m3hsoln77.tex

M3H SOLUTIONS 7. 4.3.2016

Q1 (Euler characteristic; Euler's polyhedron formula).

To show F + V = E + 2, or V - E + F = 2: build up the polyhedron face by face, and count V - E + F after each face is added.

1st face. V = E (a polygon has as many vertices as edges), so V - E + F = 1. 2nd face. If the face is a p-gon, only p - 2 vertices are 'new', and only p - 1 edges are 'new'; one face is new. So the (V-E+F)-count increases by (p-2) - (p-1) + 1 = 0, and stays at 1.

3rd face. If this is a q-gon: q-3 new vertices, q-2 new edges, 1 new face: count changes by (q-3) - (q-2) + 1 = 0, so stays at 1.

... Penultimate face. Similarly: no change; count stays at 1.

Last face. No new vertices or edges; 1 new face; count up from 1 to 2. //

Q2 (Duality).

For projective geometry in the plane, the dual of a statement (involving only incidence, not distance) interchanges the words 'point' and 'line'.

For projective geometry in 3 dimensions, duality interchanges the words point and plane, and leaves the word line unchanged.

So duality sends $(V, E, F) \rightarrow (F, E, V)$, so leaves V - E + F unchanged. So of the Platonic solids, the tetrahedron is self-dual, the cube and octahedron are dual, and the dodecahedron and icosahedron are dual.

Q3 (Truncated solids).

If q faces meet at a vertex, and the vertex is truncated ('shaved off'): 1 vertex is lost, q are gained, so V increases by q - 1; V - E + F increases by (q - 1) - q + 1 = 0: χ is unchanged by truncation (at any vertex, so at all vertices).

For the Platonic solids (p q-gons meet at each vertex): truncation takes

$$V \mapsto V' = qV, \qquad E \mapsto E' = E + qV, \qquad F \mapsto F' = F + V,$$

$$\chi = V - F + e \mapsto \chi' = V' - F' + E' = qV - E - qV + F + V = V - E + F = \chi = 2:$$

the Euler characteristic is unchanged by truncation (as we know from Q1). *Note.* The Greeks had all 13 Archimedean solids, and the 5 Platonic solids – considerable numerical evidence – and they still missed Euler's formula!

Q4 (Stirlings's formula: James Stirling (1692-1730) in 1730).

There are proofs in any decent Analysis book; this one is from J. C. BURKILL, A first course in mathematical analysis, CUP, 1962, Ex. 7(e) Q6.

Consider $d_n := \log(n!) - (n + \frac{1}{2})\log n + n$.

$$d_n - d_{n+1} = -\log(n+1) - (n+\frac{1}{2})\log n + (n+\frac{3}{2})\log(n+1) - 1$$
$$= (n+\frac{1}{2})\log\left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right) - 1 = \frac{2n+1}{2}\log\left(\frac{1+(2n+1)^{-1}}{1-(2n+1)^{-1}}\right) - 1.$$

But for |x| < 1,

$$\begin{split} f(x) &:= \frac{1}{2x} \log \left(\frac{1+x}{1-x} \right) - 1 = \frac{1}{2x} [(x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 \dots) - (-x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \dots)] - 1 :\\ f(x) &= \frac{1}{3}x^2 + \frac{1}{5}x^4 + \frac{1}{7}x^6 \dots \end{split}$$

In particular, $f(x) \ge 0$, so $d_n - d_{n+1} = f(1/(2n+1)) \ge 0$: $d_n \downarrow$.

Also, for |x| < 1, by above

$$f(x) \le \frac{1}{3}(1+x^2+x^4+\ldots) = \frac{x^2}{3(1-x^2)}:$$

$$d_n - d_{n+1} \le \frac{(2n+1)^{-2}}{3[1 - (2n+1)^{-2}]} = \frac{1}{3[(2n+1)^2 - 1]} = \frac{1}{3(4n^2 + 4n)} = \frac{1}{12n(n+1)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{12} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right): \qquad d_n - \frac{1}{12n} \uparrow.$$

So d_n is bounded below, and as it decreases, d_n converges $-d_n \downarrow d$, say. So

$$\exp\{d_n\} = \frac{n!}{e^{-n}n^{n+\frac{1}{2}}} \to A := e^d : \qquad n! \sim Ae^{-n}n^{n+\frac{1}{2}} \quad (n \to \infty).$$

But (Solutions 6)

$$\binom{2n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{2n}} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{n\pi}} \qquad (n \to \infty).$$

Hence (check) $A = \sqrt{2\pi}$, giving Stirling's formula. *Note.* The $\sqrt{2\pi}$ in Stirling's formula is the $\sqrt{2\pi}$ in the standard normal density of Probability Theory and Statistics.

NHB