}{5}}{n-4}$ different convex quadrilaterals in the given set of $n$ points. Now,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{n-4}\binom{n}{5} & =\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)(n-4)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot(n-4)} \\
& =\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{60(n-4)}\binom{n-3}{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

and it is enough to prove that $n(n-1)(n-2) \geq 60(n-4)$ for $n \geq 5$. This can be seen by forming the difference $n(n-1)(n-2)-60(n-4)=n^{3}-3 n^{2}-58 n+240=$ $(n-5)(n-6)(n+8)$, and observing that it vanishes for $n=5$ and $n=6$ and is positive for all greater $n$.

Second solution. Choose three points $A, B, C$ of the given set $S$ that lie on the boundary of its convex hull. Then there are $\binom{n-3}{2}$ ways in which two additional points $D$ and $E$ can be selected from $S$. Once they are chosen, at least two of the points $A, B, C$ must lie on the same side of the line $D E$. Suppose for definiteness that $A$ and $B$ are on the same side of $D E$ (Fig. 250). Then $A, B, D, E$ are the vertices of a convex quadrilateral. For if not, their convex hull would be a triangle. One of the points $A, B$ would lie inside this triangle, contradicting the fact that $A, B, C$ were chosen to be on the boundary of the convex hull of $S$. Thus we have found $\binom{n-3}{2}$ convex quadrilaterals whose vertices are among the given points.

### 4.17 Coverings

3.8.1 Consider the circle of minimum radius $R$ containing the quadrilateral. Then either two vertices of the quadrilateral lie on it and are diametrically opposite, or three vertices lie on it and form an acute triangle. In the first case, $2 R \leq 1$, so we certainly have $R<\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$. In the second case, let $\theta$ be the largest angle of the acute triangle. Then $60^{\circ} \leq \theta<90^{\circ}$ so that $\sin \theta \geq \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$. By the extended law of sines, $2 R \sin \theta$ is equal to the side of the triangle opposite $\theta$, which is at most 1 . Hence $R \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$.
3.8.2 Clearly, the unit circles centered at the vertices cover the parallelogram if and only if the unit circles centered at $A, B, D$ cover $\triangle A B D$. To see when this happens, we first prove the following lemma:

Lemma. Let $A B D$ be an acute triangle, and let $r$ be its circumradius. Then the three circles of radius $s$ centered at $A, B, D$ cover $\triangle A B D$ if and only if $s \geq r$.

Proof. Since $\triangle A B D$ is acute, its circumcenter $O$ lies inside the triangle. The distances $O A, O B, O D$ are equal to $r$, so if $s<r, O$ does not lie in any of the three circles of radius $s$ centered at $A, B, D$. It therefore remains only to prove that the circles of radius $r$ centered at $A, B, D$ do indeed cover the triangle. To show this, let $L, M$, and $N$ be the feet of the perpendiculars from $O$ to the sides $B D, D A, A B$, respectively (Fig. 251).


Figure 251.
Then $A N<A O$ and $A M<A O$. Hence the quadrilateral $A M O N$ lies inside the circle through $O$ centered at $A$. Similarly, the quadrilaterals $B L O N$ and $D L O M$ lie inside the circles through $O$ centered at $B$ and at $D$ respectively. It follows that $\triangle A B D$ is contained in the union of the three circles. This completes the proof of the lemma.

It is an immediate consequence of the lemma that the unit circles centered at $A, B, D$ cover $\triangle A B D$ if and only if $1 \geq r$. We shall now show that this condition is equivalent to $a \leq \cos \alpha+\sqrt{3} \sin \alpha$.

Let $d$ denote the length of side $B D$. By the law of cosines,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{2}=1+a^{2}-2 a \cos \alpha \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, by the law of sines, $\frac{d}{2 r}=\sin \alpha$, and hence $d^{2}=4 r^{2} \sin ^{2} \alpha$. Substituting this into (1), we obtain

$$
4 r^{2} \sin ^{2} \alpha=1+a^{2}-2 a \cos \alpha
$$

Therefore $r \leq 1$ if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
4 \sin ^{2} \alpha \geq 1+a^{2}-2 a \cos \alpha \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the right side of (2), replace the term 1 by $\cos ^{2} \alpha+\sin ^{2} \alpha$. Then (2) becomes equivalent to

$$
3 \sin ^{2} \alpha \geq a^{2}-2 a \cos \alpha+\cos ^{2} \alpha=(a-\cos \alpha)^{2}
$$

and it remains to show that $a-\cos \alpha \geq 0$. To do this, we draw the altitude $D Q$ from $D$ to $A B$. Since $\triangle A B D$ is acute, $Q$ is inside the segment $A B$, so $A Q<A B$. But $A Q=\cos \alpha$ and $A B=a$, so $\cos \alpha<a$. This completes the solution.
3.8.3 From the condition, we also know that every point inside or on the triangle lies inside or on one of the six circles.

Define $R=\frac{1}{1+\sqrt{3}}$. Orient triangle $A B C$ so that $B$ is directly to the left of $C$, and so that $A$ is above $B C$ (Fig. 252).


Figure 252.
Draw point $W$ on $A B$ such that $W A=R$, and then draw point $X$ directly below $W$ such that $W X=R$. In triangle $W X B, W B=1-R=\sqrt{3} R$ and
$\angle B W X=30^{\circ}$, implying that $X B=R$ as well. Similarly draw $Y$ on $A C$ such that $Y A=R$, and $Z$ directly below $Y$ such that $Y Z=Z C=R$. In triangle $A W Y$, $\angle A=60^{\circ}$ and $A W=A Y=R$, implying that $W Y=R$. This in turn implies that $X Z=R$ and that $W Z=Y X=R \sqrt{2}$.

Now if the triangle is covered by six congruent circles of radius $r$, each of the seven points $A, B, C, W, X, Y, Z$ lies on or inside one of the circles, so some two of them are in the same circle. Any two of these points are at least $R \leq 2 r$ apart, so $r \geq \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{3}-1)$.
3.8.4 Note first that an equilateral triangle of side length $\frac{3}{2}$ can be covered by means of three equilateral triangles of side length 1 . These are the triangles cut from its corners by the lines through its center and parallel to its sides (Fig. 253).


Figure 253.
Now suppose that an equilateral triangle $A B C$ of side length $a>\frac{3}{2}$ is covered by three equilateral triangles $T_{1}, T_{2}$, and $T_{3}$ of side lengths 1 . Then each of these triangles contains only one of the vertices $A, B, C$; let $A \in T_{1}, B \in T_{2}, C \in T_{3}$. We may assume that the center $O$ of $\triangle A B C$ belongs to $T_{1}$. Consider the points $M \in A B$ and $N \in A C$ such that $A M=A N=\frac{1}{3} a$. Then $B M=C N=\frac{2}{3} a>1$ and therefore $M \in T_{1}$ and $N \in T_{1}$. Hence the rhombus $A M O N$ is contained in triangle $T_{1}$ and we get from Problem 3.4.4 that

$$
\frac{a^{2} \sqrt{3}}{9}=2[A M O N] \leq\left[T_{1}\right]=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}
$$

Thus $a \leq \frac{3}{2}$, a contradiction.

### 3.8.5

(a) The desired radius $R$ is equal to the circumradius of the equilateral triangle of side length 2, i.e., $R=\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$. Indeed, note first that given an equilateral triangle of side length 2 the three unit disks with diameters its sides cover its
circumcircle. On the other hand, if three unit disks cover a circle of radius greater than $\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$ then one of them contains an arc from this circle of more than $120^{\circ}$ and hence a chord of length greater than 2 , a contradiction.
(b) Assume that $R_{1} \leq R_{2} \leq R_{3}$. Using similar arguments as in (a) one can show that if $2 R_{1}, 2 R_{2}, 2 R_{3}$ are side lengths of an acute triangle, i.e., $R_{3}^{2}<R_{1}^{2}+R_{2}^{2}$, then its circumradius is the desired one. If $R_{3}^{2} \geq R_{1}^{2}+R_{2}^{2}$, the desired radius is equal to $R_{3}$.
3.8.6 We shall prove that the desired number is 7 .

Note first that a disk $D$ of radius 2 can be covered by 7 unit disks. Indeed, let $O$ be the center of $D$ and let $F$ be a regular hexagon with vertices on its circumference. Then the 6 unit disks with diameters the sides of $F$ together with the unit disk with center $O$ cover $D$ (Fig. 254).

Suppose now that 6 unit disks cover a disk $D$ of radius 2. Since each of them covers no more than $\frac{1}{6}$ part of the circumference of $D$, it follows that these 6 unit disks form the same configuration as in Fig. 254.


Figure 254.
But then they do not cover the center $O$ of $D$, a contradiction.
3.8.7 The answer is yes. It is shown in Fig. 255 how one can cover a square of side length $\sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{2}}>\frac{5}{4}$ by means or three unit squares.
3.8.8 We may assume that the side lengths of the given squares are less than 1 . Then we cut from each of them the largest square of side length $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$, where $n$ is a positive integer. Note that given a square of side length $a<1$, the integer $n$ is uniquely determined by the inequalities $\frac{1}{2^{n}} \leq a<\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$. Hence the new squares have side lengths of the form $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$ and the sum of their areas is at least 1 . Now we shall show that one can cover a unit square by means of these new squares. To see


Figure 255.
this we proceed in the following way. We first divide the given square into four squares with side length $\frac{1}{2}$, and put on them all squares from the new collection having side length $\frac{1}{2}$. Suppose that the unit square remains uncovered. Then we divide any of the uncovered squares of side length $\frac{1}{2}$ into 4 squares of side length $\frac{1}{2^{2}}$ and put on them all squares of side length $\frac{1}{2^{2}}$ from the new collection.


Figure 256.
We may suppose that some of the squares of side length $\frac{1}{2^{2}}$ remain uncovered and proceed as above until we use all squares from the new collection (Fig. 256). Suppose that after the final step the given square remains uncovered. Since we have used all the squares from the new collection it follows that their total area is less than 1, a contradiction.

## Notation

- In a triangle $A B C: a=B C, b=A C, c=A B ; \alpha=\angle B C A, \beta=\angle A B C$, $\gamma=\angle B C A$;
$r$ - radius of the incircle; $R$ - radius of the circumcircle;
$O$ - circumcenter, i.e., the center of the circumcircle of the triangle;
$H$ - orthocenter, i.e., the intersection point of the altitudes in the triangle;
$G$ - centroid, i.e., the intersection point of the medians of the triangle;
$m_{a}, m_{b}, m_{c}$ - the lengths of the medians through $A, B$, and $C$, respectively;
$h_{a}, h_{b}, h_{c}$ - the lengths of the altitudes through $A, B$, and $C$, respectively;
- $s=\frac{a+b+c}{2}-$ semiperimeter of $\triangle A B C$
- $[A B C \ldots]$ - the area of the polygon $A B C \ldots$
- $\operatorname{Vol}(P)$ - volume of the polyhedron $P$
- $\overrightarrow{A B}$ - the vector determined by the points $A$ and $B$
- $\overrightarrow{A B} \cdot \overrightarrow{C D}=(\overrightarrow{A B}, \overrightarrow{C D})=A B \cdot C D \cdot \cos \alpha-\operatorname{dot}$ (inner) product of the vectors $\overrightarrow{A B}$ and $\overrightarrow{C D}$. Here $\alpha$ is the angle between the two vectors.


## Glossary of Terms

- Circle of Apollonius: The locus of a point that moves so that the ratio of its distances from two given points is constant is a circle (or a line).
- Arithmetic mean-geometric mean inequality:

$$
\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}}{n} \geq \sqrt[n]{x_{1} x_{2} \cdots x_{n}}
$$

for any nonnegative real numbers $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Equality holds if and only if $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n}$.

- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: For any real numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and $y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}$,

$$
\left(x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}\right)\left(y_{1}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}+\cdots+y_{n}^{2}\right) \geq\left(x_{1} y_{1}+x_{2} y_{2}+\cdots+x_{n} y_{n}\right)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{i}$ and $y_{i}$ are proportional, $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.

- Centroid of a triangle: The intersection point of its medians.

More generally, if $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are points in the plane or in space, their centroid $G$ is the unique point for which

$$
\overrightarrow{G A_{1}}+\overrightarrow{G A_{2}}+\cdots+\overrightarrow{G A_{n}}=\overrightarrow{0}
$$

- Centroid of a tetrahedron: The intersection point of its medians, i.e. the segments connecting its vertices with the centroids of the opposite faces. (See also the above.)
- Ceva's theorem: If $A D, B E$, and $C F$ are concurrent cevians (a cevian is a segment joining a vertex of a triangle with a point on the opposite side) of a triangle $A B C$, then (i) $B D \cdot C E \cdot A F=D C \cdot E A \cdot F B$. Conversely, if $A D$,
$B E$, and $C F$ are three cevians of a triangle $A B C$ such that (i) holds, then the three cevians are concurrent.
- Circumcenter: Center of the cir cumscribed circle or sphere.
- Circumcircle: Circumscribed circle.
- Chebyshev's inequality: For any real numbers $x_{1} \leq x_{2} \leq \cdots \leq x_{n}$ and $y_{1} \leq y_{2} \leq \cdots \leq y_{n}$,

$$
\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}\right)\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_{i}\right) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{1}=x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n}$ or $y_{1}=y_{2}=\cdots=y_{n}$.

- Convex function: A function $f(x)$ defined on an interval $I$ is said to be convex if

$$
f\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \leq \frac{f(x)+f(y)}{2}
$$

for any $x, y \in I$. If the second derivative $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ exists and $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in I$, then $f$ is convex on $I$.

- Convex hull of a set $F$ (in the plane or in space): The smallest convex set containing $F$.
- Convex polygon: A polygon in the plane that lies on one side of each line contaning a side of the polygon.
- Convex polyhedron: A polyhedron in space that lies on one side of each plane contaning a face of the polyhedron.
- Cyclic polygon: A polygon that can be inscribed in a circle.
- Dilation (homothety) with center $O$ and coefficient $k \neq 0$ (in the plane or in space): A transformation that assigns to every point $A$ the point $A^{\prime}$ such that $\overrightarrow{O A^{\prime}}=k \cdot \overrightarrow{O A}$.
- Euler's formula: If $O$ and $I$ are the circumcenter and the incenter of a triangle with inradius $r$ and circumradius $R$, then $O I^{2}=R^{2}-2 R r$.
- Euler's line: The line through the centroid $G$, the orthocenter $H$, and the circumcenter $O$.
- Incenter: Center of inscribed circle or sphere.
- Incircle: Inscribed circle.
- Jensen's inequality: If $f(x)$ is a convex function on an interval $I$, then

$$
f\left(\frac{a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{n}}{n}\right) \leq \frac{f\left(a_{1}\right)+f\left(a_{2}\right)+\cdots+f\left(a_{n}\right)}{n}
$$

for any positive integer $n$ and for any choice of $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n} \in I$.

- Heron's formula: The area $F$ of an arbitrary triangle with sides $a, b$, and $c$ and semiperimeter $s=\frac{a+b+c}{2}$ is

$$
F=\sqrt{s(s-a)(s-b)(s-c)} .
$$

- Law of Sines:

$$
\frac{B C}{\sin \alpha}=\frac{C A}{\sin \beta}=\frac{A B}{\sin \gamma}=2 R
$$

in any triangle $A B C$ with circumradius $R$ and angles $\alpha, \beta$, and $\gamma$, respectively.

- Law of cosines:

$$
B C^{2}=A C^{2}+B C^{2}-2 A C \cdot B C \cdot \cos \alpha
$$

in any triangle $A B C$.

- Leibniz's formula: Let $G$ be the centroid of a set of points $\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right\}$ in the plane (space).
Then for any point $M$ in the plane (space) we have

$$
M A_{1}^{2}+M A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+M A_{n}^{2}=n \cdot M G^{2}+G A_{1}^{2}+G A_{2}^{2}+\cdots+G A_{n}^{2}
$$

- Median formula:

$$
m_{c}^{2}=\frac{1}{4}\left(2 a^{2}+2 b^{2}-c^{2}\right)
$$

- Minkowski's inequality: For any real numbers $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}, y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots$, $y_{n}, \ldots, z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{x_{1}^{2}+y_{1}^{2}+\cdots+z_{1}^{2}}+\sqrt{x_{2}^{2}+y_{2}^{2}+\cdots+z_{2}^{2}}+\cdots+\sqrt{x_{n}^{2}+y_{n}^{2}+\cdots+z_{n}^{2}} \geq \\
& \sqrt{\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}\right)^{2}+\left(y_{1}+y_{2}+\cdots+y_{n}\right)^{2}+\cdots+\left(z_{1}+z_{2}+\cdots+z_{n}\right)^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if $x_{i}, y_{i}, \ldots, z_{i}$ are proportional, $i=1,2, \ldots, n$.

- Orthocenter of a triangle: The intersection point of its altitudes.
- Pick's theorem: Given a non-self-intersecting polygon $P$ in the coordinate plane whose vertices are at lattice points, let $B$ denote the number of lattice points on its boundary and let $I$ denote the number of lattice points in its interior. Then the area of $P$ is given by the formula $I+B / 2-1$.
- Pigeonhole principle: If $n$ objects are distributed among $k$ boxes and $k<n$, then some box contains at least two objects.
- Power-of-a-point theorem:
(a) If $A B$ and $C D$ are two chords in a circle that intersect at a point $P$ (which may be inside, on, or outside the circle), then $P A \cdot P B=P C$. $P D$.
(b) If the point $P$ is outside a circle through points $A, B$, and $T$, where $P T$ is tangent to the circle and $P A B$ a secant, then $P T^{2}=P A \cdot P B$.
- Ptolemy's theorem: If a quadrilateral $A B C D$ is cyclic, then $A B \cdot C D+B C$. $A D=A C \cdot B D$.
- Regular polygon: A convex polygon all of whose angles are equal and all of whose sides have equal lengths.
- Regular tetrahedron: A tetrahedron all edges of which have equal lengths.
- Rhombus: A parallelogram with sides of equal length.
- Root mean square-arithmetic mean inequality:

$$
\left(\frac{x_{1}+x_{2}+\cdots+x_{n}}{n}\right)^{2} \leq \frac{x_{1}^{2}+x_{2}^{2}+\cdots+x_{n}^{2}}{n}
$$

for any real numbers $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, where equality holds if and only if $x_{1}=$ $x_{2}=\cdots=x_{n}$.

- Rotation through an angle $\alpha$ (counterclockwise) about a point $O$ in the plane is the transformation of the plane that assigns to any point $A$ the point $A^{\prime}$ such that $O A=O A^{\prime}, \angle A O A^{\prime}=\alpha$, and the triangle $O A A^{\prime}$ is counterclockwise oriented.
- Simson's theorem: For any point $P$ on the circumcircle of a triangle $A B C$, the feet of the perpendiculars from $P$ to the sides of $A B C$ all lie on a line called the Simson line of $P$ with respect to triangle $A B C$.


## - Trigonometric identities:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin ^{2} \alpha+\cos ^{2} \alpha & =1 \\
\tan \alpha & =\frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \\
\cot \alpha & =\frac{\cos \alpha}{\sin \alpha} \\
\csc (\alpha) & =\frac{1}{\sin \alpha}
\end{aligned}
$$

addition and subtraction formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin (\alpha \pm \beta)=\sin \alpha \cos \beta \pm \cos \alpha \sin \beta \\
& \cos (\alpha \pm \beta)=\cos \alpha \cos \beta \mp \sin \alpha \sin \beta \\
& \tan (\alpha \pm \beta)=\frac{\tan \alpha \pm \tan \beta}{1 \mp \tan \alpha \tan \beta}
\end{aligned}
$$

double-angle formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin (2 \alpha)=2 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha, \\
& \cos (2 \alpha)=2 \cos ^{2} \alpha-1=1-2 \sin ^{2} \alpha, \\
& \tan (2 \alpha)=\frac{2 \tan \alpha}{1-\tan ^{2} \alpha}
\end{aligned}
$$

triple-angle formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin (3 \alpha)=3 \sin \alpha-4 \sin ^{3} \alpha, \\
& \cos (3 \alpha)=4 \cos ^{3} \alpha-3 \cos \alpha,
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\tan (3 \alpha)=\frac{3 \tan \alpha-\tan ^{3} \alpha}{1-3 \tan ^{2} \alpha}
$$

half-angle formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin \alpha=\frac{2 \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1+\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}} \\
& \cos \alpha=\frac{1-\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1+\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}} \\
& \tan \alpha=\frac{2 \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1-\tan ^{2} \frac{\alpha}{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

sum-to-product formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin \alpha+\sin \beta & =2 \sin \frac{\alpha+\beta}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha-\beta}{2} \\
\cos \alpha+\cos \beta & =2 \cos \frac{\alpha+\beta}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha-\beta}{2} \\
\tan \alpha+\tan \beta & =\frac{\sin (\alpha+\beta)}{\cos \alpha \cos \beta}
\end{aligned}
$$

difference-to-product formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sin \alpha-\sin \beta & =2 \sin \frac{\alpha-\beta}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha+\beta}{2} \\
\cos \alpha-\cos \beta & =-2 \sin \frac{\alpha-\beta}{2} \sin \frac{\alpha+\beta}{2} \\
\tan \alpha-\tan \beta & =\frac{\sin (\alpha-\beta)}{\cos \alpha \cos \beta}
\end{aligned}
$$

product-to-sum formulas:
$2 \sin \alpha \cos \beta=\sin (\alpha+\beta)+\sin (\alpha-\beta)$,
$2 \cos \alpha \cos \beta=\cos (\alpha+\beta)+\cos (\alpha-\beta)$,
$2 \sin \alpha \sin \beta=-\cos (\alpha+\beta)+\cos (\alpha-\beta)$.

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