### The use of DGS and CAS in proving theorems

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### The most important question in teaching mathematics

should be

Why?

### Telling students things

### they can discover on their own,

is a crime.

### Introduction

The talk is organized as follows:

- Proving at schools.
- Verification by DGS.
- Visual proofs.
- Classical proofs.
- Proving by CAS.
- Searching for loci.
- Verification in 3D.

### Proving at schools

 Proving theorems does not belong to favorite activities in math lessons.

> On the other hand, without proving there is no mathematics.

How to get over this disproportion?

### Proving at schools

- Make proving more attractive.
- Persuade students that proofs are necessary.
- Prove such statements we are doubting about.
- Show statements which seem to be true but that are not valid.
- Visualize a proof if possible.
- Show nice proofs.

### Example

Cut the square into two triangles and two trapezes by the figure



Assemble a rectangular from these 4 pieces



Area of the square equals  $8 \times 8 = 64$ .

Area of the rectangle equals  $5 \times 13 = 65$ .

$$64 = 65?$$

Why?

Area of a parallelogram *ABCD* equals 1.





Numbers 5, 8, 13 which occur in this example are three consecutive members of the well known Fibonacci sequence, where

$$a_{n+1}=a_n+a_{n-1}.$$

For instance the sequence  $1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \ldots$  is a Fibonacci sequence. One of its properties is

$$a_{n-1}\times a_{n+1}=a_n^2\pm 1.$$

In our case we have  $5\times 13=8^2+1$  . If we take the next triple 8,13,21 then  $8\times 21=13^2-1$  , etc.

Example

Make an equilateral triangle by paper folding.



Fold the paper such that C' lies on bisector GH



We finish the triangle



Why it is an equilateral triangle?



 $\Delta \text{ CDE} \rightarrow \Delta \text{ C'DE reflection in ED} \Rightarrow \Delta \text{ CDE} \cong \Delta \text{ C'DE}$ 

#### ∡ CDE = ∡C'DE

|EC'|=|C'F|, GH is a bisector

Δ EFD is isosceles

∡EDC'=∡FDC'

xCDE=xC'DE=xC'DF=30°

Remarks:

- The use of scissors and a sheet of paper makes mathematics more attractive.
- Manual activity is required.
- First students can measure the angles by a protractor.
- Second students try to find a proof.
- ► Construction of 3D version a regular tetrahedron.

- Paper folding is more powerful than Euclidean constructions by ruler and compasses.
- For instance by paper folding we can perform a trisection of an arbitrary angle.
- Introduce paper folding into math lessons.
- We should always ask: Why?

- Verification in DGS: A statement is numerically checked by DGS in infinitely many instances.
- Verification in DGS can be considered as the first step of proving.
- Verification in DGS can replace a proof in lower classes at schools.
- Verification in DGS is not a proof.

- There is a high probability that a statement which is verified in DGS is valid.
- Verification in DGS enables stating conjectures.
- Verification in DGS motivates students.

### Example

(Simson–Wallace): Let P be a point of the circumcircle of  $\triangle ABC$ . Then orthogonal projections K, L, M of P onto the sides of ABC are collinear.



- We show that *M* lies on the line *KL*.
- Clicking in GeoGebra on "Relation between Two Objects" we get the answer: Point M lies on the line KL.
- ▶ If *P* moves along the circumcircle, we still see this text.



If we detach P from the circumcircle the text disappears. We see that points K, L, M are not collinear.



### Example

Given  $\triangle ABC$  with vertices on an equilateral hyperbola. Then the orthocenter *H* of  $\triangle ABC$  lies on the hyperbola as well.



- ▶ We ask whether the orthocenter *H* lies on hyperbola.
- Using the window "Relation between two objects", we get the answer Point H lies on hyperbola.
- ► If we move the vertices A, B, C along the hyperbola, we still receive the same answer.



- We can persuade students that the text works right (and we do not cheat them).
- Using the window "Detach" we detach the vertex B from the hyperbola, and the text disappears.
- We see that the orthocenter *H* does not lie on the hyperbola.



In the last example we investigated one of properties of an equilateral hyperbola.

- Equilateral hyperbola has in a certain sense the same importance as a circle.
- It canonical equation is x<sup>2</sup> − y<sup>2</sup> = 1, whereas the equation of a circle is x<sup>2</sup> + y<sup>2</sup> = 1.
- That is why an equilateral hyperbola has many unique properties. One of them was given above.
- Everybody knows that an equilateral hyperbola is a graph of indirect proportion or a graph of linear fractional function.

We can also verify geometric inequalities.

It is clear that we are not able to check all positions of the triangle ABC.

Mathematical proof is necessary.

Let us see the next example.

Example

Given a triangle with side lengths a, b, c and area P. Then

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \ge 4\sqrt{3}P$$

with equality for an equilateral triangle.



Sometimes, to prove a statement, we can use a visual proof.

- Visual proofs are closely connected with DGS.
- ► Visual proof is a proof which follows from the figure.
- Visual proofs are the best proofs, especially at schools.
- In the following we demonstrate a visual proof of the previous inequality.

Inequality

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \ge 4\sqrt{3}P$$

can be written in the form

$$\frac{a^2\sqrt{3}}{4} + \frac{b^2\sqrt{3}}{4} + \frac{c^2\sqrt{3}}{4} \ge 3P.$$

Realize that

$$P_a = \frac{a^2\sqrt{3}}{4}, \quad P_b = \frac{b^2\sqrt{3}}{4} \quad \text{and} \quad P_c = \frac{c^2\sqrt{3}}{4}$$

are areas of equilateral triangles with side lengths a, b and c.

Then we get

$$P_a + P_b + P_c \geq 3P.$$



<=>

#### $P(A'BC)+P(AB'C)+P(ABC') \ge 3P$



The same inequality for a quadrilateral ABCD



Two previous inequalities were special cases of the inequality

$$a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \ge 4tg\frac{\pi}{n}P$$

where  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  are the side lengths of a plane *n*-gon with area *P*.

The equality is attained iff the *n*-gon is regular.

For n = 3 we get

$$a^2+b^2+c^2 \geq 4\sqrt{3}P,$$

for n = 4 we get

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + c^2 \ge 4P.$$

- Visual proofs in connection with DGS represent a very strong tool for proving at schools.
- Visual proofs are very convincing.
- To find a visual proof of a statement is not easy. It requires deep knowledge and experience.
- Use visual proofs at schools whenever it is possible.

#### See:

R. B. Nelsen: Proofs without words I, II.

 C. Alsina, R. B. Nelsen: Charming proofs: A journey into elegant mathematics.

B. Polster: Q.E.D. Beauty in mathematical proof.
### Classical proofs

- By DGS we recognize relations between geometric objects.
- By changing positions of objects in DGS we can analyze the problem.
- This could help us to find a way to a classical (readable) proof.
- There exists software on how to find relations between subjects, e.g. OK Geometry by prof. Magajna, ...
- Many researchers explore ways how to find readable proofs by computer.

### Classical proofs

Classical proof of the Simson-Wallace theorem:



K,L,M collinear ⇔

∡ALM=∡CLK ⇔ ∡APM=∡CPK

as ALMP and CLPK are cyclic quadrilaterals

ABCP and MBKP are cyclic quadrilaterals ⇒

 $\neq$ APC= $\neq$ MPK since sum of opposite angels equals 180<sup>o</sup>

Thus

≰APM=≰CPK Q.E.D.

### Classical proofs

- We needed a key idea to prove classically the Simson–Wallace theorem.
- That is why proving statements is difficult (not only at schools).
- What to do if we do not have a key idea .....
- Therefore scientists try to find an automated way of proving.

Classical proof requires a deep insight into the problem.

If we do not know a classical proof then a computer proof comes into consideration.

 We should give priority to classical proving over computer proving.

- Theory of automated geometry theorem proving.
- Proving theorems.
- Discovering theorems.
- Based on results of commutative algebra in last 40 years.
- Two basic methods Groebner bases method and Wu-Ritt method.
- (Radical) ideal membership theorem, Buchberger's algorithm.

Example

Three heights of a triangle are concurrent.



Introduce a rectangular coordinate system such that A = (0, 0), B = (1, 0), C = (u, v) and H = (p, q).

We'll show that

if 
$$H \in h_a \cap h_b$$
 then  $H \in h_c$ .

$$H \in h_a \Leftrightarrow (H - A) \cdot (C - B) = 0 \Leftrightarrow h_1 := p(u - 1) + qv = 0.$$

$$H \in h_b \Leftrightarrow (H-B) \cdot (C-A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow h_2 := (p-1)u + qv = 0.$$

$$H \in h_c \Leftrightarrow (H - C) \cdot (B - A) = 0 \Leftrightarrow h_3 := p - u = 0.$$

How to show that from

$$p(u-1) + qv = 0$$
 and  $(p-1)u + qv = 0$ 

the relation p - u = 0 follows?

It suffices to write

$$1 \cdot [p(u-1) + qv] + (-1) \cdot [(p-1)u + qv] = p - u$$

or

$$1 \cdot h_1 + (-1) \cdot h_2 = h_3.$$

If  $h_1 = 0$  and  $h_2 = 0$  then from the last relation we get  $h_3 = 0$ .

Q.E.D.

All procedure can be done automatically by computer. In the software  $CoCoA^1$  we enter

```
Use R::=Q[u,v,p,q];
I:=Ideal(p(u-1)+qv,(p-1)u+qv);
NF(p-u,I);
```

and get NF = 0.

This means that the conclusion polynomial p - u can be expressed as a linear combination of hypotheses polynomials p(u - 1) + qvand (p - 1)u + qv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Program CoCoA is freely distributed at http://cocoa.dima.unige.it

If we want to know the coefficients of this linear combination, we enter

and get the answer  $\left[ 1,-1\right] .$  This means that

$$1 \cdot h_1 + (-1)h_2 = h_3.$$

To prove the last theorem in a math lesson:

- First verify the theorem in DGS. Show that H = h<sub>a</sub> ∩ h<sub>b</sub> belongs to h<sub>c</sub>.
- Second try to prove the theorem classically.
- If we find a classical proof then we can omit the computer proof.

Proving by CAS consists of the following steps:

- Introduction of a suitable coordinate system (if necessary).
- Translation of geometric relations into algebraic equations and inequations.
- Expression of a conclusion polynomial in the form of a linear combination of hypotheses polynomials. If is not possible then go on by:
- Searching for subsidiary conditions (cases of degeneracy, objects are not defined, etc.) and adding them to the original hypotheses.

- Now the process repeats. Go on by:
- Expression of a conclusion polynomial in the form of a linear combination of hypotheses polynomials plus subsidiary conditions.
- The theory is not complete (in real geometry), i.e. it can happen that we can not decide whether the statement is true or not.
- Some of these steps are still not solved in the theory of automated geometry theorem proving, e.g. translation of subsidiary conditions back into geometry.

How to use proving by CAS in math lessons?

- It seems that automated proof is a "button" proof, i.e. press a button and receive the answer "yes" or "not".
- From pedagogical point of view "Button proofs" are not suitable at schools.
- But the situation is more complicated. It is not easy to do an automated proof of a statement, because usually human interaction is needed.
- By my experience from the Faculty of Education, University of South Bohemia, only best students are able to produce an automated proof without help.

Let us see the automated proof of the theorem which we verified in DGS before:

#### Example revisited

Given  $\triangle ABC$  with vertices on an equilateral hyperbola. Then the orthocenter *H* of  $\triangle ABC$  lies on the hyperbola as well.



- Introduce a coordinate system such that A = (a₁, a₂), b = (b₁, b₂), C = (c₁, c₂) and H = (p, q).
- Describe geometric objects and relation between them:

$$\begin{array}{l} A \in f \Leftrightarrow a_1 a_2 - 1 = 0, \\ B \in f \Leftrightarrow b_1 b_2 - 1 = 0, \\ C \in f \Leftrightarrow c_1 c_2 - 1 = 0, \\ (H - A) \perp (B - C) \Leftrightarrow (p - a_1, q - a_2) \cdot (b_1 - c_1, b_2 - c_2) = 0 \\ (H - B) \perp (C - A) \Leftrightarrow (p - b_1, q - b_2) \cdot (c_1 - a_1, c_2 - a_2) = 0. \end{array}$$
We want to show that

 $H \in f \Leftrightarrow pq - 1 = 0.$ 

We enter

```
Use R::=Q[a[1..2],b[1..2],c[1..2],p,q];
I:=Ideal(a[1]a[2]-1,b[1]b[2]-1,c[1]c[2]-1,
(p-a[1])(b[1]-c[1]),(q-a[2])(b[2]-c[2]),
(p-b[1])(c[1]-a[1]),(q-b[2])(c[2]-a[2]));
NF(pq-1,I);
```

and get  $NF \neq 0$ .

But if we add a subsidiary condition  $(b_1 - c_1)(b_2 - c_2) \neq 0$  to the ideal I then NF = 0 and the theorem is proved.

Realize that  $(b_1 - c_1)(b_2 - c_2) \neq 0$  geometrically means that  $B \neq C$  which is acceptable since otherwise the triangle ABC degenerates.

Then we enter

```
Use R::=Q[a[1..2],b[1..2],c[1..2],p,q,t];
J:=Ideal(a[1]a[2]-1,b[1]b[2]-1,c[1]c[2]-1,
(p-a[1])(b[1]-c[1]),(q-a[2])(b[2]-c[2]),
(p-b[1])(c[1]-a[1]),(q-b[2])(c[2]-a[2]),
(b[1]-c[1])(b[2]-c[2])t-1);
NF(pq-1,J);
```

and get NF=0.

The theorem is proved.

#### Example revisited

Given a triangle with side lengths a, b, c and area P. Then

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 \ge 4\sqrt{3}P$$

with equality for an equilateral triangle.



We introduce a coordinate system such that A = (0, 0), B = (c, 0), C = (u, v). Then

$$a = |BC| \Leftrightarrow a^2 = (u - c)^2 + v^2,$$
  

$$b = |CA| \Leftrightarrow b^2 = u^2 + v^2,$$
  

$$P = \text{area of } ABC \Leftrightarrow P = 1/2cv.$$

We'll write the left side in terms of coordinates

$$a^{2} + b^{2} + c^{2} - 4\sqrt{3}P = (u - c)^{2} + 2v^{2} + u^{2} + c^{2} - 2\sqrt{3}cv$$

which can be expressed as the sum of squares

$$a^2 + b^2 + c^2 - 4\sqrt{3}P = 2(u - c/2)^2 + 2(v - c\sqrt{3}/2)^2 \ge 0$$
 .

The equality is attained iff u = c/2 and  $v = c\sqrt{3}/2$ , i.e, ABC is equilateral.

- The use of CAS caused a revolution in proving theorems.
- ► Hundreds of theorems were proved and even discovered.
- There are still many unsolved problems which await their solution.
- Efficiency of proving by CAS depends both on the power of computers and on algorithms based on the level of mathematical knowledge.
- Almost 40 years elapsed since 1976 when the first computer proof was done - Four colour problem.

- Searching for loci of points belongs to the most difficult parts of geometry curricula at all school levels.
- New technology tools facilitate this problem considerably.
- Both DGS and CAS are used.
- The valuable topic for students.

By searching for loci we keep with students the following rules:

- First demonstrate the problem with DGS and construct some points of the searched locus.
- On the base of the previous step try to guess the locus.
- Then use the window "Locus" (Geogebra, Cabri,...) to draw the locus.
- Use CAS to determine the locus equation.

#### Example

Let ABC be a triangle with a base AB and a vertex C on a given line k. Find the locus of the orthocenter H of ABC when C moves along the line k.



What is it?

- Some students say: It is a parabola.
- Another students say: It is a hyperbola.
- Or it is neither parabola nor hyperbola?
- What is the solution?
- We'll search for the locus equation.

Introduce a coordinate system such that A = (0,0), B = (1,0), C = (u, v), H = (p,q)and let k be an arbitrary line k : ax + by + c = 0.



For the intersection H it holds:

$$(H-C)\perp(B-A)\Leftrightarrow h_1:(p-u,q-v)\cdot(1,0)=0,$$
  
 $(H-A)\perp(C-B)\Leftrightarrow h_2:(p,q)\cdot(u-1,v)=0.$ 

Further

 $C \in k \Leftrightarrow h_3$ : au + bv + c = 0.

We get the system of three equations  $h_1 = 0$ ,  $h_2 = 0$ ,  $h_3 = 0$  in variables u, v, p, q, a, b, c.

To find the locus of H = (p, q) we eliminate variables u, v in the ideal  $I = (h_1, h_2, h_3)$  to obtain a relation in p, q which depends only on a, b, c. We enter

```
Use R::=Q[a,b,c,u,v,p,q];
I:=Ideal(au+bv+c,p-u,(u-1)p+vq);
Elim(u..v,I);
```

and get the equation

$$\kappa: bp^2 - apq - bp - cq = 0.$$

Suppose that (a, b) ≠ (0,0) since in this case the line k is not defined. Then κ = 0 is the equation of a conic.

► The cases k = h<sub>AB</sub>, k = AC, or k = BC lead to singular conics which consist of two intersecting lines which are not depicted.

Considering regular conics we get two cases:

### Locus equations

1. If  $k \parallel AB$  the locus is a parabola with the vertex (1/2, -b/(4c)) and a parameter |c/(2b)|.



2. If  $k \not\parallel AB$  we obtain a hyperbola centered at  $(-c/a, -b(a+2c)/a^2)$  with one asymptote perpendicular to AB and the second asymptote perpendicular to the line k.



The locus above was found by algebraic and computer tools.

It would be interesting to find a classical geometric proof!

The next example shows an algebraic curve of the higher degree as a locus.

Example

Let ABC be a triangle with a side AB and a vertex C on a circle k centered at A and radius |AB|. Find the locus of the orthocenter H of ABC when C moves along k.



Let 
$$A = (0,0), B = (a,0), C = (u, v)$$
 and  $H = (p,q)$ . Then:

$$(H-C)\perp(B-A)\Leftrightarrow h_1:(p-u,q-v)\cdot(1,0)=0,$$

$$(H-A)\perp (C-B)\Leftrightarrow h_2:(p,q)\cdot (u-a,v)=0.$$

 $C \in k \Leftrightarrow h_3 : u^2 + v^2 - a^2 = 0.$ 



Elimination of u, v in the system  $h_1 = 0, h_2 = 0, h_3 = 0$  gives in the program Epsilon<sup>2</sup>

```
with(epsilon);
U:=[p-u,(u-a)p+vq,uu+vv-aa]:
X:=[p,q,u,v]:
CharSet(U,X);
```

the equation

$$p^2(a-p)-q^2(a+p)=0$$

which is an algebraic curve of third degree called strophoid.

<sup>2</sup>Program Epsilon is freely distributed at http://www-calfor.lip6.fr/~wang/epsilon/

The strophoid can be drawn as the union of graphs of two functions



The graphs of the functions f and g for a = 1.
- The strophoid or more exactly the right strophoid has many interesting properties.
- ► For instance you can use it in calculus to draw graphs above.
- Or to compute the area P of a loop which equals

$$P=2a^2-\frac{\pi a^2}{2}$$

i.e. the area equals "two squares minus two circles over a".

Strophoid is a candidate on the list of algebraic curves of degree higher than 3 which should be taught at schools.



Strophoid is the locus of foci of the ellipse in a cylinder section when the section plane rotates around the tangent to the cylinder at A.

#### 3D locus example

Two skew lines k, l are given. Determine the locus of points which have the same distance to the lines k and l.

If two lines k, l intersect then it is well-known. The locus form two mutually orthogonal lines (in a plane) or two mutually orthogonal planes (in a space) which bisect angles of the lines.



What is the locus if the lines k, l are skew?

We determine the locus equation.

Let  $k : X = A + t\vec{u}$  and  $I : X = B + s\vec{v}$ , where A = [0, 0, a],  $\vec{u} = (m, n, 0), B = [0, 0, -a]$  and  $\vec{v} = (n, m, 0)$ . Choose m, n such that  $m^2 + n^2 = 1$ .



#### Then

$$K \in k \Leftrightarrow h_1 := K - (A + t\vec{u}) = 0,$$
$$PK \perp k \Leftrightarrow h_2 := (P - K) \cdot \vec{u} = 0,$$
$$L \in I \Rightarrow h_3 := L - (B + s\vec{v}) = 0,$$
$$PL \perp I \Leftrightarrow h_4 := (P - L) \cdot \vec{v} = 0,$$
$$h_5 := |PK| - |PL| = 0,$$
$$h_6 := m^2 + n^2 - 1 = 0.$$

Elimination of s, t, n in the system  $h_1 = 0, h_2 = 0, \ldots, h_6 = 0$ 

gives

$$p^2-q^2=cr,$$

where 
$$c = -\frac{4a}{2m^2-1}$$
.

We see that this is the equation of an equilateral hyperbolic paraboloid.



For m = 1/2 and a = 1 we get a hyperbolic paraboloid  $p^2 - q^2 = 8r$ .

Note that the less is the coefficient *a* (i.e. the skew lines are at the smaller distance) the more is the hyperbolic paraboloid similar to two orthogonal planes. For instance for a = 1/16 and m = 1/2 we get



If *m* and *n* tend to have equal direction (i.e. the skew lines tend to be parallel) then the hyperbolic paraboloid is similar to a plane. For a = 1 and m = 3/5 we get



$$x^2 - y^2 = \frac{100}{7}r.$$

Verification in 3D

Locus in a plane can be (numerically) verified either by ruler and compasses of by DGS.

► If the locus is in 3D then verification is more complicated.

 We'll verify the last locus by the method of descriptive geometry with the use of DGS.

The locus of P which has the same distance to two given skew lines k, l is an equilateral hyperbolic paraboloid

$$x^2 - y^2 = -\frac{4a}{2m^2 - 1}z.$$

For a given a, m put z = k and explore plane sections

$$x^2 - y^2 = -\frac{4a}{2m^2 - 1}k$$

which are equilateral hyperbolas.

- In a one-plane orthogonal projection we map this equilateral hyperbola, place a point P on it, end construct feet K, L of perpendiculars to the skew lines k, l.
- Then we construct the distances |PK| and |PL|.
- We show that |PK| = |PL|.



► Note the role of the equilateral hyperbola again.

The method is based on the fact that a hyperbolic paraboloid can be covered by a pencil of conics.

▶ With sliders we can change the values *m*, *a* and *k*.

• This enables to verify the locus in all positions of *P*.

# Thank you for attention