- There are 4 hours available for the problems.
- Every problem is worth at most 10 points.



# MOAWOA Solutions June 24 2011

## Problem 1.

Let n be a natural number and define A to be the  $n \times n$  matrix with  $A_{i,i+1} = A_{i+1,i} = i + 1$  and  $A_{ii} = i^2 + 1$  whenever  $1 \le i < n$ ,  $A_{nn} = n^2$  and all other entries are zero. Calculate det A.

**Solution 1.** We will prove by induction that det  $A = n!^2$ . This is trivial for n = 1 and n = 2, now suppose it is true for some  $n \ge 2$ . Then we get

$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	. 0 . 0	0 0		$\begin{vmatrix} 2\\ 2 \end{vmatrix}$	$\frac{2}{5}$				0 0	
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{c} \cdot & \vdots \\ \cdot & n^2 + 1 \\ & n + 1 \end{array} $	$\vdots \\ n+1 \\ (n+1)^2$	=	$\begin{vmatrix} \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{vmatrix}$	:	••. •••	$\vdots$ $n^2$ n+1	(n	$\frac{1}{0}$	2
$= (n+1)^2$	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	(   	$\left  \begin{array}{c} \cdots \\ \cdots \\ \vdots \\ n^2 \end{array} \right $	- (1	n + 1	$\begin{array}{c c} & 2 \\ 2 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{array}$	2 5 :	···· ····	···· ··· i n	0 0 : 0

 $= (n+1)^2 n!^2 = (n+1)!^2.$ 

**Solution 2.** Denote by *B* the matrix with diagonal entries 1, 2, ..., n, superdiagonal entries equal to 1 and all other entries equal to 0. Then  $A = BB^t$ , thus det  $A = (\det B)(\det B^t) = n!^2$ .

### Problem 2.

Find all permutations  $\sigma$  on the set  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  satisfying

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\sigma(i)}{i} = n$$

**Solution 1.** We will prove by induction that any  $\sigma$ , not equal to the identity, satisfies

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\sigma(i)}{i} > n.$$

This would then imply that the only permutation that is a solution is the identity. For n = 2 this is evident, since  $2 + \frac{1}{2} > 2$ . Now suppose the statement is true for some  $n \ge 2$ . Let  $\sigma$  be a permutation on the set  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n+1\}$ . If  $\sigma(n+1) = n+1$  then clearly we are done, so let us suppose  $\sigma(n+1) \ne n+1$ . Then we find  $i_0, j_0 \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  such that  $\sigma(i_0) = n+1$  and  $\sigma(n+1) = j_0$ . Now let us define a permutation  $\sigma_0$  on  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  by  $\sigma_0(i) = \sigma(i)$  when  $i \ne i_0$  and  $\sigma(i_0) = j_0$ . We get

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \frac{\sigma(i)}{i} = \frac{n+1}{i_0} + \frac{j_0}{n+1} - \frac{j_0}{i_0} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\sigma_0(i)}{i}$$
$$\geq \frac{n+1-j_0}{i_0} + \frac{j_0}{n+1} + n > \frac{n+1-j_0}{n+1} + \frac{j_0}{n+1} + n = n+1.$$

Solution 2. By the Arithmetic Mean-Geometric Mean Inequality we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\sigma(i)}{i} \ge n \sqrt[n]{\frac{\sigma(1)}{1} \frac{\sigma(2)}{2} \cdots \frac{\sigma(n)}{n}} = n$$

and we have equality if and only if  $\frac{\sigma(1)}{1} = \frac{\sigma(2)}{2} = \ldots = \frac{\sigma(2)}{2}$ . Because  $\frac{\sigma(n)}{n} \le 1 \le \frac{\sigma(1)}{1}$  this only happens when  $\frac{\sigma(i)}{i} = 1$  for all  $1 \le i \le n$ , i.e.  $\sigma$  must be the identity.

#### Problem 3.

Let n be a natural number. Give (explicitly) real numbers  $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , not all equal to zero, such that for all n times continuously differentiable functions  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  the following equation holds

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k f(kx) = \mathcal{O}(x^n) \text{ for } x \text{ small enough.}$$

**Solution.** Take  $a_k = \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{n-k}$  and let  $g(x) = \sum a_k f(kx)$ . First we notice

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k^m \binom{n}{k} (-1)^{n-k} = \frac{d^m}{dx^m} (e^x - 1)^n |_{x=0} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le m < n \\ n! & \text{if } m = n \end{cases}$$

This shows that  $g^{(n)}(0) = n! f^{(n)}(0)$  and  $g(0) = g'(0) = \ldots = g^{(n-1)}(0) = 0$ . Hence we may apply l'Hôpitals theorem successively to obtain that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{g(x)}{x^n} = \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = f^{(n)}(0)$$

which proves that  $g(x) = \mathcal{O}(x^n)$  for x small enough.

**Remark.** Denote by  $T_x$  the operator  $(T_x f)(x_0) = f(x_0 + x) - f(x_0)$ . Intuitively one might suspect that  $x^{-n}(T_x^n f)(0)$  has limit  $f^{(n)}(0)$  as  $x \to 0$ , indeed this is true. One easily shows by induction that  $(T_x^n f)(0) = g(x)$ .

#### Problem 4.

For any natural number n let  $\pi(n)$  be the number of sets of natural numbers whose elements add up to n and let  $\pi_2(n)$  be the number of these sets that contain at least one power of 2. Prove that  $\pi_2(n+1) = \pi(n)$ . **Remark:** in this problem 1 is considered to be a power of 2.

**Solution 1.** Denote by  $\Pi(n)$  the collection of sets of natural numbers whose elements add up to n and let  $\Pi_2(n)$  be the collection of sets in  $\Pi(n)$  that contain at least one power of 2. Consider the map  $f: \Pi_2(n+1) \to \Pi(n)$  that sends any set  $A \in \Pi_2(n+1)$  to  $(A \setminus \{2^k\}) \cup \{2^l | 0 \le l < k\}$ , where  $2^k$  is the smallest power of 2 in A. One easily checks that f is a bijective function and thus  $\pi_2(n+1) = \pi(n)$ .

**Solution 2.** Let us prove this statement by induction. The statement is clearly true for n = 1. Now suppose that  $\pi_2(k+1) = \pi(k)$  for all  $1 \le k < n$ . Notice that every subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  can be written as a union of a subset that contains only powers of two and a subset that doesn't contain any power of two. The amount of ways to write a natural number n + 1 - k as a sum of powers of two is one. Thus we must conclude that

$$\pi_2(n+1) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n (\pi(k) - \pi_2(k)) \cdot 1 = 1 + \pi(n) - \pi_2(1) = \pi(n)$$

**Solution 3.** Define  $\pi(0) = 1$  for convenience. Clearly  $\pi(n) \leq 2^n$  and thus the series  $\sum \pi(n)x^n$  converges for  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ . Now let  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ , notice that

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \left| \prod_{n=1}^{N} (1+x^n) - \sum_{n=0}^{N} \pi(n) x^n \right| \le \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} \pi(n) |x|^n = 0$$

and since every natural number has a unique binary expansion

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \prod_{j=0}^{N-1} (1+x^{2^j}) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{2^N-1} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}.$$

It follows that  $\pi_2(n+1) = \pi(n)$ , because for all  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ 

$$1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\pi(n) - \pi_2(n)) x^n = (1-x) \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1+x^n) = (1-x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi(n) x^n$$
$$= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\pi(n) - \pi(n-1)) x^n.$$

Exercise 5.

Find all natural numbers n such that for every positive divisor d of n we have  $n \mid d^2$  or  $d^2 \mid n + k$  for some positive divisor k of n.

**Solution.** Let p be prime. For any two powers e and e' of p we have that e' | e or e | e'. So if n is a prime power then  $n | d^2$  or  $d^2 | n$ . The latter implies  $d^2 | n + n$ . So all prime powers, including 1, satisfy the condition.

Now suppose n has more than one prime divisor. Let p and q be different primes dividing n and let l and m be the unique natural numbers satisfying  $p^l \mid n, p^{l+1} \nmid n, q^m \mid n$  and  $q^{m+1} \nmid n$ . Now look at the divisor  $d = \frac{n}{p^l}$  of n. Clearly  $n \nmid d^2$  so there must exist a positive divisor k of n such that  $d^2 \mid n+k$ . By  $d \mid n$  we find that  $d \mid k$  and  $k \mid n$  so  $k = \frac{n}{p^s}$  for some non-negative integer  $s \leq l$ . This yields  $q^{2m} \mid n + \frac{n}{p^s}$ and hence  $q^m \mid p^s + 1$ . Similarly we find a non-negative  $t \leq m$  such that  $p^l \mid q^t + 1$ . This gives the estimation  $p^l \leq q^t + 1 \leq q^m + 1 \leq p^s + 2$ . So p = 2, p = 3 or l = s. If p = 2 and s < l we have (l, s) = (2, 1) or (1, 0). So we find respectively  $q^m \mid 3$  and  $q^m \mid 2$ . The second gives a contradiction with  $p \neq q$ , the first one gives q = 3 and m = 1. If p = 3 and s < l we must have l = 1 and s = 0. By the same constraints on q we find for t < m the same cases, so the possible solutions are 6 and 12. Now we can assume l = s and m = t. Writing  $A = p^l$  and  $B = q^m$  gives  $B \mid A + 1$  and  $A \mid B + 1$ . The case A = B is clearly impossible so assume without loss of generality that A < B. Then we get

 $A \leq \frac{B+1}{2} \leq \frac{A+2}{2} = \frac{A}{2} + 1$  so  $A \leq 2$ . Clearly  $A \neq 1$  so A = 2 and we find B = 3. Note that we have proven that for any two distinct prime divisors of n one equals 2 and the other equals 3. Hence n has at most two prime divisors and the discussion above shows that 6 and 12 are the only possible solutions with more than one prime divisor. A quick check shows they indeed satisfy

the conditions of the exercise.

So all such numbers are 6, 12 and all prime powers, including 1.

#### Exercise 6.

Let H and K be subgroups of a finite group G. Suppose that  $gH \cap Kg$  consists of one element for all  $g \in G$ . Prove that  $|H| \cdot |K|$  divides |G|.

**Solution 1.** We will imitate the proof of Lagrange's theorem and define an equivalence relation on G such that the size of each equivalence classes is equal to  $|H| \cdot |K|$ .

Define  $g \sim g'$  if and only if there exists  $h \in H$  and  $k \in K$  such that kgh = g'. We have  $g \sim g$  since  $e_G \in H \cap K$  and if  $g \sim g'$  then from kgh = g' we get  $k^{-1}g'h^{-1} = g$  so  $g' \sim g$ . Now if  $g \sim g'$  and  $g' \sim g''$  we can find  $h, h' \in H$  and  $k, k' \in K$  such that kgh = g' and k'g'h' = g''. Hence we have (k'k)g(hh') = g''. So  $\sim$  defines a equivalence relation on G and the equivalence class of g clearly equals KgH. The map  $H \times K \to HgK$ ,  $(h, k) \mapsto kgh$  is clearly onto. It is one-to-one since from kgh = k'gh' we get  $(k'^{-1}k)g = g(h'h^{-1})$ . By the assumption we now get  $k'^{-1}k = e_G = h'h^{-1}$  so (h, k) = (h', k'). So the size of each equivalence class is  $|H| \cdot |K| = |H \times K|$  and the result follows as they partition out G.

**Solution 2.** Let  $(h, k) \in H \times K$  act on G by sending  $g \in G$  to  $kgh^{-1}$ . By the orbit counting formula we have that the number of orbits equals

$$\frac{1}{|H \times K|} \sum_{(h,k) \in H \times K} |\operatorname{Fix}(h,k)|$$

where  $\operatorname{Fix}(h,k) = \{g \in G \mid kgh^{-1} = g\}$ . If  $\operatorname{Fix}(h,k)$  is not empty we use the assumption to conclude as in solution 1 that  $h = k = e_G$ . Hence  $\sum_{(h,k) \in H \times K} |\operatorname{Fix}(h,k)| = |\operatorname{Fix}(e_G,e_G)| = |G|$ .