1. Scarlett will win if she uses the following strategy:

- On the first turn, Scarlett selects the center square.
- On each subsequent turn, if Indigo selects square $X$ in her turn, then Scarlett selects the square that is a $180^{\circ}$ rotation about the center square.

We claim that if Scarlett follows this strategy, then she will always be able to make a move on her turn. After Scarlett's first turn, the board looks like this:


Notice that the board has a $180^{\circ}$ symmetry: if a square is painted, then its $180^{\circ}$ rotation is also painted, and vice versa. Additionally, the only squares $X$ whose $180^{\circ}$ rotations lie in the same row or column are the squares $X$ in the center row or center column, which are already painted. Since Indigo cannot play in any of these squares, her move will necessarily allow Scarlett to select the $180^{\circ}$ rotation of $X$ on her turn.

This means that after Scarlett's turn, the symmetry of the board is preserved, since the squares that she paints are exactly the $180^{\circ}$ rotations of the squares that Indigo painted. Therefore, Scarlett's strategy continues to work after each of Indigo's turns. Since only a finite number of moves can be made, it follows that the game must end with Indigo unable to make a move, and Scarlett wins.
2. The answer is $N=2$ and the possibilities are $A=33$ and $A=34$.

Note that $A / 99$ can be written as a repeating decimal with two-digit blocks, each of which are equal to $A$. For instance, $37 / 99=0.373737 \ldots$. However, $99 / 99=1.000 \ldots$. Thus, if Abigail tells Chris a first digit $C$ after the decimal point of $A / 99$, then Chris will be able to list 10 possibilities for $A$ unless $C=9$, in which case Chris can only list the nine possibilities $A=90,91, \ldots, 98$. Therefore, when Bruno is told the first digit $B$ of $A / 11$, he must know that $A$ is not any of $90,91, \ldots, 98$. Since $\frac{A+11}{11}=\frac{A}{11}+1$ has the same first digit after the decimal point as $\frac{A}{11}$, it follows that the digit B only depends on the value of $A$ modulo 11 . In particular, if $A \equiv 0,1(\bmod 11)$, then $B=0$, while if $A \equiv k(\bmod 11)$ for $2 \leq k \leq 10$, then $B=k-1$. Note that $A=90,91, \ldots, 98$ give $B=2,3, \ldots, 10$, respectively, which all must be impossible as otherwise Bruno could not deduce that Chris can narrow $A$ down to 10 possibilities. Therefore, $A \equiv 0$ or $A \equiv 1 \bmod 11$, and $B=0$.
Following the logic in the above paragraph, Chris deduces that $B=0$, and thus that $A \equiv 0$ or $A \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 11)$. For each possible value of $C$, we now list possible values of $A$ which are 0 or $1 \bmod 11$ :

| $C$ | Possible values for $A$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1,99 |
| 1 | 11,12 |
| 2 | 22,23 |
| 3 | 33,34 |
| 4 | 44,45 |
| 5 | 55,56 |
| 6 | 66,67 |
| 7 | 77,78 |
| 8 | 88,89 |

It remains to check for which of these cases all values for $A$ are the product of two distinct primes. The only row satisfying this criteria is $C=3$, with $A=33=3 \cdot 11$ or $A=34=2 \cdot 17$. Therefore, $C=3, N=2$, and either $A=33$ or $A=34$.
3. We claim the answer is $90^{\circ}$. This is achievable when $P Q R S$ is a square.

To show that this is minimal, let $C$ be the convex closure of $P, Q, R, S$. (The convex closure of a set of points is the smallest convex polygon containing those points.) If $C$ is a quadrilateral, then its internal angles add up to $360^{\circ}$, so there must be at least one angle greater than or equal to $90^{\circ}$. If any three points are collinear, then the angle between those three points is $180^{\circ}$. Otherwise, without loss of generality, say $S$ lies inside triangle $P Q R$. Then angles $P S Q, Q S R$, and $R S P$ add up to $360^{\circ}$, and are all less than $180^{\circ}$. So one of them is at least $120^{\circ}$.
4. There are 83 possibilities for Daniel's function. We consider the following three cases:

Case 1: $m=0$. If Daniel's function is the last function to be pulled out of the hat, the final answer will be $0 \cdot x+b=b$. Therefore, we must have $b=1$. Additionally, $m=0$ and $b=1$ is achievable, because if everyone's function is the constant function $f(x)=1$, the end result will always be 1 . So there is 1 possibility in this case.
Case 2: $m \geq 1$ and $b=0$. Suppose that the other nine functions are $g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{9}$. If we apply the functions in the order $f, g_{9}, g_{8}, \ldots, g_{1}$, then since $f(0)=m \cdot 0=0$, we obtain

$$
g_{1}\left(g_{2}\left(\cdots g_{9}(f(0)) \cdots\right)\right)=g_{1}\left(g_{2}\left(\cdots g_{9}(0) \cdots\right)\right)=1 .
$$

But if we apply the functions in the order $g_{9}, g_{8}, \cdots g_{1}, f$, then we obtain

$$
f\left(g_{1}\left(g_{2}\left(\cdots g_{9}(0) \cdots\right)\right)\right)=f(1)=m \cdot 1=m
$$

Therefore we must have $m=1$. Additionally, $m=1$ and $b=0$ is achievable by letting $f(x)=x$ and $g_{i}(x)$ be the constant function 1 for all $i$. So there is also 1 possibility in this case.
Case 3: $m, b \geq 1$. We claim that we can pick nine other functions such that if the functions are applied in any order, then the end result is always 1 . We will define everyone's function to be the same function $g$, which will be based off of Daniel's favorite function. To show how we arrive at
$g$, first imagine that everyone's favorite function was Daniel's favorite function, that is, $g=f$. Then we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(0) & =b \\
f^{2}(0) & =b m+b \\
f^{3}(0) & =b m^{2}+b m+b \\
& \vdots \\
f^{10}(0) & =b m^{9}+b m^{8}+\cdots+b m+b
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that this is a strictly increasing sequence of positive integers. But $f^{10}(0)$ does not take us back to 1 . So rather than using $g=f$, we use the slightly modified

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1-b}{m} & \text { if } x=f^{8}(0) \\ 1 & \text { if } x=f^{9}(0) \\ f(x) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Since $f$ and $g$ do the same things to $0, f(0), f^{2}(0), \ldots$, and $f^{7}(0)$ (and since all of these are distinct numbers), we can assume that after 8 functions have been pulled out of the hat, 0 has been turned into $f^{8}(0)$. After this, we find:

- If Daniel's function is picked next, then the next value is $f^{9}(0)$, and then $g(x)$ is picked, last, so the final value is $g\left(f^{9}(0)\right)=1$.
- If $g$ is picked next, then the next value is $g\left(f^{8}(0)\right)=\frac{1-b}{m}$, so the final value is $f\left(\frac{1-b}{m}\right)=$ $m \cdot \frac{1-b}{m}+b=1$.
In either case, the final value is 1 , so if $m, b \geq 1$, then we have shown that $f(x)=m x+b$ could possibly be Daniel's function. Therefore, this case has $9 \cdot 9=81$ possibilities.
Note: There are other choices for $g$ that work; for example, we can take

$$
g(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{1-b}{m} & \text { if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 & \text { if } x>0\end{cases}
$$

In summary, we have demonstrated that $(m, b)$ can be $(0,1),(1,0)$, or we can have $m, b \geq 1$, for a total of $1+1+9^{2}=83$ functions.
5. The optimal strategy is to roll one die and keep it only if it is a 6 , and if not to roll the other 2022 dice and keep the maximum of those. Call this strategy ( $*$ ).
First, Noureddine should only divide the dice into two piles; if he divides them into three piles with $A, B$, and $C$ dice, then he can do at least as well with piles of $A+B$ and $C$ dice by making the same decision (keep or discard) after seeing the $A+B$ dice that he would by seeing the $A$ and $B$ dice separately, and maybe he can do better by seeing more information at once. The same argument applies to any number of piles greater than 3 , so we may assume there are only two piles.


Let the two piles have sizes $A$ and $B$, where $A+B=2023$. Let $E(N)$ be the expected value of the maximum of $N$ dice. For example, $E(1)=3.5$. If $A$ is fixed, then Noureddine's best strategy is to roll the first pile, keep the maximum if it's greater than $E(B)$, and otherwise roll and keep the maximum of the second pile. Additionally, we expect that $E(N)$ should quickly approach 6 as $N$ gets large, as it is very likely to roll at least one 6 . Concretely, $E(N)$ is given by the formula

$$
E(N)=6-\frac{5^{N}+4^{N}+3^{N}+2^{N}+1}{6^{N}}
$$

where this formula computes the maximum by subtracting one at a time: $\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{N}$ is the probability that all dice are at most $5,\left(\frac{4}{6}\right)^{N}$ is the probability that all dice are at most 4 , and so on. Observe that $(5 / 6)^{N},(4 / 6)^{N}, \ldots,(1 / 6)^{N}$ are all decreasing functions of $N$, so when they are subtracted from 6 , it follows that $E(N)$ is an increasing function of $N$. Using this formula, the first few values of $E(N)$ are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E(1)=6-\frac{15}{6}=3+\frac{1}{2} \\
& E(2)=6-\frac{55}{36}=4+\frac{17}{36} \\
& E(3)=6-\frac{225}{216}=4+\frac{207}{216} \\
& E(4)=6-\frac{979}{1296}=5+\frac{317}{1296} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We first consider the case $B \geq 4$, i.e., $A \leq 2019$. Since $E(B) \geq 5$, Noureddine keeps one of the $A$ dice only if he rolls a 6 . Comparing this strategy to $(*)$, we notice that both strategies score 6 if any of the dice are a 6 . However, given that all the dice are 5 or fewer, Noureddine's expected score for $(*)$ is $E(2022)$, whereas his expected score for $A \geq 2$ is $E(2023-A)<E(2022)$. Therefore, this case is not optimal unless $A=1$.
It then remains to consider the case where $B<4$, i.e. $A \geq 2020$. In this case, $E(B)<5$. We claim that this case is not optimal either, by again comparing to what happens if strategy $(*)$ is applied to the same dice.

- If there is a 6 among the $A$ dice, then both strategies score 6 .
- If there is a 6 among the $B$ dice but not among the $A$ dice, and the maximum of the $A$ dice is exactly 5 , then strategy $(*)$ scores at least 1 higher. This happens with probability

$$
\left(\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{A}-\left(\frac{4}{6}\right)^{A}\right)\left(1-\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{B}\right)>\left(\frac{5^{A}-4^{A}}{6^{A}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{6} \quad \text { since } B \geq 1 .
$$

- Finally, if there are no 6 s , then strategy $(*)$ might score better, the same, or worse. But it only scores worse if the first die is less than 6 , strictly larger than all other dice, and good enough to keep (above $f(B)$, which is at least 3.5). So the first die must be a 4 or 5 , and the last 2022 dice must be $1,2,3$, or 4 . This happens with probability at most $\frac{2}{6}\left(\frac{4}{6}\right)^{2022}$, and the amount that it scores worse is at most 4 .

In total, the expected advantage of strategy $(*)$ over the candidate strategy is at least

$$
\left(\frac{5^{A}-4^{A}}{6^{A}}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{6}-4 \cdot \frac{2}{6} \cdot\left(\frac{4}{6}\right)^{2022}=\frac{5^{A} 6^{B}-4^{A} 6^{B}-12 \cdot 4^{2023}}{6^{2024}}
$$

Since $4^{2023}=4^{A+B}<4^{A} 6^{B}$, dividing out by $6^{B}$ the numerator is at least $5^{A}-13 \cdot 4^{A}$, which is positive since $A \geq 16$. Specifically, $\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{4}=\frac{625}{256}>2$, so $\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{A} \geq\left(\frac{5}{4}\right)^{4 \cdot 4}>2^{4}=16>13$.
In summary, we have shown that it cannot be optimal to divide into two piles $A, B$ (with $B<4$ ), nor can it be optimal to divide into two piles $A, B$ with $B \geq 4$ and $A \geq 2$. Therefore, the only remaining case is $A=1$ and $B=2022$, so strategy $(*)$ is optimal.
6. We prove that there are only four such operations $x \mid y: \max (x, y), \min (x, y)$, first $(x, y)=x$, and $\operatorname{last}(x, y)=y$.
In the following lemmas, we first show idempotence $x \mid x=x$, with some work. Then we look at chains of sums of $(0 \mid 1)$ to find $0 \mid n=n(0 \mid 1)$, and finally we determine that $(0 \mid 1)$ is either 0 or 1 . Combining this with the symmetric observation that $(1 \mid 0)$ is either 0 or 1 will give us the four cases.
Lemma 1: $x \mid x=x$.
Since $x \mid x=x+(0 \mid 0)$, it suffices to show $0 \mid 0=0$. Consider the map $\phi: \mathbb{Z}^{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ (where $\mathbb{Z}$ is the integers and $\mathbb{Z}^{+}$is the positive integers) defined by $\phi(n)=\underbrace{0|0| \cdots \mid 0}_{n \text { zeros }}$. Then we claim

$$
\phi(m n)=\phi(m)+\phi(n)
$$

This is by rewriting the right-hand side as

$$
\underbrace{0|0| \cdots \mid 0}_{m}+\phi(n)=\underbrace{\phi(n)|\cdots| \phi(n)}_{m}
$$

and expanding. In particular, we have that $\phi\left(p^{a}\right)=a \phi(p)$ for any prime $p$.
Now we claim that $\phi(x)=\phi(y)$ for some $0 \leq x<y$. If $\phi(p)=0$ for any prime, then $\phi(1)=\phi(p)$. Otherwise, there must be primes $p_{1}$ and $p_{2}$ such that $\phi\left(p_{1}\right)$ and $\phi\left(p_{2}\right)$ have the same sign. Examining $\phi\left(p_{1}^{a}\right)=a \phi\left(p_{1}\right)$ and $\phi\left(p_{2}^{b}\right)=b \phi\left(p_{2}\right)$, we see that we can choose $a, b>0$ to make these equal: in particular, $a=\left|\phi\left(p_{2}\right)\right|$ and $b=\left|\phi\left(p_{1}\right)\right|$.
To complete the proof of Lemma $1, \phi(x)=\phi(y)$ implies that $\phi(n)$ is periodic for $n$ sufficiently large, since $\phi(n)=\phi(n-x)|\phi(x)=\phi(n-x)| \phi(y)=\phi(n-x+y)$, and hence bounded. But $\phi\left(2^{a}\right)=a \phi(2)$ is not bounded unless $\phi(2)=0$, so $\phi(2)=0 \mid 0=0$, and in fact, $\phi(n)=0$ for all $n$.
Lemma 2: For $n \geq 0,0|1| \cdots \mid n=n(0 \mid 1)$.
Proof by induction:

$$
\begin{aligned}
0|1| 2|\cdots| n \mid(n+1) & =0|(1 \mid 1)|(2 \mid 2)|\cdots|(n \mid n) \mid(n+1) \quad \text { by Lemma } 1 \\
& =(0 \mid 1)|(1 \mid 2)| \cdots \mid(n \mid(n+1)) \\
& =(0+(0 \mid 1))|(1+(0 \mid 1))|(2+(0 \mid 1))+\cdots \\
& =(0|1| \cdots \mid n)+(0 \mid 1)
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 3: For $n \geq 0,0 \mid n=n(0 \mid 1)$.
Note that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(0 \mid n)+(0|1| 2|\ldots| n) & =(0+(0|1| 2|\ldots| n)) \mid(n+(0|1| 2|\ldots| n)) \\
& =0|1| 2|\ldots|(2 n) \quad \text { by Lemma } 1: n \mid n=n
\end{aligned}
$$

Applying Lemma 2, $(0 \mid n)+n(0 \mid 1)=2 n(0 \mid 1)$, and the result follows.
Lemma 4: $(0 \mid 1) \in\{0,1\}$.
Let $k=(0 \mid 1)$. By idempotence, $0|1=0| 0|1| 1$, and we consider different ways to evaluate this associatively. First, $(0 \mid 1)|1=k| 1$, and second, $0|(0 \mid 1)=0| k$. Thus,

$$
k=k|1=0| k
$$

Now we have two cases. If $k \geq 0$, then

$$
0 \mid k=k(0 \mid 1)=k^{2},
$$

so $k=k^{2}$ and $k \in\{0,1\}$. Second, if $k<0$, then subtracting $k$ from $k=k \mid 1$ we get

$$
0=(k-k)|(1-k)=0|(1-k)=(1-k)(0 \mid 1)=(1-k) k
$$

so again $k=0$ or $k=1$ (actually a contradiction since $k<0$ ), and we are done.
Putting things together: All of lemmas 2-4 can be proven identically for the symmetric case of $b \mid a$ instead of $a \mid b$, from which we get that $1 \mid 0 \in\{0,1\}$. So there are two cases for $0 \mid 1$ and two cases for $1 \mid 0$. Together with Lemma 3 we can then calculate $m \mid n$ for any $m, n$ :

$$
m \left\lvert\, n=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
m+(0 \mid(n-m))=m+(n-m)(0 \mid 1) \text { if } n \geq m \\
n+((m-n) \mid 0)=n+(m-n)(1 \mid 0) \text { if } m \geq n .
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$

In particular:

- If $0|1=1| 0=1$, this gives the max operation $\max (x, y)$.
- If $0|1=1| 0=0$, this gives the $\min$ operation $\min (x, y)$.
- If $0 \mid 1=0$ and $1 \mid 0=1$, this gives the function $\operatorname{first}(x, y)=x$.
- Finally, if $0 \mid 1=1$ and $1 \mid 0=0$, this gives the function last $(x, y)=y$.

It's easy to verify that each of these operations satisfy the given two properties, so these are the only four possible binary operations.

